# 4 BUILDINGS AND LANDSCAPE

## 4.1 Introduction

The Jersey landscape thus presents a rich and challenging set of questions about the development of its landscape, its development to other comparable areas of England and France, and its relationship to the dating of buildings. It is not the intention of this paper to analyse the development of domestic architecture and plan types, which Joan Stevens has developed for Jersey and John McCormack has so ably pioneered across the Channel Islands, but to outline the relationship that these buildings have to their landscape and how this overall pattern fits into a broader European context. In this respect, there are several key characteristics of this rebuilding.

Throughout Europe, the present building stock provides an indication of where and when change occurred, a process that Peter Smith, in his overview of 'The Architectural Personality of Britain', has termed *historical relativity* (Smith, 1980, 2). This arises from a combination of factors such as patterns of lordship, tenure and the distribution of wealth and the emergence of market-based and specialised regional economies, which found their reflection in distinctive local and regional traditions of farmstead and building types.

Recently-published maps for England of listed building distributions have illustrated the potential for mapping the distributions of the surviving of the historic building stock in relationship to historically-conditioned patterns of landscape character and patterns of settlement. There is a close link, for example, between concentrations of pre-1750 buildings and landscapes marked by high to extremely high rates of dispersed settlement and ancient enclosure, where earlier phases of rebuilding have been sufficiently robust and adaptable to have survived to the present day. In contrast, the most sparse distributions of the pre-1750 period are particularly evident in areas where village-based open-field farming was most dominant and persisted longest, and where the small and intermixed holdings of freeholders and tenants were subject to high levels of loss and amalgamation from the later eighteenth century (Lake and Edwards 2006a and 2007). There were, of course, areas of dispersed settlement where surviving medium-or-small-scale houses and farm buildings pre-dating the 18th century are very rare – prime examples being Cornwall and Brittany, relatively poor areas which both adjoin similar but wealthier landscapes (in Devon and Normandy) that have high numbers of early buildings.

These patterns and densities of survival are clearly reflected as definable areas or zones. These take us beyond individual points and buildings to a higher vantage point, from which we can in turn frame and test observations at a finer scale and

question the relationship of the built environment to its wider landscape context. Vernacular architecture has huge untapped potential in revealing the development of settlement, as buildings can complement and even provide earlier site-specific evidence than documents.[8] As John McCormack (1997) has demonstrated for the successive rebuilding of hall and chamber blocks in seigneurial residences in the Channel Islands, the examination of fabric can reveal much about their origin and footprint. Surviving houses in England have similarly been demonstrated as occupying the same footprint as their predecessors, even if as rebuilt they were taller structures with far greater capacity internally: such evidence is matched by the evidence for alternate rebuilding between the upper (domestic) and lower (cow house) ends of longhouses that can reveal much about their date of origin. Such examples demonstrate that we must not simply focus on surveys of individual structures, and ensure that recording is informed by a question-based framework for understanding the whole historic environment.

### 4.2 Cultural Factors

'Nothing now remains of the old farmhouse, except the walls and these are not visible, as they are concealed beneath their new drapery. A few years ago they were delivered to the tender mercies of the plasterer, and the once venerable building is made to consist of imaginary blocks of white marble...It is curious that our farmers give English names to their small estates, while the English residents prefer French names'

John de la Haye, letter to the *British Press and Jersey Times*, 1879
(quoted in Kelleher 1994, 267)

Here John de la Haye recalled a visit to a 17th century farmhouse in his youth. There are countless examples of old granite farmhouses submitted to the 'tender mercies' of polite Renaissance and metropolitan fashion in the 19th century and indeed earlier, but what is so interesting about the Channel Islands is the perception that this transformation was part of an Anglicising of the island's culture – despite the fact that the separation of the two communities drew comment from many contemporary observers. The first explicitly English architecture on the island, apart from the Board of Ordnance designs for its fortress barracks and houses, had developed from the early 18th century in St Helier – for example at 9 Castle Street, built for a shipowning family. Prior to that, the detailing and overall form of domestic architecture was more directly influenced by Normandy and Brittany: another obvious example is the use of the Flamboyant style in church window tracery up to the 16th century, in contrast to the Perpendicular style that had developed in England from the 1340s. By the 1830s, villa and terrace building in and around St

[8] A point made by Meirion-Jones, who also notes that multi-cell houses 'may betray a gradual and successive re-building of earlier structures' (1982, 4 and 365).

Helier had led to the development of a 'semi-circular suburb' with other villas 'scattered here and there' (Inglis 1835, 4 and 38). The villa, designed on the basis of Palladian simplicity, was developed from the mid 18th century in the environs of London and then other regional towns and cities. It, and the terraced architecture that existed across a range of social scales, had developed by the 1790s into a mature late Georgian form that remained fundamentally unaltered until the later 19th century when the impact of the Gothic and Domestic Revivals took hold. In Jersey, again as in south-west England and southern Wales, it took the form of blocked-out render (stucco), sashes and panelled doors. This overall combination is distinctively British, and not French, even if there may be overall similarities in the modulation of 3- or 5-bay domestic architecture. By the late 19th century, therefore, a variant of French traditional architecture had been steadily transformed with, for example, the deepening of chamfered window surrounds,[9] the insertion of vertical-sliding sashes and the installation of Georgian joinery and staircases. Such architecture included the so-called 'cod houses' (eg Melbourne House, St John's). This was an architecture of aspiration, not of cultural imposition: 'Plus d'un Jersyais, par ambition, se consolerait d'être Anglais' (Kelleher 1994, 261). Despite the fact that English farming implements were widely used and imported by the early 19th century, in 1851 the English population (12 of 57,000 for the whole island) still formed less than 5% of that in rural parishes, in the later 19th century the numbers of French tenant farmers increased and in 1900 the universal patois was still Jersey French (Kelleher 1994, 69, 260-261).

This mix, or more correctly layers, of French and English influences is a highly distinctive aspect of the island's character. Its course reaches back to the Neolithic period, and the close typological links between pottery and grave architecture to Ireland, Brittany, south-west England and Wales. This extends forward to the recent past, to the single-storey house, the use of hedgebanks, of corbelled roofs (see Building Types), dispersed settlement patterns of isolated farms and hamlets linked to distinctive forms of enclosure and even the importation of pantiles. There are also highly unique and distinctive aspects – the fusion and overlay of English and French architectural form and detail, the evidence for a consistent style of farmstead planning developed from the late 17th century and of very unique storeyed combination farm buildings in the 19th century (see Building Types).

### 4.3 Plan Form and Articulation

*France and England*

The development of the farmhouse has been the subject of regional and national studies in both England and France (Barley 1961 and Filipetti 1979, for example). Farmhouses can tell us much about the former prosperity and development of

[9] McCormack (1997, 26) notes that the 'chamfering of doors and windows is not found after 1600'. His views have now been refined in a Jersey context to c.1650.

steadings, such as the major phases of rebuilding that affected parts of southern England and Normandy in the 15th to early 17th centuries. In summary, the most common farmhouse plan of the medieval period, traceable to the 12th century, has the main entrance in one side wall to an entrance passage (usually with a door opposite) that separated an open hall (to allow smoke from the fire to escape through the roof) from a lower end, which could house a kitchen, services and in some areas livestock. The hall served as the main living and eating room, status and space determining whether there would be an inner chamber (for sleeping or a private area) beyond. By the end of the 15th century, and by the 17th century over a large part of England with the exception of parts of the north and the extreme south-west, farmhouses were being built or adapted into storeyed houses with chimneystacks. This was a process that was completed some 100 years earlier in France, and indeed the open hall with its fine-carpentered roof appears to be a highly distinctive characteristic of English medieval domestic architecture (and of church interiors too). There was a strong degree of regional variation, for example in the positioning of the chimneystacks and their relationship to the main entrance. From the later 17th century, services in some areas were being accommodated in lean-tos (outshuts) or rear wings, and from the mid-18th century houses that were more symmetrically designed (with central entrances, chimneystacks on the end walls and services placed to the rear of the front reception rooms) became standard in many parts of France and England. Double-depth houses, with central entries leading into stair halls and with symmetrical front elevations, were adopted sporadically in the 17th and early 18th centuries and become much more common after 1750 – after 1850 in parts of western Britain. As a general rule, English farms over 70 acres (28.3 hectares) needed to look beyond the family for additional labour, and so rooms for live-in farm labourers – usually in the attic or back wing of the house – became a feature of many farmhouses.

*Jersey*

The earliest examples of domestic architecture on the island are the hall/chamber block complexes of the medieval period (McCormack 1996), which are clearly high-status and merit mapping in relationship to settlement patterns. These – and indeed the first-floor halls found in the Channel Islands (eg at Hamptonne) – formed variants on common English and French themes in domestic architecture, albeit with some subtle differences and variations on common themes between Jersey and Guernsey.

By the later 15th century we see the emergence of 2-unit plans (eg La Grange, St Mary) resembling those in north-west France, with its hall-kitchen/store and first-floor chambers. By the late 16th or 17th centuries these were separated by a cross-

passage which in storeyed houses accesses a stair turret (tourelle, eg La Tourelle, St Martin). 3-unit plans also exist. At the rear of the house, flanking the tourelle, could be lean-tos for services, stores and dairy: these could be integral (eg Le Pissot, St Peter, dated by McCormack (1997, 8) to the early 16th century.

A significant development was the introduction of single-room and then continuous lean-tos in the later 17th century, some integral with new-build of this period and others resulting in the removal of tourelles. They contained stores and services, sometimes the dairy. There is clear evidence for the heightening of many into full-height structures in the later 18th and 19th centuries. There are some early examples of double-depth houses (eg Les Ormes, Rue de la Croix, St John, dated (McCormack 1997, 23) to 1730) but these are not encountered in any numbers until the mid/late 19th century).

These developments were broadly shared in both France and England. Another distinctively French feature is the use of square and segmental-arches with ogee heads. There are over twenty examples of high-status arched entries farmsteads on Jersey (Stevens 1977, 87), many built to a distinctive form with large cart entries and smaller ones for pedestrians. Round arches, as they developed from at least the early 16th century and throughout the 17th century, are obviously not purely French in derivation – they are a distinctive feature of domestic architecture wrought in granite in Devon and Cornwall - but their use as grand entrances to farmyards do reflect a strongly characteristic aspect of larger farmsteads in western France, extending from Brittany towards Bordeaux. Some are chamfered, with distinctive carved stops that – as at The Elms – display strong French influences. Round-headed doorways are found in the granite regions of north-west France (where they have been dated to 1548-1738 (Meirion-Jones, 1982)) and Cornwall (where they do not appear to post-date the early 17th century. There are no dated examples in East Brittany beyond the early 17th century, multi-voussoired arches dating from the late 17th century (Addison 1994, 254)

Research by John McCormack has unearthed considerable evidence for storeyed farmhouses dating from the medieval period and for an extensive rebuilding in the period 1550-1650.[10] The scale and indeed the high quality of this rebuilding is the visible manifestation of the emerging prosperity of the Jersey farmer, and its appearance in the present landscape has been affected by later refontings and rebuilding. Analysis of the distributions of listed buildings suggests that the evidential character of 16th-17th century houses is more coherent in the northern coastal areas and the central plateau.

[10] Eg Le Vouet, St Martin (C13), La Cote au Palier, St Martin (mid C16) and Le Pre au Portier, Grouville (early C17)

By the 18th century, the more elongated and traditional plan was being compressed into two main variants, the result of either new-build or remodelling. These were:

**1** the 3-bay house
**2** the 5-bay house.

The latter is a particularly distinctive feature of the Jersey countryside. The modulation of some is quite attenuated, and less English than French in style, but by the later 18th century the English influence is general. Five-bay farmhouses are generally confined to larger farms in both England and France, and that their adoption by Jersey farmers – all the more remarkable because of the very small holding size that prevailed across the island – is testament to the prosperity. Another distinctive feature is the lower usually 2-bay block to one or both sides. These have been observed in the Cotentin peninsula/St Malo area, and are not a feature of British farmhouse architecture. They may have served as 'dower houses' (see 5.2.3).

Figures 8 The distinctive patterns of Jersey French domestic architecture.

Figures 9 5-bay houses in Jersey, all resulting from refronting of earlier houses or new build in the 18th-19th centuries.

Figure 10. 5-bay houses in the Cotentin (Colomby, top left, and Vasteville, top right) and in Hampshire, England (bottom).

Figure 11. 3-bay houses in Jersey, all with subtle variation and two with mid-late 19th century cement-based render. English influence is far more evident here.

Figure 12. 3-bay houses in the Cotentin (Vasteville, top left) and Brittany (Lambel, top right, comprising two conjoined units for an extended family), and in West Penwith, Cornwall (below).

### 4.4 The Single-Storey House

Jersey's single-storey houses merit brief examination in a broader context, especially as some surviving examples may have served smallholdings (see 7.2). The evidence from the colonisation of Sark (Ewen and de Carteret 1969) indicates that in the late 16th century the standard farmhouse type was a single-storey stone-walled structure with a thatched roof. Extensive fieldwork across the island has revealed evidence for the single-storey origins of many storeyed houses and outbuildings. Single-storey houses are now concentrated in industrial areas (the oyster fishery of Gorey) and in marginal coastal areas. Very few were noted by Quayle in 1815 (191 and 208). This is significant, for if we take the single-storey house as the predominant house-type in the 16th century, then there must be a sound reason for its pushing to the margins, as it were. The reason, we believe, is to be found in the marginal but diverse subsistence economies of these areas, where just as in the coastal areas of Normandy and Brittany there was access to supplementary income from fishing, market gardening and industrial by-employment. It is significant that the single-storey house had by 1850 been ousted to western Wales, Ireland and Scotland, and to parts of north-west France, the latter in association with simple single-unit houses and typically small holdings where tenants had access to a range of activities (Smith 1980, 29; Meirion-Jones 1982, 11 and 266; Le Couedic and Trochet 1985, 145; Brier and Brunet 1984, 99-101). In contrast to both Normandy and Brittany, however, one-unit houses are very rare and 2-unit single-storey houses with central entries – as in the Isles of Scilly and up the western seaboard of Britain – were the standard type adopted by the 19th century.

Single-storey cottages are concentrated in the more marginal and coastal zones of the island. Smallholding remained as a key part of the rural economy in these areas. The distinctive multi-horned Jersey sheep were pushed increasingly to the areas of open grazing – essentially large paddocks confined by walls and hedges – on the cliffs and sloping ground, as a result of the enclosure of landes, and the loss of rights of *banon* over the 17th and 18th centuries (something that merits exploration, and that is certainly hinted at in one parish study – Blackstone and Le Quesne 2000, 176). As flocks declined in number in the 18th century, sheep remained in these areas and increasingly in the 19th century the land was turned over for potatoes. The concentration of single-storey cottages, some with late 17th and 18th century dates on the kneelers, is most marked in the parish of St John, around the quarries of Mont Mado.

Figure 13. Single storey houses in Jersey, at St John's (top left, one of a group close to Mont Mado quarries), Gorey (top right, probably a former fisherman's cottage), and two examples heightened in the 19th century opposite La Rocque Methodist Church, Grouville (bottom left) and close to La Hougue Bie (bottom right).

Figure 14 Single storey houses in north-west France, on a Breton lande subject to 19th century enclosure (top left) and in the fishing villages of Cosqueville and Rethoville on the north-east Cotentin coast where small-scale farming was combined with fishing. Note the detached bakehouse to bottom right.

### 4.5 Time-Depth

A total of 746 farmsteads have been identified and recorded as part of this project using the 1935 Ordnance Survey map. Farmsteads that were identified from the mapping **only** were dated as 20th century. Through the use of the Historic Building Register and Stevens Vol. I it has been possible to provide an indication of time-depth in the farmstead data set based on the date of the earliest recorded surviving building on any farmstead. A total of 290 farmsteads have been dated through the presence of a recorded building. The numbers of dated farmsteads are presented in Table 4. This date is simply based on the known or evident date of fabric, and is thus a superficial but still useful indicator of the present-day built character of the island. It will of course hugely benefit from the completion and publication of John McCormack's research, and its inputting onto the island HER.

*Pre-1600 Farmsteads*

Farmsteads that contain a building dating from pre-1600 are scarce with only 13 recorded across the Island. These farmsteads are concentrated in the western part of the Island, particularly in the Central Plateau Ridges character area, which was less subject to intensive improvement in the 19th century. Elsewhere there are occasional pre-1600 farmsteads but such early farmsteads are entirely absent from the south-western part of Jersey.

*17th Century Farmsteads*

Farmsteads with recorded buildings of this date are only entirely absent from areas such as the Coastal Plain in the south-east of the Island and along the western Coastal Plain.

*18th and 19th Century Farmsteads*

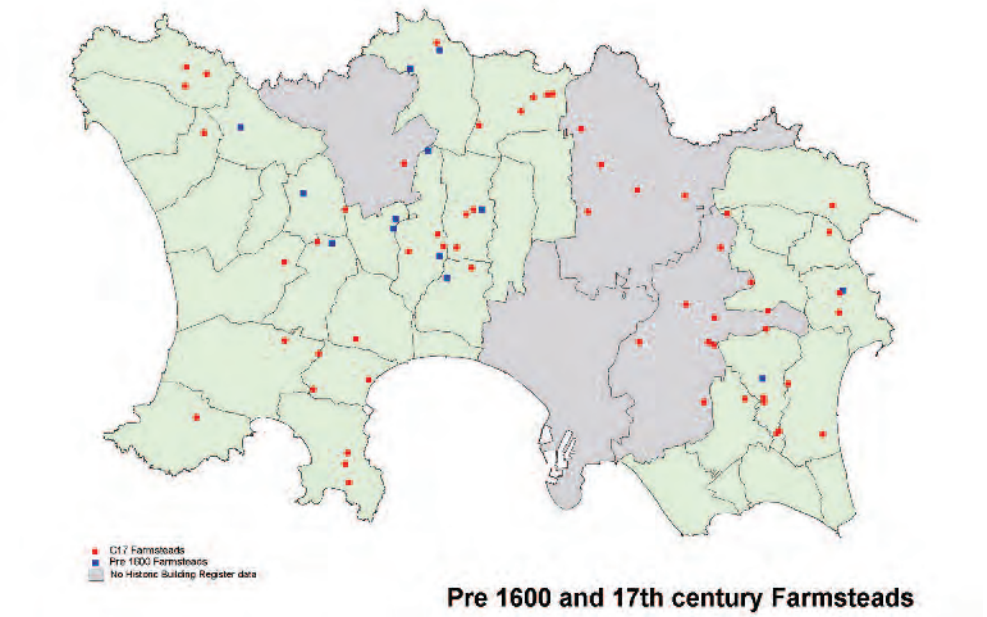
Farmsteads with recorded 18th century buildings are distributed across most of the Island, and to an extent they reflect the distribution of 17th century farmsteads. For example, in the eastern parishes of St Martin, St Clement and Grouville both data sets show a bias towards the southern part of this area. However, 18th century farmsteads appear in the Coastal Plain area, most probably associated with enclosure

Table 5

| Date | Total (%) |
|---|---|
| PRE 1600 | 13 (1.7) |
| C17 | 57 (7.6) |
| C18 | 94 (12.6) |
| C19 | 126 (16.9) |
| C20 | 455 (61.0) |
| UNC | 1 |


Figure 15 (above). Principal character areas across Jersey. (1) NW Headland (St Ouen), (2) SW Headland (St Brelade), (3) north-east (St Martin), (4) North Coast, (5) Central Plateau Ridges and Valley Heads, (6) Eastern Plateau and (7) Western Plateau.

Figure 16 (below). Farmstead sites with medieval and 17th century buildings registered on the Jersey Historic Environment Record.



of this period. On the western side of the Island there a few 18th century farmsteads pushing out into the coastal area with farmsteads appearing along the St Ouen's Bay Escarpment and Valleys.

Farmsteads dated to the 19th century through the presence of a 19th century building included in the Register of Historic Buildings are recorded in higher numbers than 18th century farmsteads with much the same general distribution across the Island. The low density of farmsteads in the north of St Martin's parish in the north-east (St Martin) character area is similar to that for the 18th century distribution. The presence of farmsteads in the Coastal Plain character areas of the south-east and near the western coast also follows the 18th century pattern.

Clearly, these farmsteads represent only a proportion of surviving farmsteads that have 19th century farmhouses or farm buildings. Whilst it would be expected that there will be greater numbers of surviving later buildings compared to earlier buildings, this is not usually reflected in the selection of protected buildings.

### 4.6 Landscape Character Types and Areas

Land Use Consultant's Countryside Character Appraisal, conducted for the Jersey Plan Review in 1999, proposed a series of character types and areas. These have been used as a framework for analysis of the built environment, and its relationship to landscape and other historical features. They are further described and illustrated in the Jersey Character Statement.

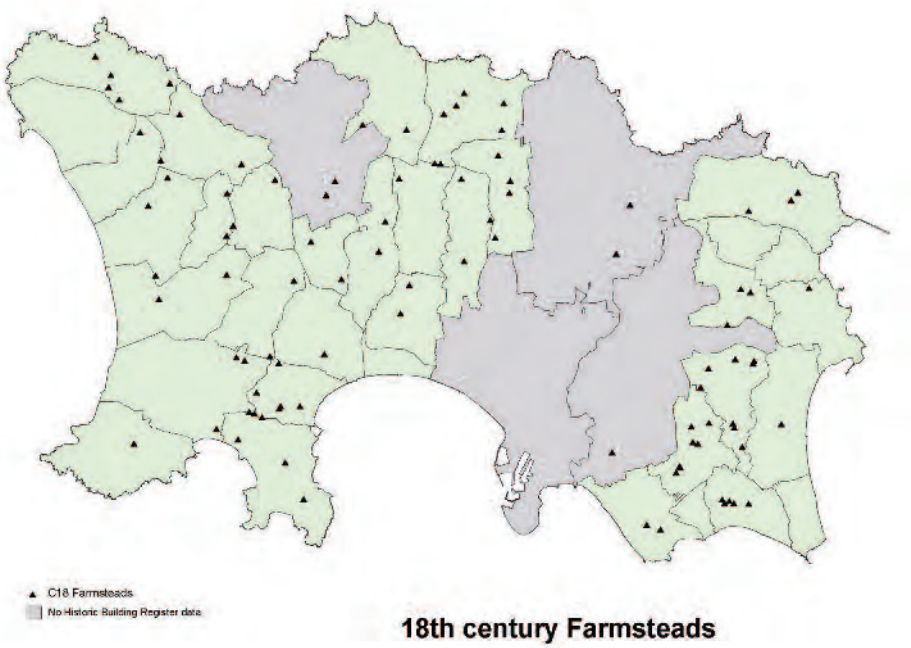
Research questions relating to definable areas have been outlined, as also has initial guidance on Sensitivity and Value. The latter works at a landscape rather than a building scale.

*Cliffs and Headlands*

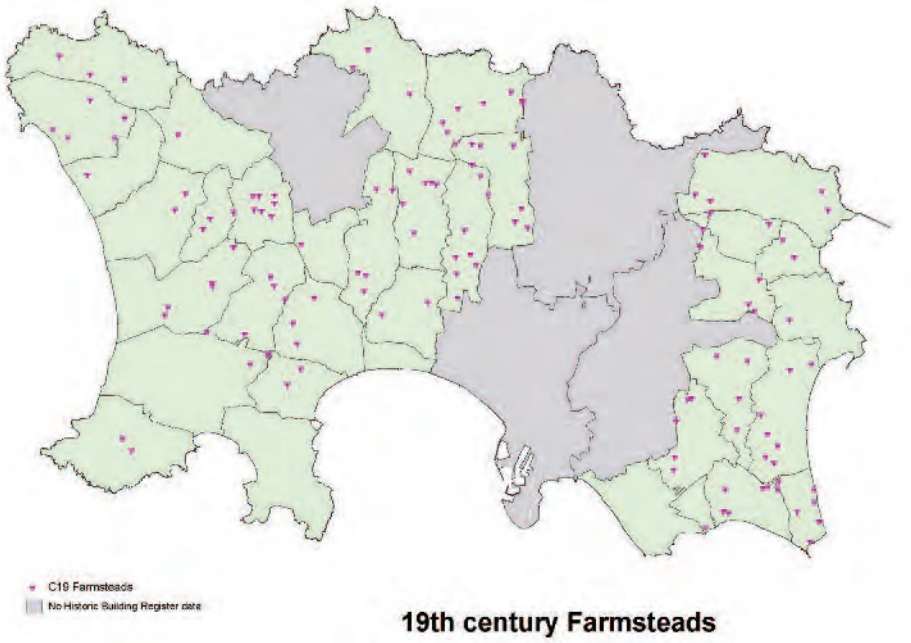
These comprised areas of rough grazing for sheep (the so-called *landes*) and sources of gorse for fodder and fuel and bracken for bedding. Routes and tracks connected these valuable farming areas to inland settlements. Areas of ridge and furrow and boundary walls (as noted during walking through the parish of St John, for example, and by the LUC report eg. p. 52, for the medieval strip fields at Le Câtel) are indicative of the historical limit – as elsewhere in 13th century Europe - of cultivation on the island.

*Coastal Plain*

The coastal plain areas of Jersey comprised areas of grazing for stock and sources for hay, which until the systematic construction of sea walls and defences from the




Figures 17 and 18. Farmstead sites with 18th century (17, above) and 19th century (18, below) buildings registered on the Jersey Historic Environment Record.



late 18th century were subject to inundation from the sea. They have since been subject to intensive development, in particular the Grouville Coastal Plain (where Gorey expanded around its oyster industry in the 19th century), the St Clement-St Saviour Coastal Plain, and the South Coast Urban area. The St Ouen's Bay area to the west is comparatively undeveloped.

19th and 20th century domestic architecture has obviously affected the southern and eastern area. Of considerable interest with respect to the island's traditional architecture is the survival of single-storey houses (both individual and terraces), indicative of the coastal rather than farming economy being the predominant source of income. Single-storey houses are otherwise found as labourer's cottages, often close to quarries (Mont Mado being the major example, see 4.5 and Annexe 2). These - and evidence for their raising into two-storey houses and terraces – are found throughout the coastal plain areas - for example in and around Gorey, in isolated examples to the south, and around Le Val de la Mare in the St Ouen's Bay area. The latter area also has a line of two-storey farmsteads relating to surrounding drainage and improvement extending off and to the south of Rue de la Mare, and there are extensive areas of regular enclosure such as around La Rue de la Mare in St Ouen's Bay.

*Interior Agricultural Land*

This occupies the central plateau, and is broken into separate areas by the enclosed valleys (which drain to the south) and escarpments. What follows is a compression of the LUC report (199, 159-198) plus the results of mapping and fieldwork within these areas: it must be stressed that this can be refined subject to consultation and revisiting.

## 4.7 Building Materials

Long-rooted traditions such as earth walling and thatch, and timber frame, survived much longer on farm buildings than farmhouses in Britain and France, and were not overtaken by increasingly fashionable and robust forms of construction in brick and stone until the early to mid-19th century. The coastal shipping trade had for many centuries allowed the transport of building materials, but the arrival firstly of canals and then railways allowed the easier transportation of building materials into inland areas throughout Britain and France.

### 4.7.1 Earth and timber

It is interesting to note that – whereas the island's soils afforded good materials for construction in earth there was no evidence of its use by the 19th century (Quayle

1815, 49-51). There are areas of south-west England, as well as Normandy and Brittany, that are marked by earth-building traditions. The use of clay was, however, documented on the island – it was used to coat thatch (Meirion Jones in Finlaison 1976, 486) – and turf was used for building in the prehistoric period(for example the Iron Age earthwork at the Câtel de Rosel. John Clarke (2006) also refers to some surviving buildings of 'lath and wattle). 11 John McCormack (notes to author, 2008) has found fragmentary evidence for timber frame – including for outshuts

Table 6

| **north-west Headland (St Ouen) (E1)** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Loess to centre, otherwise thinner soils over granite.<br><br>Historically few orchards.<br><br>Intensively-manured arable, in combination with sheep into the C19. | Earthbanks and low granite walls. Variety of enclosure types, including very early 'Celtic-type' field systems at Les Landes and post-1795 enclosures N of L'Etacq. Strip fields including St Ouen (La Campagne) and within oval enclosure N of Trodez. | Sparse settlement, hamlet clusters (for example La Ville au Bas and hamlet at La Ville la Bas set within ovoid enclosure surrounded by cropping units.<br><br>Single-storey C18 and C19 houses. | Impression of successive rebuilding, much from late C18, with earlier fabric demanding investigation.<br><br>Cluster of four farmsteads with C17 buildings to east. |

| **south-west Headland (St Brelade) (E2)** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Thin soils over granite. Thorn hedges and stone walls.<br><br>Historically few orchards.<br><br>Intensively-manured arable, in combination with sheep into the C19. | Richmond map shows that this area had the least enclosure – representing arable and meadow among extensive heathland grazed by sheep. Much C19 regular to semi-regular enclosure, particularly in La Moye. | Sparse settlement.<br><br>Single-storey houses. | Farmsteads mostly relate to later enclosure, and are set within extensive areas of C20 development.<br><br>One C17 farmstead building in La Moye, 3 in Noirmont where pre-1795 enclosure stronger. |

| north-east (St Martin) (E3) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Loess over Rozel Conglomerate.<br><br>Historically few orchards. | Stone walls and species-rich hedges. Evidence for co-axial boundaries (continuing to East Coast area) with clearance boulders relating to E-W routes, possibly Iron Age or earlier; possible early fields near Le Catel fort.<br><br>Regular enclosure to east; piecemeal enclosure elsewhere.<br><br>Parkland and large enclosures relating to Rozel Manor. | Historical settlement concentrated in valley heads. | Very low density of pre-1700 farmstead buildings, born out by listing records and fieldwork. ?subject to extensive post-1750 rebuilding for arable and potatoes? |

| North Coast (E4) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Thin soils over granite to coastal strip, thicker loess inland.<br>Historically few orchards. | Stone walls, earth banks and species-rich hedgerows.<br><br>Piecemeal enclosure predominant. Possible prehistoric enclosures, and co-axial systems continuing from north-east (above). Medieval strip fields best-preserved on headlands eg at Égypte. Some regular enclosure of former landes – eg NW of La Ville a l'Eveque. | Scattered settlement, historically more dense in sheltered area E of Sorel Point.<br><br>C19 and earlier single-storey cottages, especially prominent around Mount Mado quarry. | High survival of pre-1700 fabric where historical settlement is concentrated, making it part of a zone extending into the Central Area (below). |

| Central Plateau Ridges and Valley Heads (E5-6) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Loess, over granite and rhyolites to northern valley heads (adjacent to the main coastal road) and Jersey Shale elsewhere.<br><br>Historical concentration of cider orchards. | Stone walls, earth banks and multi-species hedgerows. Piecemeal enclosure predominant, also to a smaller scale than elsewhere. | Dense pattern of dispersed settlement, with C19 nucleations around General Don's road (eg Le Carrefour Selous). Few cottages.<br><br>Main concentrations of historical farms. | Highest concentration of pre-1700 fabric in association with enclosed landscape and dispersed settlement. Strong coherence of buildings and their landscapes. |

| Eastern Plateau (E7) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Loess over Jersey Volcanic Group Rocks.<br><br>Historical concentration of cider orchards. | Earth banks and hedges, the latter including high survival of hazel compared to rest of island.<br><br>Piecemeal enclosure predominant. | Dense pattern of dispersed settlement, although not as dense as in Central area (above). C20 settlement clusters and ribbon development.<br><br>Single-storey cottages increase in number towards the coast. | Lower concentration of pre-1700 fabric, because of the less dense levels of settlement and probably the extent of post-1815 removal of orchards and boundaries, and the development of more intensive forms of agriculture. |

| Western Plateau (E8) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Soil and Geology | Enclosure type | Settlement/ Building type | Time depth |
| Loess, thinning towards the west, over Jersey Shale.<br><br>Historically few orchards. | Earth banks.<br><br>Some strip fields, piecemeal enclosure predominant except in patches of 19th century regular enclosure (relating to former landes?) to N. | Settlement historically concentrated in 'sheltered hollows and dips at the heads of the intersecting valleys' (LUC 199, 196) – village of St Ouen. Extensive C20 development, including airport and Les Quennevais. | Little coherent relationship, except in isolated patches, between buildings and landscape. |

or lean-tos to stone houses – and earth building on the island. The possibility of these materials being used into the medieval period and even beyond must not be discounted, as also must the use of timber frame. Timber frame has often been found to comprise an earlier hidden component of 'stone landscapes' in Britain and France – the Cotswolds and the Yorkshire Dales, for example – prior to its absorption and sometimes total removal in the great rebuildings of the late 16th century onwards, the principal survivals now being in market towns where it was employed for both low status and finely-crafted high-status houses. Timber frame is shown in 19th century drawings of St Helier, and ex-situ structural framing in the early 18th century rebuilding of a house surveyed by Warwick Rodwell (Rodwell 1999, 475 note 28 and 469).

### 4.7.2 Stone

'The building material is exclusively stone; in some cases the walls are rough-cast, neatly trowelled, and pointed in imitation of squared work' (Quayle 1815, 49).

Granite is the predominant building material in Jersey, for both high and low-status buildings, the principal exception being the use of Rozel conglomerate in the north-east of the island. Cut and dressed stonework was used for the most high-status and formal farm complexes, and, where rougher masonry was used, for the details and surrounds of quoining, the copings and kneelers to gable ends, doors and windows. As Renouf (2002) has noted, the type of stone used reflects the depth

from which it has been quarried and the technology employed – stone of a mixed or varied texture with 'elongated and irregular' quoins indicative of pre-1700 work, more regularly coursed and squared stone in the 18th century and more uniform and finely-worked stone in the 19th century.

The principal quarries for stone were:
- Noirmont and La Moye, the latter having supplied the Thames Embankment;
- Grosnez Point to St John's Bay, including the distinctive pale pink Mont Mado granite – the latter noted by Quayle (1815) as the standard stone employed in dressed work for arches, doors and windows;
- La Perruque;
- Gigoulande, which is more coarse-grained;
- La Rosiere.

Granite from the Isles de Chausey to the south was also used for dressings and high-status work. The common form of bonding was earth mortar in the early 19th century (Quayle 1815, 49) giving way to lime and then cement from the late 19th century.

### 4.7.3 Thatch

Thatch was formerly widespread (Poingdestre 1694, 28), and in domestic architecture is marked by stone-coped gables and stone chimneys with drip stones. It has frequently been preserved under corrugated iron. 'Examples have been found of dried cabbage sticks *choux* being used as battens' (Clarke 2006, 3). There are no documented examples of rope thatch, a tradition found elsewhere in the Atlantic seaboard areas of Scotland, Wales and Ireland, used also in Cornwall and the Isles of Scilly.[12]

It is clear that the use of thatch declined from the mid 19th century, partly as a consequence of the introduction of machine threshing, as indeed was the case in south-west England and north-west France (Batt and Meirion-Jones 1985).

### 4.7.4 Slate

The coastal trade exposed Jersey to the use of both Normandy and Welsh slate, the latter in the 19th century. Buildings adapted for or designed to have slate roofs are often noticeably different to those that were built for other roofing materials, as it can be laid to a much shallower roof pitch than either thatch or tiles.

[12] Fiona Smith (correspondence Jan 2007) refers to similar thatch at Ville au Veslet and Seaview, which will merit inspection.

### 4.7.5 Tiles

Pantiles were introduced to St Peter Port, Guernsey, after a law of 1683 passed after a fire (Jee 1982, 105). Quayle (1815, 49) refers to the recent introduction of pantiles from Bridgewater, which replaced the pre-war supply from Holland. These are still a strong contributor to countryside character across Somerset, Dorset and east Devon, as well as the Isles of Scilly, and were exported to large areas of north-west France in the 19th century (Batt and Meirion-Jones 1985).[13]

### 4.7.6 Brick

Brick was manufactured around St Helier (Quayle 1815, 203), and was used to build stucco terraces and villas, but its use in the wider countryside is rare. The Board of Ordnance used brick for barracks and fortifications from the early 18th century, and – as was its customary practice – would have developed its own brick yards for this purpose.

### 4.7.7 Structural carpentry

Structural carpentry as used across the island bears a stronger resemblance to French rather than British practice (see for example, Cruck in Glossary).

Figure 19. Materials and Detail. A characteristic late medieval Jersey French ogee-headed arch (top left) and a late 19th century example of a sash window with plate-glass panes used on a working building (top middle). View into an through-way at La Falaise, St John, showing what is now a rare surviving example of timber internal partitioning to working buildings (top right). The distinction between domestic and working buildings is clear in this linear range (bottom), with the house using ashlar stonework in contrast to the coursed rubble on the working buildings, and the rare survival of plank doors and shuttered openings to adjust the ventilation of the cattle housing and loft.

[13] The tiles used in France were from Colthurst, Symons and Co Ltd, whereas those in Jersey are marked Baker and Sealy.

# 5 AGRICULTURAL HISTORY

## 5.1 Farming in Jersey

### 5.1.1 Introduction

The major aspect of Jersey agriculture has been its transformation from an arable-based economy (wheat being the historically dominant type of corn grown), with fertility boosted by sheep, to a mixed farming economy based on the production of cider, dairy produce and the export of cattle. Watermeadows also played an important role in sustaining productivity, and the continuing importance of hay for livestock was boosted by early bites of spring grass offered by Jersey's mild climate. In the context of high-status houses and farms, such as the National Trust site at The Elms, these provided ornamental landscapes of beauty and utility. Catch meadow systems, where water courses were adapted to follow the contours of the land, were also developed. Cereals, which were still important in the 1850s, declined in the face of high export prices that guaranteed better profits to be made in livestock rearing and which justified in turn the import of cattle and corn to feed a growing and increasingly urban population on the island (Kelleher 1994, 75-7). The early potato industry and market gardening, primarily based on the production of tomatoes, assumed greater prominence from the 1880s and are still – together with dairying – a key aspect of the island's agricultural economy. The spur behind Jersey farming was the demands of increasingly urbanised and rapidly expanding population – both the growing population of Jersey and its garrison (Kelleher 1994, 42)[14], and in the United Kingdom.

Major aspects of Jersey farming are set out below, followed by a brief discussion of its wider context.

### 5.1.2 Landownership and the Farming Community

Feudalism had an impact on the settlement structure of the islands, and the subdivision of land, from the 11th century. The fief was the basic unit of land production, there being no clear relationship between their boundaries and those of the parishes which in their present form result from an extensive programme of reorganisation under the Duchy of Normandy in the late 12th century (Kelleher 1994, 20). By the fifteenth century, these units of civil administration were subdivided into fiscal units (vingtaines)[15] and the principal landowners (principaux) formed Parish Assemblies and elected the island's Jurats. The granting of St Ouen to the Carteret family is a well-known example of a larger fief, but many of the fiefs held in exchange for services and armed men were small due to the process of subinfeudation, subdivision and the creation of new fiefs by the 13th century (Syvret and Stevens 1981, 105; Stevens 1977, end paper). It is also clear that many Norman families, such as the de Carterets, moved to the island *after* 1204

[14] In 1851 (Kelleher 1994, 43) of the 57,155 population, these percentages relating to the following groups – farmers (10.3); artisans (31.6); professional managerial (5.6); industrial wealth (18.2); labourers (34.3).
[15] In existence since at least the 14th century, and continuing to be used into the 19th century as the unit from which the male population was drawn for militia service, for collecting poor rates and policing. Analysis of their boundaries against historic patterns of land use and settlement may reveal interesting lines of enquiry.

(Bisson 2005, 43). Field name evidence indicates that freedom from seignorial dues was mainly concentrated in the east of the island (Stevens, Arthur and Stevens 1986 1, 54).

Despite some disputes focused around the dues attached to seigneuralism that continued into the 19th century, a major and highly distinctive characteristic of Jersey, one that it shares with other landscapes of dispersed settlement in England and France, were the favourable conditions of tenure and the development of a strongly-independent class of farmers: 'perfect owners of their own lands' in the words of Poingdestre (1694, 28), who benefited from low expenses – or a 'tolerable feudalism', as Kelleher (1994, 17-18) described it. This provided fertile ground for a strong sense of individualism, and indeed the development of Methodism and other non-Anglican denominations from the 1780s, which was expressed in the strongly-enclosed character of its landscape. It is important, however, that this stress on individualism should not overshadow the ties that linked farmers on the island to their broader communities – examples being the communal plough (*la grande charrue*) and of communal events focused around knitting and harvesting (Le Feuvre 1998, 20-21). Another source of communal activity – at least from the late 18th century - was cattle breeding, which required the inspection and registration of animals into the herd book (Clarke 2006, 3). Inglis, writing in 1835, noted that all farms except the larger ones would pool together to invest in capital stock and labour (Inglis 1835, 125). This form of communal activity most probably has long historical roots, into the patterns of strip farming and kin-based hamlets referred to above, a similar pattern being noted by Peter Herring in Cornwall (Herring 2006, 50). Its 19th and 20th century manifestations – in the parish schools, the militia halls and even Methodist chapels with their bible classes and other communal activities – can be seen as a continuation of this long tradition.

### 5.1.3 Cider

'There are few dwellings in the country, without an orchard attached' (Quayle 1815, 126). It is commonly accepted that the cider industry developed from the 17th century into a major export industry, and that by the end of that century cider orchards and the process of enclosure with banked boundaries had affected the central and eastern parts of the island in particular (eg Poingdestre, Falle). Both English and French influences are at work – in the Normandy and Somersetshire varieties of apples grown, in the pasturing of cattle in the orchards and in the production of the drink itself (see below, 6.1).

The crop was commonly planted in rows, enabling the spaces in between to be

ploughed (Blench 1962, 51). The planting of orchards in Jersey famously resulted in a decline in arable, and the import of corn to feed the island's population, which the States attempted to arrest by forbidding the planting of new orchards in an Act of 1673. The growth of the industry in the 18th century was assisted by the banning of imports of cider and apples from Normandy (which in the medieval period had supplied the island with cider) and the removal of import duty into the United Kingdom (Le Feuvre 1998, 93-109; Inglis 1835, 119 and 139; Crowden 2007). By the 1730s 24,000 hogsheads of cider were being exported (Kelleher 1994, 37). The cider industry sharply declined from the 1850s, after a peak of production during the Napoleonic Wars (between 1809-13 one million gallons were exported per annum). This decline was matched by the rise of the potato industry (Kelleher 1994, 75; Le Feuvre 1998, 104-5). There has been a recent resurgence of interest, led by the Jersey Cider Apple Trust, centred on research into old varieties and the conservation of its broad genetic stock.

### 5.1.4 Cattle

Sheep were more important than cattle from the late medieval period to the 18th century, as their wool was required for the knitting industry. Cattle, however, were increasing in importance in tandem with the cider industry, and throughout the 18th century wool was being imported into the island for making into stockings and jerseys (Stevens 1977, 24). During the 18th century Jersey cattle became more highly prized for their butter than their beef, and the Jersey breed as a high-status – indeed highly attractive! - 'lawn cow' which produced exceptionally fine-quality butter and milk. The island benefited from a growing export trade (primarily to the United Kingdom and the United States) and the banning of imported cattle from 1789: Kelleher 1994, 79-83; Jee 1982, 78). Attention was lavished 'on this idolised cow, (and) his (the farmer's) affections are riveted as firmly as those of an eastern Bramin on the same animal' (Quayle 1815, 171). The purity of the herd was maintained and monitored, under the watchful eye of the Royal Jersey Agricultural and Horticultural Society from its foundation in 1833, through cattle shows and after 1866 by registration on the Herd Book. By the late 19th century, Jersey cattle were exported throughout the world (Castledine 2007).

The usual system of grazing was through controlling the movement of cattle across the lush grass of the island by tethering, the more highly-prized cattle being accommodated in cow houses overnight in the winter months. Since 1945, and especially since 1970, larger farms – particularly those in the east of the island - have accommodated more of the island's 78% increase of the dairy herd (LUC 1999, 155). A centralised dairy was established in tandem with the founding of the Jersey

Milk Marketing Board in 1954, which replaced around 30 private diaries that existed earlier in the century. Although the number of milking cows had increased by over 200 to 4, 382 head in 1997, the numbers of herds in the same period (1977-1997) had fallen from 283 to 71 (Carter 1998). Computerised milking parlours have – as elsewhere in high-wage areas of Europe – enabled farms to keep their costs down. Silage has been cut and fed to cattle loose-housed or stalled in sheds.

### 5.1.5 Root crops

The cultivation of the parsnip, for domestic use and as an animal fodder, dates from the 13th century on the Channel Islands and in neighbouring parts of France (Jee 1982, 75; Quayle 1815, 97). The soil needed to be dug deep (11-12 inches, 28-30.5 cm, either by hand or plough, the principal vehicle for the latter from the mid 18th century being *la grande charrue*, an expensive implement which required communal investment and management often by combined horse and ox teams. The Giant Jersey Cabbage – noted by Quayle in 1815 (95-6) – was also grown as cattle fodder into the 20th century.

Poingdestre also noted the cultivation of the turnip, which by the late 17th century had become integrated into the rotations of crops on the light soils of eastern England, poised for its advance elsewhere in the country. The agricultural journalist (and spy) Arthur Young noted the cultivation of similar plants in the Caen and Bayeaux areas of Normandy (Quayle 1815, 93), but it is significant to note that the adoption of rotations using root crops, and its sustaining of higher numbers of cattle than in northern France, was singled out for comment by French visitors in 1856 (Le Cornu 1859, 54-5).

Potatoes had been grown as a garden crop on Jersey since the early 17th century, and began to be exported in increasing numbers from Jersey after 1815. Realisation after the potato blight of 1845 of the potential that the island's climate offered to an early crop, opened the door to a new era in the island's agricultural history. There was a twelve-fold increase in the export of potatoes between 1810 and 1845 (Kelleher 1994, 85), followed a short decline, but it was the development of the early-cropping 'Royal Jersey Fluke' variety that spurred a massive increase in production from the 1880s (Le Feuvre 1998, 133-135). By the 1930s, one third of Jersey's land was dedicated to production of this crop, and it is still the dominant crop (Jee 1982, 83). The crop needed copious amounts of farmyard manure (20 tons to the acre (0.04 hectare) – see Jee 1982, 82), not *vraic*, and it is highly probable – as will be argued later – that potato production was a major spur behind the development of farmyards and the transformation of the island's farm buildings in this period.

### 5.1.6 Market Gardening

The flower and bulb trade commenced in the Channel Islands in the 1860s, slightly before that of the Scillies (Jee 1982, 85): it has again become strongly concentrated in the east of the island. The island's south-facing slopes have afforded an ideal environment for propagation and growth, the result being far fewer of the glasshouses that spread across the Guernsey landscape from as early as the 1790s (Jee 1982, 75). In this respect the island's climate and transport links provided the fundamental basis of this industry, a characteristic which it shared with Guernsey and parts of Devon and Cornwall. The tourist industry was also beginning to stimulate local markets and specialised produce from the late 19th century, and especially the 1930s. Generally, these developments twinned with the historical predominance of pastoral farming and its further development meant that Jersey's farmers were less badly hit by the depression in British farming that continued into the early 20th century.

Jersey's climate also provided the basis of a strong export trade after the Second World War in broccoli (as Brittany), cauliflower and tomatoes (the latter now concentrated in Grouville and St Clement in the south-east).

## 5.2 Jersey In Context

### 5.2.1 Historical Developments

The key aspect to examine is that of Jersey's transformation from a sheep-corn economy into a cash economy dependant on the production of cider.

Throughout Europe, albeit to varying degrees, the period from the 15th to the 17th centuries witnessed a general increase in agricultural incomes and productivity and the emergence of increasingly market-based and specialised regional economies. Climatic changes in the second decade of the 14th century, with increased rainfall and lower temperatures, led to famine. These troubles, compounded by pestilence (the Black Death of 1349 and subsequent epidemics), resulted in a sharp fall in population and the contraction or desertion of settlements on marginal soils. Direct cultivation by landlords continued on some home farms, but in most areas farms on estates became leased out (in whole or in part) to tenants, a process often accompanied by the breakdown of traditional customary tenancies. Other developments which accelerated from the 14th century included the amalgamation of farms into larger holdings, the enclosure of former communally farmed strips, and a steady growth in productivity sustained by greater emphasis on pastoral farming. Improvements in transport, including the coastal and river trade, provided access to new markets. Enclosure of common land and communal fields with

intermixed holdings, and the creation of new ring-fenced holdings, was often a major factor in increasing output, through facilitating new rotations of crops and the improvement of grassland and stock management. New rotations and crops, particularly clover, grasses and turnips, had become established by the end of the 17th century, especially on the light soils of East Anglia and adopted with varying success in parts of England and France. There was a sharp increase in cattle numbers across England and France in the 18th century, and in England in particular from the second half of the 19th century, accompanied by the increased use of imported fodder, cattle housing and more secure leases that encouraged tenants to invest in new farming methods. This period was one of major change, characterised by an increase in livestock specialisation and where capital expenditure was often directed towards providing improved housing for stock.

The national market in both France and Britain – but due to the much smaller distances involved England in particular - became more integrated from the later 17th century, in tandem with the emergence of specialised regional economies. From the later 18th century, national governments displayed an increasing interest in agricultural improvement, in France through the *Société centrale d'agriculture* founded in 1799 and in Britain through the Board of Agriculture set up in 1793 (and which immediately set about the commissioning of its famous county studies – including Quayle 1815 - in order to gather information on best practice). Textbook and journal literature, aimed originally at landlords, was another factor – for example Despommiers's *L'Art de s'enricher promptement par agriculture* (How to get rich quick in farming!). It was later targeted at agents and estate managers, such as *The Book of Farm Buildings* by Stephens & Scott Burn (1861), and the examples of best practice included in J Bailey Denton's *Farm Homesteads of England* (1863). Agricultural societies, from farmers' clubs to the Royal Agricultural Society of England (RASE) founded in 1837, played an important role through their shows and publications. This model was emulated in Jersey, with the Royal Jersey Agricultural Society (founded 1833) and local parish-based societies.

Over this whole period, clear distinctions arose between areas able to specialise in the rearing of cattle, dairying, and long-standing arable areas. This, and the development and strengthening of local building traditions, are also reflected in the layout and design of both farmhouses and more substantial farm buildings, which shall be explored later in the text. In some areas, this led to the development of large-scale capital farming. This was underpinned by the leasing of property to capitalist tenant farmers, the employment of wage-earning labourers and the growth of very large farms at the expense of smaller ones. For example:

- The chalklands of southern England, where large landowners such as the Bishop of Winchester was leasing off land, and large tenant farms (often occupying the positions of shrunken settlements) were based on the production of corn and intensified the development of sheep-corn agriculture based on the development of watermeadows.
- The transformation in the 13th-14th century of the landscape in the Po Valley, funded by city-based merchant banks and families, based on extensive drainage and the production of corn and cattle.
- The establishment in Tuscany in the 14th century of share-cropping farms (*latifundia*) for the production of wine and oil.
- Areas subject to large-scale improvement and enclosure by estates, such as the Yorkshire Wolds and the Northumberland coastal plain. In England, the expense of fencing, hedging and ditching (as much as 50% of the cost), and occasionally the construction of new steadings and buildings (which could be 17%), associated with enclosure increased the incentive of small owners and occupiers with little capital to sell to larger landowners (Wade Martins 1995, p.83). An additional incentive to enclosure was the doubling of rents that could result, and estates provided investment in infrastructure (especially buildings and drainage) and the encouragement through leases of improved husbandry techniques by their tenants.

In Jersey, farms were much smaller – indeed, minute by English standards in particular - and family-based, as we shall see. More relevant, therefore, are comparisons with other dairying regions. Such farms could be large-scale, as with the spectacular 16th-18th century manor farms of the Bessin area in Normandy which was developed in parallel with the enclosure of its landscape (Brunet 2006). The growth of the dairy industry in Cheshire similarly resulted in the removal of boundaries and the enlargement of farms in the late 17th and 18th centuries (Foster 1995). As a general rule, however, dairying encouraged the working of farms as family units. Cider production demanded investment in orchards, in a mill and press, in the building to enclose the production process and store the fruit and barrels of drink, but it did not provide the impetus behind the development of large-scale capital as corn and viniculture did. The closest parallel is with the smaller dairy farms which developed from the 16th century in Holland, which had access to good transport links and expanding urban markets and which were heavily capitalised. They employed little outside labour and developed mechanised solutions to cheese production which used horse-powered gearing very similar to cider mills and later threshing machines (Cruyningen et al 2003, 408-10).

Another factor in the development of small-scale agriculture is horticulture. Well known, of course, is the link between potato farming and the maintenance and even growth of small-scale agriculture. Potatoes had been widely grown across Europe by the 18th century, either as a garden crop or as the staple diet of households in some areas (such as Lorraine in France, Lancashire in England and Ireland).

### 5.2.2 Farm Size and Labour

The very smallest farms in England - of under 50 acres (20.23 hectares), which comprised 71% of holdings as late as 1880 (Howkins 1994, 53) - thrived in fruit-growing and market-gardening areas (often clustered around urban sites), and in locations such as west Cornwall and the Pennines where there was gainful by-employment in industry – for example the weaver-farmers of the West Riding linear-plan farms, noted by Caird (1852), who kept dairy cattle on holdings of around 20 acres (8.09 hectares), supplying nearby towns with milk (Mingay 1989, 940). This was equally true of France, the lighter coastal soils of the Cotentin for example providing the framework for small-scale horticulture and the survival of strip farming to the present day. In France, the process of *remembrant* has involved the state-organised reorganisation of previously dispersed holdings, in contrast to England where larger ring-fenced holdings have long since emerged as a dominant factor. This process was especially marked in Brittany, whereas on the Cotentin peninsula smaller farms remained. By 1851 as much as one-third of English farmland was taken up by large farms of over 300 acres or 121.2 hectares (Mingay, 1989, 949-50).

Jersey farms, with the notable exception of the larger seigneurial farms, did not even approach these figures. The standard unit of measurement in Jersey is the vergée, of which there are 'approximately 2 and a quarter...to the English acre' (Jee 1982, 59). Throughout the 19th century, the size of holdings averaged less than 45 vergées, and in fact the practice increased – in tandem with the potato industry - of landowners letting out very small-scale holdings of less than 11 vergées (Kelleher 1994, 220-1). Holding size is directly linked to the scale of the farmstead, and whether it can be detected from the map (see 7.2). In 1930, there were still 1, 808 holdings on the island, 582 of which were between one and ten vergées, 447 of 10-25, 580 of 25-60 and 199 of over 50 vergées. The smallest holdings were concentrated in areas of the coastal plain, and the largest had since the mid 19th century been concentrated in the east of the island, where rents were highest (Le Cornu 1859, 34).

The absence of capital wage-based farming was thus evident in the small size of

farms and the relative absence of labourers and of cottages (whether isolated or in villages) sited in proximity to steadings – a feature remarked upon by many visitors to the island (eg Quayle 1815, 53). This small-scale and autonomous agriculture, not only well-placed because of its location in relation to export markets but free from excise as well, was a major factor in sustaining agriculture's contribution to the island economy after the collapse of the cod trade, the financial crises of 1873 and 1886 and indeed the depression which afflicted much of French and particularly British agriculture (except the growing market-produce and meat/dairying sectors) in the period 1880-1940.

The small farm size and agriculture practised resulted in:

**1** Little demand for mechanisation apart from the cider mill, this making little impact until after 1950 (Le Feuvre 1998, 50).

**2** Low demand for year-round labour, the most obvious result being few cottages or evidence for on-farm accommodation, as seen in areas of Britain and France with larger and especially arable-based farms. The main demand placed on the island, especially in the later 19th century, was for seasonal labour for the planting and harvesting of potatoes, and consequently the import of foreign (particularly Breton) labour in the later 19th century: many of the 'cheap and communal living' Breton labourers lived with farming families (Kelleher 1994, 47 and 205), in outbuildings or occasionally in the fields. The decline in Norman and Breton workers, after 1945, was offset by the increase in labour from Madeira and Portugal, and more recently from Poland. The main evidence for on-farm accommodation, as we shall see below, was in the lofts of combination barns and stabling.

In the 18th and 19th century England, the 'contemporary rule of thumb was that a man was needed for every 25 or 30 acres of arable and every 50 or 60 of pasture' (Mingay 1989, 953). Dairying and stock-rearing farms require constant attention to care for the stock, but the labour required could usually be found within the family unit. In mid 19th century Jersey, a typical farm of 20 acres (8.09 hectares) – half of which was put down to hay and pasture – required 'the constant attention of 4 persons – 2 men and 2 women' (Le Cornu 1859, 37). In 1951, Dalido noted (based on research conducted 20 years earlier) that whereas a 30 vergée farm required a farmer, his wife and one other hand (either a family member or hired labourer), the figure for a 50 vergée holding was 5 and an 80 vergée holding eight (Dalido 1951, 103). It was certainly a case of all hands to the pump, Quayle for example noting the role of women in threshing out the grain crop. In western Europe, the role of

women in the farmyard was commonly restricted to milking cows, feeding pigs and calves, making butter and cheese, tending poultry, and occasionally tending with the hay and corn harvests, and hence led to the integration of processes such as brewing and dairying into the house. By the 20th century, as Dalido noted in the 1930s, this system was breaking down (1951, 103) as young girls migrated to towns for other work.

### 5.2.3 Inheritance Practices

A fact of fundamental importance in promoting the continued small size of farms was inheritance. With the exception of larger fiefs (which descended by primogeniture), Jersey was characterised by partible inheritance where the issue could get equal shares in an estate. This tendency against amalgamation and in favour of the dispersal of holdings, and the retention of them within families, was further compounded by the distinctly Norman-French law of le retrait lignager whereby relatives could make a claim on their share of the property prior to any sale (Quayle 1815, 38-41). In practice over time, however, this and the fear of excessive fragmentation resulted in limited primogeniture, where the eldest was likely to receive the bulk of the estate (Kelleher 1994, 34). A common practice in the case of land with a dwelling house, as codified in 1771 and as Quayle noted in 1815 (36) was for the eldest son (or daughter) to inherit the house and sufficient land for a kitchen garden and up to 40 vergées or, if the holding extended to more than that, a share. It would be interesting to know when this had become common practice on the island, as it had the advantage of keeping the core intact and countered the splitting of farms ad infinitum. It was also common practice, even if the farm was apportioned to many children, for them to sell their share to the principal holder and move into other sectors of the economy.

Widows acquired an interest for life in one third of the property, the practice of so-called 'Jersey dower' being formalised by legal Act passed by the Royal Court in 1563 (Quayle 1815, 37; Aubin 1997, 28-9). Running a farm while maintaining dual households clearly led to the need to accommodate members of the extended family either within or outside the home (Stevens 1977, 45).

**1** As in other landscapes with kin-related related hamlets that have progressively shrunk down to individual farmsteads (eg Exmoor - Riley and Wilson North 2001, 121; West Cornwall and the Isles of Scilly – personal observation; Normandy/ Brittany – personal observation) there is evidence in some working farmstead buildings for their origin as houses. Stevens (2005, 79) states that earlier houses in farmyards could have their chimneys and other domestic features removed in order to avoid their identification as a house and thus the further splitting of the holding.

**2** The building of conjoined houses, in distinct phases, in the same steading. These took the form of parallel, extended linear, L-plan or Z-plan arrangements. This has been noted in parts of Britain (Suggett 2007, 24 and 27) and in the *hameaux rangeés* of Normandy and Brittany where the dwellings of small farms in some settlements are built in continuous rows.

**3** No external evidence of the practice whatsoever, where – as was commonly the case – an elderly relative simply shared the accommodation of the main house or lived in an outbuilding (usually a former house).

**4** The building of 'dower houses' for widows or members of the family, as lower and shorter additions to the main farmhouse.

**5** The use of bakehouses or bakehouses for accommodating single women, which may account for the domestic appearance of many that have noted both in Jersey and in parts of Britain (Suggett 2007, 21) north-west France.

**6** The conversion of parts of the main house into a dower house – as McCormack notes for chamber blocks (1997, 1).

### 5.2.4 Tenure and Estate Policy

Conditions of tenure on Jersey were generally favourable – short leases with fixed rents, very small fines payable on exchange of tenants and limited services (Quayle 1815, 35). Improvements by landlords were aimed at attracting good tenants in either times of plenty (when capital expenditure could secure an increase in rent) or depression (when it could forestall a decrease). By the mid-17th century, home farms were being developed as examples of best practice for tenants. Between 1650 and 1750 landlords in England – possibly more than elsewhere in Europe - assumed increasing responsibility – in comprehensive lease agreements – for fixed capital works (particularly barns and houses) and after 1750 the influence of estates can be seen in the planning and design of buildings and entire complexes for home farms and tenant farms (Thirsk 1985, 72 and 235; Thirsk 1967, 680–81; Wade Martins 2001). This was also a feature of some French estates prior to the Revolution (Braudel 1979, 294-7). Jersey tenants shared with their English counterparts the benefits of repairs undertaken by the landlord – even extending as Quayle noted to the supply of straw for thatching but excluding the press house for cider making (Quayle 1815, 61).

Estates often erected new buildings in order to attract tenants with the working capital to invest in their land and thus, through increased productivity, maintain rents at a high level. The policies of larger estates often discriminated against smaller holdings and the maintenance of their buildings. County studies (for example, Wade

Figure 20. Unit living. Two houses joined at right-angles to each other, forming an overall L-plan, St Mary's parish (top), a form noted in other areas such as north Wales. Dower house attached to farmhouse in the western Cotentin, at Treauville (bottom).

Martins 1991) have demonstrated how varied estate policy in similar areas could be, despite the rise of the land agent as a professional class, increasing access to farming literature and the ironing out of many glaring inconsistencies in estate practice by around 1850. The small estate is less well understood (e.g., Collins *et al* 1989).

# 6 FARM BUILDINGS

The Jersey farmhouse is a comfortable granite-built dwelling, sufficiently large for any ordinary family: the outbuildings are also substantial and conveniently constructed, comprising a bake-house, stable, cow-house, pigsties, cart-shed, barn, granary, cider-press-house, store-rooms, liquid manure tank, and various other conveniences, the whole on a scale suitable to the extent of land attached' (Le Cornu 1859, 36).

Sections 6 and 7 will describe the function of Jersey farmsteads in their fuller international context, through describing first the range of building or functional types and then the range of farmstead types that have been mapped across the island. Full descriptions of building types will be provided in the Glossary (Section 10).

### 6.1 The Function of Farmsteads

The basic flow of processes on the farmstead varied according to the type of agriculture practised - the weight given for example to corn production, fattening, dairying and other key products. Common to all farmsteads were:

- providing shelter for farmers, their families and for workers
- protecting the harvested corn and hay crop
- converting corn into grain, in a barn or open-air threshing area
- storing the grain, which would be used for domestic consumption, as seed, mixed with feed for animals, or exported from the farm
- taking straw, the principal by-product of processing, and using it for thatching and for setting down in stables, cattle housing and yards
- taking the manure back to fertilise the fields
- storage for vehicles and implements.

The scale and planning of Jersey farmsteads reflects the size of the holding which they served and their function – crop storage and processing (corn, apples and potatoes),storage and processing of animal fodder (especially hay and roots), making and storing manure, accommodating cattle, horses, pigs and other animals, and the shelter of carts and implements. These functions are reflected in the patterns of access and circulation to, within and around the steading and its buildings. The routes and tracks around steadings were in regular use for the movement of cattle and on a more seasonal basis for the bringing of harvested corn and apples, hay, roots and other feedstuffs for livestock.

The critical factors in farmstead planning are:

- How these key functions are arranged around the steading, accommodated within individual specialist structures or combined with others into multi-functional ranges.
- The relationship of the farm buildings to the working areas within and around the farmstead and the farmhouse. The major working areas were trackways to surrounding fields and local markets, ponds and cart washes, the areas for the movement of vehicles and animals, the accommodation of animals and the platforms where hay and corn would be stacked, the latter prior to threshing in the barn. The size of the areas for stacking corn varied according to local custom and the extent of arable crops kept on the farm.
- The location of the farmhouse. Local tradition and status were the principal reasons for whether the house was accessed through the yard and buildings were attached, or whether the house looked toward or away from the yard. The largest and most high-status farms tended to separate house and gardens from the farmyard. In Jersey some of these gardens may have been farmyards, developing as gardens as separate access to the yard developed at a later date (Stevens 1977, 31-33).

The integration of all stages of food production and processing that have marked the post-1950 farming industry also found 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 and welfare of livestock and on-farm production, particularly of milk – an international style, based on American models, for a global market. They provide a strong contrast with earlier buildings, which more fully reflect the forms and materials employed by domestic and other buildings.

How these functions translate into farmstead planning will be examined in Section 7 of this report. This section will concentrate on the individual functions of Jersey farms within their broad international – and specifically English and French – context, and the extent to which these functions were accommodated in specialist or multi-functional structures.

### 6.2 Jersey in Context

In Jersey, many of these functions were commonly combined into a single multi-functional structure. These have traditionally been termed as sheds (Billot 2006, 219). It is clear that many two-storey combination structures replaced earlier

single-storey farm buildings, and that the principal phase of rebuilding fell into the mid-late 19th century. It will be shown that these are associated chiefly with the rise of the potato industry. It is initially worth considering these functions in turn within their broader international (and specifically French and British, separated where necessary) context.

### Storing and processing the harvested corn crop

The harvested corn crop needed to be stored in dark and well-ventilated storage conditions. It also needed an area for converting it into grain through threshing and winnowing. Open-air threshing and winnowing areas are commonly found in southern Europe, where the corn was harvested in spring and there was not the need for housing the crop in buildings (the British barn, the French *grange*) in northern European areas where the crop was harvested in late summer.

*Britain*

*Threshing barns* were designed solely for storing and processing the corn crop and had storage bays for the crop flanking a floor (often with large and opposing doors) where it could be threshed and winnowed, remained comparatively unaltered between the twelfth and early nineteenth centuries. Such barns could be very small in dairying or stock rearing areas, and very large in arable areas.

*Combination barns* accommodated – at one or both ends or in a split-level structure - additional functions such as the housing of cattle, horses, grain, farm carts and implements. They are found throughout England, especially in areas of pastoral farming.

Threshing machines, most commonly powered by horses, were invented in Scotland in the 1780s and by the 1830s widely used across Britain. They were commonly housed in wheel houses, and in some areas split-level *mixing barns* developed. The introduction of the portable steam engine and threshing machine in the 1850s heralded the end of the traditional barn as a storage and processing building.

*France*

The chief distinction in France is the use of the open-air threshing and winnowing area – the *aire a battre*. In farming hamlets this could be a communal area, and these are found in both Normandy and Brittany. As a consequence, the threshing barn (*grange a battre*) was also a common sight in northern France, although in Brittany larger barns were mostly confined to manoirs. In Normandy a common name for the threshing area in a barn was *la battiére* or *batteressue*, the terms tas, tassant or

tasserie being commonly employed for the storage bays.

The most commonly-encountered large farm building in Brittany and Normandy is the combination building, which housed areas for storing and processing corn and hay on the upper floor and a multitude of functions (livestock, horses, cider houses) below.

From the 1830s, wheelhouses (*manages a battre*) for housing threshing machines were built adjacent to barns in arable areas, as in Britain.

*Jersey*
Although Le Cornu (1859, 38) refers to barns and specifically to wooden threshing floors, and there is a reference in Stevens (1977, 45) to a barn for threshing grain and in Billot (2006, 219) to winnowing between doors, no examples of barns for storing and processing the grain – marked by a threshing floor – have been noted in Jersey, which is for two reasons:

**1** their widespread demolition and replacement by combination buildings (see 6.3) in the 19th century. This is to some extent supported by evidence in linear farmstead ranges in particular for the multi-functional combination ranges (see below) to have replaced earlier structures. This is the case, for example, in Cornwall and some northern upland parts of England where earlier generations of barn have been entirely swept away. It is extremely unlikely, however, to have resulted in total loss.
**2** the practice of threshing in the open (see Glossary, *aire*). Quayle notes the process of threshing wheat, by striking in the first instance a sheaf over an empty barrel or block of wood (Quayle 1815, 87), and an 1841 inventory notes a 'threshing trestle' in the stack yard (Le Maistre 1972, 380; see also Billot 2006, 275 for 'threshing tables').
**3** the long-standing practice of stacking corn outside, again echoed in north-west France and hinted at Old Norse words such as *hougard* (stack yard). Poingdestre (1694, 16) noted the practice of cutting the corn by sickle and then stacking it. 'Corn stacks are round, and stand on pedestals of stone with wooden frames' (Quayle 1815, 86), these being termed *pieds de tas* (Le Maistre 1972, 380). These staddle stones, as they are commonly termed in Britain (see Glossary) are commonly found in *ex situ* locations in the island: Le Cornu (1859, 46) noted the widespread practice of 'stacking on staddles'.

From the 1870s, with the importation and then manufacture at the St Peter's Iron

Works of portable threshing machines, threshing by machine – with several farms pooling their resources and making it a communal event – was general (Billot 2006, 99-112; 310-313). This coincides with a major period of rebuilding of Jersey farmsteads and the widespread appearance of combination structures (see 6.3 below).

There was little mechanisation of threshing before the introduction of mobile steam engines, but it should be noted that horse engines could be accommodated within existing buildings and did not need wheelhouses – something that any field work should be alive to (Knocker, n.d.).

### Storing grain

Grain needs to be stored in clean, dark and well-ventilated conditions, away from rodents. In both France and England, the granary was placed either on the upper floor of the house or an outbuilding. Granary interiors were commonly plastered, and had bins for storing the grain. Detached granaries, uncommon in Normandy and Brittany, but commonly found in southern England, are generally of eighteenth and nineteenth century date, any earlier examples being of great rarity.

*Jersey*

The traditional place for grain was in a loft (grenier) in the house or in a small room in the upper floor of the farmstead, subdivided into grain bins (Le Cornu 1859, 38). Purpose-built granaries are very rare (Meirion-Jones 1982, 313; personal observation).

### Shelter for Carts, wagons and implements

Carts and wagons needed shelter from rain and sun; secure storage was required for implements. Cart sheds ('charretil', 'charretier', 'courtil', 'charreterie') are open-fronted structures, with lockable doors to the implement shed. In both northern France and England they can be single-storey, set beneath a granary or integrated into a combination range. They often face away from the farmyard and may be found close to the stables and roadways, giving direct access to the fields.

*Jersey*

There is little evidence for cartsheds or implement sheds before the later 19th century. In the early 19th century the primary vehicles on the farm were the two-wheeled box-cart for transporting vraic and manure, and the longer hay cart (Quayle 1815, 65). Ploughs were often held in partnership. Drills, horse-hoes and even hand-hoes, as widely used in England in association with turnip and root

cultivation, were not used until later in the century (Quayle 1815, 78; Billot 2006, 10). Le Cornu (1859, 39) refers to cart sheds being 'sufficiently spacious and lofty to shelter the largest loads', although this could only refer to the larger steadings.

### Stalling horses

After the barn, the stable (écurie in France) is often the oldest building on the farmstead. The value of horses as draught animals meant that stables were well built and often placed near the house and given a certain level of architectural and decorative treatment. The largest stables were built in arable areas where more motive power for ploughing, carting etc was needed. Stables needed to be well ventilated and with plenty of light for grooming and harnessing. Typical internal features are plank split doors; part-glazed and ventilated windows; cobble or paved floors; mangers; stalls; feed racks; harness pegs/rooms and plaster ceilings. Complete interiors are rare.

*Jersey*

The number of horses needed to work a farm changed little until the arrival of the tractor, with one horse for every 20 acres (8.09 hectares) being the frequently quoted figure: in Jersey, as a consequence, the need for stable accommodation was very limited. Stables are commonly integrated into larger combination ranges. Horses were commonly used by the later 18th century (Stevens 1977, 23) but bullocks and oxen continued to be used to plough into the early 19th century (Billot 2006, 4).

### Housing cattle

*Britain*

Any evidence for cattle housing before the late eighteenth century is exceptionally rare and is primarily found in longhouses and in combination barns.

*Cow houses*, either freestanding or situated within a combination barn, were typically built for dairy cattle. They were provided with stalls, mangers and hayracks, with muck channels set in the cobbled or brick floors. Very few cow-house interiors of the nineteenth century or earlier have survived unaltered because hygiene regulations for the production of milk have resulted in new floors, windows and stall arrangements being inserted.

*Shelter sheds*, open-fronted structures facing onto cattle yards, and *loose boxes* for intensive fattening, mostly date from the late 18th century. The folding of stock in strawed-down yards and feeding them with root crops became more general in the

nineteenth century, together with the subdivision of yards into smaller areas. It became increasingly common from the 1880s to roof over former open yards with timber or metal-framed superstructures.

*France*
In France the story is broadly the same, with the major explosion in cattle housing taking place from the late 18th century.

There are some very important exceptions with great relevance to Jersey:

- there is extensive evidence in Normandy and especially Brittany for *longhouses* that accommodated cattle, of a different form to surviving examples in Britain but broadly similar to examples recovered through excavation (see 7.3.1)
- there is extensive evidence, on larger seigneurial farms from the medieval period, for cattle housing in large structures (bergeries)
- there is increasing evidence from the late 18th century for cowhouses with internal stalls (étables)
- there is extensive evidence of 17th and 18th century date for cattle housing of indeterminate internal layout on modest-sized farms.

*Jersey*
*Cattle housing*
Any evidence for cattle housing prior to the 19th century – as at Hamptonne – is very rare and significant. The cow house, commonly called the cow stable (*étable*), is together with the multi-functional combination building the key building type encountered on Jersey farms. Cow houses predating the later 19th century bear a stronger resemblance to French than British examples. These commonly have rough floors to the hay lofts, which were often replaced on a yearly basis. Even the fuller lofts to later 19th century cow houses have distinctively French rather than British carpentry detail (see Glossary, cruck).

Over the summer months, cattle would be moved across the pastures by being staked to the ground, a practice which was common across the Channel Islands. They were commonly housed overnight between late October and May, and turned out into nearby closes and orchards during the day (Quayle, ibid and 175; Le Cornu 1859, 50-51). It is probable that young stock would have been wintered outdoors in simple shelters, evidence for which may be traced in field boundaries. Gorse and bracken was an important supplement for winter feed.

The need to house cattle has clearly been a major determining factor in the development of farmstead plans, and in particular the development beyond linear forms into L- and U-shaped plans, and other variations of courtyard plans, that commonly housed more than 20 head of cattle – considerably more than the mid 19th century average of six across holdings on the island (Le Cornu 1850, 37).

### Production of cider

The cider house for the milling and pressing of cider is found in the south-west and the southern West Midlands of England, south-west Wales, north-west France and north-west Spain. It usually forms part of a combination range. In France and Britain, the mill for crushing the apples and the press for producing the liquid are very similar if not identical in form.

*Jersey*

Quayle (1815, 130-136) makes some illuminating observations on the production process:

- The harvested apples were commonly taken straight to the loft above the press house (*le priensue*), which he describes as 'an oblong building'.
- In the loft they were separated into species and stored in bins or separate heaps.
- Once fermentation was apparent, the apples were taken – often by a trap door or chute direct to the ground floor - to the mill house, which contained the mill and one or more presses. The apples were mashed into a *pommace* by a millstone in the circular trough of the mill, horses providing the power and the island of Chausey the granite for millstone and trough. It was then pressed in the pressoir, using the wooden screws placed to each side of it: a central iron screw was introduced in the 19th century (Le Cornu 1859, 39; Billot 2006, 114-5).

This equipment demanded a not inconsiderable investment, and Quayle noted that these structures were concentrated in the centre and east of the island (Quayle 1815, 130). The mills and presses are very similar, if not identical, to those employed in both England and Normandy from at least the 17th century (as is also clear from Poingdestre's account of the process in 1694, 26-7). Aspects of the manufacturing process, in particular the smooth and sweet taste resulting from leaving the *pomace* for 24 hours before it was pressed, bear a stronger resemblance to Normandy than English farming. Another distinctive feature of Normandy cider houses, although one not noted in Jersey, is the use of a projecting room with shelves (rather than a loft) for storing the apples.

Wide doorways are the diagnostic features of both pressoirs and barrel stores (see Glossary), although it is clear that some crushers could be sited outside (Stevens 2005, 60).

Any systematic work should examine the dating of pressoirs in relationship to their landscape context and the status of the house. In both France and England, landowners often pioneered the development of new types of farm building, and it perhaps significant that some of the earliest evidence noted is in high status houses – the conversion of the chamber block at St Ouen Manor in the early 17th century (Bisson 2005, 45) and Ville au Veslet, St Lawrence, where a post-1650 cider house as attached to an earlier house and forms part of an overall L-plan steading (McCormack 1997, 4).

See Glossary for further details.

Other functions

Refer to the glossary (Section 10) for further details on functions shown in italic.

*Ash houses*: seaweed (vraic) was a vital part of the island's agrarian economy, being a rich source of fertiliser. In this respect, the island did not differ from any other coastal area or island from the Scottish Isles southwards, but unlike in Normandy and in Scotland it was not converted into kelp for glass making. It also served as domestic fuel, and Quayle (1815, 156) noted that 'nearly every farm-house' had a detached shed, with a square aperture in front, for the dry storage of vraic ashes. These are found as either detached structures or as openings in other buildings.

*Bakehouses* (also doubling up for washing and brewing, and for housing workers or relatives) are found throughout the island. These buildings are a feature of farmsteads in some areas where the unit system (see 5.2.3) was practiced and made manifest in conjoined houses or outhouses. Similar examples have been noted in north-west France.

As in France and England, pre-17th century *dovecotes* (colombiers in France and Jersey) are concentrated on manorial sites, and *doveholes* are found associated with 18th century and later buildings. Detached *hay barns* or *Dutch barns*, usually open sided with roofs supported on high brick, stone, timber or iron piers, and *root and fodder stores* have not been encountered.

There is extensive evidence on the island for pigsties, associated with cottages as well as farms. Some pigsties have corbelled roofs – a constructional feature that is broadly shared with the Mediterranean and the Atlantic seaboard provinces – but

it is surely probable that some detached structures of this type served as ash houses (as at London House, Mourier Valley, where it located outside the front of the house).[16]

Cattle were commonly also fed outdoors and in yards over the winter (Quayle 1815, 122). By the early 19th century cut parsnips were fed to milk cattle, bullocks, horses and pigs (Quayle 1815, 102-3).

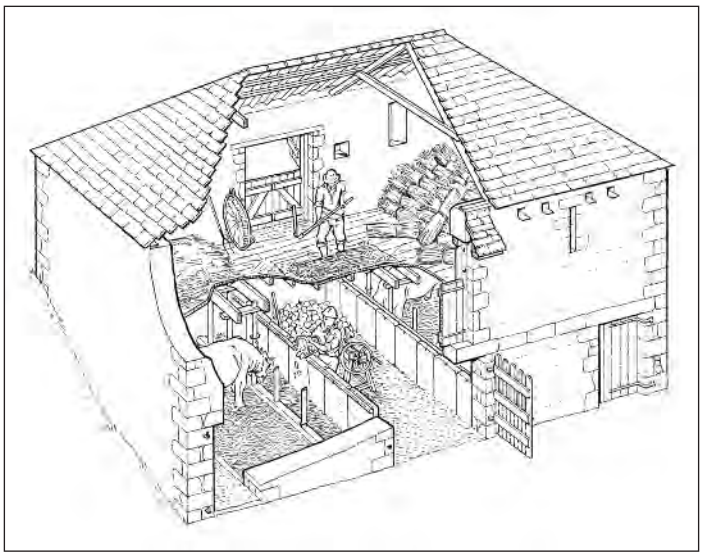
Significantly, Quayle in 1815 (148) noted the piling of manure in yards and the regular wastage of liquid manure but by Le Cornu's time (1859, 38) larger farms had manure pits which drained, together with any drainage from animal housing, into underground *liquid manure tanks* whose contents were pumped out and then applied to fertilise the grassland in the spring. These are distinctive and important features of the island's farmstead archaeology. In the 1840s, research by chemists had demonstrated that manure protected from the elements retained its nutrient value, covered yards for cattle and underground manure tanks had only made their appearance on a relatively small number of farms in France and particularly Britain.

Figure 21 Farm buildings in France. Archways to farmyards in the Charente (top) and in the Bessin area of north Normandy (bottom), where large manor farms specialising in dairying developed in the 16th-17th centuries.

[16] This form of construction is found in NW France, SW England and S Wales – see Wiliam 1986, 26-8.

Figure 22 Farm buildings in France. A bakehouse, part of a shrunken hamlet in central Brittany (top left). A 15th-16th century 2-storey range, comprising cattle housing on the ground floor, at Le Mesnil on the western Cotentin (top right). Storeyed ranges for cattle are a feature of larger 15th-17th century farmsteads in Normandy, whether in stone as here or in timber frame towards the east where large dairying farms developed for the export of produce to Paris and Rouen. Mid-late 19th century multi-functional buildings, as in Britain, were characterised by wider roof spans and ventilation. This example (bottom left) is from the Bessin. The coastal strip from Barfeur to St Vaast developed in the 19th century as a market produce area, and here the combination buildings developed in a broadly similar form to those on Jersey (bottom right).

Figure 23. Farm buildings in England. In south-west England 2-storey combination barns, sometimes with access from a raised earth bank to the side or set into the contours of the land, developed from the mid 18th century. The examples at the top are from east Cornwall. The first floor was used for storing and threshing out the corn crop, and in west Cornwall and the the Scillies was also for chitting potatoes. Storeyed ranges for cattle and their fodder mostly date from the 19th century, as here in Exmoor (bottom left). There are very few survivals from before this date, unlike in north-west France, the main exception being the open-fronted linhays which have not been noted in Jersey. Stable buildings, such as this example in Dorset (bottom right), can be earlier.



### 6.3 Key features of Jersey

Section 7 will provide an account of the principal farmstead types across the island, and thus an insight into the scale of steadings and the extent to which the functions described above are disposed individually or in combination. It has been seen that some of the functional types encountered on Jersey farmsteads are encountered in both Britain and France, but the following features stand out as being particularly distinctive:

**1** The broad similarity of some farmstead functions and structures with those encountered more generally in France and Britain – the dovecote (colombier), the stable, the cartshed.

**2** The close affinity of some farmstead functions and structures with those encountered in France.

- The lack of detached granaries is one example.
- Early 19th century or earlier cow houses, which are commonly single-storey with a hay loft, are very similar to those encountered in north-west France. Later examples with larger lofts are broadly similar to those encountered in both north-west France and Britain.
- The practice of outdoor threshing, also one shared with farms in France.
- The use of twin arched entrances to farmyards (see 4.4). A prevalent feature are also the through-ways that exist with all farmstead plan types, providing access from the main routeway into the farmyard and fields to the rear. This is a feature that does occur in England, but in Jersey most strongly resembles those found in France.
- Combination structures, which had the advantage of bringing many farmstead operations under one roof, such as animal housing, fodder preparation and crop (hay, corn, apple) storage. They bear a superficial resemblance to the bank barns of south-west England and the Isles of Scilly, and those of other parts of the south-west and the northern uplands of England which were developed from the 1790s as improved building types, based on models developed on gentry estates from the 17th century. Unlike these examples, however, the first floor in Jersey is clearly not used for either threshing or housing the corn crop. They bear a stronger resemblance to the storeyed farmstead buildings found on larger farms in north-west France, including those found on *manoirs* from the medieval period (for example in Patte and Marie-Raffray 2004, 12-19, 27). These had storage lofts sited above accommodation for horses and cattle, and frequently cider houses.

**3** A broad similarity of some farmstead buildings and rooms (corbelled roofs, ash houses, cider houses) with south-west England and Wales and north-west France, echoing the features in landscape and agricultural practice as explored in Section 4.

**4** Detached outhouses (see *bakehouses* in the Glossary).

It is also clear that some features are not encountered in north-west France or Britain. These appear to have developed in the mid-late 19th centuries in response to the distinct agriculture of the island and the need to enhance the efficiency of on-farm production, and comprise:

*Liquid manure tanks* (see above)

In Jersey, the standard form of combination building, as developed from the 1870s, comprised a *two-storey multi-functional structure* (commonly termed a shed) with potato chitting/accommodation lofts, and sometimes a granary, above stabling for horses and cattle. Some represent the rebuilding of earlier single-storey structures, some of which *could* have been threshing barns. They all appear to date from the mid-late 19th century, a period that coincides with the introduction of machine threshing across the island (see above). They are distinguished by glazed windows to the upper floors, which are not encountered on any other combination buildings in France or England and can only have served for chitting potatoes. Chitting was the term used for growing potatoes by exposing them to light and promoting the growth of shoots, and in Jersey it was common practice to stand potatoes in boxes in the loft in October/November (Billot 2006, 301). These buildings appear to be unique to the Channel Islands. In England, major potato-growing areas such as Lincolnshire either used purpose-built glass houses or simply improvised, including making part of the house available for this purpose. Buildings of a broadly similar type have also been identified in the coastal strip east of Cherbourg, where horticulture was also a mainstay of the farming economy; otherwise, extensive survey in the Cotentin and in the coastal areas of northern Brittany has failed to uncover evidence for similar structures.

Figure 24. Farm buildings in Jersey (see glossary for more examples). Archways at Hamptonne (top and middle, note also the wide doorway for cider barrels to the left). The image below shows the distinctive L-shaped plan formed by a range of cowhouses with hay lofts and *grenier*: note the door which connected the yard to the adjacent milking ground.

Figure 25. Farm buildings in Jersey (see glossary for more examples). The cider house (top left, with its wider door) and stable in the same U-shaped farmyard as Figure 23 (below). A combination building (top right): sliding doors as here were widely introduced from the later 19th century. A detached bakehouse (middle) and a manure tank marked by its curved wall and pump (bottom).

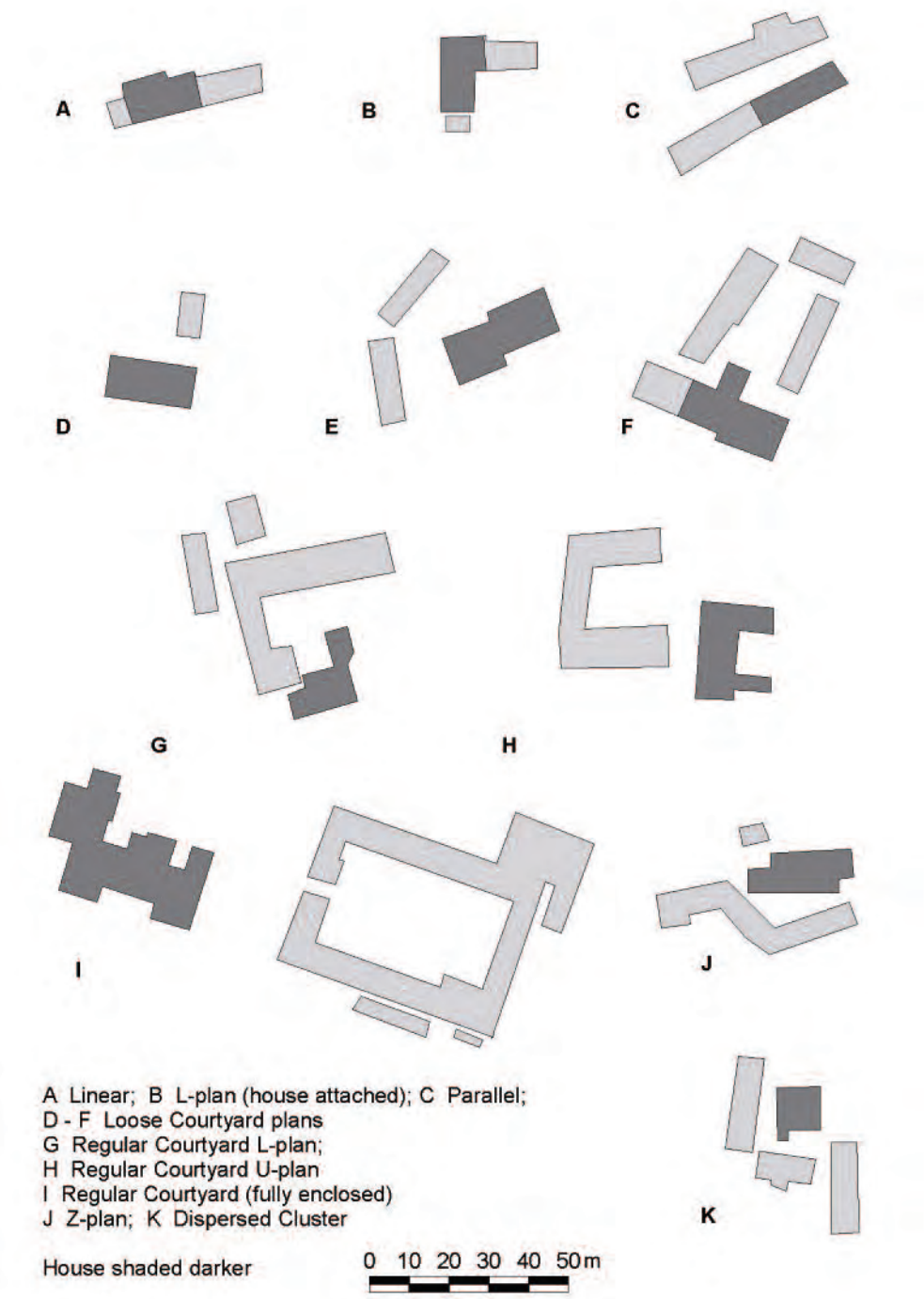



Figure 26. Plan forms of Jersey farmsteads. Farmsteads differ in their scale and form, and in how they are accessed. The basic farmstead plan types are:

- Linear plans (A on plan), where the house and working buildings are attached.
- L-shaped plans (B on plan), where the house and working buildings are attached.
- Parallel plans (C on plan), where the house (often in a linear range attached to working buildings) is sited opposite to a parallel range of working buildings.
- Loose courtyard plans (D, E and F on plan), where the working buildings face one or more sides of a cattle yard.
- Regular plans (G, H and I on plan), where the working buildings have been newly-laid out or remodelled into formally-arranged layouts.
- Z-shaped layouts (J on plan).
- Dispersed plans (K on plan) which display no evidence for planning.