



# Townscape Character Assessment: Gloucester

June 2019

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## Townscape Character Assessment: Gloucester

### Elmwood Heritage

#### I. Summary

The following report provides a detailed account of the character of the of the townscape that forms the City of Gloucester. It follows a clearly defined methodology, and reviews 15 wards which are broken down into character areas. The character areas are discussed in relation to their form and origins, building types, past and present uses, trees and greenspaces, grain, density and plot coverage, architectural qualities, periods and detailing and ends with materials and colour palettes for each character area.

The report also provides an advisory list, for each character area and for the City as a whole, of sites to be considered for either inclusion on the local authority local list or those that are likely to fulfil the requirements for formal designation as listed buildings, scheduled monuments or registered parks and gardens.

## Townscape Character Assessment: Gloucester

### 2. Introduction

#### 2.1 Background

This document has been prepared by the Historic Environment Officer of Gloucester City Council. It contains the Townscape Character Assessment of Gloucester.

The Townscape Character Assessment (GCC 2015a) forms part of the evidence base for the preparation of the Gloucester City Plan. More specifically the work will be used to evidence the emerging design and heritage policies in the plan itself. This work has been undertaken to ensure that the City Plan is based on adequate, up-to-date and relevant evidence with regard to townscape character, heritage and design. This is in accordance with the National Planning Practice Guidance (NPPG) Design Paragraph: 003, Design Paragraph: 023-028 and Design Paragraph: 031 (NPPG 2019).

#### 2.2 Aims

The aim of this report is to provide good-quality, detailed information on and understanding of the design and character of Gloucester City. It will aim to provide an understanding of the origins and historic evolution of the City utilising historic maps, Historic Environment Record (HER) information and other sources. It will also assist in developing areas of local identity in terms of people and places and industries and skills that have shaped the town and contributed to its 'sense of place' and local distinctiveness.

The assessment will aim to build upon the information contained within the Ward Profiles (GCC 2013a) and the Gloucester Heritage Urban Regeneration Company's characterisation study (O'Rourke 2006) in order

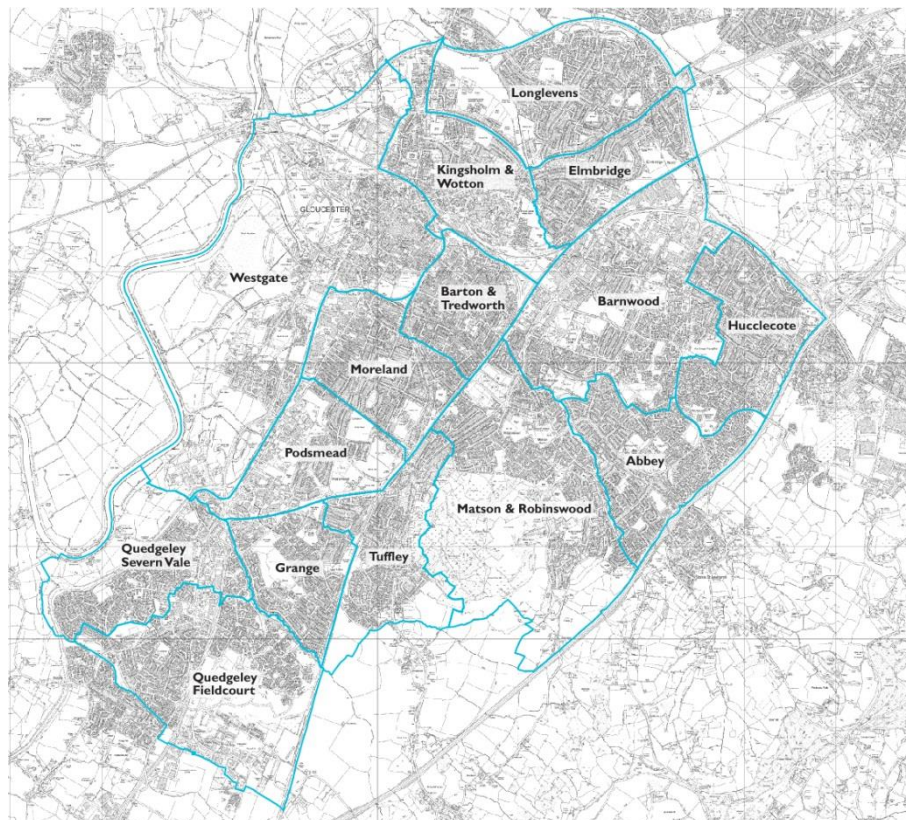
to provide a detailed assessment of the character and design of the entire City. It will also build upon the information held within the Conservation Area Appraisals (GCC 2007a) to cover those parts of the City outside of Conservation Areas. There are 14 Conservation Areas within Gloucester City all of which, with the exception of Hempsted and Hucclecote, are close to the historic core of the City.

The assessment will:

- Define, describe and map the different distinct character areas of the City - reinforced by architectural period, use of materials, former and present uses and use patterns and urban grain
- State whether areas have:
  - A - strong character: a sense of place and distinctive street scene, important in terms of local identity.
  - B - less distinctive character but make a definite contribution in terms of local identity and sense of place.
  - C - 'anywhere' or commonplace development which contributes relatively little to sense of place or local identity.
  - D - negative places that harm the sense of local identity.
- Define character areas of local identity within Gloucester
- Develop an understanding of a well-defined materials palette for character areas including the historic, existing and proposed use of colour of material
- Identify any potential candidates for designation by Historic England
- Identify any potential candidates for the creation of a City Council Local List
- Identify any potential new conservation areas or those which may require boundary review



## 2.3 Boundaries of assessment



The assessment will cover the entire area within the boundary of Gloucester City. It will use as a baseline the 15 Wards of Gloucester City as they are defined on the above map. It is recognised that a number of Ward boundaries have been recently altered, but these have yet to have individual Ward Profiles produced and, as such, the existing Profiles produced by the City Council and their boundaries will be used. Although

this report has been based upon the Ward Profile boundary areas, these are irrelevant in the terms of the assessment of character areas and have been used merely as way to structure this report.

## 2.4 Policy Context

### 2.4.1 National Planning Policy Framework

The National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF) was published on 27 March 2012 and was last updated in February 2019 (NPPF 2019), replacing all the previous Planning Policy Statements (PPS), including 'PPS 5 Planning for the Historic Environment'; but not the accompanying Planning Practice Guide, as well as other various planning policy guidance. Its central theme is the 'presumption in favour of sustainable development', set out in twelve core planning principles that underpin both plan making and decision taking.

One of the key dimensions of sustainability is protecting and enhancing our historic environment and should conserve heritage assets in a manner appropriate to their significance, so that they can be enjoyed for their contribution to the quality of life of this and future generations. The NPPF continues the theme of 'PPS5 Planning for the Historic Environment' with paragraphs 184 to 202 being the core historic environment paragraphs contained within Chapter 16 of the NPPF (NPPF 2019, p54-57). Design is included within Chapter 12 (ibid, p38 and 39) of the NPPF containing paragraphs 124 to 132. Historic England have produced guidance on how to allocate sites and produce local plans with reference to NPPF (HE 2015a, HE 2015b).

### 2.4.2 Planning (Listed Buildings and Conservation Areas) Act 1990

The Act places a statutory duty on local planning authorities, in the exercise of their planning function, to pay special regard to the desirability of preserving the building or its setting or any features of special architectural

or historic interest which it possesses (HMSO 1990, Sections 16 and 66), also to preserve or enhance the character or appearance of conservation areas (HMSO 1990, Section 72).

### 2.4.3 City Council Policies

The current City Council Development Plan is the *City of Gloucester Second Stage Deposit Local Plan* (GCC 2002). This plan contains policies that assist in shaping development and ensuring good standards. 'Chapter Four: the Built Environment' of this document deals with listed buildings, Conservation Areas and archaeology. Policies BE.22 to BE.28 (GCC 2002, p51-53) refer to listed buildings with policies BE.29 to BE.30a (ibid, p53-54) regarding Conservation Areas whilst archaeology is covered in policies BE.31 to BE.38 (ibid, 54-57).

The recently adopted Joint Core Strategy (JCS 2017) has been produced in partnership between Gloucester City Council, Cheltenham Borough Council and Tewkesbury Borough Council and sets out a planning framework for all three areas. Policy SD8 (JCS 2017, p56) in the Joint Core Strategy concerns the historic environment.

## 2.5 Authorship and Acknowledgements

This report has been produced by Elmwood Heritage on behalf of Gloucester City Council.

Thanks to Andrew Armstrong, Charlotte Bowles-Lewis and Claire Haslam of Gloucester City Council for their assistance in the preparation of the report. Thanks also to Mike Glyde for his assistance in taking the photographs.

### 3. Assessment

#### 3.1 Description of Townscape Types

##### 3.1.1 Early Urban Layout

Despite ancient civilisations, such as the Minoan and Egyptian, having large and planned settlements, the prehistoric period in Britain was much different and evidence of settlement is incredibly sparse before the Iron Age. Evidence of settlement in the prehistoric period is often characterised by clusters of flint, such as have been recovered at Barnwood, although enclosure-type settlements have also been found elsewhere in Gloucestershire.

The Iron Age is often known as the age of hillforts and Gloucestershire contains a large number. However other forms of settlement also existed both enclosed and un-enclosed usually containing a number of round houses and similar in fashion to a hamlet. Settlements were often surrounded by fields and evidence of these ‘celtic fieldsystems’ have been found in Gloucestershire. There is much evidence in the wider area of Gloucestershire for Iron Age settlement with both enclosed and un-enclosed nucleated settlements being common in the Severn Valley. These extend into the area of Gloucester itself with evidence being found at numerous sites across the City. Although just outside the City boundary, the Iron Age settlement at Hardwicke is a very good example of the type of settlement within the area of Gloucester.

Areas of Urban Settlement have often been influenced by the layout of earlier settlements, for example a Roman fortress and town. The layout of roads and gateways, and the more physical boundaries of walls, were often used as a base for a later medieval town, whether planned or unplanned.

Typically, a town with an earlier origin such as this will display a distinctive grid pattern of streets including four main streets leading to gates in the north, south, east and west, ‘gate streets’. Walls would have enclosed the town and as such there is likely to be an intensive area of settlement within the boundaries of these walls.



*Outline of Roman fortress and roads*

The commercial and historic centre of Gloucester shows evidence of this type of Urban Layout based upon the Roman settlement of Glevum. It has a central cross street pattern of the ‘gate streets’ and roadways that follow the line of the Roman walls with rounded corners as on Parliament Street/Brunswick Road. Streets and lanes running at 90 degrees to the ‘gate streets’ may also be of Roman origin.

A Roman fortress was established at Kingsholm sometime after AD 48, close to what must have been an existing ford across the River Severn. The



Severn then formed the frontier between Roman Britain and unconquered Wales. By AD 70, the Romans had conquered south Wales and established a new army headquarters at Caerleon. The Kingsholm fort was dismantled and a new one established to the south. This evolved into a *colonia*, a city where soldiers retiring from the army were given land as a form of pension, once Gloucester ceased to be a frontline military station around AD 81.



*Parliament Street/Brunswick Road corner reflecting line of Roman fortress*

This period saw the establishment of the rectilinear street pattern that underlies the historic centre of Gloucester. The Cross, marking the centre of today's city, also stands on top of the focal point of the Roman city. Northgate Street and Southgate Street lie directly on top of the main Roman road through the city.

London Road also follows a Roman alignment, turning north easterly to join Roman Ermin Way (today's A38 Barnwood / Hucclecote Road). Ermin Way itself is aligned on the original fort at Kingsholm.

### 3.1.2 Medieval Urban Settlement

Areas of Medieval Urban Settlement typically have continuous street frontages with buildings set to the back of the pavement. Access to the rear of the plots is via arches or narrow passages and/or by a back lane which runs along the rear boundary of the burgage plots. Buildings will combine commercial, office and residential uses and will typically be of two or three storeys. Brick virtually replaced stone in the 18<sup>th</sup> century and many timber-framed buildings which formerly overlooked the main thoroughfares and the market place were either replaced or re-fronted with architecturally 'polite' facades of brick.

Historically, the back-land areas of the burgage plots provided space for workshops and gardens. These outbuildings sometimes survive and can form an important part of the character of the townscape. The fate of such back-land areas varies from retaining a high sense of intactness, enclosure and tranquillity through the survival of the plot boundaries (often high brick walls creating a series of walled gardens) to their complete loss through the construction of car parks, larger retail units or modern housing developments.

With the decline of the Roman Empire in Britain in the late 4<sup>th</sup> century and the withdrawal of the Romans in the early 5<sup>th</sup> century, the Britons were left with the skeleton of a civilised society and economy. This sub-Roman period was originally seen as an era of backward thinking and reversion to earlier technologies prior to the country being over-run and defeated by Germanic peoples. In many areas of Britain, however, archaeological evidence is now showing that the Roman buildings and infrastructure were

retained and used throughout the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> centuries. Farming and iron-working continued in Gloucestershire and the sites of Roman buildings were reused with timber buildings being constructed once the stone buildings had become too ruinous.

The central part of Gloucester, enclosed by the Roman walls, continued to be a centre of settlement following the withdrawal of the Roman troops. Gloucester was still a centre of settlement and local power in the 6<sup>th</sup> century prior to control of the region being taken over by the Saxons. At this time, it became the centre for the Hwicce, a sub-kingdom within Mercia. The construction of St Peter's minster (later the Cathedral) in the later 7<sup>th</sup> century removed some of the walls and layout of the Roman fortress in the north west of the central area of Gloucester. A minster church was founded in the later 7<sup>th</sup> century, over part of the Roman walls of the colonia, with another minster (St Oswald's) being founded at the beginning of the 10<sup>th</sup> century. By this time Gloucester was an important administrative and economic centre and many of the streets, side lanes and alleys of the city centre were established at this time along with the continuous street frontages typical of the medieval period. Westgate Street in particular, shows the narrow burgage plots and although most of the back-plots have since been built upon their boundaries are intact.

Under the Normans, Gloucester's motte-and-bailey castle commanded the southernmost route across the Severn to South Wales and this was rebuilt in stone (on the site the city prison) by Miles of Gloucester in 1110–20. Under Abbot Serlo (from 1089) the Saxon Minster of St Peter was rebuilt to create one of England's greatest Benedictine abbeys (now the cathedral).

Hospitals were established on London Road in the early twelfth century whose chapels still survive (St Margaret's and St Mary Magdalen's). New churches and religious foundations were added – notably the richly endowed Llanthony Priory, begun in 1137 as a home for Augustinian canons

fleeing from their original Welsh home. St Oswald's Priory also became a house of the Augustinians in 1152; Greyfriars was established around 1231, Blackfriars around 1239 and Whitefriars around 1268. Of the parish churches that were established at this time, St Mary le Lode, St Nicholas, and St Mary le Crypt have survived.



*Outline of medieval city and roads*

Gloucester was granted a charter in 1155 (giving the right to hold a market and to exercise jurisdiction). The economy was based on iron working, but the city also had a large population of traders and merchants and the city played an important role as a market and service centre for the region. A quay probably operated along the banks of the Severn between Westgate Bridge and the castle. Westgate Street was the longest and most important of the city's commercial streets, the location of a market, several churches, the Guildhall and the mint. The abbey occupied all of the north-western



quadrant of the city. The east end was the Jewish quarter until the Jews were expelled in 1275. New suburbs developed outside the town walls.



Fleece Hotel undercroft (photo supplied by Marketing Gloucester)

Among secular medieval buildings in Gloucester, the most remarkable are the late-twelfth century undercroft beneath the late-fifteenth century Fleece Hotel, the early thirteenth-century undercrofts to 47–49 and 76 Westgate Street and the New Inn, a complete timber-framed courtyard inn built around 1450 for St Peter's Abbey.

### 3.1.3 Rural Settlement

Within the urban areas which developed from a medieval urban core and those settlements which are largely 20<sup>th</sup> century conurbations there are likely to be small, once rural, settlements that have been either

incorporated within the suburbs of the town or have greatly expanded from their original often small core.

The rural character of these settlements may have survived this process and will stand in contrast to the housing estates that surround them due to the age of the buildings together with historic boundary features such as walls and railings and the mix of building materials which could include timber-framing, brick, stone, tile and slate, and uses – public houses, churches and chapels, historic school buildings and shops, mean that these areas have developed into service areas (albeit sometimes small) for the surrounding estates. These small rural settlements may represent villages, hamlets or isolated farmsteads.



Hempsted Conservation Area and historic rural settlement

Property plots within this townscape type will typically be irregular in size and form. The road pattern will often mark these areas as having earlier origins, even where most of the historic buildings have been replaced, with relatively narrow, twisting roads and angled junctions that contrast to the

highway conscious junctions of the planned estates. There is generally a concentration of listed buildings within this townscape type and possibly a designated conservation area.

Gloucester. One example of this type of townscape within the Gloucester City boundary is Hempsted. This small rural village has been enveloped by the expanding City but the historic core of the settlement, now a Conservation Area, can still be discerned.

### 3.1.4 Post-medieval Development

#### c1530 – c1800

Expansion in this period was limited with the main expansion taking place in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Where there was expansion beyond the urban area it was typically for high status residential use – either large houses set in landscaped grounds or semi-detached or terraced groups of Georgian houses.

The historic affluence of these areas will often still be evident in the present character of the area; where the buildings survive they will be good quality houses, often listed and within a conservation area. Where there are larger houses set in landscaped grounds there may be features such as boundary walls, gate piers and lodges. Such areas are often also characterised and complemented by the presence of mature trees. It is possible that even where the principal house has been lost, converted and/or heavily altered or extended, the survival of these other features may be sufficient to define the townscape type or influence the definition of a character sub-area.

Gloucester. The Dissolution of the 1530s was a landmark in Gloucester's history, unlocking resources previously controlled by religious houses. The Minster church became the cathedral and with the founding of the See,

Gloucester became a city in 1541. Cloth making led a revival in the city's trading fortunes and by 1600 the city hosted specialist markets for the trading of cattle, sheep, grain and fruit.

Port status was granted to the city by Elizabeth I in 1580 and by the time the cloth trade declined in the seventeenth century, the city had evolved into a significant centre for the Severn-based grain and malt trade, though competition from Bristol prevented it from developing foreign trade contacts.



99 to 103 Westgate Street (the former Folk Museum)

The Puritan city's stubborn resistance to Royalist siege in 1643 is widely seen as the turning point in the Civil War. Large parts of the city were burned to the ground: most of the northern, southern and eastern suburbs were lost, as were half the city's eleven medieval churches. At the same time Llanthony Priory and St Oswald's Church were also demolished.



There is a distinct lack of surviving medieval buildings outside the south, east and north gate streets. Surviving buildings within the city centre from this period include the timber-framed buildings at 6–8, 14, 26, 30, 33, 43–45, 66, 100 and 99–103 Westgate Street (the former Folk Museum) and that at 9 Southgate Street (with a façade dating from 1664/5).

Wire and pin making, metal working, bell founding, wool stapling and banking led the city's revival from the late seventeenth century. Gloucester also developed as a distribution centre for goods imported from overseas via Bristol and then forwarded inland to the West Midlands and in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century the beginning of the construction of the Gloucester and Berkeley Canal and basin in the City.

A number of medieval houses were refaced in fashionable brick (eg Nos 6–8 and 14 Westgate Street) and the city also became established as a social centre for the local gentry. The County Infirmary was founded in 1755 and St Bartholomews' Hospital almshouses, near Westgate Bridge, were rebuilt in Gothick style in 1790. Gloucester was active in the establishment and promotion of Sunday Schools from the 1780s (Robert Raikes, pioneer of Sunday Schools, was born in Gloucester in 1736).

### c1800 – c1900

The beginning of the period in the larger houses represents a transition from the Georgian to Regency style. This is represented as semi-detached and detached villas and houses of substantial form usually set in their own grounds.

Typically houses of this period are of two or three storeys (sometimes with basements or semi-basements) and are predominantly of brick or may be stone. Roofs are usually natural slate although some have been replaced with modern roof systems.

Development of this period often occurred alongside existing routes into the urban area. Streets laid out at this period tend to be wide, straight or slightly curved with the occasional more formal crescent found. Street trees are often found to survive in these townscape types.

From 1850 there was an increase in suburban housing for both middle class and working class families. This peaked around the 1870-1890 period. This period saw several Acts of Parliament aimed at improving housing and environmental conditions for the working classes and brought in features such as minimum widths for new streets, access to a small private yard/garden, pavements and sewers. Local councils were given powers to remove slums and replace them with 'by-law houses'.

The predominant building material was brick but social differentiation could be made by the provision of small front gardens with boundary walls and tiled paths and porches, bay windows, decorative terracotta detailing or stone lintels, sometimes decorated, above door and window openings. A hierarchy of house types to reflect the status of the owner, defined by the use of bays, size of windows, and combinations of additional features can often be discerned in larger estates.

Houses within this townscape type were typically terraced but could also include semi-detached and detached houses but all were generally closely spaced producing high densities and giving a high sense of enclosure to the street. Property plots can range from small back-yards to relatively large gardens but are characterised by their longer depth compared to width – sometimes very long narrow garden spaces. Blocks of rear gardens may be defined by brick walls and rear access may be possible along narrow paths or back lanes. These back lanes are often further defined by later garage or workshop type single storey buildings accessed directly from the lane.

Larger areas of this type of housing will typically consist of a regular grid of streets with few if any open space but often associated with a church or chapel built to serve the new houses. They may be close to older industrial areas particularly railway stations/goods yards, breweries, maltings or older factories/tanneries.

In addition to the terraces and semi-detached houses, there was also the emergence of the larger detached or semi-detached villa. This townscape reflects the better quality, larger houses of the upper middle classes. Their larger houses will typically have considerable architectural ornamentation including decorative pierced barge boards and decorative ridge tiles and finials. This period may also include examples of larger houses in a Domestic Revival style derived from the Arts and Crafts movement. Brick is the predominant material; mostly red brick but with the use of pale cream/buff bricks for dressings. Larger houses of the later part of the period may have roughcast render or pebbledash. Mock timber-framing and tile hanging were also popular wall finishes in this period of building.

Houses are usually located in more generous plots, often set well back from the street frontage. Brick walls and piers will typically front the street and the houses will often be accompanied by ancillary buildings such as coach houses and stables which may be accessed from a mews to the rear.

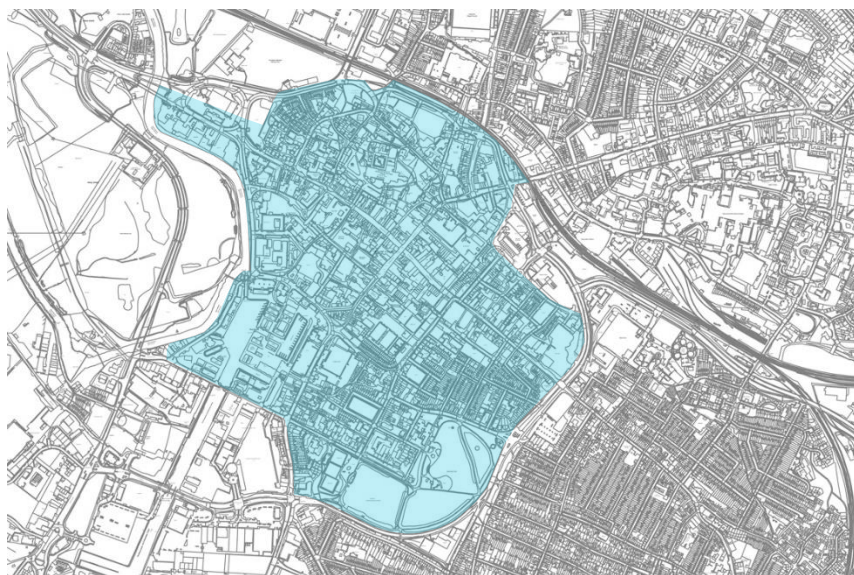
For more information see the Historic England guides on domestic buildings (HE 201 1a to HE 201 1d).

Gloucester. In Gloucester the development of housing and townscape was greatly influenced by the growth in the industrial area to the south of the city centre. The Gloucester and Berkeley Canal was finally opened in 1827 giving ocean-going ships access to the City and the development of Gloucester as an inland port was further enhanced by the coming of the railway in the 1840s. Gloucester became a busy port for the distribution of

foreign grain and timber to the Midlands, as well as stimulating locally based corn-milling and ship-building, and the manufacture of railway rolling stock and matches. Big increases in population saw the city's boundaries extended in 1835 and 1874. The population doubled between 1851 and 1871 alone. Middle-class housing spread out along London Road while industrial development was heaviest in the area between the canal and Bristol Road and artisan housing grew up in the south and south east of the city. The 1870s and 1880s saw the city centre transformed from a mix of small shops and residential premises to a business and retail centre with banks, offices and large stores. The new suburbs of Outer Barton Street, Tredworth, Bristol Road, Kingsholm and Wotton were brought within the city boundaries when they were extended again in 1900.



*The Docks canal basins*



Outline of city centre in around 1900

### 3.1.5 Modern Development

#### c1900 – c1930

This period is largely characterised by the ‘1930s semi’ and the development of the bungalow as a building type representing a major period of urban expansion to many towns, although stylistically the terraced house of the previous period continued into the 1920s.

Brick and render with pebbledash as an alternative are the predominant materials (often seen together with brick to the ground floor and render/pebbledash above) with clay tile or concrete tile roofs and selective tile hanging to gables and bays (sometimes decorative).

Other than the terraced housing reflecting the earlier period, houses of this period tend to be set in good sized gardens with garden to both front and

rear. Front boundaries are often low walls or hedges or shrubs, although these have often been removed to create parking areas to front gardens. Streets are relatively wide, the width emphasised by grass verges and the houses being set back from the frontage. Street trees can give a feeling of space and quality. Streets can be straight or gently curving. This period saw the beginnings of the use of the cul-de-sac.

Planned estates of the period often have communal areas of green open space of varying sizes and the cranking of houses to principal corners of the estates either provide larger gardens for these houses or a small triangular area of open space to corners.

For more information see the Historic England guides on domestic buildings (HE 2011a to HE 2011d).

#### c1930 – present

The inter-war period to the end of World War II has seen a range of distinctive housing estate styles ranging from relatively spacious estates with communal open spaces of the 1950s to high density housing estates of the 1980s and 90s with intricate, twisting networks of feeder roads giving access to cul-de-sacs. Generally, estate layout becomes more intricate and contrived the later the period of development. There is often a sense of attempting to create an organic plan using standard house types and minimum planning requirements for distance between habitable windows. These areas are often characterised by long stretches of dead frontage with rear gardens enclosed by fencing or walls often fronting main access routes. Whilst there is often distinction between the periods, there are little or no locally distinctive architectural styles although there have been attempts in places to mimic or reproduce local material detailing, finishes and building types.



Within this period the bungalow is a common house type and is often seen interspersed with two storey houses. This suburban form which began in the 1930s and extended into the 1970s is rarely architecturally distinguished and there is often little stylistically to differentiate them by date. In addition, the prefabricated bungalow and house is also a house type from the inter-war and immediate post-war period although often residences of this type have been replaced by 1950s and later housing.

Brick, render, pebbledash and tile hanging (green or brown) to upper storeys (sometimes replaced with modern uPVC weatherboarding) are characteristic walling materials.

Occasionally you find surviving examples of the inter-war and immediate post-war prefab housing. This type of housing was designed to provide a quick solution to the problem of the housing shortage. The Temporary Housing Programme aimed to produce 500,000 bungalows, of which only around 157,000 were built, designed to last 15 years and built to a number of similar designs including the Hawksley BL8. They were built from a range of materials including timber, aluminium and reinforced concrete. As well as bungalows, two-storey houses were also built such as the BISF. These are much rarer with only very small numbers surviving.

For more information see the Historic England guides on domestic buildings (HE 201 Ia to HE 201 Id).

Gloucester. Gloucester is incredibly lucky to have an area in Podsmead with 96 surviving Hawksley BL8 bungalows spread across four streets. Hawksley were a local company of aircraft manufacturers based in Hucclecote. Their bungalows are aluminium framed and clad and originally had bedrooms, a living room, kitchen and bathroom with toilet. There are also ten two-storey houses surviving in Tredworth Road and Highworth Road and 76 in Moreland of BISF (British Iron and Steel Federation) design.



*Podsmead Hawksley BL8 bungalows – Shakespeare Avenue*



*Moreland BISF houses*



BISF were designed to be permanent homes with a lifespan the same as that of a brick house. They were constructed of a metal frame which was rendered, on metal laths, on the ground floor and clad in steel sheeting on the first floor.

### 3.1.6 Industrial Development

19<sup>th</sup> century and earlier Industrial buildings in urban areas tend to be restricted to a relatively small number of building types such as mills, breweries and tanneries serving the local area until the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Most industrial buildings of the 19<sup>th</sup> century are of medium scale (rarely more than three storeys). The development of the canal and the coming of the railway made it possible for some industries to flourish and serve a wider area and so larger buildings were provided. The larger historic industrial complexes and warehouses were typically sited close to the canal or railway line, often on the opposite side from the historic core, and were occasionally accompanied by terraced housing for the workers.

Examples where a group of historic industrial buildings survive relatively intact retaining their setting and context are relatively rare and have high significance. Some will be listed. It is more common to find single buildings standing within much altered settings. These buildings will often be considered to be of local interest.

The specific zoning of industrial areas was a feature of planning policy from the 1950s. Industrial estates from this period onwards tend to rely more on road transport than rail and are often sited close to the edge of the suburban area close to principal routes through and past the town. Buildings are large scale, sometimes very large, and are usually up to the equivalent of a two-storey domestic building to eaves height. Buildings are typically accessed from a grid of streets, usually with a single principal entrance into the estate. Profiled metal sheet is the predominant walling

material over steel portal frames, but brick is also widely used for plinths and gable walls. The profiled metal is often taken up over the eaves to form the roof material, otherwise asbestos or cement sheets are used for the roof. Industrial estates have little in the way of landscaping. Often large expanses of open space between buildings form their setting and provide working yards, storage and parking.

More information can be found in Historic England's *Industrial Structures* (HE 2011e).



*Some of the historic industrial buildings in The Docks*

Gloucester. Many of Gloucester's surviving historic industrial buildings can be found in the area of the Docks with a number of the tall warehouses still existing around the main basin, most of which are listed. There are also other industrial buildings surviving in the Docks area including flour mills and malt houses. Modern industrial buildings within Gloucester tend to be,

as in most places, non-descript, large scale structures that are often indistinguishable from retail structures.



The Docks Conservation Area with historic industrial buildings marked

### 3.1.7 Education and Public Service Buildings

#### Educational Buildings

Historically the earliest schools were monastic in origin but there was also a tradition of parish clergy teaching younger boys in the parish church. Later in the medieval period wealthy individuals endowed schools with purpose-built structures. After the Reformation, schools still depended on private funding and ranged widely in style. The early 18<sup>th</sup> century saw an increase in the building of charitable schools in urban areas and village schools on wealthy estates. Dissenting schools started to appear in the later

18<sup>th</sup> century with the increase of dissenting chapels. These schools were usually simple halls associated with chapels.

The rate of school building increased dramatically in the period between 1800 and 1870, and was fuelled by competition between the dissenting and Anglican churches. The most common early 19<sup>th</sup> century school types were British Schools (nonconformist) and National Schools (Anglican). The buildings themselves were modest and rarely comprised more than one or two classrooms. School buildings from before 1840 that survive in their original form are almost always protected by listing. Schools dating between 1840 and 1870 vary in style and class with the rarest survivals being those of humble origins, such as pauper and factory schools.



St Paul's School, New Street – Gothic Revival Church School of 1869-70

In the period between 1870 and 1914, a number of bills and acts of Parliament encouraged the education of the populace. Primary schooling



became compulsory in 1880 and as a result there was a massive expansion of denominational and board schools. The best board schools made a positive impact on the street scene of the time and are also of local interest today. Many of the denominational schools of this period were built in a Gothic Revival style.

Secondary school provision began in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century with state secondary schools being created close to the centres of cities and towns. They were built in a similar style to the primary schools but on a larger scale with smaller classrooms and extra facilities. With the creation of County Councils in 1889, there was drive towards providing specialist training for industry and higher education colleges began to be established. By the early 20<sup>th</sup> century new schools were beginning to be constructed in a Neo-Georgian style which was seen to possess the dignity and timelessness appropriate to a secondary school. Limitations in funding also meant that school design became more austere and formulaic.

1870 is an important date in the history of schooling in England, with the introduction of school boards and substantial state funding following in the wake of the 1870 Education Act. As a result large numbers of board schools still survive. External architectural quality is usually the most striking feature of schools of this period. Some School Boards consistently produced designs of great interest. Fixtures were generally plain and most plans were formulaic and increasingly standardised.

The 1918 Education Act raised the school leaving age to fourteen. The period between 1914 and 1945 was dominated by the building of grammar and secondary schools. Economies were sought and some authorities turned in the 1930s to steel framing and more modernist designs took over from the Neo-Georgian style previously favoured. Long horizontal glazing for classrooms was countered by cubic massing and offset by the vertical accent of glazed stair towers. Architectural competitions encouraged

innovation in the use of materials, lighting, and ventilation paved the way for major advances after the 1939-45 war.



*Archdeacon Street School, Clare Street – Neo-Georgian Council School of 1910-11*

Few schools were built during either world war but after 1918 they tended to be on a much larger scale than previously, with more specialist teaching rooms. Design standards were sometimes high, but also veered towards the bland and many schools were in a standardised neo-Georgian idiom. There were many modernist schools built on the cheap in the later 1930s but few survive. The first nursery schools date from this period along with experimental schools such as open-air schools.

Twenty per cent of schools in England and Wales were destroyed or badly damaged in World War II and were high priorities for post-war reconstruction. Following on from pre-war experiments, systems of school-building using standardised prefabricated elements were commonly used to

meet the pace of demand although schools using traditional modes of construction continued to be built. In the best schools, educational organisation and architecture were closely linked. In the 1950s more flexible and resilient framing systems emerged, usually in steel but sometimes in concrete.



*Tredworth Road Schools – Gothic Board School of 1885-6*

Relatively few post-war schools have any form of protection. Schools of this period were often designed innovatively; system built, used traditional construction in a novel way, centred on a library resource or sports facility, enriched with art. Secondary schools were generally built with overall architectural stylishness and could be innovative in construction or plan.

For more information see Historic England's *Education Buildings* (HE 2011f) or *England's Schools: History, Architecture and Adaptation* (Harwood 2010).

Gloucester. There are schools of various ages in Gloucester. The King's School is situated within the former monastic precincts and a number of its buildings contain remains of medieval buildings. There are large numbers of purpose built school buildings within the City boundaries dating mainly from the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. The Girl's High School in Denmark Road was designed by W B Wood in Free Jacobethan style and was built in 1907-8. St Paul's School, New Street, is the last surviving 'Church School' and was built in 1869-70 by A W Maberly. It is constructed of red brick and has blue brick and stone bands. There are also a number of surviving 'Board Schools'. Widden Street, built 1897-8, and the Tredworths Schools, built 1885-6, were both built by Medland and Son. Widden Street is in plain Italianate style and the Tredworth Schools are Gothic in style. The Hatherley Road Schools were built by A J Dunn in 1899 and are Queen Anne in style.



*Oxstalls Community School – Brutalist style 1967*



A number of 'Council Schools' have also survived to the present. Calton Road was built in 1904-5 and was designed in mildly Queen Anne style by W B Wood. J Fletcher Trew designed Derby Road in Neo-Georgian style in 1905-7. Archdeacon Street and Finlay Road schools were designed by H F Trew with Archdeacon Street being built in 1910-11 in Neo-Georgian style and Finlay Road constructed in 1931-2. Kingsholm (now the County Record Office) was designed by W B Wood and built in 1925-6.

The design of mid to late 20<sup>th</sup> century schools and colleges was influenced by modern building materials and methods and most of the resultant schools have little architectural merit.

### Public Service Buildings

*Police Stations.* Systems of local policing can be dated far back into the Dark Ages, and local arrangements of watch-men, sometimes with bespoke quarters and lock-ups, were common features in the Georgian city. The modern police force was effectively created with the 1829 Metropolitan Police Act, which established a 1,000-strong force in the capital. It was not until 1842 that a department was set up whose sole function was the design, erection and maintenance of purpose-built police buildings for the Metropolitan Police. The Lighting and Watching Act of 1833, and the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, appointed paid local constables for towns with a population over 5,000. Paid County Police forces were established by the County Police Act of 1839 whilst the 1856 Country and Borough Police Act completed national coverage such that the entire country was covered by 1857 leading to the significant expansion in the provision of police stations.

Early police stations were domestic in character and usually Gothic in style. After 1846, the new Surveyor of County Courts assumed responsibility for the design and erection of purpose-built County Courts and police stations

and adopted the distinctive Italianate design that characterised both building types during the middle years of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

Police stations had four main elements: the administrative block to the front, a cell block, police accommodation, and a drill yard. Internal features included an enquiry counter and separate rooms such as an interview room, a superintendent's room and a medical room. These were linked by a corridor to a number of cells. Also provided were rooms for use by the constables and sometimes a house for the inspector. Above the station or in a separate block there would usually be rooms for around ten men, with shared baths and toilets, library and recreation room, uniform room, and drying room. After about 1880, with an increasing number of officers, accommodation was kept separate from the station, in a new building type, the section house. These could be tall buildings often up to six storeys high, and contained dormitories for single men alongside other facilities. There were often other features such as an exercise yard, drill yard, stables and kennels, perhaps a mortuary and, increasingly, space for the police motor vehicles, along with associated boundary walls, gates, railings and fixed furniture like the blue Windsor lanterns introduced in 1861.

Following widespread civil unrest in the 1880s, the government invested in more stations and section houses. Under the influence of Richard Norman Shaw, the Queen Anne style was widely adopted, combining civilised domesticity with impregnable corners. Victorian and Edwardian police stations outside London were generally designed by the architects responsible for municipal buildings. The requirements for accommodation were broadly similar but the range of styles adopted tended to be wider with some, especially in rural locations, being sensitive to local vernacular traditions. Major divisional headquarters for the police were usually designed as part of a civic complex that included courts, a weights-and-measures office or a fire station. This led to complex and ingenious designs

often wrapped up in grand Baroque elevations. The twentieth century favoured the more restrained styles of Neo-Georgian, or stripped Classical, with occasionally ornamental brickwork.

A programme of modernisation and expansion took place in the 1950s which led to alterations to the older stations. Strict national regulations gave little room for architectural experiment or advance. Many headquarters police buildings of the 1950s were designed by the county architect as a part of the civic centre of the town, setting the standard for the buildings that followed. London police stations adopted a more modernistic idiom, a fashion that spread to other authorities in the 1960s. But by and large, stations of the 1960s were hardly distinguishable from the 1960s commercial office block.

More information can be found in Historic England's *Law and Government Buildings* (HE 2011g).

Gloucester. Gloucester City set up a full-time uniformed police service in 1836 following the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835. The city lock-up in Southgate Street became the police station at this time but was closed in 1858. A police station was proposed for Archdeacon Street in 1846 but was dismissed. Marybone House in Bearland, first built in the late 17<sup>th</sup> century but extended and rebuilt throughout the 18<sup>th</sup> century, was bought for use as a police station in 1858 and in 1859 the County and City forces amalgamated. The combined force consisted of 32 men, 20 of them paid for by the City, and were based in Marybone House. This was demolished in the early 1960s.

Further police stations were built or converted from houses in outlying areas of the City. The Barton Street Police Station, still surviving today, was formerly All Saints Vicarage but became a police station in the 1970s. It was

built in 1876-8 of red brick with bands of blue and white brick and was designed in typical mid-Victorian style by Capel N Tripp.



*Barton Street Police Station, formerly All Saints Vicarage – 1876-8*

The Gloucester City Police Station on Bearland was opened in 1963 and replaced the former Marybone House station. The new station was built as part of the 1960s development of Shire Hall. It is a long, slightly curving block of brick within a granite-faced concrete frame and is four storeys tall raised on paired pilotis (pillars) over Bearland to connect with a seven-storey, thirteen bay, and glazed structure.

A new Gloucestershire Constabulary Headquarters has recently been constructed at Waterwells Business Park. This building has a curved roof and a glazed frontage to Waterwells Drive.



Gloucester City Police Station – 1963

**Fire Stations.** Although some local communities were providing fire-fighting equipment in the early 17<sup>th</sup> century, the oldest fire stations and fire engine houses date to the late 18<sup>th</sup> century and are extremely rare. The Great Fire of London in 1666 spurred insurance companies and some municipalities into action and led to a system whereby insured properties were given a badge or fire mark. Fire marks can still be found on buildings today. The firefighting brigades were created in Brighton in 1831, in London in 1833 (

In the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century purpose-built fire stations began to appear all over the country, usually around the time of the formation of local brigades. Purpose-built fire stations are generally divided into distinct areas, one for appliances and one for staff. The fire-fighting vehicle was kept in an engine shed or engine house accessed by large doors opening onto an adjacent highway. Where the building was erected on a restricted site it

was common for multiple storeys of offices and accommodation to sit above the engine sheds and look-out towers were often incorporated into early designs. Historic and modern fire stations may contain offices, a kitchen, a recreation room and a dormitory for watches on night shift. In the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries it was common for staff to live in purpose-built flats above the fire station or in adjacent housing supplied for this purpose.

The introduction of motorised fire engines about 1905 had a major impact. Older stations were often too small and too awkwardly located in central urban sites for the new vehicles resulting in the closure of numerous stations, which were often adapted for other uses, and the opening of new premises on large roads.

The Fire Brigades Act of 1938 made it compulsory for local authorities to provide adequate fire services. In 1941 the Government created the National Fire Service to unify firefighting throughout the country, leading to new national standards and greater compatibility in equipment. In 1948 fire-fighting services were returned to local authority control and 148 borough and county council-run fire brigades were established. Most working stations today date from after the introduction of this legislation, and fire station provision continues to reflect changes in local government organisation.

More information can be found in Historic England's *Law and Government Buildings* (HE 2011g).

Gloucester. In 1635, Gloucester's common council maintained a system of fire-buckets housed in churches, and other city buildings, and also fire-hooks housed at the barley market house. The first council fire engine was ordered from London in 1648 with a second engine being bought in 1652. Part of Holy Trinity Church was adapted to house the engines although the



Church was demolished in 1699, apart from the tower. A new engine house was built adjoining the tower in 1702. By 1741, the corporation owned four engines and bought a new one to Richard Newsham's new design. In 1748 the corporation appointed six firemen. In 1836 the city firefighting equipment was put into the care of the police force superintendent with, in 1838, it being decided that the whole police force should be instructed as a fire brigade. The force was provided with more modern equipment and new engine in 1849 but by this time, and until the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, most firefighting in the city was carried out by insurance companies. Two companies maintained brigades in the city in 1841 and three companies had brigades in 1867.

In 1912 a new city fire brigade was created by the corporation using equipment given by the insurance companies who were disbanding their own brigades. The first purpose-built fire station was built in 1912 to 1913 on the corner of Bearland and Barbican Road. This building in Neo-Georgian style, a rebuilding of the west wing of Bearland House, was designed by the Deputy City Surveyor E W A Carter. On being disused as a fire station, in 1956, it became a Transport Museum, in the 1970s, and is now offices.

A new fire station building was constructed on Eastern Avenue in 1956. It was designed by Roger Fitzsimmons, built of pinkish-red brick with a three bay engine house to the north and three storey office range to the south. It was demolished in 2013. An auxiliary fire station in Barnwood Road was also demolished around 2013.

There is now a Gloucestershire Fire and Rescue Service headquarters on Waterwells Drive and two further stations in Cheltenham Road East and on Shepherd Road Industrial Estate.



Former fire station, Bearland – 1912-13

**Hospitals.** Treatment of the sick, old and infirm in the Middle Ages was largely the preserve of the church and in particular of monasteries. It is estimated that around 750 almshouses still existed in 1547, after the early stages of the Reformation. Only three major medieval hospitals however survived the Dissolution, all in London. These formed the only models for hospitals available until the latter part of the 18<sup>th</sup> century.

Many 18<sup>th</sup> century hospitals occupied modified private houses and, even when specially built, they emulated them. Hospital functions tended to be contained within a single block, although elements such as the kitchen or isolation wards were gradually removed to separate buildings. From the start most had some form of board or committee room and a chapel, endowed with particular decorative elaborateness, and these have always been particularly important parts of hospitals.

General hospitals continued to multiply in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, the most progressive experimenting with improved ventilation and sanitation. The mechanics of infection remained poorly understood well in to the twentieth century. 'Miasmatic' theories prevailed, and ventilation remained the determining factor in hospital design until the twentieth century. This explains the popularity of the pavilion plan that separated functions and provided good light and ventilation to dispel foul air.

Specialist rooms multiplied towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Some were completely new in function, such as X-ray rooms (after 1895) with their impervious surfaces and an absence of dust-retaining ledges and shelves. From the late 1860s nurses' homes were introduced to provide secure on-site accommodation mainly to attract a higher class of women to the profession. Despite this greater complexity, which sometimes eroded earlier planned lay-outs, there was little significant movement away from pavilion planning before the First World War.

Bacteriological research in the 1920s showed that infection took place by direct contact with diseased matter, and no amount of cross-ventilation would kill germs. Surgery advanced, with the development of aseptic environments and anaesthetics, and planning adapted, not least to ease the daily routines of doctors and nurses. Specialist hospital architects emerged, further encouraged by the 1929 Local Government Act which extended the role of local authorities in providing health services. In the inter-war years, hospitals were a perfect vehicle for Modernist design. However, Neo-Georgian remained the preferred style for the first generation of municipal hospitals. Many were fairly routine, in design terms, but sometimes features such as war memorials endowed them with an extra interest. In post-war hospitals functionality and capacity became ever more important considerations, rather than architectural display, and the transformation of the hospital as a building type has thus been dramatic.

Cottage Hospitals emerged in the 1860s to provide hospital care for patients near their homes and family. They were very popular with around 300 in 1895 and were often run on a subscription basis. There is no common formula. Accommodation could be for as few as four patients and a live-in nurse. They were often equipped with a small dispensary and an operating theatre. They aimed to be as homelike as possible, and were thus domestic in character, but success led to an increase in their size and the adoption of the pavilion plan. Some cottage hospitals are a feature of planned developments and many were built after 1919 as war memorials. Their domestic scale lent itself to the vernacular with Queen Anne Revival and Arts and Crafts styles being used. With changes in health provision in the later 20<sup>th</sup> century many smaller cottage hospitals became redundant or were substantially extended.

For further information see Historic England's *Health and Welfare Buildings* (HE 2011h).

Gloucester. In Gloucester in 1755, it was decided to build an infirmary intended for patients unable to pay their keep and medicine at other hospitals. The Gloucester Infirmary was built in lower Southgate Street and was opened to patients in 1761, after being temporarily housed in the Crown and Sceptre Inn in lower Westgate Street. The Infirmary was enlarged a number of times, including by the addition of north and south wings, and by 1932 had 216 beds, three operating theatres and specialist clinics and departments. On the introduction of the NHS in the late 1940s, the infirmary was amalgamated with the Gloucester City General Hospital and from 1949 was known as the Gloucestershire Royal Hospital. The Infirmary was closed during the 1970s, after a new hospital was built on Great Western Road, and was demolished in 1984.



*Central range of Gloucester City General Hospital, Great Western Road – 1912-14*

The Gloucester City General Hospital was formerly the infirmary of the Gloucester Union Workhouse. The original infirmary building was to the immediate south (behind) the Union Workhouse but this was demolished in 1850 to make way for the railway and was replaced with a detached building to the west of the Workhouse in 1852. A new infirmary block was built to the north of the Workhouse on the opposite side of Great Western Road. The building was designed by W B Wood and built between 1912 and 1914 and was finally completed after World War I. During the war the whole hospital was used by the Red Cross for the war-wounded. The buildings consisted of a central range with east and west wings (containing pavilion wards), creating an E-shape in plan, although only the central range survives. This brick two-storey range is of eleven bays with a three-bay pediment and heavy stone door surround.

In 1930 the infirmary was transferred to Gloucester Corporation and became known as Gloucester City General Hospital. On introduction of the NHS, it amalgamated with Gloucester Infirmary, on Southgate Street, and the two hospitals became Gloucestershire Royal Hospital. The Workhouse Infirmary site was chosen as the base for the new Gloucestershire Royal Hospital which started construction in the early 1960s. At this time the buildings of the Union Workhouse were demolished. The east and west wings of the Infirmary were only demolished in 2006 after being left empty and gradually derelict from 2004. Surrounding the 1912 range, and covering all of the space to the east to Horton Road, are a large number of 20<sup>th</sup> century and early 21<sup>st</sup> century hospital buildings. Pevsner describes this as ‘a scruffy hotchpotch’ (Verey and Brooks 2002, p464). Buildings of note include a large, eleven-storey, tower block in the east of the hospital site that was built in 1975 and in its shadow a small polygonal chapel of 1976.

The County Lunatic Asylum on Horton Road was planned by the governors of Gloucester Infirmary in the 1790s and was originally to be based adjacent to the Infirmary on Southgate Street. However, delays in obtaining sufficient funding resulted in construction never beginning on Southgate Street. In 1811, a preferable site at Wotton was identified and purchased. The scheme, previously open only to subscribers, was opened up to both the County and City of Gloucester with the result that a continuous source of funding from rates was secured. Plans for the asylum were developed by William Stark of Edinburgh in 1812 and modified, after his sudden death in 1813, by County Surveyor John Wheeler and his successor John Collingwood after 1819. Construction finally began in 1814 but, due to financial problems of the subscribers, the hospital was not opened until 1823. The central section of the hospital was a crescent of three storeys that contained the accommodation for 24 wealthy patients and their servants. To the north, south and west were two-storey wings connected



to the crescent by single storey day rooms. These wings were for the housing of 60 paupers and 26 charity patients and there were also detached wards for noisy and violent patients. Extensions were added in 1842-6 and a new chapel in 1849 both to the designs of Fulljames and Waller. James Medland designed further expansions in 1852 and 1854 creating full height connections between the crescent and the two-storey wings. In the 1870s a new three-storey block, also by Medland, was added in the south west and the 1849 chapel was replaced to the south of the asylum.



*County Lunatic Asylum, Horton Road – 1814-1823*

During the two Wars, the asylum received patients transferred from other hospitals that were requisitioned for military and emergency medical use. With the creation of the NHS in 1948, the asylum was renamed as Horton Road Hospital and efforts were made to modernise and improve conditions. With the expansion of the Gloucestershire Royal Hospital in the 1960s and 1970s and large amount of the grounds were lost and some of

the outlying buildings of the hospital were demolished including the West Lodge. The chapel was deconsecrated in the 1980s and converted for use by the new Gloucestershire Royal. The hospital eventually closed in 1988 but was left empty for 12 years, gradually deteriorating and decaying, before being converted for apartments. The surviving building is Neo-Classical style and consists of the central crescent and its flanking north and south wings. The crescent has an impressive façade of stuccoed brick and is three storeys high with a basement faced in rusticated ashlar blocks. There are eighteen bays of flat arched windows with continuous platbands and a central doorway with attached Doric columns. The two flanking wings are each of three-storeys with an arcade of windows and continuous platbands. Where the wings attach to the crescent can be seen the remains of a loggia of three bays with applied pilasters and entablature. The basement of the crescent still contains the cells with their stone beds.

Despite expansions to the County Lunatic Asylum at Wotton, in the 1870s there was a shortage of room and in 1878 an estate in Barnwood, east of Coney Hill, was bought for the construction of a new asylum. Plans were submitted for the design and architects John Giles and Gough were selected. The design for Second Gloucestershire County Asylum was the first to adopt an echelon layout of male and female three storey ward blocks arranged to either side of a central service and administrative area. It was opened in 1883 but was not complete and was intended to be finished in 1885. The administrative and service areas, the two southernmost wards and workshops were all that was built. Although the land around the asylum was left undeveloped for many years the full scheme was never implemented and the hospital ran as an annexe to the Wotton asylum. Extensions were eventually constructed in 1909 but not to the original plan.



Former Coney Hill Hospital administration block and clock tower – 1880s

Just like the Wotton hospital, during both wars the asylum was used to house patients removed from other hospitals that were requisitioned for military casualties. With the introduction of the National Health Service, the asylum was renamed Coney Hill Hospital. A small number of extensions were added to the site in the 1950s and 1960s and a new block for handicapped patients was added in the 1970s. By the 1980s more community based provision and acute psychiatric units reduced the number of patients in all mental hospitals and they gradually closed with Coney Hill closing in 1994. Most of the complex was demolished, with the exception of the administration block, and housing was constructed on the land. The administration block was gutted by fire in 1999 but has since been sympathetically restored and renovated for housing. The surviving building is of three storeys with a central five stage clock tower. It is constructed of red brick and has blue brick bands and diapering on the upper floor and

tower. Above the entrance door is a date plaque with the inscription ‘Anno Domini 1883. Bear Ye One Another’s Burdens’.

There are also two other modern hospitals in Gloucester. On Horton Road, to the north of the old County Lunatic Asylum, is Wotton Lawn Hospital. This mental health centre was built in 1995 to a design by J T Design Build Ltd and is a post-modern brick structure with a double-cross plan. Winfield Hospital, a private hospital on Tewkesbury Road, was built in 1993 to a design by Hall Needham Associates. It is domestic post-modern in style and is constructed of brick with a pseudo-timbered upper floor.

**Prisons.** Before the 1770s imprisonment was not the standard punishment, prisons usually being places of detention prior to some form of corporal or capital punishment being carried out. In 1698 Justices of the Peace were given additional responsibility for building or repairing county gaols. Like hospitals, their outward architectural form was polite, being modelled on the formal facades of fashionable large houses. Cells were rare at this time and were often restricted to prisoners awaiting execution. Serious offenders might face transportation, initially to America, and later, to Australia. In villages, often policed by local constables paid for by the manor or parish, single cell lock ups were provided to hold inebriates and other miscreants overnight. These can be as simple as a sturdy timber or stone box, but some are larger and more elaborate. Early Watch houses also sometimes held a simple cell.

John Howard in the 1770s was the first to systematically document prison conditions, to propose a solution, and to use his political skills to achieve reforms. Under his influence many prisons were rebuilt and prison conditions were significantly improved. At the heart of Howard’s system was the need to separate different categories of offender. As well as cell blocks, new prisons would include an infirmary and a chapel, two essentials if prisoners were to be cared for and reformed. He pioneered a detached

radial plan that became the form in the early nineteenth century. In this arrangement, a central block enabled guards to supervise prisoners in the yards rather than in the cell blocks, which was both more humane and more effective.

Central government played an increasingly important role in prison design, which had hitherto been largely left to county authorities to administer. Various harsh regimes were experimented with, including the 'separate system' that combined both silence and separation. By 1850 around sixty British prisons had been rebuilt or were being altered to conform to the separate system, and between 1842 and 1877 nineteen radial prisons were erected in England. In addition to new prisons, Pentonville-style wings were added to some prisons, while at others the existing buildings were altered or progressively rebuilt.

Up to the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century children who committed crimes were commonly sent to adult prisons as there was no separate provision. Philanthropic societies and private founders set up some voluntary reformatories for young people in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century but it was not until the Youthful Offenders Acts of 1854 that state registered institutions were established and pre-existing private reformatories were brought under state certification. Reformatories were distinguished from Industrial Schools by taking young people who had actually committed offences, as opposed to those who were merely destitute or neglected and in danger of falling into crime.

By the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century specialised buildings were being built alongside the cell blocks including infirmaries and a reception block for new inmates with a store for their property. There were also kitchens, workshops and a laundry, often beside the female wing. Prison governors were accommodated in purpose-built houses close to the prison.

With the decline in transportation during the 1850s and 1860s a new generation of prisons was built. The Prison Act of 1877 placed all local prisons under the control of a central Prison Commission and by 1878 the number of prisons had been reduced from 113 to 69 as small, unsuitable, prisons were closed. The Commission's first chairman designed Wormwood Scrubs with its four parallel cellblocks linked at their centre by covered walkways oriented so that all cells received some sunlight during the day. It became the model for many new prisons between the 1880s and the 1950s. Regimes re-focused on rehabilitation in the 1890s and prisoners were taught trades and worked together, sometimes in purpose-built workshops. The 20<sup>th</sup> century saw the introduction of ever more specialised prisons, including those for women and juveniles, and the Borstal system superseded reformatories for young offenders. Experimental open prisons were introduced during the 1930s, with compounds of huts and outdoor work taking the place of incarceration in secure permanent buildings.

By the end of the 1950s penal reformers and architectural writers were denouncing the latest prisons as being old-fashioned. In 1959 a scheme for a new type of prison was developed which lay greater emphasis on association, classrooms, gyms and other facilities. The first of these so-called 'New Wave' prisons, was opened in July 1963, and this became the dominant architectural form employed in the 1960s prisons. More recent developments, probably inspired by 'New Generation' American prisons, developed informal campus layouts.

More information can be found in Historic England's guide *Law and Government Buildings* (HE 2011g).

Gloucester. Through-out time there have been a number of prisons in Gloucester, called variously lock-ups, bridewells, gaols and prisons. Prior to the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century, the main prison was situated within the inner North Gate with a further prison in the East Gate both of which were



documented in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> centuries. In 1560, the East Gate housed women prisoners and from around 1613 it was used as the bridewell, or house of correction. This lasted until the demolition of the East Gate in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century and the inner North Gate a few years later around 1781.

In the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, the city gaol and lock-up was in Southgate Street and also became the police station when this was created in 1836, housing a superintendent, sergeants and a number of constables. The police station moved to Marybone House, in Bearland, in 1858 with the city gaol also being closed at this time.

The county gaol was housed at Gloucester Castle from the late 12<sup>th</sup> century. Although the Castle ceased to be maintained as fortress in the 1480s, the keep continued in use as the county gaol after this time. Parts of the Castle were demolished in the later 15<sup>th</sup> century with the stone being used for road repairs and, in 1529, for building the new Boothall but with the stipulation that enough stone was left for repairs to the gaol. By the mid 17<sup>th</sup> century only the keep, housing the gaol, and the gatehouse were left standing with even the curtain wall being removed during the 1630s and 40s. New building also took place later in the 17<sup>th</sup> century with a brick bridewell being constructed on the north side of the keep. Visitors to the Castle in the late 17<sup>th</sup> century regarded the gaol as ‘the best in England’ with its garden and bowling green allowing fresh air and exercise.

By the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, however, unfavourable reports were made on the county gaol and its reform and rebuilding was being suggested. An Act of Parliament of 1785 allowed a new gaol to be built with demolition of the keep beginning in 1787. The new gaol was completed in 1791 and consisted of extensive, three-storeyed, buildings ranged around three quadrangles. The building included, as well as a gaol, a penitentiary and a house of correction with a gatehouse on the east side, in the perimeter wall. The gaol was extended in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century with a debtor’s prison (now

listed), extended perimeter walls and a new gatehouse (now listed). The new gatehouse was the venue for public execution which took place on the roof.



*Former HM Prison Gloucester – 1820s and 1840s to 50s*

Further extension to the gaol took place between 1844 and 1850 with the construction of a large cell block and chapel (now listed). The structure

incorporated the 1790s gatehouse with the three-storey cell-blocks added to north and south and the two-storey chapel to the west. The design was based on the 'Pentonville' separate system, based on the principle of keeping prisoners isolated with individual cells and forbidden to speak to each other. Also around this time, a governor's house built in the south perimeter wall (now listed).

In 1878, the gaol became H.M Prison Gloucester and passed out of county control. Between the late 19<sup>th</sup> century and around 1920, the 1791 prison ranges were demolished. Prison officers houses were built in the north west corner of the site and then demolished, along with other buildings on the site, in the 1980s to make way for new reception and administration buildings. The prison closed in 2013 after a number of years of reports of overcrowding. The main buildings have now been converted to luxury accommodation.

### 3.1.8 Religious Buildings

Places of worship of all faiths and denominations can be supremely uplifting buildings. They can also be the most significant repositories of a community's architectural and artistic achievement, and their prominence in the historic environment is universally accepted. Many of our most important historic buildings are places of worship and this is reflected in the statutory lists: 45 per cent of all Grade I listed buildings are churches. People feel strongly about them, whether or not they are active members of a worshipping congregation, and they are often repositories for the collective memories of the local communities, and their historic place of burial. With their strong claims to special architectural, archaeological, artistic, historic and cultural interest, places of worship deserve considerable respect and care.



*Cathedral Church of the Holy and Indivisible Trinity, Cathedral Precincts*

The Reformation of the sixteenth century secured for the Church of England the lion's share of England's oldest and finest churches. Only in the nineteenth century did other denominations acquire the financial resources and the confidence born of religious tolerance to build on a comparable scale.

### Church of England

Often the oldest and most visually prominent structures in a community, most churches will have been considered sacred for many generations. They occupy a unique position in a community's understanding of its past, even in an age of declining church attendance. Most medieval churches occupy a site of great antiquity, and in their plan form or orientation may



echo earlier structures on or near the site. Many churches are of supreme interest for their early fabric and evidence of early phases.



*Remains of St Oswald's Priory, Priory Road – 12<sup>th</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> century*

The Reformation period of around 1538-1600 was a period of little new church building, but one in which the successive changes of transforming England into a Protestant realm can be discerned in the adaptation of interiors designed to de-emphasise the mass and the saints, which involved both the introduction as well as the removal of furnishings. Large numbers of church monuments also began to be erected in this period.

In the period of 1600-1800 few new churches were constructed outside of cities and are therefore comparative rarities. Most churches built prior to 1660 were generally built in a lingering Gothic style and differed from their predecessors only by the thorough use of pews in the nave and the prominence of the pulpit. The influence of Archbishop Laud in the period

leading up to the Civil Wars led to a re-emphasis on the beauty of holiness and churches built during the Commonwealth are exceptionally rare.

The work of nationally renowned architects in London after the Great Fire, Wren and Hawksmoor for example, sought a Protestant architecture for England, favouring plans that enabled all present to hear and see the preacher distinctly. These 'auditory' churches became the standard type for Georgian church building although many fittings were later swept away in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. New modes of funerary commemoration evolved, with monuments positioned in locations that took advantage of new opportunities for ostentatious display; very much an English speciality, they remain perhaps the most important of all categories of sculpture in this country.



*Christ Church, Brunswick Road/Montpellier – 1822-3 and 1899-1900*



Churches of the early 19<sup>th</sup> century are characterised by stylistic diversity where Romanesque, Gothic Revival (albeit not of a very archaeologically accurate nature) and Neo-Classicism co-existed. The influence of the Ecclesiological Movement with its concept of a ‘correct’ Gothic style did not emerge before about 1840. Examples of archaeologically well-informed Gothic revival forms in this period are rare and important. This period also witnessed a vogue for collecting ecclesiastical furnishings of pre-Reformation date from Continental Europe – woodwork and stained glass in particular – especially after peace in 1814, and many found their way into restored medieval churches. In addition to their intrinsic interests, they made an important contribution to the revival of the ecclesiastical arts and crafts in England.

New parishes could only be created by Act of Parliament, an expensive process that constrained the expansion of the Church of England to meet the needs of a growing population. Between 1818 and 1856 however, fear of the success of the evangelising Free Churches, especially the Methodists, resulted in two parliamentary grants towards the construction of over 600 new churches in the rapidly expanding industrial towns where Anglicanism was inadequately represented. The quality of these ‘Commissioners’ Churches’ was uneven, some being the work of architects with national reputations while others were by local men of variable talent. They represented the single largest church building initiative since the Reformation. Most were designed to accommodate large numbers and many adopted a generally superficial and decorative Gothic style with a west tower or bellcote, galleries and sanctuary. Capacity, rather than stylistic authenticity, was the principal consideration. Some of the 600 have been demolished and many were altered in the later nineteenth century. The churches were ridiculed by Pugin and ‘Commissioners’ Gothic’ became a term of derision. Today there is greater respect for the sober gravity of their architecture, their innovative structural qualities and their historical

importance as the greatest state-funded wave of church building ever seen in England.



*Anglo-Asian Cultural Centre, former All Saints Church, Barton Street – 1874-5*

One of the prime movers of the Gothic Revival in England was the Catholic convert A.W.N. Pugin (1812-52), whose works promoted Gothic on aesthetic, moral and religious grounds. He in turn influenced the Cambridge Camden Society (later the Ecclesiological Society), an association whose members favoured the English ‘Middle Pointed’ style of the early fourteenth century which formed a widely accepted benchmark in Anglican church-building during the 1840s and 50s. This period saw a revival of the ecclesiastical arts of metalwork and stained glass, and it was the combination of a Gothic architectural revival and liturgical renewal that provided the catalyst for the flowering of these ecclesiastical arts and craftsmanship. Existing churches underwent sometimes drastic alterations. Medieval churches were restored to an idealised version of their original

form, and more recent churches were transformed by the addition of chancel extensions and the removal of galleries and proprietary box-pews. Few Anglican churches remained unaffected. Such changes constitute a significant phase in the history of a church. By the 1860s the influence of Ecclesiology was on the wane and a more eclectic and wide-ranging assimilation of styles, Northern European, Italian and Byzantine as well as English Gothic, was employed in imaginative and exciting ways by a younger generation of architects.

During this period, 1840-1880, considerable numbers of chapels were erected in cemeteries and other institutions, such as workhouses and asylums. While generally on a smaller scale than churches, and seldom possessing their decorative elaboration, these buildings often play a crucial part in their landscape settings. Additionally many new churches, initially established as missions in temporary prefabricated corrugated iron (invented 1828) chapels to standard catalogue designs were erected throughout the country. Sometimes these were re-used as church halls on completion of the new church, and sometimes funding never materialised and worship continued in these so-called 'tin tabernacles' or 'iron churches'

Churches often make an important contribution to the urban streetscape and many Victorian suburbs were planned with the church as their visual focal point and there is usually a clear relationship to nearby contemporary clergy accommodation, related schools and/or planned residential development.

The best buildings of the period between 1880 and 1914 were less in thrall to the medieval precedent advocated by Pugin and the Ecclesiologists. Many a plan more suited to the requirements of contemporary worship, in which the seated congregation required visibility and processional and circulatory spaces. Late medieval English Perpendicular provided fresh inspiration for some architects. Continental art nouveau, however, enjoyed limited

popularity in ecclesiastical circles in England, but the impact of the Arts and Crafts Movement, which drew imaginatively on English vernacular styles, continued to be felt until at least the Second World War. These influences produced a powerful and organic architecture often enhanced by a suite of contemporary furnishings.



*St Barnabas Church, Stroud Road – 1938-40*

In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, the vast array of relevant publications available to architects, the increase in local architectural societies and local branches of professional bodies, along with improved technical and art training, led to a rise in the general standard of architectural competence that was reflected across the whole denominational spectrum. There are a large number of surviving churches and although many designs were standardised and derivative, many were imaginative, sometimes dramatic but also, as with houses of the period, sometimes subtle and undemonstrative.

## Catholic Church

Public Catholic worship was illegal in England from the accession of Queen Elizabeth until 1791. Priests trained in Catholic seminaries on the Continent and celebrated clandestine masses in private houses, but the penalties were severe. A small number of pre-1791 mass rooms and estate chapels survive. Catholics were excluded from the 1689 Act of Toleration which legalised some varieties of Nonconformist worship. By the mid eighteenth century, however, some aristocratic Catholic families felt sufficiently confident to build ambitious new chapels in the relative seclusion of their own estates and there were also Catholic chapels in the towns. Most of these were barely distinguishable from Nonconformist chapels.

The Second Catholic Relief Act of 1791 legalised public worship and sanctioned church building, as long as the chapel had no steeple or bell. This heralded a period of Catholic church and chapel building on a significant scale. Some of the new chapels were built on sites of earlier devotion, and preserved relics associated with the martyrs of penal times. Aristocratic and land-owning patrons were in the vanguard, although in the larger towns well-to-do laymen established societies devoted to fund-raising and church building. Many of these post-1791 chapels were classical in style; simple galleried boxes hardly distinguishable from Nonconformist chapels, their exteriors remained simple and understated, as old habits of concealment died hard.

The Act of Emancipation of 1829 freed Catholics from most remaining civil disabilities. Catholics could now enter parliament, and Catholic architects could confess their faith and earn a living working for Catholic patrons. The Restoration of Hierarchy in 1850, re-establishing territorial bishops, was an important watershed and coincided with a period of enormous expansion in the Catholic population of England as a result of immigration from Ireland,

especially following the Great Famine of 1846-9. By the 1851 census there were 900,000 Catholics in England, a population that had grown to 1,793,000 by the eve of the First World War.



*Roman Catholic Church of St Peter, London Road – 1860-68*

The new Catholic bishops made church provision a high priority, and focused on impoverished urban immigrants in the cities. In many Catholic parishes the school preceded the church and the hard and fast division of sacred and secular space meant that the majority of churches were endowed with a building suitable for social and community activities. The complex of school, large presbytery and hall is common in many Catholic urban parishes and the group value of these combinations should be carefully assessed.



In the 1840s, Catholic churches began to match the scale and architectural pretension of those of the Established Church. Pugin, was responsible for a large number of Catholic churches some reflecting the relative poverty of his patron whilst some wealthy Catholics allowed him to express his aspirations with no expense spared. Most Catholic churches remained Gothic in style for the two generations after Pugin's death in 1852. By 1900 some Catholic architects were among the most notable in the field.

### Nonconformist

Dissent from the doctrines and practices of the Church of England grew significantly in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, particularly during the Civil War and Commonwealth. Few Dissenting chapels survive from the first half of that century and those that do have been significantly altered, enlarged or completely rebuilt on the same site. The pace of chapel building quickened following the Declarations of Indulgence in 1672 and 1687 and especially following the Act of Toleration of 1689, although this act expressly excluded Roman Catholics and Unitarians, and Quakers could not take the required oaths. Further freedom was afforded by the 1812 Toleration Act, which permitted as many as twenty people to gather for worship in an unregistered chapel.

The period of greatest expansion was from the mid 18<sup>th</sup> century up to about 1870, as Nonconformists were freed from constraints on their civil liberties. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts in 1828 opened up the professions to Nonconformists, and in 1837 the civil registration of births, marriages and deaths enabled Nonconformists to have their marriages solemnized in their own place of worship rather than in an Anglican church. The 1844 Dissenters Chapels Act ensured stability of tenure for Nonconformists, by securing chapels for those congregations who had worshipped in them for a minimum of 25 years. This was

particularly important where a chapel had changed hands, a not uncommon phenomenon. The 1870 Education Act was of widespread national benefit and had the effect of releasing resources formerly devoted to separatist educational provision in Nonconformist and Roman Catholic communities alike. After 1870 the growth of membership of most denominations was no longer keeping pace with general population growth and demographic change was bringing about chapel decline and even redundancy.



*Gloucester United Reform Church, former Whitefield Presbyterian Church, Park Road – 1870-2*

Despite their considerable architectural diversity, Nonconformist chapels have some general physical characteristics in common. Orientation was generally not an issue, so buildings could take full advantage of the site. Striking facades and street frontages are characteristic. Nonconformist church and chapel founders were free of the parish system that hampered Anglican expansion, and so could build quickly, in response to the demands of growing congregations. They were reliant upon subscriptions or the

support of shareholders and this is reflected in the presence of proprietary pews, which lasted longer in Nonconformist circles than in Anglican ones.



City Church, former Wesleyan Mission Hall, Seymour Road – 1908-9

Fellowship and study have always been important and Nonconformist chapels were often equipped with ancillary spaces or separate buildings devoted to community or educational use such as Sunday schools, Ragged Schools, meeting rooms, kitchens, halls for entertainment, young peoples' Institutes and so forth. This often results in interesting massing of groups of buildings around the chapel.

The earliest Dissenting meetings were held in private houses or in buildings converted from other uses and many early chapels continued to resemble domestic buildings well in to the nineteenth century, reflecting both economy and discretion in the face of prejudice. By the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century a generic meeting house type had emerged. The buildings were all

characterised by their simplicity and plainness. Square or more commonly rectangular in plan, chapels were usually longer than they were wide, with galleries on three walls and a prominent pulpit of two or three storeys in the middle of the long wall. A small communion table would be placed in front of the pulpit. Gallery fronts were usually panelled and lower walls were often wainscoted. Simple forms or benches were gradually replaced by box pews. Communion pews positioned close to the pulpit are extremely rare survivors. Gender segregation was common and in larger chapels men and women entered by separate doors. The chapels of all denominations had a minister's chair. Interior memorials were only gradually admitted in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Windows were large and plainly glazed until late in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when stained glass began to appear. Although baptism was a public event, performed in the full view of the congregation, few meeting houses had a font but used a small bowl as required, with the exception of the Baptists.

For more information see Historic England's guide *Places of Worship* (HE 2011i).

### 3.1.9 Commercial Buildings

Commercial buildings range from small local shops to huge department stores, from corner pubs to Victorian 'gin palaces', from simple sets of chambers to huge speculative office blocks. Some specialised commercial buildings emerged in the medieval period, others developed in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. Their range and scale were transformed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and they made a huge impact on the face of the Victorian town, the twentieth century continued this trend. Commercial architecture always placed a high premium on novelty and effect. This has resulted in some of the country's most splendid public high street architecture. However, it has also led to constant change, especially regarding shop fronts and fittings.



More information can be found in Historic England's *Commerce and Exchange Buildings* (HE 2011j).

## Shops

Medieval retailing has left its imprint in countless market places. Although specialised commercial buildings developed early, very few survive. Market houses are among the most prominent. Open at ground floor level, they provided permanent, covered places for selling and exchange and were a natural progression from the temporary market stall. Upper-floor rooms were used for a variety of purposes including municipal government. Some medieval shops were arranged in rows, with living accommodation on upper floors or to the rear only a small number survive in recognisable form but this form has been recorded during archaeological excavation. Undercrofts, sometimes vaulted, may be found in the more commercially valuable streets of medieval towns underneath medieval houses or their successors. The pre-eminent example of medieval town houses with shops and undercrofts remains the collection of merchants' houses which comprise The Rows, Chester, built by master-masons and carpenters assembled by King Edward I for his campaigns in North Wales in the late thirteenth century.

The earliest surviving complete shop fronts date from the mid 18<sup>th</sup> century as the display of wares became ever more important in the expanding urban centres. Glazed shop fronts, first inserted into the ground floor of houses, typically consisted of big windows with small panes, sometimes bowed, beneath a frieze or fascia stall-risers supporting the display windows. Shop fronts from this period are rare, and shop interiors even more so. Late Georgian shop fronts are slightly more common, and form one of the pleasures of the English urban scene. Retail became increasingly assertive from the late Georgian period.



College Yard – medieval street now with shops

The arrival of plate glass in the early to mid 19<sup>th</sup> century led to a wave of shop window replacement by which time the ground-floor shop, boasting attention-seeking displays, was a standard feature of most high streets. Purpose-built shops proliferated at this time. Many of the best-known varieties assumed their familiar guise at this time: butchers' shops with their slabs, decorated tiles and provision for hanging meat; tobacconists, and



particularly chemists, with their shelves for jars; drapers, with their drawers and shelves for bolts of materials, their aerial communication systems and emphasis on mirrors and display windows; jewellers, with their screens and elaborate shelving. Lettering, announcing the proprietor or the wares for sale, could be exuberant, and decoration grew in opulence. Ceramic enrichment was one of the particular contributions of the late nineteenth century to retail design and ranged in scale from individual butchers' shops to architectural schemes of great ambition.



112 Barton Street – 19<sup>th</sup> century

The shopping arcade was introduced to England by John Nash from Paris, making its first appearance at London's Royal Opera Arcade of 1816-8. Arcades created vibrant commercial thoroughfares, architecturally united

by means of repeated shop units lining covered and top-lit walkways; they enabled deep plots to be used to the full as well. They gained a new lease of life through cast iron building technology. This enabled larger, more elaborate, designs to be realised. Related to the arcade was the bazaar.

Inspired by Indian models, the bazaar was a purpose-built structure in which retailers set up stalls. Arcades and bazaars were the first retail buildings to inject an element of theatre and grandeur into the shopping experience.

Specialist warehouses often boasted elaborate wholesale showrooms for buyers on the ground floor and their elaborate architectural facades and display techniques were an influence on the development of the department store. The shopping experience was taken further in the later Victorian period by the French concept of the department store, which thrived on a growing well-heeled middle class able to get into town by means of the increasingly dense and efficient public transport network. There were at first relatively few opportunities in most English towns and cities for retailers to accumulate the necessary consolidated blocks of high street property and many of the earliest examples went hand-in-hand with large-scale municipal redevelopments in the 1880s and 1890s. The success of early department stores in Bradford and Brixton encouraged others to follow and diversify. Floors tend to be open allowing displays to merge one into another; floors were linked by large and opulent staircases and extra services such as fitting rooms, rest rooms and tea rooms were added as customer expectations rose. Some had sleeping accommodation for upwards of 400 staff. Many smaller towns and suburbs developed their own department stores, which often grew to rival their metropolitan competitors in terms of size and architectural display. These buildings were becoming increasingly prominent features in town centres by the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.



Former Co-Op stores, Easgate Street – 1929-31

The twentieth century saw the onward march of national chain stores each of which developed a distinctive brand identity through shop design. Some were mildly classical revival, others half-timbered vernacular revival in style; all aimed to be reassuring and enticing. The arrival of Art Deco in the 1920s, together with wider home ownership ushered in a period of remarkable retail architecture. Showrooms for furniture and electrical goods also proliferated. Gas and Electrical companies often incorporated elaborate showrooms in the ground floors of their offices, and these can often add interest to otherwise unremarkable buildings.

Post-war shops of special interest survive in very small numbers, so marked has been the shift towards short-lived, adaptable or ephemeral retail architecture. American influence has been very pronounced such as the former Sanderson's showroom in London's Berners Street. This is an

unusually forthright and ambitious building in the International style of 1957-60. Smaller-scale survivals of note are surprisingly rare.

### Markets

The earlier open-sided market house spawned a number of related building types. Exchanges were purpose-built structures devoted to commercial activity, somewhere for traders to display their wares, for customers to gather, for business negotiations to take place, in many ways they were also the prototype for the office building. The normal plan (at least in England) until the middle years of the nineteenth century was a courtyard surrounded by two-storeyed arcaded ranges to all sides. By this time they had also become diversified according to trade so we have exchanges for wool, corn, coal, hops, mining, and general produce, and so on. Fine examples of general-purpose markets survive from the late Georgian period also such as Covent Garden, London. The classical language of architecture demonstrated its adaptability for modern uses through colonnaded arcades. The rapidly expanding urban population created massive demand, which transport developments were increasingly able to meet. New structural technologies enabled greater numbers of stallholders to be grouped together in spacious new markets under wide-span cast-iron roofs, which drew on the same technology which enabled railway stations and exhibition halls. By 1891 around half of England's markets were covered. Elaborate municipal wholesale markets were opened, greatly facilitated by the coming of the railways. Markets remain places of particular community resonance, and some possess special historic interest on these grounds.

### Banks and Offices

The distinction between early banks and exchanges is not a clear one. In England, banking was the preserve of goldsmiths up until the late 17<sup>th</sup> century and the Bank of England was established in 1694. During the 18<sup>th</sup>

century banks (like warehouses) were private houses with business rooms on the ground floor. Banks were built in great numbers to fuel the economy in the nineteenth century. Image and appearance mattered, with outward impressiveness being pursued as the embodiment of reliability, confidence and security. After the financial reforms of the 1840s, banks began to assume a more standard guise: as with exchanges, the common formula for larger banks is a grand entrance leading into a banking hall with offices off to the side. Italianate or Renaissance designs became the favoured idiom with effort being concentrated on front elevations and public areas, above all the banking hall. Rear areas tend to be much more utilitarian, with increasingly sophisticated strongrooms and employees often lived above banks for security reasons. Savings banks catered for the less well-off and their premises tended to be smaller and less elaborate, but they remain important testaments to Victorian notions of self-help and thrift.



HSBC Bank, built for London, City and Midland Bank, Northgate Street – 1905-7

Twentieth-century banks retained their prominence on the high street, embodying solidity and respectability. Classical designs gave way to more contextual styles, with Neo-Georgian a particular favourite in the 1920s. Banking halls remained the principal spaces, with increasingly more sophisticated security vaults beyond. Strong American influence was felt in some of the larger banks. The Wall Street Crash slowed down the rate of bank building but did not affect the spate of bank company headquarters' rebuilding in the capital. Modernist designs arrived in the later 1930s and classical treatment gave way to a more stripped and streamlined style, while internally marble and teak were replaced with travertine and glass.

Offices emerged out of the development of business in the various forms of exchange buildings in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Private or speculative offices, as a distinct building type, are a development of the Victorian age. Purpose-built chambers, a forerunner of the office, appeared from the late 17<sup>th</sup> century onwards. Outwardly similar to domestic architecture, but internally planned on the staircase principle of colleges, these private rooms (with limited residential quarters attached) provided places for private meeting and for the preparation and safeguarding of the increasingly complex legal and financial transactions that characterised the post-Restoration age. Otherwise, offices were accommodated within merchants' houses, or created within workshops and warehouses, or fronting factories: the commercial office building would only appear in the mid nineteenth century.

Offices comprised a new kind of building type during the Victorian period, reflecting the enormous growth in Britain's domestic and foreign business. As the middle classes moved out to fast-growing suburbs, older houses in the centres of cities came up for redevelopment. Ground plots were expensive to acquire, so building heights increased to accommodate more letting space. From the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century, these combined offices of varying ranks, meeting rooms, fire-proof strong rooms, all placed within



impressively treated exteriors, often classical, or Italianate, and gave an appearance of dependable dignity. Many combined ground-floor shops, offices or banks, with further offices on the upper floors, sometimes all three appear together.

Commercial pressures brought about important innovations in plan and structure. Packing as many offices as possible into a multi-storeyed building often set on an awkward site posed problems of lighting and ventilation which were solved by the introduction of small central light-wells clad with reflective white tiles. Internal glazed partitions enabled this light to be freely borrowed (as well as facilitating supervision of the clerks). Major national businesses exploited such techniques whilst also creating a distinctive example of corporate identity. Providing a smart image remained paramount for the twentieth century office as it developed. The newest Modern Movement idioms were drawn on. As with public buildings, there is a clear hierarchy of importance, with architectural effect being reserved for the principal spaces – foyers, stairs, and boardrooms.

Offices have become one of the most important building types in post-war England: many of the iconic buildings of the second part of the last century are in this category. The office (like the shop) was sometimes embellished with art. American-inspired International Style skyscrapers arrived in the 1950s. Key buildings also reflect new ways of working. American architects introduced the green-field office complex to Britain. The clever design of a concrete grid bearing the floor plates ushered in the open-plan way of working, which became more the norm during the 1970s.

### Public Houses

Pub architecture has always been a compromise between peoples' desire to drink and the authorities' desire to control it: 'the drink question' was a politically sensitive issue throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries.



*Imperial Inn, Northgate Street – 1904*

The 1830 Beer Act, a reaction to the perceived evils of gin, resulted in an increase in the number of pubs, often converted from private houses and barely distinguishable from them. They were small and simple and usually had no bar counter. Further legislation and licensing controls encouraged the plan form that became prevalent, with multiple entrances and numerous rooms for different styles of drinking, often divided by low partitions rather

than solid walls, served increasingly from a single bar. Not all pubs were lavishly decked out but most had some of the fittings that, when brought together, created the iconic 'gin palace': mahogany bar counters, shelving, mirrors, partitions, frosted glass windows, signage, decorative tiling, embossed ceilings, occasionally with public rooms upstairs. The high point of pub building was in the decades either side of 1900. As suburbs grew in size, so pubs of a different type developed, linked to the newly built housing estates, and were called 'improved' or 'reformed'. These targeted 'respectable' drinkers and provided a range of eating and entertainment facilities in an attempt to reduce drunkenness. The apogee of the reformed pub was the 'roadhouse'; invariably suburban, these could attain great size to accommodate many varied functions and were generally self-consciously traditional in style. Some resembled small stately homes in their architectural pretension, others a Tudor manor.

Pubs can vary considerably from region to region in terms of plan and display; also, companies often adopted a distinctive house style, the interest of which should be weighed up in the assessment. The number of pubs was in decline in the later twentieth century, and the rate of loss increased in the early twenty-first century with 50 pubs a week closing in 2009.

### Inns and Hotels

A considerable number of medieval inns survive, usually because they have survived as hotels over the centuries, but relatively few retain their original internal arrangements and many have been substantially rebuilt. Gloucester's mid 15<sup>th</sup> century New Inn, a former hostelry for St. Peter's Abbey, is perhaps the finest surviving medieval galleried inn in the country.

The common form of the biggest establishments consists of a coaching yard surrounded by galleried ranges giving access to bedrooms and stabling beyond. The improvement in road communications in the 18<sup>th</sup> century

stimulated the establishment of large coaching inns. Their street fronts combined architectural elegance with strident promotion, often in the form of large overhanging signs. Inside, eating and sleeping rooms, of varying status, coincided with extensive stabling and grooms' quarters to the rear. Inns survive in considerable numbers and are some of the most engaging of all commercial buildings.



*New Inn, Northgate Street – 15<sup>th</sup> century*

The transition from inn to hotel is the development from the simple accommodation of travellers to the provision of a wide range of cultural facilities such as a ballroom or assembly room. About 1800 the term hotel was adapted from the French and applied to establishments that offered clean and comfortable accommodation and in architectural terms are little different to private houses. With the expansion of Spa towns in the 18<sup>th</sup> and early 19<sup>th</sup> centuries the more fashionable resorts supplied impressive new resort, or destination, hotels on a hitherto unknown scale. However, it

chiefly fell to the railways to bring the two earlier streams together: travellers' accommodation, ballrooms, restaurants and other public rooms.



Spread Eagle Hotel, Northgate Street – 1864-6

The major hotels are marked by their scale and facilities: electric lighting, bathrooms and elevators in particular. The architecture could attain great heights such as London's St Pancras which shows a mastery of planning as well as elevational treatment. With the rise of the seaside holiday, a new genre of seaside hotels and guest-houses arose around the resorts of England. Generally stucco-fronted and classical in appearance, these adapted the palace-fronted terrace for their design. The High Victorian examples could have very sumptuous facilities, including attached Winter Gardens. The first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw the rejection of historicist styles and focused on elegantly streamlined interiors. Hotel design has increasingly become the preserve of interior designers, fitting out otherwise

unremarkable buildings with oft-changing corporate styling. As with shop fittings of the same period it is very rare for stylish, bespoke interior schemes of the 1950s, '60s or '70s to survive.

### Restaurants

Like shops, restaurants are prone to regular upgrading, and few modern eateries have permanent fixtures or decoration. Eating out as a recreational activity is largely a modern invention. Up until the 19<sup>th</sup> century food was available in inns and public houses but mainly as an accompaniment to drinks or for the convenience of those on a journey. The 19<sup>th</sup> century saw an expansion of premises serving tea or dinner, usually part of a larger establishment such as a hotel, railway station, or pleasure grounds. Some dining rooms could be very opulent, the first class waiting and refreshment room at Newcastle Station tile decoration covering the walls and ceilings. There are survivals of working-class eating houses too, though these are rare. A building with either external signage or ornamentation relating to use as a 19<sup>th</sup> century dining room or survival of a restaurant interior would be important.

Something of a national icon, fish and chips shops, developing out of fishmongers and with a strong presence at the seaside, were a development of the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. Their premises are usually modest alterations to existing retail premises or houses but some with a good original interiors or particularly fine shopfronts have survived. The first decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw many more premises built for eating and drinking. The chop house, which did not differ dramatically from the public house architecturally, also endured along with pie and eel shops in the south east.

The greatest expansion in eateries was after the First World War when recreational dining became *de rigueur*. A good number of cafes, tea rooms and restaurants survive from this period. Cafes in or near tourist



attractions are also fairly numerous. From the 1950s, cafes run by Italian immigrants, mainly in London, revolutionised British eating and drinking culture. The best of these have retained Vitrolite and chrome Art-Deco exteriors and inlaid wood panelled interiors. Few of the purpose-designed Coffee Houses and Taverns, so popular in the 18<sup>th</sup> century for conducting business, have survived.

### 3.1.10 Green Space

There are numerous health, social, cultural, environmental and educational benefits to providing green spaces within a townscape. The contribution that good quality, safe and accessible open spaces can make to the overall quality of life within a community is well known. Parks and open spaces are increasingly recognised as a vital component of successful towns and cities. Research shows that parks and open spaces are some of the most widely used facilities provided by local authorities.

The Romans were the first documented civilisation to recognise the benefits of rural features within a city or town. The desirability of nature within a town was seen as a mark of civilisation and a promoter of health and well-being; they called it *'rus in urbe'*, the country in the city. Romans created 'horti', urban villas within parks, and incorporated lakes and recreational space into urban environments. This reached its peak with Nero's 'Domus Aurea' which covered an area of 40 to 80 hectares and was the equivalent of Hyde Park.

The benefit of having rural space in towns was recognised as early as the 17<sup>th</sup> century in Britain with the 1618 'Commission on Buildings'. This was created to oversee the development of Lincoln's Inn Fields, in London, one of the first planned greenspaces in the country. Prior to this the only green spaces had been royal hunting parks, such as Hyde Park. Part of the aim was to ensure that Lincoln's Inn Fields would provide *'faire and goodlye walks'*

and *'pleasure and freshness for the health and recreation of the Inhabitants thereabout'*.

The desirability of creating the illusion of countryside within a city was soon taken up with enthusiasm by the British aristocracy as they started to create estates in London. St James's Square was first enclosed by Act of Parliament in 1726. Charles Bridgeman, the landscape gardener, was employed to create the 'illusion'. Other squares followed, almost all of still exist, allowing wealthy residents the chance for tranquillity and fresh. In Gloucester the creation of Brunswick Square, in the 1820s, probably followed this same idea.

Despite this, these urban idylls were usually only accessible to the wealthy and as industrialisation grew in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and towns developed exponentially, the gap between town and country became wider. Authors drew comparisons between, and emphasised, the squalor and poverty of the cities and the 'pastoral idyll' of the countryside. Life expectancies in the countryside were double that of the cities.

In 1833 'The Report of the Select Commission on Public Walks' was published, advocating the provision of public parks in cities as an important factor in improving urban living standards. It noted: *'With a rapidly increasing population, lodged, for the most part in narrow courts and confined streets, the means of occasional exercise and recreation in the fresh air are everyday lessened, as enclosures take place and buildings spread themselves on every side. A few towns have been fortunate in this respect from having some open space in their immediate vicinity...yet even at these places...the accommodation is inadequate to the wants of the increasing number of people.'*

In 1840, after years of campaigning, Manchester set up the 'Committee for Public Walks, Gardens & Playgrounds' with the result that, in 1846, three parks were opened and thus began the municipal park revolution. By the

end of the century, every city had at least one municipal park. Spa Park and Spa Field in Gloucester were at least partly in existence in the 1850s with Spa Field shown on the Board of Health map.

By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, visionaries such as William Morris and Ebenezer Howard were beginning to think about the creation of better cities. Howard was the founder of the Garden City Movement and believed that ‘town and country must be married’. Letchworth Garden City was born out of this ideal.



*Landscape of Alney Island Nature Reserve*

The divide between country and city, however, remained and grew worse post World War I with the Housing Act of 1919 and the ‘homes for heroes’ scheme. Along with this pledge of building 500,000 houses within

three years came the growth of suburbs as people strove to escape the confines of city squalor.

Following World War II came a time of social change with the creation of the NHS, the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 that led to the creation of green belts and the National Parks Act of 1949. The Clean Air Act of 1956 made cities more pleasant to walk through. With the collapse of manufacturing in city centres between the 1970s and 1990s, large areas were now available for regeneration as greenspaces or at least open spaces.

Gloucester. Gloucester has a wide range of open spaces including natural wild space, formal sports grounds and play areas. There are over 150 individual areas of public open space in the city covering 300 hectares, together with allotments, cemeteries, Robinswood Hill Country Park (101 hectares) and Alney Island Nature Reserve (90 hectares), a total open space area of 521 hectares. Gloucester’s parks and open spaces contribute to the sense of civic pride and provide areas for communities to meet, play and hold a wide range of events.

Included within Gloucester’s open spaces are nine Local Nature Reserves (LNR) and two Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSI). The LNRs are Alney Island, Barnwood Arboretum, Green Farm Orchard, Hempstead Meadows, Horsbere, Hucclecote Meadows, Quedgeley Arboretum, Robinswood Hill and Saintbridge Pond.

The two SSSIs are Hucclecote Meadows and Robinswood Hill Quarry. Hucclecote Meadows has been a designated SSSI since 1984 and is a series of lowland meadows representing one of the few remaining areas of herb-rich, ancient pastures that have been traditionally managed for hay and stock grazing. Robinswood Hill Quarry was designated in 1986 because it provides the best inland section of Lower Jurassic, Middle Lias strata in Britain with a complete section of the Upper Pliensbachian stage present.



Although there are no designated parks and gardens within the boundary of Gloucester City, there are a number of historic parks or gardens that could be considered for local listing. Three of these are also recorded on the Parks and Gardens website (<https://www.parksandgardens.org/>). Barnwood Arboretum (also known as Barnwood Park) was originally laid out as recreational gardens for the patients of Barnwood House Asylum in the 1850s with it later becoming Barnwood House Hospital. The patients were encouraged to engage in sports including bowls, croquet, tennis and cricket. Paths were laid out to allow ladies to walk among trees and flower and rock gardens. There were also lawns, vegetable gardens, exotic trees and a chapel that was built within the park in the 1860s. The Hospital closed in the 1960s and the estate was acquired by the City Council in the 1970s. Much of the grounds opened as a Park in 1974 and Barnwood Arboretum was opened to the public in 2002.



*Barnwood Arboretum*

Hillfield Gardens were developed as the garden of the Italianate Hillfield House in the 1860s and incorporate the remains of Scriven's Conduit, the King's Board and St Mary Magdalen's Chapel. The gardens have changed little in layout since they were shown on the Ordnance Survey of the 1880s. The garden is typically Victorian in style with mature Redwood trees, rockery, paths adjacent to shrub borders and a drive sweeping up to the house. A small rose garden lies off the driveway and the central area is lawn inset with large trees and a grassed terrace.



*Hillfield Gardens*

Matson House gardens were created in the 18<sup>th</sup> century around the 16<sup>th</sup> century Matson House. The house was built in the 1570s and was bought by Joseph Selwyn in the 1590s. It is believed George Augustus Selwyn was responsible for creating the gardens in the 1750s. They remained relatively unaltered until the house became a school in the 1970s. The gardens



include mature trees, winding paths, and a section of canal, now a lily pond, lawns and a terrace.

Other areas of greenspace that have historic origins include part of Armscroft Park which follows the Wotton Brook, at Coronation Grove, and crosses it to take in the former park of Bohanam House on Barnwood Road. Bohanam House was built in the 1860s with its gardens also being created at this time. Many of the trees still survive and winding paths now run through some of these.

Clock Tower Park was originally the grounds of Coney Hill Hospital. This lunatic asylum was built in the 1880s in a number of phases and a large amount of grounds. The only surviving building is the administration block with its clock tower. Much of the grounds were sold off as housing in the 1980s but part of them have been developed as Clock Tower Park which includes playing fields and paths through grassed areas with trees.