



Best Practice Handbook on Modern Management of Cultural Heritage

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Project UNINET: University Network for Cultural Heritage – Integrated Protection, Management and Use

Co-funded by the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union

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MODERN MANAGEMENT OF ARCHITECTURAL HERITAGE

PhD Corinna Del Bianco

Founder and Board Member, Fondazione Romualdo Del Bianco

Scientific Coordinator, International Institute Life Beyond Tourism

Adjunct Professor in Urban Design, Politecnico di Milano

The Management of Cultural Heritage

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Premises

The following paper provides the student with general information on the theme of heritage management by first outlining the definitions of heritage in its various natural and cultural, tangible and intangible forms, and then highlighting some of the conventions that regulate its recognition, protection and management. The management plan is a fundamental tool for the conservation and sustainable use of heritage and must develop from the careful observation and understanding of the peculiar evolutionary path that determines the cultural identity of a place. Re-contextualizing heritage within the period it was created makes possible to understand it to protect, preserve and enhance its tangible and intangible characteristics creating specific programs for their conservation and management. In addition, the UNESCO approach for the Historic Urban Landscape stresses the need of analysing and taking into account the contemporary local context working with the community in a participatory planning process raising the awareness of the local population.

Finally, it was considered appropriate to briefly discuss the theme of tourism which, in the case of cultural tourism, arises thanks to heritage but which can adversely affect it. The numerous visitors who are attracted to Heritage Sites encouraged the development of a hospitality industry that contributes strongly to the economy of many places but, at the same time, has become an element of profound alteration of the local identity. The development of a mass tourism sector took place from the second half of the 20th century and developed exponentially, therefore, it was not easy for Public Administrations to understand this rapid evolution and in some cases to safeguard the local identity. Many are the occasions in which tourism evolved into overtourism, and these constitute a failure of the management system not easily solvable. The Covid-19 pandemic created an important crisis in the tourism sector and highlighted the need of managing this resource with appropriate Management Plans. In this regard, the Life Beyond Tourism-Travel to Dialogue research, conducted by the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation, was selected as best practice for this text, as it works with the management of heritage sites for the creation of opportunities of dialogue among cultures through a holistic vision of the city including travel. The best practice identifies the actors and tools that can contribute to the local sustainable development in respect of the place's cultural diversity and contemporary culture.

I. Introduction: what is culture?

For proper conservation and enhancement, heritage management must first be informed by a reflection on the contemporary culture of a place, its definition and its origins: concepts that need to be explained because they are the basis for the preservation of the tangible and intangible cultural products of a place.

The Senegalese sociologist Sarr defines culture as:

“[...] a set of practices and values, of material and spiritual traits that identify a particular social group. [...] The cultural matrix of individuals, made up of social conventions, religious beliefs (food interdictions, clothing codes), a culinary culture, aesthetic concepts, ethical prescriptions has the function of modelling the desires (needs) of individuals and the circumstances (temporality, place) to their satisfaction.” (Sarr, 2018).

Culture is therefore made up of a set of aspects characterizing a group of individuals in a given space and time. Its peculiar values are also subject to change and influence the everyday dynamics of a community by impacting its identity. As Marc Laenen explains:

“Value change and subsequent attitudes and behaviour have their impact on the identity of sites and living environments. “Identity” cannot longer be understood as a monolithic, nor as the “safe” unchangeable reality, cherished by traditionalists, but a dynamic multi-layered system of inherited values, new values, global issues that left their footprints in living environments. They cannot be dissociated from environment: they shape our current cultural landscapes’ stratification. Culture is anchored in environment. It is an issue of time and space, a detail that cannot be ignored in the narratives. Identity “becomes” as heritage “becomes”. In that perspective changes in religious thought are tangible in changing religious symbols, rituals, design and construction of buildings, equipment, decoration and imagery.... In settlement development and housing, especially palaces of rulers, new visions on philosophy and society define concepts, structures, whereas interiors illustrate the changing visions on comfort, status and social paradigm shifts. The same counts for art, literature, poetry, music theatre...All these issues are interrelated.

The cultural biography analyses and interprets the stratification of the area as a result of changing values and value implementation.” (Laenen, 2020)

Therefore, it is necessary to interpret and communicate the various forms of local contemporary culture, in addition to those of heritage, documenting them to convey and protect them from their commodification in the globalized context, as part of the present and future identity of a people. For example, literature, music, fashion, visual

arts such as painting, photography, cinema, as well as architecture and urban design, agriculture, gastronomy, interpersonal relationships, traditional welcome and hospitality are just some of the fundamental pieces of the mosaic of expressions of a cultural context. Even the city, intended as a living organism, is a cultural product, as well as the architectural artefact, that responds to the specific needs of time and place and reflects its contemporary culture. A self-aware city is able to give itself a vision and to use context specific strategies for its development in harmony with the ambitions of its community and its environmental context. As Jukka Jokilhto (Jokilhto, 2006, p.15) explains each culture has its own characteristics and its identity and therefore, the significance of the related issues, such as cultural heritage, needs to be verified in relation to its cultural contexts. It is not easy to set the limits within which heritage is universally recognizable: differences among cultures and their expressions make evident the complexity of giving definitions and categories that can be valid and extendable for example in the African context, as in the European or Asian one. With regard to these issues, in recent decades international institutions have produced studies and tools for the understanding, inclusion and protection of heritage assets related to different contexts and expression of the relative cultures, whether they are natural or cultural, tangible or intangible.

Culture is central to the discussion about urban development and management strategies, especially in the globalized context that tends to level out cities in terms of finance, technology or development patterns. Culture and heritage allow them to be distinguished, enhance their unique character, raise the awareness of local populations as to their cultural identity, reinforce their sense of pride and, therefore, foster local resilience. This was stressed also by the New Urban Agenda, that followed the 2016 conference Habitat III, and by the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and UNESCO states that culture with the multiplicity of its expressions from cultural heritage to creative industries and cultural tourism is an enabler and driver of sustainable development in the three aspects of sustainability: social, economic and environmental. (UNESCO, 2015)

2. Notes on the definition of Natural and Cultural Heritage, tangible and intangible¹

After the destruction of the First World War it was clear that the loss of an element of cultural value is a loss for all civilization and not only for the country to which it belongs. In time a widespread sensitivity for the preservation of collective memory and of heritage developed. In the wake of the reflections and debates on restoration born in Europe since the beginning of the 19th century, an international movement for the protection of heritage, the *League of Nations*, was born² followed by the establishment of the *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization* (UNESCO).

UNESCO was constituted on November 16, 1945 and is currently composed of 195 Member States and 8 Associate Members and is governed by a General Conference and an Executive Board. A Secretariat, with its Director General, is responsible for implementing the decisions of these two bodies; this is based in Paris, but more than 50 are the UNESCO local offices worldwide. The mission of this United Nations organization is to contribute to the creation of a culture of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development and intercultural dialogue through education, science, culture, communication and information³ through the *Convention for the Protection of the Cultural and Natural World Heritage* which, on the one hand focuses on the conservation of cultural sites and, on the other, on the natural ones and was adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1972.

The Convention identifies three categories of cultural heritage: monuments (1), groups of buildings (2) and sites (3). These are defined by the Convention, in its article I, as:

“monuments: architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;

¹ Here are some references on the evolution of conservation theory and a framework of reference documents but, as it is not the objective of this text, for further information, see the text *Theoretical basis on the protection of architectural monuments / doctrinal documents; analysis of heritage values – attributes* published on the *Best Practices Handbook on Sustainable Protection of Cultural Heritage* within the framework of the ERASMUS+ UNINET project (Del Bianco, 2020).

² One of its milestones is the *Athens Charter* of 1931 for conservation and restoration.

³ <https://www.un.org/youthenvoy/2013/08/unesco-United-nations-educational-scientific-and-cultural-organization/>

groups of buildings: groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;

sites: works of man or the combined works of nature and of man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological points of view.”

In Article 2 is the definition natural heritage:

“natural features consisting of physical and biological formations or groups of such formations, which are of outstanding universal value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view;

geological and physiographical formations and precisely delineated areas which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation;

natural sites or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.”

The concept of heritage has evolved over time with various fundamental stages until it reached an important moment of its evolution in 1994, when the debate on the international scale expanded significantly. In fact, until then, only tangible assets were inscribed on the World Heritage List, while for the intangible ones an international protection convention was not yet foreseen and therefore its survival was at risk. The problem was addressed by clarifying and enhancing the concept of *authenticity* of the heritage with the Nara Conference which was held in Japan⁴ in 1994 and which opened the doors, with the *Nara Document on Authenticity* to a new conservation ethics and an understanding of the different premises with full respect for the cultural differences of the various places. Regarding the relationship between tangible and intangible aspects of cultural heritage, Jokhileto reports the words of Nobuo Ito⁵ (Jokhileto, 2006, p.10):

“Intangible culture is the mother of all cultures. As etymology shows, culture is the human product moulded and matured in an inspired or cultivated brain. In this sense, all kinds of culture are, in the earliest stage, intangible, and, therefore, extremely

⁴ The need for a conference on authenticity was raised by ICOMOS during the 16th World Heritage Committee and the Japanese government offered to organize the conference with UNESCO, ICCROM, ICOMOS. For Japan, the issue of authenticity is very important, in fact, among their practices for the conservation of wooden buildings there is the periodic dismantling and reconstruction of the structure. This allows, in addition to the conservation of the building, also to orally pass on the knowledge of wood processing and assembly techniques.

⁵ Nobuo Ito (1925 – 2015) Eminent Japanese professional on the issues of cultural heritage conservation and the development of conservation concepts internationally he was highly committed to dialogue between East and West. <https://www.iccrom.org/it/news/nobuo-ito-1925-2015>

private in nature. So, many intangible cultures are apt to disappear or change to another one.”

Thus began the process of formal recognition of intangible heritage, interdependent with the tangible and natural, in particular in the processes of globalization and social transformation that the years at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries brought. Just think of an example often cited to figure out this connection: if we take the Colosseum, great example of tangible heritage, to fully understand its architecture it is necessary to understand the reasons and the cultural context for which it was built. This awareness will allow a way of approaching heritage with projects that respect the local identity and work in a sustainable synergy with the context.

Nine years later, in 2003, the importance of the issue of intangibility was formally approved with the *UNESCO Convention for the Protection of the Intangible Cultural Heritage*. In its article 2.1 the concept of Intangible Cultural Heritage is expressed as:

“The “intangible cultural heritage” means the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity.”

The Intangible Cultural Heritage, continues the Convention, is manifested by oral traditions and expressions, performing arts, social practices, rituals and festive events, knowledge and practices inherent to nature and to the universe and traditional craftsmanship. Working on its conservation is even more important, because not being tied to an easily detectable material deterioration, its protection is more complex and includes identification, documentation, research, conservation, protection, promotion and enhancement. The transmission of the intangibility is mainly done through education, with formal and informal methods and in this way it is possible to revitalize it and keep it alive in community life.

3. Overview on the management of heritage

The World Heritage Committee

One of the main objectives of the World Heritage Convention is to identify heritage sites, both cultural and natural, which must be named and evaluated in order to be included on the World Heritage List.

Various actors are involved in this management process, among which the main body of the Convention, the UNESCO *World Heritage Committee* that includes 21 members elected every two years by the Member States during the General Assembly. The Committee meets every year, generally in June / July and may have additional extraordinary meetings during the year. Three organizations, mentioned in the Convention, give their professional support to the *World Heritage Committee* and the *World Heritage Center*:

1. the *International Center for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (ICCROM)* mainly deals with training,
2. the *International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS)* whose main functions are to evaluate the cultural sites nominations and the Heritage List properties' state of conservation,
3. the *International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN)* that evaluates the nominations of natural sites and the state of conservation of those included in the List.

The criteria for registering properties on the World Heritage List are periodically reviewed by the *World Heritage Committee* and published online in the *Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the World Heritage Convention*. This document, constantly updated, reflects the knowledge acquired from the experience in the field of heritage at international level and is of fundamental importance for World Heritage properties as it contains the complete indications for their nomination and entry on the list, for their conservation, for their management and for access to international support and funds.

Outstanding Universal Values and Criteria

The eligibility of a site is assessed through the *Outstanding Universal Values* or the characteristics that give exceptional value to an asset. The definition of *Outstanding Universal Value* from the *Operational Guidelines 2019* (art.49) is:

“Outstanding Universal Value means cultural and/or natural significance which is so exceptional as to transcend national boundaries and to be of common importance for

present and future generations of all humanity. As such, the permanent protection of this heritage is of the highest importance to the international community as a whole.”

The committee then defines the criteria for registering an asset on the World Heritage List (Operational Guidelines 2019, art.77). There are ten, of which the first six concern cultural heritage and the next four natural heritage. Those concerning cultural heritage are:

- (i) represent a masterpiece of human creative genius;*
- (ii) exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design;*
- (iii) bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared;*
- (iv) be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history;*
- (v) be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change;*
- (vi) be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance. (The Committee considers that this criterion should preferably be used in conjunction with other criteria);”*

For inclusion in the World Heritage List each entry must have an appropriate management plan that specifies the preservation system of its *Outstanding Universal Values* and, within the *Operational Guidelines* are the necessary procedures and indications.

The Operational Guidelines and the Management Plans

The Management Plan is a fundamental tool that allows the planning of conservation, management and use of an asset and must consider its complexity in relation to its context. The main objective of managing a site is its protection and conservation and, where possible, its enhancement, therefore using it for other activities including education, research and tourism. It is important to remember that heritage is an expression of a culture in a specific historical context. Therefore, its management process must consider a multiplicity of actors, from international bodies to national and local realities and must actively involve local communities. These last represent those who on a daily basis live among the heritage therefore, they must be fully aware of it to communicate it in respect of its identifying values in the life of the community,

making the most of it, in synergy with local aspirations. Therefore, each plan must reflect the cultural context to which it must be applied and forms of management that involve the community in a participatory way are preferred. Plans should incorporate traditional planning and urban and regional planning instruments and formal and informal control mechanisms and periodic reports and are structured around short, medium and long-term cycles of actions (Operational Guidelines, 2019, art. 110).

Firstly, the management plan should define the asset and its limits, its buffer zone and its broader setting which can be related to the topography, the natural and built environment, other tangible elements (like infrastructures, spatial organization and visual relationships) and the intangible ones (like social and cultural practices or economic processes).

The responsibility for implementing a management plan on a site lies with the Member State, which must work with the property managers and all the actors within the governance system. While management systems should be specific and respectful of the cultural diversities, there are some elements that can be included in all management systems, for example:

- “a) a thorough shared understanding of the property, its universal, national and local values and its socio-ecological context by all stakeholders, including local communities and indigenous peoples;*
- b) a respect for diversity, equity, gender equality and human rights and the use of inclusive and participatory planning and stakeholder consultation processes;*
- c) a cycle of planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and feedback;*
- d) an assessment of the vulnerabilities of the property to social, economic, environmental and other pressures and changes, including disasters and climate change, as well as the monitoring of the impacts of trends and proposed interventions;*
- e) the development of mechanisms for the involvement and coordination of the various activities between different partners and stakeholders;*
- f) the allocation of necessary resources;*
- g) capacity building;*
- h) an accountable, transparent description of how the management system functions.”* (Operational Guidelines, 2019, art. 111)

In 2013, ICCROM, ICOMOS and IUCN, under the guidance of the then Director General of ICCROM Stefano De Caro, published a comprehensive manual on the topic which represents a fundamental literature for all Member States that are asked firstly to demonstrate both the protection of property's *Outstanding Universal Values* and the existence of a valid management plan or other suitable system. Secondly, after registration, whoever is responsible for managing the site must demonstrate that it is conducting the protection process with a long-term plan and with procedures and indicators that periodically allow its verification.

As for the materials that make up a plan, a series of preliminary documents should be included, as reported by the manual of Feilden and Jokilehto (ICCROM, 1998 p. 35):

- an accurate survey of the site,
- the description of the site and the definition of its boundaries,
- the identification and evaluation of its resources,
- the formulation of objectives and consideration of possible limits,
- the definition of projects,
- a long-term work plan and annual plans,
- the execution of the works,
- the recording, documentation and review of results,
- the methodology for storing information and data,
- the revision of the site description and further evaluation,
- the formulation of revised objectives and a reconsideration of the limits,
- the definition of further projects,
- the review of the work program and plan for the following year.

In addition, the management plan must contain the definition of the conservation methods of the built up and of the natural elements included in the site. At the urban scale, however, it is essential to take into account the environmental and social factors that constitute a threat to the conservation of the site and its usability and authenticity, including tourism that, if mismanaged or in high-volume, can lead to the loss of local cultural identity, and environmental threats related also to traffic, pollution and climate change.

Therefore, even the traveller, who for cultural reasons goes to a site is an integral part of the management process and should be brought to understand her/his role in this process, starting from having respectful behaviours towards the built heritage and local culture bringing added cultural and not only economic value to the context in which she/he arrives (Fondazione Romualdo Del Bianco, 2016). As expressed by the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation, the Heritage Sites, with their values and their riches, represent a great opportunity for those communities that, being aware of the opportunities of cultural exchange given by heritage, create management plans in

which the opportunity of creating dialogue among cultures is strongly stressed, lengthening the visitors' stay times and thus reducing the phenomena of physical and cultural consumption of the heritage and thus contributing to its conservation. The topic will be more extensively treated in the sixth paragraph of this text.

The Historic Urban Landscape Approach

Historic Urban Landscape Approach (HUL), explained in a 2011 recommendation on the *Historic Urban Landscape*, contains the principles and indications for the development of historic cities and their conservation. It is a 'soft-law' that is implemented by Member States on a voluntary basis and contributes to existing doctrines or conservation approaches as an additional tool integrating policies and practices of conservation into the wider goals of urban development, whilst respecting the values of different cultural contexts (UNESCO, 2011). This recommendation provides the tools for a multidimensional reading of the historical urban context for the creation of a management plan for any element of heritage. HUL frames the management of historical urban heritage with a holistic approach by integrating the objectives of urban heritage conservation and those of economic and social development. This method highlights the crucial importance, for heritage management, of recognizing the dynamism that the economic, social and cultural spheres impose on heritage which therefore, at the scale of the city, can no longer be thought of as a static monument or as groups of buildings. Therefore, the recommendation focuses on the entire human environment with all its tangible and intangible qualities, directing the design interventions to take into consideration the existing built environment, the intangible heritage, cultural diversity, environmental and socio-economic factors and the local community values.

The elements that threaten historic cities and which must therefore be taken into account by management plans are of various magnitudes: from the urbanization process, to climate extremes, from the exploitation of the market to the problems of *overtourism*.

With this approach cultural diversity and the creativity of the city are used for social and economic development, proposing an alternative model to traditional design and management. The complementarity of the elements that make up a place, from the natural and built-up environment to the identity of the local community, with its own traditions and knowledge, need to be managed holistically to foster the local development. Therefore, with the *Historic Urban Landscape* approach the city is analysed as an overlap of layers including infrastructures, hydrography, geomorphology, built and natural environment, urban structure, topography and open

spaces, but also cultural practices, local identity and cultural diversity, social values and economic processes.

Since 2011 the approach was successfully applied in a number of cities at the global scale and integrated in existing management plans. In 2016 the HUL Guidebook, a practical guide to the recommendation, was launched to assist stakeholders, local authorities, government officials, practitioners in the field of urban conservation or development, researchers, consultants and university and training partners in the application of the HUL Recommendation. In the Guidebook the experiences of eight case studies and best practices are also reported ⁶.

The successful management of urban heritage should include interdisciplinary and innovative tools that can be organized in four categories adapted to the local application and to its changes evolving over time (UNESCO, 2016). The tools should:

1. work on the *engagement of the community* with its different stakeholders, facilitating intercultural dialogue by learning from communities their history, traditions, values, needs and aspirations and facilitating the resolution of conflicts,
2. help the protection of the integrity and authenticity of the urban heritage through *knowledge and planning* that allow the recognition of cultural significance and diversity and help the monitoring and managing process,
3. recognize the local *regulatory systems* including both the formal tools of laws, regulation and policies and the informal ones such as the traditional and customary systems that should even be reinforced if necessary,
4. aim to develop *financial tools* in order to make the HUL approach process financially sustainable.

The resilience of historic cities

Until 2020, the urban population was exponentially growing, with half of the world's population living in cities, and trends forecasted that this would have brought the 70% of the humanity to live in urban environments by 2100 (ONU, 2015). This exponential development might stop because of the Covid-19 pandemic that probably will lead to a more balanced relationship between the urban and the rural population, giving back value to shrinking cities and abandoned rural villages. The historic city is strictly dealing with the topic of cultural heritage management having to deal both with the conservation issues and with the complexity of the urban organism with its

⁶ The case studies are Ballarat in Australia, Shanghai and Suzhou in China, Cuenca in Ecuador, Rawalpindi in Pakistan, Zanzibar in Tanzania, Naples in Italy and Amsterdam in the Netherlands.

social, cultural and physical fabric. In the uncertain scenario of the post Covid urban development it is possible to affirm that for a certain period

- living in cities and in denser environments will be riskier from a sanitary point of view but at the same time will allow better access to health infrastructures,
- a different attention will be given to rural environments,
- public spaces, both closed and open, will need to change,
- digital spaces will increase their importance in the social fabric dynamics.

In this framework heritage and historic cities are examples of resilience and adaptivity as in time they were able to respond to the socio-economic change, but at the same time they need to face the economic and urban issues that result from a management that mainly oriented them to answer to an ever growing flux of visitors and to tourism demand. The opportunity is to find a new balance and a new management for tourism system and its with positive impacts from the environmental, social and economic points of view through working on citizens' awareness.

4. Tourism: threat and resource – the problem of overtourism

A theme on which the debate on heritage has had to focus is that of tourism, which includes a variety of problems and subjects involved at international scale. Over the past few decades, the increase in travel-related opportunities, and the facilitation of travel with programs and commercial products accessible to a large public, has generated a movement of people never recorded in history. Tourism companies have mainly oriented themselves on standardized products thereby contributing to the industrial commodification of the welcome, hospitality and cultural sectors. The *United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)* in 2018 recorded 1.6 billion international travellers per year, of which a large part is travelling for cultural reasons; in 2017 they forecasted an international tourism annual growth rate of 3.3% by 2030⁷.

The sites on the World Heritage List receive great media visibility and consequently increase their attractiveness generating an important economy for the place. The travel related economy has characteristics that were never experienced both in terms of size and modality.

The evolution of this sector has been very rapid and there are many cases of sites where public administrations have seen the positive economic effect for their city but have not been able to forecast the problems that they would have encountered in a few years. Many Heritage Sites share the difficulty of managing tourism numbers as there has been no real planning and management of them and administrations and

⁷ That trend, since 2020, has not been able to reflect the reality of a global society affected by the COVID-19 pandemic.

communities have only equipped themselves to respond to the growing market demand. In doing so, in some cases the Sites found themselves congested, degraded and emptied of their community and identity.

Overtourism

In recent years, there has been no lack of demonstrations by citizens showing the unsustainability of *overtourism* situations, even in very different contexts. The term *Overtourism* is used for the first time in 2006 and defines a phenomenon that concerns a popular destination or a site that becomes too frequented by tourists and in which residents suffer from the change, consequently to tourism, of their lifestyles. Environmental problems, pollution, social changes are also associated with this. Finally, the phenomenon of *overtourism* also damages tourism itself as it creates a negative image of the use of the activities and goods characterizing the destination. A definition of this phenomenon is given by Rachel Dodds and Richard Butler that say that *overtourism* is only the new term for a problem that has always existed: the problem of an excessive number of people had already been highlighted, for example by John Ruskin in the mid-19th century regarding the city of Venice, or the impact that the tours, organized by Thomas Cook in Egypt, had on the site (Dodds, Butler, 2019). Currently, the phenomenon has grown exponentially and so the negative impact on the local community affecting for example infrastructures that are congested, the environment with the increase of waste and pollution, the reduction of services to residents, the insufficient housing for locals and consequently the increase in rents etc. From what concerns the environmental threat by tourism the mass displacement of people to tourist destinations has contributed to climate warming through, for example, gas emissions, in particular with planes and cruise ships tourism, waste production, water pollution etc. and consumption is not only of environmental resources but also of local culture. As reported by Sue Hodges⁸, referring to the opportunities generated by the global suspension caused by the pandemic, in her keynote speech formulated for the forum of the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation *Building Peace through Heritage 2020*⁹:

“We are now at a crucial turning-point. If tourism returns to its pre-COVID-19 levels, heritage sites will be irretrievably damaged, many local residents associated with them will be forced out of their homes due to rising costs of living, and carbon emissions from transport will continue to increase.” (Hodges, 2020)

⁸ President of the ICOMOS International Scientific Committee on Heritage Interpretation and Presentation.

⁹ The Forum is an international cultural event for the discussion of issues related to heritage, the environment and travel to generate opportunities for dialogue between cultures. More details in paragraph six.

Furthermore, the communication of heritage has often been limited to its tangible and historical characteristics, not giving particular importance to its intangible aspects that make up its cultural landscape. The market asked for an ever-faster journey aimed at 'distracting' rather than understanding, meeting and experiencing a new reality, in this process, often the culture of the place, the expressions of the contemporary culture that generates and shapes the urban organism, has not been at the centre of attention of the city managers. A city whose politics is not attentive to the mosaic of contemporary cultures of which its community is a spokesperson is a city that does not know itself and therefore cannot have a vision towards which to project itself with a strategic management plan displaying sufficient awareness of risk. In many cases, the communities residing on the site were not protected and gradually abandoned it. Whole urban fabric parts have been reconverted and, no longer giving services to the citizens, they no more meet their needs but only those of travellers. So, the community and its local culture tend to move to the suburbs and leave a void within the site, as well as the traditions and customs that characterized the local cultural identity strictly that when connected to the urban morphology (think of the artisan workshops) are lost. This process is scarcely reversible as it would entail the rebuilding of a fabric of relationships that often has formed over generations. It should be emphasized that local popular culture is part of the reasons why a site is included in the Heritage List and its loss also jeopardizes its presence within the List. To give an example, the Italian city of Venice, a magnificent case of a city built on water and part of the List since 1987, has developed over time with a policy that has put its cultural value at risk, for example among the various actions undertaken such as the permission to cruise ships to enter into the channels altering the lagoon ecosystem. The World Heritage Committee has questioned the city's privilege of being part of the World Heritage List¹⁰, risking losing its Outstanding Universal Values due also to the depopulation of the city and the lack of management of mass tourism. In response to the Committee's decision a report was drawn up by the city on the state of conservation of the Venice and its Lagoon World Heritage Site to respond to the requests and recommendations of the UNESCO Committee¹¹. The city has revised its long-term planning and management strategy by making a collaboration pact: the *Pact for the development of the City of Venice* between the Municipality of Venice and the Italian Government.

¹⁰ Decision 40 COM.B.52 of the Istanbul World Heritage Committee.

¹¹ <https://www.comune.venezia.it/sites/comune.venezia.it/files/page/files/rapporto.pdf>



Figure 1. Venice, author Lodovico Folin-Calabi, Copyright: © UNESCO, Permanent URL whc.unesco.org/en/documents/111230



Figure 2. Venice from San Giorgio bell tower, photograph Corinna Del Bianco



Figure 3. Traditional typology on the city of Venice, façade of a house standing on a canal, photograph Corinna Del Bianco



Figure 4. Cruise ships in Venice, photograph The Independent

<https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/cruise-ship-has-alleged-close-call-in-venice-8735589.html>

A lesson learnt with the Covid-19 pandemic

The problem of *overtourism* is not easily reversible. It is difficult to stop or differently conduct an economy that is already planned and giving employment to many people. With the Covid-19 pandemic the drastic and dramatic stop gave an opportunity and made evident the errors of the management in many historic cities. The abandonment of the historical centres by the local community is a phenomenon present in many sites and is highlighted in exceptional historical moments when there is a lack of travellers. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, which forced most of the Italian population voluntarily to stay at home for over two months, the historic centre of the city of Florence remained completely empty. In fact, the centre, inscribed as a Site on the World Heritage List since 1982, gradually lost its citizens between the end of the 1900s and the first two decades of 2000, going against the forecasts of the city's development plan developed after the destructions of the Second World War which foresaw an important growth of the urban population. The city, focusing on tourism development, initially concentrated the main accommodation facilities and services intended for purely tourist and foreign users in the centre, and then, especially with the advent of new tools and channels of communication and sale (to mention the best known of many Airb&b), converted the houses of the city centre into accommodation to be used for short-term tourist rentals¹². This conversion of the real estate assets of the historic centre was not

¹² There are many issues related to the topic of short-term rentals, including, to name a few, the safety of housing, hygiene checks, maintenance of systems and the management of these accommodations or the social implications such as the monoculture of a society increasingly dependent on a single resource or the devaluation of the hospitality professions.

planned but was born as a widespread and bottom up initiative by the owners of one or more apartments in the historic centre who, through short-term rent, could increase their income. The city thus emptied itself of its inhabitants, and during the pandemic not only the streets were empty, but also the houses. This state of abandonment of the historic centre, the urban area that is 'culturally' recognized as the most important and representative of the local cultural identity, is a contradiction, which above all favours criminality and degradation. In addition to this, with the passing of the pandemic and the restarting of activities on a national scale, the historic centre is economically the slowest part of the city to be reactivated, as it is mainly oriented towards international traveller services. Therefore, tourism was considered as a problem for the enhancement and management of heritage, but which created opportunities from an economic and employment point of view, but with the 2020 pandemic it was verified that this method of managing the historic centre has generated a very weak reality not investing on its resilience¹³. Paolo Del Bianco¹⁴ in a telephone interview of the 22nd of May 2020 stated that the Covid-19 experience has shown to all places with a good level of receptivity and tourism that becoming a monoculture economy has serious risks. So, the forced restriction of pandemic highlights that the administrations have let the tourist phenomenon progress without setting limits and becoming totally dependent on tourism leading not only to a loss of local identities, but also to dead cities and to widespread lack of work.

The human being is adaptable, the communities react to difficult situations, they are able to cope with changes and use creativity to revive the fate of the place they live in, but, where the community is not there, the lack of this resource is also felt. This is why it is important to always start with a reflection on what the culture of a place is and how it determines its identity. Having this definition in mind allows the professional to operate in asset management by leveraging the resources and aspirations of the local community. With the COVID-19 pandemic, humanity was able to fully realize that the styles and models of life that had spread between the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first are not sustainable. The production of waste, air, water and soil pollution that is the result of the indiscriminate consumption at the base of the capitalist model does not allow for a peaceful coexistence of our species with the planet and the equilibrium is clearly broken. As reported by Maritta Koch Weser and Stephan Doempke in the foreword to the 2020 Report of World Heritage Watch tourism has become a threat to the Sites and the World Heritage Committee should demand an accurate management

¹³ Dario Nardella, mayor of Florence, near the conclusion of the Italian Phase 2 of the Coronavirus health emergency, declared, in an article of 13 May 2020 on the local newspaper *Corriere Fiorentino*, the city in default, as the cultural sector and its historic center depend on the revenue generated by tourism.

¹⁴ President of the Fondazione Romualdo Del Bianco – Life Beyond Tourism.

plan regarding the development of tourism at the time of nomination. They also add that the Covid-19 pandemic is an opportunity for a fresh new beginning and thought should focus on which tourism we want in the future, and the World Heritage Committee should create adequate guidelines for achieving these goals (World Heritage Watch, 2020). From this lesson learnt in 2020, various possible scenarios open up and on which politics should focus in order to understand the new cities vision and therefore work on holistic management plans rooted into the specific cultural context. Probably with the Covid-19 pandemic we have more than one great opportunity: on the one hand to impose a conversion and reorganization of a previous bad management of the tourism system and resource, enhancing and encouraging other productive activities and local creativity, and on the other hand the travel regains value, is no longer a consumable item, as it will be increasingly difficult and more expensive to afford it. It will lose the 'distracted' character and regain importance, it will become a coveted moment for which it will be natural to study, learn about local culture and therefore be more ready to appreciate and respect the visited heritage and culture.

In conclusion, tourism is a precious cultural opportunity and the management plans should be formulated taking into account the cultural resource of foreigners in a context who can be welcomed as real guests, encouraging cultural exchange between residents and travellers and between residents themselves and activating a process of appreciation of the cultural diversity and thus activating opportunities for intercultural dialogue. For this reason, in the following chapter, we see a case study that was developed, starting from a practical experience in the world of tourism in Florence, by the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation, a private Florentine foundation dedicated to dialogue among cultures through travel for cultural reasons.

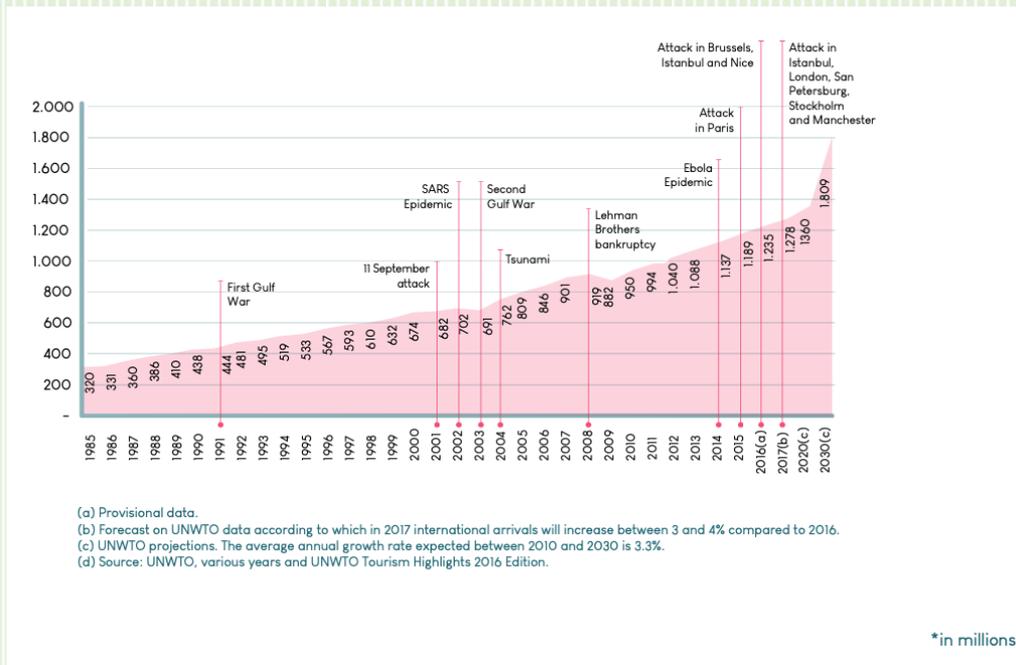


Figure 5. The International tourists' arrivals in the world and UNWTO 2017 projections. Graph redrawn by the International Institute Life Beyond Tourism

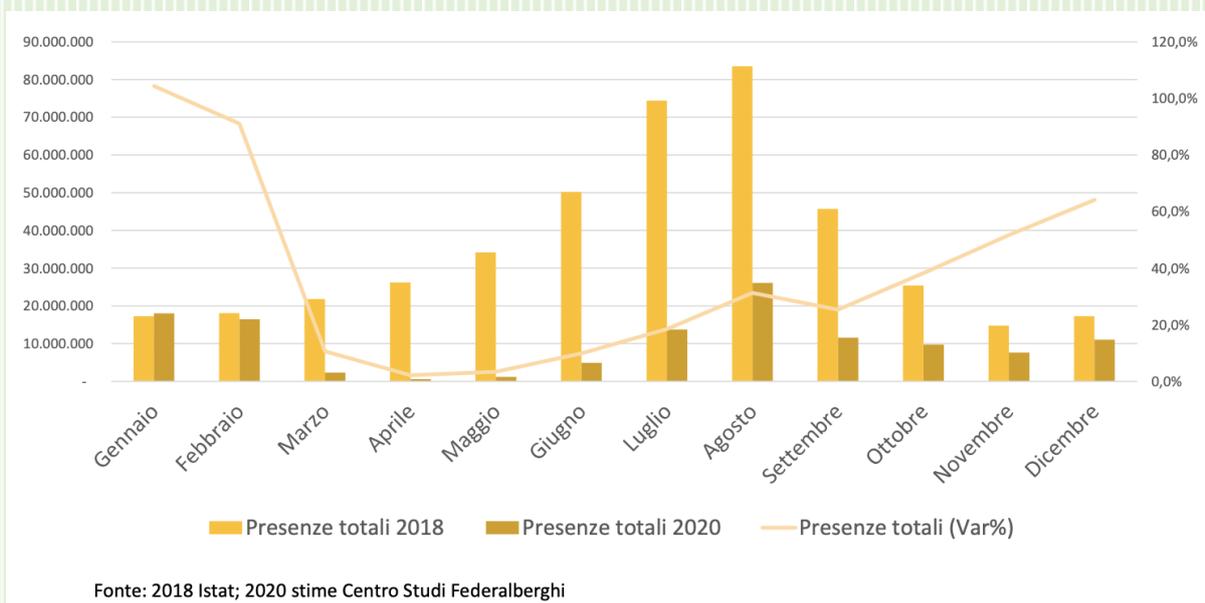


Figure 6. The impact of Covid-19 on the Italian hospitality sector. In the graph are reported the total occupancy 2018 (ISTAT source), the total occupancy 2020 (Centro Studi Federalberghi esteem), variation of total occupancy. Source Osservatorio Federalberghi

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UNWTO | www.unwto.org

Prof. Bogusław Szmygin

Lublin University of Technology

UNESCO Historic Urban Landscape Recommendation – approach and method of managing of historic cites/sites

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Changing the approach to the historic city/site /The traditional approach and HUL Recommendation 2011/.....	47

In the XXI century, the most important doctrinal document that defined a new approach to the protection and management of heritage is the HUL Recommendation adopted in 2011 by the General Assembly of UNESCO. Initially, this document has been adopted for implementation in the protection and management of sites inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List. Currently, it is treated as a leading document for the entire protection of heritage. That is why it is necessary to present its assumptions and provisions, as they form the basis of a new paradigm for the protection and management of heritage.

I. Assumptions of the Recommendation on the Historical Urban Landscape

Analysing the content of the HUL Recommendation at the beginning, it is necessary to emphasize several important issues that constitute a kind of basis and justification for further provisions.

First of all, the Recommendation emphasizes the great importance of cities and their development in the modern world. It was emphasized that the current process of urbanization has no precedent in the history of human development. The circumstances, needs and requirements that determine urban development have completely changed. As a consequence, the circumstances that defined the traditional principles of functioning and protection of historical cities have also changed.

The Recommendation emphasizes the huge role of the urbanization process in the current development of humanity. Broadly understood urbanization is an important factor conducive to raising the standard of living in many societies, it is a factor conducive to reducing the level of poverty (education, work, health care, etc.).

It was also stressed that the process of urban development should be a sustainable process. And in this context, active approaches to existing resources, including heritage, are necessary.

The second important issue is the problem of heritage. The Recommendation clearly emphasizes the multifaceted value of heritage and its key importance as a factor stabilizing the development and identity of historical cities. For example, the role of heritage in shaping and maintaining the cohesion of societies is clearly highlighted (par. 3). The potential of historical objects and spaces that can be used for a variety of contemporary functions is also emphasized. The use of this potential - for example tourism, can be a very important factor in the development of cities (par. 19).

The third issue is the numerous adverse processes that create a variety of threats to cities. (par. 15, 16, 17). First of all, attention is paid to such phenomena as globalization, unification, excessive development, lack of control and planning, rescaling of new buildings. All these phenomena destroy the historical values of cities, their identity, lead to the universal unification of space and buildings (par. 2).

The degradation of cities as a result of suburbanization (*suburbanization and urban sprawl*) or fragmentation of spatial planning, which also lead to the destruction of the functional value of historical areas (par. 18), is emphasized.

Another issue raised is the evolution of the concept of heritage and the approach to heritage and its management. (*the evolution of the concepts of culture and heritage, and approaches to their management*). In recent decades, the concept of heritage has been significantly expanded (it has included many additional tangible and intangible elements). In a new – very broadened way, the concept of authenticity has been defined (*1994 Nara Meeting on Authenticity*). In the analysis of heritage, the context of its functioning began to be introduced to an increasing extent (*2005 ICOMOS General Assembly on the Setting of Monuments and Sites in Xi'an - Xi'an Declaration; 2008 ICOMOS General Assembly on the Spirit of Place in Québec*).

An important element of the change in the understanding of heritage was the growing link between heritage protection and development processes. Heritage began to be seen through the prism of its importance for the functioning and identity of the community. (*1982 World Conference on Cultural Policies in Mexico City; 1995 summit of the World Commission on Culture and Development; 1996 HABITAT II Conference in Istanbul with ratification of Agenda 21; 1998 UNESCO Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies for Development in Stockholm; 1998 joint World Bank-UNESCO Conference on Culture in Sustainable Development–Investing in Cultural and Natural Endowments*)

Of course, the process of expanding the concept of heritage also included historical cities. The need to include the specificity of the protection of historical cities in the context of the growing processes of urbanization, modernization, globalization, etc., was of course noticed in environments dealing with development and protection. Therefore, initiatives were taken to summarise, evaluate and regulate these issues. Inter alia: *1987 ICOMOS Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas (Washington Charter); 2005 International Conference on World Heritage and Contemporary Architecture in Vienna (Vienna Memorandum), 2011 ICOMOS General Assembly in Paris (Valletta Principles)*.

The presented list contains the most important assumptions that can be identified in the Recommendation as a justification for its creation. All these issues show that

historical cities are now facing a qualitatively new situation, compared to 1976, when it was established *Recommendation concerning the Safeguarding and Contemporary Role of Historic Areas*. This makes it necessary to take a new approach to the problems of maintenance, protection and development of historical cities. And this is to justify the introduction of the concept and approach of HUL.

2. Shaping the concept of the Historical Urban Landscape in the process of creating the HUL Recommendation.

The most important element of the HUL Recommendation is the concept of the Historical Urban Landscape. Its full identification is a prerequisite for understanding and implementing this document. However, this is not a simple task, although several points of the Recommendation contain defining provisions – or rather, it should be said, describing this concept. The difficulty in synthetically defining the term HUL results from its complexity (the concept is to include many elements of different nature) and ambiguity (the term "landscape" is broad and imprecise).

Term *Historic Urban Landscape*) consists of 3 elements, with the new quality to be created by the term "landscape" referred to "historical city". This pledge is to open urban issues to a very broad approach, which is associated with the concept of "landscape". However, this breadth of the concept also introduces imprecision, openness of interpretation. The concept of landscape may be even more of a category of meaning, rather than a physically existing entity subject to analysis. Therefore, the landscape can rather be "experienced" than "observed".

Therefore, despite the formal adoption of the Recommendation, the concept of the Historical Urban Landscape is still in the defining phase. Therefore, in order to understand them well, it is worth recalling the several-year process of its formulation, which took place as part of the preparation of the HUL Recommendation. All the more so because it will help to reveal the features and elements that characterize HUL.

From a formal point of view, the concept of HU was formed in a very short time. Only 6 years have passed between the introduction of this concept into the Vienna Memorandum and the granting of its key status in the HUL Recommendation.

In fact, in such a short time, such a qualitatively significant change could not have been made. The need to change the traditional – static, material and limited – understanding of the historical city and to take into account broader conditions in its protection has been growing for a long time. Its expression was, for example, the

study of the morphology of the city, which aimed to identify the various units from which the city is built and show them in a diachronic cross-section.

In these studies, the concept of the city landscape began to appear (urban landscape) and urban landscape units. Postulates about the need to take into account the pressures and needs of contemporary development in historical cities appeared already in the Recommendation of 1976. Similarly, the whole subsequent process of broadening the concept of heritage and improving the tools of its analysis and protection created the basis for a new approach to the issue of urban protection.

However, all the activities expanding and modifying the traditional approach to historical cities did not create a new, coherent whole. The documents created all the time referred to the Venice Charter, thus emphasizing the timeliness of the traditional understanding of the monument and its protection. The new documents concerned either certain heritage groups or the specific conditions under which heritage protection was carried out (e.g. specificity of regions). Therefore, until the formulation of the concept of HUL, it could be considered that the protection of historical cities is carried out within the framework of the traditional paradigm of monument protection.

As the first definition of HUL, one can treat the provisions formulated in 2005 in Vienna Memorandum. This definition included a wide spectrum of elements (primarily physical) forming the structure of a historical urban ensemble and their mutual relations from very different points of view. (par.7 VM). That definition was as follows.

The historic urban landscape, building on the 1976 “UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Safeguarding and Contemporary Role of Historic Areas”, refers to ensembles of any group of buildings, structures and open spaces, in their natural and ecological context, including archaeological and paleontological sites, constituting human settlements in an urban environment over a relevant period of time, the cohesion and value of which are recognized from the archaeological, architectural, prehistoric, historic, scientific, aesthetic, socio-cultural or ecological point of view.

In subsequent provisions of the Memorandum, this definition was completed. Examples of elements that also define urban space and should be covered by the HUL approach are listed. (par.8 i 9) - *elements that include land uses and patterns, spatial organization, visual relationships, topography and soils, vegetation, and all elements of the technical infrastructure, including small scale objects and details of construction (curbs, paving, drain gutters, lights, etc..*

Despite the breadth of the definition – but in line with the reference to the 1976 Recommendation – the fundamental emphasis was still placed on the broad spectrum

of physical elements that make up the landscape. There is a logical reference to the concept of "landscape", which has become the starting point for the concept of HUL.

The term "landscape", understood as a typological category of heritage, is broader than the concept of "complex of objects", which is why it was used in the creation of the term HUL. This is indirectly confirmed by the content of point II - *historic urban landscape goes beyond traditional terms of "historic centres", "ensembles" or "surroundings", often used in charters and protection laws, to include the broader territorial and landscape context.* However, this is why the definition formulated in the Vienna Memorandum is still focused on physical elements and their relationships - that is, it is still close to the traditionally understood landscape. This approach was justified – the Vienna Conference and the Memorandum were provoked by the new architecture and its impact on historic cities, even when it was located outside the physical boundaries of the protection of these cities.

The definition of the Historical Urban Landscape formulated in the Vienna Memorandum was discussed. Subsequent meetings of experts and consultations soon led to its extension. As the next phase of defining HUL the terms written by experts in 2008 can be considered.

*Historic urban landscape is a mindset, an understanding of the city, or parts of the city, as an outcome of natural, cultural and socio-economic processes that construct it spatially, temporally, and experientially. It is as much about buildings and spaces, as This approach was justified – the Vienna Conference and the Memorandum were provoked by the new architecture and its impact on historic cities, even when it was located outside the physical boundaries of the protection of these cities, rituals and values that people bring into the city. This concept encompasses layers of symbolic significance, intangible heritage, perception of values, and interconnections between the composite elements of the historic urban landscape, as well as local knowledge including building practices and management of natural resources. Its usefulness resides in the notion that it incorporates **a capacity for change.***

This definition already contains a larger spectrum of elements than the definition contained in the Vienna Memorandum. All processes that shape the city (its physical elements), intangible assets, ways of management, etc. are taken into account. The presented definition captures practically all the elements and factors that create and determine the city.

However, equally important – and perhaps even more important – is the statement about the possibility (necessity) of change. The recognition that the change is part of the characteristics of the city means that the existing views on the principles of protection of historical complexes are completely re-evaluated. Traditionally, the

overriding goal of heritage protection was its protection, understood as the maintenance of a historical resource. Therefore, any changes were undesirable in principle - the purpose of conservation activities was to limit the changes as much as possible. In the given definition, "changes" become an element (feature) that determines the characteristics of a historical city. This aspect has become a permanent part of the HUL approach.

Subsequent discussions, consultations and meetings of experts led to the formulation of the definition of HUL, which was finally presented in the HUL Recommendation adopted in 2011.

The current term HUL has been shortened from previous definitions and contains few elements (par.9). According to the current definition, a "historical urban landscape" is a historical urban area, along with cultural and natural values, seen in a broad context, going beyond the concept of "historical center" or "ensemble".

The historic urban landscape is the urban area understood as the result of a historic layering of cultural and natural values, extending beyond the notion of "historic centre" or "ensemble" to include the broader urban context and its geographical setting.

The key to this definition is the concept of "context", which was formulated in the next point of the Recommendation (point 10). The context is formulated very broadly, more broadly than in the traditional sense of landscape. The traditional – materially understood – landscape approach includes three components: geography, nature and culture.

However, all these elements are perceived rather statically. It is recognized that all components have a significant share and value in the creation of the landscape, but the landscape understood in this way is already a ready, created, closed entity – therefore, in the existing (historically shaped) form it is subject to protection. Meanwhile, the Recommendation in the concept of HUL also includes intangible values and processes – e.g. traditions, patterns, views, identity, and processes that are inherently dynamic – development and growth.

*This wider context includes the site's topography, geomorphology and natural features; its built environment, both historic and contemporary; its infrastructures above and below ground; its open spaces and gardens; its land use patterns and spatial organization; its visual relationships; and all other elements of the urban structure. It also includes social and cultural practices and values, economic processes, and the intangible dimensions of heritage as related to diversity and identity, all of which establish the basic role of the city as an agent for communal **growth and development**.*

It is the concept of "development" and "growth" that is a key and new element that expands the HUL approach. Until now, the concepts created for the purpose of heritage protection did not contain such clearly defined obligations to take into account other aspects of the functioning of the city. However, in these provisions, development and growth are to be taken into account. It is made clear that the hulu approach is also that the identification, evaluation and management of a historic city should be carried out in the context of sustainable development (par.11).

This definition provides the basis for a comprehensive approach for the identification, assessment, conservation and management of historic urban landscapes within an overall sustainability framework.

This means that development goals are an inherent part of the HUH approach. And this is another important aspect in the characteristics of HUL.

3. Principles (manner) of treatment of heritage.

Another important issue resulting from the interpretation of the HUL Recommendation is a fundamental change in the way heritage is treated. The change in the treatment of heritage has already been mentioned as one of the reasons justifying the development of the HUL Recommendation. There, however, reference was made to changes that had already taken place, as evidenced by the various conservation documents cited.

This creates the impression that the detailed provisions on operation in historical cities are an obvious consequence of the changes that have already taken place. However, this is not the case. It is the HUL Recommendation that shapes new boundaries (pushes them even further) in the way heritage is treated. And this is an issue that needs to be very clearly emphasized.

The way in which heritage is treated is absolutely crucial for the entire heritage protection system. If the values of heritage are considered to be paramount, this creates the basis for recognizing that all activities related to heritage can be assessed (and subordinated) to its protection. The adoption of such an assumption allowed for the location of heritage at the center of the created system, which is to serve its protection. Such an attitude towards heritage was considered correct in traditional conservation and traditional conservation theory served to support such an attitude.

The analysis of the HUL Recommendation in this aspect can be a bit confusing. There are many provisions in it that declare respect for historic values and recommend their protection. First of all, it is already written in the Preamble that existing

conservation documents remain valid, including the Venice Charter, which is, after all, the most important doctrinal document of traditional conservation.

The following points also highlight the importance of heritage, but these references are made primarily in terms of contemporary investments and interventions. For example, it is assumed that modern development should respect and be harmonized with the historical environment (*contemporary interventions respect and are harmonious with heritage in a historic setting* - par.13). It is also recommended that development be harmonized and use local development traditions (par.14). Contemporary architectural interventions should respect existing environments and patterns; traditions in the development of space should be continued (*Respect for historic values should be the guiding principle for architectural interventions. Continuity of composition, which does not disrupt existing architecture, deserves priority.* – par.22). It also stresses the need to maintain a balance between new architecture and historical (*Special emphasis should be put on a balanced relation between urban continuity and contemporary architecture* – par. 22).

Thus, the protection of heritage values is consistently combined with contemporary interventions and goals. This, in fact, undermines the declarations of respect for traditional (restrictive) conservation documents. Traditional conservation theory – limiting interventions in historic buildings to conservation, restoration and anastylosis (Venice Charter), cannot in practice be reconciled with "contemporary interventions".

The HUL recommendation contains a number of further provisions that present a new approach to historical cities. Those provisions may be regarded as formulating this "HUL approach".

First of all, the position of heritage in the hierarchy of goals formulated in historical cities is clearly changing. The HUL's approach is that actions concerning the historical city (and thus heritage) should be carried out in a broad context, taking into account various conditions (social, economic, cultural, development, etc. The HUL approach assumes that this context will cover all activities, even the identification of heritage - *It suggests a landscape approach for identifying, conserving and managing historic areas within their broader urban contexts, by considering the inter-relationships of their physical forms, their spatial organization and connection, their natural features and settings, and their social, cultural and economic values.* - par. 5 - Introduction).

This understanding of the historical city is also confirmed by the record contained in the chapter *Definitions*. It stresses that the approach is to be holistic; identification, evaluation and management of HUC is to be carried out in the context of sustainable development (*This definition provides the basis for a comprehensive approach for the*

identification, assessment, conservation and management of historic urban landscapes within an overall sustainability framework. - (pkt.11).

This is a new approach, because previously it was not assumed that the identification (assessment) of heritage (historical areas) would depend on the context of such conditions. Of course, the conservation theory developed in the last decades of the twentieth century has abandoned the universal concept of heritage; it is widely accepted that heritage should be perceived (analysed, assessed, protected) in its own cultural contexts. However, the cultural context is completely different, and the context of contemporary developmental conditions is another. This change of approach is very important, because contemporary conditions can be defined and shaped quite freely. This opens up the possibility of quite free manipulation of the value of heritage.

The consequence of the change in the perception of the historical city as a subject of interest is a change in the approach to its protection and conservation. Conservation activities in the light of the HUL Recommendation serve not only to preserve heritage, but also to achieve other goals. For example, point 3 states that the heritage of cities serves their economic development and the preservation of social compatibility, so its conservation is a way to maintain a balance between urban development and quality of life - *conservation has become a strategy to achieve a balance between urban growth and quality of life on a sustainable basis.*)

This approach is also contained in point 4, which stresses the need to move from activities focused on heritage protection to the perception of conservation in the broader context of social, economic and cultural processes. Further provisions even state that the HUI approach makes it possible to integrate heritage protection into the processes of economic and social development - *It integrates the goals of urban heritage conservation with those of social and economic development. - pkt.12).*

In turn, in point 23, which concerns the strategy for the implementation of the Recommendation, it is written that the conservation of the heritage of cities is to be integrated with other plans of the city's strategies - *Policies for urban heritage conservation should be integrated into those dealing with the broader urban context, with historic forms and practices informing sustainable contemporary development.*

All these provisions are logical and should not raise doubts. It is difficult to question the recommendation that conservation activities should also serve other development and social goals. In practice, however, it must be remembered that complex social, economic or cultural goals cannot be achieved by limiting the treatment of heritage to the conservation or restoration of monuments. This means a

change in traditional methods of action – there can no longer be any question of respecting the Venice Charter.

Another important element characterizing the change of approach to heritage in the HUL Recommendation is the way of determining the value of heritage and the objectives of its protection. In traditional conservation, this was the area of activity of specialists. This was due to the fact that heritage was the subject of objective knowledge, which required specialized knowledge. As a consequence, it was specialists who determined the value of heritage and the forms of its protection.

This approach has been changing for some time and in some national heritage protection systems (e.g. Australia, England, Canada), the so-called stakeholders have an increasing share and influence on heritage decisions. In the HUL Recommendation, this approach is valid and present in many provisions. For example, paragraph 28 records the participation of stakeholders in the definition, evaluation and development of conservation activities related to urban heritage - *All levels of government – local, national/federal, regional – should be aware of their responsibility and contribute to the definition, development, implementation and assessment of urban heritage conservation and development policies, based on a participatory approach of all stakeholders....*).

The provisions in point 31 go even further, because they not only assume the participation of stakeholders in the identification of heritage values, but even recommend obtaining their acceptance for activities related to their protection - *Community engagement tools should educate a diverse cross-section of stakeholders and empower them to identify key values in their urban areas, develop visions, set goals, **and agree** on actions to safeguard their heritage...*

Thus, this aspect of the treatment of heritage is another element of the departure from the conservation traditions that were in force until recently.

4. What is HUL - the way of approach, the means, the feature?

Defining the scope of the concept of HUL, and the difference of this concept in relation to the concepts previously used in the protection of historical cities, does not exhaust the problem. It is also necessary to specify the function that this concept performs. The scope and manner of its use depend on it. However, a lack of precision in this regard can lead to misunderstandings.

The function – it would be more precise to say the ontological status of HUL, is not obvious. There have been many misunderstandings in this matter from the beginning,

resulting even from the aforementioned ambiguity in the understanding of the term "landscape". Of no small importance was also the fact that the conceptual scope (semantic field of meanings) of this term evolved over such a short period of time. As a result, until recently it was wondered whether this concept does not define a new typological group of heritage.

Such an understanding was widespread, which significantly limited the introduction of the concept of HU in its contemporary proposed sense. This was – and still is – a significant obstacle to the implementation of the HUL Recommendation.

Currently, these doubts are no longer there. HUL is not a new heritage category (typological group) that includes more elements – for example, in relation to the "historical city" category. HUL, on the other hand, can be interpreted and function in three understandings.

In the first sense, HUL is a **way of treating** a city; it is a way of approaching the analysis, protection and development of a historical city. It is an approach that can be called holistic, because it includes all the elements, values (tangible and intangible) and goals that make up the modern city. The HUL approach is therefore an approach that obliges to the widest possible perception of the city. It requires that the analysis of the city takes into account all elements – it does not allow for their separation. This interpretation is confirmed in the Recommendation (*Historic Urban Landscape as **an approach** to urban heritage conservation – Preamble*).

In the second sense, HUL is a **means (form) of action** used in a historical city; such an understanding is, as it were, a consequence of the application of the HUL approach (first understanding). At the working (analytical) level, the application of the HUL approach requires taking into account (and thus examining) the mutual relations and impact of individual elements that make up cities. The HUL approach therefore forces that when analysing any aspect of the city's functioning, at the same time taking into account its impact on other aspects.

For example, when planning and taking action to protect historical elements, it is necessary to simultaneously take into account the consequences of these actions in all possible aspects of the functioning of the city (e.g. development). In this case, the HUL approach also makes it a new way (means, form) and even a strategy for action in a historical city. This is how it is presented in the Recommendation (*landscape approach is considered **a new means** to address urban heritage management and maintain urban identity - Preamble*).

In the third possible approach, HUL is understood as the broadest possible spectrum of elements, values and relationships forming the characteristics of a historical city. Such an approach and understanding is somehow included in the definition of HUL

when it is perceived in an isolated way; such a definition consists of a list of the elements that the concept covers.

Understood in this way, HUL becomes a kind of **"feature" of the city**, which can, for example, be the subject of protection. Such treatment of HUL appeared in the provisions adopted by GA 16 in 2008 (*the urban landscape as a feature that has to be preserved* - par.2).

The listed understandings (functions) of the term HUL are therefore different. It has not yet been formally established which understanding is valid. This is difficult because all 3 understandings of HUL are not mutually exclusive. Therefore, their use can be confusing and imprecise – this is the current issue. That is why it is so important to determine in what sense the term HUL is used in a given case; it is harmful when communicating partners use the same concepts in different senses and functions.

Currently, this is a basic problem limiting the implementation of the HUL Recommendation. However, it can be predicted that the concept of the Historical Urban Landscape will primarily be understood as a way of analysing of historic cities/sites.

5. Scope of application and obligations resulting from the Historic Urban Landscape Recommendation.

Another important issue that needs to be determined is the scope of application of the Recommendation on the Historical Urban Landscape.

First of all, it was not clear whether the Recommendation applies only to cities recognized as UNESCO World Heritage sites. The problem of the scope of the Recommendation will not appear without a reason. The several-year and loud process of preparing the HUL Recommendation began with problems related to new architecture (primarily high-rise buildings) threatening cities inscribed on the World Heritage List. The Vienna Conference and the Memorandum that resulted from it were caused by the crisis in protection and development of the UNESCO World Heritage Cities.

The process of adapting the Memorandum and transforming it into a Recommendation was also carried out in the circle of organizations and specialists dealing with World Heritage. Therefore, the association of the Recommendation with World Heritage was fully justified.

However, the final text of the Recommendation clearly indicates that it is a universal document - it applies to all historical cities. As a formal confirmation of this, it can be

considered that the Recommendation was adopted by the General Assembly of UNESCO (*Member States*), and not by the General Conference of States Parties of the Signatories to the WH Convention). Thus, the HUU approach can be applied to all historical cities (not only UNESCO World Heritage cities).

The scope of application of the Recommendation is also related to the issue of the scope of obligations arising from it. The Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape should be implemented by UNESCO Member States. The Recommendation stresses that the HUL approach should be introduced into policies and documents that concern the protection of historical areas and the development of areas where heritage elements are located (par. 23). All stakeholders should be involved in these activities and the HUU approach should be implemented at all levels of governance of historic cities.

The Recommendation contains specific provisions on these issues. Implementation of the Historical Urban Landscape approach and strategy has been recommended at national level - *Member States should integrate urban heritage conservation strategies into national development policies and agendas according to the historic urban landscape approach* (pkt. 24).

At local level, it was recommended to implement this approach to development plans - *Within this framework, local authorities should prepare urban development plans that take the area's values, including heritage values, and the associated features, into consideration* (pkt. 24).

It is also worth paying attention to the provisions regarding the involvement of organizations related to heritage protection and sustainable development. The need for these organisations to participate in the development of tools and instruments to implement the HUL approach was stressed. Moreover, these organisations should incorporate the HUL approach into their strategies (par.26 and 27).

It was also recommended that the HUL approach should be the subject of international cooperation and exchange of experience and that it should become part of the programmes undertaken by the Member States (par. 37, 38, 39). Of course, it was also stressed that the implementation of the HUH approach should take into account local specificities.

To sum up, it can be stated that the Recommendation on the Historical Urban Landscape is to apply to all cities and areas of historical value, and all stakeholders related to the management of these cities and areas have been obliged to implement it widely. Therefore, the HUL Recommendation can be considered a strategic document that should shape a new approach to heritage protection from a global scale.

6. Tools and implementation of the Recommendation on the Historical Urban Landscape.

The recommendations formulated in the Recommendation should be implemented, and this requires appropriate methods of action. Therefore, there is a chapter in the document devoted to its implementation, entitled *Tools*.

The Recommendation clearly emphasizes that the introduction of the HUL approach requires the right tools, and many of them have yet to be created (par.29). It is stressed that a new approach requires *interdisciplinary and innovative tools*. It is noted that they should be adapted to the local context.

The tools should cover all aspects relevant to urban governance. First of all, legislative tools are indicated - *Regulatory systems* (par.30), and tools and measures to involve broad stakeholder groups - *Community engagement tools* (par.31).

Technical tools are listed to maintain the authenticity and integrity of the material attributes of the heritage of historical cities - *Technical tools* (par.32). A separate provision concerns financial tools that should enable the protection and development of the area while preserving the value of the heritage - *Financial tools* (par.33).

The subsection entitled "Tools" thus indicates the areas in which action should be taken to cover all elements significant for the city. Of course, in this type of document only such a level of detail is possible; methodologies for a detailed analysis of individual elements or their relationships may not be described.

Tools and methodologies are necessary to implement HUL's approach to practice. However, it must be clearly stated that there is a problem with this. Various types of objectifying research have been developed as part of the study of the morphology of the city (*urban morphology*). This discipline has over 100 years of history and has developed tools that enable a fairly deep analysis of the city, covering many aspects. However, these analyses are still more useful for learning about the history of the city's development than for making contemporary conservation decisions. First of all, because the scope of data disclosed by morphological studies is quite limited, in relation to the number and variety of elements that the concept of HUL covers.

Methodological deficiencies also apply to the discipline of conservation of monuments. For example, no methodology was developed to assess the consequences of actions transforming monuments - this was not needed in the light of theories assuming full protection of the form and substance of the monument. However, in the light of the HUL Recommendation, monuments can (must) be transformed to some extent, because this is required by other elements important for the functioning of the historical city.

Therefore, a methodology is necessary that will indicate the link between the value of monuments and their materially existing carriers. Such a combination of value and its carrier is a basic condition for planning the permissible scope of intervention in monuments and their consequences. The consequences of actions are the subject of monitoring, which also requires appropriate methodology and procedures. These problems also need to be defined.

Thus, the HUL approach requires the development of analytical tools that will enable its application in the practice of conservation and management of historical cities. Without this, the HUL approach will only be an idea or postulate that may lead to a weakening of conservation protection – thus to the loss of heritage value, also in the case of World Heritage goods.

Final Conclusions

Summing up the problem of treating the heritage of cities/sites in the HUL Recommendation, it can be stated that this document widely accumulates the latest trends in this area. It reflects and sanctions the changes that have taken place over the past decades in the approach to heritage and to the protection of historical cities (par. 21). Therefore, declarations of respect for traditional doctrinal documents are simply not true – the HUL Recommendation formulates, formalizes and sanctions a new approach to heritage protection.

The HUL recommendation is therefore a new methodological proposal in the approach to the protection and management of historical cities (not only heritage). The essence of the HUL approach is an extension of perspective. Until now, the historic city has been seen separately from different points of view. It was obvious that individual stakeholders perceived the historic city from different perspectives. It was assumed, however, that the protection of historic values is paramount, so the conservator becomes the most important stakeholder. This meant that the terms of compromise – if the goals and needs are contradictory – are determined by the conservator.

The current extension of the perspective is based on the fact that the conservator (still an important stakeholder in the historic area) in his approach and action takes into account not only the protection of heritage but also non-conservation needs.

For example, development needs, changes in technical and utility standards, communication requirements, resident needs, tourist traffic requirements – these types of factors must be included in the conservator's program and building a compromise with all stakeholders. Conservation services become co-responsible for

taking into account and implementing the needs of other stakeholders. This is a very important modification in the definition of conservation tasks.

Summing up the change in the approach to heritage and its protection formulated in the HUL Recommendation, the following synthesis can be made, comparing elements important due to their difference from the traditional approach.

Changing the approach to the historic city/site

/The traditional approach and HUL Recommendation 2011/

Elements, attributes and goals characterizing an approach to historical city/site	The traditional approach	The HUL approach /Recommendation 2011/
The subject of approach /elements covered by the approach/	A historical city /material elements forming and characterizing the city/	Historic Urban Landscape /all elements, values, relationships, processes - forming a city/
The subject of analysis and subject of protection	Heritage - monuments /elements and factors directly connected with heritage/	The entire historical city /all elements and factors connected with heritage and historical city/
The attitude towards to the changes and transformations	The changes are negative; changes lead to a devastation and reduction of heritage values /historical city is static/	The changes are a natural process in historical city; changes are a feature of each city - also historical /historical city must be dynamic/
The supreme aim of activities undertaken in the historic city	Protection of the heritage values	No supreme aim /the aims are equivalent - the heritage protection, sustainable development, social identity and cohesion, etc./
The way to determine the aims and values	Specialists	Specialists + public consultations /public acceptance is required/
The aim of the restorers' actions	Heritage protection /only/ /restorers are responsible only for the heritage /	Heritage protection + other aims /e.g. development/ /restorers are also responsible for other aims/

MODERN MANAGEMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL HERITAGE

Acting Prof. Dr. Alexandra Skedzuhn-Safir
BTU Cottbus-Senftenberg
Chair of Architectural Conservation

Management in the context of UNESCO World Heritage sites

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I Introduction

Approaches to cultural heritage preservation have experienced a number of significant shifts in recent times. The reference frame of what is worthy of preservation has also undergone change: formerly, the approach to preservation had primarily focused on places connected to seats of elite power—both secular and religious. Today, there is a more holistic approach to conservation, including those places that are linked to vernacular heritage and uncomfortable heritage. Today, conservation of cultural heritage has (ideally) been turning to democratic approaches, in terms of selecting the object of preservation and determining the actors who define cultural heritage. Non-expert driven approaches to cultural heritage conservation now support fostering of grassroots endeavors. From a rather fabric-based concept of preservation, conservation has moved to shift the focus towards the preservation of values. More recent developments have brought forth another perspective: the inclusion of (local) communities and stakeholders who need to participate and be actively involved in the conservation of (their) heritage. Cultural heritage conservation is no longer only about the preservation the (tangible) fabric of a place alone, but also aims at maintaining cultural diversity and knowledge, and the intangible values embodied therein. There is, furthermore, a third component that has undergone significant changes: the perception of time. Whereas cultural heritage at large has been more concerned with historic aspects of the material remains, it has developed towards looking at how the past affects our present, and what needs to be done to maintain it for the future.

The discursive shift on the preservation of cultural heritage has thus affected management issues. Even in an expert-driven, UNESCO World Heritage setting, this shift incorporates a more inclusive and integrated approach to discerning values, engaging stakeholders, and forming heritage management aims.

II Managing World Heritage sites¹⁵

Generally speaking, archaeological heritage management can be divided into three distinct systems: those that are guided by secular communities, those led by religious communities, and those based on the guidelines and conditions established for UNESCO World Heritage (WH) sites. The focus of this section concerns the latter. The key objective of the management of a World Heritage site lies in the protection of the so-called Outstanding Universal Value (OUV) of a nominated property. It is these values and their (in-)tangible attributes that render a site of singular merit and

¹⁵ This chapter will deal only with cultural sites, in particular with archaeological heritage. For the management of archaeological sites, see Egloff (2019) *Archaeological Heritage Conservation and Management*. Access Archaeology.

thus worthy of inscription as World Heritage. As of spring 2020, there are 1121 sites on the WH list, of which 869 are cultural sites, with 91 of them bearing archaeological elements.¹⁶

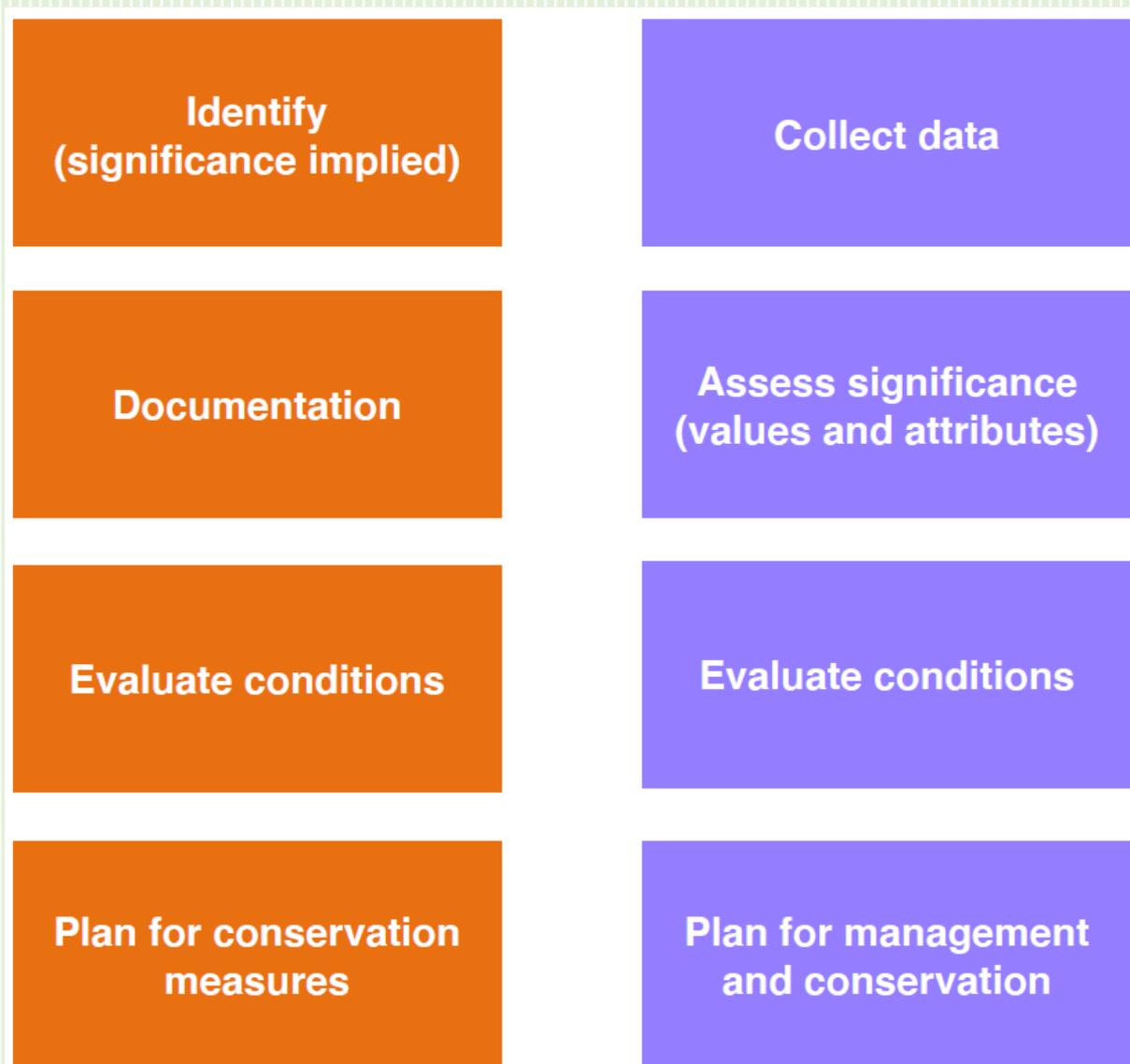


Fig. 1
Planning according to material-based and values-led approaches.
Source: UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*, p. 25;
modified by author, 2020.

The management of sites inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage list requires particularly comprehensive care so as to address the protection of the site's values that are connected to its status as World Heritage. The guiding principle of site

¹⁶ UNESCO World Heritage Centre (1992–2020) World Heritage List. Available online at https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/?search=&id_keywords=84&type=cultural&order=country (accessed 8 April 2020).

protection has been primarily based on conservation theory and a material-based approach to conservation (fig.1). However, a values-led approach to management has gained wider acceptance (fig. 1).¹⁷ Depending on the site, a management system may already have existed prior to its inscription. In other cases, the management may lie in the hands of secular or religious communities. Yet for other sites, there may not exist any management system at all. In any case, it is essential that site management be based on the corresponding national or regional legislation concerning land use, and appropriate long-term protection should be ensured. This can be based on, for instance, traditional or institutional policies at the municipal, regional, or national levels.¹⁸

In general, however, the management plan for a World Heritage site establishes the necessary objectives and strategies to protect, conserve, use and develop the relevant site. Its principles are grounded on the World Heritage Convention and other relevant international conventions, charters, recommendations, or UNESCO decisions.¹⁹

Especially for sites that are in the early phases of developing tourism plans, a well-functioning and efficient management system is vital for protecting the site's values from the pressures of mass tourism. This concerns not only the actual material of the built environment of a site, but also its cultural values, and the local communities living at the site and (non-) local groups of people with an interest in the site. The communities that live at the site, on the one hand, are understood to be an asset and resource. On the other hand, their living cultural heritage warrants protection. This makes it imperative to involve the various communities as key stakeholders during the formulation of the management plan, beginning with the values assessment prior to its inscription.

Over time, management requirements have increased in order to address surmounting and ever-evolving pressures faced by World Heritage sites, such as

¹⁷ See UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*. Paris: UNESCO.

¹⁸ UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*, p. 33.

¹⁹ A collection of ICOMOS charters and documents can be found at ICOMOS (2020) Charters and other doctrinal texts, available online at <https://www.icomos.org/en/resources/charters-and-texts> (accessed 17 March 2020). Pertaining to archaeological heritage, the most significant texts of ICOMOS are: *International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites (The Venice Charter)* – 1964; *Charter for the Protection and Management of the Archaeological Heritage* – 1990; *Charter on the Protection and Management of the Underwater Cultural Heritage* – 1996; *Salalah Guidelines for the Management of Public Archaeological Sites* – 2017; *Lima Declaration for Disaster Risk Management of Cultural Heritage* (2010). In addition, worth consideration are also: UNESCO *Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict* –1954; European Council *European Convention for the Protection of Archaeological Heritage* –1969; European Council *Convention for the Protection of Archaeological Heritage in Europe* – 1985; Council of Europe, *European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage in Europe* – 1992; and the UNESCO *Convention on the Protection of the Underwater Cultural Heritage* – 2001.

sustainability, preventive conservation, climate change, risk mitigation, and armed conflict. Moreover, the site itself is not the only management concern, but also any surrounding natural areas in need of protection. There are new methods for assessing how different impacts may affect a site, and strategies are developed to mitigate the various risks to a site.

Since February 2005, for any site intended for inscription, the State Party is required to form a management plan for the site, which importantly becomes part of the site's nomination dossier.²⁰ This management plan, once a site is listed, needs to be regularly reviewed, assessed, and if necessary, modified. A management plan is not fixed, but is rather an on-going process, and may be reviewed even on an annual basis. A systematic review procedure should be implemented even 3–5 years for which outside experts should be consulted as well.²¹ The following chapters are intended as an introduction and overview to the management of cultural (World) heritage sites in order to understand the principles and processes of effective management.

Goals, objectives, and scope

A management plan should produce a feasible framework that establishes the work, applicable resources, and responsibilities of all involved parties from various disciplines and fields of expertise. This framework, in turn, is based on the protection of the OUV of a site: once the values are established, all the necessary activities can be determined. Foremost, the guiding principles for site management can be determined, which should be communicated to site staff, who also need to be informed about the significance of the site. Once they understand the significance of the site, the aim and scope of their tasks can be effectively contextualised and become more goal-oriented.

Management policies clarify what goals need to be achieved and help define success. These policies, however, do not outrightly state how these goals can be achieved, but are general guidelines. Management objectives deliver more precise descriptions that outline how the stated goals can be reached. Objectives are—above all—measurable and quantifiable outcomes of a given goal that need to be fulfilled within a specific timeframe. Both site policy and objectives need to adhere to the guiding principles of the site's OUV of the site, along with its authenticity and integrity.

To coordinate the necessary tasks at a site, it is important to analyse all the relevant and available cultural resources. This will aid in the maintenance and use of the site,

²⁰ Ringbeck, 2008, p. 6.

²¹ Cleere, 2010, p. 10.

for which a strategic plan is devised and broken into tasks based on the urgency of implementation. The work is further divided into different timeframes: medium-term work, which includes any work to be carried out within the coming 5 years; and long-term activities, which span from 5 to 30 years.²² This will help determine the necessary funds, and establish management planning and programming. All the various individual projects to protect the site are, however, are based on the availability of resources and funding. These include financial and human resources. The latter encompasses the available staff members that can basically run the site and protect it, and those who are responsible for different site activities like education and research. Human resources also pertains to specific academic qualifications or technical skills. Final resources refer to available funds and the inferred costs to maintain the site including staff. Planning, therefore, needs to take into account the level of available resources, and then establish the most pressing tasks and work projects. The necessity of planning, as according to the availability of financial resources, results in the need to set up alternatives in management objectives. Additionally, a clear statement of costs to be incurred, along with the human resources necessary for different management actions, should be provided.

In addition, in order to assess the affectivity of site management, a regular site assessment is undertaken by numerous, interdisciplinary experts. Also, a site commissioner needs to be appointed whose function is to guard, conserve, and manage the site.

The Outstanding Universal Value (OUV)

The OUV is a significant factor in the nomination of a World Heritage site, and needs to be demonstrated for each individual property, unless it is for instance a serial site. The OUV is defined as having:

“ [...] cultural and/or natural significance [and] which is so exceptional as to transcend national boundaries and to be of common importance for present and future generations of all humanity. As such, the permanent protection of this heritage is of the highest importance to the international community as a whole.”²³

There are 10 different criteria under which a site (cultural, natural, or mixed) can be inscribed. Six of them concern cultural heritage, and the remaining four refer to

²² Feilden and Jokilehto, 1998, p. 2, however, a more realistic long-term plan may be considerably less than 30 years.

²³ UNESCO World Heritage Centre, Operational Guidelines, 2019, p. 20.

natural heritage. Usually one criterion is sufficient, although sites are often listed fulfilling more than one criterion. However, in the case of criterion (vi), one criterion alone does not suffice for inscription.

Criteria

- “(i) represent a masterpiece of human creative genius;*
- (ii) exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design;*
- (iii) bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared;*
- (iv) be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history;*
- (v) be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change;*
- (vi) be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance. [...].”²⁴*

There are two more requirements for the inscription of a site onto the World Heritage list: the demonstration of a site’s authenticity and integrity. The latter means that it must show the extent to which it is intact and whole. It also needs to be of an appropriate size in order to represent the relevant attributes for its significance. In addition, the types of modifications or forms of deterioration should be as imperceptible as possible, so as not to impact the site. Authenticity concerns various aspects of a site, and does not refer to the ‘originality’ of fabric alone. Authenticity can be divided into different areas that include a) form and design; b) materials and substance; c) location and setting; d) spirit and feeling; e) traditions, techniques, and management systems; f) use and function; g) language, h) other forms of intangible heritage; i) other factors).²⁵ Authenticity, in the case of archaeological sites, refers to how a site is presented to visitors, and to what extent it is considered truthful in conveying its meaning. This applies mostly to reconstructions at such sites.

²⁴ UNESCO World Heritage Centre, Operational Guidelines, 2019, pp. 25–26.

²⁵ See Operational Guidelines, 2019, p. 27.

III Structure and elements of management

Directives according to the Operational Guidelines

World Heritage all vary considerably according to whether they are cultural, natural, or mixed heritage sites. They also differ in age, size, in approaches taken towards protection and management due to existing legislative frameworks and the traditions of users and stakeholders. Due to this diversity in sites, the Operational Guidelines—a manual for the implementation of the 1972 World Heritage Convention—was conceived as a general document. In 1993 the first management plan guideline was authored by Bernard Feilden and Jukka Jokilehto in their *Management guidelines for World Heritage Cultural Sites* as a joint publication by UNESCO, ICOMOS, and ICCROM, with an updated version in 1998. An overview of how a management plan should be structured for archaeological sites was provided by Henry Cleere in 2010, given the lack of a comprehensive framework for archaeological site management plans at that time.

The 2013 publication *Managing Cultural World Heritage* by UNESCO and its advisory bodies of ICCROM, ICOMOS, and IUCN proposes the following contents for a possible management plan:

- “Purpose
- Process (how it was prepared and who was involved), including a decision-making process diagram
- Property description
- Significance (with OUV for World Heritage sites)
- Identification of key issues
- A Vision Statement/guiding principles, policies/objectives
- Actions to meet policies/objectives (including timing, priorities, resources and indicators)
- Implementation plan; annual work plan, project formulation, indication of resources
- Monitoring plan
- Timetable for review”²⁶

The Operational Guidelines defines certain concepts and criteria for World Heritage property inscription. In order to include knowledge gains from past experience and the evolving definition of new concepts, the Operational Guidelines are modified

²⁶ UNESCO et al. (2013), p. 145.

every so often.²⁷ According to the Operational Guidelines, a management plan contains five elements divided into

- a) legislative, regulatory, and contractual measures of protection;
- b) boundaries for effective protection;
- c) buffer zones;
- d) management systems; and
- e) sustainable use.²⁸

The key aim of management is to protect the OUV of the property with its integrity and authenticity and – if possible – to not only maintain them but to even enhance them through effective measures and strategies. The actor responsible for preserving these values is the State Party. The protection of the site concerns, however, both the fabric of the site and its values. The inscribed property must demonstrate its protection through long-term management strategies and protection measures guaranteed through legislative, regulatory, institutional or traditional systems at local and national levels with the aim to mitigate negative impacts on the property due to various pressures. In some countries, there are only national laws in place for protection, while in other countries the laws are specific to the different federal states. In any case, it is pertinent to establish a common terminology for both the World Heritage Convention and the respective laws that ensure the protection of monuments and archaeological sites.

The management of the site encompasses the inscribed property, which has clearly defined boundaries. Within the site, all attributes that characterise the OUV need to be included within said boundaries. This should also include all areas potentially relevant for future research. To manage the protection of a site's attributes, both moveable and immovable, it is advisable to compile an inventory of these assets. If the number of individual assets is too high and risks making the management plan unclear, relevant literature that showcases the individual values of particular buildings or structures may be more appropriate for listing attributes.

To enhance the protection of a site, some have a defined buffer zone, which may vary in size depending on the site. The aim of buffer zones is to protect the sites from adverse pressures such as construction, wind farms, industrial plants or high-rise buildings, which could obstruct significant views, panoramas, or silhouettes. Buffer

²⁷ The first Operational Guidelines were adopted by the World Heritage Committee in 1978, when it contained in all 30 paragraphs. The last version was adopted in 2019, encompassing 290 paragraphs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, <https://whc.unesco.org/en/guidelines/> (accessed 10 March 2020).

²⁸ See Operational Guidelines, 2019, pp. 29–33.

zones also serve to protect specific attributes or areas pertinent to the functioning of the site.

The management system of an inscribed property needs to demonstrate its effectiveness to maintaining a site's OUV, authenticity, and integrity. Ideally, this is accomplished with the participation of local communities. To foster the involvement of the public a specific working group should be established that dedicates its efforts to setting up a management plan, and outsourcing it from the site director and staff members of the site itself. The participation of various stakeholders in creating a site management plan at different levels—local, regional and national—is essential.

Furthermore, assessing measures at the site need will determine their potential negative impact. For that reason, it is advisable that impact assessments concerning the heritage site and its environment need to be carried out prior to planning developments or activities. The aim of such, besides avoiding negative impact and determining alternative measures, is to identify potential positive outcomes.

Each site requires its own, specific management plan depending on its context, as well as particular characteristics and resources. A set of parameters need to be determined prior to a management plan that is being drawn up. These parameters determine tasks, time frames, goals and objectives, financial resources, management processes, and key decision-makers. When combined, they form an action outline for the management of the site. Already existing traditional management systems may become part of the management plan, in addition to other planning tools, which may be local, or regional, formal or informal. How the site is managed, who the responsible bodies are, what their duties are, and the overall structure should be part of the management plan. This structure needs to be transparent for stakeholders and site users, and can be visualised through organisational charts.

To render the management of a site effective, it is paramount to communicate not only its values and its socio-ecological context to the stakeholders and communities, but also the aim, structure, and function of the management plan. Moreover, inclusiveness, equality, respect, and human rights need to be prioritised during the planning and consultation processes of putting together a management plan, and through the implementation of capacity building measures.

For site management to be effective, it should be understood as a cyclical strategy. In that sense, the management plan will undergo different stages of planning and implementation, including the subsequent assessment of measures and outcomes, and adjustment and modification phases, all indicated within a framework of allotted resources. These strategies are divided into short-, mid-, and long-term cycles. The management plan needs enough flexibility to allow for immediate modification when a

new situation arises. Depending on the site, the level of detail concerning its management may vary: for instance, a relatively small archaeological site like Stonehenge will differ as compared to a large site like Petra or Angkor Wat. For the formerly mentioned, one maintenance plan sufficiently covers the entire site, while *several* editions of maintenance plans may be needed for the latter to specify, for instance, conservation interventions. Structuring these plans in a modular system allows for modifications and a high level of details within these maintenance plans.

The monitoring of the property is carried out through both Reactive Monitoring and Periodic Reporting reports. State Parties and/or the World Heritage Committee may ask for a Reactive Monitoring report when a site is considered to be under threat and is at risk of being listed as a site “in danger.” This is carried out, for instance, by the World Heritage Secretariat, or the advisory bodies of the World Heritage Committee (ICOMOS²⁹, ICCROM³⁰ and IUCN³¹). The World Heritage Centre is responsible for organising any additional reactive monitoring activities. Periodic Reporting, on the other hand, is the responsibility of State Parties. It aims to assess if the OUV has been maintained, reports on changes at the site, and its current state of conservation. Ideally, this is also shared with other State Parties, and facilitates cooperation on management strategies. These reports are usually due every six years. In the case of activities where a considerable site impact(s) has occurred, this should be assessed and reported to what extent the site is affected.

Apart from these two monitoring systems, a heritage sites needs to undergo a regular programme of monitoring activities, which will vary according to the method of monitoring and the substance or structure in question. While some areas of a site along with its indicators, such as the relative temperature and humidity in an enclosed space, will be continuously monitored. Other areas may be examined only once a week or month. These programmes will need to be assessed in terms of their effectivity and if necessary modified. The periodic cycles of inspection may also need to be increased. Monitoring and maintenance work should ideally be carried out by the same people in charge. It is advisable to determine a plan of both maintenance and monitoring activities, and to keep a database of some kind of on-going measures. Also, for these activities, the costs of maintenance and human resources need to be determined and integrated into the site's budget. The assessment of monitoring and maintenance measures include security measures, and will therefore need to

²⁹ ICOMOS is the International Council on Monuments and Sites. It is a non-governmental organisation. One of its international scientific committees is the International Committee on Archaeological Heritage Management (ICAHM), see ICOMOS ICAHM (n.d.) <http://icahm.icomos.org/> (accessed 8 April 2020).

³⁰ ICCROM is the International Centre for the Study and Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property, with seat in Rome. It is an intergovernmental organisation.

³¹ IUCN stands for the International Union for Conservation of Nature (and Natural Resources). The main seat of this non-governmental organisation is in Gland, Switzerland.

coordinate with the site's own risk preparedness plan. Monitoring activities may also refer to *quantitative monitoring*—that is the number of tourists at a site—and as this provides measurable, quantitative information, it determines visitor impact at a site in terms of economic benefits.³²

The management not only concerns the nominated property, but also the buffer zone and the broader setting of the site. It may include additional buildings, infrastructure, and the natural environment and topography. It will likely relate to essential intangible aspects like the site's associative value, or common social practices exercised there, such as traditions or land use.

The possible threats to a site need to be evaluated. This concerns, for instance, climate change and disasters, as well as impacts that the environment, economy, society, or any other future interventions will have on the site.

Management of (World) heritage sites need to incorporate disaster and risk management. Disaster risk preparedness is relevant for natural disasters, but also concerns the effects of armed conflict. A disaster risk assessment needs to be carried out prior to a crisis, not as a response. It is based on the evaluation of potential risks, mitigation, and prevention strategies that can be drawn up. They concern the legal framework, the organisation of particular tools and competencies at different levels to mitigate potential risks. Risk preparedness can address preventive measures to reduce or eliminate dangers to a site. It also encompasses measures that need to be carried out once a disastrous event has taken place, such as the evacuation of and first aid measures to cultural property.³³ Plans for risk mitigation and the disaster management should be part of the management plan and training activities.

The management of an inscribed property needs to promote the sustainability of a site, in terms of both the culture and ecology. Sustainability refers to the inclusion and participation of all communities, Indigenous people, and other relevant stakeholders. As different interest groups come together in the process of managing a (World) heritage site, it is advised to include strategies for conflict management and mediation, ideally prior to the development of disagreements.

³² Pedersen, 2002, p. 18.

³³ In 2013 ICCROM set up programme to raise awareness for the necessity to integrate disaster risk management into the protection of cultural heritage, see also ICCROM (2018) Disaster Risk Management for Cultural Heritage. Available online at <https://www.icrom.org/section/disaster-resilient-heritage/disaster-risk-management-cultural-heritage> (accessed 19 March 2020). ICOMOS ICORP (International Scientific Committee on Risk Preparedness) is a sub-committee of ICOMOS dedicated to mitigating the effects of natural and man-made disasters, see ICORP (n.d.) Available at <http://icorp.icomos.org/index.php/about-icorp/> (accessed 19 March 2020).

Management systems and planning basics

A common denominator to all management systems are nine fundamental characteristics.³⁴ These can be divided into three *elements*, three *processes* and three *results* (fig. 2). The *elements* concern the legal and institutional frameworks and the resources. The *processes* include planning, implementation, and monitoring. The results of a management system pertain to outcomes, outputs, and modifications to the management system itself.

The three elements depend on one another. The legal framework determines what cultural heritage is, who is responsible for it and to what extent, as well as the conservation guidelines. It may be based on a national law, a local by-law, an oral tradition, or a religious mandate. The institutional framework structures work plans and processes, and determines methods and dependencies. They can be determined by local, national, or international³⁵ organisations, and they may be supported by a formal legislation. There are three types of resources: intellectual, human, and financial.³⁶ The combination of these three form the basis for decisions within a given time frame and extent of actions to be undertaken.

In every management system there are three types of processes. In the planning process, establishing clearly written, transparent, and open objectives of management is pertinent, as well as the actions to achieve them, and the specific time frame. During the process of implementation, all actions that have been previously defined are carried out and assessed according to their effectiveness and whether they address the determined objectives appropriately: in the case that the actions failed to accomplish desired results, they can be modified along the way. Monitoring (see section on impacts) refers to the collection and evaluation of data to determine whether the management plan is meeting its objectives. These three processes take place continuously, directly influence them, and are mutually dependent.

Actions are designed to obtain specific outcomes or objectives. Outputs, on the other hand, are measurable results of an action that are taken to create a particular outcome (see section on impacts). An improvement on the management system may occur when the tangible and measurable results cannot be achieved, or only partially achieved, and are consequently modified. For instance, one objective could be for the site management to form protections of a particularly fragile fabric of archaeological remains at a site. An output would be the redirection of visitors and the creation of alternative itineraries. The measurable indicator should assess if damage to the fabric has continued, stopped, or lessened, i.e. additional erosion or fragmentation. In case

³⁴ UNESCO /ICCRUM /ICOMOS /IUCN, 2013, p. 53.

³⁵ ICOMOS is for instance such an example, with national chapters.

³⁶ UNESCO et al. 2013, p. 76.

the new visitor path did not lead to a desirable outcome, a modification is put in place that examines additional causes for damage.

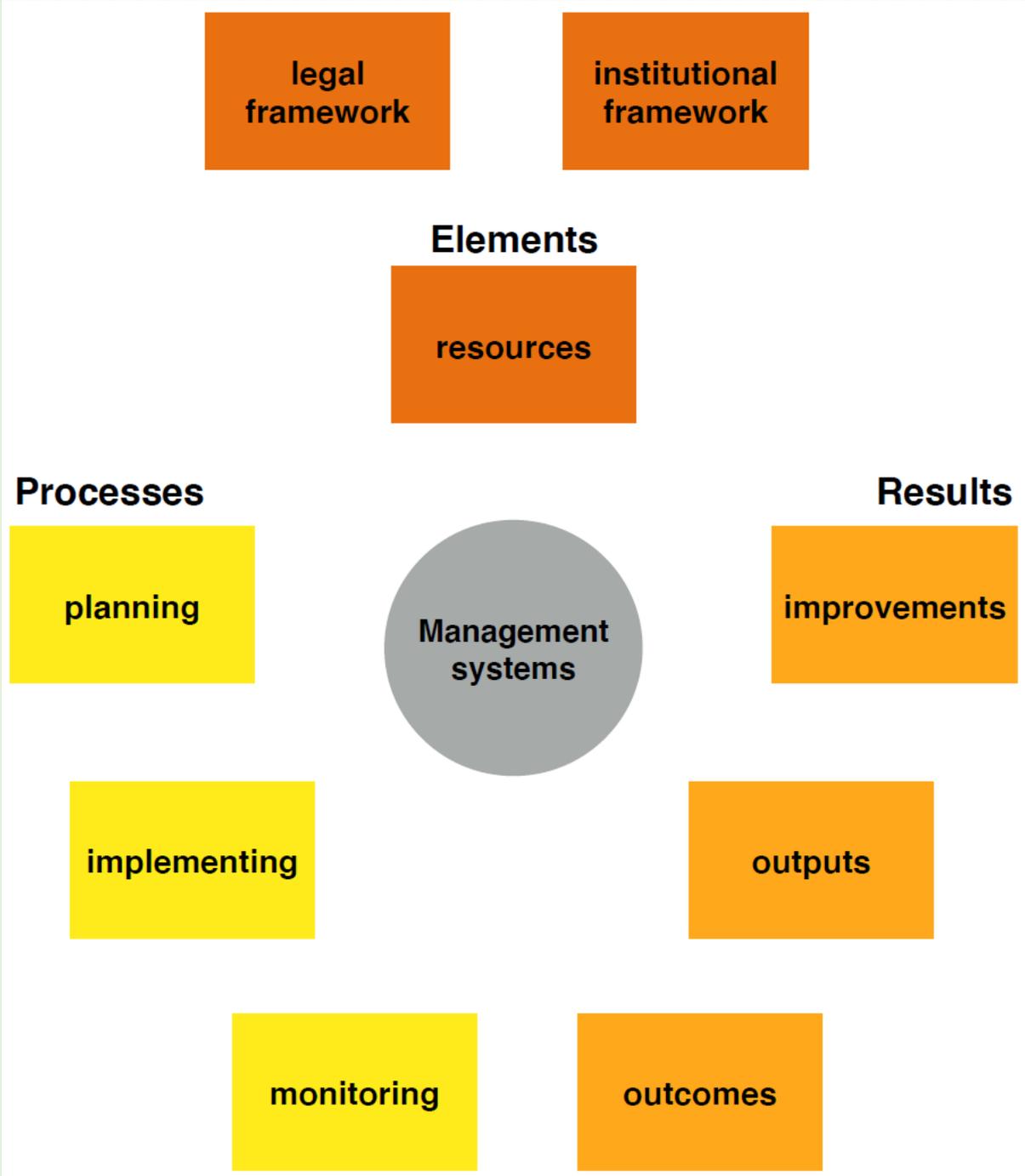


Fig. 2
Common characteristics of management systems.
Source: Information according to UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*, p. 53, modified by author, 2020.

Value-based management planning

Cultural heritage management basically is the management of change. Changes not only apply to changing environmental conditions and external factors, but also to cultural heritage values, and the values that people assign to their heritage.³⁷

The ICOMOS Burra Charter Process³⁸ has outlined a management plan comparable to the value-based management plan as described by Demas, in which three individual steps are identified (fig. 3):

“1. Identification and description: collecting information;

2. Assessment and analysis: taking stock; and

3. Response: making decisions”.³⁹

Part of the first step is to address the aims and expected outcomes of the plan, the identification of stakeholders, and the documentation and description of the site.⁴⁰ Concerning archaeological sites, documentation is usually well developed. However, this information should be assessed for potential gaps in knowledge, especially regarding unexcavated areas. The collected information will help to determine the necessary future research to define research and excavation strategies.

Once all of the information has been gathered, the site can be analysed and assessed. This second step comprises a thorough understanding of the site, its cultural significance and values, its conservation state, potential threats and challenges and opportunities that will affect the management of the site.⁴¹ The values that relate to an archaeological site comprise a large variety: besides the well-established ones like historical, artistic, and research values, one should also consider spiritual, economic, social, or symbolic ones. Social values in particular are increasingly seen as vital factors that will help strengthen relationships between heritage and society, and support sustainability goals at large. To assess the significance of a site, it is important to include various stakeholders and experts who will be able to jointly give a comprehensive understanding of the site’s values.

³⁷ See also Avrami, E. et al. (2019) (eds.) *Values in Heritage Management: Emerging Approaches and Research Directions*. Los Angeles: The Getty Conservation Institute.

³⁸ ICOMOS Australia (2013), *The Burra Charter*.

³⁹ Demas (2000), p. 29.

⁴⁰ Demas (2000), p. 30.

⁴¹ Demas (2000), pp. 31–42.

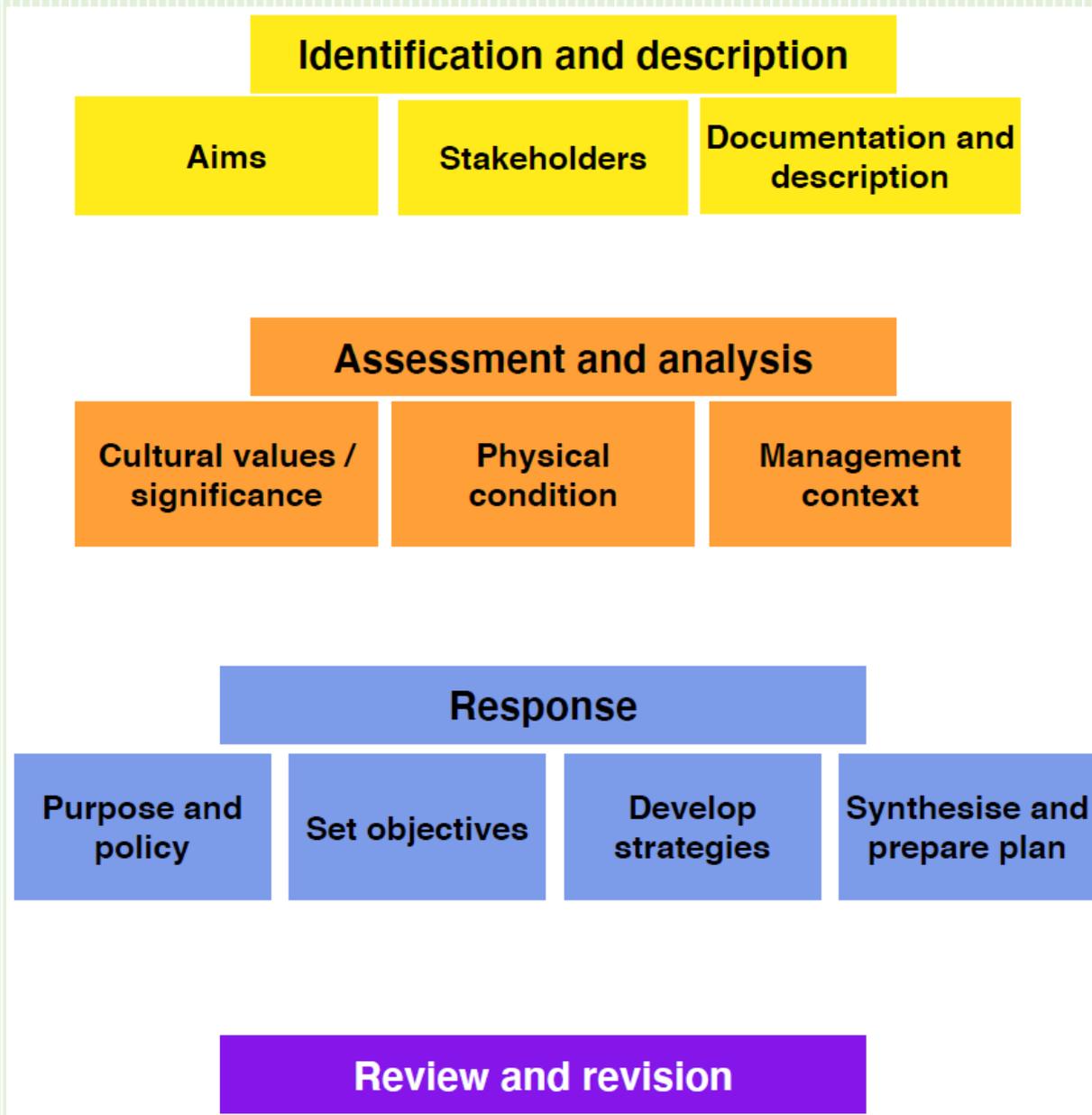


Fig. 3

Management process based on heritage values.

Source: Martha Demas (2000) Planning for conservation and management of archaeological sites. In Teutonico, J.M. and Palumbo, G. (eds.) Management planning for archaeological sites. Proceedings of an International workshop organised by the Getty Conservation Institute and Loyola Marymount University 19 – 22 May 2000, Corinth, Greece. Los Angeles: The Getty Conservation Institute, p. 30, modified by author, 2020

The third step in the value-based management is “response.” Based on the analysis and assessment of the site, appropriate decisions are taken. This is divided into four sections.⁴² Firstly, it should be clear what the purpose of management is and which values are to be preserved. From here, an adequate policy can then be established.

⁴² Demas (2000), pp. 42–49.

Secondly, particular actions (objectives) are determined that will be based on earlier-mentioned policies. Thirdly, said actions are developed into strategies that can be put into practice. For archaeological sites, the policies need to particularly address an appropriate use of the site for research and excavation work. In addition, some fragile areas should perhaps not be destined for visitor access. Fourthly, a management plan is synthesised and prepared. As with every management plan, it is paramount to continuously review the plan to allow for necessary changes.

IV Management areas and relevant concepts—some examples

Archaeological site management bears a particular aspect: the fragility of the site. In addition, even if material remains are below ground and somewhat protected, any impact to the soil can disturb the archaeological site. Not only will this damage the site, but also future examinations of unexcavated areas. The interpretation of an archaeological site will then suffer as the original context has been lost. It is therefore paramount that archaeological site management considers this particular aspect of fragility, no matter whether this concerns visitor management, risk preparedness, site interpretation and presentation, as well as conservation itself.

Some of the significant concepts and principles guiding management of World Heritage sites have been also expressed in the so-called “5 C’s”. In 2002, resp. 2007, the World Heritage Committee introduced these strategic objectives. They are to

- “ 1) Strengthen the **Credibility** of the World Heritage List;
- 2) Ensure the effective **Conservation** of World Heritage Properties;
- 3) Promote the development of effective **Capacity building** in State Parties;
- 4) Increase public awareness, involvement and support of the World Heritage through **Communication**;
- 5) Enhance the role of **Communities** in the implementation of the World Heritage Convention.”⁴³

Select examples of some of these principles are provided in the following sections.

⁴³ Operational Guidelines (2019), para. 26.

Conservation

In management plans, there are usually distinct strategies for conservation work, given that there are extensive analysis and assessment needs, and various agencies and experts working on the actual conservation. The conservation management plan is part of, however, the site management overall.

As previously mentioned, site management addresses the protection of the site's fabric and its values. Clark describes conservation management plans similarly to the values-led management plan.⁴⁴ Before a conservation policy⁴⁵ can be determined, several steps need to be accomplished beforehand: a site needs to be understood (fig. 4). The main features of the site need to be described and documented. In addition, it is advisable to set up an archive relating to past interventions, concerning for instance, reconstruction, investigation, and excavations that have already occurred at the site. A survey determines the current state of conservation, which together with the documentation on past interventions forms the basis for a comprehensive conservation plan. The significance of the site needs to be evaluated by discerning all its main components and also comprehensively, as judgements upon their value need to be made. Once the significance of the site has been determined, its vulnerability needs to be gauged as well as any components impacting it.

A conservation policy establishes management goals and objectives, which will then be implemented and continuously reviewed. The conservation plan should include regular monitoring and maintenance activities, which form part of the preventive conservation work. Paramount to this concept, however, is that the different management steps are iterative, and thus refer to one another, and do not progress in a linear fashion (fig. 5).

⁴⁴ Kate Clark (1998) English Heritage Guidance in Conservation Plans, Institute for Historic Building Conservation Context 57, in: UNESCO et al., 2013, p. 26.

⁴⁵ See Kerr, J.S. and ICOMOS Australia (2013) Conservation Plan: A Guide to the Preparation of Conservation Plans for Places of European Cultural Significance.



Fig. 4

Proposed template for a value-led conservation management plan.

Source: UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*, p. 26; based on Kate Clark (1998) *English Heritage Guidance in Conservation Plans*, Institute for Historic Building Conservation Context 57, modified by author, 2020

Key

1 Preparation

2 Gathering data/information

3 Assessing significance/ condition

4 Developing proposals/ determining actions

5 Implementation and monitoring

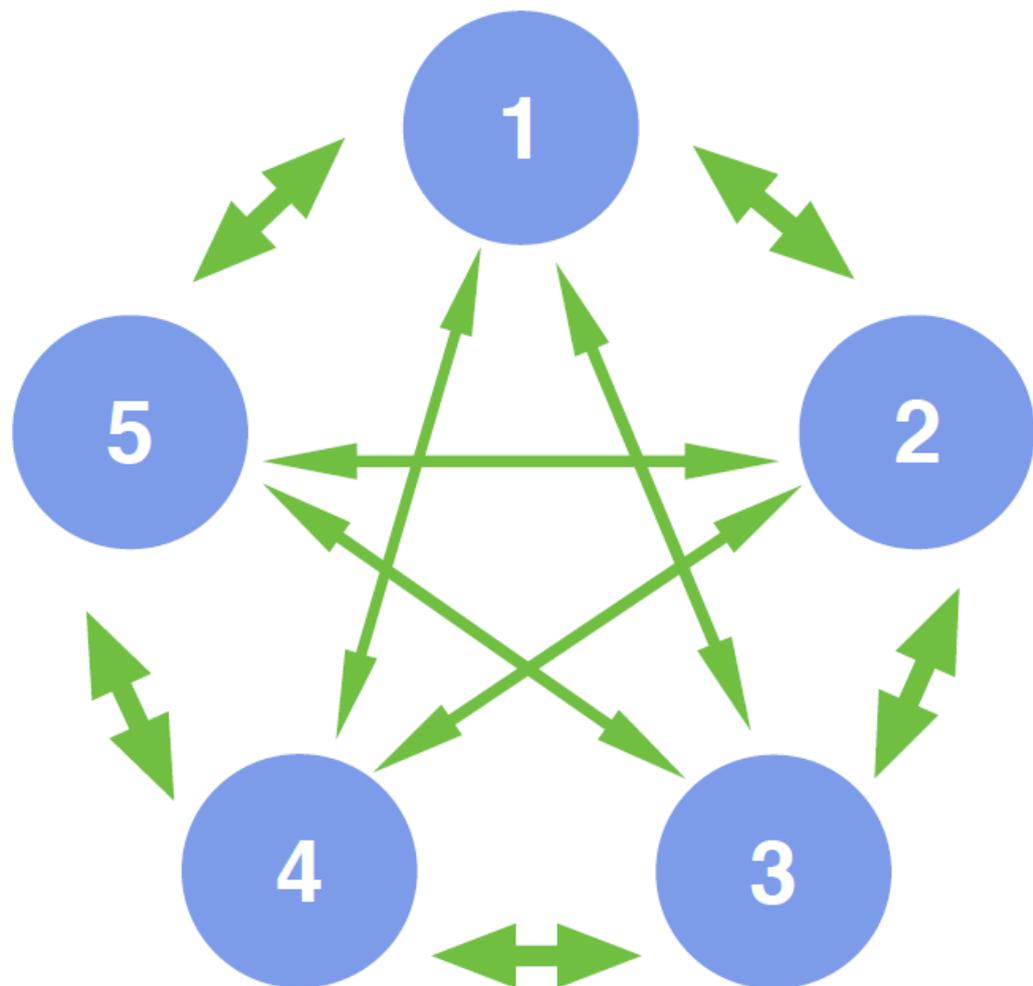


Fig. 5

Value-led management process with all stages refer to one another.

Source: UNESCO /ICCROM /ICOMOS /IUCN (2013) *Managing Cultural World Heritage*, p. 128 (modified by author, 2020).

Tourism ⁴⁶

Heritage tourism refers to both eco-tourism and cultural tourism, focusing on the conservation of natural and cultural heritage. Sustainable tourism is a well-established concept in the tourism industry. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), sustainable tourism should:

“[...] respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance...”

[it should] ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation.

Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary.

Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.”⁴⁷

A (World) heritage site requires a well-designed tourism management plan to guarantee preservation of the site’s OUV, and to counteract negative impacts caused by the development of the site for tourism and its continuous use by visitors.

Appropriate tourism management will, however, be able to contribute to a site’s sustainability and benefit local communities. To ensure continued safeguarding of a World Heritage site and good tourism management practice in place the World Heritage Centre organises different activities to assess tourist-related impacts at a site.

One necessary requirement for the successful management of tourism at a heritage site is to take into consideration both the site’s values and threats, and also to

⁴⁶ For this subchapter in particular concepts described by Pedersen (2002) and Cleere (2010) were incorporated.

⁴⁷ United Nations World Tourism Organisation (n.d.) *Sustainable Development*. Available online at <https://www.unwto.org/sustainable-development> (accessed 2 April 2020).

understand the particular needs, expectations, and characteristics of tourists.⁴⁸ To understand a visitor's needs and expectations there are useful resources, for instance, existing surveys or statistics carried out by a national or regional ministry of tourism, or other agencies. Information may also be obtained from individual experts who have worked at heritage sites and who can provide valuable insights. A more site-specific understanding of visitors' preferences and demands can be gathered through visitor observation (on and off-site), focus groups, questionnaires, or interviews.

An adequate tourism management plan can be designed with a prior analysis of site values, site-specific visitor profiles, and an analysis of current trends in tourism. Underlying this part of the management plan is constant reassessment and analysis.

Both on- and off-site facilities need to be taken into consideration for tourist management. On-site, depending on the site's fragility and available resources, may encompass visitor and documentation centre, shops, cafés, and other facilities. Or, it may be furnished very simply, like with a ticket and information counter or park benches to minimise physical impact to the site. In this case, the off-site facilities take on a more important role. They need to fulfil tourists' needs, especially in areas that otherwise lack appropriate infrastructure—in particular, public bathrooms, eateries, and accommodation. In the case that a particular site is difficult to access due to climatic conditions, fragility of the fabric, or difficult terrain, off-site interpretation at a museum is required to communicate the values of the site. It is, therefore, important to establish collaboration between sites and tourism facilities in the vicinity, and to involve local communities in setting up functional infrastructure for the site. Furthermore, an on-going relationship and cooperation with regional and local planning offices needs to be integrated into site management, to address the development or modification of tourist infrastructure.

Communication (presentation and interpretation)

A site's interpretation programme communicates the values and characteristic of the site, or its OUV. Areas, monuments, and structures that most strongly reflect these values need to be determined to then establish the required interpretation material and presentation strategies to communicate the values.

As a preliminary action to understand a site and further its investigation and interpretation, Cleere suggests it is pertinent to analyse already existing records and

⁴⁸ See Pedersen, 2002, p. 24: Tourist behaviour can be divided into 3 categories: *hard-core*, *dedicated* and *casual* tourists. This range expresses the active involvement and educational interest of a tourist in the nature and culture that is visited. *Hard-class* and *soft-class* tourists describe the (physical) experience and challenge tourists search for when traveling.

documents pertaining to the history and significance of the site and to conduct a literature review or set up database, and to determine the research gaps in order to improve site interpretation and presentation, as well as progress research through securing funding.⁴⁹

Cleere determines a variety of factors that ensure the comprehensive and adequate interpretation and presentation of a site. These include the feasibility, practicality, and the availability of necessary resources to run a museum or interpretation/documentation centre at a given site. Furthermore, the signage on- and off-site needs to be designed in a manner that is both functional in terms of content and visibility.⁵⁰ However, signage should be designed with the promotion of the site as World Heritage and site-specific branding. Educational services at the site should not be limited to signage, or a museum/documentation centre, but site interpretation should also be offered by guides. It is necessary to promote the participation of local communities, professionals, and volunteers in the site's interpretation and also in other site activities.

The public visibility of a site needs to be addressed at the site itself through adequate signage, but perhaps more importantly through local, regional, national and/or international advertising campaigns. In the case of World Heritage sites, the UNESCO brand is a magnet for tourism, but site-specific branding centred around a particular theme is also advisable. Branding supports developing fundraising. The revenue gained from tourism should be invested in maintaining the site itself, but it should also be invested in the site's long-term sustainability for the benefit of local stakeholder communities. Promoting a site will need to consider, though, the site's attractiveness and whether it has the infrastructure to deal with tourism. Therefore, a site-specific number of visitors should be established to avoid negative impacts to the site and the associated areas.

Recent developments in reaction to COVID-19 have demonstrated how sensitive the global economy is, having a considerable impact of tourism and consequently heritage sites.⁵¹ Full consideration should be given to tourism alternatives in order to secure revenue in times when, due to *force majeure*, a site cannot be physically accessed.

⁴⁹ Cleere, 2010, p. 8.

⁵⁰ Cleere, 2010, p. 9.

⁵¹ See also UNESCO (2020) Introduction to the global map on the closure of World Heritage sites due to Covid-19 and analysis. Available online at <https://en.unesco.org/covid19/cultureresponse/monitoring-world-heritage-site-closures> (accessed 14 April 2020).

Sustainability

At the United Nations General Assembly in 2015, altogether 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) were determined that should be reached by the year 2030. They were adopted by the UN Member States that same year. Even if Member States adopted these goals, they are not legally binding. Nonetheless, countries are invited to initiate particular actions and establish frameworks to work towards achieving these goals. These established goals are “1) *no poverty*, 2) *zero hunger*, 3) *good health and well-being*; 4) *quality in education*; 5) *gender equality*; 6) *clean water and sanitation*; 7) *affordable and clean energy*; 8) *decent work and economic growth*; 9) *industry, innovation and infrastructure*; 10) *reduced inequalities*; 11) *sustainable cities and communities*; 12) *responsible consumption and production*; 13) *climate action*; 14) *life below water*; 15) *life on land*; 16) *peace, justice and strong institutions*; 17) *partnerships for the goals*”.⁵² Three main themes of the SDG are social inclusion, economic growth and environmental protection. The focus of goals for the 2020-2030 timeframe, though, are climate change, poverty, and the empowerment of women. Compared to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDG)⁵³, which have targeted specific countries, the SDGs are universal.

The management of a World Heritage site is required to fulfil a variety of sustainability goals, which have been set out—as mentioned above—by UNESCO and the UN. It does not, though, prioritise one particular management system, as every inscribed property will need to be managed according to existing ownership and management, as well as according to the relevant regional or national laws concerning preservation and protection. What is paramount in the management of World Heritage sites is the protection of the OUV including the authenticity and integrity of a site. Periodic Monitoring is one tool to ensure the best possible protection of the site, along with the involvement and support of steering committees, (international) experts, and the advisory bodies of UNESCO (IUCN, ICCROM and ICOMOS).

Impacts

Tourism impacts the fabric of a site. The impact to a site is, however, not directly proportional to the amount of visitors to a site, but is rather based on a combination of different factors, such as social setting, physical environment, and development

⁵² United Nations (n.d.) Sustainable Development Goals Knowledge Platform, available online at <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300> (accessed 16 March 2020).

⁵³ The MDGs were intended for a period from 2000 to 2015, and were succeeded by the SDG. There were 8 international development goals, which focused primarily on health (child mortality, maternal health, illnesses such as HIV/AIDS, and malaria). Other goals were to combat extreme poverty, facilitate primary education, provide for environmental sustainability, and to establish global partnerships that would dedicate their work to development.

patterns. In addition, impact to a site may be more imminent with the beginning of rather light use, but will lessen when use is continued. The impact to a site and its ability to deal with it can be divided into two concepts: resilience and resistance. The term resilience refers to the “ability to return to an undisturbed state after a disturbance,” whilst resistance describes “the ability to absorb use without being disturbed”.⁵⁴ These concepts are applicable to both culture and nature.

The impacts and threats to a site need to be analysed and prioritised to establish management planning in terms of more or less urgent measures that counteract threats. The initial reason for impact needs to be examined in order to address root causes and find adequate solutions without causing secondary negative impacts. Impact prevention can be taken through direct or indirect action. An example of direct action to reduce abrasion to architectural surfaces is to allow visitors access only to protected areas, whilst an indirect way is to inform visitors of the fragility of the fabric and to engage them in the managerial challenges of a site.

Visitor planning needs to be based on the idea of what a site can deal with or what its capacities are (physical, ecological and social), what changes at a site are acceptable following the (older) method of “Limits of Acceptable Change” (LAC), or the more recent approach of “Visitor Experience and Resource Protection Process” (VERP).⁵⁵ In any case, specific indicators need to be determined to set management goals and are based on current site conditions. The existing condition at a site will need to be compared to set standards or limits, which can be measured by indicators. They should ideally be easily measurable, reliable, low-cost, and of significance to the site. Indicators can be, for instance, site vandalism, graffiti, litter, or the abrasion of surfaces of monuments or archaeological fabric.⁵⁶ While some of the standards set no tolerance limits, like in the case of vandalism or looting, others may function within a specific margin, such as an increase in visitor numbers. Monitoring at sites of the indicators occurs regularly, and changes that do not meet set standards need to be addressed to counteract impacts.

Heritage Impact Assessment

Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) is a tool that was developed to examine the impact of potential development. This was born out of the understanding that heritage—particularly a heritage site’s OUV, authenticity, and integrity—had come

⁵⁴ Pedersen, 2002, p. 30.

⁵⁵ Pedersen, 2002, p. 57.

⁵⁶ Pedersen, 2002, p. 57.

under threat due to large-scale construction and urban development.⁵⁷ These threats, if not addressed appropriately, can lead to delisting World Heritage sites.

The HIA forms, however, part of the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) process, and is now an established element of management plans. Whereas the EIA investigates the impact of heritage assets, the HIA is intended for the examination of impacts on OUV. The assessment investigates, therefore, all of the relevant heritage values at a particular site. A physical marker, or so-called *attribute*, is determined for every single value that conveys the OUV. Each of these attributes are individually examined in terms of the possibility that they be affected, and to what limit change would be acceptable, and which measures need to be taken to mitigate or compensate for an impact.⁵⁸

Even if no standard procedures exist, ICOMOS has proposed a guideline for assessing impact, estimating magnitude, and for the components of a meaningful report. These guidelines have been criticised, *inter alia*, for taking a certain discursive approach to cultural heritage that produces a restrictive framework.⁵⁹ As a result, cultural heritage is assessed in a limited matter, while other contemporary and more productive views are ignored.⁶⁰ Such a limited understanding of cultural heritage is an expert-driven definition of tangible, authentic (immutable) objects or ensembles. Within a more diverse heritage planning discourse, it is amongst other aspects dynamic, with flexible values defined by a multitude of actors. The focus of cultural heritage is not the tangible object, but the stories connected to it.⁶¹ A full integration of different approaches to cultural heritage, though, will be difficult to achieve for the sole factor that the OUV is non-negotiable and cannot be modified.

Risk preparedness

A site management plan needs to address a site's risk preparedness. Potential threats to a site can be manifold and are site-specific.⁶² A particular link between tourism management and climate change, however, is pointed out in the 2016 publication 'World heritage and tourism in a changing climate': particularly, climate change

⁵⁷ ICOMOS, 2011, p. 1.

⁵⁸ ICOMOS, 2011, p. 4.

⁵⁹ Patiwal, Patrick, Groote, Peter and Vanclay, Frank (2019) Improving Heritage Impact Assessment: An Analytical Critique of the ICOMOS Guidelines. In *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 25 (4), pp. 333 – 347.

⁶⁰ Concerning critical approaches in cultural heritage, see for instance Smith (2006) *Uses of Heritage*, New York: Routledge; and John Schofield (ed.) (2016) *Who Needs Experts?: Counter-Mapping Cultural Heritage*: London: Routledge.

⁶¹ For a juxtaposition of different discursive frameworks on cultural heritage, see Patiwal et al. (2019), p. 338.

⁶² In the section on the protection of archaeological heritage, a subchapter has been dedicated to risk assessment and mitigation, and will thus be here discussed only briefly.

impacts the OUV, integrity, and authenticity of World Heritage sites, affecting a site both directly and indirectly as a threat multiplier. Sites are becoming less resilient, as climate change affects pollution, resource distribution, urbanisation patterns, and more.⁶³ Tourism is directly affected by climate change as sites are becoming less visually attractive and more difficult to access. Local communities working in the tourism industry are also being negatively impacted. As it is affected by climate change, tourism is also a major contributor to it. It becomes, therefore, paramount to integrate measures to mitigate the effects of climate change at a site, and to monitor vulnerable areas regularly to be able to respond immediately to occurring threats. Ideally, a site's vulnerability to climate change has been proposed as an essential component in World Heritage site nominations. Archaeological sites perhaps play a more prominent role. Again, it is their very fragile fabric that is particularly susceptible to degradation, but archaeological data may provide significant information on how people have responded to climate change in the past, which can ultimately help design appropriate measures to render places more resilient.

Stakeholder participation

For the management of archaeological sites, stakeholders can include—but are not limited to—government agencies, local communities with ancestral and/or particular relationships to the site, tourists, tourist agencies, and archaeologists.

The participation of local communities⁶⁴ has been seen, in recent years, as a vital element for successful management. Gatekeeping against the involvement of local stakeholders as equal partners in the preservation of a site still occurs at large. As early as 1969, Sherry Arnstein developed a model known as the 'Ladder of citizen participation' that represents various stages of participation. Her model shows eight forms of citizen involvement in community development projects: the least active forms are 'manipulation' and 'therapy' (non-participation), followed by 'informing', 'consultation' and 'placation' (tokenism). The final three forms of citizen-power and active involvement are demonstrated by 'partnership', 'delegated power', and 'citizen control'.⁶⁵ This model is helpful in assessing the extent of local stakeholders' involvement in the management process, from the moment that a WH site is nominated (and whether local communities participate in the nomination procedure),

⁶³ Markham et al. 2016. World Heritage and Tourism in a Changing Climate. United Nations Environment Programme, Nairobi, Kenya and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris, France.

⁶⁴ See also Wells, J. and Stiefel, B. (eds.) 2019, Human-centred Built Environment Heritage Preservation: Theory and Evidence-based Practice. New York, NY: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

⁶⁵ Arnstein, Sherry R. (1969) A Ladder of Citizen Participation, *JAIIP*, 35, no. 4 (July 1969), pp. 216–224.

to the identification of cultural resources, and the (continued) management of a site once it has been listed as a World Heritage property.

The preservation of a site also depends on the involvement of local stakeholders and communities, and has been understood as a decisive factor in the overall management of heritage sites. It is the local stakeholders and communities that can support or block the successful running of a heritage site. The specific knowledge about the local culture and environment is important and will enhance understanding of a site and its values. The active involvement of stakeholders and the possibility to have local communities partake in the financial and social benefit of tourism at a site will promote wider acceptance of a cultural heritage site.

Participatory site management is one tool that can potentially strengthen the relationships between local stakeholders and site management. Management may need to be divided into various sections of a site and run by different stakeholders. Vital to a successful participation of stakeholders is that a true involvement occurs, and that it is not merely a tokenism.

In recent years, cultural (resource) mapping has been promoted by organisations like UNESCO to analyse and understand tangible and intangible cultural assets of a site to safeguard cultural diversity.⁶⁶ Different terms (counter-mapping, participatory mapping, community-based mapping) are employed to basically describe an approach that focuses on the local communities, although these approaches have different origins and aims. While mapping can be used for research, its process should be used foremost as tool for local stakeholders and communities to actively define and map their cultural assets, which with an expert-driven approach, may have been overlooked or misjudged.⁶⁷ Furthermore, it is a method to foster intercultural dialogue. To safeguard a site's assets, including those within the site's inscribed area but not officially part of the OUV, or are outside of the WH property, they should ideally be taken into consideration in the management of the site and the surrounding area to enable a holistic safeguarding of the WH site, its adjacent areas, and its locally-defined values.

⁶⁶ UNESCO, 2017, Cultural mapping. Available online at <https://bangkok.unesco.org/content/cultural-mapping> (accessed 4 June 2020).

⁶⁷ For more on cultural mapping, see for instance Crawhall, N. (2010) The role of participatory cultural mapping in promoting intercultural dialogue: We are not Hyenas; A Reflection Paper. UNESCO Digital Library. Accessible online at <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000190753>, accessed 3 April 2020; Duxbury, N., Garrett-Petts, W.F. and MacLennan, D. (eds.) 2015, *Cultural Mapping as Cultural Inquiry*. New York: Routledge.

V Conclusion

The management of (archaeological) World Heritage sites is a challenging endeavor, not only due to the fragility of archaeological sites, but also to the procedures and standards of UNESCO World Heritage sites. In the past, these have been based on Western perspectives of heritage and management systems, thus excluding particularly dynamic values of cultural heritage, and/or (local) non-experts. These recent discursive claims on cultural heritage seem to contradict the basic tenets of World Heritage, i.e. the conditions a site must uphold in order to remain listed as a World Heritage site. This pertains to the immutability of a site's OUV, its integrity, and authenticity. It is these values that need to be maintained and that focus the management of the site. Consequently, management of World Heritage sites will have to find ways in which evolving holistic sustainability goals can be rendered feasible within a UNESCO World Heritage context. Furthermore, the challenges, particularly concerning rapidly growing tourism and the effects of climate change, need to be anticipated as threats to a site. Measures need to be implemented to protect the vulnerability of archaeological heritage sites, and to manage change in a holistic, integrated manner.

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Guido Vannini

Università degli Studi di Firenze

Cattedra di Archeologia Medievale

**From Light Archaeology to Public Archaeology.
Between research, scientific communication
and social sharing.**

**A methodological framework between territorial
archaeology and civil sharing**

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I. Archaeology, Research, Society.

The theme is to propose operationally, through one of the few experiences that have been placed on a methodological-experimental level in these terms, an organically integrated path between archaeological research conducted on a historical and territorial basis - that is, interested in deductively investigating historical phenomena, through the relative material traces found in the environment, rather than starting inductively from the analysis of specific episodes (e.g., also excavations) - and a wide sharing of the results of the research with the communities of reference: precisely from a 'light' practice of archaeology conducted on a territorial basis to its 'public' use (Fig. 1).

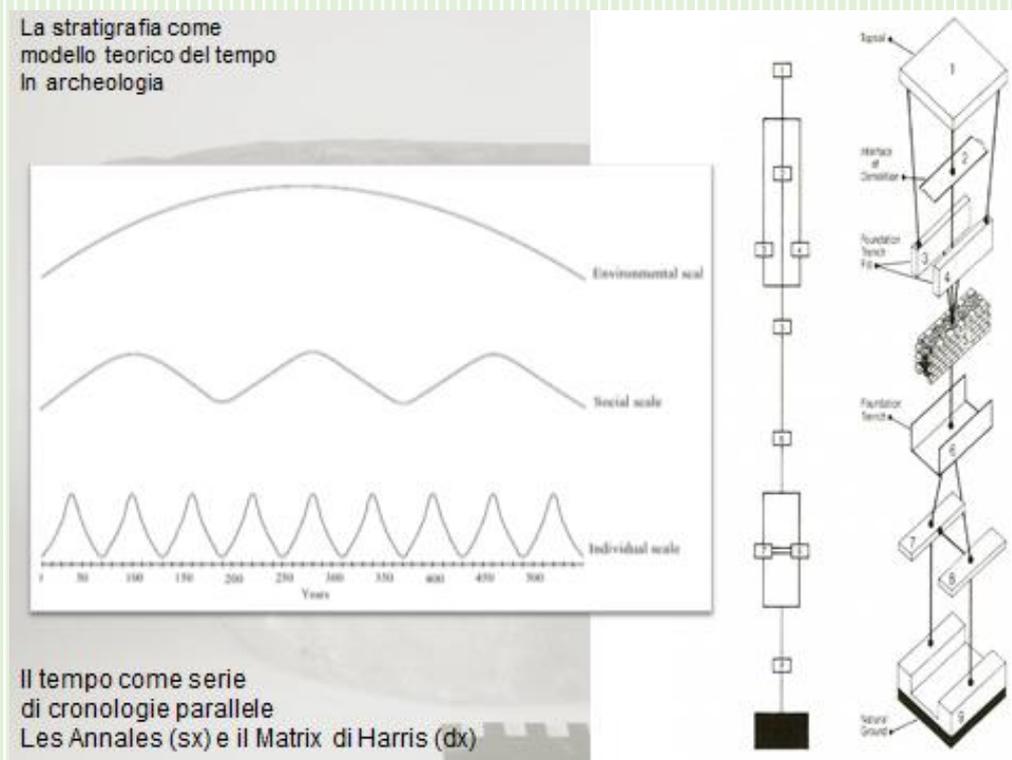


Fig. 1. Harris' Matrix and "Les Annales" temporal model scheme, theoretical modelling of the relationship between space and time in archaeology (time as a parallel series of timelines) (elaborated by Elisa Pruno).

The case presented here refers to a project (*Il ponte del tempo. Paesaggi culturali medievali*)⁶⁸ which - as part of a programme aimed at documenting, by comparative areas, the formation, structure and forms of territorial organization of the great Tuscan Lordships of feudal matrix, from the political dimension to the economic one, to the settlement to the cultural

⁶⁸ The research programme, which is part of the strategic project of the University of Florence for Medieval Archaeology, is conducted in collaboration between the Chair of Medieval Archaeology of the University of Florence and the Ecomuseo del Casentino (Union of Municipalities).

one (Fig. 2) - has chosen as a sample area to document, in this sense, the story of the Guidi family (one of the largest in Europe in the central centuries of the Middle Ages), a 'culturally homogeneous' part, between the XI-XIV centuries, of the Casentino valley.

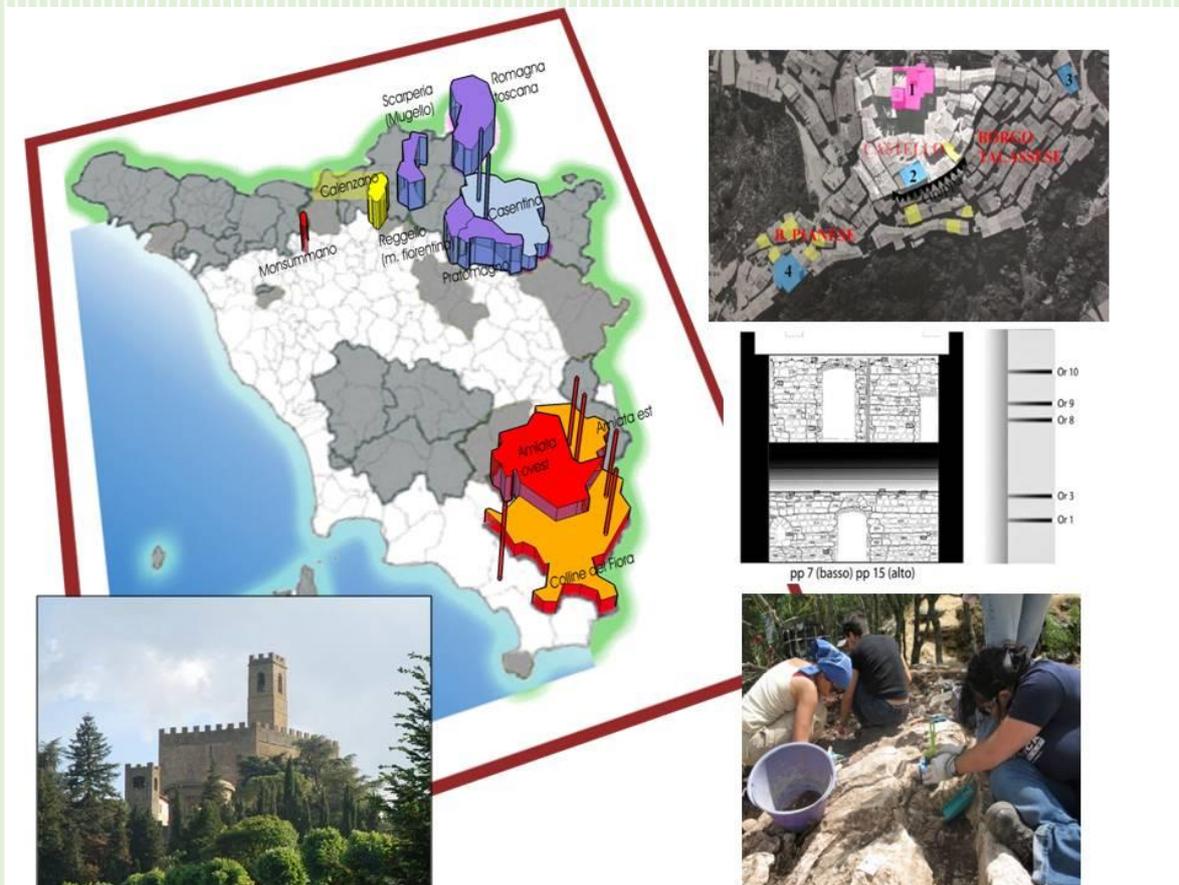


Fig. 2. Settlement structure of the great Tuscan feudal lordships (Counts Guidi and Aldobrandeschi) investigated with the methods of Light Archaeology.

A characteristic methodological element is the setting up of the research according to the practices of 'light archaeology', which integrates the archaeology system of architecture and landscape archaeology on a specific archaeomatics basis (Fig. 3); a sustainable approach that does not necessarily exclude excavation, but that reserves for this a peculiar function of 'stratigraphic observatory' in an area chosen on the basis of the results in progress of territorial research, on the basis of precise historical-archaeological questions; for example, that it can give information not only on what 'happened' in the few square meters of the essay (however large it may be, always a 'small' sample with respect to the 'universe' to which it refers) but above all on the category(s) to which it belongs ('not a castle', but the fortification', for example, will be the real objective of the investigations).

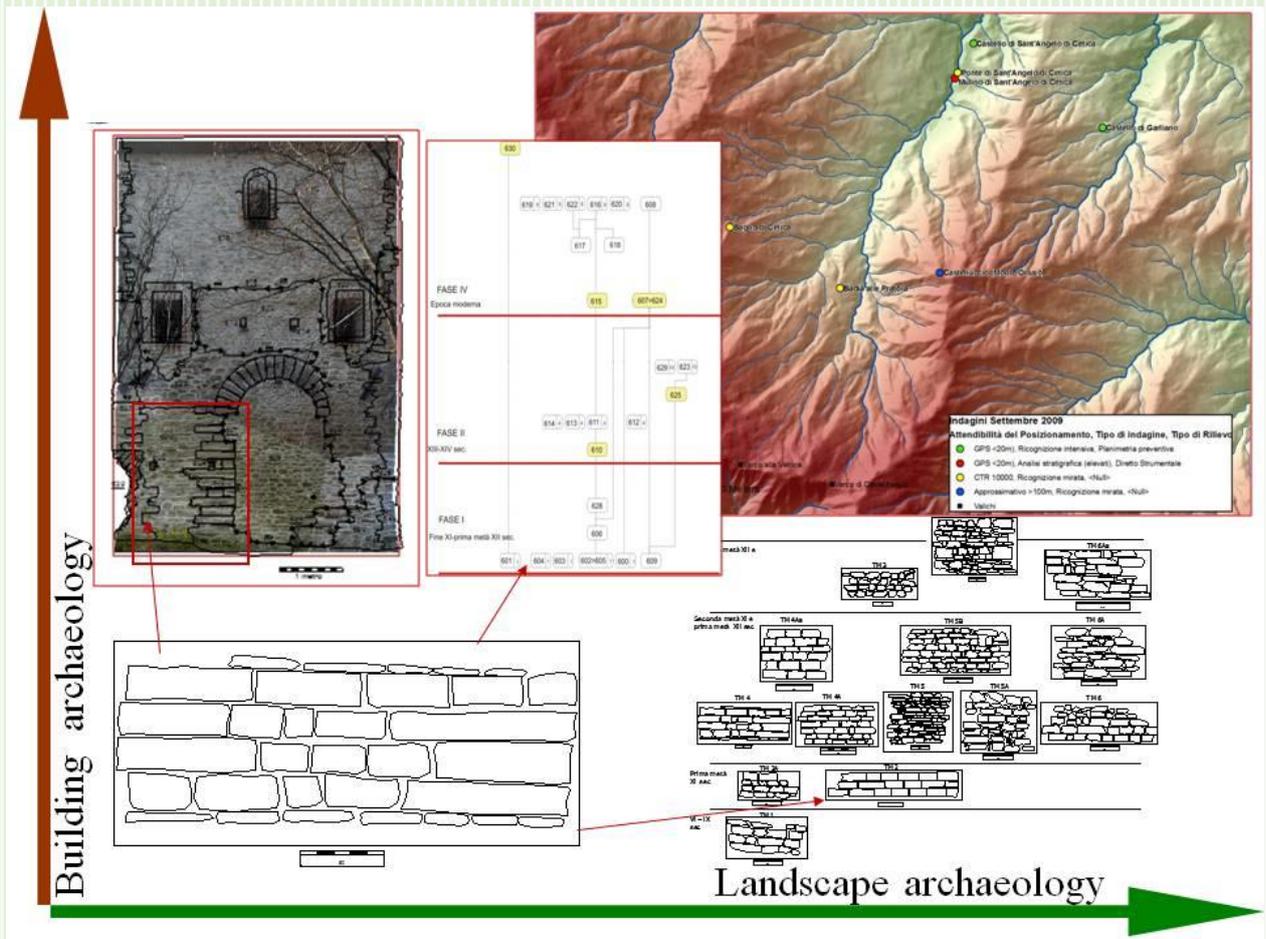


Fig. 3. Territorial structure of the 'light' approach to archaeology.

Thus, the option of stratigraphic excavation, by far the most demanding operation, even economically, and that in perspective can trigger complex problems of conservation, maintenance and management of the archaeological area under investigation, however small, is preceded and accompanied by the integrated application to system of geophysical and non-destructive archaeological analysis both horizontally (landscape archaeology) and vertically (archaeology of the high) and then postponed and especially aimed at developing methods of investigation or the solution of specific issues raised by the documentation collected (Fig. 4).



Fig. 4. Global Archaeology in Zignago (Liguria, 1977). Archaeological illustration showing a reconstruction of the medieval settlement. The emphasis on construction technologies, imprinted by Tiziano Mannoni, is also evident in the modern tourist signs placed on the site.

In this sense, light archaeology is the key element for the development of an ethical dimension, almost ecological and archaeological, which is expressed in respect and protection of sites and landscape (this is a relapse of the excavation that archaeologists often do not consider at all), in the replicability of the analyses (from this point of view it is much closer to the scientific method than the excavation, especially if total), it is not destabilizing and generally does not cause the need for restoration - and, in this case, it is a valuable guide through the stratigraphic apparatus that is able to produce quickly - and therefore commitments for the communities of reference. Ultimately, a ductile archaeological method, highly productive and at the same time sustainable (suitable for periods of resource crisis, one might even say...).

On another level, it is a question of giving IT procedures a strategic and innovative role in supporting the various aspects and phases of research; a true computerised 'architecture' of the project system, capable of acting effectively on several fronts: from the integration and progressive automation of the complex of surveys in the field, to the establishment of an interactive database of the documentary base understood and organized as a single

complex, to the management of this both in the direction of its increase (open structure), both in that of its scientific use (interpretation of data), both in that of dissemination at several levels ('public archaeology'), but also for an update of the documentation of the research in real time and to contribute to specific aspects such as those of the restoration or exploitation of the results - also concretely material: artefacts, structures, topographical arrangements (Fig. 5) - of the research itself (for example, with solutions for a virtual side, for another hypertext side).

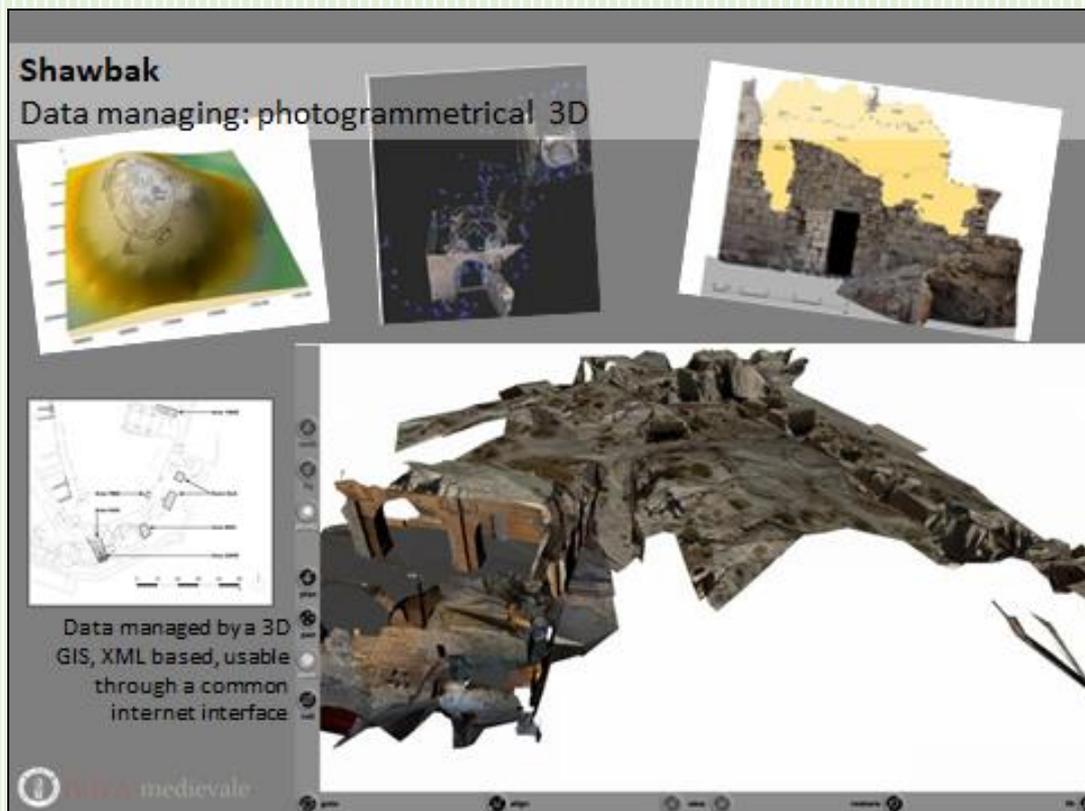


Fig. 5. Archaeometric processing in Shawbak (Jordan).

But it will be precisely the territorial approach that will lay the foundations for an integration between such a scientific path and procedures, simultaneously programmed, of 'public archaeology'. In particular, this type of approach is able to produce sufficiently 'extensive' documentary results - both materially (the knowledge of a culturally homogeneous territorial context) and conceptually (the analysis of a historical phenomenon, beyond the episodic limits of the classical archaeological instrument) - able to be spent not only for directly historical and scientific purposes, but also to raise awareness of the protection and consciously suggest new forms of management and enhancement of the historical, cultural and territorial heritage (Figs. 6-7).

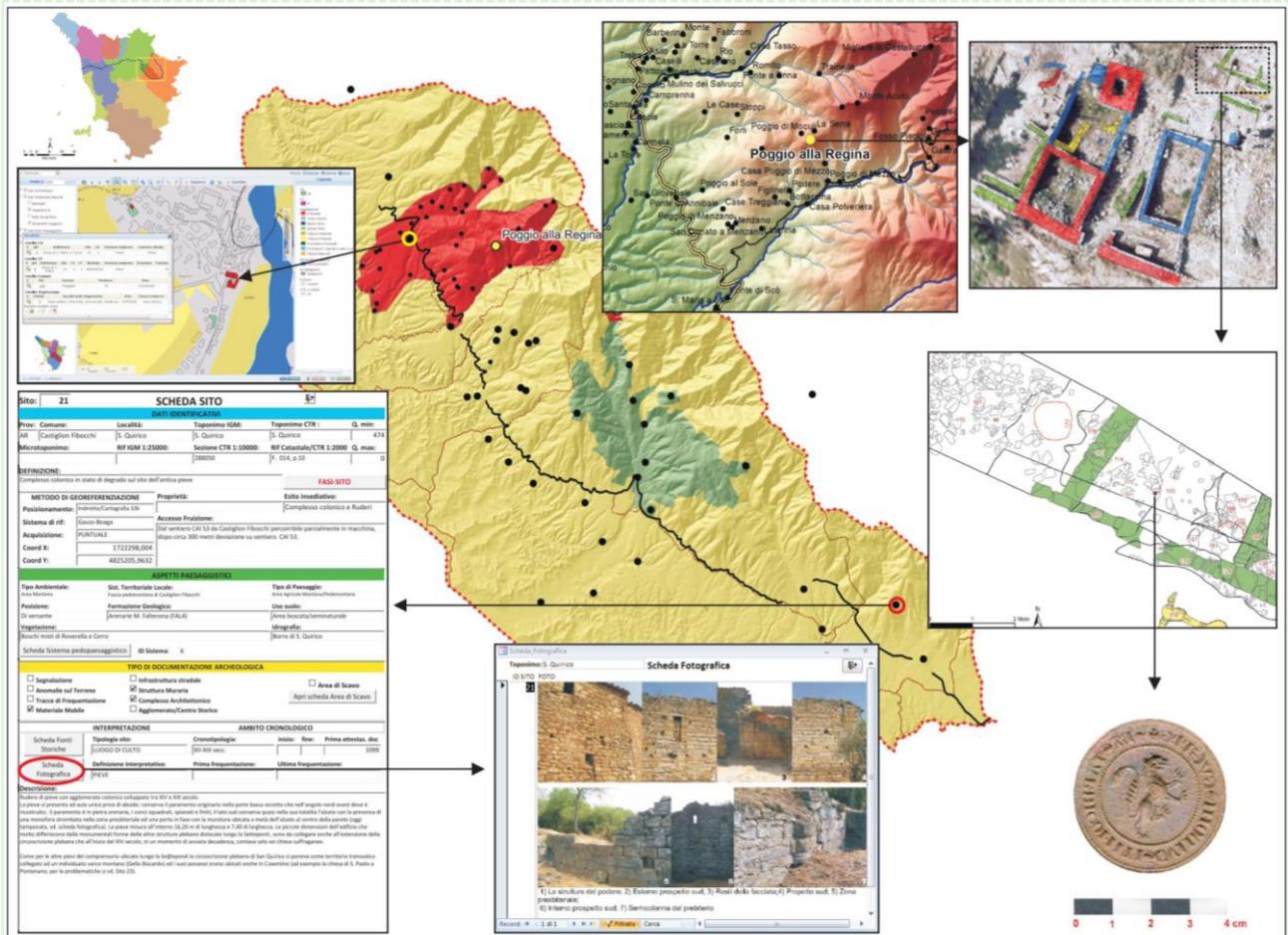


Fig. 6. Archaeological reading of a territory.
 The Pratomagno Project: historical landscapes and 'archaeological observatories'
 (elaborated by Annica Sahalin)

Public Archaeology, in fact, can be, in extreme synthesis, presented as the interdisciplinary scientific field that studies and promotes a strategic relationship between research and an articulated spectrum of public and private subjects of civil society and can be considered as a redefinition and recentralization of an area of interaction between 'pure' and applied archaeological research in some key areas: communication, economics and management, politics, identity. In other words, the objective is to combine research with its applications designed to contribute to the achievement of shared objectives of socio-cultural and also economic importance and, in collaboration with the relevant institutions (both central and local), to the enhancement of archaeological BB CCs in favour of resident communities and territorial productive sectors (Fig. 8).



Fig. 7. Archaeological reading of Pratomagno: the evaluation of the archaeological resource (elaborated by Annica Sahlin)

Public archaeology, in fact, as an actualisation of the original vocation of the Discipline to spend in its own time and as a national interpretation of recent experiences among Anglo-Saxons, between economy, governance, communication, identity of the Cultural Heritage and archaeological social communities. Applications of archaeological research as a sharing of 'sustainable' projects with different actors, public and private, of civil society and as a support to pure research. Public archaeology as a contribution to the repositioning of academic research in this sector in today's society in crisis and to the formulation of proposals to overcome it with a view to recomposing all scientific knowledge.

In other words, archaeology becomes 'public' when, from a scientific point of view, the problem of the 'public of archaeology' arises.

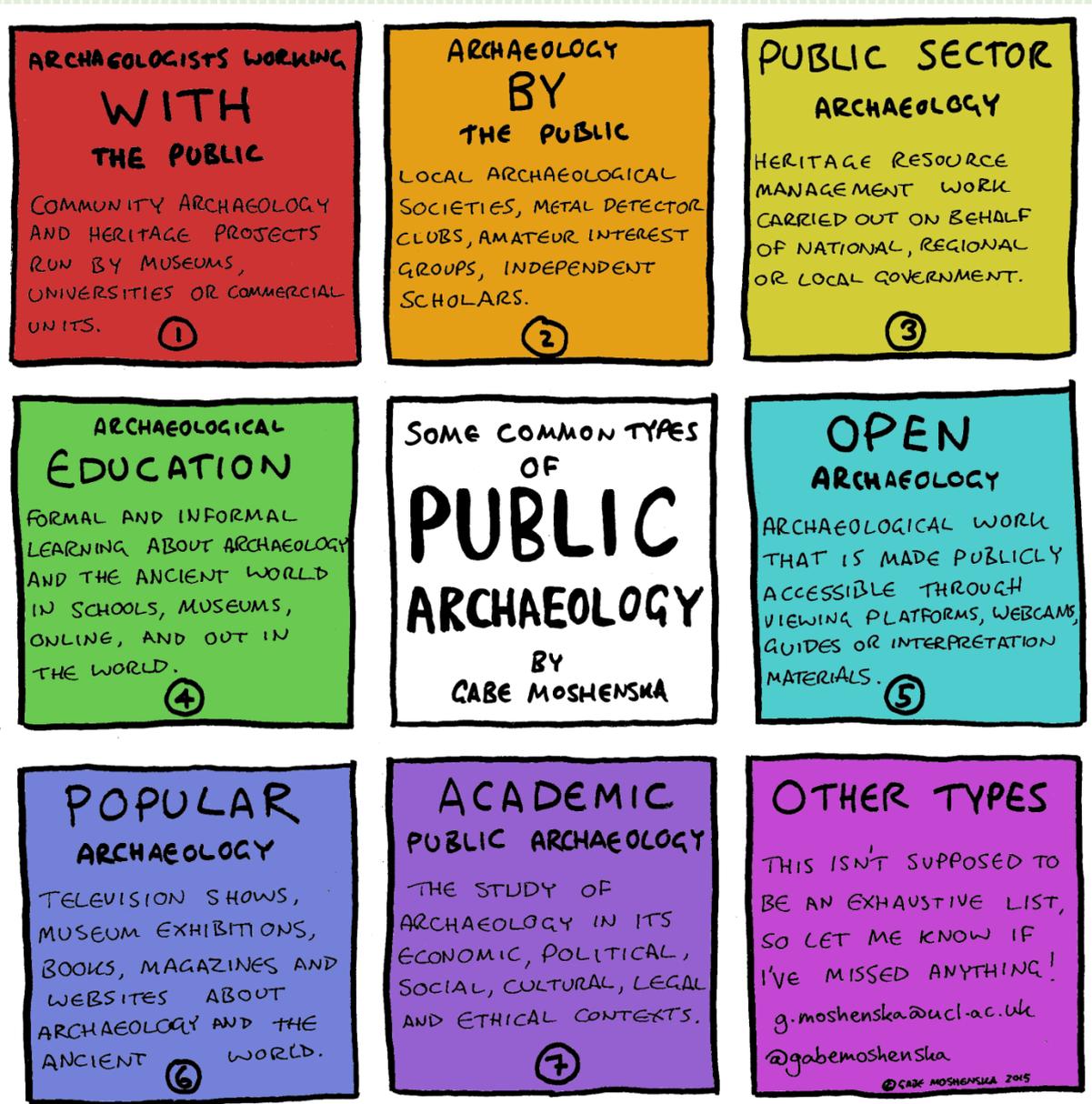


Fig. 8. Gabriel Moshenska, 2017, Key Concepts in Public Archaeology

2. Archaeology, History, Environment.

In this project - which we will take here as an example of an itinerary that has crossed the entire route just outlined (from 'light archaeology to public archaeology') - the field investigation has taken its cue from the reading of the historical landscape of the Solano valley; a territory that, in its development, has been strongly characterized by the close relationship between people, environment and exploitation of natural resources over time, interwoven with the memory and recovery of the memory of the material and immaterial references of the current inhabitants of the territory and their direct involvement in the planned activities.

The intent, therefore, is to understand the mechanisms of transformation of the territorial structures in the chosen historical time "capturing the interaction between the different levels in succession and combining the horizontal sections with the vertical ones, the synchrony with the diachrony, the event with the duration" (Potter 1985). The aim is to obtain archaeological and material documentation that is as extensive as possible on the territory (with surface surveys) but intensive on a series of selected archaeological sites and areas (with analysis of specific building structures and with the stratigraphic excavation of the castle), achieving a high degree of reliability, in a relatively short time and in conditions of marked economy.

As often happens, in this case, the restoration and safety of the ancient bridge of Cetica (Castel San Niccolò, Arezzo)⁶⁹, a particularly dear artefact to the community, seriously compromised and at risk of collapse, it was an opportunity to develop an integrated research and development programme, centred on the 'territorial system' represented by the bridge, the mill and the Castle of Sant'Angelo, significant from the point of view of medieval historical investigation, as it preserves the archaeological evidence relating to important historiographical themes, such as the relationship between the owners of the castles, the Guidi, the historical road network and between these and the productive structures of the territory (Figs. 9-10)⁷⁰.

⁶⁹ The first attestation of Cetica dates back to 1002 when Ottone III confirmed its ownership, perhaps of Marquis origin, in the Badia Fiorentina. Its mention among the properties of the Guidi, however, dates back to 1029, the year in which Count Guido II donated the tenth of the curtis of Cetica to the church of his monastery of San Fedele in Strumi. The power of the Guidi and at the same time of the Badia Fiorentina over Cetica is attested until 1066 (Rauty 2003, pp. 89-91). Between the end of the 11th and the beginning of the 12th century, a period in which the Guidi extended and consolidated their power between Tuscany and Romagna, Cetica came under the effective control of the accounts, as was subsequently confirmed by the diploma of Federico Barbarossa in 1164 (Rauty 2003, pp. 298-301) and, in 1290, it was among the centres destroyed on the road to Florence by the Florentine army returning from an expedition against Arezzo following the Battle of Campaldino. The area remained within the scope of the guide until 1349 when the population rose up against Count Galeotto Novello and became part of the Podesteria della Montagna Fiorentina (Bargiacchi 2009, p. 229).

⁷⁰ An authentic microcosm with the paradigmatic value of a large number of feudal structures similar to those of the mountains for the central centuries of a 'long' Middle Ages: a true Braudelien 'structure'.

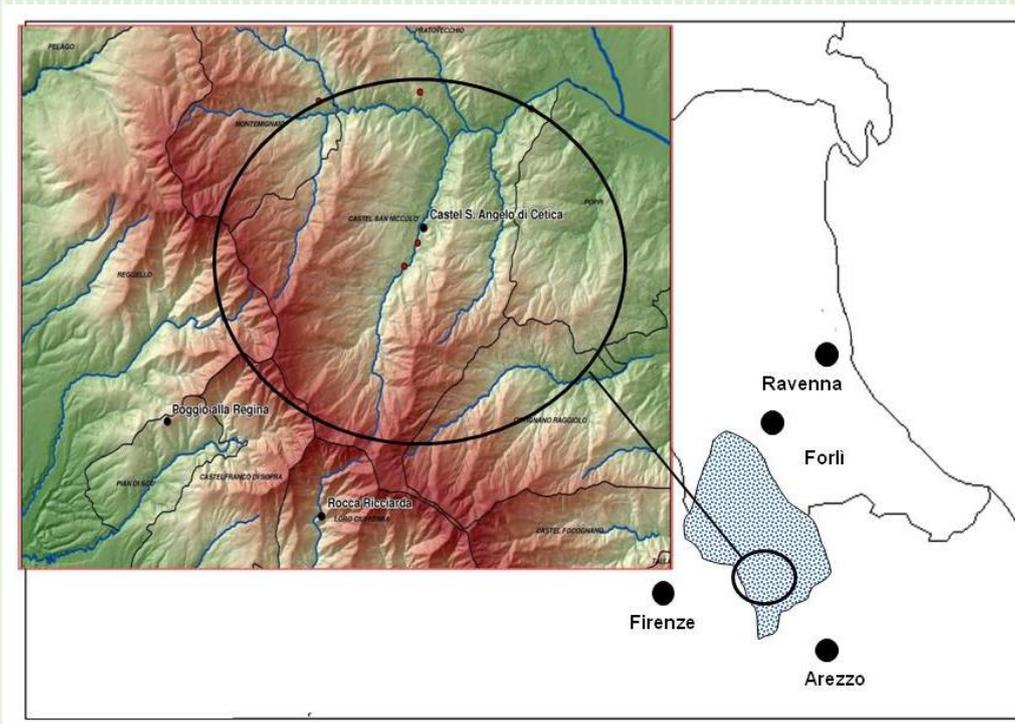


Fig. 9. The Solano Valley area

The recovery of the historical spaces has taken place through the study of the territorial structures and of the artefacts of daily use recognised as 'significant' by the community. The peculiarity of the project was therefore the way in which the forms of feudal settlement were studied in a concrete territorial case, the historical story of the Guidi's Lordship and its settlement and fortification dynamics in Casentino - through intensive surveys on the site of the castle of Sant'Angelo (followed by a 'targeted' excavation campaign) and archaeological analyses of the structures of the bridge and the mill - with the value of a case-study representative of widespread realities, combined with a dimension also cultivated in experimental forms of models between communication and indications of governance of research results (Molducci et al. 2015; Vannini 2011; Vannini et al. 2014; Volpe 2016; Manacorda 2017; Nucciotti 2009, Molducci 2019)⁷¹.

⁷¹ The project foresees, therefore, the reading of these phenomena through the archaeological analysis of the settlement methods adopted by the Guidi counts to contribute to the reconstruction of their castle structure in the Apennine area, recognizing some of the operational lines adopted by the Guidi in the material construction of their lordship and of which it represents a precise peculiarity: the feudal society understood in the classical sense proposed by Marc Bloch, approached to the other, of 'feudalism', which refers instead to the political-institutional dimension and the rural world, the countryside, in its dialectic with the emerging central powers, the new political realities (the merchant cities, elsewhere the national monarchies) that are affirmed in the late Middle Ages with increasing intrusion, as structural elements of origin of modern Europe (Vannini, Molducci 2009).



Fig. 10. The 'microcontext' of the Bridge, Mill, Road and Castle of Sant'Angelo in Cetica

The strong interest of the Guidi for the area of Cetica had some reasons. First of all, the central position of the centre within the committee was particularly strategic, going from Tuscany to Romagna, near the watershed between Pratomagno and Casentino, where the main roads connecting many of the most important properties of the Counts ran. Moreover, the proximity of the Solano river, a tributary of the Arno, had encouraged the establishment, in Cetica, of an important productive nucleus of mills and ironworks, of which water was the driving force. The area was further strategic as the center of the defensive system I lead towards Florence. Finally, the economic vitality was also given by sheep farming, the production of building materials, forest products (chestnuts, wood, etc..) distributed in local markets, beyond the Pratomagno and, most likely, even citizens. All these elements favoured the development of a substantial scattered settlement and the establishment of a network of road structures and infrastructures functional to the Lordship.

3. Light archaeology, Territory.

The archaeological analyses of building structures, which fall within the scope of the procedures of 'light' archaeology, have had two main areas of investigation. Firstly, the analysis and detailed documentation of the technical and construction characteristics of the walls and, secondly, their historical contextualization and the productive environment. This methodological approach allows, first of all, to recognize the transformations over time (reconstruct the biography of the building) and, according to the most recent developments of the discipline (Brogiolo, Cagnana 2012), to establish a close relationship between the technical and chronotypological aspects of a building and the socio-economic and political dynamics underlying its production (Fig. 11).

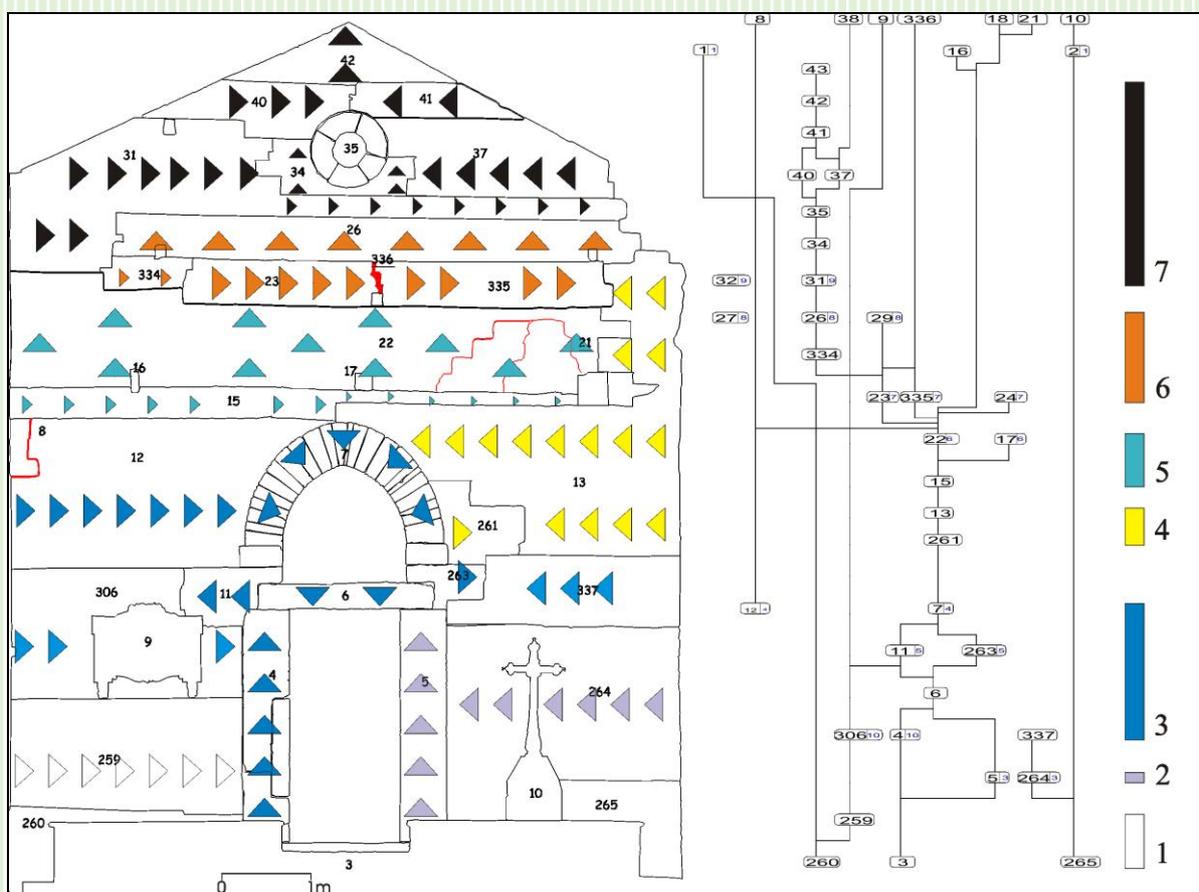


Fig. 11. Microstratigraphic analysis of the Romanesque building site of San Nicolao in Monsummano Alto, Pistoia (elaborated by Michele Nucciotti)

The study of historical building, in fact, based on the hypothesis that every type of power (citizen, lordly and ecclesiastical) corresponds to a precise form of building (Bianchi 2003), is a privileged tool for the analysis of the medieval landscape and its most eloquent material witness: the building (building site procedures, organization of the production environment,

the processes of acculturation of workers, technical environments and the client). A documentation (historical binders, lithotypes, finishing tools) that can be used for a philological direction also of the procedures of conservation and enhancement, as well as to produce thematic atlases of medieval building (Nucciotti 2015), designed, certainly to order critically a documentation capable of directing further stages of research, also as tools for a conscious planning of current building choices (structures and their contextualization). In this sense, the analyses carried out are well connected to the activities of restoration of the bridge and mill of Sant'Angelo (as well as the remains of the castle found during excavation), as well as to the recovery of the widespread heritage of the Solano valley (Fig. 12).



Fig. 12. Stratigraphic readings at the Bridge of Sant'Angelo in Cetica (elaborated by Chiara Marcotulli)

Combining archaeology and restoration, with these premises, means giving the project a trend that establishes a coherent programme of 'sustainable' intervention (non-invasive, economic, economic, trend reversal) between research (a 'light' archaeological option), restoration (philological, conservative), communication ('virtual', selective), establishing a routine that avoids as far as possible reconstruction interventions to safeguard the original 'text' with an effective and lasting 'material' communication that research has also made it possible to document and understand: a model that could be understood, if not always necessarily alternative, conceptually different even from the best current routine, generally

more or less "reconstructed". An approach that, one could say, with a "restoration that avoids restoration", lightening as much as possible the "additional", "replacement" or "reconstruction" interventions with respect to the original text and guaranteeing the highest level of maintenance of the same, instead focuses on a normal (and economic) "maintenance" of the site, suitably calibrated on local resources and traditions and, although supported by an improvement of skills, even essentially local, obtained with adequate training that accompanies the implementation of the project itself. In a nutshell: from light excavation to "sustainable" restoration (Fig. 13).

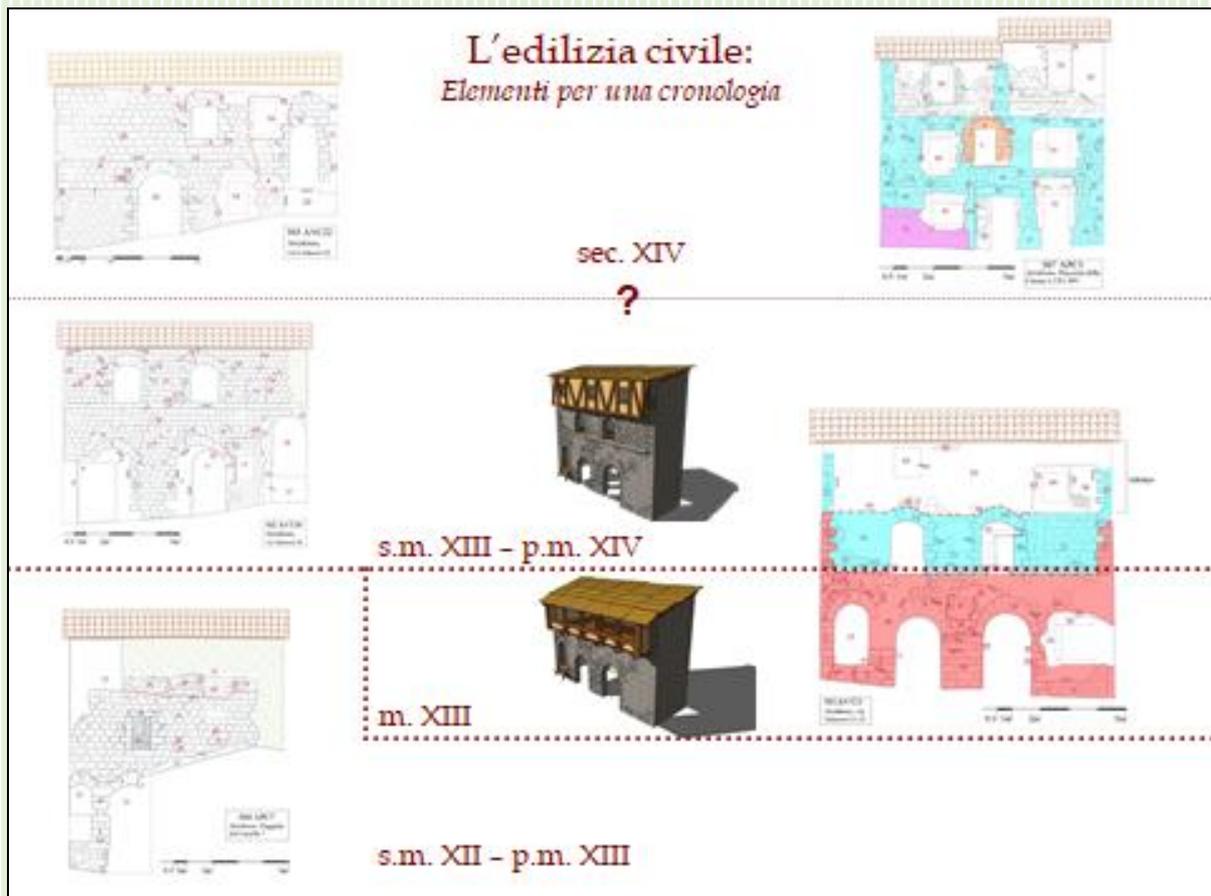


Fig. 13. An archaeology for restoration. Medieval civil construction at Arcidosso (Grosseto) (elaborated by Arianna De Falco)

There is, one could say, a certain maintenance of the memory obtained through the product of archaeological research, but also a preserved memory, through the maintenance of the archaeological deposit that exists not only in depth (excavation) but also vertically (built) and horizontally (landscape): and transmitting this second memory is important as well as dealing with the first and now that we can achieve it with many major options, also offered to us by the help of new technologies applied to Cultural Heritage, our responsibility is much greater.

As for the operations of Landscape Archaeology on the widespread heritage in the Solano valley, we proceeded with toponymic surveys on a cartographic basis (IGM 1:25,000 in the edition of the 30'), integrated with the historical and cadastral; important was also the oral source, the only repository of some microtomes. Therefore, an extensive survey strategy was adopted on the selected sites (Cambi, Terrenato 1994; Cambi 2011) as a premise for intensive surveys on areas identified as 'fertile' or complex (Fig. 14)⁷².

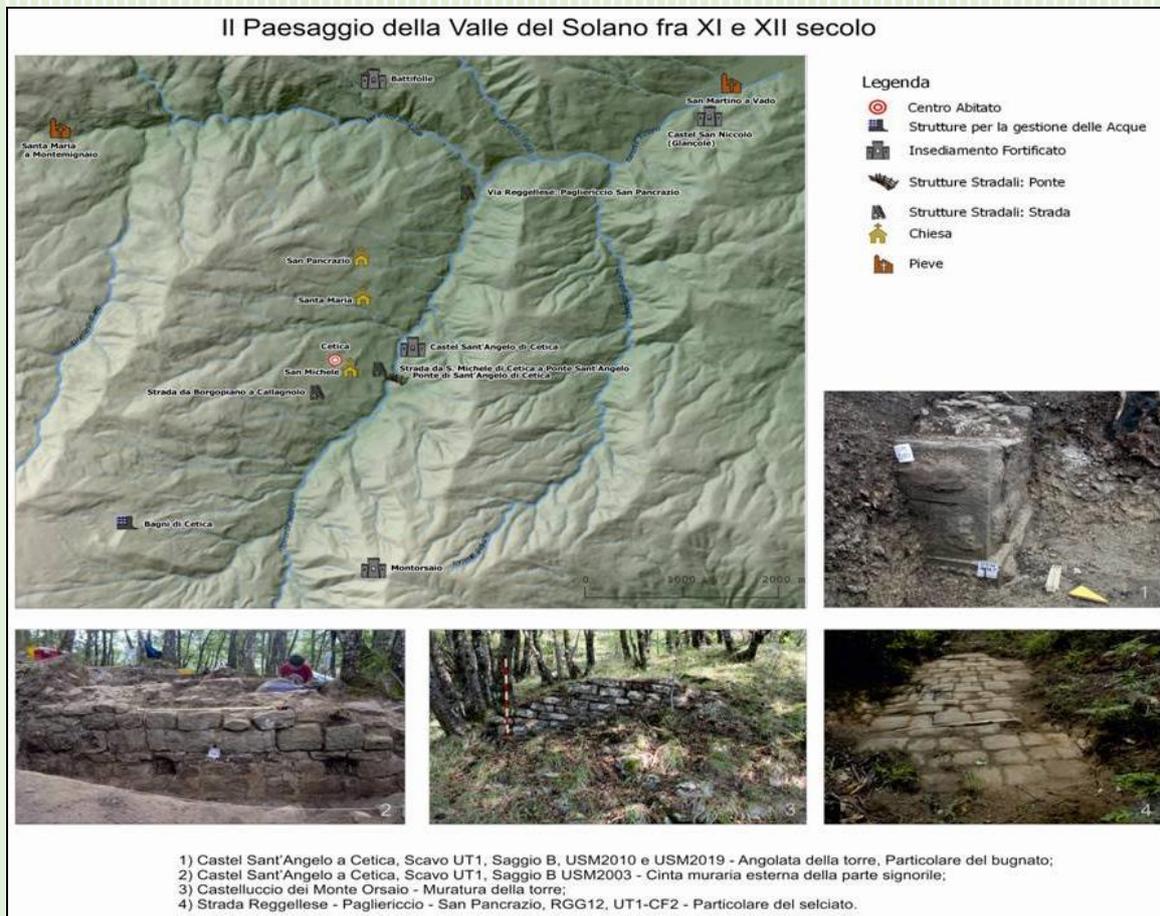


Fig. 14. Phase thematic map. Landscape of the Solano valley between the 11th and 12th centuries

⁷² For this type of territorial reading and to better integrate 'The vertical with the horizontal', i.e. to allow a dialogue between the territorial surface survey with that of the elevated and the excavation, was used the system of filing and documentation of PETRAdata®, a database developed for the projects of the Chair and organized according to a principle of hierarchical archiving (NICCOLUCCI *et alii* 2000). The historical and archaeological data collected during the investigations in the territory have been processed through synthetic historical cartographies realized on GIS platform to better understand a multilayered and multiscale context. The maps have a double value: that of providing a valid tool for the protection instances, which can be used within the territorial information systems of local administrations, and that of providing support to research and historical-archaeological synthesis through the use of analyses aimed at studying the topographical and settlement interrelationships. information systems of local administrations, and that of providing support to research and historical-archaeological synthesis through the use of analyses aimed at studying the topographical and settlement interrelationships.

The investigations carried out in the planned stratigraphic excavation had as their primary objective the study of the 'material history' of the site. The targeted excavation tests were carried out on the basis of the reconnaissance carried out and aimed at acquiring one of the fundamental elements of the settlement complex: the castle of Sant'Angelo, which extends over the hill overlooking the river Solano, separated from the mountain facing by a saddle excavated to increase its depth. The stately part was then identified, with the structures of the keep - of irregular polygonal shape (reminiscent of the dungeon castles of Northern Europe) - at the centre of which there was the tower of subquadrangular shape, the size of a palatium, with a vaulted cistern at the base, the area of the town, the remains of the outer walls. In the area of access to the site there are some erratic boulders that show signs of tools used for the extraction of building material (Fig.15).

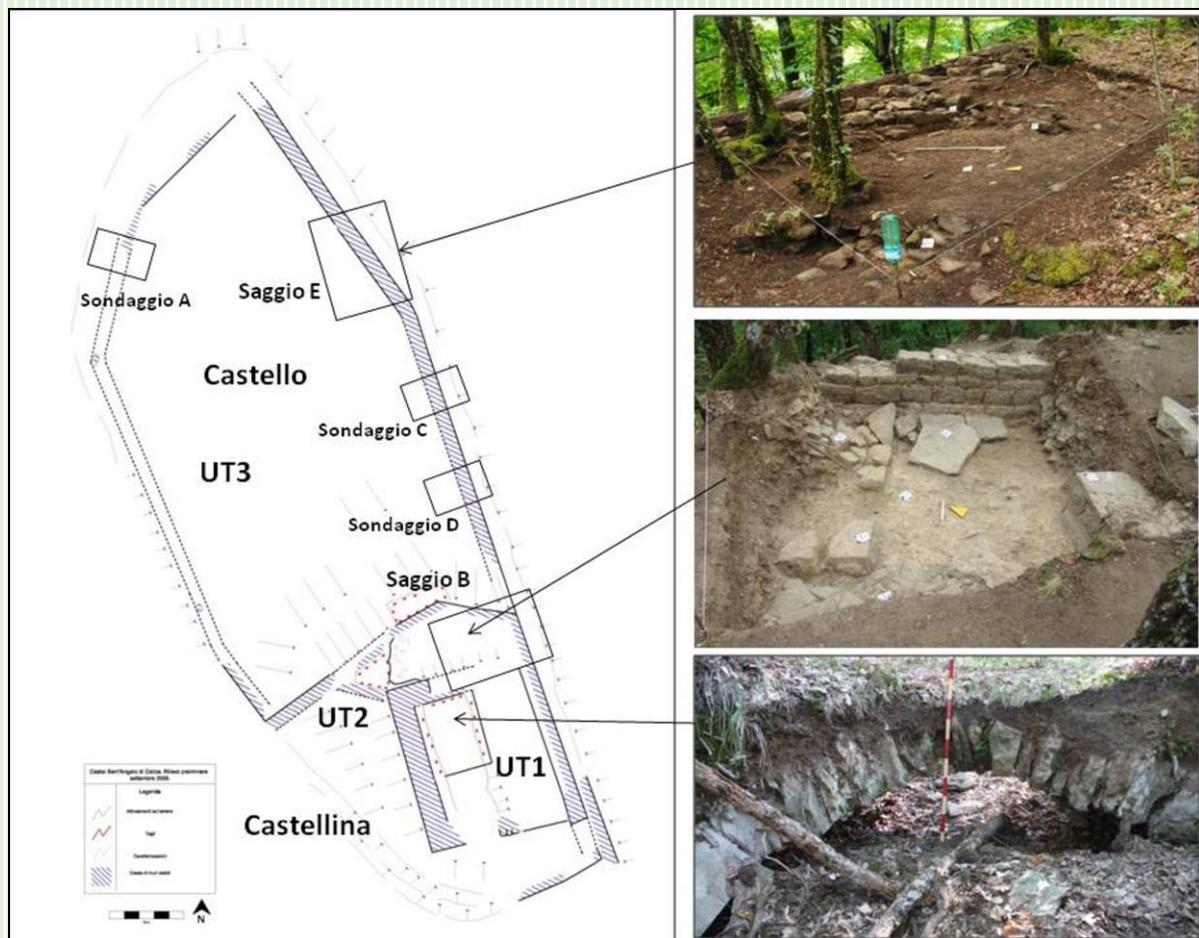


Fig. 15. Excavation of the castle of Sant'Angelo in Cetica

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MODERN MANAGEMENT OF CULTURAL LANDSCAPE

Sustainable Management of Cultural Landscapes ⁷³

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⁷³ This chapter has been authored by the UNINET Cultural Heritage research group of the University of Ioannina: Alexandros Peteinarelis, Nikolas Patsavos and Angelos Papageorgiou.

I. Cultural Landscape Management

I.1. Management Categories, Definition, Framework and Processes

I.1.1. IUCN Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories

Cultural and Natural values, as already discussed in time, bring forward the requirement of technical advice of both ICOMOS and IUCN. Although an inspection of the evaluation reports prepared by IUCN shows that the number and level of reviews undertaken has varied from year to year ((Leitão and Badman 2015), the Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories (IUCN 2013) is a comprehensive document for evaluation and management of protected areas. IUCN defines a protected area as: *A clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values.* The definition is tied to and expanded by six management categories, based on their management objectives (Table 3).

IUCN Six Management Categories of Protected Areas

I

Ia: Strict Nature Reserve

Strictly protected for biodiversity and also possibly geological/geomorphological features, where human visitation, use and impacts are controlled and limited to ensure protection of the conservation values.

Ib: Wilderness Area

Usually large unmodified or slightly modified areas, retaining their natural character and influence, without permanent or significant human habitation, protected and managed to preserve their natural condition.

II: National Park

Large natural or near-natural areas protecting large-scale ecological processes with characteristic species and ecosystems, which also have environmentally and culturally compatible spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities.

III: Natural Monument or Feature

Areas set aside to protect a specific natural monument, which can be a landform, sea mount, marine cavern, geological feature such as a cave, or a living feature such as an ancient grove.

IV: Habitat/Species Management Area

Areas to protect particular species or habitats, where management reflects this priority. Many will need regular, active interventions to meet the needs of particular species or habitats, but this is not a requirement of the category.

V: Protected Landscape or Seascape

Where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced a distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value: and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values.

VI: Protected Areas with Sustainable Use of Natural Resources

Areas which conserve ecosystems, together with associated cultural values and traditional natural resource management systems. Generally large, mainly in a natural condition, with a proportion under sustainable natural resource management and where low-level non-industrial natural resource use compatible with nature conservation is seen as one of the main aims.

Table 3. IUCN Six Management Categories of Protected Areas (2013).

The category should be based around the primary management objective(s), which should apply to at least three-quarters of the protected area – the 75 per cent rule.

1.1.2. Management Definition Framework and Processes

According to the WHCL Handbook for Conservation and Management (Mitchell et.al. 2009) the purpose of management of CLs inscribed on the World Heritage List is to protect the OUV for present and future generations. It is the role of management to guide change in the CL while retaining important values. A key part of the suggested framework (Figure 2) is using an approach that builds agreement among key stakeholders to identify and implement a variety of measures to protect these values, and to renew and sustain these efforts over time. It is part of the management process that is used to organize, document, and coordinate management strategies often among a number of stakeholders.

Common elements of the recommended management approach for World Heritage sites includes the following:

- I. A thorough and shared understanding of the property by all stakeholders;
- II. A cycle of planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and feedback;
- III. The full involvement of partners and stakeholders;
- IV. The allocation of necessary resources capacity-building and
- V. An accountable, transparent description of how the management system functions. Exploring, learning and creating new methods that are centred on recognizing and supporting the interconnected bio-cultural character of the natural, cultural and social values of highly significant landscapes and seascapes;

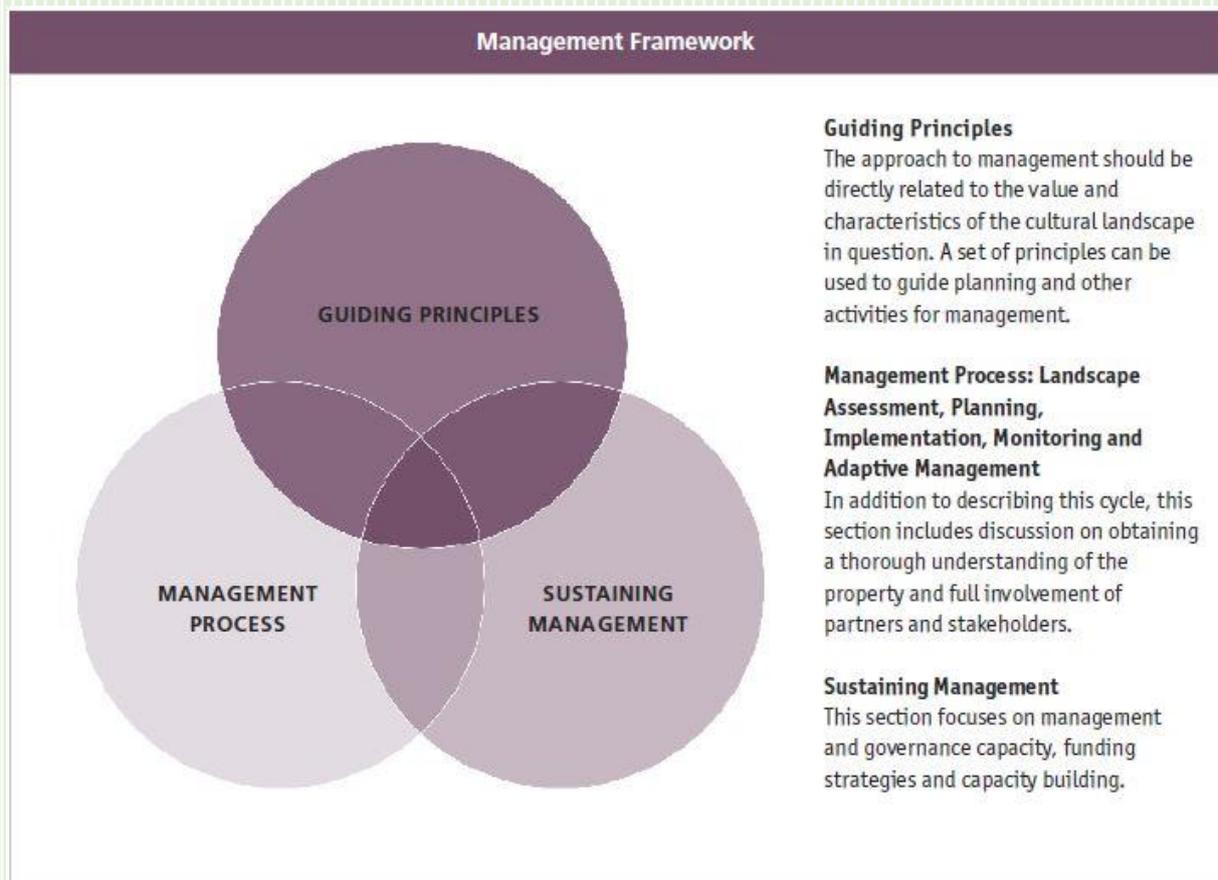


Figure 2. Management Framework, extract from Mitchell et.al. 2009, WHCL Handbook for Conservation and Management.

Six main guiding principles are the foundation of the management framework (Mitchell et.al. 2009, Taylor et.al. 2015) (Table 4).

Guiding Principles	
1	People associated with the cultural landscape are the primary stakeholders for stewardship.
2	Successful management is inclusive and transparent, and governance is shaped through dialogue and agreement among key stakeholders.
3	The value of the cultural landscape is based on the interaction between people and their environment; and the focus of management is on this relationship.
4	The focus of management is on guiding change to retain the values of the cultural landscape.
5	Management of cultural landscapes is integrated into a larger landscape context.
6	Successful management contributes to a sustainable society.
Table 4. Guiding principles for the management of CL, numbered for easy reference and not arranged in priority order.	

The management process can be viewed as a cycle (Figure 3). It can be summarized in four main processes, landscape assessment, planning, implementation, monitoring and adaptive management.

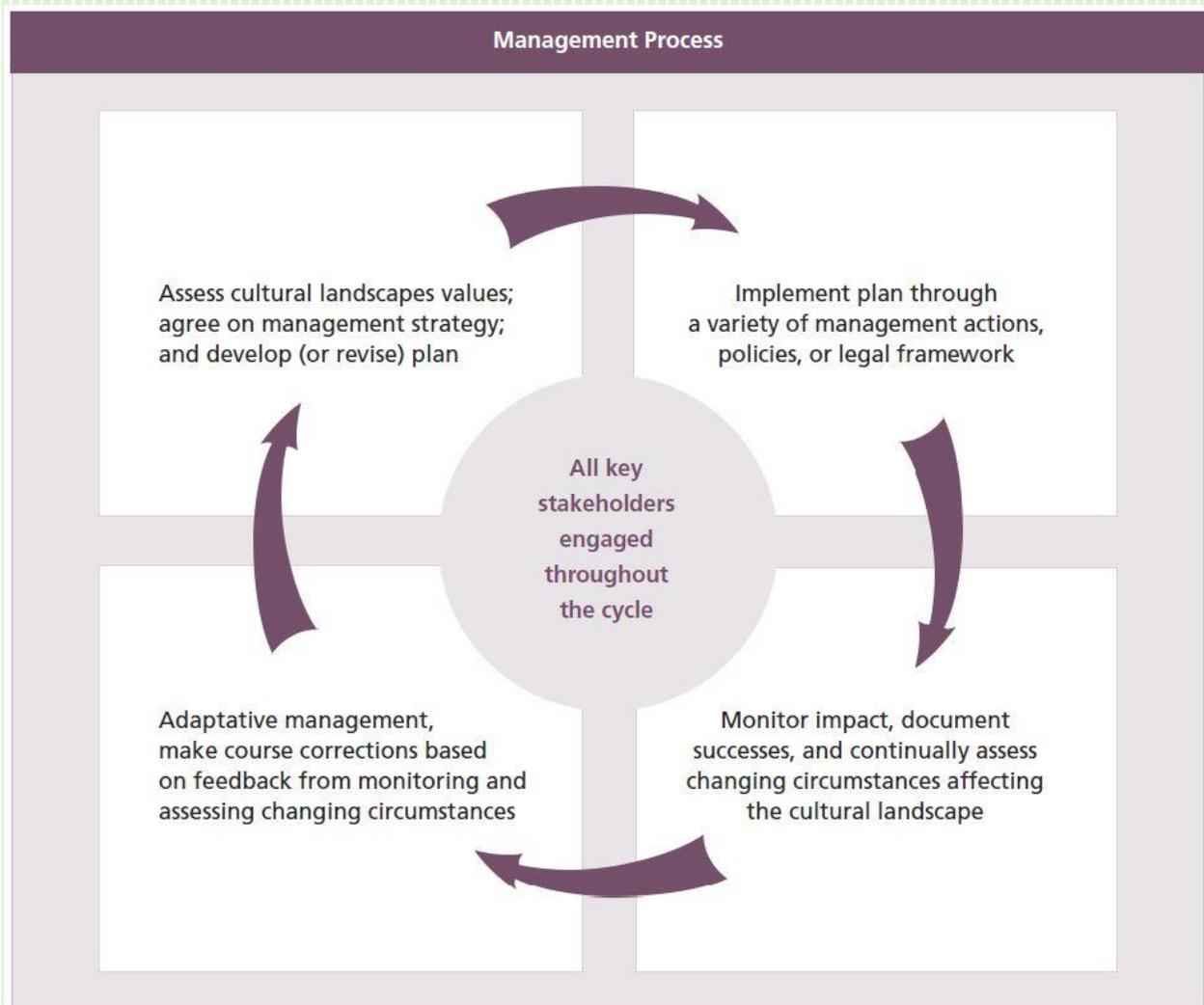


Figure 3. Management process cycle, extract from Mitchell et.al. 2009, WHCL Handbook for Conservation and Management.

The key, interrelated stages for the above management process cycle, along with the important steps for each stage are summarized in Table 5.

Key Stages for a Management Process

Stage 1: Getting agreement on the approach and planning the work

- engage key stakeholders in the initial stage and reach agreement on how this engagement will continue throughout the planning process and into implementation;
- design a transparent planning process by obtaining agreement from all key stakeholders;
- obtain commitment of stakeholders;
- clarify management coordination, governance, and authorities for management;
- clarify the roles and responsibilities for developing and implementing the plan and, if appropriate, identifies members of a planning team;
- develop a communication strategy to reach a broader public.

Stage 2: Understanding the cultural landscape and its values

- gather and analyse data about the landscape and its values and describe landscape characteristics – both tangible and intangible;
- document existing site conditions and management;
- define landscape boundaries and identify linkages to the regional context;
- evaluate OUV and other areas of significance through comparative analysis;
- assess authenticity and integrity;
- establish a Statement of OUV.

Stage 3: Developing a shared vision for the future

- describe desired long-term vision for cultural landscape through developing a shared vision.

Stage 4: Defining management objectives and assessing opportunities and challenges -using management plans to organize and coordinate-

- identify management objectives related to the shared vision and management priorities;
- assess the opportunities and challenges, pressures, or threats faced in realizing the vision and management objectives;
- define levels of acceptable change or thresholds for potential concern, if appropriate.

Stage 5: Identifying options and agreeing on management strategy

- identify and assess a variety of options to accomplish the management objectives based on the management vision;
- identify other, more detailed and specific plans that are needed (and that would include an analysis of available resources and constraints);
- identify other management or planning processes that will influence the landscape.

Stage 6: Coordinating the implementation of the management strategy

- Management coordination;
- Collaboration and co-management.

Stage 7: Monitoring, evaluation, and adaptive management

- Monitoring the effectiveness of the site management strategy;
- Evaluation and adaptive management.

Stage 8: Deciding when to renew/revise the management strategies and the management plan.

Table 5. Key Stages for a Management Process, WHCL Handbook for Conservation and Management. For a comprehensive description of every important step please refer to the same document.

1.2. Sustaining Management

1.2.1. Governance for protection and conservation

The IUCN protected areas definition includes two very important terms: [... *managed, **through legal or other effective means**, to achieve the long-term **conservation** of ...*]. The latter signifies a management shift, protection along with conservation, confronting Landscape as an ongoing process, the time factor of Human-Nature interaction, rather than merely a product of the interaction (Selman 2012, Taylor 2012). Taylor et.al. (2015) continue, this fundamental challenge of conservation, rather than protection, within a heritage perspective underscores how cultural landscapes contribute to current conservation thinking around four emerging directions:

1. Reorientation of heritage leadership from institutional direction to community stewardship, with its emphasis on diversity;
2. Radical shift of focus to looking at cultural landscapes, including historic urban landscapes, as living, evolving socio-ecosystems, and as systems and processes, rather than primarily as sites as objects;
3. Expansion of value recognition to immaterial expressions, including the cognitive and spiritual values of indigenous association with the landscape and traditional knowledge;
4. The contribution of cultural landscapes in understanding the relationships between sustainability, environmental change and heritage.

To clarify the importance of *through legal or other effective means*, Rössler (2015) continues, legal protection, as the only management action, is not sufficient for the conservation of cultural landscapes and their transmission to future generations, as their survival depends on multiple factors linked to the daily intervention of people with their environment. Therefore, it is fundamentally important to acknowledge that conservation of CLs relies on engagement and collaboration with people from communities associated with a landscape, as well as those that are not as closely linked and their management should specifically ensure appropriate community involvement from the identification of values to the interdisciplinary and inclusive management processes (Taylor et.al. 2015, Rössler 2015, Brown 2015).

The IUCN management categories are applied with a typology of four governance types – a description of who holds authority and responsibility for the protected area (IUCN 2013) (Table 6). Making a clear distinction between management and governance is crucial. Management is about aims, actions and results that lead, ideally, to management effectiveness of protected areas (Hockings et al. 2008 cited in Brown 2015).

IUCN Governance Types
Governance by government:
Federal or national ministry/agency in charge; sub-national ministry/agency in charge; government-delegated management (e.g. to NGO).
Shared governance:
Collaborative management (various degrees of influence); joint management (pluralist management board; transboundary management (various levels across international borders)
Private governance:
By individual owner; by non-profit organisations (NGOs, universities, cooperatives); by for-profit organisations (individuals or corporate).
Governance by indigenous peoples and local communities:
Indigenous peoples' conserved areas and territories; community conserved areas – declared and run by local communities.
Table 6. IUCN Governance Types (2013)

Brown (2015) argues, using the lens of protected area governance, one finds cultural landscapes under all four of the governance types. There are many excellent examples of cultural landscapes where stewardship is undertaken by government authorities or by private actors, such as nongovernmental organizations (NGO) or private individuals. Cultural landscapes, the result of a long and complex relationship between people and nature, are with us today because of the past and present day stewardship of those communities living in and near them. Thus, supporting indigenous and local communities in stewardship of cultural landscapes will require new partnerships that take into account the need to:

- I. Sustain the core values underlying stewardship—such as tradition, language, respect and love—ensuring that these are reflected in education of the next generation and translated into the policies affecting communities.
- II. Reinforce the central role of communities not only in management but in governance, whether as governance by communities or in collaborative relationships, and manage adaptively.
- III. Honour the importance of distinctive spiritual relationships to the land (enshrined as a human right by the United Nations 10) and the associated traditional practices and sacred places that are held in trust for the living, the

dead and the unborn.

- IV.** Recognize traditional knowledge alongside western systems of science, ensure that it informs management policies, and support communities in transmitting this knowledge and associated practices (such as indigenous languages, food ways, water management systems and handicrafts) across generations in ways that foster identity and pride.
- V.** Support and develop livelihood opportunities, recognizing the dynamic nature of this challenge in the context of globalization, so that young people have the option of living in the communities they come from.

I.2.2. Funding and income

The funding and management of protected areas has been for many years a governmental task, based mainly on the public good nature of heritage assets. In a challenging and constantly changing political and economic environment around the globe, emerges the need of flexible funding and income generating strategies. For CLs, and not only, it is of critical importance that these strategies foster local vibrant economies and constantly improve living standards of the local community, as long as the suggested and/or applied ways of generating income do not conflict with the conservation of the protected features and conservation area. Overall, site-generated income and government funding must be combined to ensure CL site management cost sufficiency (Mitchell et.al. 2009).

There are two main categories of income, internal and external. Internal income relies mainly on sustainable development strategies to support the site itself. The resources that generate an income able to fund site management are of two kinds: direct resources are generated by the very activities that originally shaped the site and usually gave it its heritage values; indirect resources come after, especially when the site is given a heritage value. Productive activities like agriculture, fishing and forestry can in most cases of evolving CLs sustain the site, thus such activities need to be boosted to continue. Tourism is the main indirect resource, an activity not directly linked to the specific site, but potentially a leading source of income, depending to visitor attendance. Balanced management of both sources of income needs, again, to ensure site sustainability. For both sources two main issues must be addressed:

1. How can the site be worked to produce income without being altered in ways that impact on the OUV (in a continuing cultural landscape, income may well be required for livelihood and poverty alleviation as a first priority) and,
2. How to use the income generated by the operation for site maintenance?

The first issue can be confronted with a site-suited sustainable operation (Table 7). The management needs to assess the types of products and their amount, as well as methods for resource maintenance. Internal products include forestry, species, planted and forest products, crops, farm productions, while managing external tourism, the services offered and the target tourist type and category must be considered. Limiting or expanding every type of product or service is a challenging per case task.

A site-suited sustainable operation

Looking for quality rather than quantity

- deep change in the farmers' strategies, against the dominant model of maximum productivity;
- increase profit through product unit price;
- increase product quality with the revival of traditional products: pasture-fed animal meat, production of old varieties of fruits and vegetable, rehabilitation of old farm houses into lodges or hostels, modern techniques or new products, for example, wine in regions of suitable climate but where it was not traditionally made, or rearing animal species traditionally not domesticated;
- give preference to affordable cultural or farm tourism, rather than mass tourism;
- attract high income earners.

Elaborated products

- Agriculture: wines, cheese, preserves, jams, honey, food specialties or craft products based on local natural resources.
- Tourism: organization of complete tours with accommodation and sustainable transportation modes (like scenic boats or trains)

Marketing agricultural products as site-specific

Agriculture:

- sell the image of the place connectd with the product with direct sales to visitors or though packaging and advertising campaigns showing the region of origin;

- promote the image of tradition, rural roots and ideal countryside site in farm products.

Tourism:

- promote the specific values of the site, like visits, on-site museums, interpretative trails, historic shows, craft shops, etc;
- limit attracted low-grade site-related products, like poorly documented historic reconstructions, low-quality souvenirs, etc., or byproducts without any relation to the site, like fast food restaurants, attraction parks, etc.;
- promote local crafts and traditional design achieving both tourist satisfaction and local craft maintenance.

Tourism and agriculture combination:

- wine tours, on-farm sales, catering and-or accommodation;
- create ties between site managers and visitors;
- promote culinary heritage and characteristics of the region, offering local food lifestyle and culture services;
- promote traditional food production tied to new business ideas.

Labels

For: producers' associations, governments and independent bodies which guarantee of specific product qualities and services with the following types:

- labels of origin: guarantee of ta given protected site;
- labels of process: guarantee of production rules and processes;
- labels of quality: guarantee of given tested results.
- environmental labels: guarantee of sustainable production processes and environmental requirements;
- ethical labels: guarantee of local population and working force rights promotion and protection policies.

Table 7. Tabulated sustainable site operation directives (Mitchell et.al. 2009).

The second issue requires effective directing of the site income to site management, with two ways according to the operator identity. Either the manager (who intends to maintain the site), public or private, is the operator (who gets the income); or the operator gives the manager a part of his income (Mitchell et.al. 2009) (Table 8).

Effective directing of income

Public or Private manager as an operator

- timber and agricultural production, where products give a direct return to the manager, like forest operator and farmer;
- operation of ‘user pays’ tourist sites like gardens, archaeological sites, historic hotels and inns.

Operator and manager

- Tourism by-products like tours, hotels, bed and breakfast, restaurants, shops, etc.;
- Financial contribution to site management is more indirect, as these activities belong to people who are not site managers but are often part of the local community, like when farmers offer accommodation in their farm houses;
- Profits from these activities may be retrieved in part by the community through taxes;
- Tax has to be paid by tour operators, shops and restaurants and the funds go into the site management;
- Dedicated funding or a pro rata allocation, which enables protected areas to retain income generated locally;
- Conservation trust.

Forming independent companies, venture companies and local cooperatives to manage commercial activities for:

- income flow
- raising of investment capital
- investment in rural areas
- strengthened private sector support
- improve access to loans

Table 8. Effective directing of income to site management (Mitchell et.al. 2009).

External income comes mainly from public and private funding. Environmental subsidies change farmer’s attitude towards the production of both goods and services. Public funding for rural activities such as housing repairs, training in new skills, oral history and archival recording, unemployment benefits can be directed towards maintenance of heritage features in the cultural landscape. Private and public funding combination is another option, where targeted specific developments are

achieved with capital funds. Such ventures may have further government boost funds, if they prove economically viable, through local prosperity and economic activity. These cases are particularly convenient for managers to allocate recurrent funds to other less economically generating works such as conservation (Mitchell et.al. 2009).

Private funding can come from fund raising for specific programme proposals, like the following:

A. Establishing conservation trusts; these would serve as non-profit and transparent mechanisms for mobilizing trust funds, dedicated funding from receipt of tourist income, debt-for-nature swaps, partners in accredited 'green' businesses.

B. Change laws to encourage fund raising; partnerships with for-profit concerns, tax breaks for charitable contributions, establishing special protected area funds on the basis of contributions from the energy sector.

C. Private sector investment in micro-scale enterprises especially in buffer zones, based on sustainable use of biological resources and conservation of biodiversity which will ensure more equitable distribution of the benefits arising from such use, such as in indigenous plants for traditional medicines and bush tucker.

D. Sponsorship of activities or site repairs is another major high profile income generator. Some travel companies for example, sponsor specific conservation programmes in World Heritage areas in return for publicizing their role.

I.2.3. Capacity building: professional development and training

Managing CLs requires planning, organizational and financial skills. Each protected site brings forward any further special skills needed, that comply with the natural, cultural and social characteristics and components of the site. A combination of "in house" managing staff and locals' involvement, along with "brought in" consultants can form a team that answers to general and special management, protection and conservation topics and challenges. Locals' integration in management ensures the cultivation of traditional cultural knowledge and the propagation of OUV of the site. Thus, training initiatives need to take into account the cultural appropriation of the syllabus, raising the levels of understanding and significance of the CL concept. Embedded local knowledge, the where and how, the why, which and when, the advantages and disadvantages are learning material for such training programmes. Older non-active knowledge can be examined and recreated by implementing new and alternative structures, aiming to, at this case, the revitalisation of processes rather than conservation of traditions. Thus, special modes of teaching and instruction are

needed, such as learning traditional methods and processes from local elders, matching traditional and contemporary practices, adapting to new technologies, management processes etc. (Mitchell et.al. 2009).

2. Confronting Management Challenges

2.1. Challenges

2.1.1. Common Challenges

Mitchell et.al. (2009) list some common challenges that stand out as particularly important to CL management. Specific policies and strategies need to ensure the retention of the OUV of the site, through the understanding of the significance of the cultural and natural components of the protected area. Thus, every CL with its social and economic features will bring forward variations, in detail and application, of these common issues. These policies consider both natural and cultural values and are related to the significance of the specific site values, i.e. its OUV, complying with the management vision and site objectives. Therefore, the natural structure as the main tourist attraction, the ongoing relationship of locals and nature and the viable and sustainable use of resources for the present and another 2000 years are the main driving parameters of such policies. A critical question is the limit of acceptable change, how can a CL evolve into the future without compromising its OUV.

Common Challenges

Challenge 1: Lack of awareness of, and general education about, World Heritage values in cultural landscapes and their value to society.

Challenge 2: Need for site-specific training for those working in World Heritage cultural landscapes to ensure that all the values of the places are managed sensitively.

Measure: Building an awareness through education and engagement.

1. Build a solid communication strategy embedded to the management plan, covering all aspects of external communication, marketing and transmission of information to visitors.
2. Provide information in attractive ways about the cultural landscape, so that visitors will learn about aspects of interest to them and their enjoyment of the experience will build support for its continued conservation.
3. Provide information through a range of media – travel magazines, books, videos, television documentaries and films, to produce new visits for people who have not visited yet.
4. Establish popular community support to provoke political support.
5. Plan visitor surveys that measure attitude towards the site and its values and

experience satisfaction tracked over time.

6. Establish visitor centres hosting education programmes and dissemination of the protected area values, sell brochures, books and special publications.
7. Promote the site through advertising in tickets to transportation means reaching the protected area.
8. Use the World Heritage logo as an awareness raising device and promotional marketing brand

Challenge 3: Using farming and forestry policies to define what changes can be permitted in the landscape while still maintaining their outstanding universal values, and what techniques can be used to ensure this.

Measure: Cultivating sustainable resource use.

1. Manage more efficient, intensive production in such a way that it increases the prosperity of the farming communities in a way in which the cultural heritage values in the landscape are not lost.
2. Permit a degree of alteration in traditional land management approaches and to accommodate the stitching in of some new uses as well, if material evidence of successive layers of past landscape use can be preserved, especially in organically evolving landscapes.
3. Support traditional uses and practices, and on the other by permit new uses or practices on land which is of lesser significance, by using siting and design guidelines to ensure that new built elements in the landscape do not detract from the significant components and features.
4. Apply trial and error in the search for solutions, though any sound strategy will depend largely on local conditions, until getting the balance right, a major challenge in CL maintenance.
5. Seek forms of land management which do not compromise the OUV of the site.
6. Carry out thorough research and preparation of detailed statements of significance of the heritage values for cultural landscapes, revealing the important features in the landscape for heritage conservation, and why.
7. Attempt intensification of uses with the introduction of modern techniques, seeking aesthetic impact added to the time-depth and visual variety of the continuing landscape.
8. Ensure habitat protection for plant and animal species, timber production, protection of watersheds and freshwater sources, recreation, and common welfare.
9. Benefit from steps to protect traditional varieties of crops, vegetables and fruits, and of livestock (see IUCN 2008).

Challenge 4: Managing tourism to ensure continuing visitor access to and appreciation of the landscape without seriously impacting on the OUV.

Challenge 5: Finding the resources, including 'user pays' concepts and other external income, to ensure economic viability of operations to maintain the values of the cultural landscape.

Measure: Tourism management with policies derived from heritage values conservation policies.

I. Managers and tour operators need to use the generic principles for best practice Heritage Tourism (AHC and CRC 2001):

1. Recognize the importance of heritage places;
2. Look after heritage places;
3. Develop mutually beneficial partnerships;
4. Incorporate heritage issues into business planning;
5. Invest in local people and their place;
6. Market and promote products responsibly;
7. Provide high quality visitor experiences;
8. Respect Indigenous rights and obligations.

II. Managers restrict access to areas, due to cultural protocol or resource fragility reasons.

III. Managers define the accessible market for tourist operators in certain seasons, holidays, celebrations etc., justifying protection and conservation of places and collections through social, political economic and cultural viewpoints.

IV. Managers need to reach an agreement with external tourism operators on the following:

1. The intrinsic objective of conservation of the place;
2. 'Ownership' of the culture being presented – whose views?;
3. The nature of the interpretation and publicity messages;
4. Provision, type and siting of visitor facilities;
5. Limits on the number of visitors;
6. Economic returns to the local community;
7. Role of volunteers and sponsors.

V. Subject tourist operators to licensing regime, to control their behaviour, quality of services and total count of tourist brought to the site.

VI. Engage host community to the active ongoing involvement of planning, development and operation of heritage tourism.

VII. Promote authentic settings, objects, experiences, crafts, stories, local guides or storytellers. Managers restrict access to areas, due to cultural protocol or resource fragility reasons.

VIII. Seeking to inscribe CLs can result in positive relationships:

1. Tourist companies pay fees for each visitor brought to a site, with that income returning to the site; recognize the importance of heritage places;
2. National government support for conservation and providing capital works funds because of increased tourism following inscription;
3. Maintenance of traditional landscape management practices because EU subsidies for agriculture to maintain farmers on the land;
4. Local businesses are generated to supply tourist requirements;
5. Development of partnerships for exchange of information, research and staff with those interested in similar landscapes.

IX. Study possible development of negative outcomes and impacts:

1. Without State land use planning tourism developments may damage the outstanding universal values of the landscape.
2. Income from tourism can destroy traditional industries which are physically demanding and labour intensive because tourism money is easier.
3. Tourists also interfere with continuing use of the landscape as in narrow terraces, or stealing pieces of the historic fabric for other uses.
4. Increasing tourism pressure can lead to loss of authenticity in local behaviour, such as wanting privacy for cultural activities which are community based and not for performance to large audiences; and in alterations to vernacular buildings to give more privacy.

X. Further explore forms of contribution to economic development, environmental planning, relations between the environment and the economy and standards, testing issues such as reinvestment of benefits into local communities, promotion of authentic local products, strategic alliances in provision of transport and accommodation.

Challenge 6: Developing landscape conservation treatments and new techniques for managing essential components in the designated landscape and allowing the insertion of new elements (buildings, structures, earth works, plantations...) and new uses.

Measure: Conservation treatments for landscapes to retain the site and its cultural significance.

I. Set primary aim of site management to retain the outstanding cultural values in the landscape.

II. Apply conservation treatments that respect the existing fabric and maintain authenticity in materials, design, workmanship and setting so as to prolong the integrity of the cultural landscape and allow it to be interpreted.

III. Introduce any new elements with great care and caution.

IV. Propose clearly defined objectives of treatments and methods that enhance and not degrade heritage significance.

V. Apply cyclical maintenance to varying degrees of consolidation, restoration, continuing traditional ways of living, or even adaptive reuse.

VI. Evaluate appropriateness of suggested treatments, according to the type and scale of the CL.

VII. Seek the cooperation in management between a large number of diverse partners.

VIII. Apply low cost and simple techniques for measurement and assessment of the proposed treatments.

IX. Publicize the results.

X. Seek effective communication methods between all stakeholders

Challenge 7: Coping with impacts caused by threatening processes and events or developments external to the site affecting or threatening the integrity of the designated CL.

Measure: Managing internal or external threats.

I. Consider internal and external factors affecting the site, to determine threats.

1. Development Pressures (e. g., encroachment, adaptation, agriculture, mining).

2. Environmental Pressures (e. g., pollution, climate change).

3. Natural disasters and preparedness (earthquakes, floods, fires, etc.).

4. Visitor / tourism pressures.

5. Number of inhabitants within site, buffer zone.

6. Other.

II. Process in the early stage of management an environment impact assessment in several stages, value assessment, vulnerability assessment and impact assessment.

III. Consider alternatives that use the heritage value as a resource.

IV. Consider the following questions to be asked of the project:

1. Does the project dominate, strengthen or adapt to the existing cultural values?

2. Does the project increase or diminish the possibilities to develop the cultural values?

3. Does it improve or make worse the conditions for the use or the landscape by those working or living there?

4. Does it increase or reduce the possibilities to experience the cultural heritage?

5. What are the direct or indirect effects and what will they be over time?

6. What cannot be measured, what are the uncertain factors?

V. Consider the following questions to be used in assessment:

1. Which cultural values or environments are strategically important in the region and in the landscape?

2. Which actions, management strategies are realistic?

3. How can goals and strategies be monitored (follow-up)?

4. Which will the consequences be for the environment, for the people, for the society?

5. What can be measured in economic terms? in other terms?

6. What can not be measured?

7. Are any cultural values influenced? directly? Indirectly? threatened?
8. Are alternative solutions needed?
9. Are there uncertain factors?
10. Can the development be used for strengthening the heritage value? Conserving the value? Developing the value?
11. Can the development use the heritage value as a resource?

VI. In cases of introduction of new utilities that enhance living standards of the locals, and allow commercial development, like electricity lines, telecommunication towers, pipelines, roads, ports and/or marinas, consider various options for action:

1. Network and get the public involved in debate and discussion about likely impacts; raise the awareness of developers to potential negative reaction; get involved early in the process.
2. Seek minimization of visual impacts by using landscape architects to render any necessary additions to the landscape less evident as far as possible, through siting and design conditions on the development permit.
3. Seek minimization of possible atmospheric, biochemical and physical impacts in the case of adjacent industrial development.
4. Debate the long-term cost/benefit – economic gains versus loss of heritage values, loss of tourist income and other costs of impacts.
5. Negotiate and accept compromise for a 'greater' public good
6. Consider mitigation measures to reduce the impacts or protect specific features in the cultural landscape affected when development is to proceed.
7. Arrange salvage operations for resources such as archaeological deposits or small-scale monuments if no alternative solutions have been found.

VII. When out of options seek help from the WHC.

VIII. Plan a risk-preparedness strategy during the initial management plan, to reduce impact of fires, earthquakes and related disasters, flooding, armed conflicts, wind storms, avalanches, industrial pollution and other hazards of human origin.

Challenge 8: Support for communities maintaining heritage values within the cultural landscape especially where the associative values of the landscape reside within those communities.

Measure: Engaging and supporting communities.

I. Challenges to be addressed:

1. Working with farming communities resident in the inscribed property to ensure continuing sustainability of the production and way of life;
2. Maintaining associative values in the landscape despite pressures such as youth migration and new technologies, and involving indigenous peoples who are the traditional custodians of the cultural values which are expressed in the landscape;
3. Engaging in 'social engineering' to assist with maintenance of traditional activities (such as provision of housing for guest workers; allowing tourists to view traditional festivals) while respecting local community wishes (such as no photography of rituals). Seek effective communication methods between all stakeholders.

II. For communities in continuing landscapes:

1. Consider social support for those working in continuing landscapes, where often the resident population is ageing and young people move away.
2. Confront 'gentrification' of continuing CLs by foreign owners buying into the area and remaking the landscape to suit their needs, rather than maintaining the historic setting and plantings.
3. Assist in maintaining the health and wellbeing of those resident in the landscape that pass on traditional skills and knowledge, which are often dependent on being present in the landscape when seasonal changes and resources are available.

III. For communities in associative landscapes:

1. Safeguard associative values, by passing on rituals and traditional knowledge to the 'right' people culturally, that is, those who have been initiated or are next-of-kin.
2. Seek a broader range of more flexible management models for natural areas, including much greater emphasis on local peoples, with indigenous people and local communities as important contributors to management of protected lands.

IV. For communities in relict landscapes:

1. Give members of the current generation the opportunity to work there on maintenance tasks which give an appreciation of the values of the landscape.

V. To promote inter-generational commitment to landscapes:

1. Benefit from young volunteers taking an active role in conservation and

management tasks.

2. Maintain Cultural associations to keep the associative values alive as detailed in the original cultural landscape listing.

Table 9. Common challenges

2.1.2. The Urban conservation challenge

Urban conservation within a system of international principles and charters was made possible with the founding document “International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites” (Venice Charter 1964), adopted by ICOMOS in 1965, a document triggering a long debate on heritage conservation, focused on the conservation of historic monuments and their “setting”. The lack of explicit reference to the historic city and the use of the general term “setting” does not suggest a lack of awareness of the challenges facing the historic city, but can be explained by the fact that original authors were restorers and art historians, and not specialists in urban conservation. The new Urban conservation paradigm, continued gradually taking shape, aspiring to raise an awareness of the nature of the challenges facing urban heritage in the new century, as summarised in the UNESCO (2009) document,, discussing the possibility of a new Recommendation on the Historic Urban Landscape (HUL) (Bandarin and Van Oers 2012).

O'Donnell (2015) notes that HUL, as an expression of an ongoing evolution in urban heritage conservation, embracing the dynamics of 21st century through community conversations, can lead to a more integrated approach by shifting:

- I.** from iconic monuments and sites to embrace living cities as cultural landscapes that underpin local quality of life;
- II.** from mono-disciplinary experts to integrated, participatory and collaborative partnerships;
- III.** from strict restoration to management of change and regeneration for multiple values;
- IV.** from heritage loss through development to sustainable urban environments incorporating heritage;
- V.** from focusing on World Heritage to embracing all urban settlements as valued in the HUL approach.

HUL attempts to reframe the conservation process within the broader context of urban management and development, a redefinition of the global approach to urban conservation, bringing the following issues to the centre of discussion (Bandarin and Van Oers 2012):

Urban Management and Development – A global approach to urban conservation

I. Values and Meaning

Universally recognised policies and practices of urban conservation understood in its historical dimension need to be considered. Revaluation and reinterpretation of the values associated with urban heritage conservation in time, is critical since change is constantly being introduced both in their perception and understanding. Historic city, today, needs to be understood as a broader value system, where besides monumental and identity values, includes aesthetic and symbolic values of places, a “*living heritage*”, with the urban fabric used and enjoyed by a multiplicity of urban communities, not necessarily of a permanent type.

2. Authenticity and Integrity of Historic Urban Areas

It may be impossible to define a global and unique definition of authenticity and integrity, since value systems need to be examined on a local, per case, basis, while both affect significantly the conservation policies and practices. Cultural diversity is the key factor towards the understanding of urban heritage conservation complexity in a global level, and therefore preserved values need to arise from-bottom up and top-down processes, i.e. the urban communities and experts respectively. This combination aims to ensure that urban heritage conservation is not confronted as special district with special regulations, like detailed building regulations, but as a policy statement capturing and determining the current and future dynamics of the urban settlement with appropriate strategies and tools, preserving critical values important to both communities and experts.

3. Layers of Significance

Cities consist of natural and human-made features forming a layering of significance. The natural components of this layering and its current and past relationship with humans has been emphasized mostly in CLs, due the predominant role of tangible architectural aspects in historic areas conservation. Considering cities as complex formations, encapsulating geological and natural forms, special visual or symbolic axes, symbolic or spiritual values of places that form the layering of significance, enables the identification of conservation policies and the trade-offs between conservation and development. Therefore, the conceptual and operational separation of the historic city and its modern future ends, revealing past developed areas of interest, that have gained historical and memory value never properly identified and evaluated.

4. The Management of Change

Change and preservation present a difficult balance in management. Social, economic and physical change tend to be seen as alternation of preserved values. To define the limits of acceptable range a specific approach has to be developed, that defines the role of contemporary architecture and cultural creation in historic places. Approaches described as management of change in the fields of architecture, infrastructure, public space and uses of existing buildings, can output interrelated plans, strategic documents linking different areas of management.

5. Social and Economic Development

A reflection on the changing role of historic urban areas, beyond pure regulation management, and on ways to synergise socio-economic development and conservation strategies is needed. New roles and income resources are necessary to maintain the HUL in a sustainable way.

6. Environmental Sustainability

Current pressures arising from global development processes and the emergence of new issues of energy production and climate change, call for updated visions, approaches and sustainable strategies, prepared for global and local changes.

7. New Urban Conservation Tools

New tools contributing to the management, identification and preservation of urban values could include tools to involve the participation of urban communities and stakeholders during the definition process of the historic place value system, to define and protect the integrity of the urban fabric and landscape, to identify and foresee limits of acceptable change and their consequences, to better integrate built and natural components in a sustainable development and management.

Table 10. Urban Management and Development – A global approach to urban conservation

2.2. The management of “change”

The tremendous broadening of perception and appreciation of heritage has increased the complexity of the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission of heritage assets. Conservation of living cities requires reformed management approaches and practices, due to the current large scale and impact environmental and resource-management issues, taking place beyond traditional sector boundaries, across social and economic systems, and political frontiers. The variable of “change”, although unpredictable and uncomfortable, is of critical importance and a basic component in the conservation of historic sites, creating a

complex management environment. Change can be plotted along three perpendicular axes displaying:

1. Living, dynamic cities with a constant need for modernisation and adaptation, in recognition of the life cycles of a city, being growth, maturity, stagnation, decline, and regeneration, in which the pace of change seems to be increasing all the time;
2. An expansion of interrelationships, bringing with it a widening circle of stakeholder groups and interests, which necessitate conflict resolution as a key practice;
3. Changing notions of what constitutes heritage, through changes in the make-up of populations (due to migration, as well as demographic changes), bringing with it different value systems of perception and appreciation of heritage.

Bandarin and Van Oers (2012) conclude that with all these changes occurring, at different intervals, at different levels, and with different magnitudes, urban heritage conservation has become a moving target, to which a static, monumental approach as inherited from the previous century is wholly inadequate, or may become perhaps downright destructive. Rigid conservation doctrine prioritising authenticity and restoration of the historic fabric over socio-economic functionality, may diminish vitality and resilience of the historic city, which could have devastating effects in the long term. The management of change is a conservation approach to anticipate and regulate, but not to plan, the market-driven processes of urban development in, or adjacent to, historic cities. Change will happen inevitably and thus, the best strategy is to be prepared for it and anticipate it, aiming to sustain in cities their core functions of economic, social and cultural activities, replenished through modernisation, adaptation and regeneration (Roberts and Sykes 2000 cited in Bandarin and Van Oers 2012), while retaining and further building upon their character and identity.

2.3. Policies, Governance and Tools

Contemporary thinking on urban conservation considers policies that recognise the historic value of the urban fabric, on the understanding of its structure and form, as well as of the complex layering process (Bandarin and Van Oers 2012). Established modern urban conservation policies, classified in existing international recommendations and charters allow the opportunity for expansion, with policies for historic urban areas conservation. A new generation of public policies for present and future challenges, primarily aiming for the historic, cultural and natural palimpsest

protection and balance of cultural, natural and economic values and components in urban environments (UNESCO 2011).

2.4. HUL (Historical Urban Landscapes) recommendation

2.4.1. The UNESCO HUL Tools

A much needed policy expansion is suggested, so that urban heritage conservation policies are integrated into general policy planning and practices of the broader urban context. Conservation and sustainability management balance can be pursued with policies providing mechanisms for short and long term planning and actions, emphasizing on the harmonious integration of contemporary interventions into the historical urban system. UNESCO (2011) lists the following responsibilities of different stakeholders:

- 1.** Member States should integrate urban heritage conservation strategies into national development policies and agendas according to the historic urban landscape approach. Within this framework, local authorities should prepare urban development plans taking into account the area's values, including the landscape and other heritage values, and features associated therewith;
- 2.** Public and private stakeholders should cooperate, inter alia, through partnerships to ensure the successful application of the historic urban landscape approach;
- 3.** International organizations dealing with sustainable development processes should integrate the historic urban landscape approach into their strategies, plans and operations;
- 4.** National and international non-governmental organizations should participate in developing and disseminating tools and best practices for the implementation of the historic urban landscape approach.

UNESCO HUL recommendation continues suggesting the following tools, as a starting point for the implementation of range of traditional and innovative tools adapted to local contexts:

UNESCO HUL Tools

Civic engagement tools:

Should involve a diverse cross-section of stakeholders, and empower them to identify key values in their urban areas, develop visions that reflect their diversity, set goals, and agree on actions to safeguard their heritage and promote sustainable development. These tools, which constitute an integral part of urban governance dynamics, should facilitate intercultural dialogue by learning from communities about their histories, traditions, values, needs and aspirations, and by facilitating mediation and negotiation between groups with conflicting interests.

O'Donnell (2015) shares the following list of civic engagement approaches and tools noting that it is far from exhaustive, but offers a range of options.

1. Accessible, multi-platform urban planning vision process;
2. Public forum with citizens about aspects of the urban future;
3. Web-based local heritage game;
4. Urban heritage issues web exchange blogs, chat rooms;
5. Participatory resource mapping exercise;
6. Planning charrette with open dialogue;
7. Documentation project, oral interviews and videos;
8. Community heritage stewardship skill development workshop;
9. Community heritage stewardship project; and
10. Volunteer efforts to sustain a local historic place.

Knowledge and planning tools:

Should help protect the integrity and authenticity of the attributes of urban heritage. They should also allow for the recognition of cultural significance and diversity, and provide for the monitoring and management of change to improve the quality of life and of urban space. These tools would include documentation and mapping of cultural and natural characteristics. Heritage, social and environmental impact assessments should be used to support and facilitate decision-making processes within a framework of sustainable development.

Traditional planning approaches that continue to be effective are being combined with new approaches and innovations to address the intensive challenges of historic cities and towns in the twenty-first century. These diverse knowledge and planning tools include (O'Donnell 2015):

1. Holistic planning processes that incorporate urban heritage and values;
2. Documentation of tangible and intangible community heritage working closely with those communities;
3. Urban viewscape mapping for building envelope height and location;
4. Historic-research-informed plans for shared public heritage of streets, public facilities, parks;
5. Planning for conservation of cultural and natural resources;
6. Targeted urban conservation, management and tourism plans;
7. Plans incorporating heritage values to address streets, public facilities, storm water and parks; and
8. Green infrastructure knowledge applied with heritage considered.

Regulatory systems:

Should reflect local conditions, and may include legislative and regulatory measures aimed at the conservation and management of the tangible and intangible attributes of the urban heritage, including their social, environmental and cultural values. Traditional and customary systems should be recognized and reinforced as necessary.

For the HUL approach, the traditional and legal regulatory systems applied would aim at conserving and managing tangible and intangible urban heritage. Globally, such systems vary widely in both content and implementation. For example regulatory systems may include (O'Donnell 2015):

1. Traditional communal management systems of indigenous peoples;
2. Zoning ordinance underpinned by urban heritage database;
3. Conservation easement laws;
4. Historic district commission laws;
5. Legislated climate change targets;
6. Tree protection ordinances;

7. Green infrastructure and renewable energy codes;
8. Multi-purpose overlay districts, for economy, heritage, aesthetics, conservation;
9. Legislation specifically addressing urban heritage stewardship/management; and
10. Urban viewscape controls to conserve the shared city image and distinctive places.

Financial tools:

Should be aimed at building capacities and supporting innovative income-generating development, rooted in tradition. In addition to government and global funds from international agencies, financial tools should be effectively employed to foster private investment at the local level. Micro-credit and other flexible financing to support local enterprise, as well as a variety of models of partnerships, are also central to making the historic urban landscape approach financially sustainable.

Financial support is required to upgrade infrastructure, provide services, renew public spaces, enhance transportation and, in many other ways, to feed the economic engine of urban vitality. For HUL, this economic base reflects heritage values. Financial support can include (O'Donnell 2015):

1. Programs to revitalize traditional skills and employment;
2. Incentives for heritage property owners;
3. Private–public partnership targeted funding for Urban Heritage;
4. Taxation laws favouring conservation investments;
5. Ongoing public maintenance staffing and budgets;
6. Private building and property maintenance;
7. Public capital improvements;
8. Purchase and resale with conservation restrictions;
9. Revolving loan fund addressing historic structures;
10. Long-term lease of heritage properties;
11. Mutual covenants;
12. Outright purchase of key properties;
13. Conservation easements;
14. Transfer of development rights;

15. Donations of heritage property to reliable stewards;
16. Funding for urban heritage conservation agencies;
17. Grant programs for urban intangible and tangible heritage conservation inventories and related initiatives; and
18. Taxation laws favouring conservation investments.

These and any further tools need to be developed as part of the process involving all different stakeholders. Regarding the planning tools and management processes Bandarin and Van Oers (2012) add that since historic urban areas, as a process, generates specific cultural identification and association of the inhabitants with the physical, tangible structure of the site, building fabric, building types, plot patterns, blocks and street patterns need to be understood and included in management and planning. Therefore, palimpsest management requires the development of adequate analytical and evaluation tools.

2.4.2. World Bank “business lines”

The World Bank proposes five key issues, or ‘business lines’, to be addressed for cities and towns performing sustainable approaches to policy implementation and localised action (Bandarin and Van Oers 2012):

World Bank “business Lines”

1. City management, governance and finance:

Ensuring accountability, integrity and transparency of local government action, with inclusion and representation of all groups in urban society, as well as sound treatment of revenue sources and expenditure, in particular concerning the necessary fiscal decentralisation that follows an increase in the authority of local governments.

2. Urban poverty:

Addressing urban poverty in a wider policy framework than just slum upgrading, through issues such as property rights, land and labour markets, with city -wide and nation -wide investments from both the public and private sector, in services for the poor to ensure decent standards of living and working conditions with specifically designed social safety nets.

3. Cities and economic growth:

Ensuring competitiveness to maintain relatively stable levels of employment, income and investment, which includes redevelopment and urban regeneration to transform and adapt derelict or dysfunctional urban areas to new uses, also in partnership with the private sector.

4. City planning, land and housing:

Addressing the challenges of planning for markets, public land management, property rights and housing finance to regulate urban spatial structures. These challenges include land use, density and urban form, notably the need to relieve pressure on the limited availability of urban land, which drives up prices, and the need to anticipate future urban growth.

5. Urban environment, climate change, and disaster management:

Focusing on urban form and design to achieve greater efficiency in terms of proximity of facilities and access to services to reduce energy use and greenhouse-gas emissions, including at the site and building level, i.e. compact cities with a small environmental footprint, combined with efforts to strengthen the resilience of cities through climate change adaptation and mitigation planning.

Thus, all levels and types of government, local, regional, national, federal etc., need collaboratively with the participation of all stakeholders contribute to the definition, elaboration, implementation and assessment of urban heritage policies. Coordination happens from both institutional and sectorial viewpoints.

2.5. Capacity-building, research, information and communication through local and International cooperation

The HUL approach in order to be productive and up to date should involve main stakeholders, communities, decision-makers, professionals and managers and foster a common understanding of the HUL aims, strategy and implementation processes. This active collaboration ensures effective capacity-building and adaptability, in line with UNESCO recommendation for regional context implementations. The latter brings forward the definition and refinement of local strategies and objectives, action frameworks and resource mobilization and management.

The complex layering of urban settlements, local values and their communal understanding and meaning, needs rigorous research. Academic and university

institutions, research centres and other research initiatives should be encouraged to develop scientific research, cooperating at local, national and international level, regarding all relevant HUL approach aspects. The documentation and study of the state of urban areas in time -their evolution- can facilitate the evaluation of strategies suggesting change actions, and the improvement of protective managerial skills and procedures. Thus, sustainable management with clear vision and objectives can be achieved, while visitors can be attracted through comprehensive promotion and presentation of the key cultural, natural and urban assets.

Successful dissemination can be encouraged with the use of information and communication technology documenting, understanding and presenting the complex palimpsest and its constituent components. In this process, both data collection and analysis are essential parts for the comprehensive knowledge and understanding of the urban areas. An all-inclusive communication with all sectors of society, youths and all under-represented groups that encourages participation, is of high importance.

Public understanding and involvement in the HUL approach, besides communication strategies, can be further encouraged and cultivated through international cooperation. Member States, international governmental and non-governmental organizations need to disseminate best practices and lessons learned from different cases around the world, therefore, strengthening the network of knowledge, information-sharing and capacity-building. Along this direction, multinational cooperation between local authorities should be promoted by Member States. Such productive cooperation encourages the development of methodologies in line the HUL approach, harmonized in a local context with assistance programmes and projects, the output of international development and cooperation, Member States, stakeholders and local communities.

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Landscape Character Assessment⁷⁴

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⁷⁴ This chapter has been authored by Hanna Elisabet Åberg, Angela Santangelo and Simona Tondelli as part of the UNINET Cultural Heritage research group of the University of Bologna.

I. An introduction to Landscape Character Assessment

I.1. Background

The European Landscape Convention (ELC) defines landscape as:

“...an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and / or human factors.” (CoE, 2002)

List of abbreviations:

ELC – European Landscape Convention

CES – Cultural Ecosystem Services

LCA – Landscape Character Assessment

LCT – Landscape Character Types

SCA – Seascape Character Assessment

Landscape is in many ways about the relationship between people and place. It provides the setting for our day-to-day lives. The term does not mean just special or designated landscapes and it does not only apply to the countryside or wilderness. Landscape can equally be referring to a part of a city as much as meadow. Landscapes result from the way that different components of our environment - both natural (the influences of geology, soils, climate, flora and fauna) and cultural (the historical and current impact of land use, settlement, enclosure and other human interventions) - interact together and are perceived by us and our senses (sound, smell, touch/feel) (see Figure 1) (Swanwick, 2002a). It is further shaped by our memories, association and preferences.

Our surrounding landscapes constitute an important aspect of our cultural and natural heritage. With the help of well thought-through management they offer an opportunity to provide a more harmonious link between man and the natural world that can be beneficial for both. Landscape management does not only contribute to safeguard natural ecosystem services. Nature also contributes to human experiences. Peoples' social, economic and environmental needs are in part addressed by their relationship with the landscape around them, that contributes to their quality of life: Cultural Ecosystem Services (CES). Sensitive, informed, and integrated approaches should help us all to manage, conserve, enhance, restore, plan, and regenerate landscapes to enhance aspects that are attractive, diverse and valued, showing that environmental, social and economic benefits can go hand in hand. With this said, European practices in landscape have moved from a rather restricted focus on beauty and scenery to a much broader concept of landscape character as a construction of human perception. As the concept of 'landscape' has been thoroughly scrutinized by various disciplines for the last half-century, a more holistic perspective has been commonly assumed. It is generally known that our physical environment must be perceived from a multi- dimensional foundation, viewing both human and nature's

impact as integrated. While it has been widely recognized that landscapes are not primarily designated for scientists to study and for planners and decision-makers to manage (Stenseke 2016), they are more importantly, for local inhabitants to live in, value and retain a sense of home in.

Arising from the shifting approach to landscape management developed in recent years, Landscape Character Assessment emerged in the 1980s as a process by which to define the character of the landscape - i.e. what makes one area distinct or different from another. It was designed as a practical tool to inform, support and encourage better landscape management: Landscape Character Assessment sought to separate the classification and description of the landscape from the evaluation process, the latter being more concerned with what makes one landscape “better” than others. During recent years, the techniques and methodology have been refined, culminating in the publication of “An Approach to Landscape Character Assessment” (Tudor, 2014). Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) is a tool to identify what makes a place unique hence to serve as a framework for decision making that respects local distinctiveness and character of a place.

Anyone describing a place – be it wilderness, countryside site, or a part of a city – is most likely to define the ‘character’ when describing its most typical features. Similarly, when looking at the academic and practitioner publications within the field of landscape science, geography and spatial planning, the character of the landscape is likely to play a significant role as an assessment criterion, as a development objective or simply as a descriptive notion. Understanding the character of place and evaluating an area’s defining characteristics is a key component in managing growth sustainably and ensuring that the inherent quality of the landscape will retain its distinctiveness as well as sense of place for its inhabitants. An understanding of landscape character can be used to ensure that any change or development does not undermine whatever is valued or characteristic in a particular landscape. Landscape Character Assessment recognizes the pressures that influence landscape changes including urban expansion, agricultural intensification (farming, forestry) and infrastructure development. The reason being that these activities make and affect the character as much as influences relating to geology, soils, landform, climate, and flora and fauna (Swanwick, 2002a). Landscape character is defined as a “...*distinct and recognizable pattern of elements that occur consistently in a particular type of landscape*” (Swanwick, 2002a). Combinations of geology and landform, the natural attributes of soils and vegetation, and both the historical and current influences of human land use and settlement create character of a particular kind.

Landscape Character Assessment is comprehensively used across England and Scotland for assembling foundational knowledge which provides information for

future planning and identifying landscape resources. The approach is principally based on Landscape Character Assessment, Guidance for England and Scotland (Swanwick, 2002a). In 2003 a project was initiated by the European Commission to develop existing LCA on a national and international level as a policy-tool for safeguarding cultural landscapes across Europe (ELCAI, 2005). The LCA approach has since been developed outside the UK and can now be found with national adaptations in European countries (Butler et al., 2014).

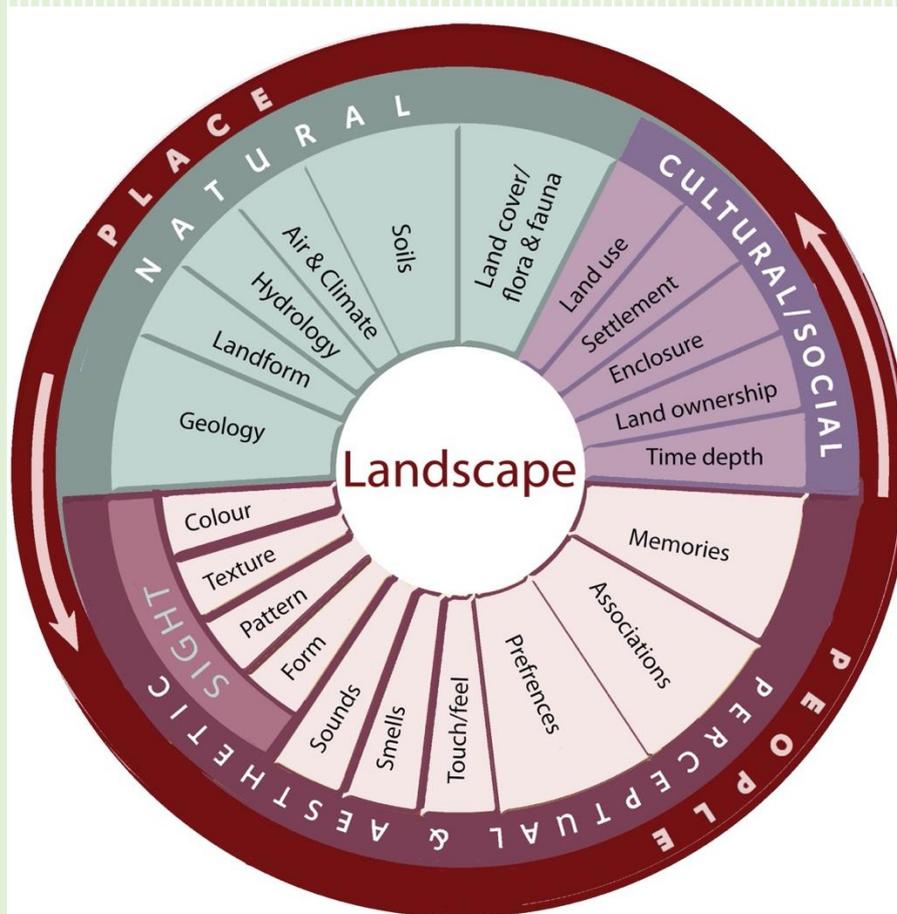


Figure 1. *The Landscape wheel*, originally developed by Carys Swanwick, 2002 for Natural England (Swanwick, 2002a).

The methodology described in this handbook is based on the Landscape Character Assessment: Guidance for England and Scotland (Swanwick, 2002a) and the more recent guidelines. An Approach to Landscape Character Assessment (Tudor, 2014). Just as landscapes are changing and developing, so are the methods and approaches towards landscape management through character assessment. This handbook has tried to combine more recent publications in combination with cross-European references. It is of importance to emphasize that the methods presented in this

handbook must be adapted and transformed to fit the local and national conditions of its implementation.

1.2. Policy Context: The European Landscape Convention

The levels at which Landscape Character Assessments are carried out varies from national, to local, to site level. No matter what the level, it still has to take policies on all scales into account, including on a European level. For the nations that have signed the European Landscape Convention (ELC) this means that character assessment and preservation of landscape character becomes essential for planning and development. The Convention's role is to prompt nations to form general legal principles which should serve as a basis for adopting national landscape policies and establishing international co-operation in such matters.

The Convention was an important chance not only for the establishment of an international legal instrument, but also for starting a collaboration process between different European countries and defining a common European project, whose central point was a new and broader conception of landscape. The ELC has arguably aided the idea of landscape as an entity “*perceived by people*” and moved the focus of landscape from a purely physical area to dependent on individuals and society to provide meaning. Such a definition promotes landscape as the domain of society, providing a space for democratising landscape as recognised as a common resource. If landscape is to be understood in such light, there is a need to assess what values society places on the landscape. Landscape planning, management and conservation have until recent years often been carried out in relation to *natural* methodologies with very limited human imprint. However, the ELC underlines the possibilities of the preservation of environments defined as cultural landscapes (CoE, 2000; Butler et al., 2014). Throughout the ELC *cultural landscape* is deliberately avoided. Riccardo Priore, head of the committee that drafted the project of the Convention, clarified that: “*One often hears the mentioning of ‘cultural landscape’; this definition is not compatible, in our view, with the concept of landscape expressed by the Convention; and this not because it is wrong to speak of ‘cultural landscape’ – the landscape is, in fact, as a human experience always a cultural thing – but because in the administrative practice the adjective ‘cultural’ lends itself to misinterpretation. If not properly interpreted, in a definition this adjective threatens to assign a specific value added to the noun ‘landscape’, and this regardless of the real data; such an interpretation would have us believe that if the landscape is not cultural, it is not landscape. In the paragraph of the Convention concerning the definitions, the adjective ‘cultural’ was hence deliberately avoided*” (Priore, 2005: quoted in Sodano, 2017).

According to the ELC *landscape management* means a continuing action aimed at influencing activities liable to modify landscape. It can be seen as a form of adaptive planning which itself evolves as societies transform their way of life, their development and surroundings. It can also be seen as a territorial project, which takes account of new social aspirations, anticipated changes in biophysical and cultural characteristics and access to natural resources.

Glossary terms as defined by landscape convention have been included in Annex I.

I.3 The human element of LCA: Cultural Ecosystem Services

As stated, landscape management does not only contribute to safeguard natural ecosystem services. Nature also contributes to human experiences. Human impact has always influenced and shaped the environment to enhance the availability of certain valued services. Human cultures, knowledge systems, religions, heritage values, social interactions and the linked amenity services always have been influenced and shaped by the nature of the ecosystems and ecosystem conditions on which culture is based (Tengberg et al., 2012). In short, Cultural Ecosystem Services (CES) are the non-material benefits people obtain from nature. They include recreation, aesthetic enjoyment, physical and mental health benefits and spiritual experiences. They contribute to a sense of place, foster social cohesion and are critical for human well-being. Although everybody benefits from CES, their impact on life is mostly intangible, and as a result difficult to measure and quantify. However, in contrast to other ecosystem services such as carbon sequestration and erosion control, which can be documented, CES are directly experienced and subconsciously understood by people.

Accordingly, if management of landscape take the cultural services into account, values needs to be understood through stakeholder engagement. The potential and accuracy of involving local people in landscape management and planning is explicitly

Cultural Ecosystem Services (CES)

Heritage values (intangible and tangible)

Cultural identity (sense of place)

Spiritual services (sacred, religious, or other forms of spiritual inspiration derived from ecosystems);

Inspiration (use of natural motives or artefacts in art, folklore, etc.);

Aesthetic appreciation of natural and cultivated landscapes;

Recreation and tourism

(MA, 2005)

expressed in both the Convention on biodiversity (1991), the European landscape convention (CoE, 2000) and the Aarhus convention (UNECE, 1998) (Stensteke, 2009; Plieninger et al., 2014). The European Landscape Convention (ELC) definition of landscape is “*an area, as perceived by people...*” placing the public central to any understanding of landscape. There is as yet an increasing understanding and recognition of the need for involvement of citizens within landscape management. Swanwick (2002a) defined these citizens as stakeholders that deliver important contributions in a participatory planning process. On a local scale, involvement of local stakeholders is important in order to increase their knowledge of the landscape, which is a necessity for an increased awareness of the importance of landscape (Antrop, 2007).

“Cultural services are deeply interconnected with each other and often connected to provisioning and regulating services: Small scale fishing is not only about food and income, but also about fishers’ way of life. In many situations, cultural services are among the most important values people associate with Nature – it is therefore critical to understand them.”

(FAO, 2020)

The combination of both increased knowledge and awareness underlines that processes involving stakeholders are needed for establishing a foundation of awareness and understanding of the present landscape. Cultural ecosystem approach implicitly recognises the importance of a socio-ecological system approach, and with said policy formulations should empower local people to participate in managing natural resources as part of a cultural landscape, integrating local knowledge and institutions (Tengberg, et al., 2012). An LCA process that includes active stakeholder engagement and underlines the need for processes involving stakeholders to establish a foundation of awareness regarding future landscape development in the community (Caspersen, 2009).

2. Overview of Landscape Character assessment

In short: an LCA is a document that includes descriptions and maps and shows variations in landscape character across a given area of study.

Landscape characterisation is based on understanding and describing the variation between distinct landscape areas and types, identifying what makes each place special, rather than better or worse. This is based on the combination of elements present, which make up the character of the landscape. As such it is seen that all aspects play their part in defining character. The LCA approach is broadly divided up into two stages; Characterisation and Evaluation. Characterisation is seen as a relatively value

free stage, defining and describing the landscape character areas and types. This first stage comprises of a desk study, where an initial understanding of the landscape is attained primarily through map analysis and preparation of overlays of different aspects, providing the context for draft landscape character areas/types. This is followed by a field study, which involves identifying the sensory elements, refining boundaries and corroborating desk study information. Classification brings together information of the landscape before dividing it into distinct recognisable areas and types with consistent common character.

The process of Landscape Character Assessment has six main steps divided in two stages; Characterisation and Evaluation:

Stage model for LCA

Phase 1. Characterisation

1. Define the purpose and scope of your LCA, e.g. the area it will cover, its scale, level of detail and resources available to carry out the work.
2. Conduct a desk study – collect, review and analyse data and documentation and speak to stakeholders involved with the landscape.
3. Conduct a field survey – test, refine and add to the outputs from the desk study, capturing aesthetic, perceptual and experiential qualities of the landscape.
4. Classify, map and describe the landscape’s character areas, types and characteristics including geological, other physical and socio-cultural influences.

Phase 2. Evaluation (beyond the LCA)

5. Defining and deciding an approach for evaluation
6. Making the evaluation to inform particular decisions by making judgments about landscape character.

An LCA is used as a tool to manage change, ensuring that changes are planned with consideration to their wider surroundings and if possible, contribute positively to the landscape. This requires a move beyond description and classification to making judgement about the landscape informed by the characterisation. The judgements made are dependent on the final application of the assessment; if utilised for developing; landscape strategies, landscape guidelines, provide designated status or for understanding the capacity and sensitivity of the landscape for change. How these judgements are determined should be transparent and traceable from the characterisation process.

In Christine Tudor’s guidelines “An Approach to Landscape Character Assessment” for Natural England (2014), she states that there are 5 important principles that

should be taken into consideration no matter scope, site or methodology when preparing an LCA (see box 2.1).

Box 2.1: The following 5 Principles should be adhered to whatever the scope and methodology adapted in an LCA:

1. Landscape is everywhere, and all landscape and seascape have character;
2. Landscape occurs at all scales and the process of Landscape Character Assessment can be undertaken at any scale;
3. The process of Landscape Character Assessment should involve an understanding of how the landscape is perceived and experienced by people;
4. A Landscape Character Assessment can provide a landscape with an evidence base to inform a range of decisions and applications;
5. A Landscape Character Assessment can provide an integrating spatial framework –
a multitude of variables come together to give us our distinctive landscapes.

(Tudor, 2014)

2.1 Why LCA matters

Landscapes have evolved over time and they will continue to evolve meaning that change is a constant but that the outcomes will vary. The management of change in landscapes is essential to ensure that we achieve sustainable outcomes – social, environmental and economic. Decision makers need to understand the baseline and the implications of their decisions for that baseline. The process of Landscape Character Assessment has an important role to play in managing and guiding change.

Box 2.2: A Landscape Character Assessment can, e.g.:

- I) Describe a landscape with reference to the characteristics that combine to make a place distinctive
- II) Give spatial reference to baseline information / evidence via mapped landscape character areas / types;
- III) Inform understanding of key characteristics, sense of place, special qualities etc. that can then inform judgements – decision making - regarding, for example, development management and the siting, design, scale and massing of developments from housing developments and transport infrastructure to forests, woodlands, or renewable energy projects.
- IV) Assist with the monitoring of change
- V) Enable strategic decisions in archaeological and landscape management or stewardship

(Tudor, 2014; Fairclough, 2018)



Box 2.3: Benefits of Landscape Character Assessment include, it can:

- I) Establish a robust evidence base linked to place;
- II) Provide baseline evidence at the appropriate scale to inform a range of decisions;
- III) Present a holistic approach to the whole geographic area, rather than focusing on special or protected sites or features;
- IV) Form an agreed spatial framework of landscape character areas, or types, to which different policy options / applications and decisions can be applied;
- V) Integrate socio-cultural and natural considerations (for example landscape and ecosystem services) and provide an understanding of how a place is experienced, perceived and valued by people; and
- VI) Identify the key characteristics that together create sense of place and the unique character of an area.

(Tudor, 2014)

2.2 Type and scale of areas where LCA can be used

The Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) process are not exclusively used within a rural setting but increasingly to inform urban, or townscape, assessments, and Seascope Character Assessments. The scope of the European Landscape Convention (ELC) applies to natural, rural, urban and peri-urban areas and includes land, inland water and marine areas. As the ELC acknowledges: *“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.”*

All landscapes matter to someone. By setting down a robust, auditable and transparent baseline LCA can not only help us to understand our landscapes, it can also assist in informing judgements, evaluations and decisions concerning the management of change.

Just as the ELC applies to an entire territory and covers natural landscapes as well as areas of human activity such as rural, urban and peri-urban areas, so does an LCA. It includes land, inland water and marine areas. It concerns landscapes that might be considered outstanding of particular beauty as well as everyday life landscapes or degraded landscapes.

Seascope definition

“An area of sea, coastline and land, as perceived by people, whose character results from the actions and interactions of land with sea, by natural and/or human factors”

(Tudor et al., 2012)

A Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) can be applied on three key levels (Swanwick, 2002a):

- I) National and regional scale, typically at 1:250,000 identifying broad patterns in the variation of landscape character – assessments at this scale often provide the context for more detailed assessments;
- II) Local authority scale, applied at the county, unitary authority or district level, at 1:50,000 or 1:25,000 identifying landscape types and / areas – landscape character administrative boundaries. Care needs to be taken to ensure assessments on either side of administrative boundaries match up;
- III) Local scale or site level, at 1:10,000 or larger scales. Assessments can also be carried out at any level in between, or below, these 3 key levels.

2.3 Uses of LCA

An LCA can be used to inform a wide range of activities (see box 2.4). It is often intended to provide a context for policies and proposals on a local level. An LCA can be used to inform: policy development; local, neighbourhood, community or municipality plans, and place-making; green infrastructure plans and strategies; waterways strategies; design briefs; project design and master planning; landscape impact and visual impact assessments (often as part of an Environmental Impact Assessment); sensitivity and capacity studies; landscape designations including National Park or other protected areas (Tudor, 2014).

An LCA has often informed the determination of planning applications, and the management of future change so that it is in sympathy with local variations in landscape character in order to conserve and enhance the special qualities a place: from rural to town. An LCAs are also useful for monitoring change across the landscape. The LCA has been used in wide range of situations and is likely to increase even more in the future. The most common applications of the method are (Swanwick, 2002a):

- informing input for development plan policies;
- studies of development potential, for example to find the best suitable sites for new development areas;
- informing the siting, spacing, scale and design conditions for particular forms of development;
- contributing to landscape capacity studies;
- input to Environmental Assessment, both at the level of plans and policies and individual development proposals.
- Studies to inform an understanding of setting e.g. of nationally designated landscapes (Tudor, 2014).

Box 2.4: List of activity types:

Planning policies and decisions
Sensitivity and capacity studies
Local Plans
Land management plans
Landscape and visual impact assessments
Local council studies
Green infrastructure
Agri-environment schemes
Forest and woodland strategies
Waterways strategies
Transportation strategies
Renewable energy
Identification of special/designated area boundaries
Protected Area Management Plans

(Swanwick, 2002a)

2.4 Who prepares an LCA

An LCA is generally carried out by landscape architects, planners and geographers. According to the recent publication “Landscape Character Assessment- Current Approaches to Characterisation and Assessment” this is a result of landscape architects and planners have often been trained and taught to take a coordination role between disciplines and practices (Fairclough, et al., 2018). Further, it can be claimed that an LCA is a reflection of this as it promotes multi-disciplinary approached.

Box 2.5: LCAs can be done at any scale and prepared by:

Local councils or municipalities

Planning departments

Community groups

Consultants

Developers

Private practices

Land owners

(Swanwick, 2002a)

3. Landscape Character Assessment process

The process of Landscape Character Assessment is divided in four main steps:

Stage model for LCA

Phase I. Characterisation

1. Define the purpose and scope of your LCA, e.g. the area it will cover, its scale, level of detail and resources available to carry out the work.
2. Conduct a desk study – collect, review and analyse data and documentation and speak to stakeholders involved with the landscape.
3. Conduct a field survey – test, refine and add to the outputs from the desk study, capturing aesthetic, perceptual and experiential qualities of the landscape.
4. Classify, map and describe the landscape’s character areas, types and characteristics including geological, other physical and socio-cultural influences.

The Characterisation stage involves the practical steps of initiating the study which are: identification, classification, maps and descriptions of areas of distinctive character, always with focus on value-free assessment.

Box 3.1: The completed Landscape Character Assessment is recommended to contain:

1. Summary of the project brief that informed the assessment process, and describe the purpose and scope of the study, including the role played by stakeholders and the intended audience;
2. An explain the methodology followed;
3. Include a contextual description of the study area;
4. Indicate how the assessment fits with other landscape, seascape and/or townscape character assessments at the same and/or different scales and in adjacent administrative or geographic areas;
5. Include a map(s) at an appropriate scale showing the extent of the landscape character types and/or areas identified;
6. Include clear and accurate descriptions of the character of each landscape character type and/or area identified – avoiding value laden terminology;
7. Include photographs, diagrams, and sketches as appropriate, to illustrate the character being described; and
8. Identify key characteristics for each landscape character type and/or area, in order to capture the combination of elements that make a particular contribution to creating distinctive character.

(Tudor, 2014)

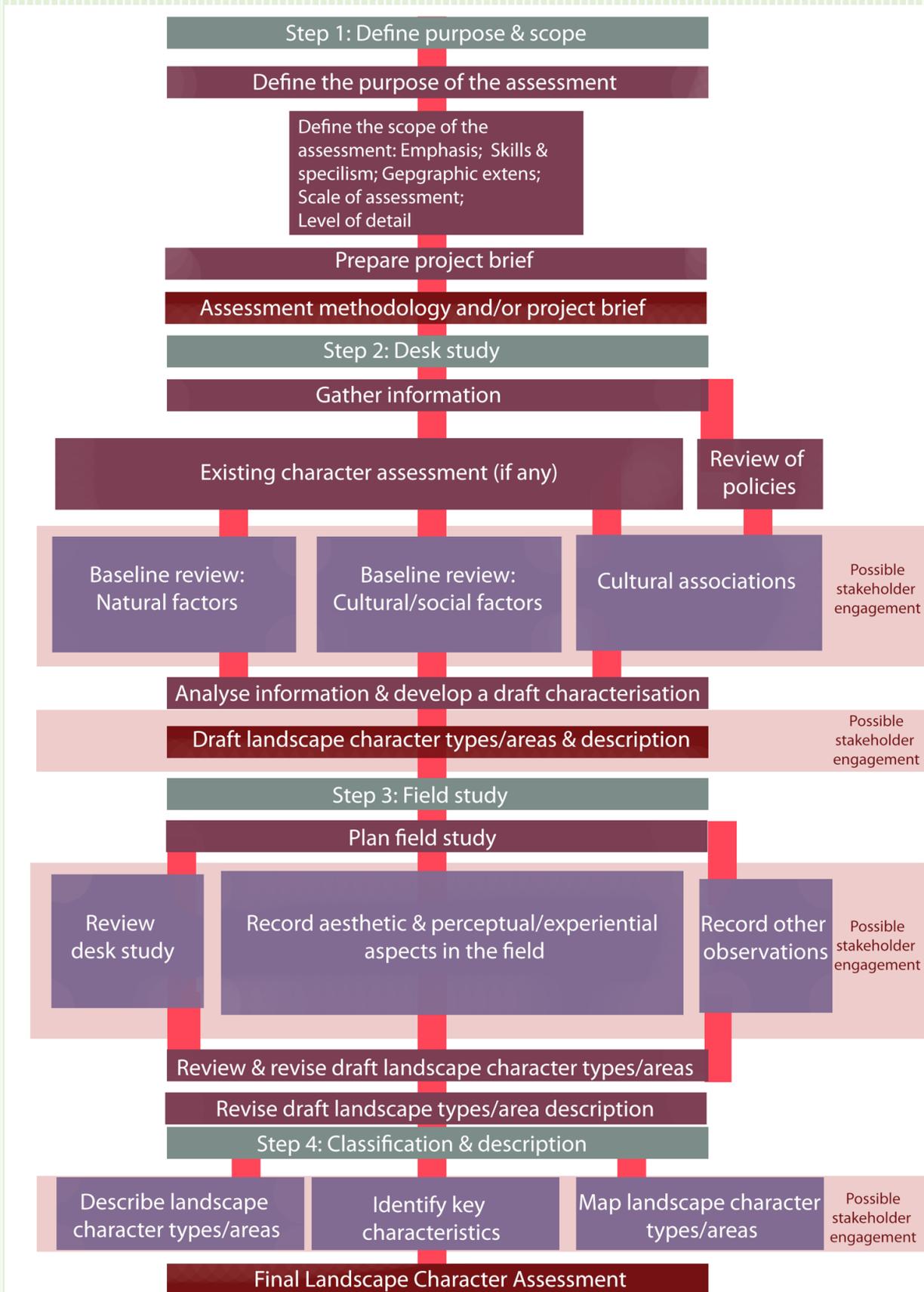


Figure 2. Flow diagram of Landscape Character Assessment methodology (Tudor, 2014).

3.1 Step 1: Define the purpose and scope of your LCA

Defining the scope of the LCA is an important step when forming the task in order to define its aim and set the frame for the work. The purpose of the assessment must be understood and clearly defined. This part critically influences the scale at which it will be carried out and level of detail within the LCA. Furthermore, it will define both what economic and skill-based resources that are required, and who and what should be involved. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, it will define what kind of output is desired from the study.

3.2 Step 2: Desk study and classification

The desk study will involve collection and review at background material for the area. From studying both maps and spatial data that provide information to develop a series of map overlays will allow the identification of draft areas of common character, the mapping of draft landscape character areas or/and types, and the preparation of associated draft descriptions. Accompanied by their assistants, draft character types/areas maps can be made as a basis for the field study.

The desk study should not be too deterministic by acknowledging that there may well be aspects of landscape character that are not obvious from mapped or written texts (including GIS), and that these might only be identified through field survey or stakeholder engagement.

This stage involves the collation of a wide range of mapped information to evaluate, if any, existing landscape classification.

Note: Take into consideration how stakeholders can be involved at this stage (see Section 5).

Table 1: Based on Tudor’s Desk study table from Approach to Landscape Character Assessment (2014).

Landscape	Desk study
Natural factors	
Geology	Geology (solid and drift)
Landform	Landform/topography
	Geomorphology
Hydrology	Rivers and drainage
	Water quality and water flows

Air and climate	Climate
	Microclimate
	Patterns of weather
Soils	Soils
	Agricultural Land Classification
Land cover/flora and fauna	Habitats/biodiversity
	Land cover
	Vegetation cover
	Tree cover - forest/woodland etc.
Cultural/Social factors	
Land use (and management)	Land cover
	Agricultural land use
Settlement	Settlement patterns
	Building types and styles
	Materials
Enclosure	Enclosure Pattern and type of field enclosure (rural)
	Urban morphology
Land ownership	Land ownership and tenure
Time depth	Archaeology and the historic dimension
Cultural associations	
Art, literature, descriptive writings, music, myth/legend/folklore, people, events and associations	Obtained through desk review
Perceptual and aesthetic factors	
Memories	Obtained via stakeholder engagement
Associations	
Perceptions	Some aesthetic factors might be identified as part of the desk study e.g. sense of wildness, remoteness and tranquillity
Touch/feel	Identified largely via field survey
Smells/sounds	
Sight	

3.3 Step 3: Field study

During the third step, field data is collected and used to test out and refine the draft character types and areas. It is recommended to prepare a standardised field survey sheet for the particular LCA (see Annex II for proposed field sheet, this must however be adapted to place). Information is collected in the field, in an exact and methodical way, to test and refine and add to (as appropriate) the outputs of the second stage - the desk study: the draft areas of common character, the maps of draft landscape character areas or/and types. Furthermore, the current conditions of the landscape and its elements are identified. See Box 3.2 for examples of focal points during this step.

Box 3.2: This step specifically focuses on information that is less easily gathered from desk work alone, e.g.:

Verifying and fine-tuning the classification of the landscape types identified;

Verifying information on landscape character and key characteristics and noting local variations in character;

Gathering information on perceptual qualities and views;

Identifying valued attributes;

Assessing landscape condition i.e. the physical state of the landscape and its intactness; and

Assessing forces for change.

(South Hams District Council; West Devon Borough Council, 2017)

This step is essential to capture aesthetic, perceptual and experiential qualities of landscapes. Sometimes field survey might identify issues that need to be clarified by further desk study, and this then may require more than one field survey stage to draft the character types and areas.

Note: Take into consideration how stakeholders can be involved at this stage (see Section 5).

3.4 Step 4: Classification, mapping and description

At the fourth step, the outputs of the characterization process are refined and finalised by categorisation, and further mapping and describing the landscape studies into landscape character types and/or areas.

Classification of landscape character types: classification means to divide the landscape into areas of distinct, identifiable and consistent character and grouping areas of similar character together. Sometimes Landscape Character Types and areas are referred to one: Landscape character units. The results in the identification in accordance to one or both of the following:

- I) **Landscape Character Types (LCT)** are distinct types of landscape that are relatively homogeneous in character. Although, the landscapes may occur in different areas in different part of the same country, in broad terms they share the same combinations of geology, topography, drainage patterns, vegetation and historical land use and settlement patterns.
- II) **Landscape Character Areas** are *“single unique areas and are the discrete geographical areas of a particular landscape type”* (Swanwick, 2002). Each character area has its own individual character and identity although it may share the same general characteristics of other landscape character types. To distinct between character areas and character types in the work process, landscape character types have generic names such as; open inland plateaux, cliffs or upland river valleys, whilst the landscape character areas have names of specific places.

This is followed by a clear description of each area including “forces for change” in order to identify key development pressures on the characters.

For each landscape character type or/and area it is suggested to insert a map and at least two representative photos. Furthermore, it is suggested to provide a description in terms of: Summary of Location and Landscape Character; and Key Characteristics.

Note: Take into consideration how stakeholders can be involved at this stage (see Section 5).

4. Landscape Character Assessment Illustrations

To create a basis of reference, this section contains three illustrations of well executed cases of LCAs. The three examples are focusing on different types of landscape: predominantly rural landscape, predominantly urban townscape and a seascape.

The three examples of LCAs are set in English-speaking countries to make the referenced material more accessible to a wider audience. In addition, as this material was written in English, reference phrases will translate more easily. Two of the LCAs are established in the United Kingdom while the third was set up in Ireland:

- 4.1. LCA: Rural setting – A Landscape Character Assessment for South Hams and West Devon
- 4.2. LCA: Urban setting – A Character Assessment of Oxford in its Landscape Setting
- 4.3. LCA: Seascape setting – Seascape Character Assessment of County Donegal

4.1. LCA: Rural setting

A Landscape Character Assessment for South Hams and West Devon

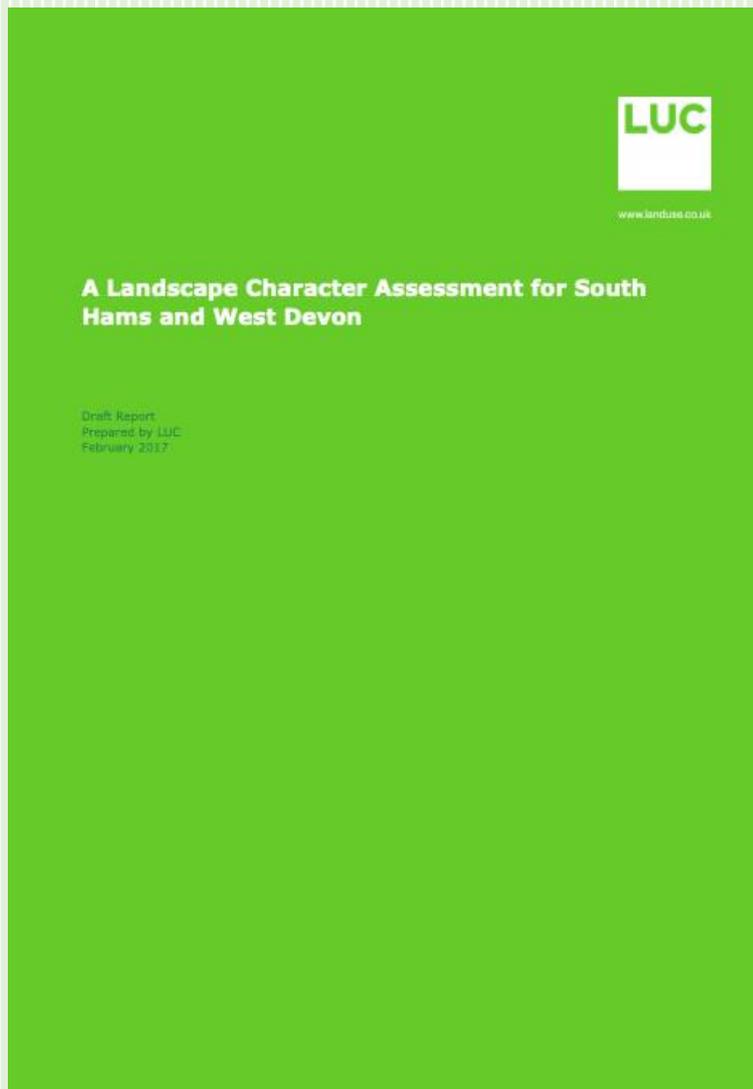
Brief description: Much of the landscape within South Hams District and West Devon Borough form part of the, within the United Kingdom, well-known Dartmoor National Park. The landscape of the Dartmoor National Park does not form part of this assessment and has been subject to its own separate assessment that all describe unique, geographically specific areas of landscape.

Location: South Hams and West Devon, United Kingdom

Year of publication: 2017

Initiator: Local planning authority areas for South Hams District Council and West Devon Borough Council

Type of area: Countryside



Purpose: I) to inform work on policy development as part of emerging Development Plans; II) to inform development management, guiding development and land management that is sympathetic to local character and special qualities; III) to promote an understanding of how landscapes are changing and how they can be strengthened.

Identified landscape types and areas: A total number of 23 landscape types were identified. The precision of boundaries drawn around landscape character areas and types vary with the scale and level of detail of the assessment.

Landscape Character Assessment: First “*Summary of location*” is made and

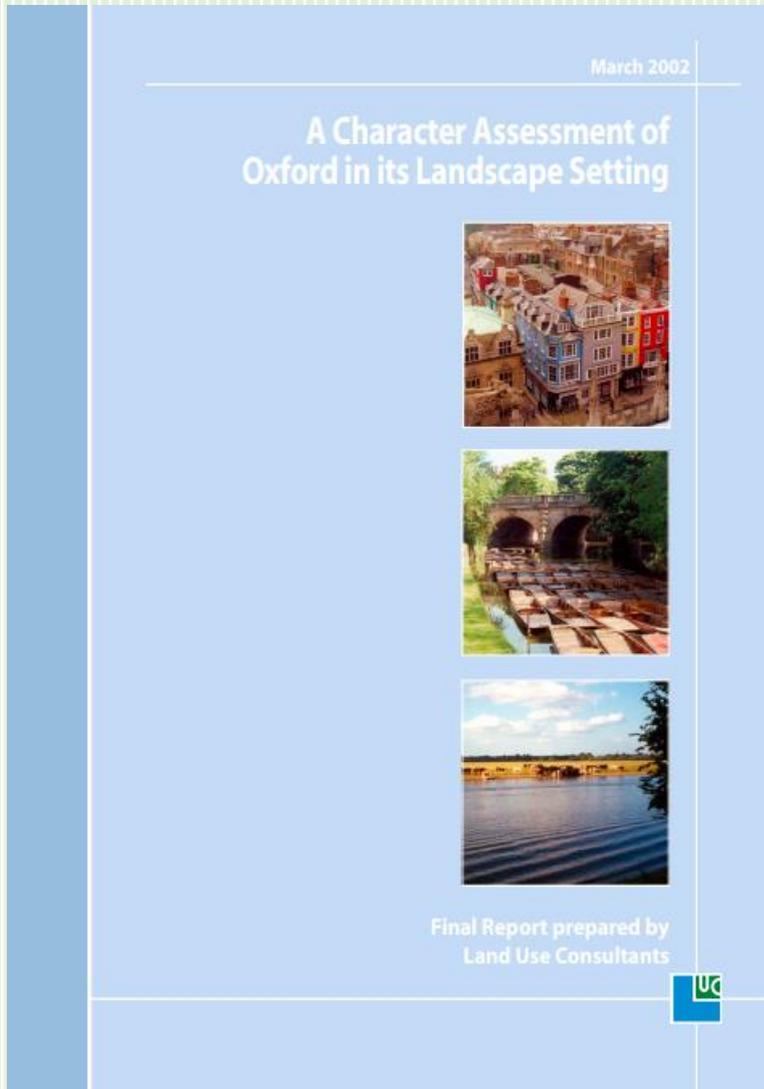
“*Landscape Character Landscape and seascape description*”. It then defines the “*Key characteristics in accordance to Topography, geology and drainage; woodland cover; land use and field patterns; semi-natural habitats; archaeology and cultural heritage; settlement, road pattern and rights of way; views and perceptual qualities*”. Then it defines the “*Landscape Evaluation: Key Landscape Sensitivities and Summary of Landscape Condition*”. At the end it looks at “*Forces for Change*” and lastly “*Landscape Strategy and Guidelines: Overall Landscape Strategy and Landscape Guidelines*”.

Stakeholder Engagement: A workshop was held to present the work being undertaken and to gather views on what is valued in the landscape and pressures affecting the condition of the landscape.

Source: South Hams District Council; West Devon Borough Council, 2017.

4.2 LCA: Urban setting

A Character Assessment of Oxford in its Landscape Setting



Brief description: The city of Oxford is highly characterised and known for its landscape and built environment, as it has been highly represented in culture throughout history. It has been termed an 'Iconic Landscape', and is recognised worldwide for its distinctive buildings, skyline of domes and 'dreaming spires'; interweaving rivers and meadows set within a rural framework are contained by wooded ridges. In the LCA for the Oxford landscape, it is emphasised that Oxford covers more than these 'iconic' features and the evolution of the urban form, cultural associations, relationship of the public and private realms, the density and massing of buildings, the

architectural dialogue and vitality all make an important contribution to the character of the city's built up areas.

Location: Oxford, United Kingdom

Year of publication: 2002

Initiator: Oxford City Council and the Countryside Agency (executed by Land Use Consultants)

Type of landscape: Townscape

Purpose: I) To understand which of the open spaces in the city are important in landscape terms, both in their own right and in relation to the built-up areas of the city, and why; II) To determine the areas of the city which are sensitive to change and merit protection as part of the Local Plan Review; III) To identify opportunities for the city's landscape to be enhanced and key areas for policy development.

Identified landscape types/areas:

In the LCA for Oxford, there is a division between the landscape and the townscape. Characterisation involved a two-stage classification of generic townscape types and within these the geographically unique character areas. Landscape/townscape types are generic areas of consistent character, predominantly defined by combinations of natural features and built features and their relationship. types were accordingly identified: I | generic landscape/townscape. Landscape/townscape character areas are geographically specific areas of a landscape/townscape type, which have their own individual character or 'sense of place': 52 landscape/townscape character areas were identified.

Landscape Character Assessment: First it goes into "*Key characteristics: underlying Landscape Type; evolution of townscape; archaeological and historic interest; street and block pattern; private/public realm interface; massing and enclosure; architecture and built form; streetscape; open space; biodiversity; land use, culture and vitality; access and traffic; views and visual patterns; designations*". From there it looks at the "*Evaluation of character and quality*" in the area. After it evaluate "*Indicators of landscape value: Landscape Quality; Biodiversity; Historic Integrity; Re-creatability; Intervisibility; and Open Space*". It finally looks at "*Sensitivity to change*" as well as "*Objectives, policy development and enhancement opportunities*".

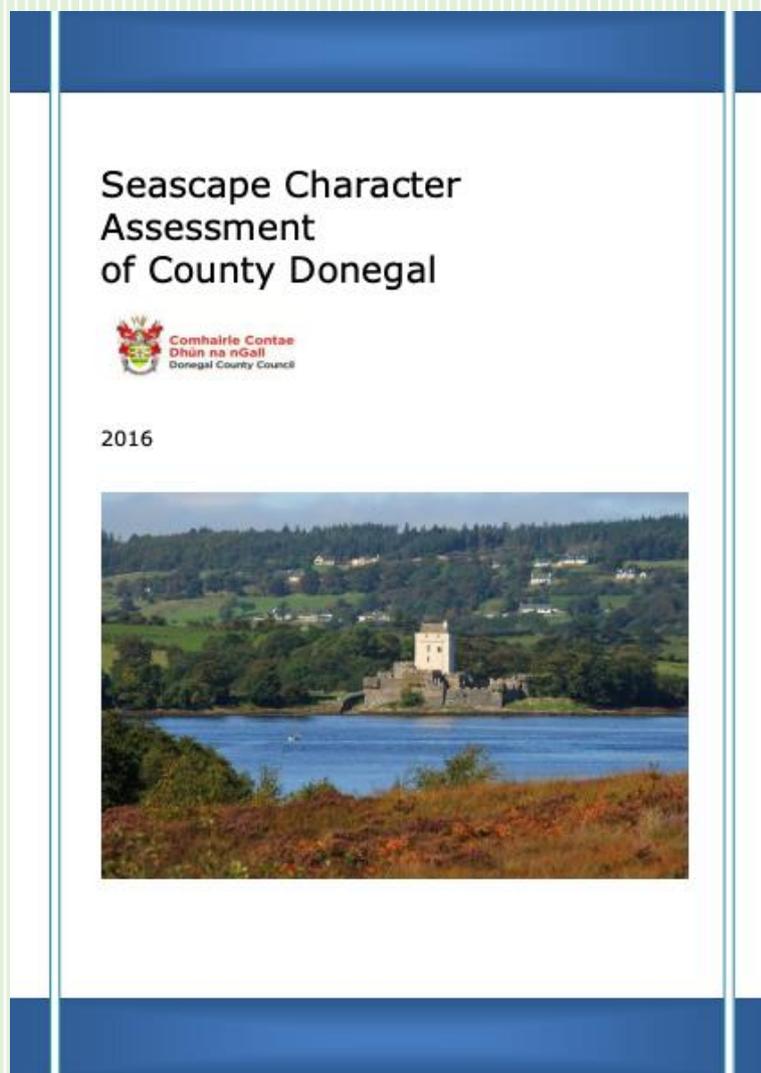
Stakeholder engagement: Three forms of public engagement: I) Participatory workshops at the outset of the study to gather information on what people value about Oxford and why, and what are perceived to be the key forces for change; II) Feedback workshops at an interim stage to show how the results of the first workshops have fed into the study and illustrate the emerging results; III) A public exhibition explaining the method and process for the study and draft results with a questionnaire for specific comment of key valued features, qualities and perceived threats.

Source: The Countryside Agency; Oxford City Council, 2002.

4.3 LCA: Seascape setting

Seascape Character Assessment of County Donegal

Brief description: Donegal County is in many ways characterized by its outstanding and diverse coastline of some 1,134km, most of it fronts directly onto the Atlantic Ocean. The indented coast is the longest in Ireland and constitutes a heterogeneous character comprising cliffs, headlands, sheltered bays, caves, and open coastal views. In Donegal County, the coastal landscape and seascape is synonymous with the character and identity of the County, and inherent in the complex history of the County.



Location: Donegal County, Ireland

Year of publication: 2016

Initiator: Donegal County Council

Type of landscape: Townscape

Purpose: I) To acknowledge seascapes as a key resource within the marine and coastal environment; II) To identify their character and special qualities; III) To identify unique areas of specific importance; IV) To provide a base layer of information to feed into and inform a comprehensive and robust LCA of the County and coincide with the Settlement Character Assessment of

County Donegal; V) Establish an understanding of how a place is experienced, perceived and valued by people

Identified landscape units: A total number of 19 seascape units were identified. Within each unit both seascape type and area were identified.

Landscape character assessment: The relevant identified -scape factors were *Key Characteristics: Coastal Land cover; intertidal area; characteristics of sea; Hinterland landform and land cover; indivisibility; lighting*. From there *Key Uses* were identified: Coast, Sea, Land. Next was *Biodiversity*, followed by *Cultural Influences*, and lastly *Visual and Sensory Qualities: Accessibility; Key Views to Sea and Coast; and Key Views to Land*.

Stakeholder engagement: The report shows a result of a high local participation. For public participation an interactive mapping tool was developed encouraging digital submissions that were localised to a geographical point and to which submissions and photographs could be attached. There were a series of 5 structured public ‘drop in’ events. 41 Stakeholders were identified based on their specialist knowledge at the outset of the project.

Source: Donegal County, 2016.

5. Stakeholder engagement in LCA

LCA’s are predominantly prepared by and used by professionals, yet how the LCA guidelines define landscape echoes the definition within the ELC. As landscape is described as “... *the relationship between people and place*” “... *the setting for our day-to-day lives*” and that “*People’s perceptions turn land into the concept of landscape*” (Swanwick, 2002a). This points to the significance of placing those who have an attachment to the place as central to any understanding of landscape and making perceptions relevant for any genuine assessment of the landscape. In this sense, Cultural Ecosystem Services (CES) provides a useful tool for bringing different disciplines together to identify the heritage values of a landscape/seascape from different perspectives.

Box 5.1: When considering involvement of people in the assessment process it is important to identify:

- The range of stakeholders to be involved – communities of interest and communities of place;
- The stage(s) of work they will contribute to;
- How they will be involved – true stakeholder engagement involves participation, not just consultation.

(Swanwick et al., 2002b)

This guidance is in great parts based on the topics paper “Topic Paper 3 - Landscape Character Assessment - How Stakeholders can help” developed as a part of the “Landscape Character Assessment: Guidance for England and Scotland” in 2002. It must be taken into considered that these guidelines were developed during the early 2000s and mainly aimed to be used in the United Kingdom. Therefore, examples of stakeholder engagement from other parts of Europe are also acknowledged under section 5.3.

5.1 Stakeholder involvement

5.1.1 Who are stakeholders

The term *stakeholder* describes the whole constituency of individuals and groups who have an interest in a subject or place. For landscape character, the range of stakeholders is wide and can be divided into two broad categories, both of whom should be involved.

Box 5.2: List of potential Stakeholder groups:

Communities of interest:

Governmental departments, e.g. Food & Rural affairs

Governmental agencies, e.g.: Scottish Natural Heritage.

Local authorities

NGOs, e.g.: Local history societies; national farmers' unions.

Communities of place:

Local residents

Second home-owners

Local groups

Local businesses

Local interest groups: Sensitivity and capacity studies, e.g.: local history groups; amenity societies

(Swanwick et al., 2002b)

Communities of interest: There are the many different groups who have an interest in the landscape, from a variety of different perspectives, and who might be thought of as communities of interest. They can be divided broadly into government departments, government agencies, local authorities, and non-governmental organisations. Some may have environmental or other specific interests, while others might be involved in the various land uses that shape the landscape.

Communities of place: There are the individuals who live or work in a particular area, second home-owners, or visitors, who can be thought of as making up communities of place. In dealing with these stakeholders most projects have focused

on local communities, mainly because they are the people who have the greatest 'stake' in their local environment. In addition, a local community is generally much easier to involve practically than a more temporary population.

The ideal is to involve a wide range of people (both communities of interest and of place), of sufficient number to gauge the variety of local perceptions and body of knowledge. It can be helpful to think of stakeholder groupings (for example, local authorities, agencies, landowners, residents, recreational users, workers and environmental groups) and to target representatives from each sector, to try to ensure that a variety of perspectives and skills are provided.

Note: When it comes down to it, there is not always a strict division between communities of interest and place. Many of those who are materially concerned in the welfare of the landscape - that is, those who own, use, manage and work in the landscape, such as farmers, large landowners and foresters – can potentially fit into both categories. Such groups have an important responsibility for, and ability to change and effect, the landscape, and so are thereby crucial to involve.

5.1.2 Benefits of stakeholder involvement

The process of involving and engaging stakeholder can help people from all stakeholder groups to gain a greater understanding and awareness of the landscape. Further, they may increasingly cherish its character and diversity. Finally, it will to potentially create a confidence in community actions within groups of stakeholders (Swanwick et al., 2002).

Stakeholders can potentially contribute to the project through valuable information and knowledge, which would not otherwise come to light (Swanwick et al., 2002). This can be evaluative information regarding local (tangible and intangible) cultural heritage (Caspersen, 2009) and thereby contribute to further understanding of CES. If stakeholders are involved in the process of reaching decisions about the landscape, they are more likely to be committed to the outcome. Moreover, the process of participation can help to build consensus where previously none might have existed. It can also increase the participation and influence of the LCA (Caspersen, 2009).

5.1.3 Required resources

In the topic paper on how to involve stakeholders by Swanwick (2002b), it is emphasised that the involvement stakeholders will demand some effort, although the benefits can arguably be considered worthwhile. The required resources, not only economically but time- and skill-wise, may vary considerably. However, Swanwick (2002b) points out that the following generic factors will apply in most cases:

I) Time can restrict the extent to which stakeholders can become involved at a particular stage. However, stakeholders will often remain involved if they feel the exercise is relevant to them;

II) Effective stakeholder participation work requires time, effort and skill on the part of the project organiser;

III) People with facilitation skills need to be involved, to ensure that meetings and other activities make the most of everyone's contributions, and that there are opportunities for all participants' views to be heard and evaluated. What facilitations skills means depends of the stakeholders it is aimed at.

IV) Time scales need to be realistic to ensure that stakeholder involvement can play a full part in assessments;

V) Those responsible for initiating assessments also need to adapt so that they are willing and able to embrace the input of stakeholders in an appropriate way. It is important to find the best ways of involving stakeholders within the practical constraints that exist.

5.2 Methods of engagement

In the topic paper on how to involve stakeholders, as a part of the Landscape Character Assessment: Guidance for England and Scotland from 2002 (Swanwick et al., 2002b), two main methods are mentioned:

Traditional consultation techniques

Traditional means of involving people are generally one-way, in that professionals provide information and/or proposals and stakeholders respond by providing their views. In these techniques, tools such as exhibitions, leaflets and publications are used to provide the information and proposals, while public meetings, questionnaires and interview surveys are used to seek responses. The stakeholders are generally rather passive in this process and are not invited to take an active part in developing ideas or proposals.

Interactive & participatory methods

It can be argued that it is more rewarding and constructive if stakeholders' participation is active. A wide range of interactive methods exist which are geared to meaningful involvement of stakeholders and can be adapted for use in LCA. They

usually consist of some form of workshop, small group discussions, or focus group and often include some form of practical activity. A participatory approach can be useful to capture local perception and values. CES and equivalent terms of intangible values, could serve to address embedded values for further analysis (Tengberg et al., 2012).

A summary of methods to engage stakeholders for LCA is described below:

Methods that may be used as part of other techniques or on their own
<p>Questionnaires</p> <p>Questionnaires are usually a one-way information gathering method which can include large scale door-to-door and postal questionnaires. Drafting requires care to ensure that questions are not 'leading' but to the point. Questions can seek both qualitative and quantitative responses. Those requiring statistical credibility require particularly careful preparation (Swanwick et al., 2002).</p>
<p>Small-group Workshops</p> <p>Small-group Workshops usually involve 8-15 people. It is a generic term covering a wide range of techniques for enabling people to discuss, evaluate, learn and plan how to influence their future. Focus Groups are a specific version of small-group workshops, bringing a more selective group of people together on a regular basis to discuss specific questions. The same questions are asked of different groups for comparative assessment (Swanwick et al., 2002).</p>
<p>Visioning conferences</p> <p>Visioning conferences can take a number of forms but bring together in one room a range of interests to determine areas of common interest and future aspirations (in this case for the landscape). They are facilitated by external experts but will be self-managed and often incorporate small working groups (Swanwick et al., 2002).</p>
<p>Technological tools</p> <p>As a tool to bridging the gap between landscape experts and communities has been to create use visualisation techniques using computer-based technologies. These practices are reliant on the use of IT-based tools in workshop scenarios. Examples of these are the apps 'Rate My View (RmV)' and 'Landscape Connect'. The apps allow user to provide continuous landscape related feedback while in situ. It uses GPS to pinpoint the user locations and detects the direction the person is facing (Martin, al et., 2016).</p>
<p>Literature representations of place</p> <p>Literary inspiration is one of the CES provided by some landscapes. To unlock the power of literary writing to engage people and communities with landscape, creative landscape writing can be a suggestion (Edwards, 2016).</p>

5.3 Method illustration of stakeholder engagement for LCA

Box 5.2: Seascape Character Assessment (SCA) of County Donegal in Ireland – Joint techniques for efficient local engagement and direct stakeholder consultation

Degree of stakeholder involvement: Public Participation on the SCA occurred as part of the wider LCA public consultation process during a three-month period. The process was advertised in local press, on the council's website and on Facebook and Twitter. A letter and information leaflet were sent out to over 400 community groups throughout the County outlining the process, detailing drop-in events and explaining how to make a submission and become involved in the LCA and SCA process. Similarly, a letter and information leaflet were sent out to all public libraries, primary schools and secondary schools in the County in order to target a younger age cohort in the consultation process. Targeted notification on the LCA and SCA was also sent out to all neighbouring Local Authorities.

Consultation: 41 Stakeholders were consulted by letter at the outset of the process, requesting input from the earliest stage that would fully inform and help shape the project. The stakeholders were identified based on their specialist knowledge and particular interest in the Donegal landscape and in the LCA process and assistance invited that would provide access to relevant data, guidance, or observations that would enhance the quality of the process and project outputs. 9 out of 41 identified stakeholders responded formally whilst others maintained a more informal consultative role.

Participatory method: An interactive mapping tool was developed encouraging digital submissions that were localised to a geographical point and to which submissions and photographs could be attached, and all methods of submission including digital submissions were encouraged and welcomed.

Meetings in the local community: There were a series of 5 structured public 'drop in' events throughout the County. There were a number of draft maps on display including those listed below in addition to rolling presentations and hand-out maps and documentation. The purpose of the public events was to encourage informed public participation and on the whole these events were well attended and had positive outcomes.

Source: Donegal County, 2016.

Box 5.3: Landscape Character Assessment of the municipality of Hillerød

– Thought through methods for local engagement

Degree of stakeholder involvement: The process was initiated at a Vision meeting, attended by 150 people. This process included presentations followed by discussions in smaller groups. This was the process adapted by the working group characterised by a larger degree of stakeholder involvement and could be classified as a ‘joint decision-making process’.

Consultation: The working group was relatively small (12 people). During a seven-month period of cooperation that created a framework for a more comprehensive working process. The working group organised five local public meetings, but the relatively short time available for the local area meetings did not allow time for this more ambitious stakeholder involvement. Instead the same degree of involvement was used as in the two larger meetings. Beside the three facilitators, individuals from the working group participated in the five meetings, along with a local politician. Two introductory presentations by the facilitators were followed by two workshop sessions, each of which lasted for approximately two hours. In order to ensure that every stakeholder became involved, the participants were divided into smaller groups of 5-6 persons and were given written questions to be answered in order to facilitate the discussions in each group and to ensure a useful output.

Participatory method: The methodology of ‘participatory appraisals’ includes a learning process typically conducted as a cycle of meetings and workshops. This method was chosen for the working group meetings. During the seven-month period, the LCA working group attended one to two meetings a month, which provided data gathering, reflections, identification of barriers and proposals of possible solutions and future objectives. For the five local public meetings, a participatory process quite similar to ‘planning for real’ (Swanwick et al., 2002) was adapted. This process is characterised by an introduction to the topic and working group theme. The introduction is then followed by a session in which the participants sketch out a vision for the local landscape on maps. An advantage of the ‘planning for real’ method is that it enables a relatively rapid process that is carried out through well-defined steps, although a great deal of elaboration of the data and information gathered is needed afterwards.

Meetings in the local community: The five public local area meetings were conducted in different parts of the municipality to cover most of the municipality. The engagement process and the work of the ‘Accessibility and cultural heritage’ group,

was presented at each meeting. The meetings were advertised in newspapers, on street posters, at bus stops in the local area and on the municipality's homepage. The meetings were led by facilitators.

Source: Caspersen, 2009.

Annex I: Glossary words

Definitions from the European Landscape Convention, Florence 20th October 2000:

Characterisation: The process of identifying areas of similar character, classifying and mapping them and describing their character.

Characteristics: Elements, or combinations of elements, which make a particular contribution to distinctive character.

Cultural Ecosystem Services⁷⁵ The non-material benefits people obtain from ecosystems.

Classification: Is concerned with dividing the landscape into areas of distinct, recognisable and consistent common character and grouping areas of similar character together.

Ecosystem Services: These are services provided by the natural environment, benefitting people. Some of these ecosystem services are well known including food, fibre and fuel provision and the cultural services that provide benefits to people through recreation and cultural appreciation of nature. Other services provided by ecosystems are not so well known.

Key Characteristics: Those combinations of elements which are particularly important to the current character of the landscape and help to give an area its particularly distinctive sense of place.

Landscape: An area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors.

Landscape Character: A distinct, recognisable and consistent pattern of elements in the landscape that makes one landscape different from another, rather than better or worse.

⁷⁵ Source: FAO, 2020

Landscape Character Area: These are single unique areas which are the discrete geographical areas of a particular landscape type. Each will have its own individual character and identity, even though it shares the same generic characteristics with other areas of the same type.

Landscape Character Assessment: This is the process of identifying and describing variation in the character of the landscape. It seeks to identify and explain the unique combination of elements and features (characteristics) that make landscapes distinctive. This process results in the production of a Landscape Character Assessment.

Landscape Character Types: These are distinct types of landscape that are relatively homogeneous in character. They are generic in nature in that they may occur in different areas in different parts of the country, but wherever they occur they share broadly similar combinations of geology, topography, drainage patterns, vegetation, historical land use, and settlement pattern.

Landscape policy: 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.

Landscape protection: 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.

Landscape management: 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.

Landscape planning: Strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.

Annex II: Field sheets

Table 3: Based field survey from Dalwhinnie and Crubenmore, Scotland (Transport Scotland, 2009).

Site:		Grid reference:								
Photo viewpoint reference:										
Views across area (mark on map):										
Nature of views:		Short			Medium			Long		
Footpaths:										
Landform/typography										
Flat		Plain			Ravine					
Undulating		Rolling lowland			Strat					
Rolling		Plateau			Glen					
Steep		Scarp /Cliffs /Ridge			Floodplain					
Vertical		Hills								
Exposed rock		Highland								
Landscape elements										
Built form		Agriculture		Land cover		Woodland/trees		Hydrology		Infrastructure
Scattered farms		Arable		Parkland		Deciduous woodland		River (natural)		Motorway
Village		Pasture		Amenity/ recreation		Coniferous plantation		River (built)		A road
Urban		Mixed		Scrub		Mixed woodland		Canal		Roads
Industry		Rough grazing		Bog		Avenue		Burn		Footpaths
Military		Regular fields		Moor/heat		Isolated trees		Drainage ditch		Railway
Archaeological/ historical features		Irregular fields		Meadow		Orchard		Reservoir		Canal
Aesthetic/Perceptual aspects:										
Scale	Intimate	Small	Large	Vast	Movement	Dead	Still	Calm	Busy	
Enclosure	Tight	Enclosed	Open	Exposed	Pattern	Random	Organized	Regular	Formal	
Diversity	Uniform	Simple	Diverse	Complex	Unity	Unified	Interrupted	Fragmented	Chaotic	
Texture	Smooth	Textured	Rough	Very rough	Security	Comfortable	Safe	Unsettling	Threatening	
Form	Vertical	Sloping	Rolling	Horizontal	Stimulus	Monotonous	Bland	Interesting	Inspiring	
Line	Straight	Angular	Curved	Sinuous	Tranquillity	Turbulent	Distributed	Changeable	Peaceful	
Colour	Monochrome	Muted	Colourful	Garish	Pleasure	Offensive	Unattractive	Attractive	Beautiful	
Landscape character										
Brief description:										
Key characteristics and distinctive features and why important:										
Rarity:										
Condition/Management:										
Built form and infrastructure:										
Additional comments:										

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Cultural landscape management plans

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I. Introduction

Management of cultural landscape has become the main focus of conservation in the last few years. Especially after defining cultural type of landscape classification - specifying the implementation processes of this method, which includes the study of the past (all events, natural and cultural significance). However, evaluation and documentation still suffer from confusion. Meanwhile, making a choice of the best way to study and collect information can lead to important decisions in heritage management and preservation of cultural identity. In essence, it is about managing the protection and shaping of cultural landscape with the knowledge, skills and tools available in order to preserve cultural significance.

In order to standardise the research method, ICOMOS and UNESCO have provided guidance in the form of doctrinal charters and UNESCO operational guidelines, to ensure a certain kind of equality in the assessment of heritage, this including cultural landscapes.

Heritage management phases are a set of separate management formulas coordinated at parallel levels of execution to improve the quality, carry out schedules and finance a project.

Defining the scope of management relating to the rehabilitation of cultural assets is one of the main criteria taken into account in practical management, in keeping with the principles of conservation documents, conservation boundaries, ecological and environmental constraints. In fact, organizing and systematic planning, research and practical action based on the principles of management increases the relevance of measures for the protection of cultural landscapes and their historical value as monuments; especially the principles that have been defined as necessary conservation measures and their implementation play an important role in a management plan time schedule.

With a management method at hand, one can prioritise levels of management and determine how to execute each phase of the management plan.⁷⁶

⁷⁶ The Caribbean Capacity Building Programme (CCBP), *Module 4: Management of Cultural Landscapes*, drafted by Isabel Rigol. PDF online.

2. Management of cultural landscape protection

2.1. Concept and characteristics of landscape management

Management – in the context of landscape, management is defined in the European Landscape Convention (ELC) as “*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*”. It refers to the technical implementation of maintenance measures as well as more widely to the use of policy (protection regulation, development control regulation) or non-policy-based (negotiation and cooperation measures) instruments allowing to shape and regulate landscape change.

The convention provides additional definitions that form the basic conceptual framework of the ELC:

- "Landscape" means an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors;
- "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;
- "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;
- "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;
- "Landscape planning" means strong forward-looking action to enhance, restore or create landscapes.

Using the above definitions set out by the ELC, the concept of landscape management can be developed as the process of formulating, articulating and developing a set of strategies aimed at improving individual landscapes and improving the quality of human life, within an approach based on sustainable development, using tools and implementing measures. and the activities outlined in the cultural landscape management plan.⁷⁷

⁷⁷ Report of the Council of Europe CEP-CDPATEP (2011) 13E “Management of the territory: landscape management as a process”

A Landscape Management Plan articulates the practical set of actions, methodologies, instruments and programmes that will be used, as part of a sustainable development approach, to maintain and enhance the values of a specific landscape.

Purpose of a Landscape Management Plan:

- facilitate joined-up decision-making by social and institutional actors in the area,
- guide and enhance the upkeep of a defined land estate,
- address concerns about the impact of urbanisation on the conservation of natural and/or cultural resources,
- ensure new development contribute to landscape quality,
- increase the landscape capital of a specific area, landscape being understood as a forefront,
- economic (and natural and cultural) resource,
- provide focus and operational instruments for the delivery of landscape quality objectives,
- provide criteria and tools for identifying and protecting landscape quality,
- enhance economic prospect of an area, in respect of landscape quality.⁷⁸

2.2. Concepts and principles of cultural landscape management

Cultural landscape management aims at planning conservation activities and promoting its significance and value. It implies an integral and participatory support in all aspects related to the monument. Towards this purpose, it is necessary to understand the value and significance of the landscape; assuming the interdependence of the factors it possesses, and implementing participatory and integrated planning.

The management plan facilitates funding and optimises heritage conservation in the long term. It stimulates cooperation between different stakeholder groups from the public and private sectors to achieve greater involvement and participation in landscape conservation initiatives.

Management plans may vary in form and scope, adapting to the characteristics and requirements of the context in which they are applied. In all cases, however, they must provide an objective, credible and systematic approach to addressing the problems that affect heritage and to methods of protecting and promoting its

⁷⁸Anne Jaluzot, *Landscape Management Plan Methodology - technical report*, 2012, <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320702101>

significance. All management plans include an integral diagnosis of the condition of the area in order to formulate clear and sustainable long-term policies.

Management plans need to analyse and take into account changes that may affect heritage. Investing, promoting, developing tourism generally increases the number of visitors, which requires new infrastructure and facilities. This attracts more investors. Consequently, they can threaten the integrity and authenticity of the protected landscape. It is essential to have an effective management plan that anticipates and controls these changes and defines their acceptable boundaries to preserve the values and significance of the asset.

Management plans should also focus on improving relations with the community living in the area and ensure that local people are always the main beneficiaries of changes, which should indirectly lead to an improvement in their quality of life. It should also be noted that the investment in heritage can lead to a rapid increase in the income of local communities, which can result in undesirable changes to traditional ways of life, but also directly threaten the original attributes that motivated the conservation efforts.⁷⁹

Basic principles of cultural landscape management:

- responding to the characteristics and requirements of the context in which the plan will be implemented (natural-geographical, socio-cultural, economic, legal, institutional, etc.);
- seeking a vision that attempts to organise elements from different territorial levels. It aims to create a defined framework for action according to a ranking of values, significance and needs;
- identifying the best alternative ways to use and manage the natural and cultural resources contained in the asset, directing them towards preserving the most authentic of the values;
- serving as the governing element for the management of the site's resources, while developing the measures necessary for their conservation and sustainable use. This takes into account the characteristics of the site, its category, management objectives and other plans that affect the site;
- stimulating the creation and application of land-use plans which will ensure that local authorities are recognised as the overriding elements in land-use planning in a given area;

⁷⁹ The Caribbean Capacity Building Programme (CCBP), *Module 4: Management of Cultural Landscapes*, drafted by Isabel Rigol. PDF online, p.40

- promoting all convergent activities in this area, taking into account - in a differentiated and dominant way - aspects relating to the declaration of values and the concept of a unique universal value;
- being multidisciplinary;
- making the plan at the specific location and having a preliminary budget that will give priority to the administrative programme;
- structuring programmes, part of which projects will be identified according to the problems detected in the course of diagnosis. The implementation of these projects will depend on the available budget and will have to be divided according to priorities;
- Reserve a stable budget for education, promotion and information programmes, as well as publicity campaigns showing the values of the landscape and the actions taken to protect it. This should promote community-wide awareness, a sense of ownership and identity; encourage activities, and communicate heritage values to decision makers and visitors - thus stimulating sensitivity to and respect for heritage;
- forward-planning of activities related to the protection of the cultural landscape. Starting with the development of a concept, setting conservation and administrative policies;
- inclusion of public dialogue - citizens read the plans and suggest approaches, which are evaluated for their usability. It is important to be aware that heritage conservation work is no longer the exclusive domain of a group of specialists and scientists, and has become the interest of the whole community. Management plans will therefore be increasingly participatory in nature.⁸⁰

3. Methodology for developing and implementing cultural landscape management plans

3.1. Types of management plans

Management plans are the basis for planning, programming and budgeting activities.

According to the timelines adopted for their implementation, they are defined as follows:

⁸⁰ ibidem

- strategic plans - long-term (5-30 years), are implemented for sites where a large number and diversity of interests/stakeholders converge. They consider long-term goals and outline a global vision of the limits of change while maintaining the significance of the site;
- medium-term plans (less than 5 years), take into account medium-term objectives and set priorities for the implementation of programmes and specific projects that have specific funding opportunities;
- operational plans / Plan of Action (annual), are generated annually for programmes and projects to be implemented with the available funding. For each programme or project, the human, technical and financial resources to be used are identified. ⁸¹

3.2. Methodology for developing a management plan

The cultural landscape management plan will contain very detailed, precise and scientific information about the protected area. The contents of the management plan document and their sequence can be organised according to the following scheme, proposed in the ICOMOS instructional materials, based on the WHC guidelines⁸² :

1. Main objectives of the management of the site.
2. General information on the site
 - 2.1 Description and location
 - 2.1.1 Brief description
 - 2.1.2 Location, limits and coordinates
 - 2.1.3 Defining of the asset and environs
 - 2.1.4 Régime of property and / or administration.
 - 2.1.5 Entity responsible for its administration and management.
 - 2.1.6 Exceptional significance and universal value (only if the site is entered in the World Heritage list).
 - 2.1.7 Criteria of inscription (only if the site is entered in the World Heritage list)
 - 2.1.8 Maps, plans, photographs.
 - 2.2 Characteristics and values of the site
 - 2.2.1 Characteristics and cultural values
 - 2.2.1.1 Characteristics and tangible cultural values

⁸¹ ibidem

⁸² Department of Environment, Climate Change and Water NSW, *Cultural Landscapes. A practical guide for park management*, 2010, PDF online.

- 2.2.1.2 Characteristics and intangible cultural values.
- 2.2.2 Characteristics and environmental values.
- 2.2.3 Socio-economic characteristics
- 3. General evaluation of the conditions of the site and its management.
 - 3.1 State of conservation
 - 3.1.1 Current state of the site
 - 3.1.2 Changes occurred and potential
 - 3.1.3 Integrity and authenticity
 - 3.1.4 Factors that affect the site.
 - 3.2 Evaluation of the institutional, legal, economic and social framework
 - 3.2.1 Responsible institutions
 - 3.2.2 Legal protection
 - 3.2.3 Administration
 - 3.2.4 Territorial classification
 - 3.2.5 Training
 - 3.2.6 Finance and investments
 - 3.2.7 Evaluation of the condition and effectiveness of the current management
 - 3.2.8 Local survey
- 4. Plan of Action, programs and projects
 - 4.1 Legal protection.
 - 4.2 Conservation.
 - 4.3 Preparation against risks.
 - 4.4 Study and determination of the limits of acceptable changes
 - 4.5 Research.
 - 4.6 Administration.
 - 4.7 Construction of institutional capacities and training of personal
 - 4.8 Education and coverage
 - 4.9 Interpretation.
 - 4.10 Tourism, recreation and visitors' management (plan of public use)
 - 4.11 Computerization
 - 4.12 Assistance and cooperation. (including partners, and financing)
- 5. Implementation of the Plan of Action
 - 5.1 Stages, responsibilities and terms
 - 5.2 Mechanisms for the implementation
 - 5.3 Evaluation of the management effectiveness
 - 5.4 Monitoring and revision of the Plan.
- 6. Annexes
- 7. Bibliography

Ad. 1. Presentation and main objectives

Generally, the plan is accompanied by a presentation by the authority responsible for the historic resource in the country. By approving the plan document, the relevant local authorities and institutions of the country acknowledge their responsibility towards the designated cultural landscape and establish obligations for its protection.

The main objectives of the management plan are driven by the need to ensure that the outstanding universal value of the OUV and the significance of the site for present and future generations are preserved, and that natural and cultural resources are assessed as a means of achieving harmonious and sustainable development.

Among the objectives considered are:

- to preserve the uniqueness and significance of the heritage (cultural landscape) for present and future generations;
- to define and promote a sustainable direction that combines the protection of cultural landscape values with its diverse values, economic and social activities;
- in the case of World Heritage Sites, to identify the benefits of World Heritage declarations or other distinctions, work with local and national stakeholders to maximise this opportunity without compromising the integrity and authenticity of the site's value;
- guaranteeing the spiritual and material well-being of the resident community and their participation in decision-making;
- establishing a viable programme of action that allows for the protection, conservation and knowledge of the site, emphasising natural, urban, architectural and cultural resources that are degraded or underused;
- proposing measures to improve, restore or reinstate environmental features and processes that are degraded by activities incompatible with the integrity of the site.

Ad. 2. General information on the cultural landscape (as a cultural asset)

In this section a short identification is prepared, specifying the location, the main area occupied by the asset and its surroundings (buffer zone), specifying the boundaries for each, geographic coordinates and information on the form of ownership (e.g. private, public, mixed etc.).

The entity or entities responsible for administration and management should be identified.

It is necessary to identify the features and values of the site, which will then become the basis for planning any activities prepared at later stages.

The tangible elements of heritage which bear anthropological, ethnographic, historical, architectural, urban, technological and scientific characteristics should be indicated, as well as intangible elements relating to cultural, productive or other traditions, such as music, dance, festivals, myths and legends.

In addition, natural features and values related to the physical structure of the landscape and determining the ecosystem should be indicated; these will include information on: climate, hydrology, geology, geomorphology, seismology, soils, agriculture, flora, fauna, etc.

This is followed by a socio-economic description covering aspects of population, land use and assets, property standards and the economic base, which will include agriculture, tourism, local industry, as well as infrastructure, technical and service networks. This entire section will be complemented by a set of plans, maps and photographs.

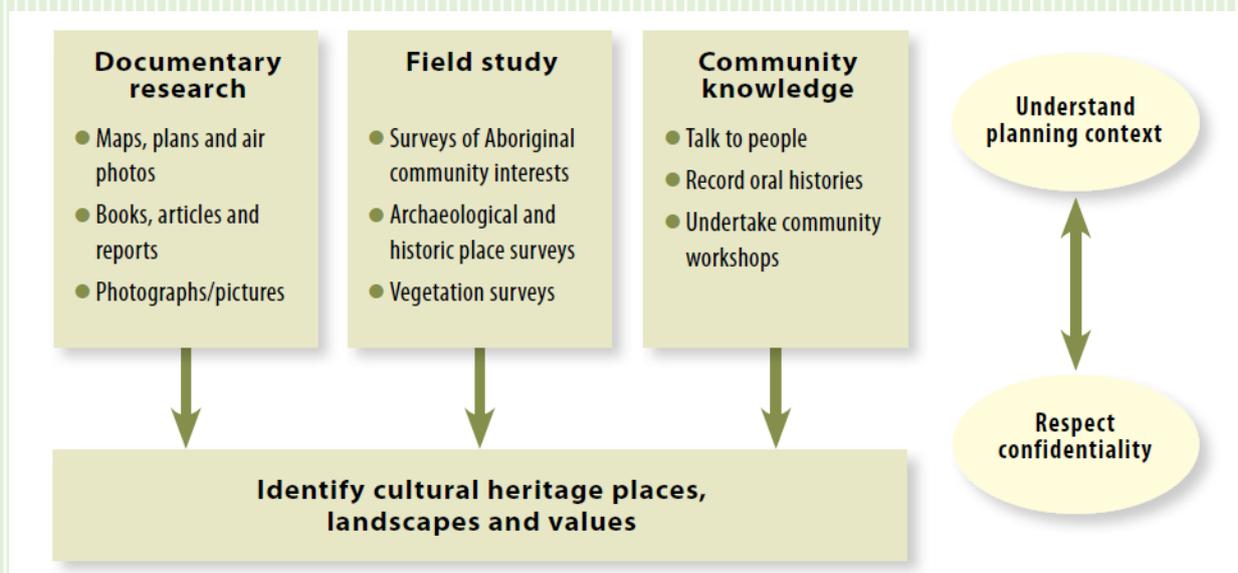


Fig. 1. Sources of information to identify cultural heritage ⁸³

⁸³ Department of Environment, Climate Change and Water NSW, *Cultural Landscapes. A practical guide for park management*, 2010, PDF online.

Ad.3. General assessment of the state of cultural landscape and its management

The assessment is a diagnosis of the physical conditions of a site and all the factors that combine in protecting, managing and using it. It describes the conservation status of the site, the changes made and potential transformations, the degree of integrity and authenticity, and the associated risks and threats. The assessment of the institutional, legal, economic and social framework is also a very important issue. This will include the institutions responsible, the state of legal protection and administration, the existing land classification plans and their application, and the need and capacity for staff training.

Financing conditions and levels, ongoing and planned investments, and revenue generation potential should be assessed.

Assessing the conditions and effectiveness of current management is another very important aspect of planning. Through public surveys it is possible to find out the views of the local community on the cultural asset and gather important information necessary for inclusion in the plan.

At this stage, all dysfunctions and existing problems in the agro-production, economic and administrative aspects must be diagnosed and their importance indicated. All current or potential risks must be detected in order to correctly outline the current situation and foreseeable trends for the future. It is also necessary to outline preliminary proposals for alternative scenarios.

The comparison of opinions, identified problems, conservation values and the optimum absorption capacity of the site makes it possible to detect existing conflicts at the initial stage of planning. Based on the conclusions drawn, an action plan can be developed in the short, medium and long term.

During the assessment phase, the need is usually identified to establish a Committee of Experts, an advisory body that supports the introduction of very relevant criteria into the plan and supports the activities in its approval and subsequent implementation.

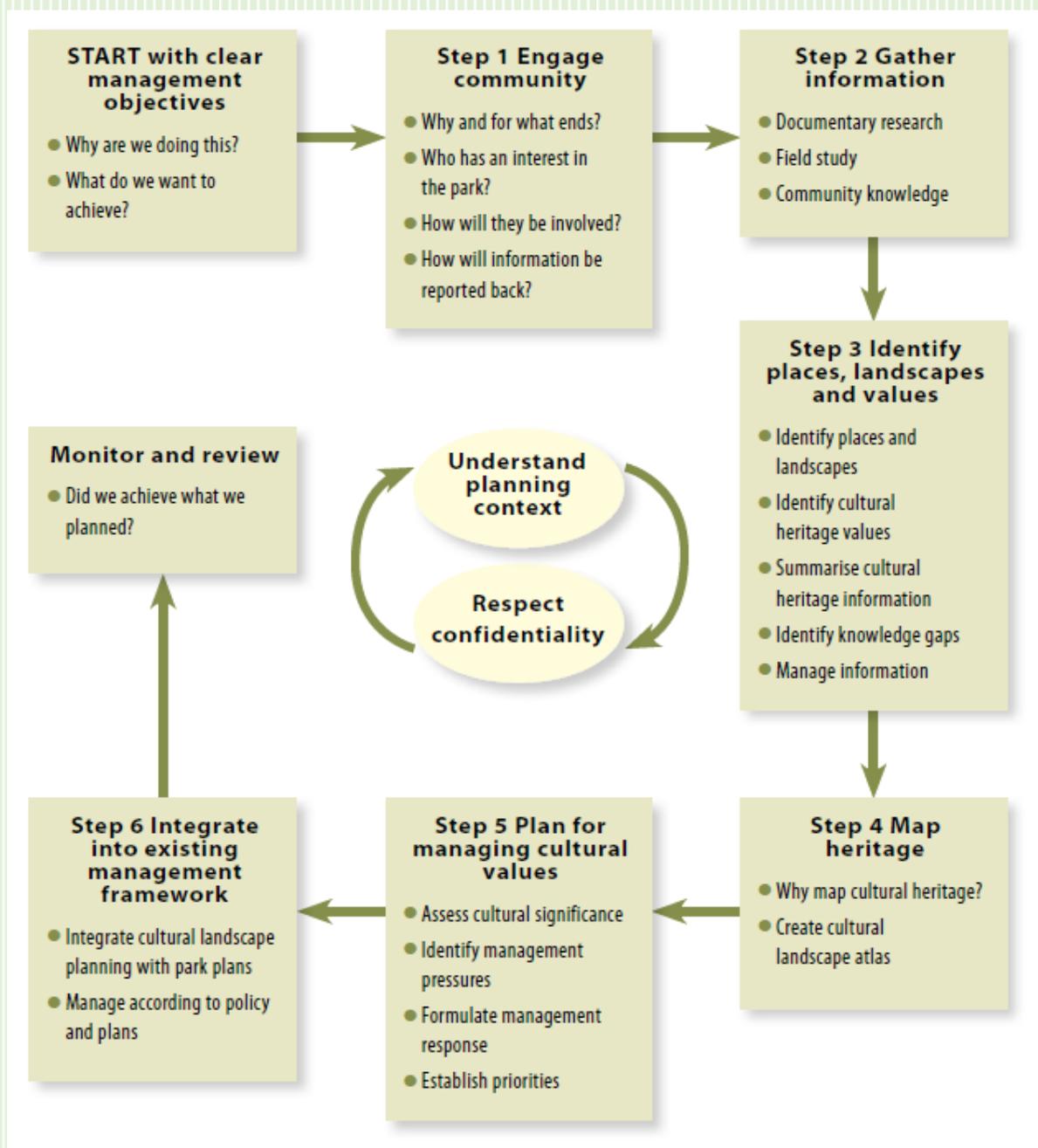


Fig. 2. Steps in applying a cultural landscape approach⁸⁴

⁸⁴ ibidem

Ad. 4. Plan of Action

Following a comprehensive assessment of the cultural landscape, an action plan or programme of action is formulated which establishes an operational framework, setting out priorities, conditions, responsibilities and resources. The document should be continuously updated, evaluated and its proper implementation should be periodically monitored.

The Action Plan is organised by thematic programmes responding to the requirements of the party. The programmes should be focused, for example on: conservation, administration, legal protection, risk prevention, research, institutional capacity building and staff training, education and promotion, tourism, recreation, assistance and cooperation in maintaining the asset, as well as other topics important in the management process. In the case of cultural landscapes, special conservation or land use change programmes may be required. Environmental programmes or funding for necessary infrastructure and facilities may also be required.

The programmes consist of specific projects that will be financed and implemented in practice by various agencies and actors. In this way, concrete actions will be taken to restore, rehabilitate and improve the elements and processes of degradation of the natural or cultural environment. Sustainability of conservation measures will always be a fundamental principle of the entire planning process.

Ad. 5. Implementation of the action plan - operational plans

It is the responsibility of local and national authorities to ensure that the management plan, action plan and operational plans have the appropriate legal status to be implemented and to ensure that these plans are incorporated into national and local policies.

The participation of the local community in decision-making will be crucial here. Local organisations, voluntary groups, interest groups, enthusiast or professional associations etc. should be involved.

A viable, implementable action plan should specify over what period and by whom it will be carried out. It is therefore advisable to set up a committee or specialised group whose main function will be to guarantee the correct implementation of such plan. This group should have the necessary legal powers vested in them - it should be composed of a team of interdisciplinary experts active in the conservation field. The proper functioning of this committee will depend largely on funding, which can be generated from a variety of private or state sources. The committee should support the raising of funds from public purpose programmes, taxation, tourism, local

production, use of "registered and local names", etc. Funds should first be used to protect and improve facilities.

The Committee will rely on the local management unit, which has the technical capacity and qualified staff. The management unit, with the advisory support of the Committee of Experts

will prepare annual work plans, constitute monitoring procedures and database compliance, co-ordinate with relevant stakeholders the preparation of information and interpretation measures for visitors and education, training and publicity plans. It is also advisable to carry out exchanges with similar entities and institutions dealing with heritage and tourism.

Annual Operational Plans include projects to be implemented in the short term which are already funded or have guaranteed funding. These plans should include the most up-to-date diagnosis of the area. These diagnoses should make use of the WTSO matrix (weaknesses, threats, strengths and opportunities).

Annual plans should be established for each thematic programme and projects, indicating objectives and specifications, dates of implementation, professional competences of the persons involved and the budget foreseen. Operational plans allow the action plan to be reoriented according to new situations or problems that may arise.

Management effectiveness

The action plan should specify the methods that will be used to monitor its effectiveness, i.e. it should identify four basic aspects: institutional/administrative, environmental/financial natural, socio-cultural/economic.

Assessing the effectiveness of management contributes to improving protection by supporting administrations to improve their day-to-day management.

In order to prepare and carry out the assessment process, it is recommended to form a multidisciplinary technical team and organise a workshop involving all key actors.

The analysis of problems should be performed by referring from general to specific ones, describing causes, actions to deal with them, products and results of actions, and by preparing a final report presenting the outcome of the analysis.

The report should include an account of limitations encountered and errors made during the assessment process and outline very clear recommendations to improve

management. Priorities and allocation of resources will be based on these recommendations.

4. Participation of experts, involved sectors and the public in the preparation of cultural landscape management plans

The European Landscape Convention of 2000, while noting the need for interdisciplinary and intersectoral research for the protection, management and planning of landscapes, indicated the need to build teams made up of specialists in different disciplines and professions dealing with the same research and operational assumptions from different perspectives and insights derived from special models of preparation.

The European Commission's 2011 report ⁸⁵identified a list of professionals directly involved in landscape management teams, whether throughout the entire process, or at its individual stages, or collaborating in the implementation of special types of projects depending on their characteristics:

- *Landscape planners*: professionals with track record of long professional tradition and representing various educational backgrounds. They deal with the design, formalisation, renovation and planning of landscapes. Therefore, their work initially focuses on gardens and urban parks, later extending to all types of open and developed areas;

- *Landscape architects*: similarly to landscape planners, but originating from an architectural background, the participation of architects in a landscape management project is important. The ability to formalise or develop projects, design, renovation, urban planning, etc. are among the professional skills of strategic importance for most landscape management projects;

- *Geographers*: landscape is one of the fundamental topics in geography. Starting with regional, spatial and territorial analysis, geographers have extended the scope of their work to aspects such as the analysis of current landscape design, regional development and planning. Their participation in the analysis and proposal stages guarantees strategic results for the creation and definition of management projects;

⁸⁵ Report of the Council of Europe CEP-CDPATEP (2011) 13E "Management of the territory: landscape management as a process"

- *environmental scientists, ecologists and biologists*: landscape ecology has made major contributions to the understanding of the functioning of landscapes and their structure as systems. The knowledge of such specialists qualifies them to analyse the socio-economic aspects of landscapes and to integrate environmental sustainability criteria into projects;

- *engineers*: they can help establish criteria to improve site selection, reduce landscape impact and integrate buildings and important infrastructure into the landscape. Based on their expertise (on such important aspects as CEP-CDPATEP (2011) I3E mobility or energy infrastructure, technical and environmental services, industrial installations, etc.), their contribution to individual projects can be decisive;

- *urban planners*: professionals who have a background in various disciplines (architecture, engineering, law, environmental science, geography, economics, etc.) and work in the field of urban planning and management in towns and cities. They enrich the process of landscape management with criteria for the use of the area, the distribution of activities and buildings in a way that is compatible with the qualities of the landscape, goals for landscape enhancement and guidelines for landscape planning. An urban planning perspective can provide the landscape management team with an overview of planning measures for different uses and activities in urban and non-urbanised areas, as well as regulations and parameters governing urban constructions and rural areas;

- *lawyers*: their in-depth knowledge of current laws and regulations in urban planning and sectoral instruments provides management teams with the necessary facilities to develop projects, such as "legal mapping of the territory". Moreover, lawyers assist in the preparation and formulation of objectives and proposals in project management and are authorized to conduct negotiations, public consultations and territorial mediation processes and, together with other professionals, play a role in preventing or resolving conflicts;

- *heritage managers*: culture and cultural heritage have become a very important factor in knowledge society, relying on their ability not only to change people's lives but also to carry out serious economic activities concerning culture, related to leisure, tourism or training. The contribution of specialists such as historians, archaeologists, anthropologists, etc., fits perfectly into the heritage and cultural dimension of the landscape;

- *sociologists and political scientists*: the experience of these specialists in the fields of social and political sciences is particularly useful in the identification of social partners, identifying precisely the social networks that have formed in a given area and ensuring

cooperation with the landscape operators through the preparation and implementation of citizen participation procedures. They also act as mediators in governance and work together with other professionals to reach agreements through negotiation and public consultation;

- *tourism managers*: Tourism, especially cultural tourism, exploits landscape as a *leitmotiv* and a valuable resource in developing its economic activities. Tourism managers pay great attention to the management of the natural and cultural heritage of an area. Engaging such professionals is important in landscape management projects to generate or enhance landscape capital associated with recreation and tourism activities;

- *agricultural and forestry engineers*: the participation of these specialists in the landscape management process is useful in formulating realistic proposals and actions for the landscape management project, and then in drafting and implementing the various implementation instruments (codes of good agricultural practices, technical plans for forestry support, landscape designs for parks and gardens, etc.), taking into account the requirements and opportunities of agricultural, forestry and horticultural production;

- *landscape educators*: the contribution of these professionals (teachers, educational researchers and other social science training professionals) stems from their ability to integrate criteria and define strategies into landscape management processes in order to raise public awareness of citizens and to promote landscape education and create a positive attitude towards it;

- *communication experts*: the background and experience of these experts can be useful in the dissemination of the assumptions, main ideas and proposals forming the main description of the management project. They can also be called upon at various stages of the public participation process, which takes place simultaneously with the management process;

- *economists*: experts in economic and business sciences can help define strategies to ensure that management projects are economically and financially viable. Involving company executives, managers and directors in the promotion of such projects requires the use of business terminology and various techniques for the economic promotion of the tangible and intangible assets of the landscape, in the management of which these professionals must undoubtedly take part;

- *patronage and sponsorship experts*: some landscape management processes may benefit from working with these professionals when raising funds from individuals or

companies through their corporate social responsibility programmes. This can help prepare a funding programme to improve the development and implementation of proposals and activities within the landscape management programme;

- *psychologists*: most instruments and proposals in landscape management include aspects related to how individuals and social groups perceive the landscape in which they live and carry out their daily activities. Therefore, the input of psychologists and people from other disciplines can help the landscape management team utilise a variety of techniques and procedures to assess the physical and psychological benefits associated with landscape improvement proposals and activities on the communities living within the landscape;

- *other specialists*: artists, photographers, writers, poets, philosophers, musicians, film producers, advertisers, etc. Due to their knowledge of visual and sensory aspects and their ability to convey feelings, contemporary visions of the landscape and their artistic and spiritual values, these specialists can be an asset in a landscape management project at different stages of the procedure.

This specific composition of the management team will require the developer and the project coordinating manager to achieve maximum interdisciplinary cooperation within the available resources, i.e. he/she has to optimise the space allocated for cooperation between approaches and results coming from different disciplines and specialist capacities, so that each specific vision is tested or modified by others and different experts rethink their approach in the light of discussions with other members of the landscape⁸⁶ management team.

Stakeholder identification

Based on the project statement, the intention of the stakeholders is to have a wide range of people involved in the project from both inside and outside the organisation (the project team) who influence the outcomes and objectives of the management project. Therefore their needs (requirements and services) and retention must be considered in the conservation management process. According to this principle, stakeholders (tourism and residents) are involved in the process of cultural landscape conservation (from development to implementation) - so their recognition is important for the correctness of the process and the effectiveness of management.

⁸⁶ Report of the Council of Europe CEP-CDPATEP (2011) 13E "Management of the territory: landscape management as a process"

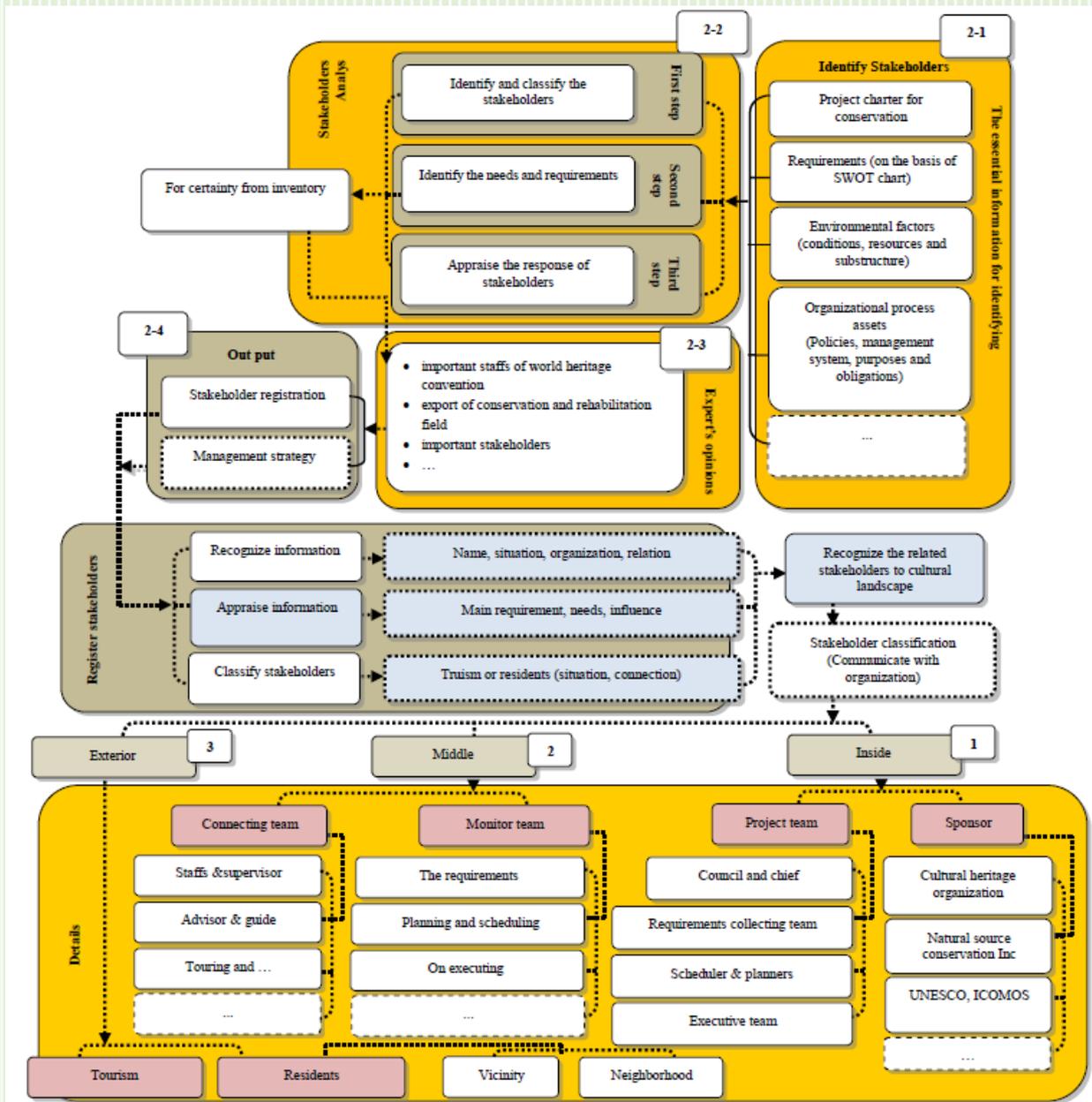


Fig. 3. The process of research and registration of stakeholders in the protection of cultural heritage (based on one of the project management methods), resource: Aryan Amirkhani, Nina Almasifar, 2014⁸⁷

⁸⁷ Aryan Amirkhani, Nina Almasifar, 2014, Scheduling a New Method for the Cultural Landscape Management as the Most Important Part of the World Heritage Conservation, 2014 4th International Conference on Biotechnology and Environment Management IPCBEE vol.75 (2014), IACSIT Press, Singapore DOI: 10.7763/PCBEE. 2014. V75. 5

Mapping key stakeholders - with a view to lay the groundwork for recruiting potential project partner and scoping other audiences that will need to be engaged. Questions that might guide this stakeholders analysis include:

- Who has regulatory control over the landscape?
- Who has political control?
- Who are the landscape custodians?
- Who are the beneficiaries? (from an economic and a social perspective, e.g. recreational user, businesses whose activities are affected by or reliant on landscapes)
- Who are the knowledge holders ? (including those holding data the study might need access to).⁸⁸

5. Impact of monitoring on the implementation of the management plan, appropriate selection of tools and indicators for controlling the cultural landscape

For many years, there was no consensus in the community of conservation professionals on the nature and necessity of monitoring. Recently, the World Heritage Committee together with ICCROM, ICOMOS and UICN have succeeded in clarifying the concept and promoting its use.

Monitoring is an intrinsic activity in the management cycle that measures and evaluates changes in the landscape; it gathers the information necessary to carry out corrective actions, if necessary to improve the conditions of the protected area or the management system. For the responsible authorities and other sectors involved, it is an essential instrument in assessing the effectiveness of their efforts.

Some of the reasons why monitoring is a very important tool:

- Identifies the necessary resources to improve governance;
- Contributes to enhancing the professional competence of staff responsible for management;

⁸⁸ Anne Jaluzot, Landscape Management Plan Methodology - technical report, 2012, <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320702101>

- Offers opportunities for community participation;
- Has impact on improvements in conservation technology;
- Stimulates or provokes local and national authorities to improve the conservation status and promotion of the site, etc.

5.1. Monitoring objectives

With regard to cultural assets, including cultural landscapes, monitoring takes place in three directions:

1. Assessment of endogenous and exogenous forces or pressures that affect sites.
2. Assessment of the overall conservation status of these sites.
3. Evaluation of the effectiveness of the developed management and conservation measures.

The necessary steps for each type of monitoring are as follows:

- carefully select the indicator to be monitored;
- identify the specific parameters to be considered for the indicator selected for monitoring;
- determine what are the acceptable limits of change, provided that the importance and value of the asset is preserved;
- select the indicators to be used according to predefined parameters.

In cultural landscapes, monitoring should record changes in both natural, as well as cultural and social systems. It should record any transformation that has occurred as a result of natural and anthropogenic forces.

Consequently, tourism is the primary target for monitoring due to the significant effects it exerts. Agricultural activities are another critical aspect, depending on how they are carried out and how they impact the landscape. The adaptation of conservation techniques to natural or cultural elements is also assessed, as these can be either positive or negative. Separate monitoring effort concerns intangible values: the preservation of traditions, ways and means of life manifested in the form of

costumes, food, drink, architecture and furniture, which are highly sensitive to change as a result of globalisation generated by the rapid growth of tourism, mass media or migration. In conclusion, it is worthwhile to test an implemented management system. It is also necessary to know any potential or foreseeable threats to these values.

5.2. Tools, necessary conditions related to monitoring

The choice of tools and appropriate indicators stems from the precise formulation of the monitoring objective.

The research carried out in the course of the development of the management plan will allow the formulation of a set of statistics and indicators to control the monitoring system.

On the one hand, the assessment needs reliable and precise data on the situation as it existed at the time the site was entered in the World Heritage List or when the management plan was adopted. On the other, an objective and detailed record of changes in the condition of the site, from the starting point to the monitoring date, needs to be made. It is necessary to identify the changes that have occurred and their consequences. At the same time it will be necessary to define acceptable limits of change. All actions and interventions should be documented and properly recorded so that they can be integrated into the database used for monitoring.

In all cases, staff with appropriate professional skills and equipment will be needed. Monitoring should always be carried out with the participation of the local community, a permanent local management team, an expert committee and the sectors involved.

It is important that tools and indicators are carefully selected according to the purpose of monitoring, and not the other way around.⁸⁹

⁸⁹ The Caribbean Capacity Building Programme (CCBP), *Module 4: Management of Cultural Landscapes*, drafted by Isabel Rigol. PDF online. p.45-47

6. Conclusion

The aim of the cultural landscape management process is to formulate and implement measures aimed at improving the landscape and the quality of life for inhabitants in the cultural landscape, aiming to promote sustainable development based on a stable, harmonious relationship between environmental, cultural, economic and social needs.

This process results in a management plan or cultural landscape management system that is more than just documentation. The management process is critical to developing relationships and engagement among key stakeholders who serve as the basis for planning and implementing the management plan. Strategic agreements are often documented in the management plan and include a variety of management actions, policies and regulatory structures. The plans prepared are limited, so it is very important to continually assess, review and revise the effectiveness of the adopted management strategy to respond effectively to changing circumstances.

The preparation of a cultural landscape management plan is part of a larger management process. Management plans identify heritage values and features, set accepted management objectives to be achieved and indicate actions to be implemented. The management plan is therefore an important tool towards understanding between stakeholders and the general public through implementation and ongoing management activities.

All management processes require constant evaluation of their results. When it comes to cultural landscape management, assessing the development and implementation of the management plan and the achievement of objectives also requires a range of appropriate methods and instruments.

To this end, indicators should be developed using all qualitative and quantitative factors which help to secure landscape information and monitor the development and progress of the landscape subject to a management plan. It is also necessary to bear in mind and study the level of public satisfaction with the results of the implemented or pending actions, and to measure the effectiveness of the public and private initiatives evolved from the agreements drawn up during the consultation and mediation processes.

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Best Practice Handbook on Modern Management of Cultural Heritage

**Developed within project UNINET: University Network for Cultural
Heritage – Integrated Protection, Management and Use**

Co-funded by the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union

Key Action 2: Strategic Partnership Projects

Contract n° 2018-1-PL01-KA203-051085



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