The Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic is at the core of the Brecks distinctive landscape.

Conifer plantations sliced with rides. An abrupt, changing landscape of dense blocks and sky.

Secret river valleys thread through the mosaic of heaths, plantations and farmland.

The Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic is at the core of the Brecks distinctive landscape.
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Introduction

Context

This landscape character assessment focuses on the Brecks, a unique landscape of heaths, conifer plantations and farmland on part of the chalk plateau in south-west Norfolk and north-west Suffolk. It was commissioned in 2013 by the Brecks Partnership as part of the suite of documents required for a Heritage Lottery Fund bid entitled ‘Breaking New Ground’. However, it is intended to be a stand-alone report which describes the distinctive character of the Brecks and supports the positive management of the area.

The study area is the whole of the Brecks National Character Area (NCA 85), one of 159 such NCAs across England. The NCAs are areas that share similar landscape characteristics and which follow natural lines in the landscape rather than administrative boundaries, making them a useful framework for land management decisions.

Objectives

Landscape character assessment (LCA) has been developed as a means of identifying

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1 Natural England, National Character Area profile:85 - The Brecks, 2013
what it is that makes a landscape special and distinctive - its ‘sense of place’. By articulating and describing the distinctive characteristics of different types of landscape, LCA can be used to inform decisions about landscape planning and management that can guide future change. The aim is to conserve and enhance the distinctive landscape character that makes places like the Brecks special, counteracting forces for change that may otherwise erode local distinctiveness.

The twin objectives of the Brecks LCA are to:

• provide a technical assessment of the area by developing landscape typologies and descriptions, with guidelines for their future management, together with appropriate digital mapping.

• develop a public-facing narrative that tells the story of the landscape, defining landscape areas that make sense locally and with which people can associate. The intention is that this narrative will help improve people’s understanding of the Brecks, their connection to it, and thereby building their ‘sense of place’.

The assessment and guidance will be used, outwith the Breaking New Ground project to influence and inform land management decisions.

Status
The study area covers parts of Norfolk, Suffolk and a (very small) part of Cambridgeshire. It falls within five different local planning authorities (LPA):

• Kings Lynn & West Norfolk (Norfolk);
• Breckland (Norfolk);
• Forest Heath (Suffolk);
• St Edmundsbury (Suffolk); and
• East Cambridgeshire (Cambridgeshire).

Each of these LPAs has its own policies covering environment and planning issues and this LCA sets out to supplement and complement these existing formal decision-making frameworks. It draws on the existing LCAs within the area (see page 31), re-interpreting the material to provide a tailored, ‘Brecks-centric’ LCA which fits within the hierarchy of available landscape characterisation work. The adopted LCAs will remain the principal reference for development control policy, but this Brecks LCA will provide supplementary detailed information on local landscape character and guidance for managing change to conserve and enhance that character.

Structure of the report
Following this introduction, the report is subdivided into the following four sections:

1. Evolution of the landscape - an overview of the physical character of the Brecks, the history of human settlement and the development of the region’s distinctive land cover and biodiversity.

2. Landscape character – summary of existing landscape character assessments and description of the specific landscape typology that has been developed for the Brecks. These sections identify landscape elements and features that are particularly sensitive to change and provide guidance for directing landscape change so that it conserves and enhances distinctive landscape character.

3. Local landscapes – five case studies which demonstrate how the Brecks LCA can be used to interpret landscape character and landscape history at a local scale. The case studies tell the story of these local landscapes, illustrating how the landscape has evolved from post glacial times to the present day. They highlight the remnant historic features that help to create a strong local identity, contributing layers of meaning and a sense of time-depth in the landscape.

4. The Brecks in literature -The Chairman of the Brecks Society explores how the landscapes of the Brecks have motivated and inspired writers through the centuries.
Evolution of the landscape

Physical influences
Overview of topography, geology and soils

Human influences
Evolving history of the land, from prehistoric to present-day

Biodiversity
Land cover and the development of valuable biodiversity habitats
Brecks geology, landform and soils

The distinctive character of the Brecks stems from the underlying chalk bedrock, the effects of glaciations, which left only a thin mantle of soil covering the chalk, and the freeze-thaw conditions that occurred in the final stages of the last Ice Age.

Bedrock

The Brecks lie on the broad band of chalk that extends diagonally across England from the Chilterns to north-west Norfolk. Generally the chalk is upstanding as a gentle ridge, but the Brecks lie on a slight depression between Newmarket and Swaffham where the chalk forms a low plateau, 15-30m above sea level.
Chalk was formed around 90 million years ago from the minute calcite plates shed from marine organisms that accumulated in deep layers on the bed of a great sea. The resulting calcite ooze gradually consolidated to form rock which was subsequently uplifted to form ridges. In East Anglia, the chalk strata are inclined eastwards towards the North Sea, with the harder, grey Lower Chalk forming the lower part of the chalk escarpment which faces westwards over the Fen Basin. The overlying Upper Chalk is paler and typically contains nodules of flint, formed from the silica of sponges and microscopic marine creatures.

**Shaping the land**

The topography of the Brecks was shaped by the Ice Age glaciers, particularly the Anglian Glaciation in which lobes of ice extended right across Suffolk to the northern edge of the London Basin. The glaciers gouged out the relatively soft, older Mesozoic rocks to the west of the chalk to form the fen basin and transported huge quantities of these clays to the east and south, where they were dumped to form the chalky boulder clays (Lowestoft Till) of central Norfolk and Suffolk.

The ice sheets left a relatively low, gently undulating chalk plateau, which rises to the north. The deposits of chalky boulder clay and
outwash gravels left by the retreating Anglian glaciers vary in thickness and composition. On the Brecks the deposits are relatively thin and sandy; to the east they are very much deeper and more clayey. The thick boulder clays of central Suffolk have formed higher land and the main rivers of the Brecks – the Nar, Wissey, Thet/Little Ouse and the Lark flow westwards from these more elevated claylands, cutting through the low dry chalk plateau of the Brecks, before flowing into the fen basin.

**Periglacial influences**

After the Anglian, there was a further sequence of warmer interglacial and freezing glacial periods but the glaciers formed during the two subsequent glaciations did not reach further south than the Norfolk Coast. The Brecks were untouched by these later ice sheets, but the repeated freezing and thawing that occurred in the periglacial conditions suffered by areas to the south of the glaciers were particularly influential on the thin chalk soils of the Brecks. Here the surface layers of chalk and glacial till deposits were shattered by alternate freezing and warm conditions. Mildly acidic rainwater gradually dissolved and leached the chalk from the surface layers leaving an insoluble surface residue of sand to accumulate. In places deep layers of sand may have been formed by wind blown drifts.

The surface layer sands of the Brecks, which caused such havoc during the 19th century ‘sand blows’, formed during these periglacial conditions. The subsurface layers of chalk, gravel, sand, loam and chalky boulder clay are typically covered by a surface layer of sand – in many areas the sand layer is only 1-2cm thick, but in the Elveden area it may be as much as 5m deep!
Local erosion (in part by wind) created ridges of chalk alongside troughs filled with sand and the contrasting soil types often produce striking variations in vegetation, with bands of acid-loving heather separated by chalk grassland. Areas where these contrasts occur are known as the ‘patterned ground’ and the variations are even visible on arable land as crops grow more vigorously on the chalky, moisture-retaining soils.

The freeze-thaw pattern of the periglacial climate also led to the development of ground ice depressions, commonly known as ‘pingos’. These circular hollows, filled with water or fen vegetation typically occur in clusters, as at Thompson, Foulden and East Harling Commons.

Fluctuating meres, such as those at Fowlmere and Ringmere, may also have formed during the post glacial period. They are karstic formations which are often fed by springs so that water levels fluctuate according to the degree of groundwater saturation in the chalk.
'Patterned ground' at Brettenham Heath. Stripes and polygons of different vegetation types reflect underlying contrasts in soil as acid and calcareous soils are juxtaposed.
Topography

The Brecks plateau is drained by four river systems – the Nar, Wissey, Thet/Little Ouse (with the Black Bourn) and the Lark, which flow westwards into the Fen Basin from the higher land to the east. Parts of the valley of the River Nar are steep sided but, with this exception, the other rivers flow across the Brecks within very shallow valleys, often with almost no perceptible valley slopes at all.

The central chalk plateau is relatively flat or gently rolling, but to the north of Thetford the plateau has a more distinct slope to the west, allowing long views towards the fens. Within the fen basin the land is completely flat and low lying, so even small ‘islands’ of chalk to the west of the main chalk plateau are noticeable. To the east, south and north of the Brecks, where thick layers of chalky boulder clay predominate, the topography becomes more dynamic and rolling, with views in all directions.
Soils

The soil map shows that the chalklands of the central Brecks are overlain by sands and loamy sands, which range from shallow, highly calcareous soils to leached acid soils with low fertility. Flints are common, particularly where the Upper Chalk strata lie close to the surface.

To the west of the chalk, repeated freshwater flooding within the fen basin led to the formation of marshes and the accumulation of deep layers of peat. Within the river valleys bands of alluvium and river terrace gravels mark the course of rivers past and present and to the east of the chalk there is a gradual transition to the thick boulder clays of central Norfolk and Suffolk.
Early settlers

Paleolithic (c.800,000 years ago) - Mesolithic

In Spring 2002, when the remains of at least eleven woolly mammoths were found at Lynford Quarry, it became apparent that this was a site of international significance for the study of our early human ancestors. The remains date back to around 60,000 years ago (the Middle Palaeolithic period). This site also contained numerous stone tools and is believed to show evidence of hunting by Homo neanderthalensis.

Following the last glaciations, warmer climatic conditions allowed the development of pine-birch and then a mixed oak forest, roamed by herds of deer and boar. Britain was connected to north-west Europe at this time and bands of hunter-gatherers migrated across the land bridge. As the ice melted, sea levels rose and water flowed through the English Channel. By 6500 BC, Britain was isolated.

Small bands of hunter-gatherers lived in temporary settlements which have left very little archaeological evidence, but the sites used by these communities can still be traced from finds of Mesolithic flint tools, knapped flint and, from the later Mesolithic, flint axes. The distinctive flintwork from this period includes many small pieces of flint with sharp edges known as microliths, which were inset into the heads of wooden spears and arrows for use used in hunting.

The Brecks is exceptionally rich in flint evidence from this period which suggests that Mesolithic communities settled along the river valleys, beside the meres and on the edge of the fen basin, for instance at Lakenheath and Wangford. Scatters of flints and microliths on higher, drier land may relate to the sites of temporary hunting camps.

Neolithic (c.4000 – 2100BC)

As sea levels rose, the fen basin became increasingly flooded and peat began to develop in the deeper valleys. The lighter soils of the Brecks were favoured by the early farming communities of the Neolithic period, but the distribution of flint artefacts suggests that settlement remained concentrated along river valleys and the fen edge. Evidence from sites such as Hurst Fen, Mildenhall, Fornham All Saints and from the pollen record at Hockham Mere suggests that communities lived in small farmsteads, clearing the surrounding woodland, cultivating wheat and barley and keeping pigs, goats, sheep and cattle. A sudden decline in the proportion of elm in the mixed oak-alder-elm woodland and a marked rise in grass, heather and herb pollens suggests that the landscape became more open at this time and that areas of heathland had developed.
The semi-sedentary lifestyle of these early farming communities placed pressure on resources and the environment, which led to the development of enclosures and ritual monuments. For instance the site at Fornham All Saints has two linked causewayed enclosures overlain by a 1.8km-long linear cursus which has a cluster of hengi-form ring ditches at its end.

The flint mines at Grimes Graves were established towards the end of the Neolithic. Shafts were dug 13m down into the chalk, with radiating galleries to exploit a seam of fine, dark tabular flint known as ´floorstone´. The flint was extracted using antler picks. These extensive mines would have required a separate industrial community, supported by the agricultural economy. Trackways like the Icknield Way, an ancient trackway which broadly followed the crest of the chalk ridge from southern England to Norfolk, are likely to have been used as trading routes from Neolithic times, supporting the industry at Grimes Graves. A Cornish stone axe found at Grimes Graves indicates that the trade was a two-way one.

**Bronze Age (c.2100 – 700BC)**

Woodland clearance continued as more land was cultivated and grazed by stock and evidence from the excavation of Bronze Age barrows at Risby and Little Cressingham suggests that these landscapes were relatively open. Pottery evidence, together with the excavation of a Bronze Age settlement at West Row on the edge of the fens, demonstrate that fen edge sites continued to be favoured for settlement.

Items of metal, copper and bronze, such as those found at Hockwold on the fen edge, indicate trade links with continental Europe and the development of new more decorated styles of pottery may suggest the emergence of a more hierarchical society.
Round Bronze Age barrows were highly visible burial graves which sometimes contained high quality metalwork. Many round barrow sites in the Brecks are on higher slopes, away from the main settlements, indicating that they may have been landmarks, sited to be seen against the local skyline in the open landscape.

**Iron Age (c.700 BC – AD43)**

The spread of iron technology led to the development of a more diverse economy. These communities could use the iron they made to develop more sophisticated, stronger tools, which allowed them to farm a wider range of soil types, and to make more effective weapons. Finds of decorated jewellery, weapons and chariot –rein rings suggest a strongly hierarchical society and, towards the end of the Iron Age, the first coins were minted.

The names of regional tribes were first recorded by Julius Caesar after his invasions of 55 and 54 BC. The Iceni tribe were dominant in the Brecks and the surrounding region at this time and retained administrative and some political autonomy after the Roman invasion. However, the balance of power shifted after the death of the Iceni ruler (Prasutagus) when the Romans asserted their authority. In retaliation, Prasutagus’ widow, Boudica, led a famous revolt against the Romans – she was eventually defeated, but not before her army had overrun several newly established Roman towns.

The classic Iron Age hillforts on elevated summits did not exist in the relatively flat landscapes of the Brecks, but the distribution of Iron Age coins and other metalwork suggests that the Brecks was an important centre for the Iceni tribe. There were major defended enclosures at Barnham, underlying Thetford Castle and at Gallows Hill in Thetford. The Thetford Castle site is close to a crossing of the rivers Thet and Little Ouse and may have had a control function over movements and trade. Excavations at nearby Gallows Hill suggest that this site was a tribal ceremonial centre (rather than a farming site) perhaps indicating that such defended sites were not only used for military purposes (Barnham may have had a similar, but earlier function). Its abrupt demolition coincides with the date of Boudica’s rebellion and the Roman’s destruction of any centres of Icenian power and prestige.

Most Iron Age settlement was in the form of farmsteads, sited along river valleys. Excavations of an important site at West Harling suggest a group of farmsteads, but elsewhere there is evidence for single, self-sufficient farmsteads (as at West Stow).

**Romans (AD 43 – AD 410)**

Having overthrown the Iceni, the Romans established regional centre for the former tribal centre at Caistor St Edmund in Norfolk. The Romans established a network of roads which may include the Peddar’s Way. Within the Brecks, local market centres at Icklingham, Thrextton, Hockwold and Brettenham developed at road and river crossing points. Excavations at Icklingham have revealed a linear spread of features including a building with underfloor heating, two cemeteries (one at each end of the town), pottery kilns, a possible pagan temple and a 4th century church.2

Other smaller settlements developed, often with specialist economies such as peat cutting, agriculture or salt making. Examples were the fen edge villages of Methwold and Feltwell.

At Feltwell, Mildenhall and Eriswell, archaeological excavations suggest high status villa sites, with adjacent bathhouses and at Hockwold cum Wilton, cropmarks, earthworks and artefacts suggest a substantial settlement, with buildings for religious, domestic and agricultural purposes.

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2 Breckland Archaeological Survey 1994-6, Kate Sussams
Migration from north-west Europe led to the emergence of an Anglo Saxon culture, with new rituals, styles of pottery, metal work and burial practices. Evidence for the character of Early Saxon settlement is provided by excavations at West Stow, an Early Saxon settlement on the slopes of the Lark Valley. They indicate a farming community with seven groups of buildings, each centred on a timber ‘hall’ and each likely to represent a family unit. The settlement is likely to have been self sufficient, growing wheat, barley, rye and peas and keeping sheep, cattle, pigs, horses and goats. Most Anglo Saxon settlements were close to rivers and the local economy would have been supplemented by fishing, wildfowling and some hunting of deer.

Much of the archaeological evidence from this period is from the excavation of Early Saxon, pre-Christian cemeteries, which indicate that a rich mixture of cremation and inhumation was practised and that grave-goods were often buried with the dead. The cremated remains were contained within pottery urns and the larger cremation cemeteries, such as that at Lackford, served several communities.

A number of defensive boundary ditches are likely to date from the Early Saxon period, including the Devils Dyke to the south-west of the Brecks, the Fossditch and the smaller Black Ditches, which are aligned across the Icknield Way near the River Lark at Cavenham Heath. The exact purpose of these defences is not known as they face different directions, but they suggest that communities were living under the threat of attack and were keen to define the edges of their territories.

A significant change in settlement pattern occurred in the 7th century, possibly as a result of the introduction of Christianity, which saw communities move from more dispersed settlements to more nucleated settlements, often with a church. The new settlements are associated with finds of a more sophisticated wheel-made pottery known as Ipswich Ware. A wealthy settlement which dates from this Middle Saxon period has been excavated at Brandon on the edge of the Little Ouse. Over twenty timber buildings have been excavated, including large halls, a church and two burial grounds. The finds suggest an aristocratic, literate community as they include metal stylí for writing and a gold plaque depicting John the Baptist which is likely to have been part of the cover of a book. Evidence suggests that this
was not a farming community and that it was served by produce from a separate village. The settlement was abandoned by AD 900, perhaps because of rising water levels or perhaps as a result of Viking invasion.

During this period, a rising population and increasing mobility led to the development of a more hierarchical settlement pattern. Viking raids became frequent and Edmund, the East Anglian king was killed in one of the conflicts. The Anglo Saxon Chronicle records how in 879 King Guthrum, the Viking leader went from Cirencester into East Anglia and settled there and shared out the land. The Vikings adopted Christianity and the evidence from metal finds suggests the widespread influence of Scandanavian style and culture.

Thetford had long been an important local trading centre, but in the late Anglo Saxon period it grew and prospered, despite at least two devastating Viking raids. It was a centre for pottery, clothmaking and leather working and had its own mint. In 1066 Thetford had 943 privileged burgesses and 13 churches and, by the early eleventh century, the town had become one of the largest and most important towns in England. The East Anglian bishopric was relocated to Thetford from North Elmham in 1075 although, according to the 1086 Domesday Book, Thetford suffered a rapid decline as 224 house sites were recorded as empty in this year. The most likely explanation is that the town suffered as a result of an unsuccessful revolt staged by Ralph Guader, Earl of Norfolk in 1075. Thetford’s prosperity also seems to have suffered from relocation of the Bishopric to Norwich in 1094.

**Medieval (1066 – 1550)**

Farming communities in the medieval Brecks used an ‘infield-outfield’ system of cropping that was typical of that part of East Anglia, but quite different from the classic three field system used throughout the Midlands. Over most of East Anglia, arable land was rarely enclosed or segregated into a set field pattern. Instead there was a complex system of field units that varied from village to village. Soil fertility was the determining factor, with the better soils cropped more intensively. The drier land in the central Brecks had less arable land and more extensive areas of grazing and warrens than parishes on the eastern edge.

The presence of medieval watermills along the Brecks valleys suggests that grain was produced locally but maintaining soil fertility depended on careful management of sheep flocks. Sheep were grazed on the heaths during the day and then ‘folded’ on fallow arable land to manure it overnight. This system required communal work and medieval foldcourses were often defined by

Thetford Warren Lodge was probably built around 1400 by the Prior of Thetford. It is a defensive building which housed guards who protected the rabbits of Thetford Warren from poachers.
markers and dykes. Rabbit farming was also an important part of the medieval economy and rabbits ran with the sheep on the heaths. Rabbits were particularly suited to the relatively dry climate and sandy soils of the Brecks and large numbers were sold at local markets. The larger rabbit warrens were protected from poachers by guards who were based at warren lodges. There was little woodland at this time, but local peasants had the right to cut fern and bracken for fuel on the heaths, though often this practice was regulated and only permitted at specified times of the year.

Overall, the settlements described at Domesday persisted and population densities in the Brecks were lower than in other parts of East Anglia, with an average of *only 15 tenants per 100 acres, as opposed to over 30 in many parts of Norfolk and Suffolk*. The simple style and small stature of medieval churches in the Brecks suggests that the area was relatively poor, although larger churches within the fen edge villages may indicate more prosperity in this part of the Brecks. Population decline and economic recession in the 15th century led to the use of longer fallow periods on arable land, resulting in the rapid incursion of bracken and gorse and reversion to heathland.

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3 *A Marginal Economy? East Anglian Breckland in the later Middle Ages*, Mark Bailey, 1989
Court records suggest that there was an active land market, particularly as rising population put pressure on soils that were of limited fertility. However the process of land division was halted by the advent of the Black Death and land holdings became increasingly concentrated in fewer hands. For instance, at Sturston the local landlord was accused of having seized arable land, pulled down several houses and converted the commons for his own use⁴.

Thetford became a monastic centre, with a Cluniac priory, an Augustinian friary and a Dominican friary, together with a college of priests and six hospitals. However much land within the Brecks was controlled by absent landlords, principally the abbeys at Bury St Edmunds and Ely. The mid 16th century dissolution of the monasteries resulted in another major shift in land holdings as these extensive monastic estates were sold off to lay owners.

⁴ Sussams op cit (original source is Allison, The Lost Villages of Norfolk, Norfolk Archaeology 31, 1955)
Post medieval (1550 - present day)

The pattern of land holdings that defined the medieval landscape has been largely overridden by later large scale landscape change, from the 18th century by the large landed estates and in the 20th century by military influences and the development of post war conifer plantations.

Landed estates

The Brecks had a number of landed estates from the 15th and 16th centuries, but the subsequent increase in the popularity of hunting led to a proliferation of estates in the area. By the early 17th century the open heaths near Thetford were used for hunting, including by King James I, who bought King’s House in Thetford for his use during hunting excursions. The major increase in landed estates came in the 18th century, when landscape parks and hunting became fashionable. The relatively low land prices, abundance of game and low population density of the Brecks attracted many new landowners at this time including Sylvanus Bevan at Riddlesworth and Stephen Payne Galway at West Tofts.

Shooting was an important pastime on the estates and Elveden was particularly well known. Trees were planted in vast numbers – as cover for game, but also to provide visible boundaries to the estates in a relatively open landscape. The construction of these parks obliterated the earlier medieval farming patterns and also sometimes led to the demolition of nearby villages eg at Little Livermere and Lynford.

The larger landholdings had advantages over the small-scale medieval field systems in that there was scope for economies of scale and for making use of the latest innovations, particularly new crops such as turnips and extensive marling techniques. The farmers were also able to rationalise sheep farming, providing more manure for soil improvement. Overall there was an increase in ‘brecking’ – temporary cultivation of heathland at this time.

The use of rabbit warrens increased throughout the 18th and 19th centuries and warrens were often enclosed by earth banks to define warren ownership and prevent damage to neighbouring crops.

Sand blows and pine lines

Large areas remained poor grazing land and Thomas Wright’s 1668 evocative description of the ‘wandring’ sands at Santon Downham demonstrate the problems of an impoverished sandy soil in areas with limited vegetation cover. Diarist John Evelyn (1677) described 'the

5 Published in Philosophical Transactions 3, 1668 722-725
Travelling Sands about ten miles wide of Euston, that have so damaged the country, rolling from place to place, and like the sands in the Deserts of Libya. Later travellers, including Francois de la Rochefoucauld, who visited the area in 1784, also highlighted the aridity of the Brecks. He described ‘A large quantity of shifting sand in which the district abounds...covered with heather in every direction as far as the eye can see....everywhere sand, everywhere little clumps of reeds and bracken. A large portion of this arid country is full of rabbits, of which the numbers astonished me.’

The Parliamentary Enclosure Acts of the late 18th century and early 19th century encouraged landlords to enclose the open fields and heaths, although in practice many enclosed their land of their own accord. Large rectangular fields were divided by straight roads and enclosed by Scot’s pine shelterbelts and plantations. The pine lines that are now such iconic landmarks in the Brecks originated as pine hedges, planted in the early 19th century. The method used was described by David Elisha Davy in 1829:

Within 2 miles of Brandon, I observed a mode, to me at least new, of raising a good fence in a very bad soil; a bank is thrown up, about 4 or 5 feet high, and of considerable thickness at the bottom; upon the top of this is planted a row of Scotch firs, as thick as they can stand; these seem to make rapid progress in this soil and branching out towards the sides, immediately from the ground, and have the addition al very strong recommendation of affording the best shelter from storms to the sheep and cattle what are fed, or rather starved upon the land.’

The fact that the pine rows were planted on both calcareous and acidic soils suggests that the practice may have been a fashion at the time, much like the trend for floated water meadows on the great estates, which allowed landowners to show off their improving techniques. Most pine rows were managed as hedgerows, although some may not ever have been cut, and most were subsequently left to grow out to form the lines of Scot’s pine that are so characteristic of the Brecks landscape today.

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6 In ‘A Marginal Economy? East Anglian Breckland in the later Middle Ages, Mark Bailey, 1989
8 The Breckland Pine Rows: History, Ecology and Landscape Character, Tom Williamson, 2010
9 Williamson op.cit.
Conifer forests

Despite the extensive planting on landed estates, the Brecks remained a relatively open landscape until after World War I, when a national shortage of timber led to the 1919 Forestry Bill. By this time persistent agricultural depression had reduced the price of land and much of the ‘improved’ land had been abandoned. Extensive blocks of land were compulsorily acquired by the Forestry Commission at a relatively low price, including Brecks estates such as Elveden and Downham Hall. Early planting was predominantly Scot’s pine, but Corsican pine was later more widely planted. Early plans for substantial broadleaf plantings were not fully realised as it was found that species such as beech, oak, American red oak and birch did not grow easily on the infertile soils and in the relatively harsh climatic conditions of the Brecks10.

Military sites

The Brecks became important for military use in World War II, when the flat topography and relative isolation of the area led to the development of ‘expansion period’ airfields at Mildenhall, Feltwell, Honington and Watton. These early airfields were subsequently expanded, along with additional dummy sites which were intended to provide a screen for the ‘real’ bases. The large scale of the Brecks and the low density of population also made the area suitable for bombing practice.

The military remains a major influence in the Brecks, with a vast area of heathland used for military training. Local village communities in the area that was to become the Stanford Training Area were initially told they were being evacuated on a temporary basis, but the use of live ammunition has meant that it is not safe for people to live there and the area has since been subject to compulsory purchase.

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Biodiversity

Interconnections between physical character and land use history

The unique biodiversity of the Brecks stems from the region’s free-draining, nutrient-poor sandy soils and its micro-climate, which is relatively dry with extremes of temperature. The combination of drought, low rainfall, hot summers and cold winters has influenced the development of steppe-type vegetation and to an agricultural system that used the infertile soils for grazing and rabbit warrening and the alluvial river valley soils for more intensive cropping and fen products.

The grazed dry vegetation of the plateau developed as grass or heather-dominated heathland. For years, the medieval open-field system maintained and developed the low heathland flora: livestock grazing kept the nutrient levels of the heathland low, while overnight folding of sheep flocks on arable land increased the fertility of these areas, transferring nutrients from heath to arable land. The traditional fold course rotation produced large areas of fallow arable every year, encouraging flora that required open, regularly disturbed ground. During the 18th and 19th centuries, local agricultural rotations included the ‘brecks’, areas of heathland that were converted to arable and cultivated for a few years before being left to revert to heath again. This practice also broke up the ground, encouraging the development of the Brecks’ distinctive biodiversity.

Heathland was enclosed, marled and converted to arable throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, but the process was reversed in times of economic recession, when arable land was abandoned, creating sandy fallow Brecks which were grazed, mainly by rabbits. From the 1920s, large areas of heathland were forested and, with the use of fertilisers and irrigation, arable cultivation became increasingly intensive.

The diverse mosaic of fens, reedbeds, marshes and wet meadows within the river valleys has also been depleted as a result of drainage, reclamation, flood control and groundwater abstraction.

The scale and diversity of semi-natural habitats has been reduced, but the remnant areas of species-rich grassland, woodland, heathland, fen, marsh and reedbed form a valuable network, which sustains an exceptionally diverse flora and fauna.
Map 5 illustrates the present-day landcover in the Brecks. It shows the extent of land under conifer plantation, arable crops and improved grassland versus the relatively small remnant areas of broadleaved woodland, low productivity grassland and fen marsh.

Biodiversity

The Brecks Biodiversity Audit\textsuperscript{12} found that 28% of the priority S41 species in the UK occur in the Brecks and 72 species have their UK distribution restricted to the Brecks region. Map 6 shows the distribution of priority UK species in the Brecks, alongside a range of other habitat types. The key habitats which support the ecological network within the Brecks are:

- Lowland heath, acid grassland and calcareous grassland
- Valley marsh, fens and reedbeds
- Ponds – particularly the fluctuating mere and pingos
- Mixed and broadleaf woodland
- Pine rows and veteran trees; and
- Arable field and track margins (not shown on Map 6).

The remaining priority habitat is fragmented and species isolated in small sites are vulnerable to climate change.

Ecological designations

40% of the Brecks study area is covered by statutory conservation designations. These are shown on Map 7 and include sites of international, national and regional importance.

The international importance of the Brecks has been recognised by the designation of:

- Breckland Special Area of Conservation (SAC) totalling 7,548ha – for inland dunes with important open dry grassland habitats, dry heathland, semi-natural dry grassland and scrubland on calcareous substrate and habitats associated with the fluctuating meres;

- Norfolk Valley Fens SAC, which includes Foulden Common, Great Cressingham Fen and Thompson Common – for their calcium-rich spring fed vegetation and transitions to reed-swamp and other fen and wet grassland types

- Little Ouse Valley Fens SAC, which includes Market Weston and Hopton Fens for their calcareous fen and purple moor grass vegetation on calcareous, peaty or clayey soils.

- Breckland Special Protection Area (SPA) for the conservation of breeding populations of woodlark, nightjar and stone curlew.
There are 55 Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSIs) in the Brecks study area. These sites are of national importance and many are also within the Breckland SPA. The largest SSSIs in the Brecks are:

- The Breckland Farmland SSSI – for breeding populations of stone curlew, but the arable land is also important for the flora and invertebrates associated with arable field margins
- Breckland Forest – for woodlark and nightjar, as well as rare plants and invertebrates
- STANTA – for its mosaic of ancient heaths and grass heaths, as well as areas of plantation and wetland.

There are four National Nature Reserves in the Brecks – Cavenham Heath, Brettenham Heath, Weeting Heath and Thetford Heath and 583 County Wildlife Sites. There are also 48 Roadside Nature Reserves in the Brecks, which are designated for a range of important Brecks flora and fauna.
Landscape character assessment

Landscape character overview
The hierarchy of character mapping

Method and structure of the landscape character assessment
Explanation of landscape types and guidance, as an introduction to the sections that follow

Landscape character assessment
Description and analysis of the nine landscape character types
Landscape character overview

The Brecks LCA promotes the unique landscape character of the Brecks, the variety of different landscapes within the area and a record of what is distinctive and special within each landscape type, as well as landscape elements and features that are particularly vulnerable to change. It fits within the hierarchy of landscape character units established at national, county and district level. As the study location plan (Map 1 on page 5) shows, the Brecks LCA study area covers parts of three counties and five districts so a landscape character assessment of the Brecks must refer to and complement several existing assessments.

The Brecks LCA has not ‘started afresh’ but has used the existing LCAs as a core reference, reviewing and amending the boundaries of landscape types and drawing on the existing descriptions to develop a ‘Brecks-centric’ assessment. The core LCAs used as a reference are:

- East of England Regional Typology
- Suffolk County Landscape Typology
- Breckland District LCA
- Kings Lynn and West Norfolk LCA

Setting aside the larger scale East of England typology, the other three studies map 29 different landscape character types within the study area. The Brecks LCA refines these down to nine landscape types, which together describe the landscape character of the Brecks NCA.

The core distinctive landscape types of the Brecks are the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, the Brecks Plantations and the narrow River Valleys, but the boundary of NCA 85 incorporates parts of the contrasting landscapes that fringe the Brecks, including the Rolling Clay Farmlands to the north and east, the Plateau Estate Farmlands to the south and east and the Settled Fens to the west.

The nine Brecks landscape types are shown on Map 5 (page 26) and are described in detail in the subsections that follow. Note that a tenth landscape type, Rolling Chalkland Estates, is also shown on the map but is not described in this report because it is marginal to the character of the Brecks. Information about this landscape type can be found on the link to Suffolk County Council’s landscape typology.

Many landscape character assessments also define local, geographically specific landscape character areas. This level of detail has not been included in the Brecks LCA, where the focus is on landscape character types which best describe the way that people experience and recognise the Brecks – as areas of heath, plantation, farmland and river valley.

13 http://landscape-east.org.uk/east-england-landscape-typology
14 http://www.suffolklandscape.org.uk/landscape_map.aspx
Although the Brecks has a relatively large scale landscape pattern, people tend to experience the landscape in quite a compartmentalised way. This is because settlement has long been concentrated in the narrow river valleys and because large scale land uses, not least the extensive conifer plantations of Thetford Forest, the airfields and the fenced off STANTA, restrict views to substantial areas. Rather than map and describe the potentially large number of local landscape character areas in the Brecks, the Brecks LCA focuses on the pattern of landscape types.

Section 4 of this report explains how this pattern of landscape types has provided the framework for the specific land use history that sets the Brecks apart from surrounding landscapes. ‘Zooming in’ on five case study areas, it describes the evolution of local landscape character, illustrating how remnants from layers of history create ‘time-depth’ and a unique sense of place.
Method and structure of the landscape character assessment

The methodology for the Brecks LCA follows national guidance\(^\text{17}\). It is an ‘integrated LCA’ which provides a detailed, integrated description of the landscape type which covers relevant aspects of physical, historic, land use, biodiversity, settlement and aesthetic character in a fluent style. The sub-sections for each landscape type include an analysis of what is important and why?

This is an important part of the assessment which focuses on landscape sensitivity, significance and value. The two are closely inter-related as the most sensitive aspects of landscapes are typically those that are also important because they are unusual or special examples of their type. The methodology is set out in the Topic Paper on techniques for judging landscape capacity and sensitivity prepared by the former Countryside Agency (now Natural England)\(^\text{18}\) which considers:

- landscape character sensitivity - the degree to which the landscape is robust and able to accommodate change without adverse impacts on its character - records the sensitivity of individual elements of the landscape, particularly those that are critical to distinctive landscape character, as well as the physical condition and its ‘intactness’;
- visual sensitivity - the general visibility of the landscape (influenced by the screening effects of landform and land cover), the number and type of people likely to perceive any changes that occur and the potential scope to mitigate the visual effects of landscape change that might take place; and
- landscape value - areas of land that are recognised for their biodiversity, heritage or possible literary or artistic importance by designations or other published material such as guides or promoted walks.

Finally each landscape type section contains guidance for managing landscape change:

- Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic
- Brecks Plantation
- Low Chalk Farmland
- Rolling Clay Farmland
- Plateau Estate Farmland
- Settled Fen
- River Valleys
- Chalk River Valleys

The sub-sections that follow provide an integrated assessment of the character, and sensitivity of the nine landscape character types identified within the Brecks LCA, along with guidance for managing landscape change:

\(^{17}\) Landscape Character Assessment Guidance for England and Scotland, Countryside Agency, 2002

Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic
BRECKS LANDSCAPE CHARACTER ASSESSMENT

BRECKS LANDSCAPE CHARACTER ASSESSMENT

Landscape character

Flat or gently rolling plateaux with free draining, sandy soils overlie a varied mix of glacial sand, clay and gravel deposits. Much of the surface has a covering of acidic sands, but the sands often overlie a calcareous substrate and in some parts of the plateau the dominant soil type is a chalky rendzina. Occasionally the different types of soil are juxtaposed at a microscale creating areas of ‘patterned ground’ where contrasting stripes of chalk and acidic grassland/heather grow on slight ridges and troughs of sandy and chalky soils. Most examples have been ‘lost’ under encroaching tree and scrub cover but the phenomenon is visible on heaths and commons such as Brettenham Heath.

There are few watercourses on the plateaux of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, but scattered across the heaths to the north and east of Thetford, particularly near Wretham, are rounded meres or dolines, where water levels vary according to levels of saturation in the chalk bedrock below. Examples are Fowlmere, Mickle Mere, Ringmere and Langmere. Other, small-scale tightly clustered groups of marshy depressions and rounded pools are thought to be relic ground ice depressions which date
from periglacial times. Some of these are ‘pingos’ which formed when freezing ground-ice expanded to create a rounded mound, which subsequently collapsed to become a circular pond or wetland when the ice thawed as conditions warmed. These features usually occur where the underlying chalk bedrock is relatively close to the surface, mantled by shallow deposits. On the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic there are striking examples on and around Thompson Common and near the village of Great Hockham.

Pollen records from Hockham Mere suggest that a mosaic of heathy vegetation developed from Neolithic times, when early settlers first cleared post glacial vegetation. While permanent settlements were sited in river valleys, the higher, drier parts of the plateau were used for grazing, maintaining a fairly open landscape and encouraging the establishment of lowland heath. Relatively minor embankments would have been prominent in this open landscape and it is thought that the Bronze Age burial barrows sited along the upper margins of river valleys might have been prominent ‘markers’ in the landscape. There are many such tumuli throughout the central Brecks, but a good example is the Seven Hills on the ridge between the valleys of the River Thet and the Little Ouse near Brettenham – the line of barrows may have been visible from both valleys.

As the medieval economy developed, the dry, sandy soils of the upper chalk plateau were of marginal fertility and some were used as common land, for sheep grazing and as rabbit warrens. The layout of parishes was designed to provide a transect across a range of soil types, from the low lying silts of the river valleys to arable fields on the more calcareous soils and grazing lands on the seasonally dry plateaux. The latter were farmed as temporary outfields or ‘brecks’ which were grazed or later ploughed for a period of time before being left to revert to heath. Sheep were systematically moved from the heaths to overnight ‘folds’ on permanent arable land, which benefitted from the dung. The meres were an important source of water on the plateau and the boundaries of parishes sometimes converged to take advantage of them. For instance nine parishes meet near the mere at Rymer and six near Ringmere.
The earliest warrens were established on the poorest soils and were owned by ecclesiastical landlords: the Bishop of Ely had a warren at Brandon by 1252 and the prior and convent of Ely had received a specific grant of a warren at Lakenheath in 1300, but had held ‘free-warren’ hunting rights since 1251. Warrens were often enclosed by large turf embankments, which served to help keep the rabbits away from adjacent crops and to define ownership. The larger warrens had defensible lodges to protect gamekeepers and hunting parties against armed poachers.

The lack of water on the sandy Brecks plateaux and the relatively infertile soils discouraged the development of settlements, a pattern which persists today. Villages are concentrated on the...
sides of the valleys that run through the Brecks, with scattered small hamlets and farmsteads on the drier central plateaux.

From the 15th century onwards, low land prices and a sparse population, reduced by recurring outbreaks of plague, provided opportunities for the amalgamation of landholdings. This trend gathered pace in the 18th and 19th centuries when the popularity of game shooting and the cheapness of the land offered an opportunity for ‘new money’ to acquire the status symbol of a landed estate, for instance at Kilverstone and West Tofts. Many of the warrens and heaths became part of these shooting estates or were enclosed during the 18th and 19th century periods of agricultural improvement. The geometric pattern of fields, bordered by straight roads and tracks, that is so typical of the Brecks dates from the map-based work of surveyors at this time.

By the mid 19th century much of the Brecks was enclosed; the remaining extensive areas of common heathland and warrens were areas where the soil fertility was too low to merit investment. However during the agricultural depression of the 1880s and through into the early 20th century, much of the heathland that had been reclaimed during the enclosure was left to revert to heath, repeating the pattern of the local economy in previous centuries.
Written comments from travellers from the seventeenth century onwards suggest that the Brecks was a relatively barren, desert-like landscape, with vast tracts of sand and limited vegetation. Where overgrazing reduced the protective cover of vegetation, the sandy soils were subject to wind blow and sometimes formed dunes which moved across the landscape. The large landowners responded with an intensive programme of tree planting, initially on and around their mansions and parks, but also within the wider agricultural landscape. During the early 19th century, many landowners followed a fashion for planting Scots pine 'hedges' to enclose their fields. Scots pine grows successfully on the infertile, sandy Brecks soils and these early 19th century pine hedges, which have grown up to form pine trees with contorted, sculptural forms, are a distinctive feature of the Brecks today.

Today the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic is a large scale, extensive mosaic of lowland heath, rectilinear plantation woodlands, tree belts and arable fields, with some remaining areas of parkland. In the 20th century the widespread use of irrigation has transformed the agricultural potential of the land and irrigated vegetable crops form part of the agricultural mosaic. Pig farming is also common and often visually prominent. Most vernacular buildings are farmsteads, barns or estate buildings from the 18th and 19th centuries. Many are built of brick and a 'white'
brick which is actually yellowish grey or cream in colour is common near Culford and Thetford.

While agriculture is an important part of the local economy, extensive tracts of lowland heath are conserved as nationally and internationally important habitats. The core habitats are the open dry heaths, areas of acidic and calcareous grassland, inland sand dunes and the wetlands associated with meres and periglacial depressions. The citation for the Breckland Area of Special Conservation states that the Brecks contains mosaics of heather-dominated heathland, acidic grassland and calcareous grassland that are unlike those of any other site. The Brecks heaths support rare flora and fauna including rare plants such as perennial knawel (found on dry heaths), the grey hair-grass (found on active inland sand dunes) and ground nesting birds such as stone curlew, woodlark and nightjar.

This landscape was historically far more extensive than it is today, but a large area of the heaths and estates was planted with conifers by the Forestry Commission from the 1920s and is described as a separate landscape type – Brecks Plantations. The flat landform, sparse population extensive scale of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic landscape proved suitable for the development of World War II airfields, which were established at Lakenheath, Cavenham, Honington and Knettishall. The bases at Knettishall and Cavenham have since been disbanded: at Knettishall the land has reverted to agricultural use; at Cavenham the airfield site has been used for sand and gravel extraction. The extensive military training area at Stanford is cut off from public access, but has provided an opportunity for the conservation of an extensive area of rare and highly valued heath habitats.

This is a relatively open and very extensive landscape, with long views which are always framed by pine lines and plantations. The straight roads are busy noisy corridors of movement, but away from the roads the landscape feels remote and peaceful, with a touch of wilderness at times. The landscape has a richly textured, colourful and rather unkempt character – the smooth, cultivated arable fields contrast with the rough textures of the bracken strewn verges and pine lines alongside. Arable fields predominate, but intensive pig farming and some poultry farming also forms part of the land cover mosaic. The changing patterns and textures of the crops, meadows and verges contributes to the colourful character of the landscape.

Overall the diverse and historic pattern of heath, fields, plantations and pine rows and the rich sense of history stretching right back to Neolithic times, combine to make the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic an exceptionally distinctive and evocative landscape.
**What’s important and why?**

The diverse pattern of land uses and varied backdrop of woodland and tree belts ensures that, from a visual point of view, this landscape can generally accommodate change, through carefully designed woodland planting. However, the wild character and perceived remoteness of the open heaths is sensitive to landscape change; any built development, signage or fencing could be visually intrusive in this natural landscape. The pine lines are also important and sensitive landscape features because they are the most distinctive characteristic of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, instantly recognisable as representing the Brecks. But they are of similar age and are vulnerable to disease or general decline.

The international importance of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic for biodiversity must take precedence in judgements about this landscape’s capacity to accommodate change so overall the landscape is exceptionally vulnerable to change which would disrupt the delicate balance of factors which govern its biodiversity. The most sensitive habitats within the landscape mosaic are the areas of lowland calcareous grassland, lowland acid grassland and lowland heath, which support many rare flora and fauna. Other sensitive elements include the fluctuating meres, periglacial wetland features and headwater fens (particularly of the River Wissey), which are particularly vulnerable to water extraction (from the underlying chalk aquifer) and climate change.

The heritage features of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic are nationally important and there is an exceptionally dense concentration of historic features and sites which date from Neolithic times to World War II. The historic sites and settings of these features are often not well conserved and the loss of their historic landscape context makes some sites difficult to understand.

Generally the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic is in moderate –poor condition. The historic structure and features of the landscape, including the pine lines, thorn hedges, warren banks, roads and tracks are often in poor condition and many historic features are overgrown by woodland and scrub.
The diverse patchwork of fields, heath, woodland and tree belts provides a robust visual structure for accommodating landscape change. Areas that are managed for biodiversity are in good condition, many historic features are overgrown, the pine lines are deteriorating and the uniform age structure makes this locally distinctive feature vulnerable to change.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- The pine lines
- Open heathland with a richly textured micro-scale mosaic of heather, acidic and chalk grassland
- Fluctuating meres and wetlands (of periglacial origin)
- Diverse, balanced mosaic of land uses; open land predominates but is partially enclosed by tree belts
- Arable field margins, which are rich in flora and fauna
- Historic features, eg tumuli, trackways, warren banks and lodges

Long views are always framed by woodland blocks and/or pine lines but there is nevertheless a long depth of view. Some areas of heathland are exceptionally open. Overall the landscape feels moderately open, and most areas have good opportunities to mitigate the visual impact of landscape change.

This is an internationally important landscape, of value for its rare and vulnerable biodiversity and for its exceptionally long time-depth and concentration of heritage features. Specific international and national designations are:

- Breckland SPA
- Breckland, Waveney Little Ouse and Valley Fens and Norfolk Valley Fens SACs
- Numerous Scheduled Ancient Monuments, including ancient trackways and defensive embankments, Bronze Age Barrows, Neolithic flint mines, archaeological excavations for a range of prehistoric sites, deserted medieval villages, the remains of medieval rabbit warrens and historic parklands including Euston Park.
- SSSIs and national nature reserves – focused on heathland and mere

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Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic.

Conversion and expansion of farmsteads and small group of estate buildings, for agricultural, residential and/or commercial uses – The Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic does not have a history of clustered settlement but groups of farm buildings are often a focus in views, seen against a backdrop of tree belts and plantations. A few farmsteads incorporate listed buildings but many have good potential for expansion and for conversion to other uses, provided patterns of existing trees and woodlands are conserved and extended to provide a partial visual screen and integrate the new development. Guidance for integrating new farm development includes:

- Avoid or minimise the visual impact of new development in views across or adjacent to natural heathland, where such changes could detract from the natural, wild character of the heathland landscape which is increasingly scarce.
- Conserve the scale and proportion of the farmstead within the context of the surrounding large scale landscape. Farm buildings are typically seen in the middle distance across open fields and framed by woodlands and tree belts. Expansion of farmsteads in small-scale landscapes or in locations where they are alongside roads would be more difficult to accommodate without changing local landscape character.
- Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present. Brick is often used. Staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way, as a permanent dark or black colouring is not locally appropriate.
- Minimise visible changes to the surrounding agricultural landscape, as land use changes (including the introduction of garden boundaries, lighting and other suburban features) have the potential to be more visually intrusive than built development in this large scale landscape mosaic.
- Integrate new large-scale agricultural buildings in open countryside by careful choice of form, orientation and colour of buildings. Whenever possible, new agricultural buildings should relate to an existing cluster of buildings and to existing mature trees and woodlands which can provide a backdrop to views. Carefully designed tree planting, which extends the existing pattern of plantations, tree belts and hedgerows, will help to integrate and screen new agricultural development.
Redevelopment of former airfield sites – Existing fencing, hangar buildings, runways and signage can be visually intrusive and redevelopment may offer opportunities to improve the landscape and visual impact of such sites. Any strategic masterplan for redevelopment should incorporate opportunities for extensive off-site planting which can be designed to integrate the development within the wider large scale pattern of woodlands, tree belts and fields. Specific issues relating to airfield development include the conservation of historic and cultural features, such as bunkers and control towers, and the need for a layout that retains them in an appropriate setting. The alignment of runways should be echoed in the layout of buildings and open spaces.

Changes in the management and use of historic parklands - Any proposals for change could have a negative impact on historic landscapes. The majority of sites, regardless of designation status, will require an overarching management plan or strategy to guide change. This should be based on historic research and should cover the conservation, preservation and management of existing historic features, as well as the restoration or creation of new or lost ones. Individual sites may require deer fencing and new woodland planting, as well as screening and mitigation schemes, may require effective protection from deer to support their establishment.

Development of leisure and recreational facilities – There may be scope to accommodate leisure development within relatively wooded and enclosed parts of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, provided such sites are at a distance from areas of heath, the setting of historic features and areas of existing tranquillity. Development of leisure facilities such as golf courses, caravan parks, holiday centres, visitor centres and car parks can only be accommodated if they are carefully screened by existing woodlands and strategically sited new woodland planting. The bustle, colours and movement of cars and caravans could be extremely intrusive in open views across the mosaic so careful design and mitigation is essential to ensure that development is carefully integrated. The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 48 and 49 illustrate how high quality leisure facilities can be accommodated within a sensitive heathland edge landscape, using a hypothetical example of an information point within a small visitor car park.

There is no scope to accommodate leisure development within or within viewing distance of heathland components of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic and existing areas of tranquillity, where such development could constitute a profound and undesirable change to the area’s natural, undisturbed...
character. Erosion on many narrow roads within the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic suggests that there is a need for more small car parks and nature viewpoints, increasing the accessibility of the landscape.

**New infrastructure development – including reservoirs and roads** – the abrupt steep embankments of reservoirs are intrusive features which are generally not well integrated in the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic. Guidance to improve the integration of these and other infrastructure developments include:

- Extend existing woodlands and tree belts with new planting that is carefully designed to screen the abrupt slopes and access roads that are associated with new storage reservoirs. Extensive new planting will be required to integrate this form of infrastructure within this relatively open arable landscape.
- There may be opportunities to create valuable dry heathland habitats on bare ground and newly constructed embankments, provided locally sourced substrate with impoverished soils is used.
- Ensure new hedgerows are planted alongside new or altered roads in order to reduce the perceived scale of road developments and integrate with the existing network of rectilinear boundaries. Blocks of woodland should extend right up to the edge of roads in places, creating ‘pinch-points’ along the roads and adding variety to local views.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 94 and 95 (within the section referring to the Plateau Estate Farmland landscape type) illustrate how the issue of integrating farm reservoirs in large scale agricultural landscapes might be approached using a hypothetical example.

**Changes in heathland management prescriptions and agricultural subsidies**, which have the potential to change the balance, proportion and quality of the open agricultural and heathland components of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic.

In some areas the use of fleece and plastic, as well as outdoor pig production, has had a significant effect on the landscape. The siting and style of structures subject to planning control, such as static feed bins for pigs and poly tunnels should be appropriately conditioned to minimise their landscape impact. Guidance for land management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character includes:

- Identify opportunities to extend and connect areas of lowland heath and dry acid and calcareous

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18 op. cit. 12, page 26
grassland habitat, particularly on the fringes of the Breckland SPA and SAC.

- Buffer existing heathland by restoring or creating habitats adjacent to existing sites or by encouraging low input agricultural systems on land adjacent to heathland.
- Areas of existing heathland should be managed in accordance with the detailed prescriptions contained within ecological guidance such as the Breckland Biodiversity Audit\textsuperscript{18}. For the majority of heathland areas, such guidance is likely to include heavy and intense grazing and the application of physical disturbance (rotation and turf stripping). Management should generally be dynamic, episodic and disruptive as gradual recovery from grazing or disturbance provides conditions and structures not found on homogenously managed sites.
- Manage arable field margins and buffer existing trackways and track verges in accordance with cultivated agri-environmental prescriptions which are likely to involve no fertiliser or herbicides. Encourage a strategic approach to the continuous management of field boundaries across areas under different landownership.
- Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedgerows, maintaining the existing proportion of open fields to heath to woodland or, if possible increasing the proportion of heathland within the overall mosaic.
- Enhance the diversity of woodland and arable field habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.
- Plant deciduous native trees on the fringes of woodlands and plantations to enhance their ecological value and visual character.
- Conserve and manage the margins of groundwater fed meres, pingos and headwater fens, maintaining a broad buffer to adjacent farmland, removing all adjacent scrub and woodland and introducing grazing (and possibly mechanical clearance) in accordance with the advice contained within detailed management prescriptions.

\textbf{Erosion of the setting of distinctive historic and archaeological features}, some of which are relatively invisible in the landscape due to tree and scrub cover. Priority should be given to the conservation of distinctive archaeological evidence, including Bronze Age barrows, defensive embankments and trackways, medieval deserted villages and warren banks, remnant historic features associated with the 18\textsuperscript{th} and 19\textsuperscript{th} century Breckland estates, the pits associated with historic flint mines and 20th century military structures and sites.

\textsuperscript{18}Tom Williamson, 2010, The Breckland Pine Rows: History, Ecology and Landscape Character, University of East Anglia
**The decline of the distinctive pine lines as a result of age and mechanical removal.** It is thought that the majority of pine lines were planted between 1815 and 1820 so these features are now c.190 years of age. The average lifespan of a Scots pine tree is expected to be 150-300 years which means that the Brecks trees may well survive for many years to come, but an active programme of management and replanting would conserve these distinctive landscape features. New pine lines should be planted in areas where they were known to have been planted in the 1920s and should be subject to appropriate management to encourage the distinctive, contorted form that is typical of the Brecks. There is a need to research techniques for the effective management of pine lines.

**Erosion of the small-scale character and quality of the straight, narrow roads** that is characteristic of the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic and which are often subject to fast cars and verge erosion due to visitor pressures. Guidance for road and roadside management includes:

- Give priority to the conservation of Roadside Nature Reserves, which have been designated to improve and enhance a highly visible and characteristic component of the Brecks landscape and biodiversity.
- Enhance the principal road corridors that provide gateway views to the Brecks, with a coordinated strategy of tree planting, hedgerow/pine line management and signage that is designed to take account of key views.
- Conserve the characteristic straight alignment and sequence of open and enclosed views associated with roads across the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, wherever possible conserving and creating new heathland habitats in prominent roadside locations.
- Avoid traffic calming measures and signage in rural locations that could have an urbanising effect.
Visitor car parks – interpretation and access

One approach to improving the quality of visitor facilities within a sensitive heathland edge visitor car park - illustrated as a hypothetical example.

Erosion and litter, plus the use of poor quality materials suggests lack of management and encourages vandalism and anti-social behaviour.

Lack of clarity and interpretation

BEFORE
Defined area for meeting and interpretation. Bespoke, simple furniture for information, interpretation and seating begins to develop and reinforce a Brecks style.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic

- Conserve the natural, wild character of the heathland landscape, avoiding development that could detract from this scarce and important quality
- Conserve and restore the distinctive Brecks pine rows through a programme of replanting and management.
- Extend and connect areas of lowland heath and dry acid and calcareous grassland habitat, together with the small-scale wetlands of meres, fen and pingos, actively managing these internationally important habitats to conserve biodiversity.
- Conserve the setting and integrity of historic features so that they are visible and easily interpreted as part of the distinctive local character of the Brecks mosaic.
Brecks Plantations

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Flat or gently sloping plateaux underlain by chalk, but with free-draining sandy soils
- Extensive plantation forestry is the dominant influence; small isolated areas of heathy grassland
- Simple, large scale landscape pattern, with homogeneous, geometric plantation blocks
- Densely enclosed character; views are contained by plantations and channelled down the long straight roads and rides
- Conifer species predominant, but broadleaves such as oak, beech and birch create a softer, more diverse woodland edge along many forest roads and along some former estate and field boundaries
- Belts and lines of contorted Scots pine are a distinctive feature
- Numerous historic sites, often ‘hidden’ within the forest, including Neolithic flint mines at Grimes Graves, Bronze Age barrows and medieval warrens and lodges
- Network of straight rural roads, with distinctive angular junctions
- Looking towards the plantations from adjacent areas, the skyline is defined by straight, continuous plantation edges, silhouetted against the sky

Landscape character

Flat or gently rolling plateaux with free draining, sandy soils formed from a varied mix of glacial sand, clay and gravel deposits overlying a solid chalk geology. The landform slopes gently towards the river valleys, but the subtle elevation change is not immediately obvious due to the almost blanket coverage of the plantations.

Much of the surface has a covering of acidic sands, but the sands often overlie a calcareous substrate and in some parts of the plateau the dominant soil type is a chalky rendzina. Occasionally the different types of soil are juxtaposed at a microscale creating areas of ‘patterned ground’ where contrasting stripes of chalk and acidic grassland/heather grow on slight ridges and troughs of sandy and chalky soils. Most examples have been ‘lost’ under encroaching tree and scrub cover but the phenomenon is
visible on some open land within the forest, eg near the Grimes Graves site at Lynford.

The underlying chalk on this part of the plateau contains flints and, in late Neolithic times this region was at the centre of an important trade for flint axes and other tools, which were manufactured from locally mined flint and possibly traded along long distance paths like the Icknield Way. A deep, high quality seam of ‘floorstone’ flint was mined from shafts dug deep into the chalk. The Neolithic flint mines are thought to have been a well developed industry, covering a wide area; today the conserved site near Lynford is known as Grimes Graves.

The dominant soil type beneath the Brecks Plantations is an acidic, sandy soil which is prone to wind erosion. Before the Forestry Commission plantations (ie 1920’s) the area currently defined as the Brecks Plantations landscape character type would have been part of the overall Brecks heathland mosaic, albeit a relatively dry part of the plateau. The Fosstditch is a defensive linear earthwork constructed in the Early Saxon period along what may have been the boundary between the Brecks and the Fens. This embankment and ditch is still visible, although it is now partially surrounded by trees and so is no longer legible in the wider landscape.

Throughout the medieval period, the extensive heathlands were used as part of the infield-
Evidence for the poverty of the sandy heathland soils and their extreme vulnerability to wind erosion is provided by Thomas Wright’s 1668 description of the ‘wandring’ near Santon Downham (see Section 2). This and other descriptions by later Victorian travellers emphasise the barrenness and aridity of the Brecks plateau landscapes. However, the scrubby heathlands of the Brecks were well known as favourable land for hunting and in the early 17th century the open areas around Thetford became a royal hunting ground, used by both King James and King Charles. In 1636 a warrant was issued for the preservation of the king’s game ‘of hare, partridge and other wildfowl’ within a 12 mile radius of Thetford.

Despite the scrub cover that would have been present for game, the overall lack of vegetation on the Brecks plateaux would have been one of the factors contributing to the 17th century ‘sand blows’. The landscape became progressively more enclosed during the 18th and 19th centuries, when landowners of the larger Brecks estates, such as Elveden, Santon Downham and Brandon planted vast numbers of trees, in part as cover for game, but also as part of the process of ‘improving’ their estates, in keeping with the fashion for parkland landscapes. The majority of the distinctive Scots pine lines were planted at this time, initially as hedges to control and shelter stock. Left to grow unmanaged, the lines of Scots pine trees developed contorted forms.

outfield system; sheep were grazed on heaths during the day and ‘folded’ on the arable land overnight in a complex system which enabled the fertility of the permanent arable land to be maintained through the transfer of nutrients in the animals’ dung. Settlements were typically on the edge of the river valleys, close to water, but parish areas typically included a variety of land types, from valley floor marsh to extensive heathland. Crops, such as wheat and barley, were grown on common fields with reasonably good soils and some relatively infertile heathlands were cultivated on a temporary basis as outfield ‘brecks’ – ploughed and cropped for a few years before being returned to rough grazing. The least fertile – dry and acidic – soils were typically used as rabbit warrens, with rabbits bred for their meat and fur.

The Brecks was a regional centre for the rabbit trade and the rabbit warrens were protected from poachers by guards based at warren lodges. The medieval stone lodge at Thetford Warren remains as an evocative ruin. Many warrens were later enclosed by perimeter banks to define ownership and prevent the rabbits from damaging adjacent crops. Such warren banks are often visible beneath the dense trees and scrub, for instance at Downham High Warren and Thetford Warren; the former has sections of parallel trapping banks and some banks are reinforced with flint facings.

Thetford Forest has areas of broadleaf woodland as well as conifer plantations. These trees are at Thetford Warren, part of the medieval Royal hunting ground.
There are remnants of the 18th to 20th century woodland plantations and of field boundaries enclosed during the late 18th to early 19th century Parliamentary Enclosure. For instance, the distinctive line of mature oaks along the A134 is part of the former West Tofts parkland.

The landscape was fundamentally changed in character in the 1920s when, following the 1919 Forestry Bill, extensive parts of the Brecks estates were purchased on the open market and planted predominantly with conifers. The land was in a degraded state at this time, following years of economic depression. Today Thetford Forest is the largest lowland forest in the UK and its acidic and calcareous soils support a mix of coniferous species (including Scots pine, Corsican pine and larch) and broadleaf trees. Two main silvicultural systems are used to manage the forest: just over 13,000 hectares are managed under a rotational clear fell system which is a key requirement to deliver suitable habitat for woodlark and nightjar; around 4,000 hectares are managed under a continuous cover silvicultural system (this includes over 1,000 hectares of broadleaf species); the remaining 1,000 hectares are managed open space where a variety of habitat management regimes are used (this includes 300 hectares of heathland recreation where grazing sheep and ponies are deployed).

Large blocks of conifers dominate the landscape, but the forest rides, roads and areas of open

Broadleaf woodland alongside one of the straight roads through the Brecks Plantations
heath and farmland provide corridors and patches of high biodiversity. Much of Brecks Plantations landscape falls within the Breckland Forest SSSI (and the wider Breckland SPA), which is important for populations of nightjar and woodlark, as well as flora and fauna which require the heathland and calcareous grassland habitats found within open areas within the forest.

This landscape type encompasses areas where the influence of conifer plantations is dominant over extensive areas; other parts of the Brecks, within the Brecks Arable Heathland Mosaic, also have extensive tracts of woodland and plantation.

Away from the principal settlements of Brandon and Thetford, there are only isolated, small settlements and the dense forest has an empty, tranquil character, although parts of the forest are managed for recreation, with a forest activity centre and a network of waymarked routes accessed from small car parks and picnic sites. Vernacular building materials include brick and thatch, but there is much modern infill development on the fringes of Brandon and Thetford. The long straight roads and rides create striking, channelled vistas, often fringed and framed by narrow strips of broadleaf woodland. Gorse, bracken and twisted Scots pine trees often create a highly textured and colourful foreground to the forest vistas.

What’s important and why?

The dense tree cover ensures that this landscape can accommodate change, through carefully designed woodland planting and planned forest design (with the alignment and form of future coupes taken into account). The most sensitive areas of the landscapes are the roads and rides, together with the clear framed vistas along them and the isolated open areas of heath and farmland within the forest, which are valued for their heathland and calcareous grassland biodiversity. Sensitive landscape elements and features include the remnant distinctive pine lines and the many archaeological and historic sites, including well known sites such as Grimes Graves, but also many other examples of earthworks, buildings and industrial heritage that may be partially hidden by tree and scrub cover. The extensive and homogeneous forest cover can make the historic context for such sites difficult to understand, but former field patterns and pathways are often conserved as the network of forest rides that structure the plantations.

Thetford Forest is sustainably managed by the Forestry Commission seeking to achieve a balanced approach delivering Environmental, Social and Operational programmes. The Forest’s Design Plans aim to deliver public benefits in the form of improved habitats for wildlife, attractive woodlands for people and rural employment for communities. Since the majority of Thetford Forest is designated as a SSSI, the forest management work includes monitoring the condition of the SSSI, as well as plans for future work which will enhance its important woodland, heathland and calcareous grassland habitats. Given this intensive and strategic land management regime, the landscape of the Brecks Plantations is in good condition.
Landscape character sensitivity
The dense forest cover provides a robust context for accommodating landscape change. The forest is strategically and sustainably managed and is in good condition. However, many historic features are overgrown, the pine lines are deteriorating and the uniform age structure makes this locally distinctive feature vulnerable to change.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:
- The pine lines
- Open heathland with a richly textured micro-scale mosaic of heather, acidic and chalk grassland
- Framed vistas and roadside corridor landscapes
- Skylines
- Historic features, eg Neolithic flint mines, tumuli, trackways, warren banks and lodges

Visual sensitivity
Throughout the forest, there are good opportunities to mitigate the visual impact of landscape change, but publicly accessible views are directed to a few, specific elements within the wider landscape, namely the edges of roads and forest rides, the perimeter of forest blocks and the forest skylines, all of which are highly sensitive to change.

In addition, long, straight vistas are always framed by woodland blocks and such views are channelled, but highly sensitive.

The promotion and use of the forest for recreation ensures that parts of the forest are accessible to visitors, as well as local residents.

Landscape value
Most of Thetford Forest is designated for populations of woodlark and nightjar that contribute to the Breckland Special Protection Area, but nationally important assemblages of rare plants and invertebrates are also important interest features of the SSSI. Specific international and national designations are:
- Breckland SPA
- Breckland Forest SSSI – designated for Nightjar and woodlark
- Scheduled Ancient Monuments, including Neolithic flint mines of Grimes Graves, the Saxon earthworks of the Fosssitch, Bronze Age Barrows, the perimeter banks of medieval rabbit warrens and historic parklands.
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Brecks Plantations.

Conversion of farmsteads and small group of estate buildings and associated new development, for recreational, residential and/or commercial uses – Most pressure for residential and mixed use development is on the fringes of existing larger settlements, but the forest is a focus for recreational and leisure development and some estate or farm buildings may have good potential for expansion and/or conversion to other uses, provided patterns of existing trees and woodlands are conserved and extended to provide a partial visual screen and integrate the new development. Guidance for integrating new recreational/leisure development includes:

- Integrate new development or additions (together with associated infrastructure in the form of lighting, signage and fencing) with large scale tree planting which relates to and is integrated with existing trees and forestry. Take the opportunity to soften the visual edges of existing plantations, with extensive broadleaf planting.
- Avoid or minimise the visual impact of new development in views across or adjacent to natural heathland, where such changes could detract from the natural, wild character of the heathland landscape which is increasingly scarce.
- Avoid new development, including car parks and lighting along forest roads and adjacent to rides, where it could be intrusive in the framed forest vistas. Use of such sites should be unnecessary, given the extensive choice of alternative, well wooded sites where there is a robust visual screen.
- Conserve wooded skylines and ensure that all views to new development are seen against a backdrop of woodland.
- Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present. Brick is often used. Staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way, as a permanent dark or black colouring is not locally appropriate.
- Design car parks and caravan sites so that vehicles are partially screened with local tree and scrub heathland species such as pine, oak, birch, gorse and bracken, balancing requirements for screening with the need to minimise opportunities for antisocial behaviour. There is likely to be scope to accommodate these sites provided they are well integrated within the wider ‘edge-of-forest’ context. Hard surfaces should be of sandy aggregate that blends within the rural context.
New infrastructure development – including signage, lighting and improvements to roads. The vast majority of people experience the landscape of the Brecks Plantations from forest roads and rides so the channelled views and framed vistas along these routes are highly sensitive to change. The use of the forest landscapes for recreation and leisure developments has created a plethora of signs, which is often visually intrusive. Guidance to improve the integration of road and utility infrastructure developments includes:

- Conserve the predominantly remote and tranquil character of the forests by new planting of broadleaf tree and shrub species, along with gorse and holly, which will help to soften, integrate and potentially screen new development
- Integrate new infrastructure development within the existing rectilinear landscape pattern, which has straight boundaries and angular junctions. Blocks of woodland should extend right up to the edge of roads in places, creating ‘pinch-points and adding variety to local views.
- Avoid traffic calming measures and signage in rural locations that could have an urbanising effect.
- Design small scale infrastructure such as signage, lighting and interpretation boards with simple forms and appropriate local materials so that it is well integrated within the surrounding landscape. Control the use of visually intrusive and unnecessary signage.
- Enhance the principal road corridors that provide gateway views to the Brecks, with a coordinated strategy of tree planting, hedgerow/pine line management and signage that is designed to take account of key views
- Wherever possible, conserve and create new heathland habitats in prominent roadside locations.

Changes in heathland management prescriptions and agricultural subsidies, which have the potential to change the balance, proportion and quality of the open agricultural and heathland components of the Brecks Plantations. In some areas the use of fleece and plastic, as well as outdoor pig production, has had a significant effect on the landscape. The siting and style of structures subject to planning control, such as static feed bins for pigs and poly tunnels should be appropriately conditioned to minimise their landscape impact. Guidance for land management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character includes:

- Identify opportunities to extend and connect areas of lowland heath and dry acid and calcareous grassland habitat, particularly on the fringes of the Breckland SPA and SAC.
- Buffer existing heathland by restoring or creating habitats adjacent to existing sites or by encouraging low input agricultural systems on land adjacent to heathland.
• Areas of existing heathland should be managed in accordance with the detailed prescriptions contained within ecological guidance such as the Breckland Biodiversity Audit. For the majority of heathland areas, such guidance is likely to include heavy and intense grazing and the application of physical disturbance (rotovation and turf stripping). Management should generally be dynamic, episodic and disruptive as gradual recovery from grazing or disturbance provides conditions and structures not found on homogenously managed sites.
• Manage and buffer existing trackways and track verges in accordance with cultivated agri-environmental prescriptions which are likely to involve no fertiliser or herbicides.
• Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedgerows, maintaining the existing proportion of open fields to heath to woodland or, if possible increasing the proportion of heathland within the overall mosaic.
• Enhance the diversity of woodland and farmland habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.

Fragmentation of ecological networks within the wider plantation landscape. In the forest landscape, fire-routes and ride (track-way) verges already provide a widely dispersed network. However this network is spatially interrupted and incomplete due to shading of track elements when adjacent tree crops pass thicket stage. Guidance for land management practices that will increase the biodiversity resilience of the plantations includes:
• Consider strategic management that buffers and links multiple sites of biodiversity value into large contiguous networks. Connections between existing open and heathland areas are particularly valuable, providing enhanced dispersal into clear-felled and restocked areas.
• Connectivity among dispersed sites could be achieved by providing juxtaposition of grass strips, disturbed ground, and cultivated field margins along existing track-ways.
• Create wide, permanently un-shaded ‘superhighways’ for plant and invertebrate dispersal, flanked by disturbed strips of ground (e.g. with ploughing or turf stripping treatments to create bare disturbed sand and chalk) and by nectar rich ungrazed flower rich verges.
• Connectivity elements may be provided by revitalising stock droving activity to provide cross links with these ‘super-highways’.

• Give priority to strategic links across the forest landscape between key heathland SSSIs, such as linking Weeting Heath to Cranwich and Grimes Graves or Lakenheath Warren to Thetford Golf Course and Marshes via High Lodge.
Erosion of the setting of distinctive historic and archaeological features, some of which are relatively invisible in the landscape due to tree and scrub cover. Priority should be given to the conservation of distinctive archaeological evidence, including Bronze Age barrows, defensive embankments and trackways, medieval deserted villages and warren banks, remnant historic features associated with the 18th and 19th century Breckland estates, the pits associated with historic flint mines and 20th century military structures and sites.

The 'before-and-after' sketches on pages 62 and 63 illustrate how the setting of distinctive historic features might be conserved, without compromising accessibility, using a hypothetical example of eroded medieval warren banks within a conifer plantation. Note; if trees are removed from warren banks, their stumps/roots should be left in situ and killed off using an approved chemical root killer.

The decline of the distinctive pine lines as a result of age and mechanical removal. It is thought that the majority of pine lines were planted between 1815 and 1820 so these features are now c.190 years of age. The average lifespan of a Scots pine tree is expected to be 150-300 years which means that the Brecks trees may well survive for many years to come, but an active programme of management and replanting would conserve these distinctive landscape features.

The contorted form of the Scots pine lines developed because they were originally planted and trimmed in the early 19th century as hedgerows, but have since been allowed to grow out.
Interpretation of historic features

Medieval warren banks are overgrown, unnoticed and eroded by mountain bikes.

One approach to improving the conservation, interpretation and accessibility of distinctive historic features - illustrated as a hypothetical example.
Open up woodland and remove trees (but not stumps and roots) from warren banks; plant outside of bank with gorse (in line with historic record) to aid orientation.

Use of flint to define crossing point (for mountain bike) highlights man-made character of bank.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Brecks Plantations

- Reduce fragmentation of heathland and calcareous grassland habitats by buffering, extending and linking existing biodiverse sites along roads, tracks and forestry coupes.

- Conserve the setting and integrity of historic features so that they are visible and easily interpreted as part of the distinctive local character of the Brecks Plantations.

- Integrate new built and infrastructure development, including signage, lighting and road improvements, by carefully designed planting of local tree and shrub species and by the use of appropriate materials and forms.
Low Chalk Farmland
Low Chalk Farmland

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Flat or very gently sloping farmland on chalk and gravel outcrops which forms part of the transition from Brecks to Fens
- Medium-large arable fields interspersed by belts and blocks of mixed woodland
- Most fields bounded by hawthorn hedgerows, but some field margins are marked by wire fencing or lines of trees; in some places fields are unenclosed
- Rectilinear field shapes, but varied field boundaries and irregularly sized woodland blocks create a diffused landscape pattern
- Long views, always framed by woodland, but becoming more open towards the fens
- Clustered settlements and large isolated farmsteads with scattered groups of farm buildings
- Tree belts of Scots pine and poplar are local features, silhouetted against the sky
- Airbases and communications equipment are local landmarks

Landscape character

This flat farmland landscape marks the transition between the Brecks plateau to the east and the flat peatlands of the fen basin to the west. It is found near the settlements of Barton Mills, Mildenhall and Lakenheath in Suffolk and extends northwards along the western boundary of the Brecks between Hockwold cum Wilton and Narborough. The Low Chalk Farmland is underlain by outcrops of free-draining chalk and gravel on the edge of the Brecks chalk plateau and low ‘islands’ of chalk on the margins of the Fens which are surrounded by peat and alluvial fen soils. Much of the Low Chalk farmland is unaffected by drift deposits and free-draining soils are either calcareous rendzinas or brown soils. The farmland seems completely flat, but in fact gradually slopes very gradually towards the higher Brecks plateau to the east. The gentle slopes are most obvious near Lakenheath and Foulden.

This transitional landscape, between the Brecks and the Fens, was a focus for early settlement from the Palaeolithic period to Iron Age and Roman times. There have been numerous archaeological finds
recorded in the area but none of the pre-Roman heritage is immediately visible. Palaeoliths (flint implements and waste flakes) have been found in the gravels of the pre-Anglian Bytham River near Lakenheath and Mildenhall and later finds include Mesolithic flintworks, Neolithic pottery and barrows. Settlement sites dating from the early Bronze Age are rare, but excavation of a site at West Row has revealed the form of a farming settlement on the edge of the fen. The Fens were relatively dry in Roman times and were well settled and farmed, with roads and canals. Some settlements on the Low Chalk Farmland date from Roman times: Hockwold sum Wilton was a linear settlement with two temple sites on a Roman or pre Roman route and there were high status Roman villa sites with bath houses at Feltwell, Mildenhall and Eriswell.

Most settlements developed during the medieval period and were surrounded by an agricultural pattern based on open fields and the fold course systems of sheep and cereals, especially barley. There was a concentration of settlement along the edge of the fen edge. An example is the fen-edge hamlets which fringed the common fields of Mildenhall, including West Row, Beck Row, Holywell Green and Wilde Street. Each formerly had small or linear greens that now only survive as place names eg Thistley Green.

The open fields were enclosed during the 19th century under the Parliamentary Enclosure acts but in many areas the present day field pattern is a result of later amalgamation and reorganisation of landholdings. This part of the fen edge landscape was historically well settled because it has relatively good well drained soils, between the dry, sandy soils to the east and the wetter fens to the west. Fields are typically surrounded by hedges rather than the ditches that are typical of fields in the adjacent Fens.

The Low Chalk Farmland has been strongly influenced by the impacts of 20th century military action. Mildenhall, Feltwell and Marham airfields are all within the area. Mildenhall covers over 420 ha and dominates the Low Chalk Farmland on this part of the fen margins. In the Mildenhall area, where the airport and

The flat arable fields alongside Old Methwold Road, a straight land across a relatively large scale farmland landscape in which views are always framed by woodland plantations.
settlements are ‘squeezed’ against the edge of the fen, the Low Chalk Farmland consists of straight-edged fields divided by minimal or no hedges. Houses, industry or airport buildings and structures form the backdrop to every view and the rural landscape is fairly degraded, with only a few remnant features, such as tree lined droves, on the edges of the fens.

To the north of Mildenhall, the Low Chalk Farmland within the study area is within a less densely settled area, away from the fen edge. Here the landscape has a more consistent, unified character, although hedgerows are inconsistent and gappy in places. Away from the principal roads, it feels tranquil and deeply rural. Views to the west, towards the Fens, are typically more open, whereas views eastwards, towards the Brecks, have a more wooded, enclosed character. However woodlands and tree belts form a backdrop to all views.

The Low Chalk Farmland is well settled. The clustered villages and hamlets, which developed historically as a result of favourable soils, have formed the basis for later expansion and the presence of local airbases has been a key driver for this growth. The result has been development of residential estates on the fringes of most villages. The traditional materials used are buff coloured brick, red brick and clay tiles, but settlements have a wide mix of styles and materials.

**What’s important and why?**

The relatively high proportion of tree cover in this landscape type enables it to accommodate change, through carefully designed woodland planting which extends and integrates with the existing landscape pattern. The most sensitive areas of the landscapes are the rural lanes and green lanes and also areas on the fringes of settlements, which may have a smaller scale pattern of fields and woodlands and which are particularly accessible and important in local views and settlement gateways.

The condition of this landscape varies; areas with relatively low or sporadic tree cover are more vulnerable to change, particularly if they are also close to settlements or large scale, intrusive land uses such as major air bases. The majority of the area is not covered by any statutory designations, but the most valuable elements and features are the remnant historic landscape and settlement features such as green lanes, species-rich boundary hedgerows and historic village centre greens, which may in part be enclosed by traditional buildings. Valuable ecological networks include inter-connected woodlands, tree belts and hedgerows, together with adjacent arable field margins.
In areas where there is a high proportion of woodland and tree cover, the landscape provides a robust context for accommodating landscape change. But it is more sensitive, and generally in a more degraded condition, towards the south of the study area, where the Low Chalk Farmland is dominated by the Lakenheath and Mildenhall airbases.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- Patchwork of arable fields and blocks of mixed woodland forms a striking and distinctive landscape pattern
- Wooded skylines
- Rural lanes (and green lanes) and tree lined droves
- Remnant historic village greens and associated traditional buildings in village centres

Long views are typical, but views are typically set against a backdrop of woodland and there is likely to be good scope to screen and integrate new development by designing new woodland planting that extends and ‘fits’ the pattern of the existing woodlands and tree belts. However this landscape is vulnerable to the visual impact of tall structures, which could not be screened by woodland.

The landscape in the south of the study area, close to the settlements of Barton Mills, Mildenhall, Lakenheath, is visually more sensitive than that to the north (between Hockwold cum Wilton and Narborough) because it is more densely settled and more open in character.

Elsewhere the gateway views from settlements and rural roads are particularly vulnerable to change.

Parts of the Low Chalk Farmland (near Hockwold cum Wilton and Mildenhall Wood) are within the Breckland Special Protection Area and therefore make a contribution to the habitats of the stone curlew, nightjar and woodlark. Elsewhere, the most valuable ecological habitats are the network of mixed woodlands and tree belts, in combination with arable field margins which are important for a wide range of flora and fauna.

Aspal Close, an ancient wood pasture that was once the ‘home close’ of a small manor house is an important remnant historic and ecological landscape feature at Beck Row, near Mildenhall.
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Low Chalk Farmland.

Expansion of settlements – Most pressure for residential and mixed use development is on the fringes of existing settlements. Detailed analysis of the potential impacts of such growth is subject to site specific assessment and is beyond the scope of this report. However it is relevant to provide some generic guidance for minimising negative impacts of settlement expansion on the surrounding landscapes:

• Conserve existing mature trees, woodlands and hedgerows and use these existing networks and landscape patterns as the basis for new green infrastructure connections
• Identify and conserve any existing remnant landscape features on the fringes of settlements, such as smaller pastures, orchards and greens. These should be incorporated within proposed green infrastructure networks
• Conserve the existing landscape setting of individual towns and villages and avoid coalescence of existing settlements with adjacent hamlets in areas of relatively dense settlement eg near Mildenhall
• Integrate new development or additions (together with associated infrastructure in the form of lighting, signage and fencing) with large scale tree planting which relates to and is integrated with existing woodlands, tree belts and hedgerows.
• Conserve wooded skylines and ensure that all views to new development are seen against a backdrop of woodland.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 73 and 74 illustrate how the issue of integrating new development on settlement fringes might be approached using a hypothetical example.

Conversion and expansion of farmsteads, for agricultural, residential and/or commercial uses – Some farmsteads are of medieval origin and incorporate listed buildings, but the majority are ‘late’ historic farm buildings dating from the 19th century enclosure and may have the potential to accommodate expansion and conversion to other uses, provided patterns of existing trees and woodlands are conserved and extended to provide a partial visual screen and integrate the new development. Guidance for integrating new farm development includes:

• Conserve the scale and proportion of the farmstead within the context of the surrounding large scale
landscape. Views to farmsteads and farm buildings are commonplace in the Low Chalk Farmland landscapes, but these are typically long views, with buildings seen in the middle distance across open fields and framed by woodlands and tree belts. Expansion of farmsteads in small-scale landscapes of in locations where they are alongside roads would be more difficult to accommodate without changing local landscape character.

- Conserve the characteristic clustered form of farmsteads and avoid linear development
- Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present – staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way, as a permanent dark or black colouring is not locally appropriate.
- Minimise visible changes to the surrounding agricultural landscape, as land use changes (including the introduction of garden boundaries, lighting and other suburban features) have the potential to be more visually intrusive than built development in this large scale, relatively open landscape.
- Integrate new large-scale agricultural buildings in open countryside by careful choice of form, orientation and colour of buildings. Whenever possible, new agricultural buildings should relate to an existing cluster of buildings and to existing mature trees and woodlands which can provide a backdrop to views. Carefully designed tree planting, which extends the existing pattern of plantations, tree belts and hedgerows, will help to integrate and screen new agricultural development.

New infrastructure development, including reservoirs and signage, lighting and improvements to roads – the roads and rural lanes are the most accessible parts of the Low Chalk Farmland landscape and the gateway views to the surrounding farmland and settlements are highly sensitive to change. Reservoirs are often visually intrusive in this relatively flat landscape. Guidance to improve the integration of road, reservoir and utility infrastructure developments includes:

- Ensure new hedgerows are planted alongside new or altered roads in order to reduce the perceived scale of road developments and integrate with the existing network of rectilinear boundaries. Blocks of woodland should extend right up to the edge of roads in places, creating 'pinch-points along the roads and adding variety to local views.
- Extend existing woodlands and tree belts with new planting that is carefully designed to screen the abrupt slopes and access roads that are associated with new storage reservoirs. Extensive new planting will be required to integrate this form of infrastructure within the open arable landscape.
- Avoid traffic calming measures and signage in rural locations that could have an urbanising effect.
- Design small scale infrastructure such as signage, lighting and interpretation boards with simple...
forms and appropriate local materials so that it is well integrated within the surrounding landscape. Control the use of visually intrusive and unnecessary signage.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 94 and 95 [within the section referring to the Plateau Estate Farmland landscape type] illustrate how the issue of integrating farm reservoirs in large scale agricultural landscapes might be approached using a hypothetical example.

**Changes in land use on settlement fringes**, particularly the proliferation of post and rail fencing and the subdivision of land into small horse paddocks using temporary tape. There are also pressures for the expansion of garden curtilage, all of which can have a significant visual effect. Guidance for managing such local-scale change includes:

- New tree and hedgerow planting (using native species) along field and property boundaries will integrate and screen land use changes that result in visual intrusion in a locally appropriate manner.
- Minimise the proliferation of different types of boundary enclosure; brown fencing tapes should be used and planting may be necessary to soften the impact of post-and-rail fencing. Field shelters and material storage areas should be sited so as to minimise their visual impact.
- New or expanded garden curtilage should be designed to fit into the local context and respect the established pattern. It is relatively simple to screen such changes with tree and hedgerow planting in this well treed landscape.

**Fragmentation of ecological networks and changes in agri-environmental schemes and agricultural subsidies**, which have the potential to change the balance and quality of land uses and sensitive landscape elements within the Low Chalk Farmland landscape. Guidance for land management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character includes:

- Manage and buffer existing trackways and track verges in accordance with cultivated agri-environmental prescriptions which are likely to involve no fertiliser or herbicides.
- Consider strategic management that buffers and links multiple woodland sites of biodiversity value into large contiguous networks.
- Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedges, maintaining and increasing the overall proportion of woodland to arable fields within the overall landscape pattern.
- Enhance the diversity of woodland and farmland habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.
Enhancing village gateways

Minor structures are dominant and distract from distinctive local landmarks

Stark relationship between village and surrounding arable farmland - may occur when built development has obliterated the small-scale landscape pattern of paddocks, orchards and greenways which traditionally formed a transition to large scale farmland

One approach to improving the integration of built development on settlement fringes - illustrated as a hypothetical example.
New tree and hedgerow planting provides enclosure and a distinctive village gateway.

Native planting softens village edge, reinforcing existing, simple landscape patterns; church spire regains prominence.

Buffer strip of fallow land at field margin provides valuable habitat + landscape texture and detail.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Low Chalk Farmland

- Reduce fragmentation of woodland and hedgerow networks by buffering, extending and linking existing biodiverse sites along woodlands, roads and tracks.
- Conserve and enhance the landscape setting of existing settlements, taking account of gateway views from local roads.
- Integrate new built and infrastructure development, including signage, lighting and road improvements, by conserving and extending existing networks of trees and hedgerows as new and enhanced green infrastructure links that connect new settlement with the surrounding countryside.
- Ensure new reservoirs are integrated within open farmland landscapes by extensive new tree planting, designed to screen views to their abrupt slopes and any associated infrastructure.
Rolling Clay Farmland
Rolling Clay Farmland

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Rolling arable farmland underlain by deep boulder clays
- Large scale, open arable fields on broad ridgetops; scattered mixed woodlands and hedgerow trees provide moderate enclosure on rolling lower slopes
- Rectilinear field pattern defined by neat hawthorn hedgerows
- Groups of mature hedgerow oak trees along rural lanes
- Long, relatively open views, particularly from ridgetops
- Rural character, with small clustered hamlets and villages linked by a dense network of hedged lanes and tracks
- Church towers, pylons and wind turbines (at North Pickenham) are local landmarks

Landscape character

The Rolling Clay Farmland is the most elevated landscape type within the study area, to the north and east of the Brecks. It is underlain by chalk bedrock, but here the chalk is covered by deep glacial drift deposits of the boulder clays (Lowestoft Till) which extend across central Norfolk and Suffolk. Shallow river valleys and dry tributary valleys have cut through the underlying chalk to form a gently rolling landform with a broad, smooth profile. There are often drift deposits of sandy soils overlying the clay, particularly on more elevated ridges.

The land rises to 84m AOD on the ridge to the north of Swaffham, but elsewhere on the eastern fringes of the Brecks study area, the average elevation of the Rolling Clay Farmland is between 40 and 60m AOD. This is a large scale arable farmland landscape, which becomes more open and exposed above the 55m contour and towards the broad ridgetops, from which there are long, open views across adjacent landscapes.

From the post glacial period onwards, settlement was concentrated in the river valleys, but the scatter of
archaeological finds suggests activity throughout the Neolithic and Bronze Age and pollen evidence from a range of sites suggests that these rolling claylands were farmed from the Iron Age. There are Bronze Age bowl barrows in the plantations just east of the A1065 to the south of Swaffham.

The Roman road known as the Peddar’s Way runs through parts of the study area, near Watton and to the north of Swaffham, where it crosses the ridge of Bartholomew’s Hills and descends to the cross the River Nar at Castle Acre. This route would have brought settlement and commerce to villages along the eastern fringes of the Brecks. The site of a Roman settlement at Woodcock Hall, near Watton is a scheduled monument.

Place name evidence suggests that the Rolling Clay Farmland was well settled by the Saxon period (Swaffham, Watton and Pickenham) and this relatively elevated landscape would have been grazed as part of the medieval agrarian system. There is evidence of a deserted medieval settlement just beyond the study area at Palgrave and also of a former medieval market place and leper hospital at Bartholomew’s Hills. Areas of less fertile soil, for instance where sandy drift deposits are influential, were used for rabbit warrens in medieval times. The remnant banks of former medieval warrens remain in woodland near South Pickenham (South Pickenham Warren) and Cockley Cley.
The medieval common fields were enclosed during the 19th century under Parliamentary Enclosure Acts. There was an amalgamation of landholdings during this period, along with the development of halls with designed parkland landscapes. Small plantations and tree clumps in some parts of the Rolling Clay Farmland are the outlying remnants from designed parkland landscapes at Narford Hall, Cockley Cley Hall and Pickenham Hall.

Today the medium-large scale landscape pattern dates from the 19th century enclosure, although many fields have since been enlarged as agricultural systems have become increasingly intensive. All the land has been enclosed and converted to arable land. This is a rural, farmland landscape, dominated by arable fields with a large scale, rectilinear pattern. Fields are enclosed by hawthorn hedgerows and generally become larger on higher land. There is a widely dispersed settlement pattern of clustered villages and hamlets, connected by narrow lanes. The lanes are tightly enclosed by hedgerows and, since hedgerow oak and ash trees are typically concentrated along the lanes, views are often channelled along enclosed road corridors through an otherwise quite open landscape. At field gates and on ridgetops, there are long views across adjacent landscapes.

There are blocks of mixed woodland throughout the Rolling Clay Farmland, but woodland cover is generally sparse and the farmland landscape is more open on the ridgetops. Tree cover increases towards the valleys, with blocks of mixed woodland and hedgerow oak trees. The field pattern becomes smaller in scale on lower slopes and near to villages.

The flat, broad ridgetops were used for military airfields during World War II. Pickenham Airfield is on the north eastern fringes of the study areas and the wind turbines on this site are a local landmark. The former US air base at Snetterton is now used as a centre for car/bike track racing – the Snetterton Circuit was constructed in 1951. Elsewhere lines of pylons are sometimes prominent as they cross open farmland and there are local views to church towers at villages such as Castle Acre, South Pickenham and East Harling.

Overall, this is a deeply rural landscape, which seems 'neat' and tidy in comparison with the Brecks to the west.
What’s important and why?

The Rolling Clay Farmland has a distinctive character, particularly when seen alongside the heathy vegetation of the Brecks to the west. Here most fields and roads are enclosed by neat hawthorn hedgerows and the landscape has an established, well organised character. Some field hedgerows have been lost through intensive arable production, but overall the landscape is in good condition.

The most sensitive landscape elements and features are the hedged rural roads and lanes, together with the many mature hedgerow oaks trees that channel views along these routes. The remnant clumps of specimen trees and plantations in fields adjacent to estate parklands are also distinctive local features. Also sensitive are the long, open views from this landscape, which provide opportunities to look across to adjacent landscapes, including the wooded skyline of the Brecks to the west. Many types of landscape change could be screened or integrated within such views through woodland planting, but tall structures, such as pylons, wind turbines or communication masts could remain visible. Parts of the landscape fall within the Breckland SPA and the margins of arable fields and woodlands have potentially high biodiversity value.
Landscape character sensitivity

Neat, rural farmland landscape, which has lost some of the historic field pattern due to agricultural intensification. Nevertheless it has a strong character and can accommodate landscape change through sympathetic woodland and hedgerow planting.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- Hedged rural lanes
- Mature hedgerow oaks, which are remnants of the historic field and landscape pattern.
- Green lanes
- Remnant parkland features

Visual sensitivity

The elevated and relatively open views from the Rolling Clay Farmland mean that it has high visual sensitivity, with good inter-visibility across adjoining landscape types. However, there are plenty of opportunities to mitigate the visual impact of landscape change through new tree, hedgerow and woodland planting to integrate changes and provide a visual screen.

Landscape value

Part of the Rolling Clay farmland falls within the Breckland SPA, designated because it makes a contribution to the habitats of the stone curlew, nightjar and woodlark. The most valuable habitats within this landscape type are the arable field margins, species-rich hedgerows (along parish boundaries and rural lanes) and mixed woodlands.

The Bronze Age barrows, Roman settlement site and the Peddar’s Way are scheduled ancient monuments of national importance and the area also includes important remnants of medieval settlements and warrens.
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Rolling Clay Farmland.

Conversion and expansion of farmsteads, for agricultural, residential and/or commercial uses - Some farmsteads are of medieval origin and incorporate listed buildings, but the majority are ‘late’ historic farm buildings dating from the 19th century enclosure and may have the potential to accommodate expansion and conversion to other uses, provided patterns of existing trees and woodlands are conserved and extended to provide a partial visual screen and integrate the new development. Guidance for integrating new farm development includes:

• Conserve the scale and proportion of the farmstead within the context of the surrounding large scale landscape. Views to farmsteads and farm buildings are commonplace in the Rolling Clay Farmland, but these are typically long views, with buildings seen in the middle distance across open fields and framed by woodlands and tree belts. Expansion of farmsteads in small-scale landscapes of in locations where they are alongside roads would be more difficult to accommodate without changing local landscape character.
• Conserve the characteristic clustered form of farmsteads and avoid linear development
• Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present – staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way, as a permanent dark or black colouring is not locally appropriate.
• Minimise visible changes to the surrounding agricultural landscape, as land use changes (including the introduction of garden boundaries, lighting and other suburban features) have the potential to be more visually intrusive than built development in this large scale, relatively open landscape.
• Integrate new large-scale agricultural buildings in open countryside by careful choice of form, orientation and colour of buildings. Whenever possible, new agricultural buildings should relate to an existing cluster of buildings and to existing mature trees and woodlands which can provide a backdrop to views. Carefully designed tree planting, which extends the existing pattern of plantations, tree belts and hedgerows, will help to integrate and screen new agricultural development.
Expansion of existing settlements and the creation of new settlement patterns. The regular, large scale pattern of hedged arable fields has the capacity to accommodate new built development provided new development is associated with new planting that is designed to integrate settlement growth, providing a partial screen to reduce the degree of landscape and visual impact. Guidance for integrating new built development includes:

- Integrate the settlement edge with the surrounding rural and sparsely settled countryside by extending existing woodland and tree belts and connecting hedgerows so that the visual impact of built development is softened.
- Conserve the small-scale pattern of rural roads, particularly at the entrance to settlements. New hedgerow tree planting in these locations will provide positive gateway features which are typical of this landscape type.
- Maintain a geometric pattern of straight lanes and built frontages, which fits with the existing scale and pattern of the settlement edge landscape.
- Conserve the clustered pattern of settlement which is typical of this landscape – linear development should be avoided.

New infrastructure development, including signage, lighting and improvements to roads – the narrow roads and hedged rural lanes are the most accessible parts of the Rolling Clay Farmland and the open views from the roads to the surrounding landscape are highly sensitive to change. Guidance to improve the integration of road and utility infrastructure developments includes:

- Plant new native hedgerows and hedgerow trees alongside new or altered roads to integrate these changes within the characteristic hedged landscape pattern.
- Avoid traffic calming measures and signage in rural locations that could have an urbanising effect.
- Design small scale infrastructure such as signage, lighting and interpretation boards with simple forms and appropriate local materials so that it is well integrated within the surrounding landscape. Control the use of visually intrusive and unnecessary signage.

Changes in agricultural subsidies and management, which would drive changes in the intensity of cultivation and the management of field boundaries. The changes in cropping practices that have taken place across some of the Rolling Clay Farmland, such as the use of fleece and plastic, as well as outdoor pig production, have had a significant effect on the landscape.
The siting and style of structures subject to planning control, such as static feed bins for pigs and poly tunnels should be appropriately conditioned to minimise their landscape impact. Guidance for farm management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character include:

- Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedgerows, maintaining and increasing the overall proportion of woodland to arable fields within the overall landscape pattern.
- Increase the connectivity of the network of woodlands, tree belts and hedgerows, introducing new planting to connect gaps, maintaining buffer strips alongside trees and boundaries to protect the ecological corridors from mechanical and chemical damage.
- Enhance the diversity of woodland and plantation habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.
- Plant deciduous native trees on the fringes of woodlands and plantations to enhance their ecological value and visual character.
- Enhance the biodiversity of arable habitats by managing arable field margins and buffering existing trackways and track verges in accordance with cultivated agri-environmental prescriptions which are likely to involve no fertiliser or herbicides.

Development of farm reservoirs – the abrupt steep embankments of reservoirs are intrusive features which are generally not well integrated in the Rolling Clay Farmland. Guidance to improve the integration of reservoir developments includes:

- Extend existing woodlands and tree belts with new planting that is carefully designed to screen the abrupt slopes and access roads that are associated with new storage reservoirs. Extensive new planting will be required to integrate this form of infrastructure within this relatively open arable landscape.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 94 and 95 (within the section referring to the Plateau Estate Farmland landscape type) illustrate how the issue of integrating farm reservoirs in large scale agricultural landscapes might be approached using a hypothetical example.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Rolling Clay Farmland

- Conserve existing mature woodlands, trees and hedgerows, which give a strong rectilinear structure to the landscape; aim to increase the proportion of tree cover
- Ensure new development (and infrastructure) is integrated by new tree planting that is designed to reinforce and extend existing patterns of trees and woodlands.
- Conserve and enhance the network of narrow hedged roads and tracks, which contrasts with the surrounding open farmland
- New planting at the entrances to villages will enhance these gateway views and strengthen distinctive landscape character
Plateau Estate Farmlands

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Gently rolling farmland on light, sandy soils
- Field ponds
- Large scale rectilinear pattern of fields interspersed with large blocks of woodland and tree belts
- Discontinuous hedgerows; groups of mature hedgerow oaks and ash trees are occasional features
- Clustered villages and scattered farmsteads connected by a network of straight lanes
- Remnants of 18th and 19th century parkland landscapes
- Long views, framed by woodlands and tree belts.

Landscape character

A gently rolling plateau farmland landscape, which forms a transition between the heathlands of the central Brecks and the clay farmlands to the south and east. The plateau is formed from a mixture of chalky clay and sandy glacial deposits which have developed mainly free-draining loams and sandy soils. There are relatively few water courses, but round field ponds are a common feature on parts of the plateau, where there are pockets of heavy clay.

This large scale landscape of big open fields, woodland blocks and straight tree belts developed as a result of the late enclosure of areas of common land and heath. Traditionally the area around Bury St Edmunds was one of large common fields and heaths and some common-field arable farming was surviving here in the 18th and early 19th centuries, when it was enclosed through parliamentary acts. The late enclosure has resulted in a relatively open, planned landscape with regularly shaped fields bounded by straight hedge-lines.
Remnant tree clumps and lines of mature trees provide a hint of former designed landscapes on parts of the plateau. The most prominent is the parkland surrounding the Tudor mansion of Hengrave Hall on the terraces to the south of the Lark Valley near Bury St Edmunds. The mansion dates from the 1530s, when it was built by Sir Thomas Kytson, a London merchant who dealt in luxury textiles. It is constructed from pale bricks and stone - some taken from demolished local monastic houses following their dissolution. The original park at Hengrave was established over former common field strips in 1587, and still retains much of its original shape and layout, with some redesign in the picturesque tradition in the early 19th century.

The enclosure of heathland and marginal farmland in the wider landscape at this time, a period of economic recession, provided the opportunity for an influx of wealthy landowners to purchase and create landscape parks. An example within the study area is the 19th century terraced gardens and pleasure grounds at Culford Park and the former hall and parkland at Fornham St Genevieve which has since been demolished and its park excavated for sand and gravel.

In most places the historic parkland landscapes are no longer obvious landscape features, but occasional stretches of well built stone or brick walls and farm buildings and short avenues of trees provide clues to this former use. The small clumps of ancient woodland near Risby are remnants of wood pasture and contain important veteran trees.

The Plateau Estate Farmlands have a long history of settlement, with clustered small villages and dispersed farmsteads connected by a network of straight lanes and tracks. The scale of the landscape pattern varies according to the composition of the underlying soils, drainage and the location of settlement, but the overriding pattern is one of large rectilinear arable fields bounded by low hedgerows or tree belts and interspersed with large blocks of woodland. There are some Scots Pine tree belts, but these are not dominant over the landscape type as a whole. Most areas of former heathland and common have been enclosed as farmland.
What’s important and why?

The strong geometry and large scale pattern of the Plateau Estate Farmlands landscape is not inherently vulnerable to change and this is a relatively robust landscape which is likely to be able to accommodate change without detriment to its distinctive landscape character. However, the typical long, open views across the farmland plateau (and often across adjacent landscape types) are a sensitive component of the local landscape. These long views provide a strong sense of the extensive rural character of the area and would be vulnerable to the development of tall structures which could not be screened by woodland blocks. Other elements and features of the landscape that are particularly sensitive to change are the hedged straight lanes, groups of mature hedgerow trees (which may sometimes be remnants of historic parkland landscapes) and field ponds.
The large scale, geometric pattern of this farmland landscape is relatively robust. The landscape is in moderately good condition, although hedgerow removal is common and this detracts from the resilience of landscape, particularly where it occurs alongside local lanes and tracks. Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- narrow, straight hedged lanes and field tracks;
- groups of mature hedgerow oak trees at junctions and near settlements; and
- round field ponds
- the regular, inter-connecting pattern of woodlands, copses and tree belts which provides a strong overarching landscape structure.

Long, open views across the plateau farmland create a sense of an extensive, deeply rural and tranquil farmland. Views are framed by blocks of woodland and wooded shelterbelts, which provide a strong visual screen, but open arable fields predominate and overall the landscape feels relatively open, with a strong depth of vision and opportunities for views across adjacent landscape types.

Key components of landscape value are:

- pockets of remnant semi-natural ancient woodland at Brakey Pin, Flempton and Oak Pin and Old Broom, Risby (designated as County Wildlife Sites);
- Hengrave Hall and the remnant historic landscape parklands at Culford Park (grade II listed) and at Hengrave (although the park is not on English Heritage’s registered list of historic parks and gardens);
- conservation areas and clusters of listed buildings (often medieval) at the villages of Hengrave, Fornham all Saints, Great Livermere, Honington, Ixworth Thorpe and Coney Weston
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Plateau Estate Farmlands.

Expansion of existing settlements and the creation of new settlement patterns. The regular, large scale pattern of arable fields and woodlands has the capacity to accommodate new built development as the extensive pattern of woodland cover can be adapted to integrate settlement growth, providing a partial screen to reduce the degree of landscape and visual impact. Guidance for integrating new built development includes:

• Integrate the settlement edge with the surrounding rural and sparsely settled countryside by extending existing woodland and tree belts and connecting hedgerows so that the visual impact of built development is softened.
• Conserve the small-scale pattern of rural roads, particularly at the entrance to settlements. New hedgerow tree planting in these locations will provide positive gateway features which are typical of this landscape type.
• Maintain a geometric pattern of straight lanes and built frontages, which fits with the existing scale and pattern of the settlement edge landscape.
• Conserve the clustered pattern of settlement which is typical of this landscape – linear development should be avoided.
• Avoid the expansion of settlement close to the margins of this landscape type, where the plateau meets adjacent river valleys. Built development in such locations risks significant landscape and visual impacts because of the abrupt change in scale between the large scale plateau farmland and the small scale of adjacent valley landscape types.

Conversion and expansion of farmsteads, for agricultural, residential and/or commercial uses - Some farmsteads are of medieval origin and incorporate listed buildings, but the majority are ‘late’ historic farm buildings dating from the 19th century enclosure and may have the potential to accommodate expansion and conversion to other uses, provided patterns of existing trees and woodlands are conserved and extended to provide a partial visual screen and integrate the new development. Guidance for integrating new farm development includes:

Former airfields may be targeted for development as brownfield sites; they are often exceptionally open, large-scale landscapes, which require extensive structural planting to integrate new development.
• Conserve the scale and proportion of the farmstead within the context of the surrounding large scale landscape. Views to farmsteads and farm buildings are commonplace in the Plateau Estate Farmlands, but these are typically long views, with buildings seen in the middle distance across open fields and framed by woodlands and tree belts. Expansion of farmsteads in small-scale landscapes of in locations where they are alongside roads would be more difficult to accommodate without changing local landscape character.
• Conserve the characteristic clustered form of farmsteads and avoid linear development
• Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present – staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way, as a permanent dark or black colouring is not locally appropriate.
• Minimise visible changes to the surrounding agricultural landscape, as land use changes (including the introduction of garden boundaries, lighting and other suburban features) have the potential to be more visually intrusive than built development in this large scale, relatively open landscape.
• Integrate new large-scale agricultural buildings in open countryside by careful choice of form, orientation and colour of buildings. Whenever possible, new agricultural buildings should relate to an existing cluster of buildings and to existing mature trees and woodlands which can provide a backdrop to views. Carefully designed tree planting, which extends the existing pattern of plantations, tree belts and hedgerows, will help to integrate and screen new agricultural development.

Changes in the management and use of historic parklands - Any proposals for change could have a negative impact on historic landscapes. The majority of sites, regardless of designation status, will require an overarching management plan or strategy to guide change. This should be based on historic research and should cover the conservation, preservation and management of existing historic features, as well as the restoration or creation of new or lost ones.

Individual sites may require deer fencing to support their establishment, as well as new woodland planting to mitigate landscape and visual impacts.

Changes in agricultural subsidies and management, which would drive changes in the intensity of cultivation and the management of field boundaries. The changes in cropping practices that have taken place across some of the plateau farmlands, such as the use of fleece and plastic, as well as outdoor pig production, have had a significant effect on the landscape.
The siting and style of structures subject to planning control, such as static feed bins for pigs and polytunnels should be appropriately conditioned to minimise their landscape impact. Guidance for farm management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character include:

- Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedgerows, maintaining the existing proportion of open fields to woodland.
- Increase the connectivity of the network of woodlands, tree belts and hedgerows, introducing new planting to connect gaps, maintaining buffer strips alongside trees and boundaries to protect the ecological corridors from mechanical and chemical damage.
- Enhance the diversity of woodland and arable field habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.
- Plant deciduous native trees on the fringes of woodlands and plantations to enhance their ecological value and visual character.
- Conserve and manage field ponds and their associated fringe habitats, providing a 2m buffer to protect the wetland from mechanical damage and eutrophication.

**New infrastructure development – including reservoirs and roads** – the abrupt steep embankments of reservoirs are intrusive features which are generally not well integrated in the Plateau Estate Farmlands. Guidance to improve the integration of these and other infrastructure developments include:

- Extend existing woodlands and tree belts with new planting that is carefully designed to screen the abrupt slopes and access roads that are associated with new storage reservoirs. Extensive new planting will be required to integrate this form of infrastructure within this relatively open arable landscape.
- Ensure new hedgerows are planted alongside new or altered roads in order to reduce the perceived scale of road developments and integrate with the existing network of rectilinear boundaries. Blocks of woodland should extend right up to the edge of roads in places, creating ‘pinch-points’ along the roads and adding variety to local views.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 94 and 95 illustrate how the issue of integrating farm reservoirs in large scale agricultural landscapes might be approached using a hypothetical example.
Integrating reservoir development

Reservoir seems visually intrusive in view from local roads and public rights of way

One approach to tackling the issue of visually intrusive reservoir development - illustrated as a hypothetical example.

Engineered landform looms above local horizon and tree-line
NEW foreground tree planting breaks the local horizon in views from the road, softening the stark appearance of the reservoir landform.

May be opportunities for new meadow and woodland habitat on leftover pieces of land.

Compensation planting off-site assists integration at landscape scale.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Plateau Estate Farmlands

- Reinforce the historic pattern of regular, rectilinear boundaries
- Restore, maintain and enhance the inter-connected network of tree belts and plantations which provide a strong visual structure across this landscape type
- Extend existing woodland and tree belts to ensure that new development is always partially screened and viewed against a wooded backdrop
- Conserve the characteristic contrasts in scale and pattern of the plateau farmland landscape
Settled Fen

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Completely flat and low lying landscape of peaty soils on the margins of the Fens
- Small-medium rectangular paddocks and fields, separated by reed filled drainage ditches
- Patches of carr woodland provide some enclosure and break the geometry of the field pattern
- Scattered scrub along roads and some field margins
- Pony paddocks and small holdings
- Unsettled, but often fringed by settlement on the more elevated margins of the Fens and the Brecks

Landscape character

A completely flat, low lying landscape on the eastern margins of the Fen Basin along the lower reaches of the Rivers Lark, Little Ouse and Nar near to their confluence with the extensive floodplain fens of the Fen Basin. Small areas of Settled Fen are found on the far western edge of the study area at Hurst Fen (north of Mildenhall), Wangford Fen, the lower Little Ouse (west of Brandon) and part of Marham Fen.

These areas have an underlying micro-topography of sandy hummocks and peat-filled hollows, covered by a desiccating surface peat layer that gives the area the appearance of a flat plain. Most of the land is at sea level, but small sandy islands and ridges may rise to about 4m above sea level. The black, peaty soils vary from very sandy, where underlying sand ridges are close to the surface, to almost pure peat over the deeper hollows.

The extent of the Fen Basin changed over time as this vast area was progressively and repeatedly flooded and clogged by silt from rising sea levels and marsh from sluggish river courses. This changing hydrology would have influenced levels of groundwater saturation around the margins of the Fen Basin, although the springs on the edges of Eriswell Lode and Wangford Fen would have maintained marshy fen in their vicinity. From post-glacial times the edges of the Fens were a focus for settlement and archaeological
excavation at such sites has revealed finds that date from the Mesolithic period onwards. The sites of a Neolithic settlement at Hurst Fen, near Mildenhall, of Saxon occupation on Chequer Meadow, Brandon and a substantial Romano-British site at Leylands Farm, Hockwold all fall within the Settled Fenland. They would have been close to water and to a variety of different habitats and hunting grounds, but on land that was sufficiently dry for settlement. Hoards of Bronze Age metalwork have been found from area of the Fen edge, including sites further downstream on the edge of the Rivers Wissey and Little Ouse and some archaeologists suggest that they are the relics of ritual ceremonies where valuable weapons and implements were thrown into the marsh. Such finds demonstrate the importance of the fen edge landscape to the early settlers.

From the medieval period, parts of these marginal fens were open fen common, such as Mildenhall Common Fen and some areas were classified as ‘Poor’s Fen’, where the village poor, lacking other rights, were still able to cut peat or harvest sedge, such as Pashford Poor’s Fen in the south-west part of Wangford Fen. Most of the marginal fens were drained through ‘assarting’ - the process by which common land was enclosed piecemeal by private landowners to form pasture. This process enabled local economic diversification, with products such as meat, butter and wool alongside the traditional
fenland products of reed, sedge and peat. The marginal Settled Fen areas would have been on the cusp of the productive pasturelands and the marshy fen. They were unsettled, but would have been an important part of the mix of landscape types which formed a productive parish. Following drainage, the land was allotted in small parcels and this relatively small scale pattern of agriculture, small holdings and paddocks remains today. It is very different to the vast scale of the open arable landscapes of the central fens to the west.

The first edition OS Map shows that by 1882, the margins of Wangford Fen had been ditched and reclaimed but it also shows areas of marsh on the margins of the fen, for instance on the edges of Palmer’s Heath but also to the east of the road that is now the A1065. This evidence suggests that the Settled Fen was more extensive and wetter in the 19th century than it is today.

Today the area of Wangford Fen has been reduced as the fen soils have become progressively drier. The hydrological changes in the area reflect improved drainage in the wider fen basin, along with abstraction
of groundwater sources. The pattern of change varies from one locality to the next. For instance, the hydrology of Hurst Fen and Eriswell Lode Fen was relatively unaffected by 18th and 19th century drainage schemes, but these marginal fens became drier as a result of the construction of the Cut-off Channel in the early 1960s. This flood relief channel runs some 27 miles northwards from the River Lark at Barton Mills to Denver and intercepts the waters of the Rivers Lark, Little Ouse and Wissey, carrying them directly to the complex of sluices at Denver.

There is a striking contrast in character between the sandy heathland and plantations of the Brecks and the flat, pastures, paddocks and reed-filled ditches of the Settled Fen. The transition to the expansive, arable farmlands of the wider fen basin is more gradual, but the small-scale pattern and scruffy, marginal character of the Settled Fen landscape is distinctive. Areas close to larger settlements are dominated by pony paddocks and small holdings, while the more remote parts of Wangford Fen are small pastures and arable fields, always surrounded by reed-filled ditches. The fields are partially enclosed by scrub and gappy hedgerows and the area has a rather unkempt appearance, particularly on the fringes of settlements, where the sheds, signs and fences associated with smallholdings and horsiculture are sometimes prominent.

The pattern of rectangular fields is interrupted by areas of carr and wet woodland, which are of high biodiversity importance. For instance, Hurst Fen and Howlett Hills, together with Mildenhall Woods support a valuable mosaic of wetland habitats, with peripheral areas of acid grassland. The whole area has County Wildlife Site status, as does Marham Fen in the north of the study area. Overall the Settled Fen seems fairly enclosed, with a scruffy character. Belts of poplars are occasional prominent features on some field margins and small conifer plantations are encroaching along the eastern margins of Wangford Fen.
What’s important and why?

The Settled Fen ‘feels’ like a remnant landscape, caught between the ‘busy’ landscape of the settlements and roads on the edge of the fens and the wide open, vast plain of the Fens to the west. Much of the Settled Fen has a degraded, piecemeal character and seems ‘hemmed in’ by surrounding, more dominant landscape types.

The small-scale geometric pattern of the landscape is vulnerable to change and is generally highly visible from local roads. Areas with a relatively high proportion of woodland are able to accommodate some change, but much of the woodland within the Settled Fen is wet woodland, of high biodiversity value and even these areas are small in scale. Overall this is a vulnerable landscape, of high biodiversity value, in areas that are under pressure for change.
**Landscape character sensitivity**

Small-scale, untidy and ‘remnant’ character which is under pressure for change from adjacent development and land uses. Vulnerable to change because signs, structures and even new planting can cumulatively change and easily overwhelm the characteristic small-scale landscape pattern.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- Small-scale pattern of rectangular paddocks and fields
- Reed-filled ditches
- Rural lanes

**Visual sensitivity**

Much of the Settled Fen are visible from adjacent roads and there are often views across the Settled Fen to adjacent landscape types. There is very little scope to accommodate landscape change without fundamentally changing the proportion and scale of the landscape pattern.

The open Settled Fen landscapes of Wangford Fen and the lower Little Ouse valley have particularly high visual sensitivity.

**Landscape value**

Parts of the Settled Fen (at Hurst Fen, Wangford Fen and the Little Ouse Valley) are within the Breckland Special Protection Area and therefore make a contribution to the habitats of the stone curlew, nightjar and woodlark. Overall, the most valuable ecological habitats are the fen, reedbeds, wet grassland, wet woodland and carr, which are S41 UK priority habitats.

The Neolithic settlement site at Hurst Fen, the Romano-British settlement site at Leylands Farm, undated earthworks on the edge of the Little Ouse river and the Saxon occupation site at Chequer Meadow, Brandon are all scheduled ancient monuments of national importance for their archaeological record.
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the Settled Fen.

Development management – There is pressure for built development on the fringes of some parts of the Settled Fen, but the small-scale pattern of landownership and pressure for new structures, caravans, signs, changes to garden curtilage and property extensions, as well as a range of temporary commercial uses, can result in change that is visually intrusive. This is particularly a problem where smallholdings and houses are located adjacent to roads. Some of these changes may be beyond the remit of the development control system. Guidance for minimising negative impacts of adjacent development includes:

- Conserve existing mature trees, woodlands and hedgerows, which form a backdrop to new structures and signs
- New planting should be of native broadleaf species and designed to integrate development within the scale and character of the landscape, reflecting the existing pattern of fields
- Conserve the small-scale network of ditches, reeds and scrub that forms the characteristic boundary to fields
- Avoid earthworks and changes to the local (completely flat) landform
- Avoid linear development along the narrow roads and lanes
- Minimise visible changes to the surrounding agricultural landscape, as land use changes (including the introduction of garden boundaries, lighting and other suburban features) have the potential to be visually intrusive.
- Building materials should be appropriate for the style of existing buildings present. Brick is often used. Staining used for exterior boarding should be capable of weathering in the traditional way.

New infrastructure development, including signage, lighting and improvements to roads – the narrow roads and rural lanes are the most accessible parts of the Settled Fen and views from the roads to the surrounding landscape are highly sensitive to change. Guidance to improve the integration of road and utility infrastructure developments includes:

Large sheds and farm buildings can seem over scaled within the small-scale Settled Fen.
• Plant new hedgerows alongside new or altered roads to integrate these changes within the former small-scale landscape pattern, but some of the Settled Fen roads are not enclosed by hedgerows and in these situations the pre-existing landcover pattern should be re-established.
• Avoid modification to the existing hydrological system and the network of ditches and dykes that typically surround fields and run alongside roads.
• Avoid traffic calming measures and signage in rural locations that could have an urbanising effect.
• Design small scale infrastructure such as signage, lighting and interpretation boards with simple forms and appropriate local materials so that it is well integrated within the surrounding landscape. Control the use of visually intrusive and unnecessary signage.

Over abstraction of water from the Brecks’ rivers and chalk aquifer has increased, along with flood management measures designed to get the water away quickly. This has led to drying out of former wetland habitats in the Settled Fen, as well as to the accumulation of silt and changes in the aquatic vegetation structure. In addition, high nutrient levels are a problem in many of the rivers and can lead to prolific algal growth and associated dissolved oxygen problems, particularly during period of low flow. Such water stress problems are exacerbated by the erratic and extreme climatic events associated with climate change. Guidance for managing water levels and water quality includes:

• Recognise the role of lower river valleys, with areas of fen, for the storage of floodwater and aquifer recharge and encourage the use of floodplains for these purposes
• Work in partnership with farmers to encourage the uptake of agri-environment options that harvest and conserve water, protect watercourses and prevent water quality deterioration by reducing diffuse pollution, ensuring compliance with regulations on nitrate vulnerable zones to manage fertiliser inputs.
• Manage agricultural practices that could result in damage to water quality, including manure and slurry applications, particularly soil erosion and sedimentation in flood conditions due to intensive pig rearing.
• Increase grassland strips along field drains and water courses in areas of arable land to capture sediment and nutrients
• Create buffer areas between points of potential nutrient input and sensitive riparian habitats.
Land use changes within this small-scale landscape pattern. The key pressure for change is the use of meadows for horse paddocks, but there may also be pressures for intensification of agriculture, with conversion of pastures to arable fields. There may also be pressures for the expansion of domestic gardens or paddocks, all of which can have a significant visual effect. Guidance for managing such local-scale change includes:

- New tree and (in some areas) hedgerow planting (using native species) along field and property boundaries may integrate and screen land use changes that result in visual intrusion in a locally appropriate manner.
- Minimise the proliferation of different types of boundary enclosure; brown fencing tapes should be used and planting may be necessary to soften the impact of post-and-rail fencing. Field shelters and material storage areas should be sited so as to minimise their visual impact.
- New or expanded garden curtilage should be designed to fit into the local context and respect the established pattern. The objective is to create a clearly defined distinction between the wholly domestic areas and, for example, land to be used as a paddock.
- The use of low impact materials such as post and wire fencing is preferable to close boarded fencing or fence panels.

Fragmentation of ecological networks and changes in land use, which have the potential to change the balance and quality of land uses and sensitive landscape elements with the Settled Fen. Guidance for land management practices that will conserve and enhance distinctive landscape character includes:

- Manage and buffer existing trackways and track verges in accordance with cultivated agri-environmental prescriptions which are likely to involve no fertiliser or herbicides.
- Consider strategic management that buffers and links multiple woodland sites of biodiversity value into large contiguous networks.
- Conserve and enhance the character, quality and connectivity of woodlands, shelterbelts and field hedgerows, maintaining and increasing the overall proportion of woodland to arable fields within the overall landscape pattern.
- Enhance the diversity of woodland and farmland habitats by woodland management to improve the age structure and species composition of woodlands and plantations.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the Settled Fen

- Manage water levels and water quality to conserve the biodiversity of the sensitive wetland habitats found within the Settled Fen
- Conserve and enhance the small-scale landscape pattern of the Settled Fen, minimising the landscape and visual impact of local changes to boundaries and the addition of structures, signs and temporary uses
- Conserve existing mature trees, woodland and hedgerows; new planting should reinforce existing landscape patterns, integrating and partially screening new development
Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Lush, small scale landscape defined by shallow river valleys with a subtle sense of enclosure
- A mix of peat, sandy and alluvium on flat valley floor; often drift deposits of sand and gravel on flat or very gently sloping valley sides
- Diverse mosaic of wetland habitats surrounding headwater springs and alongside river channel, including areas of reedbed, carr woodland, marsh and fen
- Small irregularly shaped floodplain pastures, divided by a network of ditches and dykes, contrast with surrounding arable fields
- Curving narrow rural roads and tracks often define the edge of the floodplain
- Concentration of historic sites, reflecting a long history of human settlement and intervention
- Settlements are sited on floodplain edge, often at historic crossing points
- Gravel extraction, resulting in extensive lakes and reedbeds
- Intimate, tranquil landscape

Landscape character

The River Valleys landscape type includes all of the river valleys within the Brecks with the exception of the River Nar, a chalk river which is described separately as a Chalk River Valley landscape type. The valley systems of the Rivers Wissey, Thet, Little Ouse (with the Black Bourn) and Lark are described within the Brecks River Valleys landscape type.

The Brecks river valley systems were formed by glacial outwash at the end of the Anglian Glaciation, the last time that ice sheets extended as far as the Brecks. The glacial meltwaters carved shallow valleys into the chalk plateau, draining westwards to the fen basin from the more elevated boulder clays of central Suffolk and Norfolk. Drifts of sand and gravel were often deposited by the glacial meltwaters on the valley sides and have had a strong influence on valley soils, on early colonisation and on the development
of agriculture and mineral workings. In places the glacial drift material is overlain with peat dominated soils.

The river valley floodplains are predominantly pasture, although there are areas of wet meadow, fen, reedbed, alder/willow carr and wet woodland, which create a diverse, small-scale mosaic of valuable wetland habitats within the linear river valley corridor. The distribution of archaeological finds demonstrates that the Brecks river valleys have been the focus for human settlement since Mesolithic times, demonstrating the importance of proximity to water in the relatively dry landscape of the Brecks. Early settlers used the rivers for transportation and communication and benefited from the rich diversity of produce available on the fertile floodplains. The meadows were used for grazing stock, with waterlogged areas left as fen or utilised as wet woodland or alder carr.

There are Mesolithic sites along the Lark and Little Ouse and pottery scatters from the Bronze Age suggest the edge of river valleys were favoured as sites for settlement. The pattern of scattered farmsteads along river valleys persisted throughout the Iron Age. Excavations at West Stow suggest a small self sufficient farmstead with animal husbandry based on cattle. The gravel river terrace deposits provided dry riverside sites for settlement at West Harling, where excavations revealed four enclosures on a
gravel terrace overlooking the River Thet, and at Thetford, where an Iron Age fort may have been strategically sited to control the fords where historic routes crossed the rivers Ouse and Thet. Many clustered riverside settlements, such as Brettenham and Icklingham, originated as river fording or bridging points and other hamlets developed around medieval mills. Villages, farmsteads and halls were always sited on the higher land on the edge of the floodplain or on higher ‘islands’ of gravel within the valleys as at Santon House (and church) on the Little Ouse. A few medieval farmsteads, usually of manorial rank, were moated. Small stone or brick bridges are attractive landmarks throughout the River Valleys, often at the centre of historic villages. Traditional building materials are red brick and flint, visible in historic walls, churches, halls and farmsteads throughout the river valley landscapes.

During the 18th and 19th century, parkland landscapes were developed in many river valleys, for instance at Shadwell and West Harling (on the River Thet), Didlington, Hilborough and Bodney (on the River Wissey) and Culford (on the River Lark). Lakes, woodlands and groups of specimen parkland trees are remnant features in many valleys.

The floodplain landscapes are defined by curving historic field boundaries and often by narrow
roads and tracks. Floodplain meadows are divided by wet ditches or dykes that in places are lined by trees or scrubby hedges supplemented by post and wire fencing. The floodplain land is commonly subdivided by dykes set at right angles to the river channel, forming a distorted ‘ladder’ pattern. The valley grassland usually forms part of a larger agricultural land holding, with larger fields on drier, elevated land and there are sometimes arable fields on land that has been drained on the upper fringes of valleys. Remnant former commons, heathland and medieval warrens such as Cavenham Heath (on the River Lark), Snarehill Warren (on the Little Ouse) and Mundford Common (on the River Wissey) developed on free draining terrace gravels with acidic soils and suggest the diversity of historic land use within the river valleys.

The river valleys are relatively lush, with a naturally high groundwater. These spring-fed wetlands support rich aquatic habitats, with an exceptionally diverse range of species, including some that are rare and of national importance. These include the native white-clawed crayfish (in the Little Ouse), otters and water voles. Parts of the headwater fen habitats are of international importance, with aquatic flora and invertebrate species that are adapted to the nutrient-poor, chalky water and fluctuating levels of flow. Within the river valleys, the diverse mosaic of wetland habitats includes reedbeds, grazing marsh, floodplain meadows, carr woodland and unimproved grassland, all connected by a network of ditches, dykes, tributary streams and water courses.

The Little Ouse has a wooded character as it passes through Thetford Forest.
Gravel extraction has been a significant influence within river valleys where there are extensive terrace gravel deposits, most notably in the valley of the River Lark, but also at Ickburgh (River Wissey) and near Thetford (Little Ouse). The resulting large pools and reedbeds form part of the mosaic of wetland habitats on the valley floor; at Lackford, the gravel pits are a Local Nature Reserve.

All the River Valleys have a small, intimate scale which contrasts with the surrounding typically large scale landscapes of the Brecks, but the character of the individual river valleys varies. The valleys of the Thet and Little Ouse are well wooded and the western part of the Thet valley is dominated by the plantations of Thetford Forest. Away from the influence of the larger settlements of Brandon and Thetford, these river valleys seem narrow and secluded. The valley of the River Lark has a broader floodplain and a larger scale, with extensive heathland near Icklingham. The Black Bourn has a deeply rural character, with attractive open views to the surrounding farmland and parkland at Euston Hall. The valley system of the River Wissey also has a small scale character, but here the tributary river valleys are secluded, with a secretive, almost domestic scale.

What’s important and why?

The narrow, secluded River Valleys that thread through the Brecks are exceptionally sensitive landscapes because their small-scale, diverse landscape mosaic can easily be overwhelmed by development and by local changes in land use or water quality/flow. This vulnerability is heightened by the narrow form of most river valleys and their subtle landform, which ensures that their intimate landscape character can be disrupted by changes in adjacent landscape types.

Sections of the River Valleys are in good condition, with an intact lowland river valley assemblage of natural water course and historic landscape elements, including alder carr, floodplain meadow and fen. However, in places the small-scale landscape pattern is disrupted by mineral extraction, linear built development and by the realignment and widening of adjacent roads.

The traditional land management system of the river valleys is cattle grazing, but many relatively inaccessible, small valley floor pastures are neglected and peripheral to any form of active agriculture and are in poor condition due to under-grazing and scrub encroachment or their use as horse paddocks.
The intimate scale and diverse character of the River Valleys is vulnerable to change as the distinctive small scale pattern of these landscapes is finely balanced and can easily be overwhelmed by changes in the proportion or scale of individual elements. In addition, the typically narrow form and subtle topography of the River Valleys ensures that they are very sensitive to changes in adjacent landscapes.

Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are:

- Small-scale, diverse mosaic of riparian and wetland habitats which contrasts with surrounding larger scale landscapes
- Sinuous edges of floodplain, river and marsh, defined by curving tracks, roads and hedgerows
- Historic bridges and villages at crossing points, including particularly the fording points of the Icknield Way
- Subtle landform and narrow form of river valleys

In general, the River Valleys have a secluded character which is distinctly more enclosed and smaller-scale than the surrounding Brecks landscapes. Views are typically enclosed by the hedgerows, woodland, carr woodland and groups of trees on the valley floor and along rural lanes. Churches and village buildings are often surprise landmarks in local views.

There are strong contrasts in the visual character and accessibility of the different river valleys, depending on opportunities for views from local roads and bridges.

Since the majority of Brecks settlements are sited on the fringes of the River Valleys, these landscapes provide the setting and focus for local views and corridors of movement for a relatively high proportion of residents and visitors.

Key components of landscape value are:

- Exceptionally valuable spring-fed wetlands and headwater fen habitats, some of which are of international importance and included within the Breckland SAC
- Concentration of semi-natural wetland habitats, including many SSSIs and County Wildlife Sites;
- Numerous historic bridges and riverside settlements, mills and halls – conservation areas and clusters of listed buildings
- Important archaeological sites, including Bronze Age, Romano-British and Saxon settlements
- Remnant historic landscape parklands, eg Didlington and Shadwell.
Landscape strategy

The principal forces for landscape change are set out below, along with notes on how the changes can be managed to conserve the distinctive landscape character of the River Valleys.

**New built development within riverside settlements and alongside roads adjacent to valley floodplains.** Settlement in the Brecks has historically been concentrated along the river valleys and the narrow, small-scale valley landscapes form part of the landscape setting of historic village centres. Views from and along the valley floor are vulnerable to any large scale development within the riverside villages and, in particular, along the valley-side roads. Guidance for integrating new built development includes:

- Conserve the small-scale character of the valley settlements, with a sequence of framed views to and from the valley floor; avoid over-scaled buildings which project above the skyline.
- Conserve the character of river valley views to landmark buildings and bridges and also the occasional longer framed views that connect the river valley landscapes to the surrounding farmlands, heathlands and commons in the surrounding Brecks Heathland Mosaic.
- New built development should be related to existing clusters of buildings. Avoid linear development along valley side roads which intrudes upon their rural character and disrupts the characteristic gateway approach to individual villages along the valley routes.
- The majority of valley side built development will be visible from the valley floor and should be designed to the highest standards, using local materials that fit sympathetically with the local vernacular. In most river valley landscapes this means bricks, with some clunch, flint and render.
- Maintain the rural road network, resisting highway upgrading works that could have an urbanising influence and giving priority to the conservation of historic river crossing points.
- New planting associated with valley side development can help to conserve the enclosed, secluded character of villages by providing a backdrop to views from the valley floor. Planting should be of native species and should be designed to extend the visual influence of existing tree groups and belts of woodland, creating curving ‘layers’ of native vegetation that give visual emphasis to the sinuous form of the river valley.
Land use changes, which disrupt the characteristic diverse, small-scale patterns of fields and habitats on the valley floor. The loss of traditional grazed floodplain pastures and the creation of small horse paddocks and associated structures can significantly degrade the quality and condition of the river valley landscapes. Pastures that are inaccessible or of marginal economic value may be left unused and become colonised by wet woodland and scrub. Guidance for managing land use change includes:

- Support the continuation of traditional economic activities, including grazing with cattle and sheep. The continuation of traditional agricultural practices is integral to the character and condition of the river valley landscapes and grazing is often critical to the successful management of important wildlife sites in the landscape.
- Maintain a high proportion of grassland. The conversion of grassland to arable production as a result of drainage and ‘shaving off’ areas of grassland on the drier, outer fringes of valley pastures reduces the scale and integrity of the river valley landscapes. Arable reversion, through agri-environment schemes, or with expansion of livestock enterprises, can help to maintain the character of this landscape and also deliver ecological benefits.
- Manage the proportion of wet woodland and scrub and encourage appropriate planting and management of woodlands. The river valley landscapes contain a mix of wet and plantation woodland and it is important to conserve a balance that is appropriate and in keeping with the distinctive local character and level of enclosure of each river valley landscape. While wet woodland is an important part of the habitat mix, excessive creation of plantation woodland should be avoided.
- Mitigate the impact of horse grazing. The proliferation of post and rail fencing and the subdivision of land into small paddocks using temporary tape can be particularly intrusive. If necessary, brown or green tape should be conditioned and planting required to soften the impact of the fencing and structures associated with horsiculture. Where possible, field layouts should be designed to reflect the historic pattern of boundaries and field shelters and material storage areas should also be located to minimise their visual impact.

Neglect of characteristic ditch and hedgerow networks. The small-scale, often irregular pattern of valley floodplain meadows is a distinctive feature of the river valley landscapes, which is vulnerable to changes in drainage and land use. Guidance for conserving these field patterns includes:

- Conserve the small-scale historic field pattern, particularly on the fringes of riverside settlements.

Traditional grazing on the broad pastures beside the River Lark near Icklingham.
• Give priority to the conservation of the curved and sinuous boundaries, marked by hedgerows and trees, that often occur on and along the edge of river floodplains; many are historic, species rich hedgerows which conserve the rural, enclosed character of the valley and some mark abandoned meanders or the course of former tributary streams.
• Conserve and manage the network of ditches and dykes on the floodplain, which connect and maintain riparian and wetland habitats along the floodplain.

Over abstraction of water from the Brecks’ rivers and chalk aquifer has increased, leading to insufficient levels for agriculture and the conservation of the valuable wetland habitats within the fluctuating meres and river valleys. This has led to drying out of upper and middle sections and riparian zones, but also to accumulation of silt and changes in the aquatic vegetation structure. In addition, high nutrient levels are a problem in many of the rivers and can lead to prolific algal growth and associated dissolved oxygen problems, particularly during period of low flow. Such water stress problems are exacerbated by the erratic and extreme climatic events associated with climate change. Guidance for managing water levels and water quality includes:

• Recognise the role of river valleys for the storage of floodwater and aquifer recharge and encourage the use of floodplains for these purposes so that the floodplain grasslands contribute directly to aquifer recharge into the chalk in areas where overlying glacial deposits are permeable.
• Work in partnership with farmers to encourage the uptake of agri-environment options that harvest and conserve water, protect watercourses and prevent water quality deterioration by reducing diffuse pollution, ensuring compliance with regulations on nitrate vulnerable zones to manage fertiliser inputs.
• Manage agricultural practices that could result in damage to water quality, including manure and slurry applications, particularly soil erosion and sedimentation in flood conditions due to intensive pig rearing.
• Increase grassland strips along field drains and water courses in areas of arable land to capture sediment and nutrients
• Create buffer areas between points of potential nutrient input and sensitive riparian habitats.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 119 and 120 illustrate how issues of over-abstraction might be approached using a hypothetical example.
Repair fragmented spring-fed wetlands in the valleys of the Lark, Wissey, Little Ouse and Thet rivers – the river valleys are amongst the most vulnerable and pressurized habitats in the Brecks. Guidance for wetland habitat conservation includes:

- Avoid physical modification of river channels – dredging river beds and confining water to specific channels for flood defence, drainage, navigation and other purposes leads to increased pressure on this fragile resource
- Encourage opportunities for the creation of new areas of priority reedbed, fen and alder carr woodland habitat in areas of relatively low biodiversity interest.

The ‘before-and-after’ sketches on pages 119 and 120 illustrate how issues of fragmentation and physical modification of water courses might be approached using a hypothetical example.

Erosion of the intimate, tranquil character of the river valleys as a result of increased visitor and recreational pressure. The River Valleys offer superb opportunities for recreation. They are the focus for settlement and the natural starting point for walks and cycle routes. They provide good access to nature, along with opportunities for environmental education and understanding heritage. However, there is a risk that the narrow roads and small village landscape of the river valleys could be overwhelmed by visitor pressures, with subsequent loss of their characteristic intimacy and tranquillity. Guidance for improvements to access and green infrastructure includes:

- Encourage multi-functional green infrastructure, with connections between the River Valleys and surrounding landscapes so that the small scale landscape of the river valleys is conserved. Access routes between the River Valleys and surrounding Heathland Farmland Mosaic will encourage understanding of the functional inter-relationships between the landscapes of the heaths, farmland and river valleys.
- Manage visitor pressures at popular and sensitive sites by investing in high quality infrastructure and interpretation, which meets the different needs and levels of use of a range of visitors. Carefully designed car parks and cycle routes are particularly important.
- Manage levels of potential disturbance by diverting cycle and vehicular routes away from sensitive riverside habitats.
- Provide high quality interpretation, with car parks and cycle hire at larger riverside centres, such as Thetford and Brandon and at visitor centres. Invest in and encourage the use of multi-user routes that take people into the river valleys and surrounding landscapes without their cars.
River floodplain landscapes

One approach to tackling issues of over-abstraction, modification of water channels (for flood water management) and the fragmentation of wetland habitats - illustrated as a hypothetical example.
Extensive re-grading of river banks increases storage capacity and restores floodplain.

Inter-connected network of wetland and riparian habitat along river corridor; wet pastures on floodplain.
Overarching principles and priorities for land management in the River Valleys

- Conserve the strong contrasts in scale and diversity between the River Valleys and surrounding farmland, heathland and plantation landscapes.
- Conserve the small-scale character of river valley settlements, with a sequence of framed views to and from the valley floor; avoid over-scaled buildings that project above the local skyline.
- Buffer sensitive river valley habitats from damage caused by development or agricultural practices.
- Conserve the characteristic proportions of the diverse mosaic of land uses within each river valley, encouraging traditional land use management, including grazing by cattle and sheep.
Chalk River Valleys
Chalk River Valleys

The River Nar, in the northern part of the Brecks, is classified separately to the other River Valleys because it is a ‘chalk river’, fed by springs arising from the underlying chalk. It has a distinctive landform and an exceptionally high biodiversity. The guidance set out for the River Valleys landscape type will also apply to the Chalk River Valleys and is not repeated in this section of the report.

Distinctive landscape characteristics

- Meandering fast-flowing chalk river, which flows through a narrow, often steep-sided valley.
- Narrow floodplain; grazing pasture is interspersed with areas of parkland, wet meadow and wet woodland.
- Enclosed, well wooded character, particularly in the vicinity of the parklands associated with Narford Hall.
- Small remnant heathy commons alongside the river, as at West Acre and Castle Acre.
- The course of the River Nar and sections of the floodplain are designated as SSSI due to its value as a chalk river habitat.
- Mill ponds, weirs, fords, bridging points and historic riverside walks – this is an accessible river with a sequence of attractive landmarks.
- River is a focus for settlement; a sequence of small villages is clustered along the river valley eg Narborough, West Acre, South Acre and Castle Acre.
- Historic parklands, with extensive woodlands, lakes and clusters of veteran trees at Narborough Hall and Narford Hall.
- Prominent historic landmarks at West Acre and Castle Acre.

Landscape character

The only river valley within the Chalk River Valleys landscape type that is within the Brecks study area is the River Nar. The valley systems of the Rivers Wissey, Thet, Little Ouse (with the Black Bourn) and Lark are described separately within the Brecks River Valleys landscape type.
The chalk rivers were formed by glacial outwash at the end of the Anglian Glaciation, the last time that ice sheets extended as far as the Brecks. The glacial meltwaters carved valleys into the chalk plateau, draining westwards to the fen basin from the more elevated boulder clays of central Suffolk and Norfolk. Drifts of sand and gravel were often deposited by the glacial meltwaters on the valley sides and have had a strong influence on valley soils, on early colonisation and on the development of agriculture and mineral workings. The course of the River Nar has a sequence of riffles and pools, with gravel beds. In places the glacial drift material is overlain with peat dominated soils and associated areas of heathland and common. The River Nar is fed by springs rising from the Upper Chalk and has cool lime-rich water that has a more constant temperature, with flows less affected by recent rainfall than other rivers. It flows within a narrow, meandering valley, which has steep slopes for part of the course (between Castle Acre and Narford Hall).

The entire course of the River Nar is designated as a SSSI because of its quality as a chalk river habitat, with areas of wet woodland, pasture and meadows on the valley floor.

The river valley floodplains are predominantly pasture, although there are areas of wet meadow, fen, reedbed, alder/willow carr and

River Nar at West Acre, next to the historic ford, mill pond and weir
wet woodland, which create a diverse, small-scale mosaic of valuable wetland habitats within the winding river valley corridor. The river valley is well wooded and views are contained by a combination of landform, woodland and hedgerows. The majority of the woodland is native broadleaf woodland associated with the extensive parklands of Narford Hall, but there are also Scots pine and broadleaf tree belts, copses and some conifer plantations within and on the fringes of the valley which contribute to its wooded, secluded character.

The floodplain widens to the east of Castle Acre and here the valley floor pastures are subdivided by a geometric network of field ditches and bounded by hedgerows and hedgerow trees.

Like the other Brecks river valleys, the River Nar has been the focus for human settlement since Mesolithic times, demonstrating the importance of proximity to water in the relatively dry landscape of the Brecks. Early settlers used the rivers for transportation and communication and benefited from the rich diversity of produce available on the fertile floodplains. The meadows were used for grazing stock, with waterlogged areas left as fen or utilised as wet woodland or alder carr.

The small town of Castle Acre developed at the point where the Peddar’s Way crossed the River Nar and the hamlet of West Acre developed around the site of a medieval mill. The ford, weirs and mill pond at West Acre and the Norman motte and bailey castle and priory at Castle Acre form part of a sequence of attractive landmarks along the river valley. Castle Acre has a prominent, defensive site overlooking the valley and the historic bridge crossing over the Nar. Here the traditional building materials include brick, carstone, clunch and flint. Some historic buildings are timber framed. Remnant former commons, such as Castle Acre Common, developed on free draining terrace gravels with acidic soils close to settlements and were part of the complex and small scale mosaic of land uses within the river valleys.

During the 18th and 19th century, a parkland landscape was developed at Narford Hall. The lake, designed parklands, woodlands and framed views associated with this mansion are a feature of the valley. Groups of smaller ponds and lakes along the valley floor originated as medieval mill ponds or, in some cases from more recent gravel extraction.

The Nar chalk river valley is relatively lush, with clear water and relatively stable water flow. These spring-fed wetlands support rich aquatic habitats, with an exceptionally diverse range of species, including some that are rare and of national importance. Within the chalk river valley...
valleys, the diverse mosaic of wetland habitats includes reedbeds, grazing marsh, floodplain meadows, carr woodland and unimproved grassland, all connected by a network of ditches, dykes, tributary streams and water courses.

Typical chalk river species include water crowfoot, brown trout, bullhead, white clawed crayfish, water vole and otter. Gravel extraction has been a significant influence in areas where there are extensive terrace gravel deposits, most notably near the village of South Acre. The resulting large pools and reedbeds form part of the mosaic of wetland habitats on the valley floor. The valley of the River Nar has an exceptionally diverse and enclosed rural character, with views to a sequence of historic landmark churches and village buildings, as well as the dramatic prominent ruined site of the castle and priory at Castle Acre.

What’s important and why?

The narrow, secluded Nar Chalk River Valley is an exceptionally sensitive landscape because its small-scale, diverse landscape mosaic can easily be overwhelmed by development and by local changes in land use or water quality/flow.

The Nar river valley is in good condition. The floodplain meadows are actively managed by traditional grazing and the landscape pattern has a coherent, unified character, defined by consistent land use and valley landform. The principal landscape elements of pasture and woodland are in good condition and the wet woodland, grazing pasture, wet meadows, commons and chalk river course form a range of diverse habitats. The SSSI designation demonstrates the ecological richness of the landscape.

Reflections - the mill pond at West Acre
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Landscape character sensitivity</th>
<th>Visual sensitivity</th>
<th>Landscape value</th>
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</table>
| The intimate scale and diverse character of the Nar Chalk River Valley is vulnerable to change as the distinctive small scale pattern of this landscape is finely balanced and can easily be overwhelmed by changes in the proportion or scale of individual elements. | The Nar Chalk River Valley has a secluded character which is distinctly more enclosed and smaller-scale than the surrounding Brecks landscapes. This valley has a distinctive character, with strong contrasts in scale, degrees of enclosure and landscape pattern. Views are enclosed by the hedgerows, woodland, carr woodland and groups of trees on the valley floor and along rural lanes, but there are some dramatic views to Narford Hall and to the village and prominent ruined castle of Castle Acre. The Nar river valley is the focus for a sequence of villages and hamlets and the Nar Valley Way, a recreational route along the valley. The river provides the setting and focus for local views and corridors of movement for a relatively high proportion of residents and visitors. | Key components of landscape value are:  
- Ecologically valuable chalk river habitats which are nationally important and designated as a SSSI  
- Clear water with riffles, pools and gravel beds, which provide sites for fish spawning, as well as characteristic chalk river plant and insect habitats;  
- Historic bridges, weirs, fords, mill ponds and riverside settlements with mills, halls and manor houses – conservation areas and clusters of listed buildings  
- Important archaeological sites, including Castle Acre’s motte and bailey castle, the remains of an Augustinian priory at West Acre and of a Cluniac priory at Castle Acre and remnant moated sites on the valley floor;  
- Historic parkland landscape at Narford Hall. |
| Locally distinctive and sensitive landscape features are: | | |
| • Small-scale, diverse mosaic of riparian and wetland habitats which contrasts with surrounding larger scale landscapes  
• Sinuous edges of floodplain, river and marsh, defined by curving tracks, roads and hedgerows  
• Historic bridges, weirs, fords and villages at crossing points  
• Remnant heathy commons adjacent to river and local villages  
• Parkland landscapes and dramatic framed views associated with Narford Hall  
• Meandering, narrow form of river valleys | | |
Local landscapes

Five case studies which demonstrate how the Brecks LCA can be used to interpret landscape character and landscape history at a local scale.
Introduction to the case studies

This landscape character assessment provides the tools for ‘reading’ the landscape, through an understanding of its physical character and its particular path of historic development. Every landscape is different, but the LCA shows how the familiar patterns and forms of fields, roads and settlements are shaped by the underlying rocks, landform and soils and by layers of human activity.

This section of the LCA illustrates how the Brecks LCA can be used to interpret and understand landscape character and landscape history at a local scale. This is done through case studies, which tell the story of five local landscapes, illustrating how the landscape has evolved from post glacial times to the present day. They highlight the remnant historic features that help to create a strong local identity, contributing layers of meaning and a sense of time-depth in the landscape.

The five case studies have been selected to illustrate local landscape stories in different types of landscape. They are shown on Map 9. Each is focused on a local landscape which forms the hinterland to a settlement and covers the area of a typical walk. The case studies are exemplars, which demonstrate how any local landscape can be ‘read’, by looking closely at its landscape patterns and the historic features that may have been left as clues to its specific historic
They may kickstart an exploration of the cultural history of places, showing what they have meant to people over time. The five case studies are:

- Foulden
- Brandon
- Brettenham
- Mildenhall
- Lackford

For each case study there is a sequence of illustrative diagrams, which show the topography of the area and the evolution of the landscape from prehistory to the present day.

The location of the archaeological and historic sites shown on the diagrams has been informed by reference to the Historic Environmental Record held at Norfolk and Suffolk County Councils, but the diagrams are presented as an illustrative guide and not as an accurate historic summary. The known sites recorded in the Historic Environment Record are not the result of systematic survey across these areas (some parts may have been studied in more depth than others), but the result of a variety of techniques. The diagrams illustrate one interpretation of the way local landscapes have evolved based on the evidence available today. The evidence will change as further research and archaeological survey is undertaken. It is estimated that the known sites represent only a small fraction of the total number of sites, with some more visible, or more easily detectable, than others. For instance, Roman sites are generally more visible than Anglo Saxon sites and so evidence from the Roman period might appear over-represented in comparison to the Anglo Saxon period.

The degree to which any particular tract of landscape would have been wooded, farmed, settled or traversed at different periods in history is not known, but we can use the evidence from archaeological research and the Historic Environment Record to make an informed judgement.

The final illustration in the sequence is a sketch which depicts an oblique aerial view of the landscape as it is today. Remnant historic landscape features and patterns from the past are highlighted to indicate how the character of today’s landscape has been influenced by its inheritance.

Landscapes are never static and will continue to evolve, but an appreciation of the ‘footprints’ from past landscapes enriches our understanding of local identity and our ability to conserve a unique sense of place.
Foulden (Case study 01)

The villages of Mundford, Ickburgh and Northwold lie on the edge of the River Wissey floodplain. The village of Foulden is to the north, on the lower west-facing slopes of the chalk plateau.

Neolithic

Hunter-gatherers from the Mesolithic period occupied temporary settlements along the river valleys. People gradually became more settled and, by Neolithic times, the first farmers had partially cleared the post-glacial forests. These communities began to farm small areas close to the river and its tributaries.

Roman

Archaeological evidence suggests that there was a Roman settlement near to present day Hillborough and that the village of Ickburgh was also a thriving Roman settlement. The road linking these two sites, the present day A1065, may perhaps have originated as a Roman route.

Clustered settlements developed along the river valley - many of the present day villages originated as Saxon villages. Part of the Fosditch, a defensive embankment and ditch thought to date from the Early Saxon period, crosses the plateau to the south of the River Wissey. Its construction suggests that local communities felt that they were threatened by attack from other tribes.
Medieval

The area was densely populated during the medieval period. The riverside villages were often associated with watermills, moated manors (often with fish ponds) and extensive open fields, which were part of a complex system of agricultural rotation involving crops on fertile river valley land and extensive grazing on the less fertile heathy soils at a distance from the village.

Post-medieval to modern

Many of the smaller riverside medieval villages (at Bodney, Langford, Colveston and Cranwich) contracted or became deserted due to population decline and a marginal local economy. The majority of the land was in agricultural use, but there were remnant commons on heathy and marshy land at Foulden Common and Borough Fen. Wealthy landowners developed shooting estates with designed parkland and water meadows at Didlington Park, Buckenham Tofts Park and Lynford Park. Lynford Park was used as a military hospital during World War II, when there were also military camps in the forest to the east of Mundford and to the north of Ickburgh.

Modern

The lakes and mature parkland trees at Didlington Park and Lynford Park are features in today’s landscape; Lynford Park is now a hotel and arboretum. Conifer plantations on the outskirts of Thetford Forest now form a backdrop to views across the slopes of the chalk plateau.
Current day

The village of Mundford has expanded, but the deserted medieval settlements, fishponds and moated manor houses are barely visible as small bumps and hollows in the fields. The majority of the farmland is under arable cultivation, but much of the River Wissey floodplain is pasture, with areas of reedbed and carr woodland alongside.
Brandon (Case study 02)

The town of Brandon developed at a crossing of the Little Ouse River. The town is sited to the south of the river, the village of Weeting is to the north and the village of Santon Downham is within the dense plantations of Thetford Forest to the east.

Bronze Age

Settlements developed along the valley of the Little Ouse. Forest clearance was more extensive and the some of the round Bronze Age burial barrows would have been sited on open ground so that they were visible on local skylines from the valley settlements.

Iron Age - Roman

There was a large Romano-British settlement on the north bank of the Little Ouse. Outside the small town, Roman villas and other farms exploited the valley and adjacent upland.

Middle Saxon

During the Middle Saxon period, a high status settlement developed at Staunch Meadow, to the south of the River Little Ouse, possibly in response to trade along the river, where there may have been a ferry crossing. The embanked defences of the Fossditch may have been built to protect Early Saxon settlements from attack by tribes to the east.
Medieval

Medieval villages developed close to or at the sites of earlier Saxon settlements, some with moated buildings (as at Weeting and Santon). The common-field agricultural system expanded across fertile land near the river while the dry soils of the higher plateau were used for grazing sheep. Large areas of heathland were developed as rabbit warrens (Bromehill and Santon Warrens to the north; Downham Highlodge Warren, Santon Downham Warren and Brandon Warren to the south), although at this stage most were not defined by banks.

Post-medieval

Settlement became concentrated at Brandon and Weeting and the medieval settlement of Santon was largely deserted. The medieval rabbit warrens were enclosed by warren banks. New flint mines around Brandon were developed to support the gunflint industry, particularly during the Napoleonic Wars.

Modern

Thetford Forest was planted in the 1920s to supply timber when it was urgently needed following World War 1. The conifer plantations completely transformed the historic pattern of the landscape and the village of Santon Downham, together with the hall and parkland of Downham Park, was surrounded by the dense plantations of Thetford Forest.
Current day

The Neolithic flint mines of Grimes Graves are an important heritage site – the remnant shafts appear as a ‘lunar’ landscape of craters. The area is dominated by the mature, dense plantations of Thetford Forest, but remnants of the medieval warren banks, deserted settlements and the 18th century parkland of Downham Hall can still be traced beneath the trees.
Brettenham (Case study 03)

The villages of Brettenham and Rushford are sited at river crossing points to the east of Thetford; Brettenham on the River Thet and Rushford on the Little Ouse River.

Bronze Age

The post glacial forests were partially cleared and settlement was concentrated along the river valleys. Some round Bronze Age burial barrows were sited on local ridges, so that they were visible on the skyline in views from the river valley settlements.

Roman

The Peddar’s Way provided an accessible regional trading route. A Roman villa was sited close to the point where the Peddar’s Way crossed the River Thet.

Anglo Saxon

Anglo Saxon settlements were clustered farming communities, sited close to rivers. The surrounding land would have been used for grazing stock and cultivating crops. The Peddar’s Way continued to be used as a through-route, supplemented by local trackways and roads.
Medieval

The river-side settlements of Rushford and Brettenham were clustered around the river crossing points and their churches. Important properties on the river floodplain were enclosed by moats. Villages were surrounded by common fields, with a complex ‘infield-outfield’ system for rotating crops and grazing animals. This allowed intensive cropping of the fertile river valley soils and grazing on the upper slopes. Sheep were brought onto the arable fields overnight so that their dung would help to fertilise the soils. The infertile heathland areas were also used as rabbit warrens, such as Snarehill Warren.

Post-medieval

The pattern of villages contracted as some earlier medieval settlements were abandoned and land holdings became concentrated in fewer hands. The popularity of hunting encouraged a proliferation of landed estates – John Buxton began to lay out Shadwell Park in c.1720 and Sylvanus Bevan, a successful banker, bought the Riddlesworth estate in 1789. The pattern of farmland was extensive, but areas of heath and warren remained as common land on relatively infertile soils.

Modern

Many of the remnant heaths, including West Harling Heath, parts of Knettishall Heath and parts of the former Snarehill Warren have been planted with conifers, but part of Knettishall heath is retained as open access land and is also a nature reserve. Riddlesworth Park is used as a school. Land to the SW of Knettishall Heath was used as a WWII airfield - RAF Knettishall. The alignment of the former runways is still visible within the arable fields.
The intimate landscape of the river valley meadows with the small riverside village of Brettenham is dwarfed by the scale of the surrounding arable fields, woodlands and plantations. The deserted medieval settlement of Thorpe and the moated medieval buildings at Brettenham are just discernible as bumps and hollows in the fields. Shadwell Park is a mature [19th C] parkland landscape and the Peddar’s Way is a long distance footpath – now used for recreation rather than trade.
The town of Mildenhall is on the western margins of the Brecks and on the edge of the Fen Basin. The Mildenhall Airbase is ringed by the smaller fen edge settlements of West Row, Beck Row and Wilde Street. The village of Eriswell is further to the east, on the edge of the Brecks Plateau.

**Mildenhall (Case study 04)**

Early Settlers - Neolithic

The concentration of archaeological finds around the edge of the fens suggests that this area was well used by hunter-gatherers from the Mesolithic period and later by the first farmers of the Neolithic period, who would have exploited the wide range of wetland and forest resources available. Excavations at Hurst Fen show that this was the site of a Neolithic settlement.

Bronze Age

Numerous Bronze Age settlements were sited around the fen edge and a ‘hoard’ of Bronze Age weapons was found close by. There is also evidence for Bronze Age settlement on the edge of the higher land to the west.

Roman

There was a band of Roman settlement on the western edge of the higher land, including areas near Beck Row and on RAF Mildenhall. A hoard of late Roman silver vessels was found near a probable small Roman farmstead site (a Scheduled Monment) at Thistley Green.
Medieval

The higher land on the edge of the fen was intensively farmed. Mildenhall was a medieval market town, but a string of small hamlets developed around the common fields to the north of Mildenhall. There was a small moated manor house at Aspal Hall. The land surrounding the villages was farmed in accordance with the infield-outfield system – the infertile land on the heaths to the south east of Mildenhall was enclosed by the Abbots of Bury St Edmunds as Mildenhall Warren, for rearing rabbits. Drove roads led out onto the seasonally waterlogged pastures of the fen to the west.

Post - medieval

The drainage of the fens transformed land use on the low lying land to the west with the result that the settlements in this area were no longer perceived to be on the edge of a wetland, but the small scale, linear pattern of settlement was retained.

Modern

The construction of the cut-off channel (to reduce the risk of flooding) in the 1950s separated the promontory of well settled high land to the west of Mildenhall from the higher Brecks plateau to the east. The Mildenhall common fields became a major World War II airbase and the land to the north and east of Mildenhall is now dominated by the plantations of Thetford Forest. The remnant demesne of Aspal Hall is now a public open space and local nature reserve - Aspal Close.
Current day

There is very little trace of the past in the intensively farmed arable landscape today, but settlement is still concentrated on the higher land near Mildenhall and Aspal Close Local Nature Reserve at Beck Row is a remnant of the domestic wood pasture associated with the adjacent moated medieval manor house. The site of the Neolithic settlement at Hurst Fen is now a Scheduled Monument.
Lackford (Case study 05)

The villages of Icklingham, Lackford, West Stow and Culford are sited on the gravel terrace above the floodplain of the River Lark. Evidence from early Ordnance Survey maps and aerial photographs suggests that the river channel was originally braided and that it meandered across the wide floodplain. The area has a long history of settlement from post glacial times.

Bronze Age

The Icknield Way and other historic routeways crossed the River Lark at fording points and small agricultural settlements developed on the north bank of the river. Round barrows for ritual burial were sited outside settlements on higher land towards the fringes of the river valley and may have been prominent on local skylines.

Roman

Agriculture dominated the economy but settlements became increasingly clustered and more urban in character as trading developed and expanded. A small Roman town developed along the course of an east-west Roman road. It included one of the very few known Roman Christian churches and burial grounds, preceded by pagan temples on both sides of the river. A smaller Roman settlement developed to the south of the river. There was a regular pattern of farms, especially on the north bank of the Lark.

Early Saxon

Early Saxon settlements developed on the slopes of the Lark Valley. Excavations at West Stow indicate a self-sufficient riverside farming community which would have exploited both wetland and forest resources locally. Construction of the ‘Black Ditches’, a defensive boundary across part of the Icknield Way, suggests the area was subject to attack from other peoples or tribes.
Late Saxon to medieval

Settlements were clustered on the edge of the floodplain and at river crossing points. Churches were prominent local landmarks and there were watermills at intervals along the river and its tributary streams. Villages were surrounded by common fields, but sheep were also grazed on nearby heaths. A complex system of rotation was in place which used manure to maintain the fertility of the arable soils.

Post-medieval

Land within agricultural use expanded, but areas of remnant heathland were conserved at Cavenham Heath and Icklingham Plains. The medieval villages continued to expand along local routes, but the small village of Wordwell was deserted and the centre of Lackford moved slightly to the west of its medieval church. Large halls at West Stow and Culford Park were developed by wealthy landowners. Culford Park was set within a Repton inspired landscape which dominated the area to the west of Culford Village.

Modern

Thetford Forest extends down to the Lark Valley and The King’s Forest forms a backdrop to views on the north side of the river. Extensive gravel extraction to the east of Lackford has changed the character of this part of the river floodplain; the gravel pits have been restored to wetlands, which are now (in part) managed as the Lackford Wildfowl Nature Reserve. Remnant heaths remain at Cavenham Heath (a National Nature Reserve) and Icklingham Plains.
The landscape of the Lackford area has been transformed as a result of extensive quarrying and subsequent restoration of gravel pit wetlands on the floodplain to the east. This area is now a valuable nature reserve. The vast King’s Forest plantation carpets the land to the north, but the presumed course of the Icknield Way is conserved as a recreational route across the river and through the forest. The historic field pattern is clearly visible along the edge of the floodplain.
The Brecks in literature

Compiled by James Parry with research by Sue Pennell
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‘Lovely old country’

How literary responses to the landscapes of the Brecks have motivated and inspired writers and their readers through the centuries.

This ... he who has once vibrated with the thrill of the heathland is never quite the same again ... It fascinates but few, but those who have once come under its spell are ever after its slaves.

So wrote historian and naturalist W G Clarke in his iconic work, In Breckland Wilds, published in 1925. Clarke’s connection with the landscape of the Brecks was primarily through its vast tracts of wild and open heathland, which he found entrancing and inspiring. Yet his lyrical words also acknowledged that the seemingly barren and unforgiving heaths were not to everyone’s taste. Indeed, earlier literary visitors to the Brecks had been less than captivated by what they found. Of particular concern were the notorious shifting dunes of sand, which at times could be an obstacle to travel and even threaten life and property. In 1668 they had engulfed the village of Santon Downham and blocked the Little Ouse River, prompting the diarist John Evelyn to remark how “The Travelling Sands ... that have so damaged the country, rouling from place to place, like the Sands in the Deserts of Lybia, quite overwhelmed some gentleman’s whole estates.”

Such disruptions – and the unremitting flatness of the Brecks – were in stark contrast to those parts of England that were to inspire the likes of Wordsworth and Coleridge with their peaceful soaring hills and intimate verdant valleys. Even so, writers did the best they could with the raw ingredients to hand. The poet George Bloomfield (1757–1831) even felt moved to introduce some underappreciated local topography into his poem Thetford:

O Thetford! round thy flow’ry fields I’ve strolled,  
From Tutt-Hill’s eminence and Croxton’s height,  
Have view’d thine ancient ruins with delight,  
Thy sloping hills and wooded vallies gay,  
Whose silv’ry Ouse meand’ring winds his way.

The distinctive characteristics and understated power of the landscape and countryside termed by Clarke as ‘Breckland’ also struck a chord with writers more concerned with depicting the grim reality of rural life than pandering to any fanciful notions of a pastoral idyll. Life in rural East Anglia was unremittingly...
hard for many folk, particularly so during periods of agricultural recession when labourers often found themselves out of work and their families close to starvation.

One literary figure who took up the cudgel on their behalf was Mary Mann, née Rackham (1848–1929). A merchant’s daughter from Norwich, she moved to Shropham in the eastern Brecks following her marriage to yeoman farmer Fairman Mann. Shocked by the conditions of the rural poor there, she produced a series of gritty portrayals of local life, full of local dialect and bravely tackling uncomfortable social issues that were rarely aired in public. Among her many works, Mann’s collection of short stories, The Fields of Dulditch (1902), stand as stunning testament to her skills as a writer and social commentator, a rare combination that earned her the admiration of DH Lawrence and the sobriquet ‘Norfolk’s Thomas Hardy’.

The evocation of daily country life was also very much the strength of writer Michael Home, who was born in 1885 in Great Hockham, a Brecks village which he described as standing “with its shoulders humped, as it was, into and against the oncoming bracken.” Home was a prolific author, penning over fifty detective novels under his real name of Christopher Bush before turning his attention to life and events in his village during the Edwardian era and the interwar years. In books such as Autumn Fields (1944) he describes with great insight and beauty the rhythm and pace of the seasons and how the land was worked and cherished by the local people – a moving elegy to a way of life that has now vanished.

Whilst such homegrown writers saw the Brecks from the position of insiders, the perspective of visitors from elsewhere can be equally revealing. For Virginia Woolf, who spent August 1906 at Blo’ Norton Hall and was delighted by the “lovely old country” nearby, it was Thetford that made a particular impression. “Often in London shall I think of Thetford, & wonder if it is still alive,” she wrote in her journal, adding that “No one would notice if the whole town forgot to wake up one morning.”

The Brecks were certainly awoken by the First World War, which saw extensive military activity across the area. The open and flat terrain was ideal for the creation of airfields for the Royal Flying Corps, with the largest airfield in Norfolk established at Narborough. It was here that local man WE Johns, who had worked as a sanitary inspector in Swaffham before enlisting, was stationed and worked as a pilot instructor. He later achieved great renown as the author of the celebrated Biggles novels, which were inspired by his time at Narborough.
Bluebells in Wayland Wood, the scene for a sinister tale that endured for centuries. Photo. © Nick Ford 2012
More recent decades have seen even more illustrious visitors featuring the Brecks in their works. Booker Prize double-winner Hilary Mantel set part of her novel *A Change of Climate* (1994) in the area, describing the famous pine rows and how “the bowed, arthritic pines that line the roads creep to the edges of the small towns … they gather round the new housing estates, like witches at a christening.” More recently, growing interest in the literary traditions and inspirational qualities of the Brecks has seen the establishment of the Breckland Book Festival and the reprinting of works by Mary Mann, among others. There are doubtless other local literary gems out there, just waiting to be unearthed.

Meanwhile, one of the most poignant tales is also among the oldest – that of the ‘Babes in the Wood’, which was first published in 1595 in Norwich, as an anonymous ballad. Anecdotal evidence and folklore maintain that the story is based on real events that took place in Wayland Wood near Watton, involving two young orphans who were entrusted to the care of their aunt and uncle. In order to appropriate their inheritance, the uncle arranges for them to be killed by two thugs. These fall out with one another, one killing the other but then leaving the two children alone in the wood, where they starve to death. Such was the power of this tale, despite the lack of firm evidence definitively linking it to Wayland, that well into the 19th century the wood – and even a particular tree, under which the children were reputedly abandoned – was a popular destination with ghoulish Victorian sightseers. Even today, some local people maintain the wood has a singularly sinister atmosphere, underlining the enduring potency of literary associations with Breckland landscapes.
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