EAC Occasional Paper 2

Managing Europe's Archaeological heritage

Europe's Cultural Landscape:

archaeologists and the management of change

Edited by Graham Fairclough and Stephen Rippon
Assistant Editor David Bull

COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

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Cover illustration: An early medieval stronghold at Moraczewo, in the Wielkopolska region of Poland, one of c.7,000 entries on the Polish official register of scheduled sites and monuments. The stronghold is dated to between the 8th-11th century AD, and is associated with the power base of the Polanie tribe, one of the foundations of the future feudal Christian State. It sits within an agricultural landscape of much later date. Current agriculture activities on or near the site are monitored by the Service for the Protection of Monuments. The modern farm near the stronghold was built before the site was designated in 1972. Photo: W. Stępień.

Contents

Foreword

Europe's landscape is currently high on the Council of Europe's agenda, thanks to the adopted *European Landscape Convention* open for signature in Florence in October 2000. This – the Florence Convention – grew out of pioneering work by the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities in Europe. It takes as its starting point the crucial part that the landscape in all its infinite range of significance and relevance plays in establishing Europe's common heritage.

The cultural landscape forms the essential everyday setting for the social and economic life of everyone living in Europe. It is also a major component of how European identity is forged at regional, local and personal levels. The overriding need for greater and deeper public participation – both in defining what is significant and valuable in landscape and in deciding on how it is managed, sustainably but realistically, is a core element of the Convention's philosophy: in short, democratisation and the recognition of people's interest in their landscape.

This centrality of people in the landscape is also of course what has made Europe's landscape. It possesses great and diverse natural beauty and significance, but above all Europe's landscape is characterised by the work of human beings over long periods of time. Today's landscape can reveal layer upon layer of human activity from the character of woodlands to the shape of fields, and from settlement patterns to the survival of monuments and buildings. The landscape, in both its material and immaterial aspects or values, is in effect as much a part of Europe's cultural heritage as the greatest cathedral or the most well-preserved historic city.

The Council of Europe – and its Steering Committee of governmental representatives on Cultural Heritage (CDPAT) – therefore warmly welcomes the EAC's initiative in becoming further involved in the current debate on landscape by publishing this book. The papers in this book begin to illustrate the enormous range of work that European archaeologists are already carrying out: work to understand the cultural dimensions of the landscape, and work to use that understanding to help people to manage and protect it for future generations. This work – both of understanding and sustainable management – must not be carried out in isolation. As many papers in this book illustrate, it requires partnership and integration with ecologists, landscape architects, spatial planners, agricultural policy-makers and farmers, local and regional authorities and, above all, with the people of Europe whose fundamental heritage the landscape is.

Although the Florence Convention is not yet in force, it has been attracting signatures at a very fast rate, and already has one full ratification, by the Norwegian government. Its implementation will be monitored jointly – in a clear signal of the need for integration – by CDPAT and its sister expert committee for activities in the field of biological and landscape diversity CO-DBP. In November 2001, the Council of Europe organised a first Conference of States party or signatory to the Convention. I am pleased to say the EAC was already represented. The next conference is planned for November 2002. Both in the context of these conferences and more widely, CDPAT and the Council of Europe look forward to working closely with the EAC on developing pan-European collaboration on all aspects of the landscape and its management. This new book, with its wide-ranging descriptions of all the progress that is already being made across the whole of Europe, is an excellent contribution to that work.

Bénédicte Selfslagh
Chair, Steering Committee on Cultural Heritage (CDPAT), Council of Europe
Vice-Chair, Council of Europe 1st Conference on the European Landscape Convention
Heritage Division of the Walloon Region (Belgium)

Preface

On 23 March, 2001, the *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium* (European Archaeological Council – EAC) hosted its second heritage management symposium on the subject of *Cultural landscapes and sustainable development*. The symposium was organised on behalf of EAC by Graham Fairclough and was held at the offices of the Council of Europe in Strasbourg. The purpose of the symposium was to consider the role of archaeologists in maintaining the European cultural landscape, and in pursuing sustainability.

The subject had originally been suggested by members at the inaugural meeting of the EAC, and was regarded as a critically important topic for consideration. Sustainable development provides a simple means to promote the cultural heritage at a landscape scale, working with long-term and large-scale processes. The protection of the cultural landscape within the framework of sustainable development (which ensures a due regard for its past) also provides an important mechanism to protect and manage the historic environment. EAC members are increasingly engaging in a wide range of issues related to the understanding, protection, and management of cultural landscapes. In addition, the significance of cultural landscapes in our work has been emphasised by the publication of the *European Landscape Convention*, which was opened for signature by the member states of the Council of Europe at a Ministerial Conference in Florence, on 20 October, 2000.

The specific objective of the symposium was to discuss the contributions that archaeologists make to three important activities:

- understanding cultural landscape, defined by the *European Landscape Convention*;
- managing landscapes in the context of sustainable development; and
- responding to the impact of European agricultural policies on landscapes.

At 3rd December 2001, the *European Landscape Convention* had been signed by 22 states and ratified by one (the Convention will come into force when ten signatories have ratified, approved, or accepted it). The Convention aims to promote the protection, management, and planning of European landscapes, and to organise European co-operation on landscape issues. It is the first international treaty to be exclusively concerned with the protection, management, and enhancement of the European landscape. It applies to the parties, entire territory and covers natural, rural, urban, and semi-urban areas, and importantly deals with ordinary or degraded landscapes as well as those that can be considered to have outstanding qualities. The Convention is a key instrument of developing European policy; it integrates the cultural and natural dimensions of the environment under the overarching concept of 'cultural landscape'. Its concept of landscape is focussed on two main ideas: that landscape is the interaction of people with the environment, and that every landscape, not just outstanding ones, form the setting for peoples' lives and defines identity, at local, national, and European levels.

In the first part of the symposium, papers demonstrated how archaeologists can contribute to the Convention's proposals for:

- awareness-raising, recognising that every citizen has a share in the landscape and a duty to care for it;
- identification and assessment, and research to underpin and inform the development of long-term policies; and
- protection and management of the character and quality of landscape, by means of instruments appropriate to each country.

The concept of sustainable development is critically important if we are to care for and manage our natural and historic environment sympathetically and pass it on for the benefit and enjoyment of future generations. Sustainable development is promoted by a number of different instruments such as the Council of Europe's Helsinki Declaration, and the European Union's *European Spatial Development Perspective* (ESDP). The three main policy aims for spatial planning that the ESDP identifies are a balanced town-country relationship, access to knowledge and to infrastructure, and the prudent use and management of the heritage. The *European Landscape Convention* is clearly very relevant to these issues, and sustainable development also provides archaeologists with good opportunities to engage with decision-making, and with public participation, and examples of this were discussed at the Symposium.

The third element of the Symposium considered the impact of agriculture on rural landscapes. Within the European Union, common agricultural policies probably have the greatest impact on the condition, survival, and character of the landscape, and beyond the Union, global economic factors may have an equal, if not greater, impact. Programmes of

support for environmentally sensitive farming methods are expanding, but are still small in scale and rarely provide as much protection for the archaeological heritage as they do for the natural environment. The Symposium discussed a number of successful examples where agricultural programmes have been used to protect and manage the archaeological and historic dimension of the cultural landscape.

The Symposium provided a timely contribution to the debate surrounding the *European Landscape Convention*. Discussion of all the different topics at the Symposium was extremely informative and useful, but inevitably constrained by the limitations of trying to cover such a wide range of important subjects in the course of a single day. The board of the EAC concluded that there was a clear need to publish not simply the papers presented by speakers, but to broaden the scope to include a wider geographical coverage both of case studies, and of reviews of current practice throughout Europe. There was also a consensus that the scope of the proceedings should be extended from specific examples to include a wider strategic perspective on approaches to cultural landscape. Consequently it was agreed that the EAC should publish an extended volume on the subject of cultural landscape as the second of our series of occasional papers, following the model already established by the publication of *The Heritage Management of Wetlands* in 2001.

We were extremely fortunate that Graham Fairclough of English Heritage and Stephen Rippon of Exeter University agreed to compile and edit this volume – *Europe's Cultural Landscape: archaeologists and the management of change* (with the extremely able – and indispensable – assistance of David Bull and Martin Gillard). English Heritage has funded the production of the volume (including the costs of preparing some of the papers) as its own contribution to this important debate, and to provide continuing support for the work of the EAC. The publication gives an overview of the many ways that European archaeological heritage managers are responding to the growing need to understand, protect, and promote Europe's common heritage of cultural landscape. Individual papers examine the archaeological and historic components of landscapes which, in comparison with ecological and aesthetic aspects, are often overlooked by decision-makers. The opportunities and obstacles facing those striving to manage the landscape sustainably for the benefit of future generations as well as our own are also explored; these include the consequences of fundamental changes to agricultural practices across the whole of Europe. One of the principal messages is that landscape archaeologists must use trans-national projects, such as the ten-nation Culture 2000 Network, *European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape*, to build working relationships with other landscape disciplines and to make connections to wider democratic interest in landscape.

The rich and varied historic environment throughout Europe today embodies and expresses the history of Europe and the daily lives of people in the past. The EAC exists to bring together in a European network the managers of the historic environment and its associated cultural heritage. The importance of environmental issues is reflected in the topics of our annual heritage management symposiums and the quality of the Occasional Papers, which we publish as a result. The first volume (published in March 2001) deals with wetlands, the present volume, landscapes, and the third, scheduled for 2003, with the impact on the historic environment of natural resource exploitation.

The EAC's members are deeply interested in the outcomes of the *European Landscape Convention*, and in their own countries will need to play a central role in all aspects of its implementation. One of our core objectives is to integrate historic and natural environment conservation management at the level of both policy and practice. We are already developing joint strategies for the management of wetlands with the Bureau of the Ramsar Convention, which obviously has a very important landscape component, and are fully committed to implementing the strategy for the landscape set out in this volume.

The publication of *Europe's Cultural Landscape: archaeologists and the management of change* represents a seminal collection of papers of particular interest to all archaeologists involved in heritage management (as government agencies, consultants or contractors), and to all academic archaeologists specialising in, or with an interest in, cultural landscape (a growing constituency). It should also be of considerable interest to cognate nature conservation interests, and steps will be taken to ensure adequate distribution to our sister disciplines. This volume represents an important milestone, not just for the EAC, but also for the issue of cultural landscape more generally, and will make an important contribution to increasing our understanding of this vitally important subject.

Adrian Olivier
President, *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium*

Countries which have contributed papers to this volume.

Editors' acknowledgements

The editors would like to thank all the speakers who contributed to the original symposium in March 2001 that culminated in the publication of this volume including Tom Bloemers, Claire Foley, Alf Metzler, Roberto Risch and Piotr Szpanowski, and Sebastien Sommer who summarised the proceedings. We are grateful to David Wedgwood for organising so effectively the logistics of that day, and to Adrian Olivier for inviting Graham Fairclough to organise the symposium in the first place, and then asking him to expand it here.

We thank all those who have written papers and provided illustrations for the volume and we are grateful to them for producing such wide-ranging and valuable papers and also for meeting all our tight deadlines and editing requests, and for being so patient with our sometimes-heavy hand editorial team. We are heavily indebted to David Bull, whose title Assistant Editor does not do full justice to his contribution to this second EAC volume, and to Martin Gillard, who has so ably dealt with typesetting and page design and preparing illustrations. We must also thank Dr F. Lüth and Prof. G. de Boe for translating abstracts into German and French. Graham Fairclough would personally like to thank as always, Liz Page, without whose help and support very little that he undertakes would ever be finished. We should also thank the staff and technicians at the Department of Archaeology, University of Exeter, for their help and understanding.

Finally, but certainly not least, Graham Fairclough wishes to acknowledge the invisible presence of a third virtual editor – Jan-Kees Hagers – who but for a lengthy illness would have been co-organiser of the symposium. But by that stage Jan-Kees had already laid the ground for large parts of this volume through the two EAA conference sessions that he and Graham organised in 1999 and 2000. Together they worked up many of the ideas in this volume; chapter 3 in particular owes a lot to Jan-Kees' ideas.

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Europae Archaeologiae Consilium

Managing Europe's Archaeological heritage

The *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium*

Archaeologists and heritage managers working in Europe have long come together in different contexts to discuss issues of mutual concern. For several years representatives of national heritage management organisations had met annually as an informal round table to discuss common heritage management issues. However, despite many such formal and informal contacts, there was still felt to be a strong need to develop simple, effective, and lasting mechanisms for future co-operation in the sphere of heritage management.

In all European countries archaeological heritage management is a legal concern of the state, but the successful management of archaeological resources also depends on a wide range of factors including, for example, public benefit, integration with planning processes, and interaction with official policies on agriculture, urban development, and infrastructure. All these areas are vital to heritage management, and are increasingly influenced by pan-European developments, and for countries of the European Union, by EU legislation and policy. Heritage managers across Europe thought that it was vital that they should work more closely together to discuss issues of mutual concern in a pan-European context, and in 1998 the round table agreed to create a new organisation specifically to support the management of the archaeological heritage throughout Europe.

In October 1999, after a year's gestation, the statutes of the *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium* (the European Archaeological Council) were approved by royal decree under Belgian Law. This formally established the EAC as an international not-for-profit association. On November 25, 1999, the new organisation was publicly launched at an inaugural ceremony held in Strasbourg at the offices of the Council of Europe.

The EAC is a democratic network of organisations that are legally responsible for heritage management. Membership of the Council is individual, but determined by function, and is open to all directors of national bodies charged with the management of the archaeological heritage in their respective countries, including where appropriate agencies in a federal context (such as the German Länder, and the Swiss Cantons).

The function of the EAC is to serve the specific needs of national archaeological heritage management agencies by providing a forum for such organisations to establish closer and more structured co-operation and exchange of information. The primary role of the EAC is to exchange information between its members about standards and best practice related to heritage management. The collective membership of the EAC is also well placed to offer advice and guidance about all aspects of heritage management, and to develop broad-based strategies for archaeological heritage management on the basis of professional expertise. The EAC functions in an advisory and consultative mode and in this context liases and develops links with other international organisations that have an interest in the methods and goals of heritage management.

The objectives of the EAC are:

- to promote the exchange of information and co-operation between the bodies charged by law with the management of the archaeological heritage of the countries of Europe;
- to provide archaeological heritage management agencies with a forum for discussion and for exchange of information;
- to act as interlocutor for working towards common goals and as a monitoring and advisory body on all issues relevant to the management of the archaeological heritage in Europe, in particular in relation to the European Union and the Council of Europe;
- to promote the management, protection, scientific interpretation, publication, presentation, and public enjoyment and understanding of the archaeological heritage in Europe;
- to work together with other bodies which share its aims;
- to watch over, and act for the well being of archaeology, in Europe and anywhere in the world.

The EAC has developed different mechanisms to achieve these objectives. It has set up an intelligence service to co-ordinate information about European Union and Council of Europe programmes and projects, and provides a forum for the discussion and exchange of information about heritage management practices throughout Europe, through mailings, regular meetings, special working groups, an annual heritage management symposium, and appropriate publications. The EAC will provide a single co-ordinated voice to speak out on specific issues that impact on archaeological heritage management, and to influence the development of policies by European agencies.

Four key themes have been identified:

- **Strategic** – to express the values of archaeological heritage management by influencing the development of pan-European policies and ensuring awareness, in the European Union and the Council of Europe, of the impact of different policies on the archaeological heritage;
- **Social** – to express the social value of archaeology, and to raise awareness of that value with the public by promoting the contribution archaeology makes to improving the general quality of life;
- **Professional** – to develop and promote consistent high standards in archaeological heritage management;
- **Academic** – to develop a broader understanding of the archaeological resource in a European context by exploring common subjects of particular concern, and advancing and enabling pan-European research programmes.

A small number of special working groups have been convened to address specific subjects of topical importance. The working groups explore key issues and discuss specific themes and topics (often in partnership with other relevant organisations) in order to inform the development of policy and progress the aims and objectives of the EAC. An Annual European Heritage Management Symposium has been established to discuss and disseminate information on topical themes and subjects relevant to the work of the membership. The papers of the working groups and the proceedings of the annual heritage management symposium are published regularly as occasional papers, and the collection of papers presented here forms the second volume of this series.

European conservation legislation and associated policies, methods, and techniques for managing the archaeological heritage are highly regarded throughout the world. As we work more frequently on the international stage, in a pan-European and indeed global context, it is essential that we continue to recognise the need to develop a transnational framework not just for the practical mechanisms of cultural heritage resource management, but also for the underlying research objectives of our discipline. The EAC has come into existence to foster collaborative arrangements and partnerships across Europe, so that we create for ourselves an appropriate European context to promote research as a statement of what is valuable to the archaeological community.

Part 1

Contexts and concepts

A view over Braunton Great Field, Devon, England; a survival of medieval open-field agriculture. Photo: Stephen Rippon.

1: Europe's landscape: archaeology, sustainability and agriculture

Graham Fairclough

Abstract: *This introductory paper sets out some of the main themes that will be explored in the rest of the volume. It attempts a brief overview of some of the ways in which archaeologists in a number of European countries are contributing to the understanding the European landscape, and it places landscape and heritage management into the context of sustainability. The paper considers current trends in agriculture, one of the main impacts on the landscape, and in particular discusses the future of the Common Agriculture Policy as it is poised to be extended eastwards with enlarged membership of the European Union.*

Introduction

The ambition of this volume, as of the symposium that led to it, is to help place the idea of cultural landscape more fully onto the agenda of archaeological heritage management and of archaeology itself. Cultural landscape is already a widely recognised issue within Europe, as indicated by the European Landscape Convention, and internationally, as supported by UNESCO's landscape criteria for the World Heritage List. Many environmental and scientific disciplines are involved in understanding and managing the landscape, but it is notably those disciplines concerned with ecology and nature conservation that have taken the lead.

Few archaeologists or heritage managers have yet engaged fully with the topic, despite the obvious relevance that all aspects of cultural landscape studies have to archaeological heritage management. This volume will therefore try to re-assert the value of an archaeological contribution to landscape management. Its papers highlight some of the work that archaeologists are already carrying out, whilst showing possible further steps that could be taken. The first three papers set the scene: describing the *European Landscape Convention*, discussing the Convention from an EAC viewpoint and considering what archaeologists do with, and how they think about, the cultural landscape.

This paper offers a few introductory thoughts and background on:

- the current diversity and extent of archaeological approaches to landscape,
- sustainable development, which is central to any management of the landscape and
- agriculture which was fundamental in the past in creating much of the cultural landscape that we value and study today, and which is still one of the main agents of change.

Understanding the landscape – archaeology's diversity

Individual papers in this volume point to several ways in which archaeologists analyse the cultural landscape and explain its significance in ways that can inform and influence decision-making, such as local and regional planning policy, agriculture, housing location or infrastructure creation. These papers demonstrate that there are many parallel but distinctive ways across Europe of characterising the historic and archaeological dimensions of the landscape.

This regional and national diversity is a healthy phenomenon. Europe's landscape is itself characterised by diversity, though within an overall unity that makes Europe's landscapes quite distinctive from those of other continents. It therefore seems important and necessary that this diversity should find a reflection in a diversity of approaches and methods. There are distinctive national histories of heritage management, not to mention the distinctions between national approaches to archaeology, and these too justify a matching variety in methodology. The principles and aspirations of the *European Landscape Convention*, and the professional and academic philosophy of archaeologists and their discipline, together provide constructive frameworks to contain such diversity. Indeed, the Convention advises countries to meet its requirements within the context of their existing instruments and approaches.

In England (with similar derived methods in use in Scotland and Ireland) the approach is one of a generalised

broad-brush characterisation of the whole landscape (Fairclough 1999; Fairclough *et al.* 1999; Fairclough, Lambrick & Hopkins this volume). This method is designed to augment Sites and Monuments Records (SMR) and to provide structured understanding to inform planning and management decisions across a wide range of activities that affect the landscape. It is also designed to allow easy integration of archaeologists' assessment of landscape with those of other disciplines.

Even more fully integrated into regional and spatial planning are the methods employed in the Netherlands. There, the Belvedere Memorandum establishes a national framework for planning decisions and sustainable development that allows the historic aspects of the landscape to be taken fully into account when planning future development (Netherlands State Government 1999). A similar approach was recently adopted in Denmark, defining and characterising areas of special historic environment value (Danish Forest and Nature Agency 2001; Stoumann this volume).

Alongside the Belvedere project in the Netherlands there is a holistic environmental database designed to provide an evolving assessment and monitoring tool for all aspects of the landscape, from cultural heritage to geomorphology and ecology as well as current landuse (van Beusekom & Kuypers 2001; van Beusekom this volume). There are similar programmes in other countries, such as the LandMap system being established by the Countryside Council for Wales, and the National Landscape Typology being prepared by the Countryside Agency for England.

Similar ideas are also being developed at a more detailed level in projects such as LANCEWAD, the Wadden Sea Trilateral Secretariat's InterReg-funded cultural heritage and landscape project (Vollmer *et al.* 2001). To the established perception of this marine wetland area as being of international ecological value, LANCEWAD has added a detailed characterisation of its historic landscape and cultural heritage values, taking into account archaeology, historical geography and architecture. Its view encompasses buried archaeological deposits, farmsteads, churches and villages, and the dwelling mounds, dikes and waterways that have allowed past generations to create out of the sea the landscape that is valued today.

Many other countries are carrying out similar work in specific areas. The Wachau, part of the Danube valley in Austria, has for example been the subject of a range of multi-disciplinary studies of its landscape in preparation for a bid for World Heritage status (Hajós 1999). The Scandinavian countries offer examples of many large-scale landscape archaeology surveys, from Ystad (focussing on a single region) to more wide-ranging discussions of the cultural landscape as a whole (Larsson *et al.* 1992; Fabech & Ringwood 1999). In the Mediterranean region, EU funds dedicated to understanding climate change, desertificaton and advanced strategies for more sustainable development has allowed innovative archaeological landscape work, such as that in the Vera Basin (Castro *et al.* 1998; Castro *et al.* this volume).

Archaeological agencies and universities in a number of countries have also initiated programmes to explore the scope of their landscape work. In the UK, this includes the *Register of Outstanding and Special Areas of Historic Landscape Character* in Wales which is now being followed up by more detailed characterisations (Cadw *et al.* 1998; 2001), and English Heritage's historic landscape Research and Development project in 1993–94 (Fairclough *et al.* 1999). The latter laid the foundations for comprehensive historic landscape characterisation work throughout England. Further west, the Irish Heritage Council (Heritage Council 1999; 2001) as well as being involved in landscape assessment of the present landscape (ERM & ERA-Maptec 2000) has also commissioned research on earlier archaeological landscapes (Cooney *et al.* 1998; 2001). The Scandinavian countries are all involved in similar projects: the Danish C*hanging Landscape* programme, organised mainly through Åarhus University, the Swedish *Living Landscapes* project within the Riksantiqvarieämbetet, and Norway's *Changing Landscapes* programme organised by its two national research institutes, NIKU and NIBR. Bringing these together, a Nordic Council pilot Historic Landscape assessment is also being planned.

Some of this experience is being used within pan-European partnership projects. In particular, a three-year Culture 2000 programme brings together 12 projects to develop new ways of understanding and promoting landscape from an archaeological perspective, and identifying improved management techniques. The programme – European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape – draws in ten countries from Finland to Italy and Ireland to Estonia (www.pcl-eu.de; Kraut, Nord Paulsson, Darlington, and Ermischer this volume).

It is noteworthy that despite a very wide methodological coverage, the work described in this volume covers a fairly restricted area of Europe. This is partly because of the limits on my own knowledge, but also, to some extent, reflects the current situation. Not every region has been able to present detailed accounts of how they approach the cultural landscape. To some extent this is an indication of the early stage of development of this discipline within archaeology. Methods that fully address the issue of cultural landscape are still relatively rare, and new techniques are continually being developed.

Almost all the work described in this volume is comparatively recent. It does of course stand on the very strong foundations of landscape archaeology and landscape history, a tradition going back in most countries

Fig.1.1: A viticultural and urban landscape around Monbazillac, in the Dordogne valley, France. Wine-production is an industry central to many regional cultural identities. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

many decades. This type of work, however, is adding a new concern for the historic depth of today's landscape, while recognising that the landscape is more than the total of its archaeological sites.

Almost all the projects described operate within a determination to achieve *applied* archaeology, that is, to address topical issues relevant to society, notably the crucial place that the cultural landscape occupies in relation to a sense of place, identity, sustainable development, quality of life and much else. It seeks in short to make archaeology contribute to broad social processes, and to be a part of the decision-making processes that will shape tomorrow's cultural landscape. The archaeological contribution to the understanding of the cultural landscape is thus essentially forward looking but (almost uniquely among the many disciplines that need to work together for appreciation of cultural landscape) it is based on knowing about the past, on understanding why the cultural landscape is as it is.

In some European countries, archaeology is still in the process of moving into landscape-scale work of this sort. In other countries, landscape archaeology (in broad terms, the study of past environments at a large, territorial, supra-site, scale) is well-advanced but has not yet fully engaged with management and spatial planning, nor does it always seek integration with other landscape disciplines such as ecology or geography. It is this multiple engagement and dialogue that are the hallmark of a cultural landscape mentality.

This volume is particularly timely because the new *European Landscape Convention* gives a fresh opportunities for creating new dialogues with other disciplines that are interested in the cultural landscape. Sometimes these disciplines are perceived to be more central to the concept of cultural landscape than archaeology. Compared to the efforts they have devoted to the archaeology of past landscapes, archaeologists have so far given little attention to protecting the cultural landscape. Instead, other specialists, such as landscape architects and ecologists, have dominated landscape conservation, but without a great deal of attention to landscapes' archaeological depth or complexity.

The very distinctive role that archaeologists can play in understanding and managing the cultural landscape is important, as all the papers in this volume demonstrate. An archaeological perspective on landscape treats the present day landscape as material culture, to be analysed, interpreted and 'read' in order to explain both the past and the present, and of course to provide guidelines and insights to influence the future. Other approaches overlook

the great depth of history and changes that make the landscape.

Archaeology brings to landscape study and management a keen awareness of long-term change and a knowledge of historic processes, within which it puts, at the forefront of explanation, the role of human agency (importantly as a group or collective, rather than as individuals). It explains the human and historic reasons for the current appearance of the landscape, without forgetting that change is the product of the long-term and is still continuing. Few other landscape disciplines are able to explain, as well as to describe, the landscape, and those that do explain tend to do so in terms of environmental and ecological determinants. Archaeology puts human influence and decisions at the forefront.

Furthermore, many landscape disciplines operate within an aesthetic that privileges Western ideals of beauty, romantic notions of wilderness or primeval naturalness, and assumptions of past idealised landscapes against which modern landscape change has to be measured (Fairclough forthcoming 2002). All these other perspectives are valuable, and need to be brought into the debates about the cultural landscape, but without historical and archaeological depth they can be very misleading. They are, however, important aspects of the process of democratisation of landscape (an underlying thesis of the *European Landscape Convention*) – the need to ensure that all peoples' values are noticed and respected when managing something so fundamental to everyday life as the landscape.

Archaeology can contribute to all these debates. It complements landscape disciplines that focus only on beautiful, traditional or quaint landscapes, or on areas where a particular form of land management is about to vanish. It ensures that less natural and less 'beautiful' aspects are taken into consideration. It also allows an important distinction to be drawn between studying the 'environment' (unarguably a set of objects actually existing in the world), and the landscape (arguably only existing once it has been imagined or otherwise thought into existence). Landscape is in the eye of the beholder, in other words, or more appropriately for this volume, in the mind of the archaeologist.

One of the main themes of this volume, therefore, is that archaeologists cannot leave the field of landscape to other disciplines. We need to be involved as equal partners to ensure that the long-term aspects of character and the cultural, human dimensions of the world around us are adequately understood and acknowledged. Archaeological input is called for even on the emerging outer fringes of landscape appreciation, the neo-romanticism of describing landscapes in terms of stories, folklore or the landscape-led character of cuisine and local identity. These are areas that archaeology can speak about from its own particular perspective, notably by drawing attention to diversity and time-depth. Indeed, treating landscapes as a concept and as ideas, or perceptions in people's minds, not as a thing somewhere out there, is at the basis of the best work in historic landscape character.

Whilst we may see landscape as a construct of perception, intellectually and emotion, built on the foundations of the environment but quite distinct from it, we do however live in a real, material world, to whose threats and trends it is necessary to respond. We know that the landscape has always changed, perhaps more than most popular perceptions admit and we therefore accept intellectually that the landscape must continue to change. We should, however, work to influence and guide that change rather than merely standing as mute witnesses to it. The most common modern paradigm for this response, throughout Europe and world-wide, is sustainable development or *sustainability*.

Sustaining the landscape: people's values and managing change

Sustainable Development was pushed onto the world's political agenda by the Rio summit in 1991, but for a long time it was seen mainly as a green, ecological issue concerned with environmental protection in a fairly narrow sense. Climate change, water quality, air quality and bio-diversity were seen as the central issues. Only in recent years has there been much re-definition of the idea to include the cultural heritage (see English Heritage 1997; Bloemers this volume).

Progress is being made in this area by emphasising that the cultural heritage in all its forms is a vital and central part of the environment and therefore needs to be a mainstay of sustainability policies. This is especially true for the cultural landscape. Sustainable development appears to be easiest to promote at landscape scale, and when working with long-term and large-scale processes. It is worth noting that the protection of the cultural landscape is likely to ensure the protection of individual archaeological sites, more effectively than sectoral site-based policies and actions (Fairclough 1995).

Furthermore, looking at the archaeological heritage through the kaleidoscope of sustainability teaches archaeologists and other heritage managers that 'our' heritage is at the same time also other peoples' heritage, but often for different reasons. Archaeology, the historic environment, cultural landscape – these are all significant in archaeological terms, but they also matter in many other ways. Perhaps we need to put more effort into recognising the multiple values that people attach to the landscape. In short, places matter to *people*, for many different reasons and many of the values they attach to places are personal and perhaps subjective. They are important in terms of local, personal and collective identity and quality of life. They are also an economic resource whether from tourism

or to attract business and jobs, and they are valuable because they embody the resources of time, effort, materials and energy that were invested by past generations (English Heritage 1997; Countryside Commission *et al.* 1997; Countryside Agency *et al.* 2001). These ideas lie at the basis of the *European Landscape Convention* (Déjeant-Pons this volume).

Whilst some progress has been made in linking archaeological heritage management to sustainability, a broader definition of sustainability has still not yet been widely accepted, and there is a role for the EAC, perhaps through future symposia, or as part of 'Rio+10', the European Union's review of its progress in this area. Since Rio, individual states have drawn up their own programmes. The UK has produced two successive national sustainable development strategies in 1994 and 1999, both acknowledging cultural heritage although in a relatively low-key way. The current UK strategy, called *A Better Quality of Life*, like other European documents, identifies three strands to sustainable development economic (development), social (communities) and environmental (managing impact), but archaeological heritage was fitted in only as a small, scarcely mentioned, aspect of the latter.

There are also Europe-wide frameworks for sustainability, for instance the European Union's *European Spatial Development Perspective* (ESDP), a 'non-binding framework for national and regional planning' (European Union 2000). Regional strategies are beginning to be built using it as a starting point (NorVision Working Group 2000; NWMA Spatial Planning Group 2001). The Perspective's conclusions and implementation are also supported by statements of environmental health, starting with the Dobríš Assessment, which unfortunately pays almost no attention to archaeological or cultural matters (Stanners & Bourdeau 1995).

The European Spatial Development Perspective adopts as its three goals economic and social cohesion, sustainable development and balanced competitiveness within European territory. From these it draws three priority objectives, establishing a balanced and polycentric urban system, affording parity of access to infrastructure and knowledge, and 'ensuring the prudent management and development of the natural and cultural heritage'. The problem with this approach is that the proper, sustainable management of the cultural heritage is seen as a separate, isolated goal in its own right. This is all well and good (if implemented in good practice), but it misses the crucial point – which many papers in this volume make in different ways (eg Castro *et al.*, Fairclough, Lambrick & Hopkins; and Nord Paulsson this volume), that the cultural heritage cannot be a marginal issue, especially at landscape scale where it constitutes the human habitat made by people over time to sustain their lives. It should be made central to all areas of decision-making to shape the future environment and the landscapes of the future.

All three European Spatial Development Perspective objectives could raise particular issues for EAC action and influence. Archaeological activity is not an isolated study of the past, but needs to be applied in daily life. Its lessons and insights need to be used in a world full of human decisions and actions, such as new agricultural policy, house building, road construction, mineral extraction and quarrying. These actions continuously alter and re-shape the environment, destroying archaeological remains and the earlier layers of historic landscape character, forcing a re-imagining of the historic character of our landscapes, sometimes at lower levels of interest, significance, meaning and quality. Using archaeological techniques and sensibilities to help in the imagining of landscape, and to help society to evaluate what should be protected and cared for, is one of the best ways to influence the course of damaging and changing actions.

Archaeology demonstrates that cultural landscapes do not always show the harmonious interaction between people and nature in the past that the World Heritage criteria envisage. Many human/nature interactions were not harmonious yet we still value their results in the landscape. They have left us for example with much-loved and valued landscapes, not all beautiful but all reminders of our history and with perhaps salutary lessons for the future. These include for example the over-exploited northern uplands with their anthropomorphic heaths and moors, the irrigated farmlands of the south, landscapes scarred by 20th-century militarism or political experiments, or the post-industrial landscapes of both Eastern and Western Europe that tell us so much about our more recent human history. All these have lessons for sustainability; all, although not necessarily beautiful or natural, are part of Europe's common heritage.

The 2001 EAC Symposium began to consider the role of archaeologists in pursuing sustainability to help in the management of the European landscape. There is a particular role, perhaps, in one of the most fundamental areas of landscape management and change, that of agricultural policy, which was the third (minor) strand of the 2001 EAC Symposium, a topic that would justify further, more detailed attention in the future.

Farming the landscape: European policy and trends in agriculture

Modern agriculture has one of the biggest impacts on the landscape and archaeological site resource (Darvill & Fulton 1998; Grenville 1999). This has been so for centuries if not millennia, but now there is a crucial difference. The past impact of agriculture on the landscape is perceived (whether correctly or not) as beneficial, the driving force behind the creation of beautiful landscapes, and of supposedly harmonious interactions with nature and of bio-diversity. Archaeologists might argue with this rosy and romanticised view of the past, but it is part of popular perception.

Fig.1.2: A working agricultural landscape incorporating distinctive historic features, Swaledale, Yorkshire Dales National Park, England. Photo: Geoff Noble.

In contrast, modern agriculture is popularly and widely seen as almost wholly destructive of the landscape. In Western Europe, the destructive aspects of agriculture are now regarded almost as a truism, even though for most of the population it has led to prosperity and cheap food. People are disapproving (whilst enjoying the benefits) of farming's speed of change, its scale and its ready recourse to mechanised, large field, factory-like industrial modes of production. The environmental (and increasingly the social and health-related) failings of modern agriculture are popularly blamed on economic and political forces, as a result of the EU's Common Agricultural Policy, which for most of the last half century has spent about half of the EU's budget. In Eastern Europe, the finger of blame and explanation tends to be pointed at social and political forces, changing patterns of landholding, large-scale population moves in the mid-20th century, the move to collectivisation and high levels of central interventionist planning.

Whilst it is probably reasonable to recognise much modern agriculture as a purely destructive influence on archaeological deposits and sites, there is perhaps room to argue that it is not always negative at landscape scale. Whether political or economic, the agricultural changes of the last few decades across Europe have created new landscapes. These are historic landscapes in their own right and will inevitably become fit subjects for archaeological explanation. Agricultural change is therefore another area for archaeologists to work within as part of heritage management practice.

Agriculture's impact at landscape level is often cumulative and slow. Piecemeal, phased changes in landscape character are much more difficult to monitor, control or mitigate, than rapid interventions on the landscape such as the demolition of buildings, open-cast mining or road building. Agricultural impacts are much more widespread, indeed ubiquitous; they strike at the very heart of the character of the cultural landscape, and they make their mark over years or even decades of gradual change and erosion. Sometimes the end-result can be welcomed in some respects as a new type of cultural landscape, the latest overlay. But it would be far preferable to have a hand on the levers of change, to be able to influence the direction of landscape change, and to be able to record and learn about what is unavoidably lost. The impact of agriculture on the archaeological heritage is one of the largest remaining unresolved challenges for archaeological heritage management; engaging with the cultural landscape movement may offer us a strategic if not tactical solution.

The greater concern across Europe for the cultural landscape, for example the Council of Europe's championing of the *European Landscape Convention*, is

driven, as so often with conservation and heritage management, by an increasingly acute awareness of accelerating rates of change and loss. In Western Europe this has been created among other things by a growing unease with the EU's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) and its effects on the landscape. CAP, however, has already changed its policy direction significantly in recent years, although real on-the-ground changes are still mainly in the future. Driven by perceptions at both popular and political level that CAP was encouraging over-production and over-industrialisation, and by concerns for its cost as the EU enlarges eastwards, there has been a major move towards reform. This has taken place under the Agenda 2000 headline that tried to establish EU budgets for the 2000–2006 period, building on earlier (1992) reforms of the CAP.

Agenda 2000 sought to move European policy away from almost complete reliance on interventionist price support and instead (over a twenty year period to 2020) towards an integrated rural policy. This had the intention of supporting the agricultural industry whilst also including non-agricultural rural development initiatives and meeting a growing public concern for environmental and countryside good practice, in short sustainability. This highly complex change had amongst its objectives issues such as food safety, increased agricultural competitiveness, rising standards of living for the agricultural community, employment and the integration of environmental goals with rural economic and social policy.

The environmental part of this agenda was significant, but as always it was dominated by nature conservation, water and access to the countryside. The archaeological dimension was fairly minor and another reason why the EAC chose cultural landscapes as a subject for its 2001 symposium.

The underlying theory of Agenda 2000's environmental aims is that EU funds can be used to pay farmers to produce *environmental goods* as well as food. In some cases incentives might be linked to other types of income support through cross-compliance agreements or regulations such as the UK hedgerow protection regulations. These environmental goods might be improved access, the use of environmentally-friendly farming practices, especially in the context of habitat creation and species recovery, and care for the cultural landscape and other aspects of archaeological heritage. Such ideas have been common currency for about ten years, but such is the length of time needed to change programmes like the Common Agricultural Policy that the first effects have only recently begun to be felt (Foley this volume).

In very general terms, Agenda 2000 is trying to create a concern for integrated management and the creation of environmental 'goods' (Brouwer & Lowe 2000). These goods notably include a well-managed and sustainable landscape, and widespread public access to it, instead of the rather single-minded concern for maximising production and protecting the farming industry that characterised the Common Agricultural Policy in the 1970s and 80s. To achieve this it relies on agri-environmental payments to farmers introduced as a mandatory activity for all EU member states by Regulation 2078/92 in May 1992 as an accompanying measure to CAP. There had been earlier agri-environmental regulations in 1985 that allowed member states to use funds for environmental purposes, for instance the UK's Environmentally Sensitive Areas launched in 1986 (Jago 1995; McCrone 1999; Potter 1999), but states had not been required to implement measures. A recent study of the implementation and achievements so far of the EU's agri-environment policy has summarised the position in 10 EU countries after completion of their first five-year programmes under Regulation 2078/92 (Buller *et al.* 2000).

Furthermore, until 1992 agri-environmental measures had not formed a direct part of the Common Agricultural Policy. However, as a result of regulation 2078/92, agri-environmental measures began to have access to a share of the overall CAP budget, and to an increasing share, though dependant in part on member-states domestic polices. By 1997, it still only accounted for *c.*4% of the total CAP budget, even though this financed over 120 different programmes and over 2,000 distinct measures in fifteen countries (Buller 2000). On the other hand the 1999 Rural Development Regulation also saw a sharpening-up of the agri-environmental objectives, and another, admittedly small, step towards integrated countryside policies (Fischler 2001).

Every country will have its own experience of incorporating archaeology to widely varying degrees, and Northern Ireland's experience of implementing agri-environmental measures in recent years is outlined in this volume (Foley this volume). The general UK experience is that the case for an archaeological focus for Common Agricultural Policy agri-environmental schemes is much enhanced when argued in conjunction with attempts to encourage integrated conservation policies, covering cultural, natural and countryside issues (Fairclough 1995; English Heritage *et al.* 1996). Countries vary in their willingness to use regulation alongside financial incentives. The UK, although one of the first to start national agri-environmental schemes, is very reluctant to impose regulations on its farming industry, preferring to interpret narrowly the scope of measures such as the EU's requirements for environmental impact assessment of agricultural intensification. Agriculture generally in the UK is held outside of the spatial planning system.

Variety most characterises the EU's agri-environmental policies and even scheme objectives may vary (Buller *et al.* 2000). In Ireland, the UK, Denmark, Belgium, the

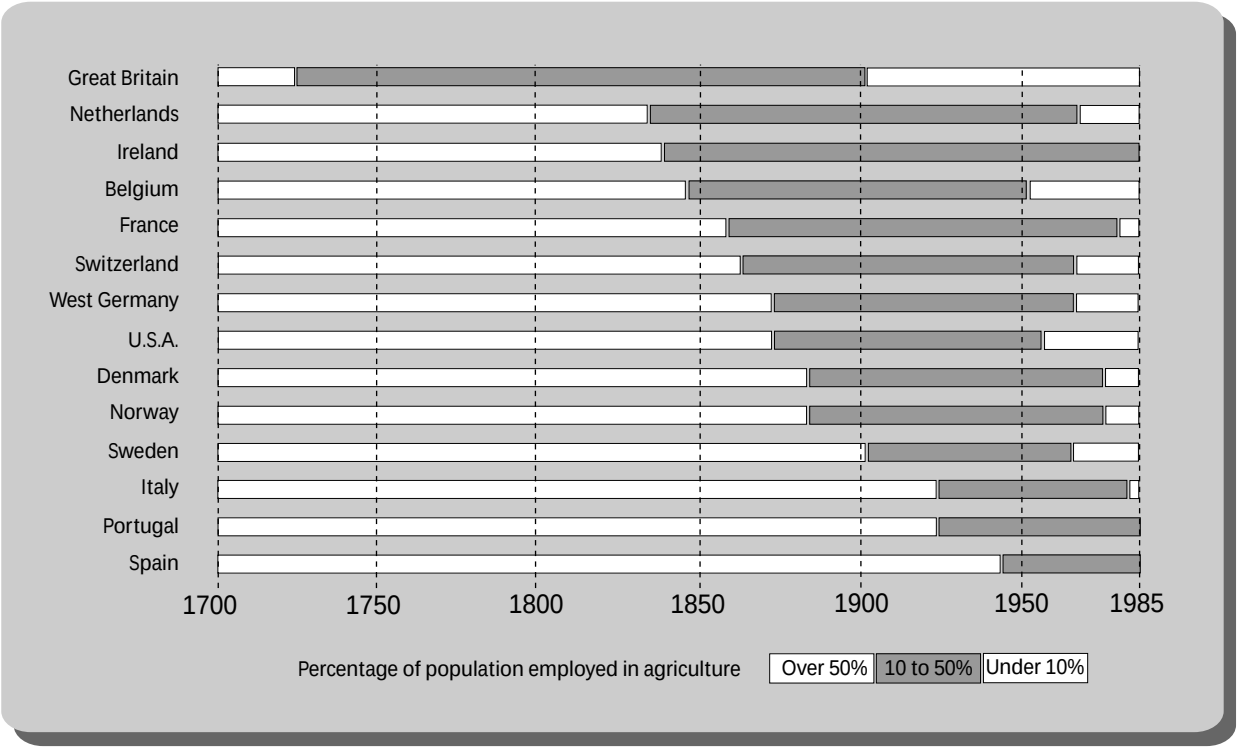

Fig.1.3: Changes in agricultural population 1700–1985: The graph shows the decline in the percentage of the total population engaged in agriculture over the past three centuries in a selection of European countries and the United States of America. This may explain something about the character of different European landscapes. (Source: modified by author from Rudebeck 2000, fig. 1, p.5 after Grigg 1992).

Netherlands, Germany and Austria the dominant emphasis is on improving environmental quality mainly focused on wildlife and nature conservation-led landscape work. In Sweden, Finland, France, Luxembourg, Italy and Portugal the dominant focus is on maintaining low-density farming systems, while in Spain and Greece it is on managing very extensively-used or non-productive land (Buller 2000, fig.12.1). These choices in part reflect each country's farming character, but also their historic landscape character and the relative priority given to other types of rural development. They largely overlook archaeological heritage or any part of the historic environment. Some countries' politicians and decision-makers regard agri-environmental grants as merely a supplementary form of income for farmers; others regard agri-environmental grants as first and foremost a positive measure to improve the environment in terms of landscape, nature conservation and to some extent the cultural heritage. The operation of a reformed CAP will thus be very different with different emphasises and results in varying countries (Merlo *et al.* 2000).

Comparative studies have shown that European countries have differing attitudes towards the Common Agricultural Policy, some seeing it as an environmental or 'Green' issue, others as exclusively agrarian or in terms of consumerism and regional autonomy (Lowe *et al.* 2001). Some of these national characteristics can be read in the existing historic landscape, shaping the future landscape just as much as any social and economic process has in the past. These are quintessentially cultural issues, a collective human agency creating cultural landscapes. The growing democratisation of the debate (Déjeant-Pons this volume) may allow many more voices to be heard and their effect to be felt, than merely that of European politicians, farmers and landowners, including archaeologists

Since *c.*1990, there has also been speculation about how eastward expansion of the EU will change the Common Agricultural Policy, and conversely how EU policies will change cultural landscapes in Eastern Europe (Tangermann & Banse 2000; European Commission 1998). These areas have already seen massive change during the 20th century while not escaping factors familiar to the west, such as globalisation. The Eastern European candidate countries for EU membership of Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia are already changing their farming policies as they converge in more general terms with EU practice. Agenda 2000 is party an attempt to prepare for enlargement (Davidova & Buckwell 2000). An Eastern enlargement alone would see the agricultural area of the EU increase by 23%, and its farm population by 55%. Poland and Romania between them would bring into the CAP almost as many farmers (7.5 million) as all fifteen of the present EU countries together (8.2 million).

Simple arithmetic makes it clear that the subsidy-heavy Common Agricultural Policy cannot be expanded in this way without change. All this will bring new pressures for change creating new landscapes while elements of the historic landscape are lost or destroyed. What that change will be is still unknown, but a move away from production-led subsidy towards paying farmers for environmental gains not for food production seems inevitable. Farming and therefore landscape has to change, and it becomes ever more important to understand the cultural landscape that we now have, before decisions are taken that affect it or before priorities for managing it through environmentally led grants, are decided.

As this volume was approaching completion, the European Commission issued a new statement on its integration strategy for new members in the context of agriculture (EC2002). This strategy focusses on the need for change – first in agricultural systems but beyond that, inevitably, in the landscape. It is proposed, for example, to phase-in direct payments up to 100% over a period of 10 years, not all at once – explicitly because immediate 100% support payments will 'freeze existing structures' and 'hamper modernisation'. There will be associated significant investment in new member states' rural development policy, specifically to 'incite change'. 'Semi-subsistence farms' (those producing for their own consumption as well as the market place) will be given financial help to become 'commercially viable' encouraging restructuring. There will also be options for agri-environmental programmes and support for environmentally-sensitive areas, but equally for afforestation; it is therefore very easy to see major landscape change in the offing.

Factors changing the landscape include physical change and farming methods, but the issue of farm and landholding size are just as relevant. There are major variations to this area across Europe, reflecting very different historical trajectories.

Landholding patterns as much as territorial patterns are an influential aspect of landscape character in both the past and the present. This diversity is a significant factor in creating locally and nationally distinctive cultural landscapes, but its archaeology has been little studied. In this volume, in their different ways, papers on Poland and Spain touch on this question. In terms of European farming

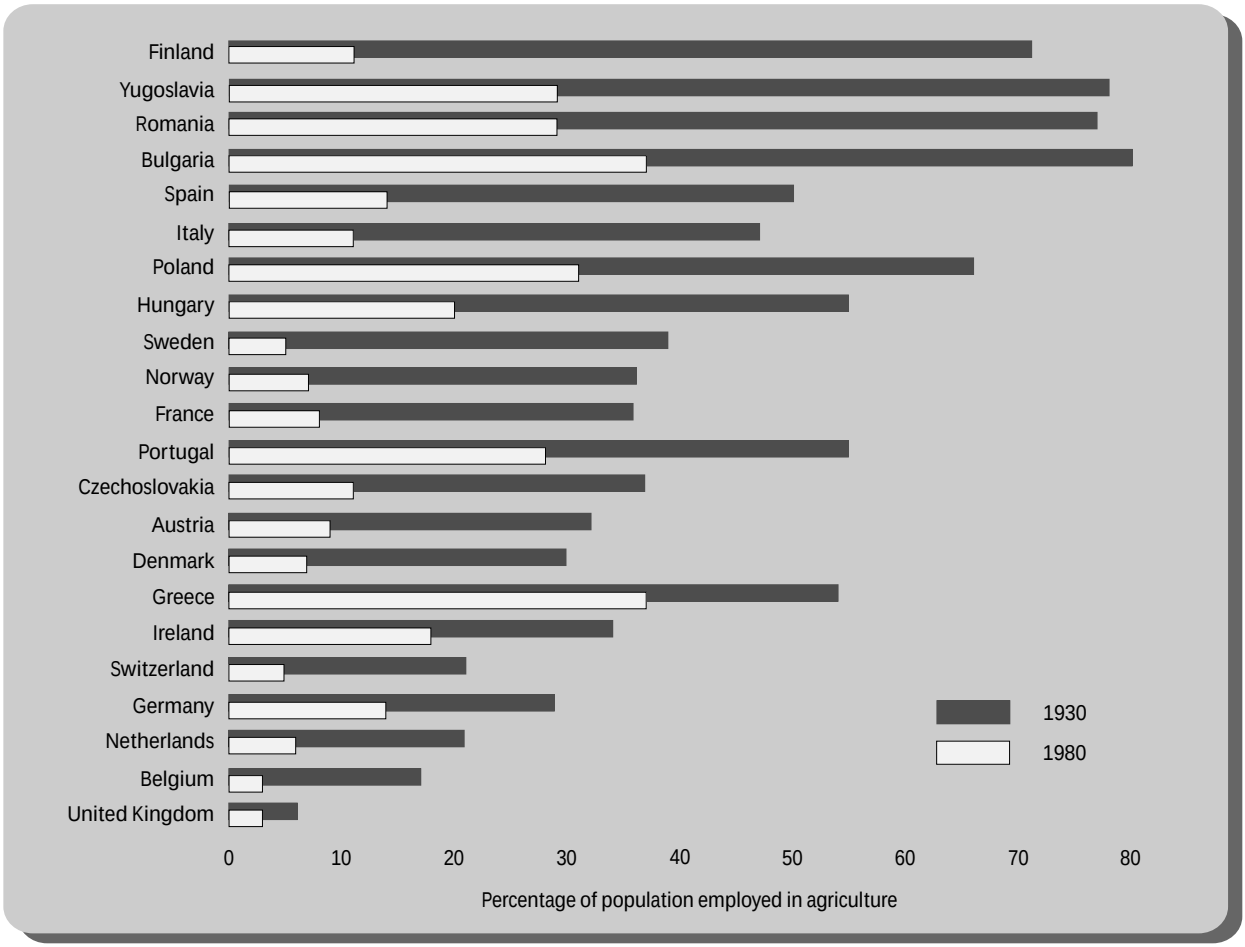

Fig.1.4: The percentage of working population in agriculture, 1930–1980 for a larger range of European countries, notably from the east, than figure 1. This focuses on two milestones, showing the percentage of the total population engaged in agriculture at 1930 and at 1980. (Source: plotted by author from figures in Mazower 1998, table 3, after Ambrosius & Hubbard 1989).

policy, one effect of the Common Agricultural Policy in the west has been towards larger landholdings, owned by national or global companies rather than families or local collectives. In England at least, the disappearance of small farms has been held to be one of the most eroding aspects of agricultural change. The picture is not constant across Europe, however. In Ireland and Portugal where the family farm is portrayed as the social ideal and protected, there is at the same time a strong perception that farming needs to be modernised, and these are not easily reconcilable aspirations.

In the east the picture is different, but change in landholding patterns has also accompanied landscape change. Putting aside the upheavals caused in the 1950s by collectivisation, in Hungary since 1990 the number of private farms has grown in contrast to larger, public farms. The area of land farmed by co-operatives fell from 80% to 28% and by state farms from 14% to 4% – conversely the number of private individual farms grew from 6% to 54%. Similar, if smaller figures, exist in other countries: in the Czech Republic for example the same figures are declines of 61% to 43% and 38% to 2% for co-operatives and state farms and growth in the private sector of 0% to 23% (Tangermann & Swinnen 2000, pp 190–191; EC 1998).

This move back to private individual farms could be seen as recreating lost early 20th-century patterns of rural society. It remains to be seen whether it will be mirrored by a move back to a type of agriculture that re-creates or supports traditional landscapes; as in England, these farms may be drawn into semi-industrialised production, or they may fail to keep up with market forces. Either outcome could lead to marked landscape change. In some parts of Eastern Europe, one of the most successful farm types during this period of convergence seems to be large corporate farms and not all collectives have disappeared though they have been modernised.

Different parts of Europe are at quite different places on their trajectories of change. In the EU enlargement countries, agriculture still plays a more important role than in the existing fifteen EU countries. The percentage of the population engaged in farming is a useful indicator of why national cultural landscapes vary (fig.1.3 & fig.1.4). In Great Britain, because of early industrialisation and urbanisation, the percentage had fallen to 50% as early as *c.*1730 and to 10% by 1900 (fig.1.3). Most Western European countries did not reach a 50% level until the late 19th century, and Spain, at the opposite end of the spectrum to the UK, only in *c.*1945. Figure 1.4, with a larger range of countries, notably from the east, focuses on 1930 and 1980. In the UK, at one extreme, the percentage of the working population, already unusually low, fell only from 7% to 3%; in Finland, at the other extreme, it fell from 72% to 12%.

As these trends continue, it seems, therefore, that in many countries the landscape will continue to change, reflecting both local circumstances and global pressures. At one level all of this is new archaeology in the making; at another level it is a reason why an archaeological perspective on understanding and managing landscape, focused on change and the effect of social processes, is necessary and crucial.

Conclusion

Europe's landscape, both east and west starts the new century under greater pressure for change both politically and socio-economically than for many years. Agriculture, perhaps the most basic influence on the character of the landscape, is again likely to be one of the main engines of change. On the other hand, there are new tools for us to work with to manage this change, notably the sets of new ideas that are wrapped up in the shorthand term sustainable development, and the growing suite of methods that are being developed for archaeological understanding of the landscape. Most importantly, the publication of European-wide instruments (first a *Council of Europe Recommendation on Cultural Landscape in 1995*, now the new *European Landscape Convention* (Council of Europe 1995; 2000) opens new doors for a wide-ranging comprehensive debate on the future of the European landscape to which archaeological heritage managers can make a significant contribution.

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2: The European Landscape Convention, Florence

Maguelonne Déjeant-Pons

Abstract: *The European Landscape Convention was opened for signature in October 2000. It already has over 22 signatures and one ratification, and it is already influentially changing the parameters of the debate about landscape protection and management. In this paper, the Council of Europe's officer responsible for the Convention and its implementation offers an authoritative account of the Convention's origins, evolution, scope, content and aspirations.*

> *The landscape…*
>
> *… has an important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields, and constitutes a resource favourable to economic activity and whose protection, management and planning can contribute to job creation;*
>
> *… contributes to the formation of local cultures and … is a basic component of the European natural and cultural heritage, contributing to human well-being and consolidation of the European identity;*
>
> *… is an important part of the quality of life for people everywhere: in urban areas and in the countryside, in degraded areas as well as in areas of high quality, in areas recognised as being of outstanding beauty as well as everyday areas;*
>
> *… is a key element of individual and social well-being and … its protection, management and planning entail rights and responsibilities for everyone.*

(Preamble to the European Landscape Convention)

The Council of Europe and the environment

The Council of Europe is an international intergovernmental organisation based in Strasbourg, France. Set up in 1949, it currently consists of 43 member States, from Iceland to Turkey, from Finland to Portugal, and from Azerbaijan to Ireland (fig.2.1). Its main objectives are to promote democracy, human rights and the rule of law and to find joint solutions to the major problems facing European society today.

The Council is committed to environmental protection and sustainable spatial development (as recently defined in the 'Guiding Principles for Sustainable Spatial Development of the European Continent' adopted in Hanover on 8 September 2000 by the European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional Planning of the Member States of the Council of Europe (CEMAT). The aim is to preserve the quality of life and well-being of Europeans with due regard for their natural and cultural heritage. In pursuit of this goal, the Council has produced a series of conventions that establish principles and procedures, notably:

- the *Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats* (Bern, 19 September 1979)
- the *European Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe* (Grenada, 3 October 1985)
- the *European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage* (revised) (Valetta, 16 January 1992).

On 20 October 2000 a further convention was published in Florence covering the European Landscape.

Origins of the European Landscape Convention

The *European Landscape Convention* was developed by a Council of Europe restricted group of experts from a first draft elaborated by the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE). This first draft was mainly a product of a recommendation to its successor by the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, shortly before it was replaced by CLRAE.

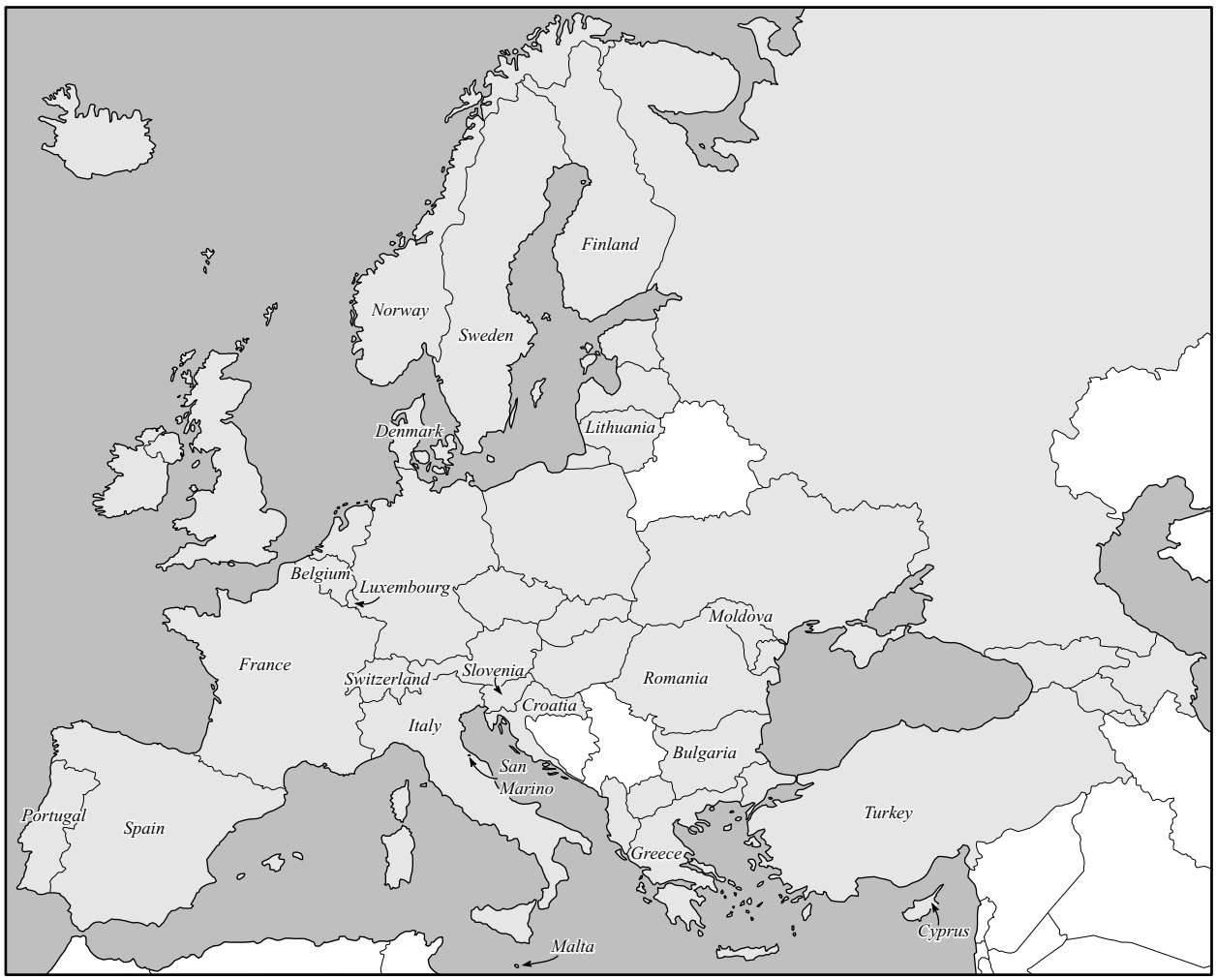

Fig.2.1: Member states of the Council of Europe (shaded); those named are signatories to the European Landscape Convention (as of December 2001).

In March 1994, a few months before the 1st Plenary Session of the Council of Europe's Congress of Local and Regional Authorities (CLRAE), its predecessor adopted Resolution 256 (1994) on the 3rd Conference of Mediterranean Regions. In this text, the Standing Conference called on its successor, the CLRAE, 'to draw up a framework convention on the management and protection of the natural and cultural landscape of Europe as a whole'; this was to be on the basis of the existing Mediterranean Landscape Charter, adopted in Seville by the regions of Andalusia (Spain), Languedoc-Roussillon (France) and Tuscany (Italy).

There were other stimuli to the process. The European Environment Agency's *Europe's environment: the Dobříš assessment* published in 1995 in response to the 1st Conference of European Environment Ministers held in Dobříš in June 1991, expressed the hope that the Council of Europe would take the lead in drawing up a European convention on rural landscapes. A year earlier, in 1994, the World Conservation Union (IUCN) had published *Parks for life: actions for protected areas in Europe*, which advocates an international convention on rural landscape protection in Europe, involving the Council of Europe.

On the basis of these recommendations, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities (CLRAE) decided to draw up a draft European landscape convention for adoption by the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers. In September 1994, it set up a drafting group composed of members of the CLRAE's Chamber of Local Authorities and Chamber of Regions which met for the first time in November of that year. Several international, national and regional bodies and programmes were invited to take part in the group's work: the Parliamentary Assembly, the Cultural Heritage Committee of the Council of Europe (CC-PAT), the Committee for the activities of the Council of Europe in the field of biological and landscape diversity (CO-DBP), the UNESCO World Heritage Committee, the IUCN, the Committee of Regions, the Commission of the European Union, the Bureau for the Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy and the signatories of the Landscape Charter Andalusia (Spain), Languedoc-Roussillon (France) and Tuscany (Italy).

The CLRAE working group drew up, as preparatory documents, a full version of a draft convention in non-legal language and a comparative study of European landscape

law. During a consultation programme, the working group held two specific hearings in Strasbourg; the first was attended by interested national and regional scientific bodies, both public and private (8th and 9th November 1995), while the second was for interested international organisations and regional authorities (24th March 1997).

At CLRAE's 4th Plenary Session in Strasbourg on 3rd–5th June 1997, the Congress adopted the preliminary draft European Landscape Convention in Resolution 53 (1997), and decided to consult the representatives of the national ministries concerned. Furthermore, Recommendation 31 (1997) of the meeting asked the Council of Europe's Parliamentary Assembly (and the European Union's Committee of the Regions) to examine the preliminary draft, to give an opinion and, if possible, to express support.

At the invitation of the Italian ministry for Cultural Heritage and Environmental Assets, a consultation conference for ministerial representatives and major international and non-governmental organisations with technical expertise in landscape matters was held in Florence (Italy) on 2nd–4th April 1998. This enabled the working group to produce a final draft European landscape convention in the form of a draft recommendation. This was presented to the 5th CLRAE Plenary Session in Strasbourg on 26th–28th May 1998 and was adopted as Recommendation 40 (1998).

The Council of Europe Ministers' Deputies considered CLRAE Recommendation 40 (1998) in September 1998. They asked the Committee for the activities of the Council of Europe in the field of biological and landscape diversity (CO-DBP) and the Cultural Heritage Committee (CC-PAT) to consider whether a Council of Europe landscape convention could and should be drawn up on the basis of the CLRAE draft.

The CC-PAT and the CO-DBP delivered a favourable opinion in February and April 1999, and in July the Committee of Ministers decided to set up a select governmental committee of experts to take responsibility for drafting a final version of the European landscape convention. This committee of experts met three times (September, November 1999 and January 2000), and submitted a new draft convention to the CC-PAT and the CO-DBP in January 2000 which was jointly examined by the two Committees on 10th March 2000 and subsequently submitted it to the Committee of Ministers together with the report of their meeting for possible adoption and opening for signature. Following opinions from the Parliamentary Assembly and the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe the text of the Convention was adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 19 July 2000.

The *European Landscape Convention* was opened for signature in Florence, Italy, on 20 October 2000 in the context of the Council of Europe Campaign 'Europe, a common heritage', at a ministerial conference held specially for the occasion. As at December 2001, 22 States had signed it (fig.2.1) and one of them, Norway, had ratified it. The convention will come into force shortly after ten Council of Europe member States have ratified it.

Why a landscape convention?

Landscape is a key factor in individual and social well-being and in people's quality of life. It contributes to human development and serves to strengthen the European identity. It plays an important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields and is a valuable resource conducive to economic activity, notably tourism.

Developments in agriculture, forestry, industrial and mineral production techniques and in regional planning, town planning, transport, infrastructure, tourism and recreation and, at a more general level, changes in the world economy have in many cases led to the destruction of landscapes.

While every citizen must certainly play a part in preserving the quality of the landscape, public authorities have a duty to define the general framework for ensuring this quality. The convention establishes the general legal principles, which should serve as a basis for adopting national landscape policies and establishing international co-operation in such matters.

Structure and philosophy of the Convention

The text of the convention comprises a Preamble and four main chapters, containing altogether 18 Articles (see appendix):

- Chapter I, setting out the objectives and scope of the convention, plus key definitions;
- Chapter II, stating the measures to be taken at national level;
- Chapter III, stating the basis for European co-operation, the measures to be taken at international level and the role of the Committees responsible for monitoring the implementation of the convention;
- Chapter IV, dealing with procedures for adopting the convention and related matters.

In addition, the Convention is accompanied by an Explanatory Report providing additional guidance, amplification and detail.

The aims of the Convention are to promote European landscape protection, management and planning, and to organise European co-operation on landscape issues. This means ensuring the protection, management and planning of European landscapes through the adoption of national measures and the establishment of European co-operation between the Parties.

The Convention is part of the Council of Europe's work on natural and cultural heritage, spatial planning, environment and local self-government. The preamble states that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles, which are their common heritage. This aim should be pursued in particular through agreements in the economic and social fields.

The concern for sustainable development expressed at the Rio de Janeiro conference makes landscape an essential consideration in striking a balance between preserving the natural and cultural heritage as a reflection of European identity and diversity, and using it as an economic resource capable of generating employment in the context of the boom in sustainable tourism. The preamble mentions the desire of the Council of Europe member States to 'achieve sustainable development based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity and the environment'.

The landscape is important as a component of the environment and of people's surroundings in both town and country, whether the landscape in question is ordinary or of outstanding beauty. The public is accordingly encouraged to take an active part in landscape management and planning, and to feel it has responsibility for what happens to the landscape. The Explanatory Report considers that Europe's populations want policies and instruments affecting national territory to take account of their wishes regarding the quality of their surroundings. In their view, this quality to some extent has to do with the feelings aroused in them by contemplating the landscape.

People have come to realise that the quality and diversity of many landscapes are deteriorating as a result of a wide variety of factors and that this is having an adverse effect on the quality of their everyday lives. The report considers that official landscape activities can no longer be allowed to be an exclusive field of study or action monopolised by specialist scientific and technical bodies. Landscape must become a mainstream political concern, since it plays an important role in the well-being of Europeans who are no longer prepared to tolerate the alteration of their surroundings by technical and economic developments in which they have had no say.

Landscape is the concern of all, and lends itself to democratic treatment, particularly at local and regional level. If people are given an active role in decision-making on landscape, they are more likely to identify with the areas and towns where they spend their working and leisure time. If they have more influence on their surroundings, they will be able to reinforce local and regional identity and distinctiveness. This will bring rewards in terms of individual, social and cultural fulfilment. This in turn may help to promote the sustainable development of the area concerned, as the quality of landscape has an important bearing on the success of economic and social initiatives, whether public or private.

The general purpose of the Convention is to encourage public authorities to adopt policies and measures at local, regional, national and international level for protecting, managing and planning landscapes throughout Europe so as to maintain and improve landscape quality and bring the public, institutions and local and regional authorities to recognise the value and importance of landscape and to take part in related public decisions. The Convention demands a forward-looking attitude on the part of all those whose decisions affect the protection, management or planning of landscapes. It has implications for many areas of official policy and official or private action, from the local to the European level.

The Council of Europe member States, anxious to promote through international agreements the ideals which are their common heritage, possess a precious asset in their landscape, and one which needs to be maintained and managed by means of effective international co-operation based on a legal instrument exclusively devoted to landscape. The preamble recognises that the quality and diversity of European landscapes constitute a common resource, and that it is important to co-operate towards its protection, management and planning.

In addition to their local significance, Europe's landscapes are of value in various ways to all Europeans. They are cherished outside the locality and beyond national borders. In addition there are landscapes which have identical characteristics on both sides of borders and therefore require trans-border measures to implement the action principles. Finally, landscapes bear the consequences, whether positive or negative, of processes which may originate elsewhere and whose impact is not checked by national boundaries. That is why it is legitimate to be concerned with landscape at a European level. In their diversity and quality, the cultural and natural values linked to European landscapes are part of Europe's common heritage, and so European countries have a duty to make collective provisions for the protection of these values. Only an international convention at Council of Europe level can help to reach this objective in order to provide a legal reference to other international initiatives operating in this field.

Relationship with other texts

The signatory States declare in their preamble that they 'wish to provide a new instrument devoted exclusively to the protection, management and planning of all landscapes in Europe'. Today, the Convention is in fact the foremost international treaty dealing exclusively with the protection, management and enhancement of the European landscape.

A few international legal instruments are concerned with the subject of landscape, either directly or indirectly. None of them, however, deals directly, specifically and fully with European landscapes and their preservation, in spite of their invaluable contribution to our natural and cultural heritage and the numerous threats facing them. The Convention aims to fill this gap: it is thus distinct from the UNESCO Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 16th November 1972, both formally and substantively. The two Conventions have different purposes, as do the organisations under whose auspices they were drawn up. One is regional in scope, the other world-wide. The Council of Europe Convention can be regarded as complementary to the UNESCO one.

As regards substantive scope, the Council of Europe Convention covers all landscapes, even those that are not of outstanding universal value, but does not deal with historic monuments, unlike the UNESCO Convention. Similarly, its main objective is not to draw up a list of assets of exceptional universal value, but to introduce protection, management and planning rules for all landscape based on a set of principles. Thus each convention has its distinctive features. The explanatory report states that in order to co-ordinate action under the two Conventions, consideration could be given to scientific co-operation between the UNESCO World Heritage Committee and the Committees of Experts mentioned under Article 10 of the European Landscape Convention, under Article 13.7 of the UNESCO Convention of 16th November 1972, and as suggested in Article 7 of the Convention.

In the work leading up to the drafting of the Convention, constant reference was made to many existing international and national legal texts concerned with landscape. Apart from the World Heritage Convention, and the Bern, Grenada and Valletta Conventions that have already been mentioned, important texts include:

- the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers Recommendation 95 (9) on the integrated conservation of cultural landscape areas as part of landscape policies;
- Committee of Ministers Recommendation (79) 9 concerning the identification, evaluation and protection of natural landscapes;
- the Mediterranean Landscape Charter;
- the European Community regulation on agricultural production methods compatible with the requirements of the protection of the environment and the maintenance of the countryside;
- the European Community directive on the conservation of natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora;
- the European Community directive on the assessment of environmental effects.

The Convention itself has regard to international legal texts in the field of protection and management of the natural and cultural heritage, regional and spatial planning, local self-government and trans-frontier co-operation, in particular the European Outline Convention on Trans-frontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities (Madrid, 21st May 1980) and its additional protocols, the European Charter of Local Self-government (Strasbourg, 15th October 1985), the Convention on Biological Diversity (Rio, 5th June 1992), and the Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters (Åarhus, 25th June 1998).

In order to avoid any difficulties with other international legal instruments, Article 12 of the Convention (Relationship with other instruments) states that it shall not prejudice stricter provisions concerning landscape protection, management and planning contained in other existing or future binding national or international instruments. The wording of this article is based on model provisions already used in other international conventions in order to deal with the problem of linking up conventions concerned with similar fields.

Substantive and territorial scope

Article 2 of the Convention (Scope) provides that it applies (subject to possible special territorial exemptions regarding overseas territory that are set out in Article 15), to the entire territory of the Parties, not merely to designated special areas. This breadth of coverage has two main interesting points.

First, it is worth noting that the policies and measures mentioned in the Convention must cover all the forms of landscape which countries possess. The Convention applies to all parts of Europe and covers natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas, whether terrestrial, aquatic (lakes and areas of brackish water) or marine (coastal waters and the territorial sea).

Second, and in consequence, it therefore applies not only to areas that might be considered outstanding as landscapes but also to everyday and damaged landscapes. The landscape is now recognised as significant and worthy of care irrespective of any exceptional value, since all kinds of landscapes influence people's surroundings and deserve to be taken into account in landscape policies.

This application to ordinary landscapes no less than to outstanding ones is a highly original feature of this Convention. Comprehensive coverage is justified for the following reasons:

- every landscape forms the setting for the lives of the population concerned;
- urban and rural landscapes interlock in complex ways (most Europeans live in towns and cities (large or

Fig.2.2: La Défense, Paris, by Margrit Chassot. 23rd Prize in the European Photography Competition organised within the framework of the Council of Europe campaign 'Europe, a common heritage', in 1999-2000. Copyright of the Council of Europe.

small), the quality of whose landscapes greatly affects their lives);
- rural landscapes occupy an important place in the European consciousness.

Extending the scope of local authorities' official landscape action to cover the whole of national territory does not mean, however, that the same measures and policies must be applied to all landscapes. These measures and policies should be adaptable to particular types of landscape. Depending on their specific characteristics, different areas will need various forms of treatment at local level, ranging from the strictest conservation via protection, management and planning to actual creation. These various treatments may pave the way for major socio-economic development of the area concerned.

The Convention is not confined, either, to the cultural or man-made components of landscape: it is concerned with all of these and how they interconnect.

The Convention is open for signature by any member State of the Council of Europe. Once the Convention has entered into force, the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers may also invite the European Community and any European State not a member of the Council of Europe to accede to the convention by a majority decision as provided in Article 20.d of the Council of Europe Statute, and by the unanimous vote of the States parties entitled to hold seats in the Committee of Ministers.

Temporal scope

The Convention has the advantage of applying indefinitely, and of being implemented under the auspices of an international organisation, the Council of Europe. Any Party may, however, at any time, denounce the Convention by means of 3 months notification addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

Like any international Convention, this Convention is a dynamic legal instrument, which evolves together with the subject matter of its provisions. The way in which landscape values and interests are addressed should thus be able to keep pace with changes in those values and interests. It is therefore provided that any Party or the committees of experts mentioned in the convention may propose amendments to the Convention. Amendments can adapt or improve a convention. The committees of experts mentioned in Article 10 of the convention may prepare amendments and consider those suggested by Parties.

Legal obligations

Definitions

The terms used in the Convention are defined in Article 1 in order to ensure that they are interpreted uniformly by everyone concerned with the well-being of Europe's landscapes:

- *landscape* means 'an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors'. In other words the term 'landscape' reflects the idea that landscapes evolve through time, as a result of being acted upon by natural forces and human beings. It also underlines that a landscape forms a whole, whose natural and cultural components are taken together, not separately.
- *landscape policy* means an expression by the competent public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection, management and planning of landscapes; it reflects the public authorities' awareness of the need to frame an official policy on landscape. It lays down the basic emphases, general principles and strategic choices by which decisions on landscape protection, management and planning are to be guided;
- *landscape quality objective* means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings; that is, once a particular landscape has been identified and described, a detailed statement should be prepared of the characteristics which local people want recognised in their surroundings.

Article 1 of the Convention also contains definitions of three terms frequently used in the Convention: 'protection', 'management' and 'planning' of landscapes, principles of landscape action which are treated in a dynamic and forward-looking manner:

- *landscape protection* means actions to conserve and maintain the significant or characteristic features of a landscape, justified by its heritage value derived from its natural configuration and/or from human activity. Such protection must be active and involve maintenance measures to preserve significant features of a landscape;
- *landscape management* means action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, so as to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by necessary social, economic and environmental processes. Such measures may be concerned with the organisation of the landscape or its components. The management approach must be a dynamic one and seek to improve landscape quality on the basis of the population's expectations;
- *landscape planning* means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes; it is the formal process of study, design and construction by which new landscapes are created to meet the aspirations of the people concerned. It involves framing proper planning projects, more particularly in those most affected by change and badly damaged areas (for example suburbs, peri-urban and industrial areas, coastal areas). The purpose of such planning projects is to radically reshape the damaged landscapes.

In each area of landscape, the balance between these three types of activity depends on the character of the area and the objectives agreed. Some areas may merit the strictest protection. At the other extreme, there may be areas whose landscapes are severely damaged and need entirely reshaping. Most landscapes need a combination of the three modes of action, and some of them need some degree of intervention.

In seeking the right balance between protection, management and planning of a landscape, the Convention does not aim to preserve or *freeze* the landscape at a particular point in its lengthy evolution. Landscapes have always changed and will continue to change both through natural processes and through human action. In fact, the aim should be to manage future changes in a way which recognises the great diversity and the quality of the landscapes that we inherit and which seeks to preserve, or even enhance, that diversity and quality instead of allowing them to decline.

Obligations at national level

Signatories to the Convention will undertake to protect, manage and/or plan their landscapes by means of a whole series of general and specific measures at national level, with due regard for the principle of subsidiarity.

Each Party therefore implements the Convention, in particular the articles concerning the measures to be taken at national level, according to its own division of powers, in conformity with its constitutional principles and administrative arrangements, taking into account the European Charter of Local Self-government. The convention must therefore be implemented at the most appropriate level of government for landscape action not only at national and international levels, but also at local and regional levels.

Where local and regional authorities have the necessary competence, protection, management and planning of landscapes will be more effective if responsibility for their implementation is entrusted – within the constitutional framework laid down in law at national level – to the authorities closest to the communities concerned. Each country should set out in detail the tasks and measures for which each level – national, regional or local – is responsible and should lay down rules for inter-level co-ordination of such measures, in particular where town planning and regional planning instruments are concerned.

Article 5 of the Convention (General measures) specifies the measures that Parties should use to implement the Convention in each country.

- recognise landscapes in law as an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity. Many European countries already make reference to the landscape in their constitutions or in their legislation on the natural or cultural heritage or on environment;
- establish and implement landscape policies aimed at landscape protection, management and planning;
- establish procedures for participation by the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in defining and implementing landscape policies. Landscape is an issue which affects the whole population and care for the landscape requires collaboration between a wide range of individuals and organisations;
- systematically integrate landscape into the country's spatial and town-planning policies, its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, and any other policy sector which may have direct or indirect impact on the landscape, such as transport. The point of this provision is that landscape is not a question to be treated as a specialist field of public affairs. Landscape can be affected for good or ill by action in many sectors. Hence the need for governments to ensure that landscape objectives are taken into account in all relevant sectors of public life.

Article 6 of the Convention (Specific measures) describes special measures, which Parties must take at national, regional or local level, and makes clear what each measure involves:

- *awareness-raising:* this involves increasing awareness among civil society, private organisations and public authorities of the value of landscapes, their role and changes to them; every citizen has a share in the landscape and in the duty of looking after it, and the well-being of landscapes is closely linked to the level of public awareness. Campaigns for informing and educating the public, elected representatives and associations about the value of present and future landscapes should be organised in this perspective;
- *training and education:* this involves promoting training for specialists in landscape appraisal and operations, multidisciplinary training programmes in landscape policy, protection, management and planning for professionals in the private and public sectors and for the relevant associations and school and university courses in relevant subject areas; protection, management and planning of landscapes can be a complex matter, involving many different public and private agencies and multidisciplinary work bringing in a whole range of professions and occupations. The aim is to improve the technical expertise of bodies with landscape responsibilities (examples of such bodies include professional organisations concerned with regional planning, the management of the environment or heritage, agricultural landuse, tourism, industry, construction work or infrastructure) and to develop school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, cover questions related to landscape and landscape protection, management and planning so that young people become aware of the issues concerning the environment in which they live;
- *identification and assessment:* this involves mobilising the interested parties with a view to improving knowledge of the landscapes and guiding the landscape identification and assessment procedures through exchanges of experience and methodology, organised between the Parties at European level. Work is needed to identify and evaluate landscapes in order to lay down a sound basis for long-term action aimed at protecting and improving them. Such action must be based on detailed knowledge of the characteristics of each landscape, the evolutionary processes affecting it and the value, which the population concerned attaches to it. Evaluation need not involve a precise scale of values.

Each Party accordingly undertakes to identify its own landscapes throughout its territory; to analyse their characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming them; to take note of changes; and to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned.

Signatories to the Convention will be expected to carry out research and studies in order to identify landscapes and analyse their characteristics and the dynamics and pressures affecting them. Some countries have already performed nation-wide surveys of landscapes. This work has revealed the landscape distinctiveness of different areas, each with its own mixture of natural and man-made elements. Geographical information systems and modern techniques of computerised mapping are used to show up landscape characteristics (physical relief, the settlement pattern, the main landuses, economic activities, residential areas, the presence or absence of features such as hedgerows and terraces, important wildlife habitats and the heritage of past human activity). It is vital that professional fieldwork of this kind involves the local community, the general public and the various other stakeholders by means of surveys and information meetings.

Signatories also undertake to assess the quality of the landscapes identified, taking into account the particular

value assigned to them by the general public and interested parties such as landowners and land users or land managers. The point of this evaluation is to provide a basis for judging what landscape features of an area are so valuable that they should be protected; what features need management in order to maintain the quality of the landscape; and what features or areas should be considered for enhancement. This process must take account of the opinion of the population concerned and the interests linked to sectoral policies, and here views may well be highly subjective and differ considerably. It may well be worth performing the evaluation according to objective criteria first, then comparing the findings with the various assessments of the landscape by the people concerned and other interest groups. If necessary, this comparison could be carried out by public inquiry, with the interested parties having the right to express their opinion. Public participation in this type of procedure could be fostered by providing the public with information, consulting all representative bodies, using the media and conducting awareness-raising campaigns at all levels.

The benefits of international exchanges of experience and ideas are well-known, but there is no universally acknowledged method for studying, identifying and evaluating landscapes. A considerable body of knowledge already exists and should be tapped. International co-operation will encourage countries to take action, pool knowledge and experience concerning landscapes, landscape value and current problems and policies, and identify the landscapes or problems that warrant international attention.

- *landscape quality objectives:* this involves framing landscape quality objectives for the landscapes identified and assessed, after public consultation. Before any measure is taken for the protection, management and planning of a landscape, it is essential to make clear to the public what objectives are being pursued. These objectives should be laid down, explained and announced by the competent authority concerned after the general public and all relevant interests have been consulted. The objectives should state clearly the special features and qualities of the landscape concerned, the general thrust of the policy for that landscape, and the specific components of the landscape to which protection, management or planning will apply. It should say that by what means the objectives are to be achieved. There must be a clear relationship between the objectives, the findings of the identification and evaluation surveys, and the measures deemed necessary to achieve the objectives;
- *implementation:* this involves introducing instruments aimed at protecting, managing and/or planning the landscape; Parties are invited to

Fig.2.3: Naturpark Scleswig-Holsteinisches Wattenmeer, Germany by Paul Schäfer. 28th Prize in the European Photography Competition organised within the framework of the Council of Europe campaign 'Europe, a common heritage', in 1999-2000. Copyright of the Council of Europe

Fig.2.4: Kals, Tyrol, by Josef Hinterleitner. 47th Prize in the European Photography Competition organised within the framework of the Council of Europe campaign 'Europe, a common heritage' in 1999-2000. Copyright of the Council of Europe.

introduce specific legal, administrative, fiscal or financial instruments with a view to protecting, managing and planning landscapes, taking into account the agreed landscape policies. The instruments available can be very varied. They include landscape plans, landscape projects, special status for certain types of landscape, a requirement that impact studies, activity licences and landuse permits, consider impact on landscape, emergency measures to safeguard threatened landscape, and so on. It is for each State to develop and introduce a range of instruments that is appropriate to the needs of its landscapes and to its legal system. The body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the convention may make recommendations to facilitate the process.

Obligations at international level

Through Article 7 of the Convention (International policies and programmes), the Contracting Parties undertake to co-operate in the consideration of the landscape dimension of international policies and programmes, and to recommend, where relevant, the inclusion in them of landscape considerations. The Convention should allow international bodies and programmes to take more account of landscape. To that end the Parties most be aware of that landscape problems should play an active part by co-ordinating their ideas and proposals in the body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the convention. It is further provided that the Council of Europe should engage in particular landscape co-operation with other governmental international organisations, in particular UNESCO, the European Union and IUCN, as well as with other non-governmental organisations.

Through Article 8 of the Convention (Mutual assistance and exchange of information) signatories undertake to co-operate in order to enhance the effectiveness of measures taken under the provisions of the Convention, and in particular: to render each other technical and scientific assistance in landscape matters through the pooling and exchanging experience, and the results of research projects; to promote the exchange of landscape specialists in particular for training and information purposes; and to exchange information on all matters covered by the provisions of the Convention. Recent years have seen a burgeoning of political, professional and academic interest in the subject of landscapes, hence the development of a growing body of experience and expertise on which member States, local and regional authorities and others can draw as they seek to implement the Convention. At the same time, the growth of electronic communication and the arrival of the Internet have provided radically improved tools for exchanging ideas and, indeed, for the technical study of landscapes. These developments create a much wider basis for the exchange of ideas and mutual support than was possible even a decade ago, allowing local actors throughout

Europe to take part and thus creating a true 'landscape democracy'.

Trans-frontier landscapes are covered by a specific provision (Article 9 of the Convention on Trans-frontier landscapes). In this, the Parties undertake to encourage trans-frontier co-operation at local and regional level for the identification, evaluation, protection, management and planning of landscapes which straddle borders and, wherever necessary, prepare and implement joint landscape programmes.

The Council of Europe Landscape Award

The Convention (Article 11) provides for a Council of Europe Landscape Award. This is a way of recognising those local or regional authorities or non-governmental organisations that have introduced landscape policies which have been of lasting worth and can serve as an example to other authorities throughout Europe. The award is intended as an incentive for others, so as to encourage and recognise quality stewardship of landscapes. It is conferred by the Committee of Ministers, on a proposal from the body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention.

The award may be conferred on local and regional authorities, or groupings thereof, that have instituted, as part of the landscape policy of a Party to the Convention, a policy or measures to protect, manage and/or plan their landscape, which have proved lastingly effective and can thus serve as an example to other territorial authorities in Europe. The distinction may also be conferred on non-governmental organisations which have made particularly remarkable contributions to landscape protection, management or planning.

Applications for the Landscape Award are to be submitted by the Parties to the body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention. Individual countries may choose to select a national candidate, possibly in a national competition carrying national prizes or awards, and put forward to the body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention, the national winner or a small number of candidates for consideration for the award. Trans-frontier local and regional authorities and groupings of local and regional authorities concerned (within a single country or on a trans-frontier basis) may apply provided that they jointly manage the landscape in question.

The Landscape Award is meant to encourage the sustainable protection, management and/or planning of the landscape areas concerned. It is accordingly intended as a stimulus to a process, which countries throughout Europe could set in motion, of encouraging and recognising high quality stewardship of landscapes. It could thus 'crown' national level action, which might include national competitions and perhaps financial support to the local and regional authorities concerned.

Monitoring arrangements

The body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention is the Council of Europe which acts as secretariat for the Convention and has structures in which all the Parties can be represented. The Convention provides that the Council's existing competent Committees of Experts, set up under Article 17 of the Council of Europe Statute, are to be designated by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to be responsible for monitoring the implementation of the convention.

Given the many aspects of the concept of landscape and landscape-related activities, it was decided that the monitoring of the application of the Convention could be entrusted to two committees – the Committee for the activities of the Council of Europe in the Field of Biological and landscape diversity (CO-DBP) and the Cultural Heritage Committee (CC-PAT). Both have direct access to the Committee of Ministers. It was also felt that in order to carry out this task, the committees could hold joint meetings – as part of a conference acting as the body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention – in order that the Convention might benefit from an appropriate forum for discussion.

The Parliamentary Assembly and the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE) should also be involved in the work of these committees relating to the Convention. Given local and regional authorities' increasing responsibilities with regard to the protection, management and planning of landscape, and its sponsorship of the first draft of the Convention, the CLRAE has a particular role to play. It is authorised to offer opinions to the Committee of Ministers on the reports drawn up by the Council of Europe committees responsible for monitoring the application of the Convention.

Conferences of the Contracting and Signatory States to the Convention

It was felt that it would be easier to achieve the objectives of the Convention if the representatives of Contracting Parties were able to meet regularly to devise joint co-ordinated programmes and to jointly monitor the application of the Convention. Accordingly a series of conferences is being established. The first Conference of the Contracting and Signatory States to the European Landscape Convention took place in Strasbourg on 22nd and 23rd November 2001. The representatives of 26 European States and of 16 non-governmental organisations were present. The Conference was opened by Council of Europe Deputy Secretary General Hans Christian Krüger, in the presence of representatives of the Committee of Ministers, the Parliamentary Assembly and

the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe.

The participants of the Conference expressed their great interest in looking after the myriad facets of European landscapes and launched a co-operation process aimed at promoting the Convention's entry in force.

Head of the Landscape Division of the Federal Office for Environment, Forests and Landscape of Switzerland Mr. E. Buergi was elected Chair of the Conference. Mrs B. Selsflagh, Chair of CC-PAT, and Mr R.-P. Lebeau, Chair of CO-DBP, were elected Vice-Chairs of the Conference.

With a view to the entry into force of the Convention, the Conference was designed to bring together current contracting and signatory States and States that have been invited to sign it. The purpose was therefore to promote the signature and/or ratification of the Convention so that it can swiftly enter into force, to discuss legal assistance for the signatory States and Council of Europe member States invited to sign the Convention, and to pave the way for the actual implementation of the Convention following its entry into force.

Preparations to facilitate the entry into force of the convention will also get under way, by exploring further the following five themes:

- landscape policies and their contribution to the well-being of European citizens and to sustainable development (social, economic, cultural and ecological approaches);
- landscape identification and assessment, and the definition of landscape quality objectives, drawing on cultural and natural resources;
- public information, awareness-raising, participation and training;
- innovative instruments for landscape protection, management and planning;
- the Landscape Award.

Conclusion

Modern lifestyles mean that people are increasingly keen to live in unspoilt surroundings again and to preserve their heritage, both natural and cultural. Thanks to this growing social pressure, landscape is gaining, or regaining, prominence and is beginning to be perceived as a key component of environmental policies. It is also a major asset for regional development in terms of tourism.

The European Landscape Convention holds out great hope, requiring us to recognise the importance and value of landscapes and to reconcile commercial considerations with the right to well-being, health, aesthetics and beauty.

3: Archaeologists and the European Landscape Convention

Graham Fairclough

Abstract: *The European Landscape Convention offers a new, robust framework for bringing landscape and its archaeological aspects into the mainstream of European heritage and social policy. This paper offers an archaeologist's preliminary perspective on the Convention, and considers the character of the archaeological dimensions of the landscape as it is defined by the Convention. Finally, referring to seminars on cultural landscape organised at EAA conferences in 1999 and 2000, it summarises current debates amongst archaeologists about the landscape and its management, thus setting the scene for the main part of the volume.*

Introduction

The previous paper has provided an authoritative account of the genesis, philosophy and objectives of the Florence Convention. This paper now considers how archaeologists can engage with the Convention and with the concept of landscape that it enshrines in public policy. This engagement can operate both in terms of working with others to understand the landscape and of encouraging policies that ensure the long-term preservation of landscape's historic and archaeological character.

The Convention establishes the principle that all of Europe's landscape is a common cultural resource, and that an important aim of European policy is to maintain the landscape's diversity for reasons of local and regional identity, and for economic and social health. Underlying the philosophy and agenda of the Convention are two very powerful inter-related ideas (Priore forthcoming):

- landscape belongs to everyday life, as part of every citizen's culture, heritage and environment, and must be democratised both in terms of identifying why it is valuable and deciding how it is used and;
- landscape is a cultural construct composed of many different ways of understanding and appreciation. Not all of these ways are 'scientific', objective or material. Many are personal, individual and subjective, or reflect intangible aspects of the environment.

Both ideas present challenges to archaeologists.

In terms of the first idea, archaeology's history as a developing discipline has been one of increasing scientific rigour and specialisation, a trajectory that without care could take us away from close democratic engagement with the population. Furthermore, archaeologists have taught themselves to be concerned with detail and fact, whereas dealing with landscape often requires the opposite skills. Archaeologists often work at a landscape scale, but often their interest manifests itself as a concept of past landscapes, and with an environmental, positivist slant, whereas the Convention requires everyone to think in terms of the present landscape. What archaeologists bring to this debate is the ability to explain that landscape in archaeological (*sensu latto*) terms, is a very complicated artefact with a long history. Thus archaeology may need to adapt to some degree as it engages with the operationalisation of the Convention and this might not be easy.

On the other hand, archaeologists are already very well placed to work within the framework of the Convention. The definition of what constitutes archaeology's field of study has expanded so that it embraces all material culture of every date and type, and this breadth of interest finds some of its most natural expressions in the concept of landscape. Their discipline has already taught them the ability to work at a variety of scales, which is crucial when looking at landscape. Most importantly, it has taught the value of inter-disciplinary co-operation. Archaeologists readily recognise the interaction between different aspects of the environment, to understand for example the way that ecology has been shaped by human action even as humans have worked within natural constraints. Archaeologists are accustomed to working alongside other workers who have different values and methods, and to borrow theories, techniques and perspectives from other disciplines.

Most of all, archaeologists, by their own self-definition as a discipline of thought, are concerned with three of the most important aspects of landscape, dimensions that other disciplines cannot as readily contribute:

- understanding change through time, notably across long periods;

- recognising the role of human agency in landscape creation, acting through social processes at the collective rather than the individual level;
- spatial patterning and relationship: the total connection, often in unexpected ways, of everything within landscape, including the connection between the 'natural' and the cultural.

'Landscape' as envisaged by the Convention is, therefore, already a central field of study and understanding for archaeologists, whose discipline has prepared them very well in some ways and less so in others. The Convention clearly refers to the human made aspect of the European landscape. Archaeologists ought therefore to be major participants, in every country, in all the different approaches that the Convention will be put into practice.

At present, however, archaeologists are not well represented at discussions about the Convention. Out of the 14 of the 22 signatory countries present at the first Council of Europe's first Convention conference in November 2001, only one or two countries were represented by experts from the country's cultural heritage organisations, the remainder asking their Nature, Environmental or Countryside agencies and departments to take the lead. Without greater archaeological involvement, Europe's concept of cultural landscape, and the landscape of the future, may well be a rather shallow reflection of recent history, myth and assumed traditions. It is one of the intentions of this volume to underline the need for archaeologists to make positive contributions to the implementation of the Convention.

Archaeological perspectives on the European Landscape Convention

Archaeologists were instrumental in some of the Convention's early stages, such as the 1992 World Heritage definition of cultural landscapes and the 1995 Council of Europe Recommendation 95/9 on Cultural Landscape Areas (Council of Europe, 1995). There is also a great deal of groundbreaking work at national and local level, much of which is described in other papers in this volume. For this paper, England can stand as an example of some of this work: the English approach to countryside character that has influenced the drafting of the Convention (Countryside Commission 1996; 1998; Countryside Agency 1999; Fairclough *et al.* 1999) and the *Atlas of Rural Settlement* (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000).

For archaeological heritage management, the key point of the Convention is that it calls for coverage of all the landscape, irrespective of whether it is rural, peri-urban or urban, or regardless of any particular perceived quality. This moves decisively away from the aesthetic of special landscapes, and from the process of selecting and trying to preserve only special areas, to the exclusion and detriment of the remainder of the landscape (Priore forthcoming; Déjeant-Pons this volume).

In doing this, the Convention, published in 2000, had moved far from its original intentions. In the early stages of discussions about a convention, the objective was still the old-fashioned approach of choosing the best parts of the landscape on one set of criteria or the other (usually concerned with appearance or beauty), and creating a list or register. It is not very clear where a selective approach would have left the rest of the landscape, but it is likely that the majority of the cultural landscape, beyond the special areas, would have been neglected and undervalued, and subject to little protection or consideration. It can perhaps be predicted that the criteria would have privileged those areas closest to their supposed 'natural origin', or with relatively little obvious modern change. Time-depth and the contribution of long-term change to landscape would have been ignored, as perhaps would certain types of human change (industrial landscapes would perhaps have been largely excluded, for example).

Similar ideas and subsequent changing perspectives were evident in the early 1990s, in the first drafts of the document that became the 1995 Council of Europe Recommendation 95/9. The original aim was to define and list 'Heritage Landscape Sites' rather than to promote the whole landscape (Darvill 1993). The final version of the Recommendation (Council of Europe 2000) moved some way from this as far as the concept of 'cultural landscape areas', but still not quite as comprehensively as was needed, which the *European Landscape Convention* has remedied.

Recent history in the UK demonstrates why this broadening of view was necessary. The response of the conservation movement after 1945 to wholesale landscape and farming change was a withdrawal into relatively small protected areas such as National Parks or so-called Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty. This approach tried to preserve untouched reserves, but it failed because the reserves were too small, cut off from their contexts, they were no longer purely natural ecosystems and could not be managed properly in isolation from their surroundings.

Even successfully preserved resources lost their context as the rest of the world changed regardless, usually with too little control or care. The ecological reservoirs in the wider countryside from which reserves could be replenished were impoverished, common species of wildlife declined into rarity and the reserves lost the meaning that their surroundings once provided. The selective approach began to fail in popular consciousness as people began to demand that the landscapes on their doorsteps were also looked after, as well as the special areas that they might rarely or never visit. Archaeologists in Britain at least will recognise these failings from the way in which the wider archaeological resource has been eroded while attention and resources have been devoted to protecting a relatively small number of special monuments (Fairclough 1999).

Fig. 3.1: A modern 'landscape of leisure', taking advantage of natural features but created by, and for, specific human activities, Trentio, Italy. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

In contrast, the recent direction of archaeological heritage management (now supported by the Convention) has been to move away from only a concern for the individual monument. The move was, first, to an interest in the setting of monuments (and their 'archaeological landscape'), and then further to the wider landscape and its historical and archaeological dimension, whether site-based, monument oriented or not. This latter approach is closely aligned to the *European Landscape Convention's* position, with its emphasis on the concept of varying landscape character, formed from the sum of all its different attributes, including the cultural heritage.

This is a particularly noteworthy aspect of the Convention's view of landscape. Its very simple definition says that 'landscape' is:

> an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors

It is particularly significant how this definition, through its use of words like 'action' and 'human factors', emphasises the historical and cultural dimension of landscape. The definition is a pointer to the vast literature of landscape archaeology that emphasises the role of human agencies, of people and of historic social and economic processes, in the past in creating today's landscape.

This simple definition is amplified by a reminder that cultural landscape exists everywhere. The Convention expects any country adopting it to agree that the cultural landscape covers the 'entire territory' of the country. The concept therefore relates not just to natural and rural areas (to which previous ecological or aesthetic perspectives tended to gravitate) but also to urban and peri-urban areas, and thus to areas more obviously (but not necessarily more extensively) altered by human activities. Cultural landscape includes not just land but water, whether inland or marine; most important, given the predilection for much past landscape conservation to focus on beautiful places, or supposed untouched 'wilderness', the Convention aims to include everyday or degraded landscapes, as well as any that might be considered outstanding.

The simplicity of the definition is one its strengths, allowing it to be fully inclusive and all embracing. It also means, however, that there is a risk that without dialogues between different disciplines (without sharing

understandings and appreciation) the simplicity could disguise very difference approaches. It would be possible for each discipline or interest group or country to implement the Convention while thinking of landscape only in natural or aesthetic terms without noticing how narrow that view might be. Most of the national delegates at the first Council of Europe Conference for Signatory States came from environmental and nature conservation agencies or government departments; there was very little representation of any historic or archaeological perspectives. Another role for EAC members is thus to ensure that the importance to landscape of archaeological heritage is made clear to decision-makers.

Reference to archaeology in the *European Landscape Convention* may not be explicit. The Convention deliberately abstains from singling out any one of the many disciplines that need to work together if landscape is to be comprehensively understood and valued. But archaeology can and should be read as being implicitly included in the Convention. The text shows that the preservation of landscapes also includes archaeology as one of many aspects of landscape. Not only visible archaeological remains are part of today's landscape, but also those which are buried in the sub-soil or in deposits of coastal and inland waters. These offer a great opportunity for preserving the archaeological heritage. Again, the Convention shows the fundamental need to approach the cultural landscape in a multi-disciplinary way.

It is of course today's landscape that is under scrutiny in the Convention, and the definition therefore points us towards the crucial issues of survival, visibility and protection. It asks us to identify which of the many aspects of the material culture of the past few thousand years still survive in the current landscape not just recognisably to experts but influentially to everyone's perception, thus creating landscape's *cultural* rather than *natural* dimension. It raises the question of how the past can be protected within today's landscape and passed on to future generations. This is why the Convention should form a major component of the EAC's concerns for archaeological heritage management. Protecting the landscape will of course also protect archaeological sites, but the main value of the Convention for archaeological heritage managers is that it gives opportunities to protect all aspects of the environment's material heritage.

Defining the archaeological significance of cultural landscape, and discovering and explaining long-term change, continuity and time-depth, is an archaeological task. Archaeologists understand the present landscape through longer-term narratives and explanations. Such a time-based understanding is essential for the sustainable protection, management and planning of cultural landscapes (see Castro *et al.* this volume) and the participation of archaeologists is necessary if the archaeology of cultural landscape is to be part of European landscape policies. A discussion about the cultural landscape needs also to be a discussion about how new developments in landscape conservation could make a difference to the preservation and protection of the archaeological heritage itself. Indeed, archaeologists' use of a current landscape perspective might change aspects of the practice of archaeology itself. This volume demonstrates that the Convention's implementation will be flawed without the involvement of archaeologists.

Archaeologists of course are only some of the people who perceive landscapes. Almost everyone, consciously or not, creates a perception of their own landscape, from an infinite number of perspectives, not least the personal. This is an area again in which archaeologists have long had an interest, and the boundaries between archaeology and anthropology for example are fluid (Ucko & Layton 1999, with its suggestive subtitle 'Shaping your landscape'). It is, however, a difficult, contested, area to which archaeology has perhaps not fully adapted, and Gwyn, and Lee (this volume), describe two possible ways to approach this central aspect of cultural landscape.

A second significant aspect of the definition that needs to be recognised and acted upon lies in the phrase 'perceived by people'. This refers to a human, subjective response to landscape and to the archaeological heritage that it contains. 'Landscape' is not 'environment': it exists only when imagined, or interpreted – only when value, significance and meaning is attached to sites, deposits, buildings, hedges or any other built or human-modified aspect of the environment. This underlines the importance of an archaeological approach, because of archaeologists' familiarity with model-building and narrative-creation, and because of our long experience of using material remains to tell stories about the past, and through it, about the present. Therefore archaeologists can contribute to the Convention's desire to foster public awareness, interest and concern, and to establish and promote best practice through a European Landscape Prize awarded to local authorities.

Finally, the goal of this volume is to ensure that the archaeological heritage in the landscape is dealt with properly by sustainable planning and development. The clear policies and approaches to landscape protection and conservation that the Convention calls for, and the general principles that it promotes to secure the protection, sustainable management and sound landuse planning of landscape, need to be archaeologically sensitive. All of this will help to define and reinforce local identity, one of the Convention's starting points. The archaeological heritage should be at the centre of this endeavour as well.

The archaeology of cultural landscape

Landscape issues have been a concern of European and international policy for some time, but with a relatively low level of recognition of archaeological and historical

depth. Landscape's main champions to date have been nature conservationists, geographers and landscape architects (eg IUCN 1994; ICOMOS-Deutschland 1993; Ryszkowki *et al.* 1996; Bennett 1996; Hajós 1999). The European Environment Agency's guidance for collecting data for the agency's state of the environment report for the Environment Ministers' conference in Kiev in May 2003, for example, has nothing about archaeology in its chapter on Landscape or throughout the report (Wright & Russel 2001).

The idea of landscape as being primarily natural has therefore dominated important documents such as the *Council of Europe's Pan-European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy* (Sofia October 1995). For example, the IUCN defines many categories of Protected Areas ranging from areas maintained as strict wilderness to managed resource areas (IUCN 1994). Almost all of the categories focus more or less exclusively on natural ecosystems, some of the principal exceptions being areas such as the very un-natural cultural landscapes of England's National Parks (fig.3.2). The IUCN's overall definition is of areas 'especially dedicated to the protection of biological diversity, and of natural and *associated* cultural resources': the italics are mine, to emphasise the secondary role that culture plays in the definition. None of the category definitions mention cultural or archaeological resources explicitly.

Some Protected Areas aim to preserve cultural as well as natural attributes, but most are focussed solely on natural value, sometimes to the extent of excluding modern human intrusion (eg biosphere reserves) and implicitly at least of excluding recognition of past human intrusion and landuse. The guiding principle of some Protected Areas philosophy and heritage management is to prevent further human change, and they often reject or overlook the impact of past human change.

For example, statements such as 'England was once a well forested country, but now only 7% of the land surface is covered by woodland and forest' (FNNP 1993) are not uncommon. Note particularly the use of the word 'once': more than a thousand years has passed in most of England (and over 3000 years in some regions) since there was extensive forest, and in that long period the landscape has been re-written and re-made several times (eg Roberts & Wrathmell 2000). Yet still there is a feeling among ecologists and landscape architects that woodland loss is a recent phenomenon that can easily be reversed (fig.3.3). It is as if the current distribution and extent of woodland is regarded as some sort of natural accident - the product of carelessness rather than the result of centuries conscious decisions, of human agency not environmental determinant (Fairclough 1999).

Thinking about cultural landscape needs to be much more sophisticated. Understanding will only really be enhanced when we persuade everyone to recognise that there is a longer and broader history of the landscape than that revealed by historical documents of the past few centuries. Additionally, the landscape may look natural but everywhere it has been crudely or subtly modified by people; whilst we could explain human action in the past purely in terms of environmental factors it is just as often the case that people have imposed cultural patterns on nature. Bio-diversity as we now value it in Europe is as much a cultural as a natural phenomenon, either by action or calculated passivity. Most of all, archaeology should try to persuade people that all of this culture in the landscape can often still be seen or appreciated and that it survives in many different ways as material culture, as heritage, the results of human environmental change to be enjoyed and learnt from.

Indeed, surely we need to celebrate change as perhaps the most dominant attribute and characteristic of the cultural landscape. In some ways, it can be argued that human change is more important in forming 'landscape' than geology or climate. Geology and climate determine the environment, but they do not determine 'landscape' because landscape is a social and cultural construct that uses things created in the past in physical terms but is created in the present in terms of ideas and perceptions. The concept of nature itself is of course a culturally constructed idea, existing only in opposition to (agri)culture. There have been many commendable attempts to bring together cultural (ie archaeological or historical) and natural (ie ecological and aesthetic) approaches to landscape, for example, in the discipline of landscape ecology, but they remain rare (eg Selman 1994).

In other words, it is crucial that the role of people in the past – that is, of people and the passage of time – is not under-valued during implementation of the European Landscape Convention. This is precisely what archaeologists can add to the concept of landscape.

Furthermore, landscape cannot only be viewed in terms of the tensions between nature and culture, as if the more natural a landscape was, the more important it is. Landscape is by definition a human, cultural creation. It is born of past human modification of the environment, and more importantly it only becomes landscape rather than environment when filtered through human perception and interpretation. Landscape is about viewpoints, in all senses of the word. Archaeology of the site-based kind tends to focus almost exclusively on the cultural, as does landscape archaeology. This rather misses an important point, that cultural landscape enshrines both culture and nature, not just in terms of understanding, but also in terms of valuing.

Nor should age really be seen as a pre-condition for a landscape to be considered significant, any more then 'natural-ness'. 'Natural' landscapes, undamaged and ancient landscapes, or 'wilderness' areas are not inherently

Fig.3.2: An early 20th-century reservoir, Langdendale, Derbyshire, itself now valued for its landscape quality, has truncated earlier landscapes. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

more important than the recently changed or the new. It is perfectly feasible for very recent, highly modified and altered landscapes to be valuable and historically significant, such as, some of the large-scale prairies of post-1950 farming and other CAP-inspired agricultural intensification; even, perhaps, the landscape associated with collectivisation in Eastern Europe, 19th-century industrial landscapes and 20th-century military landscapes.

The creation of such landscapes cannot only be seen in terms of loss, although they do cause loss of course, particularly of archaeological remains and deposits (which is why landscape change needs to be monitored, managed and mitigated as does any other form of development). They can also be seen as gains: as the creation of new landscape types, as new layers in the archaeological cultural sequence. They will be studied by future archaeologists, but they can also be studied by archaeologists now: the social processes and anthropology of the later 20th century can be as legitimate a subject for archaeologists as the Bronze Age (and not necessarily more alien or opaque). All these are issues that lie at the heart of the landscape debate and that sit comfortably with the practice of archaeology and the interests of archaeologists – an acceptance and interest in change and its mechanisms; a reluctance to romanticise the past or to denigrate recent change, a wish to study and to learn (and then often to destroy through excavation) as well as to protect.

All of this should put archaeologists, who work daily with the concept of landscape change (usually in the past, but not necessarily only in a distant past, and perhaps even in the future, as Castro *et al.* paper, this volume, shows), firmly in the centre of the cultural landscape debate and moves to mange the landscape sustainably. More to the point, it promotes a mindset that regards cultural landscape management as being mainly about managing rather than preventing change (Fairclough forthcoming 2002). This volume considers variations on this theme.

Unfortunately, the word landscape is in danger of becoming devalued to the point of worthlessness. It is in almost constant use, both within archaeology and far-and-wide. We read in newspapers of the 'political landscape' within which politicians work, or we talk about the emotional landscape of a novel or a film. Without being distracted into a discussion about definition, we can recognise the fact that the word now carries a bewildering array of meanings even in archaeological circles, where it

is sometimes used merely to denote that an excavation or survey project covers a large area of ground. Use of the term nearly always involves a broadening of perspective, from a place or site to its wider context. 'Landscape archaeology' is usually related to settlement archaeology, to locate settlements in a broader economic, topographic and conceptual frame.

Broadly speaking, archaeologists approach landscape in two different ways, and both are represented in this volume. Both are necessary and appropriate to the interests of archaeologists, and on their own neither allow us to do our full job; the most successful archaeological landscape work combines both. It is important also to state that neither approach replaces any other archaeological approaches – we are looking here at extending the traditional sphere of archaeology, and complementing site-based work or the study of below ground deposits.

The first of the two approaches that archaeology takes at landscape scale is landscape history, which seeks to understand the countryside in some former state, for example by recreating the Bronze Age landscape, or (a more recent development of archaeology) through earlier peoples' eyes and minds, the cosmography of landscape. The second approach regards the landscape, that is today's countryside (or townscape) seen through people's perceptions, as being a single complex artefact with a long history of change and continuity. It uses archaeological methods and perceptions to understand it. It is this approach that is closest to the idea of cultural landscape, and which fits easily into a number of fields within which archaeologists are operating as the concept of '*applied archaeology*' (or socially-embedded' archaeology) finds wider acceptance. These include heritage conservation (archaeological or cultural resources management) and countryside and ecological management (each with their own analysis of the landscape). Community involvement in the local construction of what is significant (using the historic landscape to help build and sustain local community identity and sense of place) is also very important, and an area in which archaeologists would helpfully work more.

The increasing number of connections between these fields is one of the things that have brought cultural landscape onto the political and social agenda in the last 10 years or so.

The concept of cultural landscape brings together both natural and human factors and reflects the interactions between people and their natural environment over space and time. This includes the living component of the landscape, whether through biodiversity and semi-natural features, or whether through 'cultural' issues such as human life-styles, land-using processes, custom and tradition. Living features such as hedges forming part of historic field systems, or the distributions and pattern of ancient managed woodland, or even the patterns of land cover at regional scale, are all part of our evidence for landscape history, just as much as other archaeological resource, such as buried deposits or artefacts, or any other source of evidence such a historic maps. Understanding cultural landscape also needs an appreciation of the historic processes that have shaped the environment.

Fig. 3.3: An English rural landscape at Edlingham, Northumberland; the extent of woodland is largely the product of human factors such as the presence of hedgerows, settlements and railway embankments rather than environmentally determined. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

Cultural landscape is where archaeology, geography, history and anthropology can join together and build links to biodiversity, ecology and artistic/associative views of the world. One of the challenges is to bring together all these professions and the interests they represent, because land owners and managers see only a single landscape when they are planning their activities, and it is felt necessary to ensure that their monolithic view encompasses archaeology as an integral part of the cultural landscape. The *European Landscape Convention* offers one avenue for doing this, the views and practice of archaeologists offers another.

What archaeologists think about cultural landscape

There have been many recent conferences to explore both archaeological landscape and cultural landscape, and sessions on landscape have become *de rigeur* at most big archaeological conferences. Of particular relevance to the present volume, however, have been some recent sessions at The European Association of Archaeologists (EAA) conferences. In particular, two seminars have been organised by Jan-Kees Hagers and myself as part of the programme of EAA conferences in Bournemouth (1999) and Lisbon (2000). These had the specific aim of bringing together archaeologists in several different European countries to compare and contrast their approaches and experiences when dealing with the landscape as defined in the *European Landscape Convention*. Versions of some of the papers given then are included in the present volume.

A third session at the 2001 EAA conference in Esslingen organised by Dirk Meier and Charles Mount went on to present ongoing work. This included notably work within and related to the Culture 2000 programme 'European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape' (see Kraut, Nord Paullson, Darlington, and Ermischer this volume, www.pcl-eu.de) and InterReg EU projects such as LANCEWAD (Vollmer *et al.* 2001).

The Bournemouth and Lisbon conferences highlighted particularly the role of archaeologists in landscape work. Their efforts to preserve the cultural landscape exist with varying degrees of conviction and clarity in different parts of Europe. It is widely accepted that visible remains and even buried archaeological remains from the past give historical depth to the present landscape and thus contribute to its quality and identity. In some quarters, however, the most important concept that the whole landscape itself is an archaeological monument that needs to be treated as such, is only just starting to become widespread.

The two EAA conferences attempted to broaden debate. They were very well attended, with participants from about 20 different European countries, although with a northern European bias. There was lively discussion, which the EAC now hopes to take forward on a much broader front. In taking up the issues laid out in this volume, the EAC can realistically enlarge the debate about the archaeology of the landscape to the whole of Europe. Wider debate will encourage archaeology's integration into the heritage management of the landscape as a whole, the closer engagement of archaeology with cultural landscape issues, and the flowering of co-operation with workers in the field from other disciplines. EAC's decision to promote the issue of cultural landscape as a legitimate, indeed potentially central, aspect of archaeology and archaeological heritage management is particularly timely in the first year of the promotion of the *European Landscape Convention*.

Given that the modern landscape almost everywhere in Europe is humanly-created or has been greatly modified, archaeologists as stated earlier could play a fundamental role in the identification, characterisation and protection of the cultural landscape. The historic dimension of the landscape should motivate us to accept this role and to promote the appreciation, and management of the present landscape rather than only seeking to understand the past. To play this role it is necessary to broaden our view from the material and the physical to include the 'living' component.

Here lies a fundamental problem: the long-standing institutional separation between disciplines which exists in many European countries, perhaps symbolised in heritage management terms by the range of government departments and ministries across which responsibility for the landscape's use and management are spread. Whilst archaeology is usually the business of the culture ministry, the historic geographical elements of landscape, the 'living' components of the landscape mentioned earlier, are usually treated separately as part of the 'green environment' and are included in agriculture, nature conservation and landscape policies. These values are not claimed as part of the archaeological resource by archaeologists in every country, although the reasons for different perspectives are varied and sometimes country-specific.

It seems, therefore, necessary not only to broaden our view from the material to the living, but also to promote actively the integration of disciplines and the necessity for discipline-crossing, integrated approaches and policies. Recent work in the Netherlands (Hallewas and Beusekom this volume) is a perfect example of such an integrating process, which actually started at the beginning of the 1970s, but never found enough support to be implemented until very recently.

One of the main aims of this volume is to discuss, think and talk about what archaeologists can bring to the study, appreciation and protection of the cultural landscape particularly now that the Convention has placed it so strongly on the political and social agenda. Approaches differ considerably from country to country. This is partly

as a result of the different ways in which archaeology as a discipline has evolved across Europe. But it is often also a consequence of national policies, existing legislation and division of responsibilities.

Fundamental questions come to mind, such as whether archaeologists should approach the landscape holistically and integrally, regarding the whole landscape as an archaeological resource, keeping in mind that this could lead to conflicts of interests with other disciplines. Or, alternatively, whether archaeologists should define their responsibility as being restricted to conventionally archaeological aspects of the landscape heritage and to the process of studying, describing and assessing the landscape – to produce the best possible information and knowledge for others to use to take decisions about the landscape's future?

It can be claimed that because archaeologists are familiar with long-term change, and understand why the landscape has evolved as it has, they are among the best placed people to take a lead role in shaping the landscape of tomorrow. There is of course a further advantage for a growing and maturing profession in expanding its field of activity, especially into an area that will embed us more firmly into society.

Another basic aim of this volume is to establish a higher level of debate amongst archaeologists about cultural landscape. It is therefore perhaps useful to end this introductory paper by showing both the diversity and the unanimity of opinion among the profession, as an introduction to the present volume, which after all is designed to illuminate what Europe's archaeologists are already thinking and doing about the cultural landscape.

The following picture is drawn mainly from wide-ranging and lively discussions that took place during Cultural Landscapes sessions at the Bournemouth and Lisbon conferences of the European Association of Archaeologists in 1999 and 2000. It reflects some of the real and growing interest within the profession in landscape, building on, but travelling far beyond, traditional methods of landscape archaeology. It is organised in a simple set of headings; particularly noticeable is that much of the discussion took identification and understanding for granted and moved on to more difficult areas such as intangible character, and ways to achieve the sustainable management of something which is ever-changing and dynamic. It will be obvious how many of the issues raised are central concerns and aspirations of the *European Landscape Convention*.

Emotions and feelings: the intangible and the personal

There was a lot of agreement among archaeologists at the sessions that the idea of cultural landscape provides an opportunity, indeed a requirement, to take into account a range of intangible attributes. In particular, the strong personal element of the people living in the area should be central, even though this might be difficult to measure. Peoples' feelings about the landscape and its meaning, their emotional involvement in it, are as important in their way as the material aspects of a landscape. Such attitudes tend not to be part of the European archaeological landscape tradition in the same way as they are in indigenous contexts in Australia or Canada, for example, but they surely have a part to play.

It is widely felt by archaeologists that current landscape methodologies are largely 'top-down', if not bureaucratic, automatic or mechanistic, and concerned with scientific and expert views. There is a feeling that the appropriate archaeological methodologies for doing this have not yet been worked out. Visits to cultural landscapes (eg those put forward for World Heritage designation) can reveal the very strong, emotive and intuitive feelings that the people living in these places have for their landscape character. The term *lieu de memoire* perhaps encapsulates this, as does the word 'place': that an essential ingredient of a cultural landscape must be the strong *personal* element, something that cannot be measured.

Awareness and participation of the community

Arising from this is the need to involve people in defining the cultural aspects of landscape. This includes both those who live in an area and those who may visit or in some other way have a stake in its future. People should be given easy opportunities to contribute to information and understanding about an area of cultural landscape. Archaeologists should consider how their information could best be used to assist local communities in being aware of the character of their community's landscape, and to raise awareness of its history. This is the starting point to finding ways to look after it and to enhance it. Examples of how to do this include initiatives designed to identify local distinctiveness, for example through participation in spatial planning. Webpage-maps and free literature (for example, distributed house by house) could start discussion.

Discussions across the profession have begun to identify a few emerging examples of good – if immature – practice in these areas. Landscape character assessment work in Britain is beginning to involve local community consultation. This is in its infancy however, and still rather top-down, with experts defining character first and only then asking for local views. But it is starting to create a connection between what the 'experts' are trying to do and what communities are seeking for their own landscapes. In the Netherlands, where national government cannot implement spatial plans without consulting local people, inventorisation in Zuid-Holland was always checked locally in the community. This participation was mutual, and allowed everybody to come up with proposals.

Wider consultation and participation is starting to become more common, for example with World Heritage

management plans and nominations, as on Hadrian's Wall in England, where the process of participation brought a large number of farming, community and land-owning groups together constructively for almost the first time. Drawing up designations such as National Parks is also becoming more participatory, for example in Sciente, in Italy, where talking to everybody from the community was tremendously successful, and created real participation. Much progress is also being made in Wales, as David Gwyn's paper, in this volume, shows.

Participation is of course two-way. It can also help with informing local communities about the character of their landscapes, for example in relation to other areas. With initiatives like local distinctiveness, what sort of impressions are we getting back to communities, we should be raising awareness of the importance of the character of that community and in that way perhaps enhancing ways of looking after it.

In England, Historic Landscape Characterisation on GIS (Fairclough, Lambrick & Hopkins this volume) will shortly be available on local authority web-sites, linked to parish areas, and will be available to schools and libraries through this relatively new route. It is also hoped that another English project, in the Peak District, will experiment with creating a series of community areas with information about the character of each community published in a format that encourages local debate and re-writing. Lancashire HLC is finding a new audience through a European project (www.pcl-eu.de; see Darlington this volume).

The Ename project in Flanders every four months distributes 20,000 free copies of a journal to local houses, thus involving local people in the project. There is also a trend in the Netherlands to investigate what people are thinking about nature and cultural history. This adds questions on cultural issues to public opinion surveys, to allow people to indicate what they think is important. This is followed by multi-criteria analysis of how different experts valued different aspects of cultural history.

Archaeological sites in the landscape and their management

The ways in which the identification and management of the cultural landscape and of historic landscape character will help to protect individual sites and monuments (the conventional archaeological resource) needs further thought and research.

In Cornwall, in south-west England, the first historic landscape characterisation map produced is now used routinely in development control (Herring 1998). It is used for example to assess the routes of proposed pipelines, or the location of housing development. This helps to place such developments into areas of least potential or poor preservation, or to steer development into areas where landscape changes would have a less detrimental impact. It is also starting to be used as a predictive tool, explaining where archaeological sites are most likely to exist, and what their level of survival might be.

Part of environmental conservation and management

A landscape-scale approach will allow archaeological resource management to be more readily seen as an integral part of overall, mainstream environmental concerns. As a planning instrument, for example, it will make relations with other disciplines stronger. Ecologists, landscape architects and planners for example, will be given something that they find easier to understand than 'hard' archaeology and something that is more familiar territory to them. In England, historic landscape characterisation was consciously invented to use the same language as landscape architects.

What kind of instruments and methods should be developed? At present, a practical process of conservation has not yet been defined. We know how to analyse the landscape, but we are less sure of what to do with the results apart from using them in the spatial planning process. Modern Geographic Information Systems make generalised time depth analysis possible, but detailed information is sometimes still missing, and it is not clear how detailed information can be communicated to planners and others. It is also important that the limits of the information are understood by users, and that landscape assessments are kept up to date. The maps always contain a certain state of archaeological knowledge, for example, which must affect how they are used.

Evaluation

Understanding a cultural landscape archaeologically, and defining its historic landscape character, requires many approaches: deciding what makes up landscape character, understanding the history of an area, appreciating the full extent of its archaeology, plotting the distribution of its elements and defining the types of elements. Is this enough? Can such an understanding, constantly changing as it will, be fed directly into decisions about land management and landuse? Or is another stage needed, one of evaluation, to single out particular areas for special treatment, or to guide priorities for limited resources of expertise and funds?

There are deep differences of opinion among practitioners on this topic, within individual countries as well as across Europe. Some intentionally do not do evaluations and others do very explicitly. The timing and purpose of evaluation also varies. Practice in some countries, whether through political pressure or professional choice, requires explicit advance evaluation of areas of landscape (eg The Netherlands or Denmark); elsewhere (for example the character-based approach in England) there is more emphasis on differentiating value only when assessing the impact of specific proposed

change. A country's approach will inevitably reflect the nationally-specific character of its planning and conservation laws, and the stage that the development of ideas and resources has reached.

The European Landscape Convention is again relevant here. It clearly promotes the conservation of all areas of landscape, the everyday and ordinary as well as the special, on the democratic grounds that all landscape is the setting for someone's life, and on the environmental grounds that sustainable landuse is a necessary goal everywhere. This would argue against evaluating landscapes in order to pick out special areas for special treatment compared to the rest, yet of course there are still real issues of priorities and targets for conservation. From some perspectives certain areas can be seen to be more important archaeologically than others. Nevertheless, selective tools are primitive and the European Landscape Convention holds out the hope of more sophisticated, inclusive and wider-ranging approaches.

Characterisation work also defines types of landscape and their distribution. This needs to be able to help with pro-active planning. A first need here is to inform those working in planning departments who are not archaeologists. There is one strong school of thought that insists that planners should be given answers – told what is more valuable and what its quality's are and what can we do with it. Conversely, however, historic landscape character exists everywhere, differentiating one area from another. It is perhaps its total character that deserves protection, and an equally strong school of thought argues therefore that planners, for example, should merely be afforded access to better information about the whole resource, and given help in using it wisely as and when it is needed, rather than being 'spoon-fed' simplified selections of the 'best' bits.

In Britain, a distinction is now being drawn, notably in landscape assessment and elsewhere in general archaeological resource management, between characterisation and decision making. It is at the later stage that evaluation seems most useful, but this is evaluation against a whole range of attributes, using information from existing characterisation studies to measure character against impact everywhere not just in pre-selected areas. Such contributions by archaeologists to decision making needs to be not just at the development control stage but earlier, when strategic spatial plans are being drawn up for democratic acceptance by communities and government.

Using the historic landscape characterisation map in Cornwall has changed the way the planners think. Fewer of them now want selected areas defined by red lines as being important; instead they recognise that everything has some value and significance to a community or to individuals, and that it is that significance everywhere that needs consideration. The map opened planners' eyes to why local distinctiveness was of value, provided them with a framework to support more detailed local conservation work and provided a further level of explanation about the character of an area. It therefore has a role in raising awareness, among people as well as planners. Previously official-planning maps had shown small parts of the Cornish landscape as being culturally important, but had ignored the rest, including areas where most people lived. Changing this round really changes peoples' minds and ideas.

Living landscape

There is a particular difficulty with protecting or preserving landscape character where the activities that created it – notably traditional types of farming and landuse – no longer take place. Is it possible to find surrogate or proxy forms of land management to maintain aspects of character and appearance when a landscape cannot be managed 'naturally'? When the economy of communities collapse, their landscape will change. Can we justify managing a landscape artificially, for example by European subsidy, to maintain it as it is?

More broadly, it is felt by most archaeologists that the idea of cultural landscape has the concept of change (in the future as well as in the past) at its very heart. The idea that there are any landscapes where time has stood still, and history has ended, is very strange. No landscape, whether urban or rural, has stopped its evolution, no landscape is relict: it is all continuing and ongoing; even if the environment (the physical part of 'landscape') is static, people's reactions to it will change (see the recent interest in preserving Cold War landscapes such as the Berlin Wall fragments or the cruise missile shelters at USAF Greenham Common). The decision that each generation, including archaeologists has to make, is what will happen next to the landscape, and how it will be managed or changed.

What archaeologists can bring to the debate about the future of landscapes is their understanding of what has happened in the past and why a landscape is as it is. This is a necessary prelude to thinking about how it should evolve in future. Issues such as long-term settlement location, or the complex sequence of successive landscape re-planning through time that are often still legible in the field, or the rate of change, are all accessible through the analysis of time-depth by landscape characterisation. This provides a first step towards looking at where change might be directed in the future. Many archaeologists suggest that this way of looking at landscape could help us with the move from a reactive to a proactive system of planning. It also makes it easier to bring together in debate all of the different groups who want to manage the landscape.

There was general agreement at the conferences that the most difficult challenge to protecting cultural landscape lie in the disappearance of the established

Fig.3.4: Alentejo, Portugal, this 'natural' landscape has in fact been a highly managed wood-pasture over many centuries. It may be changed entirely in character by the disappearance of traditional farming methods, or by flooding behind dams. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

management activities that created landscape character (eg Szpanowski this volume). Can 'traditional' activity be replaced by 'artificial' management, for example by putting sheep onto a hill to graze it, not for the economic value but to have nice pretty hills, or by continuing to coppice ancient woodland long after the commercial justification has gone. When do we accept that historic processes have stopped, and recognise that we need to create a new environment with new character? In some parts of Europe (including southern France, Spain and Portugal, the western Isles of Scotland, upland England and Wales) the problem of disappearing farming is, or threatens, to change the character of cultural landscape severely (fig3.4). One answer is for European farming subsidies to be targeted on environmental benefits not production (eg *Ty Gofal* in Wales, the Stewardship agri-environmental programmes in England, Foley this volume), but for how long and to what degree? Do farmers want that sort of job? How will culture, as opposed to landscape, alter? Perhaps we can keep abandoned landscapes but not the communities to protect them.

In short, why are we trying to preserve landscape? Is it for the biodiversity and ecology (if so, what happens to the most humanly changed areas such as industrial landscapes?), is it to keep those areas that are thought by the majority to be beautiful? Are we trying to protect and maintain the 'traditional' activities that made the current landscape what it is (in which case, what happens to earlier, older layers of the landscape)? Or are we concerned to protect the end product of those activities, in which case we can use artificial means to do this – grass cutting by hand not by sheep. What happens when agriculture and farming in a region stops? How do we use the understanding of the cultural landscape that we are starting to gain as archaeologists? What are we going to do next?

This volume does not of course answer any of these questions, but through case studies and accounts of experience it offers a few signposts for the first part of the journey, signposts to follow with the map of the *European Landscape Convention* in our hand.

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Part 2

Understanding and characterising the cultural landscape

Wood-pasture, Alentjo, Portugal; a landscape sustained by ancient management techniques. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

4: The Archaeological Landscapes Project: an approach to cultural landscapes in Ireland

Gabriel Cooney, Tom Condit & Emmet Byrnes

Abstract: *This paper discusses the work of the Archaeological Landscapes Project in Ireland. The background to the project is provided, a definition of archaeological landscapes as used by the project is given and the compilation of a preliminary national inventory of archaeological landscapes is discussed. The results of consultation with the planning authorities and archaeological profession are presented. A key debate regarding approaches to cultural landscapes is the compatibility of a whole landscape approach (historic landscape characterisation) with the recognition of specific landscapes (here termed archaeological landscapes). The case for considering these as complementary approaches is made.*

Introduction

It has long been recognised that because the character of landscape change in Ireland has historically been gradual and piecemeal, when compared with other countries in northern and western Europe, the island is still exceptionally rich in visible, upstanding archaeological sites and monuments. The number of pre-AD 1700 sites and monuments in the Republic of Ireland has been estimated to be at least 150,000 (Condit 1991, p.111). These and other archaeological remains are an essential but non-renewable component of Irish culture, heritage and the landscape. The archaeological resource is inter-linked with other resources that fall under the term 'cultural heritage', such as history, folklore, mythology and place-name studies (eg Aalen *et al.* 1997; Johnson 1998, pp.13-4). There is a need to adopt a landscape approach to the management and sustainability of the archaeological resource in the rural landscape. From a cultural heritage perspective this approach is seen internationally as representing best practice (eg Birnbaum 1994). At a time of major landscape change in Ireland (eg Aalen *et al.* 1997; Breathnach & Cawley 1997) it is essential to conceptualise the management of the archaeological resource in landscape terms.

This paper provides an overview of the work and approach of the Archaeological Landscapes Project in Ireland over the last five years, with examples from County Limerick (fig.4.1). It should be noted at the outset that the project is the result of an initiative by the authors as individuals. The Archaeological Landscapes Project developed from a pilot study commissioned by the Heritage Council (Republic of Ireland) in 1998 (Cooney *et al.* 1998). The basis of the project is that the recognition of archaeological landscapes should be an important aspect of any proactive management strategy for the Irish archaeological resource. The project should be set against the background of the impact of current and future landscape change on the archaeological resource. Since the mid-1990s there has been a dramatic increase in archaeological activity (eg Bennett 2000) because of the economic boom in the 1990s (the 'Celtic Tiger' effect) and European Union and state-led development, currently through the National Development Plan, 2000-2006. The project should also be seen in the context of the Heritage Council's (1999; 2000)

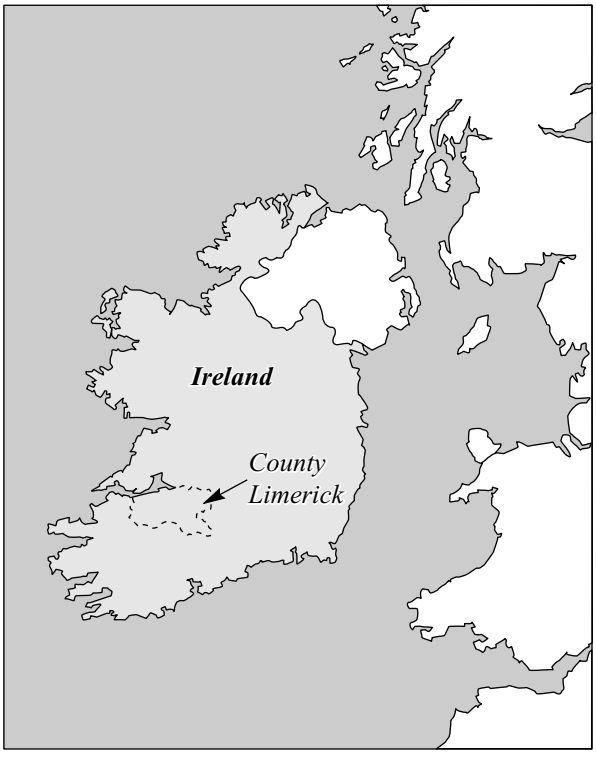

Fig.4.1: Map of Ireland showing the outline of County Limerick.

objectives of collecting data on which to base policies and priorities for Ireland's landscape as a whole.

The project had a number of key objectives. These included a decision on the definition of an 'archaeological landscape' to be applied in Ireland. It was also seen as critical that there should be discussion of the relevance and complementarity of Historic Landscape Characterisation as developed in Britain (eg Fairclough 1999a; Fairclough *et al.* 1999; Dyson Bruce *et al.* 1999) to the recognition of archaeological landscapes. The project also included an assessment of the extent to which archaeological landscapes are protected under existing designations in Ireland. Central to the project was the compilation of a preliminary national inventory of archaeological landscapes using agreed criteria in a GIS-based (ArcView) format. With a view to assessing the openness of stake-holders to a landscape approach to the archaeological resource, consultation was carried out with statutory bodies, planning authorities, the archaeological profession, development agencies and landowners. This focused on the professional planning and archaeological communities. Case studies of selected archaeological landscapes were carried out to illustrate vulnerabilities and potential for formulation of management strategies. In the draft final report submitted to the Heritage Council (Cooney *et al.* 2001) recommendations regarding the implementation of the report were made.

The vision of the project

After much discussion and review of quantitative approaches to the definition of archaeological landscapes (Cooney *et al.* 1998), it was decided to adopt a qualitative definition of what an archaeological landscape is, accepting all the methodological and practical issues that this poses. Appreciating the particular character and development of the Irish cultural landscape, the following definition of an archaeological landscape was developed. It should be noted that instead of the term 'archaeological landscapes', terms such as 'cultural landscapes' or 'historic landscapes' could just as easily be used (eg Birnbaum 1994; Cleere 1995; Darvill 1996; see broader discussion in Knapp & Ashmore 1999).

An archaeological landscape is defined as a place or area where:

- The scale and integrity of the archaeological evidence is such that it represents the history of human activities within a defined locality either for a particular, identified period in the past or over many different periods.
- Significance is much more than just the recognition of a concentration of features or sites. It is the inter-connections between the components, whether they are chronological, spatial, social or functional, which provide the essential character of an archaeological landscape. The space between visible monuments is fundamental to an understanding of their importance and their integrity.
- Each archaeological landscape has its own individual, intrinsic value. The comparisons and contrasts between landscapes can highlight both the historic dynamism and the present diversity of the landscape.

In understanding archaeological landscapes the Archaeological Landscapes Project recognised that:

- The entire archaeological/historic landscape comprises the totality of the terrain and all evidence for human settlement.
- There are significant concentrations of monuments (and individual monuments) whose landscape context, associations and characteristics distinguish them as places of particular cultural, historic and archaeological value.
- These are important and intrinsic components of cultural identity.
- They form a resource, which requires investigation, preservation, curation, awareness and management for present and future generations.

The current position regarding the recognition of archaeological landscapes

In the Republic of Ireland at present it could be said that there is a somewhat uncoordinated policy of designation of parts of the landscape as having a particular environmental or cultural value. There is a wide range of forms of statutory and non-statutory environmental designations (Hickie 1996). An important recent initiative was The Wildlife (Amendment) Act, 2000, which put in place a system whereby Natural Heritage Areas are given a statutory basis. It is clear that a more integrated management approach to the landscape that recognises the value of the whole landscape is required (Heritage Council 2000). However, it should also be recognised that particular approaches are required to achieve specific management and conservation objectives, such as the protection and sustainable management of archaeological landscapes. There are only a small number of archaeological landscapes as defined above currently recognised that are in state or local authority care, or that enjoy some form of additional legislative protection or designation.

Currently in Ireland protection is afforded to the archaeological heritage under the National Monuments Acts 1930-1994 and the Planning and Development Act 2000. Under the National Monuments Act more than 130,000 sites have been included in the statutory Record of Monuments and Places (RMP), developed from the non-statutory Sites and Monuments (SMR). There are a number of categories of protection under the Act, up to the level of state ownership or guardianship. The responsibilities of the Minister of Arts, Heritage, Gaeltacht and the Islands for the protection of sites and monuments under the Act are carried out by the National Monuments and Architectural Protection Division (NMAPD) of Dúchas – the Heritage Service (DAHGI 1999). The responsibilities of the NMAPD include the compilation of a national inventory of archaeological sites, monuments and areas within the State.

It is responsible for the maintenance and public presentation of the results of these surveys in the RMP. As a generalisation each monument, or complex of adjacent monuments, is treated as a discrete element of the landscape, to be documented, listed and protected in isolation. There is a provision for the designation of 'archaeological areas' under the Act, but the potential for a landscape approach under the National Monuments Act seems more likely to arise from the definition of 'monument' in the legislation which clearly makes provision for the protection of groups of structures and their setting and amenities.

Power and responsibilities with regard to the protection of the archaeological heritage are also afforded to local government under the terms of the National Monuments Acts, as well as the Planning and Development Act 2000. The obligation to regulate development via the planning and development system is their most important role. Hence much of the day to day protection of the archaeological heritage is done via the planning system, administered by the local authorities. The provision of archaeological advice by the NMAPD to planning/local authorities and other bodies in respect of planning and development matters is based on the RMP. Under the heading of architectural heritage in the Planning and Development Act 2000 planning authorities are required to include a record of protected structures in development plans (DAHGI/DELG 2001). It is also now common practice in county development plans (reviewed on a five year basis) to use the relevant county RMP and urban archaeological surveys as an indicator of sites and areas of archaeological and historical interest that warrant consideration for protection. A survey of current development plans indicates that while planning authorities commonly have designations to protect landscapes of scenic or amenity value they rarely specifically refer to the historic or archaeological character of such landscapes. It is, however, open to planning authorities to set an objective in their development plans for the preservation of particular archaeological or historic landscapes. One specific mechanism that could be utilised in such a process is the 'landscape conservation area' (Section 204 of the 2000 Act).

At present there are five established national parks in the Republic of Ireland. The parks conform to strict international criteria laid down by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN Category II – National Park). The essential purpose of these criteria is to conserve natural plant and animal communities and scenic landscapes that are both extensive and of national importance. National Parks in the Republic of Ireland account for just 0.5% of the national territory and the individual parks themselves are small by European standards (Hickie 1996, p.410). The parks are viewed by the national authorities as wildscapes, rather than the result of millennia of human action on the landscape. Again archaeological sites in such parks tended to be considered in isolation. The concept of National Historic Parks has been discussed in the context of the Boyne Valley and the Blasket Islands (Blascaod Mór Historic Park Act 1989), but the courts struck down the legislation to establish the Blasket Islands Park.

The Rural Environmental Protection Scheme (REPS) derives from an EU regulation (2078/92) obliging member States to put in place an agri-environment programme. The scheme requires the preparation of five-year plans by which farmers agree to manage their farm in an environmentally friendly way (DAF 1996; 2000; O'Sullivan 1996). Protective measures (specifically Measure 7) are included in the scheme for features of archaeological and historical interest. A recent survey (Lafferty *et al.* 1999) showed that were 40,000 farmers approved for REPS. This represents about a quarter of all farms and over 30% of the land area of the country. Research to assess the effectiveness of the scheme in protecting archaeological monuments suggests that it has a broad beneficial impact (Sullivan, pers. comm.). However, there is also evidence that there is an increasing rate of destruction elsewhere in the rural landscape (O'Sullivan *et al.* 2001).

An international designation that could be regarded as designed for cultural heritage is inscription as a World Heritage Site under the terms of the World Heritage Convention (UNESCO 1972; 1976). Subscription to the Convention provides no direct legal backing or powers. Instead countries are required to make provision through their own legislative systems for resources and measures to identify, protect, conserve, present and rehabilitate sites. There are two World Heritage sites designated in the Republic of Ireland, the 'Archaeological Ensemble of the Bend of the Boyne', Co. Meath (inscribed in 1993; DAHGI 2001) and the 'Skellig Michael monastic complex', Co. Kerry (inscribed in 1996).

While there would be some problems incorporating a landscape approach into the management of the archaeological resource, the existing planning and regulatory system has considerable potential. It is a system already in place, based on what is potentially very strong and useful legislative framework. The Planning and Development Act 2000 could have a major impact on how a management system might operate. It offers potential for the incorporation of defined archaeological landscapes.

A preliminary national inventory of archaeological landscapes

A methodology was developed by the project to provide the framework for the identification and mapping of a preliminary national inventory of archaeological landscapes (NIAL). There are currently 223 landscapes included. The range and character of identified archaeological landscapes were analysed. It should be emphasised that due to the nature of the project the work done to date has been almost entirely map- and office-based. There was a limited amount of fieldwork carried out in a number of archaeological landscapes.

The philosophical and practical basis of the methodology employed in compiling the inventory was the

view that archaeological landscapes can be identified and evaluated on the basis of expert judgement. It has been suggested that cultural landscapes can be defined as:

> Specific parts of the landscape, formed by various combinations of human and natural agencies, which illustrate the evolution of human society, its settlement and character in time and space, and which have acquired socially recognised values at various territorial levels because of the presence of physical remains reflecting distinctive traditions, or depiction in literary or artistic works, or the fact that historic events took place there (Darvill 1996, p.175).

In applying this concept to the Irish landscape the definition given in the vision of the project (above) was developed. A set of criteria were used to distinguish archaeological landscapes from the general range, density and distribution of archaeological sites and monuments. The four criteria are:

- An element of physical or perceptual topographic definition or coherence
- A high density of visible monuments
- Group value, range and diversity of monuments
- Clearly distinguishable spatial linkages

The compilation of the inventory was based on a systematic map-based analysis of Ordnance Survey of Ireland 1:10,560 (paper) and 1:50,000 (digital) maps, which could be manipulated on a Geographical Information System (GIS, ArchView). The 1:10,560 maps provide clear, large-scale representation of field patterns, territorial and administrative boundaries and natural features. Additional information gained from the 1:50,000 maps include the current network of roads, the location of all rivers, streams, and woodland and some of the designated, protected environmental areas. The Record of Monuments and Places in paper form is depicted in 1:10,560 sheets, while in digital form it could also be overlain on the 1:50,000 sheets. Each site could be tagged with a range of identifiers. The compilation of the inventory was carried out on a county by county basis. This recognises the county as the primary administrative division in the planning and development process. A summary presentation of the archaeological landscapes recognised in one county, Limerick, are given as an example of the inventory (fig.4.2 and fig.4.3).

The preliminary, first draft nature of this inventory of archaeological landscapes in Ireland cannot be over-emphasised. However, the compilation of the inventory provides a new approach to the archaeological resource. The landscapes in the NIAL could be considered as the basis from which a proactive policy for the sustainable planning, management and protection of archaeological landscapes might be developed. The inventory also provides identifiable local and regional foci that can be used for creating awareness of the character and value of the archaeological heritage.

It should be stressed that the inventory as it has been compiled to date needs to be substantially tested and developed if it is going to be actively used. The boundaries and character of the landscapes would need to be checked through a programme of fieldwork. Landscape zones were identified which are either under-represented or absent from the NIAL (eg wetlands, islands, lakelands, maritime zone). Detailed further assessment is required to identify other landscapes that should be incorporated into the NIAL. The issue of the inclusion of post-1700 AD landscapes, such as demesnes (Reeves-Smyth 1997), also needs to be examined. A critical issue is the variation in the size of individual landscapes. There is an overall pattern of smaller landscapes in the eastern part of the country, where it could be argued they represent zones of preservation in what are the more intensively farmed areas of the country (Lafferty *et al.* 1999). By contrast in western parts of the country, as in counties Clare and Kerry, there are very large areas where layers of human activity from different periods in the past are still integral to the character and fabric of the modern landscape.

Given the number, range and scale of landscapes in the NIAL it would be unrealistic to suggest that they could all be managed in the same way. Indeed, each landscape will pose particular management problems. One issue that arises is where these landscapes can or should be ranked in terms of the level of their importance: as of international, national, regional or local significance. This might have implications for the level of protection and management that is considered suitable, and for the allocation of resources. The majority of archaeological landscapes are and will continue to be in private ownership. In this context the only sustainable strategy is what has been termed the living landscape approach (Meldon & Skehan 1996). This involves landowners, local communities, the planning authorities and government agencies, such as Dúchas, in building and promoting awareness of the value of maintaining the character of such landscapes.

The consultation process – perception and receptiveness

To assess the understanding of and receptiveness to the concept of archaeological landscapes in Ireland, a detailed questionnaire survey was carried out of the archaeological profession. This covered all the current members of the Irish Association of Professional Archaeologists, since re-titled as the Institute of Archaeologists of Ireland. There was a response rate of 43% (122) from the total of 280. A significant sample of the planners in planning authorities were also surveyed, there was a response rate of 40% (52) from the total of 131 planners surveyed in thirteen local authorities.

From this process it is clear that there is widespread acceptance of the concept of the entire Irish landscape as

County Number	*Name*	*Type*	*Principle period(s)*	*Area (sq. km)*	*Recorded monuments*	*Topographical definition*
LK001	Foynes-Ardagh-Rathkeale-Askeaton	D	Multi-period	143.02	503	Lowland
LK002	Adare	F	Medieval	3.95	11	Riverine
LK003	Ballycullane	C	Early Medieval	3.86	17	Intermediate slopes
LK004	Ballynahill	D	Early Medieval	16.76	80	Lowland
LK005	Luddenmore-Ballybricken	D	Multi-period	11.31	42	Intermediate slopes
LK006	Lough Gur	B	Early Prehistoric	45.62	265	Lakeland
LK007	Knockainey	C	Later Prehistoric	3.09	32	Hilltop
LK008	Kilteely	D	Multi-period	10.71	52	
LK009	The Morning Star River	A	Early Prehistoric	80.11	512	Riverine
LK010	Monasteragh	C	Medieval	1.79	19	Riverine
LK011	Abbey Owney and the Mulkear River	F	Medieval	12.89	34	Riverine
LK012	Killmallock	F	Medieval	17.3	35	Riverine
LK013	Slievereagh-Benyvoughella	B	Early Prehistoric	31.31	73	Intermediate slopes
LK014	Friarstown	D	Multi-period	4.19	20	Hilltop
TOTAL				*385.91*	*1695*	

Fig.4.2: An example of the inventory of archaeological landscape for County Limerick.

being of archaeological significance. It is widely accepted also that there is a need to recognise the value of designating and protecting particular areas defined as archaeological landscapes. On the other hand the perception of the archaeological resource as being about visible, individual monuments may be captured in the fact that a very significant majority of the planners who responded (75%) believe that in the course of their professional work a consideration of impacts on archaeological monuments is only necessary in a minority of cases. Over 90% of the archaeologists agreed that a register of archaeological landscapes would be a useful addition to the management system for the recognition and protection of the archaeological resource. However, the practical difficulties of defining the boundaries of archaeological landscapes were recognised as a problem. A significant majority (67%) of archaeologists were in favour of categorising archaeological landscapes as being of national, regional or local importance. Almost 75% of the planners agreed that archaeological landscapes could be easily integrated into county development plans.

There is acknowledgement that changes would be required in the National Monuments Acts for the effective designation and protection of archaeological landscapes. There are currently inadequate resources within the local authority planning system and Dúchas to manage and protect any archaeological landscapes that would be designated. The surveys also raised important issues about the current management of the archaeological resource. For example, a majority of planners and archaeologists agree that the present legislation is ineffective in the face of the current rate of development and landscape change. A large majority of the planners (70%) also felt that there was not sufficient information on the Record of Monuments and Places for the purposes of development control and future planning. The majority of planners did not know if the archaeological conditions attached to a planning permission were complied with.

Historic landscape characterisation

In the adoption of a landscape approach to the protection, management and planning of the archaeological resource two distinct trends can be identified in Ireland and internationally. The designation of archaeological landscapes as highlighted here is focused on the need to protect areas that have a special character, as suggested in the European Landscape Convention (Council of Europe

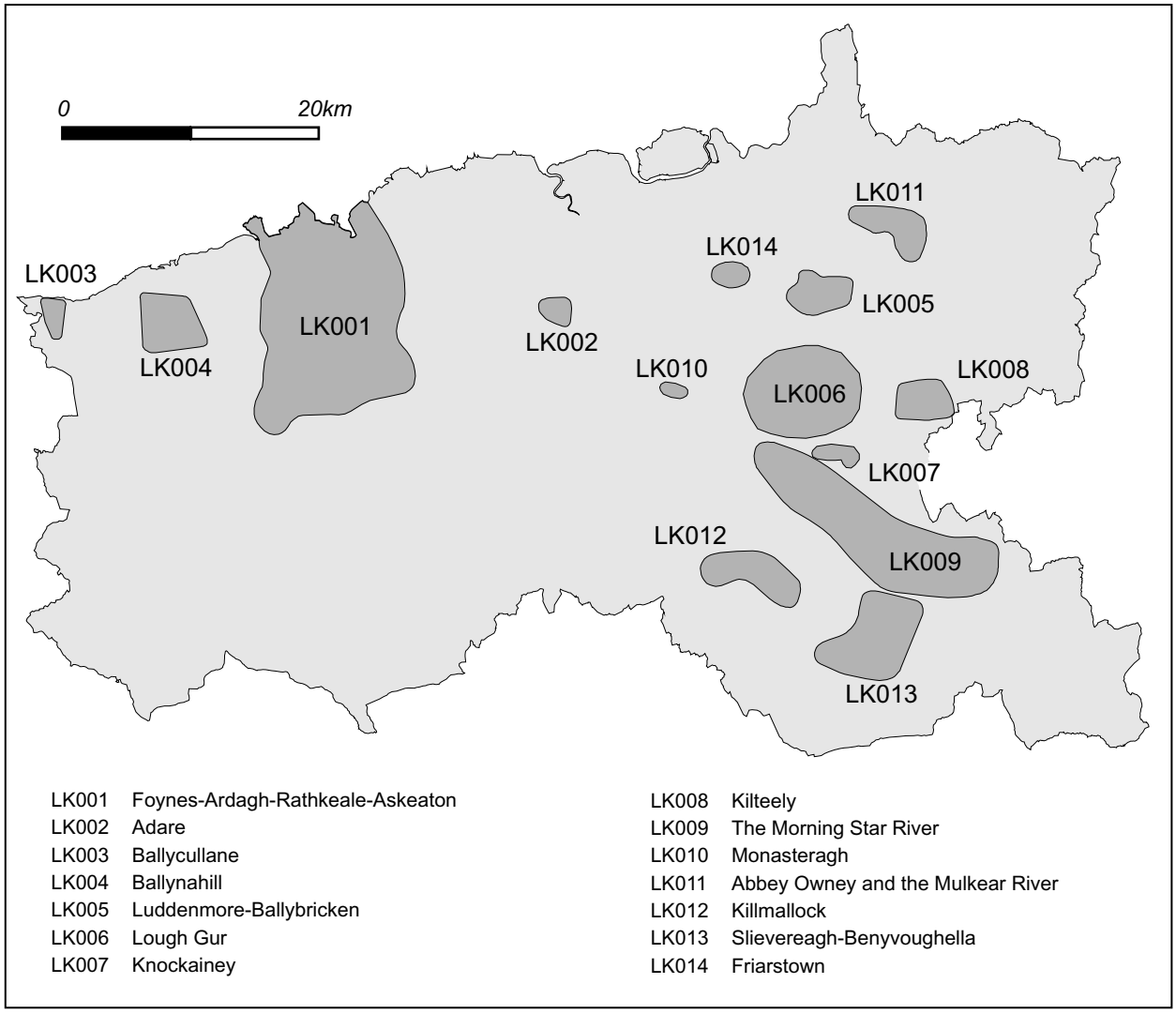

Fig.4.3: Location of Archaeological Landscapes in County Limerick.

2000; see Déjeant-Pons this volume; see also the European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage, Council of Europe 1992). But that Convention also stresses the need to evaluate, manage and plan the entire landscape. The process of landscape characterisation, analysing landscape elements and features to define the distinctive character of different areas, is central to the Heritage Council's view of an integrated landscape policy for the whole countryside (Heritage Council 2000). Incorporated into this approach is Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC), the analysis of the physical remains in the landscape that indicate how the landscape has been created by the long-term interaction of people and their environment (Fairclough 1999b).

The characterisation and designated landscape approaches have often been set in opposition. However, as the approach of the European Landscape Convention (Council of Europe 2000, see Explanatory Report: 27) demonstrates they should be regarded as complementary. This is also a central feature of the Heritage Council's landscape policy:

> A major benefit of landscape characterisation is that it covers the whole countryside, and not just special areas. The special areas benefit from being placed in this wider context, their role being seen as part and parcel of everyday life rather than isolated away from it. They are part of the landscape character and the special landscapes will always hold a particular place in our minds eye and our imaginations. The characterisation process allows us to link back to and further appreciate the significance and value of all landscapes (Heritage Council 2000, p.18).

In this context it is clearly important to consider the merits of characterisation, or more fully historic landscape characterisation – where the historic development of the entire landscape is considered – alongside the identification of defined archaeological landscapes. The development of historic landscape characterisation can be dated to the mid-1990s in Britain. It is very much linked to the development

and acceptance of landscape character assessment as an effective tool in landscape planning, management and conservation. The impetus for the application of a landscape characterisation approach in Ireland can be seen as coming from a number of initiatives. The Northern Ireland Landscape Character Assessment (DOENI 2000) was carried out as part of a long-term planning strategy for Northern Ireland. In the Northern Ireland Landscape Character Assessment there is no direct mention of the concept of historic landscape characteristic. At an international conference organised by the Heritage Council on policies and priorities for Ireland's Landscape (Heritage Council 1999), it was agreed that landscape characterisation should be tested in a pilot scheme to inform policy formulation. As a result the Heritage Council commissioned a Pilot Study on landscape characterisation in County Clare (ERM 2000). Historic landscape characterisation was carried out in County Clare (Herring & Houlston 2000) to inform the general pilot landscape characterisation of the county. The Heritage Council has identified the carrying out of a national landscape characterisation as the top priority in developing integrated landscape policies (Heritage Council 2000, p.234). The Department of the Environment and Local Government in the Republic has recently issued a Landscape and Landscape Assessment – Consultation Draft of Guideline for Planning Authorities (DELG 2000). These makes no direct reference to the concept of historic landscape characterisation.

The only presentation of historic landscape characterisation to date in Ireland has been as a part of the Pilot Study on landscape characterisation in County Clare (ERM 2000). It was used in the broader study as a GIS layer to guide the mapping of landscape types and areas. The principles and methodology applied were largely based in the Historic Landscaper Characterisation of Cornwall (Countryside Commission 1994; Herring 1998). As part of the Archaeological Landscapes Project landscape characterisation studies of two counties (the adjoining counties of Limerick and Clare) were carried out. This provided us with a profile of the historic landscape of each of these counties, in which we could then situate the archaeological landscapes recognised in the NIAL. Because of the particular historical processes that formed the Irish landscape we felt it would be useful to test an approach that, while reflecting existing practice in Britain, was significantly tailored for the Irish context. In the case of county Clare the results can be compared with the characterisation carried out as part of the pilot landscape characterisation of county Clare (see comments in Herring & Houlston 2000).

The methodology

The characterisation methodology that was utilised has been adapted from the methodologies used by English Heritage (eg Herring 1998: Fairclough 1999c) and Historic Scotland (Dyson Bruce *et al.* 1999; Dixon *et al.* 1999; Fairclough, Lambrick and Hopkins this volume), but significantly tailored for the Irish landscape. A number of variables affect the detail and level at which any characterisation methodology is applied, including the scale of pre-existing mapping sources, the availability of related archaeological and historical data, and probably most critically, the availability of resources – staff and time, and the requirements of the assessment. The methodology developed and applied here, as in Britain, aims:

- To characterise the present historic landscape
- To be an objective measure of historic character and ensure that no character types or historic process are regarded as more or less important than others
- To be simple and straightforward but to contain sufficient detail to allow for accurate characterisation
- To be capable of being applied consistently over a whole county, to be repeated elsewhere in Ireland and for its results to be independently verified.

A crucial difference is that whereas other studies have used individual land parcels as the primary mapping unit, it was decided as a central feature of the ALP methodology to test the usefulness of townland boundaries as the primary mapping unit. This was done in recognition of the particular features of the Irish physical and cultural landscape in which townlands form a central aspect of the historic character (eg McErlean 1983; Whelan 1993). In Ireland townlands are the smallest and oldest territorial divisions in rural areas. They are an essential element of the physical fabric of the rural landscape. Townlands are central to people's sense of place and identity. In contrast to the majority of field patterns which are relatively modern in origin their irregular boundaries are often associated with older, pre-18th century enclosure and have survived by being defined by either impressive walls or ditches (Aalen & Whelan 1997, pp.135-43).

Given the importance of patterns of enclosure and the form of field systems in historic landscape characterisation it was vital to recognise that there are major historical differences between the islands of Britain and Ireland (and between different parts of Ireland) in this regard. A baseline characterisation of Irish field patterns for the whole country has been produced by Flatrés (1957). This provides an important starting point for the detailed characterisation on a county basis. In terms of broad patterns there is clearly an overall contrast between the dominance of medium and large fields in Leinster and the east Munster and smaller fields including irregular, regular, ladder and strip varieties in Ulster, Connacht and west Munster (Flatrés 1957; Aalen 1978; RIA 1979, p.46 & 98).

Mapping of the historic character of the landscape is done in three stages, which involve mapping the data at increasingly coarser and more generalised, more subjective scale:

- *Historic Landscape Character Types* (comprised of Historic and Relict Landuse Components). The Historic

Landuse Component is the dominant historic landuse in the townland (pl.4.1). The type, narrative description and approximate date of development of each of 24 Historic Landuse Components were defined. In recognition of the value of the Historic Scotland/ RCAHMS methodology which includes a Relict Landuse Type alongside and within Current Landuse Types (Dyson Bruce *et al.* 1999), a Relict Landuse Component was also defined for each townland. This has the major advantage of increasing the time-depth or chronological detail of the historic character of different areas. The Relict Landuse Component reflects historical activities that have left significant physical traces in a townland. The assignation of a Relict Landuse Component was based on a categorisation of the RMP monument types into four broad chronologically based categories (pl.4.2).

- *Historic Landscape Character Zones*. Broader patterns of historic landscape characterisation are generated by identifying tracts of landscape that are defined principally by the same historical landuse and a similar relict landuse profile.
- *Historic Landscape Character Areas*. Mapping at this level allows for the presentation of a more coherent historical narrative at a county or regional level (pl.4.3). Various elements of landscape that have both topographic and landuse coherence are outlined. The range of historical landuses is linked together to present a more accurate picture of their past interaction. The full picture of the range of evidence for time-depth is examined and the local or regional significance of any particular historic landscape characterisation area is much more evident.

Three main mapping sources were used. The 1:10,560 (6 inches to the mile) Ordnance Survey maps and the editions used dated to 1918-24 in the case of Limerick and 1913-1918 in the case of Clare. These show townland boundaries, field patterns, designed or demensne landscapes, quarries, rough ground, woodland and other historic features (Reeves-Smyth 1983). Secondly the 1:50,000 Ordnance Survey (the Discovery Series) maps dating to the 1990s. These were used in a digital GIS format. Layers of information included basic topography, drainage, townland boundaries, settlement, nature reserves, afforestation (coniferous, deciduous and mixed woodland are distinguished), outlines of the 1:10,560 maps. Using the GIS each townland can be treated as a polygon and tagged with identifying/ discriminating labels for mapping purposes. Thirdly, the Record of Monuments and Places, dating from the 1980s and 1990s (eg Power 2000). This was used in both hardcopy and digital formats, used as a layer of information in the GIS. The Relict Landuse Components were derived from this data source.

In reviewing the work carried out by the Archaeological Landscapes Project we would argue that the definition of archaeological landscapes and the utilisation of historic landscape characterisation are complementary in furthering our ability to recognise and manage the diversity and richness of the archaeological resource (compare fig.4.2, pl.4.1, pl.4.2 and pl.4.3). The methodology for historic landscape characterisation has to be developed to take account of the particularity of the historic processes that have shaped the Irish landscape. We suggest that the townland as an administrative, historical, social and cultural unit needs to be seen as central to the application of landscape characterisation in an Irish context. In any programme of national landscape characterisation in Ireland a detailed historic landscape characterisation has to be carried out as an integral element if the characterisation is to recognise the reality of the character and time depth of the historic landscape.

Conclusions

Archaeological landscapes should be seen as part of an integrated, nested approach that recognises also the importance of individual sites and monuments and their landscape settings and the concept that the entire Irish landscape has a historic or archaeological character. This character is derived from the long-term and continued interaction between human activities and the physical settings in which they occur. The project has demonstrated that discrete archaeological landscapes can be defined. They need various forms of legal identification and protection to facilitate their management and preservation as part of Ireland's cultural resource. Archaeological landscapes should be an integral part of landscape policy at a national level. In the draft report submitted to the Heritage Council (Cooney *et al.* 2001) a number of recommendations were made in relation to legislation, the planning process and funding to indicate how archaeological landscapes could be actively incorporated into a management strategy for the archaeological resource in Ireland.

The archaeological landscapes in the NIAL should be seen as complementary and linked to both to the RMP and county historic landscape character maps. The RMP provides the primary tool in the planning system, particularly in development control, for assessing the impact of landuse change on the archaeological resource. Historic landscape characterisation is based on the principle that the entire landscape is of historic/archaeological interest. In this sense it will be useful in informing changes in perspective amongst the public, planners and other stakeholders involved in the planning and development process away from a focus on specific sites. The archaeological landscapes in the NIAL can be seen as special landscapes, which illustrate the dynamics of settlement in particular places. They also have a wider significance, because of the quality of survival of the archaeological evidence, in informing us about the whole of the Irish landscape.

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5: Historic landscapes in the Netherlands

Eduard van Beusekom

Abstract: *The Netherlands can be said, more than most European countries, to be a 'man-made' landscape, with almost half of its land area protected against, or reclaimed from, the sea. Cultural heritage plays an important part in the government's intensive and complex approach to physical planning, nature management and landscape planning. Two government plans, the 1990* Nature Policy Plan *and the 1992* Landscape Policy Plan, *set out the actions to be taken towards the study, preservation, and sustainable development of the cultural landscape and its historic values. This paper describes the strategies and goals born out of these plans, taking into account their 'top-down' approach, method, practical applications and successes.*

Introduction

The Netherlands includes extreme examples of man's shaping of the landscape (fig.5.1). In this low-lying country, nearly half the land area has been protected against, or reclaimed from, the sea. It is also one of the most densely populated countries in Europe and the pressure on its soils and landscapes is enormous. This explains why there is an intensive and increasingly complex government intervention in the fields of physical planning, recreation, nature management and landscape planning.

The cultural heritage is recognised as an important subject for nature and landscape planning, since it provides identity and quality to the landscape. This idea was laid down by the Minister for Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries in 1990 in the *Nature Policy Plan* (NBP), and in 1992 in the *Landscape Policy Plan: Nota Landschap* (Ministerie LNV 1992). Both plans propose actions for the study, preservation and sustainable development of the cultural landscape and its historic values. Nota Landschap describes among other things the need to develop a landscape monitoring system based on GIS-technology to monitor the results of our intentions for preservation and enhancement of the Dutch landscapes.

The framework for this so-called Meetnet Landschap ('measure-net landscape') was developed between 1995 and 1997. It provides a system for monitoring landscape character, quality and change using several thematic monitoring goals – *indicators* – concerning landscape: perception, cultural history, geomorphology, landscape ecology, spaciousness, landuse, urbanisation and landscape quality assessment (fig.5.2, 3 & 4) (van Beusekom & Kuypers 2001).

The 'cultural history' indicator focuses on historical geography. The other cultural historical disciplines, archaeology and the historical built environment, are the primary concern of the Minister for Culture and therefore could not at that time be fully included in the monitoring system. The main aim is the preservation of information sources relating to, and giving insights into the different evolutionary phases of the landscape so that it remains possible for future generations to experience the landscape. This preservation should be firmly embedded in future policy and management plans for physical planning, and monitoring the cultural heritage enables us to study the effectiveness of these efforts.

Within the context of the goal of 'cultural history' a strategy for the elaboration of these intentions and aims was therefore developed. This used a so-called top-down

Fig.5.1: The Netherlands.

Fig.5.2: Historic geographic values of (inter) national importance 'explored past', north Netherlands.

approach as a good method for defining and selecting historical geographic values of national interest. The approach was founded on the definition of landuse forces and elements and patterns:

Classes of landuse forces (historical geographical values)

The following classes were defined:

- agrarian (including all directly related sub-regional functions like settlements, infra-structure and religion)
- water management (supra-regional level)
- mining (supra-regional level)
- infra-structure (supra-regional level)
- defence
- recreation (especially castles and estates with landscape gardens and parks)
- other landuse forces of special historic interest.

Lists of patterns and elements representative of character were compiled for each of these classes.

The top-down approach

The cultural heritage top-down approach is a strategy for the identification and description of major historical geographical values of national importance. It is based on the idea that elements and patterns representative of the genesis and evolution of the Dutch landscape(s) should be inventoried and described, and their condition monitored. It was used to characterise the main driving force behind any given landscape, which in the Netherlands is usually the agrarian landuse force; where it could be argued that other forces were the main driver behind the landscape's evolution, these too were subjected to top-down analysis (see concluding remarks).

The top-down approach consisted of four phases:

1. The development of a method for evaluation and selection (*top-down method*).
2. The elaboration of criteria for defining classes of elements and patterns which are of national

importance (*top-down national*).
3. The inventorying, description, evaluation and selection of values of national importance (*top-down research*).
4. The development of a GIS for monitoring, evaluation and planning purposes (*CULTGIS*).

Phase 1: top-down method

The development and elaboration of a method for evaluation and selection was the main objective of this first phase. This was carried out in several consecutive steps of which the first consisted of defining general starting points. This resulted in the following points:

- The genesis and evolutionary processes that made the actual landscape are the basis for this thinking.
- It must be possible to control and check the theoretical basis of the approach.
- The method should, from a national point of view, concentrate on the most interesting and important classes of historical geographical values and their relationships.
- The research-work is undertaken from big to small (top-down).
- The method should study the possibilities for ranking based on differences in value.

Scale levels

The top-down approach should offer, relatively rapidly, knowledge about the most important categories of historical geographic elements and patterns in a given landscape. The advantage of this approach is that it allows a focus directly on the most important features. This is in sharp contrast with bottom-up approaches that often lead to an enormous number of details at all sorts of levels of interest and which need to be reduced in several consecutive time consuming steps of valuation and selection.

A further advantage is that the scale layered framework that results from this approach makes it possible to generate information on different levels of detail and for different purposes, such as policy making and plan development, monitoring and evaluation of values. This discussion led to the creation of scale-levels (fig.5.5).

The way in which these scale levels are described is in general terms comparable to the way plants are determined. From the higher or smaller scale levels down to the lower or larger scale levels, the description of categories of elements and patterns becomes increasingly detailed and specific, until finally the element itself is described at the lowest or largest scale level. At the level of 'attention areas' the description is based on the specific genesis and evolution of that area and the groups of elements and patterns representing its history.

Selection criteria

The main selection criterion in the process of zooming in is 'representativity (for character)': that is, the extent to which a category, or individual element can be taken as

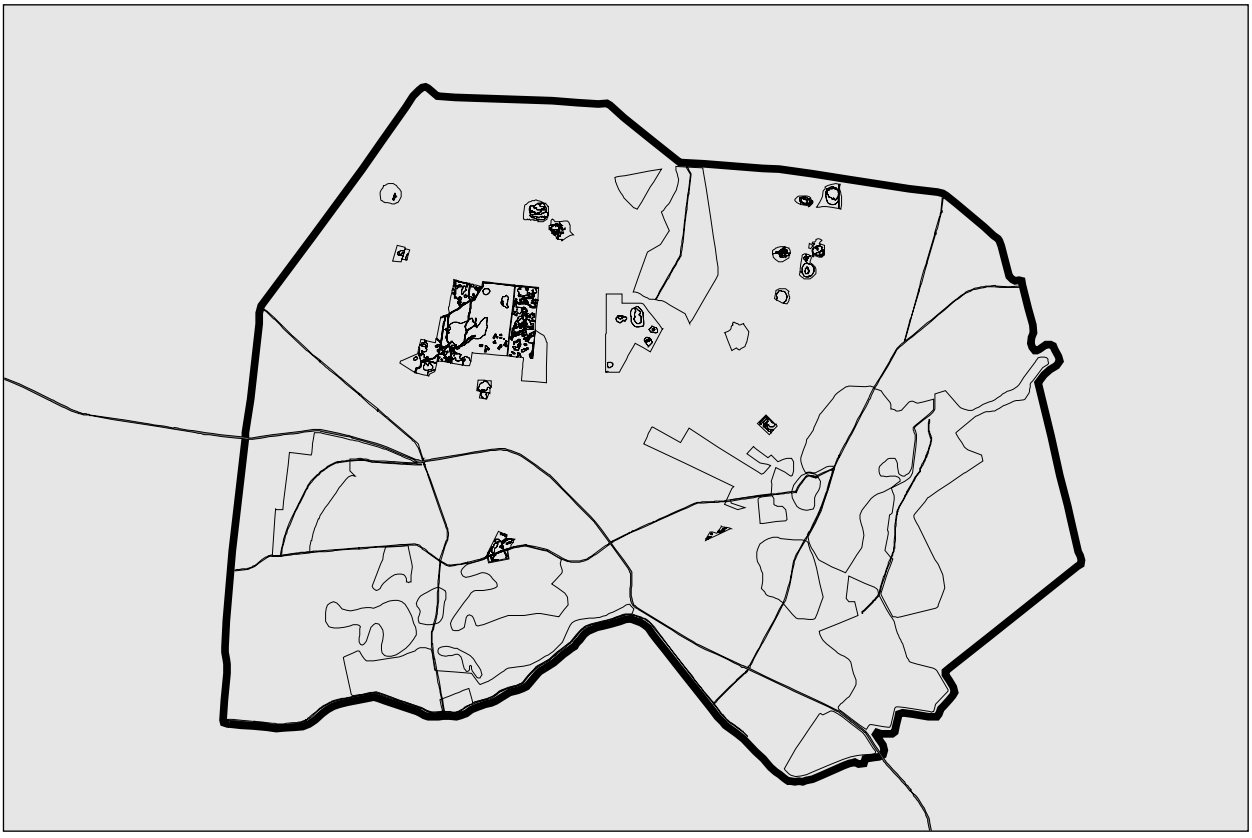

Fig. 5.3: Details of the Elp area, Drenthe province.

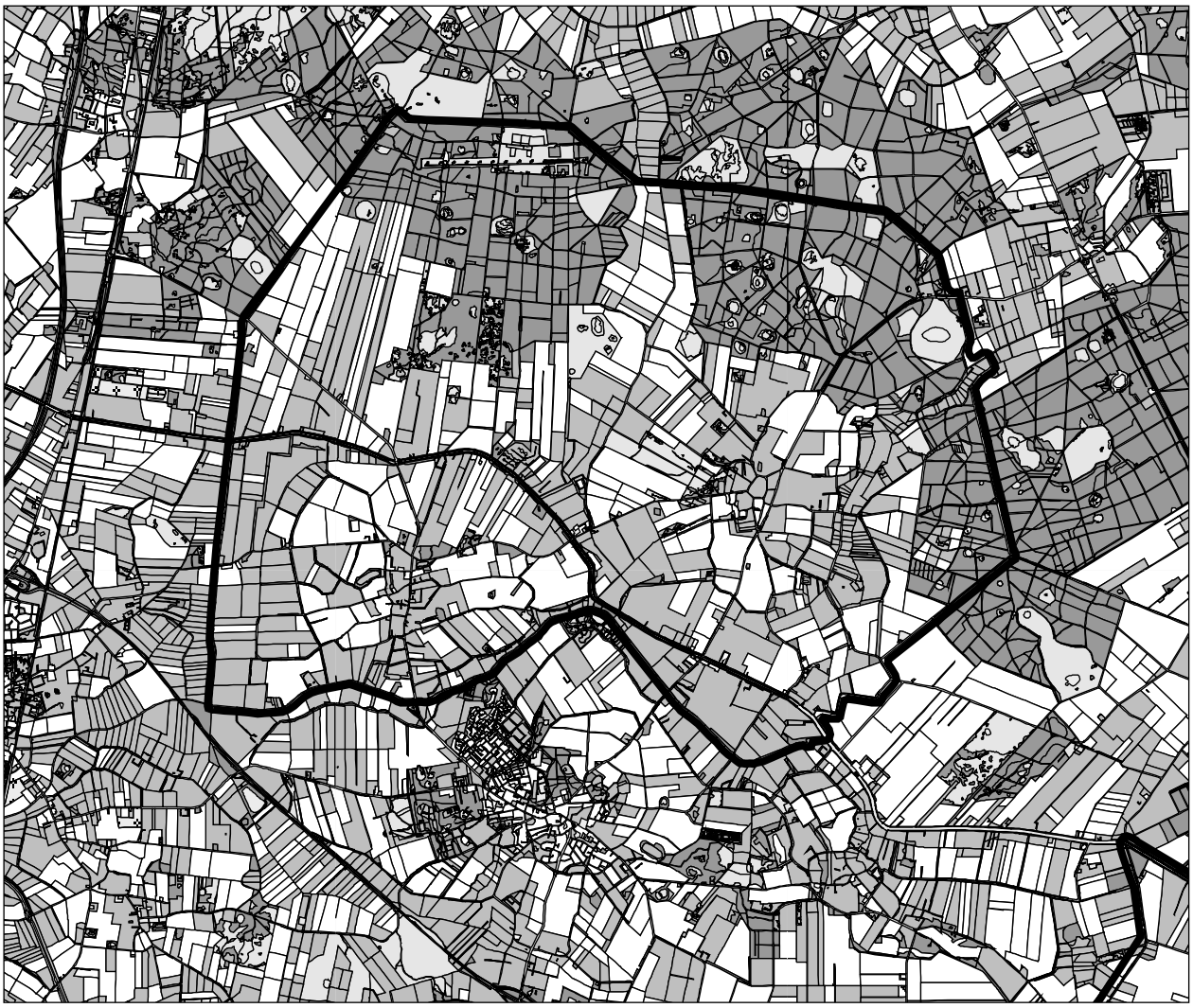

Fig.5.4: Topographical map of the Elp area, Drenthe province (Copyright TDN).

being representative the genesis and history of a landscape or larger area.

Following this primary selection, the selected elements have been ranked on the basis of a global evaluation including the criteria for 'uniqueness' and 'integrity'. The criterion 'integrity' can only be applied to those elements that still represent the original element or the developed concept behind it. The ranking of elements and patterns is done by using a multi-criteria analysis. The advantage of this method is that it becomes clear how different weighing factors influence the ranking.

Phase 2: top-down national

In this stage the selection of categories of elements and patterns of supra-regional interest was addressed. Again, the criterion for selection – representativity (of character) – for the genesis of the landscape – was taken as a starting point, but since the selection of all categories was already based on this criterion others needed to be defined as well. Therefore the following set was defined:

- The landscape element or pattern is a visual result of, or is related to, a remarkable event or moment in Dutch history, or is a metaphase of the Dutch cultural history (*lieu de mémoire*).
- The landscape element or pattern, or an ensemble of elements and patterns, is a visual geographic result of a characteristic historical development in a substantial part of a landscape type or the Netherlands as a whole. This result is unique and does not occur outside this landscape type or abroad.
- The element or pattern is representative of a historic geographical development in the landscape.

Of these criteria, the second proved to be the most important. In addition to this selection procedure it was necessary for political reasons to create an exception for those elements or patterns which are unique at the national level but which have no special significance at the supra-regional level.

Phase 3: top-down research

Having defined the method and the criteria for selection the investigation was started. The top-down approach was used especially in connection with agrarian landuse force because of its higher complexity compared to the

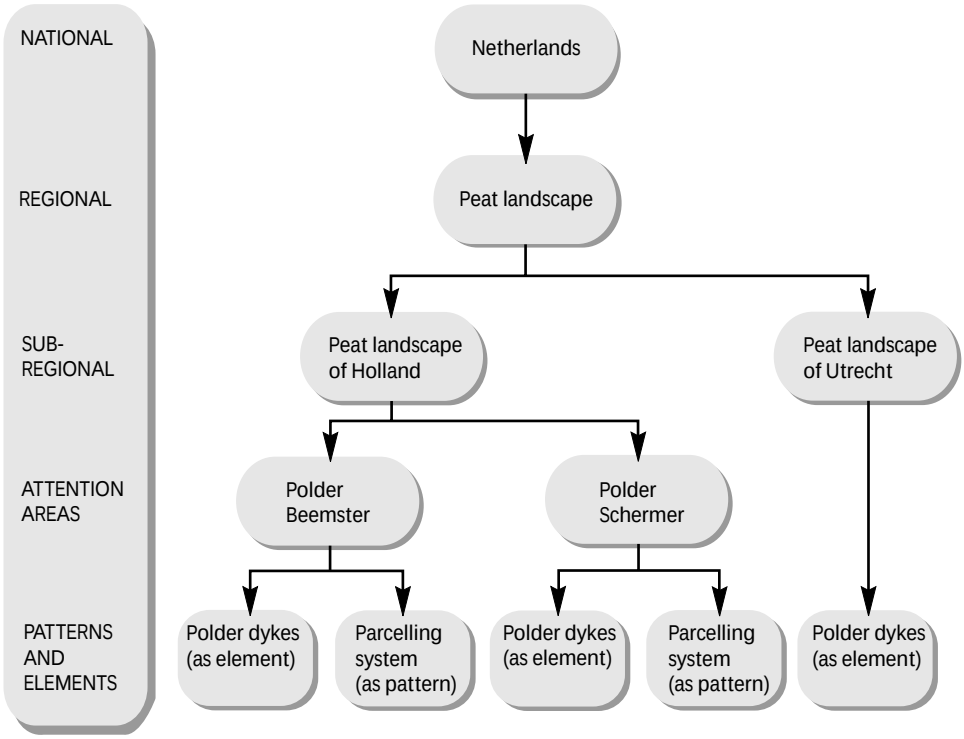

Fig.5.5: Scale-levels from a wetland example at Utrecht.

other classes and the enormous time the method took to describe it fully.

As a first step the historic development of the Dutch landscape was described from a national point of view on the basis of the classes of landuse forces defined during Phase 1. For example, the developments in the past 10,000 years in class 1 'Agrarian' were described where possible in relation to historic events, like the developments in the parcelling system and in the use of soils as a consequence of changes in the organisation of agrarian production.

Landscape types – the types and their situation – had already been defined in the *Landscape Policy Plan* in 1992. For each of these types, landuse force was described. So too were the categories of elements and patterns that are characteristic of each landuse force that formed specific landscape types over time. Elements and patterns were thus not discussed at the specific level but at the level of groups of elements and patterns in a given landscape type.

With the third step, special attention areas – *priority areas* – and the elements and patterns characteristic of each of them were defined and described on the basis of the following three criteria:

- Each attention area should be representative of the genesis and evolution of the landscape type as a whole in which the attention area is situated.
- Each attention area should have a relative high degree of integrity.
- Each attention area has to be characteristic of the agrarian history of a given landscape type, taking into account the inter-relationships between the elements and patterns of the agrarian landuse force and those from the other classes of landuse forces (water management, mining, infra-structure, defence and tourism).

This inventory resulted in a list of 71 attention areas, distributed over the full range of different Dutch landscape types (fig.5.6).

Phase 4: top-down GIS (CULTGIS)

During the inventory of historical geographical values, a data model was developed in Arcinfo/Arcview related to a database in Oracle. The geographic basis for allocation of the elements and patterns is the digital topographic map of the Netherlands on a scale of 1:10,000.

Concluding remarks

The top-down approach is especially successful for agrarian cultural landscapes and their related functions because of the complex relationships between the elements and patterns and their genesis. The other six landuse forces are easier to describe because there are few functional and geographical relationships between them and because they are mainly of supra-regional and national importance. As a result, definition and selection of elements and patterns representing these forces were not undertaken by using the top-down method but on the basis of the expertise of a special task group. The proposed lists of elements and patterns were then compared with earlier studies (eg Ministerie van CRM 1979; Haartsen *et al.* 1989) and discussed in a support group in several

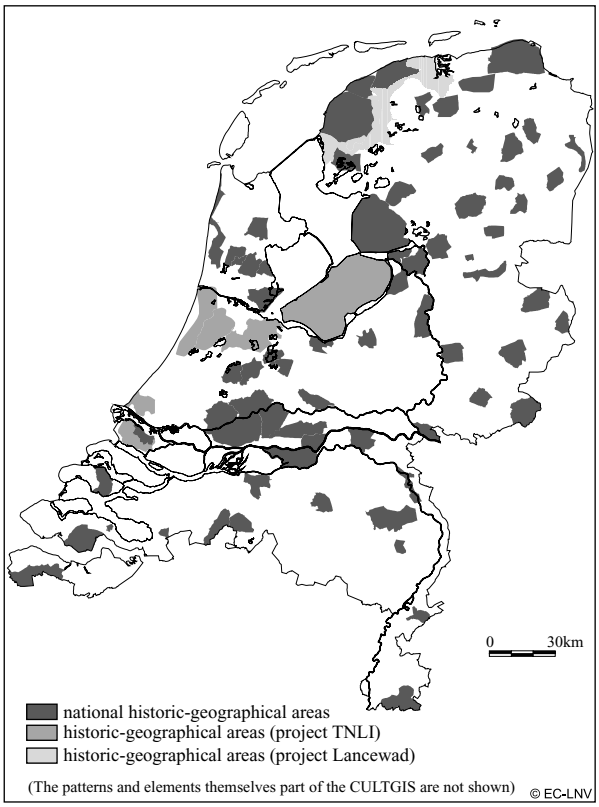

Fig.5.6: Historic-geographical patterns and elements of (inter) national value (landscape monitoring system, Belvedere).

meetings. As an example, the forts of several historic defence lines (eg Stelling van Amsterdam and Nieuwe Hollandse Waterlinie) were one of the elements chosen to represent the landuse force 'Defence'.

In certain areas, however, it can be argued that non-agrarian landuse forces were rather the main driver behind the genesis and evolution of a given landscape. As a consequence these functions also have to be dealt with by using the top-down approach separately (eg the estate landscape of the 's'Graveland region).

As mentioned before, the project focuses on historical geographical values (pl.5.1). Integration with data from the other cultural historic disciplines is still far from being realised. In 2001, however, a first step was taken giving hope for the future, when the CULTGIS-data resulting from the project were integrated with data on archaeology and historic buildings in the Belvedere Project (Netherlands State Government 1999; Hallewas, this volume). Belvedere is a joint project in which several Ministries – Culture, Agriculture, Town and Country Planning, Transport and Communications – co-operate with the primary objective of putting integrated cultural historic landscape on the agenda of environmental and urban planning (pl.5.2).

A second step towards a more integrated approach to the cultural historic landscape will be the digital integration or linking of CULTGIS with similar GIS based data structures for archaeology (ARCHIS) and historic buildings, and the opening of a helpdesk for information and communication. But this is part of another story.

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6: The Belvedere Project: an integrated approach in the Netherlands

Daan Hallewas

Abstract: *In the Netherlands cultural resource management is divided between the three disciplines of archaeology, historical geography and historical buildings. These disciplines have, in the past, to a large extent worked separately in the field of development and planning. Cultural identity and the quality of our surroundings, however, are becoming more and more prominent on the political and social agenda and it was recognised that more integration is necessary to allow cultural history to play an important role in future developments. The Belvedere memorandum is a primary vehicle for this integration. Its objective is to put integrated cultural historic landscape management onto the agenda of environmental and urban and rural planning. It has three main aspects: a policy document, an initial valuation of the cultural historic landscape and a preliminary attempt to define both the potential and the management needs of the cultural historic resource.*

Introduction

The Netherlands is one of the most densely populated areas of Europe, which in the near future will experience spatial transformation of its historic landscape on a very large scale. At the same time, cultural identity and the quality of our surroundings are becoming increasingly more prominent on the political and social agenda, and it has been recognised that the cultural historic landscape will make a major contribution to providing identity and quality in the landscape of the future. The Belvedere Project is designed to help us to realise that contribution.

The cultural historic landscape cannot be confined to the visible remains of past landuse. It must also be taken to include invisible remains of past archaeological landscapes and sites (in the Netherlands the majority by far of archaeological phenomena and remains), and the evidential aspect of the cultural landscape.

The study of the cultural historic landscape in the Netherlands is a field comprising three distinct disciplines: archaeology, historical geography and historical buildings. All three have their counterparts in cultural resource management. Archaeology is in general concerned with buried remains and visible monuments related to these, up to the late Middle Ages. Historical geography encompasses predominantly the visible remains of past landscapes in the present landscape, mainly dating back to the Middle Ages. Historical building work focuses on buildings, towns and their layout and their present and past environments which date from the Middle Ages up to the present. Although the overlap between these disciplines is very clear in practice, they have up to now largely worked separately.

The care of the cultural historic landscape in the Netherlands is seen as a shared responsibility for all levels of government, for private organisations and for citizens. At the national government level, it is mainly the Ministries of Culture, Agriculture, Town and Country Planning, and Transport and Communications that share responsibility. All these Ministries have co-operated in the Belvedere Project.

The Belvedere Memorandum

'Belvedere' has the primary objective of putting integrated cultural historic landscape management onto the agenda of environmental and urban and rural planning. The memorandum was finished and accepted by the Council of Ministers early in the summer of 1999, and shortly thereafter by Parliament (Nota Belvedere 1999; Hallewas 1999). The *Belvedere Memorandum* has three main aspects. Although it is predominantly a policy document, it also contains an initial valuation of the cultural historic landscape of the Netherlands, and is a preliminary attempt to define the potential of the cultural historic resource, and the priorities for its management.

Policy

The Memorandum concludes that the cultural historic landscape is of great importance for the future for a variety of reasons, including as a source of information and inspiration, for its ecological value, and because of its value for recreation and tourism. It thus needs protection. In many, or even most cases, however, sustainable preservation cannot be achieved by putting up fences. The focus is not so much on conservation in itself, as on the value of the cultural historic landscape for the

landscape of the future and thus on its role in planning and development. This will result in what can be called 'conservation through development' or managed development. To achieve this, cultural history needs to be embedded in urban and rural planning and development, and the memorandum elaborates this with regard to Dutch law, regulations, and planning procedures.

It also recognises that these objectives cannot be reached only by creating or adapting laws and procedures. A change of attitude among planners as well as cultural historians is also needed. Cultural historians, urban and rural planners and developers have to learn to understand each others objectives and methods, and to make a joint effort to use the cultural historic landscape's richness to guarantee the quality of the future landscape.

In an intensely man-made country such as the Netherlands, cultural historic values are present almost everywhere. Recognition of this led to the general Belvedere policy that cultural historic values must, as a universal rule, play a fully-fledged role in all planning procedures and development processes from their earliest stages. In the Netherlands the only legally binding level in urban and rural planning is that of the municipal zoning scheme. Municipalities will therefore be obliged to pay full attention to the cultural historic landscape. National and provincial policies also have to be incorporated, including of course policies for the cultural historic landscape. Apart from this, all other planning instruments, for example housing schemes at the national level, or environmental impact assessments, must take the cultural historic landscape fully into account.

Mapping and valuation

Whilst everywhere has cultural historic character of some sort, it is clear that some areas are much richer and are more highly valued than others. Belvedere concludes that a more concentrated and active policy than can be offered by general policies is needed to maintain and improve the cultural historic qualities of these special areas. National and provincial governments need to develop strategies for each in which conservation and reinforcement of cultural historic values is especially prominent and in which cultural historic values should normally prevail in future developments.

To achieve this objective, these specially valued areas needed to be defined. An integrated cultural historic valuation was not available, however, nor did sectorial valuations of archaeology, historical geography or historical buildings exist for the whole of the country. Many provincial authorities have recently started inventories and valuations of the cultural historic landscape, but it

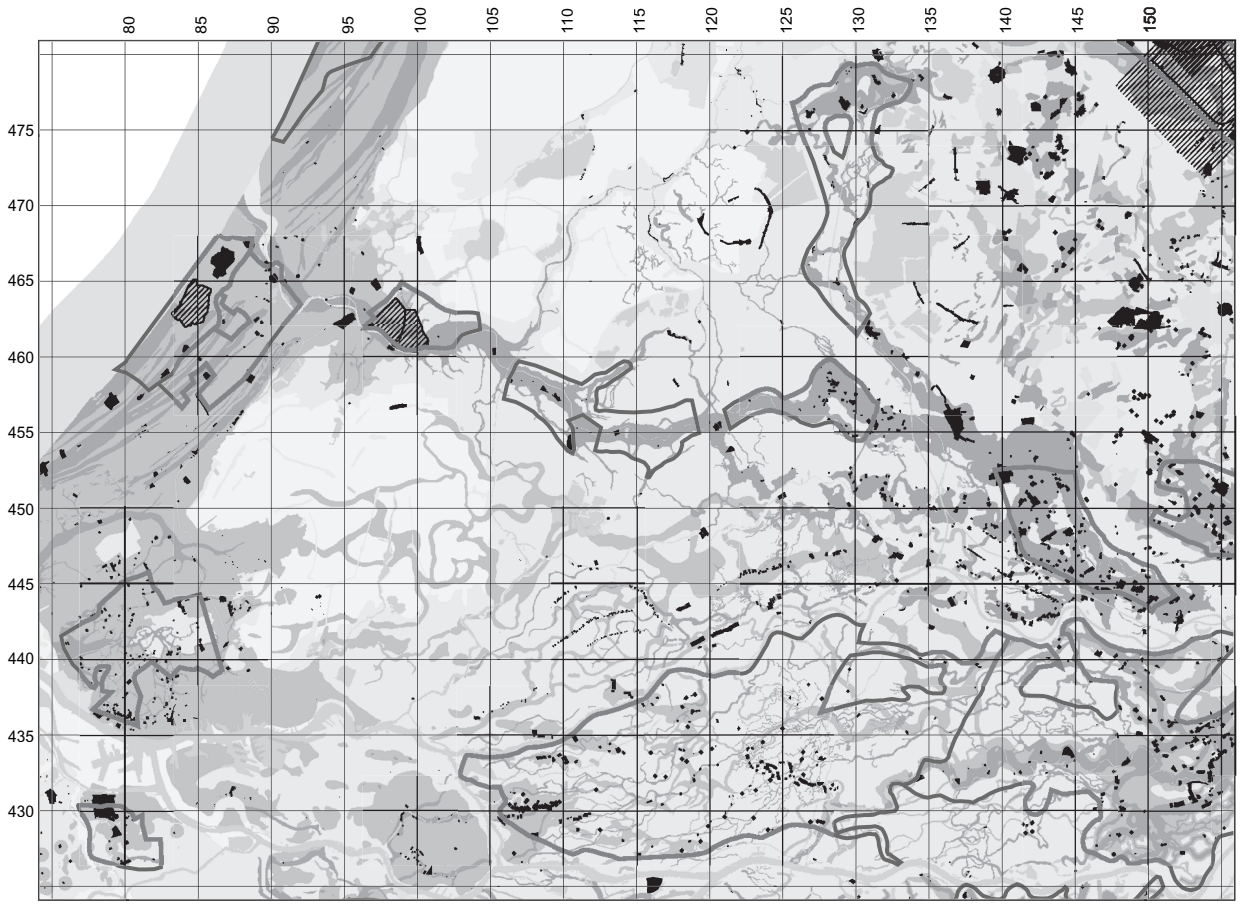

Fig.6.1: Area in the centre of the Netherlands showing protected archaeological monuments, indicative archaeological values and areas of high archaeological value.

will take some years before these efforts come to fruition, and it would be even longer before all the provinces could be complete (Koenders 1999). A more rapid method to evaluate the cultural historic landscape of the Netherlands as a whole therefore had to be devised.

Methodologies for evaluating on this level are still largely undeveloped. The problem has a more general applicability too, and the way in which this objective was reached in the Belvedere project therefore merits discussion in more detail.

The level of inventories and digitally available information of the three disciplines is very dissimilar, and methods of evaluation and selection also differ. An integrated evaluation could, therefore, only be reached in an indirect way on the basis of combining sectorial valuations independently generated by each of the disciplines. As a first step, a separate map for each discipline was generated, indicating the most important areas. The integrated valuation was then constructed by combining and summarising these separate maps into a single Belvedere Map.

Archaeology

Areas of great archaeological importance were identified from a threefold input:

- *The distribution of protected archaeological monuments*. Protected monuments are registered in ARCHIS, the national database of archaeological monuments and finds. ARCHIS also offers GIS, so it is straightforward to map the distribution of protected monuments (fig.6.1) (Roorda & Wiemer 1992).
- *The first generation of a predictive map of archaeological values for the whole country*. The predictive map of the Netherlands is a new tool in the preservation of the archaeological heritage (Deeben *et al.* 1997; Deeben *et al.* forthcoming; Deeben & Wiemer 1999). It mainly uses the 1:50,000 soil map of the Netherlands and the distribution of archaeological sites and finds. This soil map was chosen because it is the only geo-scientific map available in digital format covering the whole of the Netherlands. The archaeological sites and finds used in this exercise were extracted from ARCHIS. GIS was used to explore the relations between the distribution of sites and soils. Areas were defined as having low, medium or high probability of containing archaeological remains, providing a context for the partial distribution of protected monuments (fig.6.1).
- *The expert judgement of regional specialists*. Meetings with regional specialists were held, which used the two maps just described to define areas of high archaeological value. Archaeological context and landscape context, as well as general preservation conditions, geographical distribution and chronological distribution were taken into account. The resulting map for the whole of the country shows about 100 areas of high archaeological value, both on land and on the seabed. The Roman *limes* was also added on account of its special importance.

Historical geography

For historical geography, the project profited from a recent inventory made in the context of the *1990 Nature Policy Plan*. In this project a number of functions of the historical geographic landscape were discerned, such as agriculture, defence, mineral extraction, and infrastructure (see van Beusekom, this volume). Up to now only the agricultural function has been elaborated in a nation-wide selection of the most important areas, on the criteria of representivity (character) and integrity. For the Belvedere project, additions were made covering defence (the main lines of defence that came in effect from the 16th century onwards) and mineral extraction (the most prominent peat extraction areas from the Middle Ages onwards).

Historical building

For the historic built environment *c.*500 protected town and village areas and the *c.*500 or so most important rural estates were mapped and digitised as point locations. Regrettably it was impossible to digitise their actual surface area, so the relative spatial importance of these areas could not be visualised. Individual scheduled monuments and their distribution were not taken into account, but 60% to 70% of these objects are situated in the protected town and village areas.

The Belvedere Map

These three sectorial maps were combined in one map (fig.6.2 and pl.6.1). It was assumed that in the areas that overlap on this single map, cultural historic 'surplus value' exists, caused by accumulation of elements, patterns and structures. Areas that overlap on two or more sectorial maps have been selected as areas of high cultural historic value. Two further additions were made: areas inscribed on the World Heritage List or included on the Tentative List waiting to be nominated for World Heritage status; and historic towns on the designated list or which have great archaeological value. Towns were included as a separate category because their intrinsic values and spatial issues differ to a high extent from rural areas. The combined map therefore included 76 areas and 105 towns of high cultural historic value. The remainder of the country is indicated as areas of basic cultural historic value. Thus the map shows no blank areas (pl.6.2).

This method is the best that could be devised in view of the present state and availability of knowledge. Of course it can be subjected to criticism, for example the situation in which an area of high value shows up in one of the sectorial maps but narrowly fails to score in one or two of the other two maps.

The selection of the Belvedere areas, and some of the methodological problems, were discussed in many workshops with professionals, provincial authorities and

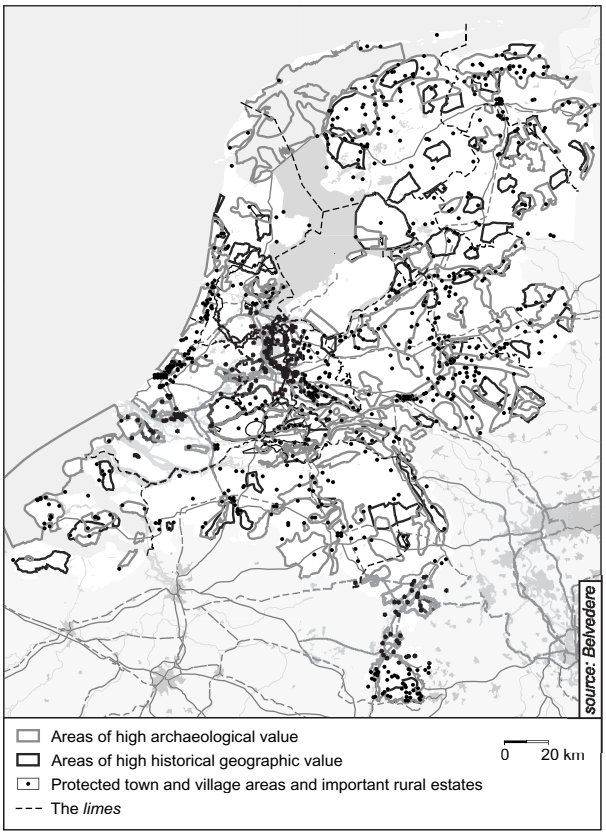

Fig.6.2: A combination of three sectoral maps (see plate 6.1).

organisations in the field of cultural heritage. These discussions resulted in a few additions to the list of areas and many adjustments of boundaries. The relatively small number of additions confirms that the method is acceptable, at least to professionals.

The resulting Belvedere map must not be seen as static. New information (for example, discoveries from archaeology, information gathered through systematic inventorying and evaluations carried out by provinces, or new insights into cultural heritage values) will necessitate future updating. At this stage, the map is the best we can hope to achieve in adequately defining areas that need a more concentrated and active policy than is offered by the general policy concerning the cultural historic heritage.

Potentials and priorities for management

The third main aspect of the *Belvedere Memorandum* is to define the potential of the cultural historic resource, and priorities for its management. Specific policies and strategies to achieve sustained preservation, proper management and public use of the cultural historic landscape were defined for each Belvedere area. This was based on descriptions of the characteristic cultural historic properties of each area, and on inventories of the opportunities for sustained preservation and reinforcement offered by current policies and developments, for example in the field of agriculture, nature, tourism, recreation and urban and rural planning. It was carried out in co-operation with provincial and other authorities.

The exercise led to three conclusions:

1. It is not feasible to attain our goals by a single homogenous set of measures applying to all areas. The cultural historic characteristics of the areas are as diverse as the opportunities offered by existing policies and developments. Area-specific measures have to be tailored to the objectives at hand and to the specific character of each area.
2. There are many existing policies and developments into which cultural history and its management can be embedded or joined to.
3. Implementation of policies and strategies is best handled at a level of government closest to the implementation of most urban and rural planning, which in the Netherlands is that of the provincial authorities. The role of the national government should mainly be restricted to frameworks, defining policies, and to creating pre-conditions such as adequate funding. Only in a limited number of complicated cases should the national government take the lead.

Conclusion

The *Belvedere Memorandum* and its acceptance by cabinet and Parliament mark an important step towards the full integration of cultural historic disciplines. It is a landmark in the evolution of the integral cultural historic landscape as a prominent factor in urban and rural planning.

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7: Archaeology and the cultural environment: an example from the Danish Wadden Sea Region

Ingrid Stoumann

Abstract: *Cultural environments are an important part of people's identity, historical awareness and attitude to life. In Denmark it has been realised that this cultural landscape is rapidly being depleted. This paper describes CHIP (Cultural Heritage in Planning) – a project defining the actions that Danish authorities will be taking in order to uncover the distinctive character of the different regions of the country and to develop protection and planning procedures for the cultural landscape. An example of where these procedures will be effective is explored through an examination of CHIP pilot work carried out in the Wadden Sea Region, a unique saltmarsh landscape with a wide history and cultural associations.*

Introduction

That cultural environments are important for people's identity, historical awareness and a positive attitude to life is generally accepted. However, the heritage of the landscape is rapidly disappearing and is in need of serious attention and decent management for the future. In realizing this, a proposed upgrading of policies for the cultural environment in general environmental protection therefore had complete backing from all parties in the Danish Parliament in 1996. The objective was not to freeze the present situation, but to uncover the distinctive character of each part of the country and to lead new development to be in agreement with this character. To do so, you need registration, protection and planning.

The Danish counties are responsible for the administration of rural landuse and for producing regional development plans (fig.7.1). The plans are revised every four years and before each revision the Ministry of the Environment issues the national requirements for the next four year period. The upgrading of the historic environment has been a substantial national requirement for the last two revision periods. The objective is to have essential cultural environments incorporated in the next edition of the regional plans, Region Plan 2008, that will be published in 2001. Some counties have worked seriously with this issue for some time, while others have just started.

In order to create a methodical basis for the cultural environmental work, The Forest and Nature Agency, under the Ministry of the Environment, in 1996 initiated a pilot for a project called CHIP – Cultural Heritage in Planning. The pilot was completed in spring 1999 and several reports describing the intentions, measures, methods, results and with useful practical examples have been published and sent to municipal and county planners (Danish Forest and Nature Agency 2001).

Esbjerg Museum was involved in the last stage of the project, testing the theoretical considerations through one

Fig.7.1: Map of Denmark showing Danish Counties, except Bornholm.

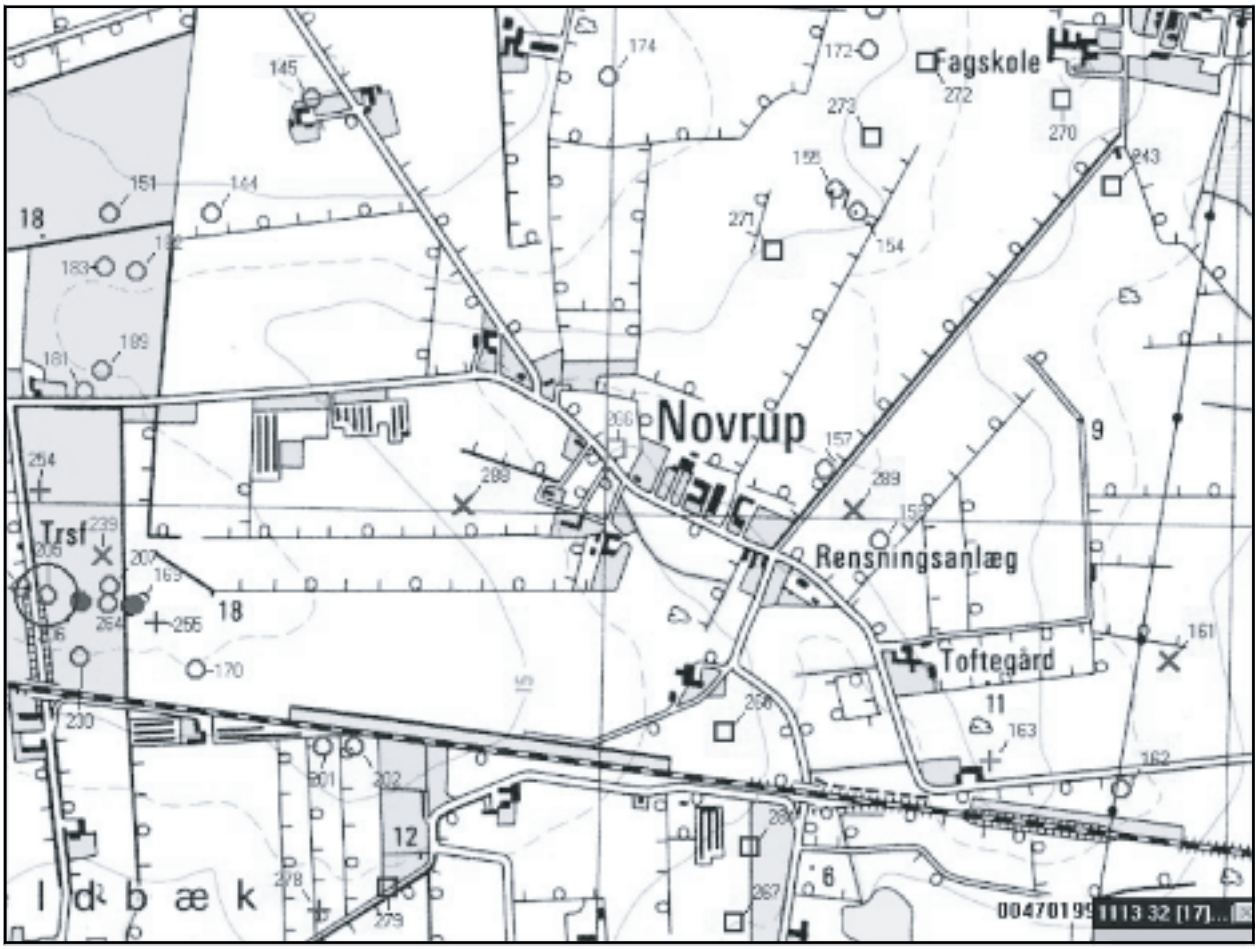

Fig.7.2: Example of point-based registrations in the national Danish Sites and Monuments Record: DKC On-line. From the area around Novrup village east of Esbjerg. © DKC On-line. Circles = Barrow, Squares = Settlement, Horizontal crosses = Grave, Diagonal crosses = Single find.

of two pilot projects. Methods were established for identifying, delimiting and prioritising valuable cultural environments and proposals were made for organising the interaction between counties, municipalities, museums and local people. These methods and proposals were described in two preliminary reports from each pilot project and a final concluding one containing recommendations to the county planners for this new environmental task (Danish Forest and Nature Agency 2001).

None of the reports, however, contain many words about safeguarding the archaeological heritage. It had been decided in advance to narrow down the CHIP-project, dealing only with cultural environments of the last 200 to 300 years. The historical traces of this period are the most visible, but also the least documented in the cultural landscape of today, whereas the archaeological heritage is generally accepted as well protected.

Archaeology has a more than 100 year-old tradition of linking historical and geographical data in Denmark. Today a GIS-based record of all protected as well as non-protected archaeological sites covers the whole country (http://www.dkconline.dk). The geographical information on the sites in this record are, however, point-based and it is not simple to create historic environments out of these points (fig.7.2). To visualize former cultural landscapes you need skills in the interpretation of archaeological material. However, as very few counties have archaeologists among their employees, it is uncertain how they will handle the archaeological heritage in the cultural environmental work. The protected monuments, mostly barrows, will be designated as representatives of prehistoric landuse, but in this way, the prehistoric cultural landscape has been reduced to a very narrow perspective, whereas the national demand specifically has mentioned a broad one.

The shared responsibility for the archaeological heritage in Denmark seems to be a core issue. Protected monuments, as well as regional spatial planning, are the responsibility of the Ministry of the Environment, whereas non-protected monuments, and the archaeological museums that take care of this heritage, fall to the Ministry of Culture. The Environmental Protection Act safeguards protected monuments against destruction, whereas the Museum Act only guarantees some kind of action before destruction of non-protected sites. Hence, if we want to safeguard more hidden archaeological sites as examples

Fig.7.3: Traces of prehistoric settlements are usually hidden below ground, but in years with a dry spring they suddenly become visible in the crops on sandy soil. Trenches and pithuts from a Viking Age settlement show in the crops just outside the churchyard in the Hostrup village north of Esbjerg. Photo: Esbjerg Museum.

of the evolution of the cultural landscape (fig.7.3), museum archaeologists have to involve themselves in the cultural environmental work in co-operation with county planners. The objective should be to safeguard essential localities through spatial planning.

The cultural environmental work has two perspectives – the communication and the safeguarding of historic landscape values. The landscape of today, and its traces of human activities for past millennia, is the basis. The task is to communicate and raise awareness of the landscape history to planners and the public in general, and to protect a selected part of this cultural landscape or otherwise to develop in accordance with its cultural character.

Many traces of the prehistoric landscape have been preserved until today, hidden as well as visible. The dilemma is that the hidden character of these parts of landscapes makes them difficult to communicate to the public, and even the visible aspects are difficult for most people to link to the present landscape, in which they occur as single elements (fig.7.4). If we do not acknowledge that the hidden traces can be cultural environments, however, we have no possibility of explaining the appearance of the present day landscape, the settlement structure of which was already established in antiquity. The following example from the Danish Wadden Sea coast should clearly demonstrate this.

The Wadden Sea Region – a unique landscape with prehistoric roots

The Danish museums are jointly responsible for the Danish cultural heritage. This cultural heritage comprises not only the objects and archives within the confines of the museums but also prehistoric monuments, buildings, towns and landscapes which often tell us more about the life and existence of prehistoric communities than even the best museum exhibition. Therefore the Danish museums are the natural partners when historic environments worthy of preservation are to be identified and included in regional management plans.

In describing the features worthy of preservation, the museums of south-west Jutland have put great emphasis on the saltmarsh area as a unique natural and cultural landscape. The saltmarsh is remarkable in a cultural historic

Fig.7.4: Barrows are the most common type of protected monument and also the most visible elements of former cultural landscapes today. They are, however, difficult to link to the present landscape, in which they often occur separately. Photo: Esbjerg Museum.

sense, because of its distinctive architectural style, interior design and appearance and in particular its traditional occupations, which have constantly had to adapt to the often harsh conditions imposed by nature. Today this cultural pattern is breaking up and distinctive features are disappearing. In a few years the cultural pattern of the Wadden Sea region will have succumbed to the pattern characterising the rest of the country, unless efforts are made to identify and preserve it. Fortunately, this is now happening, for example through the Lancewad project initiated by the Trilateral Wadden Sea Co-operation and supported by the EU's Commission and Juterreg IIC North Sea Programme (http://cwss.www.de/lancewad) (Burbridge 2000; Danish Forest and Nature Agency 1997; Vollmer *et al.* 2001).

The main characteristic of the Wadden Sea coast is the location of villages and farms on the border between the saltmarshes and the higher, sandy interior (geestland). This location reflects the great value of the saltmarsh as pasture, and the eternal risk of flooding. The combination of livestock rearing in the saltmarsh and cereal cultivation in the geestland dates back to the beginning of the Danish saltmarshes, in the 7th -5th centuries BC. The abundance of archaeological material from the coastal areas shows a clear connection between the location of settlements and the new resource area, the salt meadows, from the Early Iron Age into the Middle Ages. This makes the saltmarsh one of the landscapes in Denmark with the longest unbroken agricultural tradition, and the Iron Age, so to speak, forms the foundation of the Wadden Sea culture of later periods. Archaeology can thus add a historic dimension to today's settlements. It can contribute to an improved understanding of the origin of the cultural landscape and thus also to future spatial planning in the area.

Archaeology in the Wadden Sea Region

The development of prehistoric settlements is illustrated by archaeological material, either unearthed by accident or recovered through systematic excavations during the past 100 years, supplemented by additional research, including aerial photography, geophysical surveying and place-name studies. Our knowledge of settlement development thus depends on archaeological activity that differs from region to region, but in the Danish Wadden Sea region it has been quite comprehensive. From the Ribe area detailed information on settlement history was published in 1998 (Jensen 1998). These published results are, however, not solely relevant to the Ribe area – the model (which illustrates settlement development from the Late Bronze Age, through the Iron Age and into the Viking Age 700 BC-AD 1050) seems, at least on certain points, to be valid for larger parts of the overall South Jutland area.

The model shows that from the beginning of the Early Roman Iron Age (around the turn of the Christian era) a centralisation of settlements took place. A number of settlement units within a given area were combined while others were abandoned. According to this model, centralisation peaked in the Migration Period. During the Viking Age, settlements again started dispersing, first by establishing satellite villages from the mother village and later also from the second generation of satellite villages. The model is still hypothetical and needs to be tested and substantiated with more archaeological material. For instance, it does not take into account the fact that some isolated farms existed throughout the period and that at least some of these appear to have developed into large freehold farms and estates at a later stage.

Exact dating and mapping of archaeological material with the aim of reconstructing prehistoric landscapes are a precondition for achieving a full understanding of the development of prehistoric settlements. Geological reconstruction in the Wadden Sea area is, however, very difficult and still in its infancy and will require a great deal of intensive research and co-operation with scientists.

A map illustrating the distribution of Iron Age and early medieval material, covering the entire Danish Wadden Sea coast, shows a dense concentration of archaeological sites in the coastal area (fig.7.5). It also indicates that the sites are concentrated in clusters with areas devoid of sites in between. The clusters contain both older and younger material and they are often concentrated around present villages. This phenomenon is not unique to south-west Jutland, but is evident also in many other places in Denmark. The particular picture arises because in prehistory entire villages were moved around repeatedly.

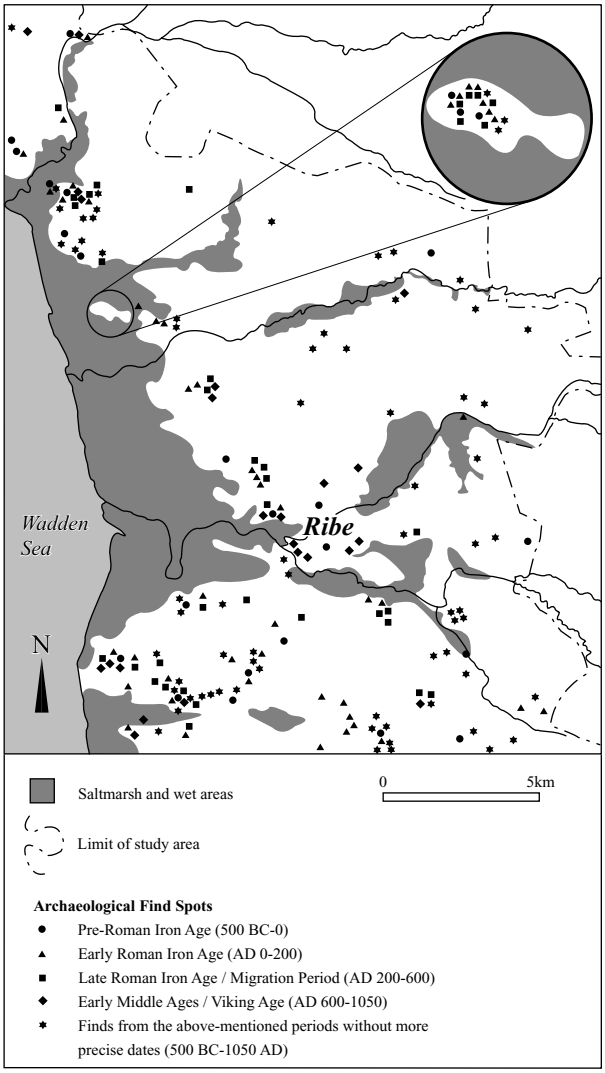

Fig.7.5: Archaeological find spots are extremely dense on the edge of the saltmarsh in the Danish Wadden Sea area. After Jørgen Ibenfeldt 1987.

Settlement sites shifted within the same territory, often on the boundary between an arable area and pasture. Thus settlements did not continuously reside on the same spot, but remained in the same territory to allow the continuous utilisation of its natural resources. Such areas are historically referred to as *ejerlav* (association of property owners, close in meaning to 'township' or 'townland' in Britain), and they still form the basis of the Danish land registration system today.

The movements of the villages were motivated by agricultural strategies. By moving around within a limited area, but always close to the pastureland, the settlements themselves created the best arable land. The abandoned sites would be cultivated and little by little a continuous field system, an infield more valuable in terms of cultivation than the surrounding land, was created. This system was used from the Early Roman Iron Age into the Viking Age.

During the Early Middle Ages, fields were thus established not only immediately around villages, but also on abandoned sites or where settlements had disappeared in the Roman Iron Age. The system with infields and outfields may have come into existence at this time, in which the nearby infields were cultivated each year and the remotest outfields only occasionally.

In the Viking Age, settlements once again dispersed and abandoned sites of the Roman Iron Age became important location factors for these settlements. Farms moved out and satellite villages were established on the outfields, their names often characterised by the suffix *-by* or *-torp*. Under these satellite villages excavations have often uncovered older settlements, the youngest traces of which date back to the Roman Iron Age or Early Migration Period. The abandoned settlements had been cultivated throughout the Early Middle Ages before being occupied and once again colonised in the Viking Age.

At the end of the Viking Age, a system prevailed of mother villages with one or several surrounding satellite villages situated not only in former outfields but also in heathland and woodland that so far had not been cultivated. In the Middle Ages, some of these villages, often the mother village, acquired a church, and the towns of Jerne, Tjæreborg and Darum close to Esbjerg are good examples of this. In the 12th century, most village sites became permanent, with the prehistoric settlements often found in adjoining areas. The cultural landscape of today was thus created with historical roots in the settlement pattern of the Early Iron Age.

The saltmarsh landscape of today

Today, as in prehistoric times, villages still overlook the edge of the saltmarsh, either in rows of farms as is the case along the Varde River estuary to the north (fig.7.6), or in the form of clustered farms as seen in the area south of Esbjerg. In contrast to large areas inland, the saltmarsh farms are still situated in the villages, precisely because the twofold utilisation of saltmarsh and higher geestland has until now prevented scattering. The same utilisation of the landscape could still be seen in this area at the time of the agricultural land and village reform in the late 18th century. The farms remained in the villages because each farm had its share of the various resource areas – heathland, peat bogs, sandy soil, clay soil, meadow land, salt pasture, marshland – and therefore had no reason to move out. As a consequence, the land of farms in the saltmarsh villages were, until recently, scattered over 10-20 plots.

Excavations in the saltmarsh villages show that property boundaries and village streets are often still located as they were in the Middle Ages. Because of the stationary character of farms, far more ancient buildings are found today in the saltmarsh villages than further inland. In towns such as Tjæreborg, Darum, Vilslev and in the villages south of Ribe, many farm buildings dating from before 1850, some even from the 18th century, have

been preserved which is unusual in other parts of south-west Jutland. In these villages it has also been possible to maintain for many centuries a way of life centring on old communal institutions such as the village herd and village assemblies. The saltmarsh landscape, however, comprises more than settlements and landuse. It is also made up of dykes, sluices, ditches, abandoned or inhabited dwelling mounds, landing and fishing grounds and traces of supplementary means of livelihood, which all contribute to the cultural-historic identity.

Managed development

The future of this wide, coherent cultural landscape, depends to a high degree on developments in agriculture. If, for example, the utilisation of the now drained and dyked saltmarsh changes from cattle breeding to grain production, as has already happened to a great extent, the green saltmarsh will disappear as a historic landscape and the way will be paved for farms to move out of the villages. Old villages will consequently disintegrate and decline.

A strict administration of the marshland is therefore required to prevent settlements, windbreaks or other plantations from blurring the image of a vast open saltmarsh. Through spatial planning it should be ensured that the traditional settlement pattern, characterised by open saltmarsh, with compact settlements along its edge and scattered new settlements in the hinterland, is maintained. It should also be ensured that farms continue to retain access to both marsh and geestland, such as by safeguarding the local lanes. In recent years, the construction of main roads has in several places led to a redistribution of land and the cutting off of local country roads, which in its turn has considerably altered the agricultural structure of these villages.

The Varde estuary and the Novrup saltmarsh (north and south of Esbjerg respectively) are unique landscapes in the Danish-German-Dutch Wadden Sea area in not being dyked. Since the saltmarsh cannot be drained and cultivated without dykes, it is particularly important for these few areas to remain free of dikes and not be spoiled by new constructions in conflict with the traditional landuse. The Novrup marshes in particular are however greatly endangered by the expansion of the nearby city of Esbjerg.

The extent to which drainage, ploughing and reallotment schemes are affecting developments in the dyked areas can be found out by contacting local agricultural societies, but an evaluation of the function and life of particular saltmarsh villages through concrete research is also necessary, to clarify the future prospects

Fig.7.6: The Varde estuary saltmarsh in the most northern part of the Wadden Sea region is still without dikes. The farms of the Billum village are still situated on the edge of the saltmarsh as they were in antiquity. Photo: Esbjerg Museum.

Fig.7.7: Few prehistoric settlements are protected and communicated to the public. The Myrtue village is one of them, situated in the recreational woodland park of Marbæk north of Esbjerg. Remains of Roman Iron Age farmhouses are displayed, and visitors can walk the same cobbled floors and streets as the people did 2,000 years ago. Photo: Esbjerg Museum.

of saltmarsh farming and to understand better certain historically valuable local communities.

In fact, we might ask ourselves whether it is in anybody's interest to sacrifice a more than 2,000 year old tradition of good cattle breeding in favour of the temporary benefits of cereal growing. Perhaps it is time for the authorities to appreciate the sensitivity of saltmarsh landscapes and to start actively supporting cattle breeding in the area through various initiatives.

Other countries have gained positive experience of involving the commuity in attempts to preserve traditional farming methods, a precondition for the preservation of these valuable landscapes. This has also been introduced into Danish landscape management, but many people do not want to turn the land on which they live into a 'museum'. However, the intention never was to create museum landscapes. Rather, the aim is to create the possibility of sustainable development in accordance with historical traditions and to preserve a way of life, which in the long run, may be more in the interest of society than headlong, periodic changes. In other words, a managed development plan is needed, based on stable landuse.

Involving the local population in identifying and preserving our cultural heritage is thus of the greatest importance, and it is equally important to ensure that a wider section of the population becomes aware of its value. Here archaeology can contribute information about the history and traditions of the area. Using excavated sites for imparting information could be a trump card. In the Danish Wadden Sea area there are several examples of archaeological sites being communicated to the public, either as they were originally excavated, or reconstructed, for example, in the Marbæk area near the Varde River estuary (fig.7.7), in the Østskoven woodland park at Esbjerg and at Hjemsted near Skærbæk.

Hopefully, this example from the Danish Wadden Sea coast clearly demonstrates the contributions of archaeology in the understanding and management of cultural landscapes, showing that the role of archaeology is not solely retrospective but is also forward looking. The results of archaeology can be an aid in looking ahead, when, together with other historical disciplines, it uncovers patterns and linkages that can be used in planning a sustainable development for the future.

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8: Historic Landscape Characterisation in England and a Hampshire case study

Graham Fairclough, George Lambrick & David Hopkins

Abstract: *This paper describes English Heritage's national programme of 'historic landscape characterisation' carried out by local government. Historic Landscape Characterisation is a new GIS-based archaeological method for defining the historic and archaeological dimension of the present-day landscape. It can explain how and why the landscape looks as it does, identify landscape's 'time-depth' and facilitate sustainable management. One of the earlier Historic Landscape Characterisation projects, in Hampshire, is presented as an example. Its methods, techniques and results are summarised, and the paper concludes with reflections on the use of Historic Landscape Characterisation in heritage management.*

Introduction

This paper uses the broad definition of 'historic landscape' that was developed in England during the first half of the 1990s to help with protecting, conserving and managing historic landscape character. This definition is concerned with how archaeologists can see and interpret physical remains and other historical attributes of the present landscape as indicators of how that landscape's character has developed over time through the interaction of people with their environment. This particular focus sits alongside many other perceptions of landscape, notably those used by landscape architects and by archaeologists who study the past at landscape scale. Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC) does not do everything for historic landscape studies, but it does much more at its particular chosen scale than anything else that has been tried in England so far. Above all it is applicable to practical management and conservation.

There have been many debates on integrated conservation over recent years (eg Brown & Berry 1995; Grenville 1999; Lambrick 1985; Macinnes & Wickham-Jones 1992). The quest for fully integrated conservation is both the starting point and the eventual destination of historic landscape characterisation, using sustainability as its vehicle. Historic landscape character is related to many other realms of conservation and environmental planning and can unite many different strands of environmental or heritage value. Character, in this holistic sense, already has a place in many areas of conservation and planning in England (eg Countryside Commission *et al*. 1997; DCMS/DEFRA 2002, p.31).

Historic landscape characterisation is concerned with recognising the many ways in which the present countryside reflects how people have exploited and changed their physical environment, and adapted to it through time. It considers this with respect to different social, economic, technological and cultural aspects of life, and the varied underlying influences of geography, history and tradition (Countryside Commission 1993; 1997; Fairclough *et al*. 1999). It seeks to identify patterns of change and important relics of past change, and to analyse how and why patterns consistently vary from one place to another. The core premise of historic landscape characterisation and its application in planning and conservation is that relationships between people and their environment are dynamic and ever changing. The key policy issue is how society can influence the direction and pace of future change whilst still maintaining links with the past in a way that enriches the present.

Origins and objectives

English Heritage's work on historic landscape started in the early 1990s. Its aims were to find a better way of incorporating historic depth and character into the process of general landscape assessment work carried out by landscape architects with particular concerns for the visual and scenic attributes of landscape. It sought to fill a widening gap in heritage conservation. There had been rapid and continual improvements in the ability to manage change to the historic environment at site, monument and building level but there had been little success in extending this work from sites to their wider landscape context or to the whole historic landscape. There was a need to do more to fulfil the aspirations of PPG15 if the 'all-pervasive' quality of the historic environment was to be addressed in spatial planning and conservation.

After some preliminary work (Fairclough 1991), in 1993–94 English Heritage commissioned a research project on

approaches to historic landscape from Cobhams Resource Consultants and the Oxford Archaeological Unit. The project explored theory and methodology, reviewed current practices in historic landscape work and recommended an overall approach to assessment based on well-established procedures. The conclusions led firmly away from suggestions to identify 'special' landscapes for a national register, and pointed us instead towards an approach based on universal character, serving many conservation purposes, and fitting the then newly-emerging ideas of sustainability. The results of the project were published under the title *Yesterday's World, Tomorrow's Landscape* (Fairclough *et al.* 1999). The title was chosen to emphasise the role of landscape characterisation in helping to influence decisions about the future appearance of the landscape, and to inform them historically and archaeologically, rather than trying to prevent all change in a few areas. It also carries the message that landscape, conceptually, only exists in the here-and-now or, in whatever form we choose in the future.

Through this project, we were looking for a method that would deliver multiple objectives. First was the promotion of awareness of local identity, and second characterisation and better understanding and appreciation of the historic landscape. Characterisation of the historic landscape was also designed to facilitate conservation and to protect historic landscape character. It aims to do this by strengthening conservation and management through local land management by farmers, spatial planning processes and development control by local authority action, integration with other conservation aims and through development itself, by the Environment Agency, for example. Above all, the study was used to explore the basis for a method that was both rapid to carry out and robust in its use, and that would allow archaeological and historic landscape interests to be incorporated into other landscape work.

English Heritage established a few precepts to guide the work. First, we recognised that the whole landscape is historic, but that landscape character encompasses ecology and scenic values as well, and involves appreciating and perceiving landscape, for example through its associations; there are also complementary social values. We assumed that historic landscape character now only exists in the present-day landscape, that it is indivisible, but locally distinctive and that all areas have historic landscape character. The historic landscape is an idea, not a thing, and historic character is part of a definition of wider landscape character, to which it makes a major, indeed dominant, contribution.

Most importantly, we worked on the assumption that the historic landscape is first and foremost the product of change: it is an artefact of past landuse, social structures and political decisions. The role of complex historic process in the landscape needs to be given full recognition, with particular reference to patterns and inter-relationships within and between areas and to evolution, change and continuity, all of which are legible in the current landscape in various ways. Attributes such as causality, time-depth, diversity and transparency are all-important, but relict *landscapes*, as opposed to relict *components*, do not exist. Perception can define areas with high densities of relict components, but invariably within a landscape which has later and current layers.

As a consequence, it seems necessary to accept that future landscape change is inevitable because landscape is and always has been a product of change in an artefact of past activity and landuse and a living entity, the location for human, animal and plant life. Landscape conservation cannot be separated from landuse and management. The way the environment is exploited and managed determines how its historic character is retained, developed or changed, and how fast change takes place. The future of landscape character depends on its managed evolution, everywhere not just in special places. Finally, sustainability and landscape conservation go hand-in-hand: the historic landscape is a major aspect of environment capital.

The new method

The methodology we have developed is perhaps 'new' to archaeology, but was not completely new in other fields. It borrowed from current practice and ideas in mainstream landscape assessment. This was a conscious and deliberate borrowing in order to create a common language, to find ways to recast our archaeological information and understanding into words, concepts and above all images that would be readily understandable to non-archaeologists, and in particular to planners and landscape architects. The method also draws on well-established principles of archaeological resource management and on some aspects of archaeological landscape theory.

Crucial to the method is its scale and broad-brush approach. It adopts scales used by landscape assessment, normally county-wide in an English context, rather than the smaller, parish level, approach of earlier archaeological or historic landscape study, which tended to treat landscapes merely as large sites. It works through archaeological perspectives that are vertical and map-based, seeking chronological depth beneath, rather than the landscape architect's predominantly horizontal, surface-based aesthetic. From landscape assessment, the method borrowed the practice of analysing the present landscape, rather than just the partial remains and survivals of earlier periods (Countryside Commission 1993; 1997). This can lead to an emphasis that some might consider undue on the latest layers of landscape stratigraphy and on the post-medieval landscape, but as said above earlier phases, especially if surviving mainly as site-complexes, can be understood and managed by different means. Finally, the method treats landscape, not as a *view* to be

assessed aesthetically, but in an archaeological sense as material culture. It sees it as a thing that has been produced by human action and which can be read as a *text* and quarried for meanings that can be either implicit or externally inferred.

A controversial aspect of the approach is the distinction between fairly rapid characterisation of large regions and slower, more detailed work at more local scale. The former is based on quite broad general assumptions derived from the conclusions of local studies or broad-based morphological traits. The latter uses rather more traditional methods of painstaking archaeological fieldwork and historical research, often over long time periods and usually only in small areas.

The methodology was first fully developed and used in Cornwall (Cornwall County Council 1996; Herring 1995; 1998). This project drew on many years' work at a landscape scale by the archaeological staff of the Cornwall Archaeology Unit (CAU). It was supported by the ideas then just emerging from the English Heritage research project (Cobhams/OAU/English Heritage 1993) and from *Views From the Past* (Countryside Commission 1993), although the CAU's own expertise was crucial.

Since 1994, historic landscape characterisation has been carried out for many county councils and similar areas, and about half of England is covered. A list of historic landscape characterisation reports can be found in Annex A at the end of this paper. A similar method has been adopted for Scotland (Bruce *et al.* 1999; Dixon & Hingley this volume), and the approach has been tested in Ireland (Environment Resource Management & ERA- Maptec Ltd 2000). In methodological terms, progress in England has taken two forms:

- Application of the method to other areas at a similar, mainly county-level, scale.
- The development, modification and 'proving' of the techniques, both in Cornwall and in new areas.

Reviews of the position reached by 2001 are forthcoming (Fairclough forthcoming a; b; c).

Main areas of development have been the increased use of GIS, and experiments, largely successful, using historic maps, more advanced interpretative approaches and more complex classifications. Each project has drawn on its predecessors' experience and the methodology has therefore evolved through practice, as well as continuing to be informed by theory. The more recent projects (eg Hampshire described in this paper and more recently Lancashire, Darlington this volume) have brought in new approaches and techniques. We should not yet, however, assume that there is a definitive or perfect method, and a full review of all current methodologies will be completed during 2002, to help codify best practices and options. The biggest challenge undoubtedly is to establish a stronger link between the characterisation process and peoples' personal perceptions of the historic character of their own area; building on historic landscape characterisation for this purpose in Lancashire (Darlington this volume) is part of an EU Culture 2000 three year project 'European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape' (http://pcl-eu.de; see Ermischer this volume).

Progress to the end of 2001

The progress of historic landscape characterisation in England is shown on figure 8.1. All the projects so far have been carried out (usually in-house but occasionally, as in Hampshire, by consultants) by local authorities (usually County Councils) using English Heritage grants. Local authority involvement and ownership (to ensure that the results are used within planning and conservation work), and the reliance on local authority staff expertise, are as essential aspects of the methodology as the choice of scale (neither local or regional) and the flexibility to adapt it to local circumstances. In the English context, this is not a programme of work that should be centralised and carried out by one national body.

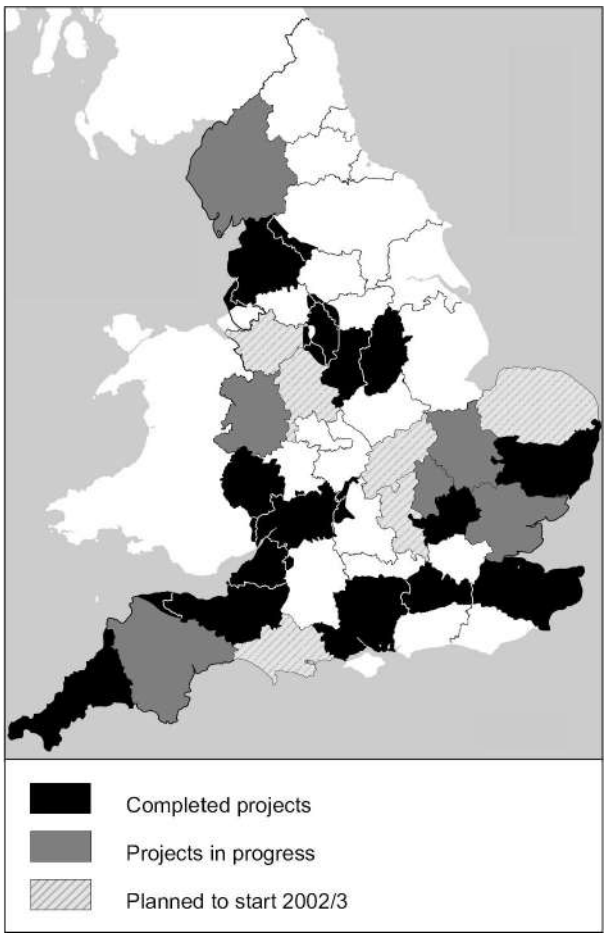

Fig.8.1: Progress at March 2002 with English Heritages programme of Historic Landscape Characterisation (Drawn by Vince Griffin, Centre for Archaeology, English Heritage).

The application of historic landscape characterisation confirms the Cornwall experience (Herring 1998) of its general flexibility, its ability to meet several objectives at the same time, and its sensitivity and adaptability to local circumstances. The various maps are generally comparable, but they are not identical because they have been adapted to local situations; they do not distort interpretation by forcing local distinctiveness into a national typology. Every county's map is different, but they differ in ways that reflect local and regional landscape diversity. Each county is different: their landscapes are different, as are their histories and archaeology, not to mention their contemporary culture and attitude to landscape. Furthermore the programme and its methodology has deliberately been established not as the basis for a definitive characterisation for each county but as a first attempt awaiting future refinement. This will allow for new methods and ideas to be explored and for future testing against both local perception and more detailed analysis of change in particular areas.

The point is also fast approaching when the individual county-level results need to be brought together, perhaps in a simpler, higher-level form, as regional and later national overviews. These will be distillations of all the county Historic Landscape Characterisation maps. They will need to be at a lower level of detail, however, calling for further generalisation of data and interpretation to reflect the higher scale. In simple terms, character is defined by the balance between similarity and contrast, and this balance varies with scale. Landscape character at regional and national level will, therefore, need to be assessed differently, not merely the sum of all local maps, but a different perspective.

National compatibility will also be attained by placing Historic Landscape Characterisation maps within other national frameworks, such as the two which already exist, the Countryside Character Map and the English Heritage Settlement Diversity Map produced by Brian Roberts and Stuart Wrathmell (Countryside Agency 1999; Countryside Commission 1998; Roberts & Wrathmell 2000). The latter sub-divides England into major zones of nucleated settlement and cleared land and of dispersed settlement and woodland, with more refined local sub-divisions and strong signs that the structure or pattern revealed has very early origins.

In conclusion then and as a preface to the Hampshire case study, the benefits of this new method are that it can be carried out relatively swiftly using available information, yet it creates new understandings of the present landscape (most importantly, about its historic dimension). This can generate future research; in particular it provides a context for existing archaeological and other data (for example ecological). It helps to understand the limitations of present knowledge, and thus offers a predictive tool; its products, unlike some archaeological work, are easily accessible to other professions, for example, planners or to the general public.

Hampshire: a case study

This case study examines one of the early Historic Landscape Characterisation projects in Hampshire (fig.8.2). The pioneering Cornwall project has already been published , (Herring 1998), and Hampshire has been chosen as the example for this paper because it marked a major step forward in the use of GIS and interpretative approaches, and has heavily influenced later projects (eg Lancashire, Darlington this volume). The methodology and results are drawn in a much-abbreviated form from the project report written by the Oxford Archaeological Unit (OAU) and Scott Wilson Resource Consultants (formerly Cobhams) as part of a project carried out in 1998 for Hampshire County Council (HCC) and English Heritage (Lambrick & Bramhill 1999). The case study concludes with reflections on how the Hampshire Historic Landscape Characterisation has been implemented within local government conservation, planning, landscape and environmental practice.

Hampshire was already well covered by conventional landscape assessment carried out by the county council at scales from national to local, providing a rich and valuable source of different perspectives. The Historic Landscape Characterisation project was therefore carried out as a process of building on existing work. It sought to enrich the traditional approach by emphasising time-depth and historic process, and showing how different areas reflect different patterns and rates of change in the past.

Fig.8.2: Hampshire.

The project brief sought an approach based on the model applied by Cornwall, Avon, and more recently the Cotswolds Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty, drawing on the English Heritage research project mentioned above (Cobhams/OAU/English Heritage 1993; Fairclough 1999). The main objective of the project was to produce a digital interactive map of Hampshire's historic landscape character, compatible with the county planning department's GIS, that would be a framework for future district-level historic landscape assessment within the county, and that would inform development planning and control and countryside conservation. The work used maps at 1:25,000 scale of *c.*1996/7 and the product was to be supported by an explanatory report and archive.

Definition of Historic Landscape Types

A number of principles and practical considerations were established at the outset:

- The assessment should characterise the present day countryside of the whole county,
- The map should reflect different forms of human interaction with the environment and change through time,
- Interactions should be mapped as areas not as sites;
- Mapping should reflect current landuse characteristics and those earlier components with a substantial impact on visible landscape character.

A decision was taken that characteristics derivable only from historical evidence and not visible in some form in the landscape should not be mapped, including subsoil archaeology and the distribution of individual sites and monuments. Such data is too site-specific and the archaeological data at least can in any case be overlaid on the map from exiting digital sources.

The first stage of the study involved creating a set of Historic Landscape Types, the basic approach to deciding the range of variants in the classification was pragmatic. It was decided that the morphological, spatial, functional or chronological distinctions of broad types must be reasonably easily identifiable and mapped. In addition, the classification should be set at a level that allows the definition of a sufficiently large range of types to avoid losing useful distinctions while not creating so many types that impossibly fine and unrepeatable distinctions would be required. On this basis, a total of 85 Historic Landscape Types were defined, grouped into 14 broad categories, and are listed in the Annex B.

Mapping and digitising

Two people, Rob O'Shea of SWRC and Matt Ridley of OAU, carried out the character mapping. Using two workers risks introducing inconsistencies from their different perceptions and interpretations, but it is faster, allows cross-validation, introduces continuous mutually supportive discussions of difficult interpretations, and more mundanely, brings flexibility to share more tedious tasks during repetitive task of mapping. Independent checking and amendment by George Lambrick provided further crosschecks, so that the final map represents a three-way consensus of interpretation.

Six 10km squares were mapped to provide a test sample that covered representative parts of the county. This stage validated and refined the classification of types, with some visual assessment in the field. In the main mapping phase, the Historic Landscape Types were mapped manually in pencil on film overlays covering up to two adjoining $10km^2$ at 1:25,000. A continuous mosaic of polygons, each identified by the appropriate type code, was created to represent areas assigned to the Historic Landscape Types. Commentaries on the mapping for each $10km^2$ were completed as the work proceeded in order to record interpretation and decision-making. As part of the interpretative process, cross checking against sources was carried out as mapping proceeded and a constant process of map checking was a day to day aspect of the project.

When complete, the film overlays were scanned to create raster map tiles which were then joined together by geo-referencing each tile at two $10km^2$ intersections (with hindsight four would have been better). The polygons were digitised by drawing vector lines over the raster scans, the polygon topology was created and the resultant polygons were labelled and colour-coded according to their type to create a visually effective map. Each type was assigned a separate GIS layer so that any combination can be switched on or off. The figures included in the main report (Lambrick & Bramhill 1999) illustrate a small selection of the innumerable possible combinations that can be generated from the 'map'. A few of these are included here (pl.8.1). In effect there is not a single map, but a highly interactive spatial data set that is capable of producing many combinations of mapped data or diagrams (pl.8.2).

Other map data sets were also added to the GIS. These include post-code classification data to provide a further insight into settlement pattern, the County Council's digital mapping of topographically-based landscape character areas and landscape types, modern civil parish and District boundaries; and the 1:50,000 Ordinance Survey raster base map. Sites and Monument Record data and a continuous mosaic of air photographs were already available on GIS for parallel use.

Results and analysis

The flexibility of the GIS-based classification, and the potential for combining it with other data, allows the results of the project to be analysed in a large number of ways. It is possible, for example, to use the map to understand the patterning of archaeological sites recorded on the sites and monuments records, whether on the basis of survival in terms of later landuse, or of presumed original distribution. A number of analytical approaches were

tested during the project. Four main areas are summarised here:

- An overall assessment of landscape change.
- Time-depth in the current landscape.
- Historical attributes of the current landscape.
- Parish and community groupings.

Landscape Change

The last 125 years or so have had a major impact on the character of Hampshire and much of the county's landscape now reflects this. Large-scale urbanisation took place, expanding from key, long-standing centres of defence and trade at Portsmouth and Southampton. The growth of London and of surrounding military establishments has also had their effect on the proliferation of urban and sub-urban growth in north-east Hampshire. As a result of these 20th and late 19th century changes, it is only a few parts of Hampshire, for example areas bordering open areas of downland such as Martin Down on the edge of Cranborne Chase, that now clearly retain earlier historic landscape character in large measure.

Large parts of the county however, have field systems that reflect informal, mainly pre-parliamentary enclosure of the 17th to 19th century. Many of Hampshire's medieval open fields were enclosed before the general parliamentary enclosure movement and substantial parts of the chalk remained open downland until the late 18th century although much had previously been arable in late prehistoric and Roman times). During the 19th century large parts of the chalk areas, including much open down-land and large areas of heathland, woodland and extensive wood pasture of the former Royal Forests, were enclosed or re-enclosed with medium to large straight sided fields.

The many early medieval Royal Forests originally had substantial areas of heathland and woodland, established when their acidic soils suffered from over-exploitation and exhaustion as early as the Bronze Age. The New Forest is distinguished by its retention, to an unequalled degree, of the older historic patterns of open shared grazing lands mixed with scattered settlement and occasional villages, and woodland of varying dates (pl.8.2). These characteristics were once generally typical of the heathland areas of the county, and have survived in the New Forest by its continuing special status under the control of the Verderers (Verderers are a modern statutory body sharing the management of the New Forest with the Forestry Commission, including all forms of development and regulation of agricultural landuse within the New Forest).

Hampshire was particularly well provided with woodland elsewhere. Except for the most open chalk areas, there is evidence everywhere in the county for the clearance of woodland in the form of distinctive field patterns derived from assarting, thought to have resulted from the gradual expansion of farmland (pl.8.2). The distinctive pattern of small, irregular fields with much surviving woodland is typical of much of the eastern, northern and southern margins of the county. The chalk areas were probably predominantly agricultural by at least the (British) Iron Age and Roman periods, by which time these areas were possibly as clear of trees as they are today. Earlier evidence of human exploitation, from the Neolithic, survives on the chalk, where the relatively good soils were extensively exploited.

Time-depth in the current landscape

The historic landscape character map facilitates some preliminary high level analysis of change and continuity in the landscape through time. The mapping was not intended to provide the basis for detailed chronological analysis of the development of the Hampshire landscape, but the characterisation incorporates some definite chronological distinctions. It can be used for example to distinguish between those areas where present landscape character still owes much to pre-19th century components, and those which show substantial later change. It is possible to develop hypotheses from the work about how far earlier (for instance, pre-1650) landscape characteristics survive in the present landscape. Such hypotheses are not definitive but they provide signposts for further research, and the potential of the digital mapping system for juxtaposing different selections of Historic Landscape Types allows the generation of ideas and models. Such models can also act as the basis for developing conservation strategies to influence future landscape character.

Analysis of the GIS-based map can define chronologically related 'windows'. These are not 'phase plans' such as an archaeologist might devise from a well-stratified archaeological site, nor a picture of the landscape at any particular period. Rather, they provide a broad-brush view of the extent to which areas are characterised by landscape patterns deriving from different degrees of change through time. The maps showing the earliest survivals are understandably more patchy than the later ones, but they indicate which areas are likely to display greatest time-depth. This is perhaps especially relevant for development planning through indicating areas which are likely to be particularly sensitive to change.

This type of analysis therefore provides insight into which parts of the Hampshire landscape can be expected to retain the greatest feeling of time-depth, the least evidence for major, more recent change, and which parts reflect more recent radical change. But care needs to be taken in using the results. The so-called 'assart' fields for example need not be particularly early, and very broad-brush area characterisation may also conceal significant local variations and exceptions from any model. Areas where the predominant characteristics suggest a significant amount of post-medieval change will usually still contain medieval and earlier remains and even aspects of landscape character. The digital map can generate

insights and interpretations, but as always in archaeology they need to be treated mainly as a way of generating more detailed questions of landscape development.

Historical attributes of the current landscape

A third main area of analysis, tested so far, relates to the pattern and distribution of historic landscape character over Hampshire as a whole. Whereas the manipulation of the historic landscape type represents a basic digital mapping exercise, the measuring and spatial analysis of their interrelationship with other spatial entities more fully reflects the capability of the GIS. The categorisation of Historic Landscape Types provides a very generalised landuse related division of the Hampshire landscape. 52% of Hampshire is covered by field patterns, woodland accounts for 18%, and settlements and urban areas 13%. Heathland occupies 5%, and Valley floor and Parkland each account for 3%. Coastal areas (including intertidal foreshore areas) account for 2%. The remaining broad types (horticulture, commons, recreation, communication nodes, defence-related sites and Industry) account for less than 1% each, although some of these are not fully represented (for example much manufacturing industry is subsumed within 'settlement').

This broad categorisation is of interest for Hampshire as a whole, but does not really reflect the landscape or character spatial variation of the Hampshire landscape, since all areas reflect a mixture of types and historic processes. A more interesting exercise therefore is to look at combinations of the individual Historic Landscape Types in relation to the whole of the county, to individual Landscape Character Areas already defined by the county council, or to parishes. Pie-charts to achieve this analysis were generated from the GIS system, exporting the spatial data through an Access database to an Excel spreadsheet.

Parishes and community groupings

The Hampshire historic landscape characterisation project also sought to explore long-term community-based territories and settlement patterns, in order to cut across the topographically and geologically-determined bias of much conventional landscape assessment. It related landscape character to communities, and settlements and their parishes to topography (pl.8.2). Both parishes and settlements are in some ways special in relation to historic landscape assessment. They are long-lived, ancient in origin, directly related to the socio-economic processes that have been responsible for shaping the physical character of the countryside, and they are usually related to the exploitation and management of a range of natural resources. In contrast, most Landscape Character Areas, and indeed some Historic Landscape Types, mainly reflect the influence of geology, soils and landform, at times being largely environmentally deterministic.

Other types of analysis

Many other issues that can be explored through the map, using a filter of parish and settlement using the GIS are summarised in the following sections.

Fig.8.3: A view over Winchester, the primary urban and administrative centre of Hampshire for nearly 2,000 years.

Relating specific Historic Landscape Types to parishes
Over much of the county, the map shows that woodland, whether analysed by date or type, can be seen to cluster along parish boundaries (pl.8.2). If true, this apparent pattern supports the expectation noted elsewhere, for example by Mick Aston, that woodland tends to be in peripheral locations away from centres of settlement, because it is a resource which only requires relatively infrequent visits. This model of woodland as spatially peripheral to land-utilisation territories reflects interesting questions about how parishes came to be defined. Do parish areas reflect pre-existing patterns of landuse and socio-economic territories, did their boundaries determine the pattern of landuse, or did parish boundaries simply follow pre-existing territories? The rather crude chronological division incorporated into the Woodland Historic Landscape Types reveals that this pattern applies to post-1800 plantation as well as to older woods.

A similar type of analysis looked at the relationship between parishes, settlements and rivers. Settlements in the chalkland catchments of each of the main Hampshire rivers are mostly located next to rivers, even in their seasonally dry, 'winterbourne' upper reaches. Where the rivers are small, however, parishes usually extend onto both sides of a valley; where the river is large enough to be shared, the river divides two parishes, each occupying one side of the valley. In chalkland riverside parishes there may well also be scope for comparing this with the rather different topographical relationships of settlement and landuse that appear to have existed in the late prehistoric and Roman period.

Relating parishes to Landscape and Historic Landscape Types
Parishes often cross the boundaries of different landscape areas, including some of the major character area divisions, most notably the northern scarp of the chalk. A map of the Historic Landscape Types overlaid with the parishes similarly reveals many cases where parishes straddle significant divisions within the broad pattern of the historic landscape mosaic. This tends to be most obvious along the northern, and to some extent, southern boundaries of the chalk, but can also be seen elsewhere. More generally, correlation of Historic Landscape Types with parishes reveals the considerable variation in the range and character of types present within parishes; some have a much more diverse range of types than others. Those in the New Forest and much of the western side of the chalk are amongst the most homogeneous in their different ways, while those straddling the northern scarp of the chalk and the western Weald are among the most diverse.

Community landscape groupings
Use of the GIS system to analyse the different proportions of Historic Landscape Types in each parish produces a simple historic profile for every parish. This allows contrasts between parishes to be seen. It also potentially allows parishes with shared landscape characteristics to be identified. Further statistical analysis of the data would allow the parishes to be ranked according to similarity and thus grouped into what might be termed 'Community Landscape Areas'. Such community areas are easily recognised in some places, such as the parishes forming the core of the New Forest, those covering much of the western side of the chalk, or the heterogeneous parishes west of Andover and south-east of Basingstoke.

This approach represents a radically different perspective to most landscape assessment, being founded on understanding the evidence for past interaction of people with their environment rather than assuming that geology and topography are the only determinants and aesthetics the main criterion.

Settlement patterning
Only settlements with some degree of clustering or nucleation, such as towns, villages and hamlets, or dense concentrations of scattered settlement with paddocks, could realistically be plotted at the scale used. Although Hampshire is historically an area dominated by nucleated settlements (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000), there are also significant areas of dispersed settlement (in North Hampshire, the fringes of the New Forest and the western end of the Weald). The historic landscape characterisation does not yet deal very well with such areas.

A different approach was therefore explored, using modern computerised post-code (address) data, which measures number, density and clustering of houses, to capture a fuller picture of the present distribution of settlement. Seven categories of dispersed or nucleated settlement were defined by post-code analysis, from no settlement, through thin dispersed settlement and dispersed settlement to small, medium and then large nucleated settlements and urban. When mapped, this data shows significant correlation with the historic landscape map, and with the Hampshire Landscape Character Areas. It adds a useful further dimension in characterising the landscape's historic character, for example in noting the high levels of dispersed settlement in the areas with smaller fields, possible assarting and woodland, and more nucleated, less dispersed settlement within the main area of parliamentary-type fields on the chalk. At a more subtle level of variation, a distinction emerges between the western and eastern halves of north Hampshire, which appears to match distinctions in other historic landscape characteristics. For areas that are still essentially rural this approach largely agrees with Roberts and Wrathmell's (2000) analysis of the 19th-century patterns of nucleated and dispersed settlement undertaken at a national level for English Heritage.

The full project report prepared by OAU/SWRC for Hampshire County Council and English Heritage (Lambrick & Bramhill 1999) contains a more detailed

account of the method adopted than has been offered here. In particular, it contains a fuller description of the Historic Landscape Types and a broader range of better-illustrated examples. The digital map itself of course is the most important product of the Project. It is held by the County Council and is already being used for management, conservation, education, and planning purposes.

The learning zone: using Historic Landscape Characterisation in Hampshire

One of the many responsibilities of the County Archaeological Officer in Hampshire is to contribute to the council's Environmental Record. This record is used in association with specialist advice to influence landuse planning and land management by the county council and other agencies. It includes not just archaeological records but also nature conservation, landscape (including historic and designed landscapes), and historic built data, along with much broader environmental data, such as water and air quality data. These data sets find common expression through the department's GIS.

In 1997 Peter Atkinson, the department's Historic Landscape Architect, and David Hopkins, were asked to prepare a project design for an Historic Landscape Characterisation project for Hampshire, to be jointly funded by Hampshire County Council and English Heritage. Historic landscape characterisation was a topic with which we were familiar only in its broad principles. Graham Fairclough at English Heritage provided a full range of reading material regarding the methods and philosophy, and the Cornwall Historic Landscape Characterisation project, while Jon Hoyle from Gloucester County Council sent us a copy of Project Design being used for historic landscape characterisation in the Cotswolds.

This was a rapid and significant learning process, and one for which time might not have been available within a busy workload were it not for its direct necessity. Following a formal tendering process the Oxford Archaeological Unit and Scott Wilsons were appointed to carry out the project. The project steering group included landscape architects, landscape planners, the historic landscape architect and GIS experts as well as archaeologists. This was another rapid and significant learning process. By the time the results were delivered to the County Planning Department's GIS, the value and use of the data had been clearly demonstrated, but the amount that needed to be learnt about using it and applying it to landscape and archaeological heritage management was daunting. Other counties have carried out the historic landscape characterisation work themselves rather than by using external experts, and have therefore learnt as the project proceeded.

There were three areas to explore with the completed Historic Landscape Characterisation database:

- Using and understanding the data itself, and finding ways to make it facilitate the role of the County Archaeological Officer, particularly in planning, site management and agri-environmental schemes.
- Using it in conjunction with Sites and Monuments Record data, to add to the understanding of both data sets.
- Using the data to work more effectively with landscape architects, and so exert an influence at a landscape scale.

It has been possible to use the data in very practical ways to assist the County Planning Officer, in response to some larger-scale planning applications, and in discussions regarding the *Minerals and Waste Local Plan*. The information has been used in response to Countryside Stewardship Schemes (agri-environmental), and to establish landscape context for guide-leaflets for long distance walks across the county, thus in a preliminary simple way introducing the concept of historic landscape character to a wider public audience.

Cross-correlating the Historic Landscape Character data with Sites and Monuments Record data has given some fundamental new insights into the archaeology of the county, a county which is certainly among the most well-studied and closely-recorded in England. The Historic Landscape Characterisation has altered perceptions of data collection, enhancing understanding of the data that exists for particular landscape elements with archaeological importance. For example, the water meadows survey for Hampshire has been completed and it is hoped to do similar work for salt-production sites.

There are many practical applications of the data to Sites and Monuments Records, creating many opportunities. The Historic Landscape Character data within the department's database allows the historic environment to influence policy and landscape management at a number of levels. Perhaps most fundamentally the Historic Landscape Character Assessment provides a common language, and common parameters, and this facilitates effective discussion. Landscape architects no longer ask for Sites and Monuments point data to represent the historic environment because historic landscape character gives a more relevant data set to carry the information at a more appropriate level of detail and scale for landscape-scale assessment: a shared language with which to discuss the implications. This allows the historic environment to be properly reflected in landscape assessments and strategies.

There has for a long time been a fundamental recognition that the historic environment is the product of thousands of years of interaction between humans and the natural environment, and this view is held widely across

the whole spectrum of different types of landscape managers and landscape users, and increasingly in public opinion. But almost no landscape assessment or management plans took this recognition beyond a role merely as the opening 'colourful' chapter, setting the scene as if the past is merely background, just in the past rather than still being part of the living landscape. They rarely used historical understanding to improve detailed landscape character area descriptions, nor to inform discussion and analysis of the topics, issues, and management priorities that are needed to deliver effective landscape management and sustainable development. But it is by penetrating the entire document that the philosophy is able to exert a real and practical outcome in terms of landuse planning and land management. The historic landscape character assessments need to be integrated within the landscape assessment if the historic environment is to be properly reflected in a system of management that derives from assessment rather than designation, and this is what the County Historic Landscape Characterisation is beginning to make more achievable (Tartaglia-Kershaw 1999).

At county level

Structure Plans drawn up by county councils are currently the main strategic document for spatial planning in England. Policy E6 of the Structure Plan for Hampshire states 'To ensure that development maintains and enhances areas of distinctive landscape character, local planning policies will pay particular regard to: *inter alia* (a) the need to respect scenic quality, sense of remoteness and historic landscapes' ensuring that the historic environment, as a material consideration, can be addressed. It is the historic landscape characterisation, and its various flexible outputs, that now offers the most useful information to flesh-out this policy, allowing planners and landscape managers to assess any part of the county's historic landscape in its context, and at the right scale, rather than only focussing on sites and monuments.

The Minerals and Waste Local Plan, also drawn up at county level, was under review as the Historic Landscape Characterisation became available. The impact of large-scale mineral extraction, or of locating landfill waste sites, on any landscape is significant, and the initial studies will be able to address the historic landscape.

A new management plan being drawn up for the Forests of Bere and Eversley areas of the county (like the New Forest mentioned above, very longstanding areas of medieval hunting forest, with distinctive settlement and field patterns) was an early example of the Historic Landscape Characterisation data exerting an influence on the language of a document and the management it proposed. Use of the historic landscape information also influenced *The Vision for the Strategic Management of the South Downs AONB* (AONBs, Areas of Outstanding Natural (sic) Beauty (sic), are national large-scale designations in England, within which special management and planning policies can apply). Whilst much in these areas is valued for its 'natural beauty', many of the assets that embody this 'natural beauty' are in reality the product of cultural, often very long-term, landscape management rather than purely natural processes. The data allows management plans to recognise this and articulate the significance from the principles to the priorities.

In the New Forest the proposed boundary for creating a new National Park has been fundamentally influenced by the historic landscape data. Protecting the historic dimension of the area's landscape is an overtly stated principle for defining the draft boundary.

At a district level

Below the level of Structure Plans in England is a more local level of spatial plans, the District or 'Unitary' Plan drawn up by district councils within the Structure Plan framework. Topic or thematic plans for the same areas often accompany these. In Hampshire the New Forest District Council has produced, with the County Council, English Heritage and Countryside Agency support, a *New Forest District Landscape Assessment* (New Forest DC 2000). In this district-wide integrated landscape assessment, historic landscape character is fully recognised throughout the document, the first time this has been possible in Hampshire (pl.8.3). The Assessment influences the appreciation of the landscape, the boundaries of the character areas and the issues and strategies that are set out. The purpose of the assessment is to guide landuse change and land management issues in the assessment area, and because historic landscape characterisation is so firmly embedded within it its implementation will advance considerable the conservation of the archaeological heritage of the landscape. As Supplementary Planning Guidance (supporting detail to the District Plan policies) it will influence the planing authority, land owners, and agencies, including those whose targeted grant aid fundamentally influences the character of the landscape, such as countryside stewardship.

At a local level

Historic landscape characterisation can also be used in greater detail at genuinely local level. 'The Manydown Landscape Study' for example was carried out in an area to the west of the town of Basingstoke. It drew in archaeological data, and historic landscape character assessed in detail, including field checking, which are built into the landscape review and strategy. It has been resolved by the council's Planning Committee that the contents, and the process used, be approved as best practice for major development areas in Hampshire and for the county council's estate management. The purpose of the assessment is to influence those making decisions that affect this landscape, such as planning authorities, landowners or landscape and planning agencies. In a

similar way, a study on 'The Setting of Winchester' used historic landscape characterisation extensively (fig.8.3), showing the way in which an historically important urban centre was considered within its landscape setting (Tartaglia-Kershaw 1999).

Conclusion

Historic Landscape Character Assessment has proved a valuable, even fundamental, data set in Hampshire's Environmental Record. The data in the Environmental Record supports the production of policies, strategies, priorities, advice and frameworks. These in turn bring about practical landuse and land management change through a wide range of agencies. The Historic Landscape Characterisation has been available to the county for less than three years, yet already it has proved useful and there remain many untested potential uses. Critical to the effectiveness of this tool is a need for a much wider range of people to be competent and confident in using the information and for there to be a greater level of consistency in the use of language and terms, and for the historic landscape character to be more widely accessible. The county is also moving towards making the historic landscape characterisation information available on the Web, which should greatly expand its value and influence.

Acknowledgements

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This paper has diverse origins, including a summary of Graham Fairclough's paper at the 2001 EAC Symposium, a version of George Lambrick's paper at the EAA 1999 conference in Bournemouth and a paper by David Hopkins given to the English Heritage seminar on Historic Landscape Characterisation at the Society of Antiquaries of London in December 2000. All have been rewritten and updated for this volume, and joined together mainly by Graham Fairclough, on whom any inconsistencies, duplications, contradictions and errors should be blamed.

APPENDIX A

Completed Historic Landscape Characterisation Reports in England

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APPENDIX B

Hampshire Historic Landscape categories and types

1. Field Patterns

1.1	Small irregular assarts intermixed with woodland
1.2	Medium irregular assarts and copses with wavy boundaries
1.3	Large Irregular assarts with wavy or mixed boundaries
1.4	Regular assarts with straight boundaries
1.5	Enclosed strips and furlongs
1.6	Regular form with wavy boundaries (?late med to 17th/18th century enclosures)
1.7	Irregular straight boundaries
1.8	Regular 'ladder' fields (long wavy boundaries subdivided by straight cross divisions)
1.9	Small regular fields with straight boundaries (parliamentary type enclosure)
1.10	Medium regular fields with straight boundaries (parliamentary type enclosure)
1.11	Large regular fields with straight boundaries (parliamentary type enclosure)
1.12	Variable size, regular fields with straight boundaries (parliamentary type enclosure)
1.13	Not Used
1.14	Prairie fields (19th century enclosure with extensive boundary loss)
1.15	Fields predominantly bounded by tracks, roads, other rights of way
1.16	Small rectilinear fields with wavy boundaries

2. Commons

2.1	Common heathland
2.2	Common downland
2.3	Other commons and greens
2.4	Wooded over commons

3. Horticulture

3.1	Orchards
3.2	Not Used
3.3	Nurseries with glass houses

4. Woodland

4.1	Assarted pre-1810 woodland
4.2	Replanted assarted pre-1810 woodland
4.3	Other pre-1810 woodland
4.4	Replanted other pre-1810 woodland
4.5	19th century plantations (general)
4.6	pre-1810 hangers (scarp & steep valley-side woodland)
4.7	Post 1810 hangers
4.8	Pre-1810 heathland enclosed woodland
4.9	19th century heathland plantations
4.10	Pre-1810 wood pasture
4.11	19th century wood pasture

5. Heathland

5.1	Unenclosed heath and scrub
5.2	Enclosed heath and scrub
5.3	Purlieus and other enclosed heathland pastures

6. Downland

6.1	Downland

7. Valley Floor, water management

7.1	Miscellaneous valley bottom paddocks and pastures
7.2	Valley floor woodlands
7.3	Marsh and rough grazing
7.4	Water meadows
7.5	Unimproved hay meadows or pasture

7.6 Watercress beds
7.7 Fishpond, hatchery complexes, natural ponds and lakes
7.8 Watermills, mill ponds and leats

8. Coastal

8.1 Coastal wetlands
8.2 Salt marsh
8.3 Salterns
8.4 Reclaimed land
8.5 Harbours and marinas
8.6 Shingle and dunes
8.7 Mud flats

9. Settlements

9.1 Scattered settlement with paddocks 1800 extent
9.2 Scattered settlement with paddocks (post 1800 extent)
9.3 Common edge settlement
9.4 Common edge settlement (post 1800 extent)
9.5 Not Used
9.6 Post 1810 settlement (general)
9.7 Village/hamlet 1810 extent
9.8 Not Used
9.9 Town & city 1810 extent
9.10 Town & city post 1810 extent
9.11 Caravan sites

10. Parkland & Designed

10.1 Pre-1810 parkland
10.2 19th century and later parkland
10.3 Deer parks

11. Recreation

11.1 Racecourses
11.2 Golf Courses
11.3 Major sports fields and complexes

12. Extractive & Industry

12.1 Active and disused chalk quarries
12.2 Active and disused gravel workings
12.3 Industrial complexes and factories
12.4 Modern large scale industry (power stations; oil terminals etc)
12.5 Reservoirs and water treatment
12.6 Dockyards

13. Inland Communications

13.1 Station and sidings complexes
13.2 Canal basin complexes
13.3 Airfields
13.4 Motorway service areas

14. Military and Defence

14.1 Prehistoric and Roman (eg hillforts, Roman forts)
14.2 Medieval (motte and baileys, ring works)
14.3 Post medieval (1500-1830)
14.4 19th century (1830-1914)
14.5 20th century (1914-)

9: Historic land-use assessment in Scotland

Piers Dixon & Richard Hingley

Abstract: *Scotland's Historic Land-use Assessment Project was first established by Historic Scotland and the Royal Commission for Ancient and Historic Monuments of Scotland in 1996. It was inspired by the Historic Landscape Character Assessment of Cornwall, but adapted for use in a Scottish context. Techniques and methodologies were developed to assess the cultural heritage aspects of the Scottish landscape, using GIS to provide a flexible approach towards historic landuse analysis. This paper summaries the objectives of the project, the methodology used and the results obtained. It concludes by assessing the application of historic landuse assessments as a tool for ensuring that cultural heritage information finds its proper place in landscape assessments and landscape management strategies.*

Background

Historic Land-use Assessment (HLA) is a technique developed in Scotland for assessing the built heritage aspects of the landscape (fig.9.1). Its methodology was inspired by the *Historic Landscape Character Assessment of Cornwall*, but the methods have been adapted substantially for the Scottish context (Bruce *et al.* 1999; Cornwall County Council 1996; Fairclough 1999; Herring 1998). In addition the use, from the start of the project, of Geographical Information System (GIS) has enabled a flexible system for historic landuse analysis to be developed. The methodology is outlined in brief in this paper, together with a summary account of the results of the historic land-use assessment mapping of twelve areas spread across Scotland.

Historic Scotland and the Royal Commission for Ancient and Historic Monuments of Scotland (RCAHMS) first established the Historic Land-use Assessment Project in October 1996. It is a partnership venture to develop and implement a methodology for assessing historic landuse patterns in Scotland. The work has been undertaken centrally in Edinburgh by RCAHMS and Historic Scotland, on the platform of the RCAHMS Geographical Information System. A Steering Group involving a wide range of organisations and individuals oversees the project. Partnership funding has been obtained from the Forest Commission, Scottish Natural Heritage and the Ayrshire Councils Joint Structure Plan Committee and further partnership involvement is welcomed.

Objectives

The origins of historic land-use assessment lie in the practice of landscape character assessment, which has generated a new and more informed approach to landscape issues. Scottish Natural Heritage has undertaken a national programme of landscape character assessment at a scale of 1:50,000 with particular purposes and objectives. An assessment of these documents by cultural heritage managers, however, indicated that the scale of resolution at which they are undertaken did not enable conventional historical and archaeological information to be used to its full potential. This historical dimension is important as an aid to understanding the processes behind the formation of the current landscape.

Today's landscape contains a record of prehistoric and historic events upon its surface and it is important to understand this to inform the wider landscape debate. The main value of historic land-use assessment lies in its potential to enable the input of built heritage interests

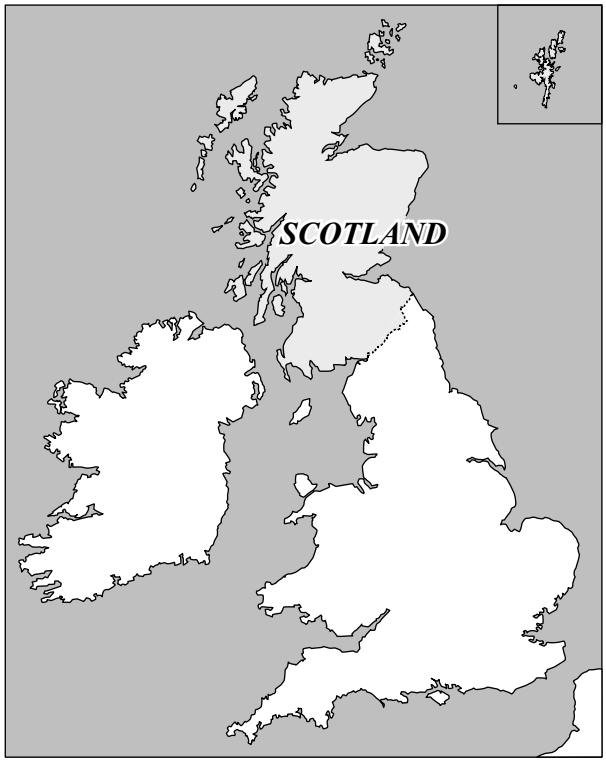

Fig.9.1: Scotland.

into the management of landscape change, although the technique has been found to have several other potential uses.

Historic land-use assessment can produce multiple maps based on different sets of criteria. The full value of the approach can most easily be appreciated through the use of GIS. In addition, historic land-use assessment will have the greatest potential when a full national coverage has been built up allowing an overview of the historical development of the whole of Scotland's landscape, as well as an appreciation of its regional and chronological variation.

Summary description of methodology

The mapping process involves the systematic assessment of topographic Ordnance Survey (OS) maps, archaeological and historical data in the National Monuments Record of Scotland (NMRS), the Land Cover Map of Scotland and vertical aerial photographs. The assessment is a broad-brush exercise, which uses 1:25,000 scale maps for the capture of information. These maps contain the topographic detail that allows the historic landuse to be characterised.

This scale of data capture, however, has the disadvantage that any feature which is less than one hectare in extent is too small to map. Groups of structures can be included in the historic land-use assessment, using a yardstick, for example, of at least five shielings or three hut-circles per hectare, but many individual archaeological sites do not show up on the maps that are produced. Information on small sites, however, can instead be added to the GIS from the National Monuments Record of Scotland or local Sites and Monuments Records (SMRs), and therefore used in conjunction with historic land-use assessment.

The information is collated and mapped by the application of a series of historical land-use types that have been grouped by land-use principles into general categories and also by period of currency. In addition, relict features and archaeological remains are incorporated into the map, but are distinguished as relict types. The simple principle is that all parts of the landscape may be categorised as having an historic land-use type, but there are some parts, which display the traces of previous land-use types. Both types are mapped so that in any given area there will be an historic land-use type, but relict types will occur occasionally as they are detected. The distinction may be defined thus:

Historic Land-use Types – reflecting historic land-use types in current use, which may include types that, are in origin several hundred years old.

Relict Land-use Types – reflecting historic land-use types that are no longer maintained for their original purpose, but which have left a visible trace in the landscape, and also relict archaeological landscapes that may be mapped.

A glossary of terms has been compiled, including 47 historic land-use types grouped under 14 historic land-use categories. There are 48 relict types grouped into 16 categories, of which four are exclusively archaeological, comprising 20 of the relict types. The remaining 28 overlap with the historic land-use categories, an illustration of the constantly changing face of the historic landscape. For example, the fields of the improvement period are in many cases part of the modern framework of fields, but in some areas the fields have been abandoned and the ground turned to rough grazing. In this instance *the historic land-use type* is rough grazing, but the *relict type* is rectilinear fields of the 18th and 19th centuries, which is also a historic type elsewhere. For many of the archaeological landscapes the main source is the National Monument Record of Scotland, but in large areas of Scotland where no recent survey (ie since 1985) has been carried out, aerial photographs become more critical as a source. In addition, a validation process that involves ground visits to check information and interpretation is built into the project.

The resulting composite map is entered into GIS, using GenaMap, to produce topologically correct maps. The digitising is executed using the OS BasicScale digital map as a base. Polygons are tagged with the historic land-use reference number and attached to an up-to-date copy of the database, so that analyses can be carried out textually. Once entered into the GIS, the complete maps are transferred into a PC-based browser called ArcView. The maps may then be combined with other data-sets, including site data from the National Monuments Records or Sites and Monuments Records, for further interrogation and analysis. Interpreted data of this sort on historic land-use, relict land-use and the survival of field patterns are not available from other sources, which makes this a unique resource in Scotland.

Historic Land-use Assessment study areas

The methodology was developed through a pilot project between 1996–8, when six contrasting landscapes were selected for assessment. Geographically, the areas ranged from the Orkney Islands in the far north of Scotland to Liddesdale on the borders with England, and from Skye in the Western Isles to Fife on the East Coast (fig.9.2). They were chosen to provide a variety of landscapes, which would allow a wide range of historic land-use assessment issues to be addressed (eg regional variation, afforestation, archaeological management questions and development pressures).

Since 1998, more extensive historic land-use assessment surveys have been carried out in the Isle of Rum, eastern Dumfriesshire, Ayrshire, Renfrewshire, the Cairngorms and Loch Lomond & the Trossachs, the last two being proposed for National Parks status. By the end of 2000, about 25% of the country had been covered by the historic land-use assessment technique. The contrasts within these landscapes are now showing considerable variation within historic land-use types and in the distribution of relict types.

Case studies

The assessment of the areas for which historic land-use assessment has been undertaken not only confirmed the expected regional patterns of historic land-use types but also showed the extent and range of relict land-use types which are of particular archaeological interest. The selected maps show examples of contrasting regional patterns: the first, a lowland mixture of agricultural, industrial and urban areas in the Cleish area of Fife (fig.9.2); and the second, an upland mixture of moorland, rough-pasture, forestry and agriculture in the Liddesdale area of the Scottish Borders (fig.9.2). The two landscapes contain important areas of relict land-use types, many of which are threatened by modern land-use changes.

Cleish

This is an area where rapid landscape change is occurring. The collapse of the deep-mining industry has been accompanied by an expansion of forestry plantations and the development of large-scale open-cast mines. On a relatively small scale the Cleish landscape exemplifies the type of developments occurring over much of the Central Belt of Scotland in the wake of the collapse of the coal and iron industries.

The Cleish landscape area is dominated by 18th- and 19th-century rectilinear fields interspersed with intensive urban, industrial and extractive developments. The outlined areas indicate relict land-use, such as pre-improvement agriculture and mineral extraction. Parklands, some of which are relict, are also a characteristic feature of the landscape. Recent open-cast coal mines have had a dramatic impact on the landscape, with large areas still being subject to the destructive activity of extraction, whereas other areas are now considered relict having been restored to agriculture. The uplands have been subject to commercial afforestation, which has led to the loss of considerable areas of relict landscapes.

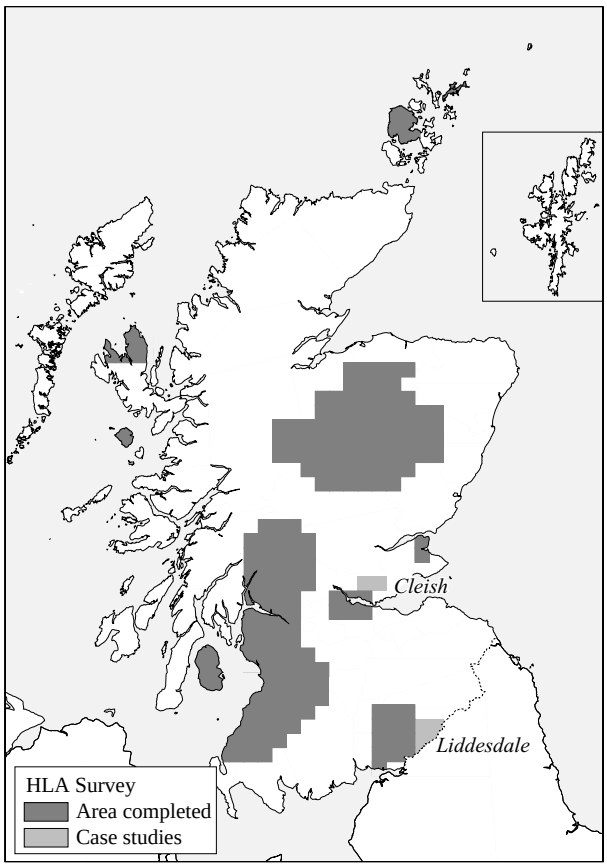

Fig.8.2: Map of Historic Land-use Assessment areas to 2001.

Liddesdale

Liddesdale is an area of marginal agriculture. The higher ground is predominantly rough pasture, some of it drained for grazing or managed for grouse shooting, while the favoured areas of low ground are more intensively farmed and are characterised by 18th- and 19th-century rectilinear fields. Newcastleton is an example of an improvement period planned village and is surrounded by a grid of small fields associated with, but not attached to, the houses in the village. Afforestation has made a major impact on the east side of the valley and forestry is still expanding. Extensive prehistoric and pre-improvement relict landscapes survive within the unforested rough pastures (outlined on map).

In outline, but not in detail, the area is representative of many parts of southern Scotland. It is a landscape that has undergone numerous phases of settlement and agricultural expansion and contraction from the prehistoric period to the present day. Analysis of Relict Landuse Types demonstrates this more clearly. The relict landscapes that survive in Scotland vary in nature and period from area to area and as the historic land-use mapping of Scotland is undertaken distinctive regional patterns are emerging.

The assessment of Liddesdale (pl.9.1) has demonstrated the survival of extensive and complex relict landscapes, indicating a long sequence of occupation. By selecting specific fields and setting them on the Ordnance Survey background, a digest of the information shown on plate 9.2, can be produced which reveals the extent of three major relict landscape types, that is field-systems dating to the prehistoric, medieval and post-medieval periods. These represent the surviving fragments of what were once more extensive systems of archaeologically significant cultivation remains, which are now threatened by the spread of commercial forestry.

The assessment map demonstrates the potential for historic land-use assessment to be used to highlight important archaeological landscapes, to assess their extent and spatial relationships and for identifying which parts of the Scottish landscape have the greatest variety and chronological depth. This highlights the value of historic land-use assessment as the basis for managing this important cultural resource.

The impact of forestry on the relict land-use types of the area also highlights one particular use to which the information can be put. Historic land-use assessment

information can be used to develop future planting schemes to manage their impact on the important archaeological landscapes of the area.

Application and use

Historic land-use assessment is a tool for inputting cultural heritage information into landscape assessments and informing landscape management. Ultimately national coverage is needed to provide a fuller picture of variations within the pattern of historic land-use types and the survival of relict types across the landscape of Scotland. However, each Historic Land-use Assessment undertaken refines our understanding of the historical development of the landscape.

Historic land-use assessment maps should prove to be of considerable use to cultural resource managers and land managers in general, with regard to the strategic planning of future developments and landscape planning. Relevant work has already been undertaken within the two proposed National Parks of Loch Lomond and the Trossachs (RCAHMS & HS 2000) and the Cairngorms (RCAHMS & HS 2001), to inform management of their cultural heritage. Further work is currently underway in relation to the development of management strategies for National Scenic Areas within the Dumfries and Galloway and Highland council areas, while historic land-use assessment has also been used to inform forestry planning in Ayrshire and at Mar Lodge Estate. This work is beginning to show how much historical land-use has contributed to current landscape character. It also highlights how historic land-use assessment can complement landscape character assessments to provide a fuller understanding of the modern landscape of Scotland (Tyldesley 2001).

Historic land-use assessment also has value for the analysis of archaeological landscapes, helping to address issues of regional diversity and providing a broader context for the understanding of particular site types such as medieval or later rural settlement. It also helps identify areas for field survey in the future, aids understanding of issues of site survival and highlights areas where more detailed research is needed.

Historic land-use assessment is not, however, an end in itself, but part of a process which should also involve evaluation of historic and relict land-use types on a local, regional and national basis. Further work is needed in this area, together with more practical applications of historic land-use assessment in development planning and land management contexts. Results also need to be made more widely accessible to the general public to encourage greater community involvement in the process of cultural resource management. The National Parks may provide a good opportunity to address these aims in the medium term. Completed historic land-use assessments are already publicly accessible through Royal Commission Ancient Historic Monuments Scotland web-site.

Conclusion

Historic land-use assessment is enhancing our understanding of the development of the landscape and the extent of human influence on it. It is beginning to aid decision-making about the impact of landscape change on the historic aspects of our environment. Historic land-use assessment's full potential will only be realised, however, when there is complete national coverage and Historic Scotland and Royal Commission Ancient Historic Monuments Scotland continue to work towards this, developing partnerships wherever appropriate. At the same time, we are seeking to develop the practical applications of historic land-use assessments to explore further its links with landscape character assessments and to make it more widely accessible.

Acknowledgement

This paper has been brought up to date with the help of Lesley Macinnes of Historic Scotland.

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Part 3

Managing change, making the future

Heritage managers waiting to use the telephone; Lancashire, England. Photo: Graham Fairclough.

10: Past- and future-oriented archaeology: protecting and developing the archaeological-historical landscape in the Netherlands

J.H.F. Bloemers

Abstract: *This paper describes recent and continuing developments in the Netherlands in the theory and practice of applying archaeological perspectives, mainly at landscape scale, to the processes of regional and spatial planning and of archaeological resource management. It theorises the modern role of archaeology as a social process linking the past with the future, and describes the two national Dutch programmes that have been initiated to operationalise (the Belvedere Memorandum) and to inform (the NWO research programme) this use of archaeology.*

Introduction

This paper discusses ways to respond to the problems and threats to the Dutch archaeological record and the effect that the loss of these values might have on the future environment of the Netherlands. Threats are clearly visible in the changes in rural and urban areas, less visible in regular agricultural landuse such as deep ploughing, and inevitably invisible in the permanent degradation and corrosion of peat deposits.

Archaeologists and politicians are aware of the irreversible nature of the destruction of the archaeological record. They are willing to attack the current threats at their source and to aim at sustainable management by prevention and conservation. This is best illustrated by the decision of the Council of Europe taken in 1992 concerning the protection of the archaeological heritage, generally known as the Valletta Convention (Verdrag van Valletta 1992). In common with other European countries, the Dutch government is at present moving towards developing and legally formalising a deliberately preventative archaeological heritage policy that integrates archaeological values with normal spatial planning concepts and procedures. The basic assumption is that past cultural elements can be used to enhance the quality of our present and future environment. This can be achieved by giving them not only protection, but also a function as an element in the development and exploitation of the modern urban and rural landscape. In this way they contribute to the human perception and identification of the present and future world we live in.

To respond in an adequate way to the exceptional requirements and opportunities of these developments, archaeology as a discipline needs to develop appropriate concepts and methodologies to adapt traditional historical archaeology to a heritage management oriented approach. My personal opinion is that these developments will have such a massive impact on the archaeological discipline that we will be confronted with paradigmatic shifts.

A paradigmatic characterisation of archaeology

Archaeology as a discipline belongs to the present world and contemporary societies. The principal object of archaeological concern is the material record embedded in its physical context, the primary and foremost source of information for archaeology.

Traditionally, the aim of archaeology as a historic discipline is to explore the past and to know how human kind developed in different places and periods on earth (fig.10.1 left). Consequently, this influences the questions we ask and the way we use the record: we apply the archaeological method par excellence – the excavation – to extract the hidden information. Almost all professional archaeologists have been educated within this paradigm. From this perspective stem criteria for measuring the success of individual professionals and of institutions and their policies. Because of the unknown, but certainly limited quantity and size of the archaeological record, its inability to regenerate and the constant threat of its destruction, it is now widely considered to be logical to concentrate on the prevention of this threat by early archaeological involvement in planning procedures. This is more effective than to rescue the record by excavation as a consequence of that threat. But, to refrain from excavating and to emphasise heritage prevention and planning does not fit the traditional paradigm in the Netherlands, and this way is often considered as 'second class archaeology', even when most archaeologists find their employment in the field of heritage management.

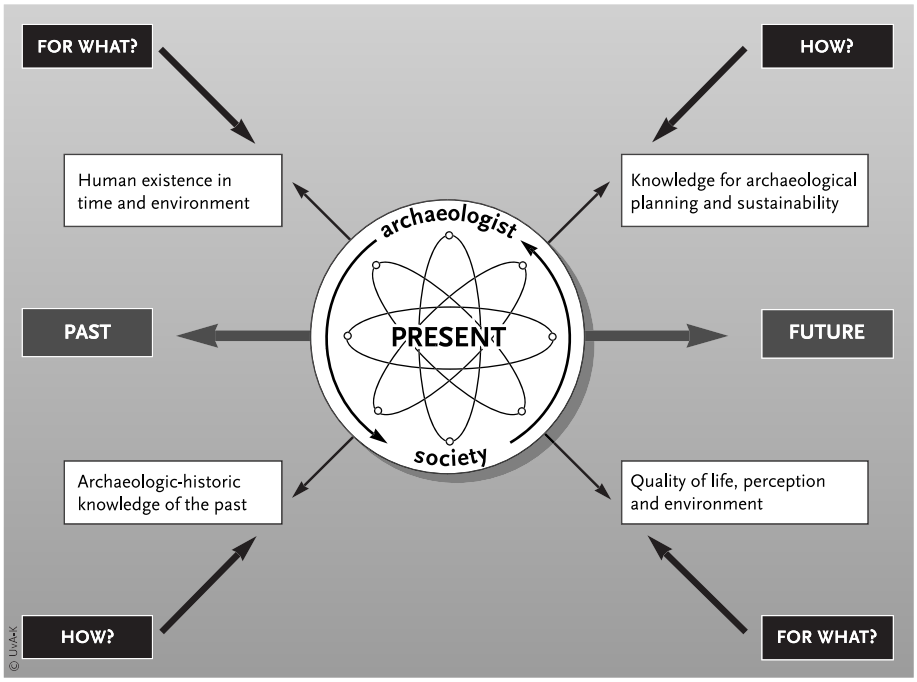

Fig.10.1: Archaeology as a past- and future-oriented discipline.

Consequently, there is a discrepancy between the existing paradigm of the past-oriented archaeology and the requirements and logic of the changing world to which archaeologists belong.

Developing archaeology, or planning-led archaeology, can solve this discrepancy. Its purpose should be to make archaeological values a factor for the development of the quality of present and future human life, perception and environment (fig.10.1 right). This can be realised through research on concepts and methods for nurturing and guiding a heritage policy aiming at the sustainable development of archaeological resources by giving them a function and meaning in environmental policy. This future-oriented archaeology does not replace traditional past-oriented archaeology, but is an extension and transformation of it. It needs the knowledge acquired through traditional archaeology to link concepts, methods and techniques from geographical and environmental disciplines. On the other hand, the future of traditional archaeology depends strongly on the effectiveness of a policy for the sustainable maintenance of archaeological values as primary sources for past-orientated research. So, the object of both archaeologies are the same archaeological values, but the aims are different, as are consequently the type of questions, methods, techniques and results. These two archaeological approaches are complementary and should be integrated on the basis of mutual interest and appreciation.

The methodology for integrated archaeology

Even if you accept my previous propositions, you might wonder how to practice them. We need an intermediate methodology to bridge the gap between theory and practice and between historical and future-oriented archaeology; a sort of middle range theory (fig.10.2). History and environment are constituent elements of the historic landscape. The combination of knowledge of the past and preventive planning aims at preservation or, at second best, excavation. Both outcomes create feedback for starting a new heritage cycle. If excavation is unavoidable this can be considered as a part of an empirical cycle of prevention and documentation. The information gained as a result of excavation can then contribute to a better knowledge and understanding of the occupational pattern, which in turn increases the predictive power of the habitation models for a specific region.

Crucial for an intermediate methodology is the concept of the 'region', the geographical unit of variable size where social structures and individual actors meet and where their specific spatial and temporal trajectories interact (De Pater/Van der Wusten 1996, p.223). Dutch archaeology has long used the regional concept to structure fieldwork in search of the archaeological record (Bloemers 1999). It has shown that the region is a meaningful unit of research, for example because it corresponds with the spatial and temporal scale of prehistoric societies. Fortunately, the region is at present also the most appropriate scale for modern town and country planning, the level where planning policy and the daily life of modern inhabitants meet. Because archaeological analysis has reached up from the site, to the regional level, archaeology and planning fit more or less together. Concepts and tools for the integration of archaeological values in planning policy can be developed and tested in practice. At the same time public opinion can experience the effects in their direct environment.

The region is also the level for integration of archaeological values with historical geography and historic monuments. Together they are the constituents of the historical landscape, which link the present to the past in a cultural biography of landscapes (see van Beusekom, and Hallewas this volume). On this level too lies the relationship between town and country in the past and the present. Consequently, on the regional level the traditional archaeological problem of transformation and continuity of society and landscape can be analysed and interpreted in a meaningful way. Finally, perceiving the region as a coherent and effective unit for research and policy secures the chance to discover insightful elements of the cultural landscape that are now unknown or unexpected. That is ultimately what archaeology makes so fascinating!

Environmental planning

Environmental planning policy is a major public issue in the Netherlands which as a densely populated metropolitan and rural area, having its economic base in intensive agriculture, industry, trade and transport, has a centuries old tradition of physical planning and reconstructing the environment. In the early 1990s the Dutch government formulated the fourth planning perspective for policy up to the year 2015 (Vinex 1990); its actualisation now reaches up to 2020 (VIJNO 2001). The general planning structure shows areas of intensive urban development with over 600,000 houses, new transport corridors over both land and water, and rural areas of intensive agriculture, nature conservancy and mixed exploitation.

The fundamental concepts guiding and legitimising this long-term planning scheme are dynamics and quality (fig.10.3).

- *Dynamics* is the planning concept that conditions development. This fits the historically important idea of development, which is expressed by evolution and transformation. For example, our present archaeological sites as landscapes are the result of a long-term process of construction and change, including destruction by prehistoric man, which will continue into the future. On the one hand it gives archaeologists an alibi not to aim dogmatically at blocking these processes, on the other it compels them to participate in these changes and to help direct them carefully. This is our present responsibility for the archaeological heritage towards past and future generations (Achterberg 1994).
- *Quality* is determined by the function and potential for combination with other functions, by the meaning given to elements of the environment and by the value they have for future sustainable development. The quality of the environment is expressed by the feeling of identity these elements create, the diversity of elements and their coherency. Archaeological values can in combination with historical and geographical elements contribute to these aspects of quality.

Implementing sustainable development of the archaeological resources in the Netherlands

To achieve the integration of the cultural heritage as an element in the national planning policy, two major activities were started last year in the Netherlands: one is a strategic line of cultural planning policy, and the other is a national scientific research programme. Although independently initiated, they are complementary to each other and reflect an overall awareness of the urgency of the problem.

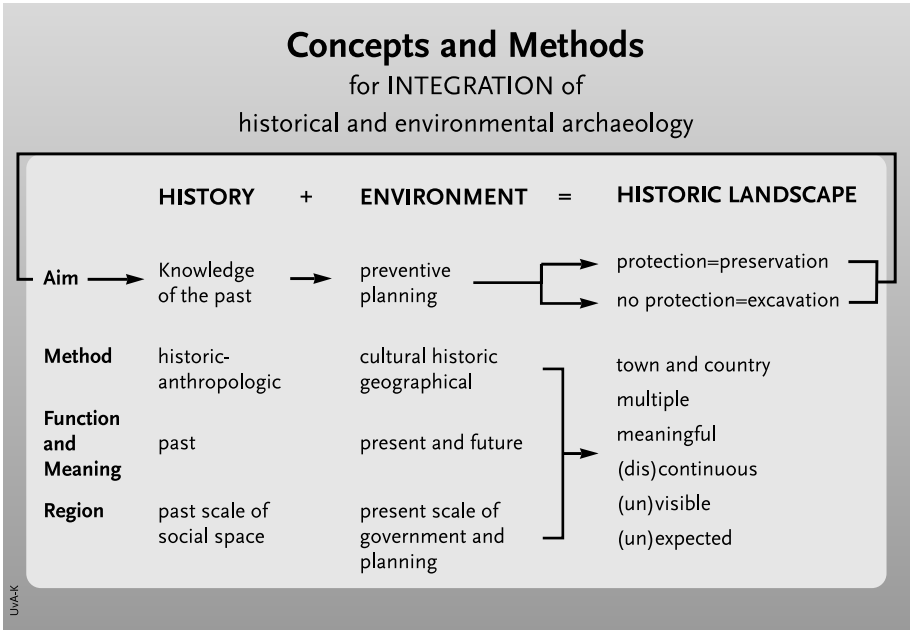

Fig.10.2: Concepts and methods for the integration of historical and environmental archaeology.

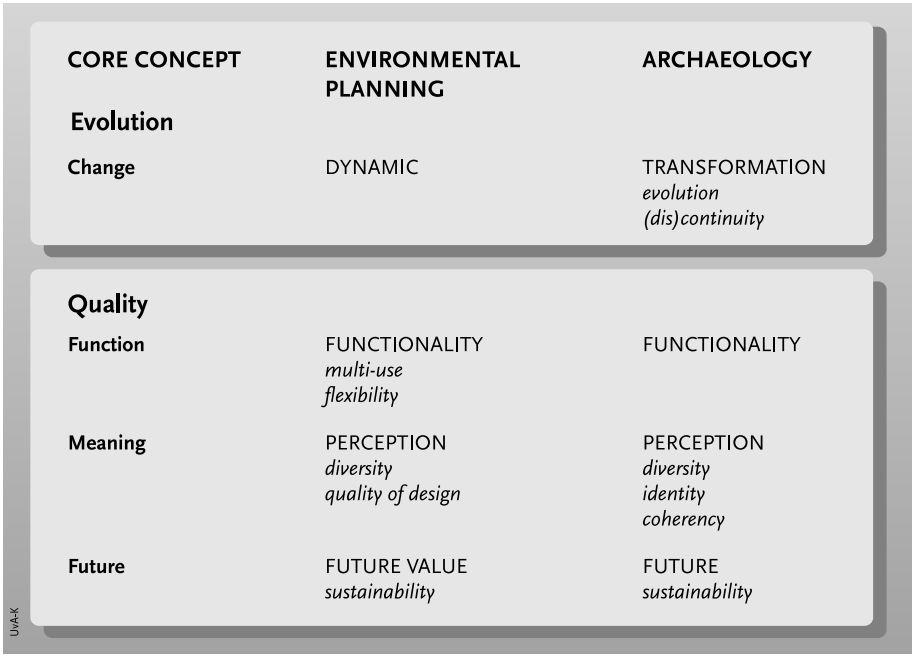

Fig.10.3: Core concepts from Dutch environmental planning and their relevance for archaeological resource management.

The Belvedere programme

By a joint effort of four ministries – Culture, Housing and Planning, Agriculture and Nature, and Transport and Public Works – the Dutch government has initiated the so-called Belvedere programme (Nota Belvedere 1999). It is considering the three types of cultural historical resources – archaeological, historic geographical and historical – from an integrated perspective – *internal integration*. Heritage policy has treated these fields up to now as separate entities, and this therefore is a fundamental step forward to link the long-term past with the present and future use of the environment – *external integration*. This link is founded on the concept of 'protection by development', based on the fundamental notions of sustainability and quality; this includes their architecture, infrastructure and nature. Basic to this concept is a notion of cultural historical values as a resource for experiencing and expressing identity by conservation, innovation and design. It deliberately stimulates national, regional and local governments to create and exploit the opportunities embedded in the cultural historical landscape. Pilot projects on landscape, town planning and architectural design, realised in the last five years, have anticipated this concept and can be used as examples of the Belvedere policy (Van Marrewijk *et al.* 1998). They range from small-scale projects to whole new townscapes.

Three examples will illustrate the objective:

- In the rural reconstruction scheme at Midden-Delfland, between the towns of Delft and Rotterdam, the Roman-period water management and field system, linked with the banks and gullies of the inland creek system, is the basis of the modern landscape design; at the same time this also protects archaeological remains.
- The allotment and proportions of the former canons housing near the Mariaplaats in the medieval town of Utrecht have provided the format for a new apartment complex combining a high occupation density and social security with dimensions harmonising with the historic townscape.
- The master plan for the new town of Leidsche Rijn near Utrecht with its 35,000 new homes is designed to complement the main geological and cultural historical structure of the former rural landscape. In particular, the banks of former river Rhine attracted Iron Age settlements and a Roman fort, beneath the medieval settlement blocks and the later elongated *cope* allotment with farmsteads.

In support of these goals the existing national documentation centres have adapted to new roles of policy-oriented expert centres dealing with proposals from various governmental levels and from private institutions for pilot projects on architectural and landscape design, conservation and education. Almost revolutionary was the presentation of a national characterisation of the significant cultural historical landscapes. The so-called Belvedere areas are landscapes with combined archaeological, historic geographical and historical elements of high value. Apart from these there are separate assessments formulated for specific categories, such as historic urban centres or buried archaeological landscapes. This evaluation is revolutionary because by making deliberately and openly-presented choices it makes cultural heritage vulnerable, testable and manageable at the same time.

The government and the four ministries have decided to formalise the programme and to make available about 25 million euros for the next four to five years; the budget is partly supplied by the various ministries, and partly from specific funds. This decision is not only crucial for the implementation of the programme, but also has a fundamental political value since it is recognised and accepted that the cultural historical values are present everywhere in our environment and as a consequence are everyone's responsibility. It opens the way towards the development of new understanding and insights in the field of integrated cultural resource management, and the interaction with environmental planning and public discourse.

The NWO Research Programme

Independent of Belvedere the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (the Nederlandse Organisatie voor Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek (NWO) has started a national multi-disciplinarian research programme entitled 'Protection and development of the Dutch archaeological-historical landscape'. This will create an explicit scientific basis for the integration of archaeological and historic-geographical values in environmental planning policy (Bloemers *et al.* 2001). The motivation for this programme is twofold.

First, the Belvedere policy is such a fundamental change that it needs to have a firm scientific basis in order to secure long-term political acceptance and to establish a meaningful link with public and professional education. The implementation of the Belvedere programme creates not only the need, but at the same time the opportunity, to develop this basis.

The second motive is that two of the definitive characteristics of the archaeological record, invisibility and vulnerability, are actually obstacles to a timely and appropriate assessment to support national Belvedere policy. As a consequence archaeology is being given an extra stimulus by organising a national research programme, initiated by the Ministry of Education and Science, and the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO), with participation of the same ministries that are involved in the Belvedere programme. The programme will be carried out between 2000-2006 and has a current budget of about 3 million euros.

The research programme focuses on establishing a meaningful link between scientific knowledge, archaeological-historical resource management and applied planning policy in the Netherlands using the central planning concepts of dynamics and quality expressed as sustainability, identity and diversity (fig.10.4).

Important issues for research are:

- the fundamental appreciation of cultural historical resources as meaningful elements in the quality of the human environment,
- an operational definition of sustainability in relation to archaeological-historical resources,
- well-founded and effective methods for non-destructive survey, evaluation, selection, protection, development, design and management of these resources,
- concepts and instruments to integrate them with historical landscapes and buildings in environmental and spatial planning based on the temporal and spatial characteristics of evolution, transformation and region,
- even perhaps a philosophy of justification towards present and future human generations for the way a society manages its heritage.

The programme will be arranged in a mix of short (4–5 months) and long-term (4–5 years) studies. Four or five regions will be selected for a pilot study to test the

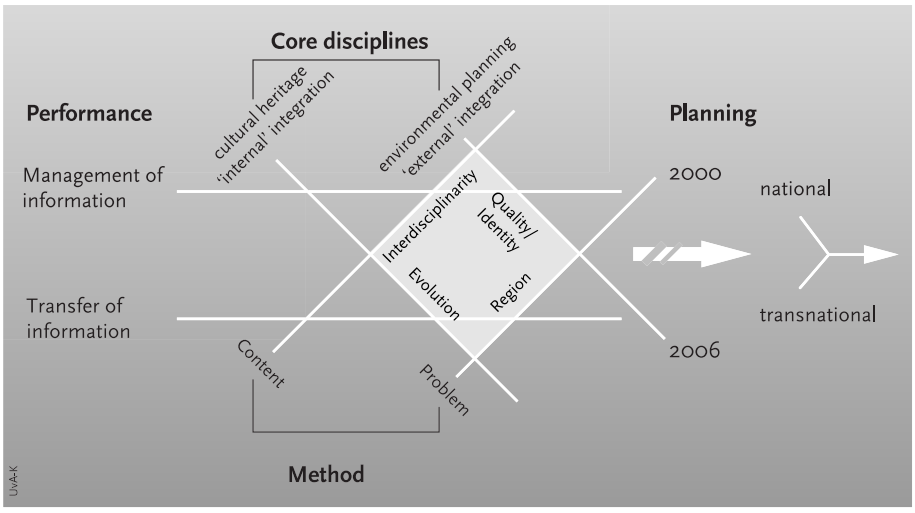

Fig. 10.4: Core concepts and methodology behind the Nederlandse Organisatie voor Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek (NWO) research programme 'Protection and development of the Dutch archaeological-historical landscape'.

application of the conceptual and strategic lines. Projects fall into three types of research:

1. *conceptual studies*, to formulate explicitly the fundamental lines of research using two concepts:
   a) cultural biography of the landscape
   b) action research;
2. *strategic inter- and multi-disciplinary research*, to establish a structurally integrated relationship between cultural heritage management and environmental planning;
3. *applied research*, to develop and test methods, techniques, procedures and results in the real world of environmental planning and to deal with specific types of threats and change.

1. Conceptual studies

Two fundamental concepts are selected as guiding principles for the programme because of their potential for internal and external integration and linking research with policy: the cultural biography of landscape and action research (Bloemers *et al.* 2001).

Cultural biography of the landscape: this concept integrates archaeological, historic-geographical and built resources and links the past as known and experienced by us in the present, with the present and future environment as we use and develop it. This is a concept transferred to the cultural historical landscape by my colleague Jan Kolen from Igor Kopytoff's concept of the 'cultural biography of things' (Kopytoff 1986; Kolen 1995; Hidding *et al.* 2001). I quote:

> It describes the life history of goods which circulate frequently in society and which thereby go through shifts and transformations in terms of their cultural connotations. These shifts and transformations occur under the influence of changes in the social, cultural and religious context in which the goods operate. In that process the goods are seen as actors, …, to which meaning is not simply attributed but which themselves constitute, as it were, their own meaning. 'Place' and 'land' of course do not circulate in a literal sense but during their life history their cultural connotations are subject to frequent shifts. Obviously these shifts can be interwoven with physical changes in the landscape, whether they are conceived as 'natural' or 'cultural' or produced by an interaction between these two (Kolen 1995, p.145).

The cultural-historical landscape is complex, stratified and dynamic: complex because of the time depth, the *tempi* and the processes of transformation; stratified in the sense of historical layers, their genesis and relationship; dynamic since the landscape is a 'social construct' which is given meaning 'in the eyes of the beholder'. The genesis and transformation of the cultural-historical landscape can be perceived as a 'cultural biography' of a social environment, where communities through time have lived, which they have influenced and to which they have given meaning. 'Cultural biography' as a metaphor has an open-end character and focuses more on the environment as ongoing transformation than on origin and destruction. It has the potential to link the past with the present and the future, to integrate various cultural-historical values and to develop a meaningful relationship with ecological values. The building stones for the history *of* the landscape are those 'places' which by their rich and well-documented history reflect the historical dimension *in* the landscape. As a consequence they have particular biographic value and great narrative potential. 'Places' are products of historic development and constructs of historic and environmental perception in past and present. They are meeting points of expert and local knowledge. 'Places' are embedded in networks of other 'places', which have the form of villages and towns connected by roads and rivers and bordered by defence works. The narrative potential can be exploited to strengthen feelings of identity and diversity and as a consequence to support processes of evaluation and selection and the public acceptance of actual environmental transformations (Hidding *et al.* 2001).

Action research: this concept has to integrate scientific knowledge with applied cultural and environmental politics. 'Action' points at the process of decision making, even political, while 'research' means the knowledge needed for the decision making process, often developed during this process. The concept was developed to manage complex socio-political problems with many variables and still more possibilities for solutions and decisions. The sustainable development of the cultural landscape within the framework of environmental planning policy is a complex problem that archaeologists have to face. We need new types of knowledge, methodology and procedures to use the opportunity society offers us and to formulate the proper approaches and answers to the problems raised and the questions asked by the politicians and the public. A characteristic feature of action research is the cyclical process of formulating, implementing and evaluating the research. Another is the feedback between researchers and decision or policy-makers, and thirdly that the decision-making process is an essential element in the research procedure, since 'knowledge arises where the action is' (Van der Zwaan 1995, pp.94–100).

'Action research', as used in the NWO-research programme, focuses on the interaction between the process of generating scientific knowledge ('objective truth') and the process of reaching politically correct decision-making ('subjective correctness') about the actual policy problems regarding the sustainable development of the archaeological-historical landscape (During *et al.* 2001). It exploits the recognition that the decision-making process

in environmental planning is not as rational as it seems to be, but that the understanding of emotions and the way people give meaning to the transformations of their environment play an influential role. In this research programme the action research approach aims at stimulating the internal and external integration of the cultural-historical values within the context of environmental planning and development. It looks at the landscape as a laboratory, as a strategy and as an emotion. As a laboratory the landscape is the geographical unit where practical experience, integration and experiment in action and research meet each other. As a strategy the possibilities of an integrated approach are developed and tested within the practice of the environmental policy dealing with the landscape. The landscape as an emotion reveals the potential for exploiting local knowledge using dialogue, imagination and participative design as instruments to raise the commitment of its inhabitants and visitors.

From a research perspective the action research concept is founded in a multi-disciplinarian approach by positioning itself as a meeting point between the historic and design oriented disciplines, public administration and planning, and the psychology of environmental perception.

2. Strategic inter- and multi-disciplinary studies

The strategic research line focuses on the long-term and structural embedding into environmental policy and sciences like archaeology, geography, ecology, planning and design of a knowledge and multi-disciplinary based approach designed to achieve the sustainable development of the Dutch archaeological-historical landscape. Research is concentrated around the full chain of archaeological resource management from prediction to management. The integration of conceptual and strategic lines should be exercised in four or five regional- oriented studies.

Recently, the first series of research proposals have been assessed and granted a sum of about 1.2 million euros. This sum is matched by contributions of the participating research groups of about 1 million euros. They reflect very nicely the combination of applied and strategic approaches, which widen the scope of traditional archaeology to include:

- strategic research and best practice of 'next generation' predictive modelling;
- integrated geophysical, geo-chemical and remote sensing prospection techniques;
- perception, experience and behaviour of the public with regard to archaeological heritage;
- interaction between archaeological heritage management and processes of environmental policy;
- cultural and historical perspectives in planning and designing metropolitan landscapes in the Netherlands and Flanders;
- the biography of a sandy landscape: cultural history, heritage management and spatial planning in the southern Netherlands;
- from Oer-IJ estuary to metropolitan landscape: assessing and preserving archaeological-historical resources from 4,000 years living between land and water.

The participating research groups belong to five universities, two governmental research institutes and two provinces, which illustrates the potential link between science and policy.

3. Applied research

The applied research line aims at applying, testing and developing the insights gained in the strategic line in various specific types of environmental planning, development and integrated environmental planning: linear infra-structural works, urban and industrial development, the rural landscape and finally, water management and mineral exploitation. At present a small number of short term studies are in preparation to explore the possibilities and needs of this problem-oriented line.

Concluding remarks – the need for international co-operation

The programme favours international co-operation in order to support the creation of an international network of individuals who are actively involved in the field of archaeological resource management, planning, research, urban/landscape design and education. The EAC's network is considered to be an excellent environment to develop such an international network, as the annual EAA conferences have already proved to be.

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11: Mapping Lancashire's historic landscape: the Lancashire Historic Landscape Characterisation programme

John Darlington

Abstract: *This paper describes and evaluates the background, methodology and successful application of a historic landscape characterisation project undertaken between 1999 and 2000 in Lancashire (NW England). It begins with a description of the need and context for the project, from the perspective of English Heritage as a part of a national programme, from the viewpoint of Lancashire County Council who required the work to inform and underpin a county landscape strategy, and more generally as a critique of existing SMR systems. Some details of the project method will be briefly explored before moving on to outline the numerous applications of work. Finally, two new associated projects will be introduced, one as part of a Europe-wide project, which test and develop the characterisation approach at different scales but within the same broad objectives of improving understanding, communication and the management of the historic environment.*

Identification of need – national context

Over the last ten years the historical dimension of the landscape has received increasing recognition in the United Kingdom and in mainland Europe. Both archaeology and history have been identified as important factors in assessing the value of areas of landscape (Countryside Commission 1987; 1993; 1996), and the concept of 'cultural landscapes' has been recognised in a number of European and British initiatives (Fairclough *et al.* 1999). In September 1991, the UK Government White Paper *This Common Inheritance* had invited English Heritage to prepare a list of landscapes of historic importance (English Heritage 1991), similar to its *Register of Parks and Gardens of Special Historic Interest.* The intended purpose of this work was to define areas of landscape deemed to be more 'historic' and, therefore, more worthy of preservation than the surrounding areas. Subsequently English Heritage instigated a number of pilot projects to assess appropriate methodologies for identifying 'historic landscapes' (summarised in Fairclough *et al.* 1999).

The results led to the view that a more holistic approach to historic landscape assessment than that originally envisaged was appropriate, and a fuller understanding that the 'requirements for historic landscape conservation would not be met by a selective register' (Fairclough 1994 p.35). This more holistic approach would characterise all areas within the landscape with reference to agreed criteria, and not concentrate on the identification of key 'historic landscapes'. Further grading, in terms of the relative importance of different parts of the landscape, would only be undertaken to meet the needs of specific planning or conservation-led enquiries.

Such an approach, in which the whole of an area of landscape is assessed and characterised, is in line with methodologies of landscape assessment undertaken for non-historical reasons. The general purpose of these has been defined by the Countryside Agency (Countryside Commission 1993; 1998; Countryside Agency 1999) as

Fig.11.1: Lancashire.

assisting local authorities, landuse and conservation agencies and the private sector to:

- Understand how and why landscapes are important.
- Promote the appreciation of landscape issues.
- Successfully accommodate new development within the landscape.
- Guide and direct landscape change.

Since 1995, English local authorities in partnership with English Heritage have increasingly turned to historic landscape characterisation (HLC) as a tool for understanding and managing change within the cultural landscape. Historic landscape characterisation is a map-based technique, often using a Geographical Information System (GIS), designed to produce a generalised understanding of the historic and archaeological dimension of the present landscape. It is based on the appreciation that every aspect of the landscape has been influenced and, in many respects, physically shaped by human activities.

The end result is a tool for understanding the processes of change in the historic environment as a whole, for identifying what is vulnerable, and for maintaining diversity and distinctiveness in the local scene.

Identification of need – local context

The primary information used for local decision-making concerning the historic environment is the Sites and Monuments Record (SMR). Such records are held by all County planning authorities in England, and by a number of unitary and district authorities. They additionally form part of a network of information that extends to the National Monuments Record (NMR) held by English Heritage. The importance of SMRs is highlighted by their use in underpinning the work of local authority archaeologists and other specialists whose primary work includes using the landuse planning system to protect the historic environment from development. These heritage managers, or 'curators', also use the SMR to promote enjoyment and understanding of the past, and they seek to use it to provide advice on a multitude of issues taking place beyond the English planning system. The latter includes changes effected by agriculture, forestry and natural forces.

The Lancashire (fig.11.1) Sites and Monuments Record contains information on the area's 135 Scheduled Monuments (some of those deemed to be of national significance and hence protected by the Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979), 5,000 Listed Buildings, 185 Conservation Areas (discrete areas of built heritage significance, the character of which is preserved by more stringent planning controls) and 31 Registered Parks and Gardens of Special Historic Interest. The record also includes over 20,000 sites of archaeological interest, comprising a range of site types from Bronze Age burial mounds to Roman signal stations, and from documentary references to deserted medieval villages to the upstanding remains of Lancashire's considerable industrial heritage. There are two major deficiencies of SMRs relevant to the need for a character-based study: inconsistency (or incompleteness) and the form in which data is held. Whilst the Lancashire SMR is very extensive, and indeed is one of the best of its type, it is by no means complete. For example, a straightforward mapping transcription exercise taking place between February and May 2001 added a further 4,000 sites to the record, mostly more recent heritage from the county's towns. Above all, SMRs demonstrate the truism that 'archaeology' exists only where archaeologists look for it (fig.11.2)! Such a record of course can never be complete: to possess a register of all archaeological sites within an area is a physical, if not a philosophical impossibility.

A second deficiency of the Lancashire Sites and Monuments Record (and many others in England and Wales) is that the information it contains is largely point based: an artefact found here, or a medieval moated site located there. Even the area-based information held as part of the record, such as Conservation Areas or the extent of Scheduled Ancient Monuments, become point-specific when viewed at anything but a very localised scale, particularly so when looking from a sub-regional or broad strategic context. Given that no European landscape can lay claim to being untouched by human influence, it follows that all the areas between the sites held on the SMR, the field boundaries, field patterns, tracks, pathways and roads, woodland, settlements, buildings, and semi-natural resources, are individually historic and collectively also merit treatment as 'archaeology', as it is all part of the historic landscape.

Whilst the protection of individual historic or archaeological sites through legislation (Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979; Planning, Listed Buildings and Conservation Areas, Act 1990) and planning policy guidance (PPG 15, PPG 16) is well defined and understood, that for conserving the broader historic and cultural landscape is neither (Fairclough forthcoming). The primary mechanism for conserving historic landscape character is through the landscape policies contained within Local Authority Development Plans, whether County Structure Plans or District-Wide Local Plans. Herein lies the problem: the Sites and Monuments Record on its own is an inappropriate resource upon which to base the definition and understanding of the historic dimension to broad landscape character, and yet until recently it was often the only historic environment resource consulted in decision-making regarding landscape conservation and change.

Alongside this must be set the county council's desire to prepare a new landscape strategy for Lancashire (Lancashire County Council 2000). This was to be based

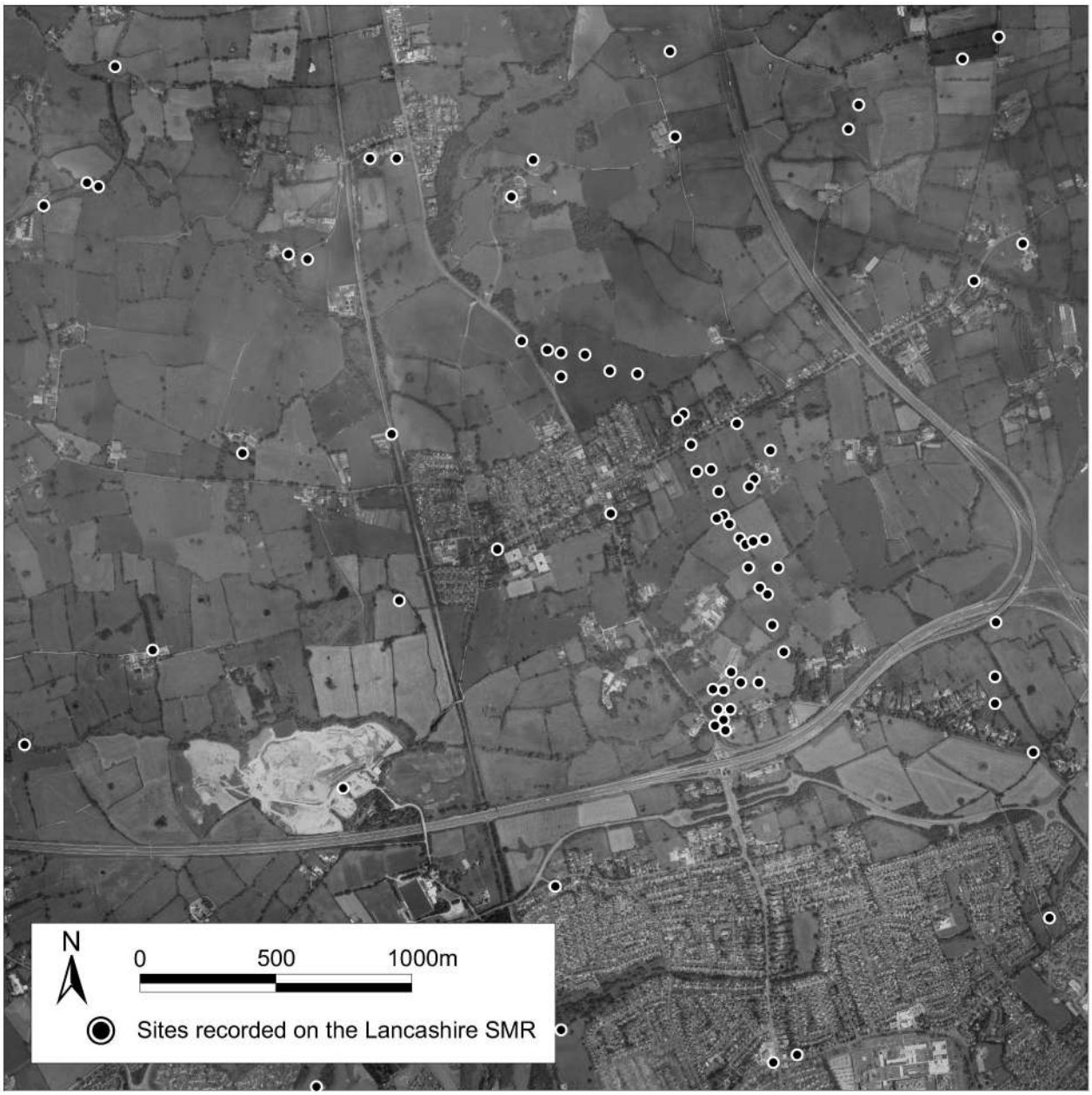

Fig.11.2: The line of the proposed Broughton Bypass shown as Sites and Monuments Record sites.

upon the Countryside Agency's established methodology for character assessment, which seeks first to describe the character of the landscape in terms of its natural resources, current landuse, aesthetic contribution, geology, topography and historic dimension, and then to create a framework for landscape change based upon a number of discrete landscape character areas. Each character area would be supported by descriptions identifying its defining attributes and by statements outlining acceptable limits for change in order that the overall character of the area can be maintained or enhanced. The landscape strategy would lead directly into policies within the forthcoming *Joint Lancashire Structure Plan* and hence into the land-use planning decision-making process. The strategy was also to be used for strategic management guidance outside of the planning system. The county council, therefore, had a need for a complementary historic landscape characterisation to use alongside the more conventional, broader approach of landscape assessment, as well (as discussed above) to supplement the information held within the county sites and monuments record.

Methodology

The Lancashire Historic Landscape Characterisation Project commenced in January 1999. The study area comprised the county of Lancashire and the two unitary authority areas of Blackburn with Darwen Borough Council and Blackpool Borough Council. The work was carried out by the archaeology service of the county's Environment Directorate, supported by English Heritage. There was also additional work to extend the mapping to Sefton Metropolitan Borough Council (Merseyside) and

the area of Craven District Council outside the Yorkshire Dales National Park (North Yorkshire). The project was completed in October 2000.

The aim of the Lancashire project was 'to characterise the distinctive historic dimension of today's urban and rural environment in Lancashire'. To do this the project team assembled and integrated information on present landuse, land cover, physiography (land form, geology and soils) and visible evidence of human history in the landscape, the built and the semi-natural environment. Analysis of this information was structured by the grouping of historic and other environmental 'attributes' within a classification of Historic Landscape Characterisation Types of distinct and recognisable common character.

The distribution of historic landscape characterisation (HLC) types were mapped using the County Council GIS, with outputs of mapped data, supported by written descriptions of HLC types and the historical processes that they represent. In the final stage of the project the HLC types were reviewed against broader landscape characterisations which exist for Lancashire and opportunities for further assessment, including urban areas and individual Districts, were explored.

The process of historic landscape characterisation is relatively straightforward. It begins with the systematic identification and description of historic attributes in the contemporary rural and urban landscape. These attributes include all aspects of the natural and built environment that have been shaped by human activity in the past – the distribution of woodland and other semi-natural habitats, the form of fields and their boundaries, the lines of roads, streets and pathways, and the disposition of buildings in the towns, villages and countryside. Thus for the whole of the county the following attributes were examined:

- current landuse
- field shape
- field size
- field groups
- boundary types
- shape and disposition of paths/lanes/roads
- shape and type of woodland
- shape and type of water
- distribution and types of buildings
- contour/geology/soils
- place-names
- settlement pattern
- previous fieldwork
- *c.*1850 mapping (Ordnance Survey First Edition 6 inch)
- enclosure awards and other historical information
- and Sites and Monuments Record data

This structured data gathering exercise was followed by the analysis and identification of historic environment character types which shared distinct groupings of attributes. For example, an area possessing a pattern of small, irregular fields, dissected by winding lanes and footpaths, associated with known medieval settlements, place and field names, and shown to be in existence prior to the earliest comprehensive map evidence may have been allocated to the *Ancient Enclosure* (ie pre AD1600) historic landscape characterisation type. The resulting mapping is hierarchical and includes the following entry level historic landscape characterisation types (pl.11.1):

- Ancient (pre-AD1600) Enclosure
- Post-Medieval (AD1600-1850) Enclosure
- Modern (post- AD1850) Enclosure
- Ancient and Post-Medieval (pre-AD1850) Woodland
- Modern Woodland
- Ancient and Post-Medieval Settlement
- Modern Settlement
- Ancient and Post-Medieval Industry
- Modern Industry
- Ancient and Post-Medieval Ornamental land
- Modern Ornamental land
- Modern Recreational land
- Modern Military
- Modern Communications
- Moorland
- Reverted Moorland
- Lowland Moss and Grassland/Scrub
- Water
- Coastal Rough Ground
- Salt marsh
- Dunes
- Sand and Mudflats

A note of caution should be added here: the historic landscape characterisation project was primarily desk-based and originally time-limited to 18 months. It was not a historic landscape survey programme, but one which identified broad historic landscape character. As such a detailed survey will find attributes of both the medieval and 20th century landscape within an area of say, Post-Medieval Enclosure, but the broad character of that area will be one which was either created, or substantially changed, during the period AD1600–1850. The same definition and caveat is applicable to all the other historic landscape characterisation types.

Once the basic mapping was complete it was possible to produce a map of Lancashire showing those areas which are essentially medieval or earlier in character and which survive today (pl.11.2). Alternatively, areas of ancient woodland, ancient industry or historic settlement can be picked out and compared with their more recent counterparts. Ornamental parks and gardens, areas of moorland which were once in agricultural production, or even Lancashire's distinctive urban heritage of mills and terraced industrial workers housing have all been mapped.

Because the work was carried out using a GIS it has been possible to query the map in a large number of different ways. For example, all those areas of Lancashire which were brought into agricultural use over the last 2,000 years from the sea, from upland moor or from lowland mosses have been identified (pl.11.3). Alternatively, former medieval parkland, woodland or medieval open strip fields may be highlighted. In addition, measures of time-depth were incorporated into the project in order to identify the changes which have taken place within the landscape over the past 150 years. This allows, amongst other things, the broad measurement of field boundary loss (since 1850; pl.11.4) and the mapping of patterns of destruction, loss and survival of the principal features of earlier landuse. The potential for combinations of enquiries made of the dataset, and with others, such as the Sites and Monuments Record is endless. Perhaps most importantly, for the first time it is possible to set Lancashire's individual historic attributes, its buildings, sites and monuments, within a broad framework of historic landscape character, and to measure the impact of future proposals upon the whole of the historic environment.

Applications, benefits and uses

The mapping of the historic landscape characteristic types has only recently been completed, and there remains an amount of refinement to be carried out, but already the list of applications is growing longer, including:

- Input into the Lancashire Landscape Strategy and Development Plan Policy.
- Strategic and local landuse planning.
- Woodland planting proposals.
- Input into agri-environment schemes and targets (Countryside Stewardship).
- Development control:
    - Guidelines for the historic landscape's capacity for change without undue loss of significance or erosion of character.
    - Assessment of the impact of proposals on the 'setting' of individual landscape components such as sites and buildings.
    - Tailoring of archaeological projects (briefs and specifications).
- Predictive modelling for archaeological sites in areas where none are recorded in the SMR.
- Advice on the removal or replacement of hedgerows and other field boundaries.
- Monitoring landscape change.
- Targeting future archaeological work.
- Input into other non-statutory strategies (eg the Forest of Bowland Action Plan; the South Pennine Heritage Strategy).

Some of these are further discussed below.

The Lancashire Landscape Strategy

One of the principal aims of the historic landscape characterisation was to enrich the new *Landscape Strategy* for Lancashire that was being planned at the same time (Lancashire County Council 2000). This strategy was to be in two parts, the first a rigorous but non-judgmental character assessment for the county, and the second an indicative appraisal of the direction of future landscape change. The character assessment would take into consideration not just the historic dimension to landscape, but also its ecological and natural form, its geology, hydrology and topographic character, its current landuse and its aesthetic qualities (pl.11.5). The historic landscape characterisation project and the landscape assessment were carried out in parallel and their relationship is shown below (fig.11.3).

In terms of application the historic landscape characterisation work informed and underpinned the character assessment in a number of ways. Firstly, it acted as a guide to the identification of the landscape assessment areas and types. Some categories, for example urban historic landscape characterisation types, were transferred unchanged to become landscape assessment types, whilst on other occasions, landscape assessment types were defined or modified in the light of historic landscape characterisation mapping. A good example of the latter is an area to the east of the town of Preston. Here, the line of the M6 motorway had unconsciously dictated the character assessment mapping, particularly to the north and south of the town. The boundary was false as the motorway was constructed at the limits of the town as it existed in 1958 and has subsequently acted as a barrier to further urban expansion. A better subdivision between the two character assessment areas was provided by the historic landscape characterisation mapping which had identified the boundary, which survives to this day, further west than the motorway, between Ancient Enclosure and later enclosed land. The character assessment mapping was accordingly modified.

The historic landscape characterisation work also resulted in a far greater understanding of the historic processes which have led to the current landscape, and this was reflected both in the depth of description supplied in the final *Landscape Strategy Report* and in the higher profile given to the historic attributes of the countryside. It was also apparent in the descriptions of aspects of landscape usually perceived as 'natural', such as saltmarsh or upland peat moor, where the guiding hand of humans was recognised and explained.

Finally, the historic landscape characterisation work allowed key historic environmental features to be identified in each character area within the landscape strategy, providing a strategic context for conservation. For example, the Enclosed Uplands type includes the 'Network of gritstone walls and historic tracks [that] reinforces the landscape pattern and provides evidence or the extent of upland in the 18th and 19th centuries' and 'Blanket bog

[which] crowns the high summits, providing both landscape diversity, biodiversity and an important archaeological resource', amongst its key environmental features. Consequently, the strategy for the type undertakes to:

- 'Conserve the distinctive high altitude field enclosures;
- Conserve landscape features associated with historic mineral working;
- Conserve the distinctive historic settlement pattern;
- Enhance abandoned quarry sites for nature conservation, recreation and heritage purposes.'

Whilst the strategy on its own is aspirational, acting as a good practice guide for landscape change managers, it is given teeth by its link to a policy in the *Replacement Joint Lancashire Structure Plan 2001–2016* (draft deposit edition, www.lancashire2016.com.uk) against which all applications for development are to be measured. The draft policy, untested as yet by public or central government consultation, is shown below:

> Policy 1 urban and rural landscapes
>
> Development must be appropriate to the landscape character of the area, and will contribute to the conservation, enhancement, or restoration of, or the creation of appropriate new features in, the landscape type in which it occurs. Proposals will be assessed in relation to:
>
> a) Local distinctiveness
> b) The condition of the landscape
> c) Visual intrusion
> d) The layout and scale of buildings and designed spaces
> e) The quality and character of the built fabric
> f) Public access and community value
> g) Historic patterns and attributes of the landscape
> h) Landscape biodiversity and ecological networks
> i) Semi-natural habitats characteristic of the landscape type
> j) Remoteness and tranquillity
> k) Noise and light pollution

The *Landscape Strategy*, (and further supplementary planning guidance based upon it, such as perhaps the historic landscape characterisation itself), forms the template against which the policy will be implemented and in this way consideration of the historic dimension of the countryside and townscape is ensured in all development proposals. If new proposals are unable to demonstrate that they are appropriate, or that there is no overriding consideration why they should not comply with the plan, then permission to proceed will be refused.

Other applications

Many of the applications for historic landscape characterisation will be based within the overall framework of the *Landscape Strategy*. For example the range, quantity and type of schemes supported by Common Agricultural Policy-related agri-environment grant aid (through the Countryside Stewardship Scheme) will be informed and directed by the landscape character area in which they fall. However, the historic landscape characterisation will also be used in its own right as a guide to strategic issues of landscape change: for example, the selection of areas suitable for extensive tree planting as part of proposed new woodland in East Lancashire. Here, the location of new tree planting will be guided by the historic landscape characterisation 'assarted' enclosed land subtype (that is, the medieval and later creation of fields from piecemeal clearance of woodland), thus ensuring a natural landscape compatibility with areas of former woodland.

This short paper cannot explore all the current or planned applications of historic landscape characterisation, but perhaps one of the most challenging areas of development will be the interaction and relationship between the historic landscape characterisation data-set and the Sites and Monuments Record. Each historic landscape characterisation type and sub-type is to be informed by a Sites and Monuments Record profile – that is a summary of all the sites which fall within the separate historic landscape characterisation areas. Clearly the quantities, date, form and type of sites found within areas of Post-Medieval Enclosure derived from lowland moss reclamation would be different from those recorded within areas of Ancient Woodland. Consequently, the research techniques required to discover and understand sites in those separate areas may also be different and may be tested when triggered by development proposals or research interests. Such tailoring will extend to the project briefs for archaeological assessment which will therefore be much more responsive to the needs of the area and better targeted to the type, function and likely date of the archaeological potential within it.

Furthermore, because fieldwork and documentary research varies significantly across the county it should be possible to extrapolate from well-studied areas of an historic landscape characterisation type to areas of the same type where the Sites and Monuments Record is unforthcoming. Thus, even where the Sites and Monuments Record is silent an area may be anticipated to contain a certain proportion of differing site types (and forms and periods) through association with more comprehensively studied areas of the historic landscape characterisation type. Much remains to be tested in terms of site prediction, but the Historic Landscape Characterisation project has provided an area-based framework for such analysis to take place.

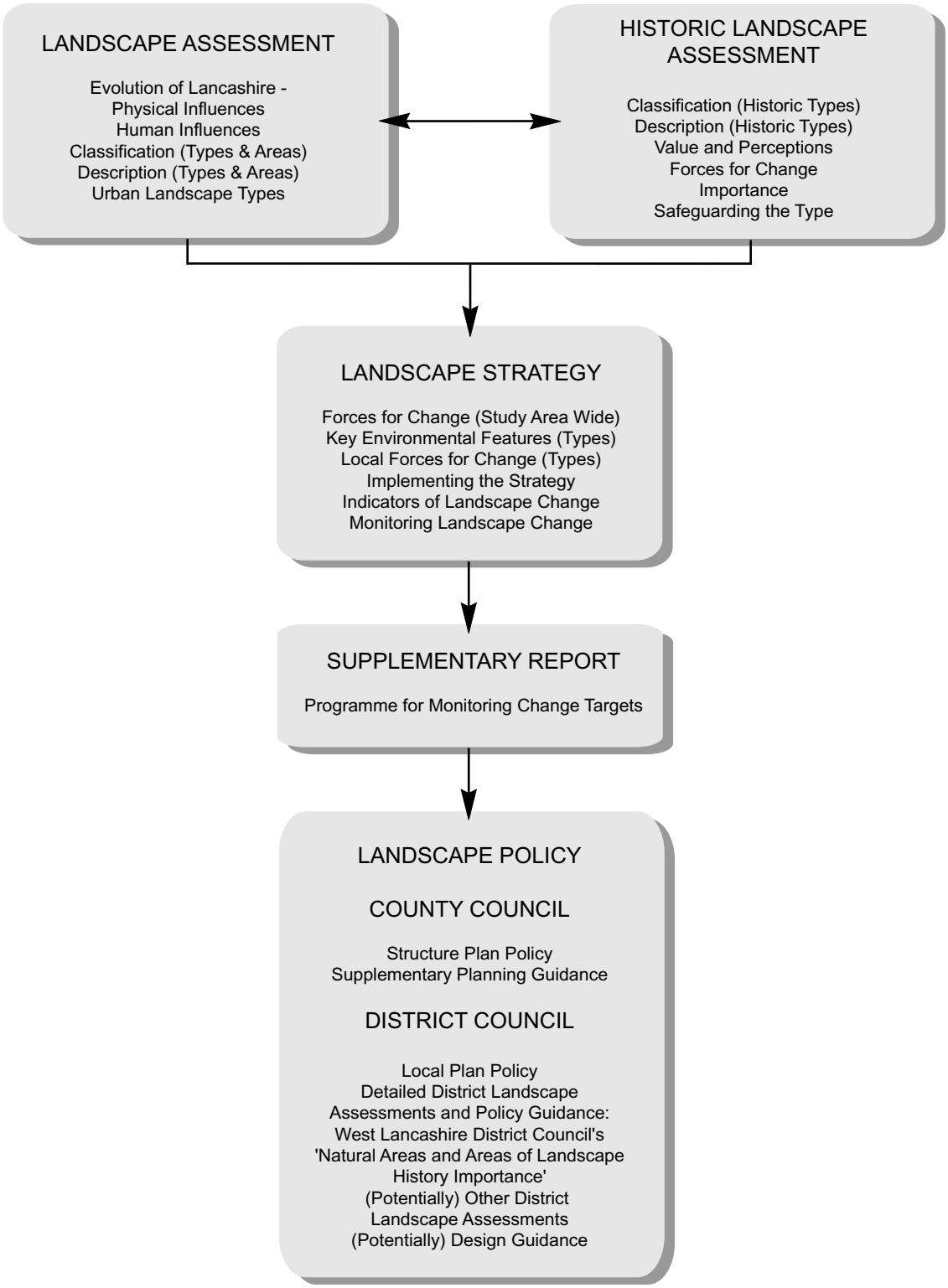

Fig.11.3: Relationship between the Historic Landscape Characterisation and the Lancashire Landscape Character assessment and strategy.

The Way Forward

Use of the Historic Landscape Characterisation project data is still in its infancy and there remain many areas of application to be explored. In Lancashire, this will be done through two new projects: a Bowland and Lune Cultural Landscape Project and the Lancashire Extensive Urban Survey Project, both supported by English Heritage.

The Bowland and Lune Valley project covers the Forest of Bowland and the lower Lune valley. It is part of an EU funded Culture 2000 partnership entitled 'Pathways to the Cultural Landscape' (see Ermischer this volume) that involves 12 projects in 10 different countries (fig.11.4). Its main aim is to illustrate the diversity of European cultural landscapes, but also to emphasise what they have in

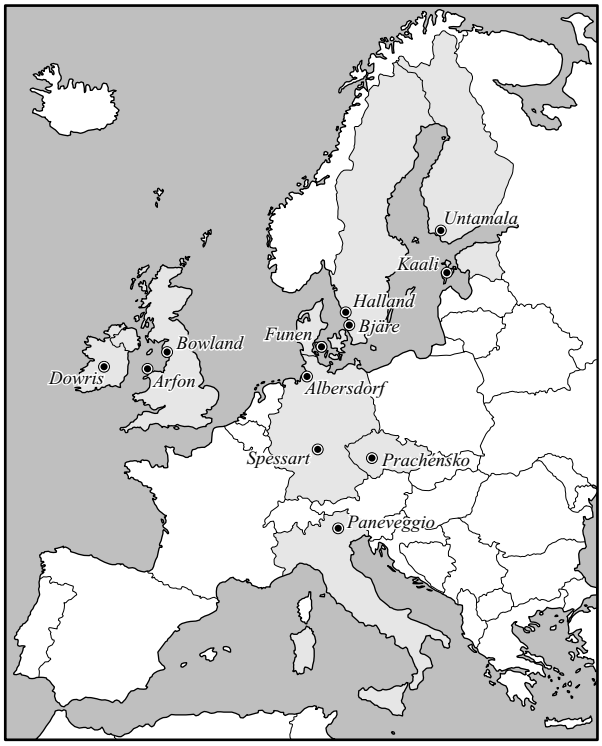

Fig.11.4: Map showing the location of the EU Pathways Projects.

common as part of Europe. The project is in two parts. Firstly, the different European cultural landscapes are linked together through common leaflets and folders, a shared Website, a major publication, six seminars, two exchanges per project, and educational work. The seminars will be used to target problems, issues and the exchange of ideas and experiences.

Secondly, each national project will explore its local landscape. In the case of Lancashire, the Bowland and Lune area is one which is little understood but has considerable potential. More specifically, it can use the county-wide historic landscape characterisation as a springboard for more detailed work within the broad framework provided by the European project. The principal aim of the national project will be to 'extend and test the historic landscape characterisation methodology'. This will be achieved through six objectives:

- Objective 1: Extend the historic landscape characterisation to identify more local attributes and scales.
- Objective 2: Test the historic landscape characterisation as a tool for identifying and expressing intangible cultural landscape attributes (such as local perceptions, folklore, attitudes and associations).
- Objective 3: Test and extend the historic landscape characterisation methodology to incorporate community participation and views.
- Objective 4: Explore the management potential of historic landscape characterisation, with particular reference to the development of sustainable and effective input into agricultural incentive schemes and schemes for rural diversification.
- Objective 5: Identify further research uses for the historic landscape characterisation, such as time depth, settlement pattern and site prediction.
- Objective 6: Identify and develop a dialogue between the historic landscape characterisation information and that held within other data-sets, in particular the Sites and Monuments Record.

Work will primarily include detailed historic landscape characterisation in those areas, the evaluation of local cultural landscape value, management recommendations, the identification of appropriate sites for promotion and the establishment of three cultural trails (two physical and one virtual).

A second, and increasingly important area in which the historic landscape characterisation methodology will be used and tested is that of the urban historic environment. An Extensive Urban Survey (EUS) Project – an English Heritage programme designed to provide information on the urban archaeological resource for use in spatial planning and management – commenced in Lancashire in 2000. This will, for the first time in the EUS programme, expand the EUS approach by transferring the historic landscape characterisation methodology from the broad landscape to twenty-nine individual towns. The project will involve the mapping of urban character types and will use this to draw together separate aspects of the built and buried heritage. As with historic landscape characterisation the work involves the definition of urban character types sharing common attributes (in this case building types, street plans, building mass, nodes, barriers, edges and voids, roads, paths and boundaries, materials, period and function), followed by an assessment of importance in terms of rarity, time depth, completeness and the potential forces for change. Once completed it will be a means by which the historic dimension to townscape can be mapped and evaluated, and brought into the planning process as a powerful tool for managing change.

Neither the Extensive Urban Survey Project nor the Culture 2000 Bowland project is being viewed as separate from the historic landscape characterisation work; instead they form nested data-sets in which a greater resolution of detail may be acquired. By way of a conclusion, herein lies one of the keys to the role of characterisation: it is not put forward as a replacement to conventional approaches to historic landscape, nor is it an exercise to be carried out at only one prescribed scale. Detailed traditional surveys will continue to be necessary to understand landscape change in the same way that the collection and input of point information to the Sites and Monuments Record is necessary. Instead characterisation is a different way in which to view landscape, at whatever scale. As such it is an increasingly useful, flexible and necessary tool for those

involved in understanding and managing cultural landscape change.

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Thanks are due to the staff of Lancashire County Council's Environment Directorate for their assistance and support, in particular the members of the Archaeology Service. Individual acknowledgement must go to Gill Chitty, who was instrumental in the initiation of the project, to Graham Fairclough, for critical and managerial input, and to Joy Ede, the project officer who prepared the detailed project methodology and carried out the work.

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European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes

12: European Cultural Paths: a model of co-operation between archaeologists for the management and preservation of cultural landscapes

Ants Kraut

Abstract: *This paper addresses a management model of cultural landscapes that was formed and influenced by human activities in prehistoric times. With the support of the European Commission, co-operation between archaeological projects in five countries was initiated and as a result a well-functioning network of information, co-operation and exchange of experience has been established.*

Introduction

Resources available for cultural heritage have always been, and always will be, significantly lower than perceived needs. For many years, archaeologists in Europe have used various mechanisms to establish priorities for their work (Olivier 2000a; 2000b). One of the possibilities is to attract extra resources through international co-operation and joint projects that not only foster exchange of knowledge and experience among experts, but which are also a good mechanism for securing both national and international funding and influencing local authorities. In the context of the cultural objectives of the European Union there are any number of suitable themes for collaborative international research within a European framework (Olivier 2000a). The Europae Archaeologiae Consilium has declared its primary mission to support the management of archaeological heritage throughout Europe and to serve the needs of national archaeological heritage management agencies. It will do this by providing a forum for organisations to establish closer and more structured co-operation and exchange of information, as well as by working together with other bodies which share the aims of the EAC (Lüth *et al.* 2000). This paper describes one of the possible models for international co-operation that has resulted in a well-functioning network of information and exchange of experience between several countries in the field of cultural landscape.

European Cultural Paths was a partnership between projects dealing with heritage in five countries (fig.12.1):

- Sweden – the Bjäre peninsula, with a unique Bronze Age landscape and a reconstructed house from the same period (see Paulsson this volume).
- Denmark – the Lusehøj burial mound and Pipstorn prehistoric monuments.
- Norway – the Avaldsnes prehistoric centre of power on the island of Karmøy.
- Germany – the Spessart forest area with well-preserved archaeological monuments (see Ermischer this volume).
- Estonia – the Rebala Reserve and the Kaali meteorite crater field.

These projects dealt with outstanding examples of the European and Nordic Bronze Age that today show excellent preservation of archaeological sites, monuments and remains because the main focus of European Cultural Paths was the Bronze Age. The European Cultural Paths do not exclude heritage from all other periods however. The purpose was not only to communicate the significance of the 'first golden era of Europe', but also to create a general concept for explaining cultural landscapes and prehistoric monuments within chronological and geographical frames. The European Cultural Paths project thus intended to provide a model for co-operation between archaeologists and management in the preservation of cultural landscapes. It was funded by the RAPHAEL programme of the European Commission with financial support from states and local municipalities (European Cultural Paths 1998).

European Cultural Paths dealt with research and surveys in various disciplines. A variety of non-profit organisations, municipalities, museums and national heritage managers co-operating with universities and scientific institutions, were the leading figures in the projects. Practical works towards the preservation of monuments were of major importance. European Cultural Paths aimed at communicating the cultural landscape to the local public as well as to tourists. It guides visitors by signs and multilingual brochures to follow certain pathways through the landscape to the monuments. Young people can benefit from special programmes that include not only exhibitions, but also reconstructions of actual prehistoric monuments.

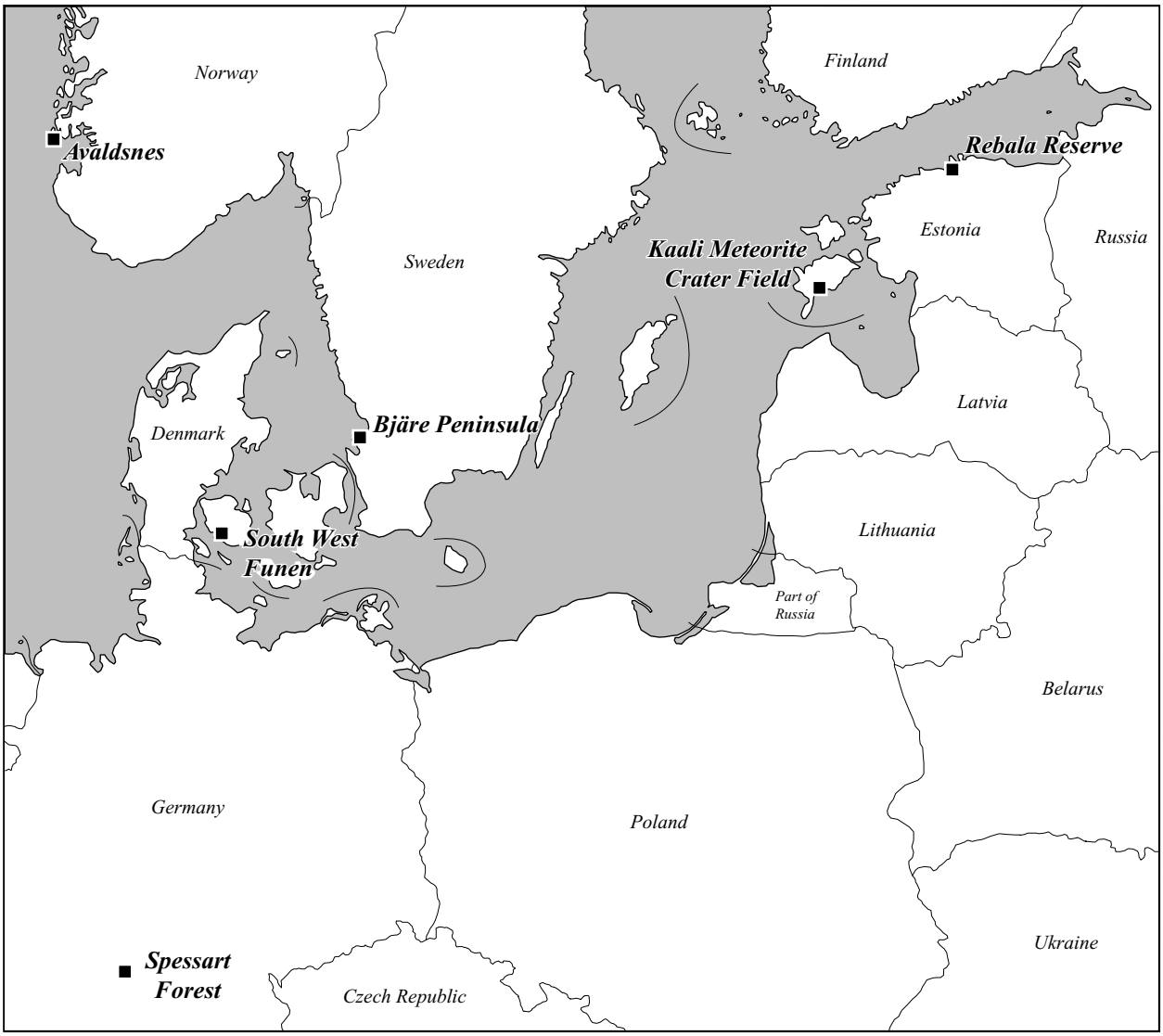

Fig.12.1: Locations of five Cultural Pathway Projects.

Project History

In spring 1997, a major campaign of the Council of Europe entitled 'The Bronze Age – the first golden age of Europe' was concluded. Even the first discussions during the campaign clearly showed that there never was such a thing as a single identity of Europe during the Bronze Age. There were several identities, among them a Nordic one (Thrane 2000). Nevertheless, dismissing scientific disputes for the moment, the campaign had other significant consequences. Concentrating first and foremost on a specific period in the prehistory of Europe, the campaign also extended contacts between specialists and organisations dealing with cultural landscapes, and with issues of their research, maintenance and promotion. While analysing the common Bronze Age history of Europe, it became evident that we today also share similar challenges for preserving and managing the heritage. International co-operation and exchange of experience would therefore significantly enhance the identification of solutions for practical on-site problems. It would also advance co-operation in issues relating to common ideas and best practice, in the field of protecting and maintaining cultural landscapes throughout Europe (Wainwright 2000).

The initiator of European Cultural Paths was the Swedish non-profit making organisation Föreningen Bronstid (Bronze Age Society), which had been leading a local Bronze Age project on the Bjäre Peninsula, Scania in southern Sweden since 1995. During the European Bronze Age campaign, Föreningen Bronstid had actively been looking for partnerships for international co-operation from Denmark and Norway. Largely thanks to Mrs Annila Sterner, the Swedish project leader several partners had expressed their interest and during the final campaign event in Berlin in 1997 organisations from Germany and Estonia also joined the project. The five partners – Föreningen Bronstid and its project 'Treasures of the Bronze Age' in Sweden, Odense City Museums in Denmark, Aschaffenburg City Museums and the 'Archaeological Spessart Project' in Germany, the Municipality of Karmøy

and the 'Avaldsnes Project' in Norway and the Estonian National Heritage Board – thereafter agreed to work together to submit a project proposal to the DGX of the European Commission.

A first preparatory meeting of the future partners was held in Båstad, Sweden, in May 1997. The general outlines of the European Cultural Paths project were then drawn up to match one of the topics within the EU RAPHAEL programme, 'The History of Landscapes'. The deadline for submitting proposals was July 1997, but although time was running short, the partners had already done a lot of the preparatory work. In December the application made to the RAPHAEL Programme of the European Commission was approved and the project was assigned a grant of 140,000 ECU. The timetable extension was from December 1997 to September 1999, with the Swedish partner carrying responsibility for the leading role (Sterner 2000a).

The aims of European Cultural Paths were, in short:

- to promote research and provide knowledge;
- to define and carry out measures to protect and care for the cultural heritage in the landscape;
- to create cultural paths in the landscape.

A major objective was to emphasise multi-disciplinary and multi-national co-operation between partner projects (Sterner 2000a).

Project Themes

Mrs Annila Sterner, the project co-ordinator, has described the European Cultural Paths project as resting on three pillars: knowledge, care and communication (Sterner 2000a; Sterner 2000b).

- *Knowledge* was seen as a keyword. European Cultural Paths approached it from two angles: deepening our knowledge through the promotion of research, and spreading it through various public relation actions. Knowledge about the history of a landscape is essential for the interest of its actual inhabitants, for their pride and wishes to care for and protect the historical monuments within the landscape. On the other hand, lack of knowledge, lack of interest and lack of respect can easily lead to destruction and loss of the heritage.

- *Care* and protection of the physical archaeological remains – scrub-clearance, fencing, regulated grazing and scything. There are problems of visual and protection conditions on sites. Landscapes rapidly change, and similarly the visual character of sites and monuments changes with overgrowing by bushes and trees, making archaeological sites less interesting for cultural education purposes and also for scientific reasons (Urtane 2001; Urtane this volume). This is especially true for the countries of the post-Soviet regime (Kraut 2000b). An important future aspect was to find solutions for the permanent care of monuments. Risks for wear of monuments by visitors was taken into consideration in the planning of the cultural paths.

- *Communication*, which means bringing the public to the cultural heritage, and the monuments in the landscape through setting up cultural paths, marked trails leading to the sites and producing informative brochures guiding the visitors to the monuments. Additional measures such as reconstructions, exhibitions and schools programmes were also included. The aim was to cater for the needs of both people living in the areas involved and of cultural tourists from elsewhere (Sterner 2000b).

Results

The European Cultural Paths partners gathered for general meetings five times between January 1998 and September 1999. An international seminar for archaeologists and others with a potential interest in the communication of a landscape-oriented cultural history was organized and hosted by the Danish partner Odense City Museums (Lorentzen & Michaelsen 2000b). The project co-ordinator Annila Sterner presented a summary of the European Cultural Paths project that was soon going to conclude, stressing the indispensable importance of the RAPHAEL grant: 'The EU perspective conveyed by the RAPHAEL grant has been of decisive importance. As a matter of fact, had it not been for the EU dimension, some of the partner projects would most probably not have survived at all, while the same projects have now instead undergone an important growth involving lots of people and institutions' (Sterner 2000b). It was possible to fulfil an extensive scientific programme in the frame of the European Cultural Paths project, and dozens of reports and scientific articles were compiled and a comprehensive book written on the basis of the Norwegian project (Myhre 1998).

All in all eight physical paths were created and signposted in the landscape, and information boards with clear data were erected. Eight multilingual full-colour brochures introducing the paths were printed, assisting visitors to learn about the archaeological sites and monuments that were all well cared for. All information concerning the European Cultural Paths project and the related heritage objects was made available on five new Web sites. The Swedish partner established a Bronze Age Centre with a reconstructed Bronze Age house. All partners were involved in compiling several exhibitions, making TV broadcasts, video films, conducting lectures and excursions to the sites, publishing various articles in the press and introducing the project over the radio and television channels. One of the most important results of European Cultural Paths was the interest on a European level for new projects on the basis of the experiences of European Cultural Paths. During the final meeting of European Cultural Paths, therefore, the partners decided

to create a permanent network, founding an umbrella organisation for the promotion of future projects and for a continued exchange of professional experience (Sterner 2000b).

Regional projects

The Bjäre Peninsula, Sweden

On the Bjäre Peninsula in the south-western province of Scania, a considerable number of monuments from the Bronze Age have been preserved. In a territory of 9 x 5km there are more than 500 Bronze Age mounds and cairns, an exceptional number of sites with cup marked rocks and more than 100 areas with prehistoric terraced fields. The hilly Bjäre landscape must have offered ideal conditions for Bronze Age life with its direct access to waterways in three directions, light self-draining soil and good pasturelands. Even today the peninsula is most beautiful, characterised by a small-scale, agricultural countryside with lavish scenery and spacious protected areas formed by grazing since prehistoric times. The project created two paths through the landscape, connecting the major archaeological monuments.

At *Barkåkra*, near the city of Ängelholm, the Bronze Age mounds lie like a string of pearls on the ridges. The path has seven stops at the most important sites, starting from the imposing mound of Torhög. In one of the stops, at Valhallskogen, there is a walking track visiting monuments in the near by wood. The *Båstad-Bjäre* path leads through the central and western part of the peninsula (fig.12.2). Nine stops are made at major sites, like the cup marked rocks of Drottninghall, the stone ship and enigmatic wall constructions of Tofta Högar, the large area of terraced fields in the wood of Deiarp and the majestic mound of Dagshög (fig.12.3), the largest Bronze Age mound in Scania. Walking tracks are traced at Bjäragården (fig.12.4) and through a unique seashore habitat to the cairns of Gröthögarna. At the Boarp Centre visitors may enter everyday Bronze Age life in a reconstructed house. (Bjärehalvön 1999; Bjärehalvön, S. 1999; Fact Sheets 1998;

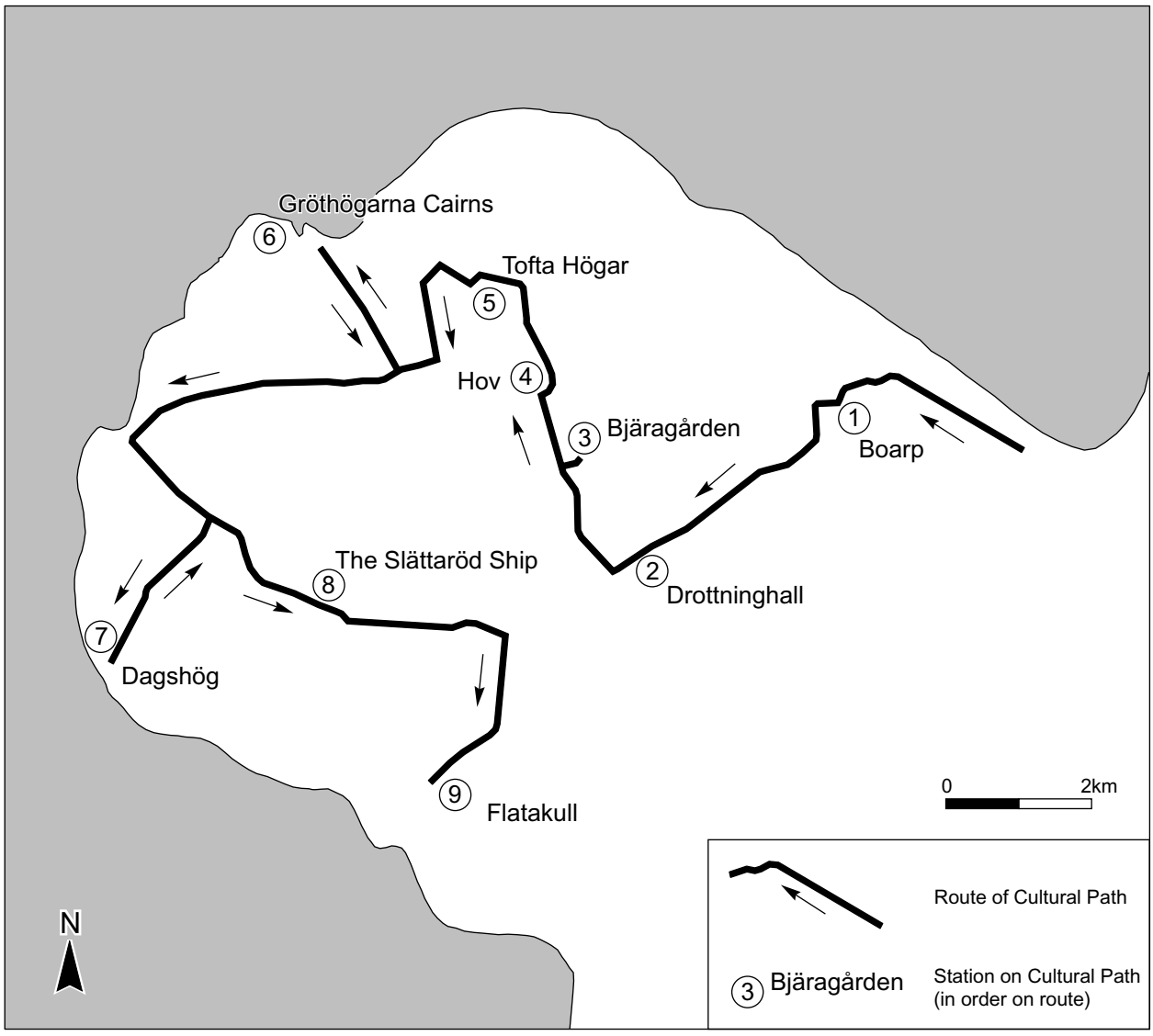

Fig.12.2: An example of a European Cultural Path, the Båstad-Bjäre Path, Sweden.

Fig.12.3: Dagshög (Dag's Barrow), Bjäre during a visit by ECP members after the preliminary meeting in Sweden, May 1997.

Sterner 2000c). Jenny Nord Paulssen addresses the cultural landscape of the Bjäre peninsula in a separate paper in detail in this volume (Paulsson 2002).

The island of Funen, Denmark

The island of Funen is one of the most important areas of the Nordic Bronze Age. The quantity of burial mounds indicates a densely populated area, and the size of some of the mounds tells us a story of wealthy chieftains and extensive trade connections with most parts of Europe. Two areas of Voldtofte and Pipstorn near Fåborg have been selected for the project, both of which are characterised by the presence of many prehistoric monuments. Both landscapes are situated in southwest Funen.

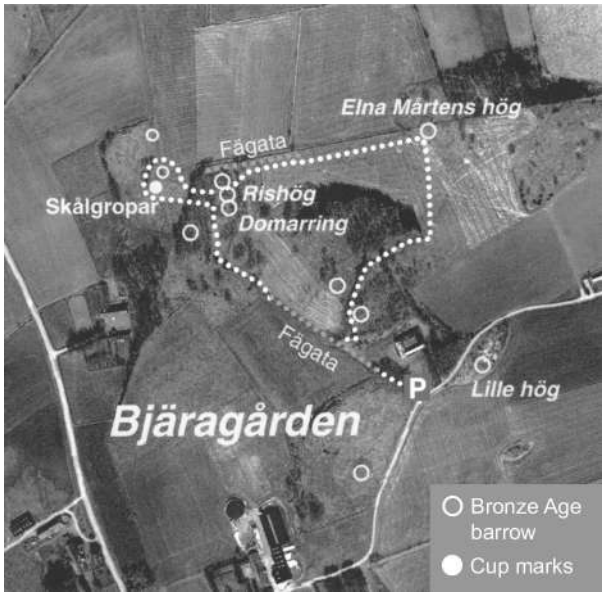

Fig.12.4: Details of the Bjäragården section of the Båstad-Bjäre Path.

Kirkebjerg near Voldtofte is one of Denmark's largest Bronze Age settlements and one of the richest in finds. Evidence of structures with painted walls and a large amount of bronze casting emphasises the fact that the settlement assumed quite an exceptional position.

Lusehøj is one of the country's biggest Bronze Age barrows, with an original diameter of about 35m and a height of about 7m. There have been excavations at Lusehøj in 1861 and again in the 1970s. The most recent excavations have to a great extent documented the complex history and method of construction of the barrow. In the immediate vicinity of Lusehøj another four great barrows from the Bronze Age can be found.

Alleskoven and *Pipstorn* are a good example of prehistory preserved in woodland. The Pipstorn forest just outside Fåborg contains a considerable number of ancient monuments. There is a grave complex from the Late Bronze Age, as well as Bronze Age burial mounds and land boundaries from the Iron Age and medieval periods. The area contains Funen's largest collection of Bronze Age barrows (Bronzealderen på Sydvestfyn 1999; Fact Sheets 1998; Lorenzen & Michaelsen 2000a).

Avaldsnes, the island of Karmøy, Norway

During the early part of the Bronze Age, Avaldsnes on the island of Karmøy in south-western Norway strategically situated along the straits of the Karmsund, became the centre of a mighty principality, with strong connections to Denmark and mainland Europe. At Avaldsnes there are numerous ancient monuments, which, in combination with rich finds from the area, show us that powerful chieftains, and later kings, had their bases there. The princes of Avaldsnes were to become the major force in uniting Norway during the Viking period. After the unification of Norway Avaldsnes was a royal manor for approximately

500 years and thus also a site of historic events told in the sagas. It is best known as the royal residence of Harald Finehair and the other kings that we hear about in the Norse sagas. The sagas also tell us about the legendary king Augvald who has given his name to this ancient site. Today the medieval church is the main reminder of more glorious times.

At *Rehaugene*, six imposing earthen burial mounds, which dominate the landscape, were built during the Bronze Age. The use of earth instead of stones in the construction of the mounds shows clear connections to Denmark and Northern Europe. Rehaugene is the largest concentration of earthen burial mounds from the Early Bronze Age in Norway. Close to the Rehaugene there is a copper mine where mining started in 1865. Copper ore might have been the basis for the start of Avaldsnes as a central place in the prehistory.

Flagghaugen is a burial mound from the third century AD, 43m in diameter and 5m high. In it the richest gold finds from any grave in Scandinavia from the Later Roman Iron Age has been found.

Storhaug is a burial mound dating from about 750 AD, which originally had a diameter of 50m and was 5–6m high. In this mound a very rich ship burial similar to the ones in Gokstad and Oseberg was found, but Storhaug is about 50–100 years older.

Potentially hidden in the ground and waters of this ancient royal residences are secrets that can provide new information on both Norwegian and European history. The Municipality of Karmøy ran the project in close co-operation with the Rogaland County Council and the Museum of Archaeology, Stavanger (Bronsealderen på Reheia-Karmøy 1999; Fact Sheets 1998; Solnørdal & Vea 2000; Sør-Reime 1999).

The Archaeological Spessart Project, Germany

Spessart is a forested area with many preserved archaeological monuments, now divided by administrative borders. The rich resources of this area have been exploited since the stone age, and it is therefore a rich cultural landscape, formed and changed by people since the Neolithic. Erosion, climate and ecological changes caused by human processes have left traces in the landscape, with evidence of vast deforestation in the prehistoric and medieval periods. The forest has preserved monuments and traces of human activities so well, that today we can draw a vivid picture of past landscapes. Many of the inner Spessart forest villages became depopulated in the 18th and 19th century which followed a period of agricultural decline and 18th century with systematic reforestation returning the 20th century Spessart landscape to closed forest again. Today the area's main cultural associations are with forest poverty and robbers.

The Spessart archaeological project was started in 1994 to try to identify the traces of centuries and millennia of human activity in the area. Several paths guide the visitor on this fascinating voyage through time. Knowledge of the area and its past has been dominated by the classic German archaeologists' research approaches of prospecting, dating and cataloguing archaeological monuments and objects. The European Cultural Paths project, however, involved scientists of other disciplines including geographers, geologists, economical and technical historians as well as biologists, thus leading the European Cultural Paths project to a broader view. Cultural history and the development of the cultural landscape came more and more into focus. This trend was enhanced by new international contacts and the discussion about the different projects in the five participating countries (Frammersbach 2000a & b; Ermischer 2000a; Fact Sheets 1998).

Rebala Reserve and Kaali Meteorite Craters, Estonia
Rebala – the eastermost outpost of the Nordic Bronze Culture

Rebala is a landscape that was formed as a result of human activity during the Bronze Age and Early Iron Age on the north coast of Estonia. The Reserve was founded in 1979 on the eastern border of Tallinn with the aim of stopping the rapacious excavation of phosphorite (Kraut 1995). Fifteen villages and more than 300 archaeological monuments, mainly stone cist barrows and cup marked cult stones are exhibited in the area of approximately 25km^2 (pl.12.1). The first remains of ancient fields in Estonia were discovered there, dating from the beginning of the Christian era. This area is the easternmost outpost in Europe of concentrations of stone cist barrows and cup marked cult-stones (Kraut 2000a).

In the centre of the reserve in Jõelähtme on the bank of a river emerging from under the earth there is a reconstructed burial site with 36 graves and a small museum and information centre. The group of 36 stone-cist graves (originally it was even larger) was excavated in the beginning of the 1980s (Kraut 1985). In comparison with other stone-cist graves in Estonia this group is rather exceptional. The number of graves is extraordinarily large (the average number of graves in one group is 5–6). The graves are densely located side by side, and in an Estonian context the grave goods were extraordinarily rich. Usually our stone-cist graves are very poor in grave goods, yet the Jõelähtme burials contained a number of bone decorative pins, bronze temple ornaments, amber beads and a group of bronze artefacts imported from Scandinavia including razors, buttons and pincers (Kraut 1985). The graves are dated to the Estonian Bronze Age periods four and five. Although no more graves of this period have been investigated in the area, we are dealing here with such an exceptional group of graves that, without doubt, the community who are buried there must have had much

Fig.12.5: Kaali Lake, Estonia, formed in a meteorite crater.

better contacts for obtaining or importing goods than the other communities in northern Estonia (Lang 1999).

A variety of monuments are protected within the nature reserve, along with many different types of heritage suitable for research work by archaeologists, historians and natural scientists. The Rebala Reserve provides an ideal opportunity for everyone to learn more about the ancient landscape and it's location close to the capital and good roads, secure easy access and great possibilities for raising public interest (Rebala Muinsuskaitseala 1999; Kraut 2000a).

Kaali Meteorite Crater Field

The Kaali Meteorite Crater Field is on Saaremaa, the largest island in Estonia. It is the site of the most recent giant meteorite to fall in a densely populated area. The meteorite, with a mass of 20–80t fell from the east at an angle of 45 degrees at a speed of 15–45km/sec. Passing through the atmosphere the meteorite broke into pieces at an altitude of 5–10km, falling to the Earth as a meteorite shower. As a result a 22m deep main crater with a diameter of 110m and at least eight smaller craters were formed. Its fall is dated by geologists to *c.*7600 Radio Carbon years B.P. *c.*6400–6200 cal. BC (Raukas *et al.* 1999).

In the Iron Age the crater was surrounded by a strong stonewall and was probably used as a place for water sacrifices. The bottom sediments of the Kaali Lake are about 6m thick and are yet waiting for discoverers to unearth their secrets (fig.12.5). Its fall has left clear traces not only on the landscape, but also in folklore (Edda, Kalevala) and written sources (Pytheas, Scandinavian sagas). It is known from written sources that local people regarded this lake as 'holy'. On the north-eastern part of the swell surrounding the main crater a fortified site was erected at the end of the Late Bronze Age (Lõugas 1992; 1996). This site was located at the distance of 7–10km from the Bronze Age seacoast where no water route was leading – so, the 'strategic position' of the Kaali differed remarkably from the other fortified sites. The surface area of Kaali fortified site is tens of times smaller than that of the other fortified sites, hence, the population who lived there had to be very small.

The oldest traces of human settlement date from the 6th millennium BC, before the meteorite's fall, but it may be assumed that the island was already populated at the moment of this great impact. It is not known when people started to regard this crater and lake as holy, but most likely it happened rather soon after this event. At the time of the fortification, the level of groundwater was extremely low, the lake had dried up and peat, bushes and trees covered the bottom of the crater. It was not before the Roman Iron Age that the lake formed again (Lang 1999).

The fortified site of Kaali might have served as a centre of a relatively small settlement area: on the one hand, it

had some socio-political and economic importance (bronze casting and circulation); on the other hand, it definitely had some religious and cult function. The religious meaning of this sacred place extended remarkably farther than its political or economic impact (Lang 1999).

The aim of the Estonian project is to introduce and raise public awareness of the Kaali Crater Field and its surrounding cultural landscape. The formation of such a rare natural monument, its effect on the surrounding landscape and settlements, as well as the effect of human activities on the crater have created a unique cultural landscape, a micro region. Its preservation, research, maintenance and introduction to the public are of essential importance in the contexts of cultural history of the island of Saaremaa, of Estonia and of Europe more widely. Earlier archaeological and natural science surveys and the completed European Cultural Paths project all serve as the initial basis for the project (Kaali Meteoriidikraatrid Saaremaal 1999).

Conclusion

A nation's cultural identity is based on its cultural heritage. Therefore it is essential to promote the public's understanding of cultural landscapes, their care and preservation. The European Cultural Paths project has proceeded successfully and according to the set aims it has:

- promoted presentation of the chosen areas' archaeology;
- confirmed the importance of the Bronze Age landscapes;
- made the Nordic Bronze Age culture more public in partner countries;
- brought along extra means for promoting archaeology, both from national resources and the EU RAPHAEL Project;
- established international contacts between archaeologists and cultural heritage managers from different countries and has given them the experience of international co-operation;
- enlivened scientific research work directly connected with the areas included in the project and more extensively on the subject of the Bronze Age;
- raised local authorities' interest in heritage monuments and cultural landscapes and, simultaneously, in the European Union and its cultural co-operation;
- assisted in media coverage of the subject of cultural landscapes and archaeology;
- presented an opportunity for archaeologists and scientists to acquaint themselves with chosen areas, which for example was impossible for scientists from Eastern Europe during the Soviet period.

By the time the European Cultural Paths project finished in 1999 the aims set by the partners' contributions to the European Cultural Paths project, to communicate monuments of the Bronze Age and manmade landscapes to the public, as well as to create necessary conditions and funds for it, had been achieved. The project has advertised the historic link between different European countries, especially relations between Scandinavian countries, Germany and the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea from the Bronze Age up to the present day (Kraut 2000a).

European Cultural Paths focused mainly on monuments within the cultural landscape, and a larger new extension project has subsequently been established, with twelve partners in ten countries, spread far more widely across Europe. This, a Culture 2000 funded project called 'European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes', concentrates on the landscape itself, accepting the *European Landscape Convention* adopted in the year 2000 as its framework and follows the definition of landscape as stated in the convention (Ermischer 2000b; Whitmore 2001). The common philosophy and methodology of the new project (Fairclough & Darlington 2001) are based on the English method of Historic Landscape Characterisation (Fairclough 1999; Fairclough *et al.* 1999). Its products are defined by the Culture 2000 application: web-sites, leaflets, a book, exhibitions, pathways (physical or virtual), seminars between project members, staff exchanges, other conferences, lectures and academic papers.

Hopefully the experience of European Cultural Paths will help to create a general concept for future communication of cultural landscapes and prehistoric monuments within chronological and geographical frames, thus providing a model for corresponding European cultural co-operations.

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European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes

13: The contribution of agricultural support measures to protecting the archaeological heritage of Northern Ireland

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Abstract: *The pastoral character of the agricultural landscape in Northern Ireland has resulted in high standards of archaeological preservation. Changes in agricultural policy and increased subsidies and improvement grants in the 1970s, as a result of EU membership, have, however, dramatically altered the landscape. This paper describes and evaluates the initial liaison between state archaeologists and the Department of Agriculture, the positive results of the establishment of Environmentally Sensitive Areas, the importance of the Countryside Management Scheme, and the establishment of a code of good farming practice.*

Introduction

As a mainly pastoral region, the landscape of Northern Ireland has excellent preservation of upstanding archaeological monuments dating from the Neolithic period some 7,000 years ago to the Industrial Revolution (fig.13.1). In addition, the diverse natural landscape with many prominent topographical features is relatively well preserved and extensive tracts of lowland and mountain peat provide a rich wetland archaeological medium. Field monuments are frequently endowed with mythological stories and heroic names which provide 'explanations' for their presence in the landscape and which have helped to preserve them.

The archaeological resource in Northern Ireland embraces some 15,000 sites and monuments including megalithic tombs, large and small prehistoric ritual earthworks, strongly defensive occupation sites, complex church sites, castles, abbeys from the medieval period as well as later castles and fortifications. While sites can be documented individually, groups of sites in particular topographical settings or built in places which had continuous 'sacred' associations become landscapes where successions of occupation and change can be observed and studied. In addition, *c.*15,000 sites are listed in an Industrial Heritage Record that includes thousands of ruins of water and steam-powered mills, several important canals and remains of a once very extensive railway system. An inventory of 654 historic Parks, Gardens and Demesnes provides the basis for agreeing how change to such designed landscapes could be best managed in the future.

Management

Environment and Heritage Service (EHS) of the Department of the Environment is the body responsible for the recording and protection of the archaeological resource in Northern Ireland. EHS protects selected features of the built heritage by Scheduling under *The Historic Monuments and Archaeological Objects (NI) Order 1995*. Occupied dwellings and churches still in use for worship may not be scheduled but may be protected by Listing under *The Planning (NI) Order 1991*. Other government departments, particularly the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (DARD), work within a policy framework of cross-compliance and sustainability, so that increasingly aspects of built heritage are protected and managed by a wide variety of government agencies, advised by Environment and Heritage Service.

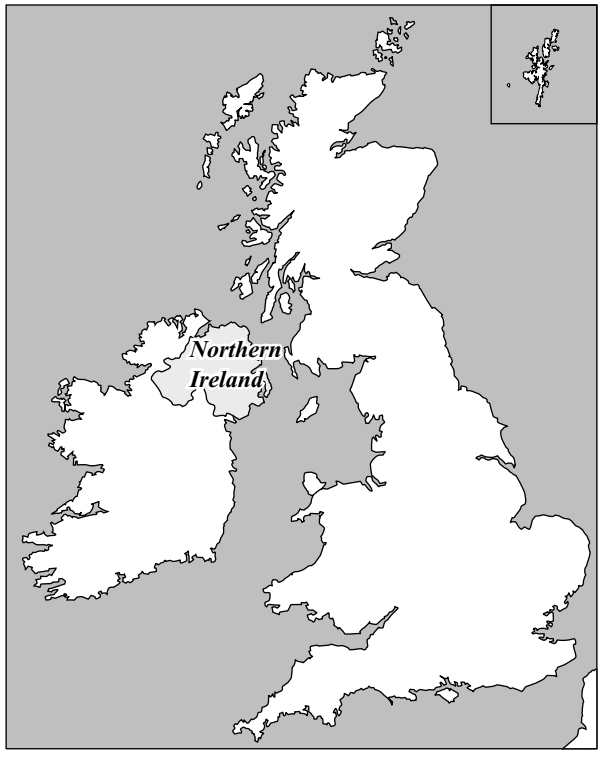

Figure 13.1: Northern Ireland.

The good management of archaeological sites and vernacular and industrial structures in the agricultural context has been a growing issue over the past thirty years. Low-intensity agricultural practices and the small average size of farms (30 hectares) have meant that many field monuments have been preserved by benign neglect. During World War II, however, national food shortages prompted changes in land management. Much old pasture was converted to arable with commensurate increases in the use and size of machinery. Government support for increased food production meant that many field monuments, which had survived well through population expansion since the Industrial Revolution, were now levelled to make way for changing agricultural needs.

Effects of accession to the European Community

Support for agriculture from Europe in the years following the UK accession to the European Community in 1973 was at first organised without realising the potential for harming the environment. In Northern Ireland land reclamation, including drainage, was encouraged after the accession and these changes were often radical and irreversible (pl.13.1). Subsidised productivity also motivated the widespread reclamation of other types of 'marginal' land. Archaeological sites were considered to be an obstruction to the progress of machinery or the layout of fields and were frequently cleared away with little opportunity for scientific recording. In upland areas, above the 230m optimum grass-growing level, where blanket peat had sealed the remains of Neolithic and Bronze Age farms and burial monuments, large scale reclamation changed the surface appearance of the landscape from the seasonally-changing peatland vegetation to nutrient-enriched bright green grass. The effect on the archaeological landscape was dramatic with sites such as megalithic tombs and stone circles being removed or modified.

In lowland areas, which had been laid out for pasture and arable from the 18th century, field sizes were enlarged with grant-aid resulting in the destruction of many important earthwork settlements, which had survived until then on the margins of smaller fields. This situation gradually led in the 1970s to the appointment of a small number of archaeologists who took the opportunity to 'rescue' sites by excavation whenever possible, as resources allowed and under the pressure of time. Many major sites were recorded in this way, resulting in important discoveries and insights.

Pressure from archaeologists and natural historians, particularly ornithologists, gradually influenced public opinion during the early 1980s when the imbalance between increased agricultural production and the harm this was causing to various habitats began to be publicly debated. In the public eye, the damage to the archaeological resource was less perceptible than that to the natural heritage and it was difficult to have the danger to archaeological sites recognised. The effect on wildlife and the general landscape, coupled with the increasing costs of Community food storage eventually led to reforms of the Common Agricultural Policy. These included taking the emphasis off intensive food production in order to balance farming practices with caring for the environment.

Northern Ireland, although part of the UK, was classified after accession to the EU as an Objective 1 Area reflecting its relatively low GDP. This status attracted good support from the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF) which was at first confined to several upland areas designated as Less Favoured. This status was eventually extended to the whole territory of Northern Ireland attracting higher levels of subsidy than most other regions of the UK. Financial support at 25% from the EU under Article 14 of Council Directive 72/159/EEC, supplemented by various amounts for other 'improving' actions by the UK exchequer, accelerated the process of improving existing farmland and 'reclaiming' marginal land, which until that time had been used for seasonal rough grazing of sheep or cattle. The importance of such areas as natural habitats had not yet been widely recognised and many thousands of hectares of heather-covered blanket peat and heathland were brought into re-seeded grassland.

Reclamation methods

Blanket peat, often sealing prehistoric landscapes, was largely reclaimed by bulldozing. While many landowners were concerned to avoid damage to known archaeological sites, the unique nature of each site as a repository of archaeological and scientific data was not widely appreciated. The surface peat, often several metres deep, which had begun to grow during the Bronze Age was stripped off. The buried old soil and the accumulated impervious iron pan layer beneath it was then broken up to assist drainage. This was mixed with the stripped peat and redistributed over the ground before being re-seeded and fertilised. Extensive drains were also dug in close parallel rows and filled with coarse, quarried stone which was poured around perforated plastic piping to draw ground and rain water away to the river systems. Buried archaeological deposits were comprehensively destroyed in such areas. When large-scale earthmoving was carried out near a recognised site, even when an effort was made to protect it, it was difficult to know when damage was being done to ancillary features or nearby as yet unrecognised sites.

Effects on archaeology and landscapes

The strong superstitions of earlier generations which helped many sites to survive into the mid 20th century gave way to a more informed concern in various communities, but it was never sufficient to overcome the pressures of grant-led development. The majority of sites destroyed were never reported and we can only quantify those destroyed sites which had been previously mapped on various editions of the Ordnance Survey 6" maps since the 1830s. The landscape was dramatically changed by the removal of small hills, field boundaries, peatland and woodland. Farmers as custodians of the landscape and its heritage had mixed views on the changes and some were

particularly careful to protect features which they and the community respected. Where sites were preserved, the landscape context was often altered by removing old field boundaries (fig.13.2). Sites were sometimes left isolated on raised islands while the ground around them was lowered and levelled. Hilly land which was managed on foot or on small tractors in the past was now regarded as difficult and dangerous for larger machines.

This 'progress' was difficult to counter as it was providing farming communities with better incomes and the improvements were seen as a way of ensuring that the farmland would pass productively into future generations. Archaeologists were concerned and vociferous in the 1970s about the ongoing and unrecorded losses to the finite heritage, but the concept of sustainability had not yet surfaced.

Policy changes

In parallel with natural heritage conservation, the archaeological arm of the Environment and Heritage Service began working to positively influence agricultural policies and practices in the late 1970s. A growing frustration with expensive, reactive, excavation work gave way to the establishment of positive liaison between state archaeologists and the Department of Agriculture to find ways to prevent further destruction of archaeological sites.

The Northern Ireland Sites and Monuments Record was first distributed as paper maps to the Department of Agriculture in 1978–9. In that pre-GIS era, individual farm maps were marked up with the archaeological information and certain simple prescriptions about the management of sites were prepared (pl.13.2). Gradually the archaeological resource has become better respected and it is now rare to find archaeological sites deliberately removed. The good day-to-day management of upstanding remains and the protection of the more ephemeral and below ground remains is more difficult to achieve and is the focus of current efforts.

There was at first a generally low appreciation of the uniqueness of archaeological sites and of the need to manage all of them to prevent cumulative attrition or deliberate destruction. Knowledge of such threats to archaeological sites was often reported during the actual destruction by a machine driver or by a neighbour, playing the role of anonymous 'informer'. There were not enough trained archaeologists available to cope with the amount of work to be done and there was never enough time to excavate scientifically everything which was going to be destroyed.

The establishment of Environmentally Sensitive Areas

Environmentally Sensitive Areas (ESAs) were established in the UK in 1986 in line with Article 19 of EU Council Regulation 797/85. This measure was specifically aimed at the requirement of conserving the natural habitat while

Fig.13.2:An 'improved' field against a backdrop of traditionally enclosed land (© Crown copyright. Reproduced with the permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationary Office).

ensuring an adequate income for farmers. 'Landscape' and 'environment' were used as words in the Regulation but the emphasis was clearly on the natural aspects and did not include a specific intention to protect archaeological features. Separate statutes were drawn up for local implementation of ESAs in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Environmentally Sensitive Areas aimed to bring about an improvement in the efficiency of farms while protecting the environment and preserving the landscape. Reduction in intensity of livestock and the role of farmers in performing a valuable service to society were clearly stated objectives. These are important aspirations with a valuable part to play in protecting archaeological remains, whether this is directly intended or not. Archaeologists in Northern Ireland recognised the potential for archaeological protection and good management and set about lobbying to have the care of archaeological sites on farmland specifically included within the individual ESA farm plans. The Department of Agriculture enthusiastically embraced the idea and a partnership was begun to establish management prescriptions and put in place training for agriculture staff.

There was an uptake of 61% of eligible farmers joining Environmentally Sensitive Areas over the initial five years representing about 1,500 farms and it was decided to extend the scheme for a further five years. A local Northern Ireland review in 1991–2 conducted by the Department of Agriculture for Northern Ireland concluded that ESA management was proving a successful way of conserving landscapes and habitats. A specialist review of the effects on the archaeological resource at that time found that animal trampling of archaeological sites was the worst problem which needed to be addressed. The management of archaeological sites in ESAs was initially handled directly by the agricultural inspectors, but this has gradually become a partnership between the Department of Agriculture as managers of the scheme and Built Heritage of the Environment and Heritage Service who advise on individual farm plans, which include archaeological sites and landscapes.

This was a turning point in the protection of both archaeological and natural heritage. Although participation by landowners is voluntary, the overall good effect on the landscape is clear for all to see. As agricultural inspectors became more familiar with the principles of conservation and good management this gave the hard-pressed state archaeologists more support and influence in the field. Training programmes were organised for agricultural inspectors on the recognition of archaeological field monuments and they were encouraged to call on the archaeological service for more advice in individual cases.

Reform of the Common Agricultural Policy

The EU Agri-Environment Regulation (2078/92) emerged as one of the accompanying measures to the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). This regulation required Member States to draw up individual area programmes to encourage environmentally friendly farming. This provided the vehicle for re-designating the two existing ESAs areas in Northern Ireland and preparing designations for three further areas. Participation in the Environmentally Sensitive Areas scheme is entirely voluntary and limited at present in Northern Ireland to an annual budget of 3 million euros. This regulation did not prescribe how individual countries would do this and each Member State was required to draw up its own rules. Archaeologists in the UK were quick to recognise that although archaeological features were not specifically mentioned in EU agricultural regulations, the modification of the landscape by people since farming began and the contribution which individual monuments make to the landscape is fundamental and needs to be acknowledged and carefully managed.

The Department of Agriculture for Northern Ireland, once lobbied by the state archaeologists, enthusiastically included the management of archaeological features in overall farm plans from 1993, as they were recognised as part of the stated objective to 'maintain and enhance the landscape, wildlife and historic value of designated areas by encouraging environmentally sensitive farming practices'. As Member States were given the discretion to draw up their own agri-environment plans it is surprising that more European countries did not seize the opportunity to protect archaeological sites and landscapes in this way.

By 1994 there were five separate Environmentally Sensitive Areas covering 20% of Northern Ireland farmland within which almost 65% of land was under ESA agreement. Farmers were signed up for ten-year agreements with an option to stop, if desired, after five years.

The Statutory rules for Northern Ireland from 1992 give the following reasons for designating Environmentally Sensitive Areas:

- To conserve and enhance the natural beauty of the area.
- To conserve the flora and fauna and geological and physiographical features of that area.
- To protect buildings and other objects of archaeological, architectural or historic interest in that area.

The general prescriptions for entering into an ESA management agreement are directed at wider countryside issues, but include many requirements, which are also beneficial to archaeological landscapes and deposits in the widest sense. They include directions to the individual farmer:

- to prepare a farm conservation plan
- not to carry out any land reclamation work
- not to install new drainage
- not to undertake ploughing, levelling or reseeding of unimproved grassland or ground not previously cultivated
- not to remove field boundaries.

Specifically referring to any building or other object of archaeological, architectural or historic interest on land subject to Environmentally Sensitive Area agreement the farmer is directed:

- to ensure that the boundaries of any such building or 'object' are identified and marked on a farm map
- not to undertake any form of cultivation or tree planting within a minimum of 10m of the boundaries of such a building or 'object'
- to manage scrub or trees within the boundaries to reduce root damage
- to exclude livestock as necessary
- not to carry out any activity likely to damage or destroy any such building or 'object'
- not to place any feeding or drinking troughs or locate any supplementary feeding areas within the boundaries of any such building or 'object'.

Provision of advice

The importance of seeking professional archaeological opinion on individual farm management proposals with archaeological sites, although accepted in principle, was at first difficult to establish. In the early days of the Environmentally Sensitive Areas there was a tendency to fence off archaeological sites to isolate them from mainstream agricultural activities, because this was perceived by agricultural inspectors as the most secure way of protecting them. Stock management is, however, a critical factor in protecting many archaeological field monuments, particularly earthworks, and fencing-off often resulted in sites becoming neglected and overgrown, and with the regeneration of trees, root damage became an issue.

Through training, the importance of regular grazing for earthworks has been established and isolating of sites is now kept to a minimum. When fencing is used, for instance, to allow a site to recover from stock damage, a gate is always included for occasional grazing with a controlled number of stock. This keeps scrub and tree growth from developing, with the ultimate aim of removing the fence when appropriate, thereby returning the site to the landscape.

Benefits to farmers

Farmers at first were paid 52 euros per 0.25 hectare, per annum, for upstanding archaeological sites. This naturally led to numbers of previously unmapped sites being discovered and some natural features such as boulders or geomorphological features being proposed as archaeological sites. Numbers of previously damaged or ploughed down sites now became 'assets' to their owners and it was good to see the damage caused by repeated past ploughing being reduced, at least for the period of the agreement.

Including archaeological sites for annual payments was a good incentive, providing landowners with an income from features, which had long been regarded as 'waste ground'. It soon became clear, however, that payments for simply having archaeological sites was not enough as many sites required regular active management to keep them in good condition and archaeologists lobbied successfully to have management payments introduced for activities to benefit archaeological sites instead of simple acknowledgement payments for having a site on the land. Looking to the future, this helpfully anticipates a time when such payments may be reduced and farmers will not be so inclined to use heritage features as hostages.

The Countryside Management Scheme

The Countryside Management Scheme (CMS) has been introduced since 2000 following Council Regulation (EC) No 1257/1999 to cover all farmland not already designated as Environmentally Sensitive Areas. It parallels similar schemes in the other UK countries and in Ireland and is a welcome, geographically cohesive approach for the conservation of all farmland. It remains an entirely voluntary scheme (like ESAs) and requires applicants to have a number of key environmental features against which they are scored for participation. Reforms for the better management of the environment contained within it are now required to be implemented across the whole range of supported agricultural practices in Northern Ireland.

A number of priority habitats has been identified for the Countryside Management Scheme including one specifically for archaeology. A bonus is that most of the habitats can and do include archaeological features and deposits, which are then protected by default. The habitats specified for protection are:

- Species-rich grassland
- Upland breeding wader sites
- Wetlands
- Moorland
- Lowland raised bog
- Broad-leaved farm woodland/scrub
- Land adjacent to lakes
- Coastal farmland
- Parkland
- Archaeological features

Management of optional habitats and features includes nesting areas, buffer strips next to areas of scientific interest, traditional orchards and the restoration of field boundaries.

This new scheme takes a holistic view of each participating farm which, if carefully managed, is likely to result in greater benefits to all the environmental elements including archaeological features. However, training for staff and farmers is important to carry it through. General prescriptions for better environmental management include protection of biodiversity and environmental and landscape interests and cross-compliance with existing environmental legislation. Designated areas such as Ramsar sites, Special Protection Areas, Areas of Special Scientific Interest or Scheduled Historic Monuments are managed principally

by the Environment and Heritage Service (EHS) with the support of the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (DARD).

There are two basic prescriptions within the Countryside Management Scheme, which, if complied with, will adequately protect most aspects of archaeology:

- The farmer shall retain and not damage any habitat, landscape or water feature, heritage feature, including archaeological sites, features of historic interest (for instance, lime kilns, traditional gate pillars or sheepfolds) and vernacular buildings on the landholding and;
- The farmer shall retain existing field boundaries and shall not remove any hedge, tree, copse, scrub, ditch, dyke or wall or any part thereof, except with prior written permission of the Department of Agriculture.

Between the inclusion of archaeological features in the defined habitats and the application of the above specific principles, much unrecognised as well as upstanding archaeological evidence will be carefully preserved. Archaeological field monuments are at last being recognised as an integrated component of environmental management and they have much to offer natural heritage in the biodiversity that they support.

Restoration of field boundaries

In spite of earlier grant-aided initiatives for the removal of field boundaries in improvement schemes, Northern Ireland still has a great variety and number of field systems. The methods of construction vary from dry-stone walls to upcast clay banks. There are many local variations depending on available materials and they are formed into complex patterns, sometimes regular and often irregular in shape. There is general agreement that some of the oldest field boundaries date back to before the 12th century, particularly those used to divide the countryside into units known as townlands (of which there are 9,520 in Northern Ireland). A small number of boundaries may be contemporary with first millennium AD earthworks, while pre-historic field boundaries have been identified under peat in various upland areas. An initiative to provide incentives for restoration of field boundaries as an extra to the Countryside Management Schemes causes concern to archaeologists as re-building ancient boundaries might be overstepping the good management principle of minimum intervention. The Department of Agriculture has agreed to restore only those stone walls which have collapsed in the last century or so and only if the stone is available on site without damaging other structures or natural heritage features to obtain it.

Good farming practice

A Code of Good Farming Practice has been developed in Northern Ireland as prescribed by Council Regulation (EC) 1257/1999. The Code as written for Northern Ireland establishes standards of care for the environment by all farmers receiving agricultural subsidies of any kind, whether they are participants in one of the designated agri-environment schemes or not. It builds on the principles already practised in the Environmentally Sensitive Areas and Countryside Management Schemes and applies the experience of managing them to lay down a set of good, enforceable principles. Farmers are now required to apply good farming practices to maintain and protect habitats, landscape, heritage features and water quality. There are three elements to the Code:

- Legislation – compliance with all relevant statutes.
- Verifiable standards – standards will be established and inspected.
- Training in compliance – 500,000 euros is to be spent in the first phase of training for farmers in the next two years.

The fine-tuning will come in the provision of good training and advice to individual farmers, as much damage can arise through lack of knowledge and misunderstanding. Damage to archaeological sites or landscape features through bad agricultural practices could now result in financial penalties such as the removal or reduction of allowances and/or repayment of already received monies depending on the seriousness of the action. Agricultural inspections to ensure compliance will be done at a rate of 5%, a low enough 'discovery' rate but all that is possible within existing agricultural staffing resources.

In the Code of Good Farming Practice archaeological sites are specified as environmental features to be protected. In addition, changes to field boundaries will only be allowed with prior written permission. Placing of feeding stations on archaeological sites is specifically forbidden as this leads to severe erosion. Perhaps the most important aspect of the Code is the introduction of the concept of 'overgrazing'. Animal trampling was identified as the single biggest threat to archaeological sites in an Environmentally Sensitive Area review of 1992. Now, stocking levels are to be controlled to prevent damage to the growth, quality or species composition of vegetation 'to a significant degree'. This might be difficult to agree in cases of dispute. In essence it means maintaining a healthy sward on the surface of archaeological sites ensuring good preservation and use of grazing to good effect to prevent tree and scrub growth.

The Code of Good Farming Practice includes a broad definition of archaeological sites for the first time in agricultural protection policy in Northern Ireland. This definition is: 'Archaeological features are those man-made elements of the environment, which represent the aspirations, and achievements of all previous generations. They date from the earliest human presence to the recent past and are a finite and non-renewable resource.' This goes a long way towards understanding that the countryside as we have inherited it is a largely man-modified landscape.

The Department of Agriculture will inspect the verifiable standards for the management of archaeological

sites, but breaches may be reported to it by anyone, particularly officers of the Department of the Environment. Farmers in receipt of agricultural subsidies or support are now prohibited from any of the following operations on archaeological sites without the necessary permissions:

- In-filling
- Reclamation
- Extraction of peat, sand or gravel
- Woodland clearance.

The prescriptions already drawn up in Environmentally Sensitive Areas for the positive management of archaeological sites (above) will apply.

Evaluation

The Department of Agriculture in Northern Ireland (DARD) does not employ its own archaeological expertise nor does it give grant-aid to farmers to employ independent archaeologists to draw up farm plans which is done elsewhere in the UK. Professional archaeological advice and occasional training for field staff is provided by two archaeologists in Environment and Heritage Service (EHS). Survey information on all known sites is available through EHS and reported 'new' sites are field checked by them for verification. DARD uses mapped information on all known sites from the Northern Ireland Sites and Monuments Record (also available on www.ehsni.gov.uk). The Environment and Heritage Service archaeological advice service extends also to forestry operations, both public and private and river maintenance programmes.

DARD provides the local rules in Northern Ireland for managing agri-environment schemes as provided for in various Council Regulations (EC) listed below. The current agri-environment schemes, Environmentally Sensitive Areas and Countryside Management, agreed for operation in Northern Ireland by the EC, are providing protection and good management for many aspects of the historic environment including parkland and vernacular architecture. There is a difficulty for agricultural inspectors in having to become 'expert' in so many diverse subjects.

Figure 13.3: A Norman castle mound in an 'improved' field suffering from animal trampling (© Crown copyright. Reproduced with the permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationary Office).

The advice offered by Environment and Heritage Service includes prescriptions for repairs of earthworks or masonry ruins, re-siting or careful re-surfacing of lanes, temporary fencing and control of various kinds of vegetation including trees, scrub and weeds and recommendations on stocking levels (fig.13.3). It is not possible to monitor in all cases whether the advice has been taken but issues of non-compliance will be discovered over a number of years in the regular monitoring exercises.

One of the difficulties in managing the archaeological resource through DARD initiatives is that growing developments in a landscape approach to archaeology are difficult to introduce. Site specific, map-based information is easier to specify and can be administered by a set of rules. It leaves little room for innovative thinking about complex interrelationships of sites to each other or to natural features. The modification by humans of the natural landscape over time is even more difficult for the layperson to grasp. There is an abiding impression that archaeological sites are very specific, easily recognised and defined and generally invulnerable to the abuses which nature and farming practices impose.

The agri-environment management of archaeological sites is, however, a very big contribution to their on-going survival and better care. In Northern Ireland only about 2% (60,000 euros) of the 3 million euros disbursed on the schemes each year is spent on the direct management of archaeological sites. Small amounts can, however, go a very long way towards correcting a problem on such sites. The level of expenditure is comfortably within the competence of those managing it. A bigger budget might encourage unsuitable kinds of intervention such as over-tidying or unsupervised masonry conservation. Better than the expenditure are the good principles being instilled. The agri-environment incentives are a real encouragement to the farming community to support and manage the landscape and its component parts, but they are necessarily time-bound by agreements lasting five or ten years. There is a real worry that reducing European support as a response to improved GDP and proposed European expansion may lead to a situation where archaeological sites become bargaining points between landowners and government agencies.

The most controversial initiative may prove to be the restoration under Countryside Management Schemes of features in the landscape such as field boundaries or parkland. The farm landscape was created over millennia and the impact of the past three centuries is particularly marked. For instance, the creation of field boundaries, the planting up of woodland and land drainage were all done for a purpose resulting in a very varied and complex landscape which should be carefully understood in order to manage restoration or change.

The value of archaeological sites to the community in general is a strong justification for the cost of their ongoing management. They must not be seen simply as assets for

agricultural subsidy to individual owners. The majority of landowners in Northern Ireland who farm 80% of the land area do value archaeological sites as part of the individual physical and 'spiritual' landscapes which they have inherited. They need to be assisted to manage them appropriately.

Increasingly in Northern Ireland we see initiatives for interpreting sites on private land for local educational and tourist access. There is a good spirit of partnership between farmers as owners and local development groups wishing to encourage tourism. This is in no small measure due to the agri-environment support which such sites are receiving and it is an acknowledgement that the archaeological heritage 'belongs' to the wider community and this general enjoyment by all is a good exchange for the management costs to both government and the European Community. Current EU strategy and regulations, however, tend to exploit the archaeological resource almost entirely as a way of justifying farm and farming community support grants without at the same time accepting, recognising and acting on the assumption that there is a shared responsibility for its protection and care. The archaeology of the cultural landscape is an environmental resource that is increasingly valued as part of the cultural landscape for a very wide range of social and cultural benefits. Future reform of the Common Agricultural Policy needs to include this issue if the archaeological heritage is to be truly sustainable.

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Council Regulation (EEC) 797/1985 (on improving the efficiency of agricultural structures and introducing environmentally sensitive farming)
Council Regulation (EEC) 1760/1987 (amending earlier Regulations as regards agricultural structure, the adjustment of agriculture in the new market situation and the preservation of the countryside)
Council Regulation (EC) 2078/1992 (on agricultural production methods compatible with the requirements of the protection of the environment and the maintenance of the countryside)
Council Regulation (EC) 1257/1999 (on support for rural development from the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF) and amending and repealing certain regulations)

Relevant Council of Europe texts

European Cultural Convention, Paris 1954
Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe, Granada 1985
European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage (revised), Valetta 1992
Recommendation No (89) 6 on the Protection and Enhancement of the Rural Architectural Heritage, 1989
European Landscape Convention, Florence 2000

14: Before and after The Change: the social-economic transition period and its impact on the agriculture and cultural landscape in Poland

Piotr Szpanowski

Abstract: *1989 saw a fundamental change within Poland, with the fall of the communist and socialist systems. This paper describes its effects on the composition and management of the Polish rural landscape. It explores the implications of the decline of intensive agriculture and the rise of new farming strategies that are providing opportunities to implement improved policies and systems aimed at the sustained protection of the cultural landscape. Examples illustrate where this process has been successfully achieved, supporting a sustainable cultural landscape through agricultural diversification. Details of EU involvement in this process are also outlined with references to specific programmes.*

Introduction

1989 was perhaps the most important date in 20th-century Polish history. This was the year of the 'great change': a shift in the political, social and economic situation of Poland following 45 years of communist and socialist experiments in all fields of human life, until the system collapsed under pressure from inefficiency and internal and foreign political changes. As a result, Poland is well on the road to wider European standards of economy, politics and social life but even after more than 10 years, we are still in a transitional period (fig.14.1). This is particularly so for the cultural landscape.

Before the change

Cultural landscape, according to the 1995 definition of the Council of Europe is 'formed by various combinations of human and natural agencies, which illustrate the evolution of human society, its settlement and character in time and space, and which has acquired socially and culturally recognised values at various territorial levels because of the presence of physical remains reflecting past landuse and activities, skills or distinctive traditions...' (Council of Europe 1995). Europe has experienced over thousands of years a very close connection between agriculture and the exploitation of the natural environment, although the cultural landscape can also be represented by urban heritage, as well as the rural environment. In Poland the beginning of the first urban settlements are associated with the introduction, in the 12th and 13th centuries, of urban influences from the German Empire and continued further with the existence of the Hanseatic Union, with Gdańsk, Elbląg and Toruń as its members.

Poland first experienced prosperity due the production of grain, exported via Gdańsk to Amsterdam and Western Europe. The basic focus of life and activity for Polish peasants, gentry and aristocracy alike was the countryside with their villages, manor-houses and palaces. It is rather obvious that the greatest part of Polish cultural heritage, for social and economical reasons, is its rural heritage. As part of that heritage we can observe the different types of village (different because of their plans and the features of their vernacular architecture), starting with the villages of the Polish mountains, the Ruthenian, Ukrainian and Belarussian villages (fig.14.2) with characteristic, orthodox churches (fig.14.3); villages from the Silesia region, very often established in the 13th century according to the so called 'German Law'; and the villages of the Dutch Mennonites settled in the 16th–18th centuries in the Żuławy lowlands and along the valley of the lower Vistula river.

Other parts of the rural heritage were the residencies of the aristocracy palaces with associated parks and gardens that were established according to the European architectural fashions and tendencies (fig.17.4). These were places of cultural life owned by the patrons of artists and

Fig.14.1: Poland.

Fig.14.2: Traditional wooden house from Podlasie region. Photo: Z. Kobyliński.

intellectuals, who introduced European ideas of philosophy, literature and the arts into Polish culture. Such residencies were materially supported by huge territories of land, with hundreds of dependent villages subject to feudal laws. But the most characteristic feature for the Polish rural landscape until World War II was the 'Polish manor-house' with its agrarian background. The basic architectural shape of the manor-house was established during the 19th century and became not only a place of life and work for the Polish gentry (a social class which was much more numerous in Poland than in other European countries) but also a place after the Napoleonic Wars for preserving Polish culture and national identity, particularly after the final destruction of the old Polish state.

After regaining independence in 1918 Poland was still an agrarian country with single farmers enjoying a much stronger position in relation to the land-owners who possessed the greater part of the cultivated land. Thereafter, the Polish countryside was divided into small, numerous pieces (fig.14.5), and farms and many thousands of manor-houses were the basic feature of the Polish rural landscape before World War II. In such landscapes the most important features were the complicated pattern of fields, villages built according to the regional and national traditions (from the Dutch *langhoff* to the Tartaric settlements with the timber mosques), manor-houses and the countryside residences representing architecture from the Gothic to Eclecticism. Among them were also relics of the past, such as stone circles, gravemounds, strongholds, ruins of medieval castles and the earthwork remnants of hundreds of battles and wars. It is necessary to point out that even extensive agriculture at that time still very rarely used machines and that these non-industrial forms of agriculture were friendlier towards archaeological monuments, especially those visible in the landscape.

This was the shape of the rural landscape on the eve of World War II which met the new social order introduced from the Soviet Union. In 1945, for political reasons, the new communist government introduced agrarian reform: the owners of the residences and manor-houses that had been robbed by troops of both sides were removed. A few of the manor-houses accommodated public institutions, but most were abandoned – robbed, neglected and left to fall into disrepair. Today we have *c.*3,000 remaining from their pre-War number, 2,000 of which are in a very bad state of preservation and only 30 are owned by their former proprietors or by their successors (Rydel 2000). The land that had supported the manor houses was given (sometimes under pressure) to private farmers and former employees of land-owners; then in the first half of 1950 there was very strong official pressure for collectivisation

Fig.14.3: Orthodox church from Podlasie region. Photo: Z. Kobyliński.

Fig.14.4: Kozłówka residence (Ośrodek Ochrony Zabytkowego Krajobrazu archive).

and the creation of co-operatives. Their economic inefficiency was so visible, however, and social boycott was so strong, that collectivisation failed in Poland (unlike in most Soviet-influenced countries), and after 1956 most of the new co-operatives collapsed. Polish small-farms thus became an official part of the socialist economy.

The second very important factor influencing changes in the cultural landscape of Poland were the new Polish borders established at Jalta. Huge areas in the east of pre-War Poland became part of the Soviet Union (and now are part of Lithuania, Belarussia and Ukraine). In the west, in contrast, new territories were added, and Lower Silesia, West Pomerania and the southern part East Prussia became part of modern Poland. Such dramatic border changes have resulted in massive and complete shifts of population. In 1945, in what is at present western Poland, there was a dramatic collapse of the traditional factors that had shaped

Fig.14.5: Typical agricultural landscape of Podkarpacie region (B. Werner, Krajobrazy 1/2000, p.5) (Osrodek Ochrony Zabytkowego Krajobrazu archive).

the cultural landscape throughout the centuries. The small farms were given to new settlers from other regions; they brought with them completely different social and economic traditions, that had very little to do with the traditions of the former owners of villages, churches and cemeteries. It was very hard to preserve the heritage of the previous farmers, who were considered to be 'centuries-old' enemies of the new Polish nation.

A more complicated problem was the hundreds of residences of the Prussian and Silesian aristocracy. They became state property, and their destiny was dependent on the new functions given to them. Many became public administrative buildings or were taken over by state farms and the co-operatives. In many cases historic buildings were preserved by their new owners, but the complex structures of parks and gardens lost their original function and shape, and therefore their role in the cultural landscape.

Forty-five years of socialist economic policy have deepened this situation. Remnants of 'capitalist' and 'German' times were removed or have fallen into ruin. Those aspects of the Polish countryside that survived the communist experiments were not the state's first priority. Private farms were still very small and underdeveloped, producing only for the state with no contact with the market economy. There was no place for new technologies and modern forms of production. Industry, not farming, was seen to be the priority. The Polish countryside was still characterised by small fields in the central and eastern regions, with large areas of the farms in the north and western regions. Into such a landscape in the 1950s, was introduced a violent industrialisation programme. Huge areas of the countryside came, day by day, to be covered by heavy industry factories, often-built more for political than for economic reasons. Around such factories grew up towns, that depended only on employment from the new industries and had no connections with the countryside. Besides the complete destruction of the rural landscape, this industrialisation resulted in greater air and water pollution.

After the change

After 1989 Poland met, in a very dramatic way, the problems associated with a market economy. The scale of Polish agriculture – based on small farms (2 million with an average size of 7.8 hectares), producing mostly for themselves but employing several million people – was a major problem in itself, regardless of all the other economic and social factors.

Typical Polish villages are experiencing an ageing population, as young people move to the cities in order to find employment and economic prosperity. This is causing decline in the traditional structure of these villages, with the lack of economic growth and owners interest leading to the decay of their infrastructure. Few farms are doing well and as traditional methods are associated with the past and with poverty, pseudo-modern structures are being built that have nothing to do with their surroundings or with the rural landscape. As a result we can observe concrete islands among the buildings made of timber, which are very often already neglected.

Poor villages are not able to resists the pressure of a new wave of settlers from the cities, whose new economic success allows them to buy the most attractive houses and land. This new social class wants to leave the increasingly unfriendly cities, but by doing so they exploit beyond measure all the values that makes the countryside attractive. The villages gradually lose their traditional character and harmonious connections with the landscape. The poverty of their inhabitants is the justification for every kind of activity, which provides even a small income.

The countryside is also burdened by the legacy of the state farms, which collapsed simultaneously with the communist and socialist systems. The result is thousands of hectares of wasteland, thousands of unemployed people and over 2,000 historic manor-houses with their associated parks and residences, waiting for conservation and new owners. The major issue is the need for the redevelopment of these farms, their privatisation and the simultaneous creation of programmes designed to preserve the historic structures, parks, gardens and archaeological heritage in their area.

Privatisation is the general goal for the government agency, which has been appointed to solve the problem of the former state farms. However, privatisation is a very complicated process. It may be able to achieve the preservation and restoration of single architectural structures, but the possibility of restoring the original function and appearance of whole historic complexes is very unlikely. The process of privatisation is also a problem for the people, who still live in these historic buildings. After the collapse of the state farms they lost their work places and sometimes the ability to change their situation. They live below the minimum level of prosperity, in increasingly rundown and very often unheated historic buildings. A number of government agencies have tried to sell such buildings, and the Service for the Protection of the Monuments defends their integrity and historical values, while the present inhabitants can only think about maintaining the roof above their heads. It is a situation without an obvious solution, and the victim is the monument or building whose occupants, often not the actual owners, would in fact like to take care of and maintain them at an appropriate level of preservation but are unable to.

The cultural landscape is the result of interaction between human society and nature, and its preservation depends first of all on human activity and public participation in protective measures. There are, however, many dangers including the pauperisation of a certain

Fig.14.6: Early medieval stronghold in Moraczewo, Wielkopolska region. Photo: W. Stępień.

social class (especially the inhabitants of the villages), which, alongside a low social awareness of the need for protection, is the reason that the protection of monuments has no financial support from the citizens of the local and regional communities. As a result we have autonomous local governments that are not able to see opportunities for sustainable management of the cultural heritage and its values. Rather they see the protection of the monuments and the whole of the cultural landscape as a 'necessary evil' having no long-term policies for investment in the enhancement of cultural values as a method of increasing the aesthetic values of villages, single communes or of particular regions. The basic source of such values is the cultural landscape, which will have the opportunity to survive if coherent and long-term local and regional policies protect it against degradation, obliteration and falsification. It seems that the only chance for the cultural landscape is the active participation of a public that is aware of its responsibility and the influence of spatial planning on the landscape. Formal plans for spatial development, preceded by assessments and evaluations, provides an opportunity to direct long-term developments to preserve and enhance cultural landscape values.

Archaeological landscape

A lack of protective policies is also apparent in the case of archaeological monuments, which are endangered not only by direct and deliberate destruction, but also by their slow degradation as a result of uncontrolled development or intensive agriculture (figs.14.6 and 14.7). The prospect of an immediate income, or simple negligence, are the underlying reasons for increased building of inappropriate summer cottages on sites and their neighbouring countryside. There is also the problem of uncontrolled tourist traffic, trampling and cluttering monuments. There is a real need for coherent co-operation between landowners, the state services and local government in order to create the conditions for effective protection and presentation of archaeological features and landscapes. For such a declared aim the necessary points are:

- the conservation of the archaeological landscape by administrative measures and the maintenance of appropriate vegetation (fig.14.8);
- the organisation of landscape to allow appropriate access and facilities, such as footpaths, toilets, fences etc;
- the display of the most important fragments of the sites to make them more understandable;
- the interpretation of the archaeological landscape for the public through museums, exhibitions, booklets, folders, popular publications, information boards etc;
- the reconstruction of the original or the historical appearance of the landscape comprising cultural elements;
- the promotion of single sites and the whole cultural landscapes comprising archaeological monuments, such as advertisements, co-operation with travel

Fig.14.7: The remnants of the grave mound in the field, Lubcze, Zamość region. Photo: E. Banasiewicz.

agencies and with the Highway Department in directing the placement of signposts.

It is clear that only the close co-operation of all the parties involved will bring such goals into affect, particularly the education and awareness of farmers and providing them with administrative and financial support. Sometimes it is enough to change arable land to pasture, in order to increase the survival of archaeological features (pl.14.1), but very often it is a combination of several actions, dependent on local policies and a common consensus towards changing the traditional economic basis of the region from agriculture into agro-tourism (Kobyliński 2000).

Future of the landscape

After 1989 and the decline of intensive agriculture on *c.*1.5 millions hectares of land, there is the possibility to create and to implement methods of protecting archaeological heritage and cultural landscapes as a whole, before introducing new models of agriculture or forestation. It is a chance for thousands of the archaeological sites (from the *c.*400,000 currently registered) to avoid year by year ploughing and cultivation by the heavy agricultural machinery. It is the perfect time to create new conservation programmes for archaeological sites co-ordinated with the plans for new forms of agrarian exploitation such as allowing archaeological sites to be used as pasture. Pasture needs lower expenditure and little work and is a very effective release of the lands potential. The basic financial outlay is the cost of fences and stable water sources. Pasture is the traditional, ecological landuse, recommended by the EU, enabling preservation of the traditional rural landscape and to gain a measurable economical income (Reklewski 2000).

More widely, there is a need to create a stable base to allow competition within the European market, and to find new employment opportunities for the people who will inevitably be forced to leave agriculture. Generally there are two complicated requirements, both at a national scale: a substantial reform of agricultural systems (in technical and social terms), and the protection and sustainable management of the rural cultural landscape. These problems are strongly interrelated and planning their solutions separately can not provide positive results. Such opinions are very clearly expressed in the *European Landscape Convention*: 'Each party undertakes to integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as in any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape' (Council of Europe 2000).

The need for co-ordination between historic rural landscape protection and changing agrarian policies is clearly visible in the Żuławy marshland region of Poland. Since the 16th century, Żuławy has been connected with the occupation and agriculture of the Dutch Mennonites. They were colonists settled by the Polish King on his

land and on the land of the Gdańsk and Elbląg to drain the marshlands and construct a system of polders. The Mennonites created a high level of agrarian economy and prosperity for the region (pl.14.1). One French writer and traveller from the 16th century described Żuławy at that period as: 'everywhere, in short distances, peasant's houses dispersed, built convenient and in good order. There are grateful gardens, the ploughland carefully cultivated, surrounded and enclosed by the net of streamlets'. The 19th and the first half of the 20th centuries were a time of particularly intensive agriculture, but exploiting the traditional connection between the needs of modern agriculture and the management of the water, soils, flora and fauna, energy and settlement. After World War II the successors of the Mennonites were forced to abandon their homes in Żuławy region, and people from the eastern regions of pre-War Poland were settled in their place. They did not know how to cultivate such soils, and were forced to introduce the socialist agricultural system of co-operatives and state farms. It was this irrational economy which has destroyed the character of dozens of generations and the heritage of the rural landscape, which was created by the people who understood the needs of nature and the landscape. The challenge for today is to establish the solid education of principles for landuse according to the cultural and natural values of the landscape, the economical and substantial support for farmers and the supervision of landscape management by the appropriate services. In the Żuławy region the aim is to restore the traditional structure of the 20–50 hectare private farms with the traditional pattern of ploughland and gardens producing vegetables, flowers, herbs and supporting apiaries (bee hives) (Bartman 2000).

The Suwałki region of Poland, on the Polish – Lithuanian border is also going through the process of rethinking its traditional approach to agriculture and landscape. For the many summer visitors to the area the real value of that region has always been the hilly countryside with its clean fresh water, unspoilt lakes and forests and the small farms producing food and other goods in traditional ways. In the beginning of the 1990s the crisis in Polish agriculture was many times stronger for these small farms. At the same time, changes towards more western agro-tourism led to the idea of new sources of income changing the traditional economic base. In 1991 the Suwałki Agricultural-Tourist Chamber was established comprising farmers interested in the new opportunities created by organised tourism. Since 1992, the number of tourists using the agencies of the Chamber has increased threefold. The customers are interested in active forms of recreation such as bicycling or horse riding through the region's attractive landscape, with its cultural elements based on the traditional agricultural system. The economic role of agro-tourism offers a chance to maintain the present cultural landscape while creating an income for all those who have to live and work within it.

Fig.14.8: Early medieval stronghold in Czermno, Zamość region. Photo: S. Orłowski.

European support

New farming programmes integrated with the protection and sustainable development of the cultural landscape needs the help and experience of the EU. One of the examples of such co-operation is the programme 'Examining the remains of the 17th- and 18th-century Dutch settlements as an opportunity for the development of the Masovian communities from the Vistula River valley'. The programme was financed with the support of the PHARE (Poland Hungary Assistance to Reconstructing their Economies) programme 'Pro-European Initiatives'. The perspectives of the communities are closely connected with the rural heritage of specific village architecture and landuse. The education programmes try to show the value and opportunities for traditional crafts such as making willow fences, pottery and weaving, and for tourism and agro- and eco-tourism. The first step was to show how important the preserved cultural landscape is for its inhabitants and for visitors alike, and secondly, how it can be exploited practically while retaining its integrity. A large group of the farmers have understood the principles of producing ecological food and to educate others to the possibility of selling such products to others (Topiński & Kramarz 2000).

The official framework for international co-operation, the cultural landscape and its present and historical agricultural context is the *European Landscape Convention*. Article 3 says that 'The aims of this Convention are to promote landscape protection, management and planning, and to organise European co-operation on landscape issues' (Council of Europe 2000). The Polish Environment Ministry has just started the official procedure towards signing the Convention. Although Poland is just about to sign the Convention the rules expressed in article 6 were established in an educational Governmental Programme in 1999 called 'Raising the Consciousness of the Landscape and the Protection of the Historical Landscape' appointed by the Prime Minister of Poland. Among the main aims of that programme are the 'undertaking of measures for the better regional planning and the improvement of the space order and also for harmonious, sustainable and pro-ecological development of the whole country' and 'to raise the consciousness of opportunities of cultural tourism, agribusiness, pro-ecological agriculture and to raise the activities at a local level, which are friendly towards the cultural heritage and nature' (Krajobrazy 2000).

A more concrete instrument for landscape planning is the SAPARD programme (Support for Pre Accession Measures for Agricultural and Rural Development). The most important priority of SAPARD programme is 'the diversification of economic activities in rural areas' and the possibility of gaining help for the development of environmentally friendly services in the fields of tourism, recreation, agro-tourism, culture and education or in the development of traditional crafts.

Conclusions

This paper should act as a reminder that the rural cultural landscape is a fundamental element of our heritage. It is, most strongly associated with agriculture, which is one of the most ancient activities of our society. The present-day cultural landscape also still depends on these kinds of activity, but without the implementation of wise policies modern agriculture, can be destructive, as it is creative.

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15: Archaeology in the south east of the Iberian Peninsula: a bridge between past and future social spaces

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Abstract*: Archaeology has the privilege of being able to explain the long-term interaction between the social and the natural worlds. Archaeo-ecological research has made us increasingly aware that today's environmental and ecological problems are historical constructions: changing, dynamic entities that are the result of economic strategies in the past. Information about the past is crucial in the search for policies that promote the sustainable development of contemporary and future landscape. This paper, in relation to South East Spain in general and the Aguas valley in particular, considers how modern agriculture is damaging our ability to collect this information, and describes how archaeologists and palaeo-environmentalists have used archaeo-ecological surveys from the prehistoric and medieval sites of Gatas at the foot of Sierra Cabrera to establish a long-term environmental model that can inform future planning policies.*

Introduction

During recent decades archaeology has grown steadily as a social, as well as an environmental science. It has an explicit concern with the materiality which past societies have exploited, transformed and used, and this places archaeology in a privileged position to understand the interaction between the social and the natural worlds. Not surprisingly, many recent archaeo-ecological projects carried out in different parts of the world have furthered the complex dialogue between natural and social sciences, implying a move against the increasing segmentation of scientific knowledge in present day academia.

As a result of such archaeo-ecological research, we have become more aware that the environments and the ecological problems we see today are historical constructions, that they are changing, dynamic entities and, above all, that the choice of economic strategies in the past as well as in the present has had different consequences for environmental and social development. The factors causing environmental degradation are multi-dimensional and operate at different spatial and temporal scales. In our view, only the analysis of long-term trajectories of socio-natural interaction allows us to acknowledge fully the critical factors of an ecosystem, and how they behave in different social, economic or political situations. Such information is crucial in our search for policies that promote a more sustainable development of contemporary environments.

Yet economic development, especially in the form of modern agriculture, is severely damaging our ability to collect this information, by damaging both the wider environment as well as the archaeological heritage. The ecological degradation at present is twofold: on the one hand, we are faced with a progressive exploitation of all sorts of natural resources, while on the other hand, these practices destroy the empirical evidence which could help us to understand better the functioning of the ecosystems and to find new economic alternatives. One of the primary human capacities is our ability to learn from past experiences, yet this is being stifled. The currently

Fig.15.1: The lower Aguas valley in South East Spain.

dominant form of socio-natural interaction implies a cognitive as well as a material 'degradation'; imposing a new form of landscape is at the same time destroying the basis for a historical understanding of alternative trajectories. It is a responsibility of archaeology to draw attention to these problems and to argue for a more conscious use of the spaces society creates (Castro *et al.* 2000).

This paper discuss this twofold problem at landscape scale in relation to South East Spain in general, and to the Aguas valley in particular (fig.15.1), in which archaeologists and environmentalists have been working since 1985, excavating the prehistoric and medieval site of Gatas, located at the foot of Sierra Cabrera, and undertaking archaeo-ecological surveys (Castro *et al.* 1998a; 1999a; 1999b; 2000; Chapman *et al.* 1987).

Environment and historical development of the Aguas valley

The Aguas valley landscape of today is characterised by exposed soils, dry gullies or *barrancos*, extensive dry farming and irrigated areas of fruit trees. The topography varies from steep slopes in the Sierra Cabrera, a Preneogene formation, to Tertiary valleys dissected by deep gullies and leading across gentle slopes to the wide and meandering Quaternary floodplain of the Aguas river. It is situated at the heart of what today is called arid South East Spain, distinguished by a low, highly irregular and unpredictable rainfall and high constant temperatures. With a mean rainfall of 250mm it is the most arid area in Europe.

The spatial unit selected for intensive archaeo-ecological investigation covers a surface of 100km^2 that reaches from the northern watershed of Sierra Cabrera down to the coastline, giving a height difference of 918m in a distance of less than 10km. This gives an idea of the study area's variability in terms of geology, geomorphology, vegetation, hydrology and micro-climate which has to be taken into account when asking why an apparently arid region could at different times during the last 6,000 years become the location of some of the most important demographic and socio-economic developments of the western Mediterranean.

From the first Holocene occupation in the middle Neolithic, societies living in this region went through a slow social and economic development until the end of the Copper Age (Delibes *et al.* 1996; Fernández-Miranda 1992; Fernández-Miranda *et al.* 1993), when the Aguas valley became part of the core area of the El Argar culture (2250–1550 cal BC), the first State organisation of the western Mediterranean (Chapman 1991; Lull 1983; Lull & Risch 1996).

After a long lasting settlement crisis following this phase of over exploitation of the land, we find again a very intense occupation during the Roman and Byzantine periods (Menasanch 2000a; López Castro 1995). Once more, agricultural exploitation seems to have been the main economic activity of the region. It was promoted this time by external interests, and supported by another source of wealth from the important copper, silver and iron ores of the region, which were also extensively exploited again by the Omeyad Islamic state in the 10th and 11th centuries AD (Menasanch 2000b). In each of these periods, external economic interests played an important role in the development of the region, and led to phases of demographic and economic crisis.

The next phase of large-scale economic production started around the middle of the 19th century, when South East Spain and especially the Vera Basin became an important mining area for international companies. This was a short period that lasted until the 1920s (Sánchez Picón 1992), but its consequences were once more depopulation and massive migration to other parts of Spain and Europe.

After each of these phases of economic intensification, promoted mainly by external interests, the region became more impoverished, with less productive resources than before. Another common historical factor has been the lack of any investment in lasting economic structures that could have provided the basis for a sustainable development of the local population and which would have made this region less vulnerable to periodic crises.

Towards an archaeological theory of the investigation of social spaces

The general theoretical framework in which palaeoecological research in the Aguas region has taken place emphasises the interaction between natural and social factors and distinguishes between empirical observation and conceptual abstraction (fig.15.2). The Aguas Project attempts not only to implement different palaeoecological studies and to produce a set of particular results, but also to further the discussion between disciplines and to integrate socio-ecological research into a multicausal explanatory framework.

During the Quaternary period climatic conditions, geological material and relief provide the framework in which all natural and social dynamics take place. It allows the interdependent development of hydric regimes, drainage systems, sediment deposits, soils and vegetation. At the moment of the appearance of human societies, three objective conditions have to be fulfilled so that social life can exist: men, women and the material objects that are used by them. The reproduction of society supposes a specific form of relation between these elements that expresses itself in three types of production: basic production, the production of material objects and maintenance production (Castro *et al.* 1998b).

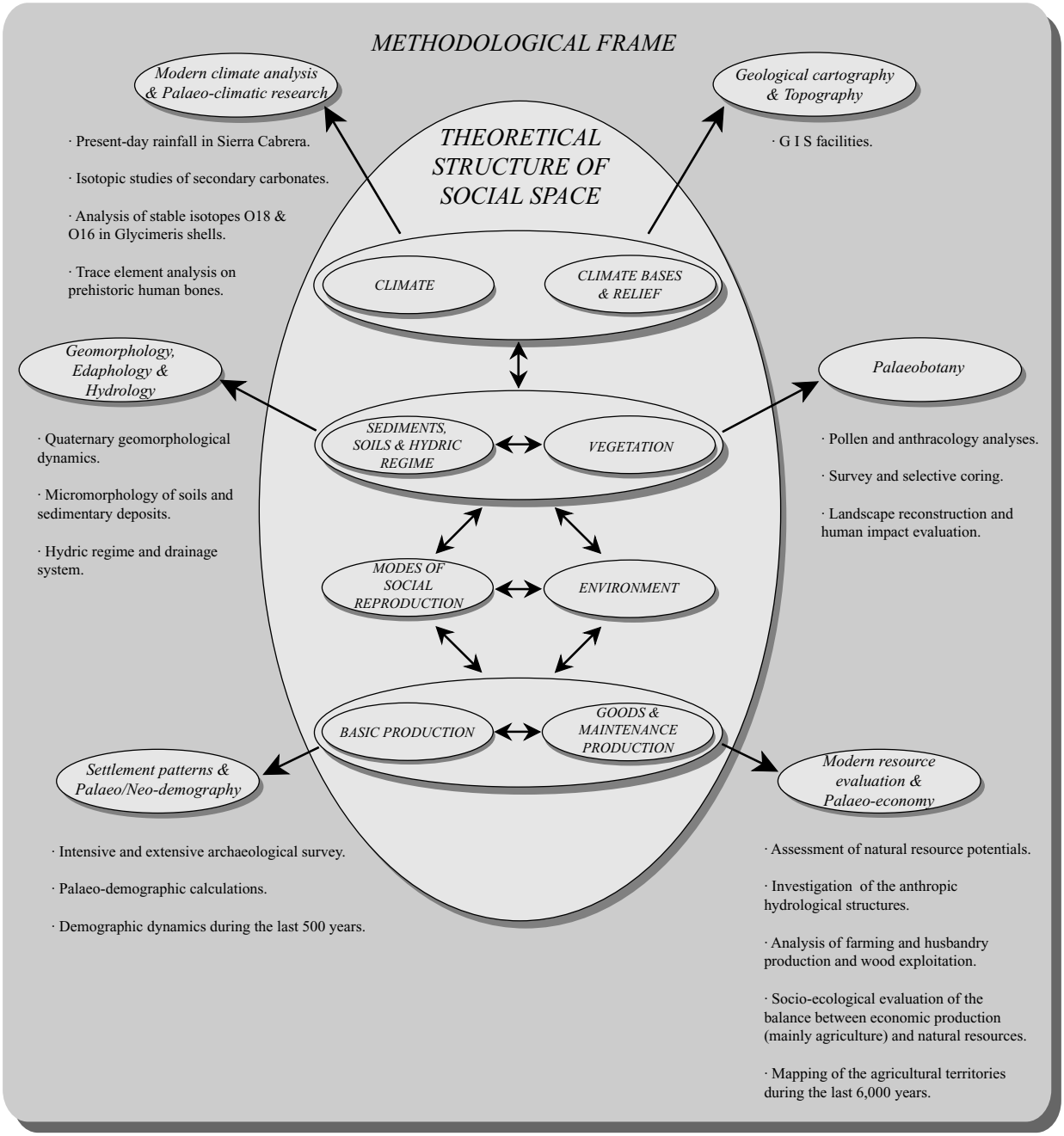

Fig.15.2: Theoretical structure and methodological framework of the Aguas Project.

- *Basic production* refers to creating the labour force that acts upon the environment and transforms it into social spaces. Taking this production into account means considering biological reproduction as a specific and socially necessary labour process.
- The *production of material objects* refers to the generation of food supplies and all other types of products designed to be used or consumed.
- *Maintenance production* conserves and maintains social objects and subjects. It increases of the social value of things without changing their use value, either artificially or through labour by improving the physical, chemical, affective and aesthetic characteristics of subjects and objects.

Natural factors and social productions interact in two spheres; the first, which is socially conditioned, formed by the *mode of social reproduction*, and the second, which is naturally conditioned, formed by the *environment*. Both are physically expressed in *social spaces*. The mode of reproduction describes and explains the relationships between men, women and the material conditions used by them through social production and specific social practices (Castro *et al.* 1996). Social space refers to the context in which social production and natural formation take place.

In an historical sense, social space defines and reflects the ecological situation in each *mode of social*

reproduction. Nature and social organisation are separate but at the same time mutually conditioned entities of our reality, so that the state and dynamic of one part reflects and affects the situation of the other. The proposed categories attempt to represent this duality in the material objects and spaces through which we perceive reality.

In this way, palaeo-ecological and archaeological objects provide all the possible information on environmental conditions, the social management of their resources and the material means of their exploitation. The complexity of the social and environmental issues we try to understand implies that the inferential framework, which allows us to gain knowledge through empirical data, can not be based on monocausal reasoning. Many of the questions we ask about the process of climatic change and/or degradation concern a whole set of environmental and social factors, which can appear to be related in apparently contradictory ways. In order to obtain this information, a complex structure of interdisciplinary research is necessary, where different methodologies proceed in independent analytical ways but are mutually related in the explanation of reality. The specific techniques applied in the Aguas Project were geomorphology, geo-hydrology, hydrology, soil micro-morphology, palynology, anthracology, carpology, isotopic analysis on shells and sediments, trace element analysis on human bones, archaeological survey, palaeodemographic analysis, palaeoeconomy, physical anthropology, historical research on modern land distribution and use, absolute dating and GIS. One of the main outcomes of the Aguas Project is the development of this theoretical and methodological structure, which can be applied to eco-historical understanding and the climatic, ecological and socio-economic assessment of the developmental possibilities of other regions.

While the multiple lines of research that have provided important results on different social and natural aspects, are presented elsewhere (Castro *et al*. 1994; 1995; 1998a; 1999a; 1999b; Risch 1998; Schulte 1999), here we want to discuss only two aspects which have often been claimed to cause environmental degradation: demography and agricultural practices.

Demographic dynamics

To test the impact of demography and human settlement on the environment has been one of the main objectives of our research in South East Spain. We consider that demographic increase or decrease is not a natural process, but the result of a socially necessary labour process, that is the *basic production*.

Systematic and selective survey and palaeo-demographic calculations have enabled us to define representative changes in the archaeological and historical record of local settlement in the Aguas valley (fig.15.3). The methods used to estimate population numbers in each period are palaeo-demographic formulae based on the extent of the settlement area (DEM-, DEM+ = minimum and maximum population estimates), the volume of cereal production as indicated by the number of grinding stones (DEM.ARQ.) and available historical documents (DEM.HIS.) (for details, see Castro *et al.* 1998a; Risch 1998).

Spatial patterns and demographic calculations show that there is no simple continuity in either settlement or population frequencies. Instead, we can observe patterns of settlement and demographic continuity and discontinuity, as well as aggregation and dispersion. Four major peaks of population can be detected in the Aguas valley: in the Argaric (*c*.2250–1550 cal BC), Roman-Later Roman (*c*.0–550 AD) and Nazari (*c*.1250–1500 AD) periods and in the 19th century AD. Comparing this situation with the rest of the Vera basin (Castro *et al.* 1995), it becomes clear how a long-term and scale-dependant perspective is a unique contribution of archaeology and one which isolates potentially critical periods for the environment of different regions.

Combining these results with other lines of research, one can observe that demography is not the direct cause of the environmental degradation in the Aguas valley. In this area, population increase has normally been linked with specific economic-political situations operating on a supra-regional scale which interrupted the self-sufficient resource organisation of the region and its inhabitants (eg the Roman Empire or the 19th century mining boom). On the other side, population decrease always followed phases of environmental degradation through overexploitation (eg Post-Argaric period) or mismanagement (eg 17th century AD after the reorganisation of the Andalusian agrarian territories and property structure).

Landuse strategies

The second line of research was to determine the environmental impact of economic processes. If we want to propose future policies of landscape management, it is important to understand which areas and resources have been exploited repeatedly in the past, and which ones are more vulnerable than others. The main aim is to define at a qualitative and quantitative level the diachronic trends of the functioning and transformation of landuse patterns. In this case we are dealing mainly with those patterns related to crop production, stock raising and the exploitation of wood resources.

In order to accomplish this task, an archaeo-ecological methodology is needed which allows us to model the development of the agricultural territories. Once the palaeo-demography has been established, the procedure used in the Aguas Project consisted of the following steps:

1. Calculation of the agricultural potential in the region: ecological characterisation, using GIS and statistical analysis, of the main traditional agricultural strategies

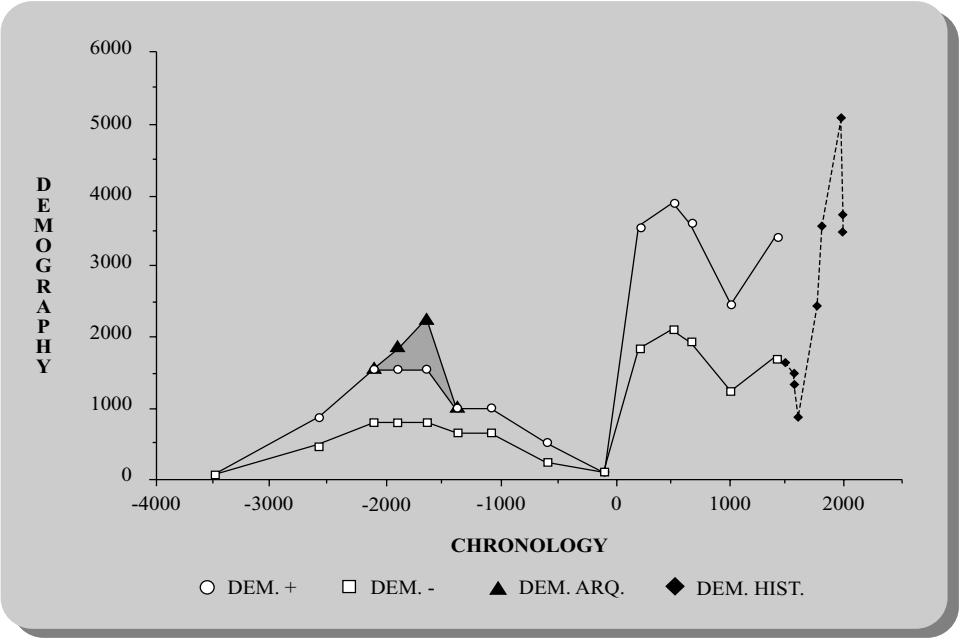

Fig.15.3: Demographic development in the Aguas valley.

(wet farming, intensive dry farming, extensive dry farming) in terms of five geo-ecological variables (height above sea level, geology, solar radiation, distance from the nearest river bed, slope) creating a map with a maximum likelihood classification of the lower Aguas in terms of the different landuse strategies.

2. Changes in the environment due to climatic and social factors have to evaluated in order to overcome a purely actualistic approach. The combined results of palynological, anthracological, soil micro-morphological and geomorphological research play a crucial role.
3. Identification of the diet patterns of different societies in the past. A series of empirical parameters must be known in order to establish the types and quantities of food: identification and quantification of the carbonised seed remains from archaeological contexts in order to know which were the species consumed; isotopic and trace element analyses of human remains to evaluate the importance of different food resources in the diet, and definition of human nutritional needs (Kcal, proteins, fat, carbohydrates, etc) in order to obtain absolute figures of the crop yields necessary to feed a certain population.
4. Definition of the cultivation strategies developed in the past. The analysis of seeds and historical or ethnographic data are the main sources of information, although carbon isotope discrimination in carbonised seeds is becoming a well established technique for assessing the growing conditions and yields of crops (Araus *et al.* 1997; 2001).
5. Calculation of the agricultural territories necessary to satisfy the subsistence needs of a given population. Apart from the previous demographic calculation, information on the yields of each species can be obtained from historical information, experimental agriculture or, as just mentioned, isotopic data.
6. Spatial modelling of the agricultural territories based on the maximum likelihood classification of the ecological variables and on the accessibility of the land from the known settlements. Such a model is performed through GIS (Verhagen *et al.* 1999).

The basic empirical condition in order to carry out this methodology is excavated evidence and precise AMS dating of archaeological sequences. Thanks to the research undertaken in Gatas, but also in Fuente Alamo, Almizaraque, Villaricos and other well-known sites during the last decades, this area probably represents one of the regions with the most detailed long-term archaeological sequences of socio-natural interaction in the Mediterranean.

The extent of the land available for each type of agricultural strategy has been calculated for different probabilities, that is the degree to which a given space fulfils defined ecological conditions. At an 80% probability limit (which can be considered an acceptable degree of adjustment of land to the necessary ecological conditions and which represents a turning point in the trajectories of availability of most landuse types), there are around 3,000 hectares of available land, broadly divided as follows:

- 900 hectares of *regadío* – farming by inundation of the flood plain, produces high yields from low inputs.
- 750 hectares of *secano intensivo I* – intensive dry farming I, in the floodplain, yields can be high in certain conditions.
- 500 hectares of *secano intensivo II* – intensive dry farming II with productivity depending on rainfall and hydraulic infrastructure.

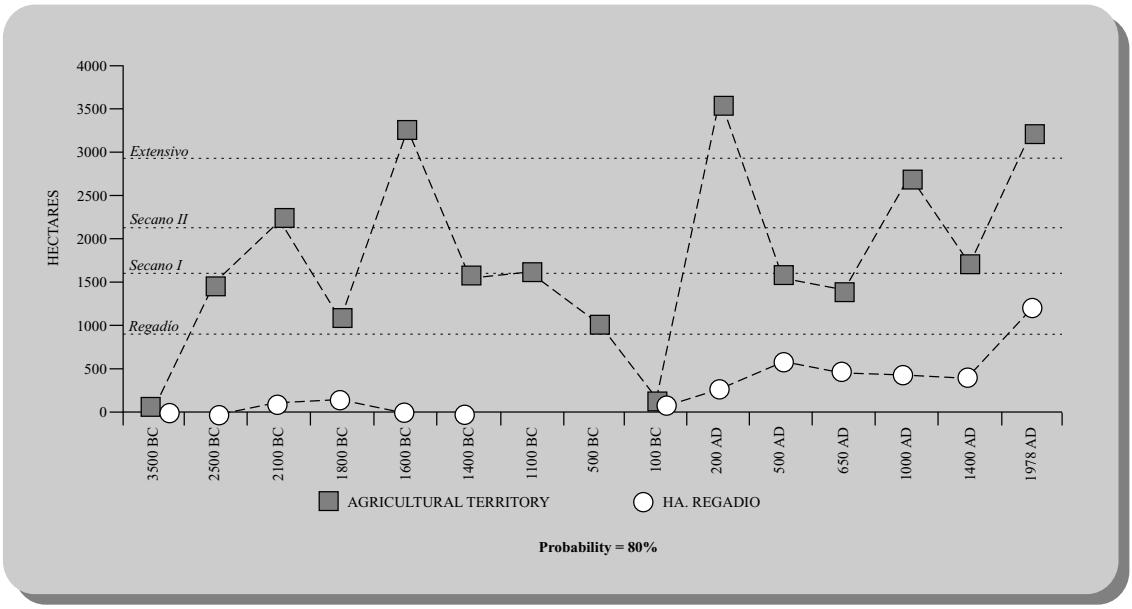

Fig.15.4: Agricultural territories and irrigated land during the last 6,000 years.

- 750 hectares of *secano extensivo* – extensive dry farming, intermediate altitude, low productivity.

Palaeo-agrarian analysis allowed us to define the landuse strategies developed in the Aguas valley during the last 6,000 years and to model, in combination with the demographic calculations, their spatial implications. Figure 15.4 shows the relationship between the agricultural territories and the different agricultural land resources of the Aguas valley at an 80% probability limit since the Neolithic period. The first human populations (4000–3000 cal BC) of the Aguas valley settled in different types of ecological situations, taking advantage of the natural diversity existing in the Aguas valley. The agricultural strategies and spaces seem to concern dry farming as well as the cultivation of the more humid river margins. Proximity to water resources or more humid areas does not seem to have been a significant factor, which agrees well with the palaeo-climatic evidence indicating more humid conditions during the early Holocene.

Higher population, more intensive agricultural practices and, probably, the tendency towards more arid conditions resulted after 3000 cal BC (Chalcolithic period) in subsistence production being mainly concentrated on the exploitation of the Quaternary valleys (pl.15.1). Distance to water resources had become a relevant factor in the selection of settlements and agrarian spaces, a strategy that allowed these populations to obtain the highest productivity with the lowest labour investment in semi-arid environments.

After 2250 cal BC (Argaric period I), agricultural territories exceeded the limits of reasonably well-suited land existing in the valley bottoms, due to demographic increase and the introduction of extensive dry farming strategies on the plains. From this moment, the beginning of extensive barley monoculture took place. That this strategy was economically and/or environmentally problematic becomes clear by the attempt made around 1900–1750 cal BC (Argar II) towards an increase in the production of legumes (*Vicia sp.)*, which could only take place in the areas of higher humidity, that is, in the valleys.

With the full development of the first prehistoric State formation (Argar III: 1750–1550 cal BC) the settlement of Gatas seems to become the main centre of accumulation, transformation and redistribution of Aguas barley. Its production and an important demographic increase supported a drastic extension of the agricultural territories through the deforestation and exploitation of the Tertiary plains suited for *secano intensivo II* and *secano extensivo* (pl.15.2). The advantages of barley cultivation are its resistance to low rainfall and its adaptability to poor soils. From an economic point of view, however, the level of productivity obtained with this strategy is very low, especially if marginal *secano extensivo* soils are used (fig.15.4). Its social consequences included nutritional problems, as is indicated by the pathologies observed on human skeletons of this period (Buikstra & Hoshower 1994). Its environmental consequences continued to affect the area long after the collapse of the Argaric State around 1550 cal BC. Although the dry and hot climatic conditions detected during this period favour such an extensive agricultural strategy, other social and economic trajectories could have been possible (eg migration to other wetter regions, demographic stability, development of irrigation farming).

The landuse trajectory from 4000 cal BC to 1550 cal BC shows the maximum economic exploitation of the Aguas valley with little or no technological input. The agricultural strategy imposed during the late Argaric period has to be considered as a mistaken policy in view of its environmental

and social consequences. After the dramatic collapse of this system, human occupation of the Aguas valley experienced a continuous decrease from *c.*1550 cal BC until the Roman period. Agricultural production was pushed back to the most productive surfaces in the Quaternary floodplains. Other areas of southern Spain seem to have been more attractive for ecological as well as socio-economical reasons, as the archaeological record shows (Chapman 1991; Castro 1992). At the same time, low population hindered the development of more labour intensive agricultural strategies that might otherwise have obtained better yields under the already degraded environmental conditions of the lowlands.

Since prehistoric times, landuse strategies have continued to change and agricultural territories have gone through considerable fluctuations (fig.15.4). This long-term agrarian history allows us to evaluate the potentialities of the area, the consequences of anthropic impact and the possibilities for future development.

The first result is that there existed no direct correlation between food production and the extension of agrarian territories. Landuse strategies were not determined by ecological conditions; rather, by specific political decisions related to general or specific, internal or external interests. It has to be concluded that despite minor climatic fluctuations and generally speaking dry conditions, it is human policy making which plays the prime role in the conservation or degradation of these environments.

Most societies in different historical moments exploited around 1,500 hectares (fig.15.4). It is interesting that this surface is equivalent to the land available in the Quaternary valleys (*regadío* and *secano I*) at the 80% probability threshold. These soils permit an optimal relation between necessary labour input and crop output. Through the introduction of hydraulic infrastructure productivity can be further increased. The availability of sufficient amounts of water, which in this case is the main limiting factor on socio-economic development, must be linked to the high resilience and water storage capacity of the Sierra Cabrera, which has been documented at successive periods. This leads to the conclusion that any mechanisms that further water infiltration in the highlands, such as the development of a denser vegetation and/or the extension of hydraulic infrastructure, have direct consequences for the recovery of the lowland aquifers and of the vegetation existing in the valley bottoms. In general, the total water availability of the Aguas valley becomes larger.

Only in four historical moments were the agricultural territories extended to beyond 3,000 hectares, forcing agricultural territories to expand into unfavourable areas (*secano extensivo*):

- The Argaric state
- The Roman Empire
- The Omeyan caliphate
- 19th- and 20th-century Capitalism, with a clear over-exploitation of local resources caused by the mining boom.

In all these periods, the best-suited soils in the valleys were insufficient, and extensive dry farming also was also practised in areas where the agriculturally favourable factors are negative, that is where productivity is low. Only in periods when the labour force was under a high degree of exploitation did this agricultural strategy apparently become feasible. Apart from its economic implications, the exploitation of the Tertiary plains during the Argaric period probably had the most important environmental consequences, and the maquia vegetation was deforested for the first time and never seemed to recover again, giving way to more open steppe-like vegetation. The degradation caused by this state organisation could only be overcome socially and economically by large-scale investment in technology and the labour force during the period of Roman Empire.

GIS-driven modelling, based on settlement location and subsistence needs in each period, showed the number of periods during the last 6,000 years that a given space had the highest probability of being used (pl.15.3). Such a map represents the sum of the modelled agricultural territories of all periods, and allows us to distinguish those areas that were most attractive for agricultural exploitation (red), from others with low productivity and/or high labour investment requirements (green).

The conclusion is that the Quaternary valleys (*vegas*) could be cultivated successfully in all periods. On the contrary, exploitation of the Tertiary plains seems to result in a rapid fertility loss, which prevented their repeated use. Hill slopes were also used in a few periods, but in this case because of the high labour input needed for constructing the necessary terrace and irrigation systems.

This type of spatial modelling is crucial for the future development of the Aguas or similar valleys of South East Spain. It indicates which areas present the highest resilience in relation to landuse, and where anthropic impact is critical, either because of its social or of its environmental implications. Any management or development strategies for these areas should be submitted first to a detailed evaluation of its consequences.

Policy recommendations

The Aguas Project's archaeological and spatial analysis of long-term agrarian and other social productions allows us to evaluate different modes of social reproduction in terms of their ecological and social consequences. Two types of strategies, more and less aggressive, can be defined:

The *more* aggressive strategies can be characterised by:

- a high degree of exploitation of the labour force
- extensive dry-farming on the Miocene plains
- extensive sheep and goat grazing
- over-exploitation of woodland resources
- intensive pumping of Sierra Cabrera aquifers.

The *less* aggressive strategies can be characterised by:

- a low degree of exploitation of the labour force
- intensive irrigation on floodplains
- moderate cattle herding and hunting
- diverse and moderate woodland exploitation
- reduced exploitation of Sierra Cabrera.

A set of fundamental recommendations result from this analysis, that are of prime importance for the ecological regeneration of the area while at the same time allowing better socio-economic development of this and similar areas. From the theoretical framework of this project, it follows that ecological protection can not be undertaken at any cost nor consume resources that are necessary for social reproduction. It is clear that in this type of arid environment, the relevant criteria must first be water storage and water discharge capacity and second bio-mass production capacity. In principle, natural factors creating these capacities are more adequate, as they allow populations to reduce labour input and therefore the cost of the environmental policy.

In order to transform these criteria into specific environmental policies through an analytical procedure, the concept of *Natural Resource Productivity* is proposed. It implies that the possibilities of socio-economic development in arid and semi-arid areas, as well as the maintenance or improvement of the environmental conditions, are directly related to areas which present a naturally high generation of resources. These spaces need to be understood, defined and managed in the most effective way. Those areas where the Natural Resource Productivity index is highest (that is, with the highest water storage capacities and natural biomass production) should be protected or managed through specific policies, while areas with low Natural Resource Productivity indices can be submitted to economic development with the resources generated in excess by the ecologically more favourable/ productive spaces. The concept of co-responsibility would dictate that, the economic development and profits obtained from one area should not be considered as independent of the places where the consumed resources were generated. Water is one of the main factors for future development, and its social and individual consumption must imply a matching responsibility for protecting the ability to continue to produce new reserves. Furthermore, in many regions and situations such a strategy supposes much lower costs, in terms of labour or technology investment, and less social conflict than current proposals (eg long distance channeling of water resources, as proposed by the Spanish government in the new *Plan Hidrológico Nacional*).

The practical application of a Natural Resource Productivity index in the Aguas valley could mean that the degraded Tertiary plains, which do not seem to be able to recover from the environmental degradation suffered since the second millennium BC and where the Natural Resource Productivity indices are the lowest of the region, can be used for different industrial, agrarian or other purposes, as long as the mountain water storage and vegetation system is regenerated. Apparently, the high resilience capacity of the *sierra* allows the natural growth of the most adapted vegetation, as it has done repeatedly over several thousand years. The resulting water table increase in the lowlands could help to regenerate the valley bottoms, which today are under-exploited and are not well suited for modern agriculture or industries. The fact that pluviosity and soils were not significantly different 500 years ago implies that it should be possible to re-introduce tree plantations similar to those existing in the medieval period, which would contribute considerably to a decrease in the aridity and degradation of the landscape, representing a general social benefit. Precise hydrological data and continued discharge and pluviosity measurements in the area, are of prime importance for determining what volume of water would be available for this or similar development policies and which possibilities exist for increasing these resources on a local scale.

A policy based on the notion of economic-ecological co-responsibility also encourages popular concern for available natural resources and the need for their rational management. In this sense, it is obviously more convenient that its application corresponds to local democratic institutions. The introduction of regional water management institutions is probably the best help for this area. External interference in the form of the imposition of new economic strategies, as has occurred repeatedly in the history of the Aguas valley, would not contribute to sustainable and socially balanced development. The socio-natural investigation decribed in this paper provides empirical knowledge, and defines the critical factors on which a locally decided sustainable policy can be based.

Conclusion: 'plastic agriculture' – a new phase of environmental degradation

In recent years, a new phase of rapid economic development and environmental change has started in large parts of South East Spain, thanks to intensive production of vegetables, frequently under plastic covers. The possibilities offered by the European market and by climatic conditions supposes that Almería, one of the poorest regions during the last century, presents today by far the largest gross national product of all Andalusian provinces.

High profit rates now make it worth cultivating any possible area, regardless of soil quality, ecological value or the presence of archaeological remains. Given the need for horizontal surfaces, in order to construct the plastic covers and to install dribble irrigation, not only the soil surface, but also the whole topography of the landscape is changing rapidly and dramatically. While some conditions are imposed onto construction activities such as road building, 'agricultural practices' such as plastic horticulture are not required by EU or Spanish law to undertake any environmental impact assessments. The consequence is an uncontrolled economy and an irreversible loss of natural, archaeological and historical features.

Just to give some examples, it is worth mentioning that geomorphological studies of river systems, such as those carried out in the Aguas Project before 1996 (Schulte 1999), are no longer possible in many areas, given that the river courses have been altered, cemented or just filled in. The consequences for archaeological research are no less profound. Many of the sites on which the demographic and palaeo-economic analysis of the Aguas Project were based are disappearing, while the application of similar archaeological survey strategies in many other regions is no longer possible.

Parallel to this degradation of the cognitive potential of the region, the environmental impact of plastic horticulture is considerable. Apart from the surface destruction and the alteration of the natural topography, the local aquifers in South East Spain are either exhausted, contaminated or suffering salinisation processes (eg Chabart *et al.* 1996). De-salinisation machines are being employed more and more frequently, without any institutional control over their functioning or residues, which causes further degradation of the soils and aquifers. Plastic garbage caused by the removal of old greenhouses also tends to be problematic and usually remains on the surface or is just burned on the spot.

Seen from a historical perspective, this phase of economic acceleration shows the same traits as the previous ones: it is caused by external circumstances, local resources are further degraded and exhausted, and the generated capital is not invested adequately to plan future development and to evaluate alternative economic strategies. A change in the international demand for this type of agricultural products, such as lower market prices, or the transfer of this type of production to north Africa, where wages are lower, could once again trigger off social crises, and leave the area more exhausted than before. Rather depressingly, the long-term record of exploitation in this region offers a pessimistic prediction of the outcome of this short-term and unsustainable type of development. There is a salutary lesson here for those in archaeology who maintain that the record of the past has no relevance to the policies of the present and the future.

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16: Raising awareness and managing change: the cultural landscape of the Bjäre peninsula, Sweden

Jenny Nord Paulsson

Abstract*: The Bjäre peninsula, situated in the north-west of Skåne, has a rich cultural landscape marked by distinct Bronze Age monuments, enclosed field systems dating from the 19th century and various notable changes and consistencies in settlement pattern. This paper discusses the creation of the landscape and the relationships within it, the significance of the past to the modern landscape, the threats to the cultural landscape and the possible solutions and approaches to these solutions.*

The landscape of today

The Bjäre peninsula is situated in the north-west of Skåne, the southernmost county of Sweden (fig.16.1). In all the area consists of seven parishes and measures about 200km^2. About 14,000 BC the ice of the last Ice Age began melting and this area was one of the first parts of Scandinavia to be freed from the big ice-sheet. The enormous masses of ice had reshaped the area and these shapes have brought a special appearance to the region. In the north of the peninsula the old rock survived the Ice Age and it is still rising with heights of about 200m above sea level

The prehistoric heritage of Bjäre is very well-preserved and mainly consists of an unusually high density of Bronze Age graves and cupmark sites (fig.16.2). More than 700 mounds from the Bronze Age are known, and almost as many stone-settings from the late Bronze Age and early Iron Age, as well as several hundred cupmarks sites. The larger carving sites also contain footprints and non-figurative carvings. The first figurative carvings have only recently been found on the peninsula illustrating a boat, some fishing hooks and horse hoofs (Broström & Ihrestam, forthcoming).

On the burial mounds we also find another kind of heritage from the past, in the set of vegetation growing on them. An inventory has shown that the vegetation on the mounds of Bjäre is extremely well-preserved and representative of the time before artificial fertilisers were used. It is a flora typical of managed grassland. Analysis has shown that some of the vegetation may actually originate from the time when the mounds were built (Gustafsson 1998).

There are very few visible remains of earlier or later prehistoric date, and the pre-historic layers of visible remains of human activity in the landscape may therefore be summarised as a well-preserved ritual landscape from the Bronze Age period. Around these, however, many layers of later farming landscapes have evolved.

The landscape of today mainly consists of open arable fields and grazing land with few clearly visible boundaries

Fig.16.1: Location of the Bjäre peninsula, Sweden.

Fig.16.2: A carving site from where a Bronze Age mound can be seen on the horizon, surrounded by the later farming landscape. Photo: Sven Hernborg.

except for stonewalls mainly constructed in connection with the agricultural reorganisation according to the Land Reform laws of the 19th century (fig.16.3). The overall picture of today's landscape is much affected by these land *Shifts* since they entailed a comprehensive redistribution of farmland. The principle behind them was that small patches of land should be put together to form larger and more efficient fields. The old common grazing land was also divided between farms and put under the plough. The shifts also implied a change in the settlement pattern. Farms in many of the old villages were scattered and dispersed across the landscape within their own fields. The Shifts caused not only a new landscape character and more rational farming conditions, but were also accompanied by a whole new social situation for people. Among other things, individuality grew stronger, as well as more isolated with the splitting of communities.

There is also a pre-Shift historic layer to the landscape. On Bjäre, it can be argued that because they have pagan names many of the villages and settlement places originate in the late Iron Age, which in this case will mean from about 400–1050 AD. This is probably a result of a more comprehensive change in the settlement pattern at that time. Quite a few of the villages are well preserved from pre-Shift times since some farms actually stayed in the aggregated village centres during the Shifts. Other pre-Shift features are still visible in the landscape of Bjäre including many old cattle roads leading from the villages towards the seashore where the large common grazing land were situated. These are still visible as tiny roads leading to areas with summer cottages or to nature preservation areas (Erikson forthcoming). In some coastal areas you might still find the old borders in the form of walls and ditches between the villages' grazing lands. In the northern and north-eastern part of the peninsula there are small areas with woodland within which old fields, used in the medieval period and probably even of prehistoric origin, have been preserved.

The great beauty and individual character of the Bjäre peninsula and its closeness to the sea has made Bjäre a popular recreation-area. This means that a lot of summer cottages, golf courses and also nature preservation areas have developed during the last decades.

The circumstances that have shaped today's landscape

In 1666 the first Swedish law protecting ancient monuments was created. In comparison with the early origins of protection, the practice of archaeological research is of a much later date, only emerging in the early 19th century. The protection law has of course been under revision several times, and in 1988 a new law was presented in

which the sense of caring became more important and the protection of larger areas, not only of solitary remains, was included. The early start to legal protection of heritage in Sweden might be one reason for the well-preserved Bronze Age remains at Bjäre.

Another reason for the preservation of the Bronze Age remains might be the strong awareness of their importance among the people of the area. This can be seen in the great interest many farmers and other inhabitants take in caring about the cultural landscape. During recent years some non-profit organisations have emerged and are now taking responsibility when it comes to caring and sharing knowledge about the prehistoric dimension within the cultural landscape. Many of the older inhabitants tell about their grandparents instructing them to respect old graves that are situated on their fields, among which many have kept their special historic names.

The peninsula has a long history of farmers owning their own land, with very little impact from the aristocracy. We might assume that this was one of the important reasons why few villages were fully dispersed during the agricultural Shifts and why the land dividing was actually quite carefully planned. Another reason why the land division was made rather cautiously is probably to be found in the importance of the sea. The villages were usually situated some kilometres from the sea but their land reached to the coast where good grazing could be found. The sea also provided fish, communication and contacts, shipwrecks and seaweed, which still is commonly used as fertiliser.

During the laying down of the Shifts system, the surveyors had the assistance of the monumental heritage from the Bronze Age in the area. Since the burial mounds occupy many prominent places they can naturally also be seen from a distance and are therefore good places to take aim at while working in the landscape. This has resulted in some boundaries from the Shifts actually crossing mounds, or heading straight towards them (fig.16.4). In this way the heritage from the Bronze Age has had an influence on how people used the land in later periods. Bronze Age features have therefore been kept 'alive' by being incorporated with new features and given different meanings and significance into later landscapes, and they still therefore form a vibrant part of the modern landscape for a large number of people, local or tourist. The stone-walls from the time of the Shifts are very beautiful and significant features in today's landscape in their own right; they also, however, sometimes incorporated or even stole building materials from a number of cairns and stone settings (both graves and those gathered from cultivated fields) and therefore help to carry a more distant past into the present day landscape.

Fig.16.3: The landscape mainly consists of open arable fields and grazing land with few clearly visible boundaries, except for stonewalls mainly constructed in association with the agricultural settlement Shifts according to the Land Reform laws of the 19th century. Photo: Marja Erikson.

The many places with cupmarks in this area also still have meaning in the cultural landscape of Bjäre today. They are well known and well cared for by the inhabitants. It has been argued lately among landscape archaeologists that carvings – and maybe especially cupmarks – mark ancient trails in the landscape and also show places of significance as well as borders between territories (Bradley 1997; 2000; Nord Paulsson forthcoming). In the cultural landscape of today the cupmarks of Bjäre still seem to contain some of this relevance since they are found along roads and some of the large carving places are located in very central places, for example *Drottninghall* at the centre of the peninsula, where two main roads meet in the village of Västra Karup (Nord & Paulsson 1993; Nord Paulsson forthcoming).

All together there are seven churches (and seven parishes) in the Bjäre area and all except the town church of Båstad originate from the 12th century. The farmhouses from the area share their distinctiveness with houses in surrounding regions and it can be said that Bjäre is a meeting point of two different building cultures. To the north and east on the highlands and in the forested area the houses are mainly made of wood, while on the lower ground on the south-south-west the houses are mainly made with clay and are often L- or U-shaped (or even O-shaped) as in the south of Skåne. In these houses you can quite often find wooden features that originate from shipwrecks. Today a lot of new houses are being built and old farmsteads are being modernised, which gives a new character to the architecture of the cultural landscape. But not only are new houses being built, in an outdoor museum at the centre of the peninsula a Bronze Age house has been reconstructed which is meant to make highlight the Bronze Age context of this area, making the past even more vivid (pl.16.1).

Thus what seems at a first glance to be a post-medieval landscape in fact has great depth and much diversity: carvings and barrows, surviving and re-used, successive layers of landuse, early settlement locations and later farm sites. It can also be argued that the important changes that are visible in this landscape also represent-changing attitudes towards it. The large number of burial mounds with their monumentality highlight the domination of the land at a time when agriculture first became important in this region, while the more recent division of the land during the Shifts represents a modern attitude, where efficiency is highly ranked.

The threats

The peninsula is very much affected by developments associated with recreation, mainly by constructing summer cottages and golf courses. The golf courses can be seen as threats to the cultural landscape in several aspects, for example by the way they redesign and reshape the historical landscape with artificial mounds, which can be rather destructive and confusing to the historical depth in this kind of landscape.

Fig.16.4: A stonewall from the Shift crossing a burial mound. Photo: Jonas Paulsson.

Traditional small-scale agriculture is having difficulty surviving, which might lead to either abandonment or overuse, or even both at different levels. Abandonment or neglect will destroy them by making them overgrown and forgotten, while overuse will most probably lead to the physical destruction of the cultural landscape and its historic and prehistoric remains. Overuse with modern technical resources will also in all probability lead to a degree of abandonment as well, because it will demand larger areas to be farmed with less people in them. People abandoning the region will lead to a loss of information and erosion of the human context in the cultural landscape. These developments are increasing and may in the near future represent a considerable threat to the cultural landscape. These changes are also of importance not only in terms of abandonment or overuse, but perhaps even more so when it comes to the fragmentation of the cultural landscape. Farms are being sold as summer cottages or permanent residences, but without the farming land which is being amalgamated with other land to create new large farms that are then more and more intensively farmed, equally changing the landscape by putting fields together and destroying their old boundaries. New houses are being built in the countryside in a way that suppresses the cultural landscape and loses its character.

Until recently the monuments of prehistory have been allowed to stay vivid in peoples minds and lives as well as in the character of the landscape. This might be an effect of the small-scale traditional way of life where people rarely have been forced by superior ownership or by national regulations to make unwanted decisions. The agricultural Shifts might have been the first time this occurred. Today several new regulations are, unfortunately, making it very difficult for farmers and other landowners to continue in a traditional way.

The visions of the future

The remains of the past are also memories for the future, two aspects of our environment that are somehow inseparable and are the two main ingredients that we need to consider in the present-day planning of the cultural landscape. How can we achieve a sustainable management of the cultural landscape where the prehistoric and historic dimensions will be able to exist together with modern developments, and where a vivid small-scale farming can survive that can keep this cultural landscape alive? At the moment, it looks quite possible that the area will be turned into a sophisticated recreation area, a sort of monoculture with golf and summer holidays as its crops, even if many visitors actually come to Bjäre only for enjoying the beautiful cultural landscapes. Already it is considered a problem that the peninsula loses so many of its inhabitants during wintertime and that the local people cannot afford to buy houses in the area.

It is important to create a wider understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage, which would also contribute to a sense of community value and a wider respect towards the historical dimensions in the environment. As I have mentioned before there is a strong awareness in this region about the historical layers of the landscape, but still this is quite limited to certain groups in the society and not to the community as a whole. We have to strengthen the awareness of the landscape's history among all people living there and using and affecting the landscape in different ways, even if they only do it during part of the year. In this way we might be able to create a climate where for example cultural tourism and the continuation of the traditional farming could be developed in a sustainable way. Today a dawning discussion of alternative solutions to keep small-scale farming alive and thus also the ancient qualities of the landscape has emerged. Ideas about ecological production, quality brand, small-scale slaughter, local processing of farm products, co-operation between producers and consumers, farm shops and 'farm holiday' enterprises were discussed.

Through making paths in the landscape both virtually and physically we could pass on the understanding of the monuments together with the development of the cultural landscape to a broader public. This is probably of fundamental importance if we want to protect those values into the future. I believe that we as archaeologists have a great responsibility in this work. Recently the first year of a very successful European co-operation, European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes (EPCL), which deals with these questions has been finished, as a follow-up to an earlier three year project, European Cultural Paths (ECP). Bjäre was one of the five projects involved in ECP and is one of the twelve EPCL (see Kraut, and Ermischer this volume). For more information on EPCL see www.pcl-eu.de. If the prehistoric and historic values in the landscape were to be acknowledged by regional decision makers and other interest groups, then it could be developed by the means of both eco-tourism and cultural tourism which would be a far better alternative in managing the area in a sustainable way in the long run. Lately we have started to call the cultural landscape of Bjäre a *living antiquity* in order to give connotations to something that has an economical value and also a value that is likely to grow in time, which I believe it will.

An important obstacle for the future is to decide *what* is worth passing on to the future generations and *who* will make those decisions? Should it be the people living in the area, archaeologists or market forces together with politicians? The best would of course be if the decisions were made in togetherness and the communication between different opinions and interests were working well.

The cultural landscape is like a living organism that is constantly changing. The uniqueness of Bjäre consists, above all, of two things. First the richness of Bronze Age ritual monuments which seem to give an extremely good

total picture of what once used to exist. This prehistoric heritage also seems to have had an influence upon later developments in the area by first dominating and exposing the land. Secondly we have the many visible layers of agricultural development and especially the well-preserved picture of the Shifts. But, it will only remain this way as long as all the monuments and the cultural landscape of today are there to be seen. Therefore one could argue that every single one of the monuments should be well protected, as well as the agricultural landscape. But will we really be able to pass on all that to the future?

We need to find a local solution for every local situation even if support is needed from regional and national or even international institutions. For some years the regional museums in Sweden have offered skilled staff to local authorities in the guidance of heritage issues. So far these services have only applied to the conservation of buildings, but it might be useful for other issues as well. In the Bjäre peninsula for example it would have been very useful to have a municipal keeper concentrating mainly on landscape issues. One problem connected with the management of the cultural landscape today is the existing confusion in the relationship between the organisations that manage nature issues and cultural heritage. One of the goals in the above mentioned EPCL project is to produce a historic landscape characterisation which will help local as well as regional decision makers to achieve better information about the historic values in this landscape before making decisions. This information concerns both biotopes and physical (as well as non-physical) features.

Local pride and sense of belonging are fundamental values for the future management of the cultural landscape and the historical environment as a whole. If people feel connected with the places in which they live, they will also feel more responsible for maintaining the landscape for future generations. We need – as professionals – to communicate the necessity of understanding the past as well as its legacy in present. Today several non-profit organisations in the area are conducting guided walks in the cultural landscape which are very popular among the inhabitants as well as tourists. These walks are not only informative but also a very good way to reach a dialogue about the cultural landscape with the people actually living and working there.

At Bjäre the non-profit organisation *Bronstid* has devoted an enormous amount of work in communicating the heritage to inhabitants and tourists. Through the former EU-project *European Cultural Paths* several paths have been created in the landscape, which give substance to some of remains in the region which are still for many people anonymous. The signs with the EU stars also give a certain dignity with the hidden message that 'even the EU have noticed the uniqueness of the cultural heritage in this area'. Bronstid is also developing a Bronze Age centre with the above mentioned reconstructed Bronze Age house at the peninsula, in which information and education are provided for schools and the public about the prehistoric remains. Already the young generation is being provided with education in a very vivid way at this centre, which is one way of strengthening the awareness into the future.

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17: Rock carvings, cultural landscapes and management issues: case studies from Sweden

John Coles

Abstract: *Many thousands of Bronze Age rock carvings are known from southern Scandinavia. This paper explores the problems associated with the management and care of these often-delicate records of Bronze Age society and discusses the place of the carvings within their past and present territories. The majority of these carvings lie within rural landscapes unlike those of the Bronze Age, raising questions about the role they play in today's cultural landscapes.*

The Bronze Age rock carvings from southern Scandinavia have been known for well over a century, and have been the focus of research ever since their ideological significance was recognised. Because a vast majority of the thousands of sites still lie in the countryside, a number of fundamental issues now present themselves to those whose aim is to explore and explain their place in the cultural landscape, both of the Bronze Age and the present day, and to those who have responsibilities for the management and presentation of heritage. These issues will be briefly addressed with reference to four regions of Sweden where recent studies have created opportunities for a greater comprehension of the cultural landscapes of the period *c*.1800 – *c*.500 BC.

The discovery of a majority of rock carving sites has resulted from the work of many amateur archaeologists who have compiled lists of sites over many years of dedicated searching. The open farmlands of the recent past offered many opportunities for the observer, but today the decline in farming activities has led to the disappearance, beneath lichen, moss, soil and woodland, of many hundreds of sites whose identity rests entirely upon the single moment of discovery. Current work has exposed the extent of the loss in several areas, although it will be argued that just such a perceived loss, paradoxically, may well be the main guarantee of long-term survival.

Among the six or seven principal concentrations of rock carvings in southern Sweden (fig.17.1 & fig.17.2), the dense spread of sites in northern Bohuslän is the largest and most varied of all; here the work of many pioneers (eg Baltzer 1881–1908; Fredsjö 1971–1981) has been expanded enormously by current projects of systematic search, record and register (eg Bengtsson 1997; Milstreu 1999). In this way, a greater reliability can be expressed for studies concerned with the place of rock carving sites within their contemporary landscapes (eg Bertilsson 1987). A smaller area in central Östergötland has also had a lengthy period of discovery (eg Burenhult 1973; Nordén 1925) but here the opportunities for new analyses (eg Wahlgren 2001) have been curtailed through the truncation of the ancient cultural landscape by excessive and, in my opinion, misguided commercial and transportation pressures. A third area, south-western Uppland, has a more

Fig.17.1: Southern Scandinavia outlining southern Sweden.

recent history of dedicated discovery (Kjellén 1976) which has made possible the studies concerned with cultural landscapes of the Bronze Age (Coles 2000; Kjellén & Hyenstrand 1977). The most recent work has demonstrated the rapid disappearance of a majority of sites through changes in farming practices, principally the abandonment of pasture to woodland. In southernmost Sweden, south-eastern Skåne has for long been known to hold a few spectacular rock carving sites (eg Althin 1945) and several of these have recently been explored in terms of their contemporary landscapes, both social and ideological (Coles 1999; Randsborg 1993).

It will be clear that the survival of sites and their potential recognition are by no means uniform in southern Sweden. Because of this, the development of cultural landscape theories becomes difficult, and in every one of the sample areas so far studied, we lack sufficient details to illuminate and reinforce the generalist models advanced. There are several factors, however, that help in creating such models. One of these is the detail of isostatic rise of the land of much of southern Sweden since the withdrawal of the last glacial ice sheets. Such changes in landforms have been very substantial and are well-studied in some areas; a recreation of Bronze Age shorelines in Bohuslän (eg Bertilsson 1987), Östergötland (eg Wahlgren 2000) and Uppland (Coles 2000) are possible, and the position of rock carvings thereby at least in part explained. In Skåne, much farther south, there has been little alteration in sea-land relationship since the Bronze Age (eg Coles 1999).

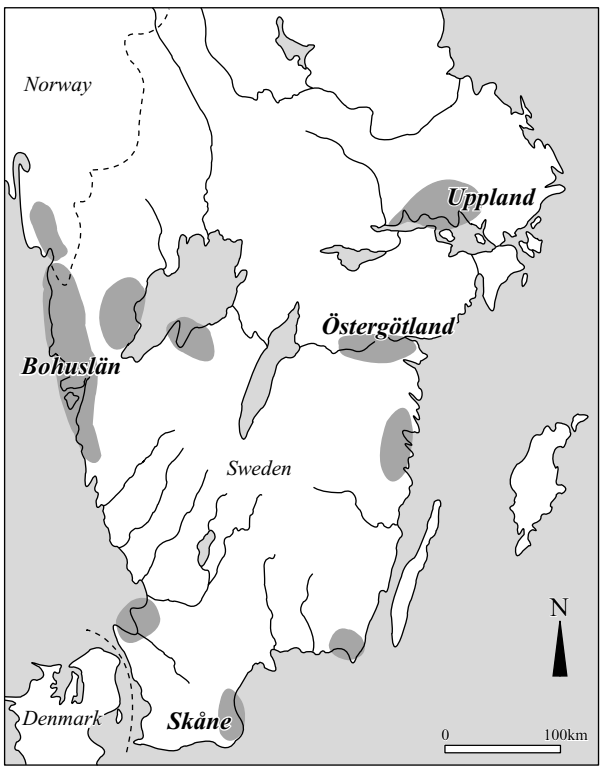

Fig.17.2: Southern Sweden with major rock carving regions (shaded) and the four case study areas identified.

In all these areas, although the distribution of rock carving sites has been clarified by new discoveries, there still remains only a rather gentle accumulation of other kinds of evidence, particularly of settlement and of industry. Even with recent mitigation work on development sites, the flow of essential evidence about habitation places has been slow. Nonetheless there exists just about enough bodies of data to postulate the general organisation of the landscapes. The separation of the living from the dead, the ritual centres, the deposits of wealth and the industrial sites are now broadly understood in many areas, although targeted work based on general models has sometimes been unable to clarify the precise character and position of settlements even within a well-studied cultural landscape (eg Kristiansen 2000).

Nonetheless, through a variety of recent studies, the general interplay of settlement, industry, subsistence practices and cemeteries is becoming better understood (eg Gustafsson 1998; Påhlsson *et al*. 1994; Thrane 1999; Welinder 1998). Within some of the areas of settlement, rock carvings were set apart, yet visible to all who had chance to pass by, unless masked by tradition or stricture. Parts of these, on best-quality land, are now mostly obliterated, and it is in those areas of less-desirable agricultural land, the lands of rocks, that the ancient shapes and configuration still survive.

Cultural landscapes as a theoretical concept are generally presented as an interconnected array of economic, social and ritual activities. For example, in northern Bohuslän the demarcation between these functions is geographical and physical, although the agencies of linkage remain hypothetical. Cairns for the dead lay upslope on the heights and often overlooked the Bronze Age sea; on the lower lands were cleared areas with their small settlement and industrial foci. Somewhere between life and death lay many of the rock carving sites, low down on the rocky uplands. Some must have been within sight and sound of the sea, others faced onto wetlands and wet pasture (Hygen & Bengtsson 2000; Kristiansen 2000).

In south-western Uppland, the rocky heights were absent but here again there was a separation in space between the rock carvings and the burial monuments. The waters of the Bronze Age sea were close to the carving sites, and settlements and industrial places such as burnt mounds form a relatively small scatter compared with the abundance of carved sites. Here, as in northern Bohuslän, we should be looking at far greater expanses of the landscape if we are to comprehend the role of the rock carvings, as they were almost certainly part of a north European culture complex rather than mere elements in local social units (fig.17.3). In this wider view the additional concept of central place should find expression (eg Coles 2000; Jaanusson 1981; Jensen 1989). Perhaps these places served both as markets and dedicated contact points for external persuasions as well as for more ceremonial events.

Rock carvings were integral parts of the cultural landscape in Bronze Age southern Sweden. Their sheer quantity both as sites (thousands) and individual images (hundreds of thousands) must surely be indicative of their power and place in the social and ideological lives of communities. Their position within actual landscapes is of course bound to rock surfaces considered to be appropriate for particular carvings and events. Aligned to be viewed from downslope, often thus the observer must face eastwards, to see the morning light illuminate the carved surfaces. Beyond the surfaces, the viewer often faces the long-distant dead above and beyond the low rocks newly released from the sea by land uplift (eg Bohuslän: Bertilsson 1987; Uppland: Coles 2000, fig.11–17). Today most of the sites are land-locked, physically and indeed intellectually removed from their original place in the arrangement of the world.

The subject matter on the rocks is not here a major concern. A multitude of books and papers both old and new conspire to categorise the carvings into recognisable, to us, images. These are taken to reflect some of the major concerns of Bronze Age life, among them the dominating sea with its already receding shorelines, and represented on the rocks by boat images, both large and small, numbering in the thousands if not tens of thousands. Other landscape-based elements are carts and wheels, quadrupedal animals both wild and domesticated, and humans along with a range of equipment for war and peace. Assessments of these in numbers, styles and associations are inevitably out of date as the work of discovery goes on, but the overall parameters are well-established (eg Burenhult 1973; Coles 1990; 1994; Hygen & Bengtsson 2000; Malmer 1981; Ohlmarks & Hasselrot 1966).

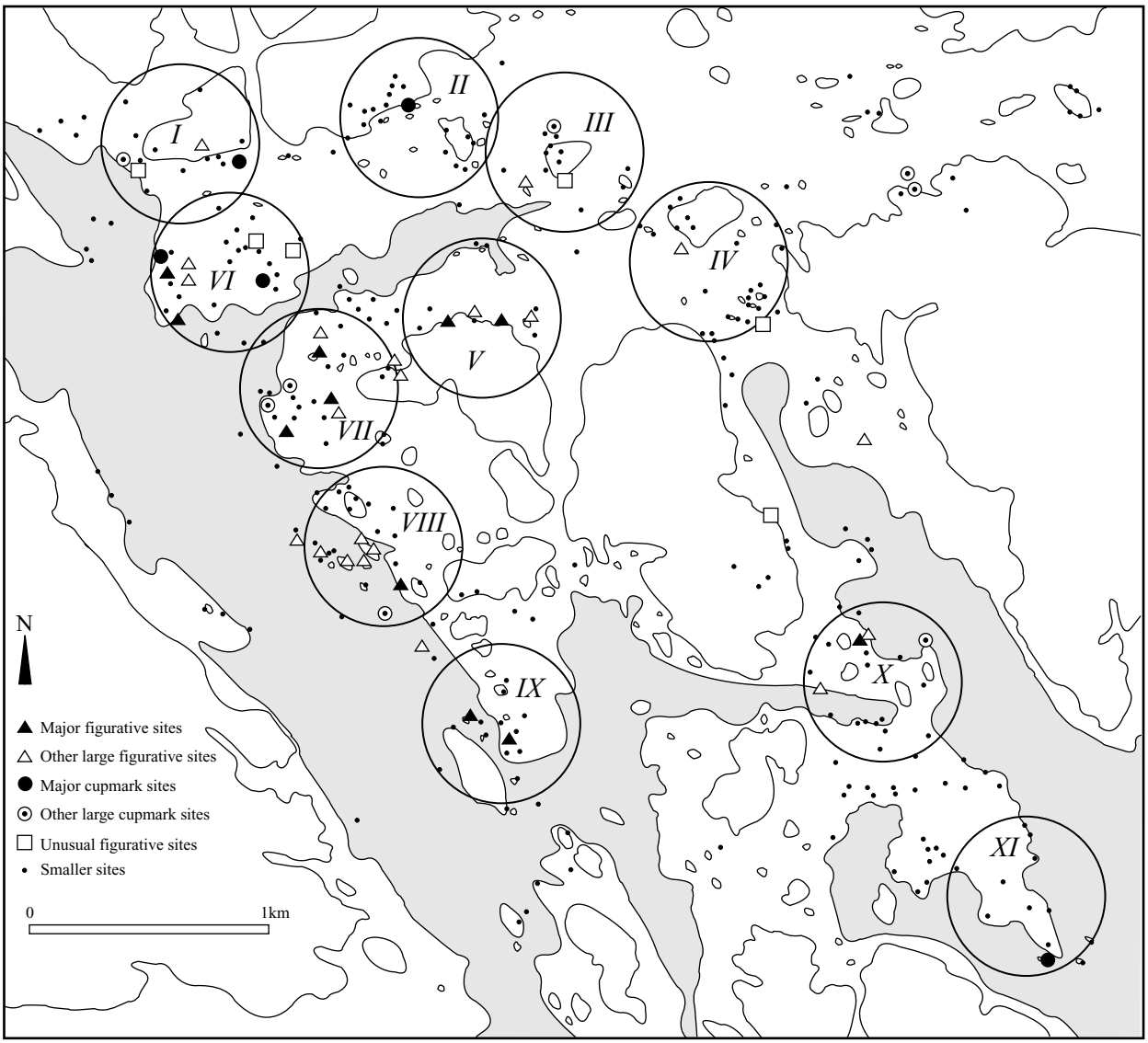

Fig.17.3: Part of the south west Uppland rock carving area with all sites plotted. The Bronze Age sea (20m) is shaded, and sites lie near or on the ancient coast. The 25m contour is also shown and marks an earlier period of land submergence. Today the area is entirely land-locked and the Bronze Age cultural landscape is marked but nonetheless survives. The circled areas i–xi represent possible social units. After Coles 2000.

Carved into a variety of rocks, the images may be deeply inscribed or mere shallows in the surfaces; through the passage of time their original clarity has been diminished and many are now barely visible. The practice of painting certain sites (fig.17.4), to allow the visitor to better see the carvings, is widely employed, often condemned, but undoubtedly necessary here and there where the unthinking tourist may use pen, rock or lipstick to illuminate some images, should enhancement by paint not be present. The management of sites by careful painting and adequate signage is essential for tourism although often decried by those who wish to explore at greater intensity.

With the passing of years and changing perceptions and intellectual interests, rock carvings have assumed even greater potential significance in the eyes of those who seek greater understanding of Bronze Age ideology; original interest in mythological 'certainties' has receded, most usefully argued by Malmer (1989). There still remains a psychologically satisfying attribution to the carved images of some as yet ill-defined, distant, other world origin, often considered to be Mediterranean-inspired (eg cf Bertilsson 1989; Hygen & Bengtsson 2000; Larsson 1999). The alternative, or evolved, linkage to and through indigenous northern beliefs is, however, still present (eg Gelling & Davidson 1969; and see Görman 1987 for other views). In all of these musings, which stretch back for decades (eg Almgren 1927), there is rather little service paid to landscapes, to settings and to contexts, and it is in these aspects that the greater advances in comprehension are now needed; several of the regional studies have already been noted. And it is just these intimate settings that are now under threat of one sort or another, and are now becoming urgent subjects for management issues.

The concept of management in its widest and active sense has only recently been applied to rock carvings, in Sweden and in Norway too. The three main issues that are to be addressed here are survival, care and presentation, and there are general considerations that apply to all of the four Swedish areas as well as specific aspects applicable to only one or two of the areas.

In size, the case study areas are different. The northern Bohuslän area with rock carvings is very large, and much is included in its World Heritage status, about 45km^2 and containing about 450 sites (Hygen & Bengtsson 2000). The region as a whole is very much driven by tourism. It has a long coastline with few major concentrations of population, and only one major motorway cuts through the landscape, though with plans for a major expansion. The cultural landscape of the Bronze Age, with its cairns, carvings and domestic sites, is thus not entirely

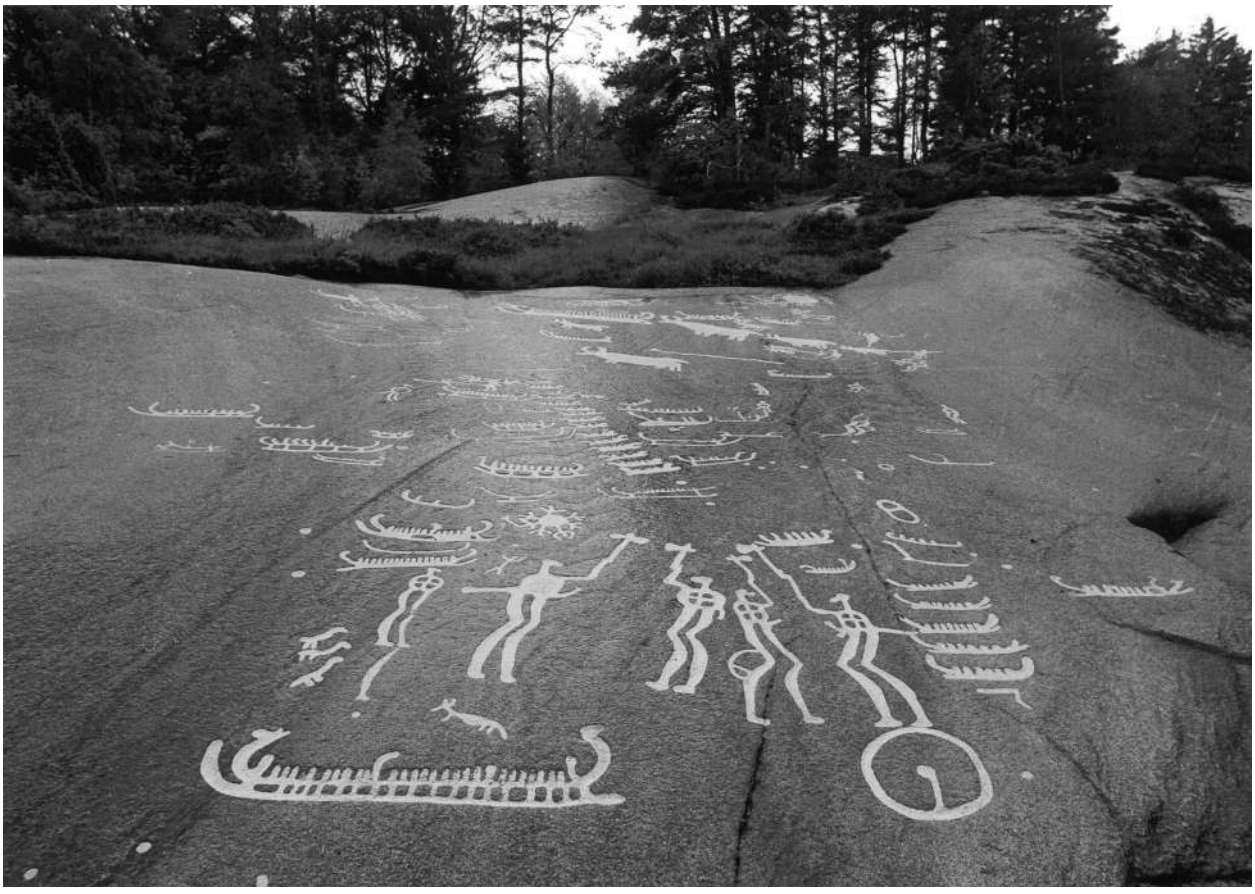

Fig.17.4: Rock carvings at Aspeberget, Bohuslän, painted for tourism purposes c.*1976. This large panel is now seriously degraded and is the subject of extensive analysis and monitoring. Photo: John Coles.*

Fig.17.5: Rock carving at Rickeby, Uppland, its glacially striated surfaces slightly diminished by physical erosion 1998. Photo: John Coles.

submerged by modern life and perhaps the most difficult aspect to grasp is the major alteration to landform, with the ancient sea set *c*.15m above that of today's; yet the abrupt cliffs and other heights help inform an appreciation of the ancient shapes.

In southernmost Sweden, the small spread of rock carving sites in the south-east, around Simrishamn, is very unlike that of Bohuslän. Only a very few carved sites are known, well visited by tourists, and little change in landform has occurred since the Bronze Age.

A dense concentration of sites in central Östergötland presents us with a different cultural landscape, the sites being set rather close together along ancient shorelines but now disfigured and dismembered by industrial development and, in particular, major road re-alignments. The contextual relationships between sites are severely affected, physically and audibly; the constant drone of motorway traffic is a serious emotional handicap in attempts to come to grips with relationships. This is without doubt the most difficult area in which to appreciate rock carvings as part of a Bronze Age cultural landscape.

South-western Uppland provides another contrast, with its equally dense complex of sites remaining mostly intact and essentially remote from modern development. Here the ancient landform is difficult to grasp, with few heights and wide flat areas that rise and fall imperceptibly. The cultural landscape of the past was very substantially unlike any shape of today. The farming industry here is in decline and a majority of rock carving sites are no longer visible.

The survival of sites and their landscapes is today dependent upon a variety of factors. Rock carvings were created on different types of rock including granite, gneiss and quartzite. Some rocks are more resistant than others to natural and humanly induced processes of damage. Weathering by chemical, mechanical and biological effects have gone on since the Bronze Age, but some have been enhanced by human additions to the mix. Physical damage by heavy machinery, modern chemicals, tourism and archaeologists is more readily evident than the insidious effects of pollution and the like, but all combine to diminish the record (fig.17.5).

Rock carvings are integral to the cultural landscapes of the Bronze Age, and are central to reading the past in the today's landscape. They provide the only real focus today, more apparent and informative than the upslope burial monuments, the burnt mounds and still-elusive

settlements, the changes in the environmental record, and the often-thin spreads of debris whether abandoned or placed.

In the past decade, recognition has been made of the accelerated decay of rock carvings (eg Coles 1992), and a number of efforts have been made to address the problem as well as to document the agencies at work (eg Hygen & Bengtsson 2000; Kallhoud & Magnusson 2000). The details need not concern us here but they involve a multitude of tests and experiments, the diversion of natural water flows away from carved surfaces, and the covering of a selection of sites with clay, sand and canvas to prevent mechanical and biological losses. Tree shelter is now considered to be useful for sites in preventing frost and sudden temperature changes. There is much uncertainty about how best to respond to the threat of erosion, but the effort being made in certain areas to document what is there before it is compromised by modern pollutants, in the widest sense of that word, is widely applauded. Recording of known sites is an enormous task, and a logical and landscape-based approach has been adopted in Bohuslän (eg Bengtsson 1997; Bengtsson & Olsson 2000), an effort made in Uppland (Coles 2000) and regional documentation carried out in other areas. New exposure of rock surfaces, in searching for new sites, is a more debatable practice, granted that burial of sites is deemed to be the appropriate way to help them retain their integrity. The gradual abandonment of 'unneeded' sites, sites now recorded and not appropriate for touristic encounters, may be slow and unpredictable, and carry potential loss by unmonitored agencies, but in the long run may well be the only solution for survival. Their cultural settings will continue to degrade, and it may be that the rock carving sites, through their sheer bulk, will be the only surviving documentation of once-vibrant wider cultural expressions.

The management of rock carving sites in all the areas of Sweden has the benefit of legal restraint against any physical actions that might damage the heritage. Such legislation, however, does not prevent most of the effects noted above, and proximal damage is also difficult to control. Where matters can be extended into total landscape protection, there is an almost unique potential to retain and present a clear view into the past. Here is where the efforts at presentation of cultural material in an appropriate context can use the visual attractions of rock carvings, the scientific analyses for past environments, and modest interpretative techniques to create dynamic and responsible displays for wide educative purposes. Where the cultural landscape has been in effect battered out of its prehistoric shape, as in Östergötland, it is difficult to see how any but the most basic presentation of rock carvings can be attempted: the contexts are gone or are masked and deafened. In terrain where landform alterations, due to geographic factors, have been extreme visualisation of ancient cultural landscapes is also difficult. In south-western Uppland, for example, vast areas of featureless flatlands were once water-covered, and innumerable islands existed, some utilised, others not. Taken with the abandonment of over 90% of rock carving sites, allowing them to gradually submerge beneath new vegetation, soilslip and human detritus, the remains of once dynamic cultural landscapes are difficult to see, and 'management' may become an unnecessary problem. In Skåne the picture has greater potential although the pattern of ancient lives is thinly spread on the ground. It is probably only in northern Bohuslän that the management and presentation of the concept and actuality of cultural landscape can be applied; this is due to its natural landform, its economic history, its wealth of ancient evidence and, it should be noted, its long tradition of respect and veneration for those past activities that left tangible marks on the land.

In the 19th century, rock carvings were one of the wonders of the antiquarian world. Through the 20th century the discoveries continued, and archaeological and palaeo-environmental disciplines combined, late on, to recognise and develop the concept of a cultural landscape approach to the rock carvings. In the 21st century it will be the wise application of management and presentation techniques that will encourage the survival and appreciation of these cultural landscapes into the 22nd century.

Acknowledgements

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18: The Abava Valley: archaeological heritage and landscape planning in Latvia

Mara Urtane

Abstract: *This paper considers the preservation of archaeological monuments within the cultural landscape of the Abava valley, north-western Latvia, and the effects that landscape management and change have had on their preservation since the 19th century. It presents a method of assessing the condition of landscapes that takes account of the role of archaeological sites, particularly the dominant hillforts of the region, within a modern and dynamic landscape. It describes the need for protection of archaeological sites and examines the responsibility of heritage managers to inform and educate the visiting public, making ancient monuments part of the modern landscape infrastructure.*

Introduction

This paper presents a general overview of the changes that have occurred in the landscape of archaeological monuments in the Abava valley in north-western Latvia (fig.18.1). Archaeological monuments in the Abava valley are closely associated with the exploitation of the valley's topography, and with the settlement systems, which have developed over time within the landscape. Tourism, recreation and other economic activities are planned for the future as important contributors to cultural landscape preservation. This approach creates special requirements for the protection of archaeological monuments and their landscape. Research methods included field survey of all the known archaeological sites in the Abava valley region and the comparison of physical landscapes and their management from the 1890s until the 1990s to demonstrate models of landscape development.

The methodology used consisted of fixing open and closed visual borders, the identification of dominant places and characteristic viewpoints, studies of landscape development and the assessment of landscapes on and around archaeological sites to aide the development of landscape protection, creation and maintenance strategies. Landscape management in the 1890s, 1930s and 1960s was compared using information sources held at the State Inspection for Cultural Heritage of Latvia, publications (eg Brastins 1930) and an unpublished report (Asaris 1995).

Archaeological sites in the Abava valley are located both on the top of the valley slopes and close to sources of water in the valley bottoms. Smaller side valleys also contain settlement, cemetery and ritual sites, with a high number of hillfort settlements. Archaeological sites dating from the Stone and Bronze Ages are located near to the main river on higher sandy soils. The majority of these sites are found close to present farmhouses or earlier manor houses, apart from ritual sites such as stones and caves, which are often located in more inaccessible places.

Changes in the archaeological sites' landscape 1869–1998

The Abava valley has long been regarded as one of the most beautiful, scenic and special landscapes in Latvia, known as the 'Switzerland of Kurzeme', and the

Fig.18.1: Latvia.

archaeological monuments within this landscape have been the object of special attention, whether for excavation, survey or recreation. Hillforts in Sabile, Kandava, Matkule, and the ritual sites of Melderu Velna (stone and cave) and Maras Kambari (hillfort and cave), together with the natural attractions of Abava and Ivande (waterfalls) are key points of interest for tourists visiting this area (fig.18.2).

Between 1869 and 1998 the landscape has changed dramatically in relation to many archaeological monuments. The interiors of hillforts in the Abava valley are no longer used as arable land as they were in 1869 when first surveyed. The Sabile hillfort has suffered from afforestation to create a park-like landscape, and Capulu hillfort, which was deforested in the 1920s, has reverted back to woodland. The most adapted landscape during this period is the Valgale archaeological area, where after agricultural exploitation and pasture abandonment, the landscape became overgrown and covered by bushes and scrub, which in some areas has developed into woodland. Meanwhile, intensification of arable cultivation has heightened the disturbance of burial mounds at the Avotinu cemeteries.

Landuse on archaeological sites in the 1930s

During this period the Abava valley and its associated landscape including the archaeological features within it were intensively exploited for agricultural use, mainly as pasture and hay/fodder fields. With the exception of Rumbas hillfort, which was forested and the Capulu hillfort, which had just been cleared of trees, earthworks within the landscape were well preserved and remained visible as an integral part of the landscape. On some of the more significant monuments, parkland trees were established along with pathways and driveways, integrating ancient landscape features into a modern recreational landscape.

The landuse of archaeological sites in the 1960s

This period marks a distinct change in the landscape of archaeological sites, particularly in the Abava valley. Some archaeological monuments were excavated during this period and their territories were developed. However, other monuments were left without any physical maintenance and became overrun by scrub. New developments took place in the landscape around the numerous hillforts of the area, including multi-storey housing, dramatically changing the landscape. On the ancient settlement at Sabile and the Matkules grave field the excavated sites are still visible today, although often disguised by scrub growth.

Landuse of archaeological sites in the 1990s

Most of the landscape in which many of the archaeological sites are part of are now covered by trees, with some open spaces remaining. Developments in the landscape are comparable to those in the previous period, causing damage to archaeological layers and ancient earthworks.

The future of the landscapes of which archaeological sites are part

Site location (visual landscape of archaeological sites)

Settlements, burial and ritual sites in the past, as today, were situated in the most significant places in the landscape, exploiting local topography and relief. Hillforts overlook strategically significant territories in the Abava valley, usually associated with rivers and arable farmland. The location of cemeteries is associated with rivers or opposite valley settlements. Ritual or cult sites are either situated in a dominant focal position (as with church hills) or directly opposite covered shaded valleys far from settlements.

Vegetation structure

Vegetation on archaeological sites in the Abava valley varies considerably. Some monuments, such as the Sabile hillfort and cemeteries, the Gedertu cemeteries and the Matkules velna stone area, are stable grassland. Others are covered with established trees, designed landscapes with paved paths as at Sabiles castle ruins or the Kandava hillfort. Some are covered with forest for example at the Capulu and Rumbas hillforts, the Sabiles Krievu Kapi cemeteries, Tojatu settlement and cemeteries, Melderu Velna cave and the Maras Kambari cave. Other sites are partly abandoned to natural growth with scrub and trees, but recently part of their territories have been covered with grass and earlier planted trees such as oaks, spruces and pines, such as at the Matkules, Valgales and Rendas hillforts and their related settlements. In some other sites archaeological excavations have been left open to the elements, and the spoil-heaps are covered with new vegetation. This situation is evident on the Sabile settlement near the hillfort and the Matkules cemeteries. Some of the sites are under long-term arable,

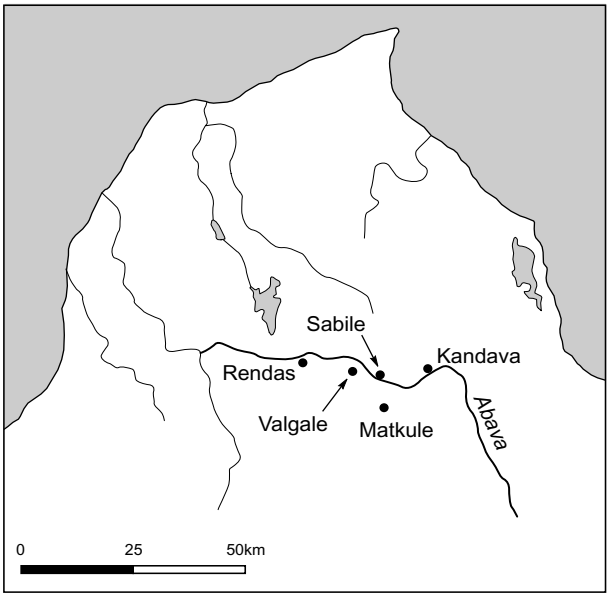

Fig.18.2: North-western Latvia, showing the Abava river, and the location of some of the sites mentioned.

and it is impossible to identify their limits, or the location of burial mounds associated with Votinu and Araju cemeteries.

Modern settlement

Modern development has taken place in the Abava valley, and all the archaeological sites and monuments within the landscape are now close to modern buildings, roads and pathways, or connected to modern agricultural landuse. Most of the biggest and visually impressive archaeological sites located near to towns and villages, such as Sabiles, Kandavas, Matkules and Rendas hillforts, are intensively used for recreation. These sites have seen the specific planting of trees and bushes and the creation of paths and car parking areas. Some cemeteries have continuity of burial traditions to the present-day, and cult or ritual sites have been visited since the 19th century. These sites keep an important place in the modern landscape and remain the focal for human activity, even if that activity is very different.

The organisation of movement and information

Current provision and encouragement of visitor access to archaeological sites could be seen as unsuccessful, since information signs have been erected on few sites. The creation of paths and access roads, for example, or the creation of stairs such as in the steepest parts of slopes in the Kandava and Sabiles hillforts, had damaged archaeological sites. So too has works such as the levelling of ditches and ramparts to create flat land for car parking, and the building of roads to the top of the hillforts in Matkules and Rendas.

When producing proposals for landscape management plans, it is necessary to integrate information in a system that includes at least three levels:

- information panels alongside roads, to indicate to travellers the existence of archaeological sites,
- direction-posts alongside paths, to lead visitors to scenic viewpoints and specific features,
- more general information about archaeological features in the landscape made available in nearby farms and at information centres on the edge of sites.

Land management

An analysis of land management used during the 1930s identifies three main methods:

- recreational parkland, used by the general public,
- pasture, grassland for fodder production, also used for recreation and public activities,
- forest, used only by land owner(s).

In the 1990s only two types of land management are common:

- forest, not maintained, sites are overgrown by scrub land,
- parkland, maintained for and used by the general public.

Comparing these two situations, it is possible to conclude that management in the 1930s was more sensitive to the survival of archaeological remains, and that it would be worthwhile trying to re-introduce the earlier approaches.

Threats

The biggest threats to the preservation of archaeological sites are connected with industrial activities and the intensification of tourism, when not planned correctly. Another unusual kind of threat is water erosion of the riverside near Renda hillfort, Lielrendas, Velna laiva, and Valgales and Matkules hillforts. A third is big trees and scrub growth, especially when heavy maintenance machinery is used for felling and clearance, thus causing damage to cultural layers.

Assessment of the landscape of archaeological sites

Archaeological site landscape assessment relates to the preservation of archaeological remains as part of landscape character, taking into account the possibility of enhancing the visual features of the landscape. The categories used to assess the condition of archaeological sites are:

- excellent
- optimal
- neutral
- low

The landscape most characteristic of the Abava valley is a rural landscape with farmhouses or small-scale historical building within urban areas. After these categories archaeological site in existing landscapes are evaluated as being in excellent condition when both the archaeological sites and the surrounding landscapes are appropriate to the site. This category includes the hillforts of Capulu, Sabiles, Piltinkalns and Rendas, the Maras Kambari cave and hillfort, the Melderu Velna cave and stone, the Matkules and Valgales archaeological site ensembles and the Kandavas archaeological sites.

To the 'optimal' condition category belong sites where the landscape, of which the site is part, is satisfactory, but where the surrounding landscape contains many modern constructions. Such landscapes are categorised as 'neutral' when the archaeological site can be easily recognised, but where the surrounding landscape is a natural, rural landscape. Such landscapes are associated with the Kroju and Vegu cemeteries and Rumbas hillfort.

'Low' landscape is recognised when the archaeological site is hard to perceive and where the surrounding landscape is dominated with chaotic, low-quality modern structures. Such landscape situations exist on some cemeteries now located in urban areas, such as Renda and Sabile.

Conclusions and suggestions

The Abava valley's landscape, of which one feature are the archaeological sites, has not been well preserved, as

analyses of the structure and character of the integral landscape has shown. This particularly includes the landscape around the hillforts, which proved to be satisfactorily preserved. Assessment of each landscape should include the following suggestions:

- to preserve the existing landscape by maintaining it step-by-step
- to renew landscape
- to reconstruct it in detail

In each case the effects of any measures taken should be monitored and is recommended to preserve the diversity in landscape types of archaeological sites in the Abava valley.

Archaeological sites and monuments, especially hillforts, and complete landscapes must be maintained through special projects undertaken by or under supervision of the State Inspection for Cultural Heritage of Latvia. When creating special zones for the protection of the landscapes, of which archaeological sites are one element, the interest of the local people and of those visiting the sites should be taken into account. Housing and farm planning close to archaeological sites should be adapted to the needs of archaeological sites, which dominate the area's landscape.

19: Spessart goes Europe: the historic landscape characterisation of a German upland region

Gerhard Ermischer

Abstract: *The Archaeological Spessart-Project (ASP) deals with the cultural landscape of the Spessart, a German upland region with an image of poverty and lack of history. Since 1999 it has been one of twelve projects in ten countries participating in a pan-European EU Culture 2000 programme, called European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape. This programme is concerned with the study, communication and sustainable management of cultural landscapes. Historic Landscape Characterisation and GIS play an important role. The exchange of experience between experts of very different institutions coming from regions with different traditions is one of the main features of the programme. Coming after the first year of intensive networking, this paper is a report on the results achieved. New perspectives allowed the participants to review their own work and formulate specific answers to local problems. It seems unlikely to overcome all differences, but the diversity of perspectives has proved to be enriching and interesting to all.*

Introduction

The Archaeological Spessart Project (ASP) is a locally-based community-focussed project started in 1994 (fig.19.1). Initially only concerned with very traditional archaeological research in a long neglected area, it has gradually shifted its interest towards a holistic approach to a cultural landscape. In 1998 a 'Spessart GIS' was initiated as a modern way of collecting and processing data about this landscape. Practical experience led towards something like historic landscape characterisation, without using the term at the time. It became clear that we had to start from the present-day landscape, even when we wanted to describe the history of a landscape and how it changed through time. It also became clear that the traditional archaeological approach of mapping dots and lines (eg finds, sites, historic roads) had to be shifted to define and describe whole areas when dealing with a complete landscape.

Thus important features of historic landscape characterisation were implemented in the Spessart GIS, but contact with colleagues from English Heritage allowed us to bind those experiences into a greater discussion of the aims and philosophy of historic landscape characterisation (see Fairclough, Lambrick & Hopkins this volume). This discussion became a major focus of the European partner project initiated by the ASP, European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes (EPCL), which achieved funding from the EU for a 3 years campaign (www.pcl-eu.de; see also Kraut, Nord Paulsson, and Darlington this volume). This paper will highlight some of the experiences of EPCL so far, and demonstrate the importance of networking and international communication for studying, understanding and communicating the values of cultural landscapes.

This paper will give a German perspective on historic landscape characterisation, although it is important to stress that it is only that – *one* German perspective, not *the* German

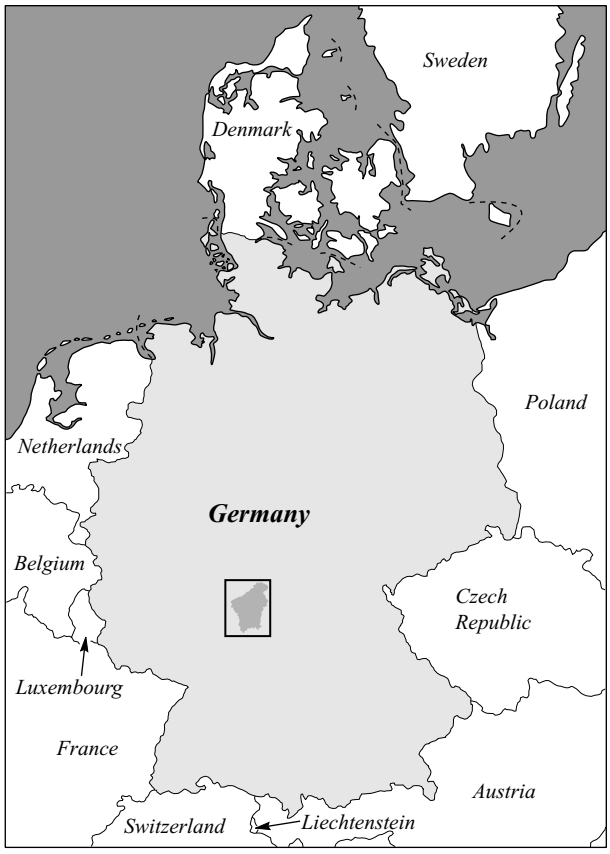

Fig.19.1: Germany, showing the location of the Spessart region.

perspective. It would be impossible to give *the* German perspective, not least because of the federal structure of German heritage management and the very different approaches in different German federal states (the Länder). It should be stated that the study of cultural landscapes, historic landscape characterisation and the use of GIS is not very widespread in German heritage management, although single projects are proceeding, for example in the Rhineland and the Black Forest. However, no comparable schemes exist to the nation-wide campaigns for historic landscape characterisation by English Heritage.

The Spessart Project as a bottom up initiative has links with the local and regional heritage management, as well as with local government, but it started its work more from a scientific perspective than out of concern for planning and development needs. As a non-profit association or charity the Project is not involved directly in planning processes, but can only influence by discussion and persuasion. The Project's view is, therefore, not representative of all of Germany, and is highly subjective; its attitudes have also probably been more influenced by networking with partners all over Europe than by specific German approaches.

Short description of the Spessart area

The Spessart is a large upland region dominated by woodland (fig.19.2). It is a mountainous area that together with the Odenwald and the Rhön forms the northern border of Southern Germany. In the south of the Spessart we find the river Main which divides the Spessart from the Odenwald in the west. The river Main provides good conditions for shipping, and it seems that this has been exploited since the Neolithic. It gives access to the Rhine valley, which can also be reached by various pathways through the Spessart, one of which is still used today as the A3, the most frequented highway of Germany.

The Spessart was first settled at the beginning of the Neolithic and since then human impact has changed this landscape several times, from a forested area to pasture and arable land and back to a forest. The 19th and the first half of the 20th century, particularly, have been times of poverty that have created an image of a landscape neglected and without history.

Today the Spessart is a highly interesting landscape – at second glance. It is a region with two major problems: its administrative structure and its image. Today the Spessart is divided between five districts, none of which is a pure Spessart-district. As well as fractions of the Spessart, each district includes considerable areas outside the Spessart, which are often larger and more densely populated. So the Spessart is hardly the main concern of the districts. More importantly a border between two different German Länder divides the Spessart: the larger southern part belongs to Bavaria, the smaller northern part to Hessia. To understand the importance of this border, one has to know the German federal system. It gives considerable autonomy to all federal states, specially valued in the 'Free State of Bavaria'. *Culture*, by constitution, is an affair of the *Länder*, the federal states. So 16 different laws exist for the cultural heritage, and an even larger number of public structures dealing with it. This provides difficulties of its own, if one tries to define a common picture of the Spessart region. Research on both sides of the border has followed different paths as far back as the formation of the German states in 1814–15. Obstacles arise even on the most basic technical level. It is virtually impossible for example to bring together maps produced by the state heritage management in the two federal states. They use different scales, projections and even a different standard meridian. Try as you like, you cannot cut and paste the maps and simply form one for the complete region.

Founding the Archaeological Spessart Project

These problems became very obvious in 1994 when a cross border initiative was formed to develop the Spessart region. Local and regional administrations and public, private and economic institutions worked together to form the *Bayerisch-Hessisches Spessartprojekt* (the Bavarian-Hessian Spessart Project). In September 1994 a working group 'archaeology' was constituted. For the first time archaeologists of state heritage management, local museums and universities of the region met on a regular basis to

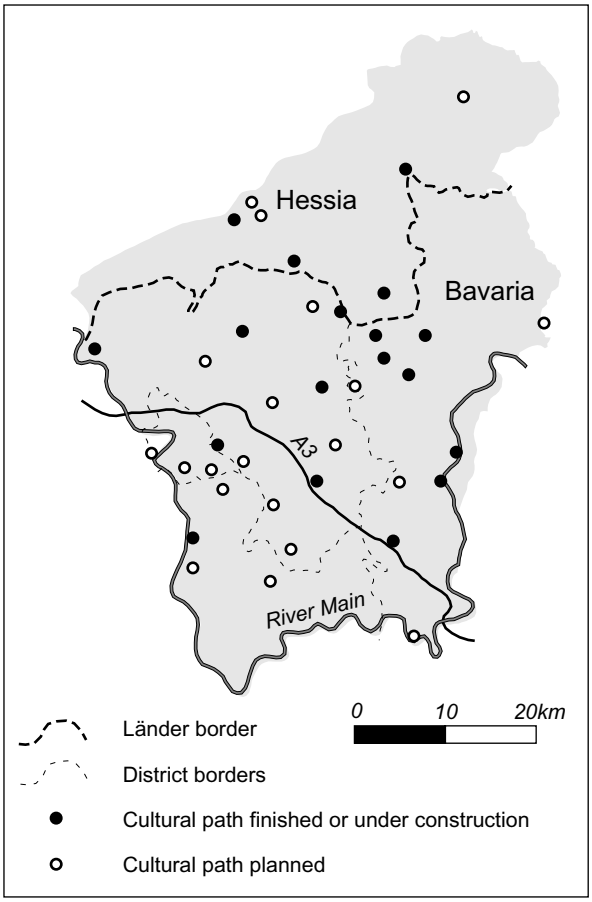

Fig.19.2: The Spessart region, with cultural paths, which have been completed or are under construction, and planned.

exchange information and experiences and define common goals for the future, however, the basis of information was poor.

One reason for this was the lack of interest in the heritage management on all administrative levels in the Spessart. Today it is a densely forested area and therefore the threat to potential archaeological monuments was considered low. Compared to the degree of destruction of archaeological monuments in urban centres and areas of industrialised agriculture, the Spessart region was a low priority. Limited available resources were directed to other areas, and systematic investigation did not and could not take place here. The second reason points to the second great problem of the Spessart: its image. In the 19th century, and a good part of the 20th, the Spessart was a region of poverty, as are most upland regions in Europe. This image of poverty initiated the image of a lack of history, or at least any history of interest.

The lack of information and the small number of archaeologists interested, even marginally, in the Spessart, forced the working group to look for colleagues in other disciplines, who might be able to contribute more knowledge to the few shreds actually existing. It appeared that geographers, geologists and biologists had been much more interested in the Spessart than archaeologists, producing a lot of evidence for a much more vivid and interesting past than was generally assumed. Often they had difficulties in interpreting their data, as the common archaeological literature described the region as dull and of little interest. So the discussion between archaeologists, historians and natural scientists came as a revelation, and the picture of the Spessart changed dramatically for those who participated in this dialogue.

In autumn 1995, after a large congress on the Spessart, the working group for archaeology decided to formulate a follow-up project, the Archaeological Spessart Project (ASP), which was therefore multidisciplinary from the beginning. Nevertheless, the dominating archaeologists still formulated goals that were quite traditional, like combining existing data in a common (computerised) system and initiating research to compensate different interests in the Bavarian and Hessian part of the Spessart in the last century. There also was nevertheless a feeling from the beginning, however, that to gain a better understanding the Project should look at the landscape as a whole, and not just certain groups of monuments. It was also strongly felt that there must be public integration not least because volunteers managed by the district archaeologists of Gelnhausen played an important role in determining future research questions.

Spessart goes Europe

All these intentions were merely academic at the time, as there could be no project without funding, and finding financial support proved difficult. This changed only when the ASP came in contact with a small group of mostly Scandinavian organisations, which were just starting co-operation on cultural landscapes. Contact was established at the final congress of the Council of Europe's Bronze Age Campaign in Berlin in 1997. Eventually five partners came together – the City Museums of Odense (Denmark), Rogaland County Council (Norway), the National Board of Antiquities (Estonia), the ASP (Germany) and Föreningen Bronstid (Sweden) – to form European Cultural Paths (ECP), a project on the Bronze Age landscape, managed by the Swedish partner (see Kraus this volume). ECP's successful application for two years funding from the EC RAPHAEL programme made all the difference to the ASP and the new funding worked as a door opener to local and regional administrations. The European co-operation also changed the structure and intentions of the ASP. New ways of thinking and different perspectives influenced the ASP: the approach to the cultural landscape became more holistic, archaeology became less dominant, public awareness became more important and aspects of landscape management became its focus.

The co-operation within ECP has been extremely successful. The ASP had started a number of collaborations with universities and research institutes beforehand, mainly the Universities of Würzburg and Frankfurt, the Technical University of Berlin and, most importantly, the Senckenberg Research Institute. In 1998 a project was started with the University Frankfurt by Dr. Thorsten Westphal to produce a standard dendrochronology of the Spessart. In the meantime thousands of samples were measured and oak and beech can now be traced back well into prehistoric times. The immigration of spruce and pine in more recent times has also been investigated. The dendrochronological profiles are not only important for dating wood, but also provide a unique data basis for climatic research.

In 1999, for the first time a scientist could be employed fulltime by the ASP. Dr. Gerrit Himmelsbach is still responsible for all the public work of the ASP and is in charge of establishing and promoting cultural paths. Initially only a few cultural paths were planned, but soon these developed into a network that covers most of the Spessart. Every path has its own theme: transport and trade in the early modern period, hunting parties of the Bavarian kings, agriculture and forestry, mining, glass production, Iron Age hillforts, high medieval castle sites and so on. They take into account local characteristics as well as the whole picture of the cultural landscape.

When the RAPHAEL funding ended in 1999, all the partners decided at the final meeting in Odense to continue networking and to create a set of follow-up projects. One of these was the Northern Bronze Age Road, headed by the Norwegian partner; another was European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape (EPCL), a project studying, communicating and managing marginal landscapes, headed by the ASP. After Odense a preliminary meeting was

organised in Aschaffenburg (Germany) in December 1999, and another meeting in Kilkenny (Ireland) at the beginning of 2000. As a result, archaeologists and others working in ten European countries on twelve sample landscape areas flocked together to create EPCL: The Czech Republic (Práchensko), Denmark (Funen), England (Bowland Forest/ Lune Valley, see Darlington this volume), Estonia (Kaali), Finland (Untamala), Germany (Albersdorf and Spessart), Ireland (Dowris), Italy (Paneveggio/Vanoi), Sweden (Bjäre, see Nord Paulsson this volume), and Halland, and Wales (Arfon). Participating organisations range from charities and non-profit institutes, local and regional museums, district administrations, state heritage managers to universities, research institutes and an academy of science. They represent the variety of organisations dealing with the cultural landscape, just as the sample landscapes themselves represent the diversity of Europe's landscape, ranging from coastal regions to high alpine areas, including wetlands, drylands, marshes, bogs, heather, pasture, arable land and woodland.

The Spessart GIS and EPCL

In 2000, the staff working for the ASP could be increased. A physical geographer, Jürgen Jung, has joined the team, situated in the research institute for upland regions of the Senckenberg Institute, in the middle of the Spessart, with responsibility for developing the Spessart GIS. This is a powerful tool with a highly structured database collecting information about archaeological sites and monuments, geology, biology, agriculture and forestry, historic documents and maps and so forth. The GIS can combine this data in an unlimited number of ways, producing highly informative maps, allowing the modelling of the cultural landscape in time and even three-dimensional animations. Most importantly, it brings together the data of the whole Spessart region, crossing administrative borders. In its complexity as well as the size of the sample area it is quite unique in Germany.

At the end of 2000, the project team was informed that the bid for 3 years funding as a multi-annual, structured network in the framework of the EU Culture 2000 Programme (Directorate General for Education and Culture) had been successful. With a change of the leading partnership from the city of Aschaffenburg to the commune of Albersdorf, the project proceeded efficiently, with the ASP as organiser. Mr. Harald Rosmanitz M.A. was employed as project co-ordinator, with an office in the city of Lohr in the Spessart. Since then a multilingual Internet platform has been constructed, two general meetings and seminars have been held in Lancaster (England) and Fiero di Primiero (Italy) and four more are planned, a number of staff exchanges have taken place between partner organisations, an exhibition on the sample landscapes has been initiated and exchange and co-operation between the partners has flourished. After the first project year all partners could present extremely positive results at local level, with a lot of fascinating research, GIS work and publicity.

The ASP grew as well in 2001, when Sabine Hoffmann M.A. was employed to develop a local museum in Frammersbach, mainly dedicated to the famous teamsters of Frammersbach, who transported goods from Nuremberg to Antwerp in early modern times. They also serve as a good example of the problems the region experienced in the 19th century, when new technologies left the teamsters with their horse driven carts unemployed, and badly paid home textile production served as a weak economic surrogate (fig.19.3). This is the time when the Spessart was associated with the image of poverty.

But more important still for the development of the ASP was the co-operation within a European network. The tools and strategies of landscape study, GIS mapping and historic landscape characterisation have been discussed vividly, and not uncontroversially, across the network. Different intentions as well as traditions led to very different perspectives, and for all partners there is much to learn and to teach. A number of common points are emerging, as discussion sharpens our view on our own approaches and alters them in many ways.

Historic landscape characterisation and the European discussion

GIS and historic landscape characterisation are the heart of contemporary landscape study and therefore have been the main focus of PCL in its first year. The necessity for a European forum to discuss the aims, goals, methodology and philosophy of historic landscape characterisation and the study of cultural landscapes in general was a starting point for the new European project on cultural landscapes and an important argument in the application – an argument well approved by the EU and the international committee of experts evaluating the applications. It therefore may be quoted here:

> As in many other areas of the human sciences the research of cultural landscapes is facing new challenges. The archaeology of cultural landscapes is still a young discipline, working with new methods and sources. So the experiences with these methods and tools are still very different. The goal of this project is to find common solutions and to foster a better understanding of the different attempts. Primarily we want to define our ideas. We have to ensure that we use a common language and speak about the same things. This will also help to disseminate the interesting results of these studies to a wide public.

Cultural landscapes like the Spessart reflect the cultural diversity of Europe and are an important element of Europe's natural as well as cultural heritage. Like all landscapes selected for this project the Spessart suffers from the image of poverty. This region often is not perceived as a cultural landscape at all. The European project will improve the image

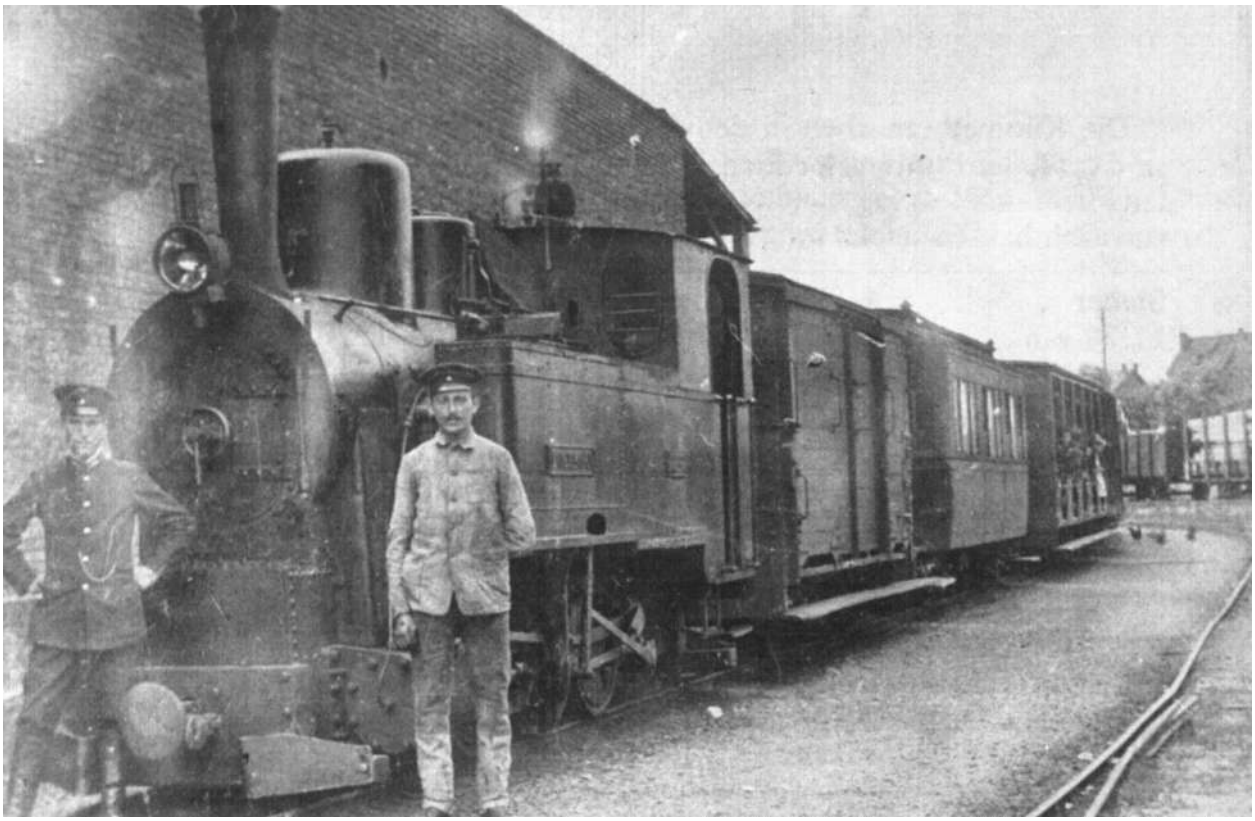

Fig.19.3: Changes in the economic landscape of the Spessart in the 19th century were closely linked to the building of the railway. This picture shows the station at Lochmühle, today the buildings serve as the home of the Research Station of Upland Regions of the Senckenber Institute – the railway no longer exists.

of these landscapes and raise the interest of the local population. The project will also be an important contribution to a more European approach of the cultural landscapes in science. It will advertise simultaneously the European cultural heritage in the selected regions. European co-operation should raise the interest in cultural landscapes in general.

When setting up the application one aim was to involve partners from as many different regions and with as distinct scientific and cultural traditions as possible. Another goal was to involve organisations dealing with the cultural landscape on different levels. This proved particularly important during the project. Seen from a German perspective for example, the Anglo-Irish area seems to be quite monolithic in its scientific tradition and very different from German approaches, especially when talking about archaeology. On the other hand this area seems to be quite closely linked to the Scandinavian region. The discussions between the English and Welsh partners revealed, however, very distinct and different approaches to historic landscape characterisation and the underlying philosophy. Also within the Scandinavian partners quite different approaches became visible. Historic landscape characterisation and the way it is carried out very much depend on the goals formulated, and it is extremely dependent on scale. Scale is more than a mere quantity, but rather it is a factor of quality.

If large-scale historic landscape characterisation is to be carried out, covering complete counties all at once, and in a scheme to characterise a complete country, like England, it has to be restricted to a very basic approach. It is desktop based, working on existing maps and archival material and with little or no field work undertaken in the region concerned. On the other hand a characterisation of a very small area can be based on a variety of sources, including fieldwork and field survey carried out especially for the project. The difference in methodology makes it difficult to compare results. The English partner project in Lancashire, a county where historic landscape characterisation was completed quite recently (see Darlington this volume), is therefore dedicated to a small part of the county. This closer focus will allow characterisation on a much smaller-scale to be carried out in greater detail, so that it can be compared to the county-wide general characterisation, and the possibilities of inter-linking the results can be explored.

Scale is not the only difference between these approaches. The aim of historic landscape characterisation of course is to influence methods as well as results. If the first aim is to produce a tool for future planning decisions, interest will be focused on the actual state of the landscape and its character. If the project is driven by more scientific interests, for example modelling the change of a specific landscape through time and understanding the human impact on landscape change or even climatic change, the

process of shaping the landscape will be much more important. Also the form of the organisation undertaking the research has a significant influence. Bottom up approaches, like the ASP, which have to work with volunteers and get the interest of local politicians as well as private enterprises to find funding, are forced to do their work in close relation to the local population. They have to involve local people in their work and have to interest them in this work. Therefore they are more likely to appreciate the special perspective of local people to their own landscape and how they characterise their landscape, than top down projects, which are undertaken by big research institutes.

These approaches do not necessarily have to be exclusive. In fact there are some common features to any study of cultural landscapes and historic landscape character, which should not be neglected. They always have to start with the actual, modern landscape. Even when predominantly interested in the history of the landscape or the state of the landscape in a specific period, to get down to these vanished landscapes one has to start with the present working landscape. So historic landscape characterisation that is only interested in the character of the present landscape, which is dedicated to future change and future planning decisions, will nevertheless be a perfect starting platform for any research dedicated to past landscapes. A study of a whole landscape must lead to the characterisation of areas, not simply to the mapping of dots and lines, as described earlier. The classical find spots, sites and archaeological/historical features like roads, boundaries, field walls or hedges nevertheless can be a valuable source for characterising the landscape as well as exploring its history. Of course, they are often very subjective sources, as their density, quality or even the time they originate from is highly dependant on the interests and working capacities of researchers past and present. Actual field survey is labour intensive, time consuming and expensive, and therefore in most cases will only be possible in small chosen areas.

The difference between sources and their qualities is one of the greatest obstacles to achieving comparable results. Here modern technique can help to overcome this problem. The most important tool for historic landscape characterisation, for gathering and processing data, is the computer based GIS. Although GIS is a most powerful tool to produce maps, in the first place it is a database system. A highly structured database can be processed in any number of ways. If one respects some basic rules of scientific work, such as clearly stating the sources of specific information, it is easy to produce single source maps, however divers the sources of all data filed may be. Comparability therefore can be achieved very easily.

The full understanding of the potentials of GIS and an open view on historic landscape characterisation, its philosophy and purpose, can be a basis on which very different approaches can meet and different partners can interact. What has been achieved in EPCL so far, and hopefully will continue and grow during the rest of the project, can be a model for future interaction and co-operation. The different approaches can be respected and continue alongside each other, not isolated, but within a network of exchange and communication. A good example for this was the first EPCL staff exchange between the Swedish partner in Bjäre and the English partner in Lancashire. It should help the Swedish partner to overcome some problems when setting up their own GIS system and historic landscape characterisation strategy – and proved to be extremely successful, although the Swedish solution was not a copy of the English approach. Experiences gained in Lancashire helped to formulate their own solution, tailored to their needs and aims.

From historic landscape characterisation to sustainable management

Although the Spessart project started its work with the aim of understanding and describing the history of the cultural landscape of the Spessart area, it became involved in questions of planning, developing and managing the landscape. Initial ideas about fostering cultural tourism developed along with strategies to involve as many local people as possible in the study and communication of the cultural landscape, raising interest by showing economic potentials. Providing solutions for sustainable management became more important during the progress of the project, although the only way to communicate them continued to be by talking to decision-makers and through local forums and seminars. Another reason for this greater involvement in management questions was the success of the cultural paths, laid out originally to give local people access to the archive of their landscape, to make the hidden features of past human activities more visible and perceptible.

The cultural paths created in the Spessart are built in close co-operation with local historical societies, the Spessartbund (a regional rambling society with a large membership), the state heritage management and environment management, local governments, forest directories and many other organisations (fig.19.2). They are dedicated to special themes typical for the chosen region, such as, traffic and transport in Frammersbach, hunting parties of the royal Bavarian court in Bischbrunn or mining in Biebergemünd (fig.19.4). Seven cultural paths are finished and open to the public and a further 30 or so are planned. At present around 12 paths are under construction. For each path a concept of maintaining and communicating the path has been created with local organisations. A training programme for guides has been developed together with relevant institutions such as regional economic societies, tourist organisations and second chance schools.

To raise awareness of the cultural landscapes special events and activities have been organised, such as the 'Kunst-Rasen' (Art-Lawn), a project where artists produced

Fig.19.4: The opening of a cultural path at Biebergemünd, dedicated to the story of mining in the area. The signposts and information boards are all produced in the same layout and information folders and leaflets are available to complement the paths.

works of art in local factories using the materials processed in those enterprises. Art reflected the cultural landscape were exhibited at the royal hunting lodge at Rohrbrunn, the park of Bad Orb, the castle gardens of Aschaffenburg, at the 'days of the region' in Gelnhausen, and some of the objects have been successfully display at local hotels in the region.

It may be typically German, but a great variety of activities organised by the ASP made many colleagues question the project. Some asked, if this was still an archaeological project, or even if there is archaeology in the project at all. Although some excavations and traditional field survey's take place, they are not dominant features in this colourful project. The holistic approach gives preference to no single discipline. Quoting one of the famous fathers of German archaeology, Rudolf Virchow, archaeology is about the history of man through his artefacts and traces of his actions, therefore it includes all human sciences, history, philosophy, anthropology, medicine and all natural sciences alike. Taking this seriously, the ASP is an archaeological project in its bones. Still some traditional funding programmes refused to accept it, on the basis that it includes too many aspects, which are not archaeological or scientific at all.

The strict division between cultural heritage management and environmental/ecological heritage management as well as the strict division between archaeological heritage and built heritage seems to be a German speciality. But although the co-operation between these departments in Lancashire for example looks quite exceptional seen from a German perspective, quite similar problems are well known to many of our partners. The study of cultural landscape has been carried out by architects, landscape architects and others, sometimes under pure ecological aspects and without realising that it was a study of cultural landscapes. Bringing together all these players in the field of cultural landscapes is a considerable task. When undertaken by archaeologists, it is a way to get back to the roots of archaeology. It helps us through all means available to try to understand human beings and their interaction with the environment, just as we used all means to shape the environment to our needs – not always successfully of course, and often with unwanted side effects.

Some of these side effects, such as climatic change, make the study of cultural landscapes and their history so interesting and maybe even vital, well beyond the borders of archaeology. Some partners in the PCL, for example, have been asked if it were possible to calculate models of future developments from the past landscape change models. It might be over-stretching the archaeological evidence – but it brings archaeology into the middle of one of the most important and public discussions of our time.

Conclusion

Historic landscape characterisation can be seen as just another method of managing the cultural heritage, or studying its past. But it has some totally new aspects, which change our archaeological perceptions. It is dealing with whole landscapes in a holistic way, it is multidisciplinary by definition, and it describes the landscape through the way it was used and shaped by human intervention. Most of all, it is always and primarily concerned with the actual landscape, the landscape existing now and today. Unlike many excavations here it is impossible to strip the top layers and go down directly to the 'interesting' historic features. A landscape can only be understood by characterising its present state and then exploring its past step by step. The fixation with dots and lines, traditional archaeological finds and sites must be overcome when studying landscapes. All the space in between is important as well, and in fact of course it is the space in which we have lived and interacted with our environment.

Although historic landscape characterisation can be used in very different ways, and distinct regional scientific and cultural traditions influence the work of scientists, the basic common features are so strong and exciting that they overcome traditional borders and limitations. So historic landscape characterisation and the study of Cultural Landscapes in general can bring archaeology into the 21st century and make it a central human science for the future. There is great potential, but still a long way to go.

European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes

Education and Culture

Culture 2000

20: Examples of current national approaches

Abstract: *Papers 4 to 19 have described a large number of projects and case studies that demonstrated the wide range of approaches among European archaeologists to understanding and managing the landscape's archaeological heritage at both national and trans-national level. In contrast, this paper contributes very short summaries of work that is currently being carried out at national government level in a selection of countries. These include a description of how responsibility is shared between national, regional and local authorities in Switzerland, how an established heritage organisation in Scotland has been able to approach the subject from several related perceptions, working towards an holistic union, how a new national organisation in Portugal is revolutionising archaeological heritage management, and how the Czech Republic is developing its understanding and recording of the archaeological landscape. Two of the papers – Latvia and Portugal – describe how landscape heritage managers are coming to terms in different ways with massive 20th century changes to the landscape.*

I. Switzerland

Cynthia Dunning

Introduction

Switzerland's cultural landscape is very varied and rich though the country itself is small (fig.20.1). The changes that man has inflicted on the landscape for centuries are still perceptible in many ways. The Swiss people are proud of their legacy and respect the cultural landscape, especially considering that it comprises an important economic factor thanks to international tourism. This does not mean that further changes are not expected or even welcome. But they are to be analysed with respect to the existing cultural landscape.

The management of this cultural landscape is the result of the conjoint efforts of the federal, cantonal and local authorities (communes). They all follow the federal law for the protection of nature and heritage, but each authority acts at its own level.

The role of the Confederation

The Federal Office of Culture and the Swiss Federal Office for the Environment, Forests and Landscape advise the other federal offices on questions concerning heritage, archaeology and the protection of the natural and historical landscapes. Both Offices are supervised by a federal commission in which archaeologists and heritage specialists participate. For the Confederation, the priorities in the protection of the Swiss heritage are not directed at single monuments but more at the different cultural landscapes present in all of Switzerland. The Federal Offices support the cantonal authorities with selective subsidies and special advice, co-operate closely where priorities are established and attempt a balance between the different cantons.

The Federal Office for Spatial Planning lays the foundations for development planning on a national level and co-ordinates the efforts of the cantonal authorities. It is a federal decision that the cantons and communes (local authorities) identify areas likely to be subject to restrictions or even to a ban on constructions, in terms of protecting natural or historical landscapes within the Swiss Landscape Concept.

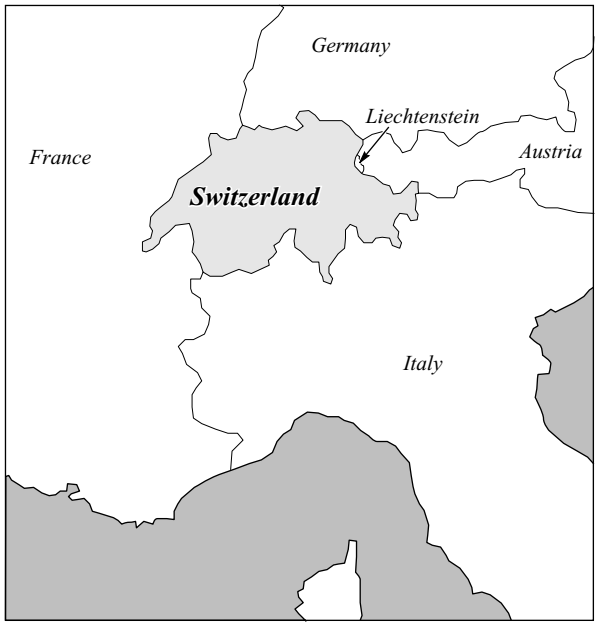

Fig.20.1: Switzerland.

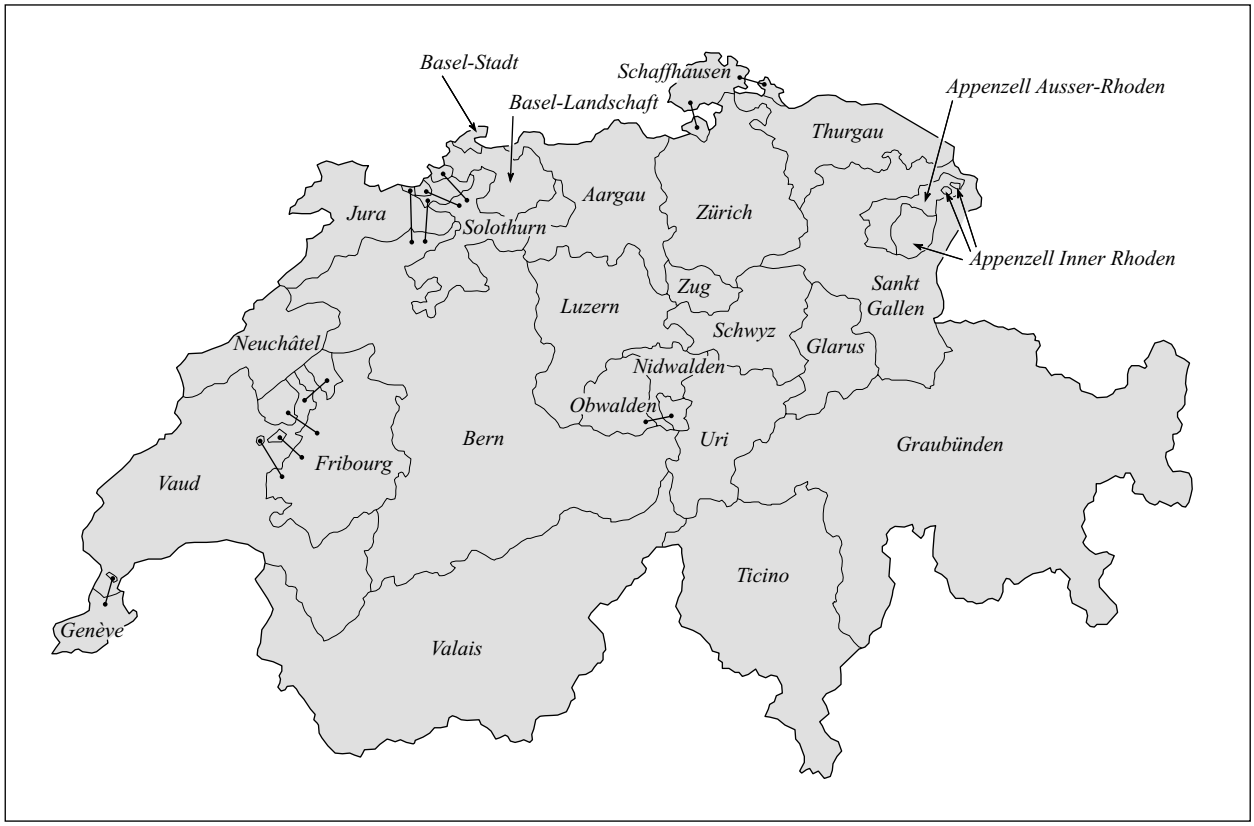

Fig.20.2: Map showing the Swiss cantons. Individual Cantonal Archaeological Services and Heritage Offices ensure the recognition of historic and archaeological features within the landscape.

There is no national inventory of archaeological sites, but some survey programmes exist at a national level:

- The Inventory of Swiss Heritage Sites, a national survey of historically or typologically important built sites,
- The Inventory of Historical Traffic Routes in Switzerland, a survey of all known historical roads and accompanying components worth preserving.

These surveys are important tools for both heritage conservation and development planning. Both are binding instruments for the federal authorities and are at the disposal of the cantons and local authorities.

The role of the cantons

Whilst the Federal Offices lay the foundations for Swiss landscape management, the cantons are responsible for implementation. Each canton is independent in the way it carries out its functions and there are as many landscape management concepts as there are cantonal governments (fig.20.2). Cantonal Archaeological Services and Heritage Offices ensure recognition of sites in the development planning system. One of the most important jobs in the cantonal Services is therefore the creation and constant development of a complete inventory of all archaeological and heritage sites. This inventory ensures that spatial planners are aware of the existing historical and archaeological heritage. The presence of archaeological or heritage sites or landscapes in the cantonal, regional or local development plans only means that the cantonal and local authorities are to be especially careful with these historical landscapes. It does not protect them from destruction. A very close co-operation is also needed with the Planning Offices not only at cantonal level but also with communes.

The role of communes

In most cantons, development planning is the responsibility of the regions and especially the communes (local authorities). The Cantonal Planning Offices and other cantonal authorities, including the Archaeological Services and Heritage Offices deliver the necessary directing plans, documents, laws, inventories, advice and contact with professionals. The control of local planning finally lies in the hands of the cantonal Planning Office.

Even though included in local planning, an archaeological site may be endangered. The interests of politics, economy and cultural heritage must be weighed and a solution is to be found corresponding to the project. This demands discussion, tolerance, acceptance and compromise. Generally, the conditions stipulated by the Archaeological Service are included in the planning permission and must be accepted.

The role of private organisations

Private non-profit organisations also play an important role. When talking about historical landscape protection, two

organisations need to be mentioned. They have a strong lobbying character: The Swiss Landscape Fund works for the conservation and restoration of endangered landscapes, covering their ecological functions and their cultural as well as ecological values.

The Swiss Heritage Society is composed of 25 cantonal chapters who are dedicated to the advancement of the built heritage, but include also the preservation of archaeological sites.

These two organisations are supported by the federal, cantonal and local authorities, but do not hesitate to show where landscapes, and sites and monuments are in danger and react consequently.

The present situation and questions arising from proposed reorganisation

The presence of history and particularly archaeology in the administration of the landscape is very diffuse. This can be criticised since no real presence of archaeological sites appear in real landscape management except where particular regions or cantons have made the effort to include it in the local planning (still too inadequately), and then they are only considered to a small extent compared with the importance of economy and politics. But it also has its advantages, since the discussion with the professional is obligatory at all levels. The control of spatial planning being cantonal, the Archaeological Services are also included in the controlling devices.

Until now, the protection of both natural and historical landscapes was a common duty for the Confederation and for individual cantons. It is now planned, however, to separate the protection of the natural landscapes from the duties of heritage and archaeology. The Federal Office of Culture is to be completely responsible for the archaeological and heritages sites of national importance, leaving the rest of the sites under the responsibility of the cantons. Although the paper has already been submitted to the Swiss Government, this change still has questions unanswered: How can one separate archaeological and heritage sites from the landscape? Who is to decide which site is of national importance? How can certain outstanding sites be protected without supporting less valuable objects situated in protected landscapes? What will the effect of this new organisation be on the cantonal organisation between spatial landscape management and archaeology or heritage? Is the quality of our cultural and historical landscape still guaranteed?

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www.ivs.unibe.ch (The Inventory of Historical Traffic Routes in Switzerland)
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www.heimatschutz.ch (Swiss Heritage Society)
www.jgk.be.ch/agr (Bernese cantonal Spatial Planning Office)

II. Scotland

Lesley Macinnes

Introduction

The landscape of Scotland, like much of Europe's landscape, has been heavily influenced by thousands of years of human activity (fig.20.3). Evidence for this exists almost everywhere, through the survival of individual archaeological and historic features, through designed elements in the landscape, patterns of landuse and associated field boundaries and the nature of vegetation cover. In recent years, a number of major national projects have started to advance knowledge of the landscape's historic and archaeological dimension.

Learning about the landscape

The first of these projects is Historic Landuse Assessment (HLA), a Historic Scotland (HS) and Royal Commission on

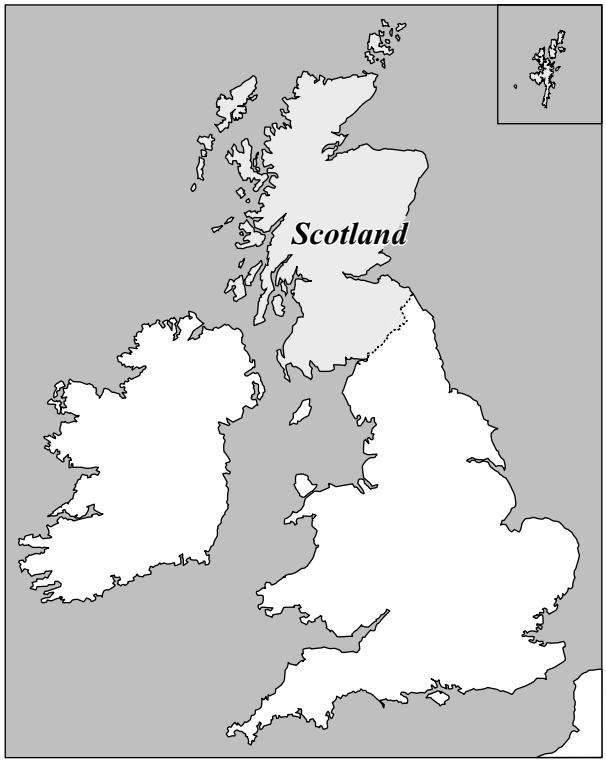

Fig.20.3: Scotland.

the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Scotland (RCAHMS) collaborative project, to map the landuse of Scotland from a historical perspective, showing its functional complexity and date of origin. The project is described elsewhere in this volume (see Dixon & Hingley). It is improving our understanding of the historic development of the modern landscape in order to inform decisions about management and change. About a quarter of the country is already mapped by HLA, and a general pattern it is becoming clear that the modern landscape of Scotland was effectively re-modelled during the agricultural improvements of the 18th and 19th centuries, as new landscapes were designed around stately homes, regular field boundaries were laid-out for more effective agriculture, often with scant regard for topography, and many existing agricultural communities were cleared from the land, particularly in upland parts of the country. Within this general pattern, however, regional variation also exists, showing, for instance, where the new fields were influenced by pre-existing boundaries.

This process of landscape improvement caused a major departure from previous patterns of settlement and landuse. In lowland areas where agriculture was most intensive, many traces of earlier occupation have been lost and now survive mostly in isolated pockets or as cropmarks. In upland areas and marginal land, where clearances took place and farming was more extensive, there is, however, a considerable survival of earlier patterns, prehistoric to pre-modern. Relict landscapes of pre-improvement date can be particularly well preserved, with units of core settlements, agricultural and industrial buildings, fields, cultivation rigs and head-dykes all surviving in the landscape today (fig.20.4 and pl.20.1). This is a wonderfully rich archaeological resource, not just for Scotland, but also in a European context, and gives us an insight into human use of the land immediately before the improvement period, possibly stretching back into the medieval period as well. This Medieval or Later Rural Settlement (MOLRS) is the subject of specific study (Hingley 1993; Atkinson 1995).

In order to understand MOLRS better throughout Scotland, Historic Scotland and RCAHMS have recently collaborated on a project, the First Edition Survey Project (FESP), to map those settlements which were abandoned or ruinous by the time of the first Ordnance Survey mapping of Scotland in the 19th century. This is particularly important for uplands, islands and marginal land, and is helping to improve our understanding of the character of pre-improvement settlement as well as the process of improvement itself. Together with complementary work undertaken by others, particularly on aspects of field systems and landuse (for example, Foster & Smout 1994; Barber 2001; Chrystall unpublished; Guttmann unpublished), this is beginning to give us an understanding of regional variation within the MOLRS resource. This is essential for setting priorities for protection and management.

The cultural landscape established in the 18th and 19th centuries still governs the character of the rural landscape today. In upland areas, the pattern of rough grazing predominates, together with forestry, where the relict prehistoric and MOLRS landscapes mentioned above survive. In the lowland farming areas, the field pattern established during the improvement period is still evident, though in places modified by the amalgamation of fields to accommodate modern agricultural machinery and by an increase in the scale of extractive industries. Farm-steadings and field boundaries still show traces of their origins, however, and evidence for earlier periods survives as specific sites and as cropmarks. It is clear that the modern landscape has considerable time-depth and that its character has been shaped to a large extent by its historic development (RCAHMS and Historic Scotland 2000; 2001).

Other projects are examining related aspects of the cultural landscape across Scotland

The Scottish Burgh Survey (Owen *et al.* 2000) examines the development, historic character and archaeological potential of our urban cores. It shows how the historic development of many towns and villages is still evident in their architecture and streetscapes, and allows informed assessment of their sensitivity to modern demands. Mapping and survey projects are increasing our knowledge of the industrialisation and canalisation of central and lowland Scotland (for example, RCAHMS 1998), of farm buildings (for example, RCAHMS and NMS various dates), and of settlement of the more distant past. In-depth analyses of specific landscape areas, such as in the Clyde Valley, are

Fig.20.4: Relict landscapes of pre-improvement date, particularly well preserved within the present landscape (© RCAHMS Crown Copyright 5C506610).

expanding our knowledge of the historical depth within the landscape. Further work is addressing more specific themes such as military remains, battlefields, designed landscapes, woodland history and wetlands and lochs. Together, this work is offering a more coherent understanding of the historic depth across the landscape of Scotland.

The changing landscape

The landscape has always been subject to change. Major current pressures include afforestation, both agricultural intensification and farm abandonment, urban and rural development and major extractions. The cultural landscape must, of course, continue to accommodate change, but it will do this better if modern decisions are based on an awareness, such as is provided by Historic Landscape Assessment and the Scottish Burgh Survey, of the various aspects of its historic character – landuse and field patterns as well as monuments, streetscapes and architectural building styles – and the impact of change on this.

Legislation for the cultural heritage affords protection to specific features or areas, through the listing of historic buildings and the scheduling of ancient monuments (Breeze 1993; Suddards 1993). The planning system offers additional protection to conservation areas, designed landscapes, unscheduled ancient monuments and the setting of monuments (NPPG 1994; NPPG 1999). Environmental impact assessment is a vitally important process in ensuring that aspects of the cultural landscape are considered when major development is planned and there is some additional protection through strategies for landuse, in particular agri-environment and forestry schemes (Macinnes 1993). Landscape designations can sometimes offer protection to cultural heritage features, and this will form an integral part of the new National Parks in Scotland (the first two National Parks in Scotland are due to be established in 2002 (Loch Lomond and the Trossachs) and 2003 (Cairngorms)). However, at present there is no mechanism specifically aimed at protecting the historic or cultural landscape.

Dedicated, though limited, grants are available for the management of specific cultural heritage features. At the broader scale, cultural landscape considerations are built into agri-environment schemes and forestry provisions, and

should be a feature of management within the National Parks. The implementation of the European Water Framework Directive may provide an opportunity to consider specific aspects of the cultural landscape, while the European Landscape Convention, if ratified in due course, may help us manage the landscape more holistically. In addition, national initiatives, like the proposed development of a soil strategy for Scotland, the development of new management strategies for National Scenic Areas and improvements linked to land reform, should also support the conservation of cultural aspects of the landscape, alongside its natural elements.

The work described in this brief paper is enhancing our appreciation of the time-depth within the Scottish landscape and our understanding of how its character has been influenced by its human history. Historic Landscape Assessment and the Burgh Survey are providing a framework for understanding this character and will form the backbone of future policies for protection and management for the cultural landscape. They will help in assessing priorities for conservation, and they will aid decision-making in planning and land management contexts more generally. Alongside landscape character assessments (Hughes & Buchan 1999), they will inform conservation of the wider landscape. At the same time, they will be helpful in education and in stimulating community interest, as they show how historic character varies in different areas and what gives a particular area its local distinctiveness.

The future offers two immediate challenges. The first will be to implement *Passed to the Future*, Scotland's policy for the sustainable management of its historic environment, (Historic Scotland, forthcoming 2002). This will improve awareness of the historic character of the Scottish landscape and townscape, inform decision-making in all contexts and engage with local communities to a greater extent. The second will be to ensure that the new National Parks become models of good practice of landscape conservation, integrating management of the natural and cultural landscape with continuing development, and promoting interpretation, education and community involvement. Through such initiatives we will gradually move closer to our vision of managing change in a way that enhances rather than diminishes the rich and varied historic qualities of Scotland's cultural landscape.

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III. Portugal

Nuno Vasco Oliveira & Catarina Tente

Portugal: a land of contrasts

A strip of land 850km long and 200km wide along the Atlantic coast of the Iberian Peninsula has been Portugal's territory for seven centuries – a territory that is not large but is one of very great contrasts (fig.20.5). There are contrasts between north and south and between the coast and the interior. The country's rivers have always been natural pathways, and it is relevant that the three case studies in this section are structured around rivers.

The rural country of the 20th century and EU membership

Significant and sustained industrial development only began in Portugal during the second quarter of the 20th century, and the country was predominantly rural until well into that century and becoming mechanised only from the mid 1930s onwards. Agriculture employed most of the population until the early 1960s, mainly organised in small properties in the north and in large estates in the south, but all systems always favoured major landowners, with most of the agricultural population being hired workers and tenants. Various changes during the earlier 20th century – such as those resulting from an afforestation policy – only made the situation harder for those who had few resources.

The first quarter of the 20th century saw large-scale emigration, mostly to the Americas. The flow was interrupted during the years following the 1929 crisis, and during World War II, when movement of people was mainly internal, to the coastal urban centres. As the War ended, however, the largest exodus of the agricultural work force took place, this time with France as the prime destination. All this caused a generalised abandonment of fields.

At the time of the 1974 Revolution, after almost 50 years of economic, political, and cultural isolation caused by a totalitarian and oppressive State, a considerable part of the country lived under truly precarious conditions, with the country lacking much of the infrastructure required to develop. The years between the Revolution and entry into the EC in 1986 were therefore years of democratic consolidation. There were no significant changes in the existing tendencies: progressive abandonment of the agricultural land, internal migration towards coastal urban centres, and rapid and disordered growth of the residential outskirts of those centres.

Accession to the EC in 1986 is the symbolic borderline between the end of a centuries-old agricultural vocation and the beginning of a process of Community investment aimed at providing the country with the means and infrastructure for sustained development. This pushed the country towards the tertiary sector, and the implementation of this model, as we shall see further on, introduced significant changes in the existing cultural landscapes, accompanied by systematic and effective archaeological work.

Discovering the interior: major works and their impact upon the landscape

Landscapes, as we know them today, are the result of a process of human-induced changes throughout the past – indeed, few (if any) of today's landscapes do not result from human action over very long periods. The 20th century, however, saw a particular number of critical episodes of major landscape change.

In the late 1920s and 1930s, in the early years of the Salazar dictatorship (1926–1974) central and (above all) southern Portugal went through a deep landscape transformation. This was mainly as a result of the 'Wheat

Fig.20.5: Portugal.

Campaigns', which between 1929 and 1934 used State funding to encourage increased production of wheat over large areas. Apart from its economic value, this measure was designed to gain political support from the agricultural and industrial sectors, by benefiting the agricultural machinery and fertiliser industry and the major landowners of the south. This measure had major effects because of its scale and its widespread mechanisation.

Initially related to the agricultural policies mentioned above was another constant throughout the 20th century – a concern for creating strategic water reserves. The first hydraulic plans date from the 1930s and the construction of countless dams changed ways of working the land that caused major changes to the landscape. The agricultural reform policies also included the movement of populations from the north towards the less populated south, as well as the subdivision of the large southern estates.

Because of Portugal's political and economic isolation, during this period, the construction of water schemes and other elements of the country's infrastructure were also connected to energy needs. World War II, and the conditions it generated, made the country's dependence on raw materials for the production of energy (such as coal) very clear, as only a third of the energy was produced by hydraulic means, the remainder being from thermal power stations. The post-War industrialisation effort and population growth led to investment in alternative sources of energy. The early large hydroelectric facilities, along with their power lines across the landscape, date from this period.

The plantation of large extents of rapidly growing trees was another of the century's 'new features', in terms of major landscape changes. Between 1938 and 1968, through the Forestation Plan implemented by the regime, some 542,000 acres of forest were created for export, about 97% of which was on public land (unused lands and dunes). Large area forest plantation (mostly pine trees and eucalyptus, with the purpose of supplying the growing paper industry) reached significant levels during the second half of the 20th century. Eucalyptus trees, for instance, occupied less than 0.5% of the Portuguese forest during the late 1920s, and had only reached 3% by the late 1970s; today, they occupy about 33%, or 1.1 million acres, the third in extent after pine (2.6M) and cork oak (1.3M).

The Fruit Incentive Plan caused some 50,000 acres of orchards to be created, mostly in the south, between 1962 and 1971, but otherwise few measures encouraged agricultural production between 1945 and the end of the Dictatorship in 1974. Throughout this period, a continuing rural exodus resulted in the abandonment of cultivated land, reduction in the numbers of cattle, a growth of forested areas, and obvious impacts upon the landscape.

Finally, in terms of the major works that marked the transformation of the landscape throughout the 20th century, we cannot ignore roads. Along with the increasing use of motor vehicles, and due to economic reasons (namely the need to develop the transportation sector), the road network was upgraded and significantly expanded nation-wide through the National Road Plan between 1945 and 1965. Subsequently, the mid 1980s saw the start of the process of building a new network of motorways covering a significant part of the territory.

From the National Archaeology Museum to the creation of the Portuguese Archaeological Institute

Portuguese archaeology has a similar history to other European countries. The 18th and 19t centuries saw sporadic archaeological work, including the founding in 1863 of the Royal Association of the Portuguese Civilian Architects and Archaeologists, the setting up of the forerunner of the National Archaeology Museum (the Portuguese Ethnographic Museum) in 1893, and the appearance of regional archaeological museums, some (such as the Sociedade Martins Sarmento, in Guimarães (northern Portugal), created in 1882) still active today. The first half of the 20th century saw growth and systematisation (such as the creation of a National Monuments Agency in 1929), but major growth came later, particularly (as elsewhere in Europe) in the 1970s and 1980s. This included the creation of numerous societies for the protection of heritage, regional archaeology offices, the beginning of systematic work on a national archaeological inventory and in 1985 a new law on Portuguese Heritage and Portuguese signature of the Valetta Convention (Protection of Archaeological Heritage).

The current system of archaeological heritage management in Portugal is the result of a turning point in 1994 with the controversy around the Côa dam. This led to the autonomy of archaeology from other aspects of the cultural heritage. Since 1980, the Portuguese Institute of Cultural Heritage (IPPC), part of the Department of Culture (from 1992 re-formed as the Portuguese Institute of Architectural and Archaeological Heritage (IPPAAR)), was responsible for all aspects of the heritage. In 1997, however, the Portuguese Archaeological Institute (IPA) was created as the responsible body for archaeology, with the IPPAAR becoming the Portuguese Institute of Architectural Heritage in charge of the architectural and protected heritage.

The IPA has since managed all archaeological activities. Its includes the National Centre for Nautical and Underwater Archaeology (CNANS), the Côa Valley Archaeological Park (PAVC), the National Rock Art Centre (CNART) and the recently established Human Palaeoecology and Archaeosciences Research Centre (CIPA), focussed on multi- and inter-disciplinary research on the evolution of the Portuguese landscape.

The creation of the IPA for the first time allowed for appropriate management of the whole archaeological heritage, including sites not classified as local or national

monuments. This led to the implementation of the Endovélico system (a computerised database, constantly updated), and more systematic participation of archaeologists in Environmental Impact Evaluation under co-ordination from the Ministry of the Environment.

Archaeological work and the Evaluation of Environmental Impacts

Portugal's accession to the EU in 1986 started a new stage in the construction of infrastructures, as EU structural funding and private investment (both national and foreign) became available. The road and motorway network grew in a few years, the main urban centres developed confirming the country's 'tertiary vocation' and the urgent need for a sustained energy policy led to gas pipelines, wind energy parks, small-scale hydro-electric facilities, power lines, and so on. Tourism, another national 'vocation' discovered since 1974, led to the construction of villa and holiday complexes, with significant impacts upon the landscape. Since 1994, the 'Côa effect' has contributed to a growing awareness of how important it is to preserve the memory contained in the archaeological record in the face of major change and development.

Knowing, recording and preserving

This section concludes with three examples of archaeological work at landscape scale. These are good examples of closing-up on Portugal's past (or rather, several different, continuous, 'pasts'), attempting to understand the history of a given territory and its human occupation.

Mértola

The town of Mértola might well represent the typical history of most of the small/medium-sized towns of the interior. Mértola is a fluvial harbour, with easy access to the sea on the lower reaches of the Guadiana River. Occupied since the Roman period, it has enjoyed the privilege of being located near the rich mining area of southern Portugal and supplied the work force for an important neighbouring mine (the São Domingos mine) during the first half of the 20th century as well as for agriculture. Like many other towns of the interior, it saw a significant part of its younger population leave during the second half of the 20th century.

By the late 1970s, Mértola had a reduced and ageing population, employment was scarce and its infrastructure (roads, health, education, and tourism, amongst other) was precarious or non-existent. During this period, a number of investigators started to develop a scientific interest in the territory, which in a few years would lead to the creation of the Mértola Archaeological Camp (CAM). With support from the municipality, CAM has been one of the main agents of the town's rebirth during the last twenty years. It has worked on the historic centre of the town, uncovering, researching, preserving and exhibiting a significant number of monumental structures, aiming at the inventory of the county's archaeological sites and promoting the systematic publication of these and other regional works.

Mértola certainly lacks some infrastructure, but the process of human desertion has apparently stopped. One does not (yet) drive on a motorway all the way to Mértola; there is no golf course nearby, nor any large hotels. The locally adopted development strategy does not include such features. The systematic archaeological work carried out in Mértola over two decades has been a relevant contribution to the knowledge and preservation of the region's cultural landscape, and is viewed as an example of compatibility between preservation and development.

Alqueva

The idea of building the Alqueva dam across the Guadiana River in southern Portugal was raised during the 1950s as part of the Alentejo Water Plan, but the cost/benefit balance caused its postponement until after the Revolution. Works began in 1976, but were abandoned due to the then climate of political, social and economic unrest. The ambitious project was only restarted in 1996, after an environmental impact assessment and the commitment of European Community funding. The dam is now in its final stages of construction, and will soon lead to the formation of an enormous artificial lake of some 250km^2, 35% of which will be on Spanish territory (fig.20.6).

The Guadiana River has always drawn people, and a rich archaeological heritage will be affected by the submersion of so vast an area. Some early archaeological surveys were carried out after 1979, but survey was thereafter episodic until 1994, when the environmental impact study led to a new and continuous archaeological programme, the Heritage and Archaeology Survey of Alqueva, under the leadership of IPPAR and CAM. An archaeological inventory was presented in 1996, under the form of a 'reference frame' for the archaeological heritage. Furthermore, a mitigation strategy was brought forward by the Alqueva's Infrastructure and Development Company (EDIA), which

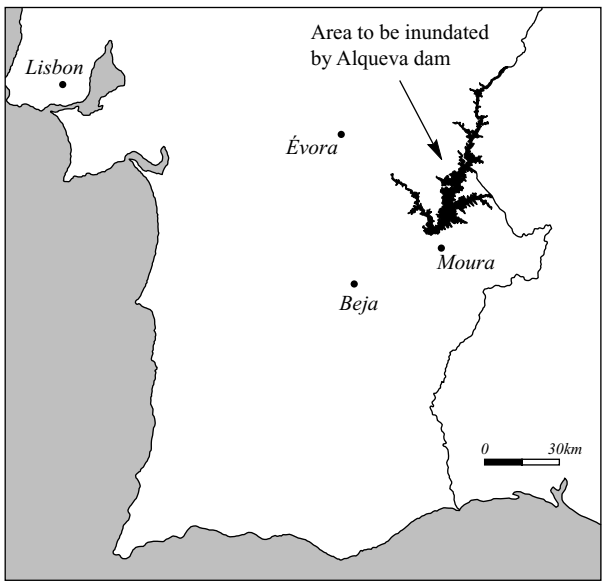

Fig.20.6: Location of the Alqueva Dam project.

had created a department to deal adequately with the archaeological heritage.

The criteria that led to the division among 16 'blocks' of all the salvage archaeology works are related to the study of coherent chronological and spatial units. For the first time in Portugal, an area would be exhaustively studied, and all chronological periods covered. It is expected that data resulting from the still ongoing work may allow for a reconstruction of the area's cultural landscape evolution. Still, this study of a cultural landscape evolution is partial, as it is limited to the areas that are going to be submerged, or affected by the different infrastructures related to the project. It is nevertheless a paradox that it takes the submersion of a landscape to reach an exhaustive and systematic knowledge of the evolution of its landscape. Only a tiny portion of what was brought to light by the Mitigation Plan will be preserved (if we may so name a few isolated upgrading/displacement actions, or attempts to protect some heritage that will remain underwater, like the Castelo da Lousa).

The Côa Valley Archaeological Park (PAVC)

The PAVC was the first of its kind in Portugal. Created in 1996, in the context of a complicated process following a political decision by the new government elected in 1995 not to proceed with a planned dam. During construction, the existence of a very significant set of rock art, mostly dating from the Upper Palaeolithic (fig.20.7) had been made public. This caught public opinion just before the General Election, and caused the main opposition party to focus on the subject during the campaign and to make an election promise to preserve the rock art if they were elected. As just that came about, the promise was kept, and something unparalleled in the history of Portuguese archaeology happened – a unique global heritage was preserved in the face of major national development needs.

The PAVC is currently in charge of managing the archaeological heritage of a territory that extends some 20km along the Côa River, an affluent of the Douro, one of the three largest Portuguese rivers. Vila Nova de Foz Côa, where PAVC's office is located, is also the home of the National Rock Art Centre (CNART), an IPA office.

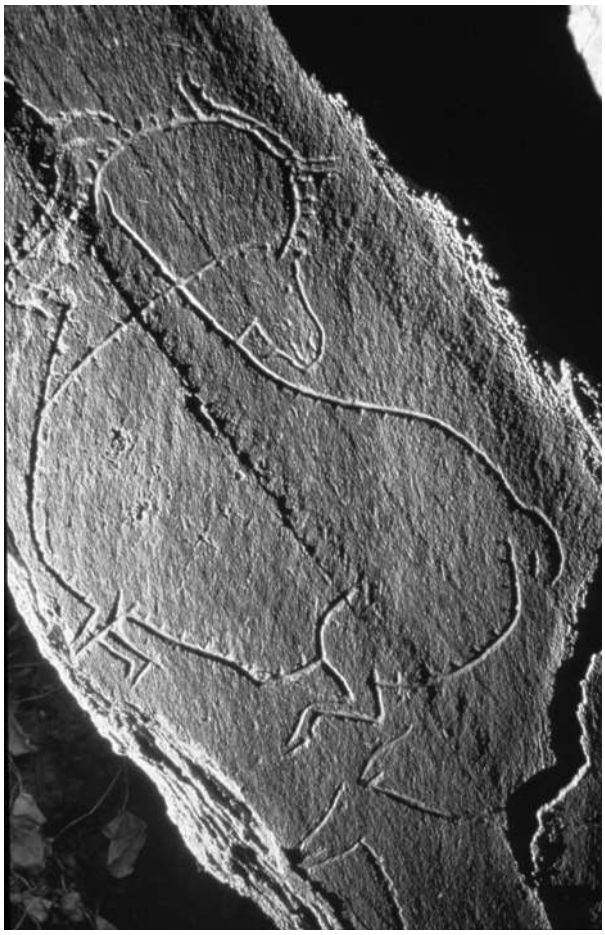

Fig.20.7: Upper Palaeolithic rock art, found within the Côa Valley Archaeological Park.

In a traditionally poor region, where resources are scarce, the part of the population that had not migrated viewed the construction of the dam as an economic opportunity and thus there are still reservations about the creation of the Park. Despite being an exemplar from the point of view of research and preservation, the work carried out during the last five years is not yet very visible, particularly when compared to the 'monumentality' of a dam. Doubts will persist until the adopted development model produces results and justifies the investment. The process will be lengthy, but there seems to be a possibility for the development of an exhaustive landscape archaeology study, in a territory that features a certain unity over a period of more than 100,000 years.

IV. Latvia

Mara Urtane & Juris Urtans

Latvian traditions of protecting and preserving *in situ* archaeological remains and historic buildings are well established (fig.20.8). During the Soviet period from 1940-1991, the protection of nature and landscapes was prominent. However, today landscape research and landscape design are still underdeveloped activities in Latvia, with few archaeologists working in these fields.

There has been some landscape-scale archaeological work, however, including two case studies in the Daugava (Urtane 1996a) and Dienvidselija river-valleys (Urtane 1996b), which examined methodical aspects of description and classification for these two hillfort-dominated landscapes. In addition, during the second half of the 20th century, many archaeological sites were disturbed by development, and prior archaeological excavations allowed the study of large areas of landscape. For example, a large number of sites in the Daugava river valley and in the area of Lubana Lake were investigated (Latvijas PSR arheologija 1974), and the construction of new roads and quarries revealed unknown archaeological sites. Great numbers of archaeological sites are located in areas containing historic features of later periods, mainly monuments of the 16th -19th centuries AD (Urtane 1997).

Regular surveys of archaeological features in the landscapes were carried out by archaeologists from Latvia University and the State Inspection of Cultural Heritage Protection, covering all areas (Ritums & Tora 1996) for example around archaeological excavation sites (Berzins 1998) or specific areas such as the characteristic landscapes of the Stone Age (Loze *et al.* 1998), of medieval castles (Ose 2000) or of hillforts (Urtans 1996). These surveys generally identified new archaeological sites or the condition of known sites, with little attention paid to landscape character, patterns or features. New areas of landscape study have been developed in recent decades. These include aerial survey (fig.20.9) (Urtans 2000), underwater survey (Rains 2000; Urtane 2000), surveys of stone alignments in forest areas (Atgazis 1998) or of traces of field systems, and interdisciplinary studies including geomorphology of rivers (Eberhards 2000; Loze 1998).

There are practically no primeval, untouched natural landscapes in Latvia. The characteristic small-size mosaic pattern of the Latvian landscape was historically formed. Traditional land-uses and methods of agriculture, forestry and fishing have slowly elaborated and enriched landscape elements over the centuries. The basis of the cultural landscape in the countryside is created by a network of manors and the churches related to them. In Soviet and post-communist times, many changes both positive and negative had their impact on the management of cultural recourses, especially at the scale of the landscape. In recent times there has actually been an increasing interest, and research, in such fields as the historic landscape and archaeological landscapes (eg National Environmental Policy Plan for Latvia 1995. The law 'On Protected Cultural Heritage' 1992. The law 'On Particularly Protected Nature Territories' 1993).

One of the main assets of Latvia is its landscape character made up of both natural and man-made features and activities such as farming and forestry (Ramans 1967). To elaborate this characterisation, several pilot projects at district scale were initiated by the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Regional Development in the *pagasts* (local municipalities) of Elksnu, Rites and Saukas (Urtane 1996b) and the district of Kuldigas (Ainavu aizsardziba 2000). These underlined the need for constant working dialogue between spatial planning and environment protection, in which the requirements and desires of local and sub-national populations should be taken into account. The evaluations

Fig.20.8: Latvia.

Fig.20.9: Aerial photograph of the current rural landscape pattern around Piksteres Zilaiskalns hillfort, Latvia. Photo: Juris Urtans.

highlighted the economic and cultural values of the landscapes. State administration and control over the protection and use of cultural monuments in The Republic of Latvia are provided by the Cabinet of Ministers and are carried out by the State Inspection for Cultural Heritage Protection formed in 1989. The Inspection acts according to the law of the Republic 'On Cultural Monuments Protection'. A number of other laws and regulations are relevant, too, such as the regulations for the cultural heritage that are provided by the Council of Ministers, the statute issued by the State Inspection for Heritage Protection ratified by the Cabinet of Ministers on July 25, 1996, and 37 other laws and acts. The Inspection is a specially authorised state controlled institution that provides state control for cultural monuments, with a staff of 117 persons including 32 local district and town cultural heritage inspectors.

Correct solutions and a proper balance for the development of the area require archaeological sites to be included in spatial planning systems when the strategic proposals are first worked out. This process is now initiated in Latvia (Kulturas 1992). The State Inspection for Cultural Heritage Protection 2000 Annual Report also recognised that sound territorial planning, aimed at achieving sustainable development is one of the most impressive tools for preserving the cultural heritage (The State Inspection for Cultural Heritage Protection 2000).

Since 1977, five areas within Latvia have been declared protected landscapes because of their aesthetic and traditional rural cultural values. There are a number of protected cultural and historical territories in Latvia: Libiesu krasts, Turaidas muzejrezervats, Varnu maju Kaleju seta, Abavas ieleja and Daugava valley territory. Unfortunately even during the last few decades some protected values have been lost even in these territories (Melluma 1992). The National Environmental Policy Plan for Latvia (Ministry of Environmental Protection and Regional Development 1995) includes cause-oriented measures for the protection of typical and unique landscapes and of landscape elements:

- development of classification system for ecological and historic landscape elements;
- development of management plans and regulations for protected landscape areas;
- elaboration of the law 'On Regional Development', which should provide for landscape protection and the retention of landscape elements.

During the Soviet period, many traditional landscape structures were destroyed as huge collective farms were formed in rural areas, and towns (especially the Riga agglomeration) grew rapidly. Industrialised society, with its characteristic standardisation, rapidly degraded the historic character of the landscape. The most significant changes were in rural areas, where farmers were detached from their traditional, extended family, and small farms were concentrated into new villages (Ministry of Environmental Protection and Regional Development 1995).

Many international projects are also concerned with landscape preservation in Latvia. *Vision and Strategies Around the Baltic Sea 2010* (VASAB-2010 1994) should contribute towards the creation of networks of valuable natural and cultural landscapes forming a Baltic Belt of Green Corridors, an attractive tourist complex favourable for visitors and permanent residents. Another proposal, *Green Lungs of Europe*, covers an area of *c.*760,000km^2 in seven countries which agreed to an outline concept in 1993. The area includes all the territory of Latvia. Legislative and landuse planning tools will be used to promote the appropriate development of different zones to integrate landscape and nature conservation goals into sustainable forms of productive agriculture, tourist infrastructure, health resorts and ecological zones.

Areas with 18th century land ownership patterns such as palaces, parks or agrarian field and settlement systems may retain prehistoric and other earlier horizons, but the more recent levels are relatively opaque. It is clearly illustrated at Lielvarde palace and park complex with its medieval castle ruins on an ancient Latvian hillfort, settlement and cemeteries; and in Mezotne palace, with its park on both sides of river Lielupe, where two Iron Age hillforts, settlement and cemetery are included in historic parkland. Just as successful countryside management, as in the Gauja National Park, Abava Valley, must be based on the concept of multi-use countryside, so too must historic landscape conservation itself be multi-value.

The concept of historical landscape protection is very well used in Latvia theoretically (in strategic planning, law and various programmes and projects), but in practice understanding and implementation have great problems. Six European Cultural Heritage Days held in Latvia annually since 1995 have significantly changed the attitudes of owners and users of cultural monuments. Participation in the Heritage Days also increases annually.

Since 1993, a successful co-operation has begun between Latvia and the Council of Europe in terms of cultural heritage. Within seven years Latvia has experienced many expert missions, seminars, and conferences. Latvian specialists have taken part in different seminars in European countries. As the result of these activities, cultural heritage policy in Latvia has been greatly developed.

The vulnerability of cultural heritage was studied in the following projects:

- the Abava valley project (1994–1999) designed to work out a new model for the preservation of the cultural historical environments in rural areas and provincial towns. A comprehensive inventory of cultural and historical values was carried out, and a specially protected cultural heritage territory 'The Abava Valley' proclaimed by the law (July 3, 1996).
- the Daugava valley project (1997–1999) worked out a concept for the preservation of historical and cultural environment with the objective of the involvement of the society, and availability of information.

Other recent research activities in Latvia have been devoted to heritage protection: the impact of development on the cultural rural landscape by Aija Ziemelniece; Cultural Heritage in the Latgale region in the context of new development, analysed Inese Sture; Cultural Heritage in cities in relation to planning, examined by Rihards Petersons; problems with the preservation of manor houses and historic landscapes in Daugava valley studied by Janis Zilgalvis; the current situation of cultural landscape management was analysed by Kristine Kalmane; and Mara Urtane presented the situation of the current landscape of archaeological sites.

Landscape architecture students of the Latvia University of Agriculture regularly carry out historic landscape studies. Visual criteria used to assess the historic landscape are related to ecological and economical issues, to periods of history and cultural features to identify approaches for preservation and future landscape development processes (Urtane 1997). In the Zemgale region, the landscape is a large-scale, flat and open arable agriculture landscape with dispersed individual farms and former emparked manors. In the Latgale region, a small-scale mosaic landscape dominates, with natural elements such as mounds, lakes, forest clusters and small individual farms. In Vidzeme and Kurzeme districts, the mosaic landscape of forests and farmland is dominated by larger built elements such as churches and former manor houses. Historic landscape assessment, by identifying and explaining what is characteristic, fundamental or important in each area, can help to guide discussions on future change so that we build on, rather than destroy, existing historic diversity in the environment.

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V. The Czech Republic

Lenka Krušinová

Archaeological cultural landscape in the Czech Republic (fig.20.10) has been a subject of concern from the second half of the 1990s. It has been given attention both through projects focussed on theoretical research mainly in the Institutes of Archaeology of the Czech Academy of Sciences and in central museums, and as applied research in the Institutes for the Protection of Monuments, and in regional museums.

The organisation of archaeology and heritage management in the Czech Republic

Study and protection of the archaeological heritage in the Czech Republic is organised at several levels:

- Institutes of Archaeology of the Czech Academy of Sciences in both Prague and Brno, specialising in theoretical research,
- State Institutes for the Protection of Archaeological Heritage,
- non-governmental civic, commercial and non-profit societies (Archaia Prague, Archaia Brno, ZIP, Archeos),
- departments of the universities,
- archaeological departments in polyfunctionally-profiled specialised organisations (in country, regional, district and city museums)

There has been an increase in the number of field activities during recent years, even though it must be admitted that in some cases the expert quality of research suffers due to their quantity, particularly given, among other reasons, insufficient funding from State and public budgets.

The Republic is presently split into areas administrated by organisations established by regional authorities, whose archaeological departments are equipped in an unbalanced way, with the size of the area covered by each varying from four to thirteen districts. The activities of institutions with archaeological departments have been published since 1995 in annual reports or on the Internet. This growing openness and transparency is contributing to closer co-operation and co-ordination not only of the archaeological rescue activities but also of similarly-oriented research tasks which require a practical utilisation of their results.

Fig.20.10: The Czech Republic.

The Czech Republic has yet to sign the European Landscape Convention, but the Malta Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage was ratified in 2000. Its principles will be integrated into Czech law and practice, where necessary by strengthening administrative and practical aspects for more effective management of archaeological heritage. The basic condition for applying the principles of the Malta convention, however, is the proper identification of the subject to the protection, and recent work on a national database will be briefly described before mentioning some recent landscape-scale projects.

The State Archaeological Registry of the Czech Republic (SAS)

It is obvious from the results of projects both completed and pending that a substantial part of the cultural historical landscape remains unrecognised. The basic collection of data is naturally one of the key preconditions for a more effective protection and scientific evaluation of anthropogenic remains in the landscape. Therefore projects targeted on the establishment of data files focussed on archaeologically monitored and documented projects by the Prague and Brno Institutes at the country scale (Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia), representing key work on cultural landscape research from the prehistoric period to the Middle Ages. The task of collating archaeological findings as the basic precondition for measures for heritage management, protection and rescue at the state scale is being solved at the State Institute for Monument Protection (SUPP) by the long-term programme 'The State Archaeological Registry of the Czech Republic' (SAS).

A concept and technical solution of the problem, based on the needs and capacity of district authorities and the archaeological departments of regional institutions, was developed after looking at similar experience in the past both in the Czech Republic and abroad. Initial financial support from the Embassy of the United Kingdom in the early 1990s enabled the proposed solution to be tested, and encouraged the Ministry of Culture to place this project into the programme of financed research tasks being undertaken by the State Institute for Monument Protection. Within this project, an open information system of archaeological finds in the environment was created using a geographical information systems (GIS). Regional archaeological working stations and most of the district authorities are co-operating in this project (fig.20.11), while it is the SUPP that secures the collection of data and information, and their central and regional management.

For the purpose of establishing and maintaining the open information system SUPP undertook contractual co-operation with organisations that provide archaeological information, which is transferred onto data files and on 1:10,000 map pages. Already 40 institutions are contracted to the project, co-operating with district heritage authorities. The institutions can also use the data provided in the GIS for the solution of specialised questions related to the changes of settlement processes in the cultural landscape.

The SUPP register presently contains approx. 20,000 map areas with archaeological sites and monuments of 67 districts. The digital graphical coverage contains 16,500 records on areas with archaeological findings. The areas processed till Dec. 31st 2001 represent 80% of the Czech Republic and cover a substantial part of the cultural landscape. In the remaining part of the country, where there is more limited archaeological data, SUPP will use previously published information to development awareness of the changes in the structure of the settlement and also to predict archaeological site survival with the help of GIS analysis of the already processed areas.

The government approach to the rescue and protection of archaeological heritage can be evaluated very positively over the last 5 years. Due to the co-operation of district authorities and the use of the SAS, usable data in the field of monument protection is being achieved, while enabling specialised regional data maintenance by organisations, mainly established by district authorities. At the end of 2001, 51 (66%) out of 77 district authorities were carrying out research tasks through co-operation contracts. The district authorities continue to be interested and their existing contractual relationship with SUPP is providing the preconditions for the development of co-operation with the newly established regional authorities (from Jan. 1st 2001) within the framework of devolution that will start to strengthen archaeological heritage management at the regional level.

The technical GIS-linked solution selected to manage the task enabled the processing of 80% of the Czech Republic in a comparatively short time (since 1995). The scale of the processed data enables its use by district authorities and regional archaeologists. It is being used in an agreement between SUPP and the Ministry for Local

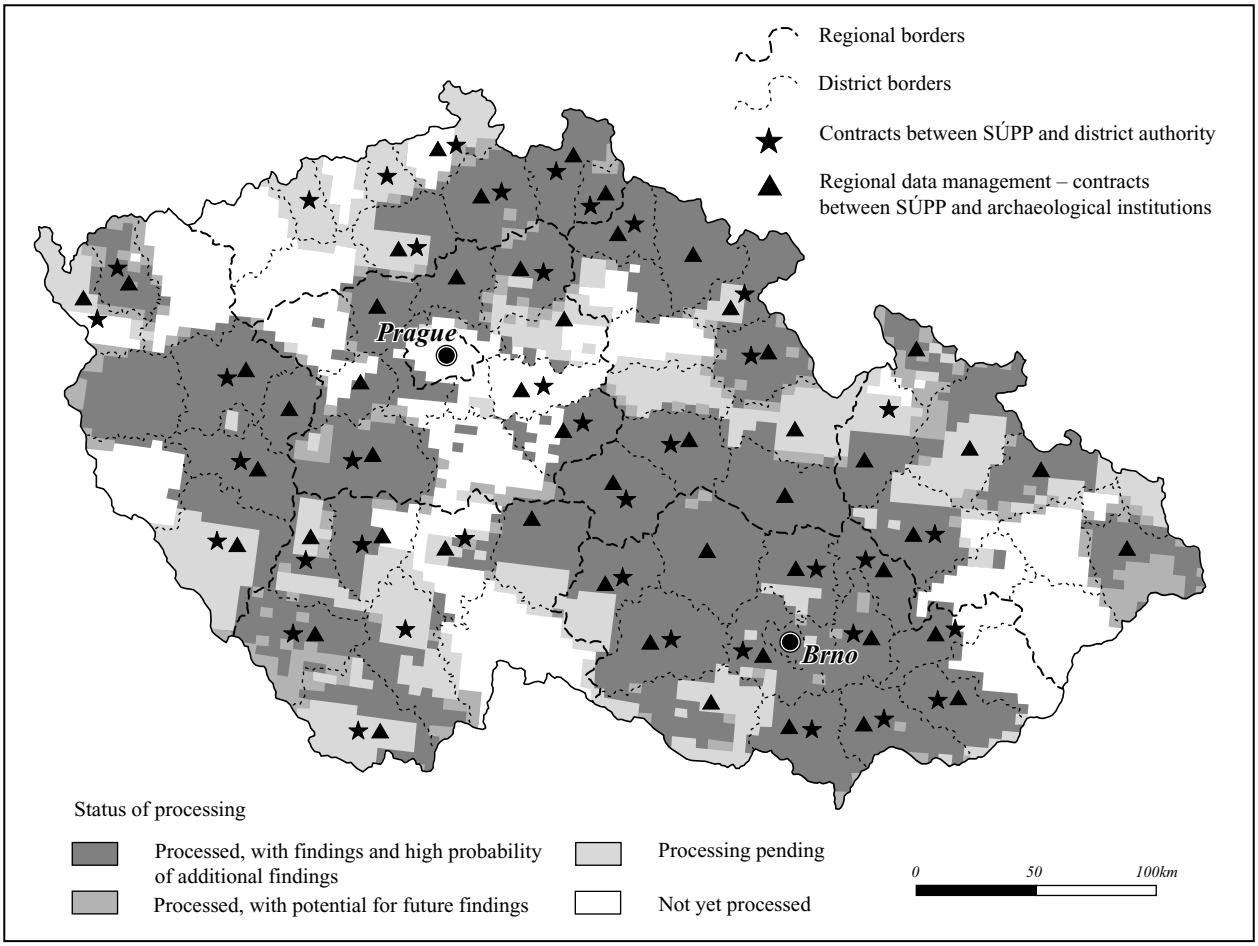

Fig.20.11: Map showing the status of contracts and the processing of archaeological data (as of December 31st 2001) for the official list of archaeological site records in the Czech Republic.

Development as a base for the digital definition of archaeological zones to inform central government territorial planning and regional policy. The system is also being utilised through a contract between SUPP and the Institute for Forest Management (Ministry of Agriculture) to aide the processing of regional forest development plans. A recent contract between SUPP and the Czech Republic-Geofond covers the exchange of data on archaeological zones for data on raw material resources and excavated geological areas. It is intended to expand this type of co-operation with other disciplines, enabling them to use the archaeological information in order to incorporate archaeological interests into their responsibilities.

Landscape-scale projects

Many research projects are beginning to operate at landscape scale, and this paper concludes with a few examples.

A long-term project carried out by the Archaeological Institute of the Academy of Sciences for more than 40 years has been documenting the prehistoric landscape with emphasis on Neolithic settlement within the Bylany micro-region. Since the 1980s, the Archaeological Institute in Prague has focussed its attention on monitoring landscape development by non-destructive methods, such as surface research and aerial prospection in large areas of Bohemia, and is currently designing further landscape research. The projects are focussed on a complex approach towards the study and reconstruction of the prehistoric settlement area from the beginning of agriculture until the beginning of the Middle Ages, analysing the social dimension of cultural landscape. A 30-year project of prehistoric history in Bohemia, to summarise the development of the cultural landscape, has also started under the co-ordination of the Archaeological Institute in Prague. From 2000, the Archaeological Institute is participating together with another nine countries in the international project: 'European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes' with the target focussed on research, monumental protection and opening the European cultural landscape to the public (www.pcl-eu.de, and see Ermischer, Kraut, Nord Paulsson, Darlington this volume). This has started in the micro-region of southern Bohemia and will continue with surface research in the settlement areas close to the Bohemian frontiers.

The territory of Northwest Bohemia is being studied through aerial prospection connected by the Institute for Protection of Monuments of Northwest Bohemia and during

the recent years also in the territory of western Bohemia by the regional museums in Pilsen and Klatovy.

The settlement of the cultural landscape in the prehistoric period in the territory of Moravia and Silesia was subject to a comprehensive publication in the first half of the 1990s. In southern and central Moravia, a long-term aerial prospection, observation and surveying of elevated places is being executed by the Brno Institute for Preservation of Monuments, the Archaeological Institute in Brno, and various museums. In Southeast Moravia, the Brno Archaeological Institute is also examining long-term changes in the settlement of the cultural landscape both from the point of view of archaeology and changes in the natural environment in the early Middle Ages. The settlement of cultural landscape in the Middle Ages is being studied within micro-regions, selected landscape complexes or other single types of monuments.

Projects are being focussed on the relationship between the medieval city and its hinterland, and on the shape and development of castle architecture both in Bohemia and Moravia/Silesia. Within these projects large amounts of archaeological information resulting from long-term research of key historical centres and feudal settlements are being processed. Since the prehistoric period, the characteristic components of settlement is a comparatively dense network related to favourable natural conditions, and long continuity of the prehistoric cultural landscape. Prehistoric settlement occurs at altitudes above 500m above see level and the fortification of exposed locations was more frequent than indicated by former research.

From the point of view of archaeology as a social science, the widest possible source base is needed to manage and preserve areas where archaeological sites have not been recognised either because of unbalanced location of archaeological activities or due to non-systematic approach to the prosecution of landscape. This part of the archaeological heritage is the one which is predominantly endangered in the Czech Republic mainly due to ignorance and disinterest. Works connected to land development (eg pipeline construction, infrastructure development, residential and industrial areas, underground parking in the historical city centres) can be considered a further threat to the cultural landscape. The number of these projects has significantly increased during the 1990s.

A new summary publication related to the medieval landscape, such as medieval historical centres, is under preparation. This will have a significant influence from the point of view of archaeology and protection of archaeological monuments in the Czech Republic. For Prague a map of archaeological sites has been developed during recent years by the Prague Institute for the Protection of Monuments (PUPP) using the results of the project. It uses evidence from archaeologically researched and disturbed locations and will serve the purpose of preserving monuments in the City Monument Reservation and in the area of the UNESCO Area. The management, preservation and protection of archaeological heritage (with greater emphasis to those sites not yet recognised) is only possible through the establishment of good information systems based on the archaeological heritage presently known either in various regional areas or through new micro-region or landscape scale research in other areas.

Acknowledgements

In the later part of this paper, information contributed by Mgr. M. Tomasek from Archaeological Institute of the Prague Academy of Science has been used.

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Part 4

Other ways of perceiving cultural landscape

A modern use for a prehistoric monument; picnic furniture and burial mound, Bjäre Peninsula, Sweden. Photo: Jonas Paulsson.

21: Associative landscape in a Welsh context

David Gwyn

Abstract: *This paper examines the topic of 'associative landscape' and the implications of its relationship with a variety of cultures. It discusses both the emergent and traditional approaches to landscape that have been fostered in Wales, and their bearing upon the way in which archaeologists have recently been asked to undertake the task of mapping associative landscapes. By examining the work of Sir Owen M. Edwards and of Dr Iorwerth Peate, it considers that the emphasis on folk culture led to a narrow definition of Welsh-ness, and by extension to a narrow definition of what matters within the Welsh landscape. It suggests that this cannot be sustained, but that the comparatively strong links between intellectual and popular culture in Wales make possible a study of associative landscape which connects with existing discourses of place, being and belonging.*

Introduction

Over the last few years, discussion of 'associative landscape' has formed part of the process of landscape characterisation. English Heritage acknowledges that 'holistic landscape character encompasses ecology, scenic values, appreciation, perception and associations' (Fairclough 1999). Similarly, the Cadw/ICOMOS *Register of Landscapes of Outstanding Historic Interest in Wales* (Cadw 1998), and the more recent second part of the Register (Cadw 2001), acknowledge cultural associations as an element in the formal process by which Welsh landscapes were evaluated and selected for inclusion (fig.21.1). The following paper sets out to look at the way in which approaches to the 'associative landscape' have been progressed in Wales. In doing so, it hopes also to suggest a way forward.

Terminology

In this paper the phrase 'associative landscape' is used to signify the historic landscape insofar as it articulates or evokes the intangibles of mentality – memory and imagination, belonging and alienation. The associative landscape as so defined is sometimes called 'cultural landscape', a usage which I avoid. The historic landscape is itself a cultural landscape by virtue of being a product of human activity, and the two terms are frequently used interchangeably by archaeologists. 'Associative landscape' avoids this ambiguity.

'Landscape' itself poses serious problems. Archaeologists, like painters and connoisseurs, speak professionally of 'landscape'. Soldiers speak of 'terrain', but most of us find it convenient to speak of 'place' or 'area'. For Samuel Johnson, in the 18th century, 'landscape' was 'a region; the prospect of a country', yet, as his use of the connoisseur's word 'prospect' indicates, 'landscape' had by no means lost its pictorial sense, which it retains in current usage (Barrell 1972 pp.1–2). For archaeologists it has served as a convenient word to imply, not simply a broad tract of land, but something that requires careful and informed attention; a form of academic connoisseurship in fact. Any discussion of 'landscape', whether historical or associative, therefore, necessarily introduces an artistic discourse of both value and form; yet people do not live in a landscape.

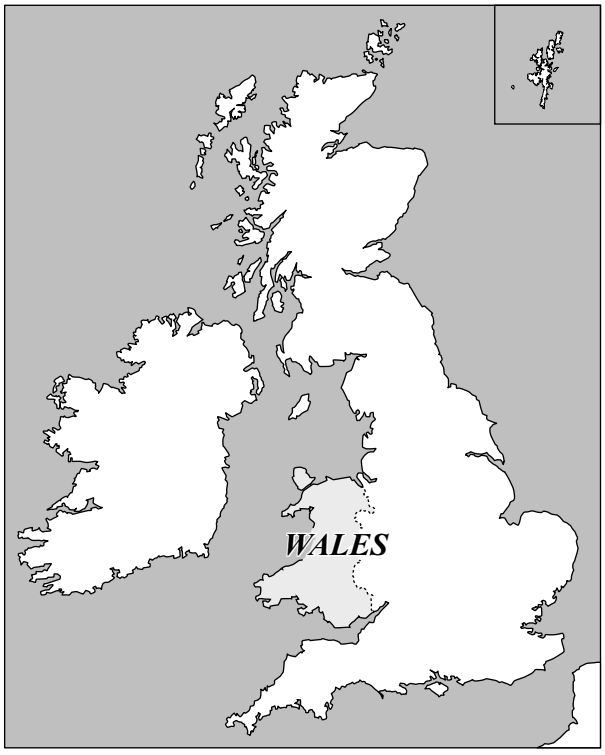

Fig.21.1: Wales.

The study of associative landscape

There appears to be general agreement that the associative landscape deserves acknowledgement by archaeologists, but there seems to be little consensus as to how this might be achieved and what purpose might be served by doing so. There seems no obvious way forward and a number of difficulties appear glaringly obvious.

In the first place, the associations of landscape are deeply subjective. They are defined by our individual experiences, and by the common language of the culture within which we have come to see the world we inhabit. There seems little hope of defining a landscape of cultural association in a way that will command general assent. We may in particular run the risk of failing to do justice to the multi-cultural nature of the British landscape.

Cultural associations are easier to grasp in some places than others, though not necessarily in ways that are particularly helpful or illuminating. Specific places, communities or regions are associated with particular cultural icons, or have themselves become cultural icons. Flatford mill near Ipswich is famous for having inspired Constable; Willie Lott's cottage remains identifiable as the building in *The Hay Wain*, and the visitor may inspect, if he or she wishes, the National Trust exhibition at Bridge Cottage nearby. Stratford-on-Avon is indissolubly associated with William Shakespeare, or at least with the Shakespeare industry; some parts of 16th-century Stratford survive, but a visit to the town will tell you more about the effect Shakespeare has had on his birthplace than about what it was like for him to grow up in Tudor Stratford. A. E. Houseman made his native landscape a metaphor for his own turmoil, and when Elgar set his poems to music it was as if the fusion of art and landscape was complete. But in bidding farewell to the Shropshire lad, we might be making our way to 'Catherine Cookson Country' (formerly known as Tyneside) or even find ourselves at the threshold of the 'Excalibur' pub in Tintagel.

Much more important, is that in the past it has proved fatally easy to define landscapes in a way that seals off the ghetto, or that claims space for one section of the community at the expense of others. We are all conscious of the ways in which symbols are used to claim territory, whether in the state-sanctioned act of planting a flag or in community acts, such as the murals on Belfast gables where King Billy is locked in seemingly eternal conflict with Cúchulain. The monuments to Tsar Lazar at Kosovo Polje have served as a further reminder that medieval battle sites and epic poetry still evokes ancient atavisms all too easily. More sinister still is the conviction that the landscape enshrines innate and immutable essence. For Martin Heidegger, after the collapse of the Third Reich, this was his Black Forest hermitage, where he addressed his uncomprehending neighbours in what he believed to be ancient Alemannic, as he re-trod the path that had already (to paraphrase Simon Schama) led to 'the darkest grove of history' (Schama 1996 p.129).

Not all human cultures which sustain affective bonds for their landscape develop possessive or exclusivist tendencies. Recently, Martin Mulligan of the University of Western Sydney has argued that Australians have a unique chance to make the transition from a consumer society to a 'conserver society' because of the opportunity for dialogue with aboriginal communities. White settlers share the land with a culture that has remained alive to the immediate world in ways which the European tradition has largely, though not entirely, sacrificed to a linguistic and conceptual boundary between human and 'more than human'. He argues that despite the relative paucity of 'whitefella dreaming', settlers also have origin myths reflected through common experience as well as through the work of painters, poets and novelists such as Patrick White, which reach beyond rational and abstracted discourse about 'place' or 'landscape' (Mulligan 2001).

Mulligan's emphasis on what the two traditions in fact share has resonance's for us all. The Aboriginal 'singing up' of the land has its curious echo in the frequent onomastic element in the 11th-century Welsh *Mabinogion* tales. Mochdre in Rhos, now a suburban sprawl of semis and off-licences between Colwyn Bay and Llandudno Junction, is explained as *moch-dref*, meaning the 'township of pigs', from the episode where Gwydion son of Dôn shelters his swine there as he flees from Pryderi, the king of Dyfed. Myths, as Schama observes, have insinuated themselves into the lie of all our lands and landscapes (Schama 1996 p.577). As a child in the Conwy valley in the 1960s I heard stories of how the forests, extensive even now, had once stretched unbroken from the river-mouth to Penmachno and Ysbyty. How evocative then to read in the Mabinogion the Owl of Cwm Cawlwyd telling the heroes on their quest 'When first I came hither, the great valley you see yonder was a wooded glen, and a race of men came thereto and it was laid waste. And the second wood grew up therein, and this wood is the third' (*Mabinogion* 1995 p.104). The theme is time, not landscape or history; yet the deep time of myth can only be expressed through place, through the way in which the woodlands of the Conwy valley have receded and grown.

So 'associative landscape' needs to be a robust concept rather than an etiolated sentiment. It needs to be at one and the same time a sensitive mode of enquiry rather than a territorial claim and rational management aspiration which acknowledges the crucial importance of the counter-rational and the intuited.

The methodological nettle had to be grasped when the Gwynedd Archaeological Trust accepted an invitation to undertake the mapping of associative landscape for the Countryside Council for Wales LANDMAP (Local Authority Decision-Making Process) alongside, but as a

separate element to, characterising the historic landscape of north-west Wales. The methodology, whatever it might be, would have to be applicable not only to our own area of Wales, but to Wales as a whole, and it might well have implications for other national groups and cultural regions.

Methods

It was clear at the outset that GIS could permit the identification of the birthplaces or homes of famous individuals connected with particular areas, of places connected with the composition of poems, prose narratives or songs with local associations, or of the viewpoints of paintings. It also enables cognition of landscape to be mapped.

Gwynedd Archaeological Trust decided, however, that such a method would in fact differ little from the site-based, point-data archaeological approach which historic landscape characterisation had already left behind. It would also fail to do justice to the closeness of the relationship between the historic landscape and the articulation of cultural priorities and choices. If the holistic approach to historic landscape is to encompass 'causality, time-depth, diversity and transparency', (eg Fairclough *et al.* 1999 p.14) then study of the associative landscape must also acknowledge these attributes.

At a practical level Gwynedd Archaeological Trust began the task of appreciating the associative landscape by mapping not only the 'high culture' of language and literature (whether English or Welsh) and of visual art and the academy-trained painters, but also the demotic world of dialect (both Welsh and English), of political affiliations (both historical and emerging), of sport, of work, and of all aspects of the daily round. One pre-condition was that the particular cultural strand should at least survive in common memory because it was felt that events from long ago were only significant to the associative landscape if the association was there to be made.

On this basis, distinct and discrete cultural areas were mapped and a pro-forma recorded existing and emerging cultural strands for each of them. Electoral wards proved a useful starting point, especially as linguistic affiliations are recorded ward by ward. Otherwise, the exercise was necessarily impressionistic, though it was remarkable how often not only was it clear where the boundaries should be drawn, but also that they exactly corresponded to a much earlier frontier, whether between different 19th century estates or a landscape of prosperous yeomen on the one hand, and common land on which cottagers had established their dwellings on the other. Former estate villages have proved attractive to wealthy professionals, who maintain the tradition of a highly ordered landscape. Conversely, coastal towns once saw schooners come and go from the Baltic and Canada maintain lively habits which involve drinking, fisticuffs and promiscuity. Today the harbour might be full of yachts, but their wealthy owners prudently live elsewhere.

All these cultural traditions and identities of whatever sort, were included as objectively as possible for the benefit of the planning process, and with an eye to future analysis of associative landscape in more academic terms. For all the possible weaknesses in the analysis, as perceptions or approaches change over the years, the various blocks are at least identified, and can be changed as needs be, just as the pro-forma can be updated or amended.

Community and place

Nations are 'imagined communities', the consequences of statecraft and administrative convenience. Cultural parallels follow economic links rather than obey formal boundaries, as the pre-eminence of Liverpool, London and Bristol in modern Welsh history testifies. Modern Wales is a diverse cultural unit, owing much to the cultures of the United Kingdom as a whole, yet at the same time possessing a strong sense of its own identity. This is sustained partly by the survival of the Welsh language, spoken by approximately 500,000 of the population of Wales, for many of whom it is the first language of choice. The language is itself sustained by the media, by the educational system and by its official status. It is the first language of local government in a number of Welsh counties. It is also true to say, however, that a strong sense of Welsh identity and distinctiveness is shared by many people who do not speak Welsh. Furthermore, what is true of other holiday areas is also true of much of Wales, that many people who do not spend more than part of the year here also identify strongly with particular Welsh localities and regions.

Such a statement will not commend itself to many people who regard the annual influx of tourists as at best a necessary evil. In addition, recent (2001) debates on the undoubted problems caused by second-home ownership have generated more heat than light. But the choice is a stark one. Either the associations that visitors, holidaymakers, minorities and newcomers create and sustain with landscape are regarded as valid in the same way that the perceptions of people whose families have lived in Wales for generations are regarded, or they are not. If they are not the only approach that remains will have to invoke a mystical affinity between the people of Wales (however defined) and the land (Iwan Bala 1999; Wakelin 2000). It will be clear from the foregoing that we do not consider this an option (see Jordan 1995 for discussion of the development of multi-ethnic communities in Cardiff and their relationship with the host culture).

Mystical affinities aside, the focus of place within a Welsh cultural perception is not essentially to a landscape so much as to a particular area, for which the Welsh word is *bro* (plural *broydd*). The name Cymru itself (the Welsh for Wales) derives from a form *Com-bro-ges*, untranslatable

but implying a federation of local loyalties, and the concept of the bro remains a strong one. Definitions will remain elusive, although in an area of mountain ridges and valleys, topographical boundaries suggest themselves easily, as well as affecting the individual's daily routine. Gwyn A. Williams noted that 'the bro ('les clochers de mon pays') has been and still is as central to a Welsh man or woman as the *patria chica* is to the Spaniard, that other survivor who has had to live in the interstices of mountain, plateau and moor' (Williams 1985 p.4).

However, a bro is also an area whose inhabitants are perceived by themselves and by their neighbours as being essentially a homogenous people with some shared values – essentially an identity as well as a place. The idea of the bro has been sustained in part by the comparatively close links between intellectual culture and the broader community from the late 18th century onwards. The bardic revival of this period often celebrates a particular place, and local *eisteddfod* essays were frequently set on local or parish history. The nonconformist harvest – the expansion of protestant dissenting congregations distinct from the established Anglican church – of the 19th century encouraged mass literacy in the Welsh language before a national educational system could impose even basic familiarity with the English language, much less full literacy; it also ensured that the clergy by and large shared the values of the bulk of the population to whom they ministered. Significantly, the most famous of these men often had the name of their adopted home added to their names – John Elias o Fôn ('John Elias from Anglesey'), John Jones Tal y Sarn – or, as happened to Pantycelyn (William Williams, 1717–91) and Brynsiencyn (John Williams, 1854–1921), were simply known by the name of the place where they ministered. This closeness was maintained thereafter by the grammar schools and the University of Wales drawing their students from within Wales.

This chapel-based culture flourished until the early years of the 20th century and has been in apparently terminal decline ever since. Yet from it, and from its emphasis on education, has emerged the notion of the *gwerin*, the romanticised notion, still evident in Welsh-speaking Wales, of a cohesive and inclusive folk-culture which unites academic and popular culture. This is reflected most clearly in the long-running periodical *Cymru*, and its English-language equivalent *Wales*, both of them edited by Sir Owen M. Edwards (1858–1920), fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. Edwards's intention was to foster, and where it did not exist to create, a literate population steeped in the most genuinely popular aspects of Welsh culture. He did this through essays, poetry, songs, prose fiction and descriptive pieces on what we might now call 'local distinctiveness' – about places and their traditions, styles of vernacular architecture, about the every-day lives of quarrymen and miners. He encouraged the untutored who might otherwise have been reluctant to submit their work and maintained a lively mix over many years.

A more complicated individual was Dr Iorwerth Peate (1901–1982), the first director of the Welsh Folk Museum. A native of Llanbrynmair in mid-Wales and the son of a carpenter, his background became vitally important to him as he sought to come to terms with Welshness. Peate was heir to the radical traditions of his *bro*, embodied in the person of 'S.R.', Samuel Roberts (1800–1885), the Independent minister who campaigned against slavery, the corn laws, militarism, trade unions and the death penalty, and for female suffrage and free trade. He came to believe that the skilled craftsman was vitally important in the culture of the community, deploring the way in which the railways had brought mass-produced goods into rural areas, just as they had brought the English language.

At Aberystwyth, Peate graduated in history though he was uninspired by his Professor, Edward Edwards, 'Tedi Edi', Owen M. Edwards' brother. A far more potent influence was the geographer Henry Fleure. Guernsey-born, and a graduate in zoology of Zurich, Fleure was appointed at Aberystwyth to the Gregynog Chair of Geography and Anthropology in 1917. Fleure had insisted on the addition of 'Anthropology' to the title, as his academic area was the inter-action of humans and environment. He constantly emphasised the role of human will and consciousness and 'the cumulative alternation of man and earth with the unfolding of history', and consistently challenged notions of racial purity – he was later active in anti-Fascist causes. His analysis of physical types identified marked regional differences within Wales, which he insisted were based on cultural contact and mixing (Gruffudd 1994).

Peate's graduate work was carried out under Fleure and reinforced his own sense of local and regional variation. Yet crucially this mattered to him only within the rural environment. For many years Peate continued to argue that only rural Wales contained the immortal essence of the nation, not industrial Wales, still less suburban Wales and that Wales was true to herself only when she acknowledged this. Village halls, so Peate proclaimed, were built that bards might compete for eisteddfodic honours, not that ne'er-do-wells might hunch over billiard tables in smoky gloom. As a young staff member of the National Museum, to which he was appointed in 1927, he concluded that the material aspect of folk culture had been neglected and he determined that the section then known as the 'Welsh Bygones' should be renamed and that it should become the nucleus of a folk museum on the lines of those at Stockholm and Skansen.

A refusal to support the war in 1939 did little to convince some of his colleagues that Peate was a fit man for this task, and unsuccessful attempts were made to remove him. Peate himself came to understand that the *gwerin* was a dangerous concept unless it could be allied to an inclusive

view of the national community, though he never satisfactorily resolved the question of whether industrial Wales, still less English-language Wales, formed part of the 'immortal essence'. Other scholars, such as Professor T. J. Morgan argued for a 'peasant culture' in an industrial context, one which aspired to a higher cultural life through the eisteddfod and the pulpit, a leap which Peate was not prepared to make (Morgan 1972). Peate's enduring legacy is not the redefinition of 'folk culture' so much as its presentation in the Welsh Folk Museum at Saint Ffagan's, established under his direction in 1947 (Owen 1999).

Though the Welsh Folk Museum has since been renamed the Museum of Welsh Life (*Amgueddfa Werin Cymru*) and includes structures from the industrial areas of Wales, the day of the folk museum is now surely past. The imputation that these are 'Welsh bygones' is impossible to dispel in what looks like a rest-home for old buildings. Other aspects of the work of Peate are also now dated, for all their location within what he regarded as a reformist tradition.

Of course, other national groups in the 19th and 20th centuries have struggled between exclusive and inclusive views of nationality. In many ways, Owen Edwards' love for Wales, at once romantic and inclusive, has proved a more durable model, though in a world in which cultural norms are increasingly international, the *gwerin* myth cannot, and should not, be sustained. One reassuring sign within contemporary Wales is the apparent ability of people who live in Wales to sustain two languages and a variety of cultural experiences (Jordan 1995). In the 19th century Mazzini and Kossuth were household names in Wales, and articles on the lines of 'Is Wales a nation?' used to appear with great regularity in the pages of denominational religious and literary magazines. Could Wales assert her own national identity as the Italians and Hungarians had done? The establishment of the Welsh Assembly has focused the question once again, but the old terms are no longer relevant; Wales as a nation may be 'an imagined community' but it is, more importantly, a community of communities. The Welsh emphasis on the local and the particular may become the means by which the associative landscape can be mapped in a way that does justice to the academic community and to the broader community which it serves. It may also provide a way forward for archaeologists, cultural historians and scholars in other disciplines to come to terms with the variety of associative landscape.

Conclusions

The experience of Wales, and of the statutory and voluntary organisations which have contributed to its debate, offers an important perspective on the vexed question of approaches to the associative landscape. Both dynamic and traditional elements in modern Welsh society offer a vigorous and populist perspective on the cultural landscapes which make up the country as a whole. Our approach has sought to acknowledge this diversity, rather than concern itself with arguments as to spiritual ownership or the 'Welsh way of life'.

Discussion of historic landscape and its appropriate management is most often conducted largely as a top-down professional discourse, with debate confined to the variety and type of academic and managerial expertise that should inform this process. The study of associative landscape requires, at the very least, a sensitivity to local perceptions of belonging, as well as a recognition of external factors and perceptions.

There exists in Wales an opportunity for specialist study of associative landscape to connect with existing traditions of place and belonging. Archaeologists need to speak to other cultural historians – art historians, literary critics, academics in other disciplines – as part of the process of understanding associative landscape. But this professional community also needs to co-operate with and facilitate the work of non-specialists (and thereby engage with other discourses of being, place and belonging). In a world where questions of cultural identity can as easily lead to violent nationalism as constructive integration it is our hope that the Welsh approach may prove of wider application throughout Europe.

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22: Cultural connections to the land: a Canadian example

Ellen Lee

Abstract: *The concept of cultural landscapes is widely used today, under a broad range of circumstances, from the very general to the very specific. It is a convenient term for integrating the cultural and natural values of a place and for conveying the wholeness of a place, rather than just the sum of its elements. In order to evaluate and manage cultural landscapes we must find some culturally-appropriate way to understand it. However, some kinds of cultural landscapes can be difficult to define in concrete physical terms because of their intangible cultural values. This paper discusses some of the issues surrounding the identification, evaluation and management of cultural landscapes associated with the history of Aboriginal peoples in Canada, in particular suggesting an approach that integrates the intangible and the tangible, with the cultural with the natural.*

Introduction

In general, in western terms, cultural resources are defined as having a specific physical nature and fall into specific categories, such as buildings and structures, archaeological sites, artefacts, and so forth. These categories are seen as more or less mutually exclusive, primarily in terms of the academic disciplines best suited to study them. However, as a category of cultural resource, the term cultural landscape is not so exclusively defined. It tends to be used to lump rather than to split, to unite rather than divide, and to integrate the cultural with the natural world in a way that other categories of cultural resource do not. The quintessential nature of the use of the term cultural landscape is that its definition and meaning are in the eye of the beholder. The same area of land can therefore be looked upon as several different versions of cultural landscape depending on the cultural or disciplinary filters and values of the person who is doing the looking, even within a group of western scientists with the same cultural background. The meaning of a landscape to a botanist is different than the meaning of the same landscape to a forester, a wildlife biologist, a farmer, a cottage owner, an ornithologist, a miner, an engineer, and so on.

Parks Canada is a Canadian federal government agency, which manages the national historic sites programme and the national parks programme (fig.22.1). In these two programmes places of national significance for their historic/cultural values and/or for their natural values are identified, evaluated, designated, in some cases set aside as protected areas, and presented to the public. Fitting cultural landscapes into this process of identification, evaluation, designation and protection presents some significant challenges.

Two of the challenges we face in this exercise are to:

- develop approaches to identifying, categorising and evaluating the significance of cultural landscapes in an appropriate comparative context while respecting holistic cultural perspectives and values;
- find ways to protect these sites in a context of limited legal mechanisms for protected areas, which often artificially separate natural and cultural values.

Places associated with the history and culture of the Aboriginal peoples of Canada present particular challenges. The Aboriginal peoples of Canada fall into three diverse groups, each with its own complex histories, traditional territories and interrelationships – First Nations, Inuit and *Metis*, (the latter, for those not familiar with the term, refers to the people resulting from intermarriage between First Nations or Inuit people and Canadians of European ancestry, particularly French and Scottish). In a recent report, the Royal Commission on Aboriginal peoples discussed the diversity of Aboriginal peoples in Canada

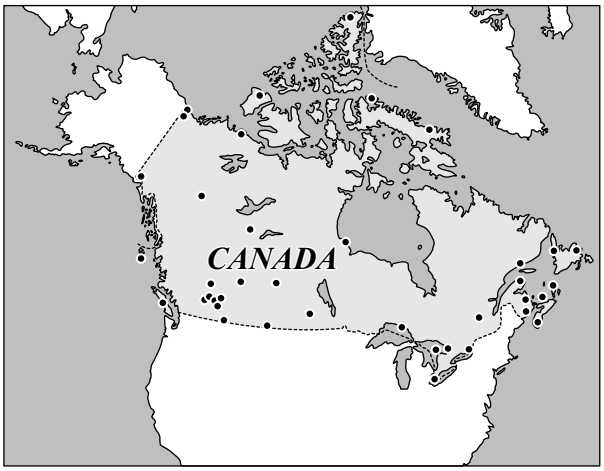

Fig.22.1: Map of Canada showing the location of the National Parks and National Park Reserves of Canada. Parks Canada.

and described them in terms of over 60 language groups (56 First Nations, 4 Inuit and the Metis).

Approaches to identifying, categorising and evaluating Aboriginal cultural landscapes

In order to develop approaches to identifying, categorising and evaluating the significance of Aboriginal cultural landscapes in an appropriate comparative context, while respecting holistic cultural perspectives and values, several steps are required.

Identification

First of all, there is the process of identification – an Aboriginal group looks at its traditional territory and identifies which site(s) it would like to have protected and presented. This identification is based primarily on cultural values, which may or may not be articulated or shared outside the group. This process in itself may be alien to traditional ways of operating. Many elders find it difficult to select specific sites for special consideration – often all the land is considered sacred. Depending on the cultural group, however, this may sometimes be a fairly straightforward process, as traditional villages, hunting, fishing or plant collection sites, seasonal gathering places, landscape features with associative value or places of spiritual power can be identified.

Identifying sites within a cultural group relies on internal or *emic* approaches to describing and categorising the sites within the internal meaning systems of the group. However, once these sites begin to be discussed and examined outside the cultural group with people of other cultures, the places are often given new meanings and names by these outsiders, which are not necessarily congruent with their original meanings and values.

Categorisation or classification

The names that these places acquire then fall into *etic* or external categories or terminology. Even the words used to describe places identified by Aboriginal groups – 'traditional villages, hunting, fishing or plant collection sites, seasonal gathering places, landscape features with associative value or places of spiritual power' – are external words which reflect western anthropological and archaeological training. They are not the words that any given group would necessarily use to describe their specific sites. So when I talk about these sites from my Euro-Canadian, anthropological perspective, I am adding layers or filters of meaning to the sites and obscuring the rich individual values, experiences and stories that are connected to the place by the cultural occupants who gave the place its original meaning.

Evaluation using the concept of cultural landscapes

Once sites have been identified the next step is to evaluate them according to some explicit criteria, which will help to determine their relative significance. This process can be problematic for several reasons. Firstly, what should be the comparative context within which sites should be evaluated? Should a rock art site associated with one language group in a maritime environment on the east coast of Canada be compared and evaluated relative to a rock art site associated with a very different language group in a maritime environment on the west coast of Canada? Should a Caribou hunting site associated with the autumn Caribou hunt of the Inuit in the Kivalliq area of Nunavut be compared and evaluated relative to a Caribou hunting site of the Vuntut Gwich'in in northern Yukon, more than a thousand miles away and associated with a different Aboriginal group with a significantly different history and language?

The important question to address at this point is 'what is the purpose of the comparison?' That should help to determine whether the comparison is appropriate. In this case, the purpose of the comparison is to determine whether the site should be considered of national historic significance. Should sites be compared within site types or categories, and if so, whose categories, or should they be compared within their own cultural context, which is what gives them meaning?

Slotting or pigeon-holing sites within a particular set of themes or types can be problematic, as generally most sites, especially cultural landscapes, have many layers of meaning. Trying to develop site types or categories to use across cultural boundaries is very tricky. We may look at a particular site and say 'from our perspective, that is a fishing site – therefore it will get compared to other fishing sites to determine whether it is of national significance or not'. However, by doing so we make it very difficult to give adequate consideration to the other layers of value that the site may have, which may not be present in the fishing sites from other cultural areas to which we wish to compare it.

The concept of 'National' – political versus cultural definitions

The next question to address, is how to approach the concept of 'national' significance. Western researchers tend to see site designation as a positive, non-political act. However, Aboriginal Canadians do not necessarily see it that way. The term 'First Nations' has been developing as a political concept in Canada over several decades. The history of how the original, independent, sovereign Aboriginal peoples of what is now Canada came to be subject to the laws of the Canadian nation state and part of the geographical entity of Canada continues to be the subject of a considerable amount of study and legal debate. On-going land claim and treaty negotiations and precedent setting legal cases demonstrate that the relationship between Aboriginal peoples and the Canadian government continues to evolve.

The approach we are developing is to do some pilot projects using the concept of the Aboriginal nation as the

comparative context. When a community expresses an interest in having one of their sites considered, Parks staff work with them to prepare a descriptive report on the site using a set of explicit guidelines, which will help in the evaluation process. The report gives the cultural, geographical and historical context of the Aboriginal Nation or group and describes their traditional territory. It positions the specific site as a *cultural landscape*, representing or illustrating important aspects of the larger cultural landscape of the traditional territory of the Nation or group. The concept of Aboriginal cultural landscapes has been further developed through the preparation of *An Approach to Aboriginal Cultural Landscapes* (Buggey 1999a).

> The aim was to provide the Board with a framework that could encompass the traditional values of Aboriginal peoples, including spiritual values, cosmic views of the natural world, and the associative values in the land, while still being understandable to Board members whose world views are typically based in western historical scholarship (Buggey 1999b).

The following definition of Aboriginal cultural landscapes is proposed:

> An Aboriginal cultural landscape is a place valued by an Aboriginal group (or groups) because of their long and complex relationship with that land. It expresses their unity with the natural and spiritual environment. It embodies their traditional knowledge of spirits, places, land uses, and ecology. Material remains of the association may be prominent, but will often be minimal or absent (Buggey 1999a).

Criteria or indicators

The evaluation of a site involves describing both its cultural and natural values. This is where elements related to biodiversity can be identified. Often if resource extraction is one of the main characteristics of the site (a fishing site or a Caribou hunting site, for example), natural elements play an important role in making the place significant for cultural reasons. In one case, a Sahtu Dene elder described a cultural area they want protected in the following way: 'it has everything you need to live (fish, small game, Caribou, etc.)'. Sometimes the site is a place where oral traditions indicate that a particular species of animal originates, through a connection between the underworld and this world. However, in the description of the values of this place, the scientific version of the values in terms of biodiversity is not always described.

The following principles for identifying and evaluating Aboriginal cultural landscapes are proposed:

- The long associated Aboriginal group or groups have participated in the identification of the place and its significance, concur in the selection of the place to commemorate their culture/history and support designation.
- Spiritual, cultural, economic, social and environmental aspects of the group's association with the identified place, including continuity and traditions, illustrate its historical significance.
- The interrelated cultural and natural attributes of the identified place make it a significant cultural landscape.
- The cultural and natural attributes that embody the significance of the place are identified through traditional knowledge of the associated Aboriginal group(s).
- The cultural and natural attributes that embody the significance of the place may be additionally comprehended by the results of academic scholarship (Buggey 1999a).

Some of the evaluation criteria include the following:

- the site's ability to represent the cultural and historical values within the traditional territory and cultural expression of the group;
- the site's ability to express the group's attachment to the land;
- the site's integrity (both cultural and natural);
- the site's importance to cultural survival;
- the site's importance to the understanding of the complexity and diversity of Canadian history;
- he potential public benefit related to the site's protection.

Protection of cultural landscapes

The second major issue is the challenge of finding ways to protect these sites in a context of limited legal mechanisms for protected areas, which often artificially separate natural and cultural values. In Canada, most legislation providing for the establishment of protected areas focuses on natural values. In fact, National Parks are seen by many as wilderness areas, with as little human impact as possible. However, in the last decade or so, partly as a result of the influence of northern Aboriginal groups in the settlement of land claims, this has begun to change and the cultural values of National Parks are beginning to be recognised. However, it is still the case that the identification of areas for consideration of National Parks uses natural criteria identified by Euro-Canadian scientists for determining what areas should be protected. Minor consideration may be given to boundary adjustments to include important archaeological sites, and once the natural area is identified, its cultural values are then determined. However, cultural values are still seen as secondary in this process.

On the other side of the coin, most cultural heritage legislation focuses on the identification and designation

of cultural heritage sites, and is particularly suited to dealing with built heritage such as buildings and archaeological sites. Natural values are rarely considered in the initial identification stages, and then are considered to be secondary only as complementary to or a subset of the cultural values. Most National Parks are large geographic areas. Most cultural heritage sites are small geographic areas. In both cases the legislative and policy process for the establishment and management of these parks and sites reflect this reality. So what happens when we try to identify places with both cultural and natural values, giving their cultural and natural elements equal attention? We get cultural landscapes, some of which are quite large, by traditional historic site standards whose characteristics do not fit very well with the sets of legislative and policy processes and mechanisms for either National Parks or cultural heritage sites.

The figure 22.2 compares and contrasts protected areas, historic sites and cultural landscapes in terms of evaluation criteria, size of geographical area, whether subsurface protection is needed, and whether natural and cultural values are balanced in the management of the area.

These differences can put considerable stress on communities who would like to have their special places recognised and protected from inappropriate development and bureaucrats who are faced with trying to fit park or site proposals into legislative or policy moulds which are not really meant for the purpose at hand. This is made worse in a situation where Aboriginal communities do not have adequate access to land ownership to protect these places themselves. On the other hand, governments who have land management responsibilities have to answer to many constituencies, including the heritage and environmental lobbies, as well as development and industrial sectors whose main interest is resource extraction, such as lumbering and mining or hydroelectric development.

Historic treaties/comprehensive land claims

Aboriginal ownership or control of land in Canada or lack thereof, is at the root of the difficulty here. Historically, the way Aboriginal groups have gained control of specific pieces of land has been through the process of the establishment of reserves created as a result of historic treaties. These reserves generally are very small relative to the original traditional territories of the particular group. Also, in the eastern part of the country, where early 'Peace and Friendship' treaties did not deal with land rights, very little land was reserved for Aboriginal communities. In some historic treaty areas, not all reserves promised have been established. Modern land claim and treaty making deals in large part with how much and which land will become Aboriginal land within the traditional territory of the group or Nation. However, generally speaking, the amount of land that is available for selection is limited, and in the end because of survival needs, the criteria for selection ends up being economic potential, with heritage and environmental concerns receiving minimal consideration.

A recent legal ruling by the Supreme Court of Canada in the Delgamuukw case may have a major impact on the question of Aboriginal land ownership (Supreme Court of Canada 1997). In this case, the court ruled that where it has not been extinguished through treaty, Aboriginal title could co-exist with Crown title. It also indicates that Aboriginal title does not just mean rights to use, but also proprietary rights. The full implications of this decision have yet to be determined, but they could be very significant.

	PROTECTED AREA (eg National Park)	HISTORIC SITES	CULTURAL LANDSCAPES
EVALUATION CRITERIA	Natural values	Cultural or historic values	Cultural and natural values
SIZE OF GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Large geographical areas to protect ecosystems, watersheds	Small geographical areas to protect buildings, building complexes and archaeological sites	Large geographical areas to encompass all values
SUBSURFACE PROTECTION	No protection of subsurface	Statutory protection of subsurface	Subsurface protection may be needed
BALANCE OF NATURAL AND CULTURAL VALUES IN AREA MANAGEMENT	Cultural or historical values secondary	Natural values secondary	Cultural and natural values integrated

Fig.22.2: Comparison of protected areas, historic sites and cultural landscapes.

Fig.22.3: Map of Canada showing the location of areas covered by the Sahtu Dene and Metis Land Claim Agreement.

Fitting heritages places into a protected area strategy – an example from the Canadian North

An interesting exercise is proceeding in the Northwest Territories (NWT) with regard to protected areas. As a result of the environmental assessment process in response to major mining activities in the area, a commitment has been made by government to develop a Protected Area Strategy (PAS) for these areas. Work on this strategy is currently underway, with community consultation being one of the major parts of the exercise. The focus of the exercise from the government perspective is on natural or environmental values, but communities have the potential to add a significant cultural component. Two of the relevant guiding principles are to 'recognise the importance of linkages between Aboriginal peoples and the land, and respect and use traditional and scientific knowledge' (NWT Protected Areas Strategy Advisory Committee 1999).

Fig.22.4: Red Dog Mountain – a sacred mountain in the Sahtu region. Photo: Parks Canada.

At the same time, a working group established by the Sahtu Dene and Metis Land Claim Agreement (for the Sahtu region, an area within the NWT, fig.22.3), has developed a list of heritage places and sites which it has recommended for protection through a range of available mechanisms. This group included three representatives appointed by the Sahtu Secretariat Inc: (the Aboriginal organisation established to implement the land claim on behalf of the Sahtu Dene and Metis) and two representatives appointed by government.

The list of places developed includes a range of types including:

- sacred mountains and other landscape and water features with associated stories (fig.22.4)
- homelands of specific family groupings
- places where specific historic events took place and places of medicine power
- places where supernatural events occurred to create the landscape as it is today
- the place where a supernatural hero killed the giant beaver (which existed in the area at the end of the Pleistocene) to make the area safe for the Dene people
- meeting places where yearly gatherings occurred
- whirlpools
- burial sites
- fishing lakes
- important trails
- water transportation routes.

Some of these places are large, some are small, some are round or globular and some are linear corridors. Some are places to preserve species, some are places to interpret and present history and culture, and some are places where people should not go because of the dangerous power of the place.

The heritage-working group itself has no power to determine how these places will be managed. Its role was to make recommendations to the appropriate government department and to the Sahtu Secretariat Inc. regarding these heritage places and sites. In addition to developing a list of sites and describing their cultural values, the heritage-working group has identified the kind of protective mechanisms, which might be appropriate to manage these sites.

The mechanisms recommended, sometimes alone, sometimes in combination, include:

- National Historic Site
- Transfer to Commissioner's land
- Territorial Historic Park
- Critical Wildlife Area
- Migratory Bird Sanctuary
- Caribou Protection Measures
- Identification for protection under the Archaeological Sites Regulations
- Identification for special consideration by land management authorities

- To be determined after further inventory and evaluation
- Subsurface protection
- Heritage River

Although specific, explicit criteria were not developed by the working group to determine which mechanisms would be the most appropriate for which site, some patterns can be observed in the results. For example, generally sacred sites which have Medicine Power or landforms created by 'supernatural events' have values that are not just manifested on the surface of the land, but have a more three-dimensional expression. For these places, the group recommended subsurface as well as surface protection. Three of these places are very large, averaging roughly 3,000km^2. Obtaining subsurface protection for such places will be very difficult because of the legislation and regulations governing access for mineral extraction.

Discussions between this heritage working group and those working on the protected area strategy may lead to a better integration of cultural values into the protected area strategy. One of the simple ways of integration is to add cultural information to the Geographic Information System used to map the natural/environmental values used by the regional renewable resources staff to manage fish and wildlife resources in the area and to feed information into the land use planning process. This has the potential to be a breakthrough in the integration of cultural and natural values in determining protected area regimes, and hopefully it can be a model for use in other areas.

The challenge to all of this is to bring a variety of interests together to deal with a common, overlapping issue. Sometimes integrating technical information can lead to a change in the perceptions of the users of this information, to broaden their way of looking at the landscape, and recognising that their way of seeing the world is not strictly objective but has cultural filters. Recognising your own cultural filters can sometimes lead to a more enlightened perception of other peoples' cultural values and perspectives, and lead to a more holistic approach to dealing with the environment and landscape.

The Report of the Sahtu Heritage Places and Sites Joint Working Group has been released, and the NWT Protected Areas Strategy has been finalised and approved and is ready for implementation (Rakeké Gok'é Godi 2000). The implementation of these two reports will be the test of the commitment of all parties to move forward and take some creative steps to resolve some of these issues.

Conclusions

Recent initiatives of the World Commission on Protected Areas of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature promote a more integrative approach to the development of protected areas management categories (IUCN World Commission on Protected Areas 1999). One of the purposes of these new approaches is to encourage the involvement of local people in the management of protected areas. In order for this to be effective, the cultural understanding of the landscapes of the protected areas of these local peoples must be integrated into the approach to identifying, evaluating and managing the protected areas. Work that is currently being done in Australia on the development of Indigenous Protected Areas appears to be an innovative approach to integrating natural and cultural values in protected areas (Biodiversity Group, Environment Australia 1998).

Both of these initiatives are encouraging signs that international efforts in the establishment of protected areas are moving to more integrative and creative arrangements. To conclude, I would like to focus on where I think we need to go to begin to resolve some of the challenges that I have identified. First of all, I think we need to further develop the concept of a cultural landscape as a protected area. To do that, we need to work at developing a more holistic approach to integrating natural and cultural values of special places. We need to look at the entire landscape as a whole, and identify the diverse elements within it, rather than just focussing on individual elements or sites. Finally, I think we need to work on developing new legislative or statutory mechanisms, which will meet the needs of protecting a cultural landscape for all of its inherent values. This will go a long way to increasing both the protection of biodiversity and the cultural survival of threatened indigenous groups on this planet.

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Part5

Conclusions

A traditional dry-stone field wall, Northern Ireland (© Crown copyright. Reproduced with permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office).

23: Conclusion: archaeological management of Europe's cultural landscape

Graham Fairclough & Stephen Rippon

Abstract: *The papers contained within this volume have reviewed some of the practices that are current across Europe for understanding, managing and promoting the archaeological and historical dimension of Europe's cultural landscape. This concluding paper brings together some of the common themes of the volume, notably the importance to future action of the European Landscape Convention, and the range of innovative methods and applications that are arising from the emerging technique of historic landscape characterisation. Many of the papers also consider the future of our cultural landscapes, in particular the need for archaeology and historic landscape to be integrated into future agri-environmental schemes and plans for sustainable development.*

The Cultural Landscape and the evolution of archaeology

One aim of this volume has been to see how far the concept of cultural landscape has been adopted within archaeological heritage management across Europe. It has done this specifically in the context of sustainable development, and in the awareness of growing pressure from urban and industrial development, the potential impact of agricultural reform, and socio-economic changes in central and Eastern Europe following the collapse of the Soviet Union. More positively, the European Landscape Convention is pushing landscape to the top of the heritage environmental agenda, and 2002 is a very timely moment to review the current position, and consider the way forward.

The traditional concerns of archaeology have been focussed on 'sites', though from the 1970s there was a growing awareness of the wider landscape within which these 'sites' were just part. Initially, archaeologists focused upon those aspects of the landscape that, like the sites, had gone out of use: they had become 'relict' and part of the archaeological record. However, the cultural landscape of today – the 'historic landscape' – was also created in the past, and as such should be of equal concern to archaeologists. It can be regarded as our 'richest historical record', that contains within it an albeit fragmentary archive of how human communities have shaped, destroyed or created their environment over many hundreds or even thousands of years. It also allows us to begin to reconstruct how our predecessors constituted their 'landscape' as well as their environment – cognitive, perception.

At one level, the distinction between relict and historic landscape is a simple one. In Scotland, for example, a distinction is made between 'historic landuse types' which are still in use, and 'relict land-use types' which are no longer maintained for their original purpose but which have left visible traces on the surface (see Dixon & Hingley this volume). Archaeological sites that are no longer visible on the surface, but which survive as sub-surface features or as scatters of material culture within the plough soil could be regarded as a third category of 'buried' landscapes. In certain instances, however, elements within a relict landscape have been reused, such as the Bronze Age barrows in the Bjäre peninsula (southern Sweden) which have been 'kept alive' and given new meaning by being used as landmarks and incorporated into boundaries within the historic agricultural landscape (see Nord Paulsson this volume).

During the 1990s, the concept of the 'historic landscape' started to be applied by archaeologists to the existing patterns of settlements and buildings, fields and woodland, communication systems etc. This was quite distinct from the other two main ways to study landscape – landscape history, through maps and documents, reconstructing the sequence of changes whether or not its products still have material existence, and landscape assessment, establishing modern society's appreciation of the landscape's beauty, interest and character. Historic landscape characterisation is a means of emphasising to planning authorities and environmental managers two key themes:

- the time-depth that is still contained within the present landscape, existing in material remains such as archaeological sites, heritage etc;
- the significant diversity and regional variation in the local character of the present landscape.

Fairclough *et al.* (this volume) have defined 'historic landscape characterisation' as being 'concerned with

recognising the many ways in which the present countryside reflects how people have exploited and changed their physical environment, and adapted to it through time', and the principles could equally be applied to urban and industrial landscapes (eg Lancashire (UK): see Darlington this volume). There is, however, some diversity in terminology. Within the United Kingdom the term 'historic landscape' is used for the present patterns of settlements, buildings, fields, roads etc in England and Wales (see Fairclough *et al.* and Nord Paulsson this volume), whereas 'historic landuse' is used in Scotland (see Dixon & Hingley this volume). The equivalent term in the Netherlands is the 'historical geography'; the term 'cultural historic landscape' embraces buried archaeology as well (see Hallewas this volume). Still others describe it simply as archaeology or environment or landscape (see Castro *et al.* this volume).

Whatever we call it, there is a desperate need for the profile of the historic dimension of the landscape to be increased, as planning authorities and conservation agencies all to often fail to appreciate that the landscape is of historic as well as aesthetic or environmental interest. This is one reason why the EAC chose 'cultural landscapes' as its theme for the 2001 Symposium (and hence the subject of this volume).

The studies presented in this volume clearly demonstrate the current healthy diversity of approach towards studying and managing the cultural landscape across Europe. As Fairclough (Chapter 1 this volume) has observed, the current work on characterising cultural landscape appears to be mostly occurring in North-West Europe (notably the United Kingdom, The Netherlands, and Scandinavia), while elsewhere attention is focused on the more traditional concerns of relict landscape archaeology. Whether this is actually true, or merely a reflection of the degree of communication between North Western Europe and Eastern and Southern Europe, there are undoubtedly variations in objectives and practices. Ermischer, from the perspective of the European Pathways to Cultural Landscapes network of 10 countries, has reminded us that even under the generic term of 'characterisation' there can be many quite different valid methodologies, some emphasising past landscape and settlement studies more than the present landscape (eg in Ireland, with the Discovery Programme's work on the wetlands of the Irish Midlands). Others focus on today's landscape as a 'monument' in its own right, and many pursue hybrid courses. Differences emerge, too, from the landscapes themselves – 'English' methods of historic landscape characterisation have already proved to need adaptation in Sweden and in Portugal, for example. There are deep cultural differences, too. The emphasis in many Eastern European countries is on archaeology as a predominantly scientific field of research, often still with a much greater role and responsibility from the state than in some western countries. But as Ermischer emphasises, all countries have things to teach and to learn, and it is to be hoped that this volume will facilitate the dissemination of different practices across Europe.

Several chapters in this volume have drawn attention to the future shape of archaeology as a discipline as it becomes more socially embedded through the process of heritage management. Working at the scale of the whole landscape, with its much widened constituencies of interest and its fundamental connection to sustainability, will accelerate the trend.

Ermischer for example has been obliged to counter criticism that the Spessart project is not 'archaeology' because, presumably, it engages with public perception and is cross-disciplinary. Bloemers reports more widespread feelings among some academic archaeologists that archaeological resource management is an inferior brand of archaeology. Yet both have shown how archaeology working at landscape scale is in fact inventing new archaeological approaches, making new roles for archaeologists, creating new knowledge and above all establishing a much wider dialogue between archaeologists and both the general public and decision-makers.

Landscape work does this in part because it brings archaeologists into contact with other disciplines, and encourages us to lay our perspectives and ideas alongside those of other people. It uses archaeologists' ability to understand the deep past (and those parts of the past not revealed to us by documents) as a guide to understanding the future. The Aguas project, Spain, is only one example in this volume of this directly practical application of archaeological research. Others, for example, are the creation of the Czech register of known sites as a prerequisite for landscape management.

Another theme through the volume has been pan European co-operation – the 5 country Pathways to Cultural Landscapes project (see Kraus this volume), its 12 project successor – EPCL – spanning 10 countries (Ermischer this volume), Wadden See collaboration between 3 countries (see Stoumman this volume), the Aguas project bringing together Spanish and British archaeologists, and indeed the collaboration between many countries that has made the volume itself possible. This type of work is spreading experience and ideas very widely, but it has also been delivering many of the objectives of the European Landscape Convention more broadly. This is certainly an area to which EAC members can contribute to and benefit from.

Historic Landscape Characterisation

In a number of regions, techniques have developed that characterise the historic landscape as a whole, and identify significant spatial variation in its form. Both in The Netherlands (see van Beusekom, and Hallewas this volume) and the United Kingdom (see Fairclough *et al.*, Dixon & Hingley, and Darlington this volume) this has entailed a

generalising approach, identifying key character defining features of different landscape types, such as nucleated versus dispersed settlement, or the morphology and character diversity of field patterns or the distribution and character of woodland. No one landscape feature must, however, be treated in isolation, as landscape character results from the complex articulation of a wide range of elements including:

- settlements
- agricultural fields
- other agrarian resources (such as meadow, woodland and common pasture)
- recreation (including landscape parks and gardens)
- non-agrarian resources (including mineral extraction and manufacturing)
- communication systems, including man-made (roads, canals etc) and natural (rivers etc)
- tenurial structures within which landscape exploitation was controlled.

A key feature of the concept of cultural landscape is that the whole landscape – rural, urban and industrial – has historic/cultural dimensions that are important (eg Cleish in Scotland: Dixon & Hingley this volume). The value of cultural landscapes can be thought of in terms of 'the value of the whole is greater than the sum of the individual parts'. It is the contrast between the development of, for example, regions with nucleated villages and open fields, and those with dispersed settlements and enclosed fields, that leads to the diversity of historic landscape character today.

The challenge is to understand how such spatial variations arose. This inevitably entails appreciating the time-depth of both the physical fabric of the landscape, and the social, economic and political context within that landscape evolved. Szpanowski (this volume) has shown, for example, how, within Poland, landscapes of different character evolved in areas of Dutch colonisation, the great aristocratic estates, and the more traditional smaller-scale Polish manors. Such landscapes, created by the higher strata of society, are often highly visible and distinctive, reflecting the power and resources commanded by individuals. It is important, however, to remember that those estates were worked by peasant communities whose contribution to shaping the landscape through agriculture, and to a lesser degree industry, was just as important.

The value of landscape, however, extends beyond its physical fabric to embrace a range of cultural associations. In the Netherlands, for example, a 'landscape element or pattern that is a visual result of, or is related to a remarkable event or moment in Dutch history, or is a metaphase of the Dutch cultural history' will be regarded as of national significance (see van Beusekom this volume). David Gwyn (this volume) has discussed such 'associative landscapes' in Wales, and in particular the significance of place within culture.

In early societies, focal points within a landscape were often natural landmarks, such as rock outcrops (see Coles this volume), hunting sites (eg Lee this volume), or wetlands areas that have a long history of ritual deposition (eg Fenland, UK). One challenge for archaeologists is to inform environmental managers that what they regard as features of great natural beauty may have had a long history of ritual use. Over time, landscape became increasingly handcrafted, and was the result of human endeavour which itself came to assume great cultural importance. The significance of the peat bogs of the Fenland for ritual deposition have long been forgotten, and the major cultural association most people have with the area now is that of Dutch drainage engineers.

In some cases, affinities with monuments from the past have served to aid their preservation, such as in the Bjäre peninsula (southern Sweden) where elders instructed people within their community to respect old graves (see Nord Paulsson this volume). In many areas, the rural community of today retain an emotive feeling for their landscape and such perceptions are important: outside 'experts' should not imposed their potentially pre-conceived ideas on the value of a particular landscape.

Applications of historic landscape characterisation

Historic landscape characterisation can be used in a number of ways to inform the planning process. Darlington (this volume) has outlined some thirteen applications in Lancashire (UK) including input into strategic and management plans, agri-environmental schemes, and impact assessments for proposed developments. In Wales, the Gwent Levels Historic Landscape Study (Rippon 1996a, b) had a profound impact upon the planning process in being largely responsible for moving the line of a proposed motorway (Turner *et al.* 2001, 4). In the Netherlands, the Belvedere policy has influenced the design of urban townscapes and rural reconstruction schemes (see Bloemers this volume).

More fundamentally, perhaps, it provides a consistent background and context for sites and monuments data. As several chapters point out, computerised, map-based records of known sites are the first pre-requisite for archaeological heritage management. Yet on their own they make it difficult for archaeologists to protect and manage the whole landscape. Indeed, they can distract resources and concern away from the big picture of the whole landscape into merely small areas, thus allowing little influence over what happens in the areas in between that make up the major part of historic landscape character. Experience with historic landscape characterisation in England (eg Darlington this volume) underlines its ability to enhance the value of Sites and Monuments Record data by contextualising it, by giving it its place in the landscape and by illuminating the areas and themes of least knowledge (the places where archaeologists have not worked, and the under-studied hedgerows, walls and field patterns that form

the skeleton of the landscape in much of Atlantic Europe, for example).

Historic landscape characterisation is a descriptive process, verging on the subjective – or at least the interpretative – that simply identifies the key character defining features of the entire landscape within the study area. There is no indication of any area being more important than others. This is a very different presumption to that which underpins the protection afforded to other aspects of our cultural heritage that replies upon the principle of selectivity. There have been a number of examples of landscapes being treated in this way (eg Cooney *et al*. this volume), and in the early stages of its preparation the European Landscape Convention had as an objective the identification of certain areas of landscape as being of more important than others (see Chapter 3: Fairclough this volume). This approach has, for example, been followed in the Netherlands, where areas of national importance are distinguished in the 1990 Nature Policy Plan (van Beusekom this volume) and Belvedere Project map produced through combining this 1990 Plan of historical geography with maps of high archaeological potential, and protected towns, villages and estates (see Bloemers and Hallewas this volume).

Several different approaches have been adopted in the United Kingdom. In 1991, the UK Government White Paper *This Common Inheritance* invited English Heritage to prepare a register of landscapes of historic importance, of a similar nature to *its Register of Parks and Gardens of Historic Interest*. As the result of several pilot studies (summarised in Fairclough *et al*. 1999) it was decided that a different approach would be adopted with a county-by-county characterisation of the whole landscape with no differentiation of certain areas as being of more value than others (eg Darlington, and Fairclough *et al*. this volume). Further grading in terms of relative importance would only be undertaken to meet the needs or specific planning or conservation-led enquires.

In Wales, in contrast, Cadw and the Countryside Council for Wales followed the suggestion in *This Common Inheritance* and undertook to produce a register of historic landscapes. Two volumes have been published: the *Register of Landscapes of Outstanding Historic Interest in Wales* (Cadw 1998) and *Register of Landscapes of Special Historic Interest in Wales* (Cadw 1998). Thirty six areas of Wales were identified as outstanding and twenty two as special. Though there was no scoring or differential values added to landscapes within each category, the Welsh landscape has in effect been divided into one of three categories: outstanding, special, or not included in the register. Each area in the first two categories is now being characterised – described in archaeological terms through text and photograph, and it is hoped those areas left out of the Register will be characterised in due course to follow the recommendations of the European Landscape Convention. The register has no statutory weight, but it is designed to inform government, local authorities, planners and others concerned with land management. The attention it has received in a number of planning enquiries shows that it has raised awareness of the importance of historic landscape as a general concept, and the significance of individual parts of the landscape in particular. It is to be hoped that the exclusion of other areas from the Register does not make them more vulnerable to development by being perceived as being unimportant, interesting or even non-historic.

In the 'Gwent Levels Historic Landscape Project', an approach was taken that combined the contrasting approaches of a whole-landscape characterisation, and a limited degree of value-based assessment. The entire study area was characterised, and divided into 21 'character areas'. Each was described in a standard format describing the location, period, components, existing protective designations, condition, documentation and associations, and significance and value (Rippon 1996a; Rippon 1996b). The whole was written in objective terms, and the report demonstrated the historic value of the entire landscape, yet certain areas were clearly of greater significance than others (eg due to their condition, rarity or associations), and this was not hidden, though there was no attempt attribute a numerical score to the importance of each area.

The future

Archaeologists have an important part to play in the future of our cultural landscapes. They bring to the debate an understanding of what happened in the past and how the landscape came to be the way that it is today. This ability to see the long-term view reveals how landscapes are constantly evolving, with change usually occurring very slowly, but with occasional radical reorganisations.

Sustainability and the cultural landscape

It is one thing to understand how a cultural landscape came to be the way that it is, but quite another to successfully manage change within that landscape. The concept of 'sustainable development' came to prominence at the Rio Summit of 1991, but during the 1990s was perceived as a largely ecological/environmental issue. However, over large parts of Europe, the landscape of today is not a 'natural' phenomena, but the result of human endeavour, often on a very large scale. The current appearance of Europe's landscape is largely hand-crafted, and if we are to develop successful means of supporting continued economic growth then we must build upon the successes of the past, and learn from our mistakes. This has been clearly demonstrated in South East Spain (Castro *et al*. this volume), where population decrease always followed periods of environmental degradation through over-exploitation or mismanagement. The current trend towards the intensive production of 'hortalisas' (vegetables or garden produce), frequently under plastic covers, and the environmental damage that it is causing, suggests that we have not learnt from past mistakes.

Farming the cultural landscape

The landscape of Europe remains largely open and rural, and dominated by agriculture. It was, in fact, the changing practice of agriculture that created and then shaped these landscapes over many millennia. The 20th century, however, saw an ever-increasing intensity of agriculture, and growing public discontent at the environmental cost. Within a few decades, landscapes that had taken centuries or even millennia to evolve were swept way by increasing industrial-scale farming: it was not that landscapes were changing that was the problem, but that the scale and extent of change was totally out of keeping with the existing character. A key factor within western Europe was the European Union's 'Common Agricultural Policy', which encouraged over-production whilst failing to acknowledge the environmental and landscape cost. This is soon – probably – to be expanded into Eastern Europe, with predictably major implications for the historic landscape. Whilst CAP reforms, currently being implemented through Agenda 2000, show an increasing environmental awareness, this mainly focuses upon ecological issues, and the case for archaeology and the cultural dimension to landscape needs to be pressed harder.

There are a number of ways that European Union initiatives can help with the protection and management of the cultural landscape. In Chapter 1 Fairclough (this volume) summarised some aspects of the Common Agricultural Policy agri-environmental programme, and Foley (this volume) has shown, using Northern Ireland as an example, how a range of schemes can benefit archaeology and the cultural landscape, such as the Environmentally Sensitive Scheme and Countryside Management Scheme. The farm management plans that are drawn up to encourage more environmentally sensitive farming methods include reference to the historic value (including archaeological sites, buildings, and the wider historic landscape) of the designated areas, while preventing the drainage and ploughing of unimproved areas and the further destruction of field boundaries.

Schemes such as the Environmentally Sensitive Areas are proving to be a success throughout the United Kingdom, though the key to their success is sustainability. Intensive agriculture must be replaced with a viable alternative, though in many cases this may simply be the traditional way in which that landscape was exploited. As Szpanowski (this volume) has noted, 'pasture is the traditional, ecological landuse, recommended by the EU, enabling preservation of the traditional rural landscape and to gain a measurable economic income'. Urtane (this volume) made a similar point about the landscape management of hillforts over the past century. Stoumann (this volume) has similarly asked whether it is in anybody's interest to lose traditional practices, in the case of the Danish coastal marshes a 2,000 year-old tradition of good cattle breeding, in favour of the temporary benefits of cereal growing. There should be no intention to create a museum-landscape but 'sustainable development in accordance with historical traditions and to preserve a way of life, which in the long run may be more in the interests of society than headlong, periodic change'. The key to the success of such schemes is that they support 'living' landscapes; there again, if the human process that created particular types of landscape stops, is it worth managing the result 'artificially'?

Presenting landscape

The use of public funds to preserve cultural landscapes should go hand-in-hand with greater engagement with the public. The European Landscape Convention is founded on this sort of democratisation and it is a key task for archaeologists. The survival of cultural landscapes requires local communities to understand and value their historic environment: if people feel an association with the places in which they live, they will also feel more inclined to manage that landscape in a way that preserves its essential qualities for the future. More than that, as Gwyn (this volume) shows and as the European Landscape Convention assumes and encourages, there are many more perceptions of what landscape means than just the archaeologist's, and they all need to be laid alongside each other if landscape is to play its full role in social life. The European Cultural Paths Project is a good example of engagement with the public (see Kraut, Nord Paulsson, Darlington, and Ermischer this volume). Though focused on an archaeological view of landscape it also attempts to seek out public views of the still living historic landscape for which the evidence is inherently more visible and comprehensible.

Living landscape

Since archaeologists are familiar with long-term change, and understand why the landscape has evolved as it has, they are very well placed to take a leading role in shaping the landscape of tomorrow. Many European countries – the Scandinavian countries for example – all have current national research projects on this theme. The protection of cultural landscapes cannot only be about preventing change. Historic landscapes cannot survive if they are fossilised, as this will remove the very element that makes them so valuable: the processes of gradual change that gave them their present character. There is scope for some change within landscapes to be positive, perhaps for example through restoring field boundaries, replanting woodland, and recreating wetlands, though care must be taken to avoid trying to simply recreating the past if it is not sustainable, and it is perhaps better to regard landscape change as the creation of new layers in the unfolding sequences of landscape.

The key is to balance continuity with change, so that significant features of the landscape are preserved, people are able to continue to identify and celebrate the work of their predecessors, and the landscape as a 'feature' is still reconciled to its use. What we value must be protected by use (and vice versa) and we should pass on the ability to understand the past. Indeed, passing on a landscape that

retains enough historic and archaeological depth for it to be 'read' and studied may ultimately be our main goal, more important than trying to pass on particular things. The control of landscape change in the past has certainly been conscious, whether by farmer or by designer, and to use a conservation and heritage ethos to take conscious decisions about the landscape does not make the resultant landscape change any less 'natural' or any more 'artificial'.

Landscape management will probably involve some degree of subsidy, or at least partnership with government and interest groups. The trend towards agri-environmental schemes should move the emphasis to integrating cultural with natural conservation interests. Cultural landscape is where archaeology, geography, history and anthropology can join together and build links to ecological and artistic/ associative views of the world. One of the challenges for the coming years will be to bring these interests together, because planners, landowners and managers see only a single landscape when they are carrying out their activities, and it is necessary to ensure that their view encompasses archaeology as an integral part of the cultural landscape.

This greater integration of conservation interests must also extend to government. In Denmark, for example, protected archaeological sites and regional planning are the responsibility of the Ministry of the Environment, whereas non-protected archaeology and the museums responsible for their care fall to the Ministry of Culture (Stoumann this volume). In the Netherlands, cultural landscape issues came under the remit of two plans drawn up by the Ministry for Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries (1990: Nature Policy Plan; 1992: Landscape Policy Plan), whereas archaeology and the historic built environment were not considered at the time since they were the concern of the Ministry of Culture (van Beusekom this volume). The Belvedere Memorandum, however, has as its primary objective the integration of cultural historic landscape management onto the agenda of environmental, urban and rural planning (see Bloemers, and Hallewas this volume).

It is particularly difficult to protect and manage landscape character where the activities that created it – notably traditional types of farming and landuse – no longer take place. Is society prepared to create an artificial rural economy, for example continuing to subsidise hill-sheep farming in order to preserve the present appearance of upland landscapes, even though there is no economic demand for the lamb or wool? When do we accept that historic processes have stopped, and recognise that we need to create a new environment with new character? In some parts of Europe (southern France, Spain and Portugal, the western Isles of Scotland, upland England and Wales) the problem of disappearing farming is, or threatens very soon, to change the character of cultural landscape very severely. We can simply accept this, fatalistically, as the continuance of the change that is archaeology's main subject matter, and simply greet 'new' historic landscapes; or we can offer our archaeological understanding to help society create tomorrow's landscape in ways that reflect or grow out of yesterday's.

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24: *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium*

A STRATEGY FOR THE HERITAGE MANAGEMENT OF EUROPE'S LANDSCAPE

Statement of Intent

1. Europe's landscape is quintessentially the product of past human activity and land-use over very long periods of time stretching back to the Mesolithic. It is the result, as the Florence Convention's definition makes clear, of long and complex interaction between humans and nature. The evidence of this history – archaeological sites, the pattern and character of land cover and habitats, hedges, walls, and architecture – is still there to be read in the current landscape. It will not, however, remain visible and comprehensible to our descendants unless it is properly understood by our own generation and unless it is sustainably managed in the face of all the pressures for change and destruction that act upon it. The historic and archaeological dimension of the landscape is a key aspect of landscape's character that needs to be taken into account in landscape protection, management and planning.

2. **The EAC will promote the management of the cultural landscape within all aspects of European and national landscape policy. We will participate in the debate on landscape's promotion and protection that is being championed by the Council of Europe. Because of the special importance of agriculture in shaping the landscape, we will also engage with EU programmes of agri-environmental management of the rural landscape.**

3. **We will work in multi-disciplinary partnership with others concerned with the sustainable management of change as the future landscape is created. Above all, we will encourage the archaeological research and historic characterisation of the landscape that is necessary to ensure that the cultural and archaeological dimension of the landscape is properly understood and taken into account in landscape planning and management decisions.**

Background considerations

4. The importance of the landscape to Europe's common heritage, its important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields, and its contribution to identity, economic activity, and culture is well known and widely recognised. This is indeed the starting point of the *European Landscape Convention*. It is less certain, however, that the historic and archaeological aspects of landscape are as widely recognised, and one of the EAC's aims in sponsoring this book to bring these issues to a wider audience.

5. Although landscape can appear to many as primarily natural, and whilst often it is landscapes closest to nature (so-called wilderness landscapes) that are valued most highly, it is nevertheless clearly demonstrable by archaeology, history, and cultural geography that landscape, as people today perceive it, is essentially cultural. Insofar as human beings can be separated from Nature, the environment that we have inherited in 21st-century Europe is the product of human as much as of natural influence.

6. More importantly, the concept or image of landscape that we create in our minds and hearts out of the raw material of environment is of course entirely the product of cultural and human intervention. This is true whether we are looking at landscape as archaeologists looking for historic processes and social agency, or as ecologists examining biodiversity and habitat distribution, or as landscape architects using systems of aesthetics to evaluate landscape, or as ethnographers studying past ways of life. Indeed, landscape is one of the most inter-disciplinary of subjects: doing justice to its complexity and variety requires an enormous range of approaches and objectives to be brought together in an integrated whole. This is another reason why the EAC is so concerned to ensure that archaeological approaches to landscape are brought fully into the current and future debate about landscape and its sustainable management.

7. Landscape is also one of the most democratic of subjects. The character of the landscape affects everyone, in some way, since we all live in and have memories of landscapes somewhere, of some type. The changes that are made to landscape by new ways of farming or by processes such as urbanisation, industrial growth or infrastructure building such as roads or dams affect everyone in some way. It is therefore very necessary, as the Florence Convention makes abundantly clear, to democratise the processes by which society understands landscapes, evaluates its significance and takes decisions abut its future. Here again it seems necessary that the historic and archaeological depths of landscape play their part, not least because it is very often characteristics deriving from the past (or having historical associations) that consciously or not are the attributes which are most valued by European citizens.

8. Finally, of course, the landscape has a special value to the EAC and its members as one of the primary sources of understanding and knowledge about the past and the nature of the present. When studied in the right way, it can tell us about human origins and history, about the social progress that has led to the present day, and about the environmental and ecological lessons that we can draw from our predecessors' interaction with their environment. In its own right, landscape deserves care and management: protection where that is possible, study before destruction where that is necessary. Landscape can be like a book, one that tells us who we are and how we have arrived at this place that we call the modern world. As archaeologists we regard the landscape as primary historical evidence, to be looked after just as well (to use Florence, appropriately, as a reference) as we might care for the Renaissance villas and churches of Florence or the paintings in the Uffizi.

EAC Strategy

9. The EAC Strategy for the heritage management of Europe's landscape is supported by four precepts:

9.1 That the aims, principles and recommendations of the *European Landscape Convention* (the Florence convention) provide a democratic and comprehensive recognition of the landscape's place in Europe's cultural and economic life. They establish practical and effective ways of promoting the protection, management, and planning of the whole landscape in the light of its important public interest, its contribution to cultural and economic and environmental quality of life, and to the formation of local culture, human well-being, and the European identity (*The European Landscape Convention.*)

9.2 That the landscape itself – at many levels from the personal to the collective – is a construct of multiple values and perceptions, and its management requires an integrated understanding of both the landscape and of the threats and pressures being placed upon it; multi-disciplinary research and management through partnership are indispensable (*Partnership and co-operation*).

9.3 That archaeological approaches (defined here broadly as the study and use of material culture to understand both past and present and in its applied form, as archaeological heritage management, to help shape the future), are an indispensable component of the task of understanding and managing the character of the present-day landscape; archaeology should not be confined to studying landscapes of the past but applied to the management of today's landscape and the planning of tomorrow's (*Applied archaeology*).

9.4 That all those who manage change in the landscape, whether farmers, developers or politicians, and the people and general public for whom it is their living and working environment, should have easy access and if necessary support to use up to date, continuously-developing archaeological understanding of the landscape, generated by synthesis, monitoring of change, and new research (*Research and understanding*).

10. Within this framework, the EAC's aims and actions will follow the following seven inter-linked avenues:

10.1 Working with international networks
10.2 Promoting conservation and management
10.3 Raising and learning from public awareness
10.4 Developing research initiatives
10.5 Encouraging applied research
10.6 Supporting training
10.7 Monitoring change and knowledge

Working with international networks

11. The EAC will work with international organisations and networks, notably:

The Council of Europe

12. The EAC will advise on the implementation and monitoring of the *European Landscape Convention*:

    12.1.1 through CC-PAT (the Council of Europe's Cultural Heritage Committee), in its role of responsibility, alongside CC-DBP (the Committee for the activities of the Council of Europe in the fields of biological and landscape diversity), for monitoring the implementation of the Convention)

    12.1.2 through membership of the annual ELC Signatories' Conference and its linked Ateliers;

12.2 The EAC will promote the adoption of the ELC among its member states;

12.3 The EAC will, where appropriate, encourage nomination for the European Landscape Prize (and when the Convention is in force, the Landscape Award of the Council of Europe) of exemplary policies or measures that protect or manage and/or plan a landscape while taking its archaeological significance fully into account, particularly if through new research.

UNESCO World Heritage Convention

13. UNESCO's World Heritage Site criteria for identifying 'cultural landscapes' of global significance were among the first to recognise the need to integrate the natural and cultural attributes of landscapes.

14. The EAC will seek to establish common ground with UNESCO in relation to the nomination of World Heritage cultural landscapes in Europe.

European Union

15. The EU's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) has been one of the main agents of change in the rural landscape of Western Europe for the past few decades. Through its emerging Rural Development and Agri-Environmental programmes it is likely to become one of the principal agents of heritage management, both in the West and following enlargement, the East.

16. The EAC will seek to enter into policy dialogue with the European Commission's Agriculture Directorate-General to ensure that the Common Agricultural Policy respects the public and scientific importance of the cultural landscape.

Promoting conservation and management

17. The *European Landscape Convention* (article 5) sets down four specific mechanisms for meeting its aim of promoting landscape protection, management and planning, and for organising European co-operation. These are:

    17.1 legal recognition of landscape
    17.2 policies for landscape protection, management, and planning
    17.3 procedures for public and local authority participation
    17.4 integration of landscape into spatial planning, environmental, and agricultural policies

18. The EAC will encourage adoption of these measures by its member countries, particularly:

18.1 recognition in law of the archaeological and historic character of landscape, which in our view is a particularly important but often under-regarded aspect of landscape's contribution to Europe's common cultural heritage and to personal, local, national and European identity;

18.2 implementation of appropriate landscape policies (in accord with existing national approaches and laws and especially with regard to spatial planning and agri-environmental policies) for sustainable protection, management, and planning that fully and appropriately take account of historic landscape character when taking decisions about changing or using the landscape.

Raising and learning from public awareness

19. One of the principal values of landscape, alongside its value as direct evidence for the development of human society, is that it belongs to everyone. It is truly common heritage, whether we are talking about the places where people live or work, or places perhaps where they were born but have left, or where they take holidays, or even places which they never visit but whose known existence enriches their lives. Everyone carries landscape in their hearts and their minds, fuelling a sense of identity and feelings of belonging, supporting personal memories and nurturing hopes and ambitions.

Everyone too makes their 'landscape' through their own perceptions, and the place of historic character and archaeology in these landscapes is central and assured. The combination of peoples' perceptions of landscape with expert views such as those of archaeologists, as the Florence Convention implicitly recognises, will be a very powerful influence on how the landscape looks in the future and on what we pass on to future generations.

20. The EAC will seek ways to bring an appreciation of the archaeological and historic character of landscape to a broad, preferably local, public audience. In doing this, we will seek to make the dissemination of understanding a two-way process, using it to learn about peoples' own perceptions of landscape character and significance, and to create a new integrated appreciation.

Developing research initiatives

21. Despite all the work reported in this book, and the century and more of landscape-scale archaeological research to which all European countries can point, our archaeological understanding of Europe's cultural landscape is still inadequate to the task of achieving sustainable management. Our knowledge needs to be continually increased, both within countries and perhaps more significantly at trans-national level, learning from each countries' experience and skills, comparing our very different but still distinctively European landscapes.

22. The new research that is required is not merely a case of recognising how little we really know about long-studied landscapes of the prehistoric period for example, but also about archaeological research into historic periods, whose landscapes are not, contrary to some public perception, fully revealed by historic documents. Equally there are new landscapes – of the twentieth century – which perhaps archaeology is better placed to study than history because their proximity to our times makes it difficult for us to see through the biases built into historical records. Finally, there is the newer philosophy of studying, or 'characterising', the present day landscape as if it were a monument in it right – tracing its history in its material remains, and unravelling its time depth. All this needs continuing research targeted as much on heritage management as on academic understanding; applied archaeology in fact.

23. The EAC will encourage European archaeologists to carry out landscape-scale projects of archaeology of all periods, with sufficient emphasis on the recent stages of landscape history that are so central to modern landscape character. We will also promote the use of various types of *historic landscape characterisation* to understand the present day landscape's archaeological dimension to facilitate its sustainable management.

24. The EAC will also encourage its members to develop proposals for trans-European programmes to exchange expertise and develop an understanding of the European character of the landscape. Such programmes will study and understand cultural landscapes, promote greater and wider public awareness, and study the effects of policy on the appearance and fabric of the landscape.

25. These programmes will be designed to operate in partnership with existing Cultural Landscape networks (for example EPCL, LANCEWAD) and national landscape programmes such as England's historic landscape characterisation or Norway's NIKU/NIBR Threatened Landscapes project, and in integration with parallel work on the natural dimension of landscape.

For example:

25.1 Develop the work of the present volume to explore the ways in which EAC members currently frame and implement landscape policies.
25.3 Devote a future EAC Annual Symposium and Occasional Paper to the effects of the CAP on the landscape's archaeology and historic character.
25.3 Take stock of the state of current understanding and ongoing research across Europe of archaeology at landscape scale.
25.4 Encouraging the carrying out, by appropriate methods, of historic characterisation of the landscape of EAC member countries.
25.5 Encourage national programmes, with the active participation of other interested parties, to improve knowledge of landscape, by analysing its characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming it, and by taking note of changes.

Encouraging applied research

26. Studying the present-day landscape as a monument in its own right will bring archaeological research into the mainstream of European environmental, sustainable development, and spatial planning policies. High level documents such as the European Spatial Development Perspective, the Helsinki accord, and the EU's sustainable development strategy all create opportunities for the application of archaeological research to spatial planning and development control, to economic development, and to the management of the landscape. It is not possible to create a *sustainable* use of an environment which has been created by centuries of human modification whilst being ignorant of its history; that is, without understanding the long sequence of change, without knowing precisely why the landscape looks like it does.

27. The EAC will promote the application of archaeology to management and planning, notably in all fields of decision-making, always in conjunction with spatial planning in the framework of sustainability and the management of change, and wherever practical in collaboration with the other constituencies that are striving to achieve sustainable development.

Supporting training

28. There are large numbers of archaeologists in most parts of Europe engaged in the archaeology of landscape, but despite growing interest, still too few are engaged with the archaeology of the present day landscape or of its management.

29. The EAC will encourage archaeologists throughout Europe to add to their traditional concerns with past landscapes, settlement studies, and excavation and landscape survey an interest in the understanding of the present day landscape from an archaeological perspective. We will encourage throughout Europe the archaeological study of the landscape as a monument in its own right, recognising the archaeological significance of all landscape features of all dates and type.

30. Where appropriate, EAC will help to establish trans-national exchanges of information, conferences, training, of both landscape characterisation and its management and planning.

Monitoring change and knowledge

31. Knowledge is a pre-requisite for sustainability: knowledge both of the environment itself, or rather in the present context of the historic and archaeological dimension of the landscape, and knowledge of the pressures for change that affect it, and of how it is being changed and in what direction and at what speed. The processes mentioned above will create some of that knowledge. As well as this research to generate new understanding, there is also a need for research at European level into what we know and where the gaps in our knowledge lie: a sort of continual stocktaking of understanding. We also need research – monitoring – into what is happening to the landscape. What new landscapes are being created, and what is being lost in the process? How successful are we at protecting particularly important aspects of landscape? Are we exploiting change to learn about the landscape as whole? This work needs to be carried out at national and regional level but also at pan-European level.

32. The EAC will seek partners and support in the EU to work towards the establishment of a formal Pan-European Cultural Landscape Observatory to promote the study and management of the historic and archaeological aspects of landscape and to monitor both landscape change and the growth of understanding.

33. We will also seek to create working links with existing bodies of this type, notably the European Environment Agency, based in Copenhagen.

Graham Fairclough
Europae Archaeologiae Consilium
March 2002

Abstracts

1: Europe's landscape: archaeology, sustainability and agriculture

Graham Fairclough

Abstract: This introductory paper sets out some of the main themes that will be explored in the rest of the volume. It attempts a brief overview of some of the ways in which archaeologists in a number of European countries are contributing to the understanding the European landscape, and it places landscape and heritage management into the context of sustainability. The paper considers current trends in agriculture, one of the main impacts on the landscape, and in particular discusses the future of the Common Agriculture Policy as it is poised to be extended eastwards with enlarged membership of the European Union.

Le paysage de l'Europe: archéologie, durabilité et agriculture

Résumé: Cette introduction générale définit quelques-uns des thèmes principaux qui seront explorés dans le reste de ce volume. Elle tente à présenter un bref aperçu des différentes façons dont les archéologues dans un nombre de pays européens contribuent à une meilleure compréhension du paysage européen, et place paysage et gestion du patrimoine dans un contexte de développement durable. Finalement, elle analyse les tendances actuelles dans le développement de l'agriculture, un des principaux agents ayant un impact sur le paysage, et discute en particulier de l'avenir d'une Politique Commune de l'Agriculture destinée à s'étendre vers l'Est avec l'adhérence à l'Union Européenne de nouveaux pays membres.

Europas Landschaft: Archäologie, Verträglichkeit und Landwirtschaft

Abstrakt: Dieser Einführungsbeitrag zeigt einige der Hauptthemen auf, die im folgenden Buch erforscht werden.Er versucht, einen kurzen Überblick zu geben, in welcher Weise Archäologen verschiedener europäischer Staaten zum Verständnis der europäischen Landschaft beitragen und stellt Landschaft und Denkmalpflege in den Kontext der Nachhaltigkeit. Schließlich behandelt er aktuelle Trends in der Landwirtschaft, einer der Haupteinflüsse auf die Landschaft, und erörtert besonders die Zukunft der gemeinsamen Agragpolitik im Rahmen der Osterweiterung der EU.

2: The European Landscape Convention, Florence

Maguelonne Déjeant-Pons

Abstract: The European Landscape Convention was opened for signature in October 2000. It already has over 22 signatures and one ratification, and it is already influentially changing the parameters of the debate about landscape protection and management. In this paper, the Council of Europe's officer responsible for the Convention and its implementation offers an authoritative account of the Convention's origins, evolution, scope, content and aspirations.

La Convention Européenne du Paysage, Florence

Résumé: La *Convention Européenne du Paysage* fût publiée en octobre 2000. Elle compte déjà plus de 22 signatures et une ratification, et influence déjà des changements de paramètres dans le débat sur la protection et la gestion du paysage. Dans cette contribution l'officier du Conseil de l'Europe responsable pour cette Convention et sa mise en œuvre, présente d'autorité un compte rendu des origines de la Convention, son évolution, but, contenu et aspirations.

Die Europäische Landschafts Konvention von Florenz

Abstrakt: Die Europäische Landschafts Konvention wurde im Oktober 2000 veröffentlicht. Sie hat schon über 20 Unterschriften und eine Ratifizierung und beeinflusst schon einen Wechsel der Parameter der Debatte über Landschaftsschutz und Management. In diesem Beitrag bietet der für die Konvention und ihre Implementierung verantwortliche Vertreter des Europarats einen amtlichen Überblick über den Ursprung, die Entwicklung, die Spielräume, den Inhalt und die Ziele der Konvention.

3: Archaeologists and the European Landscape Convention

Graham Fairclough

Abstract: The European Landscape Convention offers a new, robust framework for bringing landscape and its archaeological aspects into the mainstream of European heritage and social policy. This paper offers an archaeologist's preliminary perspective on the Convention, and considers the character of the archaeological dimensions of the landscape as it is defined by the Convention. Finally, referring to seminars on cultural landscape organised at EAA conferences in 1999 and 2000, it summarises current debates amongst archaeologists about the landscape and its management, thus setting the scene for the main part of the volume.

Archéologues et la Convention Européenne du Paysage

Résumé: La *Convention Européenne du Paysage* offre un nouveau et solide cadre pour placer le paysage et ses aspects archéologiques au premier plan de la politique européenne en matière de patrimoine et vie sociale. Cette contribution présente les vues préliminaires d'un archéologue sur cette Convention, et prend en considération le caractère des dimensions archéologiques du paysage tels que définis par la Convention. Finalement, tout en se basant sur les séminaires traitant du paysage culturel organisés au sein des conférences de l'EAA en 1999 et 2000, l'auteur présente un aperçu sommaire des débats courants menés entre archéologues au sujet du paysage et de sa gestion, définissant ainsi le cadre général de ce livre.

Archäologen und die Europäische Landschafts Konvention

Abstrakt: Die Europäische Landschafts Konvention bietet einen neuen und tragfähigen Rahmen, um die Landschaft und ihre archäologischen Aspekte in das Bewusstsein der europäischen Denkmal- und Sozialpolitik zu tragen. Der Beitrag bietet die Sicht eines Archäologen auf die Konvention und betrachtet den Charakter der archäoloigschen Dimensionen der Landschaft, wie sie durch die Konvention definiert werden. Schließlich fasst er unter Bezug auf die im Rahmen der EAA-Konferenzen von 1999 und 2000 veranstalteten Seminare zur Kulturlandschaft, die laufenden Diskussion unter Archäologen über die Landschaft und ihre Management zusammen un bereitet somit die Bühne für den Hauptteil der Publikation.

4. The Archaeological Landscapes Project: an approach to cultural landscapes in Ireland

Gabriel Cooney, Tom Condit & Emmet Byrnes

Abstract: This paper discusses the work of the Archaeological Landscapes Project in Ireland. The background to the project is provided, a definition of archaeological landscapes as used by the project is given and the compilation of a preliminary national inventory of archaeological landscapes is discussed. The results of consultation with the planning authorities and archaeological profession are presented. A key debate regarding approaches to cultural landscapes is the compatibility of a whole landscape approach (historic landscape characterisation) with the recognition of specific landscapes (here termed archaeological landscapes). The case for considering these as complementary approaches is made.

Le "*Archaeological Landscapes Project*": une approche des paysages culturels en Irlande

Résumé: Cette contribution analyse le travail réalisé dans le cadre du "*Archaeological Landscapes Project*" en Irlande. Elle traite les origines de ce projet, le concept de paysages archéologiques tel que défini dans le cadre de ce projet, et propose une compilation de l'inventaire national préliminaire des paysages archéologiques. Elle présente également les résultats d'une consultation entre aménagement du territoire et la profession archéologique. L'élément clef dans l'approche des paysages culturels est constitué par une compatibilité entre une approche globale du paysage (caractérisation du paysage historique) et la reconnaissance de paysages spécifiques (appelés ici paysages archéologiques). Les auteurs considèrent qu'il faut les considérer comme approches complémentaires.

Das Projekt Archäologische Landschaften: eine Annäherung an die Kulturlandschaft Irlands

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag behandelt die Arbeit des Projektes 'Archäologische Landschaften in Irland'. Es werden der Hintergrund des Projektes geschildert, die verwendete Definition von archäologischen Landschaften erläutert und die

Einrichtung eines vorläufigen nationalen Inventars archäologischer Landschaften besprochen. Zudem sind die Ergebnisse der Beratungen zwischen den Planungsbehörden und der Bodendenkmalpflege dargestellt. Ein Hauptproblem bei der Annäherung an Kulturlandschaften ist der Abgleich einer umfassenden Landschaftsbeschreibung (Charakterisierung historischer Landschaften) mit dem Erkennen spezifischer Landschaften, die hier archäologische Landschaften genannt werden. Ein Anfang, beide Wege als gleichberechtigte Problemlösungen anzuerkennen, ist gemacht.

5: Historic landscapes in the Netherlands

Eduard van Beusekom

Abstract: The Netherlands can be said, more than most European countries, to be a 'man-made' landscape, with almost half of its land area protected against or reclaimed from the sea. Cultural heritage plays an important part in the government's intensive and complex approach to physical planning, nature management and landscape planning. Two government plans, the 1990 *Nature Policy Plan* and the 1992 *Landscape Policy Plan*, set out the actions to be taken towards the study, preservation, and sustainable development of the cultural landscape and its historic values. This paper describes the strategies and goals born out of these plans, taking into account their 'top-down' approach, method, practical applications and successes.

Paysages historiques aux Pays-Bas

Résumé: Plus que la plupart des autres pays d'Europe les Pays-Bas, avec presque la moitié de sa superficie protégée contre ou gagnée sur la mer, peut être défini comme ayant un paysage 'façonné par l'homme'. L'héritage culturel prend une part importante dans l'approche intensive et complexe par le gouvernement de l'aménagement du territoire, la gestion de l'environnement et de la nature, et la planification du paysage. Deux plans gouvernementaux, le Plan de politique de la nature de 1990 et le Plan de politique du paysage de 1992, définissent les actions à entreprendre afin d'assurer l'étude, la préservation et le développement durable du paysage culturel et de ses valeurs historiques. Cette contribution décrit les stratégies et buts issus de ces plans, prenant en considération leur approche '*top-down*', méthode, applications pratiques et succès.

Historische Landschaften in den Niederlanden

Abstrakt: Die Niederlande bilden mehr als die meisten europäischen Staaten eine von Menschen geschaffene Landschaft, denn fast die Hälfte des Landes muss gegen das Meer geschützt werden oder ist ihm wieder abzuringen. Kulturschutz ist ein wichtiger Teil in dem intensiven und komplizierten Bestreben der Regierung um Raumplanung, Naturschutz und Landschaftsplanung. Zwei Regierungsentwürfe, nämlich der zum Naturschutzgesetz (1990) und der zum Landschaftsschutzgesetz (1992), legen dar, welche Maßnahmen zur Erforschung, zur Bewahrung und nachhaltigen Entwicklung der Kulturlandschaft und ihrer historischen Werte ergriffen wurden. Dieser Beitrag beschreibt die aus diesen Entwürfen resultierenden Strategien und Ziele und setzt diese in Beziehung zur bestmöglichen Annäherung, Methodik, praktischen Anwendung und Erfolgen.

6: The Belvedere Project: an integrated approach in the Netherlands

Daan Hallewas

Abstract: In the Netherlands cultural resource management is divided between the three disciplines of archaeology, historical geography and historical buildings. These disciplines have, in the past, to a large extent worked separately in the field of development and planning. Cultural identity and the quality of our surroundings, however, are becoming more and more prominent on the political and social agenda and it was recognised that more integration is necessary to allow cultural history to play an important role in future developments. The Belvedere memorandum is a primary vehicle for this integration. Its objective is to put integrated cultural historic landscape management onto the agenda of environmental and urban and rural planning. It has three main aspects: a policy document, an initial valuation of the cultural historic landscape and a preliminary attempt to define both the potential and the management needs of the cultural historic resource.

Le Projet Belvédère: une approche intégrée aux Pays-Bas

Résumé: Aux Pays-Bas, la gestion des ressources culturelles est partagée entre trois disciplines, l'archéologie, la géographie historique et les monuments historiques. Dans le passé ces disciplines ont en large mesure travaillé séparément

dans le domaine du développement et du planning. Toutefois, l'identité culturelle et la qualité de notre environnement ont pris une place de plus en plus proéminente à l'agenda politique et social, et la nécessité d'une meilleure intégration fut reconnue afin de permettre que l'histoire culturelle puisse jouer un rôle plus important dans les développements futurs. Le mémorandum 'Belvédère' est le moteur primaire de cette intégration. Son objectif est d'intégrer la gestion du paysage culturel historique dans l'agenda du planning environnemental, urbain et rural. Il couvre trois aspects majeurs: un document définissant la politique, une évaluation initiale du paysage culturel historique et une tentative préliminaire de définir le potentiel et les besoins de gestion des ressources culturelles historiques.

Das Belvedere Projekt: eine integrierende Annäherung in den Niederlanden

Abstrakt: In den Niederlanden ist die Verwaltung der kulturellen Hinterlassenschaften unterteilt in drei Bereiche, nämlich Archäologie, historische Geographie und historische Baudenkmäler. Diese haben in der Vergangenheit weitgehend unabhängig voneinander die Arbeitsfelder Entwicklung und Planung bearbeitet. Kulturelle Identifikation und die Qualität unseres Lebensumfeldes erlangen immer mehr Bedeutung im politischen und gesellschaftlichen Handeln, und es wurde erkannt, dass mehr Integration notwendig ist, um zu gewährleisten, dass die Kulturgeschichte eine wichtige Rolle bei zukünftigen Planungen einnimmt. Das Belvedere Memorandum ist eines der frühesten Werkzeuge für diese Integration. Sein Ziel ist es, das gebündelte Management der historischen Kulturlandschaft auf die Tagesordnung der Planungen von Umwelt, städtischen und ländlichen Räumen zu setzen. Das Belvedere Memorandum enthält drei Hauptaspekte: Ein politisches Dokument, eine erste Einschätzung der kulturhistorischen Landschaft und einen vorläufigen Versuch zur Definierung des Potenzials und der Verwaltung, die im Rahmen der kulturhistorischen Hinterlassenschaften benötigt wird.

7: Archaeology and the cultural environment: an example from the Danish Wadden Sea Region

Ingrid Stoumann

Abstract: Cultural environments are an important part of people's identity, historical awareness and attitude to life. In Denmark it has been realised that this cultural landscape is rapidly being depleted. This paper describes CHIP (Cultural Heritage in Planning) – a project defining the actions that Danish authorities will be taking in order to uncover the distinctive character of the different regions of the country and to develop protection and planning procedures for the cultural landscape. An example of where these procedures will be effective is explored through an examination of CHIP pilot work carried out in the Wadden Sea Region, a unique saltmarsh landscape with a wide history and cultural associations.

Archéologie et environnement culturel: un exemple de la région du *Waddensee* au Danemark

Résumé: L'environnement culturel prend une part importante dans l'identité d'un peuple, son sens historique et son mode de vie. On se réalise au Danemark que ce paysage historique est rapidement altéré. Cette contribution décrit le CHIP (Cultural Heritage in Planning) – un projet définissant les actions que les autorités Danoises entreprendront afin de déterminer les caractéristiques distinctes des différentes régions du pays et de développer des procédures de protection et de gestion adéquates pour le paysage culturel. Un exemple où ces procédures seront appliquées est exploré à travers l'analyse d'un projet pilote réalisé dans la région du Waddensee, un unique paysage de marais salins avec une longue histoire et ses réminiscences culturelles.

Archäologie und Kulturlandschaft: ein Beispiel aus dem dänischen Wattenmeer

Abstrakt: Kulturlandschaften sind für den Menschen ein wichtiger Teil seiner persönlichen Identität, seines geschichtlichen Bewusststeins und seiner Einstellung zum Leben. In Dänemark ist erkannt worden, dass sich diese Kulturlandschaft rapide erschöpft. Dieser Beitrag beschreibt das Projekt „Cultural Heritage in Planning" (CHIP), das die Maßnahmen definiert, die die dänischen Behörden unternehmen werden, um den unterschiedlichen Charakter der verschiedenen Regionen des Landes aufzudecken, den Schutz und diePlanungsabläufe im Zusammenhang mit den Kulturlandschaften weiterzuentwickeln. Ein Beispiel für die erfolgreiche Anwendung dieser Vorgehensweise zeigt sich anhand des CHIP-Pilotprojekts im Wattenmeer. Dabei handelt es sich um eine einzigartige Salzmarsch-Landschaft mit großem Reichtum an historischen und kulturellen Beziehungen.

8: Historic Landscape Characterisation in England and a Hampshire case study

Graham Fairclough, George Lambrick & David Hopkins

Abstract: This paper describes English Heritage's national programme of 'historic landscape characterisation' carried out by local government. Historic Landscape Characterisation is a new GIS-based archaeological method for defining the historic and archaeological dimension of the present-day landscape. It can explain how and why the landscape looks as it does, identify landscape's 'time-depth' and facilitate sustainable management. One of the earlier Historic Landscape Characterisation projects, in Hampshire, is presented as an example. Its methods, techniques and results are summarised, and the paper concludes with reflections on the use of Historic Landscape Characterisation in heritage management.

La caractérisation du paysage historique en Angleterre et un cas d'espèce au Hampshire

Résumé: Cette contribution décrit l'application par un gouvernement local du programme national de « caractérisation du paysage historique » de *English Heritage*. La caractérisation du paysage historique (*Historic Landscape Characterisation* – est une nouvelle méthode sur base d'un système géographique informatisé, destinée à définir les dimensions historique et archéologique du paysage actuel. Elle permet d'expliquer comment et pourquoi le paysage est tel qu'on le voit, d'identifier le fond chronologique du paysage et de faciliter une gestion durable. Un des premiers projets de caractérisation historique du paysage, au Hampshire, est présenté comme exemple. Ses méthodes, techniques et résultats sont résumés, et la contribution conclut avec quelques réflexions sur l'utilité de la caractérisation du paysage historique pour la gestion du patrimoine.

Histoirsche Landschaftscharakterisierung England und die Hamphire-Fallstudie

Abstrakt: Dieser Beitrag beschreibt das von lokalen Verwaltungen durchgeführte Programm der „historischen Landschaftscharakterisierung". Historische Landschaftscharakterisierung (HLC) ist eine neue GIS-basierte archäologische Methode zur Bestimmung der historischen und archäologischen Dimensionen der heutigen Landschaft. Es kann erklären, wie und warum eine Landschaft so aussieht, die zeitliche Tiefe identifiziereen und nachhaltiges Management erleichtern. Eines der früheren Projekte, in Hampshire durchgeführt, wird als Beispiel dargestellt. Seine Methoden, Verfahren und Ergebnisse werden zusammengefasst. Der Beitrag schließt mit Betrachtungen über die Anwendung der HLC im Denkmalmanagement.

9: Historic land-use assessment in Scotland

Piers Dixon & Richard Hingley

Abstract: Scotland's Historic Land-use Assessment Project was first established by Historic Scotland and the Royal Commission for Ancient and Historic Monuments of Scotland in 1996. It was inspired by the Historic Landscape Character Assessment of Cornwall, but adapted for use in a Scottish context. Techniques and methodologies were developed to assess the cultural heritage aspects of the Scottish landscape, using GIS to provide a flexible approach towards historic landuse analysis. This paper summaries the objectives of the project, the methodology used and the results obtained. It concludes by assessing the application of historic landuse assessments as a tool for ensuring that cultural heritage information finds its proper place in landscape assessments and landscape management strategies.

Evaluation de l'usage historique du paysage en Ecosse

Résumé: Le project 'Historic Land-use Assessment' d'Ecosse fut entrepris en 1996 par Historic Scotland et le Royal Commission for Ancient and Historic Monuments of Scotland. Il s'inspira du Historic Landscape Character Assessment of Cornwall, mais fut adapté pour application dans le contexte Ecossais. Des techniques et méthodologies furent développées pour l'évaluation des éléments d'héritage culturel présents dans le paysage Ecossais, utilisant le GIS pour permettre une approche flexible à l'analyse de l'usage historique du paysage. Cette contribution fournit un aperçu sommaire des objectifs du projet, de la méthodologie suivie et des résultats obtenus. Elle conclut en examinant dans quelle mesure l'application d'une méthode d'évaluation de l'usage historique du paysage peut contribuer à ce que l'information concernant l'héritage culturel puisse trouver une place adéquate dans les stratégies d'évaluation et de gestion des paysages.

Bewertung der historischen Landnutzung in Schottland

Abstrakt: Das schottische Projekt zur Bewertung der historischen Landnutzung wurde zuerst 1996 von der „Königlichen Kommission für das historische Schottland und für antike und historische Monumente“ eingeführt. Beeinflusst von der Bewertung des historischen Landschaftscharakters in Cornwall wurde das Projekt für die Anwendung in Schottland angepasst. Es wurden Techniken und Methoden entwickelt, um den Anteil des Kulturerbes an der schottischen Landschaft zu bewerten. Mit dem Geographischen Informationssystem (GIS) stand ein flexibles Instrument für die Untersuchung der historischen Landnutzung zur Verfügung. Der vorliegende Beitrag fasst die Zielsetzung des Projekts, die angewandte Methode und die erzielten Ergebnisse zusammen. Das Projekt ermöglicht die Bewertung der historischen Landnutzung und stellt so sicher, dass die dem Kulturerbe innewohnenden Informationen zukünftig den ihnen angemessenen Platz in der Landschaftsbewertung und -verwaltung erhalten.

10: Past- and future-oriented archaeology: protecting and developing the archaeological-historical landscape in the Netherlands

J.H.F. Bloemers

Abstract: This paper describes recent and continuing developments in the Netherlands in the theory and practice of applying archaeological perspectives, mainly at landscape scale, to the processes of regional and spatial planning and of archaeological resource management. It theorises the modern role of archaeology as a social process linking the past with the future, and describes the two national Dutch programmes that have been initiated to operationalise (the Belvedere Memorandum) and to inform (the NWO research programme) this use of archaeology.

Archéologie passée et archéologie orientée vers le futur: la protection et le développement du paysage archéologique et historique aux Pays-Bas

Résumé: Cette contribution décrit les développements récents et continuels intervenus aux Pays-Bas dans la théorie et pratique de l’application des perspectives archéologiques, surtout au niveau du paysage, dans les processus de planning régional et d’aménagement du territoire, et la gestion des ressources archéologiques. Elle définit la théorie du rôle moderne de l’archéologie comme processus social liant le passé au futur, et décrit les deux programmes nationaux qui furent initiés pour opérationnaliser le *Memorandum Belvédère* et informer les programmes de recherche fondamentale (NWO) de cette application de l’archéologie.

Zukunftsorientierte Archäologie: Schutz der archäologischen-historischen Landschaft und Entwicklungen in den Niederlanden

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag beschreibt fortgesetzte und aktuelle Entwicklungen in Theorie und Praxis in den Niederlanden bei der Anwendung archäologischer Sichtweisen auf die Landschaft im Prozess der Regional- und Raumplanung sowie beim Management der archäologischen Ressourcen. Er schildert zudem die moderne Rolle der Archäologie als sozialen Prozess, der die Vergangenheit mit der Zukunft verbindet und stellt die beiden holländischen Programme vor, die initiiert wurden, um diese archäologische Aufgabe auszugestalten (NWO-Forschungsprogramm) und umzusetzen (Belvedere Memorandum).

11: Mapping Lancashire’s historic landscape: the Lancashire Historic Landscape Characterisation programme

John Darlington

Abstract: This paper describes and evaluates the background, methodology and successful application of a historic landscape characterisation project undertaken between 1999 and 2000 in Lancashire (NW England). It begins with a description of the need and context for the project, from the perspective of English Heritage as a part of a national programme, from the viewpoint of Lancashire County Council who required the work to inform and underpin a county landscape strategy, and more generally as a critique of existing SMR systems. Some details of the project method will be briefly explored before moving on to outline the numerous applications of work. Finally, two new associated projects will

be introduced, one as part of a Europe-wide project, which test and develop the characterisation approach at different scales but within the same broad objectives of improving understanding, communication and the management of the historic environment.

Dresser la carte du paysage historique au Lancashire: le programme *The Lancashire Historic Landscape Characterisation*

Résumé: Cette contribution décrit et évalue les arrière-fond, méthodologie et application réussie d'un programme de caractérisation du paysage historique entrepris de 1999 à 2000 dans le Lancashire (N.O. de l'Angleterre). Elle débute en descrivant la nécessité et le contexte de ce projet, vu sous l'angle de English Heritage comme part d'un programme national, du point de vue du Lancashire County Council qui attendait du travail qu'il puisse informer et étayer une stratégie du comté en matière de paysage, et plus généralement comme critique des systèmes SMR existants. Certains détails de méthode sont brièvement explorés, avant de définir les nombreuses applications de ce travail. Finalement, deux nouveaux projets associés sont présentés, l'un faisant partie de projets couvrant toute l'Europe, dans le but de tester et de développer une approche de caractérisation à échelles différentes, mais toujours avec l'objectif plus large d'améliorer la compréhension, la communication et la gestion de l'environnement historique.

Kartierungen im Rahmen des Programms zur Kategorisierung der historischen Landschaft in Lancashire

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag untersucht Hintergründe, Methodik und erfolgreiche Anwendung eines Projekts zur Kategorisierung der historischen Landschaften, das in den Jahren 1999 und 2000 in Lancashire, Nordwest-England, durchgeführt wurde. Er beginnt mit einer Beschreibung der Notwendigkeit und des Umfelds dieses Projekts: aus dem Blickwinkel des „Englischen Kulturerbes" als einem Teil eines nationalen Programms, vom Standpunkt des Rats der Grafschaft Lancashire, der die Vorarbeit benötigte, um die regionale Landschaftsplanung inhaltlich zu untermauern, und allgemein als Kritik an den existierenden SMR-Systemen. In kurzer Form werden methodische Einzelheiten des Projekts vorgestellt, bevor dessen zahlreiche Anwendungsgebiete umrissen werden. Abschließend werden zwei jüngst angegliederte Projekte vorgestellt. Eines von ihnen ist Teil eines europaweiten Projekts, das anhand verschiedener Kriterien Methoden zur Kategorisierung von Landschaften entwickeln soll. Ziele dieses Projekts sind ein besseres Verständnis sowie eine Vermittlung und Verwaltung der historischen Umwelt.

12: European Cultural Paths: a model of co-operation between archaeologists for the management and preservation of cultural landscapes

Ants Kraut

Abstract: This paper addresses a management model of cultural landscapes that was formed and influenced by human activities in prehistoric times. With the support of the European Commission, co-operation between archaeological projects in five countries was initiated and as a result a well-functioning network of information, co-operation and exchange of experience has been established.

Voies culturelles Européennes: un modèle de collaboration entre archéologues pour la gestion et la sauvegarde de paysages culturels

Résumé: Cette contribution présente un modèle de gestion des paysages culturels formés et influencés par des activités humaines aux temps préhistoriques. Une coopération entre projets archéologiques dans cinq pays fut initiée avec l'aide de la Commission Européenne. L'établissement et le bon fonctionnement d'un réseau d'information, de collaboration et d'échange d'expérience en sont le résultat direct.

Europäische Kulturwege: ein Modell der Zusammenarbeit zwischen Archäologen zur Verwaltung und zum Schutz von Kulturlandschaften

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag beschäftigt sich mit einem Verwaltungsmodell für Kulturlandschaften, die in prähistorischer Zeit durch menschliche Aktivitäten geprägt und beeinflusst wurden. Mit Unterstützung der Europäischen Kommission wurde die Zusammenarbeit von archäologischen Projekten in fünf Staaten begründet. Im Ergebnis hat sich ein gut funktionierendes Netzwerk der Information, Zusammenarbeit und des Wissensaustauschs ausgebildet.

13: The contribution of agricultural support measures to protecting the archaeological heritage of Northern Ireland

Claire Foley

Abstract: The pastoral character of the agricultural landscape in Northern Ireland has resulted in high standards of archaeological preservation. Changes in agricultural policy and increased subsidies and improvement grants in the 1970s as a result of EU membership have, however, dramatically altered the landscape. This paper describes and evaluates the initial liaison between state archaeologists and the Department of Agriculture, the positive results of the establishment of Environmentally Sensitive Areas, the importance of the Countryside Management Scheme, and the establishment of a code of good farming practice.

La contribution de mesures de soutien à l'agriculture à la protection de l'héritage archéologique en Irlande du Nord

Résumé: Le caractère pastoral du paysage agricole en Irlande du Nord à permis un haut degré de préservation des vestiges archéologiques. Les changements intervenus dans la politique agricole et l'accroissement des subsides et contributions résultant de l'adhésion à l'UE ont toutefois altéré le paysage de façon dramatique. Cette contribution décrit et évalue la liaison initiale entre archéologues de l'état et le Département de l'Agriculture, les résultats positifs de l'établissement *Environmentally Sensitive Areas* (d'aires environnementales sensitives), l'importance d'un Schéma de Gestion des Campagnes, et la promulgation d'un code de bonne pratique agricole.

Der Beitrag landwirtschaftlicher Unterstützungsmaßnahmen zum Schutz des archäologischen Erbes von Nordirland

Abstrakt: Der ländliche Charakter der nordirischen Agrarlandschaft mündete in einem hohen Maßstab des archäologischen Schutzes. Der Wandel der Agrarpolitik und wachsende Hilfen und Zuschüsse in den 1970er Jahren als Ergebnis der EU-Mitgliedschaft haben die Landschaft dramatisch verändert. Dieser Beitrag beschreibt und untersucht die anfängliche Verbindung zwischen staatlichen Archäologen und der Abteilung Landwirtschaft, die positiven Ergebnisse der Einrichtung von ökologisch empfindlichen Gebieten, die Bedeutung des ländlichen Entwicklungsplanes und die Einführung einer Anleitung zur sachgerechten Landwirtschaft.

14: Before and after The Change: the social-economic transition period and its impact on the agriculture and cultural landscape in Poland

Piotr Szpanowski

Abstract: 1989 saw a fundamental change within Poland, with the fall of the communist and socialist systems. This paper describes its effects on the composition and management of the Polish rural landscape. It explores the implications of the decline of intensive agriculture and the rise of new farming strategies that are providing opportunities to implement improved policies and systems aimed at the sustained protection of the cultural landscape. Examples illustrate where this process has been successfully achieved, supporting a sustainable cultural landscape through agricultural diversification. Details of EU involvement in this process are also outlined with references to specific programmes.

Avant et après le changement: la période de transition socio-économique et son impact sur l'agriculture et le paysage culturel en Pologne

Résumé: 1989 a vu un changement fondamental en Pologne avec la chute des systèmes communistes et socialistes. Cette contribution décrit ses effets sur la composition et la gestion du paysage rural en Pologne. Elle explore les implications du déclin d'une agriculture intensive et la mise en place de nouvelles stratégies d'exploitation agricole, qui offrent des possibilités pour appliquer une politique améliorée et des systèmes visant à une protection durable du paysage culturel. Quelques exemples illustrent des cas où cette action a été entreprise avec succès, en assurant la sauvegarde durable du paysage culturel par le biais d'une diversification de l'agriculture. Des détails sont également fournis sur la participation de l'Union Européenne à ce procès, avec références au programmes spécifiques.

Vor und nach dem Umbruch: die sozioökonomische Übergangszeit und ihre Konfrontation mit Landwirtschaft und Kulturlandschaft in Polen

Abstrakt: Das Jahr 1989 sah in Polen mit dem Fall des kommunistischen Systems einen grundlegenden Wandel. Der Beitrag beschreibt dessen Auswirkungen auf die Zusammensetzung und die Verwaltung der ländlichen Landschaft Polens. Er erläutert die Auswirkungen des Niedergangs der intensiven Landwirtschaft und das Aufkommen neuer landwirtschaftlicher Produktionsweisen. Diese brachten die Gelegenheit mit sich, bessere Verfahren für einen nachhaltigen Schutz der Kulturlandschaft einzuführen. Anhand von Beispielen wird geschildert, wo dieser Prozeß durch landwirtschaftliche Diversifikation erfolgreich vorangetrieben wurde. Ebenso werden Einzelheiten der EU-Beteiligung im Rahmen spezieller Programme geschildert.

15: Archaeology in the south east of the Iberian Peninsula: a bridge between past and future social spaces

P.V. Castro, R.W. Chapman, T. Escoriza, S.Gili, V. Lull, R. Micó, C. Rihuete Herrada, R. Risch, M. E. Sanahuja Yll and P. Verhagen

Abstract: Archaeology has the privilege of being able to explain the long-term interaction between the social and the natural worlds. Archaeo-ecological research has made us increasingly aware that today's environmental and ecological problems are historical constructions: changing, dynamic entities that are the result of economic strategies in the past. Information about the past is crucial in the search for policies that promote the sustainable development of contemporary and future landscapes. This paper, in relation to South East Spain in general and the Aguas valley in particular, considers how modern agriculture is damaging our ability to collect this information, and describes how archaeologists and palaeo-environmentalists have used archaeo-ecological surveys from the prehistoric and medieval sites of Gatas at the foot of Sierra Cabrera to establish a long-term environmental model that can inform future planning policies.

Archéologie dans le sud-est de la Péninsule Ibérique : un pont entre les espaces sociaux passé et présent

Résumé: L'archéologie a le privilège de pouvoir saisir l'interaction à long terme entre les mondes social et naturel. Les recherches archéo-écologiques nous ont progressivement fait prendre conscience des causes historiques de problèmes touchant l'environnement et l'écologie actuels: ce sont des réalités dynamiques, en mutation constante, qui sont le résultat de politiques économiques menées dans le passé. L'information du passé est cruciale pour la mise au point de politiques destinées à promouvoir un développement durable des paysages actuel et futur. Cette contribution, traitant du Sud-est de l'Espagne en général et de la vallée de l'Aguas en particulier, démontre comment l'agriculture moderne détruit nos capacités à recueillir cette information. Elle décrit comment archéologues et paléo-environnementalistes ont utilisé des recherches archéo-écologiques de sites préhistoriques et médiévaux à Gatas, au pied de la Sierra Cabrera, pour établir un modèle environnemental à long terme qui peut orienter les politiques de planning futurs.

Archäologie im Südosten der Iberischen Halbinsel: eine Brücke zwischen vergangenen und zukünftigen sozialen Räumen

Abstrakt: Einzig der Archäologie ist es möglich, die fortdauernde Wechselwirkung von sozialen und natürlichen Prozessen zu erklären. Archäo-ökologische Forschung hat uns ein stetig wachsendes Wissen darüber beschert, dass die aktuellen Umwelt- und ökologischen Probleme auf historischen Entwicklungen beruhen: Der Wandel, die dynamische Entwicklung sind das Ergebnis ökologischer Befähigung in der Vergangenheit. Das Wissen um die Vergangenheit ist für die Suche nach Strategien, die die nachhaltige Entwicklung der gegenwärtigen und zukünftigen Landschaften befördern, entscheidend. Der vorliegende Beitrag untersucht mit Blick auf Südost-Spanien im allgemeinen und des Aguas-Tals im besonderen, wie die moderne Landwirtschaft unsere Fähigkeit zerstört, eben diese Informationen zu gewinnen, und beschreibt, wie Archäologen und Paläo-Ökologen archäo-ökologische Untersuchungen an den prähistorischen und mittelalterlichen Fundplätzen von Gatas am Fuße der Sierra Cabrera genutzt haben, um ein langfristiges Entwicklungsmodell zu etablieren, das sich auf zukünftige Planungen auswirken kann.

16: Raising awareness and managing change: the cultural landscape of the Bjäre Peninsula, Sweden

Jenny Nord Paulsson

Abstract: The Bjäre peninsula, situated in the north-west of Skåne, has a rich cultural landscape marked by distinct Bronze Age monuments, enclosed field systems dating from the 19th century and various notable changes and consistencies in settlement pattern. This paper discusses the creation of the landscape and the relationships within it, the significance of the past to the modern landscape, the threats to the cultural landscape and the possible solutions and approaches to these solutions.

Générer une prise de conscience et gérer le changement: le paysage culturel de la péninsule de Bjäre, Suède

Résumé: La péninsule de Bjäre, située dans le nord-ouest du Skåne, possède un riche paysage culturel marqué par des monuments très particuliers de l'Age du Bronze, un parcellaire à enclos datant du 19ème siècle et diverses variations et constances notables dans les modes d'occupation. Cette contribution traite les origines de ce paysage et ces relations internes, la signification du passé en relation avec le paysage moderne, les dangers menaçant le paysage culturel, et les solutions possibles et différentes approches de ces solutions.

Bewusstsein schaffen und Veränderung bewältigen: Die Kulturlandschaft der Bjäre-Halbinsel (Schweden)

Abstrakt: Die Bjäre-Halbinsel, im Nordwesten Schonens gelegen, hat eine reiche kulturelle Landschaft, die durch herausragende bronzezeitliche Denkmäler, Flursysteme des 19. Jahrhunderts und verschiedene andere Veränderungen und Kontinuitäten der Siedlungsmuster gekennzeichnet ist. Dieser Beitrag erörtert die Entstehung der Landschaft und ihre inneren Beziehungen, die Bedeutung der Vergangenheit für die moderne Landschaft sowie die Gefahren für die Kulturlandschaft, die möglichen Lösungen und Ansätze zu diesen Lösungen.

17: Rock carvings, cultural landscapes and management issues: case studies from Sweden

John Coles

Abstract: Many thousands of Bronze Age rock carvings are known from southern Scandinavia. This paper explores the problems associated with the management and care of these often-delicate records of Bronze Age society and discusses the place of the carvings within their past and present territories. The majority of these carvings lie within rural landscapes unlike those of the Bronze Age, raising questions about the role they play in today's cultural landscapes.

Gravures rupestres, paysages culturels et problèmes de gestion: quelques exemples de la Suède

Résumé: Des milliers de gravures rupestres datant de l'Âge du Bronze sont connues dans le sud de la Scandinavie. Cette contribution explore les problèmes associés à la gestion et sauvegarde de ces témoins souvent très délicats de la société de l'Âge du Bronze et discute la place que ces gravures prennent dans leurs territoires passés et présents. Beaucoup de ces gravures rupestres sont actuellement situées dans des paysages ruraux différents de ceux de l'Âge du Bronze, ce qui soulève des questions quant au rôle qu'elles tiennent dans les paysages culturels d'aujourd'hui.

Felszeichnungen, Kulturlandschaften und Management-Ergebnisse: eine Fallstudie aus Schweden

Abstrakt: Aus Skandinavien sind viele tausend Felszeichnungen bekannt. Dieser Beitrag beleuchtet die Probleme, die mit dem Management und der Pflege dieser oft vorzüglichen Quellen zur Gesellschaft der Bronzezeit und erörtert den Platz dieser Zeichnungen innerhalb ihrer vergangenen und gegenwärtigen Gebiete. Die Mehrzahl dieser Zeichnungen liegt, anders als zur Bronzezeit, in bäuerlich geprägten Landschaften, was Fragen zu ihrer Rolle in den heutigen Kulturlandschaften aufwirft.

18: The Abava Valley: archaeological heritage and landscape planning in Latvia

Mara Urtane

Abstract: This paper considers the preservation of archaeological monuments within the cultural landscape of the Abava valley, north-western Latvia, and the effects that landscape management and change have had on their preservation since the 19th century. It presents a method of assessing the condition of landscapes, that takes account of the role of archaeological sites, particularly the dominant hillforts of the region, within a modern and dynamic landscape. It describes the need for protection of archaeological sites and examines the responsibility of heritage managers to inform and educate the visiting public, making ancient monuments part of the modern landscape infrastructure.

La vallée de l'Abava : patrimoine archéologique et planning du paysage en Lituanie

Résumé: Cette contribution traite la conservation de monuments historiques dans le paysage culturel de la vallée de l'Abava, dans le nord-ouest de la Lituanie, et analyse quels effets la gestion du patrimoine et le changement ont eu sur leur conservation depuis le 19ème siècle. L'auteur présente une méthode permettant d'évaluer l'état actuel des paysages, qui prend en compte le rôle joué par les sites archéologiques, plus particulièrement les fortifications de hauteur dominant cette région, au sein d'un paysage moderne et dynamique. Elle décrit la nécessité d'assurer la protection des sites archéologiques et définit la responsabilité qui incombe aux gérants du patrimoine en matière d'information et d'éducation du public, afin d'assurer aux monuments anciens la place qui leur revient au sein de l'infrastructure moderne du paysage.

Das Abava-Tal: archäologisches Erbe und Landschaftsplanung in Lettland

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag beschreibt am Beispiel der Kulturlandschaft Abava-Tal, in Nordwest-Lettland gelegen, den Schutz archäologischer Denkmäler sowie die Auswirkungen, die Landschafts-Management und Landschaftswandel seit dem 19. Jahrhundert darauf gehabt haben. Es wird eine Methode zur Bewertung von Landschaften vorgestellt, die der Bedeutung archäologischer Fundstellen, besonders der beherrschenden Höhenburgen dieser Region, in einer modernen und dynamischen Landschaft Rechnung trägt. Der Beitrag beschreibt zudem die Notwendigkeit des Schutzes archäologischer Fundstellen sowie die Aufgabe der Denkmalpflege, Besucher zu informieren und zu schulen, um so die Denkmäler zu einem Teil der modernen Landschaftsinfrastruktur werden zu lassen.

19: Spessart goes Europe: the historic landscape characterisation of a German upland region

Gerhard Ermischer

Abstract: The Archaeological Spessart-Project (ASP) deals with the cultural landscape of the Spessart, a German upland region with an image of poverty and lack of history. Since 1999 it has been one of twelve projects in ten countries participating in a pan-European EU Culture 2000 programme, called European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape. This programme is concerned with the study, communication and sustainable management of cultural landscapes. Historic Landscape Characterisation and GIS play an important role. The exchange of experience between experts of very different institutions coming from regions with different traditions is one of the main features of the programme. Coming after the first year of intensive networking, this paper is a report on the results achieved. New perspectives allowed the participants to review their own work and formulate specific answers to local problems. It seems unlikely to overcome all differences, but the diversity of perspectives has proved to be enriching and interesting to all.

Le Spessart sur la voie de l'Europe : la caractérisation du paysage historique d'un haut plateau d'Allemagne

Résumé: Le Projet archéologique Spessart (ASP) traite le paysage culturel du Spessart, une région de haut plateau d'Allemagne ayant une réputation de pauvreté et de vide historique. Depuis 1999 c'est un des onze projets menés dans dix pays participant à un programme paneuropéen *Culture 2000* de l'UE, appelé European Pathways to the Cultural Landscape (*voies Européennes vers le paysage culturel*). Ce programme concerne l'étude, la mise en valeur et le développement durable des paysages culturels. La caractérisation historique du paysage et un système géographique informatisé (GIS) y jouent un rôle important. L'échange d'expérience entre experts d'institutions très différentes venant de régions à traditions différentes est un des principaux piliers de ce programme. Intervenant après la première année de contacts intensifs, cette contribution présente un rapport sur les résultats obtenus. De nouvelles perspectives ont

permis aux participants d'évaluer leur propre travail et de formuler des réponses spécifiques aux problèmes locaux. Il paraît improbable de pouvoir surmonter toutes les divergences, mais la diversité des perspectives s'est avérée enrichissante et intéressante pour tous.

Das Spessart-Projekt: die historische Landschaftscharakterisierung einer deutschen Mittelgebirgsregion

Abstrakt: Das archäologische Spessart-Projekt (ASP) beschäftigt sich mit der Kulturlandschaft des Spessart, einer deutschen Mittelgebirgsregion, die als arm und geschichtslos gilt. Seit 1999 ist es eines von zwölf Projekten in zehn Ländern, die sich am europaweiten EU-Kultur-2000-Programm „Wege in die Kulturlandschaft" beteiligen. Diese Programm behandelt die Erforschung, Diskussion und das nachhaltige Management von Kulturlandschaften. Historische Landschaftscharakteriserung (HLC) und Geografische sInformationssystem (GIS) spielen dabei eine wichtige Rolle. Der Erfahrungsaustausch von Experten verschiedener Institutionen aus Regionen mit unterschiedlichen Traditionen ist ein Hauptbestandteil des Programms.

20: Examples of current national approaches

Abstract: Papers 4 to 19 have described a large number of projects and case studies that demonstrate the wide range of approaches among European archaeologists to understanding and manage the landscape's archaeological heritage at both national and trans-national level. In contrast, this paper contributes very short summaries of work that is currently being carried out at national government level in a selection of countries. These include a description of how responsibility is shared between national, regional and local authorities in Switzerland, how an established heritage organisation in Scotland has been able to approach the subject from several related perceptions, working towards an holistic union, how a new national organisation in Portugal is revolutionising archaeological heritage management, and how the Czech Republic is developing its understanding and recording of the archaeological landscape. Two of the papers – Latvia and Portugal – describe how landscape heritage managers are coming to terms in different ways with massive 20th-century changes to the landscape.

Quelques exemples d'approches nationales courantes

Résumé: Les chapitres 4 à 19 ont décrit un grand nombre de projets spécifiques et études de cas d'espèce qui démontrent un large éventail d'approches mises en œuvre par les archéologues européens pour comprendre et gérer le patrimoine archéologique présent dans le paysage. En contraste, ce dernier chapitre réunit quelques brèves présentations de travaux entrepris par les autorités dans une sélection de pays. Cela inclut une description comment la responsabilité en cette matière est partagée entre gouvernements national, régionaux et locaux en Suisse; ou comment une agence gouvernementale instaurée en Ecosse a été capable d'approcher le sujet a partir de plusieurs perceptions apparentées, oeuvrant vers une union totale; comment une nouvelle organisation de l'Etat est en train de révolutionner la gestion du patrimoine archéologique au Portugal; comment la République Tchèque développe la compréhension et l'enregistrement de son patrimoine archéologique. Finalement deux contributions – Lituanie et Portugal – décrivent comment les gérants du patrimoine paysager parviennent à composer de différentes manières avec les changements massifs du paysage au 20ème siècle.

Beispiele gegenwärtiger nationaler Annäherungen

Abstrakt: Die Beiträge in den Kapiteln 4 bis 19 haben eine Vielzahl von Projekten und Fallstudien beschrieben, die die Bandbreite von Verfahren belegen, die europäische Archäologen nutzen, um das archäologische Erbe der Landschaft zu verstehen und zu bewältigen. Auf der anderen Seite trägt dieses Buch in knapper Form die Ergebnisse von Maßnahmen zusammen, die von den Regierungen einiger Länder veranlasst wurden. Sie beschreiben, wie die Verantwortung zwischen der nationalen, der regionalen und der lokalen Verwaltung der Schweiz geteilt ist, wie eine bestehende staatliche Denkmalschutzbehörde in Schottland fähig ist, sich dem Thema unter verschiedenen Betrachtungsweisen in der Art einer holistischen Vereinigung anzunähern, wie eine neue staatliche Organisation die archäologische Denkmalpflege in Portugal revolutioniert, und wie die Tschechische Republik ihr Verständnis und die Aneignung archäologischer Landschaften entwickelt. Zwei der Beiträge über Lettland und Portugal zeigen, wie Landschaftsschutzbeauftragte auf unterschiedlichen Wegen zu Begriffen für die massiven Veränderungen der Landschaften im 20. Jahrhundert gelangen.

21: Associative landscape in a Welsh context

David Gwyn

Abstract: This paper examines the topic of 'associative landscape' and the implications of its relationship with a variety of cultures. It discusses both the emergent and traditional approaches to landscape that have been fostered in Wales, and their bearing upon the way in which archaeologists have recently been asked to undertake the task of mapping associative landscapes. By examining the work of Sir Owen M. Edwards and of Dr Iorwerth Peate, it considers that the emphasis on folk culture led to a narrow definition of Welsh-ness, and by extension to a narrow definition of what matters within the Welsh landscape. It suggests that this cannot be sustained, but that the comparatively strong links between intellectual and popular culture in Wales make possible a study of associative landscape, which connects with existing discourses of time, place and belonging.

Paysage 'associatif' dans un contexte Gallois

Résumé: Cette contribution examine le thème du 'paysage associatif' et les implications de ces relations avec une variété de cultures. Elle traite les approches du paysage nouvelles aussi bien que celles traditionnelles ayant eu cours au Pays de Galles, et l'influence que celles-ci ont eues sur la manière dont les archéologues ont récemment été chargés d'entreprendre la tâche de dresser la carte des paysages 'associatifs'. En examinant les travaux de Sir Owen M. Edwards et du Dr. Iorwerth Peate, l'auteur considère que l'accent trop intensément axé sur la culture populaire a engendré une définition trop restreinte de l'identité galloise, et par extension une définition restrictive de ce qui est important dans le paysage gallois. Il suggère que ceci ne peut être maintenu, mais que les liens comparativement étroits entre culture intellectuelle et culture populaire au Pays de Galles rendent possible une étude du paysage 'associatif', associé aux discours existants sur les thèmes de place, d'être et d'appartenance.

„Associative Landschaft" in einem walisischen Kontext

Abstrakt: Dieser Beitrag untersucht den Begriff der „associativen Landschaft" und die Implikationen seiner Beziehung in verschiedenen Kulturen. Er diskutiert sowohl die aktuellen traditionellen Zugänge zur Landschaft, die in Wales gepflegt werden, als auch die Herangehensweise, in der Archäologen sich gegenwärtig der Aufgabe stellen, „associative Landschaften" zu kartieren. Indem er das Werk von Sir Owen M. Edwards und Dr. Iorwerth Peate untersucht, stellt er fest, dass die Betonung von „Welsh-ness" und, im weiteren, zu einer verengten Definition dessen, was in der walisischen Landschaft von Bedeutung ist, führt. Er legt nahe, dass dies nicht beibehalten werden kann, dass aber die vergleichsweise starken Verbindungen zwischen intellektuelle und populärer Kultur in Wales eine Erforschung der „associativen Landschaft" ermöglichen, die sich an bestehende Diskurse von Zeit, Ort und Zugehörigkeit anschließt.

22: Cultural connections to the land: a Canadian example

Ellen Lee

Abstract: The concept of cultural landscapes is widely used today, under a broad range of circumstances, from the very general to the very specific. It is a convenient term for integrating the cultural and natural values of a place and for conveying the wholeness of a place, rather than just the sum of its elements. In order to evaluate and manage cultural landscapes we must find some culturally-appropriate way to understand it. However, some kinds of cultural landscapes can be difficult to define in concrete physical terms because of their intangible cultural values. This paper discusses some of the issues surrounding the identification, evaluation and management of cultural landscapes associated with the history of Aboriginal peoples in Canada, in particular suggesting an approach that integrates the intangible and the tangible, with the cultural with the natural.

Connexion culturelle à la terre: un exemple du Canada

Résumé: Le concept du paysage culturel est actuellement largement utilisé dans un large éventail de circonstances, allant du général au très particulier. Il convient parfaitement pour intégrer les valeurs culturelles et naturelles d'un lieu et pour exprimer l'intégrité de ce lieu plutôt que juste la somme de ses éléments constituants. Afin de pouvoir évaluer et gérer des paysages culturels nous devons trouver un moyen culturellement approprié de les comprendre. Toutefois, certains paysages culturels sont difficiles à définir en termes physiques concrets a cause du caractère intangible de leurs

valeurs culturelles. Cette contribution traite certains problèmes liés à l'identification, l'évaluation et la gestion de paysages culturels associés à l'histoire des peuples indigènes du Canada, et suggère en particulier une approche qui intègre l'intangible au tangible, le culturel au naturel.

Kulturelle Verbindungen mit dem Land: ein kanadisches Beispiel

Abstrakt: Das Konzept der Kulturlandschaft wird heute vielfach benutzt: unter verschiedenen Umständen, sehr allgemein oder sehr spezifisch. Es ist ein bequemer Begriff, um natürliche und kulturelle Eigenarten eines Ortes zu integrieren und eher die Gesamtheit eines Ortes zu erfassen, als die Summe der Einzelelemente. Um Kulturlandschaften bewerten und managen zu können, müssen wir eine kulturell angemessene Weise finden, sie zu verstehen. Manche Kulturlandschaften sind jedoch aufgrund ihrer nicht greifbaren Werte schwer in konkrete, physische Begriffe zu fassen. Dieser Beitrag erörtert einige Aspekte der Identifizierung, Bewertung und des Managements von Kulturlandschaften, die zur Geschichte der Ureinwohner Kanadas gehören und schlägt einen Ansatz vor, das Nichtgreifbare mit dem Greifbaren, das Kulturelle mit dem Natürlichen zu verbinden.

23: Conclusion: archaeological management of Europe's cultural landscape

Graham Fairclough & Stephen Rippon

Abstract: The papers contained within this volume have reviewed some of the practices that are current across Europe for understanding, managing and promoting the archaeological and historical dimension of Europe's cultural landscape. This concluding paper brings together some of the common themes of the volume, notably the importance to future action of the European Landscape Convention, and the range of innovative methods and applications that are arising from the emerging technique of historic landscape characterisation. Many of the papers also consider the future of our cultural landscapes, in particular the need for archaeology and historic landscape to be integrated into future agri-environmental schemes and plans for sustainable development.

Conclusions: la gestion archéologique du paysage culturel de l'Europe

Résumé: Les contributions réunies dans ce volume nous donnent un aperçu de différentes pratiques ayant cours à travers l'Europe pour assurer la compréhension, la gestion et la promotion des dimensions archéologique et historique des paysages culturels de l'Europe. En guise de conclusions, l'auteur définit quelques thèmes communs émergeant de ce volume, plus particulièrement l'importance d'une action future dans le cadre de la Convention Européenne du Paysage, et la série de méthodes et applications innovatrices dérivées d'une technique de caractérisation du paysage historique largement répandue. De nombreuses contributions prennent également en considération l'avenir de nos paysages culturels, soulignant la nécessité d'intégrer l'archéologie et le paysage historique dans les futures politiques agro-environnementales et les plans de développement durable.

Zusammenfassung: Das Management der archäologischen Kulturlandschaft Europas

Abstrakt: Die Beiträge des vorliegenden Buches haben einige der Vorgehensweisen zum Inhalt, mit denen gegenwärtig in Europa um Verständnis, Verwaltung und Beförderung der archäologischen und historischen Dimensionen der kulturellen Landschaft Europas geworben wird. Diese Abschlusspapier stellt einige gemeinsame Themen des Buches unter Berücksichtigung ihrer Bedeutung für die zukünftige Arbeit der Europäischen Landschafts Konvention zusammen und behandelt innovative Methoden und Verfahren, die aus der sich weiterentwickelnden Technik der Charakterisierung von Kulturlandschaften abgeleitet werden. Viele der Beiträge sehen die Zukunft unserer Kulturlandschaften, vor allem des Anteils an archäologischen und historischen Landschaften, in der Integration in zukünftige Agrarentwicklungsprogramme und Pläne für eine nachhaltige Entwicklung.

APPENDIX

European Landscape Convention, Florence, 2000

Preamble

The member States of the Council of Europe signatory hereto,

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles which are their common heritage, and that this aim is pursued in particular through agreements in the economic and social fields;

Concerned to achieve sustainable development based on a balanced and harmonious relationship between social needs, economic activity and the environment;

Noting that the landscape has an important public interest role in the cultural, ecological, environmental and social fields, and constitutes a resource favourable to economic activity and whose protection, management and planning can contribute to job creation;

Aware that the landscape contributes to the formation of local cultures and that it is a basic component of the European natural and cultural heritage, contributing to human well-being and consolidation of the European identity;

Acknowledging that the landscape is an important part of the quality of life for people everywhere: in urban areas and in the countryside, in degraded areas as well as in areas of high quality, in areas recognised as being of outstanding beauty as well as everyday areas;

Noting that developments in agriculture, forestry, industrial and mineral production techniques and in regional planning, town planning, transport, infrastructure, tourism and recreation and, at a more general level, changes in the world economy are in many cases accelerating the transformation of landscapes;

Wishing to respond to the public's wish to enjoy high quality landscapes and to play an active part in the development of landscapes;

Believing that the landscape is a key element of individual and social well-being and that its protection, management and planning entail rights and responsibilities for everyone;

Having regard to the legal texts existing at international level in the field of protection and management of the natural and cultural heritage, regional and spatial planning, local self-government and transfrontier co-operation, in particular the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats (Bern, 19th September 1979), the Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe (Granada, 3rd October 1985), the European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage (revised) (Valletta, 16th January 1992), the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities (Madrid, 21st May 1980) and its additional protocols, the European Charter of Local Self-government (Strasbourg, 15th October 1985), the Convention on Biological Diversity (Rio, 5th June 1992), the Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (Paris, 16th November 1972), and the Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice on Environmental Matters (Åarhus, 25th June 1998);

Acknowledging that the quality and diversity of European landscapes constitute a common resource, and that it is important to co-operate towards its protection, management and planning;

Wishing to provide a new instrument devoted exclusively to the protection, management and planning of all landscapes in Europe,

Have agreed as follows:

Chapter I – General Provisions

Article 1 – Definitions

For the purposes of the Convention:

a) *Landscape* means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors;

b) *Landscape policy* means an expression by the competent public authorities of general principles, strategies and guidelines that permit the taking of specific measures aimed at the protection, management and planning of landscapes;

c) *Landscape quality objective* means, for a specific landscape, the formulation by the competent public authorities of the aspirations of the public with regard to the landscape features of their surroundings;

d) *Landscape protection* means actions to conserve and maintain the significant or characteristic features of a landscape, justified by its heritage value derived from its natural configuration and/or from human activity;

e) *Landscape management* means action, from a perspective of sustainable development, to ensure the regular upkeep of a landscape, so as to guide and harmonise changes which are brought about by social, economic and environmental processes;

f) *Landscape planning* means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.

Article 2 – Scope

Subject to the provisions contained in Article 15, this Convention applies to the entire territory of the Parties and covers natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas. It includes land, inland water and marine areas. It concerns landscapes that might be considered outstanding as well as everyday or degraded landscapes.

Article 3 – Aims

The aims of this Convention are to promote landscape protection, management and planning, and to organise European co-operation on landscape issues.

Chapter I – National Measures

Article 4 – Division of responsibilities

Each Party shall implement this Convention, in particular Articles 5 and 6, according to its own division of powers, in conformity with its constitutional principles and administrative arrangements, and respecting the principle of subsidiarity, taking into account the European Charter of Local Self-government. Without derogating from the provisions of this Convention, each Party shall harmonise the implementation of this Convention with its own policies.

Article 5 – General measures

Each Party undertakes:

a) to recognise landscapes in law as an essential component of people's surroundings, an expression of the diversity of their shared cultural and natural heritage, and a foundation of their identity;

b) to establish and implement landscape policies aimed at landscape protection, management and planning through the adoption of the specific measures set out in Article 6;

c) to establish procedures for the participation of the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in the definition and implementation of the landscape policies mentioned in paragraph *b* above;

d) to integrate landscape into its regional and town planning policies and in its cultural, environmental, agricultural, social and economic policies, as well as in any other policies with possible direct or indirect impact on landscape.

Article 6 – Specific measures

A. *Awareness-raising*

Each Party undertakes to increase awareness among the civil society, private organisations, and public authorities of the value of landscapes, their role and changes to them.

B. *Training and education*

Each Party undertakes to promote:

a) training for specialists in landscape appraisal and operations;

b) multidisciplinary training programmes in landscape policy, protection, management and planning, for professionals in the private and public sectors and for associations concerned;

c) school and university courses which, in the relevant subject areas, address the values attaching to landscapes and the issues raised by their protection, management and planning.

C. *Identification and assessment*

1. With the active participation of the interested parties, as stipulated in Article 5.c, and with a view to improving knowledge of its landscapes, each Party undertakes:

a) i to identify its own landscapes throughout its territory;

ii to analyse their characteristics and the forces and pressures transforming them;

iii to take note of changes;

b) to assess the landscapes thus identified, taking into account the particular values assigned to them by the interested parties and the population concerned.

2. These identification and assessment procedures shall be guided by the exchanges of experience and methodology, organised between the Parties at European level pursuant to Article 8.

D. *Landscape quality objectives*

Each Party undertakes to define landscape quality objectives for the landscapes identified and assessed, after public consultation in accordance with Article 5.c.

E. *Implementation*

To put landscape policies into effect, each Party undertakes to introduce instruments aimed at protecting, managing and/or planning the landscape.

Chapter III – European Co-operation

Article 7 – International policies and programmes
Parties undertake to co-operate in the consideration of the landscape dimension of international policies and programmes, and to recommend, where relevant, the inclusion in them of landscape considerations.

Article 8 – Mutual assistance and exchange of information

The Parties undertake to co-operate in order to enhance the effectiveness of measures taken under other articles of this Convention, and in particular:

a) to render each other technical and scientific assistance in landscape matters through the pooling and exchange of experience, and the results of research projects;

b) to promote the exchange of landscape specialists in particular for training and information purposes;

c) to exchange information on all matters covered by the provisions of the Convention.

Article 9 – Transfrontier landscapes

The Parties shall encourage transfrontier co-operation on local and regional level and, wherever necessary, prepare and implement joint landscape programmes.

Article 10 – Monitoring of the implementation of the Convention

1. Existing competent Committees of Experts set up under Article 17 of the Statute of the Council of Europe shall be designated by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to be responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Convention.

2. Following each meeting of the Committees of Experts, the Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall transmit a report on the work carried out and on the operation of the Convention to the Committee of Ministers.

3. The Committees of Experts shall propose to the Committee of Ministers the criteria for conferring and the rules governing the Landscape award of the Council of Europe.

Article 11 – Landscape award of the Council of Europe

1. The Landscape award of the Council of Europe is a distinction which may be conferred on local and regional authorities and their groupings that have instituted, as part of the landscape policy of a Party to this Convention, a policy or measures to protect, manage and/or plan their landscape, which have proved lastingly effective and can thus serve as an example to other territorial authorities in Europe. The distinction may be also conferred on non-governmental organisations having made particularly remarkable contributions to landscape protection, management or planning.

2. Applications for the Landscape award of the Council of Europe shall be submitted to the Committees of Experts mentioned in Article 10 by the Parties. Transfrontier local and regional authorities and groupings of local and regional authorities concerned, may apply provided that they jointly manage the landscape in question.

3. On proposals from the Committees of Experts mentioned in Article 10 the Committee of Ministers shall define and publish the criteria for conferring the Landscape award of the Council of Europe, adopt the relevant rules and confer the Award.

4. The granting of the Landscape award of the Council of Europe is to encourage those receiving the award to ensure the sustainable protection, management and/or planning of the landscape areas concerned.

Chapter IV – Final Clauses

Article 12 – Relationship with other instruments

The provisions of this Convention shall not prejudice stricter provisions concerning landscape protection, management and planning contained in other existing or future binding national or international instruments.

Article 13 – Signature, ratification and entry into force

1. This Convention shall be open for signature by the member States of the Council of Europe. It shall be subject to ratification, acceptance or approval. Instruments of ratification, acceptance or approval shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

2. The Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date on which ten member States of the Council of Europe have expressed their consent to be bound by the Convention in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph.

3. In respect of any signatory State which subsequently expresses its consent to be bound by it, the Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date of the deposit of the instrument of ratification, acceptance or approval.

Article 14 – Accession

1. After the entry into force of this Convention, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe may invite the European Community and any European State which is not a member of the Council of Europe, to accede to the Convention by a majority decision as provided in Article 20.d of the Council of Europe Statute, and by the unanimous vote of the States parties entitled to hold seats in the Committee of Ministers.

2. In respect of any acceding State, or the European Community in the event of its accession, this Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date of deposit of the instrument of accession with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

Article 15 –Territorial application

1. Any State or the European Community may, at the time of signature or when depositing its instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession, specify the territory or territories to which the Convention shall apply.

2. Any Party may, at any later date, by declaration addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe, extend the application of this Convention to any other territory specified in the declaration. The Convention shall take effect in respect of such territory on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date of receipt of the declaration by the Secretary General.

3. Any declaration made under the two paragraphs above may, in respect of any territory mentioned in such declaration, be withdrawn by notification addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe. Such withdrawal shall become effective on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary General.

Article 16 – Denunciation

1. Any Party may, at any time, denounce this Convention by means of a notification addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

2. Such denunciation shall become effective on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary General.

Article 17 – Amendments

1. Any Party or the Committees of Experts mentioned in Article 10 may propose amendments to this Convention.

2. Any proposal for amendment shall be notified to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe who shall communicate it to the member States of the Council of Europe, to the others Parties, and to any European non-member State which has been invited to accede to this Convention in accordance with the provisions of Article 14.

3. The Committees of Experts mentioned in Article 10 shall examine any amendment proposed and submit the text adopted by a majority of three-quarters of the Parties' representatives to the Committee of Ministers for adoption. Following its adoption by the Committee of Ministers by the majority provided for in Article 20.d of the Statute of the Council of Europe and by the unanimous vote of the States parties entitled to hold seats in the Committee of Ministers, the text shall be forwarded to the Parties for acceptance.

4. Any amendment shall enter into force in respect of the Parties which have accepted it on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date on which three Council of Europe member States have informed the Secretary General of their acceptance. In respect of any Party which subsequently accepts it, such amendment shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiry of a period of three months after the date on which the said Party has informed the Secretary General of its acceptance.

Article 18 – Notifications

The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall notify the member States of the Council of Europe, any State or the European Community having acceded to this Convention, of:

a) any signature;

b) the deposit of any instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession;

c) any date of entry into force of this Convention in accordance with Articles 13, 14 and 15;

d) any declaration made under Article 15;

e) any denunciation made under Article 16;

f) any proposal for amendment, any amendment adopted pursuant to Article 17 and the date on which it comes into force;

g) any other act, notification, information or communication relating to this Convention.

In witness whereof the undersigned, being duly authorised thereto, have signed this Convention.

Done at Florence, this 20th day of October 2000, in English and in French, both texts being equally authentic, in a single copy which shall be deposited in the archives of the Council of Europe. The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall transmit certified copies to each member State of the Council of Europe and to any State or to the European Community invited to accede to this Convention.

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Managing Europe's Archaeological heritage

Europe's Cultural Landscape:
archaeologists and the management of change

The second *Europae Archaeologiae Consilium* Symposium (March 2001, Strasbourg) was devoted to landscape management in recognition of the new *European Landscape Convention* (Council of Europe, 2000). Arising from the Symposium, this book highlights the important archaeological and historical depth of the European landscape sometimes overlooked by decision-makers in comparison to ecological and aesthetic aspects. It describes opportunities and obstacles that affect the landscape's sustainable management, and shows how heritage managers can support the Convention by helping to understand and promote landscape as a core element of Europe's common heritage. A key message is that archaeologists need to take account of the growing democratic interest in the landscape, and to work alongside other disciplines in pan-European landscape projects.

Le second symposium de l'*Europae Archaeologiae Consilium* (Mars 2001, Strasbourg) fut consacré à la gestion du paysage en juste appréciation de la nouvelle *Convention Européenne du Paysage* (Conseil de l'Europe, 2000). Résultant de ce symposium, ce volume met en valeur l'important fond archéologique et historique du paysage européen, plus souvent négligé par les autorités en comparaison de ses aspects écologiques et esthétiques. Il décrit les opportunités et obstacles qui affectent une gestion durable du paysage, et démontre comment les gestionnaires du patrimoine peuvent appuyer la Convention en contribuant à une meilleure connaissance et promotion du paysage en tant qu'élément substantiel du patrimoine commun de l'Europe. Son message clé aux archéologues souligne la nécessité de reconnaître l'intérêt démocratique croissant pour le paysage, et de se coaliser avec d'autres disciplines dans des projets paneuropéens consacrés au paysage.

Das zweite eac-Symposium war dem Landschaftsmanagement vor dem Hintergrund der neuen Europäischen Landschafts Konvention (Europarat 2000) gewidmet. Die vorliegende Publikation wirft ein Schlaglicht auf die bedeutende archäologische und historische Tiefe der europäischen Kulturlandschaft, die zuweilen von Entscheidungsträgern gegenüber ökologischen und ästhetischen Aspekten vernachlässigt wird. Die Publikation beschreibt Möglichkeiten und Hindernisse, die ein nachhaltiges Landschaftsmanagement beeinflussen und zeigt, wie Denkmalpfleger die Konvention unterstützen können, indem sie die Landschaft als Kernelement des gemeinsamen europäischen Kulturerbes herausstellen und zu verstehen helfen. Dass Archäologen das wachsende öffentliche Interesse an der Landschaft in Betracht ziehen und sich in interdisziplinären, gesamteuropäischen Projekten zur Landschaftsforschung engagieren müssen, ist die Kernaussage der Publikation.

The volume is published with abstracts in English, French and German.

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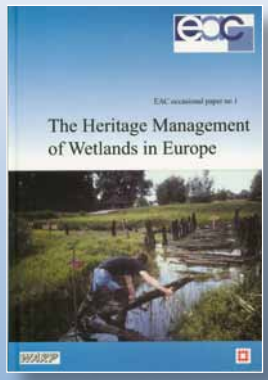

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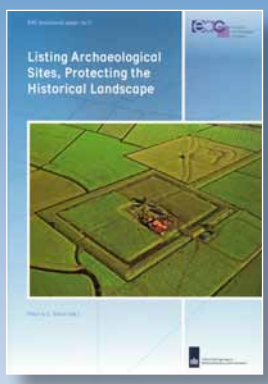

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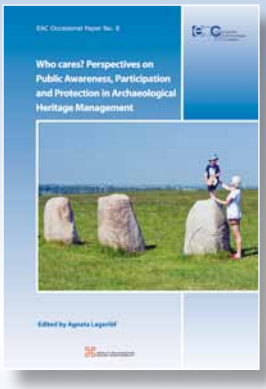

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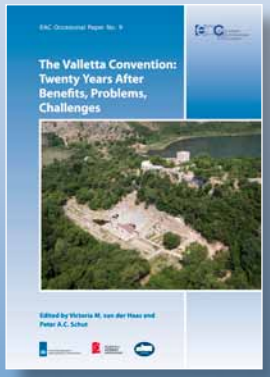

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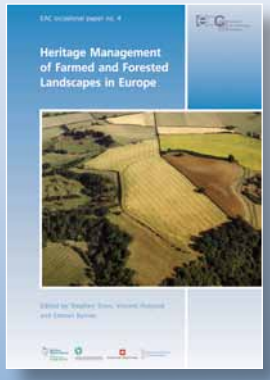

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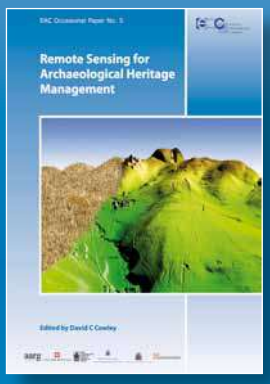

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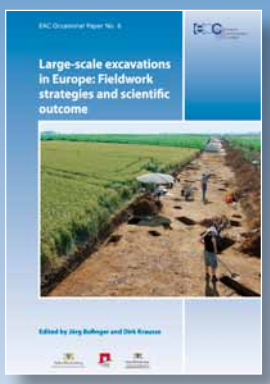

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