

Wellbeing and blue-green space in post-pandemic cities: drivers, debates and departures

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1 Wellbeing and blue-green space in post-pandemic cities: drivers, debates and departures

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4 Abstract: Covid-19 has focused attention on the importance of urban green and blue spaces (such as 5 parks and watercourses) for human wellbeing. Less attention has been devoted to how those spaces 6 might contribute to a wider rethinking of relations between humans and the more-than-human world in 7 post-pandemic cities. This article outlines how Covid-19 opens up a broader debate about the future of 8 urban green spaces, especially in the global North, but highlights the limitations of this debate. It 9 signposts emerging directions in inquiry, drawing on current concerns in health geographies and the 10 political ecology of health. These include recognition of the agency and worth of the more-than-human 11 world; the need to understand and value wellbeing in terms of relationships between places, nature and 12 people; and the importance of long-term thinking in practical decision-making and planning. These shifts 13 can be grounded in everyday practice by rethinking the role of urban blue-green space, pointing to a 14 research agenda in which ordinary spaces and practices are understood as contributing to assemblages 15 of wellbeing across whole urban areas, rooted in increased connection between humans and the more-16 than-human world.

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18 Keywords: health geographies, wellbeing, Covid-19, parks, more-than-human, green space, urban blue-19 green space

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21 Introduction

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23 The Covid-19 pandemic has focused attention on the importance of urban green and blue 24 spaces for human wellbeing. Studies around the world showed increased use, or an increasing 25 appreciation of, natural spaces during the pandemic. Examples included Vermont, USA (Grima 26 et al., 2020); Tokyo, Japan (Soga et al., 2021) and international surveys (Pouso et al., 2020; 27 Ugolini et al., 2020). Parks, woodlands, riversides or other open spaces were often the only 28 places accessible to communities 'locked down' to slow the spread of infection in many cities. 29 In others, even these spaces were prohibited. This article draws on the experience of Covid-19 30 to illuminate current debates on the value of 'urban blue-green space' (Yu et al, 2020) for 31 human wellbeing. The term 'blue-green space' is used rather than 'urban green space' (Geary et 32 al., 2021) to include the full range of natural spaces within cities, including informal sites and 33 watercourses. The article adds to and complements previous research by considering how 34 these spaces and places may contribute to a rethinking of urban life in a post-pandemic 35 environment. Reflecting on current and potential drivers of policy, practice and research, it 36 highlights the opportunity to move beyond recent debates about the funding and management 37 of green spaces as discrete entities. Instead it argues that the city as a whole (and not just the 38 green and blue spaces within it) should be considered as a natural as well as a built landscape, 39 supporting the wellbeing not only of humans but also of other species. 40 The article highlights three key areas of debate on the future of urban blue-green space 41 (UBGS). It considers how spaces are valued; the contribution they make to human wellbeing;

42 and issues of equity and environmental justice. These debates arise within a broader context in

43 which geographies of health and wellbeing are being re-examined, drawing on the insights of

44 the 'posthuman turn' in health geographies (Andrews, 2019) and notions of human health and

45 environmental justice as socio-spatial assemblages (Bickerstaff and Agyeman, 2009; Duff,

- 46 2016). Spaces and places of wellbeing exist within political ecologies of health (Senanayake and
- 47 King, 2019; Nichols and Del Casino, 2020) that 'understand health in terms of nature-society

48 relationships' (Jackson and Neely, 2015, p. 47). Such an understanding calls for ethical,

49 equitable and practical responses to situated challenges of whose health matters (including the

50 health of the more-than-human world). These issues generate contested notions of value and

51 the 'production of nature' (Kenter et al., 2015; Andueza, 2020).

52 Drawing on this context, the article calls for the provision, planning and management of 53 blue-green space to be reconsidered as part of an approach to urban planning that is more

54 epistemologically, temporally and emotionally expansive than has been the case to date.

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56 Methods and approach

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58 This article is based on a review of recent literature on UBGS and wellbeing (World Health 59 Organization, 2016; Wendelboe-Nelson et al., 2019; Dobson et al., 2019) and draws on research 60 conducted before and during the Covid-19 pandemic on the health and wellbeing benefits of 61 UBGS and the importance of nature connectedness (Pritchard et al., 2019; Tomasso et al., 62 2021). It also draws on an extensive review of local government responses to the Covid-19 63 pandemic within the four nations of the UK, undertaken as part of the pan-European 64 Geographies of Governance project (Gore et al., 2021). The literature review focused on the 65 benefits of UBGS; the ongoing debate on how to value these benefits; and the 'posthuman 66 turn' in health geographies. While the article considers UBGS primarily in terms of the benefits 67 enjoyed by humans, it situates this discussion within an understanding of the wellbeing of the 68 more-than-human world (Andrews, 2019; Henrique and Tschakert, 2020). 69 The article draws on international evidence but frames its argument through the experience

of Covid-19 in the UK, where the author's research has been conducted, and so comes with the
 caveat that its observations are likely to be particularly applicable to the urbanised North, with
 its tradition of public parks and municipally owned or managed blue-green spaces.

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74 Covid-19 and urban blue-green space

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As the pandemic spread worldwide in early 2020, governments responded by 'locking down' cities and citizens (Allam, 2020). In Wuhan, China (Allam, 2020, p.14), and Lombardy, Italy (Allam, 2020, p.28), citizens were only allowed to leave home for necessities. In France they were only permitted to exercise once a day for an hour, within one kilometre of their homes (Momtaz, 2020). The UK began its lockdown on 23 March. While all non-essential shops were closed and the population told to stay at home, government ministers made it clear that 82 parks and public green spaces should stay open for people's physical and mental wellbeing

83 (BBC, 2020). As restrictions were eased in June and July, people were allowed to congregate

84 outside and parks became heavily used (Dearden, 2020).

85 Early in the lockdown researchers, policymakers and activists began to discuss how the 86 pandemic could be used as an opportunity to 'build back better' (Build Back Better, n.d.). In an 87 early commentary, a group of academics argued that 'the Covid-19 crisis may fundamentally 88 change our relationship with public space', providing multiple opportunities to rethink cities 89 (Honey-Roses et al., 2020, p.1). Research conducted during the pandemic suggests that UBGS, 90 because of the benefits provided to urban populations, should be at the centre of such a 91 process of rethinking. For example, a survey conducted across six nations in spring 2020, with 92 2,540 respondents from Croatia, Israel, Italy, Lithuania, Slovenia and Spain, highlighted the 93 importance of natural or semi-natural spaces to people affected by lockdown restrictions 94 (Ugolini et al., 2020). These spaces included small urban gardens in Italy and tree-lined streets 95 in Spain and Israel. A survey with 386 respondents in Chengdu, China, revealed the mental 96 health impacts of lockdown and observed that visiting green spaces even once a week could be 97 beneficial (Xie et al., 2020). In Oslo, Norway, where residents were allowed outdoor exercise, a 98 study using mobility data from Google and Strava suggested that outdoor recreation increased 99 by 291% compared with a three-year average for the same days (Venter et al., 2020). This 100 included more running and hiking outside the city, but also an increase in walking in city parks 101 and peri-urban forests. A further study in the United States (You and Pan, 2020) suggested that 102 the Covid-19 virus was slower to spread in areas with more urban vegetation. 103 In the UK, data on the use of green and blue spaces in England for the period 2-30 April 104 2020, when lockdown restrictions were most severe, were published in June 2020. These data 105 from the People and Nature Survey, an online survey of 2,083 adults, show that 49% of 106 respondents had visited a green or natural space in the last two weeks, although 26% had not 107 visited any green or natural space in the last month (Office for National Statistics, 2020a). A 108 later iteration of the survey found that in September 2020, almost half the adult population 109 (47%) were spending more time outside than before the pandemic (Office for National

Statistics, 2020b). Urban green spaces were visited most often, with 54% of respondents visitingthese in the previous month.

The pandemic highlighted the salutogenic qualities of UBGS, providing respite from stressful home or work situations, a place to relax and take exercise or engage with the natural world, and as lockdown restrictions eased, a place to socialise (Ugolini et al., 2020; Venter et al., 2020). But green spaces could also become stressful in themselves, with reports of antisocial

116 behaviour, overcrowding and excessive littering. For example, one survey of more than 100

117 local authorities in England found that 81% of respondents had to spend more money on

clearing up litter, while 72% had to invest in maintaining public order and enforcing lockdownrules (Keep Britain Tidy, 2020).

120 Despite the plethora of research into UBGS during the pandemic, the recommendations 121 that emerged were, by and large, relatively familiar. They included paying attention to equality 122 of access to parks (Geng et al., 2021); considering urban forests as 'critical infrastructure'

123 (Derks, Giessen and Winkel, 2020); ensuring a regular 'dose of nature' to improve mental health

124 (Soga et al., 2021) and investing in urban nature to support individual wellbeing (Tomasso et al.,

125 2021). More extensive recommendations on urban design including redesigning streetscapes

and neighbourhoods to include UBGS were articulated in a commentary by Slater et al. (2020).

- 127 However, with the exception of Slater's work, none of these articles considered the city as a
- 128 whole. Consideration of the needs of the more-than-human world was largely absent.
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130 Drivers of change in urban blue-green spaces

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132 The experience and use of parks and green spaces during the lockdown in the UK highlights 133 several drivers of change that predate the pandemic, but were reinforced through the events of 134 2020/21. Three in particular stand out: public health and health inequalities; a crisis of 135 investment in UBGS; and the urban impacts of climate change and biodiversity loss. 136 The health benefits of urban green spaces are increasingly well understood (World Health 137 Organization, 2016), fuelling the argument that green space can be deployed as a health 138 resource or 'green prescription' (Natural England, 2017; Bell et al., 2019). An international 139 review of 263 studies relating to green space and mental health (Wendelboe-Nelson et al., 140 2019) noted that 70% of articles examined reported a positive association between green space 141 and wellbeing. A review of 385 papers published since 2009 (Dobson et al., 2019) found that 142 visits to parks can help address policy priorities such as reducing obesity, diabetes and heart 143 disease; they support social integration and community engagement; and they encourage 144 connections with the natural world. The review noted evidence showing that the quality of 145 green spaces has a stronger bearing on health outcomes than quantity. Other recent reviews 146 (e.g. World Health Organization 2016; Pritchard et al., 2019) support these findings. It is 147 unsurprising, therefore, that the notion of a 'dose of nature' as a healthcare intervention has 148 begun to take root (Barton and Pretty, 2010; Shanahan et al., 2015; Shanahan et al., 2016, Cox 149 et al., 2018). Shanahan et al. (2015, p.476) claim significant public health gains may be achieved 150 if urban residents receive the right 'dose' of nature, because urban nature 'has the potential to 151 provide an inexpensive intervention' to address conditions such as cardiovascular disease, high 152 blood pressure and obesity. Barton and Rogerson (2017, p. 81) similarly argue that 'If 153 greenspace were considered in the same way as a drug for mental health and well-being would 154 be, more detailed understanding of its mechanisms would lead to optimal dosage...' 155 This argument is attractive for two reasons. The first is that health inequalities, often 156 associated with disadvantaged urban areas and populations, persist despite high levels of 157 investment in healthcare (Marmot, 2010; Rydin et al., 2012). Second, it is postulated that a 158 social prescription such as a health walk or an activity in a green space designed to fit an 159 individual's preferences will be more cost-effective than hospital care (Capaldi et al., 2015, 160 Bloomfield, 2017). However, although such activities have been recommended by some public 161 agencies (Burt and Preston, 2017) evidence of their effectiveness is often not considered

162 sufficient to meet the standards required for clinical interventions (Bickerdike et al., 2017), so

163 nature-based approaches remain the exception rather than the norm.

164 The second potential driver of change is a crisis of funding for publicly accessible UBGS (the 165 majority of which is owned or managed by public bodies such as local authorities). This is 166 particularly apparent in the UK as a consequence of a decade of government-imposed financial 167 austerity following the financial crisis of 2007/08. In the UK and elsewhere, a process of 168 'austerity urbanism' (Peck, 2012, Featherstone et al., 2012) led to the removal of resources 169 from local government coupled with an increase in municipal responsibilities, resulting in real increases in local hardship (Hastings et al., 2017). A survey of parks managers in 2016 found 170 171 that 92% had experienced cuts in maintenance budgets over the past three years, and in 33% of 172 cases the reduction was more than 20% (Heritage Lottery Fund, 2016). Local authorities in 173 England experienced a 49.1% real-terms loss of government funding from 2010 to 2017 and 174 28.6% real-terms reduction in total spending power (National Audit Office, 2018). Municipal 175 UBGS budgets continue to remain discretionary, in contrast to services provided on a statutory 176 basis in the UK such as social care or refuse collection, leading greenspace provision to be 177 regarded as an 'optional extra' (Mell, 2018, p.752). One response has been a greater reliance on 178 commercial activities to plug funding gaps, which some scholars claim has led to the 'financial 179 and symbolic exclusion of those unable or unwilling to pay' for ticketed events and attractions 180 (Smith, 2020, p.1). Austerity has had knock-on effects for the work of charitable organisations 181 such as wildlife trusts in the UK: although they own and manage some green spaces 182 independently and are funded by voluntary donations, they are dependent on the ability of 183 local government to collect data on local wildlife and influence the actions of property 184 developers (Royal Society of Wildlife Trusts, 2016, p. 21). 185 The groups who may be 'unable or unwilling to pay' are likely to be those whose experience

186 of UBGS is most affected by the lack of investment, but who are understood to benefit most 187 from spending time outdoors. For deprived urban populations, both the proximity and the 188 quality of green spaces matter in reducing psychological distress and improving wellbeing 189 (Astell-Burt et al., 2014, Pope et al., 2015). The evidenced wellbeing benefits of urban green 190 spaces offer an argument for involving health services in decisions on funding the management 191 and upkeep of green spaces (Public Health England, 2020). However, the public health grant to 192 local authorities has fallen in real terms in recent years while spending on hospital services has 193 been protected, even though preventative public health interventions can more be than three 194 times as cost-effective as treatment after the event - a cost per QALY (Quality Adjusted Life 195 Year, a measure of the value for money of health interventions) of around £3,800 for public 196 health compared with £13,500 for healthcare spending (Martin, Lomas, and Claxton, 2019). 197 The third, longer-term driver of change is the growing recognition of the need to take action 198 on the twin challenges of climate change and biodiversity loss. An increasing number of 199 municipalities in the UK have declared a 'climate emergency', and some have set significant 200 targets for carbon reduction (Local Government Association, 2021). Urban green spaces 201 contribute to carbon sequestration and alleviate urban heating and flood risks as well as

202 providing important natural habitats (Wolfram and Frantzeskaki, 2016; Xing, Jones & Donnison,

- 203 2017; Cortinovis and Geneletti, 2018). So while there are pressures on municipalities to reduce
- 204 investment, which have been exacerbated by the costs of responding to Covid-19 (Gore et al.,
- 205 2021, pp.15-17), the climate and biodiversity crisis calls for increased investment and the
- 206 creation of new, ecologically richer urban habitats.

These three drivers reinforce two distinct narratives. First is the narrative that humans' needs for physical and mental wellbeing can be supported through and within UBGS. Second is a narrative, entrenched through a decade of austerity, that resources are scarce. These include both the resources available to support health and wellbeing through traditional interventions, and the resources available to invest in alternative interventions using UBGS. The actions that could or should flow from these narratives are contested. The next section considers three areas of contestation that have material impacts on the provision and use of UBGS.

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215 Debates and dilemmas in urban blue-green spaces

While there are numerous ways to frame and categorise the debates and dilemmas that will affect the post-pandemic provision and care of urban blue and green spaces and their links with human wellbeing, three issues stand out. They are not new, but have been brought into focus through Covid-19 and will be significant in informing urban policies as cities and towns emerge from the pandemic.

222 The most immediate issue, in terms of public policy, and driven by the narrative of resource 223 scarcity, is value (typically construed in terms of value for money). Blue and green spaces are 224 often treated as assets in discourse but as liabilities, or of limited interest, in decision-making 225 (Horwood, 2011; Hislop, Scott and Corbett, 2019). Standard valuation measures and benefit-226 cost ratio calculations favour investment in grey infrastructure such as roads and housing: the 227 benefits are realised rapidly and the long-term environmental impacts are frequently 228 externalised. The UK government's announcement in June 2020 of a £5 billion infrastructure 229 investment programme to kickstart economic recovery from Covid-19 was criticised by 230 environmental advocates on these grounds (The Wildlife Trusts, 2020) and suggests that 231 national investment priorities have not shifted significantly from traditional economic models. 232 The benefits and costs of UBGS are unevenly distributed, with an imbalance between those 233 who pay and those who benefit (Choumert and Salanié, 2008). The failure to account for the 234 long-term benefits of natural spaces has led to a growth in the use of natural capital accounting 235 (Weir 2018; Office for National Statistics, 2019), which seeks to quantify the resources provided 236 by the natural world in economic terms. Advocates of natural capital accounts argue that 237 quantifying these natural resources enables decision-makers to recognise 'the significant value 238 provided by ... urban natural capital assets' (eftec, 2017, p.5). This, it is reasoned, will help to 239 protect land and species that are otherwise devalued or damaged. In times of continued 240 pressure on local government finances in the aftermath of Covid-19, advocates of natural

241 capital accounts hope their use will encourage local authorities to understand more fully the

242 benefits that local UBGS provides (Vivid Economics, 2016).

Such notions of value, however, are contested (Andueza, 2020; Victor, 2020). The monetary 243 244 value of ecosystems is considered reductive (Victor, 2020, p6): 'Describing nature as capital 245 implies that nature has value ... only to provide goods and services to humans'. Even if it is 246 accepted that natural capital accounting is useful in assessing the economic costs and benefits 247 of particular decisions, evidence suggests that it remains more financially profitable in the short 248 term to 'develop' the natural environment than to protect it (Wild, Henneberry and Gill, 2017, 249 p.184). Despite some high-profile recent examples of investment in UBGS, including the 250 planned demolition of a shopping centre in Stockton-on-Tees to create a new public park (BBC, 251 2021), the UK Government's infrastructure investment programme cited above suggests that 252 traditional economic priorities remain unchanged.

253 If market valuations are insufficient to drive decisions that support the natural world and 254 preserve the value it provides, this raises a second debate: should UBGS be considered as a 255 health service in order to generate appropriate investment? The public health arguments raised 256 in the previous section apply here: is investing in therapeutic activities in green spaces (such as 257 health walks led by community workers who are generally paid modest salaries) a more cost-258 effective way to promote and maintain human wellbeing than more invasive medical 259 interventions performed by highly trained (and expensive) medical staff? The 'dose of nature' 260 arguments cited above explicitly link the therapeutic efficacy of nature-based interventions 261 with the potential to reduce healthcare costs. The associations between UBGS and wellbeing 262 reveal the potential for 'green prescriptions' - for example, proximity to green spaces has been 263 associated with reduced anxiety and mood disorder (Nutsford, Pearson and Kingham, 2013) 264 and green spaces can provide a 'buffer' enabling people to reduce their stress levels (van den 265 Berg et al., 2010).

266 But a primary focus on UBGS as an enabler of human wellbeing may have unintended 267 consequences. It concentrates attention on the proximity of spaces to their potential users, and 268 time spent in them by the groups most at risk of particular illnesses (the 'optimal dose' as 269 Barton and Rogerson (2017, p.81) put it). This approach flattens the wide variety of spaces, 270 species and subjectivities in play. Bell et al. (2018, p.2) point out that this flattening has a 271 universalising effect, which 'may be both illusory and potentially exclusionary for the many 272 individuals and groups whose healthy nature encounters diverge from the statistical average or 273 "normal" way of being'. It encourages a reductive concern with the most effective ways to 274 generate human wellbeing, rather than understanding the wide variety of affordances for 275 wellbeing that natural spaces offer (Dobson et al., 2021). It ignores the range of experiences 276 and subjectivities that affect perceptions of nature and human flourishing, categorising 277 particular groups as 'low users of nature' or suffering from 'nature-deficit disorder' when their 278 lived experiences are widely varied, and include wellbeing benefits associated with being in or 279 caring for urban nature (Birch, Rishbeth and Payne, 2020). It also overlooks the insights of

280 posthuman geographies of wellbeing that affirm the multiplicity of human, spatial, 'natural' and 281 material factors at play in 'becoming well' (Duff, 2016, p.59; Andrews, 2019).

282 The third area of contestation concerns equity. This is frequently framed in terms of health 283 inequalities and access to green spaces. One comprehensive literature review (Rigolon, 2016) 284 found that lower socioeconomic groups and ethnic minorities have access to fewer acres of 285 parks, fewer acres of parks per person, and parks with lower quality and poorer maintenance 286 and safety than privileged groups. However, while more deprived communities also suffer from 287 poorer quality (and sometimes quantity) of urban green spaces, with fewer features and 288 facilities and more problems of littering or crime (Boone et al., 2009; Roe, Aspinall and 289 Thompson 2017; Pope et al., 2018), this does not occur in isolation from other social and 290 economic factors that generate and sustain geographies of deprivation. Austerity policies have 291 had adverse impacts on the quality of green spaces (Simson, 2018). They may also be localities 292 where capacity for action is being eroded (Mathers, Dempsey and Frøik Molin, 2015). Capacity 293 needs to exist not only to pursue beneficial environmental outcomes (Holstead et al., 2018), but 294 also to resist the loss of environmental goods (Haaland and van den Bosch, 2015). Other factors 295 may also be at work, including population pressures leading to the densification of cities such as 296 London (Whitten, 2019). This recognition of the importance of context is reflected in the 297 concept of environmental justice, a notion often backgrounded in discussion of access to UBGS. 298 Environmental justice is concerned not only with whether people have equal rights and access 299 to the benefits offered by the natural world (Wolch et al., 2014), but also with the distribution 300 of disbenefits (Agyeman 2013; Nassauer and Raskin, 2014) and the competing or 301 complementary demands and priorities of different groups and entities (Bickerstaff and 302 Agyeman, 2009; Venter et al., 2020). It leads on from questions of how goods and resources are 303 distributed to more fundamental questions about the inherent injustices of the extractive 304 economies that underpin modern urban development (Martinez-Allier, 2012; Henrique and 305 Tschakert, 2020). Scholars have called for the development of a 'political ecology of health' that 306 can 'lay bare the unevenness of healthy and hungry futures' (Jackson and Neely, 2015, p.60). 307 In all three areas of debate, narratives are constructed about who and what matters. These 308 predominantly continue to valorise the economic quantification of the natural environment and 309 the notion of green spaces (and their inhabitants) as resources for human enjoyment or 310 consumption. But as the next section considers, Covid-19 has highlighted opportunities to write 311 alternative narratives that depart from the operationalisation of space and nature for economic 312 and policy ends. 313

314 Departures from dominant paradigms: divergent thinking about urban blue- green space 315

316 The experience of Covid-19 has focused attention not only on the utility of natural spaces

317 for human wellbeing, but also on the limits of traditional policymaking. The continued financial

- 318 pressures on UBGS suggest that even viewed as a resource for human wellbeing, urban nature
- 319 will struggle to attract investment on a scale comparable with 'grey' infrastructure such as roads

320 and buildings. In a century shaped by crises that have already rocked global financial, health,

ecological and climate systems, the adequacy of current paradigms is increasingly called intoquestion.

323 There are no simple solutions: transitions are complex, incremental and unpredictable, and 324 the resilience of human and more-than-human life is more easily theorised than enacted (Folke, 325 2006; Duit, 2016). The search for 'leverage points' to enable better connections between 326 humans and the natural world (Meadows, 1999; Richardson et al., 2020) is messy and outcomes 327 are uncertain. However, there are some promising departures from dominant paradigms that 328 demand attention if humans are to live well in urban settlements in future. They address the big 329 picture rather than the detail, but have implications for the everyday activities of designing, 330 managing, and appreciating UBGS. They point to a more epistemologically, emotionally and 331 temporally expansive understanding of urban life which, if adopted, could lead to markedly 332 different planning and investment choices.

333 The first departure concerns what it means to be human in a natural world. The idea of the 334 'more-than-human' world (Maller, 2018; 2021) attempts to challenge the anthropocentric view 335 of 'nature' as other. Humans and non-humans are 'entangled together in ways that cofabricate 336 worlds, spaces, and encounters' (Bell, Instone and Mee, 2018, p.136). An 'ecological perspective 337 of the city' respects the 'multiple intermingling of human and nonhuman entities' (Farías, 2011, 338 p.369). The idea of 'nature connectedness' (Lumber et al., 2017) seeks to identify human 339 wellbeing with the wellbeing of the more-than-human world. All these conceptualisations 340 stumble to some extent in that attempts to decentre the human or construe the 'posthuman' 341 are seen from human perspectives, and decisions on planning and investment are inevitably 342 taken from anthropocentric perspectives. They can also overlook 'the manner in which the 343 natural world has been used to destroy, damage or subjugate' many humans, and people of 344 colour in particular (Dungy, 2009, p.xxvi). Yet they pose a necessary challenge to the 345 instrumentalist view of the natural world as existing largely to support human ends. Blue and 346 green spaces are not only 'spaces' created by humans in cities, but participants in ecosystems 347 (not just infrastructure) that have their own reasons for being and are of intrinsic value 348 (Vucetich, Bruskotter and Nelson, 2014). Humans themselves are not separate from ecosystems 349 but contain their own 'microbiomes' of organisms (Robinson and Jorgensen, 2020) and are 350 produced through relations between a range of biological/natural and material/technological 351 actors (Andrews, 2019). Policymaking that takes account of human and more-than-human 352 entanglements is more likely to consider the needs of other species, and not only those with 353 'iconic' or 'endangered' status. As the recent Dasgupta Review of the economics of biodiversity 354 in the UK asserts, human beings and human economies are embedded within nature, not 355 external to it (Dasgupta, 2021, p.47). However, it remains to be seen how far this perspective 356 will influence mainstream policymaking, even within the Treasury that commissioned the 357 review.

A second, related, departure focuses on what it means for humans to be well rather than wealthy - or to understand wealth in terms of wellbeing rather than financial assets. The 360 notion(s) of buen vivir, which have informed economic and political thinking in Andean 361 countries including Ecuador and Bolivia, represent 'a turn towards a more biocentric, relational and collective means of understanding and being in the world' (Chaves et al., 2018, p.153) -362 363 although there are numerous ways of interpreting this (Dupuits et al., 2020). Buen vivir 364 underlines that values and rights to being do not reside only with humans (McGregor et al., 365 2020). Alongside this re-valorisation of the more-than-human world goes a broader 366 understanding of what it means for humans to be well, taking into account their emotional 367 responses to nature and their sense of place and self (Jakubec et al., 2016; Raymond et al., 368 2017; Nichols and Del Casino, 2020). These insights point to a view of wellbeing as multifaceted 369 and consequently less amenable to logics of quantification. Costanza et al. (2017) observe that 370 after 20 years of identifying and valuing ecosystem services, a new economic paradigm is 371 required that puts 'nature' at the core. They call for more engaged and discursive approaches 372 that enable citizens to influence economic priorities. One such perspective is offered by the 373 practice of deliberative valuation, in which people are given opportunities to express their 374 preferences and trade-offs. Working with an indigenous community in Colombia, Lliso et al. 375 (2020, p.106499) found that participants involved in designing a system of payments for 376 ecosystem services (PES) placed a high value on 'equity considerations that go beyond the 377 monetary benefit that PES provide'. Such approaches could be transferred to urban contexts 378 through systems such as participatory budgeting (Cabannes, 2004) to elicit the role the more-379 than-human world plays in the 'foundational economy' (Engelen et al., 2017) of human life. 380 A third departure from dominant paradigms concerns time, a factor brought into focus by 381 the unfolding climate crisis. The temporal perspectives regarding investment in green spaces 382 and wellbeing are predominantly short-term, discounting the needs and interests of future 383 generations. The concept of the needs of future generations has influenced environmental 384 thinking since the Brundtland Report (World Commission on Environment and Development,

1987) defined sustainable development as meeting the needs of the present generation
 without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs, and this is

reflected in areas of policymaking such as the 2015 Wellbeing of Future Generations Act in

388 Wales, which requires public bodies to consider the long-term effects of their decisions.

389 However, there is often an assumption that future generations will define their needs in the

390 same ways as ours. Current interest in connecting with nature and making space for other 391 species, reinforced by policy interventions such as the Dasgupta Review (Dasgupta, 2021)

392 suggests that a growing proportion of urban populations may expect their green spaces to

393 become less formal and more biodiverse, with greater attention being paid to urban

394 'wildscapes' (Jorgensen and Keenan, 2012) and to processes of 'rewilding' (Koninx, 2019;

395 Sandom et al., 2019) that have the potential to foster greater awareness of the more-than-

396 human. A less anthropocentric concept of nature and broader ideas of wellbeing both involve a

397 stretching of the temporal dimension, challenging the economic convention of discounting

398 future benefits.

399

- 400 Back to earth: 'building back better' in urban blue-green space?
- 401

402 A frequent riposte to such departures from dominant paradigms is that they are unrealistic 403 and utopian, and have little relevance to the day-to-day management of urban space in times of 404 financial stringency. However, system change involves situated practices as well as field-level 405 change (Smets, Morris and Greenwood, 2012; Spaargaren 2011; Turnheim et al., 2015). And the 406 impetus for change has been supported rhetorically, if not resourced financially, with the 407 widespread adoption of the 'build back better' slogan.

408 'Build back better' is not new, however: it has been a feature of responses to crises since the 409 Indian Ocean tsunami of 2004, encompassing efforts to rebuild economies, bolster community 410 resilience and reduce future risks (Mannakkara and Wilkinson, 2013). Vahanvati and Rafliana 411 (2019) argue that definitions of building back better are open to interpretation and difficult to 412 operationalise. However, the authors emphasise the importance of sustaining community 413 capacity beyond the rebuilding phase. Similarly, Francis et al. (2017) highlight the value of 414 community-driven recovery strategies following the Christchurch earthquake in New Zealand. 415 Building back better, in the view of these authors, takes time and must be grounded in 416 community aspirations.

417 Such a long-term, grounded approach fits with the epistemologically, emotionally and 418 temporally expansive outlook outlined above. It would also fit with an outlook that recognises 419 the needs and rights of the more-than-human world and views nature as an intrinsic part of 420 'coupled human-natural systems' within cities (Alberti, 2016, p.21). In the humble context of an 421 urban park in the post-industrial global North, this could start to happen through management 422 practices more sensitive to the natural environment (Scott and Lennon, 2016), and the 423 promotion of activities, events and natural features that build on people's continuing emotional 424 connections with the more-than-human world (Birch, Rishbeth and Payne, 2020; Oh et al., 425 2020). Such practices could build on the 'pathways to nature connection' (Lumber et al., 2017), 426 and explicitly consider future generations in decision-making, as recognised in the 'place-427 keeping' approach to greenspace management (Dempsey and Burton, 2012). For researchers, 428 the concept of 'assemblages of health' (Duff, 2016) offers a gateway to more socially, 429 ecologically and temporally equitable and inclusive ways to understand place and wellbeing 430 (Jackson and Neely, 2015; Andrews, 2019; Senanayake and King, 2019). 431 Alternative stories are beginning to be written into urban landscapes and could stimulate 432 further re-imagination of urban space. Charities such as the National Trust in the UK are 433 promoting activities to encourage connections with nature (Richardson et al., 2020). Alternative 434 visions for redundant retail spaces such as the Broadmarsh shopping centre in Nottingham, UK, 435 highlight a growing public appreciation of the value of nature (Nottinghamshire Wildlife Trust, 436 n.d.), although the delivery of such visions is far from certain. In Paris, mayor Anne Hidalgo has 437 won plaudits for urban greening and active travel plans, but has also prompted fierce opposition 438 (Nossiter, 2019). It is not sufficient simply to create new urban blue-green spaces; as a recent 439 study in Barcelona shows, the 'carrying capacity' or ability of the habitats to support biodiversity

440 is key too (Melero et al., 2020). This calls for attention to UBGS at a micro as well as a macro 441 scale. 442 Meanwhile the challenge of equity persists. To make environmental justice a building block 443 of wellbeing, these new narratives about people and the more-than-human world in urban 444 spaces need to be written 'from the margins' (Hanacek et al., 2020): from the viewpoint of 445 those who are sidelined in a 'growth economy' that commoditises both people and nature. By 446 doing so, more opportunities may be generated to create UBGS that better supports both the 447 human and more-than-human worlds. 448 449 450 References 451 452 Agyeman, J. (2013). Introducing just sustainabilities: policy, planning and practice. London: Zed Books. 453 454 Alberti, M. (2016). Cities that think like planets: Complexity, resilience and innovation in hybrid 455 ecosystems. Seattle: University of Washington Press. 456 457 Allam, Z. (2020). Chapter 2 – The second 50 days: a detailed chronological timeline and extensive review 458 of literature documenting the COVID-19 pandemic from day 50 to day 100. Surveying the Covid-19 459 Pandemic and its Implications, 2020, 9-39. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-824313-8.00002-4 460 461 Andrews, G. J. (2019). Health geographies II: The posthuman turn. Progress in Human Geography, 43(6), 462 1109–1119. https://doi.org/10.1177/0309132518805812 463 464 Andueza, L. (2020). Value, (use) values, and the ecologies of capital: On social form, meaning, and the 465 contested production of nature. Progress in Human Geography, 30913252094747. 466 https://doi.org/10.1177/0309132520947473 467 468 Astell-Burt, T., Feng, X., Mavoa, S., Badland, H. M., & Giles-Corti, B. (2014). Do low-income 469 neighbourhoods have the least green space? A cross-sectional study of Australia's most populous cities. 470 BMC Public Health, 14(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-292 471 472 Barton, J., & Pretty, J. (2010). What is the best dose of nature and green exercise for improving mental 473 health? A multi-study analysis. Environmental Science & Technology, 44(10), 3947–3955. 474 https://doi.org/10.1021/es903183r 475 476 Barton, J., & Rogerson, M. (2017). The importance of greenspace for mental health. BJPsych 477 International, 14(4), 79-81. 478 479 BBC, 2020. 'Coronavirus: parks and cemeteries must stay open, says communities minister.' BBC News, 480 18 April 2020. Online: https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-52339266 481 482 BBC, 2021. 'Stockton to part demolish high street for urban park.' BBC News, 12 February 2021. Online: 483 https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-england-tees-56039292

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