

PLANNING FUTURE PASTS:
USING HISTORIC LANDSCAPE CHARACTERISATION IN
STRATEGIC AND SPATIAL PLANNING

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ABSTRACT

Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC) began with the desire to create a tool for the management of the historic landscape, with specific goals of informing strategic and spatial planning decisions. However, in the years since its initial development, HLC has changed its focus away from planning applications and towards its development as a research tool promoting a greater understanding of the historic landscape. Whereas there is no dispute regarding the need to increase our knowledge and understanding of the historic landscape, this shift has left planners and heritage managers without the tool they were promised. Government policy and guidance promoting sustainability, the instrumental benefits of planning and a focus on local distinctiveness requires better integration of the historic environment into strategic and spatial planning systems.

The research presented here puts HLC at the base of a model for incorporating the historic landscape into spatial and strategic planning systems. By combining the methods and theories of both archaeology and planning, an approach is developed whereby HLC is used to identify distinctiveness, significance and value within the historic landscape. By addressing concerns over value-neutrality and going beyond description, this Character-to-Value (CTV) model moves HLC from being a descriptive informational base for archaeological research to a usable method for evaluating proposed change and for active, positive management.

PREFACE

On the 23rd of March 2010, the Department for Communities and Local Government published *Planning Policy Statement 5: Planning for The Historic Environment*. This replaces both PPG15 (Planning and the Historic Environment) and PPG16 (Archaeology and Planning), both extensively cited in this dissertation. However, the research conducted for this analysis was not based solely on the original PPG Notes, as the consultation paper on the proposed new PPS was published in 2009 and was also consulted for this dissertation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The number of people that have influenced my pathway to this point are possibly too numerous to name; so many have added to the web of events that led me to this point that it's hard to know where to start. So, like any good archaeologist, I'll do this stratigraphically from the beginning.

The fine folks at the Arizona Department of Transportation that gave me the opportunity to attend the 2007 annual meeting of the Society for American Archaeology, where Tim Darvill planted the seed in my brain that I could be doing what I loved in the country I only dreamed of living in. From there, the greatest thanks must then go to Professor Darvill and Jeff Chartrand, who served as my supervisors for this project and let me follow my own interests and questions, even if they led probably a bit further from traditional archaeology than they expected. The incredibly helpful folks at the West Berkshire County Council – Duncan Coe, and Sarah Orr in particular – offered me a smorgasbord of possible case studies. David Hopkins, Mark Wilson and the rest of the team at Hampshire County Council also generously offered access to the data in Hampshire. While not used in the case reviews here, the advice and information from Andy Wigley at Shropshire County Council also provided valuable information on the issues facing planners concerned with meeting housing growth point targets. The biggest thanks must be reserved for the folks at Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB. My experiences with the HEAP Steering Committee have been invaluable and provided substantial insights into how and why the CTV model could be used.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The past may be a foreign country, but it is one in which we all live. For modern, urban-dwellers, the past is more of a foreign countryside, filled with mystery, history, tradition and ghosts. People look for their roots in the 'primordial forest.' No wonder, then, that the landscape holds such an allure for artists, poets, writers, historians, geographers and the general public. As the population of England increases, the finite countryside and its attendant landscape face more and more pressure. Thus the need for effective management of the countryside gains in importance. Due to the long history of habitation of England, barely any parts of the countryside are void of impact from humans. Consequently, the landscape of the countryside cannot be divorced from the historic landscape. Instead, the landscape exists as a continuum stretching back from the present into the distant past. This continuum exists not only through time, but also through space – urban and rural have no distinct border and the landscape of the countryside blends into that of urban areas in the same way that the urban 'cityscape' slowly dissipates into the rural landscape.

What is the historic landscape? How does it compare with the (generic) landscape? Where does it fit into the historic environment? Every term comes with its own baggage and assumptions, some used interchangeably and some meaning very different things to different people. For the purpose of presenting a clear and understandable argument, I offer the following definitions to these terms: 'landscape' by itself refers to the entirety of the landscape, with all its components, as a holistic entity; 'historic landscape' is reserved for the description of the remnants of the past within the (mostly rural) landscape – historic and prehistoric; the 'historic environment' means the remains of all parts of the past – sites, monuments, buildings, conservation areas, the historic landscape, etc. As will be shown, definition and consistent use of terminology play a key role in finding a common ground on which effective management can begin.

But the paths to effective management are still fraught with peril. Or, if not peril, at least distractions, conflicts, politics and agendas (both hidden and overt). Many government agencies, amenity organizations and professional societies are interested in the management of the landscape. The two main influences on the management of the historic landscape come from archaeologists (who are interested in the historic aspect) and planners (who are interested in the management aspect). However, only recently have the two disciplines of archaeology and planning began to work together to address the problems specific to managing the historic dimensions of the landscape. Indeed, it is only recently that the landscape has been brought into the realm of heritage assets regarded as worthy of consideration under the policies and guidance given for the treatment of the historic environment (Bishop and Bute 2004; Darvill 1999). Though landscape archaeology has long been a recognized discipline in British archaeology, the development of tools such as Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC) and the implementation of the European Landscape Convention (ELC) have drawn attention to the ubiquity of the historic landscape and the need for effective management on a wide scale (English Heritage 2002; Fairclough 1999, 2002, 2006).

The core of my research is HLC. Much of the information presented below focuses on the purported aims, objectives and methodology of HLC as a planning tool. However, we must first understand the very basics: what does it look like? what does it represent? This means distinguishing the difference from the process of *characterisation* from HLC as an interface. As an interface, HLC is basically a map made up of polygons that group together areas of similar 'character', whether that character is defined by geology, morphology, history, land use, or a combination of these or other attributes. Most of the information comes from regression of previous Ordnance Survey maps and examination of existing land use and morphology. Various HLC maps reflect different scales of characterisation. Large-scale maps are more generic, identifying historic character **areas** or **zones**, where smaller-scale maps often define polygons by **types** that are

defined by shared attributes within the pre-defined type (English Heritage 2002, Rippon 2004: 19ff). The end product of the characterisation process is then an interface that requires interpretation on the part of the user. However similar the end products appear, they may in fact reflect very different approaches to the actual characterisation process. Chapter One discusses the development of HLC and explores the differing aims, objectives and contributions to the overall discussion of the role of the historic landscape within strategic and spatial planning in England.

Just as a variety of approaches to characterisation exist, a variety of uses exist. Exploring the many uses of HLC across the country is a project beyond the scope of this research. My primary concern is the use of HLC within a planning context. Even this limited query would be a separate project in itself, due to the variations within and between individual authorities as well as individual planners. Therefore, I focus instead on the *process* by which HLC is applied, specifically the process of identification of character, distinctiveness, significance and value. This lack of an overarching and formal policy on the use of HLC, as well as frequent disconnects between organisational departments result in inconsistent uses and ample room for confusion. Written guidance on the use of HLC in Cornwall, for example, involves “consult[ing] the types and zones mapping and the zone text when preparing advice for the County Archaeologist on the likely impact of proposed developments on either the components or character of the historic landscape” (Herring 1998: 58). However, little advice is given as to the process of identifying such impacts or communicating the effects to those proposing the development. The issue is not that HLC is not being used in planning decisions, but the transparency and consistency of the processes involved in making those decisions. This is a primary concern in identifying distinctiveness, significance and value within the historic environment and is discussed further in Chapter Three.

The aims and objectives of HLC, along with its underlying methodology and sources are discussed in detail in Chapter Two, as one of the options

available for meeting the needs of modern archaeology. The diversity of opinions regarding how HLC is constructed, disseminated and used provide insight into the need for an examination of the process of decision making where the historic landscape is involved. The lack of consistency in development and use of HLC can be seen as a hurdle to be overcome by users; this is the issue I wish to address.

The primary objective of my research is to develop a clear, consistent and theoretically sound methodology by which HLC can be incorporated into strategic and spatial planning systems in England. To achieve this objective, the following aims must also be met:

- Understanding the role of Character within the historic landscape, and the role of the characterisation process;
- Connecting the concept of Distinctiveness to both HLC and strategic and spatial planning policies;
- Identifying and understanding the need for assigning Significance in the context of planning; and
- Connecting the purpose and needs of the planning system back to English Heritage's *Heritage Values* in order to reflect how heritage policy aims can be met through effective planning.

Defining and integrating the historic landscape into the planning policy framework in England is imperative. As will be shown, there is no single method for doing so, nor are the individual methods being used by various agencies well-documented or clearly stated in procedural guidance. It is my goal to identify a model by which the historic landscape can be incorporated into existing strategic and spatial planning policy and guidance (including development control concerns). This requires delving into a number of conflicts existing within the fields of archaeology and landscape archaeology, as well as conflicting ideologies between archaeology and planning, before the needs of an integrated historic landscape planning model can be identified and developed into a working model.

In Chapter Two, I will focus on the tensions that make effective historic

landscape planning difficult. The first of these conflicts is definition, where the meanings and use of different concepts involved in landscape archaeology create confusion and difficulties in setting goals for effective management. Secondly, there are conflicts in the methods and theories used in archaeology, landscape archaeology, cultural geography, ecology and planning that all bear on how the historic landscape is identified, evaluated and managed. Lastly, I address the conflicts over the very reasons for the study, conservation and management of the historic environment. I will show how conflicts over the various aspects of historic landscape management are part of larger, meta-conflicts surrounding the level of complexity expected and accepted within the fields of archaeology, landscape archaeology and planning. We must begin with conflict in order to identify what issues must be addressed with an integrated model for decision-making.

Chapter Three delves into the different approaches previously taken and proposed for the management of the historic landscape. The wide variety of approaches currently in use in England create no end of confusion. Listing of buildings, scheduling of monuments, creating conservation areas, parks, areas of outstanding natural beauty or even World Heritage Sites all attempt in some way to achieve the same goal: effect management of meaningful places. I focus on the diversity of needs that must be met by any approach and address the various criticisms levied against recent attempts to integrate the historic landscape into heritage planning. The primary methodology for this has been Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC), which will be examined in depth. I pay particular attention to the gradual shift in the literature of HLC as a planning and decision-making tool to a research and analysis tool actively distancing itself from the realm of planning. This shift reflects numerous tensions in a variety of fields, most of which can be related to the conflicts discussed in Chapter Two. Four underlying themes permeate reviews of HLC use in a planning context: character, distinctiveness, significance and value. The identification and use of these terms are explored as both conflicts (in Chapter Two) and as vital to effective management (in Chapter Three).

The critiques of current policy addressing the historic landscape are then placed against existing methods and evaluated in terms of purpose and need not only in policy but also in the tools available. The focus of my analysis are the questions: what is the purpose and need of the strategic and spatial planning systems in England, as they relate to the historic landscape? How do these fit into the general purpose and need of the planning system as currently understood? Were the tools currently in use designed to meet these same needs? If so, are they succeeding? If not, what modifications need to be made to improve them? Evidence from the literature and case studies indicate that, in many cases, existing tools are not only insufficient for planning purposes, but often work at cross-purpose with the planning system. By calling out the needs of the planning system and critically evaluating the primary tools used to address the historic landscape in terms of how they meet (or fail to meet) those planning needs, we can identify the needs of a planning-specific approach to the historic landscape.

Once the needs of such an approach are identified, the benefits and restrictions of currently available tools can be examined in context. This information forms the base of a model for incorporating the historic landscape into strategic and spatial planning (including development control decision-making). Chapter Three outlines the development of a model, using theoretical approaches from a variety of disciplines interested in the historic landscape and incorporating the needs of the planning system. Anthropological theory, particularly from a structural-linguistic approach, forms the base of a model in that it introduces the need to find a way to translate between the 'languages' of archaeology, geography and planning. By looking at the language (some would say jargon) of these disciplines, we can see where misunderstandings and mis-interpretations occur. I suggest that HLC be used as a tool for translating between these competing 'languages'. By creating and working from a common language it is possible to elucidate the underlying conflicts limiting effective planning of the historic landscape. These

conflicts are explored as theoretical differences, barriers to effective communications and political conflicts. The entire analysis forms the basis of the Character-to-Value (CTV) model for incorporating the historic landscape into strategic and spatial planning processes.

In Chapters Four, Five and Six, I place the CTV model into proposed contexts to illustrate how it would work in practice with the development and determination of planning applications. The different methods by which strategic and spatial planning policies are implemented are examined and the context for the model is developed. Three cases are reviewed: a housing growth point evaluation in West Berkshire (Chapter Four), a farm environment plan in Hampshire (Chapter Five), and the development of the Historic Environment Action Plan for the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (Chapter Six). These are then used to demonstrate how the model could be used in similar situations. The three case reviews were chosen to be representative of the variety of applications with which heritage management deals on a daily basis. The housing growth point represents a strategic-level assessment common in today's planning environment, with specific reference to the pressing issue of affordable housing. The Hampshire farm environment plan review illustrates the manner in which a common agri-environmental scheme might benefit from the CTV process. The final case review, the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB's Historic Environment Action Plan offers options for the use of the CTV model in the development of guidance documents for active and sustainable management.

Chapter Seven summarises the development of the CTV model and places it within the existing strategic and spatial planning systems. Options for future investigations and applications are explored, with an emphasis on the flexibility of the approach and its ability to fit into existing and proposed policies and processes.

The principal goal of this research is the development of a heuristic model,

based on existing HLC, in which planning processes may be rooted. Others (Herring 2007; Rippon 2007; Turner 2006a, 2006b, 2007) have examined the potential of HLC for research into the history of the landscape and influence on other aspects of the historic environment. Likewise, I do not wish to question the underlying assumptions of HLC. Numerous others have already done this (Austin 2007; Clark et al 2004; Rippon 2004; Turner 2006, 2007; Williamson 2007) From their work, it is clear that there are still concerns over the methodology of HLC. However, the methodology remains mostly unchanged from its earliest inceptions. Instead, my interest lies in the applicability of HLC *as it is now* for decision-making in the planning sphere and in developing a model that allows HLC to be best used in those situations within existing policy and guidance, at both a strategic level and within everyday spatial planning decisions.

Nor is it my intention to simply provide an overview of how various organisations, Councils and/or amenity organisations currently use their own HLC datasets. Instead, the focus is on the process of how HLC is incorporated into practice – the policies and guidance provided for planners and managers to assist in their decision making. As is the case with the diversity of approaches to HLC methodology, the specifics of implementation vary from place to place, dependant on circumstance or even individual preference. What is clear is that there is no one consistent approach, explicit process or otherwise formally stated guidance on the reasoning behind decisions based on HLC information. Therefore, rather than concentrating on the failures of the HLC methodology, I aim to add to what is currently available with HLC for the specific purpose of addressing planning needs, by presenting a process by which HLC can aid the decision-making requirements of strategic and spatial planning.

CHAPTER TWO: CONFLICT

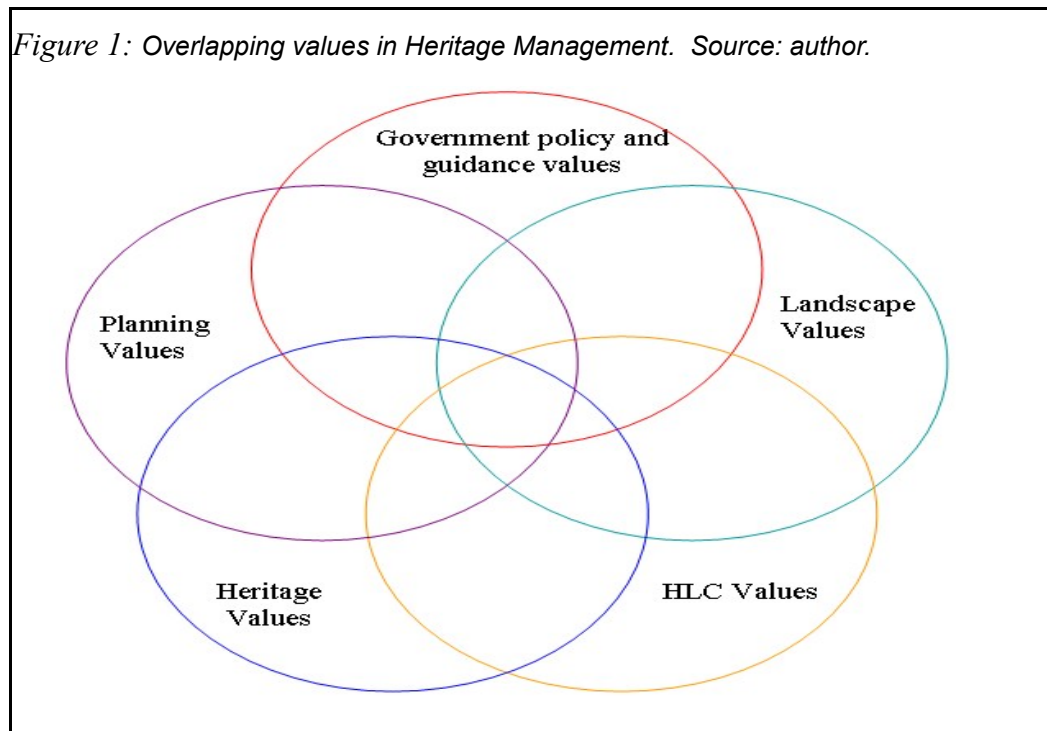
Like all of archaeology, questions regarding management of the historic landscape depend on context. For those responsible for identifying and evaluating heritage assets¹ and making decisions about proposed change, context means the difference between acceptable and unacceptable decisions. By 'context' however, I do not only mean the setting of any given resource, but the contexts of definition, theory, policy and perception. Within each of these themes exists conflicts that must be recognised and addressed in order to make effective decisions. Only by examining these conflicts can we determine how issues of character, distinctiveness, significance and value are understood throughout both archaeology and planning interests. Detangling the inherent conflicts in definition, theory, policy and perception is the first step in understanding those aspects of archaeology and planning that need to be connected and integrated to achieve a quality model for effective heritage planning. Perhaps the most basic conflict in this arena is one of definition. Therefore, we must first consider the meanings of our terminology.

Conflicting Definitions: Heritage

The basis for any study addressing the management of heritage begins with *heritage* – a term often used but rarely defined. To some “it all but defies definition”(Lowenthal 1998: 95). Others define heritage in terms of a stricter, policy-related context (Carman 2001; Skeates 2000; Waterton 2005) , based on the UNESCO definition of *cultural heritage* as “monuments, groups of buildings and sets with historical, aesthetic, archaeological, scientific, ethnological, or anthropological value” (UNESCO 1997). However, this narrow definition fails to account for meanings not related to material culture and, in the process, overlooks popular and public conceptions of heritage.

¹ For the purposes of this paper, I will use the term 'heritage asset' as it is defined by the new guidance on Planning for the Historic Environment (PPS15), which is: those parts of the historic environment that have significance because of their historic, archaeological, architectural or artistic interest (CLG 2009).

Heritage, in all its definitions, concerns values and the past. The conflict thus arises when determining who it is that gets to decide what is valuable, but also about who gets to decide what constitutes the past. Heritage values overlap with planning values in a variety of ways, as illustrated in Figure 1. It is only relatively recently that archaeologists began delving into the identification and inscription of values to the past (Darvill nd, 1994; Lipe 1984; Samuels 2008). The reasons for this can be traced to the development of the field of heritage management, where the focus was necessarily on coping with proposed change and the need to identify what assets warranted preservation and to what degree. Beginning with Lipe's (1984) Economic, Aesthetic, Associative and Informational values (concepts built upon by Darvill 1994), archaeologists, sociologists and heritage managers have added a variety of other values that require further investigation. We must also recognise that "[v]alues are, of course, routinely confounded with *valuation* and *evaluation*" (Reser and Bentrupperbaumer 2005: 127, italics in original). At the same time, value as a key component of heritage is also linked to ideas of importance/significance (Darvill 2005). These are key concepts within strategic and spatial planning and are discussed further below.



When used in the sense of 'evaluation' value often refers to the economic or monetary worth assigned to a given resource – a definition closely tied to an almost all-pervading market influence. Heritage is not immune from this definition. One of the values identified is that of *use* (Darvill nd, 1994: 5; Mason 2008: 305), reflecting the value of a heritage asset as a consumable product, usually with a corresponding monetary value attached. This definition ties closely with instrumentalist approaches to government policy, particularly in the realm of environmental issues and the ideals of sustainability (Stockdale and Barker 2009; Vileniske 2008). Government guidance highlights the emphasis on use value through continual and pervasive emphasis in policy on the social and economic benefits of the guidance: the first objective identified in the 2009 consultation paper on the new Planning Policy Statement 15 (PPS15²) is listed as “to apply the principles of sustainable development to proposals involving the historic environment, by [taking account of the benefits of conservation]...such as encouraging sustainable tourism *to support economic growth* or re-using existing heritage assets for example *as part of regeneration*” (Department for Communities and Local Government 2009: 14, emphasis mine). The most obvious example of this approach to the value of heritage as promoted by the World Bank and described well in Samuel's (2008) work on value and significance in archaeology. This type of value is also critical to the fields of strategic and spatial planning, as well as environmental sustainability. A more detailed analysis of the role of heritage in these fields is given below.

Economic value may be the most quantifiable aspect of heritage, but it is certainly not what most would consider the core value of heritage. To understand better the definition of heritage, we must look at other, less quantifiable values. In this sense, heritage and value are symbiotic: heritage cannot exist without value and value is the defining characteristic of heritage. Heritage is myth and history, symbolic as well as structural, an experience and a psychological need, public and private, global and local.

² This was published as Planning Policy Statement 5 (PPS5) on March 23, 2010 (see Preface).

Heritage can never be fully divorced from myth. As much as archaeologists may want to think of themselves as scientists, uncovering the 'truth' about history, the subject always piques the imagination and invites references to myth, both ancient and modern. The underlying assumption being that mythology was defined by its untruthfulness, whereas archaeology was identified with science and therefore represents what 'really' happened in the past. Whilst in the past archaeologists may have scoffed at the idea of addressing mythological influence, the recognition of heritage as more than sites, monuments and artefacts means that we must address the role of myth in perceptions of heritage. When examining the needs met by myth-creation, we find heritage often serving the same purpose, creating social cohesion and group identity among those that share the myth (Edson 2004). As such, heritage may be seen as the combination of history and myth. Heritage thus becomes infinitely more difficult to define, as it then becomes a moving target, changing dependent on the needs of society. In fact, the changing nature of heritage may be one of the few constants in its ever-changing definition.

If heritage is myth, we must also reflect on the role of the archaeologist/historian/ heritage manager in the creation and definition of the myth. This debate stems from the differences in theoretical approaches to archaeology, which are discussed in more detail below. Archaeology arguably began with the search to prove myth: attempts to discover Troy, locate Noah's ark or find concrete evidence of the exodus from Egypt. Nowadays, mainstream archaeology tries to distance itself from such attempts. However, in order to do so, we must define what we mean by *myth*. Some may argue that myths are stories taken to be real, but without physical evidence of their truth. This may be the case when one refers to a 'creation myth' or Greek or Roman Mythology, or even the myth of Greek fire or Archimedes mirror (ala the *Mythbusters* television series). But what about the myth of the self-made man or the myth of utopia? In some cases, archaeology can assert its ability to weed out 'myth' from 'reality,' but in other cases such a separation will not be so easy. As we will see, this becomes particularly evident when interpreting the historic landscape.

In many cases, we may also have to ask ourselves if such a separation is even necessary.

The reasons for this desire to separate myth from reality revolve around issues of subjectivity, 'scientism' and reductionism. Issues of subjectivity are particularly prominent when dealing with concepts of value and significance. In order to maintain the definition of archaeology as a science, archaeologists have worked hard to present their discipline as objective. The processual archaeology of the late 20th century had the added benefit of being amenable to 'scientific' presentation with complex statistical analyses, detailed measurements and focused research plans. But values and significance are not easily quantified. This schism may not be of paramount importance when analysing materials from any given site or reconstructing ancient diets, but it takes centre stage when heritage is involved. To admit the need for subjective analysis can be interpreted as a threat to the very discipline of archaeology itself (Criado Boado 2001; McGovern 2008). This threat is coupled with a fear of reductionism (Birth 2006:175) – a threat that is very real when put into a context of the role of heritage in politics where complex ideas and processes are often reduced to a sound bite or press statement.

Related to heritage's connection with myth is the contemporaneity of heritage. Heritage itself is not about the past – it is about how the present intersects with the past. It is "a view from the present, either backward to a past or forward to a future" (Graham, et al. 2000: 2). Heritage changes not only with the needs of society, but also with current events, political trends and the cultural *zeitgeist*. This present-ness is related to myth as well, as "both myths and histories are narratives closely connected with the contemporary affairs of the tellers" (Birth 2006: 173). These contemporary affairs colour how we define heritage assets, resulting in heritage presenting "the 'desired' history, rather than the complex and often dissonant results of scientific historical research" (Van Gorp and Renes 2007: 408). This becomes especially problematic when managing heritage relies on legislation focusing on the material, rather than the

perceptual, aspects of heritage. Conflicts also arise as a result of increased public participation in the identification of heritage assets – an increasingly important part of the planning process.

Heritage is knowledge. Not only the knowledge of past events and their presence in the present, but also the knowledge of self. Individuals and communities identify themselves through heritage. Overtly, communities choose what parts of their heritage are promoted through designations such as lists of historic buildings, registers of ancient monuments or conservation areas. Communities also promote their heritage (and thus their identity) through festivals, economic activities and tourism. Identities are defined and reproduced through heritage in the same way as language produces and reproduces meaning (Graham et al. 2000). In this way, heritage becomes a language through which peoples' identities are created, modified and passed on through generations. The linguistic nature of heritage presents ample opportunities for miscommunication, but may also allow a baseline whereby different stakeholders can find a common language. The character of heritage as language is crucial, and forms the basis of my approach to developing a model to evaluate the historic landscape. Others note heritage's similarity to language, in that heritage is about the production and exchange of meaning, just as language is: "if language is a 'signifying practice', then so too is heritage" (Graham et al 2000: 3). Whereas language uses words to signify things (both tangible and intangible), heritage can be seen as using things (both tangible and intangible) to signify cultural values. Using language thus allows us to address both the traditional physical aspects of the historic landscape and the more-recent concerns over how to deal with intangible heritage. Chapter Three examines the relationship between language, heritage and landscape in more detail.

So, what is heritage? The physical remains of history certainly form the base of heritage, but it is the *values* ascribed that makes heritage. Identifying *valuable* buildings, monuments and archaeological sites can be a fairly straightforward activity, even if the reasons behind the values are

not fully understood (most people would agree that Stonehenge is a valuable heritage asset, even if their reasons for valuing it vary greatly). This raises several problems. First is because heritage requires value, those things that no one appears to value are not considered heritage. As straightforward as this sounds, it presents complications when we remember that values change over time. We cannot know what people will value as heritage in 20, 50 or 100 years. At the same time, we cannot expect to stop time and preserve everything as it is today – change is inevitable in 21st-century England. Of course, value is not an either/or equation, a yes-or-no question. The spectrum of value includes a wide variety of opinions and changes with time and scale. Value also relates to more than just the physical remains; it also includes those intangible values that are not always easily explained. Often, heritage managers focus on the tangible aspects and overlook those less physical characteristics. Complications arise when the heritage we are dealing with consists of not just buildings, sites or monuments, but the very landscape surrounding us everywhere and every day.

Conflicting Definitions: Landscape

The landscapes of England combine culture, history, archaeology, ecology and art in ways that are constantly changing, while also maintaining a certain air of timelessness. The landscape is pervasive – it cannot be cordoned off and preserved or travel around as an exhibit in a museum. Though parts of the historic landscape are easily identified as being historic, through the presence of monuments and standing architecture, other parts require an ‘expert eye’ to define the ancient patterns of interaction between man and nature. The field of landscape archaeology aims to reconcile the many approaches to the historic landscape.

Landscape archaeology may be the most theoretically multi-disciplinary specialism in archaeology. At a minimum, understanding the historic landscape requires knowledge of not only archaeology, but ecology, history, geography, geology, art history and political history. It is a curious

mixture of 'hard' and 'soft' sciences, with each discipline bringing a unique perspective to the mix. In examining the development of landscape archaeology, we find that, like *heritage*, the definition of *landscape* varies according to the agendas and theories of specific disciplines. Olwig (1996) provides a comprehensive review of the development and use of the term. He also traces the strong association between landscape and art in England, a connection that has direct influence on the study and treatment of the historic landscape (Johnson 2005; Johnson 2007). However, Olwig goes beyond the art of landscape to illustrate the effect of politics, law, custom and community in defining landscape as something that relies on people and not just nature for its meaning (though art certainly reflects these aspects of the landscape, as well as purely 'artistic' modes).

At this point, we must consider three broad definitions of *landscape*: the natural, the cultural and the political. The natural definition includes the ecology and biology, the flora and fauna within the landscape. This aspect of the landscape is emphasised by organisations like Natural England, and often forms the basis of environmental analysis of the landscape. Primary concerns in the natural landscape include biodiversity, endangered species, and sustainability by means of reducing loss (and expansion, if possible) of natural features. The role of human agency in the creation and/or maintenance of such landscape is often overlooked. The natural side of the landscape draws on popular interest in environmentalism to promote its conservation. Rarely, though, do these conservationists stop to ask if their work is in keeping with the historic character of the landscape. Writing on developments in countryside planning and management, Bishop and Phillips recognise that "conservation can no longer be about nature" (2004: 8). However, the new approaches identified for conservation focus on the protection of habitats, placing protection of habitats within the protection of natural processes and the recognition of the role of biodiversity in sustainable development (ibid: 7-8). Natural England's Landscape Character Assessment (LCA), uses "geology, topography, drainage patterns, vegetation and historical land use

and settlement pattern” to identify character types (Swanwick 2004: 112). Though LCA acknowledges the influence of history on the development of the landscape, most of its emphases lay elsewhere. LCA has been dominant in the management of landscape, mostly because it has been more widely promoted as a management tool than other approaches, namely English Heritage’s Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC). In many instances, even those working in planning are unaware that there is a difference. Simplistically, these differences can be divided into two camps: the 'lumpers' and the 'splitters' – those that see the landscape as a single entity and those that see it as made up of distinct components.

The political definition of the landscape is the one identified and codified by legislation. This is the definition used in England’s Planning and Policy Statements, the European Landscape Convention (ELC), and much of the written guidance provided by experts for the purpose of management. Indeed, the ELC definition of landscape has been incorporated into all levels of management guidance, from local plans to national, international and even global (in the form of World Heritage Sites) approaches. The UK, having accepted the ELC, has therefore also accepted the definitions of the ELC. In order to understand the problems facing the management needs of the historic environment, we need to understand the variety of ways in which *landscape* is defined in these policy documents.

Since its acceptance by the UK in 2007, the ELC definition of landscape has dominated discussions of its management:

“‘Landscape’ means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors”

(ELC, I:1a)

This definition reflects the Council of Europe’s role as a moral voice to Europe, and as one that is concerned with quality of life and individual and social well-being (ELC, Preamble). This definition is purposefully vague and subjective. The focus on human perception reflects the current

interests of cultural geographers and archaeological theorists. It is a very qualitative definition, without much room for measuring the objectives of individual countries' goals for their landscapes. The landscape of the ELC, being "a creature of changeable cultural perceptions and identity" leads inevitably to questions of how "to analyze (*sic*) and plan such a landscape"(Olwig 2007: 581). Indeed, this definition of landscape is counterintuitive when examining policy in England, where the proposed new Planning Policy Statement 15 (PPS 15, *Planning and the Historic Environment*), which encourages local governments to develop "plans with clean historic environment objectives, targets and performance indicators." Others (Jones et al 2007) have noted that this contradictory approach to landscape creates problems within a variety of disciplines. This approach, however, is consistent with other planning policy and guidance which focus on the development of plans for Local Development Frameworks and methods of identifying and reporting on the impact of these plans on government objectives such as affordable housing, sustainability, social inclusion and well-being.

The historic environment is defined politically by the spatial and strategic planning system. The details of how these systems function and relate to each other are discussed further below. Our main concern here is that spatial planning is "a delivery vehicle for the social, economic and environmental infrastructure needed for our communities and it is the mechanism for managing this delivery process" (University College London and Deloitte 2007: 5). In other words, spatial planning is the instrument for change. Though the practice of planning did not start out life with this purpose, current political philosophy has transformed the purpose of strategic and spatial planning and is clearly evident in recent publications (Allmendinger and Haughton 2007; Cullingworth and Nadin 2006; Department for Communities and Local Government 2008; Tewdwr-Jones 1999; Tewdwr-Jones, et al. 2000; Williams 1996). Thus, the definition of landscape becomes one that focuses on the benefits that landscape has on the greater society. When dealing with the historic landscape and heritage benefits, it may well be that this definition of

landscape conflicts with the archaeological, geographical or historical definitions of landscape. The so-called 'instrumental' uses of landscape (and heritage) play an important role in political definitions of landscape and heritage, as well as in the development of policies for treatment of the same. These are discussed in more detail below as part of the theoretical approaches to landscape and the purposes and needs of the planning system.

Conflicting Methods and Theories

How then is landscape defined by those most closely involved with its historic facet? To answer this question we must first identify who it is that creates and uses such a definition. Archaeology is, of course, concerned with the definition of the historic landscape. However, so are the disciplines of history, cultural geography and ecology. Even within the field of archaeology, different types of archaeologists have developed different definitions for the term 'historic landscape' (for a synthesis of these developments, see, for example Darvill 2008).

Gone are the days of Hoskins (1955) and Rackham (1986), where the historic landscape was the domain of specialised landscape historians and rarely considered by those outside this speciality. In many ways, the early landscape historians' definitions of the historic landscape mirrored the natural definitions, though with slightly more emphasis on the human impact than on nature. Since then, more disciplines have been brought into the fold. Landscape archaeology has tried to incorporate many of these approaches.

Any study of landscape archaeology inevitably runs into the problem of defining the emphasis of the topic: should one focus on the *landscape* or the *archaeology* part of the discipline? The tradition of landscape archaeology in England tends to link the discipline more closely with landscape than archaeology (Hoskins 1955; Johnson 1999, 2007; Turner 2007). We cannot call it one or the other and yet the combination does not

do justice to the many disciplinary and theoretical influences that have shaped current studies in landscape archaeology. Yet the choice of emphasis has implications that are both theoretical and practical in terms of how one identifies, evaluates, and treats the historic landscape. I have divided these approaches into two main camps, which I call the *Physical* and the *Cognitive* approaches. Table One provides a brief summary of the differences. In many ways, the differences between the two approaches to archaeological theory reflect the same lumpers/splitters dichotomy as seen in approaches to the definition of landscape, with processual archaeology (a physical approach) focuses on individual components that make up the archaeological record, whereas the post-processual (cognitive) approach aims for a more holistic interpretation.

Physical Emphasis	Cognitive Emphasis
Connects sites, monuments and archaeological features	Looks beyond the physical elements of the landscape to include activities and thought
Positivist philosophy	Post-modern philosophy
Quantitative	Qualitative
Science/ Technology based	Emotional and individual
Descriptive	Experiential and constantly changing.

Table 1: Approaches to landscape archaeology

An archaeologist may define the historic landscape as archaeological sites and monuments existing near each other in space, perhaps connected by 'landscape features' such as walls, hedgerows or roads. In this definition, the sites, monuments, artefacts and human-created features take precedence over natural elements and the key to understanding the historic landscape is in the excavation, analysis and understanding of the archaeological sites and features (Alfrey 2007: 87; Bender 1993: 250, map 8.1). This is most likely to be the definition of the archaeologist in the field, trained in the scientific practice of archaeology and educated in a strong processual tradition. As such, this definition of the historic landscape is rooted in positivist approaches to archaeology and geography and has a

strong technological basis in its application (Austin 2007). It is a very British approach to the historic landscape (Thomas 1993:19).

There is another approach to defining the historic landscape, though: one that reflects changes in the philosophies underlying modern approaches to cultural geography, anthropology and history. Often called phenomenology, I think it may be better termed *experientialism*, as its concern is mainly with how individuals *experience* the world around them (in this case, how they experience their heritage through the landscape). Tilley (1994: 12), in fact, defines phenomenology as “[involving] the understanding and description of things as they are experienced by a subject,” though the philosophical theory of phenomenology was originally more concerned with the identification of the *things* (ie phenomena) than the human perception of such things (Barfield 1997: 353). The role of experience in landscape is connected to instrumentalist concerns regarding the so-called services provided by landscapes, such as “quality of life, including spiritual enrichment, cognitive development, reflection, recreation and aesthetic enjoyment” (Fleming and Wharton 2009: 10). It is the experience of the individual within the landscape that is supposed to provide these services. This definition of the historic landscape is rooted in the so-called ‘new’ geography and ‘new’ archaeology.

The conflicts apparent in the different definitions of the historic landscape reflect a greater conflict continuing in the field of archaeology as a whole. Conflicting archaeological methods and theories manifest themselves in the conflicting approaches to the historic landscape. Criticism of the treatment of the historic landscape within the planning system, however, is based primarily on these theoretical conflicts. In order to understand these criticisms and, thus, to address them, we must examine the theoretical and methodological conflicts in greater depth.

Discussions on the treatment of the historic landscape are bound inextricably to debates on the epistemology of landscape archaeology. The debates over the nature and use of archaeological knowledge that

began in the 1960s continue today, no more so than in England and on the topic of landscape archaeology. The influence of the positivist 'New Archaeology' in England has been linked to differences in the institutional organisation of archaeology as a discipline (Johnson 1999: 28ff). In this way, archaeology in England aligned itself theoretical with the study of the natural sciences. Meanwhile, the great English tradition of landscape archaeology followed its Romantic roots, allying itself more with the theoretical traditions of geography, art and literature than with biology and chemistry (Johnson 1999, 2007; Johnson 2005; Tilley 1994).

The 'scientific' practice of archaeology espoused by processual archaeology still dominates English archaeology, particularly in the practice of developer-funded archaeology and heritage management. Though tempered by reference and allusion to contexts and interpretation, the focus still falls on artefacts and 'finds', individual sites and monuments, descriptions, measurements and data. This is so engrained into the psyche of archaeology, that even books purporting to be post-processualist in tone categorise the 'components of heritage' into portable objects (artefacts), buildings, sites (as a place to find artefacts), and monuments (Carman 2001). Though landscape is also considered a component of heritage, the emphasis is on planned landscapes, gardens and battlefields (ibid: 52ff). These aspects of the landscape are emphasised by means of legislative protection, funding opportunities and tourism promotions.

Due to its close connections with cultural geography, landscape archaeology has been more open to the influences of postmodernism than other archaeological specialisms. The earliest English landscape archaeologists utilised experience as their primary methodology. Though 'scientific' archaeology dismissed the narrative of personal experience as subjective, it remained predominant as the end product of historic landscape studies. It should come as no surprise, then, that current interpretations of the historic landscape focus on individual perception and experience.

The experience of the landscape follows post-processual archaeological objectives of identifying meaning from material culture. Early post-processual analysis applied mainly to attempts to understand the experience of artefacts (see, for example, Spector 1996). However, more recent works combining both post-processual archaeology and phenomenology address landscape (Bruck 2005; Hamilton, et al. 2006). In both the case of the artefact and the case of the landscape, linguistic analogies permeate. The artefact is seen as “a document that describes our past, an image that reflects our present, and a sign that calls us into the future” (Richardson 1989: 172), and landscapes are *read* (Muir 2000). Aside from the obviously textual inferences in the language, the description of ‘the artefact’ easily correlates to landscape, perhaps even more easily than it does to other types of material culture, due to the nature of the historic landscape as a palimpsest gradually evolved over time and the role played by writings on the history of the landscape (Johnson 2007). Richardson (1989) uses the work of George Herbert Mead to develop a theory of artefact as the result of social behaviours. Of particular interest to the landscape archaeologist are the connections Richardson makes between nature and human behaviour and the idea of setting as “a constellation of acts collapsed into symbols which, like the generalized other, inform our actions and give them their particular character” (ibid: 174). The combination of action within nature and the creation of symbols working together to create a setting – a *context* – is perfectly suited for the analysis of value in the historic landscape.

This is not a new approach to archaeology. Hodder proposed an interpretive framework for what he called “contextual archaeology,” (1991: 7) drawing from dialectical traditions in hermeneutics and with the goal of a dialogue leading to change (ibid: 14). Whilst Hodder's work was part of the post-processual movement, it was also a reaction to the subjectivity of post-processual archaeology and the ways that post-processual interpretations are written. The return of context to archaeology means not only the physical context of the archaeological material, but also the

context in which archaeology is used and communicated. Many of the problems of contemporary heritage management exist within the contexts of the use and communication of the archaeological heritage. The emphasis on individual perceptions and multivocality of interpretations has led to what Criado calls “hyper-hermeneutics” (2001: 29), where critical analysis of archaeological knowledge fell by the wayside, “shielded by the principle that everything is interpretation” (ibid). Far from incorporating multiple viewpoints and leading to the aforementioned democratisation, this approach further isolates archaeological knowledge from other forms of knowledge. As Hodder points out, “the new theories and the new ways of writing them often serve to make archaeological texts more obscure and difficult for anyone but the highly trained theorist to decipher” (1991: 9).

The overall impression provided by the literature groups academic archaeology with theory (particularly post-processual theory) and portrays archaeological resource management as being without a sufficient (or any) theoretical base. Indeed, the field of archaeological resource management³ has been described recently as “instinctively hostile to all explicit archaeological theory and will require careful persuasion to consider even the basics of a post-processual theoretical approach” (McGovern 2008: 7). Aside from the sheer audacity of this statement, it also illustrates a clear desire to correlate post-processualism with *all* archaeological theory. We must be careful to avoid such mistakes, as they deny the benefits previous theoretical approaches have provided the discipline as well as alienating those who fail to take such radical views. Indeed, post-processualism, from its earliest days in archaeology, has been criticised for being too reliant on theory, often to the effect of ignoring method. Hodder even stated that “so much emphasis has been placed on theoretical discussion and theoretical criteria that the method of post-processual archaeology is theory” (1991: 8).

³ Archaeological practice for the purposes of compliance with legislation and government policy goes by many names: cultural resources management, heritage management, archaeological resource management, archaeological heritage management, etc. For the purpose of my research, I will use the term *archaeological resource management* to refer to this type of work.

One of the key issues that separate out the two main camps of archaeological theory is that of measurability. Processual archaeology focuses on the quantifiable aspects of the discipline: information that can be counted, measured, statistically manipulated, presented in histograms and chi squares, plugged into sophisticated computer software to create flashy graphics. Post-processual archaeology expands its focus into less quantifiable and more qualitative questions relating to behaviour, meaning and perception. This is not to say that post-processual archaeological methods reject any measurements. Recent work in archaeology and planning attempts to measure, quantify and formulate qualitative information (Bruck 2005; Bulut and Yilmaz 2008; Hamilton, et al. 2006; Selman and Knight 2006; Tilley 1994). When examined in light of broader research and policy concerns, the reason for this is clear: spatial planning and policy development look for measurable targets that can be used to demonstrate accountability and instrumental benefits to the wider public.

Conflicting Needs and Purposes: Archaeology

To understand the problems created by these differing theoretical approaches, we must ask the question “what is the purpose of archaeology?” As mentioned above, archaeology is now (for better or worse) part of government policy, where the crucial issue is in the definition of purpose and need. The rift between academic archaeology and archaeological resource management is both a cause and result of the different purposes served by archaeology. On the one hand, academic archaeology strives to understand the past: the technology, home life, rituals and events through analysis of the material culture left by those that went before. On the other hand, archaeological resource management is a response to diverse political needs. Research and knowledge very rarely enter into the practice as anything other than a fortunate by-product of policy implementation. A heuristic model is needed to identify and explain the interactions between the political and the academic sides of archaeology and to find ways of being able to not only comply with political needs but also produce good archaeology in the process.


The conflict between these two types of archaeology – the academic and the political – parallels conflict in archaeological theory. When dealing with the different approaches to the historic landscape, this conflict is played out on the battlefield of Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC). The primary reason for this contestation is found in intention: the reasons behind the development of HLC, its intended uses and the practicality of how and why it is currently used by those within an ARM framework. To understand these conflicts, we must examine the brief history of HLC and its context.

English Heritage developed the concept of HLC to fill the gap in current archaeological resource management and allow for a more comprehensive approach to the historic environment than had been previously available (Aldred and Fairclough 2003; 2007: 7). One goal of HLC was to create a tool for use in managing change within the historic environment. HLC, as it currently exists, has been described as such a tool (Aldred and Fairclough 2003; 2007: 7), which would ensure consideration of the historic landscape within a development context (Lake 2007), contribute to “future discussions about the management of the landscape” (Dixon 2007: 73), and form a “key part of the heritage management strategies” in England (Rippon 2007: 3). Turner identifies HLC as future-oriented archaeological approach to planning in the abstract of his paper, but then backs off this confident description when he lists the value the HLC approach as extending “well beyond their immediate application by archaeologists” by potentially providing “a mechanism to facilitate communication, both between various academic and professional disciplines concerned with landscape and amongst different groups of the wider public” (Turner 2006a: 386). While it is clear that HLC is meant to have a crucial role in the planning process, it is also apparent from these diverse views that this role has not been clearly identified, nor have the proponents of HLC focused their attention on the incorporation of HLC into the planning process, preferring instead to leave that to others. It is unsurprising, then, that HLC has not been embraced within planning

circles, whereas other approaches (namely, Natural England's Landscape Character Assessment) have found widespread acceptance.

Before HLC can be incorporated into a planning process, it must be developed. The history of HLC development has been discussed in numerous other publications; the recounting of this history seemingly pre-requisite for any new HLC being prepared (Aldred and Fairclough 2003; Clark et al 2004; Finch 2007; Herring 2007; Rippon 2004; Rouse 2008). HLC began in 1994 in Cornwall and rapidly caught on with other counties, parks, and local authorities. Much of England now has completed HLC (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: HLC Coverage as of 2009. Image courtesy of English Heritage



From the beginning of HLC as a process, diversity was encouraged, and each HLC developed in a slightly different way from the ones that came before, though many based themselves on one or more of the original models. Figure 3 provides an illustration from the Cornwall HLC, showing the different HLC types and how they are presented through mapping. This diversity of approaches, according to proponents, encouraged the identification of local characteristics rather than a 'top-down' approach that would try to fit all of England's local distinctiveness into a few pre-determined categories. As a result, local characteristics may have been captured by the HLC process, but the comparability of the results between adjacent counties (or even within areas within the same county) also suffered. In addition, the lack of consistency in basic terminology and definitions between the various HLCs raises the potential for confusion and misinterpretation among those who use and maintain HLC resources (see, for example, Williamson 2007). This diversity of HLC development anticipates the potential for diverse applications within the planning process (including the same degree of lack of comparability). Most noticeably, the variety of HLC types and the level of detail show considerable diversity. Comparing an example of Cornwall's HLC Types (see in Figure 3) with a later example from Suffolk (Figure 4), one can see the level of complexity increasing in terms of the scale of distinct HLC Types identified and mapped. Even allowing for significant differences in the general landscape of Suffolk compared with Cornwall, the level of detail expressed in later HLC can be seen to be much greater than the earlier projects.

For all the diversity within and between the various HLC resources, many of them look surprisingly alike, and this may add to the confusion faced by users and administrators. By and large, HLC is translated to its general audience as a map – often a computer-generated, GIS-based map, but a map nonetheless. Though one of the purposes of HLC is to develop a tool for management of the historic landscape, the more recognisable and immediate goal is to map the landscape. Rippon (2007) describes HLC as a response to the desire to map the historic landscape. Likewise,

Figure 3: A selection of the Cornwall HLC, illustrating the level of detail offered by the Historic Landscape Types. Source: Cornwall County Council

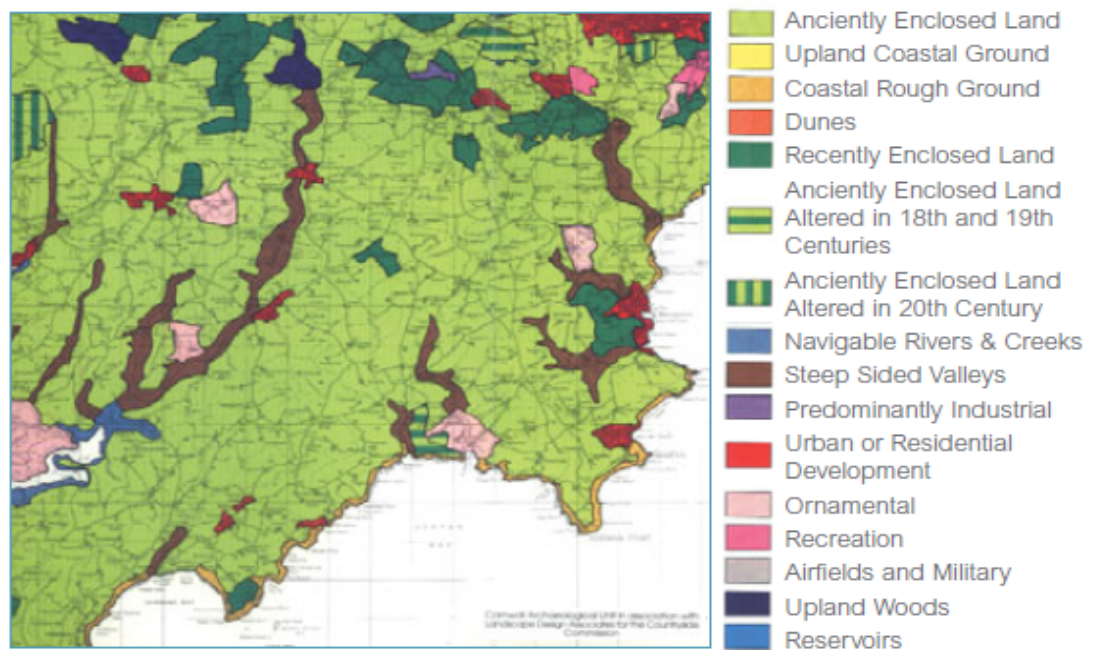
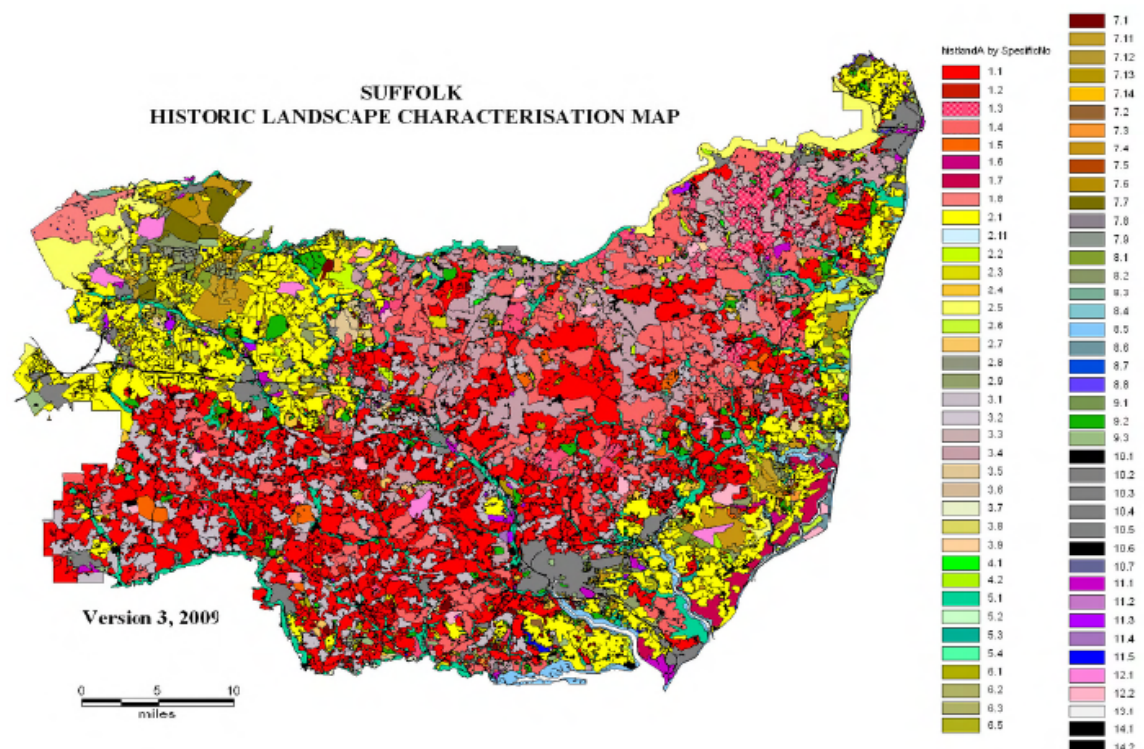


Figure 4: Suffolk Historic Landscape Characterisation, illustrating the increased level of detail in later HLC programmes. Each individual colour block on the right hand side designates a separate and distinct landscape type. Source: <http://www.suffolk.gov.uk/Environment/Archaeology/LandscapeProjects/>



Williamson identifies the primary goal of HLC as the “capturing and recording” of local landscapes, and views its impact on planning as “something of an undesirable side effect” (2007: 64). This seems to reflect an assumption that such a map is a sufficient tool for the management of the historic landscape.

The use of maps as a tool for studying the historic landscape is as old as the study of the historic landscape. Whether the map involved was an historic Ordnance Survey map, a Tithe map, or a hand-drawn map generated in the field by the archaeologist, the map has long been the primary way in which the historic landscape was studied. As such, it seems reasonable to assume that the production of a map of the historic landscape’s character is the appropriate place to begin. In some cases, the mapping of the historic landscape has been taken as the purpose of HLC, and the map itself seen as the end product of the characterisation exercise. The map has also been given primary importance in the incorporation of HLC into the planning process. Indeed, Williamson’s view mentioned above is not unique. HLC has been called “the best-known technique used for [mapping the historic landscape]” (Rippon 2007: 3). In Scotland, the characterisation process, known as Historic Land-Use Assessment, was specifically designed “to create a digital map of the origins of the present countryside to enable it to be managed in a comprehensive way for the first time” (Dixon 2007: 72).

The use of maps for interpreting and presenting information on the landscape is not without its critics. Maps are not the objective and indifferent objects that we often like to think they are. Map-making incorporates, consciously or unconsciously, ideas of power, control and value (Bender 1999; Harley 1988). Even GIS is not immune from the hazards of unconsciously reflecting the biases of the creators/modifiers of the maps. This is particularly acute in the promotion of GIS as an ‘objective’ approach to presenting past geographies (Gregory and Healey 2007). This perceived objectivity closely mirrors the promotion of HLC as a ‘value-neutral’ approach to the historic landscape (a concern that will be

addressed in more detail below).

Considering the prominence of maps in the study of the historic landscape, it comes as no surprise that the roots of HLC have been placed within the study of cultural geography (Johnson 2007; Lozny 2008; Turner 2006a: 386; Turner 2007). Others view HLC in terms of its association with historical ecology (McGovern 2008), and the *Annales* tradition in history (Lake 2007; McGovern 2008; Turner 2006b). This approach to the study of history focuses on setting historic events into a context, much in the same way as anthropological archaeology strives to place sites and artefacts into a larger, social context. The *Annales* school has been described as an approach that “helped history become more anthropological and processual – that is, to understand total cultural systems rather than just tell stories about its political events” (Johnson 1999: 150). As an approach to archaeology in general and landscape in particular, the *Annales* approach looks to examine the *longue durée* of geology, prehistory and history to construct a comprehensive view of the development of culturally distinct areas (see, for example, Fairclough 2006; 2008).

Johnson (2007) convincingly sets landscape archaeology as a discipline within the realm of the English Romantic tradition, incorporating the multiple approaches included therein. The Romanticism expressed by Wordsworth and his contemporaries was socialist as well as libertarian, radical, populist, and reactionary. The influence of Romanticism on Marx suggests an underlying Romantic approach to Marxist interpretations of archaeology, placing the Romantic view within the realm of processual archaeology (ibid: 25). At the same time, postmodern theory in cultural geography has incorporated “neo-Marxist cultural critique” into its own approach to the understanding of place and space (Lozny 2008: 21). The understanding and promotion of a 'sense of place' and the “social well being (sic) ... attached to the sense of rootedness in place” (ibid) feature prominently in current discussions of the goals for strategic and spatial planning. As such, this connection between landscape theory and spatial

planning provides a vital link between academic theory and practical application.

Conflicting Purpose and Need: Planning

As we can see, HLC attempts to address a wide range of issues. My concern here, however, is the original goal of HLC – that of a management tool. In order to understand how HLC relates to the management of the historic environment, we must consider the context of such management. Two main Planning and Policy Guidances (PPGs) address the subject of archaeological research management: PPG 15 (1994), dealing with planning and the historic environment and PPG 16 (1990), dealing specifically with planning and archaeology. This guidance is supplemented by circulars (01/01 and 05/09) that deal with specific arrangements and amendments to PPG 15. The planning system frames the questions of conservation, sustainability, environmental stewardship, and public interest. Issues regarding treatment of the historic environment are considered vital to these concepts.

Purpose and Need: Heritage Planning Policy and Guidance

What then are the goals of PPG 15 and 16? According to PPG 15, the Government “must ensure that the means are available to identify what is special in the historic environment... and, when proposals for new development come forward, to assess their impact on the historic environment and give it full weight” (section 1.3). The language of PPG 16 is a bit more vague, as its role is to give “advice on the handling of archaeological remains and discoveries ... including the weight to be given to them in planning decisions” (section 1). In addition to these goals, PPG 15 and 16 also spell out the responsible parties for carrying out the stipulations of the guidance. In most cases, the local authorities are identified as those responsible for ensuring the implementation of the guidance. However, the guidance does not exempt others – businesses, voluntary bodies, churches, individual property owners, users, and visitors – from their collective and personal responsibilities regarding the treatment

of the historic environment (PPG15, section 1.7). To assist with carrying out these responsibilities, the guidance notes that there should be “adequate processes of consultation and education to facilitate [the Government policy for conservation]” (ibid). For impacts to archaeological sites, PPG 16 places much of the onus for compliance with the guidance on the applicant for planning permission (most often a developer).

PPG 15 provides ample information regarding the development of structure, local, and unitary development plans for the purpose of facilitating development control related to potential impacts to listed buildings and conservation areas. Likewise, PPG 16 presents comparable information regarding the treatment of archaeological sites (other than Scheduled Monuments, which have their own regulations). However, when discussing the wider historic landscape, not much guidance is provided. Instead of considering the wider historic landscape within the planning process, PPG 15 considers this the realm of land management. Here, it is beneficial to quote the section of PPG 15 in full:

2.26 Conservation of the wider historic landscape greatly depends on active land management, but there is nevertheless a significant role for local planning authorities. In defining planning policies for the countryside, authorities should take account of the historical dimension of the landscape as a whole rather than concentrate on selected areas. Adequate understanding is an essential preliminary and authorities should assess the wider historic landscape at an early state in development plan preparation. Plans should protect its most important components and encourage development that is consistent with maintaining its overall historic character. Indeed, policies to strengthen the rural economy through environmentally sensitive diversification may be among the most important for conservation.

What is obviously excluded from this guidance is any sense of *how* this is

to be accomplished. Further on in the guidance, PPG 15 states that approaches to the wider historic landscape are being developed by the Countryside Commission and English Heritage (section 6.40). Though the approaches are not identified, they are described as being “more flexible, and more likely to be effectively integrated with the aims of the planning process” (ibid). The greater historic landscape is not addressed in PPG 16.

A wider context: Heritage, Strategic Planning and Sustainability

The guidance given in PPG 15/16 forms part of a larger picture, which is the practice of spatial planning. Spatial planning has evolved from its original goals stated in the Housing, Town Planning, etc Act of 1909: “the home healthy, the house beautiful, the town pleasant, the city dignified and the suburb salubrious” (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 16). Spatial planning is now “a delivery vehicle for the social, economic and environmental infrastructure needed for our communities and it is the mechanism for managing this delivery process” (University College London and Deloitte 2007:5). In other words, spatial planning is the instrument for change. This philosophy of instrumentalism is evident in current writings on spatial and strategic planning (Allmendinger and Haughton 2007; Cullingworth and Nadin 2006; Department for Communities and Local Government 2008; Tewdwr-Jones 1999; Tewdwr-Jones, et al. 2000; Williams 1996).

Instrumentalism has also been recognised as a force for change within heritage management (Darvill nd). This brings us to another important question: what are the goals of heritage management? This question cannot be answered easily. Every person interacting with the historic environment will have their own ideas as to what ‘management’ of heritage should be. To some, it will be the protection and preservation of historic buildings, archaeological sites and monuments, or historic parks and gardens. To others, it will be excavation of archaeological sites, education of the public and publications. Others still will consider heritage

management the process by which development is facilitated or even as bureaucratic 'hoops' to be jumped through for permissions to develop. Mostly, however, official documents and guidance have focused on heritage management not as having goals of its own, but of being the instrument by which sustainability can be achieved within not only the historic environment, but across all parts of society.

'Sustainability' is probably the most-used catchphrase of 21st century planning. Spatial planning plays a key role in creating sustainability, or so the documents say. However, the meaning of 'sustainability' is as varied as the people using the term. According to Cullingworth and Nadin, "there is a view that the word has been so badly abused and misused that it has lost any useful meaning; it now serves to obscure rather than reveal the real issues" (2006: 250). Even more elusive than a definition of sustainability are ways to create and measure sustainability. What is clear is that the concept of sustainability is closely related to goals of diversity, social cohesion, environmental responsibility, economic prosperity, and affordable housing. For example, Pearce (1993) links sustainability with renewable resources and maintenance of the Earth's environmental carrying capacity. The Environment Agency (2000) focuses instead on issues of creating wealth, protecting the environment and improving quality of life. Through these diverse definitions, the line between instrumentalism and sustainability becomes quite blurred. It may be tempting to think that such concerns do not relate to heritage, that they refer instead to the realms of energy production and economic development. However, the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) states that sustainable communities can be delivered by putting the historic environment at the centre of the planning system (2007: 7). One of the primary ways in which heritage contributes to sustainable development is through the use of existing resources: adaptive re-use of historic buildings and the continued economic viability of historic town/ city centres are principal concepts in the sustainability debate (Powter and Ross 2005: 6). The role of the rural historic landscape, however, lags behind in this debate.

The concept of sustainability has been embraced worldwide, and figures prominently in European Union (EU) discourse regarding spatial planning. The Treaty on European Union, concerning the basic principles of the EU, identifies one of the tasks of the EU as “sustainable and non-inflationary growth respecting the environment” (Article 2, in Williams 1996). The volume covering policies and proposals for EU action, and responsibilities for implementation for the EU’s Fifth Environmental Action Programme (for 1993-2000) is aptly entitled *Towards Sustainability* (ibid: 197). Until recent times, the UK government has rejected or at least diluted the influence of EU planning directives on policies for the UK (Tewdwr-Jones, et al. 2000). At this point, however, the UK is clearly moving forward to incorporate the aims of EU policies into its own, though often with careful ‘re-branding’ to ensure the policies remained sufficiently British (see, for example, Allmendinger and Haughton 2007; Tewdwr-Jones 1999; Tewdwr-Jones et al. 2000; University College and Deloitte 2007). The main differences in the EU and UK approaches to spatial planning is scale. European Union guidance promotes a supranational, inter-territorial approach to planning, with the ultimate goal of bringing each of the EU member states to a state of equality with each other in terms of sustainable development, social cohesion, and economic competitiveness (Williams 1996). At the same time, reforms to the British planning system focus on devolution of centralised control to promote local and regional frameworks designed to recognise and encourage development reflective of local distinctiveness (Allmendinger and Haughton 2007; Department for Communities and Local Government 2007, University College London and Deloitte 2007: 42ff).

Global goals, local controls

Though EU directives and guidance reference the historic environment and the need to protect Europe’s ‘cultural and natural heritage,’ very few details are given. In this respect, all heritage management is local. In England, general guidance is given by DCMS and English Heritage (2007

and 2008, respectively) on the subjects of heritage protection and management of the historic environment. The DCMS white paper proposes a unified approach to the recording of historic places and a unified legislative approach towards treatment of historic assets. There exists a strong preference, though, for local-level input in recording, assessing, and identifying appropriate treatment for historic assets. The need to balance local and national priorities causes continual conflicts regarding responsibility and decision-making: whereas small-scale local decisions are made almost entirely under the direction of local governments, large-scale (and often high-impact) proposals frequently override local processes, choosing instead to make decisions at a national level.

However, it is at the local level that most decisions regarding heritage management are made. These decisions are supposed to be made based on the material considerations associated with application for development and primarily are to relate to a local development plan (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 159). A plan-led system has been in place since 1991 and reviews of the efficacy of this approach found it to be too complex, difficult to understand, unclear regarding planning consents, and lacking strong community engagement (University College London and Deloitte 2007:10). The response to these complaints was implementation of a spatial planning approach, as part of the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004. In practice, however, this does not appear to have made the process any more efficient or easily understood. Policy guidance notes have been changed to policy statements, regional planning guidance are to be turned into regional spatial strategies, local plans expand to create local development frameworks to include plans, mandatory core strategies, site-specific allocations, statements of community involvement and monitoring plans (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 120-121). Consequently, the 2-year period following the implementation of the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004 saw “an unprecedented amount of plan making across the country” (University College London and Deloitte 2007: foreword). The key here is plan

making; very little practical guidance is available on plan *implementation*. The same document that tells of the increase in the production of spatial plans admits that “there is little common understanding of what this means in practice” (ibid: 1).

As mentioned, spatial planning represents the latest trend in town and country planning. In my opinion, focus on integrating sectoral policy and practice for purposes of development control, involvement of the public and evidence-based reasoning – all principal goals of spatial planning – can be related to one single issue: how decisions are made by planning authorities. One of the primary needs of the planning system, if we wish to make positive contributions to society, is a “more dynamic and timely plan and decision making process” (Nadin 2006: 5). The remaining requirements identified in *The Role and Scope of Spatial Planning* can all be related to this need for an understandable decision-making process. The “inclusive and effective participation and consultation that lends confidence to plans and decisions” (ibid) is, in fact, restating the need to have a decision-making process that others can understand and follow, in order to allow for their opinions and wishes to be addressed as well as to illustrate clearly how a decision is made so that, even if not everyone agrees it is the right decision, all can agree that the issue has been critically thought out. “More effective collaboration with ...stakeholders ... that leads to integrated objectives and joined-up policy” (ibid) can also be achieved by ensuring the decision-making process is clear and concise: when all stakeholders begin with the same process for decision making, each stakeholder’s input can be evaluated within the relevant context for reaching a truly collaborative decision. The need for “more positive, evidence-based reasoning ...in managing change” would likely be met with a clear process for evaluating evidence – making decisions about what evidence is relevant and important – and a clear process for how that evidence is applied when making the final decision.

Heritage in the Planning Process

HLC fits neatly into the idea of evidence-based decision-making: the production of HLC maps and accompanying documentation creates a dataset that greatly enhances the existing evidence base. However, archaeologists have been reluctant to use this dataset to make planning decisions. Some work has been done regarding decision-making with regards to archaeological decisions (Waller 2008), but the focus has been on decisions made within the realm of archaeological investigations: types of surveys, the number and nature of testing techniques and the continual question of whether to preserve *in situ* or by record. Decisions regarding value, significance and importance within the historic environment are left to others. Archaeology no longer wishes to place relative importance on specific types of cultures, materials, or structures. However, spatial planning (and, really, all town and country planning) is primarily about making decisions: how and where to develop, what to preserve, how to accomplish larger societal goals. For this reason, it is necessary for archaeologists to admit the need for defining and communicating the ways in which heritage assets are important not only to those who study them, but to society as a whole.

The debate over how historic assets are valued and who gets to do the valuation continues. Movements towards greater inclusivity and participation in government determinations have forced archaeologists to question who gets to assign value to historic resources and why. Whereas the post-processual approach to archaeological theory has provided us with a framework for accepting that value is relative and depends as much on a person's background, culture and perception as it does on any shared notion of value, it has not done much to prepare us to argue our own cases against alteration or possible destruction of the historic environment. The benefits of a postmodern/ post-processualist approach to evaluating the significance of historic resources are in the way in which such an approach has opened up communications between archaeologists and the general public and provided a much more comprehensive evaluation of heritage. However, we cannot leave things at the level of discourse and discussion when the planning system is

involved. Decisions must be made. If archaeologists cannot make the decisions, they will be made for us.

The idea of significance, or “what matters to whom and why in heritage” (Clark 2006: 59) is key to understanding the amount and nature of change a historic asset can withstand and, therefore, what development can and cannot be allowed. Within the planning system, the idea of significance has its place both in development control and in proactive spatial planning. Under the current planning policy guidance for the historic environment, there is a presumption in favour of preservation when archaeological sites, listed buildings and/or scheduled monuments may be impacted by development (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 288ff; Office of the Deputy Prime Minister 2006a, b). However, it should be noted that the presumption is for the preservation of aspects of ‘special architectural and historic interest.’ If those aspects of special architectural and historic interest are not first clearly defined, the presumption risks becoming one in favour of preservation of all aspects of the historic environment, regardless of their ability to convey any architectural or historic interest. I argue that it is the responsibility of archaeologists, historians, architectural historians, and heritage managers to develop clear and concise manners in which to assess the significance of the various components of the historic environment and to work with planners to ensure these procedures are incorporated into the planning system. The CTV model presented below draws distinctions between what is ‘significance’ and what is ‘value’ to clarify ways in which these terms can be used in applying HLC to planning questions.

The 2007 White Paper *Heritage Protection for the 21st Century*, places the historic environment “at the heart of an effective planning system” (Department for Culture Media and Sport 2007: 7). Clearly, heritage management is not meant to be a last-minute add-on to plans and policies – it is meant to be one of the key aspects of effective spatial planning, an all-encompassing context into which sustainability can take hold. However, it also should not be about merely ring-fencing places and

preventing any and all change. The first step in the heritage planning process is designation – what do we protect and how (ibid: 11). The White Paper goes on to define designation as “identifying those aspects of our past that are the most important to us, and explaining why they are important” (ibid). The current system of listed buildings, scheduled monuments, and recorded archaeological sites provides a simple way of inventorying such assets, but has not done so well in enabling the easy identification of *why* they are important. In particular, the identification and explanation of ‘special architectural, historic or archaeological interest’ may be insufficient for the purposes of making decisions regarding proposed change.

English Heritage’s *Conservation Principles* provides the basis for assessing and evaluating historic resources. The subtitle of the *Conservation Principles – Policies and Guidance for the Sustainable Management of the Historic Environment* – alludes to the role in which the Principles are to be used, and the introduction spells out the goals more explicitly. Here, Lord Bruce-Lockhart, Chairman of English Heritage at the time of publication, states “[o]ur main purpose in producing the *Principles, Policy and Guidance* is to strengthen the credibility and consistency of decisions taken and advice given by English Heritage staff” (English Heritage 2008: foreword). It is worth noting here the six Principles identified by English Heritage (ibid: 7):

- The historic environment is a shared resource
- Everyone should be able to participate in sustaining the historic environment
- Understanding the significance of places is vital
- Significant places should be managed to sustain their values
- Decisions about change must be reasonable, transparent and consistent
- Document and learning from decisions is essential

The third Principle emphasises the role of heritage management in the planning system and alludes to the need for a clear process for decision making. If “understanding and articulating the values and significance of a place is necessary to inform decisions about its future [and] the degree of significance determines what, if any, protection, including statutory designation, is appropriate under law and policy” (ibid: 21), then surely a process for understanding and articulating the values of historic resources should be our top priority. After all, the identification of value and significance must be done early in the process in order to determine appropriate treatment options. Impey notes that the identification of values “should lead to better decisions about how aspects of the historic environment ... can be sustained for the benefit of people today and in the future” (2006: 79). How this may be done, and how HLC fits into the equation of assessing significance is addressed in more detail in Chapter Three.

When the resource involved is the historic landscape, the evolving process of Historic Landscape Characterisation offers the perfect opportunity to create a tool suited for the purpose of decision making. HLC has been developed in the first instance for the purposes of managing change within the historic landscape (Aldred and Fairclough 2003; Dixon 2007; Lake 2007; Rippon 2007). However, the usefulness of HLC within the management context has been much debated. In part, the debate mirrors the conflict between academic and applied archaeology, as discussed above. Rippon (2007: 3) sees this conflict in “the way that cynicism amongst the academic community towards the way that HLC has been developed is tarnishing the use of characterisation in a broader sense” and recognises a difference between Historic Landscape Characterisation and the characterisation of the historic landscape. Rippon further acknowledges that HLC may be appropriate “to inform planners and countryside managers ... but this is of no value to those of us interested in trying to understand the history of the countryside” (ibid). While it is arguable whether or not those with an interest in understanding the history of the countryside should also have an understanding and appreciation of

the way in which planners and countryside managers make decisions, the distinction between a planning-based tool and a research-based one is important. Much of the critique of HLC has been on its research capabilities. This has led to work on improving the research capabilities of HLC, but has not adequately addressed the needs of planners and countryside managers.

As a planning-based tool, one would expect HLC to have focused on the evaluation of significance within the historic landscape, of identifying the *characteristics* that create the value and significance of a place and to provide a platform by which these characteristics could be articulated and accessible to those outside of the profession of landscape archaeology. HLC, in many cases, sets out with a specific goal of *not* assigning value to the historic landscape. In doing so, HLC admittedly “does not concentrate on those parts that might be considered more important by archaeologists, landscape historians, or planners, or indeed by developers, DEFRA or local communities” (Herring 2007: 7). Given that one of the primary aims of HLC was to produce “information at landscape scale that is capable of being put to practical effect in ...the planning process” (Fairclough 1999: 3), it may be surprising to learn that it was only in 2008 that the issue of identifying and evaluating significance within the historic landscape has featured in the annual English Heritage seminar on the historic landscape. Leaving the valuation of the historic landscape to those not involved in the creation of the HLC may ease our theoretical worry that we have introduced bias into our work, but it also leaves open the opportunities for misuse (or, worse, abuse) by those who are then entrusted with making the decision. Williamson criticises the Thames Gateway HLC as “simply being used... to help legitimate rapid and large-scale landscape change” (2007: 69).

One of the reasons Williamson's critique rings true is because of a focus on *sensitivity* rather than *significance*. The Thames Gateway Historic Environment Characterisation Project (Chris Blandford Associates 2004) worked from an HLC base to create geographically distinct Historic

Environment Character Areas (HECA's), an approach that commonly follows HLC as a process. These HECA's were then used to assess 'sensitivity' of the Thames Gateway landscapes. The problem encountered by focusing on the sensitivity of the landscape rather than the significance of the landscape is somewhat predictable: almost the entire landscape of the Thames Gateway area was determined to be either 'sensitive', 'moderately sensitive', 'highly sensitive', or 'extremely sensitive' to major change. This is unsurprising, given that the landscape was evaluated against the proposed impact of "major physical change" (ibid: 76). Evaluating sensitivity of the landscape, rather than examining individual characteristics and their contributions to the landscape's distinctiveness and significance over-simplifies the matter, without moving towards process improvement. Like the Thames Gateway project, the Hampshire FEP case review presented in Chapter Five illustrates a similar problem with sensitivity, in that almost all HLC Types wind up being considered sensitive to any proposed change. The CTV approach, by focusing on significant characteristics and elements of distinctiveness, allows for a process of identifying the types, nature and scale of change that can be accommodated, rather than simply labelling an area or HLC Type as 'sensitive' without providing additional guidance for acceptable levels of change.

Work done for the Milton Keynes Urban Expansion Historic Environment Assessment, whilst identifying where the potential for positive development exists, still operates on the basis of a 'sensitivity to impact' model (Milton Keynes and Buckingham County Councils 2004). No process is available for identifying what aspects of the historic environment are worthy of preservation and which can accommodate greater levels of change. Instead, the Milton Keynes assessment of sensitivity to change considers only the 'importance' of an asset (in terms of local, sub-regional and/or national importance) and the level of proposed change (major, moderate or minor). Thus, even major impacts are considered 'minor' if the asset affected is of only 'local' importance (ibid: 26). This approach actively works against ideals of maintaining and

preserving local distinctiveness and dismisses all but the most damaging of impacts to assets of National importance.

The failure to address value and significance in the landscape places HLC into something of a limbo in between research and practicality, without being strongly in either camp. By avoiding addressing these crucial questions, we have created a barrier to effectively incorporating HLC into strategic and spatial planning applications.

Conflict and Barriers

When linking planning concepts to the historic environment, it is useful to understand some of the communication difficulties inherent in the complex relationships that meet within the realm of environmental management. HLC must be incorporated into a process often beset with conflicts between stakeholders, competing expert opinion and confusing or contradictory guidance. Trudgill (1990) has identified a number of barriers to effective environmental management, which are also applicable to the management of the historic environment. The types of barriers are: agreement, knowledge, technological, economic, social, and political barriers.

Agreement barriers prevail within the determination of value and significance, as we will see below. They can, however, be identified through observation, response, and process analysis. The principal concerns in agreement barriers regarding planning and the historic environment involves agreements over value, significance and perception. The model presented in Chapter Three seeks to develop a process by which agreement barriers on these issues can be overcome, by setting up detailed criteria against which the various understandings on the subjects of value, perception and significance may be reviewed.

Knowledge barriers are present on all sides of the debates regarding heritage, planning, and landscape. Within the planning system, knowledge barriers are most likely to exist because of a lack of education

and communication across professional sectors. Knowledge gaps in HLC as well as Historic Environment Records (HER) need to be monitored and addressed as necessary. The process of characterisation cannot stop once a single map is produced. Incorporating HLC into the strategic and spatial planning systems is a continual process, best done through an integrated and interdisciplinary approach. The CTV model can be used to address knowledge barriers not only in terms of the different knowledge bases between planners and archaeologists, but also in the incorporation of knowledge not previously considered when investigating the historic environment.

Technological barriers can be seen in the development and use GIS systems to address questions about the historic environment. I have already noted what concerns surround the development and use of this technology in archaeology and heritage management. HLC, being reliant on this technology, must be viewed in terms of how it presents barriers as well as opportunities within the planning system. Such barriers may be seen as part of the ability to design and develop the GIS systems. However, a large part of technological barriers involve user skills in applying the information presented by this technology. The CTV model aims to address these barriers by offering a process by which the information provided by HLC can be consistently and transparently interpreted and applied to planning situations.

Economic, social and political barriers, like the historic environment itself, are also based upon values and perceptions. Many of these barriers relate to agreement barriers – whether or not a situation is considered a problem, and how the significance of the problem is determined. The role of governments and the interpretation of policy and guidance are in a state of constant flux. Current policies reflect concern over environmental sustainability and the instrumental benefits of such. In order to overcome potential barriers, the historic environment must be incorporated into these policies and practices and be shown to have economic, political and social benefits. By creating and using an integrated model such as the CTV

model presented here, heritage managers can more readily identify and communicate these benefits to a greater audience.

Conflicting Perceptions: Value, Significance and Local Distinctiveness

The underlying problem of assigning value and/or significance lies in the theoretical approaches used in landscape archaeology as compared to more traditional (processual) approaches to archaeological resource management in England. Landscape archaeology has embraced post-processual theory. Due to its close link with cultural geography, it comes as no surprise that the postmodernism that took hold of that discipline in the 1980s easily settled into landscape archaeology theory, particularly after the rise of post-processual archaeological theory. In terms of the theoretical debate in landscape archaeology, some think the use of processual approaches runs the risk of “a denial of *otherness* in the past” (Johnson 2007: 83, emphasis in the original). Others take a more pragmatic approach, seeing the processual influence as able to “make a useful contribution to bridging the gap between scientific and humanistic perspectives, and also potentially provide a way to integrate other people’s viewpoints on landscapes” (Turner 2006a: 387). The equation of archaeological theory with post-processual theory is one that is hard to escape in most of the critiques of landscape archaeology. McGovern exemplifies this when he describes analysis of the landscape as a “productive meeting place for seriously cognitive post-processualists [sic] and deeply green environmental specialists” (2008: 11). One must wonder not only if he considers any non-academic archaeologist to fall into those categories but also whether or not there are any flippantly cognitive post-processualists.

The most important, and probably the most debated, post-processual concepts in landscape archaeology are those of 'gaze' and 'perception'. Johnson describes the gaze as an “all-powerful tool for understanding the landscape” (2007: 84). Others define the landscape as “the focus and creation of the modern gaze” (Carman 2001: 52). When landscape is

seen as created by the gaze, it ceases to be something concrete and suitable for scientific study, and therefore out of the realm of the New Archaeologists – the processualists interested in an objective scientific study of the past. At the same time, defining the landscape in terms of the gaze has the effect of removing past human influences on the shape and character of that landscape. Doing so reverts back to the notion that the historic landscape “is considered to be more about ‘nature’ than about ‘culture’” (ibid: 51). Unfortunately, the view that archaeologists and heritage managers still retain this definition of landscape only adds fuel to the objections coming from theoreticians.

Key to the idea of gaze and its role in understanding the landscape is the scale at which we identify and address the landscape. Scale is a complex thing, possessing not only “spatial dimensions, but also dimensions of time, perception, expertise and management” (Selman 2008: 24). This scale cannot be easily addressed through traditional, site-based archaeology or, indeed, traditional site- and project- based planning. The need for a new, scale-based approach to landscape and planning has been noted by numerous scholars on multiple sides of the debate (Fairclough 2008; Hawkins and Selman 2002; Phillips and Clarke 2004; Turner and Fairclough 2007). HLC was designed to operate at a landscape scale; this is its greatest strength as much as its biggest weakness. The problem may be that whilst HLC addresses the historic environment at a landscape scale, with which the planning systems have yet to catch up, particularly in the realm of heritage planning, which finds it difficult to look beyond the site, monument or building.

The result of gaze is perception, which also affects the study of the historic landscape. As stated above, the ELC defines landscape as much a perception as a physical entity. This idea of landscape as perception has crept into archaeological approaches in general, and HLC in particular. One of the earliest proponents of HLC, Graham Fairclough, notes that landscape “whilst in the eye of the beholder is also more importantly in the intellect, mind, heart and senses of its observer. All ‘beholders’ possess

mixed as well as personal viewpoints and thus an infinite multiplicity of responses and perceptions” (Fairclough 2008a: 408). Whereas this is certainly a subject for further study and debate, the ‘infinite multiplicity’ of responses and perceptions cannot easily be accommodated by planners and policymakers. When landscape is “ideational [and] exists in memory and perception” (Fairclough 2008b: 57), what had originally been the need to manage a resource becomes the need to manage memories and perceptions. Whilst management of a resource does not provoke strong feelings, the same cannot be said when we speak of managing memories.

When questions of perception and memory are limited to the theoretical realm and focus on gaining a greater understanding of the past and the present, there is little concern. However, perception and memory are the basis for understandings of value and significance and are thus closely linked with ideas of heritage. Landscape archaeology has struggled with the ideas of perception. Johnson points out that landscape archaeologists have not always been careful to distinguish between the cognitive and physical aspects of the landscape (2007:4). When the cognitive aspects of the landscape have been explored by archaeologists, it has been mostly in terms of eliciting a better understanding of past perceptions (Bruck 2005; Hamilton, et al. 2006), rather than examining present perceptions of the landscape. When dealing with the use of archaeology for planning purposes, the perception of the present will be more important than the perception of the past because, as mentioned previously, heritage is more about the present than the past. Specifically, it is about the value, importance and significance assigned to representations of the past by people in the present.

Key is the concern over what is significant: what is worth preserving and why, and what is less sensitive to change? How can we ensure that proposed change respects those aspects of the historic environment that are most important, without being stuck in a place that prohibits any change? So, why does significance matter? Aside from a desire to understand how people value the world around them, significance in terms

of heritage management involves decisions made within the planning systems: the inevitability of change and development, the need for transparency in government decision-making (and the need for governments to be accountable for their decisions). After all, “[if] you do not understand what is important, how can you possibly make decisions about it?” is from Kate Clark, then Deputy Director for Policy and Research, Heritage Lottery Fund, at conference “Capturing the Public Value of Heritage” (2006: 59). Likewise, it is in the Government White Paper *Heritage Protection for the 21st Century* that describes the first step in an effective heritage protection system as “identifying those aspects of the past that are most important to us and explaining why they are important” (Department for Culture Media and Sport 2007). It is the planners who are on the ground making daily decisions that are supposed to support sustainability, conservation, and responsible management of the natural and cultural heritage in England. They are the ones who are accountable to the public when poor decisions are made or when popular decisions are reversed. Planning is the ‘middle-man’ during which the demands of the modern world – affordable housing, clean air and energy, waste management, and economic prosperity – meet the restraints of the measures in place to protect the natural and cultural history of the world around us. These measures can be seen either as holding back progress or as a way of protecting a local sense of place, meaning, and identity. Often, the thin line dividing these two perceptions is one of how value and significance are identified and communicated.

The need for planning consent requires issues of significance and value to be addressed within the planning system. Consent, whether for listed buildings, scheduled ancient monuments, recorded archaeological sites, or other aspects of the historic environment such as conservation areas, SSSI, AONB, etc, is where heritage and planning intersect, and where significance is at the forefront. Legislation is based on the presumption in favour of preservation of “special architectural and historic interest” (per PPG 15/16). Therefore, these special architectural and historic elements must be defined in order to comply with these policies. The *special*-ness

referred to in the policies can be seen as another way of describing that which is significant and/or valued. Because decisions taken in the course of development control have long-term impacts and can profoundly affect not only the physical fabric of the historic environment but also the perceived heritage of the area, these characteristics of special interest are vital to planning goals. Significance and value are thus the cornerstones of developing proactive and sustainable plans for the management of the historic environment. They are also related to the idea of *local distinctiveness* promoted in planning guidance (Countryside Agency 2000; Hobson 2004; Warburton 2004). *Local distinctiveness* is a term often used in policies, local development frameworks and conservation area appraisals to refer to those characteristics a community values and wish to retain. However, they are rarely identified, nor are any processes of identification clearly outlined. In terms of the language of heritage management, local distinctiveness can be seen as a combination of character and distinctiveness, seen in the context of significance. The CTV model presented below illustrates how the archaeological concepts such as character can be translated into the language of policy and planning to identify and manage local distinctiveness.

Contemporary archaeological, philosophical, sociological and historical theory clearly identifies value as something that is ascribed by the individuals and/or groups actively perceiving that which is valued. However, most legislation, planning guidance, and possibly most popular opinion is that there are some inherently valuable characteristics within the historic environment that are worthy of preservation. As we have seen, heritage itself is defined by values. HLC was, in part, designed to be a comprehensive approach to the historic landscape; that it was to be a practical tool for planning and management. However, it is presented as a 'value-neutral' approach to the historic landscape. In terms of identifying value and significance, this means that HLC "permits all degrees of importance to be considered against differing spatial and temporal parameters, relating importance for its own sake to importance for its contribution to the present, and to local character" (Bishop 1999: 84). For

practical purposes, then, HLC begins with the theoretical stance that all is of interest and value, and is mainly informative rather than definitive. HLC requires the user to make judgments of value and significance on their own. Herring (2007: 17) does admit that it would be possible at a later stage for HLC to include statements of significance and models for sensitivity and capacity for change. One approach to the role of HLC in evaluating significance and sensitivity is expressed in Lake's (2007) idea of looking at change in terms of being consistent or divergent from the inherited character of the landscape (as defined by HLC). As we will see, though, this is not a common use of HLC.

Unlike the process that developed in England, the characterisation work in Wales has been used to produce a *Register of Landscapes of Historic Interests*. Though not a statutory designation, guidance from Cadw recommends that the information in the Register be taken into account by local authorities when considering planning applications (Cadw 2007). Oddly, the Register was created either in conjunction with or prior to the process of historic landscape characterisation. This makes it particularly tricky to understand how the 36 "outstanding" and 22 "special" landscapes of historic interest achieved their Register status, as they were apparently deemed to be valuable prior to being characterised. As such, the creation and use of the *Register* in Wales is of limited use in understanding how significance and value within the landscape are determined.

At the same time as the Register was being developed, landscape character 'assessment' was being used in the Gwent Levels to identify significance and value in the landscape (Rippon 1996). Part of the assessment includes 'value and significance' of the landscape. The details of exactly what 'value and significance' reference and the process by which they are ascertained are, however, unclear. Rippon (ibid: 122) states "[i]t will become apparent that some areas are regarded more highly than others... this is termed 'assessment', and should avoid planners or developers gaining the impression that certain areas are expendable", but fails to clarify how this will happen or how it may be repeated by others in

the future.

In defining value, I have noted multiple different ways of interpreting the word. All definitions of value in heritage also apply to archaeology in general and to planning. Samuels (2008: 71-72) notes that the concept of value exists within three interconnected aspects of archaeology:

(1) as a technique for assessing the value ('significance') of our object of study, material heritage; (2) as an analytic for making interpretations of the past (e.g. for reconstructing past societies); and finally (3) as a way to question our archaeological modes of inquiry, to ask how the first two practices produce particular effects and shape specific histories as (un)authorized.

I would argue that the value-neutrality of HLC concerns itself mainly with the third of these types of value, whereas planning and management are more concerned with the first two approaches to archaeological value. These differences in approaches to value reflect differences in theoretical approaches to the archaeological heritage as well as differences in the definition of heritage, particularly the definition of the landscape. The first aspect of value listed is more closely related to the political definition of a heritage resource, the second and third aspects aligned with the cultural and philosophical approaches to heritage.

One key problem in the presumed value-neutrality of HLC is that it presupposes that value is unimportant in the characterisation process. Aside from overlooking potential bias on the part of those that do the actual characterisation (it was admitted that the only person that could fully interpret the Isle of Wight's HLC was the person who created it [R. Waller, pers com.]), this neutrality turns its back on the proposed uses of HLC as a planning tool. After all, planning and development control is about making judgements regarding what is and is not appropriate in a given situation, and judgements cannot be made without considering value. In

examining value systems within archaeology, Darvill (1994:52) notes that it is the “translation of value systems into judgements” that forms the basis for action within the realm of cultural resource management. The value-neutrality of HLC thus ignores the link between values and actions and therefore creates the largest obstacle to its use in planning, as Mason (2008: 99) points out, “[a]ssessment of the values attributed to heritage is a very important activity in any conservation effort, since values strongly shape the decisions that are made.”

Value itself is problematic. It reflects the individual and collective ideals of specific groups of people at a specific time and in a specific place. Value and significance in heritage management are rarely about the past; they are concepts of importance only to the present and perceived future. Archaeologists may be willing to make value judgements related directly to archaeological sites, such as which site is best suited to answer a specific research question or what sites best represent a time period or method of construction. However, heritage values are not always about gaining a better understanding of history (or prehistory). They are also explicitly about economic viability, political goals, ethnic cohesion, nostalgia and that ever-elusive ‘sense of place’. These are values that traditional archaeology ignores, if not actively, certainly through a lack of training and an attempt to maintain itself as a rigid and scientific discipline.

Conflict and Meta-conflict

The conflicts of definition, theory, needs and perception can all be summarised in terms of a single meta-conflict: that between simplicity and complexity. Archaeologists have long struggled to understand and explain the complexities of the past, to debunk the myth of ‘primitive’ man and help others understand that a single causal factor is rarely at the heart of cultural change. Policy-makers, however, favour a simplistic approach. Now done in the spirit of ‘transparency’ within government, this simple approach focuses on making quick and cost-effective decisions whilst

being able to explain those decisions in an uncomplicated language suitable for a sound-bite or press conference. The planning system prefers the simplistic approach, desiring to make decisions in a timely manner. This system wants tools that are easy to use and provide a simple, often yes-or-no, all-or-nothing approach: either a place can tolerate change, or it cannot. Archaeologists in general and landscape archaeologists in particular, rightly worry that this approach results in poor decisions. Rippon's (1996: 122) focus on the potential for giving the impression that any part of the historic landscape may be "expendable" illustrates this point. The fact that HLC has gone from being a tool to manage change in the historic environment to "a method of landscape-scale interpretation and analysis of the historic environment" (Fairclough 2006: 203) demonstrates the reaction of English Heritage to the perceived threat of abuse of HLC. Whilst Fairclough still recognises HLC as an archaeological resource management tool, he acknowledges that HLC "adopts as its main guide the perspective of archaeologist" (ibid: 204). In doing so, he is clearly aligning HLC with the complexity side of the argument, saying in essence that HLC represents a complex interpretation of the historic landscape and therefore cannot be used by those who wish to find simplistic answers through a mechanistic application.

The meta-conflicts of simplicity versus complexity will never be solved; there will always be a case for keeping things simple and there will always be those who prefer a full explanation with all of the details prior to making a decision. This does not mean, however, that tools based on complex information and requiring complex interpretations cannot be used to influence decisions in a straightforward, time- and cost-efficient manner. It is possible to bring HLC back into the realm of planning and decision-making, creating a tool that can be used by both the archaeologist and non-archaeologist alike. We now turn to identifying and addressing the needs of such a tool and exploring the options available.

CHAPTER THREE: MOVING FROM CHARACTER TO VALUE

The tools we need

An effective tool for the incorporation of the historic landscape into the planning system requires compliance with both the rigours of archaeological science and the needs of strategic and spatial planning. The disciplines of archaeology, landscape archaeology and planning deserve to have a tool that satisfies and clearly articulates the reasonable demands of each. Chapter Two provided the background for the differences between these disciplines, and in Chapter Three I intend to examine in greater detail what needs HLC must meet in order to become the effective planning tool it was originally intended to be. The chief concerns can be divided into two camps: archaeological requirements and planning requirement. Archaeology requires the method to be theoretically sound and methodologically robust. Contemporary planning theory demands the method to be transparent, accountable, and easy to understand. Key to this integration is recognising the limits of both approaches and developing a procedure that draws on the strengths of each to overcome their limitations.

Below, I outline the needs of both the planning system in general and heritage management in specific. I also examine the tools that currently exist to meet those needs and investigate how these tools work together (or not) to inform decisions about change in the historic environment. From a base of landscape character and HLC, I integrate planning theory, government policy and English Heritage guidance to develop a model to identify distinctiveness, significance and value within the historic environment, against which proposed change can be evaluated to determine sympathy within specific contexts. The existing planning guidance, in the form of PPG 15/16, provides direction on how to evaluate a location to determine what, if any, archaeological sites or historic buildings are present as well as how to mitigation proposed changes. This approach has worked moderately well since introduced, but is no longer

suitable for the holistic and integrated approach required by twenty-first century planning. Even as PPG15/ 16 are coming up against proposed change, there is recognition that heritage management must move beyond site-based development control.

Meeting Planning Needs

Spatial and strategic planning have clear requirements, set by governments through policy and guidance. The goals of spatial planning have been in part influenced by the aims and objectives of the European Union, and Britain continues to strive towards integrating its own policies with those of the greater EU (Nadin 2006; Williams 1996). Key amongst the greater EU goals are economic competitiveness, social cohesion, public involvement, and sustainable development. Economic competitiveness infers that planning should at the very least, generate income, and at best stimulate the economy to promote additional income generation. The goal of social cohesion promotes diversity within the population and equal opportunities for everyone within society. The goal of public involvement reflects a long-standing tradition of government decisions being made without consultation with those people for whom the decision effects the most. Sustainable development has become one of the trendy catchphrases in design and development in the 21st century. It can be used to promote everything from solar power to organic farming to regulating carbon footprints. Indeed, Cullingworth and Nadin state that the fact that “there is such a broad political consensus on the importance of the general idea of sustainability is surely an indicator of how widely it can be interpreted” (2006: 250).

To meet these goals, all levels of government – from the nation to the local parish – are encouraged to develop plans and strategies to put into practice the goals set by national and international governmental agencies. Strategic plans outline broad goals, often repeating what has already been developed at national or international levels. Spatial strategies may be more locale-specific, but also present goals of how

development should be planned in broad terms, but often for specific sectors such as transport or industry. These spatial strategies are encouraged at a regional level so as to be able to reflect regional differences and challenges as well as specific regional strengths and opportunities. Local authorities (districts, counties, etc) are also expected to have plans that outline core strategies, development frameworks, site specific allocations, proposal maps, and statements of community involvement (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 16). In addition to developing all of these frameworks for local development, local government departments also are expected to ensure that these greater framework issues incorporate and reflect plans on transport, environmental action, biodiversity, waste management and other governmental sector plans and strategies.

Within these recent reforms to the planning system are a number of contradictory directions. European Union guidance promotes a supranational, inter-territorial approach to planning, with the ultimate goal of bringing each of the EU member states to a state of equality with each other in terms of sustainable development, social cohesion, and economic competitiveness (Williams 1996). At the same time, reforms to the British planning system focus on devolution of centralised control to promote local and regional frameworks designed to recognise and encourage development reflective of local distinctiveness (Allmendinger and Haughton 2007; Department for Communities and Local Government 2007; University College London and Deloitte 2007: 42ff). This emphasis on regionalism and localism within the British planning system may be the result of an attempt to curtail European influence on Great Britain (Tewdwr-Jones, et al. 2000), but there is little doubt regarding the influence of the EU on the British approach to the environment in spatial planning, particularly in the promotion of a sustainability agenda (University College London and Deloitte 2007: 249ff).

Public participation and community involvement promote the ability of the local citizenry to help shape their own communities. However, the public

is not always primarily concerned with the historic environment when there are other, seemingly more pressing issues at hand – such as affordable food and housing, transportation, employment and financial troubles. Though heritage management may be able to address the problems inherent in the democratization of public value (Blaug, et al. 2006), the level of effort required to do so may be beyond current budget and staffing levels. In addition, there will always be conflicting ideas from the public when it comes to having to make difficult decisions regarding value assessments across sectors, when two or more interests conflict (see, for example, Grant 2008, and discussions below).

Spatial planning strives to create conditions suitable for a sustainable environment, but the environment includes a plethora of issues, from biodiversity to energy sources to historic resources. Where the historic environment fits into this picture is not clearly enunciated. The EU guidance focuses its environmental guidance mainly on “water, waste, air, chemicals, wildlife and countryside, and noise,” leaving the issues of cultural and natural heritage in the realm of concerns regarding quality of life (Williams 1996).

This issue raises the question of what constitutes ‘the environment’. Both EU and UK guidance for spatial planning share a strong focus on environmental stability and sustainability, but the details are lacking. Planning Policy Statement 12 (PPS12, section 2.6) lists one advantage of spatial planning as providing “a means of safeguarding the area’s **environmental assets**, both for their intrinsic value and for their contribution to social and economic well being by: protection and enhancing designated sites, landscapes, habitats and protected species [and] creating a positive framework for environmental enhancement more generally” (Department for Communities and Local Government 2008). What is not addressed is how the environment is defined and what is meant by ‘enhancement’. The historic environment generally falls under the more general rubric of ‘environment’, but most guidance regarding the environment and planning focuses on issues such as biodiversity, waste

management, pollution and renewable sources of energy. To sustain any one of these parts of the environment, it may be necessary to diminish another. For example, a proposal to enhance a specific habitat too allow for propagation of an endangered species may require impacting or even removing significant historic structures or archaeological sites to restore that habitat. The question of how these issues are deliberated and weighted is not addressed by the current planning system.

Along with asking ourselves how the environment should be defined for the purposes of spatial planning, we must also ask why the environment should be such an important component of spatial planning. This question is related to the purpose of spatial planning and reflects contemporary approaches to the role of government in peoples' lives. In many ways, the goals of modern spatial planning are not too far from the goals of the original Town Planning Act (1909), but instead of healthy homes, beautiful houses, and dignified cities, spatial planning works towards outcomes of health and well-being, safety, vibrancy in neighbourhoods, social inclusion and economic development while combating climate change and improving quality of life for its citizens (DCLG 2008). However, the emphasis today does not lie with simply promoting spatial planning as a way to provide such high ideas. Instead, spatial planning brings the outcomes and deliverables to the forefront of policy and guidance. PPS12 states that "the delivery strategy is central" (section 4.4) and that the core strategies developed by local authorities must be deliverable and able to be monitored (section 4.44). As such, the effects of spatial planning are expected to be demonstrable, measurable, and, in short, quantifiable.

The move towards quantifiable and measurable results-based planning reflects a greater trend in political philosophy – that of instrumentalism. Instrumentalism has been defined as "the promotion of actions or activities not because they are useful or interesting in their own right but because they are tools or instruments in the attainment of wider ambitions in the realm of human experience" (Darvill nd). Thus spatial planning becomes the tool by which lives can be improved. Employment, equality, safety,

economic prosperity, housing, access to goods and services are all therefore within the scope of spatial planning. No longer is planning restricted to urbane issues of suburban sprawl and development control; now it is a means by which society can achieve utopia. For heritage assets and landscape, these methodologies for meeting these goals are phrased in terms of character, distinctiveness, significance and value. The retention and maintenance of these aspects are the ways in which heritage assets are seen to contribute to the instrumental values espoused by contemporary planning.

Meeting Archaeological Needs

Clearly, HLC must meet the needs of the spatial and strategic planning processes. However, it cannot lose track of its foundation in the concern for the historic environment. Critics of HLC (Austin 2007; Williamson 2007) demand more rigorous theoretical and methodological approaches than the way they have seen HLC applied. A strong theoretical base is necessary for HLC to work effectively in the planning system. Without this base, the historic aspect of the environment may take a back seat to other considerations during planning decisions. While we have seen that some consider theoretically strong archaeological approaches to be the antithesis to archaeological resource management (McGovern 2008), I believe it is possible to maintain a methodologically and theoretically robust process within the planning system.

I begin with an anthropological approach. Though the science of archaeology has moved away in recent years from its anthropological roots, it is the discipline of anthropology that studies human cultures, and it is within these cultures that meanings take shape and values ascribed. The structuralist theories of Levi-Strauss (1963), rooted in structural linguistics of Saussure (1959), suit well the evaluation of the construction of meanings and address issues specific to the study of the historic landscape. As an “antipositivist, dialectical, idealist and ahistorical” (Harris 1979: 165) strategy, structuralism provides a basis for a philosophical

approach to landscape that does not preclude the use of current post-modern methods of landscape archaeology. The fundamentals of a structuralist approach to the historic landscape lie in the idea of material culture as text, a language that requires translating and interpreting in order to determine meaning.

By looking at the definitions of landscape, we realise the appropriateness of a structuralist approach. If “[l]andscapes are particular ways of expressing conceptions of the world and ... a means of referring to physical entities” (Layton and Ucko 1999:1), we can consider language to be the way in which the concepts are expressed. Landscape archaeology as a discipline has in the past approached the historic landscape as material culture – an object to be studied much like any other artefact (Darvill 1999; Turner 2007). Landscape archaeology is also symbolic archaeology, representing a multitude of cultural perceptions regarding nature, culture, prehistory and history in the form and function of the landscape. The need, then, is for a methodological approach that takes into account the perceptions, symbols and values inherent in the landscape whilst still respecting the physical, spatial and material aspects that make up the landscape as it was experienced in the past as well as how it is experienced today.

Language, Text and Context

A structural linguistic model regarding the historic landscape is not a new concept (Johnson 2007; Muir 2000). Evaluation of perceptions and values in cultures bring us to the basics of linguistics: the *emic* and the *etic* aspects of language (Lyons 1968). These terms, common in anthropological and linguistic theory, refer to the differences between the internal meaning (*emic*) and external, assigned meaning (*etic*) of words, cultures and/or objects. The *etic* view of landscape is that of the traditional landscape artist (and perhaps of the traditional landscape archaeologist) – the view from the outside, processed through an ‘objective’ observer. This is the basic descriptive viewpoint of landscape as a combination of

features and patterns. In many ways, this is the view of HLC, which breaks the landscape up into polygons defined by pre-determined criteria. The *emic* view of the landscape is that which cultural geographers and historians wish to obtain – the view of the landscape from individuals experiencing the landscape, whether in the past or the present. The shift from an observational description of landscape to the experiential landscape requires the act of translation from *etic* to *emic* (Melas 1989: 140). This mirrors the postmodernist move from the landscape as described (through text or other medium, such as painting) by the outsider, to the view from ‘within,’ the perspective by which others experience the landscape. The ability to identify and communicate the differences between the *emic* and *etic* views of the historic landscape will prove useful in addressing the Romantic, descriptive and nostalgic writings of early English landscape archaeologists (Darvill 1999; Fairclough 2008; Hoskins 1955; Johnson 2005; Tilley 2006).

If we therefore treat the landscape as a text, we can begin to see parallels between the available information on the history of the landscape, its character and its uses and the information necessary for sustainable management. In the same manner that each reader brings a different interpretation to a text, each person brings a unique perception to the landscape. For Eco, this is because “a text is a lazy machinery which forces its possible readers to do apart of its textual work” (1981: 36). Likewise, Hodder notes that “a text has to be read, but it is clear that there is no ‘right’ way to read a text...Culture as text requires reading. A text is thus ambiguous and polysemous” (1989: 69). The replacement of the word *text* with the word *landscape* in the previous sentence and Hodder’s sentiment fits neatly with those currently debating the value and significance of the historic landscape. Such an approach requires reflexivity in interpretation, for the onus is on the reader to actively work for the interpretation of the historic landscape. In doing so, multiple meanings arise, dependant on the experience of the reader, but contingent upon the work of the reader. This provides a baseline – a context – by which meanings can be evaluated, as will be discussed below. Perhaps it is no

coincidence that the landscape has for a long time been referred to as a palimpsest. Whilst originally seeking to bring to mind ancient parchments, continually scraped and re-used, the metaphor extends beyond that of recycled vellum to the continual interpretation and re-interpretation of the text.

If landscape is examined as text requiring translation and interpretation, it becomes a concept that can meet the demands current affairs place on it. Fairclough (2002: 4) speaks of the “democratisation of the landscape,” fundamental to the *European Landscape Convention*, recognising that perspectives outside of Western notions of beauty, nature and wilderness (which Johnson [2007] has connected to the English school of Romanticism in art and literature) need incorporation into current treatments of the historic landscape in order to provide what has been called “an interdisciplinary research agenda” (McGlade 1999: 458). By identifying the different languages of landscape – ecological, artistic, archaeological, ritual, economic, etc. – the process of cross-disciplinary communication can find the common grammars of landscape and begin a meaningful dialogue across sectors.

What does it mean, then, for landscape to be a text? Following Hodder’s (1989: 68) emphasis on the “distance between an abstract language and a particular concrete text written in that language,” I propose that the perception of a landscape – the value, meaning, feeling and significance to the person experiencing the landscape – is the abstract language that is reflected in the physical composition (the concrete text) of the landscape. Each perception may be unique to the individual experiencing the landscape, but each experience occurs within a physical context. The physical landscape is the text in which the abstract language is ‘written’. This creates a circle of value of vital importance to the management of the historic landscape where the landscape is both a physical reality and a symbol of the imbued value that “becomes meaningful only when it is inserted within a larger context” (Eco 1981: 37).

This is not a new approach to archaeology. Hodder proposed an interpretive framework for what he called “contextual archaeology,” (1991: 7) drawing from dialectical traditions in hermeneutics and with the goal of a dialogue leading to change (ibid: 14). This reaction to postprocessual archaeology focuses on not only the subjectivity of postprocessual archaeology, but also the problems in the ways that postprocessual interpretations are written. The return of context to archaeology means not only the physical context of the archaeological material, but also the context in which archaeology is used and communicated. Many of the problems of contemporary heritage management exist within the contexts of the use and communication of the archaeological heritage. The emphasis on individual perceptions and multivocality of interpretations has led to what Criado calls “hyper-hermeneutics” (2001:129), where critical analysis of archaeological knowledge fell by the wayside, “shielded by the principle that everything is interpretation” (ibid). Far from incorporating multiple viewpoints and leading to the aforementioned democratisation, this approach further isolates archaeological knowledge from other forms of knowledge. As Hodder points out, “the new theories and the new ways of writing them often serve to make archaeological texts more obscure and difficult for anyone but the highly trained theorist to decipher” (1991: 9). This statement can be read both as a reflection on the way in which archaeological data is interpreted, but also, I contend, as a statement regarding how the ‘text’ of landscape is communicated. When landscape exists as a symbolic text, the text becomes “infinitely interpretable” (Eco 1981: 44). The problem then becomes one of separating and assessing the infinite number of interpretations.

The problem of evaluating interpretations is not an easy one to solve. On the one hand, archaeologists are encouraged to “put more effort into recognising the multiple values that people attach to the landscape” (Fairclough 2002: 4). On the other, an “excessive emphasis on interpretation” (Criado 2001: 129) can lead to a stalemate when required for practical application. Viewing material culture in general and landscape in particular as text provides a method by which the historic landscape can

be evaluated, whilst allowing for a multiplicity of interpretations. Because “material culture meanings are less logical and more immediate, use-bound and contextual than meanings in language” (Hodder 1989: 72), the traditional oppositions of pure structuralism do not neatly apply. By placing the text of material culture within an identifiable context we can begin the process of creating what Criado (2001) calls a ‘horizon of subjectivity’ whereby objective analysis can be accomplished. This involves the identification of a subjective reference against which other data may be objectively measured. The process by which each subjective reference (the context) is developed is critical to the construction of an objective understanding.

The usefulness of horizons of subjectivity in heritage management lies in the ability for each horizon to provide a different context in which the text of the landscape may be interpreted. Any variety of models may be used to develop the subjective horizon, thus allowing for multiple views to be analysed. It is the objective interpretation of the subjective horizon that provides the data necessary for interpretive archaeology. In the case of heritage management such an objective interpretation allows for transparent, defensible and understandable decisions regarding potential change in the historic landscape. Below, I describe how an approach based on the development of these horizons of subjectivity can be used to create a comprehensive picture of the historic landscape, against which decisions can be made.

HORIZONS OF SUBJECTIVITY

Criado's (2001) horizons of subjectivity are perfectly suited to use in archaeological resource management. They recognise an inherent subjectivity in evaluating the historic environment, and provide a way in which the subjectivity of this evaluation can be dealt with in an objective manner. Horizons of subjectivity are designed to address the questions of how to discriminate amongst multiple interpretations (ibid: 129). In the case of HLC's role within the planning system, the primary concern is

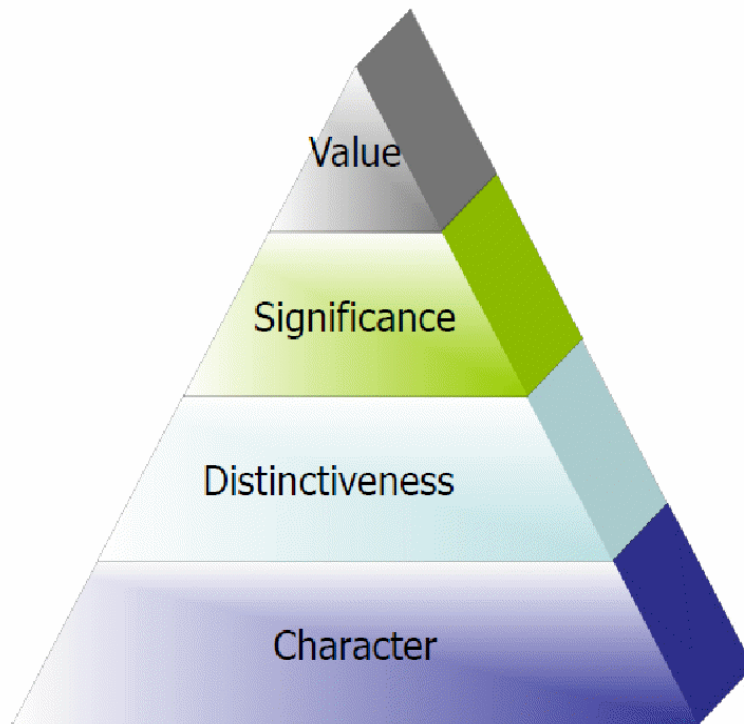
addressing a multiplicity of views regarding value and significance within the historic environment. In addition, there is the need to be able to 'translate' the interpretations of archaeologists into a language understandable by planners and politicians. Criado's approach identifies the objective of archaeology as being the evaluation of "the historical meaning of the elements which form the [archaeological record] and *to transform this knowledge into a technology for the present-day management of the [archaeological record]*" (ibid: 131, emphasis mine). By integrating HLC into the ideas of Criado's problems, functions and conditions of archaeological knowledge, we can fit it into a model that creates such a technology for the present-day management of the historic landscape.

Approaching HLC as a horizon of subjectivity allows it to be incorporated into present-day management whilst alleviating the need for those creating such databases to make value judgements. The character of the landscape is what becomes the baseline for decision making. However, HLC can serve only as the baseline. More is needed to make decisions. This is where planning policy and guidance comes into consideration. These aspects then provide additional horizons by which decisions can be made. The key planning concepts of relevance to the historic environment are: character, distinctiveness, significance and value. By looking at each horizon, we can work our way from a base of character to the top of value. This character-to-value (CTV) model is illustrated in Figure 5, demonstrating how the horizons act as stepping-stones to the top of the pyramid.

The character of the historic environment forms the base of the model; it is from the character that elements of distinctiveness are identified. The distinctive characteristics are then evaluated in terms of their significance, and can then be related to existing heritage values. Every horizon is dependant on an understanding of the one below it and creates the structures necessary for evaluating the horizon above. Each of these horizons will now be taken in turn, to demonstrate how such horizons

would meet the needs of the planning system, based on existing guidance for the treatment of the historic environment.

Figure 5: Character-to-Value Pyramid. Source: author



Character Horizon

Much has already been written on the subject of character. As the focus of HLC, the identification and evaluation of character forms the basis of English Heritage guidance for developing HLC. The methodology used for this process is often a key component of written HLC summaries (Aldred and Fairclough 2003; Bishop 1993; Darlington 2002; English Heritage 2002; Fairclough 1999, 2008, 2008a; Fairclough et al 2002; Herring 2007; Turner 2006). At the most basic level, character is simply description. One can speak of numerous types of character in the landscape: natural, cultural, urban, rural, modern, historic. Natural England has addressed the natural character of the landscape through their approach of Landscape Character Assessment (LCA). Though LCA includes a historic element, this has generally been seen as relating only to listed buildings,

scheduled monuments and other recorded archaeological sites.

English Heritage has attempted to expand the consideration of the historic environment through HLC. As a description of the character of any given segment of landscape, HLC works well. One only has to read through any of the more recent HLC reports (see, for example Rouse 2008) to gain a detailed description of a specific locale. However, we should not think that labelling HLC as description is somehow dismissing its importance. For HLC is description in terms of Geertz's (1973) *thick description*: detailed, dense and comprehensive portraits designed to allow the ethnographer to better understand the culture being studied. Applying this approach to landscape archaeology puts HLC into the position of being the *thick description* of the landscape, both in terms of how it is seen and how it is perceived.

What is the character of the landscape? What does *character* mean? Rippon (2004: 1) defines it to include “the local distinctive patterns of fields, roads, settlements, woodland, moorland, industry, etc.” Often, though, character is simply a listing of pre-defined 'character types' defined by the sizes and shapes of field patterns, villages, woodlands and other geographic, geologic or topographic features. The HLC for the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB (Rouse 2008) divides the landscape into 12 Broad Types and 41 Major Types. Eight of the Major Types contain Sub-types, and two of the Sub-types include further Sub-Types. The full breakdown of Types and Sub-types can be found in Appendix One.

Adding to the confusion of landscape character types (and sub-types), there are also issues of Character Areas and Character Zones, also used in HLC to categorise the landscape. Staying with the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB example, aside from the Character Types and Sub-types listed above and shown in Appendix One, the AONB also includes five Joint Countryside Character Areas identified during Landscape Character Assessment by the Countryside Agency in 2003

(Rouse 2008: 21). These Joint Character Areas also included their own Character Areas and Character Types. As can be seen in Figure 6, there is little correlation between the two, despite the almost identical nomenclature. At the time of this writing, the AONB is working on additional classifications of the historic environment in the form of Historic Environment Character Areas (HECA) and Historic Environment Character Zones (HECZ) to include the the upcoming Historic Environment Action Plan. All are designed to be a slightly different way of 'characterising' the historic environment; all are slightly different ways of describing it.

The use of such a descriptive approach to landscape character does not provide quite enough information for planning purposes. For example, almost any area of England over a certain size will contain both regular and irregular shaped fields, villages, woodlands (both ancient and modern) and a mix of agricultural and industrial land use. It is up to the user to determine what it is about any given combination that makes a specific locale 'distinct'. One problem with equating character with distinctiveness is the number of variables involved: character includes everything from geology to land use, but without any weight given one way or another to a specific character. Hence, character becomes description but not value.

Another problem with character is that policy and guidance regarding the historic environment considers character as something separate from other parts of the historic environment. The long history in England of managing historic assets by means of listing and scheduling fails to consider a bigger picture in which the historic environment exists. In fact, when one examines the historic environment in its entirety, we find multiple ways of identifying and designating heritage assets. Figure 7 illustrates the diversity of approaches to categorising heritage assets, with particular attention paid to the place of landscape within the historic environment. This demonstrates the inconsistency with which landscape is considered. Since character correlates with landscape, this also shows the inconsistency of the role of character within the evaluation of heritage assets. For this reason, the idea of landscape character may be slipping

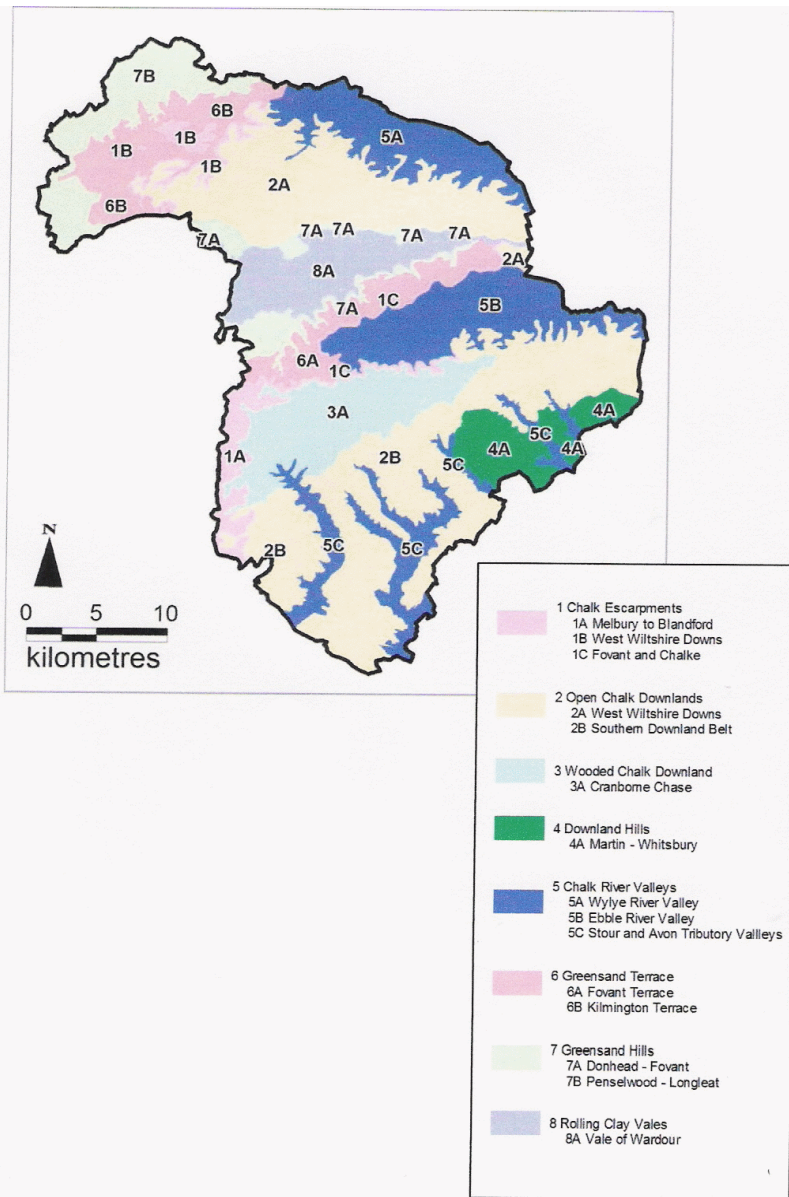
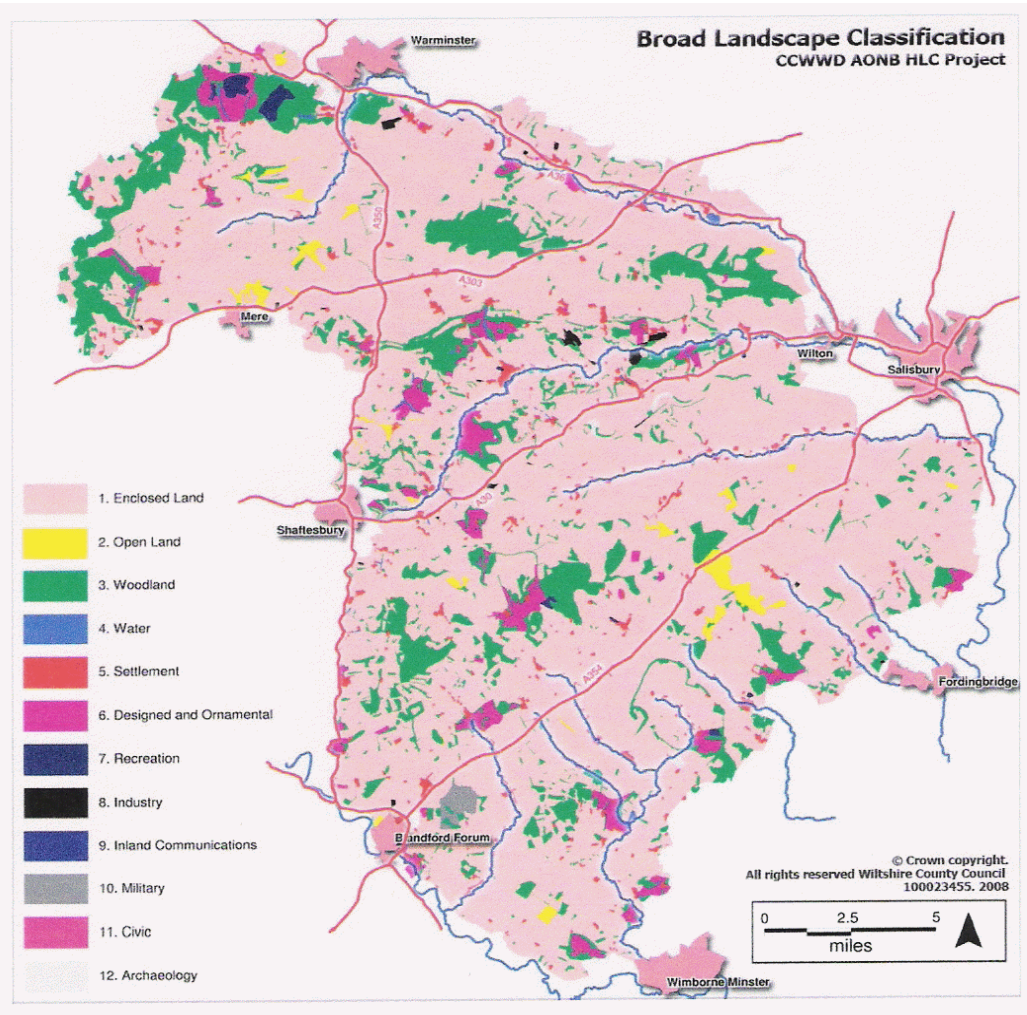


Figure 6: The LCA-identified Character Types (left) compared with the Broad Character Types identified by HLC in the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB. From Rouse (2008)



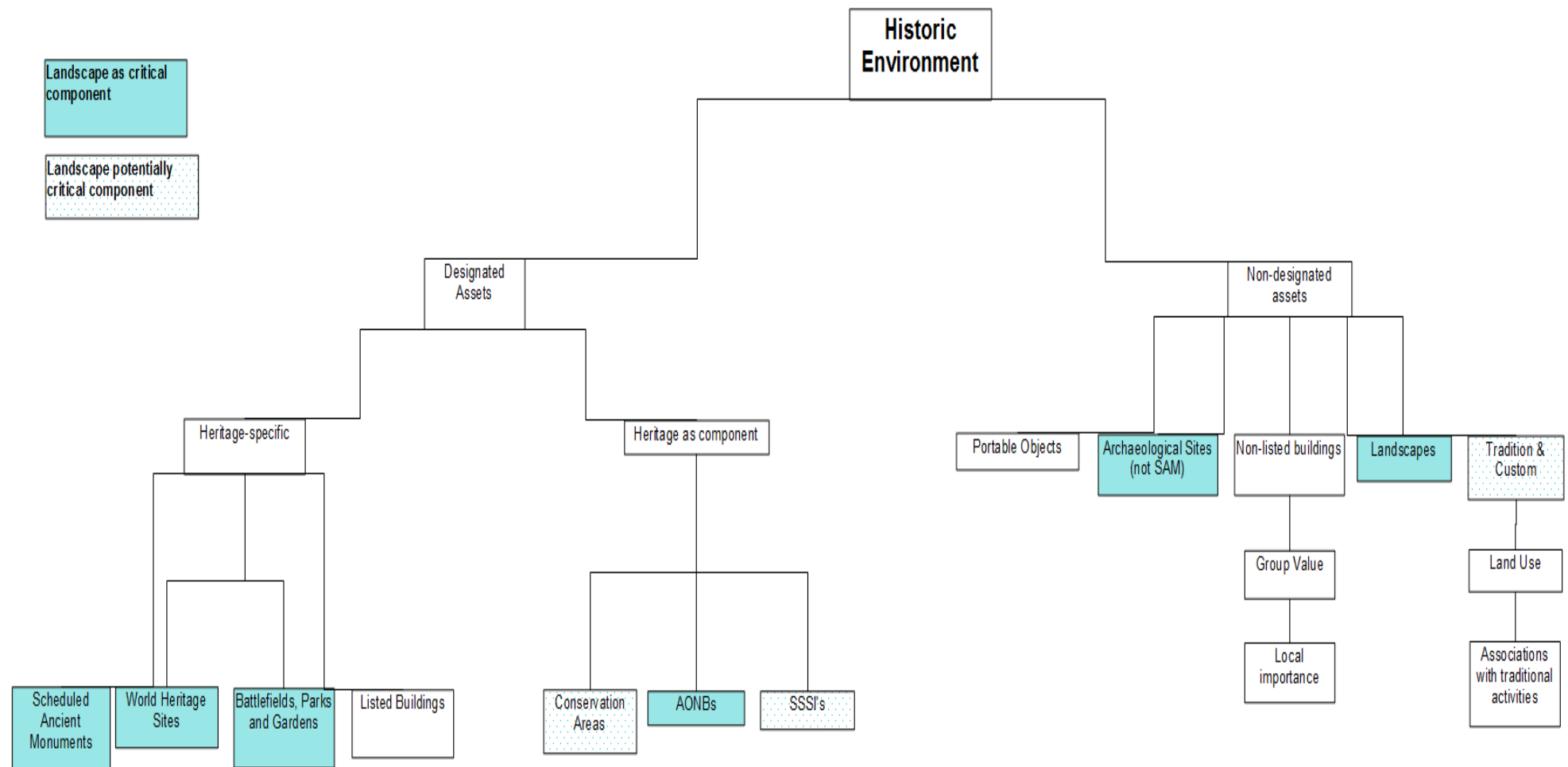


Figure 7: Approaches to the Landscape in the Historic Environment. Source: author

through the cracks of the identification process as it does not fit neatly into the way the historic environment is currently categorised.

Distinctiveness Horizon

Distinctiveness is not a concept emphasised in guidance for the identification of heritage assets. Guidelines for the registering of historic buildings or the scheduling of ancient monuments refer more to significance than distinctiveness, and often assume that such significance is inherent or commonly understood, and therefore finds it unnecessary to elaborate on the details of the significance. On the other hand, distinctiveness (particularly 'local distinctiveness') plays an important role in the planning system and its ability to accommodate change. Selman (2006: 12) defines *distinctiveness* as that which “appears typically to arise from a combination of innate visual harmony, the functionality of natural systems, the human scale of cultural features and time-depth.”

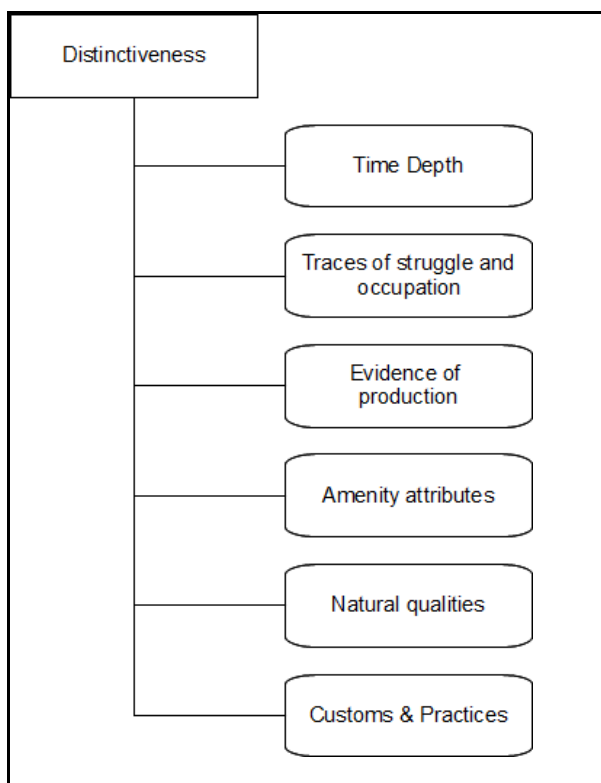
The Royal Town Planning Institute (RTPI) believes that effective spatial planning brings together “an understanding of a place, its people, its environment and its economy to create local distinctiveness” (UCL and DeLoitte 2007: 28). The Countryside Agency advises that planning policy should “identify the countryside character and local distinctiveness of an area as a tool to help guide development, and to make positive proposals for conserving character, enhancing it or regenerating it as development takes place” (CA 2000: 9). Thus we see that the concept of distinctiveness plays a vital role in planning, but there has been little done to advise planners and developers on how to identify and communicate distinctiveness. Perhaps more importantly to those who want to preserve distinctiveness is its antonym: distinctiveness is the opposite of homogeneity, boring repetition and *same-ness*. Though HLC has been identified as helping highlight local distinctiveness (Macinnes 2004: 164), no details for the process are provided.

One reason for the problems in identifying and explaining the concept of distinctiveness is a tendency not to differentiate *distinctiveness* from *character*. This becomes a problem when *character* is only a description. We must differentiate not only between *distinctiveness* and *character*, but also between *character* and *characteristics*. The characteristics of a landscape are those natural and cultural features within the landscape; the recognisability (*legibility*) and coherence of these features are what define *character*. Distinctiveness therefore is a method of evaluating character to further identify what makes one area different from another (Selman 2006: 85). As such, the concept of distinctiveness works well as another horizon of subjectivity. Selman (ibid) has developed a useful model of landscape distinctiveness, breaking the concept down into six elements: time-depth, traces of struggle and occupation, evidence of production, amenity attributes, natural qualities and customs and practices. The physical characteristics of the landscape then reflect the history, use and traditions of the local area. This is a critical link in being able to manage the landscape, as it is what connects the physical to the mental. In addition, distinctiveness provides an ideal connection between archaeological theory and planning practice, a tool to “translate scientific theory into a vocabulary of planning objectives which can influence the decision-making process” (ibid: 98). As such, archaeologists should work harder to promote the idea of distinction not only as a way to integrate the historic environment into planning, but also to emphasise the relevance of archaeology to today's political and environmental concerns.

The question then becomes how to identify the components of distinctiveness. We may take *character* as that which is described through the process of characterisation, done by means of HLC or LCA. How, therefore, to 'do' distinctiveness? It is not an easy task, but it is crucial to identify these aspects of distinctiveness. Otherwise, proposed change will not be able to preserve and/or enhance it and the goals of spatial planning cannot be met.

'Doing' distinctiveness is inherently difficult. Unlike character, which can be approached in a mostly value-neutral manner, distinctiveness requires some level of judgement. As mentioned, Selman's (2006) analysis of distinctiveness provides a useful base on which to build a process for evaluating distinctiveness. It is necessary, though, to have a thorough understanding of character in order to assess distinctiveness. For the purposes of the CTV model, distinctiveness is analysed and described in the language of character. Figure 8 identifies the six main aspects of distinctiveness, as identified by Selman (ibid). The analysis of distinctiveness in terms of character allows for the translation of the language of character (in the form of HLC) into the language of planning.

Figure 8. Aspects of Distinctiveness. After Selman (2006).



Rather than simply describing the characteristics of a place, each of those characteristics is thus examined in terms of time-depth, traces of struggle and occupation, evidence of production, amenity attributes, natural qualities and customs and practices. This is not an easy or quick process, but one necessary for increasing the efficiency and defensibility of decisions. In evaluating distinctiveness, two approaches present

themselves: evaluating the distinctiveness of general character types or evaluating the distinctiveness of an area (which is likely to contain multiple character types). Each of these approaches are valid, but serve different

purposes.

Distinctiveness within a character type may be seen as a deep description of the type. Evaluation of distinctiveness involves the identification of character types and the description of each type in terms of the six aspects of distinctiveness. To do so, we must examine each of these aspects in greater detail.

Time-depth: Time-depth is well understood by archaeologists and landscape historians. HLC specifically addresses the issue of time-depth and does it fairly well. Combined with information from traditional Historic Environment Records (HER) and Sites and Monuments Records (SMR), evidence for time-depth in the landscape is as near to comprehensive as is possible, though hardly complete. However, as archaeological surveys continue and additional research is done, our knowledge of time-depth in the landscape will only increase.

A less understood and infrequently addressed part of time-depth in the landscape is the issue of past, present and future landscapes. This refers not only to the traditional view of time-depth as evidence of the past in the present, but also to the aims of the present for meeting future landscape goals. Therefore, we cannot rely solely on an understanding of the history of the landscape if our goal is sustainable management. The time-depth aspect of distinctiveness must also consider contemporary issues that could affect the future landscape, in that modern and recent events must be considered along with older, more 'historic' occurrences. By combining time-depth with other aspects we can achieve a balance that does not ascribe a greater value to that which is older simply for the fact that it is older.

Traces of Struggle and Occupation: These are possibly the most dynamic aspects of landscape distinctiveness. Settlements, both ancient

and modern, evidence of expansion and desertion, battlefields, assarts, reclaimed fenlands – all are examples of the human struggle to tame and control the landscape. Even modern developments of retail parks, housing estates and parks speak to this continuing struggle. Because time-depth is considered as a separate aspect in distinctiveness, it is possible to consider the entire range of human occupation and therefore removes potential bias towards the old or unusual. This is the primary benefit of the horizon-based approach and helps to maintain the level of objectivity and transparency necessary for planning decisions.

Like time-depth, traces of struggle and occupation can be identified relatively easily, though specialist knowledge is still required, especially to identify the traces that are the result of historic or prehistoric activities. Field patterns, assarts, woodlands and other physical remains of human attempts to create a liveable and productive space in the landscape are often identified through the process of HLC. Unfortunately, this information is often buried in the HLC methodology and may not be readily available for planners and heritage managers, as it may be seen as secondary to the GIS application that is viewed as the end-product of HLC. Such was the case when the author went to examine the HLC of both Hampshire and the Isle of Wight: the end maps were readily available, but not the meanings behind the polygons.

Evidence of Production: Like evidence of struggle and occupation, evidence of production encompasses a wide variety of times and topics. Production includes any number of issues, from food production to heavy industry and the infrastructure of a modern capitalist economy. Evidence of production is not limited to past activities. It can be found in both urban and rural areas as well as in-use production capacities and as evidence of past activities. Perhaps one of the most promising areas of understanding distinctiveness in terms of production relates to adaptive reuse of industrial buildings. By understanding the distinctiveness related to production

economies, it will be possible to apply the below evaluations regarding significance and value in order to determine how best to save the distinctive elements of such structures whilst still allowing for economic viability.

The evaluation of evidence of production is a useful way of separating *use* from *character*. By identifying how the use of the landscape relates to its character, it may be possible to identify how changes of use might change the character of the landscape. More importantly from a planning perspective, this allows the defining characteristics of a place to be identified and compatible uses permitted, even where the use itself may change.

Amenity Attributes: The amenity attributes of the landscape relate closely to the public's sense of connection with the landscape (see, for example, Masberg and Silverman 1996). The amenities within the landscape – opportunities for enjoyment and leisure, picturesque views and artistic merit – are often linked to the ever-elusive 'sense of place' and are therefore considered related to ideas of heritage. However, the exact nature of this connection is poorly understood. By layering amenity attributes into the distinctiveness of a place, we can account for these perceptions and be able to create a more complete picture of not only the character and distinctiveness of a place, but also how this reflects public perceptions of heritage.

Measuring amenity attributes presents a number of difficulties. Austin (2007) cites a case in Wales where the amenity value of a place proposed for development was the catalyst for further research into the history of the landscape and recommendations for preservation rather than development. Because these attributes relate to personal perceptions, the amenity of any place will be personal and specific to an individual or small group of individuals. In addition, when gathering information from

the public on these amenities, there is the risk of some voices being drowned out by more vocal groups. Special attention must be paid to ensure all views are considered. This does not mean that every opinion will receive equal weight in the decision-making process. However, they still must be considered. Aside from the important task of providing adequate information for decision-making, the consideration of multiple viewpoints and opinions on the amenity attributes in the landscape fulfils the policy goals of inclusion and public participation. In Austin's Welsh case, the end goal (stopping the proposed development in order to preserve the amenity value of the land) was achieved not because of the role of the amenity attributes in the identity and heritage of the people, but because the outcry from the local citizenry led to more in-depth research to prove the landscape 'historically' valuable. By including amenity attributes as a part of the distinctiveness of a place, decisions could be made based on community input as well as expert research. In addition, we would recognise the active role that people play in the creation and maintenance of their own heritage and lessen the need for battles between experts.

Natural Qualities: The natural qualities of the landscape have also been the subject of extensive previous study, mostly as a result of ecological and environmental conservation concerns. As such, there is not a lot of new work that is required to be done for the purposes of including natural qualities in a review of heritage assets (the quality of such work for ecological purposes being an issue for debate amongst professionals in that field). Heritage managers can work with existing datasets to gain an understanding of the natural qualities of an area. Natural England's work on Landscape Character Assessment provides an exceptional base for incorporating natural qualities into defining the landscape's distinctiveness.

The need to separate natural qualities from other aspects of distinctiveness is rooted in the need to be able to differentiate the natural

from the cultural. This is exceptionally difficult when dealing with the English landscape, influenced as it is by millennia of human/nature interaction. It is necessary, though, in order to distinguish the ecological concerns from the heritage concerns. These may sometimes overlap. At other times, though, there is a risk of conflict between the ecological needs and the cultural influences. Such conflict could occur when, for example, government guidance and promotion of the planting of new woodlands was in conflict with historic uses of the land or when a push for habitat restoration to increase biodiversity in an area was incompatible with the historic uses that over long periods of time created a unique landscape characterised not only by specific uses, but also by low biodiversity levels. By incorporating natural qualities into the distinctiveness of a landscape, we can examine proposed change in light of an integrated approach to management that considers natural and cultural factors equally.

Customs and Practices: Like amenity attributes, the customs and practices that make a place distinct are highly individual and personal. They may not be readily identifiable to the outsider or not considered heritage by expert evaluation. Issues such as customary grazing rights, rights of way and access, even traditions of building style and materials may not be immediately recognisable. In a way, this makes them even more relevant to the heritage debate, as such attributes form the core of the definition of heritage as those activities that fulfil a psychological need for creating social cohesion and self-identification (Edson 2004: 334). Ascertaining these aspects of distinctiveness is difficult without careful analysis and the nature of the aspects as being crucial to concepts of identity makes them particularly sensitive. The UNESCO *Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage* considers this intangible culture “as a mainspring of cultural diversity and a guarantee of sustainable development” (2003: 1). Acceptance and implementation of this convention remains an important focus in European heritage management, and the CTV model offers a way in which such assets can

be considered within the planning system.

By separating distinctive customs and practices from the physical character of the landscape (whether natural or cultural) and by recognising that customs and practices need not have great time-depth in order to form a distinctive part of the landscape, we can then evaluate this aspect of distinctiveness without having to rely on attaching it to other aspects. Aside from adding to the construction of a comprehensive picture of heritage in an area, this also allows greater public involvement within the identification process. Taking this first step then sets the stage for greater involvement throughout the planning process.

Using the Distinctiveness Horizon

Whilst the Character Horizon may inform any number of activities, the Distinctiveness Horizon brings us directly into the realm of planning. Character can provide the basis for any number of questions, from planning to archaeological research to landscape architecture. However, because distinctiveness is directly related to the needs of planning, it must be realised that its usefulness will be limited outside of this context. This should not be considered a drawback, but needs to be recognised as the response to a specific need of planning professionals within the heritage sector.

The major difference between the practical aspects of character and distinctiveness is the need for non-expert input into the processes of identification and evaluation. Archaeology has always been somewhat reticent to engage with the public outside very controlled circumstances, usually involving the archaeologist as expert, teaching the masses about their own history. As Holtorf (2005: 545) has noted, non-experts “are welcome to assist the professionals but need to learn first the ‘proper’ ways (and beliefs) of science generally and of archaeology specifically”

before being allowed to provide their own insights. Such an approach, however well meant, is patronising at best and insulting at worst. When it carries over into the realms of heritage management and conservation planning, this attitude frustrates and alienates not only the public at large, but also the planners and politicians that are trying to find a way to implement policies for preserving and protecting heritage.

One of the benefits of a the CTV model based on horizons of subjectivity is that both expert and non-expert have the ability to influence the overall evaluation of the landscape without necessarily challenging the knowledge of experts. A case in which this approach would have helped identify distinct aspects of the historic landscape during the process of initial evaluation is that of the South Sebastapol housing development described by Austin (2007). In this case, the involvement of the local community early in the planning process evaluating the landscape would have resulted in the identification of local importance of the area without the need to resort to activist groups hiring their own experts to denounce the official analysis. Austin's concern with the "serious absence [of] any reference to Welsh culture and sociopolitical sentiment" (ibid: 103) would be addressed through the official process. In addition, the CTV approach recognises the importance of community involvement in the process, whereas Austin was forced to come to an acceptable conclusion by using traditional landscape archaeology field work to argue that the area in question was older and thus more historically important than previously thought. The CTV model takes the stand that community values can be just as important as historic evidence in reflecting heritage.

With the Distinctiveness Horizon, we have seen how some aspects of distinctiveness rely more on expert analysis (time-depth, evidence of struggle and occupation, evidence of production) and others are more readily identified by public input (amenity attributes, customs and practices). By breaking down the landscape character into aspects of

distinctiveness and by refraining from weighting these aspects in favour of any one aspect, the objectivity of the analysis can be maintained by means of a balanced approach. This brings us to the next horizon: significance.

Significance Horizon

As we move up the pyramid of horizons, we must continue to narrow our focus for the purpose of creating the tool necessary for the job of informing decisions regarding impacts to the historic environment. Maintaining this focus becomes vital in the Significance Horizon. As we have seen, significance is integral in the definition of heritage and is fraught with conflicting definitions and perceptions. For the purposes of informing heritage management, the horizon of significance should be approached as a way to build on definitions of distinctiveness for the purpose of evaluating proposed change within the historic environment. Significance is where we decide what aspects of distinctiveness are best sustained through preservation, which through conservation and which through adaptation.

What criteria to judge significance? To some extent, everything will be significant to someone. Rarely will there be unanimity for insignificance. However, the fact remains that some judgements must be made during the planning process, and criteria against which planners can judge proposed change allows for consistent and transparent decision making. English Heritage's *Conservation Principles* notes that "[u]nderstanding the significance of places is vital" (2008: 7). At this point, it useful to examine this Conservation Principle in detail:

Conservation Principle 3: Understanding the significance of places is vital

3.1 Any fixed part of the historic environment with a distinctive identity perceived by people can be considered a place

3.2 The significance of a place embraces all the diverse cultural and natural heritage values that people associate with it, or which prompt them to respond to it. These values tend to grow in strength and complexity over time, as understanding deepens and people's perceptions of a place evolve.

3.3 In order to identify the significance of a place, it is necessary first to understand its fabric, and how and why it has changed over time; and then to consider:

- who values the place, and why they do so
- how those values relate to its fabric
- their relative importance
- whether associated objects contribute to them
- the contribution made by the setting and context of the place
- how the place compares with others sharing similar values

3.4 Understanding and articulating the values and significance of a place is necessary to inform decisions about its future. The degree of significance determines what, if any, protection, including statutory designation, is appropriate under law and policy.

(English Heritage 2008: 21)

This principle requires some deconstructing before it can be translated into use as a horizon of subjectivity. The first thing we notice is that distinctiveness is being used to define place. However, since the *Conservation Principles* do not define distinctiveness, it is best not to place too much weight on its use. The other thing we notice in the wording of

this principle is that significance is dependant on values. As mentioned above, values are also hard to define and involve numerous variables. In this situation, values are generic and personal. This will contrast to the CTV Value horizon (see below).

Section 3.1 tells us how *place* is being defined: it is fixed and perceived by people to be distinct to them. This is not related solely to a place's significance, but it is necessary to focus the guidance on areas, rather than objects or less tangible aspects such as weather or access. Section 3.2 informs us that significance is not limited to expert opinion, rarity or scientific benefit. It covers all values. Also, it is related somewhat to time-depth as the assumption is given that significance strengthens as time goes on. This may be something of an introduced bias on the part of heritage professionals, as it assumes that all people (not just the experts) will increase their understanding of a place over time. Section 3.4 explains why significance is important for decision making, specifically in the realm of informing decisions relating to statutory designation. This section also raises the issue of articulating the significance of a place – far more important in this time of public participation, education and instrumentalism, the articulation of significance is key to meeting goals of transparency and consistency in planning.

Section 3.3 provides the basis for the understanding and articulation of significance. By evaluating aspects of distinctiveness (after all, they are part of what defines a *place*) and articulating them in terms of the criteria listed in Section 3.3, we can define significance for the purposes of decision making. Thus, we can break down significance into seven contributing features:

- The fabric and evolution of a place
- To whom the place is valued and why
- How those people's values relate to the fabric of the place
- What, if any, associated objects contribute to those values

- The contribution of setting and context
- How the place compares to others with similar features

In order to apply these criteria in an objective fashion, they are evaluated in terms of the aspects of distinctiveness defined above. Appendix Two provides a sample analysis sheet that could be used to articulate such an evaluation. The potential use of this analysis sheet will be illustrated in Part Three, where the horizons of subjectivity will be applied to case studies. Here I examine in more depth how the significance criteria can be identified and evaluated in terms of the aspects of distinctiveness.

The identification of the fabric and evolution of a place ties in neatly with the current process of Historic Landscape Characterisation. HLC provides descriptions of the existing landscape and illustrates how it has evolved through time and the manner in which that evolution is still represented in the existing landscape. Fabric relates to the physical character of a place: the materials that can be seen, touched and described analytically. Archaeologists are familiar with this criterion as correlating to the traditional material culture approach to archaeology. Indeed, landscape archaeology itself can be seen as a material cultural approach to understanding the historic landscape (see, for example Johnson 2007: 147ff; Rippon 2004: 3).

Why a place is valued and to whom is much trickier to assess. Using the horizons of subjectivity approach, though, means that some of this work has already been done during the process of identifying aspects of distinctiveness. If the aspects of distinctiveness have been evaluated well, the information from that analysis can be used to form the basis of a significance evaluation. The evidence for time depth, traces of struggle and occupation, evidence of production, amenity attributes, natural qualities and customs and practices will open up lines of evidence for who and why values. Information gathering, while assessing aspects of

distinctiveness such as amenity attributes, evidence of production and customs and practices, will identify those individuals and groups that value the place. This information can then be used to assess the reasons why such values are held.

Examination of the who and why values can then be evaluated against the information identified as significant to the fabric and evolution of a place, to discover what aspects of the fabric of a place are significant in their representation of the values expressed by the public. In this manner, the distinctive elements of a place are identified, their value examined and their significance defined in terms of the physical attributes of the place.

In the course of evaluating the significance of a specific place, it may be shown that some of that significance is attached not to fixed aspects of the place, but to portable objects associated with it. These associated objects should also then be evaluated in terms of their relative value and ability to contribute to the legibility of the place's significance.

The role of setting and context in determining significance is another area in which HLC is particularly useful. For some, it is the primary aim of HLC. Selman identifies HLC as being “developed with the aim of viewing individual sites in a wider context” (2006: 89). While this may be an overly simplistic view of HLC, it brings to light the need for understanding setting and context. When related to aspects of distinctiveness, setting and context are especially relevant to the significance of amenity attributes and the natural qualities of the landscape, though they are important criteria for evaluating significance in any aspect of distinctiveness. By examining how setting and context contribute to each aspect of distinctiveness, a clearer picture is formed as to what characteristics within the landscape are important to preserve and which have greater capacity for change.

Comparing the values of one place against those of another is not an

activity that heritage managers like to undertake. HLC reinforces this with its foundation that all is of value. We actively avoid assigning relative value for fear of imposing our own biases to decisions. Archaeologists are trained to approach their discipline as scientists, making objective observations and studying the past with detached, academic interest. However, when funding for preservation, conservation, curation and research is limited and pressures from outside interests are strong, comparisons between places need to be made. The public makes and expresses their opinions on the relative value of places and may not understand reluctance on the part of experts. Because significance is personal and perceptual, the public opinion on relative values may take centre stage in debates regarding proposed change. The key to evaluating this criterion of significance is again focusing on its relationship to the aspects of distinctiveness. One method of doing this is through the evaluation of legibility.

Legibility, the ability for us to 'read' the landscape (Selman 2006: 8), fits neatly into the linguistic model of translating the historic landscape into a language understandable by planners, politicians and the public alike. In comparing relative values of a place in terms of the legibility of its distinctive elements, decisions can be made based on evidence rather than emotion. I therefore suggest that comparative values be measured in terms of legibility. In doing so, comparisons need not be restricted to one place being seen as more or less valuable than another, but rather identifies what values are more or less legible. This results in being able options not just to save or sacrifice a place based on comparative values, but also to improve the legibility of the significant and distinctive aspects of a place, thus enhancing the significant and distinctive elements of that place.

Value Horizon

The top horizon of the CTV model is value. We have already seen that the word 'value' is ubiquitous in heritage management. It pervades all levels of thinking about the historic environment and is inseparable from the very notion of heritage. What, then, does value look like as a horizon of subjectivity? I propose a relatively narrow definition, for use specifically within a planning context. The reason for this is the way in which value is ascribed in policy and guidance. Once again, I turn to English Heritage's *Conservation Principles* to focus our understanding of heritage values. In this document, English Heritage identifies four groups under which value is attached to a place: evidential value, historical value, aesthetic value and communal value. These values originally relate to the needs of various systems of designation (listing, scheduling, etc.); their use outside of the systems of statutory designation remains unclear.

The definitions of heritage values outlined in the *Conservation Principles* are more academic than the values discussed previously. They are related to the actual history of a place more than perceptions of distinctiveness and ideas of significance. Evidential value relates to a place's potential for yielding evidence about past human activity. Though the *Conservation Principles* do not say so outright, the assumption is that some level of expertise is required to ascertain what the evidence is and how it relates to past human activity. In explaining this heritage value, the final statement on evidential value is most telling: "Evidential value derives from the physical remains or genetic lines that have been inherited from the past. The ability to understand and interpret the evidence tends to be diminished in proportion to the extent of its removal or replacement" (English Heritage 2008: 28). The first sentence implies the need for expertise and science, particularly in the choice of emphasising *genetic lines*, as this is surely not a subject most people can determine by themselves. The second sentence again reinforces this need, by pointing

out the need to understand and interpret the evidence, implying that the evidence cannot 'speak for itself' but requires intervention to be understood. In addition, the final phrase highlights the real purpose of this category: how proposed change may impact the value. Removal and replacement are the main threats to evidential value. Thus, to preserve their value in the face of change, these are the threats to be measured against.

Historical value is broken down into two branches: illustrative and associative. Illustrative historical value is the more difficult of the two to understand. It is dependant on visibility and a clear relationship with the history that is being illustrated. The *Conservation Principles* describes it as having "the power to aid interpretation of the past through making connections with, and providing insights into, past communities and their activities through shared experience of a place" (ibid: 29). This again infers an outside agent assisting in the determination of overall value by aiding the interpretation, and assumes some level of knowledge from the person or group experiencing a place. Many conservation areas may be considered to have illustrative historical value, such as the Leazes Conservation Area in Newcastle-upon-Tyne, where the combination of the public Leazes Park, the Palladian Leazes Terrace and the more modest Leazes Crescent combine to illustrate life in a 'modern' early 19th-century housing development (Townsend and Pendlebury 1999: 317). Illustrative historical value is of use to the CTV model presented here as it is related to the legibility of a place and can be expressed in those terms.

Associative historical value also requires contributions from outside sources. The association with an important person or historical event, or associations with specific works of art, writing, film or music must be demonstrated through additional information being provided to those who wish to experience this heritage value. For example, Down House, the home of Charles Darwin, may be a fine example of the architecture of the

period, but is most valuable due to its association with Charles Darwin and his scientific studies and writing. This association also brings with it a multitude of questions relating to how we determine which individual, event, piece of music, writing or film is important enough to be worthy of the status that would allow their association with a place to be considered valuable. Again, the *Conservation Principles* focus on potential threats to the value: “[h]istorical values are harmed only to the extent that adaptation has obliterated or obscured them” (ibid: 29). This approach may actually be detrimental to conservation of heritage assets, especially as the *Conservation Principles* go on to state “[t]he use and appropriate management of a place for its original purpose... illustrates the relationship between design and function, and so may make a major contribution to its historical values” (ibid: 30). The intent to protect the historic use of places risks impeding continued use where the historic use is no longer feasible. Conflict then arises pitting the preservation of the fabric of a place against its historic use. In these cases, a clear understanding of distinctiveness and significance allows a balanced assessment of historical value and inform decisions regarding appropriate treatment in the face of change.

Aesthetic value is defined by the *Conservation Principles* as deriving from “the ways in which people draw sensory and intellectual stimulation from a place” (ibid: 30). This value is therefore extremely personal and individualistic. It is also very difficult to define, though it might be seen in places like 'Constable's Suffolk,' where the composition of the landscape is clearly linked to the value of one artist's work. There is a strong case to be made for an outside, expert opinion in defining the aesthetic value, as the concepts that define aesthetic value include principles of design, art and architecture. Aesthetic value, the guidelines state, can be the result of conscious design or of fortuitous development. However, design value is seen in terms of “composition (form, proportions, massing, silhouette, views and vistas, circulation) and usually materials.... it may extend to the intellectual programme governing the design ... and the choice or

influence of sources from which it was derived” (ibid: 30). These are questions posed by architects, artists, designers and craftspeople. Closely related to these questions are those of how to treat such places when faced with change. The *Principles* recommend that places with aesthetic value may be amenable to restoration or enhancement. Such treatments can only be explored with a good understanding of what characteristics make the place distinctive and significant, so that the defining characteristics can be preserved and/or restored. Otherwise, we run the risk of restoring all places to look the same, based on a nostalgic or media-driven view of how 'character' places are supposed to look. Because appearance is prominent in the identification of aesthetic values, it risks taking over from other senses and can result in façadism, where the outer appearance is all that is left (see, for example, Pendlebury 2002; Townsend and Pendlebury 1999).

The final set of heritage values identified by English Heritage are communal values. Communal values, by definition, are not as individualistic or personal as some of the other values. However, they may not always be reflective of great time-depth and may be commemorative of relatively recent events. As such, archaeologists and historians may not understand the role of these places in the formation of heritage. In addition, places commemorating recent events may evoke strong emotions that colour decisions. Communal value relates to social use and spiritual values as well. These values also cause problems for the archaeologists often dealing with issues of heritage values, in that these values “may indeed have no direct relationship to any formal historic ... values that may have been ascribed to it” (English Heritage 2008: 32). A case in point is the ongoing conflict between archaeologists and the modern “Druid” sect over the ability to freely access the stones of Stonehenge. If heritage is a combination of history and value, one may ask if a value that has no connection to history can be called a heritage value.

By themselves, the heritage values set out in the *Conservation Principles* are of limited use due to their subjectivity and needs for outside expert analysis. When combined with the other horizons of subjectivity, however, these heritage values play an important role in the identification of appropriate treatment when heritage is faced with proposed change. The recommendations provided by English Heritage to retain each of these values can inform on appropriate treatment of specific places, many of which will represent more than a single heritage value. The key is in the preliminary work, whereby the distinctive aspects of a place are identified and their significance is evaluated. The information from those analyses provides the evidence base for value-based treatments. Thus, within the CTV model, values are primarily used to identify appropriate treatment when specific and significant aspects of distinctiveness are affected by change. In addition, the scale of both the heritage asset and any proposed change can be taken into consideration throughout the CTV model in order to deal with proposed change in a proportional manner, whilst maintaining consistency through the approach.

Conclusion

By using a phased approach based on horizons of subjectivity informed by policy and guidance for the treatment of the historic environment, it should be possible to create an evidence-based process by which a wide variety of heritage assets (not least of which is the historic landscape) can be evaluated. Along the way, distinctiveness is defined and significance clearly communicated, allowing for appropriate treatment to be determined, based on the perceived values of the place. There is room for input from both experts and the public, without assigning either with a greater or lesser weight within the process. The base for the process – identification of the character of the historic environment – already exists in the form of HLC. Figure 9 illustrates the process from characterisation to value identification. The process outlined above brings HLC into the

realm of strategic and spatial planning. The following chapters, I outline how this process would function in specific planning contexts, by means of a retrospective application to a variety of cases.

SAVE FOR FIGURE 9/APPENDIX 2

CHAPTER FOUR

CASE REVIEW: WEST BERKSHIRE HOUSING STRATEGY

The need for additional affordable housing opportunities is one of the top concerns of politicians in England today. Nowhere in the country is the need for additional housing more acute than in the Southeast. My first study evaluates how the historic environment fits into the “Combined Strategic Housing Sites Appraisal” in West Berkshire. This appraisal examined eleven different locations proposed for development into housing estates. Though a number of different factors contribute to the overall assessment, I will focus on how the historic environment was addressed, and provide an example of how the above model would assess one of the areas under consideration: Sandford Park. Information on the Core Strategy and housing growth point evaluations can be found at www.westberks.gov.uk.

The following information is provided by West Berkshire County Council:

Situated to the south of Newbury, [Sandford Park] comprises approximately 140 hectares of predominantly agricultural land interspersed with ancient woodland ... It could potentially accommodate around 2000 dwellings with associated community facilities and services ... The area would need to be designed with significant green infrastructure, taking into account the site's complex topography and potentially significant local landscape impacts (including historic) and further work would need to be undertaken in this regard ... This site is recommended for inclusion ... in the Core Strategy.

(W. Berks Council 2009: 38).

This brief summary recognises the sensitivity of the historic landscape at

this particular site. The 'Landscape Sensitivity' summary for Sandleford Park recommends that “no further large scale development should be located in this area” and that it “would be difficult to develop without having a significant local landscape impact” (ibid: 39). Considering that the site was selected for inclusion as a potential growth point, accommodating up to 2,000 dwellings, one wonders how this can be accomplished without large-scale development and a significant impact.

The landscape sensitivity study that the Core Strategy refers to was completed by Kirkham Landscape Planning, Ltd on behalf of the West Berkshire Council and is based on the HLC completed between 2004 and 2007 by the Council's Archaeology Service (Kirkham Landscape Planning, Ltd 2009). This HLC breaks down the landscape of West Berkshire into 18 Landscape Character Types and then further subdivides it into 55 Local Landscape Character Areas (LLCAs). Figure 11 illustrates the Sandleford Park area of the West Berkshire Core Strategy, with Figure 12 showing its constituent HLC. The LLCA for Sandleford Park is identified as LLCA 18D “South Thatcham Valley Farmland” (shared with Newbury).

Figure 11. The Sandleford Park area of the West Berkshire Core Strategy. From Kirkham Landscape Planning (2009)

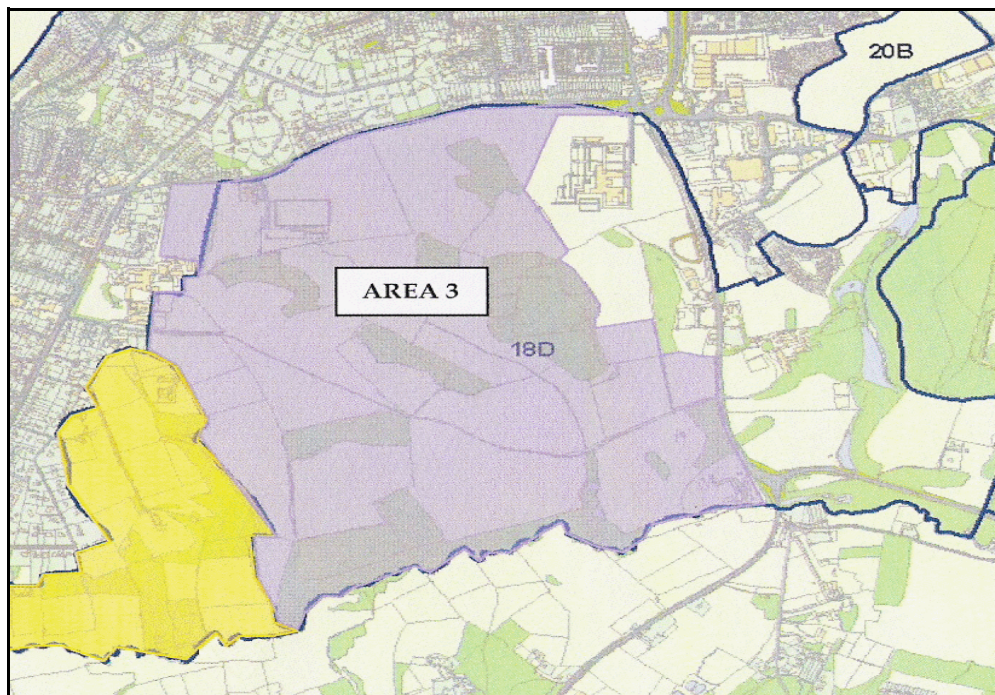
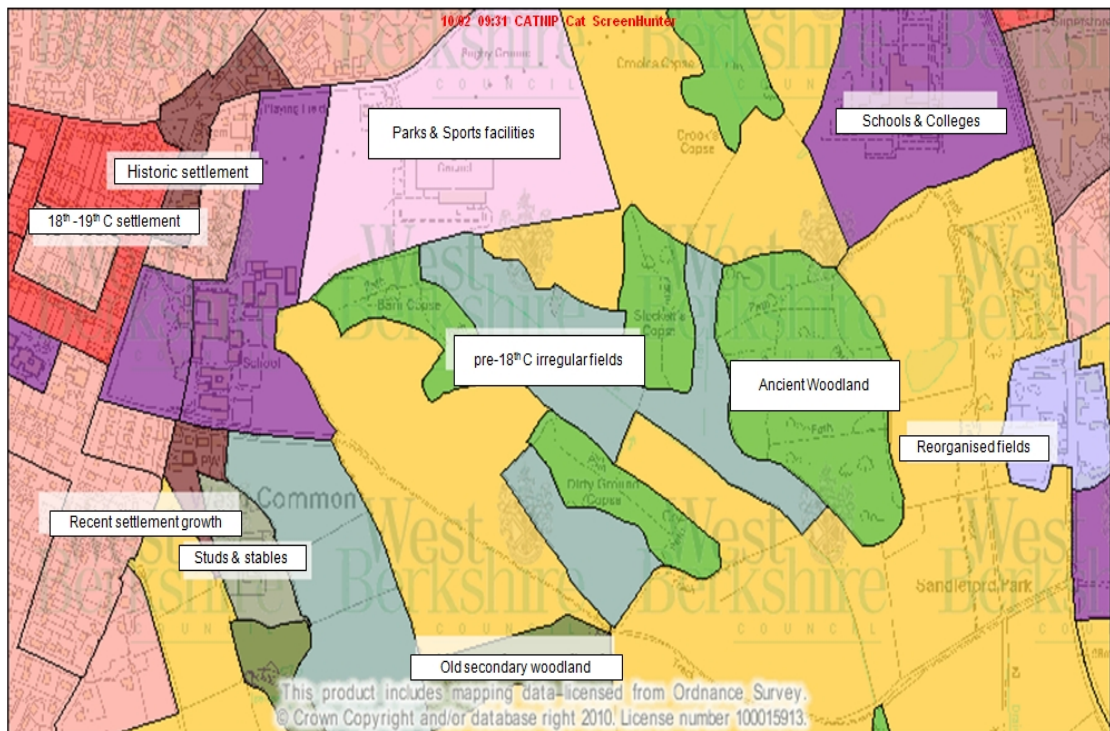


Figure 12. Sandleford Park HLC Character Types. Image courtesy of West Berkshire County Council.



The methodology for evaluating sensitivity involved gathering baseline data on numerous aspects of the landscape (not just the historic component) and analysed under eight themes:

1. Planning designations
2. Physical landscape
3. Built form
4. Visibility
5. Historic
6. Access and Recreation
7. Biodiversity
8. Cultural associations

Themes 2–8 were considered those relating to the distinctive elements of landscape character. Notably, the sensitivity analysis was relative between each LLCA. This, of course, presents the potential problem of allowing potentially sensitive areas to be labelled less sensitive due to the

fact that the surrounding areas are considered *more* significant than surrounding areas. Additionally, the methodology clearly states that it favours “remote unspoilt protected landscapes” (section 5.2) as being the most sensitive. This approach automatically therefore prejudices the study against considering humanly modified landscapes as being more sensitive. This is a problem that arises in the analysis of Sandleford Park, where the analysis seems to have focused on the visual qualities: “[t]he overall sensitivity of this area is medium, with a medium to high wider landscape sensitivity. It is significantly affected visually by development on the higher ground within it and just outside, but retains elements of seclusion within the valleys, and woodland blocks some near views” (Kirkham Landscape Planning 2009: 2).

Within the specific theme of Historic sensitivity (theme 5), the sensitivity was determined through a combination of HLC sensitivity and archaeological potential. The HLC sensitivity assessment involved evaluating each Historic Landscape Type a value for *significance* and a value for *fragility* (1 for low, 3 for high); the combined score was then used to assign *sensitivity*. Scores were based on “the contribution of the Type to the landscape, both modern and previous, and a professional judgement of the importance and interest of the HLC Type” (West Berks Council nd: 1). It is the combination of the sensitivity scores for each of the HLC Type in Sandleford Park, along with archaeological potential, that resulted in the above determination of sensitivity. No recommendations are given regarding the capacity for change within this area, other than recommending no large scale development and indicating that the area may be able to accommodate small scale development, “where closely related to the settlement edge, in association with new woodland edge planting” (Kirkham Landscape Planning 2009: 2).

Table 2 provides a sample CTV analysis matrix for Sandleford Park. As this analysis is a review, some aspects are left blank. In addition, it may

be that some parts of the CTV analysis are not represented in a particular area or Character Type. Aspects of distinctiveness, such as Customs and Practices, are not readily identifiable through traditional methods of evaluating the historic landscape and therefore could not be identified from HLC information. While consultation was done for the general West Berkshire Core Strategy, no consultation was done specifically for the historic landscape. While the CTV analysis does not assign a score to the landscape features, but it does allow for the identification of specific features and how they relate to the significance of the landscape, allowing for easier assessment of the area's capacity for change. There is potential for developing a scoring system in the future, should that be considered necessary by users.

From the CTV analysis, it becomes clear that some issues override specific Character Types. Many of these issues are not solely related to the historic aspects of the landscape: biodiversity, a sense of seclusion, pathways, access and views. Even though these are not traditionally considered part of the 'historic' environment, we can see that they are key to identifying the local distinctiveness of a place. Therefore, in the case of Sandford Park, we can see why large-scale development would be inappropriate for this location. We can also see what type of small-scale development could be accommodated: that which preserves at least some of the field patterns of the irregularly enclosed fields, retains paths and access across the landscape, maintains the presence and management of ancient woodlands, provides good connectivity for wildlife and maintains or improves biodiversity, and retains some areas where a sense of seclusion can be achieved. Opportunities for research into the history and archaeology of the area should be explored where necessary for development. In addressing these issues, it should be possible to incorporate development into the area without losing the local distinctiveness.

The lack of a numerical scoring system for the CTV should not be a concern to potential users. Though preference for such systems continues within the planning system, the usefulness is debatable. Often, because the experts assessing things like sensitivity have an interest in the protection and preservation of the resources they are assessing, the majority of types will wind up with at least a medium, if not a high level of sensitivity. For example, in the West Berkshire Sensitivity Assessment, the only character types to receive a 'low' marking for their overall sensitivity were the following: industrial farming concern, market garden, industrial areas, business parks, retail complexes, utilities, landfills, major roads, golf courses, reservoirs, watercress beds, restored land, rough grazing and wasteland. Very few, if any, of these landscape character types would be suitable for housing development, as they are already either developed (retails parks, industrial areas, etc.) or are impractical for such uses (reservoirs, landfills). The key principle of the CTV model is the identification of those characteristics that need to be preserved, encouraged or maintained in the face of change.

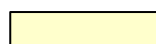
The CTV model, rather than offering, numerical scorings of more- or less-sensitivity (often seen in the form of a “stoplight” system – red/ amber/ green), instead proposes a process by which acceptable change could be identified. Thus, in the case of the Sandleford Park example, a CTV analysis would recommend that larger-scale housing development be restricted to the edges of existing settlement, that the ancient woodland and pre-18th century fields be preserved as much as possible, and that any new housing within the recently reorganised fields be designed to be small-scale, respect existing features such as roads and boundary features, and retain a semi-rural feel.

Table 2. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of Sandleford Park

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
Pre-18 th Century Irregular Fields	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Hedgerows, lanes and paths may follow ancient boundaries; species-rich hedges may reflect time-depth (H-I, E)	Hedges in this type are among the oldest in-use landscape features in the area (H-I, E)	Hedges in this type are among the oldest in-use landscape features in the area (H-I, E)	Sunken lanes offer walkways for ramblers; bird-watchers and botanists (amateur and professional) have interests in access for recreation (H-A, C)	Important habitats for threatened/ endangered species of plants and animals (E)		(E)= Evidential (H-I)= Historical Illustrative (H-A)= Historical Associative (A)= Aesthetic (C)= Communal
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians, geographers (E, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, farmers, land managers (E, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, farmers, land managers (E, H-I, H-A)	Ramblers, bird-watchers, naturalists (A, C)	Conservationists, ecologists, politicians (for meeting sustainability goals) (E, H-A, A, C)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	The fabric often provides a sense of connection with the past, as modern distractions can be filtered out. (E, H-I, H-A, A, C)	The fabric and management techniques of hedgerows in this type connect historic land use patterns to modern ones. (E, A)	The fabric and management techniques of hedgerows in this type connect historic land use patterns to modern ones. (E, C)	Without the fabric, the place cannot provide the habitat for species or the feeling of seclusion or tranquility. (A, C)	The fabric of the type is necessary to maintain the habitats and connectivity necessary for sustainable management (E, A, C)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	Archaeological materials (E, H-I, H-A)	Tools and techniques associated with traditional management (E, H-A)	Tools and techniques associated with traditional management (E, H-A, H-I)				



Character Horizon



Significance Horizon



Distinctiveness Horizon



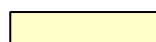
Value Horizon

Table 2. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of Sandleford Park

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Lack of development provides a feeling of antiquity. (E, A, C)	Active traditional management illustrates connectivity between historic practices and modern ones (H-A, H-I)	Active traditional management illustrates connectivity between historic practices and modern one (H-A, H-I)	Setting and context provide a sense of seclusion and tranquility that ramblers desire, offer appropriate habitats for plants and animals (A, C)	Setting and context provide necessary habitat and connectivity for plants and animals to maintain ecological stability. (E, H-I)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							
Ancient Woodland	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Species-rich broadleaved woodland indicative of antiquity of the type; lack of previous types evident in the same area also speaks to time-depth. (E, H-I)	The lack of change to this type speaks to the absence of struggle and occupation, which is itself an important statement of the factors that created it. (H-A)	Traditional management such as coppicing may continue in areas, providing a connection to the past through use. (H-A, H-I, A)	Provides a setting preferred by countryside visitors. Offers a sense of seclusion and tranquility. (A, C)	Provides habitat for threatened/ endangered species of plants and animals. Traditional management of the type maintains this. (E, C)		
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Landscape historians and archaeologists for the continuity of the type (E)	Those wanting to experience a feeling of connectivity to an 'Ancient' Britain. (H-A, C)	Those wishing to keep alive traditional production skills; craftsmen (H-A, H-I, A, C)	Ramblers and countryside visitors wanting a sense of tranquility and seclusion; People interested in the plants and animals living in this habitat (A, C)	Ecologists; conservationists; biologists (E)		



Character Horizon



Significance Horizon



Distinctiveness Horizon



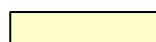
Value Horizon

Table 2. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of Sandleford Park

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	The fabric of the place is necessary to illustrate the historic environment and uses of the type. (E, H-I)	The fabric of the place illustrates the values (E, H-I)	The fabric provides the necessary materials for continuation of production. (E)	Fabric contributes to peoples' experiences. (H-A, C)	Fabric creates the appropriate ecological niches for habitat and connectivity (E)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES							
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Setting and context contribute to the expression of time depth as the space allows different aspects of the ancient woodland to thrive. (H-A, H-I, E)	Offers a sense of past activities. (H-A, H-I)	Necessary for the materials produced in the woodland to develop (E)	Provides sense of seclusion as well as important habitats (H-A, A, C)	Provides required habitats and connectivity (E)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							



Character Horizon



Significance Horizon



Distinctiveness Horizon



Value Horizon

Table 2. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of Sandleford Park

 Character Horizon  Significance Horizon  Distinctiveness Horizon  Value Horizon

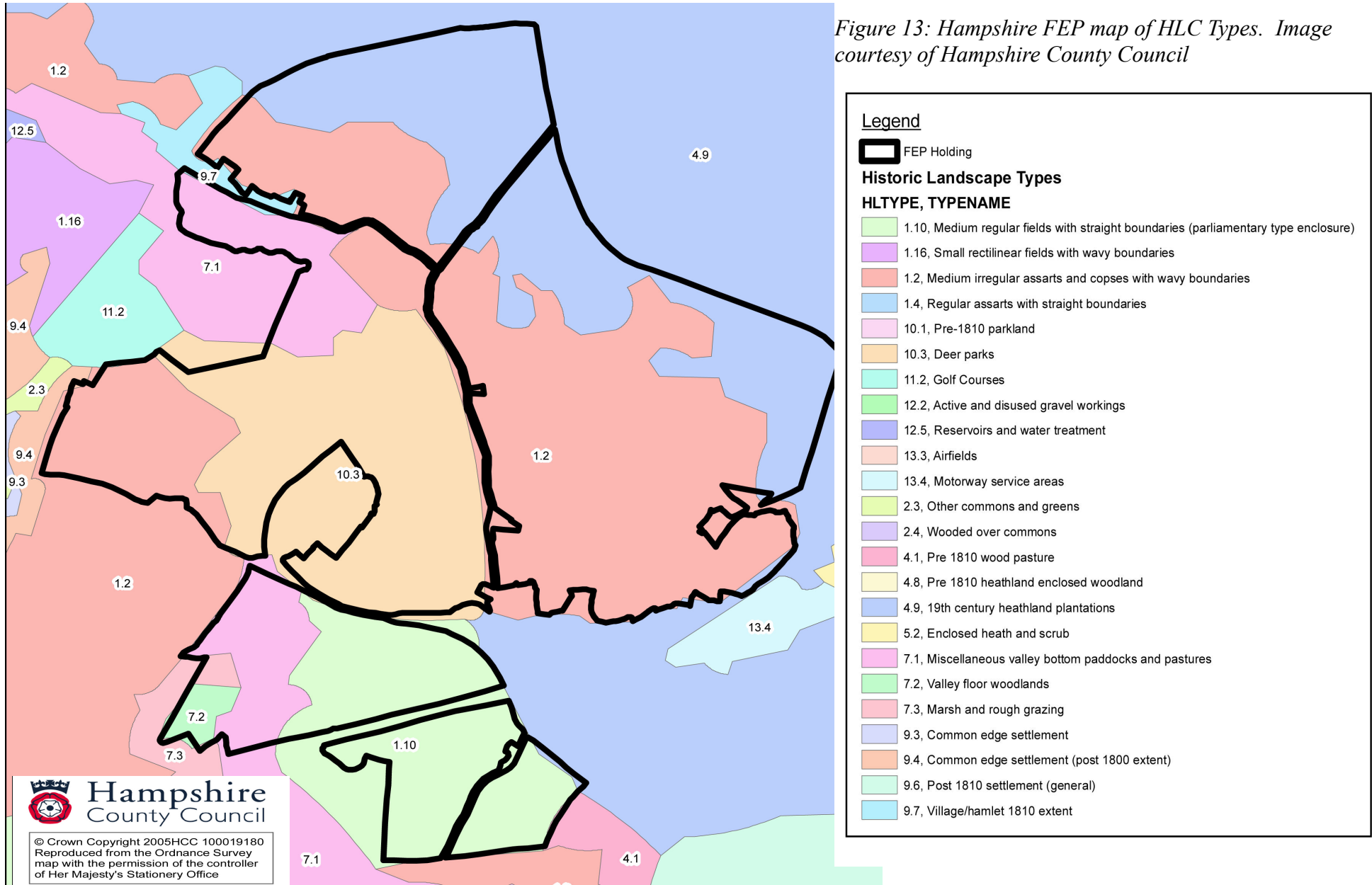
CHAPTER 5

CASE REVIEW: FARM ENVIRONMENT PLAN, HAMPSHIRE

The second case review involves evaluating the historic landscape for purposes of developing a farm Environment Plan (FEP) – a necessary document for acceptance into the Higher Level Stewardship (HLS) scheme for subsidies from Natural England. The FEP is “a structured survey of all environmental features on a farm. It involves identifying and making an assessment of the condition of any features of historical, wildlife, resource protection, access and landscape interest” (www.naturalengland.co.uk). It is a pre-requisite for the HLS and is supposed to form the basis of a plan designed to sustainably manage the farm in question. The FEP reviewed here is in Hampshire, but due to privacy concerns (and as requested by the Hampshire Archaeology and Historic Buildings Section), the exact location or name of the farm will not be used. Figure 13 illustrates the HLC types included in the farm. The Hampshire Archaeology and Historic Buildings Section provides information on the historic environment for these FEP to Natural England. Natural England then takes that information and provides management recommendations for the farm's management plan.

The principle HLC types for the Hampshire farm include: 19th century heathland plantation, parkland and deer park, medium irregular assarts, and 'parliamentary type' enclosures. The historic environment information provided by the Hampshire Archaeology and Historic Buildings Section includes a concise yet informative description of the HLC types and what further research may reveal about the historic landscape features within the farm. It includes data on the diversity of boundaries found within the HLC types and recorded archaeological sites. Recommendations on the treatment of the historic environment are provided, but are limited. The information pack recommends relying on examples in the immediate vicinity for any proposed boundary repair, further assessment of the

Figure 13: Hampshire FEP map of HLC Types. Image courtesy of Hampshire County Council



character of the boundaries, preservation or conservation of the surviving sections of the recorded park pale, and that the previously recorded ridge and furrow be further investigated to determine if any features still remain visible within the landscape. In addition, there is a generic recommendation in the information pack stating that other archaeological sites “not be needlessly or thoughtlessly damaged”. The information pack for the FEP offers “suggested management option,” which are standard options outlined by Natural England in their HLS handbook (Natural England 2008). However, most of the options offered for the historic environment focus on preserving features and sites rather than provided any proactive options. Whilst this approach serves well to protect archaeological sites and preserve extant features such as hedgerows and traces of ridge and furrow, it also assumes a certain level of stasis – that the farm in question does not need to address any issues of expansion, access or other change. It provides a guide for what not to do, but does not address what can be done.

A major stumbling block to effective landscape management arose during the analysis of the Hampshire FEP – whilst the information provided by the Archaeology and Historic Buildings Section is submitted to Natural England, the Section does not receive any feedback on what recommendations are accepted or implemented in the actual FEP. Attempts to follow up with Natural England to determine the level of implementation failed to produce any results.

Whilst the recommendations made in the information pack are based on an assessment of both the Historic Environment Record (HER) and the HLC, they are mainly concerned with the treatment of specific sites and features rather than providing landscape-scale guidance. As such, it may provide limited value to informing proposed change. Hampshire has produced a landscape sensitivity assessment process, a method for assessing total landscape sensitivity, including the physical landscape, the

experiential landscape, biodiversity and the historic environment (Hampshire County Council nd: 6). Curiously, the methodology for this assessment begins with a note that the approach developed

“does not try to place a value on different landscapes. Nor does it seek to establish the capacity of the landscape to accommodate development or other change ... the aim is to ensure that inherent landscape sensitivity is measurable and comparable and is not value based”

(ibid: 5)

This reflects the attempts of HLC to be value-neutral. However, the way in which the landscape sensitivity assessment is done belies this value-neutral approach. The methodology identifies three indicators of sensitivity: significance, robustness and condition. As we have seen in discussions above, value is inherent in significance. In the case of Hampshire's landscape sensitivity assessment, significance is defined as rarity. So, automatically there is a concern that, whilst purporting to be value-neutral, the sensitivity assessment process is laden with value judgements, the first of which is that things that are rare are more valuable than those things that are common. Whereas few would argue that the oldest archaeological sites and landscapes are not valuable, planning decisions often require values to be ranked and the most valuable preserved. Using this sensitivity assessment, that value is weighted towards the oldest part of the historic environment and may overlook other aspects of the historic environment that are important due to factors other than age. In the case of a FEP, it may be that those aspects relating to the more recent use of the area are more valuable to the local community than any prehistoric sites or relict landscapes present on the farm. The CTV model can identify these values and offer advice on how to best treat the property.

Table 3 provides a CTV analysis of the Hampshire farm. It provides

almost no information that was not included in the historic environment information provided by the Archaeology and Historic Buildings Section, with the exception of information on customs and practices, which (as mentioned) requires a further level of data gathering not currently done for this type of project. It may be beneficial for FEPs to use this aspect of distinctiveness to promote traditional farming methods and products.

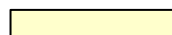
In this review, the benefit of the CTV model is in giving farmers and land managers information and advice that can help them make decisions in everyday management practices as well as when development and change are required for economic viability. Aside from focusing on how character types reflect historic processes and therefore how management of those types can retain the heritage of an area, the CTV approach presents the information in a manner that promotes active management of what can be done in the landscape, rather than what cannot be done. Thus, the hedges defining irregular assarts and copses with wavy boundaries (and their associated landscape features) are shown to express their distinctive character through the shape of their outlines, the traditional ways of manufacture and maintenance, the type and diversity of species and the patterns of paths, trackways and holloways along their edges. This leads easily into developing management recommendations that promote and enhance these characteristics. This serves a dual purpose in that it not only promotes sympathetic management, but also removes the restrictive feel that often accompanies guidance that is limited to negatives.

Table 3. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of the Hampshire Farm Environment Plan

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
Medium irregular assarts and copses with wavy boundaries	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Indicative of late medieval incursion into the nearby deer park. (E, H-A, H-I)	Assarts indicate expansion of arable land into previously wooded land. Boundary types indicated nature of this expansion. (H-A, E)	Small scale local farms (C)	Pathways, hedgerows, veteran trees (A, C)	Types of variety of species indicative of time depth and management (E, H-A, H-I, A)		E)= Evidential (H-I)= Historical Illustrative (H-A)= Historical Associative (A)= Aesthetic (C)= Communal
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians, educators, landscape geographers (E, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, educators, etc. (E, H-A, H-I)	Farmers, locals (C)	Public, conservationists (H-A, A, C)	Biologists, ecologists, conservationists, landscape historians (E, A, C)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Physical fabric required to demonstrate historic effects of change to the landscape. (E, H-A, H-I)	Physical fabric required to demonstrate historic effects of change to the landscape. (E, H-A, H-I)	Need to maintain the agricultural production of the land (C)	Desire to retain access, particularly for 'characterful' holloways (H-A, A, C)	Desire to maintain biodiversity, ecology and maintain or increase key species (E, A, C)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	Associated trackways, pathways, banks and ditches (H-A, H-I)	Associated landscape features (H-A)					
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	The context and setting of nearby woodlands reflect the history of the assarts (E, H-A, H-I)	The context and setting of nearby woodlands reflect the history of the assarts (H-A, H-I)	Context and setting need to be compatible with use. (H-A, C)	Contributes to a sense of seclusion and 'tranquility' (H-A, A, C)	Contributes to a diverse ecology, reflects historic development of boundaries (E, C)		



Character Horizon



Significance Horizon



Distinctiveness Horizon



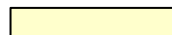
Value Horizon

Table 3. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of the Hampshire Farm Environment Plan

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							
Deer Parks	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Reflects historic uses and values (E, H-A, H-I)	Development of deer parks indicative of medieval power structures and control (H-A, H-I)	Reflects patterns of historic production and consumption (H-A)	Educational potential (E, A, C)	Illustrates a long history of control over nature and moulding of nature to meet cultural needs (A, C)		
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians, etc. (E, H-A, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, etc. (H-A, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, etc. (H-A)	Public (H-A, H-I, A, C)	Numerous (C, A)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Physical fabric required to demonstrate historic effects of change to the landscape. (E, H-A)	Physical fabric required to demonstrate historic effects of change to the landscape. (E, H-A, H-I)	Physical fabric necessary to continue traditional production methods (E)	Physical fabric provides setting for amenity attributes, providing for sense of history. (H-A, H-I, A, C)	Physical fabric required to demonstrate historic effects of change to the landscape. (E, H-I, A)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	Associated archaeological sites and historic buildings (E)	Associated archaeological sites and historic buildings (E)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown		
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Setting and context illustrates the historic setting created for specific activities. (E, H-A, H-I)	Setting and context puts social structure related to construction and maintenance of deer parks. (H-A, H-I)	Setting and context allows for sense of connection to past activities associated with deer parks (E,	Setting allows for sense of history and place. (H-A, H-I, A)	Setting allows for appropriate ecology for natural qualities to thrive. (E, A)		



Character Horizon



Significance Horizon



Distinctiveness Horizon



Value Horizon

Table 3. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of the Hampshire Farm Environment Plan

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
				H-A, H-I, C)				
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							
19 th Century heathland plantations	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Illustrates 19 th century land/ woodland management concerns. (E, H-A, H-I)	Illustrates 19 th century land/ woodland management concerns. (E, H-A, H-I)	Illustrates 19 th century land/ woodland management concerns. (E, H-A, H-I)	Offers a sense of wilderness, isolation and tranquility (A, C)	Relatively recent changes to ecology of the type created different habitats. (E, A, C)		
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians (E, H-A, H-I)	Archaeologists, historians, foresters, land managers (E, H-A, H-I, C)	Land managers, foresters, communities. (E, A, C)	Land managers, public. (A, C)	Ecologists, conservationists, public. (E, A, C)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Reflects the history and use of the area, contributes to a greater understanding of the time period. (E, H-A, H-I)	Illustrates 19 th -century land management and forestry as part of needs of a larger society. (H-A, H-I)	Valued for current production potential as well as historic associations (C, H-A)	Valued for sense of isolation and tranquility (A, C)	Valued for resources, habitats, communal spaces (E, A, C)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	Archaeological finds and historic documents related to historic activities. (E, H-I, A)	Archaeological finds and historic documents related to historic activities. (E, H-I, A)	Equipment and technologies for production. (E)	Unknown	Unknown		
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Isolated setting and context allow for a sense of history. Associated archaeological sites	Isolated setting adds to understanding of struggle to create productive plantations from	Setting and context illustrate the use of land as a productive resource. (H-A,	Setting and context provides sense of isolation and connection to	Provides habitat and ecological niches for specific plants and animals. (E,		

Character Horizon
 Significance Horizon
 Distinctiveness Horizon
 Value Horizon

Table 3. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of the Hampshire Farm Environment Plan

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
		may add to knowledge of the time period. (E, H-A)	heathland. (H-A, H-I)	H-I)	19 th century production. (H-A, C, A)	A)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							
Medium regular fields with straight boundaries (parliamentary type enclosures)	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Illustrates the process of parliamentary enclosure, may include 'fossilised' field systems of earlier periods. (E, H-I, H-A)	Illustrates changing social and land-owning patterns through large-scale enclosures. (E, H-A, H-I)	Illustrates the shift from agricultural to pastoral production systems (H-A, H-I)	Allows for modern farming techniques as well as providing a sense of openness and panoramic views. (A, C)	Allows for modern production with limited damage due to expansion. May provide habitat for specific plants & animals (A, C)		
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians, landscape historians. (E, H-I, H-A)	Historians, farmers, land managers (H-I, H-A, C)	Farmers, land managers (E, C)	Public, farmers, land managers (E, A, C)	Public, ecologists, conservationists. (E, A, C)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Fabric is necessary to illustrate the result of historic processes and events (H-I, H-A)	Fabric allows for continued use of land. (E, C)	Fabric is necessary to continue production (E)	Fabric creates panoramic landscapes that contribute to a sense of openness. (A)	Fabric allows creation and maintenance of habitat and ecology. (E, A, C)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	Archaeological finds and historic documents associated with process of enclosure. (E, H-I)	Archaeological finds and historic documents associated with the process of enclosure. (E, H-I)	Archaeological finds and historic documents associated with the process of	Unknown	Unknown		

 Character Horizon
  Significance Horizon
  Distinctiveness Horizon
  Value Horizon

Table 3. Hypothetical CTV Analysis of the Hampshire Farm Environment Plan

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
				enclosure. (E, H-I).				
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Illustrate the results of the enclosure process (H-I, H-A)	Illustrate the results of the enclosure process. May also include 'fossilised' field-scapes that preserve past land use and illustrate the social conditions both of pre- and post- enclosure periods. (E, H-I, H-A)	Illustrates historical change in land use for production as well as contemporary forms of production. (H-I, H-A, C)	Provides a sense of open-ness and panoramic views. (A, C)	Provides habitat as well as allowing for production. (A, C)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES							

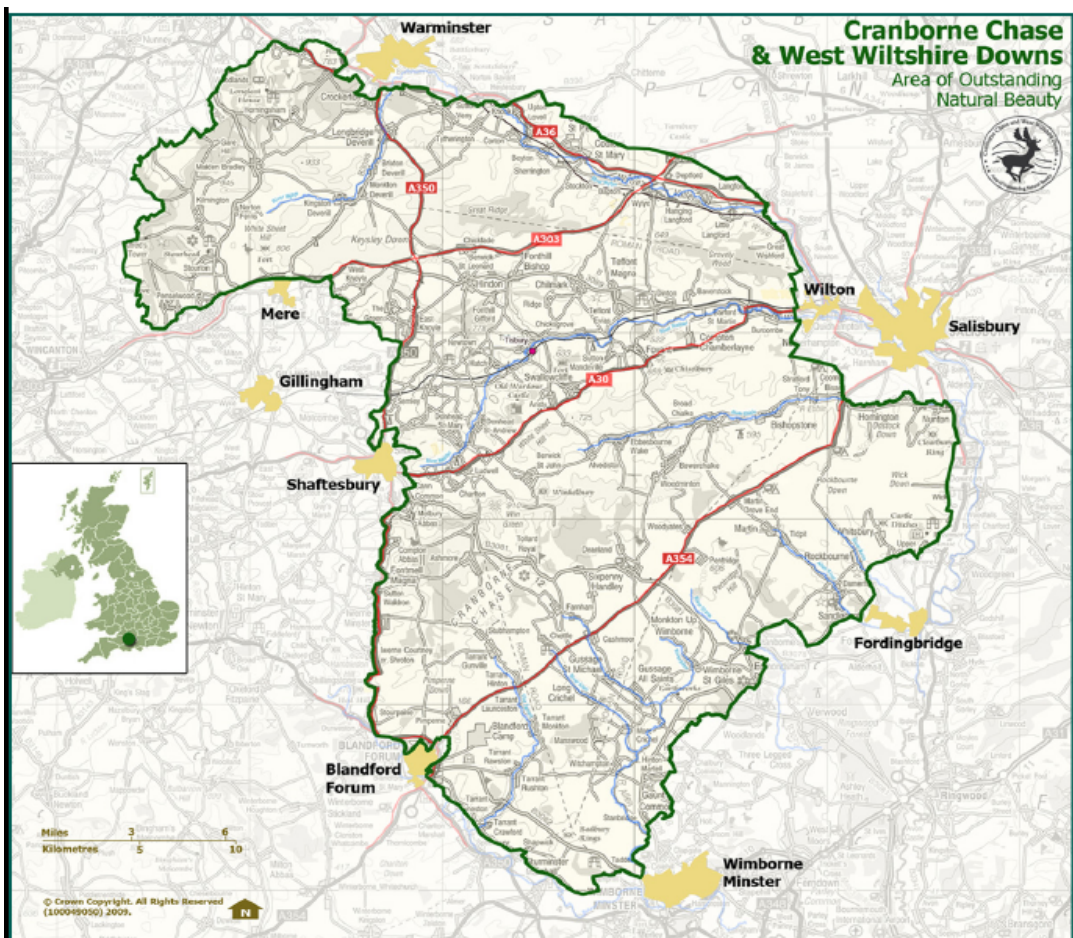
Character Horizon
 Significance Horizon
 Distinctiveness Horizon
 Value Horizon

CHAPTER 6

CASE REVIEW: CRANBORNE CHASE AND WEST WILTSHIRE DOWNS AONB

The Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (CCWWD AONB) provides the backdrop for the final case review. This AONB covers an area of 983 square kilometres within the four counties of Dorset, Hampshire, Somerset and Wiltshire (Rouse 2008). Figure 13 shows the extent of the AONB. It is one of the first AONB's to be developing a Historic Environment Action Plan (HEAP) based on HLC. The author has had the privilege of sitting on the HEAP steering committee since autumn of 2008. The HEAP is not yet complete, so this review demonstrates the potential of the CTV model for incorporation into the HEAP.

Figure 13. Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB. From <http://www.ccwwdaonb.org.uk>,

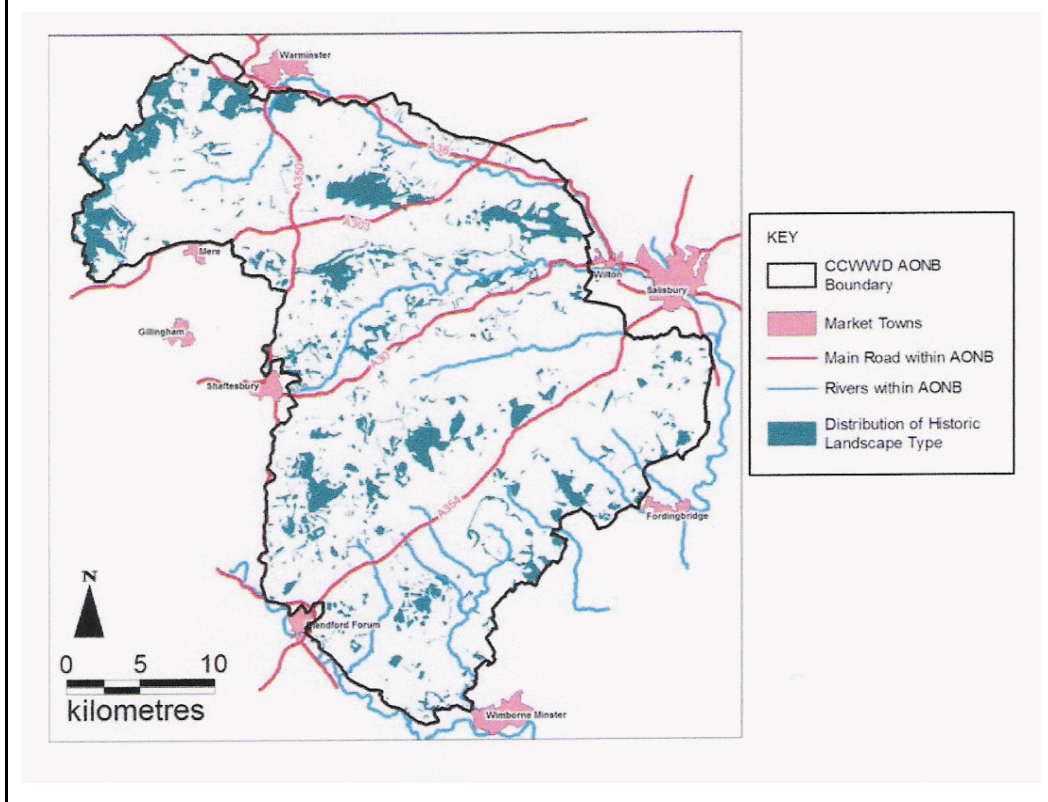


As previously mentioned, the CCWWD AONB HLC includes 12 Broad Character Types and 41 Major Types (see Appendix One). The primary focus of the HEAP steering committee so far has been the development of Historic Environment Character Areas (HECA) and Theme Statements. During the development of the HLC, the area of the AONB had already been divided into Broad Types, Major Types, Sub-Types and (in some cases) sub-sub-Types. This is in addition to the Landscape Character Types and Landscape Character Areas previously defined by the Natural England process of Landscape Character Assessment. With all of these previous divisions and assignments, continuing to create subdivisions may hamper the usefulness of any documents produced, since the multiplicity of divisions serve only to confuse any user.

The HLC for the AONB is quite extensive, and offers substantial information on the character of the area. Therefore, it provides a sound base for the CTV model. In the case of the HEAP, the CTV model could be used in two separate ways: to evaluate a specific area in terms of distinctiveness and significance in order to inform proposed change or as an analysis of a specific Character Type (such as Woodland) for the purposes of informing management issues specific to that Type. The use of the CTV model to evaluate a specific area follows the same process as is seen in the case reviews of the West Berkshire housing growth point and the Hampshire FEP. Therefore, I've chosen to illustrate with the AONB HLC how the CTV model could inform type-specific management, specifically the management of woodland. Woodland is considered to be "a major component of the landscape of the AONB" (Rouse 2008: 201). Figure 14 illustrates the extent of woodland in the AONB. Woodland covers 12.97% of the AONB by area, of which approximately 60% dates from before the 19th century (ibid: 204).

Because the HLC for the CCWWD AONB is so comprehensive, the CTV analysis can also be fairly detailed. Appendix 4 offers a CTV analysis of the two major Woodland types identified in the AONB. Thus, the Character Type of pre-1800 woodland is demonstrated to be distinctive in its ability to illustrate the time-depth present within the type through the presence of the boundary features, coppices and veteran trees. In addition, the distinctiveness of the type is expressed through the possible production of traditional crafts. Though this is not specifically mentioned in the HLC, it became apparent through the HEAP steering committee meetings and activities in the AONB such as the annual Woodfair. These are the types of activities that make an area distinct, but may not be recognisable through standard HLC methodology, but can be identified

Figure 14: Extent of woodland in the Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs AONB. From Rouse (2008)



through public involvement and inquiries such as those proposed to identify distinctive customs and practices. As has been noted above, the inclusion of these aspects of distinctiveness into traditional archaeological methodologies assists in the crossover from heritage to planning.

The CTV analysis of the pre-1800 Woodland Character Type could be used to inform the HEAP by focusing actions such as research activities in those area identified as having evidential values, or promoting the communal values of the amenity attributes. It can also help with the HEAP by identifying what distinctive characteristics of the type are susceptible to adverse effects from proposed change. This mainly relates to the the fabric of the type and how it is connected through context and setting to the ability to reflect the history of the type. From the CTV analysis, we can see that the distinctive aspects of the fabric include the variety of species found within the woodland, the distinctive management styles such as coppicing, and the presence and structure of the boundary features are key to illustrating the history of the type. Though this is the type of information that may seem obvious to the trained landscape historian or archaeologist, it is not always so obvious to those that would be using the HEAP to make management decisions.

In the case of the CCWWD AONB, the CTV analysis puts the HLC information into a context that defines the distinctiveness, significance and value necessary to inform management decisions in the AONB. Such an approach may be more valuable than the development of more descriptive Areas, Zones and Themes that are currently under consideration, as it serves to bridge the HLC data with the management issues that the HEAP is supposed to address. For example, the current approach has recently developed a set of Themes to further characterise the landscape of the AONB. These themes include:

1. Ancient Boundaries and Land Ownership
2. Fields in the Landscape
3. Historic Parks and Gardens in the Landscape
4. Hunting Landscapes
5. Landscapes of Militarism, Commemoration and Defence
6. Landscapes of Prehistory
7. Routeways in the Landscape
8. Settlement in the Landscape
9. Woodland and Trees in the Landscape

Each Theme is then summarised to describe the key characteristics of that Theme. This essentially repeats what has already been done by the HLC. The purpose of these Themes is unclear, though they could be used for directing research projects or funding. The CTV method thus provides a basis from which advice may be provided. Though different interpretations would be expected, the merits of each interpretation would have defined parameters against which they could be debated, providing a greater transparency to the method by which decisions are made. In the case of the Woodland Character Type, the CTV analysis would support recommendations such as which areas are appropriate for woodland restoration (as well as which species are appropriate and how to manage the restored woodland) or where areas of traditional management are being neglected (with the aim of bringing back such management). When combined with CTV analyses of other Types or specific areas within the AONB, it could also be used to advise on how best to design new development within or on the edge of woodland. As such, the CTV model builds upon HLC work to offer more than description or focus for further research. Instead, the CTV model provides a baseline against which basic management needs can be reviewed. It also offers a transparent method for identifying what is distinct and significant in the landscape, thus allowing managers to determine if proposals are within keeping with the local distinctiveness and significant character of a place.

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
Pre-1800 Woodland	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Banks, ditches and associated features reflective of active woodland management; veteran trees illustrative of time-depth; boundary features may be ancient and associated with other old boundaries. (E, H-I, H-A)	Banks, ditches and associated features reflective of control and management of woodlands; Irregular shape associated with boundaries (E, H-I, H-A)	Evidence of woodland-based crafts; material types closely connected to crafts (E, H-I)	Paths and trackways for recreational use, nature appreciation, sense of seclusion (C, A)	Species-rich broadleaved woodland with coppiced and veteran trees. (E, C)		(E)= Evidential (H-I)= Historical Illustrative (H-A)= Historical Associative (C)= Communal (A)= Aesthetic
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, landscape historians, educators, public to illustrate the history of the type (E, H-A, H-I)	Archaeologists, landscape historians to illustrate the history of the type. (H-I, H-A)	Traditional craftspeople, educators, historians and archaeologists to provide materials and illustrate the history of the type (E, H-A, H-I)	Public, locals, visitors for a sense of isolation, seclusion and tranquility (C, A)	Biologists, conservationists, educators, public for habitat and views (C, A)		
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Existing fabric necessary to illustrate the history of the woodland (H-I)	Existing fabric necessary to illustrate the struggles of woodland management (H-I, H-A)	Raw materials required to maintain traditional crafts (E, C, A)	Sense of seclusion provided by tree canopy, plant and animal species for nature appreciation (C, A)	Biodiversity maintenance required for conservation and connectivity purposes. (E, C)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED	Archaeological sites		Associated				

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
	OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES	and associated above-ground features; place-names associated with woodland activities. (E, H-A)		crafts (E, H-A)				
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Setting and context provide reference for woodland history (H-A, H-I)	Context, particularly boundaries, illustrate the development and control of the woodland (H-A, H-I)	Setting as required for production of goods (E)	Contributes to the sense of seclusion and provides necessary ecological systems (C, A)	Provides necessary ecology (E, C)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES	Associated with areas of other pre-1800 character types, often present on higher grounds, thus contributing to distinctive views. This type greatly influences the overall character of the AONB and reflects some of the greatest time-depth in the AONB.						
Post-1800 Woodland	THE FABRIC AND EVOLUTION OF A PLACE	Deliberate planting of coniferous and non-native species indicative of age of woodland; some associated with development of 18 th century landscaped parks. (H-A, H-I)	Plantations and parked woodland created for different social and economic purposes. (H-A, H-I)	Modern plantations being used to meet current demand; historic plantations related to parklands and designed landscapes. (H-I, H-A, E, A)	Coniferous and non-native species create a more modern landscape, but use for forestry production often reduces amenity attributes (E, C, A)	Biodiversity and ecology supported by the environment (C, E)		
	TO WHOM THE PLACE IS VALUED AND WHY	Archaeologists, historians, landscape historians, educators, public for ability to illustrate historic processes (H-I, H-A)	Archaeologists, historians, landscape historians, educators, public for ability to illustrate historic processes. (H-I,	Forestry business for economic reasons (E, A for designed elements)	Public for access (C, A)	Biologists, ecologists, conservationists for ecosystem maintenance (E, C)		

Character Type	SIGNIFICANCE	Time Depth	Struggle & Occupation	Production	Amenity Attributes	Natural Qualities	Customs & Practices	Value
			H-A)					
	HOW THOSE PEOPLE'S VALUES RELATE TO THE FABRIC OF THE PLACE	Fabric is necessary to illustrate the historic processes (H-I, H-A)	Fabric is necessary to illustrate the historic processes. (H-I, H-A)	Ability to continue production of forest goods key to economic viability of those businesses (E, H-I)	Woodlands provide a sense of seclusion and areas for recreation (C, A)	Woodlands form specific ecological niche and corridors for plants and animals (C, E)		
	WHAT, IF ANY, ASSOCIATED OBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THOSE VALUES							
	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SETTING AND CONTEXT	Setting places historic events into context to illustrate how those events effect the landscape (H-I, H-A)	Setting places historic events into context to illustrate how those events effect the landscape. (H-A, H-I)	Setting must be conducive to economic needs of woodland production (E, C)	Wooded setting and remote location necessary for sense of seclusion (C, A)	Context and setting as needed for biological/ ecological requirements (C, E)		
	HOW THE PLACE COMPARES TO OTHERS WITH SIMILAR FEATURES	Uncommon but widespread throughout the AONB, with relatively small size (average 7.37 ha) per example.						

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The analysis and critical review presented here has illuminated the epistemic problems of utilising HLC for planning decisions. The CTV model addresses this problem by placing character at the base of a pyramid of horizons to which additional horizons are added to evaluate other aspects of the historic environment (drawn from policy and guidance on heritage management as well as planning) in order to create an integrated process.

We have seen in Chapter Two the complexities of historic landscape analysis as well as strategic and spatial planning. The inherent conflicts in definitions, theories, perceptions and the very purposes and needs of both archaeology and planning have been explored. The needs of archaeology, landscape archaeology and planning are analysed to develop a tool for integrating the historic landscapes into planning processes.

Chapter Three explored in more detail those needs and developed a model by which existing datasets (namely, HLC) can be used as the basis for analysis of the historic landscape. The theoretical basis of the CTV model includes a linguistic approach to translate archaeological information into the language of planning. The subjective nature of landscape evaluation is balanced through the use of horizons that provide an objective base for identifying character, distinctiveness, significance and value. The process is designed to be transparent and inclusive to meet government goals, whilst being theoretically sound in order to maintain a high quality of analysis.

The case reviews presented in Chapters Four through Six indicate the breadth of scope of the CTV model for informing decisions regarding the historic landscape. The analysis tables presented here cover only a small

portion of a full CTV analysis, which would need to cover the full range of HLC Character Types in a given area. Instead, they are an example of how to use the CTV process developed in Chapter Three in a manner that is readily presentable to non-archaeologists. The tables can also serve to facilitate discussions of how values are related to the fabric of the landscape and therefore what changes to the fabric are acceptable and which are not. The ability of the CTV model to communicate ideas of distinctiveness, significance and value in the historic environment to a variety of users for a variety of purposes makes it an ideal for contributing to the sustainability debate.

The CTV model breaks down barriers in effective conservation planning, identified in Chapter 2. Agreement barriers can occur at any stage of the decision-making process. In the case of conservation planning and heritage management, agreement barriers often form at the point of determining the value of the resource. The CTV model addresses these problems by providing a process that allows for input from expert and non-expert alike, without prioritising one over the other. The combination of objective evidence and subjective review that creates Horizons of Subjectivity provides a platform on which disagreements can be deconstructed and placed into context.

Knowledge barriers will be found in theoretical approaches to the historic environment and its interpretation as well as the presentation of information to the public. Knowledge barriers are present on all sides of the debates regarding heritage, planning, and landscape. In the case of conservation planning, knowledge barriers are most likely to exist because of a lack of education and communication across professional sectors, rather than as a result of a lack of hard data. The CTV model breaks down knowledge barriers by being based in process, each phase of the process having its own purpose and being linked to both previous and future processes. In addition, it can be used to highlight areas where

more information is needed and knowledge can be expanded.

Technological barriers to effective conservation planning come from the use of existing technology, rather than the lack of technologies suitable to address the problem. The use of GIS systems to produce and distribute HLC information can create problems, not least of which is access to the information for planning purposes. While the CTV model cannot solve problems relating to the creation and use of GIS applications, it offers something that a map cannot – a way of interpreting the polygons that cover any area mapped through HLC. Others have recognised the inability of maps to be value-free (Bender 1999; Harley 1988; Gregory and Healey 2007), and the CTV model guides its user through the interpretation of HLC information.

Economic, social and political barriers relate to issues of instrumentalism within strategic and spatial planning policies. The CTV model allows for differing interests (for example, historic and ecological interests) to be separated and each addressed individually as well as components in the wider landscape. In doing so, it meets the government goals of transparency and accountability, while at the same time offering a way in which multiple disciplines can provide input into the management of a diverse and ever-changing landscape. The CTV model is simple in its approach, but not necessarily easy. Implementation in the real world will require effort on the part of many stakeholders. It requires participation, not only from archaeologists and heritage managers but also from planners, policy-makers and the public. As Selman notes in discussing general landscape-scale planning, such an effort means that those involved “must be prepared to invest substantial amounts of time and other resources in order to develop unfamiliar skills [and] overcome opposition” (2006: 113). The end result, however, incorporates the historic environment into a comprehensive landscape-scale planning system.

Where to go from here? Case reviews can only provide so much information. It is necessary to apply the CTV model in a real-world case study, working with planners and archaeologists to evaluate proposed change in terms of the CTV horizons. Aside from use in strategic planning, such as housing growth points or the development of large-scale infrastructure, the CTV model could also serve as the base for Historic Environment Action Plans (HEAPs), Conservation Area plans or even site-specific management agreements. Though the CTV model was created with the historic landscape in mind, work on urban characterisation (see, for example, Elkadi and Pendlebury 2001) could also be used as the base of a model for evaluating the urban historic environment. Ideally, the CTV model would provide the format for not only evaluating, but also reporting on the historic environment. In addition to the standard description of the elements in the historic environment, such analysis would provide advice on acceptable levels of change, based on the distinctive and significant characteristics of the area. The CTV model also presents opportunities for expanding the scope of management agreements, previously mostly promoted for the management of listed buildings (see, for example, The Paul Drury Partnership 2004).

In this manner, the CTV model goes further than current evaluations, which generally outline unacceptable levels of change, or offer vague recommendations that any change be 'in keeping with' the character of a place, without clearly articulating what that character consists of. The CTV model provides a useful heuristic device for translating detailed information from multiple disciplines into practical advice for sustainably managing sensitive landscapes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix One: HLC Character Divisions
Cranborne Chase and West Wiltshire Downs
(after Rouse 2008)

Broad Type	Major Type	Subtype 1	Subtype 2
1. Enclosed Land	1.1 Pre 18 th Century Fields	1.1.1 Pre 1800 Curving Irregular Fields	
		1.1.2 Pre 1800 Regular Fields	
		1.1.3 Pre 1800 Sinuous Fields	
		1.1.4 Pre 1800 Semi-Irregular Fields	
		1.1.5 Strip Fields	
		1.1.6 Assarts	
	1.2 18 th and 19 th Century Fields	1.2.1 Parliamentary enclosure	
		1.2.2 Planned enclosure	
		1.2.3 Large-scale enclosure of downland	
		1.2.4 Downland Improvement	
		1.2.5 Replanned fields	
	1.3 20 th Century Fields	1.3.1 New Fields	1.3.1.1 Medium new fields
			1.3.1.2 Large fields
			1.3.1.3 Semi-enclosed escarpments
			1.3.1.4 Cleared fields
	1.4 Other Fields	1.3.2 Modified Fields	1.3.2.1 Paddocks
			1.3.2.2 Reorganised fields
		1.3.3 Enlarged Fields	
		1.4.1 Enclosed meadows	
		1.4.1.2 Water meadows	

		1.4.1.3 Allotments
		1.4.1.4 Orchards
2. Open Land	2.1 Downland and Unimproved Grassland	2.1.1 Common downland and unimproved grassland
	2.2 Marsh and Bog	
	2.3 Scrubland and Rough Grazing	2.3.1 Common scrubland and rough grazing
	2.4 Heath	
	2.5 Furze	
3. Woodland	3.1 Post 1800 woodland	
	3.2 Pre 1800 woodland	
4. Water Association	4.1 Man-made lakes and ponds	
	4.2 Fishponds and hatcheries	
	4.3 Watercress beds	
	4.4 Withy bed	
5. Settlement	5.1 Pre 1800 settlement	5.1.1 Pre 1800 Linear settlement
		5.1.2 Pre 1800 Nucleated settlement
		5.1.3 Pre 1800 Planned Nucleated settlement
		5.1.4 Pre 1800 Farm Complex
		5.1.5 Historic House
	5.2 18 th and 19 th Century settlement	
	5.3 20 th Century settlement	

	5.4 Churches, cemeteries and graveyards	
6. Designed and Ornamental	6.1 Formal garden	
	6.2 Designed landscape gardens and parkland	
	6.3 Deer park	
7. Recreation	7.1 Holiday village	
	7.2 Safari Park	
	7.3 Camping and Caravan site	
	7.4 Race course	
	7.5 Playing field	
	7.6 Golf course	
8. Industry	8.1 Extractive	
	8.2 Commercial	8.2.1 Industrial estate
		8.2.2 Commercial - other
		8.2.3 Game farm
	8.3 Manufacturing	
9. Inland Communication	9.1 Roads	
	9.2 Railways	
	9.3 Car park	
10. Military	10.1 Military camp	
	10.2 Rifle range	
11. Civic	11.1 Landfill	
	11.2 Utilities	
12. Archaeology	12.1 Cultural asset	
	12.2 Iron Age Hillfort	
	12.3 Other archaeological earthworks	