

HISTORIC FARMSTEADS AND LANDSCAPES IN JERSEY: Their character and local distinctiveness

Historic Building Study no.2



This report is the second in a series of historic building studies commissioned by Jersey Heritage, in partnership with the Planning and Environment Department, aimed at deepening our understanding of the character of Jersey's historic environment, and contributing towards its future care and protection.

Jeremy Lake and Bob Edwards have acknowledged expertise and experience in understanding the character and value of farmsteads and have produced a thorough examination of the subject. There is no doubt that it is a great step forward in our understanding of the historic farmsteads and landscape of Jersey and has certainly opened up new avenues of thought which can only be to the good.

Roger Hills, Jersey Heritage Head of Historic Buildings

Historic Farmsteads and Landscapes in Jersey: their character and local distinctiveness

Report for Jersey Heritage and States of Jersey, Planning and Environment Department
By Jeremy Lake with Bob Edwards

PREFACE

The principal author of this report is Jeremy Lake, but it builds upon the results of work conducted with Bob Edwards of Forum Heritage Services (FHS). FHS were commissioned to undertake the enhancement of the Island of Jersey's Historic Environment Record (HER) through a point data set of farmsteads (852 records) and listed buildings (2303 records) using Jersey's Historic Building Register, historic maps and published work. It was considered that this would form the basis of further comparable work, explaining Jersey's character and distinctiveness in an international context, and planning tools for the States of Jersey's Planning and Environmental Department. This work commenced in spring 2006, with 6 days fieldwork by Bob Edwards and Jeremy Lake. Further visits to the island, and to north-west France, were made by Jeremy Lake in his own time in spring 2007 and January 2008. English Heritage provided an additional 10 days of study leave for the completion of this main report.

This report provides:

- 1 consideration of the results of the farmsteads mapping exercise conducted by FHS, in 7.2-3 and Annexe 2;
- 2 a report on the character of farmsteads on the Island of Jersey, including an analysis of farmstead types and dating in relationship to landscape character, the development of working buildings and their relationship to developments and farmstead character in England and France;
- 3 further consideration of; Jersey's distinctive character;
- 4 planning outputs, comprising summary and full character statements for Jersey, the landscape character areas, and its farmstead architecture, linked to an assessment framework and questions for future research.

Also available on Jersey Heritage's website are 3 summary reports:

- Jersey Farmsteads Character Statement
- Jersey Farmsteads: Area Statements
- Jersey Farmsteads Project: Summary Report and Planning Tools (coming soon)

Jeremy Lake and Bob Edwards would like to thank the Jersey Heritage Trust and the States of Jersey Planning and Environment Department. Particular thanks are due to Roger Hills of Jersey Heritage for his continued interest in this project. Jeremy Lake would especially like to thank Roger for his patience over the last two years, as this project has grown into one that has revealed much more about what makes Jersey's cultural landscape distinctive in its broader international context. This has inevitably been fitted around a rather busy home and working life, and thanks are in this respect due to English Heritage for granting two weeks of study leave to help draw this report together. Special thanks are also due to John McCormack for his invaluable comments on the draft report, to Fiona Smith for her comments and to Mervyn Billot for his knowledge of Jersey farming.

Jeremy Lake
10 May 2008

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1.1 Summary of Jersey Farmsteads and Landscapes

Jersey's farmsteads make a major contribution to the distinctive character of Jersey. Their siting in the landscape relates to the way in which the island has been settled through history, and the overall scale and form of its farmsteads results from the historic function and size of holdings. In particular:

- 1 Jersey displays strong similarities in its pattern of dispersed settlement and field and boundary patterns with north-west France and a broader area of Atlantic seaboard provinces including south-west England.
- 2 Its domestic architecture reveals successive layers of French and English influence, the latter becoming increasingly strong over the 18th century and then reflecting both the cultural influences and aspirations of its immigrant English population and of the native community, despite the strength of Breton immigration and smallholders in the 19th century.
- 3 Its farmstead architecture displays the importance and the prosperity of family-based and very small-scale farming by international standards, farm-based functions being mostly combined in multi-functional ranges and set out in L- and U-shaped plans, with linear and other forms of loose and regular courtyards being present. Ancillary detached structures mostly comprise pigsties, cartsheds, ash houses and bakehouses. There is a broad resemblance to farmsteads in south-west England and north-west France, but the influence of the Cotentin peninsula is dominant.
- 4 The overlay of French and British influences is unique to Jersey and the Channel Islands, as also are the late 19th century combination farm buildings (locally termed sheds) with glazed upper windows.
- 5 Despite boundary removal from the 19th century many of its landscapes display a remarkably coherent pattern of landscape and farmstead survival.

This character is summarised below:

Landscape and Settlement

Outside the core areas of 19th and 20th century expansion concentrated to the south, Jersey's present landscape presents a predominant pattern of dispersed settlement, with hedgebanks to fields enclosed from earlier strips, as found in north-west France and south-west England.

Farmstead Character

The character of Jersey's farmsteads is the result of their historical function and development to the present day, and relates to the development from the 16th

century of a cash economy based on the production of cider, dairy produce and later the export of the Jersey cow, potatoes and market produce. Farmhouses are commonly earlier than the buildings. Farm buildings have been generally affected by extensive rebuilding in the 19th century, the existence of earlier single-storey ranges being commonly revealed within present storeyed and usually multi-functional structures.

There is a broad distinction between regular plans (44.7% of the total), where the buildings have been newly-laid out or remodelled to a regular template, and piecemeal evolved layouts. The basic farmstead plan types in order of their contribution to landscape character are:

- L-shaped and U-shaped plans, comprising over 51% of mapped farmsteads
- Loose courtyard plans, where the working buildings have developed in piecemeal fashion to face one or more sides of a cattle yard (14.2%).
- Parallel plans, where the house (often in a linear range attached to working buildings) is sited opposite to a parallel range of working buildings (9%).
- Fully-enclosed regular courtyard plans (7.4%), which are the largest farms on the island and are concentrated to the east.
- Linear plans, where the house and working buildings are attached in one in-line range (6%).
- Z-shaped, dispersed and other layouts.

Farmhouses often face south, and are orientated so that they either face into or away from the yard. The majority of farmhouses are attached to their working buildings, those on the larger farms resulting from rebuilding in the 19th century being most likely to face into their own gardens and be detached from the main group.

Multi-functional buildings are a key aspect of Jersey farmsteads. Lofted one or two-storey ranges date from the early 19th century or earlier. Intact examples are now very rare and representative of what were standard farmstead buildings across the island. These brought many processes under one roof and bear a strong resemblance to the storeyed farmstead buildings found in north-west France, including those found on *manoirs* from the medieval period. These had storage lofts sited above accommodation for horses and cattle, and frequently cider houses.

They comprised a two-storey multi-functional structure (commonly termed a shed) with potato chitting/accommodation lofts, and sometimes a granary and an area

for the cutting and preparation of roots and other feed for animals, above stabling for horses and cattle. They are distinguished by glazed windows – often sashes – to the upper floors, which served for promoting the growth of potato shoots in October/November. Underground manure tanks and combination structures which developed from the 1870s, and appear to be unique to the Channel Islands.

Particularly distinctive functions, usually incorporated into these ranges and as found in north-west France and south-west England, are:

- The cider house for the milling of cider apples, their pressing into cider and the storage of cider barrels. Surviving mills and presses are very rare.
- The use of twin arched entrances dating from the 16th century to farmyards, for vehicles and pedestrians. This is a feature found on high-status French farmsteads.
- Through-ways that provide access for livestock and farm vehicles from the main routeway into the farmyard. These do occur in L-shaped dairying farmsteads in England and Wales, but are a particular feature of farmsteads in Normandy and the Cotentin.
- Corbelled stone roofs to pigsties.
- Detached bakehouses.

Materials and Detail

The predominant building material is granite, with imported pantiles for roofing. Normandy and Welsh slate was also used, the former for high-status houses from the late medieval period and the latter in the 19th century.

Structural carpentry, even of the later 19th century, closely resembles that of France.

Change

Despite boundary removal from the 19th century many of Jersey's landscapes display a remarkably coherent pattern of landscape and farmstead survival – comparable to areas of south-west England and north-west France least affected by boundary removal.

Jersey's farmsteads are structurally robust. They have experienced little *absolute loss* of buildings since 1935, over 80% of the total of 852 mapped farmsteads having been little altered when compared to their form as recorded on the 1935 map. These farmsteads represent the larger working farms on the island, rather than the smallholdings which have left little identifiable trace. 12.7% of recorded

farmsteads have experienced some change but still retain over 50% of the buildings recorded in 1935. Only 29 farmsteads (3.9%) were identified as being completely lost and 9 are now represented by the farmhouse only.

The principal threat to Jersey's farmsteads is *relative loss* through insensitive conversion that is not informed by an understanding of their character and sensitivity to change.

1.2 Recommendations

Key recommendations are that:

Understanding of Jersey's farmstead architecture and landscape character should inform approaches to future change, and to new design and sustainable development

Future change must make a positive contribution to Jersey's cultural distinctiveness and landscape character

Successful delivery of these objectives should:

Landscape and Settlement

- 1** recognise how past communities have shaped the present dominant pattern of dispersed settlement and the relating patterning of boundaries, trees and woodland;
- 2** to use this understanding, and the understanding of traditional farmstead character, to inform opportunities for future sustainable development that either reinforce the existing settlement pattern or creates new settlement with a strong sense of identity;

Farmstead Architecture

- 3** use the understanding of overall farmstead character and form (offered by the dominant L, U and courtyard types) to inform approaches to adaptation and new architecture;
- 4** recognise the need of farmers to adapt traditional buildings to new uses, and construct new buildings that economise on labour and conform to animal welfare regulations;
- 5** recognise the growing importance of non-agricultural uses to the conservation of the traditional farmstead stock, whether this is intended to enable on-farm diversification or new (predominantly domestic) uses;
- 6** recognise that poor conversion is the key threat to the landscape and architectural

- integrity of farmstead buildings;
- 7** develop tools for pre-application appraisal of sites, in their landscape context, in order to inform approaches to future change and conversion to new uses at the pre-application stage;
 - 8** link an understanding of local character, and the sensitivity to and potential for change of farmsteads and their buildings, to opportunities and constraints for future change.

The delivery of these objectives is dependant on an integrated approach towards the study of Jersey's archaeology, landscapes and buildings, informed by an understanding of how Jersey relates to its broader international context. As John McCormack's research on domestic architecture is revealing, there are subtle differences between the islands that strengthens appreciation of their local and uniquely distinctive character.

Future research should test and explore the analysis and research questions presented in the *Jersey Farmsteads Character Statement* report, so that the cultural distinctiveness of Jersey, and its place within the context of developments in NW Europe, can be better appreciated.

It is clear that a high proportion – far more so than is generally perceived – of traditional farm buildings remain in an unconverted state. Address change data can be matched to the farmstead data. This can provide an overview, useful for strategic purposes, of the proportion of the mapped resource that is in agricultural, economic and domestic use. Consideration of the latter needs to be alive to the probability that owners may be contributing to the broader economy and social well-being of the island through home working.

An agricultural buildings survey, as well as being alive to the research questions above, should also collate information on service provision and the capacity for change of surviving buildings, and their relationship to post-1950 sheds, in order to match building supply to demand.

There is a case for integrating consideration of traditional farmstead buildings – and the problems posed by their redundancy as farm size and the functional importance of new buildings increases – into island-wide planning. A recent example of character-based Supplementary Planning Guidance, which can be used as a template to follow, is Basingstoke and Deane Council's Supplementary Planning Document on Diversification and Reuse.

<http://www.basingstoke.gov.uk/planning/localplan/spd/Farm+Diversification+and+Traditional+Farmsteads+SPD.htm>

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this project was:

- To carry out an historic farm building characterisation of the Island of Jersey

This was to be achieved by:

- 1 Providing a short essay on the historical development of Jersey farmsteads in their broader international context, in order to aid the work of planners, local researchers and communities;
- 2 Plotting in GIS surviving buildings shown on the 1935 Ordnance Survey map, the Elias Le Gros map of 1849 (published by and in association with Godfray)¹ and Richmond 1787 maps of the island;
- 3 Creating a GIS point data set of farmsteads across the Island.

It will be shown in 2.4.1 that due to problems with the digital quality and rectification of the Godfray and Richmond maps provided, it was not possible to identify surviving buildings shown on these maps through comparison with modern digital mapping as was initially proposed. These problems led to a greater emphasis on the delivery of other products, in order to populate the island's Historic Environment Record (HER) and the provision of a much fuller body of contextual material provide the context for future research. Another important factor is the detailed research across the island that has been conducted by John McCormack, the acknowledged expert on Channel Islands architecture, which is focusing on investigation of those houses recorded on the Richmond Map. When this work is completed, it will mark a major step in the understanding of Jersey houses. It is hoped that the farmsteads project, through setting Jersey farmsteads into the context of both their landscapes and that of observable patterns in this part of Europe, will provide a question-based framework for detailed investigation and recording.

The work by Bob Edwards has focused on the provision of data for the HER. In an attempt to create a data set of historic buildings it was decided to use the Island's Historic Building Register to create a point data set of listed buildings. The data set included the building status, Register Number, a Minimum and Maximum date range where included in the register description and a notes field which includes references to building or alteration dates derived from Stevens, Vol. I. The identification of buildings included in the Register of Historic Buildings proved to be a highly time-consuming task, partially because of inconsistencies in the use of address information but also because of the increased data that was recorded for each

¹Henceforth known as the Godfray map.

building. A total of 2393 records were created. This data set will effectively identify most of those buildings shown on historic mapping but, most importantly, it provides a data set that will form a firm foundation for the creation of an Historic Environment Record for Jersey. Some further work is required on this data set, for example, the completion of date information where not provided in the register description (or where there is no description), the entry of Building Classification data and, where available, the copying of existing descriptions for it to meet the basic requirements of HER standards used across England.

This Report includes far more material on the landscape and settlement context of the island than was originally intended, in view of its absence from most historical studies (other than comparison of its open field systems with those of the very different landscapes of village England) and the need to set Jersey's local distinctiveness within this broader context in order to inform the work of planners and of individuals and communities conducting research. Its principal author is Jeremy Lake. Additional work, based on the results of work for English Heritage and of field visits to the island and to Normandy in spring 2007, has been submitted to the States of Jersey Planning and Environment Department. This has further developed thinking on the distinctive character of Jersey, and how a stronger understanding of this character and an assessment framework can inform future change.

1.2 Format

In each of the following sections, the international overview is presented together with the Jersey statement.

Section 1 provides an introduction.

Section 2 provides an overview of characterisation in England and Europe, drawing out some of the key issues relevant to farmsteads. It also examines the methods used for mapping farmsteads in Jersey.

Section 3 provides an introduction to the landscape and settlement character of Jersey.

Section 4 presents an analysis of built character – including consideration of domestic architecture – in relationship to patterns of landscape and settlement.

Section 5 describes the agricultural history of Jersey within its broad international context.

Section 6 provides an introduction to the function of farmsteads, and examines how these translate into recognisable building types in Jersey, informed by an understanding of their broader French and English context.

Section 7 provides an international and functional overview of farmstead types, prior to an analysis of their development and distribution in Jersey.

Section 8 provides a conclusion, with recommendations for conservation and enhancement.

Section 9 provides a list of national and local sources for further reference.

Section 10 provides a sourced Glossary of terms.

Annexe 1 provides an analysis of one of the Jersey map squares. This provides an insight into the way that HERs can be rapidly enhanced using rapid field work techniques.

Annexe 2 provides a summary of work on historic farmsteads in England.

2 UNDERSTANDING CONTEXT AND CHARACTER

See Annexe 2 for further details on the issues explored in this section.

2.1 Understanding Pressures and Informing Policy

Historic farmsteads and their buildings make a fundamental contribution to the character of the Jersey landscape, and illustrate its long history of farming and settlement. The character of Jersey's farmsteads is the result of their historical function and development to the present day.

Until the 20th century Jersey's farmsteads and their buildings echoed through their architectural form, use of materials and detail the styles of local or vernacular architecture. A major change came in the 1950s with the widespread adoption of industrial-style sheds, which are essential to modern farming requirements. The level of this change, and the demands imposed on farmsteads and their landscapes by the functional requirements of economic and above all residential use, are unprecedented. Increase in farm size is matched by the redundancy of farmsteads, demand for their conversion into houses and the building of large dairy units for larger herd sizes. Since around 1950, and increasingly from the 1970s, a broad distinction has emerged between:

1 Historic farmsteads in agricultural use. Although prefabricated buildings have been a feature of farmsteads since the later 19th century, a major change came in the 1950s with the widespread adoption of industrial-style sheds and large concreted working areas, which economise on labour and are essential to modern farming requirements and to animal welfare standards. An increasing number of earlier buildings are redundant or in light use, and are often retained as part of enlarged steadings. Farmers are increasingly seeking to capitalise on their potential for rural diversification and regeneration.

2 Historic farmsteads in non-agricultural use. Whereas past restructuring of the agricultural industry usually resulted in the total loss of functionally buildings and sometimes entire steadings, earlier 'traditional' buildings are now in strong demand for adaptive reuse. Demand is especially strong for residential conversion, by owners wishing to capitalise on the distinctive architecture and lifestyles offered by the island's traditional buildings. Post-1950 sheds are typically better suited for industrial units requiring flexible working space.

We know far more about the nature and processes of change affecting land cover and field pattern than we do about agriculture's built environment and its contribution to countryside character and local distinctiveness. Furthermore, we know far less about the working than the domestic buildings of the farmstead.

Research commissioned by English Heritage and the Countryside Agency (Gaskell and Owen 2005) has examined these drivers for change within a national and international context. It is relevant to the future use of farmsteads in Jersey, because it highlighted the lack of a consistent framework for evaluating the impact of change, has been identified as the greatest obstacle to informing the options for future change, and specifically:

- the development of place-specific policies and guidance that aim to sustain and enhance local distinctiveness and character
- inform understanding of the capacity of farmsteads and their landscapes to accommodate various types and intensities of use, at a strategic as well as a site-based level
- consideration of issues, including opportunities and constraints, at the outset of a project and ideally at the pre-application stage
- the targeting of priority features and areas for grant aid
- the development of place-specific planning and land management strategies and policies for rural buildings

The built environment has not been part of this process, although it is generally accepted that high-quality design is directly informed by an understanding of local character and context. This is important, for as a consequence of the restructuring of the farming industry, and modern animal welfare and labour-efficiency standards, more traditional forms of building and entire farmsteads have been rendered redundant for agricultural purposes.

2.2 Characterisation

Landscapes, including their local architectural styles, lie at the heart of people's identity and sense of place. They are doubly cultural – the result of change over millennia, and of way in which they are perceived by people. This understanding now lies at the core of the European Landscape Convention's definition of landscape as:

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

Since the 1990s methods for mapping landscape character – at a national and local level, which includes work recently completed in Jersey by Land Use Consultants – have developed in response to the advancement of the principles of sustainable development. The objective has been the development of an evidence base and an integrated understanding of the environmental, social and economic characteristics

within an area. In England these include the Joint Character Areas which are used to target funding for the natural and historic environment under the Environmental Stewardship Schemes (Higher Level Scheme) and Landscape Character Assessment. Across Europe, archaeologists have been working to ensure that an understanding of landscapes as the product of change and of human perception is integrated into these high-level strategies and informs work by a broad range of practitioners on the ground (see for example Fairclough and Rippon 2002). Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC), which is using the techniques of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) mapping to map change and time-depth in the landscape, has over the last decade been developed in England. This is based on the analysis and identification of field patterns and other features, and the identification of distinct landscape types, such as ancient woodland, and ancient or parliamentary enclosure. This is now being implemented by English Heritage with its county and local partners, informing a broad range of conservation and enhancement strategies, strategic land-use planning and similar initiatives (see Clarke, Darlington and Fairclough, 2004 and Annexe 1). Similar approaches are being developed in Denmark and France, and other approaches are being developed in other parts of Europe.

In the case of farmsteads, and indeed the built environment more generally, these concepts have not been adequately defined, the result being uncertainty on the impact of development proposals and how to manage and direct future change. National and local government has focused on best practice in conservation and guidance on the design of post-1950 structures (see Annexe 1 for work in England and for other work in Europe see for example - Ministère de l'Agriculture, France (2001)).

A pilot project in Hampshire, Sussex and the High Weald AONB, has demonstrated through GIS mapping that the dating and distribution of farmsteads in the landscape, and the rates of survival of different types of steading and building, is closely related to patterns of landscape character and type. It has also developed methods for describing the key characteristics of farmsteads within the context of Landscape Character Areas, and making recommendations based upon this understanding (Lake and Edwards 2006a and 2007). This in informing a more integrated understanding of the capacity of distinct farmstead types and their landscapes to absorb change, which can now be aligned with recent work which has shown that the adaptation of the existing building stock in rural areas – and especially in areas characterised by dispersed farmsteads and hamlets – is accounting for as much housing growth as in urban areas (Bibby 2006a). Other work by rural economists is also demonstrating

how evolving patterns of live-work, including those attracted to valued landscapes and based from historic farmsteads, are contributing to the economic and social health of rural landscapes and communities (Dwelly, Maguire and Truscott 2007).

Policies need to be aware of the pressures placed upon landowners and farmers, and the range of options for future change. The integration of all stages of food production and processing that have marked the post-1950 farming industry also found its visible expression in the introduction of wide-span multi-purpose sheds in concrete, steel and asbestos. These met increasing requirements for machinery and for the environmental control of livestock and on-farm production, particularly of milk – an international style, based on American models, for a global market. They are an integral part of the modern farming landscape, either replacing or more usually built to one side of earlier yards and buildings that make a stronger contribution to local distinctiveness through their use of more traditional forms and materials. Farmers are often making every effort to use these buildings, but increasingly for less intense uses and the diversification of farm businesses. In England, as in many other parts of Europe and certainly in Jersey, these traditional homes now command high property values, as they are in demand for homes and for ‘hobby farms’ from lifestyle buyers (Gaskell and Owen 2005, 24-28; Bibby 2006b). The sensitive conversion of this building stock provides opportunities to enhance and reinforce local distinctiveness, build capacity and contribute to the economies of rural areas.

Solutions to reuse and good design should recognise and grow out of the inherited patterns observable in the wider landscape. They should be alive to variations in the strength and coherence of local character, and an understanding of individual locales in their regional and national context. The priority must be to design and demonstrate character-based methods for evaluation, and develop a consistent framework for understanding and valuing farmsteads and their buildings. This should work from the landscape setting towards:

Farmstead Type

- the scale and planning or arrangement of the steading as a whole, including the relationship of buildings to open areas and the siting of the farmhouse and its garden;
- access – the entry points of routes and tracks, and patterns of circulation within and around the farmstead.

Farmstead Buildings

- how buildings face towards or away from the surrounding landscape, open yards and other areas and to access tracks;
- the functions of principal and ancillary structures;
- their scale, numbers of openings and elevational detail;
- internal spaces and floors, features and detail.

Materials and Detail

- building materials
- external and internal detail

2.3 Local Distinctiveness and Farmsteads

In order to understand and define what is distinctive about Jersey farmsteads, Jersey buildings and their landscapes, they need to be viewed within a broad international perspective. Particularly relevant, in this respect, are the landscapes of north-west France, south-west England and those other areas known to have strong and long-established trading links with Jersey.

Farmsteads make a fundamental contribution to the character of the countryside, helping define *local distinctiveness* and a *sense of place*, as their scale and arrangement, and the date and appearance of structures within them, are directly related to farm size, local geology and cultural traditions and historical patterns of land use (corn production, dairying etc) that are also reflected in the wider landscape. The mapping of farmsteads in south-east England, using the methodology later adopted for the Jersey farmsteads survey, has demonstrated that rates of survival of different types of steading and building are closely related to patterns of landscape character and type and argued that the highest densities of historic farmsteads are concentrated in landscapes defined by dispersed settlement (Annexe 1).

The building blocks and components that define farmstead architecture are expressed as a vocabulary of farmstead and building types, and the materials and detailing employed. It is the way that these basic components or building blocks interact with each other and with landscape to provide a varied but recognisable diversity of forms that is key to local distinctiveness. The palette is defined in the illustration below, which is intended to show that:

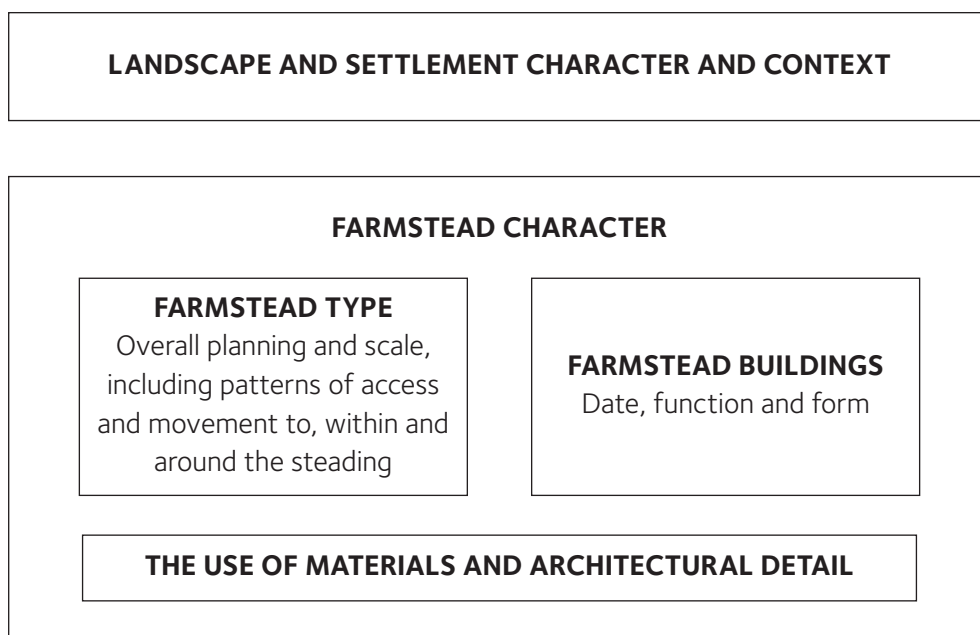
- Landscape is the fundamental framework through which we view and comprehend farmsteads, and determine the options for change. The development and

character of settlements, and of their agricultural economies and societies, are closely linked to the historical development and present-day character of the landscapes around them, including the shape and scale of fields, the form of boundary features and land cover (trees, hedges, shrubs etc) Field enclosures could be small in scale around the farmstead, and serve as milking grounds or areas to sort and manage sheep and cattle. This long history of change and creation has shaped the way that we perceive and view landscapes.

- Farmstead architecture is the interaction between the basic building blocks of the farmstead: farmstead and building types, materials and architectural detail.

The table below is key to how this report has been structured, with Sections 2-4 providing an introduction to the landscape of Jersey in its broader context, and Sections 5 and 6 an analysis of how farmsteads express their functions through the scale, form, planning and detail of steading and building types. Specialist or combination structures or ranges developed around routes and tracks, yards for managing and accommodating livestock (particularly cattle) and yards and general areas for stacking corn and hay and for other general purposes. This explains the close inter-relationship between Farmstead Types and Building Types.

Table 1 The relationship between farmstead and building types



2.4 Methodology

2.4.1 Introduction

The rapid mapping of Jersey farmsteads was completed by Bob Edwards, following the method established in the pilot project in Hampshire and now extended across Sussex, the High Weald AONB and in progress in Staffordshire and Shropshire. This involved the recording of information about farmsteads through plotting farmstead sites as a separate map layer in GIS so that they could be overlaid onto, and analysed in relationship to, Landscape Character and Historic Landscape Character (HLC) areas.

Farmstead Types	Building Types
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the scale and planning or arrangement of the steading • the siting and orientation of the house • the subdivision and different use of spaces within and around the farmstead – gardens, orchards, ponds, cattle yards and areas for stacking corn, hay etc • how buildings and areas relate to patterns of circulation, principally access to, within and around the steading 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the functions of principal and ancillary structures • their date – the house often being the oldest building in the group, the barn the oldest working building • their form and scale • their internal spaces and detail
<p>The major farmstead plan types are:</p>	<p>Areas of the farmstead and buildings, or parts of buildings, specialised in:</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linear plans, where houses and farm buildings are attached and built in-line. • Dispersed plans, which display no evidence for planning in the layout of the buildings. • Loose courtyard plans, where the buildings are built around a cattle yard with or without scatters of other farm buildings close by. • Regular plans, where linked ranges were carefully planned and can form L-, U-, and E-plans or completely enclose all four sides of the yard the various functions and set out in a variety of forms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • crop storage and processing • the storage and processing of fodder • the accommodation of animals • the accommodation of birds the shelter of carts, wagons and implements.

2.4.2 Historic Maps

The first phase of the project was to be the identification of surviving historic buildings that were depicted on a series of historic maps of the Island using a Geographical Information System (GIS). The maps chosen were:

- The Richmond map of 1795
- The Godfray map of 1849
- Ordnance Survey map of 1935

It was understood that the Richmond map was available in digital format but upon commencement of the project it was found that the quality of the scanned image and the spatial inaccuracy of the image made it impossible to use at the required scale in GIS. The accuracy of the Godfray map in relation to the ability to identify surviving historic buildings with a reasonable degree of certainty was also found to be insufficient. Field visits during the project also identified the problem of relating existing buildings to the historic maps. For example, the remains of an earlier building have often been either incorporated into a larger building that occupies the same footprint or the building shown on Richmond appears to have shifted in position – in effect much of a building shown on Richmond may survive but comparison between maps would suggest that a new building has been erected on the site. Therefore, it became clear that using the historic maps to positively identify surviving buildings was likely to produce an unreliable data set.

Paper versions of the 1935 25" Ordnance Survey maps were used and all principal buildings shown on that map that survive to the present were identified. The existing Address Point data set was copied and an additional field added to record the presence of surviving pre-1935 buildings.

Given the difficulties experienced in identifying historic buildings from the two earliest maps it was decided to use the Island's Register of Historic Buildings. Using the copy of the Jersey Address Point (an ESRI shapefile named Gazetteer.shp) data fields were added to record whether a building was on the Register and at what status, its Registered Building Number, and to record a date range for the construction of the building. Whilst not part of the original project design this work will have identified many of the surviving buildings shown on the historic mapping and provides a spatial data set of Registered Buildings allowing them to be mapped and cross-referenced with other data sets. This forms a vital initial stage in the construction of a Jersey HER.

Whilst it was possible to readily match the majority of properties from the Register of Historic Buildings with the postal addresses, there was a significant minority of records where there was a mis-match between records due to the incorrect spelling of names, the use of different street or road names, and the inconsistent use of English and French words (The Old House/Vieille Maison). Such factors make the rapid searching of large data sets difficult and time consuming. Considerable effort has been made to positively match as many Registered Buildings with the Gazetteer records as possible and 2393 addresses have now been identified as being included within the Register (this figure includes properties with multiple addresses). However, there remains a number of records that have not been matched. Other issues such as the duplication of Registered Building Reference Numbers have also been noted. The working sheets from the project will be returned to the JHT allowing them the opportunity to examine those records that have yet to be matched.

2.4.3 Historic Farmsteads

A major element of the project was the identification and recording of historic farmsteads. The methodology for this phase of the project was largely based on a methodology developed with English Heritage for the rapid recording of farmsteads across Hampshire and Sussex and involved recording attributes such as plan form, earliest recorded date and survival. The creation of the new point data set (an ESRI shapefile named Farmsteads.shp) involved the following stages:

1 Farmstead identification

Farmsteads shown on the OS 25" mapping dating from 1935 were recorded by the creation of a new point data set. Each record was identified by farmstead name, given a unique reference number and the record cross-referenced to the Jersey Address Point data by the use of the Property UPRN. The urban area of St Helier was not included. As discussed below, the identification of smaller farmsteads was problematic. To attempt to improve the coverage of the data set the Register of Historic Buildings was also used to identify farmsteads. All Register entries were examined for references to the property being a farmstead – by name or the inclusion of notes about farm buildings adjacent to the house.

2 Farmstead Plan Form

Using the 1935 map as the data source the plan form for each farmstead was recorded. Plan form was divided into the following principal plan types:

- Dispersed
- Linear
- Parallel

- Row
- L-plan (house attached)
- Loose Courtyard
- Loose Courtyard incorporating attached working buildings creating a L-plan
- Regular Courtyard

These classifications were used to record the principal attribute of the plan. Secondary attributes were also recorded allowing, for example, the distinction between a U-plan regular courtyard and an L-plan regular courtyard. This approach follows a similar methodology to that taken by Wiliam in recording Welsh farmsteads (Wiliam 1982, 37). Other secondary attributes included, for example, where a loose courtyard plan was the principal plan form but there were some detached or dispersed building elements whilst some farmsteads clearly have two yards. A coding system using upper case and lower case letters was devised to represent the combination of plan forms possible. The plan form attribute list is presented in Table 1. Examples of each of the plan forms are presented in Figure 25.

During the project several visits to Jersey were made which provided opportunities to examine parts of the Island in greater detail. From this rapid field survey it became clear that there are several characteristics of the farmsteads of Jersey that impact on the methodology for recording farmsteads from historic mapping. In particular, the relatively high numbers of farmsteads that appear to have been linear or small L-plan steadings with house and working buildings attached are difficult to reliably identify from mapping alone. A second characteristic of Jersey farmsteads that affects the data collection is the frequent presence of an older farmhouse within the farmstead group, which is often difficult to differentiate from working agricultural buildings.

3 Farmstead Date

Dating information was derived from the Register of Historic Buildings where this was available. Apart from St Helier, which was largely excluded from the project as it predominantly an urban area which has been subject to a characterisation project, three parishes did not have dating information accompanying the Register entries and so it was not possible to add dating information from this source to the farmstead records with St Mary's, Trinity or St Saviour's parishes. Joan Stevens' *Old Jersey Houses* volume I (Stevens 1965) was used to identify historic buildings in these three parishes and assign dating information, both to the Farmstead data set and the Gazetteer data set that holds that Registered Buildings date information. The date information was recorded by century except from pre-1600 buildings, which were recorded as 'MED' (medieval). Farmsteads identified only from the 1935 OS 25" mapping were assigned a 20th century date.

Table 2 Farmstead Plan Type Attributes Plan Type

Plan Type		Combination of Primary and Secondary Plan Attributes eg LC3; RCe etc.
Plan Type Primary Attribute	CIRC CURV DISP LIN PAR LP LC LCL POLY RC ROW ZP	Curvilinear Dispersed Linear Parallel L-plan (attached house) Loose Courtyard Loose Courtyard with 2 working buildings attached creating a L-plan Polygonal Regular Courtyard Row. Buildings arranged around a route, producing a row plan. Plan of 3 ranges with two ranges at angles to main range but on opposite sides
Plan Type Secondary Attribute	1, 2, 3, 4 d L u e f t cov y cl dw my rmy	No. of sides to loose courtyard formed by working agricultural buildings Additional detached elements to main plan Regular Courtyard L-plan (detached house) Regular Courtyard L-plan (attached house) Regular Courtyard U-plan Regular Courtyard E-plan Regular Courtyard F-plan Regular Courtyard T-plan Covered yard forms an element of farmstead Presence of second yard with one main yard evident Cluster (Used with DISP) Driftway (Used with DISP) Multi-yard (Used with DISP) Regular multi-yard (Used with DISP)

4 Farmstead Survival

1.1 By comparing the 1935 OS maps and the modern mapping the degree of survival of the mid 20th century farmstead plan was assessed. Each farmstead was assigned to one of six categories as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Farmstead Survival Attributes

Survival	EXT	Extant – no apparent alteration or very minimal change
	ALT	Partial Loss – less than 50% change
	ALTS	Significant Loss – more than 50% alteration
	DEM	Total Change – Farmstead survives but complete alteration to plan
	HOUS	Farmhouse only survives
	LOST	Farmstead totally demolished

2.4.4 Survey Squares

Upon commencement of the project it was also decided that – partly in view of the unexpected difficulty (see 2.4.1) in utilising the Richmond and Godfray maps – it would be beneficial to examine the relationship between historic buildings and the landscape in more detail than envisaged in the project design. The aim here was to explore methods of rapidly enhancing the HER and gaining insights into the range of Jersey farmstead and domestic architecture. To achieve this a number of study areas were selected for different methods of rapid field assessment which offered an opportunity to examine diverse buildings and landscapes across the Island. This process of rapid field walking has at the very least provided a starting point for future research, and the rapid enhancement of the Historic Environment Record. One of these, and an overview of all the survey squares, is included in Annexes 2 and 3.

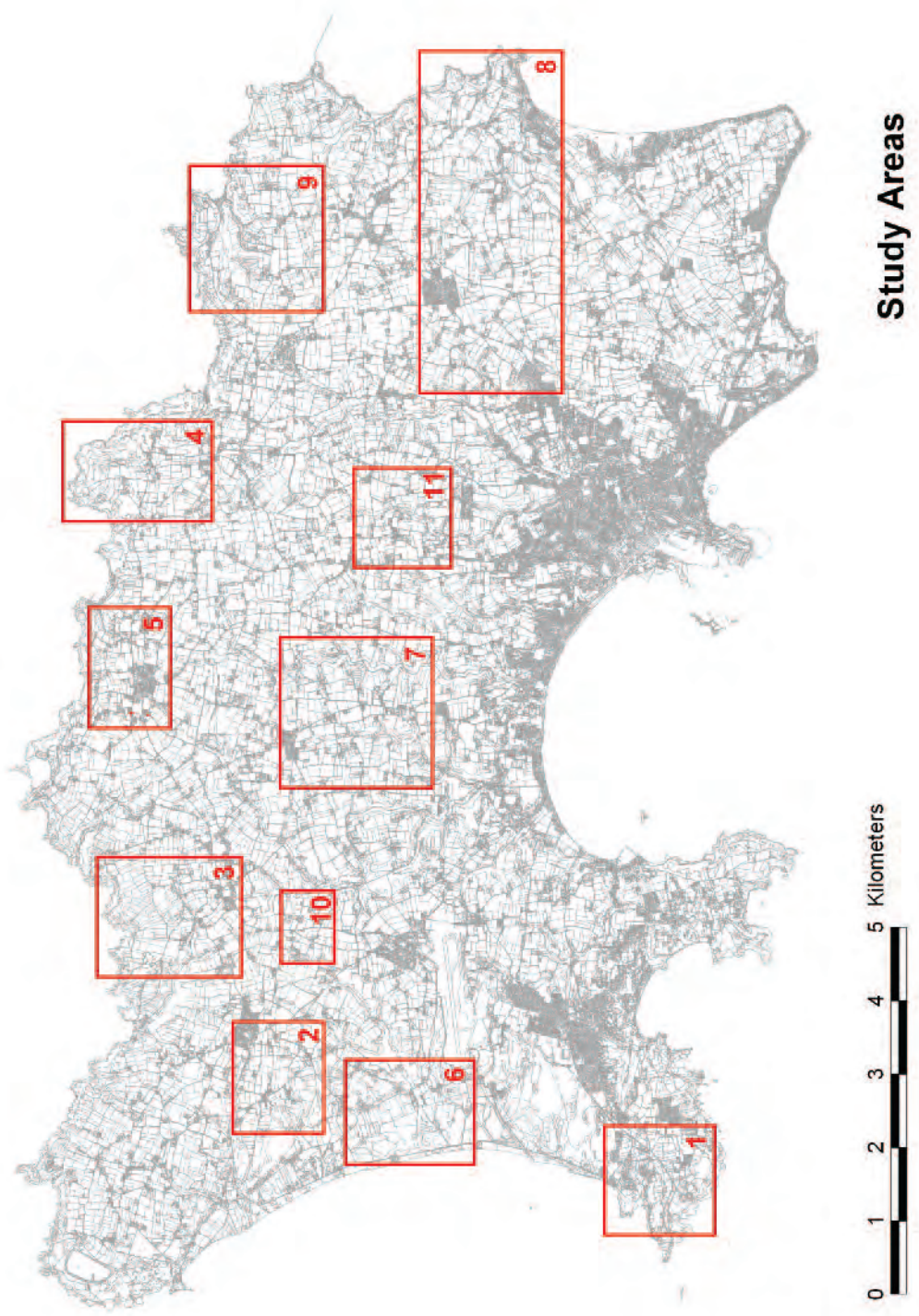


Figure 1 - The study areas.

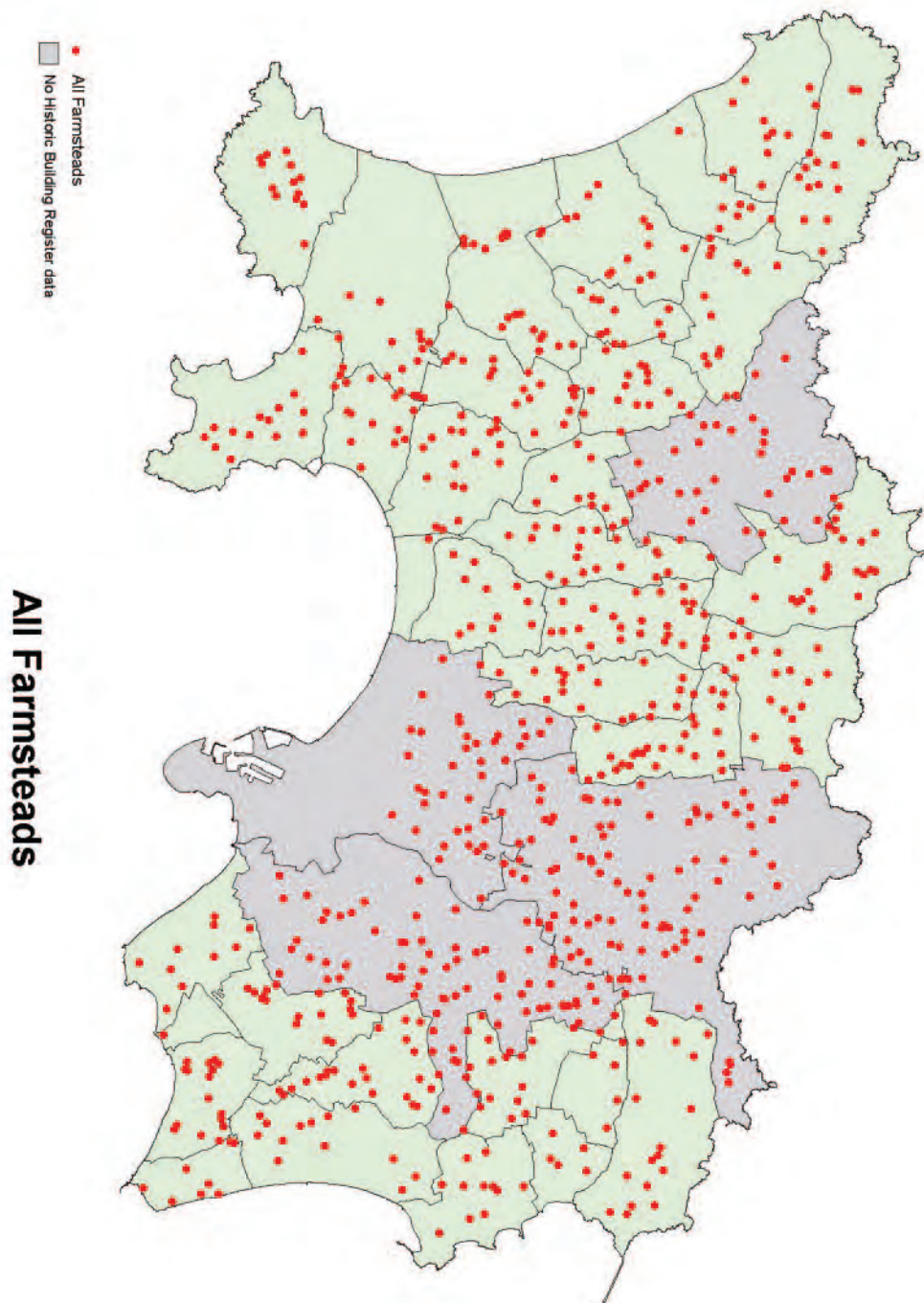


Figure 2 - The mapped farmsteads.

3 THE CULTURAL LANDSCAPE

3.1 Introduction

The landscape character of Jersey is the result of the interaction of natural and human factors over thousands of years. Its farmstead architecture forms an integral part of the warp and weft of settlement and field pattern across the island, revealing glimpses into its medieval and even prehistoric past. The present landscape presents a predominant pattern of:

- Small fields with hedgebanks
- Winding, narrow and sunken lanes
- Scattered settlement of isolated farmsteads and hamlets.

It will be seen that this pattern is medieval, and shares many characteristics with landscapes of the Atlantic rim, and specifically south-west England and north-west France. It can be seen, however, as uniquely distinctive and important within this broader context.

3.2 Land cover and climate

The island slopes from a precipitous north side, across a central plateau, towards the southern side where there are sandy bays and the major centres of population. Its geology is underpinned by the hard igneous rocks that form part of the Armorican Massif, which extends from western Normandy to Brittany, and a mixture of sedimentary shales and conglomerates. The predominant building material is granite (see 4.9).

Deposits of peat underly the sand and shingle in and around many of the bays of Jersey, and a broad belt of blown sand has contributed to the formation of dunes at Grouville, those behind St Ouen's Bay and the high Quennevais area south of the airport (Jee 1982, 21-2). The calcareous soils thus produced, although light and friable in nature, are capable of improvement when combined with the underlying peat and regularly manured. The sandy loams in the west and south of the island were favoured for market gardening (Jee 1982, 27; LUC 1999, 10-13).

As in the other islands, the plateaux are overlain by a deep (3 feet or more) layer of post-glacial loess and alluvium, in part the result of woodland clearance in the Neolithic and Bronze Age, which is highly absorbent and moisture-retaining but again needs constant attention and manuring. The thinner soils formed on the granitic underlying strata are acidic in nature, and the application of manure, alkaline sand from the bays, seaweed (*vraic*) from at least the 12th century and more recently lime has made a fundamental contribution to the restructuring and improvement of

the soils on the island – although lessened in importance by guano from the 1850s, and especially modern fertilisers from the 1950s (Blench 1966).

There is paleo-botanical evidence for extensive woodland clearance in the prehistoric period, and woodland was described as ‘scant’ by the cartographer William Speed in 1631 (LUC 1999, 21). This has significant implications for the patterns of settlement that later developed, for although village-based settlement often developed in such areas (Roberts and Wrathmell 2002, 18–24; Brunet 1992) this does not appear to have been the case in Jersey. Woodland now occupies under 3 per cent of Jersey’s land area, and deciduous woodland is chiefly confined to steep valley sides and is dominated by pedunculate oak and sweet chestnut. The latter was coppiced, hazel (a coppice timber used for wattle fencing and infill in timber-frame construction) being comparatively rare. The common species of hedgerow tree are oak and (now much less than prior to the 1970s) varieties of field elm, closely related to those in Normandy and possibly linked to the introduction of cider orchards (Quayle 1815, 139; Jee 1982, 28–30). It is widely considered that the introduction of orchards was combined with the extensive enclosure of formerly open fields – an issue to which we shall return later in the text. This, and the planting of trees on the hedgebanks which were pollarded or coppiced for fuel and timber, wrought a considerable impact on the character of the island over the 17th century – ‘like an entire and continued forest’, according to one of several contemporary observers (LUC 1999, 22).

Jersey has an average of 33.07 inches of rain per year, and the climate is marked by high levels of humidity, mild winters, early springs, and warm, long summers (Jee 1982, 24–5). The Atlantic brings prevailing winds from the south to south-west. Although Jersey is the island most liable to frosts, this temperate climate is of fundamental importance to the distinctive agriculture that developed on the island (see Section 5).

3.3 Summary of Historical Development

Jersey’s landscape reveals glimpses into successive layers of its past, which are summarised in the table below and placed within the broader context of developments in north-west Europe, and specifically England and France.

Table 4 Historical Development of Jersey: A Summary

Period Context	Island Developments	Material remains
<p>Mesolithic 'The Middle Stone Age': period of human development which saw the spread of hunter-gather communities across north-west Europe after the end of the glaciation (c. 8,000-4,000BC)</p>	<p>Mesolithic hunters, as elsewhere, may have made seasonal clearances into the extensive post-glacial woodland.</p>	<p>Flint scatters and isolated finds indicative of activity.</p>
<p>Neolithic 'The New Stone Age' : the period of human societal development characterised by the introduction of agriculture and use of stone tools, spanning the period 4,000-2,000 BC</p> <p>Bronze Age Period of human history from (in NW Europe) approximately 2,000-900BC</p>	<p>Neolithic farmer-hunters and Bronze Age settlers extended the process of clearance. Evidence for farming and settlement on thinner soils of coastal zones, spreading to oak/hazel interior of Jersey after 3,500 BC. Evidence for soil erosion and formation through run-off of alluvium and colluvium in valley bottoms. Evidence for shrinkage and abandonment of settlement in Bronze Age, after rise in sea level c.2-2500 BC resulted in loss of land.</p>	<p>Extensive Neolithic and Bronze Age remains in the landscape, including Neolithic funerary architecture of international significance. Field systems also relate to the organisation of labour in this period – visible to the south of L'Etacq and Val de Mar in St Ouen's Bay and the evidence for early parallel (co-axial) field boundaries in the northern coastal areas of the island.</p>
<p>Iron Age and Roman period Period of human social development crudely defined by the use of iron tools and weapons between about 1,000BC, to the conquest of Gaul under Caesar and Britain under Claudius and finally the end of Roman rule in the 5th century.</p>	<p>Intensification of settlement in Iron Age, including promontory forts such as Rozel.</p>	<p>Little recorded evidence indicative of settlement change.</p>

Period Context	Island Developments	Material remains
<p>Medieval (early) The period of British and later Norse and Norman-French settlement from the 5th century to the 11th century.</p>	<p>Emigration of British to Armorica and environs. The Channel Islands were added to the Duchy of Normandy in 933. Place-name evidence for Norse settlement from 10th century, concentrated in coastal areas.</p>	<p>The pattern of settlement and strip farming.</p>
<p>Medieval Commonly used to define the period following the Norman Conquest to the Dissolution and Reformation in the early 16th century. Economic boom in the 12th and 13th centuries, including the development of large farms on monastic and secular estates was followed by contraction of settlement and the leasing out of estates after the famines and plagues of the 14th century.</p>	<p>Reorganisation of parishes under Archbishopric of Coutances in 12th century, and building to parish churches to standard plans.² Channel Islands become a peculiar of English Crown following loss of Normandy to Kingdom of France in 1204. Intermittent raids lead to unsettled conditions in 14th/15th centuries.</p>	<p>Major stronghold at Mont Orgueil commenced after 1204, and inland the development of defended refuges and manorial sites. Evidence for seigneurial houses from 15th century and earlier.</p>
<p>Early Modern The period from the 16th century to the mid 18th century. From the 15th century there was a general increase in agricultural incomes and productivity and the emergence of increasingly market-based and specialised regional economies.</p>	<p>The development of a cash economy based on stocking knitting (which declined after 1750), the production of cider (the planting or orchards resulting in the decline of arable cultivation), the cod fisheries and from the 18th century the production and export of dairy cattle and butter. After 1700, the increased development of English military infrastructure on the island and the erosion of trading and cultural links with France.</p>	<p>The extensive planting of orchards, concentrated in the 16th-17th century and in the centre and east of the island. Extensive evidence for a rebuilding of 2-storey houses in 1550-1650, and later refronting/enlargement, subject to increasing English architectural influences from c1700.</p>

²This being the combination of double naves and chancels, vaulted stone roofs and central bell towers, a strong characteristic of churches of this date in the Cotentin peninsula also.

Period Context	Island Developments	Material remains
<p>Industrial The period from 1750 witnessed increased agricultural productivity, encouraged by rising grain prices and the demands of an increasingly urban population. Substantial improvements in animal husbandry were made with the development of improved breeds and better housing for cattle. This improved the quality and efficient redistribution of farmyard manure, so increasing agricultural productivity.</p>	<p>The development of a road network focused on the improved harbour at St Helier between 1806-14 under General Don. Post-1815, the settlement of the island by English-speaking leisured and professional class, at first concentrated in St Helier and after 1850 spreading across the island. The arrival of English and Irish labourers, concentrated in and around St Aubin and Gorey, and the use of Breton labourers in agriculture.</p> <p>After 1815, and especially c1850, the decline of the cider trade, of stocking knitting, of sheep grazing, and the development of the early potato, flower and market produce industries.</p> <p>The decline of shipbuilding after a peak in the 1860s, and the rise in importance of service industries including finance and commerce. The decline of cod fishing over the 19th century, after its peak in the late 18th century.</p>	<p>Evidence for some post-1750 enclosure of the landes and other areas of Jersey. Extensive evidence for the rebuilding of farm buildings in particular from c1850. The spread of English architectural styles across the island, from the core area of English settlement around St Helier.</p>
<p>Post-Industrial Intensive specialisation of farming accompanied by the development of government and industry research and guidance. Government grants assisting with the capital cost of building.</p>	<p>The development of the tourist industry, accelerating after the opening of the airport in 1930s, and of the financial services industry – agriculture now being less than 4% of the island's GDP (twice as much as the UK). The agricultural economy is now largely dependent on the production of Jersey Royal potatoes and dairying, and despite an increase in glasshouses there has been a fall in market gardening's contribution.</p>	<p>Extensive housing development across parts of the island. Increase in farm size in post-1950 period, especially from mid 1960s. This is matched by redundancy of farmsteads, their conversion into houses and the building of large dairy units for larger herd sizes.</p>

3.4 Enclosure and Settlement

'No country probably is more strongly enclosed than Jersey' (Quayle 1815, 67)

The predominant pattern of enclosure is of small-scale fields with irregular boundaries. These field patterns do not reflect the small scale, irregularity and thick multi-species boundaries associated with woodland clearance, this having been completed across Jersey in the prehistoric period. Instead, and as we shall see, they reveal signs of the imposition of enclosure, and the subsequent removal of boundaries, over a pre-17th century mix of enclosure, strip farming and common land that was prevalent across the island.

The predominant pattern of settlement is of isolated farmsteads and hamlets relating to settlement foci with parish churches. Ancient routeways run along ridgeways and can focus on parish centres, but there is evidence for earlier routeways with boundaries formed of clearance stones in the north of the island in particular, running east-west. Isolated farmsteads can be found in open and exposed positions, but are more commonly sited at the heads of valleys close to arable land – with names such as Les Vaux and La Vallette (Stevens 2005, 8). They are often found in linked clusters. Hamlets – often kin-related settlements (eg La Ville les Gaudins), which again reflects developments in upland and western seaboard areas of the British Isles and France – were often known as 'villes' (Le Boutillier 1982, 16). The Cornish equivalent is the 'tre-', the Welsh 'tref' and the Breton 'ker'. An east-west orientation is common for farmhouses, in order to provide a south-facing aspect. In summary, the pattern of settlement comprises:

- 1** settlement clusters around the churches (eg St John's), mostly dating from the later 19th century (with schools and community halls also provided);
- 2** isolated farmsteads comprising one or two steadings, the latter sometimes conjoined, and often sited close to other farmsteads in linked settlement clusters;
- 3** hamlets of 3 or more steadings.

Some settlement organisation and certainly intensification would have taken place during the population and economic boom experienced across Europe in the 12th to 13th centuries, and contraction during the demographic upheavals of the 14th-15th centuries. By the late 18th century, 85% of the 20,000 population was dispersed in the wider countryside outside St Helier and St Aubin (Le Boutillier 1983, 16). A modest increase of population of around 5000 since the 17th century (Blench 1962, 51) was set to expand enormously after the defeat of Napoleon in

1815, and by the mid 19th century the population approached 60,000. The patterns of settlement have become more strongly nucleated since the improvement of the road system under General Don, which promoted the development of new villages (eg Victoria Village, Le Carrefour Selous) and of the St Helier–St Aubin conurbation. The Jersey railway, opened in 1870, connected the capital to St Aubin and another line was opened to Gorey and later (1891) its pier (Jee 1982, 163). The Inner Harbour at St Helier was not completed until 1818 (Jee 1982, 167), and the end of the Napoleonic Wars brought a wave of fresh English immigrants, the growth of trade and agricultural prosperity. The development of an inland transport infrastructure was widely cited as a reason for the expansion of tillage for potatoes (eg Inglis 1835, 121). This was reinforced in the 20th century, latterly and since the 1960s by the Island Development Plan (LUC 1999, 26–7).

3.4.1 International Context

There is a close relationship between farmsteads and patterns of settlement and land use, cultural factors, climatic conditions and the physical structure of the landscape. Farmland has historically been divided into arable for growing corn and other crops, and meadow for hay and grass. In the past, farmers also had access to fallow land, land laid open after the harvest and areas of rougher common ground for grazing livestock.

Jersey's cultural landscape reflects developments in both England and France, and more widely in Europe. The proximity of the Channel Islands to France was counterbalanced -- in particular after 1204 -- by their political and administrative links to England, and further enriched by a mix of English and French cultural influences. The Channel Islands -- as we shall see in the section below -- are placed in close relationship to the area of north-west France and south-west England where dispersed settlement predominates, characterised by a mix of hamlets and isolated farmsteads (Roberts 1990, 68–9). The links of Jersey to these areas, and in particular that of Normandy and the Cotentin Peninsula are affirmed in its varied surnames (Société Jersaise, 1940, 45; Le Maistre 1979). This area has a long tradition of trading links and cultural exchange that extend into the prehistoric period, and as Turner has pointed out are affirmed by the accounts of travels in the Lives of Brittonic saints (Turner 2006, 5–7; Cunliffe 2001). Although there has been no comparable analysis of field and settlement since the pioneering work of Flatres (1957), which identified basic similarities in a large area extending southwards from the Isle of Man to France, there is sufficient to at least set Jersey within a broad geographic and question-based framework.

Throughout medieval Europe, there was a broad distinction between more open and village-based arable landscapes ('champion', 'campagne') and the more bosky and anciently-enclosed landscapes of pastoral areas ('wood pasture', 'bocage') where farmsteads within a dispersed settlement pattern were mostly isolated or sited in hamlets. Within both of these types of landscape, the process of enclosure (termed *embocagement* in France) had made great strides by the mid 18th century – in England 75% of the landscape had been enclosed by 1750. 18th and 19th century regular planned enclosure is concentrated in those areas where medieval open field landscapes had persisted longest (the Midland plain of England, and the *champion* landscapes of France such as around Caen in Normandy) and where vast reserves of common land (termed *landes* in France) could be divided up between individual farms. A broad distinction can be drawn between three types of settlement:

- 1** In areas of nucleated settlement in the medieval period and later, the majority of farmsteads were sited in villages. The holdings of individual farmers were inter-mixed and set amongst communally managed open fields, which were farmed in rotation as meadow or arable land. These open fields dominated the landscape, areas of common land for pasture, fuel etc being typically pushed to the margins. Most open field systems in England and France were created during the period from the 9th to the 12th centuries (earlier in for example Wessex and the Paris Basin). They replaced earlier dispersed patterns of settlement, some of which were clearly planned by estates. Enclosure is evident from the 14th century and even earlier in both France and England. It resulted in the immediate or gradual establishment of new isolated farmsteads out in the fields. It could be undertaken on a piecemeal basis, or in one single phase, the latter form of enclosure being typically more regular in its appearance and often resulting in new designed landscapes. Re-arranging previously communal fields or common pasture land into self-contained private land units enabled the rationalisation of formerly scattered holdings, allowing better management of livestock and rotation of crops. Village-based settlement and landscapes dominated in the medieval period by communal fields are concentrated in England in a central band extending upwards from Dorset to Northumberland, and in the open plains of France (the Caen area being the closest with trading links to Jersey) (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000; Roberts & Wrathmell 2002; Brunet 1992, 20).
- 2** Farmsteads in areas of dispersed settlement are commonly isolated or clustered in hamlets. They are commonly medieval in origin (pre-14th century generally) and often surrounded by ancient and irregular patterns of field boundaries. Small-scale and irregular patterns result from the reclamation of woodland or waste, but many landscapes of dispersed settlement were also established in landscapes

that had long been stripped of their woodland, such as Cornwall, Brittany, parts of the Cotentin and Jersey itself. These fields were either farmed from the outset as compact farming units or contained the scattered holdings or strips of individual farmers, high status or seigneurial farms having typically larger fields around them. Areas of pasture and rough grazing were typically far greater in extent than in areas of nucleated settlement, and were again subject to varying rates of enclosure from the 14th century. Patterns of wealth were more evenly spread than in typically more hierarchical village-based societies. The areas of principal relevance to Jersey are the south-west peninsula of England and the north-west of France, taking in Brittany and a large part of Normandy extending from the Cotentin peninsula (the closest land to Jersey) towards the Poitou-Charente area. It is also dominant in northern Spain and Portugal, from Galicia and Asturias across the Pyrenees and the Massif Central to the Alps and eastwards to the Carpathians. It is also dominant in the Low Countries and Scandinavia, and in other mountainous areas of Europe.

- 3** Between the extremes of nucleation and dispersion are the areas that to some degree included both villages and scattered farmsteads and hamlets. In these areas, nucleated villages again originated from developments between the 9th and 12th centuries, but were often intermixed with isolated farmsteads that date from both the medieval period or earlier and from the later enclosure of open fields and common meadow and pasture.

De Gruchy considered that nucleated settlement had not characterised medieval Jersey or indeed Guernsey (de Gruchy 1957, 170). It is significant to note that Sark, recolonised from Jersey in the late 16th century, is a landscape of dispersed settlement resulting from subdivision of the island into 40 holdings (Ewen and de Carteret 1969; Jee 1982, 61 and 63-5).³ Indeed, consideration of Jersey within this broader context shows that it shares much in common with extensive areas of the Atlantic seaboard, and specifically with large areas of Normandy, Brittany and south-west England.

These areas are characterised by landscapes of dispersed settlement and ancient enclosure marked by isolated farmsteads and kin-related hamlets, and focussed on 'service centres' dominated by the parish church – the 'churchtowns' of Cornwall and Devon, the 'bourgs' of Normandy and Brittany. Throughout this area these hamlets were in the medieval period distinguished by 'informal clusterings' of longhouses (see Glossary) – farmhouses with attached housing for cattle where people and animals shared the same entrance, and cattle were stalled in the lower end – surrounded by strips (Herring 1994, 89-98, for Bodmin Moor; Herring 2006;

³ John McCormack (notes to author) has also noted Helier de Carteret's surprise at the unenclosed nature of Sark's landscape at this time, clearly implying that enclosure was a well-established feature of Jersey.

Meirion-Jones 1982). The farmed land across this region comprised intermixed strips, which were either set in enclosed blocks or strip fields. These strips can either reflect lordly imposition or shareholding between farmers. Shareland, as it is termed, is also distinguished by the intermixing of holdings – as in Jersey – and they were a particular feature of landscapes in Ireland, Wales, Scotland and north-west France (Flatres 1957). The value of land was usually in these areas measured not in monetary value but as a share of the produce, which Le Cornu refers to as earlier practice (1859, 35). The curved profiles of medieval plough strips can be preserved in the boundaries of later enclosures, typically on the sides of fields. Ploughing also left areas of higher land on the downslope end, typically revetted with stone-walled banks.

Another key characteristic of these landscapes, and of Jersey, is the hedgebank (in France the *talus*) – in occasional association with the ditch (*fossé*) – which is commonly associated with the post-medieval enclosure of its landscape but which again extends far deeper into the past (see 3.4.3). The form of enclosure adopted was usually the earthen bank topped with trees and pollards: these are the dominant form in the central and eastern parts of the island, with earth banks planted with furze and thorn being the common type in the west (where dry-stone walling is also found on sandier soils).

Their construction was noted in some detail by Poingdestre (1682) who describes tall banks topped with hawthorn and a further layer of soil and flanking ditches, and cites the reason for their introduction as shelter belts from the apples. It is interesting to note that Quayle (1815, 67) speculated whether the hedgebank had been introduced from the Pays de Caux along with the Normandy apple and cider making. Although, however, the Caux region is distinguished in Normandy by its ditch and bank boundaries (Brier and Brunet 1984, 130) it exhibits strong differences in its predominantly nucleated settlement patterns and in its farmstead architecture (the latter comprising massive courtyard farms of the 17th-18th centuries). Again, strong resemblances are exhibited by similar forms of enclosure in south-west Wales, south-west England and adjoining areas of Normandy and Brittany. There is early documentary evidence for their use, for example in Brittany in the 9th century (Meirion-Jones 1982, 38) and in 16th century Devon, the medieval banks on the ‘outfields’ at Tinhay Down, Lifton, Devon, being very rare survivals (Turner 2005, 33). There is also documentary evidence in the northern uplands of England for the present pattern of stone walls to have replaced earth banks topped with thorn (Winchester 2002, 69-73). It is interesting to note, from the documentary record in Jersey, that some of these banks could be relatively

insubstantial structures, capable of being knocked down in disputes or by seigneurial order (Stevens 1977, 25). This strongly indicates that the present landscape of enclosure replaced a strip-field system of cultivation, where the strips were periodically subdivided by earth baulks. This survives at St Ouen, and on the Cotentin Peninsula at Creances and elsewhere.

Others – including the banques built to retain earth on one side – were substantial, and more robust still are the stone-walled banks, including large boulders representing clearance from the surrounding land, which line some of the island's roads and could be medieval or earlier in date. These banks and ditches clearly result from extensive use of the spade, as also did the neat and labour intensive cultivation of the island's steep *côtils*. Deep digging for the cultivation of root crops (parsnips, turnips and later potatoes) as well as deep ploughing was a major characteristic of the island's agriculture as it developed from the 16th century. Even in the late 19th century the cost of digging by hand was only marginally more expensive than ploughing, and Braudel has noted the popularity of the spade on smaller farms in France as means of securing a fine and deep tilth and good harvests (Kelleher 1997, 218; Braudel 1981, 337).⁴ Women played a key role, for example by hand-weeding (Inglis 1835, 123).

Systems of partible inheritance (see 5.3.3), as a general rule, survived longer in landscapes of dispersed settlement such as these, which as a consequence were highly dynamic – in the flexibility and inter-relationship of holdings, sometimes in the loss and relocation of farmsteads (Roberts and Wrathmell 2002, 176-7).⁵ As Henry Inglis, known as one of the more acute observers of 19th century Jersey observed: 'Not only do we find in Jersey, half a dozen fields belonging perhaps to half a dozen persons, but sometimes even the same field owning two or more proprietors. In this case, the field is sown with different kinds of grain; and each proprietor speaks of his "camp de grain"' (Inglis 1835, 117). This system, although strongly individualistic in a major respect, was also sustained by strong community ties that probably extend very deep into the island's past (see 5.2.2).

A critical factor in this respect was the system of land management, which was very different from the ordered crop rotations of village landscapes. Jersey's is described by detail by Poingdestre (1682), its chief characteristic being ley farming whereby a long (4-6 year) period of setting down to grass or hay was followed by the breaking up of the land for arable. By Poingdestre's time, and most probably by the 16th century, the longer duration of continuous arable cropping (up to 7 years) was enabling by digging the land for beans oversown with parsnips (see 5.2.5 for root

⁴ Blackstone and Le Quesne (2000, 179) note both the high price of the *côtils* and the efficiency of traditional methods – 2 men ploughing 14 vergées in one year.

⁵ The movement of houses has been noted from the Richmond map. Mervyn Billot (February 2008) states how despite deep ploughing there is no trace of a house opposite his farm shown on this map.

crops). This distinctive form of rotational cropping, known in south-west as convertible husbandry, invites comparisons with Scotland, Wales, the south-west peninsula and northern uplands of England and neighbouring areas of France. Our understanding of the development of dispersed settlement is in its infancy, but it is significant to note that some recent research in south-west England and north-west France has established that dispersed settlement was a conscious response to local needs and agricultural techniques, including the adoption of convertible husbandry, that resulted from extensive replanning of landscapes in the 7th-8th centuries (Rippon et al, 2006; Herring 2006; Turner 2006; Brunet and Girardin 2006, 17-18). Paring off the tough turf that developed in the warmer climate of this region (in Jersey-French *brîsing*)⁶ was a necessary precondition of cultivation and another key feature of convertible husbandry.

The open fields at St Ouen, around St Anne in Alderney and at Pleimont in Guernsey are rare survivals in a northern European context, and there is extensive field-name evidence for example in the Campagnes of St Martin, Grouville and St Ouen. This represents, however, a very different form of land management than the carefully ordered and regulated field systems in some areas of nucleated settlement, which were based on the rotation of crops and fallow in 3-4 large fields set around the village, as in the midland counties of England and in the flatlands of the flatlands of the Caen area of Normandy. A more telling comparison is with the fields on the headland at Forraby, Boscastle, Cornwall, and in particular those on the coastal areas of Brittany (Meirion-Jones 1982, 39) and the Cotentin peninsula, as survives at Creances, where the land was continually fertilised with seaweed and ash (see Brunet and Girardin 2006, 20-21).

The farmland in these areas was exploited in tandem with extensive areas of common, termed *landes*, as they are in Brittany and Normandy. Cattle were restricted to commons and grazing land during the growing season, this period when the ban (*banon*) was in force being known as a *mission*. As elsewhere in Europe, livestock were impounded if they strayed and could be recovered on payment of a fine. Banon was abolished in Jersey in 1771, although in practice it continued much later (Jee 1982, 73). Landes by the 19th century are now confined to coastal areas but they were also found inland. These would have been periodically brought into cultivation, especially in periods of population pressure in the 13th-early 14th centuries (prior to the Great Famine, the Black Death and other demographic upheavals later that century), as it recovered again in the 16th-17th centuries and in the late 18th and 19th centuries. The latter period witnessed the most extensive phase of enclosure, typically large-scale and regular in form, of this land in both England and France.

⁶ Thanks to John Clarke, Société Jersaise Archaeology Section, for this reference.

These are very complex landscapes, whose chronological depth can be very difficult to unravel. Thus there is documentary evidence on Jersey, for at least some enclosure as well as strip farming by the 14th century (see Glossary, *Enclosure*). This mixture of enclosed and open fields is again typical of landscapes of dispersed settlement, for example in Brittany (Meirion-Jones 1982, 38), in Basse-Normandie and the Cotentin peninsula. Thus isolated farmsteads can have been farmed on an individual basis from the medieval period. They could also have worked communally-farmed strips with other farms, which were subject to enclosure from the medieval period. They could be sited in newly-enclosed fields, or comprise the shrinkage of hamlets into individual farmsteads from the 15th century and earlier, a process that continued in into the 19th century (for example Exmoor) and beyond 1950 (notably Brittany) in some areas. These can leave distinctive evidence in the form of small closes and paddocks, or of evidence for strip field cultivation in the present landscape. It will also be seen (Section 4) that the dating of buildings in relationship to landscape can provide a much more richly-textured picture, and even a predictive framework for understanding the time-depth of related landscapes, than would otherwise be the case.

A comparison would be the areas of Brittany selected for study by Astill and Davies (1997, 92-111, 248), where there is traceable from the 9th century clusters of houses around churches but otherwise scattered farmsteads (here with ring-fenced holdings, although there were fields with intermixed strips also) and hamlets set in an intensive arable landscapes which were subject to enclosure under seigneurial influence in the 16th and 17th centuries, and in some cases earlier through tenant action. Significantly, and as indeed sometimes appears to be the case in Jersey, arable fields could be sited at a distance from any settlement clusters (*ibid*, 124). This is a subject that merits close study in Jersey, in relationship to settlement patterns in Brittany and Normandy, which include the siting of farmsteads around large areas of strip fields (Couédic 26-7; Brunet 1998).

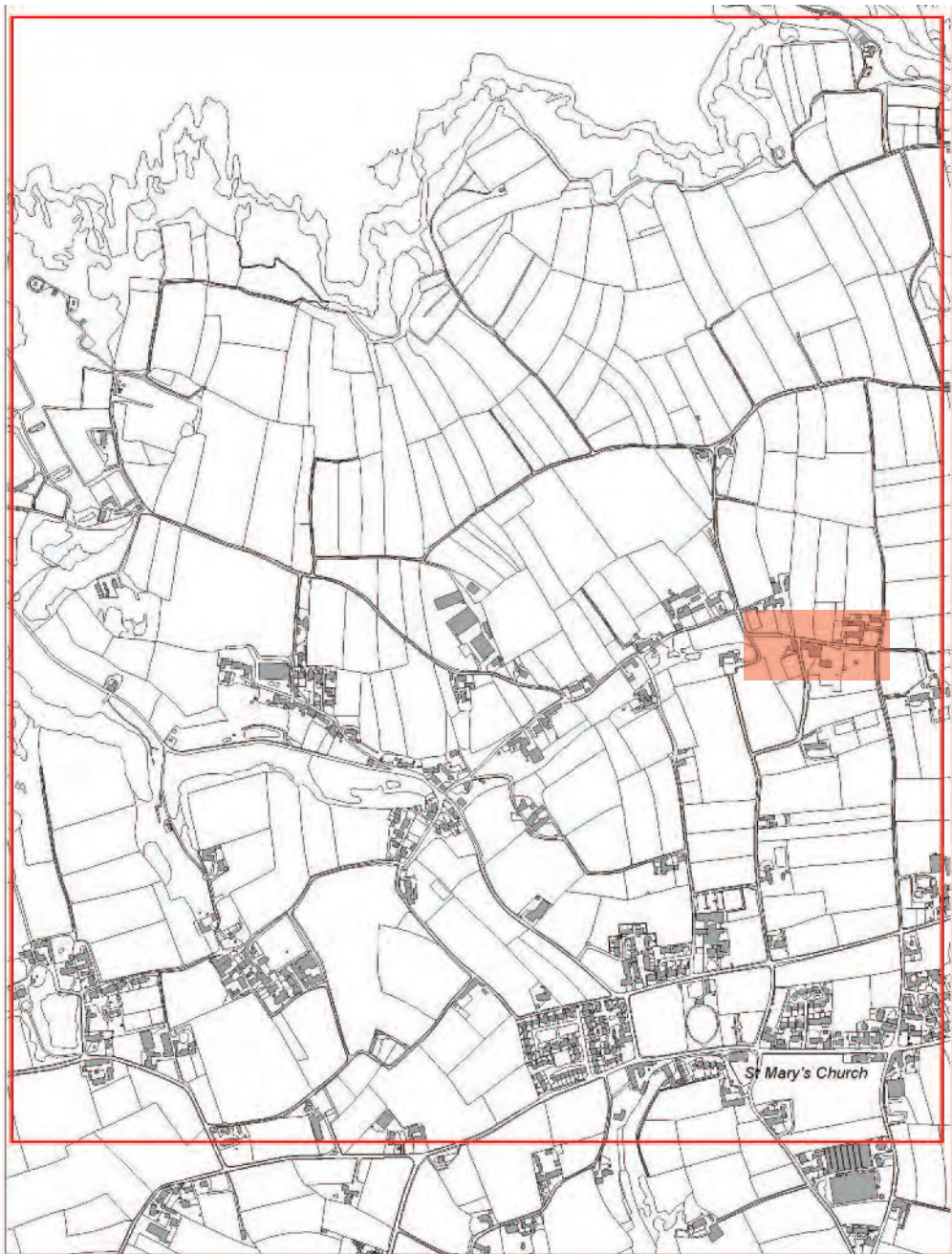
However, this is very possible to achieve across the island. Even superficial examination of a modern map and rapid field-walking has revealed evidence for regular enclosure of former landes, for the enclosure of strip fields and for farmsteads placed on the edge of distinctive oval fields which are raised above their surrounding landscapes and bounded by tracks. It would perhaps be dangerous at this point to speculate whether some of these ovoid enclosures could – as has been observed elsewhere – be medieval in date. Work in Brittany (Meirion-Jones 1982, 36), the Somerset Levels and the Derbyshire Peak District indicates that these ovals could be pre-11th century, Roman or earlier, and that townfield cores such as these

formed the nucleus of communal strip systems in landscapes of dispersed settlement in the medieval period, the land in between being subject to later enclosure (Roberts and Wrathmell 2002, 114–6, 171, 152). They have been observed in other parts of Europe, such as the Dutch *akkers*. There is also evidence for chains of isolated farmsteads being placed on the edge of areas of strip fields, with access to surrounding pasture land and sometimes the manoir and church placed at the centre of these strip fields. This has been observed by Brunet and Girardin, and other researchers, in Normandy (Brunet and Girardin 2006) and in Brittany (Le Couedic and Trochet 1999, 27).

In summary, and despite Jersey's present landscape being dominated by small-medium scale block-like fields, the result of piecemeal enclosure that shall be examined in 3.4.3, a broad distinction can be drawn between:

- Early fields and boundaries to routes which include large boulders resulting from field clearance. Some of these, as indicated by from maps and fieldwork, are indicative of prehistoric co-axial boundaries that have been found elsewhere to date from large-scale organisation of landscapes in the Middle Bronze Age (as has been recognised in a whole range of landscapes from Suffolk and Essex to Herefordshire and the Cotentin Peninsula/Brittany);
- A possible underlying earlier pattern of core arable areas;
- Strip fields in open communal fields or shareland, which survived into the late 18th century and later in the areas of thinner soils in the north and west of the island⁷;
- Areas of common grazing – the *landes* – in coastal areas and edges of parishes;
- Fields which – as has been observed in Devon and Cornwall (Herring and Turner, 2006) – essentially comprise 'cropping units' and which can be medieval or post-medieval in date; some of these retain evidence in curved boundaries along one or more sides for piecemeal enclosure of strips or parts of strips; it is important to try and draw a distinction between the enclosure of *landes* and that of strip fields if at all possible – using morphological and documentary evidence;
- Demesne pasture/arable in distinctively large fields around high-status (including seigneurial) sites, such as St Ouen and Rozel Manors, and the watermeadow landscape at The Elms; the map evidence raises interesting parallels here with the large fields created in the 15th century or earlier relating to the barton farms of Cornwall and Devon and seigneurial farms in Normandy and Brittany, and the transformation of chateau parks and gardens in Brittany and elsewhere in France from the 15th century (Astill and Davies 1997, 155–163);

⁷ There are documented examples of the 19th century in coastal areas of Brittany (Meirion-Jones 1982, 39).



0 200 400 Meters

Area 3 St Mary

Figure 3 - This map of study Area 2 (St Mary's) shows how the patterns of enclosure to the north around the headlands retain strip fields with curving boundaries, whereas on the more intensively cultivated and deeper soils to the south – and especially to the south of the linear settlement of Le Marais (marked by red box) - larger fields result from the processes of piecemeal enclosure and field enlargement. The nucleated settlement around St Mary's Church mostly results from later 19th century and 20th century development.

Figures 4 and 5. Area 10 (Les Augerez) was subject to much boundary removal in the 19th and 20th centuries. The Richmond map of 1795 (Figure 4) shows a dominant pattern of linear, L-shaped and parallel plans. Figure 5 shows that most of the present farmsteads have been considerably enlarged in the 19th century (at least one having medieval origins) with houses orientated away from the working buildings into their own yards. Most of the landscape is now defined by straight enclosure boundaries of the same broad date – albeit within an overall structure that is medieval. Many relate to a large central area of fields which are – as with other fields across the island – built above the level of the encircling lanes. One farmstead – to the south-east, or bottom right - is set to one side of a large oval enclosure: although confined by the surrounding topography, this type of farm-field relationship can be associated with very ancient sites in landscapes of dispersed settlement. This type of feature again poses questions for future research.

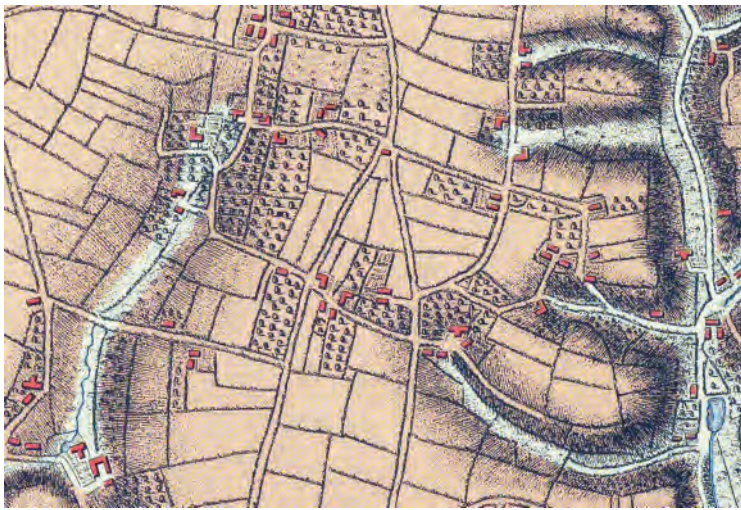


Figure 4

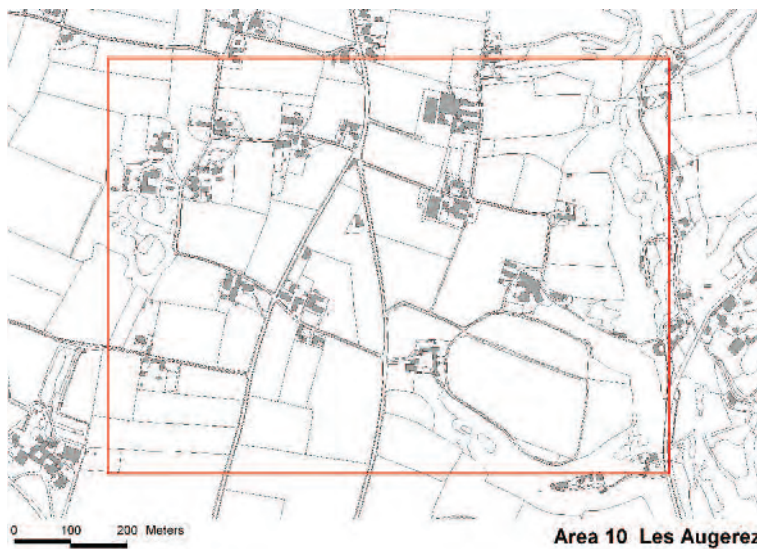


Figure 5



Figure 6

Farms and fields in the Cotentin peninsula of Normandy. Figure 6 (top) shows one of a group of farms along the edge of marshland in Picauville, which has been the subject of a study by Pierre Brunet. A 13th century church and a large seigneurial farm stand at the centre of what in the medieval period was a landscape of strip fields with occasional enclosures, subject to enclosure in the 16th-18th centuries and surrounded by isolated and clustered farmsteads. Figure 7 shows some of the coastal strip fields divided by earth banks that remain around, and are still farmed from, Creances.



Figure 7

- Areas of regular enclosure, predominantly 19th century, which affected some areas of *landes* – especially inland. This matches the physical evidence in landscapes in SW England, Brittany and Normandy.

It would be very rewarding to subject these patterns to detailed analysis, in relationship to patterns of settlement, soil type, geology etc. and in relationship to developments elsewhere.

3.4.3 The Development of Enclosure

One observer, writing in 1629, noted that Jersey was ‘very much of small inclosures’ (Kelleher 1994, 36). The over-riding impression, however, is that the rate of enclosure accelerated in tandem with the cider industry in the 17th century. This contrast between the early and late parts of the 17th century is matched by other observers, who noted at the beginning of the century the importance of tillage and husbandry, and at the end its eclipse by the development of shipping and commerce (including the lucrative cod fisheries in the western Atlantic), the development of stocking manufactory and ‘the conversion of the best arable ground into gardens and orchards’ (Quayle 1815, 76). Cider orchards were especially dense in the east of the island, and most sparse in the west, this being matched by examination of the patterns of enclosure mapped by Richmond in 1795: this notes that enclosure had affected 80% of the island by this period, the principal exceptions being parishes in the more arable western part of the island where enclosed blocks of arable or strip fields still lay intermingled with areas of common land: only 44% of St Ouen, and 63% of St Brelade, was enclosed at this point (Kelleher 1994, 40).

The protection of young trees and blossom from wind and nibbling by stock provided a clear incentive to enclosure. This was particularly the case with the smaller (and as a general rule earlier) enclosures close to houses for growing young stock, grafting being the standard method of raising apple trees (Stevens 1977, 22; Rodwell 1999, 59–60). These were called *jardins* or *pepinières*. The cider industry, however, was not a singular driver behind enclosure in either England or France. In Basse Normandie, for example, the planting of apple trees from the 13th century took three forms – planting in straight lines within enclosed fields, on hedgebanks or more liberally amongst unenclosed fields (Brunet 1998; 2006, 24–7). This appears to have been the case in those areas of both France and England where the cider industry had developed from the medieval period. Orchards for the production of cider, already produced for export in the medieval period (Hallam 1988, 395), thus replaced arable from at least the 15th century in Somerset, Devon, Gloucestershire and, to a lesser extent, in west Dorset (Thirsk 1984, 192–3, 382–

4). Enclosure for meat and dairy production could – as in the Vale of Gloucester and southwards into Devon, or in Normandy – proceed hand-in-hand with the cultivation of apple and pear trees (Lake and Edwards 2006b, 29-37; Brunet 1997). In all these landscapes, however, the strongest incentive behind enclosure was the need to manage different types of crop and in particular cattle. It is interesting, therefore, to note that the emergence of the cider industry was paralleled by the increasing importance of cattle in the island's economy, whose manure was valued as a fertiliser for the apple trees in Jersey as in England and France – and as the knitting industry declined in importance over the 18th century the declining importance of sheep. The overall impression is that, as in areas of dispersed settlement such as Cumbria where tenant right was strong, Jersey farmers were content with enclosure in return for the benefits that accrued (Whyte 2005; de Gruchy 1957, 166).