RECORDING THE BUILDINGS OF THE FARMSTEAD

By R. W. Brunskill

INTRODUCTION

Several contemporary trends are beginning to focus attention on the study of farm buildings. There is the developing interest in the study of agricultural history in all its manifestations; farm buildings may prove to reveal as much about former farming methods as field patterns or agricultural returns. There is the developing study of vernacular architecture; farm buildings may prove to reveal as much about the direct solutions to simple functional needs as domestic buildings and may reveal more about the former use of local building materials than other building types more susceptible to pressures of fashion and opportunities for display. There is the developing appreciation of the total landscape; farm buildings may prove to be as important as any other feature in reflecting the delicate balance between the effects of nature and man on the diminishing countryside. There is the developing study of folk or peasant cultures; farm buildings may prove to reveal as much as dialect speech, folk song, or traditional customs about a way of life too humble to be recorded on paper. There is the current disenchantment with the waste which seems to accompany the use of advanced technology; the study of farm buildings may provide evidence of economies in energy and materials more meaningful than the sometimes narrow recommendations of the cost accountant. Those and other trends are beginning to make city dweller and countryman aware of a heritage of farm buildings seen as historical documents or landscape incidents which survive remarkably complete but which must be studied and appreciated now before progress and apathy sweep them away for ever.

Those farm buildings which do so remarkably survive are under threat from the current wave of changes in farming methods. They are themselves the survivors of similar waves in the past; farmsteads show evidence of Great Rebuildings corresponding to those of houses, but farm buildings are, if anything, less adaptable than domestic buildings and the current wave of agricultural change means the destruction of barns, stables etc. which survive from preceding waves. The long agricultural depression of c. 1880 to c. 1940 meant the preservation of old farm buildings, including the solid and ingeniously

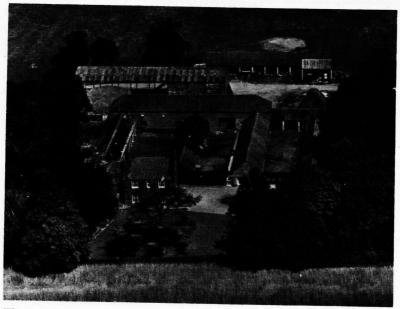


Fig. 1. Farmstead, East Halton Grange, Lincolnshire (Aerofilms Ltd.)

planned buildings erected in the long period of boom which preceded the depression. A procedure is here suggested whereby the main characteristics of farm buildings erected before 1880 can be speedily and systematically recorded in the field in a way which it is hoped will allow deeper study and wider comparison than has been generally possible with other methods of study.

The suggested procedure relates to two pioneering regional studies and two earlier attempts to produce a simple recording procedure applicable to the whole country. A survey of farm buildings in part of Shropshire completed by D. C. C. Davies in 1952 was made with the aid of a questionnaire based on that

which was being developed at the time by Professor Cordingley and his colleagues for use in recording the architectural characteristics of minor domestic buildings. The survey of farm buildings in part of Staffordshire completed by J. E. C. Peters in 1969 was based on a questionnaire devised specifically for this task though related in some ways to that of Davies. Both these questionnaires made use of numbers to record one characteristic from a range of alternatives; both were intended for use in a specific district, were based on a pilot survey of that district, and were not applicable regionally or nationally; both were intended for use by architects with some acquaintance with agriculture and were not suitable for use by surveyors without technical qualifications or expertise. The system used by Davies allowed fairly rapid collection of information about basic layout and building materials; that used by Peters entailed a much more slow and deliberate collection of detailed information about the internal organisation and constructional methods employed in farm buildings. Neither seemed capable of extension to cover a wide range of other districts except at the cost of producing a system too cumbersome for widespread use by unskilled surveyors and insufficiently detailed for use in contrasting districts even by trained surveyors.

Following discussions in Manchester during 1965 a draft simplified recording system intended to assist in the speedy collection of a limited amount of information about farmhouses and farm buildings and based on the system widely used for recording buildings was presented to the Winter Conference of the Vernacular Architecture Group in 1966. The system proved unsatisfactory largely because the problems of recording a collection of several buildings of different function as on a farmstead are different from those of recording individual buildings of a single function as a dwelling house and partly because in farm buildings functions may vary vertically as well as on plan. Although in a single house rooms may be disposed horizontally and vertically each is intended for some part of the total domestic function whereas in a single farm building there may be two or three functions accommodated horizontally (such as the housing of horses, cattle and implements) and two or three other functions accommodated at a different level (such as the storage of hay, straw and grain). Modifications were made to produce another system which would allow such separate functions in the same building to be recorded and would help in recording the relationship of function to function and building to building. This revised system also attempted to deal with the physical problem of recording in the field by combining survey sheet with questionnaires, one for the farmstead as a whole and others for individual buildings and functions. Tests of this system in the field began in 1967 but then had to be abandoned because of the epidemic of foot and mouth disease. However, in spite of hopes to the contrary the system had proved cumbersome in the field and appeared likely to be equally cumbersome in making regional or national comparisons. Further work, further discussions and further field trials led to the development of the system proposed here. It is currently

being tested in several parts of the country.

The procedure described recognises that in studying the farm buildings there are characteristics of the farmstead as a whole, e.g. its location, its relationship to the total farmed area of the holding, the pattern formed by the various buildings one to another, to the farmhouse, and to the farmyard, and location of the farmstead in relation to water supply, and also characteristics of the individual farm buildings: their function, their relationship to adjacent or contiguous buildings and the materials, methods of construction, and architectural details employed. The system of recording is also based on the assumption that there are certain major functions to be accommodated: the storage and conversion of grain crops in a barn, the accommodation of cattle tethered in a cow-house, housing for horses in a stable, provision for storage of grain in a granary, and shelter for carts and implements in a cart shed. It assumes further that many farmsteads will include several buildings to deal with minor functions: an open-sided barn to house the hay, a shelter for loose cattle, a house and exercise yard for pigs, etc (Fig. 1). In making use of the system, basic information on the existence, relationship, and characteristics of the buildings can be collected quite speedily. More detailed information on any one building or function can be collected with the aid of other questionnaires perhaps varying according to district or period to be studied (Figs. 2 and 3).

The procedure described relates to the field survey which is,

of course, only part of any study of the farm buildings of a district or region. Intensive investigation of selected examples of farmsteads and individual buildings is essential, but it is hoped that a relatively swift extensive survey will provide the information from which trends and practices can be detected so that the selection of individual farmsteads for such detailed archaeological study can be done on a sound rather than a haphazard basis and details can be seen to be typical rather than unique. Documentary investigation of individual holdings and local practices is equally necessary. It is quite clear that for many farms, probably for most farms, the surviving buildings are those of the latest of a succession of rebuildings meeting changing circumstances in a long history of occupation. However, an extensive survey may equally be used to isolate those examples which are most likely to repay study in the archives, and a questionnaire such as that illustrated may help the documentary historian to put information collected from, for example, estate surveys on a uniform basis.

PROCEDURE

Field Survey (Fig. 8)

1. Note down the name of the farm, any other address, the parish and county in which it is located, and the name of the farmer or other owner or occupier who has been contacted. Note down in boxes 1-3 any serial or other identifying number given in the survey to the farmstead.

2. Note down the six-figure map reference of the farmstead, using the identifying letters of the 100km square, but leaving boxes 4 and 5 for their numerical version, and adding the refer-

ence in boxes 6-11.

3. Note down the position, and in boxes 78-80 the last three digits, of any dated feature, e.g. "lintel 1789 over door of stable". Where there are several dated features they should all be noted and one will be selected to be included in the final record card.

4. Add the name of the surveyor, the date of the survey, and such exposure numbers, etc., as will identify photographs.

5. Include notes and references, e.g. to further sheets of sketches or measured notes.

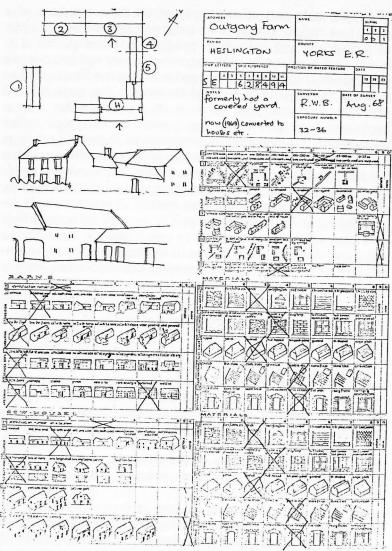


Fig. 2. Part of completed field survey sheet

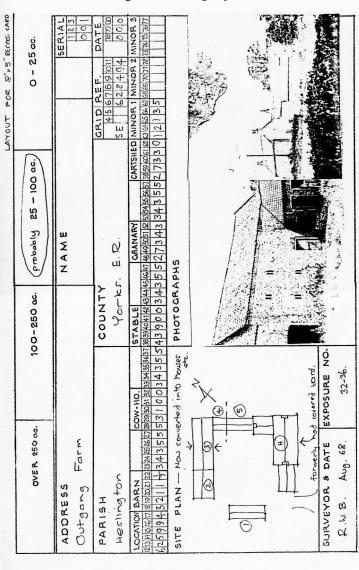


Fig. 3. Completed record card

6. Make a sketch plan of the farmstead including north point and means of access. The sketch plan need only be diagrammatic though it is very helpful if a plan based on the 1:2500 O.S. map can be prepared before visiting the farmstead.

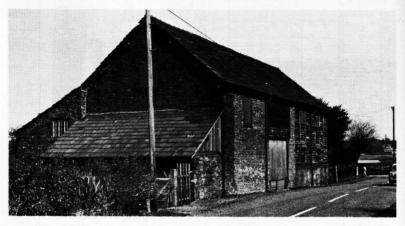


Fig. 4. Barn and cow-house, Coppice Farm, Ashley, Cheshire (G. Wheeler)



Fig. 5. Barn, granary, and cartshed, Great House, Talgarth, Brecons. (R. E. Williams)



Fig. 6. Re-erected granary, Open Air Museum, Singleton, Sussex (R. W. Brunskill)



Fig. 7. Bank barn, near Cartmel, Lancs. (R. W. Brunskill)

7. Identify the different farm buildings by numbers on the sketch plan working from the farmhouse or the entrance to the farmyard.

8. Take photographs of the building group, individual buildings and details of interest.

The surveyer should work through the pages line by line selecting from the 10 alternatives. In each case 9 is reserved for

some characteristic similar to the others specified, while 0 means that no such characteristic occurs; e.g. on line 20 a single barn with three threshing floors would be noted 9 while one with no discernible provision for threshing would be noted 0.

If the field survey sheet is used then the appropriate "squares" should be crossed through after doubtful items have been

checked against the handbook.

Where there is more than one major building on the farmstead, e.g. two threshing barns, then more than one record card will be prepared and so more than one survey sheet should be completed.

Modern buildings, i.e. after 1918, may be noted on plans

but should be ignored in the description.

9. Work through the coded description described below.

10. If the farmhouse is to be included in the survey, then work through the simplified recording system for houses.

11. While it is obviously better to examine buildings internally most characteristics listed can be detected externally.

Record Card (Fig. 9)

Information collected on the field survey sheet may be transcribed on to an $8'' \times 5''$ record card as illustrated here. This then serves as the master card for the farmstead and the key to documentary sources of information and more detailed surveys of individual buildings. Where relatively small numbers of farmsteads have been recorded these cards may be sorted manually, the field survey sheets remaining in order of survey. If the farmstead has two or three barns, two or three cow houses or other major buildings then two or three record cards will be prepared; this will allow characteristics of each farm building to be analysed irrespective of the number of actual farmsteads surveyed.

Punched Card

An 80-column punched card may be prepared from the items of information, either direct from the field survey sheets, or from the numbered boxes on the record card. Where relatively large numbers of farmsteads have been recorded then analysis by mechanical sorting should be worth while. Any national survey of thousands of farmsteads could, of course, have results analysed with the aid of computers using the punched cards.

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Fig. 8. Sheet for recording location etc., boxes 1-11 and 78-80

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Fig. 9. Layout for record card

COMMENTARY

Introduction

The following notes are presented in amplification of the diagrams, etc., in the coded questionnaire. Normally only one characteristic of the ten alternatives will apply, but there may be circumstances in which more than one appears relevant. In such a case the alternatives should be recorded on the field survey sheet and transferred (with an appropriate note of explanation) on to the record card. Only for certain types of mechanical or computerised sorting will it be necessary to select one of these alternatives as predominant.

Usually the farmsteads are to be studied in relation to some defined period, e.g. the uses and construction at the date of survey, or as likely in 1938 at the end of the great agricultural depression, or as in 1880 at the end of a great period of boom in agriculture of this country. The recording procedure must take this into account: it must be decided at the outset whether, say, a building is to be recorded in its present use as garage or its obvious former use as a cart-shed, or both.

The questionnaire diagrams include all building types and uses likely to be found in farmsteads of England and Wales, and most for Scotland and Ireland, but other types or uses may be recorded by using column 9 in the series for Minor Buildings and adding notes and diagrams.

Location, etc. (Fig 10)

Line 12. The approximate size of the farm is noted here together with a reference to the number of cards to be prepared (which depends on the duplication of major buildings). It is not always easy to discover the appropriate acreage; farms expand and contract in time and one is most concerned with the acreage for which the buildings were erected. Generally the area of enclosed land is significant but in hilly districts a comparatively small area of productive enclosed land balances a large area of rough grazing or is worked in conjunction with rights for grazing on stinted pastures.

Line 13. The relationship of a farmstead to other buildings and to means of access is noted here. It is usually easy to decide whether a farmstead is isolated or part of a group, but whether that group is a hamlet or a village and whether a village is in

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Fig. 10. Sheet for recording layout etc., boxes 12-17

one of the recognisable shapes or not is often less easy to determine. Generally a village will have a church (though this may not be in the centre of the village), but the huge ancient parishes of the north of England included townships without churches but of more than hamlet size, while decayed villages may now have only one or two farms remaining near the church. It is usually quite easy to distinguish a village with a green from a roadside village, though one should look beyond recent encroachments to find a green belonging to the period which the farmsteads represent. The hamlet or small group includes development on the "unit system" of two or three farms sharing a common yard, perhaps cropping fields in common, but with individual sets of farm buildings. Planned villages are not common, but they do exist, do include farmsteads, and may have provided a model for other development.

Line 14. The general shape formed by the farm buildings and relevant domestic buildings is to be noted. The simplest and smallest farmsteads are recorded under alternatives 1 and 2; in both cases the whole of the domestic and agricultural accommodation is contained in one line, but in the former alternative the "longhouse" pattern of farm buildings at the socially lower end of the house with a cross-passage marking the division between the two is distinguished while in the latter alternative. the "laithe house", arrangement with no cross-passage is shown. The parallel arrangement also occurs on small farms, the usual pattern having farmhouse and one or two buildings in one range and the remainder in another range more or less parallel. A farmyard is more closely defined in the L-shaped, U-shaped and courtyard arrangements; on the smaller farms the farmhouse provides part of the enclosure but on the larger and later farms the house is separate. The farmyard was especially important on those farms in which most cattle were wintered out of doors, treading their own manure, and larger farms operating this system would have more than one yard. During the late nineteenth century covered farmyards were popular, giving shelter to the stock and helping to prevent the manure from being washed away before it could be spread on the fields. Some still remain and may be recorded under alternative 8. Many farmsteads, especially in hilly regions, conform to no recognisable shape and may be recorded as "scattered".

Line 15. Here the relationship between farmhouse and farm buildings is recorded. The house may be deliberately set aloof from the buildings, perhaps having its own approach road, perhaps even its own stable and carriage house. Detachment appears to have been a sign of status increasingly claimed by farmers or their wives. Most farmhouses, however, acknowledge the existence of the remainder of the farmstead, some by means of a formal, designed relationship as in a model farmstead, most by means of some less formal arrangement. Even here the house may be physically detached from the farm buildings or may be attached to some part of the farmstead in either the longhouse or the laithe house fashion. In all except the most humble instances there is some small fenced garden or terrace to give real protection and some slight social distinction between the house and the yard.

Line 16. An attempt is made to note the relationship between farmstead and water supply which may have been a factor in the location of isolated farmsteads—strung out on a line of springs

for instance.

Line 17. Here the present condition and use of the farmstead is noted: very many farms have recently been amalgamated but the redundant farm buildings often remain to be given some token or seasonal use. There is also provision for noting field barns and outfarms which were deliberately sited away from the main farmstead. A field barn (or "field house") provides accommodation for cattle and crops enabling fields distant from the farmstead to be used without uneconomical transport of fodder and manure. Sometimes field barns include provision for threshing and for tying milking cattle but more commonly they accommodate hay and young loose cattle. An outfarm provides a more extensive range of farm building possibly including a labourer's cottage, but the land was worked as part of a larger farm and not independently. Both outfarms and field barns relate to periods of enclosure of the waste when the farmsteads with rights to the waste remained in the villages and hamlets while the newly enclosed and more productive land was served by these subsidiary sets of buildings.

Barns (Fig. 11)

Line 18. Here the number identifying the barn on the site

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Fig. 11. Sheet for recording details of barns, boxes 18-22

plan is noted. Small farmsteads are unlikely to have more than eight or nine building units while the larger farmsteads would be recorded on more than one card in any case. Barns for grain crops are recorded here, haybarns are recorded elsewhere.

Line 19. The relationship between barn and other buildings is noted here. The barn might be free-standing as in alternative 1 or attached in some way to other domestic or agricultural buildings as in alternatives 2 to 7, or it might be part of a building combining several farming uses as in alternative 8. A bank barn is given by way of diagram for a combination building. In this the barn proper is placed over the top of another building which usually houses cattle, horses, and carts, but there are other forms of combination, e.g. where a threshing floor is used as a feeding passage for cattle housed under lofts.

Line 20. Provision for threshing is noted here. The standard arrangement is one threshing floor to each barn, though some of the larger barns were provided with two floors; two adjacent barns each with one floor should be recorded as separate barns. Power for threshing, crushing, mixing, etc., was most commonly provided by a horse engine either of the sweep type in the open air or of the overhead type within a horse engine house. Use of water or wind power may be noted in alternatives 7 and 8 while power from a stationary steam engine would be recorded under 9.

Line 21. Here the provision of mows or lofts for sheaves of corn or for straw is noted. It is important to distinguish such lofts from those over cow-houses which were intended for storage of hay. Several of the alternatives pick up the asymmetrical arrangement of many barns. Alternative 8 allows for the late nineteenth-century barns in which all grain products were imported and simply processed in a mill on the farm; there was no barn in the traditional sense.

Line 22. Two separate sets of information are recorded here: the protection of the barn door and the method of ventilation of storage bays. As hand flail threshing was a process carried on during the winter months but requiring plenty of light from open barn doors many barns provided better protection for the floor than the simple doors noted in alternative 1. A canopy carried on cantilever brackets and perhaps an extension of the main roof as in alternative 2 was common, but shallow cheeks

and a deep porch may also be found, especially in upland areas. The degree of ventilation provides one of the main differences between a barn intended for corn and one intended for hay. The most common method of ventilation in stone walled barns is that of narrow slits splayed on the inside like arrow slits in a medieval castle, but triangular openings formed by inclined stones are also quite common especially on gable walls. In brick walled buildings patterned openings of variations on the honey comb made by omitting headers are often found. In half-timbered barns ventilation was usually provided by wattled openings rather like wattle and daub without the daub.

Barns—Materials of Construction and Architectural Details (Fig. 12)

Line 23. Here four materials for solid wall construction are distinguished (stone, variations of stone including flint, cobbles, pebbles, etc., earth, brickwork) and four variations of frame construction (exposed timber frame and boards, plastered, slated or tiled claddings on timber frame). Exposed timber frame may have infill of wattles, bricks, etc.

Line 24. Having noted the basic walling material various alternative ways of using the material may be recorded on this line. In alternative 1 a solid wall of any material is shown as covered by a rendering or by limewash or colourwash. Alternative 2 recognises that some inferior materials have dressings of a superior material, e.g. flint laced with brickwork or clay with openings formed in dressed stone. Alternatives 3 and 4 note that rough irregular, or precise and regular materials have been used respectively; brickwork would normally be recorded under 4 on line 24 as well as 3 on line 23. The clay lump technique used in parts of East Anglia is noted in alternative 5 where it may be distinguished from the homogeneous clay wall construction used in Leicestershire. Alternatives 6 and 7 distinguish between the squarish panels used customarily in the western half of the country from the tall panels found most commonly in the east. In Alternative 8 the technique whereby the sill is interrupted by a post, whatever the shape of the panels, is noted.

Line 25. Here the roof shape is distinguished and recorded. There is a problem in recording where one end of a roof is of one shape and the other end has another shape; unless one is

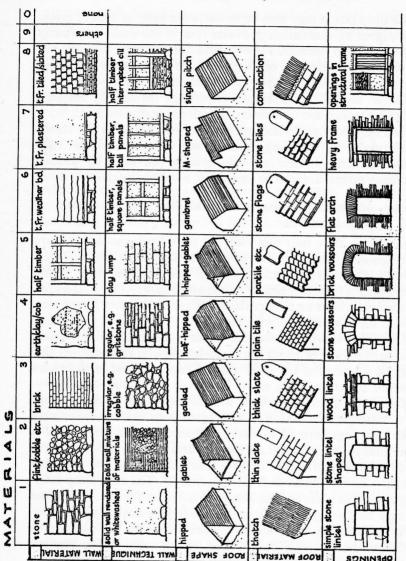


Fig. 12. Sheet for recording materials etc. of barns, boxes 23-27

clearly an alteration then item 9 on this line must be used. There is also a problem where a segment in a long building is to be recorded, e.g. a barn flanked by stable and granary; here the termination of the whole building should be recorded as for the part.

Line 26. Roofing materials are recorded on this line. Thatch includes turf and heather or ling in addition to straw and reeds. Thin slate which is usually purplish Welsh slate, centre-nailed, of regular width and regular courses from eaves to ridge is distinguished from thick slate which is usually the slate of the locality, head nailed, irregular in surface and width and laid in courses diminishing from eaves to ridge. Under alternative 5 are included all shaped single lap tiles, though pantiles will form the vast majority of this type. Stone flags and tiles are distinguished from slates as being of sandstone, gritstone or oolitic limestone rather than from igneous rock; stone flags are the very large thick heavy slabs found in the Pennines, while stone tiles are the smaller, thinner, lighter, and more delicate materials of, for example, the Cotswolds: both types are laid to diminishing courses, but the one to a low pitch and the other to a steep pitch. In alternative 8 the use of two materials, e.g. flags and thatch, on the same roof is to be noted. Modern materials like corrugated asbestos would be noted under 9 while a roofless ruin would be noted under 0.

Line 27. Various forms of door opening are distinguished on this line. All should be self-explanatory, but item 3 is recorded when a wooden lintel is carried by a solid wall, item 7 when a wooden lintel is supported by the remainder of a heavy door frame and not by the wall, and item 8 when the timber frame of a wall forms a door opening.

Cow-houses. These are places in which cattle are tethered for milking or for wintering and may be distinguished from shelter sheds and loose boxes in which the cattle are free and not tethered. (Fig. 13)

Line 28. This is for the identification of the cow-house on the site plan.

Line 29. The relationship of cow-house to other buildings is noted; comments made for barns apply also here.

Line 30. Here the method of arranging the cattle and so the

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Fig. 13. Sheet for recording details of cow-houses, boxes 28-32

method of feeding is noted. Cattle may fed be either from a feeding passage or from behind as noted in alternative 6. A common arrangement is noted in alternative 1 in which there is a central feeding passage, cattle are tethered nose on to this passage, facing along the length of the building, and tail on to manure passages. Alternative 2 is similar but there is more than one feeding passage. In alternatives 3 and 4 the feeding passages run along the length of the building and alternative 5 is similar but the single feeding passage runs centrally under the ridge of the building with manure passages along each wall.

Line 31. Here provision for storing hay or gorse in lofts over the cattle is to be noted. The loft may be entirely in the roof space as in alternative 1, may have some side walls as in 2, or has walls of considerable height and so very considerable capacity as in 3. Again one must be careful to distinguish such lofts, especially in a combination building, from the lofts and mows

used for grain crops in a threshing barn.

Line 32. There were several methods of access to the lofts as noted here. Rectangular pitching holes might be provided at the ends only, as in alternative 1, or, as in 2, at either the sides only or at both ends and side. Items 6 and 7 cover a similar situation but with circular pitching eyes. In alternative 3 access for the crops is by some sort of dormer. In 4 and 5 the spaces between the posts or piers which support the roof are left open for access and ventilation, though hatches or shutters may be provided to control the rate of ventilation.

Cow-houses—Materials of Construction and Architectural Details
Lines 33 to 37 cover the same items as noted on lines 23 to 27
for barns. (Fig. 14)

Stables. Accommodation for horses tethered in stalls, though a stable might also include space for an untethered horse. Stables are normally taller than cow-houses and nearly always have windows. A large farmstead might have more than one stable with accommodation for different types of horse: draught animals, carriage horses, and riding ponies. (Fig. 15)

Line 38. For identification of the stable on the site plan.

Line 39. The relationship of stable and other buildings is noted; comments made for barns apply here also.

Line 40. Horses were always tethered singly in stalls much

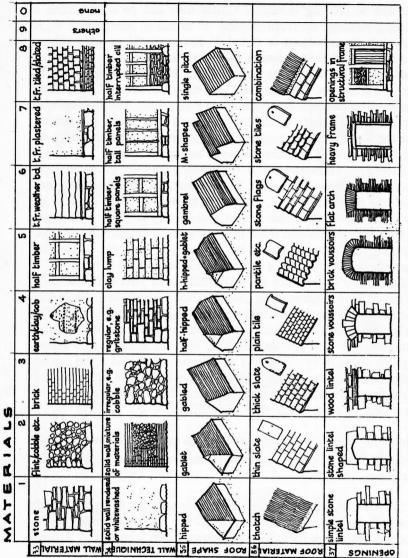
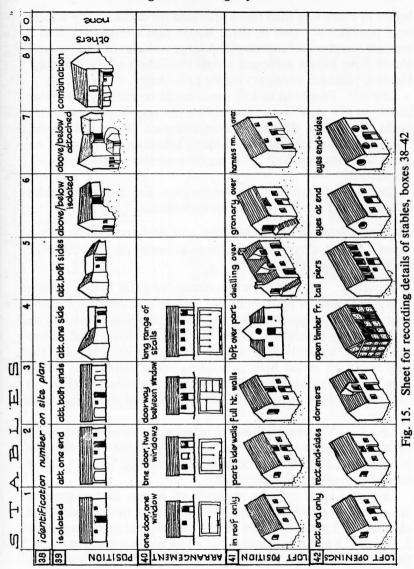


Fig. 14. Sheet for recording materials, etc., of cow-houses, boxes 33-37



bigger in every way than those provided for cattle; many stables only provided for two or three horses and alternatives 1 to 3 indicate common arrangements. A large stable as in alternative 4 would have horses arranged across the length of the building. Feeding passages were very rarely provided.

Line 41. Provision of loft space could be entirely, partly or hardly in the roof slope, but unlike the cow-house the stable might have some different accommodation above the horses, e.g. a dwelling for unmarried farm labourers, a granary, or space for harnesses and other accourrements, recorded 5, 6, 7, respectively.

Line 42. Alternatively arrangements for pitching fodder into lofts may be recorded as for cow-houses.

Stables—Materials of Construction and Architectural Details Lines 43 to 47 cover the same items as noted on lines 23 to 27 for barns. (Fig. 16)

Granaries. Provision for the storage of grain before milling or crushing and for flour, bran, etc., before consumption became necessary as the productivity or arable land increased and as high farming developed. Granaries were always raised above the ground as protection against dampness and vermin, but they might be raised high over some other building or raised only a small amount on some sort of piers or columns. (Fig. 17)

Line 48. This provides for identification of the granary on the site plan.

Line 49. Various methods of attachment to other buildings or in combination are noted but generally on the basis that the granary was a floor in a multi-storey building. Items 5 and 6 allow for single storey granaries.

Line 50. Here various methods of access to the granary are noted; a staircase might be at the front or the side as in alternatives 1 and 2 or might be entirely internal as in alternative 3. Boxes 4, 5 and 6 are similar but allow for two granary floors; the upper floor might be largely or entirely in the roof space and the method of lighting by gable windows, dormers, or roof lights would, of course, be independent of the method of access.

Line 51. The sectional form of the granary is recorded on this line. A granary might conceivably but unusually rise directly from the ground as in alternative 1; granaries were often

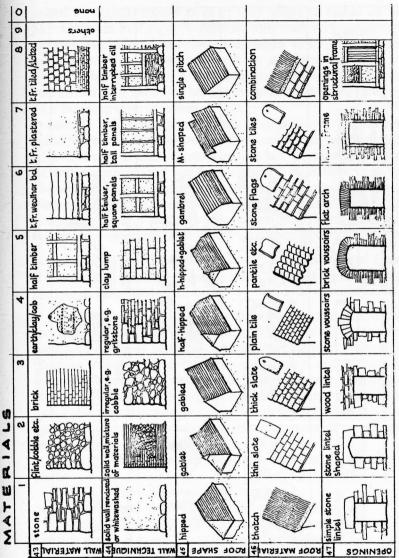


Fig. 16. Sheet for recording materials, etc., of stables, boxes 43-47

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9]	2		att. bolh sides		as 2 but two gry Fis.		Farm buildings	skylights mainly ventilators only	
E H	4		att.one side		as I but two granary Roors		raised over		
五人	3	identification number on site plan	att. both ends		one gg. Floor as I but two internal stairs granary Roors		roised on piers	glazed, domestic louvred	
Z <	2	ion number	att.one end		one gryfloor, one gryfloor, front staircase end staircase		grancry on ground raised on stodule raised on piers stones		
40		. 1	isoloted	2	one gryfloor, Front staircase		Feneral on Grana	52 mainly unglazed as 1, domestic	
	1	48	49	NOITIEOG	20	22333A	POSITION IN HT. 2	25	MINDOMS

Fig. 17. Sheet for recording details of granaries, boxes 48-52

raised on staddle stones as in 2; they might be raised on piers like a market hall as in 3. Alternatively and very commonly a granary might be raised over a cartshed as in 4, over a farm building such as a stable as in 5, or it might form part of a domestic building as in 6, recalling the situation in which grain was stored in a chamber before the granary became developed as a building type in common use.

Line 52. A granary can easily be mistaken for a domestic building having similar proportions, sometimes being provided with a fireplace and chimney stack, but particularly through having domestic type windows. These are usually of a form abandoned for domestic use, e.g. unglazed openings between diamond-shaped mullions after framed and glazed windows had come into general domestic use; sometimes they appear to be actual windows from abandoned or demolished houses.

Granaries—Materials of Construction and Architectural Details Lines 53 to 57 cover the same items as noted on lines 23 to 27 for barns. (Fig. 18)

Cartsheds. As improvements in farming techniques included the use of more and more specialised machines in the fields including different sorts of carts so there came the need for a building to house these implements and carts and protect their iron and wooden parts from the rain and sun. This demand coincided with the demand for a separate granary and the two uses have often been combined, though separate cartsheds may also be found, and cartsheds might form part of combination farm buildings. (Fig. 19)

Line 58. This is for identification of the cartshed on the site plan.

Line 59. The relationship of cartshed to other buildings is noted; comments made for barns apply here also.

Line 60. The basic difference between end entry and side entry is noted in items 1 and 3 respectively while 2 and 4 allow for the occasional provision of a draw-through to avoid the need to back an unwieldy cart or implement into the shed.

Lines 61 and 62. Here walling materials and roofing materials may be noted in a code similar to lines 23 and 26 for barns.

Minor buildings. Most farmsteads of any size included several minor buildings or building uses in addition to the

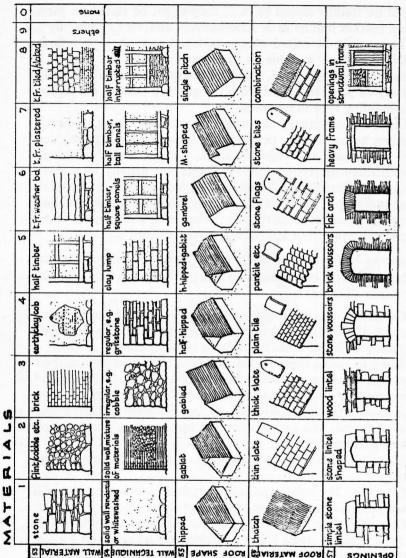


Fig. 18. Sheet for recording materials, etc., of granaries, boxes 53-57

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	9			others						
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	9		above/below isolated				t.fr. weather bd.		stone Plags	
D D	5		att. both sides above/below isolate			Talker tool Yout tris	half timber		pontile etc.	
回	4		att. one side		as 3+drawithrough		earth/cloy/cob		plain tile	
H G	. 3	on site plan	attached one att. both ends att. one side		side entry		brick		ffick slate	
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Fig. 19. Sheet for recording details and materials of cartsheds, boxes 58-62

major ones already noted. Three pages are included to allow for three of these minor building, larger farms with more minor buildings or other varieties of building or use would be recorded on several cards. (Fig. 20, 21 and 22)

Lines 63, 68 and 73. These are for identification on the site plan.

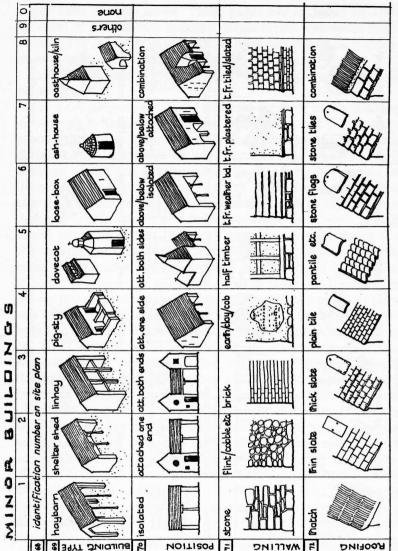
Lines 64, 69 and 74. Eight different types of minor building may be noted here, others may be noted under box 9. A havbarn is an open-sided structure without any threshing floor and designed for the storage of hay; it could take many forms in addition to the one illustrated in the diagram, and could, for instance, have a roof arranged to rise and fall with the amount stored. A shelter shed is an open-fronted single storey structure designed for the shelter and feeding of loose cattle. It is usually found to define one or two sides of a farmyard. A linhay is a shelter shed with an open-fronted havloft above: it served the same purpose as a shelter shed and may be found in a similar location but hay was available to drop down as fodder. The pig-sty provided shelter and exercise yard for the pigs and there was often a poultry-house above with a ramp for access for the hens and a door or hatch through which the eggs could be collected. There were two common types of free-standing dovecot: one was circular or pentagonal plan with access for the pigeons through a hatch or cupola on top and a door for access for the interior at the base; the other was square or rectangular in plan, often with a sort of clearstorey access for the birds. Under the term loose-box (or hull or hole or hovel—there are many local words) one may note the many small rooms used for the accommodation of young cattle or sheep during the winter. The ash-house is a minor building found certainly in the southwest of England and perhaps elsewhere, and used presumably for the temporary storage of ash before it was scattered on the fields. Of the various types of kiln found sometimes on farms there are the oast-houses of south-eastern England and the corndrying kilns found in upland areas of northern England and in Wales.

Lines 65, 70, and 75 allow for the relationship of minor buildings to others to be noted.

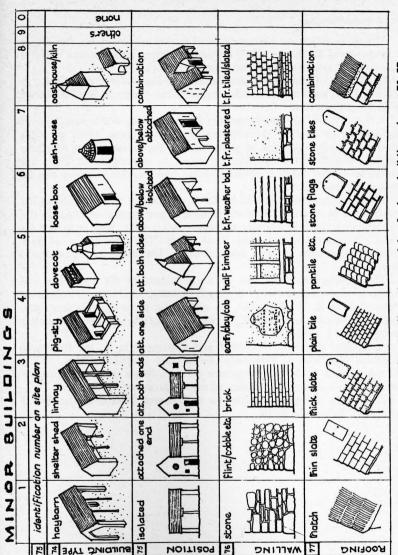
Lines 66, 71 and 76 are for the recording of walling materials. Lines 67, 72 and 77 allow roofing material to be recorded.

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Sheet for recording details and materials of minor buildings, boxes 63-67 Fig. 20.



Sheet for recording details and materials of minor buildings, boxes 68-72 Fig. 21.



Sheet for recording details and materials of minor buildings, boxes 73-77 77 Fig.

Notes and references

¹ The Bibliography on Vernacular Architecture edited by Sir Robert de Z. Hall (David & Charles, 1972) includes a section listing works on farm buildings and another section on agrarian history.

² N. Harvey, A History of Farm Buildings in England & Wales (David & Charles, 1970) summarises developments in the design of farm buildings

up to the present day.

³ J. E. C. Peters, *The Development of Farm Buildings in Western Lowland Staffordshire up to 1880* (Manchester University Press, 1970) gives an extremely detailed account of what can be discovered about the farm buildings of a district with a field survey as the starting-point. There are summaries of the classic treatises on farm building design which can be applied to other districts.

⁴ The questionnaire prepared by D. C. G. Davies may be seen in his unpublished M.A. thesis "Historic farmstead and farmhouse types in the Shropshire region", University of Manchester, 1952; that prepared by J. E. C. Peters may be seen in his Ph.D. thesis "The development of farm buildings in western lowland Staffordshire", University of Manchester,

1969.

⁵ The development and use of a questionnaire for recording the architectural characteristics of domestic buildings, including farmhouses, is described in R. W. Brunskill, "A systematic procedure for recording English vernacular architecture", *Transactions of the Ancient Monuments Society*, NS, 13, 1965-6).

A simplified system is described and illustrated in R. W. Brunskill, Illustrated Handbook of Vernacular Architecture (Faber & Faber, 1970), and this system would be appropriate for recording a farmhouse in con-

junction with a survey of a farmstead on the proposed system.

⁶ This study has been assisted by a Research Award of the Royal Institute of British Architects.