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Abstract: The early years of the journal Landscape and Urban Planning, then called Landscape Planning, coincided with the start of the era of digital landscape visualizations. This paper examines this journal's articles on landscape visualization published over its 99 volume history (1974-2010). This work has contributed to representation, assessment, and decision-making in landscape planning and design. Technological advances are noted, as are case studies and research topics and questions considered to be important at the time. This work is then looked at in the context of subsequent developments in the field of landscape visualization in terms of distinct research areas, directions, and topics reflected in the publications. From this analysis, the paper presents an outlook on future challenges for research and practice that includes themes such as the diffusion of 3D visualization in our everyday environment, linking visualizations with underlying models, going beyond highly-realistic but simply descriptive visualizations, using visualizations in an assessment and decision-making context, and incorporating multi-sensory experiences. It also considers the prospects for further technological advancements such as augmented reality for making decisions in planning and design of our future environments.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 “Landscape and urban planning” are words selected as the name of this journal but also refer to
3 activities concerned with natural and urban environments of the past, present, and most
4 importantly, the creation of future environments. As an interdisciplinary focus of concern, both
5 the journal and activity of landscape and urban planning deal with the study, analysis, planning,
6 and design of biophysical and social environments that express a range of sensory qualities.
7 Humans in turn possess a suite of perceptual systems that allow them to sense these qualities: an
8 auditory system (the sense of hearing), a tactile system (the sense of touch), a kinaesthetic
9 system (the ability to sense and coordinate movement), a vestibular system (the sense of
10 balance), an olfactory system (the sense of smell), a gustatory system (the sense of taste) and a
11 visual system (the visual sense). Of all the senses, the visual sense is by far the dominant
12 component of human sensory perception (Bruce et al. 1996). Fortunately, for landscape and
13 urban planners and designers, the visual environment with its range of visual stimuli can be
14 represented via a palette of analogue and digital media as an essential means for communicating
15 to experts and the public in planning and design.

16 This paper examines this journal’s articles on landscape visualization published over its 99
17 volume history (1974-2010), and the contribution to representation, assessment, and decision-
18 making in landscape planning and design, also in the wider context.

19

20 **2. Technological advances**

21 Within only a few decades, contemporary Western society has evolved from being dominated by
22 digital immigrants hesitant to embark on a digital landscape journey to a society and professional
23 world now dominated by digital natives. In this short timespan, tools and techniques for

24 representing our world in three dimensions using 3D visualization have diffused throughout our
25 everyday environment. Unborn babies can be seen in 3D ultrasound. Children only a few years
26 old are already playing with 3D computer games, as are young adults, parents, and even some
27 grandparents. These multiple generations can watch the weather forecast together in 3D, possibly
28 on a new 3D TV screen; enjoy a multi-sensory 4D cinema and other futuristic movie
29 experiences; travel to remote areas using a satellite navigation system that shows the
30 environment in perspective view; and use Google Earth to explore remote environments through
31 data streamed over the Internet (cf. Sheppard and Cizek 2009), showing 3D representations of
32 the whole globe enhanced with information-tagged imagery. As landscape and urban planners
33 and designers, how will we cope with the raised expectations of this new cohort of visual
34 sophisticates?

35 While in previous decades visual representation techniques were only very sporadically utilised,
36 they have now become a standard in landscape research and practice. The array of techniques at
37 our disposal is broad, and their evolution from physical models, drawings or paintings,
38 perspective views, and analogue photomontages to digital photomontages, virtual reality,
39 Internet-based visualizations and augmented reality is impressive. 3D landscape visualization has
40 developed from an extremely costly and therefore restricted technology requiring specialized
41 equipment and labs into an essential tool for landscape design, planning and management that
42 can be accessed in the field on small tablet computers and mobile phones. Sophisticated 2D and
43 3D software is even available for free.

44 Also within the last few decades, digital landscape representations have developed from very
45 abstract and static representations to highly realistic visual representations capable of being

46 explored through dynamic spatial movement, possibly providing an immersive experience in
47 multiple spatial and temporal scales.

48 Digital 3D visualizations have now become a common feature in landscape and urban planning,
49 in reference to both this journal as well as the actual activity. The use of visual representations
50 based on digital or virtual environments is well established in planning statements, as part of
51 Environmental Impact Assessments, design competitions, and site development (just think of all
52 those large display boards one sees these days showing a design proposal posted next to the
53 actual construction site). In each of these cases, the purpose of the visualizations is to
54 communicate with the public or with potential clients. To a certain degree, and not studied by the
55 research community so far, visualizations also serve an internal communication function among
56 experts of different (or the same) disciplines working on a joint project. Typically, in terms of
57 their content, landscape visualizations still focus on the outcome or final product of a planning
58 and design process.

59

60 **3. Case studies and areas of research: A timeline of published articles**

61 In the early 1970s, the US Forest Service was a major driver in developing new methodologies
62 for landscape assessment as well as new techniques of landscape representation. The first
63 published paper in this journal that introduced 3D computer graphics was thematically focused
64 on the visual management of forested landscapes over time (Myklestad and Wagar, 1977).

65 However, most parts of the paper concentrated on the technology itself. Rather abstract tree and
66 ground cover symbols were used to communicate landscape changes caused by timber
67 harvesting. It was published only two years before the highly influential 1979 Lake Tahoe

68 conference ‘Our National Landscape’ (Elsner and Smardon 1979), which at that time included
69 the state-of-the-art on methods of digital landscape representation and landscape assessment.
70 In the early 1980s, in Berkeley, Syracuse, and Lund, “modelsopes” comprising a miniature lens
71 and camera hung from overhead gantries enabled researchers to explore alternative planning
72 scenarios within analogue, physical models and to study urban landscape perceptions from a
73 visual as well as dynamic perspective (Smardon 1988).

74 In 1990, digital photomontages and photo editing, nowadays standard tools of landscape
75 architectural education and practice as well as landscape research, were for the first time
76 introduced in *Landscape and Urban Planning* to explore vista management options in Acadia
77 National Park in response to anticipated landscape change (Lange 1990).

78 Since 1990 there have been three major Special Issues of *Landscape and Urban Planning*
79 published that have helped spur increased interest in landscape visualization and modelling in the
80 research community for assessing, planning and designing landscapes. The first focused on
81 “Data Visualization Techniques in Environmental Management” (Orland 1992) and addressed
82 visualization linked to the modelling of environmental systems including air pollution, fire
83 history, ozone concentration, ocean currents, and forest pest impacts. While the modelling-
84 visualization linkage is still a major area for research with unresolved issues, especially
85 considering real-time interactive approaches, since then many of the basic technical difficulties
86 that were pointed out in terms of software, hardware and data have now largely been resolved.

87 A second Special Issue appeared shortly thereafter and focussed on “Landscape Planning:
88 Expanding the Tool Kit” (Bishop 1994). It covered new approaches to GIS-based landscape
89 visualization and modelling and introduced the new concepts of cellular automata and
90 autonomous agents. Cellular automata act based on rules affecting neighbouring cells of a grid,

91 while autonomous agents are able to pursue programmed goals (such as finding a route on a
92 mountain top), which can also include learning or communicating with other agents.
93 The third and so far last Special Issue dedicated to this topic was from the 1999 Ascona
94 conference "Our Visual Landscape: Analysis, Modelling, Visualization and Protection" (Lange
95 and Bishop 2001). It addressed landscape assessment, GIS-modelling, visual representation, and
96 also perceptual issues in relation to digital landscape representation, including questions of
97 realism and perception of simulated landscapes as well as representational validity and criteria
98 (Bishop et al. 2001, Danahy 2001, Lange 2001, Sheppard 2001) that were cited as important
99 topics for research by several authors in the earlier special issues.

100 The relative ease of use of digital photomontages (Lange 1990) led to a revolution in landscape
101 preference research, allowing for investigators to digitally create images of alternative
102 landscapes, instead of having to rely on photographs of existing landscapes, and systematically
103 vary features, e.g. including all possible combinations of them in rigorous factorial designs. This
104 has the advantage of being highly controllable in terms of the independent and dependent
105 variables studied. The applications to landscape design and planning are numerous, as evidenced
106 by a large number of research publications in this area (recently e.g. Lindemann-Matthies et al.
107 2010, Zheng et al. 2011). In landscape preference research this has now also extended to using
108 virtual landscape models.

109

110 **4. Outlook and further questions for research**

111 There are a number of neglected or unresolved research areas that need further exploration.

112 These include issues about the complexity and dynamics of the real world, human perception of

113 landscapes, simulated sensory environments, new and emerging technologies, as well as
114 landscape visualization for improved communication, public participation, and decision-making.
115 Nowadays, the virtual environments that we create can be highly realistic representations of the
116 real landscape including terrain, vegetation and built structures. Does it matter that
117 representations of animals and humans and their movement as well as the dynamics of water,
118 atmosphere, and light are less convincingly done? Perhaps. But it also depends on the questions
119 that one would like to answer.

120 Regarding people's perception of landscapes, both real and virtual, there is a tendency to assume
121 that an image is worth a thousand words and that images speak for themselves. However, we
122 must also consider the nature of the perceiver and how landscape stimuli are perceived and
123 interpreted. While different people may have different views and values associated with the real
124 landscape that surrounds us, they might also have different views and values associated with
125 virtual representations of existing or proposed landscapes that do not yet exist. Therefore, even
126 the most realistic virtual representations that we create might not be perceived as we think they
127 are perceived. Landscape visualizations are illusions, illusions of the past, present and future. We
128 can judge the realism of landscape visualizations that portray existing conditions by comparing
129 them with real places and in many cases the results will be surprising. A plan or design may look
130 entirely plausible when visualized on paper or a computer screen but may feel and function quite
131 differently when viewed as a real-world space. This challenge of realism is heightened when
132 dealing with the re-creation of past landscapes and creation of future ones.

133 Issues that need to be considered in developing realistic visualizations include data availability,
134 data precision, and the level of uncertainty in a proposed plan or design. In 3D visualizations
135 uncertainty is typically not addressed. For example, the software and hardware available

136 nowadays makes it possible to represent a development proposal as a 3D visualization in a
137 highly realistic fashion. Often, in practice exactly this is done. However, at the early stages of
138 planning and design many details are not necessarily confirmed or fixed. In such cases,
139 “realistic” visualizations do not reflect this fuzziness, and therefore a more abstract visualization
140 would be more appropriate. This still needs more systematic experimental research regarding the
141 validity and the perception of such representations.

142 Clearly, in the last few decades we have witnessed major advances (seminal work e.g. by
143 Appleyard 1977, Zube et al. 1987) in how we represent the visual landscape, how we assess it,
144 and how we use visual simulations and virtual landscape representations in environmental
145 decision-making. Although the visual sense is by far the most important human sense, focussing
146 only the visual provides us with a sectoral ‘view’, literally, of our environment.

147 What we are lacking is an integrative multi-sensory approach. Beyond the dominance of the
148 visual sense, we know very little about the role other senses play in landscape perception and
149 experience or of the interrelation and interplay among our senses. We know even less about how
150 to represent a multi-sensory environment, how such representations might influence landscape
151 assessments and how they could influence decision-making in planning and designing our
152 environment. For example, the view of a very beautiful existing or proposed landscape can be
153 adequately represented in visual terms--as printed in reports or online via the Internet--and
154 assessing such a representation solely on visual quality will likely generate uniformly high
155 scores. But what if next to this viewpoint is a highway or an airport generating a high level of
156 ambient noise? A waste dump site or a farmer spreading manure? This poses a range of
157 technological problems in terms of sensory representation, but it also raises serious planning and
158 policy issues on how to deal with multiple and conflicting landscape values. Is a beautiful view

159 of a landscape located next to a smelly waste dump site better or worse than a mediocre
160 landscape view without any odorous impact? And what if some noise is added as well? In our
161 multisensory world, decisions can quickly become complex.

162 While such considerations may be important to landscape and urban planning research and
163 practice, there are high technological hurdles that need to be overcome for an entire artificial
164 representation of our sensory experiences in a laboratory environment. But perhaps such a
165 strategy is unnecessary. Considering the ubiquitous access that people have to mobile phones
166 that are able to display 3D graphics, and given increasing access to high-capacity mobile phone
167 networks, it is likely that in the future we will not just be able to represent, assess, and make
168 decisions about our environment in a remote office or lab. Newly emerging technology such as
169 mobile phone augmented reality (figs. 1 and 2) expands the currently available planning and
170 design toolkit, allowing us to provide people with an augmented view of the real world on-site,
171 where proposed changes can be seen in the context of a fuller ambient array of sensory
172 experiences. While such technology may take time before it becomes a standard approach in
173 planning and design, augmented reality holds significant promise in expanding our ability to
174 more fully represent the multisensory characteristics of landscapes.

175 Further developments in landscape visualization will have an impact towards improved and more
176 informed public participation as supported by visualization technology for communication
177 between policy makers and non-experts (e.g. mobile phone augmented reality allowing the
178 streaming of data of planning proposals while one is on-site), improved integration of the visual
179 landscape quality in decision-making in planning and design, and a forward-looking, pro-active
180 approach to making decisions about our future environments. This involves further work
181 regarding the use of 3D visualizations in terms of relevant phases of planning and design,

182 audience, the level of engagement, as well as questioning the still existing focus on the
183 representation of the final product of planning and design ('the icing on the cake', cf. Orland
184 1992). Instead, what we need is a more 'playful' and experimental approach to planning and
185 design with an emphasis on the process, involving relevant stakeholders early-on, and thereby
186 possibly improving the outcome.

187 Also, recently the general public is increasingly gaining importance in landscape visualization as
188 suppliers of freely accessible 3D models and visualization materials, e.g. through Google Earth
189 and SketchUp warehouse which can be seen as a major shift in the field and which will need
190 further research exploration.

191 Finally, landscape visualization needs to move beyond focussing on the physically perceivable
192 environment and towards linking 3D visualizations with climate change models, flood models,
193 ecologic models (e.g. Hehl-Lange 2001), economic models, and other tools pertinent to
194 landscape and urban planning research and practice as well as potentially being a powerful tool
195 to project future consequences for many disciplines and sectors.

196 In a different but equally important direction, it might be worth investigating the connection of
197 virtual or augmented reality with social reality including new approaches to communication such
198 as blogs, forums, and social networks. These interesting possibilities leave us with a large
199 uncharted research territory to be explored for both the field and the journal of *Landscape and*
200 *Urban Planning*, expanding the scope and significance of our work and providing new
201 opportunities for collaboration with a broad range of disciplines and professions.

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Figure 1: Mobile phone augmented reality. For spatial reference, notice the railing in the visualization and in the real world. In the future, will we all be using our mobile phones to look at planning proposals on site?

Figure 2: Mobile phone augmented reality. The real scene is captured by the camera of the mobile phone. A proposed new park is aligned to the real world scene, also while moving the mobile phone and changing the viewpoint.

Figure 1



Figure 1 Mobile phone augmented reality. For spatial reference, notice the railing in the visualization and in the real world. In the future, will we all be using our mobile phones to look at planning proposals on site?

Figure 2



Figure 2. Mobile phone augmented reality. The real scene is captured by the camera of the mobile phone. A proposed new park is aligned to the real world scene, also while moving the mobile phone and changing the viewpoint.



Mobile phone augmented reality. For spatial reference, notice the railing in the visualization and in the real world. In the future, will we all be using our mobile phones to look at planning proposals on site?

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