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Abstract When considering the range of spatial planning actions that cities can 5 take to adapt to climate change, many of them fall under the conceptual umbrella of 6 green infrastructure (GI). GI has been defined as the spatial planning of landscape 7 systems at multiple scales and within varying contexts to provide open space, 8 safeguard natural systems, protect agricultural lands, and ensure ecological integrity 9 for cultural, social, and ecosystem benefits (Benedict and McMahon, Renew Resour 10 J 20:12–17, 2002, Green infrastructure: linking landscape and communities. Island 11 Press, Washington, DC, 2006; Ahern, Cities of the future. IWA Publishing, London, 12 2008). While the traditional definition of GI refers to areas of land that are 13 least intervened by human action, in this expanded definition, we are deliberately 14 including areas that are engineered to mimic natural processes and which provide 15 cost-effective ecosystem services.

Although climate adaptation is a fairly new policy goal for GI (Gill et al., 17 Built Environ 33(1):115–133, 2007; CCAP, http://www.ccap.org/docs/resources/ 18 989/Green_Infrastructure_FINAL.pdf, 2011), three key characteristics qualify GI 19 as a suitable tool for adaptation planning including multifunctionality (to match 20 ecosystem benefits with adaptation needs), multi-scalar nature of the spatial 21 elements, and a 'no-regrets approach'. However, GI needs to be matched to 22 the character of the urban environment and coordinated across jurisdictions and 23 planning scales to become an effective adaptation policy. In this chapter, we present 24 a policy framework, the green infrastructure transect, that can help planners and 25

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policymakers identify appropriate GI policies for different urban environments and describe how these policies can create a regional adaptation planning framework.

Keywords Adaptation planning • Green infrastructure • Resilience • Urban 28 regions • Urban and regional planning

1 Introduction 30

One of the primary principles of green infrastructure (GI) planning is to reconnect 31 communities in urban regions to natural environments (Lewis 1964; McHarg 32 1969; Noss and Harris 1986; Benedict and McMahon 2002, 2006; Jongman 1995; 33 Jongman et al. 2004; Fábos 2004). This is achieved through practices within 34 and around cities that identify, protect, and create spatial elements that provide 35 ecosystem services that communities depend on (Benedict and McMahon 2006; 36 Forman 2008). Development of community parks and recreation trails, greenways, 37 ecological networks, restored streams, natural reserves, gardens, engineered natural 38 systems, green roofs and facades, and conserved agricultural land are all within the 39 scope of GI. Furthermore, the same spatial areas also provide urban cooling, storm 40 water management, flood water storage, flora and fauna habitat, and biking and 41 walking routes. All of these urban functions must be increased to build resilience 42 to climate change. By connecting ecosystem benefits to community well-being 43 (Nassauer 2006) and adaptation needs, GI planning may be mainstreamed to become 44 an integral part of adaptation planning policies.

A key advantage of the GI approach to adaptation is that it is already becoming 46 an accepted practice (Benedict and McMahon 2002; Ahern 2008). GI has become 47 part of current sustainable planning and design practices in many cities (EPA 2011; 48 Newman and Jennings 2008; Farr 2008). These initiatives function at multiple scales 49 to improve urban living conditions. These may include retention ponds and swales 50 (at the parcel scale), green streets and parks (at the neighbourhood scale), increased 51 tree canopies (at the urban scale), and greenways (at the regional scale). As an 52 accepted practice, GI is also a 'no-regrets approach' (Bedsworth and Hanak 2010) 53 when considered as an adaptation measure. As we move into the future, investment 54 in GI policies will prove to be beneficial regardless of whether climate change 55 scenarios materialize. For example, urban greening results in cleaner air and cooler 56 temperatures that would address current problems (pollution and urban island heat 57 effect) as well as ameliorate future increasing temperatures. As a result, fairly minor 58 changes to the technical specifications for GI could, quite effectively, bring adapta- 59 tion into mainstream practice. As GI is implemented to accommodate increased 60 flooding, ameliorate rising temperatures, or address the rise in sea levels, commu- 61 nities can take advantage of the cultural, social, and health benefits of cleaner and 62 greener environments, regardless of the future magnitude of climate change impacts. 63

Furthermore, the same characteristics that qualify GI as a spatial adaptation 64 tool within urban regions (notably GI's multifunctional and multi-scalar properties) 65

make it difficult to mainstream GI into adaptation planning. These characteristics 66 create problems in organizing intervention areas, jurisdictional coordination and 67 implementation, and trade-offs in economic benefits and urban quality. 68

2 The Green Infrastructure Transect

To address these problems, we propose the green infrastructure transect (GI transect) 70 as a framework to utilize GI as an adaptation policy and to mainstream adaptation 71 into current planning practices. The GI transect is a conceptual tool that integrates 72 GI measures across varying urban contexts and across planning scales. It builds 73 on transect concepts from ecology, landscape planning, and urban planning. We 74 specifically use the urban transect as a stepping stone to develop this framework.

The urban transect (Duany and Talen 2002) was devised as an urban planning 76 tool to plan and design physical environments according to peoples' preferences of 77 where to live and work. The urban transect identifies six zones (urban core, urban 78 centre, general urban, suburban, rural, and natural) with distinct physical boundaries 79 as units of study. These zones form a planning model applicable within many 80 urban contexts. The zones provide the basis for a neighbourhood structure based on 81 walkable streets, mix of uses, transportation options, and traditional architectural 82 styles and housing diversity. The strength of the urban transect is in describing 83 the appropriate built forms and identifying interventions within each urban zone 84 in a simple and comprehensible manner. The concept falls short of specifying the 85 respective open spaces and natural functions that respond to the specific urban 86 contexts and needs within each transect zone.

In contrast, the natural transect used by ecologists and biologists is a scientific 88 method of assessment of habitat. It is based on the fundamental principles of 89 relationships and interdependencies between ecozones and used to assess the physical, biological, and natural processes within and across ecozones. Contrary to the 91 urban transect, it does not specify distinct spatial zones. Rather, the characteristics 92 of different local ecosystems define different habitat zones and the relationship 93 between them. This same principle is later adopted within landscape and regional 94

¹In the early twentieth century, the natural transect became one of the foundational tools of ecological research. The evidence that certain flora and fauna flourished symbiotically together, and within a specific mineral and climactic environment, became the ethical basis for the protection of species. Patrick Geddes (1854–1932) adopted the ecological transect as a model to devise the 'valley section' (Geddes 1915). Taken from ridgeline to shoreline, the 'valley section' shows natural conditions with their associated human presence and occupation to show a gradation of human preference for location and work. Based on Geddes, Lewis Mumford's (1895–1990) concept of human ecology was used to develop a decentralized regional vision of metropolitan areas (Mumford 1937). Ian McHarg (1920–2001) applied the natural transect for land conservation in landscape planning showing transitions and relationships within and across natural ecozones (McHarg 1969).

•	Peri-urban	Sub-urban	Transition	Urban	Urban Core	Coastal
Vulnerability						
Climate Impact Focus						
Community Character						
Impervious Surfaces	1					
Open Space	1 9	В	oston Ti	ansec	t Zones	>
Pervious Surfaces	1					
GI spatial Elements	9					
GI Benefits		V				
GI Policy focus						

Fig. 1 The green infrastructure transect: concept and organization

planning to assess and understand relationships between land, and natural and 95 human systems in order to plan and manage natural resources within urban regions 96 (McHarg 1969; Picket 2004; Berger 2006).

Overall, the GI transect combines the general principles of urban and natural 98 transects into a single assessment model. The primary characteristics are three: 99 (1) the simultaneous consideration of human and natural systems as a mutual 100 cause-and-effect relationship effecting the functional capability of GI (pervious and 101 impervious surfaces as indicators), (2) the designation of urban zones as unique 102 spatial contexts that may impact the adaptive capacity of communities within, and 103 (3) the explicit consideration that GI is an interconnected system that transcends 104 administrative and political boundaries.

This interconnectedness of GI serves as an impetus and analogy to integrate adaptation policies across the GI zones increasing the local capacity for adaption. We 107 qualify this level of policy integration as 'horizontal integration'. The term is meant 108 to generate targeted GI recommendations specific to each GI zone and coordinate 109 them across boundaries² (within scales). This is achieved by mapping and assessing 110 each GI zone against a set of criteria to be able to recommend targeted GI measures. 111 Six GI zones are identified and are intended to represent an alternative model (to the 112 urban transect) of contemporary urban regions. These include coastal (if present), 113 urban core, urban, transition (the middle ground), suburban, and peri-urban zones. 114 In addition, we use the following criteria to assess each GI zone: vulnerability 115 assessment using spatial data (physical and social), identifying the primary climate 116 change impact based on spatial configuration and character, identifying the spatial 117 character of each GI zone, determining the spatial configuration of pervious and 118 impervious surfaces (existing and potential GI), determining GI typology relevant 119 to each zone, and recommending appropriate GI measures within each GI zone 120 (Fig. 1). The sequential process of assessment begins with vulnerability assessment 121

²Cross-jurisdictional coordination was identified as a primary concern when assessing the 4,000 GI networks across the conterminous USA for their ecological connectivity where 10% of the hubs and links cross administrative and political boundaries. When downscaling the same observation to regional and local scales, forest stands, water bodies, and wetlands are not restricted to regional, city, town, or property boundaries (Fig. 4).

and concludes with recommendations providing a specific policy focus to local 122 communities for adaptation and the possible responses through GI.

Furthermore, several existing GI recommendations relevant to adaptation poli- 124 cies call for the protection of forest stands and wetlands or increasing tree canopy 125 or engineering swales and rain garden systems. These GI spatial elements are 126 not restricted to regional, city, town, or property boundaries as they are subject 127 to conditions (i.e. topography, geology, and hydrology) beyond the control of 128 governing bodies. Therefore, analysis and assessment should consider recom- 129 mendations within each zone and the outward extensions of GI. By mapping 130 adjacent spatial configurations, horizontal integration is attained. This enhances the 131 adaptation capacity of local communities through coordination of policies. Yet, it 132 does not account for coordination across jurisdictional boundaries and planning 133 scales necessary for regional resiliency.

Developing a network of GI increases the resiliency of a region. It provides 135 alternative evacuation routes, species migration routes, CO₂ sinks, flood water 136 storage, buffer zones against rising sea water and reduction in regional temperatures. 137 To achieve a coordinated regional network requires the integration of planning 138 scales (neighbourhood, urban, regional) into a single regional planning framework 139 providing a platform for communication and coordination across jurisdictions. We 140 term this integration across scales as 'vertical integration'.

Vertical integration provides the mean to respond to the multi-scalar and 142 hierarchal nature of GI by considering current planning processes. GI networks are 143 hierarchal especially when planned within urban contexts. When considering GI for 144 storm water management, connectivity of GI elements should be considered across 145 the hierarchy of urban planning scales (street or parcel neighbourhood, city, and 146 urban region) (Kato 2010). For example (Fig. 2), several streets with bioswales and 147 retention ponds in residential yards at the neighbourhood scale can constitute a green 148 corridor at the city scale which, in turn, with city parks can be part of a regional 149 park system (Jim and Chen 2003; Girling and Kellett 2005). But each individual 150 GI element (parcel to regional scales) is planned and implemented differently, 151 depending on the context, size, and planning process. Vertical integration provides 152 a way to unify these processes under a hierarchal single framework that leads to a 153 regional vision.

Integration across scales is necessary to increase the adaptive capacity at both 155 the regional and local levels. The adaptive planning meta-model developed by Kato 156 (2010), for a planning framework to manage GI, is an example of such a process. 157 It is an iterative process designed for the US context. Similar to the GI hierarchy, 158 neighbourhood plans that are participatory in nature form the basis of an urban 159 plan. The sum of the several urban plans could define a vision for a region. In the 160 US context, a bottom-up approach (participatory) could lead to a regional vision. 161 The reverse (top-down planning) may also hold true when considered within other 162 planning and administrative contexts. Regardless of whether the vision (top-down) 163 or local planning (bottom-up) comes first, the intention here is to advocate for a 164 two-way and iterative approach that includes both and provides the flexibility and 165 adaptability to respond as circumstances arise and change.

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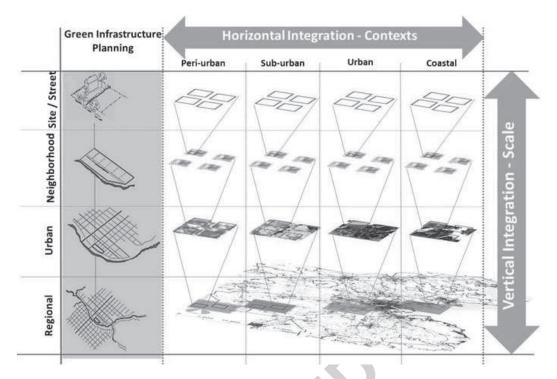


Fig. 2 Multi-tiered GI adaptation planning framework: horizontal and vertical integration

The underlying concepts behind the GI transect point to the spatial, contextual, 167 and administrative interdependencies governing mainstreaming adaptation plan- 168 ning. Vertical and horizontal integration are the primary elements of the GI transect 169 that integrate local and regional plans into a single and flexible adaptation planning 170 framework. To make these ideas concrete, we apply the three-step approach of 171 vulnerability assessment, characterization of existing GI, and GI policies recom- 172 mendations to the Boston metropolitan region.

Boston Metropolitan Region

The metropolitan region of Boston occupies the eastern shoreline of the state of 175 Massachusetts in the USA. It covers a land area of approximately 12,000 km², 176 housing 4.5 million people with an average density of 366 persons per square 177 kilometre (Census Bureau 2010). The metropolitan region incorporates 120 towns 178 and 8 regional jurisdictions within its boundary (Census Bureau 2010). It is 179 characterized by an urban core (Boston) as the centre of governance, business, 180 and transportation. From the urban core to the periphery, residential sprawl of 181 varying densities along transportation corridors and around commercial centres is 182 interspersed by forest, wetlands, river basins, and, to lesser extent, agricultural land 183 (Figs. 3 and 4). At the planning level, the state of Massachusetts (MA) has adopted 184 and is implementing smart growth principles to control development and preserve 185



Fig. 3 Metropolitan region of Boston: spatial distribution of pervious and impervious surfaces

natural and cultural assets.³ Part of the smart growth initiative is the Climate Action 186 Plan (CAP 2007, 2010). The plan is focused on mitigation measures to reduce 187 emissions from buildings, transportation, waste management, and land use. In the 188 2010 update of the plan, recommendations for adaptation were included as part of 189 addressing causes and effects of climate change.

The NECIA (2007) report on climate change impacts within the New England 191 region shows that Massachusetts climate will resemble the southern states of the 192 Eastern Coast of the USA. Taking the year 2000 as the baseline, the report 193 demonstrates that the metropolitan region of Boston will experience increase in 194 temperatures by 4–7°C in the winter and 3–8°C in the summer, rising sea level 195 of 25–60 cm, and increased precipitation by 20–30%. To address these impacts, 196 the City of Boston identified guidelines for adaptation planning (CAP 2010) that 197 include, in addition to economic and social measures, spatial measures that focus 198 on GI.

³Since planning is locally based and participatory, the state of Massachusetts may only advance these planning principles through financial incentive means. Towns and cities may develop their comprehensive zoning, recreation and open space, and economic development plans based on smart growth principles in return for financial incentives.

⁴Under the high emissions scenario, the Massachusetts climate will likely resemble that of the current Florida climate and under a lower emissions scenario will resemble the current weather of Northern Carolina.

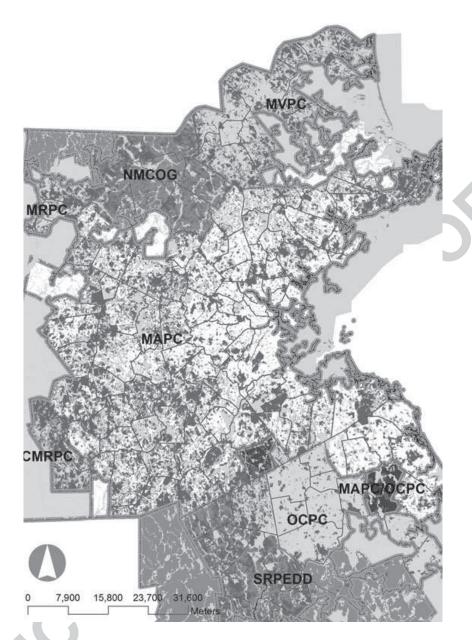


Fig. 4 Metropolitan region of Boston: green infrastructure across town boundaries

The adaptation recommendations for Boston (CAP 2010) set priorities and define 200 the required information and planning priorities and approaches. Out of the 13 201 recommendations, many focus on GI principles such as greening the city, green 202 roofs, sustainable water management, and protection and increase of large tracts of 203 vegetated surfaces. In addition, planning cross-jurisdictions and scales is identified 204 as a priority to increase the adaptive capacity of the urban region.

In the process of transforming these adaptation recommendations into actions, 206 we apply the GI transect to assess the applicability of the multi-tiered organizational 207 framework to Boston. In the assessment stage, we map vulnerability, climate change 208 impacts, and the physical environment across the GI zones (Fig. 5). Vulnerability 209

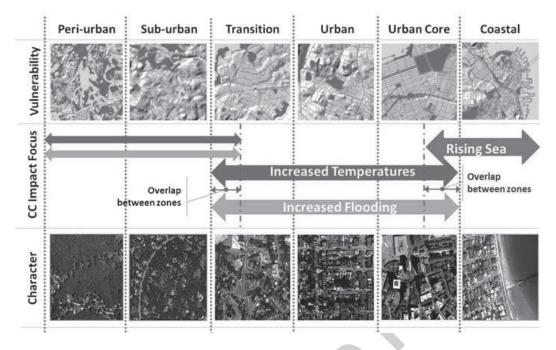


Fig. 5 Green infrastructure transect application to Boston region, step one: vulnerability assessment

is mapped using the following spatial data layers from Mass GIS⁵: topography, 210 open space, roads, location within the watershed, and socio-economic data for each 211 location. Climate impact is mapped according to the NECIA (2007) report showing 212 the magnitude and focus within each zone. Aerial images are used to map the urban 213 character identifying the physical environment of work and housing.

We found that the coastal zone is predominantly impacted by rising sea level, the 215 urban to transition zones are affected by a high magnitude of increased temperatures 216 and flooding, and the peripheral zones are impacted, at a lower magnitude, by 217 temperature rise and flooding. The exposure to physical risks is further exasperated 218 by the effect of the urban heat island effect (UHI) and the gradation of impervious 219 and pervious surfaces across the GI transect. The compounded impacts of climate 220 change and the physical characteristics of the urban region of Boston are grounds 221 to consider different adaptation planning focuses for communities across the 222 GI transect. To be able to devise and recommend GI policies within existing 223 pervious surfaces, which address the variation of vulnerability, we map the existing 224 distribution of GI across the zones.

To map the spatial distribution of GI across the zones, we also use Mass GIS data. 226 We overlay the following layers: impervious surfaces, digital terrain, open space 227 layers (public domain), waterways, forests, roads, and administrative boundaries. 228

⁵Mass GIS is a spatial data portal managed by the state of Massachusetts that provides a free download service of available data layers across the state. See http://www.mass.gov/mgis/.

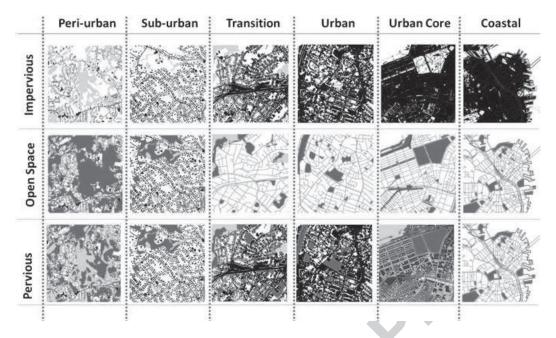


Fig. 6 Green infrastructure transect application to Boston region, step two: existing green infrastructure patterns

We find that open space and unbuilt⁶ land increases in area as we move towards the periphery (Figs. 3 and 6). What significantly increases, and not usually included in the inventory of GI, are unbuilt spaces within the private domain (yards, gardens, and school grounds). Since ecosystem benefits are not bounded by administrative limits (Fábos 2004) and increase proportionally with GI area, it is critical to ensure that GI policies simultaneously address land within the private and public domains.

The final step is to identify and recommend appropriate GI policies across the GI transect zones. We distinguish clear complementarities between GI benefits, 236 community needs, and vulnerability requirements (Fig. 7). We list the typologies 237 of GI elements that already exist within each zone or those that could potentially be 238 introduced or enhanced. Ecosystem benefits that are complementary to community 239 needs and climate impacts are also listed in accordance with the spatial typology. By 240 overlaying information from steps one and two, we begin to identify the potential 241 GI policies. For example, the coastal area will benefit from planned retreat — where 242 vulnerable built areas across the coast may gradually be transformed into landscapes 243 for recreation. The resulting coastal landscapes become non-structural defences 244 incorporated as recreational and ecological landscape features. Therefore, the policy 245

⁶Unbuilt land is considered as potential to increase green infrastructure area within an urban region.

⁷Ecosystem benefits are directly proportional to the amount of land available for GI: the more forested land, the more the potential for temperature control, and the more the golf courses and open land, the more water storage may be achieved.

⁸Non-structural defences are based on naturally occurring or engineered defences such as wetlands, marshes, sand coasts, and eastern dams.

	Peri-urban	Sub-urban	Transition	Urban	Urban Core	Coastal
GI Spatial Elements	Wetlands Agriculture Forest water ways Nature Parks Greenways Ecological networks Agricultural land	Gardens Domestic yards Cemeteries Subdivisions Wetlands Forest Stands Green ways Street trees Unused lots Parks Parks Swales	Gardens Domestic yards Cemeteries Subdivisions Wetlands Forest Stands Green ways Street trees Unused lots Derelict land Parks	 Parks Gardens Interstitial Spaces Private sites Unused lots Street trees Green facades Green roofs Parking lots 	Parks Piazzas Garden Interstitial spaces Street trees Green facades Green roofs	Coastal zones Wetlands Coastal parks beaches Rivers
GI Benefits	Water regeneration Recreation Ecological connectivity Biodiversity Heat reduction Food production & Clean Air		• (+)Rain water r • Flood storage urban agricultu Provide shade (+)real estate v	Natural defenses Surge reduction Recreation		
GI Strategy	• Conserve • Protect • Private property • Aggressively increase land under GI • Ecological connectivity	Conserve Protect Reclaim land Private Property Reclaim land Ecological connectivity	Conserve Protect Large land Private Property Incentives for private owners Reclaim land	Densify GI Hybrid Systems City Green	Densify GI Green Roofs Green Facades Transform pervious to impervious City Green	 Planned Retreat Densify coastal GI Protect Coast

Fig. 7 Green infrastructure transect application to Boston region, step three: identification of GI policies

here would focus on preserving and intensifying all existing GI elements and to de- 246 fine a long-term plan to allow time for legal procedures and financial compensation 247 to take place for the coastal zone transformation. Within the urban zone of the GI 248 transect, policies should address increased temperatures (compounded by UHI) and 249 retention of water run-off. Existing parks and open space, green roofs, green facades, 250 and street planting are spatial elements that should be increased through revisions 251 to building regulations, open space plans, and environmental policies. Through the 252 Biotope Area factor,⁹ the city of Berlin is an example where zoning and financial 253 incentives result in an increase in tree canopy and 'at the source' water management. 254 Towards the periphery, policies that enhance connectivity and preserve, conserve, 255 and increase forests, large parks, natural reserves, and biospheres are integral for 256 run-off storage, species migration, temperature control, and water infiltration to 257 ensure ecosystem services at the regional scale.

To ensure consistency across local GI policies with the Boston region, ver- 259 tical and horizontal integration of policies (Fig. 2) is utilized to coordinate and 260 implement planning projects across town jurisdictions. Planning in Massachusetts 261

⁹See the City of Berlin, Senate Department for Urban Development: http://www.stadtentwicklung. berlin.de/umwelt/landschaftsplanung/bff/index_en.shtml.

is predominantly participatory and happens at the local (town) scale. This means 262 that parcel and neighbourhood scale plans should build up to form an overall 263 town plan that explicitly considers GI measures for adaptation. The open space 264 plans that are mandatory to US towns could be extended beyond recreation to 265 incorporate ecological and adaptation plans. Town plans then need to build the 266 overall regional vision. This may be achieved by expanding the mandate of regional 267 planning bodies beyond transportation and economic development towards a more 268 active role to coordinate and integrate local plans. Even more, regional bodies 269 should be responsible to monitor and develop regional climate projections that 270 help in providing the vision for regional and local adaptation plans. A hierarchal 271 organizational structure that works in both directions (from local to regional or 272 from regional to local) ensures that all constituents and measures serve an intended 273 local role within a larger regional approach. The proposed structure that we have 274 presented may be a first step in integrating local adaptation planning across scales 275 and jurisdictions using current and accepted knowledge.

Conclusion 277

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Adaptation policies run the risk of a piecemeal, systematized approach. It is easy 278 to prescribe a green roof here and a rain garden there and hope that they will 279 add up to a proper systematic approach. However, the challenges of adaptation are 280 too significant for this to be effective. Framing GI planning through the transect 281 approach provides a way to conceptualize a whole system of GI spatial elements, 282 identify coming climate challenges, and plan to integrate local policies at site scale 283 with adaptation needs at the neighbourhood, city, and regional scales. In this chapter, 284 we briefly used Boston as a case study to demonstrate how the GI transect may be 285 applied and how it can assist in interpreting and framing overall GI for adaptation. 286 We conclude that GI will be an effective adaptation policy when it is matched to 287 the physical character of urban environments (urban, suburban, and rural) and the 288 needs of communities they are intended to serve. This approach is a first step in 289 mainstreaming adaptation planning using current GI practices.

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