Historic Farmsteads

Preliminary Character Statement: Yorkshire and the Humber Region

ENGLISH HERITAGE

The Countryside Agency
Landscape
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Acknowledgements

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This document is one of eight Preliminary Character Statements which provide information on the characteristics of traditional farm buildings in each Region. They can be viewed and downloaded at **www.helm.org.uk/ruraldevelopment** and at **www.ahds.ac.uk**.

English Heritage is the Government's adviser on the historic environment. Central to the role of English Heritage is the advice it gives to local planning authorities, government departments and others on the conservation of historic buildings, sites and areas, archaeology on land and underwater, designed landscapes and the historic aspects of the landscape as a whole. English Heritage also has a duty to enhance people's understanding and enjoyment of their heritage and, as part of this, it manages an estate of over 400 historic properties open to the public.

The Countryside Agency is the statutory body working to conserve and enhance England's countryside. The aim of the Countryside Agency's Landscape, Access and Recreation division is to help everyone respect, protect and enjoy the countryside, protect natural landscapes, and encourage access to, enjoyment of and sustainable management and use of the countryside.

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Cover image: Dalby Bush Farm in the Howardian Hills, surrounded by a landscape of mixed agriculture and regular enclosure.

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1 LANDSCAPE AND AGRICULTURAL CONTEXT

NATIONAL FRAMEWORK

Patterns of land use were very varied, reflecting cultural factors as well as climatic conditions and the physical structure of the landscape. The distribution of farmsteads, their dates of foundation and their relationship to the farming landscape are intimately linked to **historical patterns of fields** and **settlement** in the landscape. Areas of nucleated settlement, concentrated in a central band running from Northumberland into Somerset and Dorset, are associated with villages whose communally farmed townfields were subject – at varying rates – to amalgamation and enclosure by tenants and landlords from the 14th century. This process was often associated with the creation of new holdings and farmsteads within the new enclosures. Areas of dispersed settlement, where farmsteads are either isolated or grouped in hamlets and surrounded by originally smaller townfields and more ancient patterns of enclosure, are most strongly characteristic of western and parts of eastern and south-eastern England. Between the two extremes are areas that contain both nucleated and dispersed settlement to varying degrees.

Agricultural development in England can be divided into the following major periods:

- *Up to 1750* Economic boom in the 12th and 13th centuries, which included the development of large farms on monastic and secular estates, was followed by contraction of settlement and the leasing out of estates after the famines and plagues of the 14th century. The period from the 15th century was characterised by a general increase in agricultural incomes and productivity and the emergence – particularly from 1660 – of increasingly market-based and specialised regional economies. Substantially complete farm buildings of this period are rare, and provide the first evidence for the development and strengthening of regional traditions and building types. Many surviving farmsteads in upland areas, with farm buildings attached to their farmhouse, survive from the later 17th and 18th centuries. It is otherwise very rare for farmsteads to have more than a house and barn dating from this period.

- *1750 – 1880* This is the most important period of farm building development, the production of farmyard manure by cattle playing a major role in increasing agricultural productivity. The increased output of this period was encouraged by rising grain prices and the demands of an increasingly urban population, and was enabled by the expansion of the cultivated area (especially from the 1790s to 1815), the continued reorganisation and enlargement of holdings and the final phase of the enclosure of open fields – concentrated in the Midland counties. Substantial improvements in animal husbandry were made with the development of improved breeds and a greater awareness of the importance of the need for housing, particularly for cattle, which hastened fattening and meant that manure could be collected and stored better. The high-input/high-output systems of the 'High Farming' years of the 1840s to 1870s were based on the availability of imported artificial fertilisers, manures and feeds.

- *1880 – 1940* There was little fresh investment due to the long farming depression in this period, notable exceptions being some estates and continuing developments in dairying areas. Hygiene regulations in the inter-war period resulted in intense forms of housing for pigs and poultry, and the replacement of earlier forms of housing for dairy cattle by new forms of cow house with concrete floors and stalls, and metal roofs and fittings.

- *1940 to present* The 1937 Agriculture Act anticipated the need to increase self-sufficiency, and the Second World War witnessed a 60% rise in productivity. This was the result of the growth in livestock numbers, increasing scientific and government control and guidance, more specialised systems of management and the conversion to arable of permanent pasture. The Agriculture Act of 1947 heralded the intensification and increased specialisation of farming in the post-war period, accompanied by the development of government and industry research and guidance. The Government provided grants to cover the capital cost of new building under the Farm Improvement Scheme (introduced 1957). The introduction of wide-span multi-purpose sheds in concrete, steel and asbestos met increasing requirements for machinery and for the environmental control of livestock and on-farm production, particularly of milk.

REGIONAL PATTERNS

There are very strong contrasts within this Region, from the planned landscapes of the Wolds, the reclaimed wetlands of the Humber and Holderness, the vales of York, Pickering and Mowbray and to the uplands of the Pennines and North Yorkshire Moors. Settlement patterns similarly vary, from the isolated farmsteads and

hamlets of the Pennines and North Yorkshire Moors to larger, nucleated settlements in lowland areas. Nucleated settlement was historically concentrated in the valleys of the North Yorkshire Moors, Holderness and the Wolds. Enclosure in the lowlands was mostly complete by the mid-18th century, notable exceptions being the eastern part of the Vale of Pickering and the Wolds.

Because of its climate and predominantly upland terrain, much of the western upland part of the Region and the North Yorkshire Moors were best suited to pastoral agriculture. Wool production and cattle husbandry were major aspects of the Region's economy in the medieval period, with monastic houses leading the commercial development of livestock farming. In both these areas, communal arable and pasture around settlements and on valley sides were subject to an increasing level of enclosure and removal into individual management and ownership from the 15th century. Farms were also being created as stock farms and hunting lodges were being leased out, or carved out of the moorland sides between the 15th and 19th centuries, typically set within their distinctive 'intakes' of enclosed land. The large-scale rebuilding of farmsteads in the Pennines after 1650 was also facilitated by favourable terms of tenancy, which underpinned the development of a strongly independent class of farmer. Vast areas of remaining moorland were enclosed from the end of the 18th to the middle of the 19th century, the pressure to create more productive pasture and especially arable land – and an increased desire on the part of customary tenants to lease or own their land outright – resulting in a dramatic new landscape of large square fields and mile after mile of straight boundary walls. The major phase of reclamation of the Humberhead Levels began in the 17th century, earlier enclosure being concentrated in the north. Landlords had a strong impact on the pattern of building in these areas, most notably in the enclosure and building of large steadings for tenants in the Wolds.

2 BUILDING MATERIALS

NATIONAL FRAMEWORK

The use of locally available materials, combined with local vernacular traditions, makes a fundamental contribution to local and regional diversity.

Long-rooted traditions such as earth walling, thatch and timber frame, survived much longer on farm buildings than farmhouses. Buildings in stone and brick, roofed with tile or slate, increasingly replaced such buildings from the later 18th century.

Standardised forms of construction, including softwood roof trusses, developed across the country in the 19th century, often reflecting the availability of materials such as Welsh slate transported along the canals and, later, the railways. Corrugated iron was used from the late 19th century as a cheap means of replacing or covering roofs (particularly thatch) in poor condition.

REGIONAL PATTERNS

A great diversity of building traditions are found across the Region, for example in the use of crucks for building construction in upland areas and their absence from the lowland vales where carpentry traditions – and patterns of enclosure and fieldscapes – shared much in common with those of the Midlands.

Local building materials and building techniques contribute to the diversity of the Region, especially through the great range of building stones available including sandstones, limestones, cobbles and chalk. Watershot masonry, where the outer face is tilted to throw water off the walls, is a technique that was used in upland areas between the late 18th and mid-19th centuries. Through stones are a characteristic feature in the Yorkshire Dales.

Structural timber framing is now mostly concentrated in the Vale of York and Holderness, and also found in the aisled barns of South Yorkshire.

Brickwork is typical of the Yorkshire Wolds, Holderness and the vales. It was hardly used in the west of the Region until the later 19th century. Details such as 'tumbled' brickwork, a feature found from northern East Anglia to Northumberland, weather-proofing gable tops, and the use of dentilled or cogged eaves are important characteristics of brickwork in the Region.

Stone slates are characteristic of the Yorkshire Dales and the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Hills. Usually of limestone, some of the Region's sandstones could also be split to create large slates. Pantiles became the dominant roof covering in the eastern areas of the Region by the late 19th century.

3 FARMSTEADS

NATIONAL FRAMEWORK – FARMSTEAD TYPES

The scale and form of farmstead plan types are subject to much variation and are closely related to farm size and status, terrain and land use. It was far more common for the houses on farms in northern and western England to be attached to the farm buildings. By contrast, even small farms in the South East and East Anglia were characterised by detached houses and separate buildings, often loosely arranged around the sides of a yard.

- *Linear plans*, where houses and farm buildings are attached, were ideally suited to small farms (usually stock rearing and dairying), especially in northern

pastoral areas with little corn and longer winters where there was an obvious advantage in having cattle and their fodder (primarily hay) in one enclosed building. They now display a wide range in scale, from large steadings of independent Pennine yeoman-farmers to the smallholdings of miner-farmers.
- *Dispersed plans*, comprising clusters and unplanned groupings of separate buildings, were more widespread. They now range from those of hamlets, where the buildings of different owners were often intermixed, to large-scale individual steadings, some of which were of high status.
- *Loose courtyard plans* became most strongly associated with large and/or arable farms. The buildings are built around a yard with or without scatters of other farm buildings close by.
- *Regular courtyard plans*, where the various functions were carefully placed in relation to one another in order to minimise the waste of labour, and where the manure could be conserved, were built – at first on large estates – from the later 18th century.

REGIONAL PATTERNS – FARMSTEAD TYPES

Linear layouts – invariably the result of development over time – are now dominant in the western uplands and the North Yorkshire Moors, but would have been much more widespread across the Region. In the North Yorkshire Moors, it is clear that the **longhouse** plan was dominant until the 18th century.

A regionally distinct linear plan-type found in the Pennines is the **laithe house**, the word 'laithe' or 'lathe' being a northern English dialect word for a combined barn and cow house. The house and farm buildings are usually of one build, but there is no cross passage or inter-connection between them. Typical of the central Pennines, but also found in Cumbria and Bowland and Rossendale in Lancashire, examples date from the mid-17th century but are not common until after 1750, with a concentration in the 1780–1840 period. They typically served farms of about 30 acres or less, and are most densely concentrated in the Pennine part of West Yorkshire and Lancashire, where dual income from farming and industry – primarily textiles, but also lead working – enabled smallholdings to be economically viable.

In the lowland areas of the Region it is more common, on larger farms and those established on new sites, to find farmhouses, planned on very different lines from upland examples, detached from the farm buildings. From the mid-18th century larger lowland farms would typically be served by a farmstead ranged around a courtyard. This Region shares with the North East some of the earliest and most architecturally distinguished examples of Georgian planned farm complexes. Whilst small farms could be provided with formally planned yards, courtyard plans were most commonly developed on farms established as a result of enclosure from the later 18th century and are mostly concentrated on the large farms of the arable lowlands and in the Tabular Hills and throughout the Wolds. In the Wolds, they form part of one of the most coherent designed landscapes in the country. In Holderness and the Humberhead Levels, T- or L-shaped complexes are common.

NATIONAL FRAMEWORK – BUILDING TYPES

The functions of crop processing and storage and the accommodation of animals and birds determine the variety of building types, which could house one or a combination of functions. The principal types are listed below.

Barns are generally the largest farm buildings to be found on farms. They were either designed solely for storing and processing the corn crop, these being most common in areas of arable production, or as combination barns to incorporate many functions. Threshing machines, usually powered by horses accommodated in a projecting wheel house, were introduced from the later 18th century. Split-level mixing barns developed in many regions from the later 18th century as a result of the widespread introduction of machinery for processing corn and fodder. The introduction of the portable steam engine and threshing machine in the 1850s heralded the end of the traditional barn as a building for storage and processing.

Field barns were built in areas where farmsteads and fields were sited at a long distance from each other, and where holdings were intermixed. **Granaries** were either detached or built over stables and cart sheds. **Cart sheds** often faced away from the farmyard and were typically close to the stables and roadways, giving direct access to the fields. **Stables** were normally two-storey well-lit buildings with a hayloft above. **Cow houses** were typically built for dairy cattle. The folding of stock in strawed-down yards and feeding them with root crops became more general from the later 18th century, together with the subdivision of yards into smaller areas and the construction of **shelter sheds** and **looseboxes.** **Pigs** were undoubtedly kept on most farms and particularly on dairying establishments, where there was a ready supply of whey on which to feed them. **Dovecotes** were built to house pigeons, which provided variety to the diets of high-status households and a rich source of manure.

REGIONAL FRAMEWORK – BUILDING TYPES

Barns that functioned only as a building for crop processing are uncommon, and are concentrated in lowland vales. In much of the Region the crop was loaded into the barn from outside and pitching windows and small winnowing doors, opposite the main barn

entry, are common features. Buildings that incorporated several functions – including the threshing of the corn crop, animal housing, fodder storage and sometimes a cart shed – are typical of the Region. There is a huge variety in the planning and form of combination barns across the Region. These include a large group of aisled barns dating from the 15th to mid-17th centuries concentrated around the South and West Yorkshire Pennines, but also extending into Lancashire, the most significant concentration of such buildings outside southern East Anglia and southern England. Most combination barns are wholly or part-lofted, with entries for cattle in one or both ends, and examples along the Pennines date from the 17th century. Cattle could also be accommodated in lean-tos attached to barns, a common feature of upland areas. Late 18th- and 19th-century shelter sheds facing into a cattle yard are uncommon in the Pennines, but are more commonly found associated with farmsteads in the North Yorkshire Moors, the Wolds and other lowland areas of the Region. Cow houses are commonly integrated into linear farmstead plans, or stand as small detached structures, upland areas.

Granaries, cart sheds and other individual functions most often appear in combination with others in continuous ranges. Combined granary/cart shed ranges with arcaded ground floors are a distinctive feature of lowland farmsteads and the North Yorkshire Moors, being mostly early to mid-19th century in date and very similar in form to those built in the lowlands of the North East Region.

There are many mid- to late 19th-century examples of open-sided hay barns in lowland areas. In areas characterised by larger farms, typically in the Wolds and surrounding flatlands (particularly Holderness), outfarms mostly dating from the early to mid-19th century are found.

Field barns are a highly distinctive feature of parts of the Region, and a highly distinctive feature of the Yorkshire Dales. As well as the main byre and barn on the farmstead, upland farms also included isolated free-standing field barns. The buildings provided storage for hay in a loft, reducing the need to cart it back to the main farmstead, and the cattle could be housed below, allowing for manure to be moved easily onto the surrounding fields in the spring. Another factor in the building of field barns was the more severe winter weather, which meant that cattle had to be housed for at least twice as long as in the South West.

Sheep buildings and stells. In some Pennine Dales a building similar in appearance to a field barn was provided for the hoggs or yearling sheep to give them protection over their first winter.

1.0 Introduction

If the land is best suited for tillage, then the outhouses must be adapted to the purposes of keeping cattle for plowing; of holding and thrashing corn; and of preserving straw, &c. for winter food. In the counties where oxen plow, ox-houses must exceed the quantity of stabling: if where horses only are used, stables alone will be sufficient. If the land seems to promise fairest for pasturage, then cow houses, suckling-houses, sheepcots, dairies, and fattening houses must predominate; and if for grass, much barn-room seems unnecessary.

The Complete English Farmer, 1771, quoted in Wiliam 1986, p.67

Farm buildings are the leitmotif of the countryside. It seems appropriate to describe them with a musical term for they are thematic, and the resonance of their forms, colours and textures within the scenery is that of sound, overall and orchestrated. Here and there is the solo instrument, spectacular in its own right, but much more important is the orchestral effect.

Darley, Gillian (1981) *The National Trust Book of the Farm*, The National Trust, London, p.7

Historic farmsteads and their buildings make a fundamental contribution to the richly varied character of our countryside, and illustrate the long history of farming and settlement in the English landscape. England displays a huge diversity in geology, with a greater variety in small areas than anywhere else in Europe, which combined with varied farming practices has resulted in a great diversity of materials and types of farmstead.

It is clear, however, that we know far more about the nature and processes of change affecting land cover and field pattern than we do about agriculture's built environment and its contribution to countryside character and local distinctiveness. Furthermore, we know far less about the working than the domestic buildings of the farmstead. Recent research has made initial efforts to address this issue, and has made it clear how the domestic and working buildings of the farmstead are subject to very different processes of change (Gaskell & Owen, 2005).

English Heritage is now undertaking to develop this knowledge base in order to inform diverse future outcomes, such as the targeting of grant aid and the development of character-based policies for the sustainable reuse of farm buildings. This document is one of eight regional *preliminary character statements* that aim to promote better and more accessible understanding of the character of farm buildings. It is important, as a first step in this process, to present an information base for a broad diversity of users with an interest in researching, understanding and managing historic farmsteads. It has therefore been written as a sourced synthesis of information, drawing together information that will enable the farmsteads of each Region to be better understood within the national context of farmstead and agricultural development, and their surrounding fields and settlements. As this is a preliminary statement, it and future work will benefit greatly from information and comments. These will be gratefully received at the following e-mail address: **jeremy.lake@english-heritage.org.uk**.

The objectives of this document are:

- To provide an information base and introduction to the subject.
- To place the development of the farmsteads and farm buildings of the Yorkshire and the Humber Region within their national context.
- To demonstrate, with examples, how the *present* stock of farmsteads and their buildings reflects the diversity of farming, settlement and landscape character in the Yorkshire and the Humber Region.
- To provide broad guidance on the value and survival by period and functional type.

An accompanying policy booklet has also been prepared, which makes the case for urgent action and considers

the importance of historic farm buildings, their value and their future See *Living buildings in a living landscape: finding a future for traditional farm buildings*, at **www.helm.org.uk/ruraldevelopment**.

In each of the following sections, the national overview is presented immediately before the regional statement. For example, on the topic of barns, the national overview describes the development, variety and uses of barns nationally while the regional statement describes the variety that can be seen in the barns of the Region.

Section 2 provides an introduction to characterisation and briefly describes the landscape character of the Region, examining the pattern of rural settlement across the Region.

Section 3 describes the predominant building materials used for farm buildings nationally and in the Region.

Section 4 provides a brief introduction to the agricultural history of England with particular reference to the development of farmsteads and farm buildings divided into the major periods, supported by statements relating to the survival and significance of farm buildings from each period. This is followed by a summary of the agricultural history of the Region.

Section 5 provides a national and regional background of types of farmsteads and farm buildings.

Sections 6, 7 and 8 provide a national and regional overview of key building types.

Section 9 provides a Glossary of terms both familiar and unfamiliar to the reader (e.g. dairy, linhay, enclosure).

Section 10 provides a list of national and regional sources for further reference.

It is also important at this stage to outline a distinction in terminology. 'Traditional' is a term often used to describe farm buildings pre-dating 1940, after which modern building materials (concrete, steel, asbestos sheet) and revolutions in farming technology and farmstead planning marked a sharp divide with previous practice. 'Historic' is more encompassing, as it includes farmsteads of all dates, irrespective of changes in form and material; it has been used in this document in order that the reader can view the history of farm buildings, and their change and adaptation over the centuries, within their broad historical context.

2.0 Understanding Context and Character

2.1 LANDSCAPE CHARACTER AND CHARACTERISATION

Landscape character is defined as a distinct and recognisable pattern of elements that occur consistently in a particular type of landscape. Particular combinations of geology (Figure 1A), landform, soils, vegetation, land use, field patterns and human settlement create character. Character makes each part of the landscape distinct, and gives each its particular sense of place. Landscape-scale techniques for understanding and guiding future change, now brigaded under the heading of characterisation, have developed since the 1990s. These have developed as multi-disciplinary and holistic tools for understanding the whole rural environment, its capacity to absorb change and its links to community values and needs.

During the 1990s the Countryside Commission worked with English Nature and English Heritage to identify Joint Character Areas (159 in total) for the whole of England, each of these resulting from a combination of factors such as land cover, geology, soils, topography, and settlement and enclosure patterns. These are now being used as the framework for the delivery of advice and the targeting of resources for many aspects of the rural environment, most recently to farmers under the Higher Level Stewardship Agri-Environment schemes, and local authorities have taken forward this methodology for Landscape Character Assessments on a finer scale. These are also being used as the spatial framework for reporting change in the countryside, in the Countryside Quality Counts project (see **www.cqc.org.uk**).

The Yorkshire and the Humber Region extends over the Joint Character Areas listed in Figure 1B. Whenever the text cross-refers to the Joint Character Areas, they will be listed by their number (i.e. JCA 152). The key characteristics and a detailed description and map for each Character Area are available from the Countryside Agency's website **(www.countryside.gov.uk/lar/landscape)**. The web addresses for each JCA are detailed in Section 11.

Human impact has been central to the development and present character of landscape. Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC), which is being developed by English Heritage with its county and local partners, is using GIS mapping techniques to deepen our understanding and perception of the long historical development of our landscapes. The practical applications of HLC now include development plans, a broad range of conservation and enhancement strategies, strategic land-use planning and similar initiatives, and research and academic implications (Clark, Darlington & Fairclough, 2004; Rippon, 2005, 100–142).

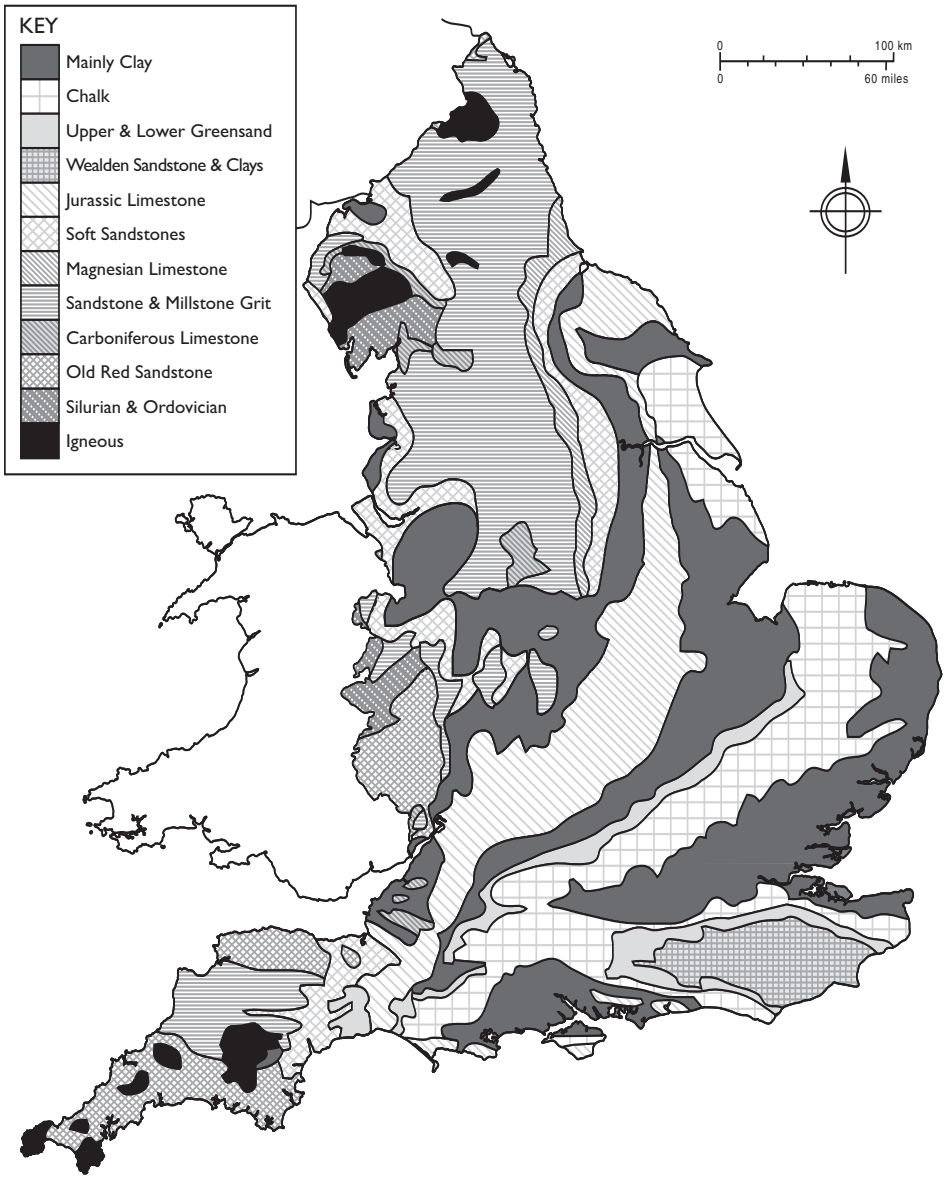
Pilot work is now indicating that the density and time-depth of farmsteads, and the rates of survival of different types of steading and building, are closely related to patterns of historically conditioned landscape character and type (Lake & Edwards 2006). This work represents a shift in focus away from individual buildings to a more question-based and holistic approach, one that uses landscape to both reflect and inform the patterning of the built environment. Recording and understanding at a local scale can both test and refine these broad-based, contextualised statements and contribute towards a more integrated understanding of both buildings and landscapes.

For characterisation see:
www.english-heritage.org.uk/characterisation

2.2 THE CHARACTER OF THE YORKSHIRE AND HUMBER REGION: AN INTRODUCTION

The Yorkshire and Humber Region, comprising South Yorkshire, North Yorkshire, West Yorkshire, The East Riding of Yorkshire, York, Kingston-upon-Hull, North Lincolnshire and North East Lincolnshire, is one of the most diverse of the English regions. The south-west of the Region is heavily urbanised, with 75% of the Region's population living in the three cities of Leeds, Bradford and Sheffield. Conversely, in the north and east there is an extensive rural area, which accounts for over 12% of England's agricultural land (ERDP 2000).

The Region presents a wide variety of landscapes and character areas, and encompasses the farming traditions of both highland and lowland zones. To the west the Region is bound by the backbone of the Pennines represented by the Yorkshire Dales, the Southern Pennines and the Dark Peak character areas. This large-scale upland landscape is one of contrasts between the high, exposed moorland and the deep dales that dissect it. Each of the Dales has its own distinctive character. East of the Yorkshire Dales is the Pennine Dales Fringe, a transitional landscape between the upland, pastoral west and the predominantly arable, lowland east. These upland areas fall to the east to the heavily urbanised areas of the Yorkshire Southern Pennine Fringe and the Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire and Yorkshire Coalfield, where development is mainly confined to the major river valleys that dissect the



1A Geology map of England
England displays a huge diversity in geology, with a greater variety in small areas than anywhere else in Europe. The Yorkshire and Humber Region has a varied geology providing sandstone and limestones for both walling and roofing. The widespread availability of good stone means that it is the dominant building material and is a major contributor to local distinctiveness.
Based upon 'Solid Geology' Source Defra / BGS, NERC: by permission of the British Geological Survey IPR/52-65C. ©NERC / Crown copyright. OS Licence no. 100042054

landscape leaving the surrounding hillsides as enclosed pasture and rough grazing.

The Pennine chain and bordering areas – characterized by hill farming on the upper slopes and dairy farming in the mid and lower dales – are divided from the central lowland valley landscapes by the Southern Magnesian Limestone area, which forms an elevated ridge with smoothly rolling landform, dissected by dry valleys. Running north to south through the Region are the low valley landscapes of the Tees Lowland, the Vale of Mowbray, the Vale of York and the Humberhead Levels. All these, and the Southern Magnesian Limestone, are marked by better quality soils, predominantly Grade 2 and 3 but with a concentration of Grade 1 land in the Humberhead Levels. The Humberhead Levels is one of the most productive arable areas of the country, although there are areas of sandy heath that have often been planted with coniferous woodland. The arable-based husbandry of these lowland areas is historically more akin to that of Midland counties.

To the north-east of the Region is the upland plateau of the North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills, which rise to over 400m at their highest point and are predominantly poor-quality soils or forest. Dividing the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Hills to the north and the Yorkshire Wolds to the south is the Vale of Pickering. In the south-eastern corner of the Region are the extensive chalk deposits of the Yorkshire Wolds and the gently undulating plain of Holderness. South of the Humber estuary, the northern tip of the Lincolnshire Wolds, Marshes and Vale enters the Region.

The Pennine uplands and foothills in the west of the Region and the North Yorkshire Moors in the north-east are characterised by severe weather conditions, especially in winter. The high rainfall in the Pennines decreases rapidly eastwards and southwards: 60–70 inches of rain on the North Pennines, falling to 25 in the south Pennines and below that in the vales (Raistrick 1970, p.19). The North Yorkshire Moors are generally drier. The growing season ranges from around 190 days in the Pennine uplands and the North Yorkshire

JCA number	JCA name
21	Yorkshire Dales
22	Pennine Dales Fringe
23	Tees Lowlands
24	Vale of Mowbray
25	North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills
26	Vale of Pickering
27	Yorkshire Wolds
28	Vale of York
29	Howardian Hills
30	Southern Magnesian Limestone
33	Bowland Fringe and Pendle Hill
35	Lancashire Valleys
36	Southern Pennines
37	Yorkshire Southern Pennine Fringe
38	Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire and Yorkshire Coalfield
39	Humberhead Levels
40	Holderness
41	Humber Estuary
42	Lincolnshire Coast and Marshes
43	Lincolnshire Wolds
44	Central Lincolnshire Vale
45	Northern Lincolnshire Edge with Coversands
51	Dark Peak

1B This map shows the Character Areas relating to this Region. These are known as Countryside Character Areas or most commonly now as Joint Character Areas, this reflecting their development as multi-disciplinary means of mapping, defining and describing the character of distinct areas. *Based upon Joint Character Areas. Source: Defra / English Nature / Countryside Agency. © / Crown copyright OS Licence no. 100042054*

Moors, which limits agricultural production to extensive livestock systems, and around 230 days on the Yorkshire Wolds, where cold east winds give rise to higher rainfall, to 250–275 days in the Vales and around the Humber estuary (ERDP 2000).

Further east on the lower lands of the Vales of York and Pickering, the Wolds and the area around the Humber estuary conditions are more temperate. In Holderness, where a large proportion of the land is high-quality Grade 2 agricultural land, the agriculture is predominantly large-scale arable cultivation and livestock farming – particularly the fattening of cattle. South of the Humber estuary a continuation of the chalk, the northern tip of the Lincolnshire Wolds, enters the Region.

2.3 THE CHARACTER OF RURAL SETTLEMENT

2.3.1 NATIONAL FRAMEWORK

Farmland has historically been divided into arable for growing corn and other crops, and meadow for hay and grass. In the past, farmers also had access to fallow land, land laid open after the harvest and areas of rougher common ground for grazing livestock. Patterns of settlement in the countryside varied from large, nucleated villages to dispersed settlement areas with scattered, isolated hamlets and farmsteads, both being closely related to the patterns of fields and their associated boundaries in the surrounding landscape. There were many variations between the two extremes of communal open fields with their scattered holdings,

which typically developed around larger nucleated settlements, and the anciently enclosed fields of isolated farmsteads and hamlets.

Re-arranging previously communal fields or common pasture land into self-contained private land units enabled the rationalisation of formerly scattered holdings, allowing better management of livestock and rotation of crops. This process of enclosure – evident from the 14th century and even earlier – resulted in the immediate or gradual establishment of new isolated farmsteads out in the fields. It could be undertaken on a piecemeal basis, or in one single phase, the latter form of enclosure being typically more regular in its appearance. Enclosure by parliamentary act, some of which formalised earlier agreements, often resulted in new designed landscapes. Parliamentary enclosure was concentrated in the period 1750 to 1880.

English Heritage has commissioned work on mapping these patterns of settlement in the English countryside, now published as *An Atlas of Rural Settlement in England* (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000) and *Region and Place, A Study of English Rural Settlement* (Roberts & Wrathmell 2002). In summary, it has been demonstrated that a Central Province mostly characterised by nucleated settlement and, by the 14th century, communal fields which occupied the great majority of the land area, is flanked by a South-Eastern Province and both a Northern and Western Province where settlement is mostly dispersed (Figure 2).

In areas of *nucleated settlement* in the medieval period and later, the majority of farmsteads were sited in villages and the surrounding land dominated by communally managed open fields, where the holdings of individual farmers were inter-mixed and farmed in rotation as meadow or arable land. Many open field systems were created during the period from the 9th to the 12th centuries, replacing earlier dispersed patterns of settlement with nucleated villages with communally managed fields, many of which were clearly planned by estates.

Farmsteads in areas of *dispersed settlement* are commonly isolated or clustered in hamlets. They are commonly medieval in origin (pre-14th century generally) and often surrounded by ancient and irregular patterns of field boundaries, including the reclamation of woodland or waste. Typically smaller and more numerous than the open fields of Midlands villages, these fields were either farmed from the outset as compact farming units or contained the scattered holdings or strips of individual farmers that were farmed on a communal basis. Areas of pasture and rough grazing were typically far greater in extent than in areas of nucleated settlement, and have again been subject to varying rates of enclosure from the 14th century.

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

In some areas, the remains of earlier, including pre-Roman, farmsteads are visible as crop-marks or earthworks close to existing farmsteads or villages (see Roberts 1976 and Taylor 1983 for a useful introduction). While research is demonstrating that existing parish and field boundaries possibly originate from very early, even pre-Roman, field and estate boundaries, it is exceptionally rare for present farmstead sites – as in Cornwall's West Penwith – to display such continuity.

2.3.2 RURAL SETTLEMENT IN YORKSHIRE AND THE HUMBER

There is extensive evidence throughout the Region for Roman and pre-Roman settlement, varying from scattered farms set amongst enclosed fields to elongated villages following trackways, termed 'ladder settlements'. Present-day patterns of settlement date from the 7th century at the earliest, many place names indicating later settlement by invading Norse or Danish communities. Settlement patterns vary greatly across the Region, from isolated upland farmsteads and hamlets to larger, nucleated settlements in lowland areas which mostly date from between the 9th and 13th centuries.

The Yorkshire and Humber Region is divided by the boundary between the Central Province and the Northern and Western Province as defined by Roberts and Wrathmell (2000, p.8). The boundary between the provinces closely corresponds to the line of the Southern Magnesian Limestone character area, and is clearly defined by the greater number of isolated farmsteads and hamlets in the transitional and upland landscapes to the west. Along the western border of the Region, the rugged upland character of the landscape means that there is little settlement of any form (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000).

The majority of the Region lies within the Central Province where nucleated villages predominate and where, generally, there are few dispersed hamlets and farmsteads (Figure 2). North Yorkshire was subject to the 'Harrying of the North' by William the Conqueror in the late 11th century, which probably resulted in the abandonment or disruption of settlements across parts

2 Rural settlement in England

Rural settlement can broadly be divided into two types: nucleated villages and dispersed farmsteads and hamlets. Figure 2 presents an analysis of the settlement pattern of England in the mid-19th century that identifies three 'provinces'. The Central Province, mostly characterised by nucleated settlement and once dominated by communal fields, stretches from Dorset, through Gloucestershire, the East Midlands, Yorkshire and along the north-east coast. This area is flanked by a South-Eastern Province covering the area from Dorset and Wiltshire to East Anglia, and a Northern & Western Province. In these Provinces settlement is mostly dispersed. The Yorkshire and Humber Region is divided between the Northern and Western Province characterised by largely dispersed settlement across the Pennines, and the Central Province covering the eastern part of the Region where settlement is predominantly nucleated, although there are areas that have medium levels of dispersed settlement intermixed with nucleated villages.

Source: An Atlas of Rural Settlement in. England (2000) ©English Heritage / Roberts, B.K. & S. Wrathmell

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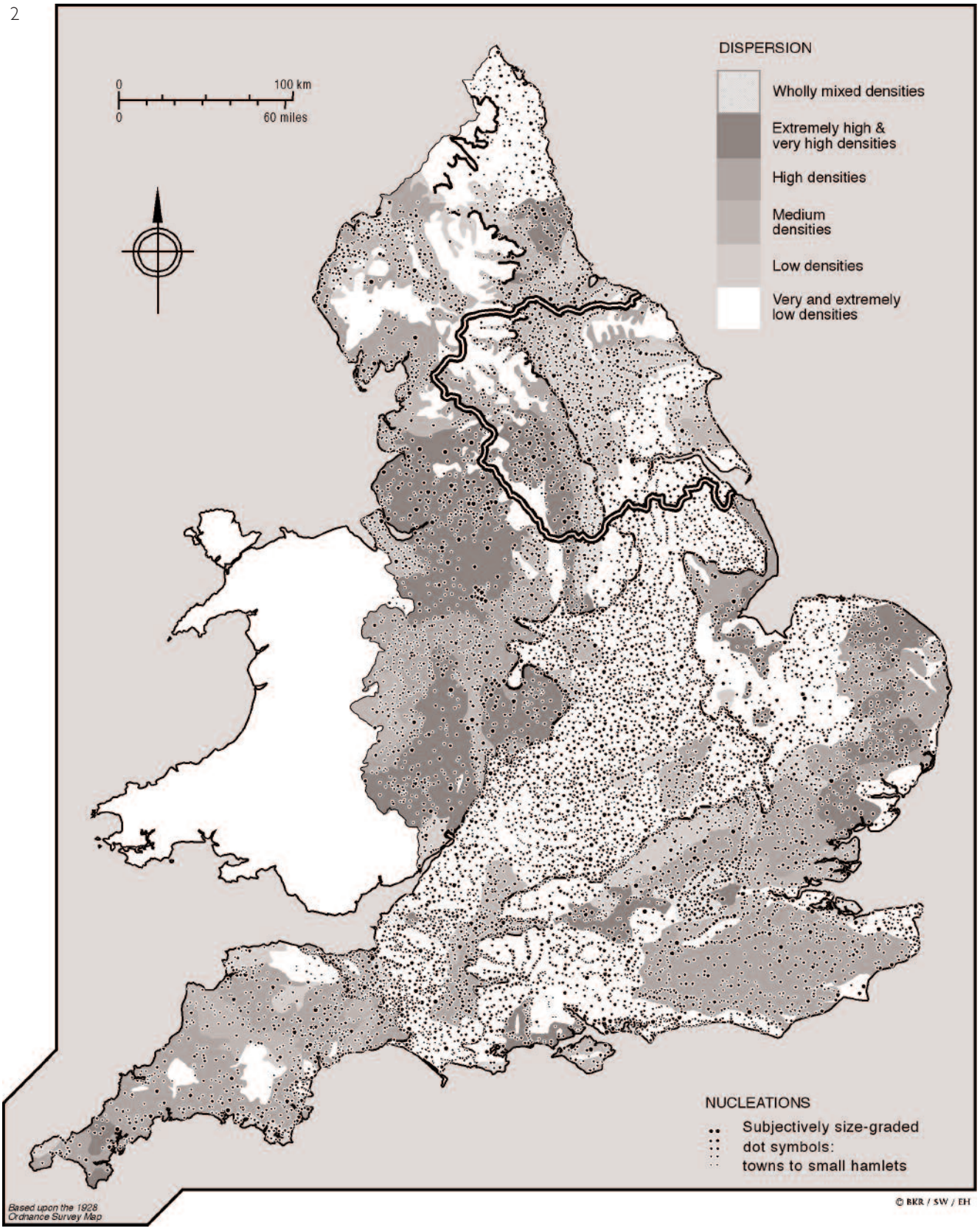


of the Region, although the area did not suffer to the same extent as neighbouring Durham. One sixth of Yorkshire villages were established in the period 1086 to 1350 (Miller in Hallam 1988, pp.246–7). Resettlement was often organised and resulted in the creation of regular planned villages in the 12th and 13th centuries, sometimes set alongside a green, resulting in the area north of the Humber having the highest concentration of regular row plans in the country (Roberts 1987, pp.184–5; Roberts & Wrathmell 2002, p.142). This regulation is evident in layouts where dwellings were set out facing each other in neat rows, beside the road or roadside green, with each dwelling standing in a long narrow plot or 'toft' terminating at a continuous boundary, sometimes marked by a back lane.

Strongly linked to the predominance of nucleated settlement was the concentration of open-field farming (focused on two- or three-field systems) in the lowland vales, Holderness and the Wolds (Miller in Hallam 1988, p.399). There is a measure of local variation within these areas. The central part of the Holderness area, for example, has a higher density of dispersed settlement, which is also reflected in the number of moated sites of medieval origin found in that area. Moated sites are also concentrated along the Vales of York and Mowbray and the northern part of Humberhead (Roberts & Wrathmell 2002, p.57).

Although the Region is remarkable for its number of medieval planned villages, there are examples that were never laid out to a set pattern but coalesced gradually from the merging of separate clusters of dwellings and farmhouses. There are also many estate villages of 19th-century date in the lowland areas and the Wolds that are planned settlements and often distinctive through the use of 'estate styles' in the designs of the buildings and the materials used.

3.0 Building Materials

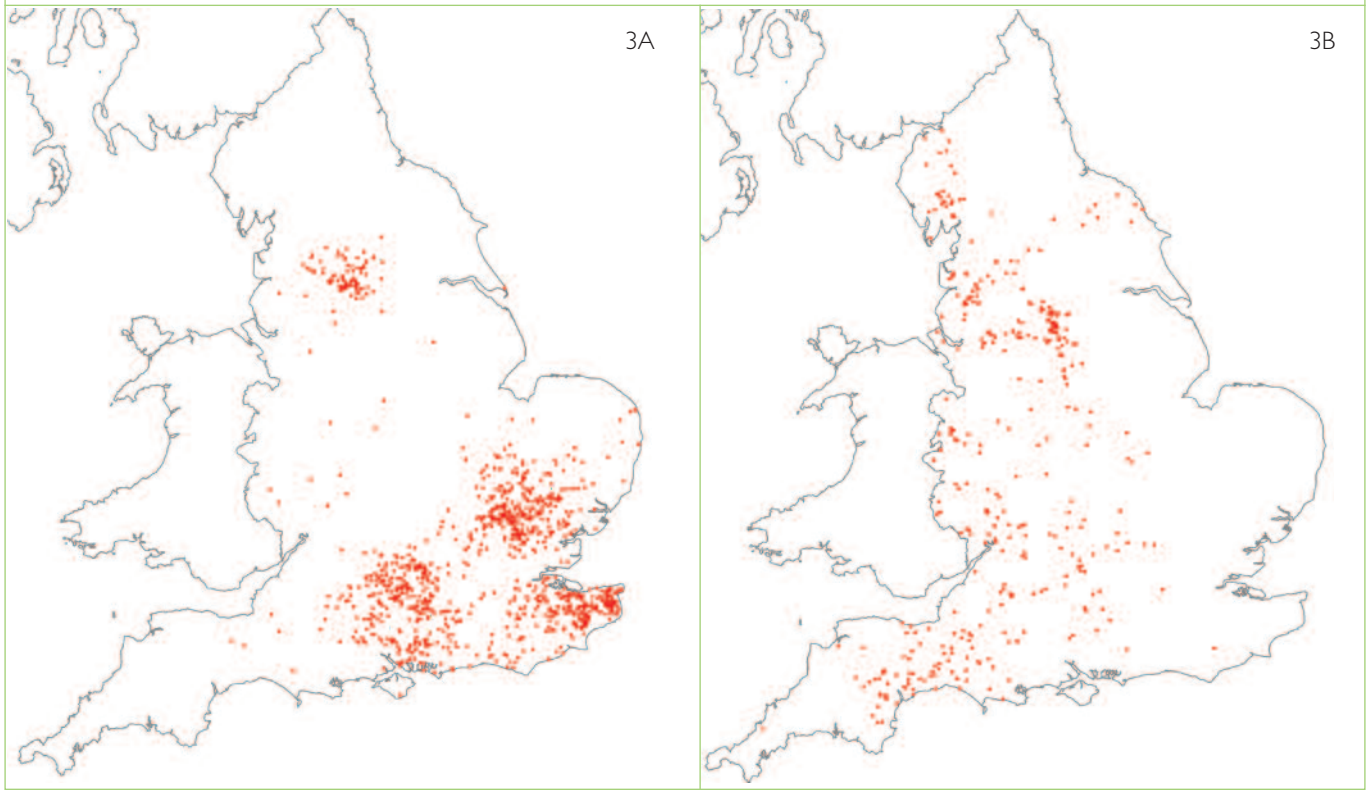
3.1 NATIONAL OVERVIEW

Farm buildings were frequently altered and re-roofed, and survivals can display evidence for successive phases of rebuilding, marked by straight joints in masonry or indications of mortise holes and joints in timberwork.

The present stock of farm buildings displays strong local and regional variation. This is the result of a range of factors, particularly England's huge diversity in geology, the status of the owner, availability of resources managed in the local landscape and the cost of manufactured materials (Rackham 1972; Moir 1997). Long-rooted traditions such as earth walling and thatch in Cornwall and timber frame in Norfolk, survived much longer on farm buildings than farmhouses, and were not overtaken by increasingly fashionable and robust forms of construction (such as stone in parts of Cornwall, brick in Norfolk) until the early to mid-19th century (Potts 1974; Lucas 1997). 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. Buildings in stone and brick, and roofed with tile or slate, increasingly replaced buildings in clay, timber and thatch from the later 18th century. Mass-walled buildings comprise the majority of listed agricultural buildings (67%), with timber framing accounting for just over one quarter of entries.

There are strong regional and local differences in roof construction and carpentry, as is still demonstrated by the distribution of aisled and cruck buildings (Figures 3 and 4). From the medieval period, the unit of reference in timber-framed and mass-walled buildings became the bay, the distance between principal roof trusses. These bays could also mark out different areas of storage within barns and other buildings (see 3.1.1.3). Iron bolts, straps and tension bars became increasingly common, often in combination with imported softwood, in the 19th century. Textbooks such as Waistell's *Designs for Agricultural Buildings* (1827) and Stephens's *Book of the Farm* (1844) helped to promote more standardised forms of construction. Metal roofs were used from the 1850s for covered yards and other buildings on expensive planned

3 The distribution of aisled (left) and cruck (right) barns in England. Aisled construction, used for domestic buildings from the 12th century at the highest level in society, was suited to the storage and constructional requirements of large barns. The weighting of the distribution is southern English, stretching into the south of the East of England Region, with outliers being generally of a high status and dating from before 1550; a notable concentration in northern England is in the Halifax–Huddersfield area, where the wealth derived from a combination of farming and the cloth industry in the 15th and 16th centuries led to the construction of a notable group of aisled houses and barns. Aisled construction continued to be employed in southern England into the 19th century.
Crucks in domestic buildings have a date range from the mid-13th to the mid-17th centuries, examples in the north of England being generally later in date, whereas in agricultural buildings the earliest survivals are 15th century and the latest (in the southern Pennines) early 18th century. There is a wide variety of forms in cruck construction.



4A Aisled barn, Cressing Temple, Essex. One of the earliest barns in England and one of two 13th-century barns surviving from an estate of the Knights Hospitaller erected with timber felled between 1259 and 1280. (South Suffolk and North Essex Claylands)
B Barn at Cross Farm, Burgh-by-Sands, Cumbria, showing the full crucks to the interior of a late 17th-century clay-walled barn. This is one of a group of such barns on the Solway Plain, dating from between the 14th and 17th centuries. (Solway Basin)
A © English Heritage / Michael Williams; B © Jen Deadman

farmsteads, but did not come into general use – mainly for covered yards – until the end of the 19th century. Pre-fabricated buildings in iron were manufactured and exported from the 1840s, the most well known on the farmstead being the Dutch barn (see 6.4.1), popular from the 1880s. Factory-made prefabricated buildings, built to standard widths applicable to a wide variety of uses, have since the 1950s been the standard building type used on farms. The principal materials are summarised below.

3.1.1 WALLING

3.1.1.1 Temporary structures

As could be expected, the most fragile structures are documented from excavation or archives (for example the Wiltshire vicarage stable 'enclosed with hurdle work' in Hobbs [Ed] 2000, xvi and p.438) but have not survived. A long-standing building tradition, where posts were set directly in the ground with no definable bay structure, is documented from excavation and has survived in use for single-storey structures (including 18th-century cart sheds and 20th-century tractor sheds) to the present day (Lake 1989, p.43).

3.1.1.2 Mass walling

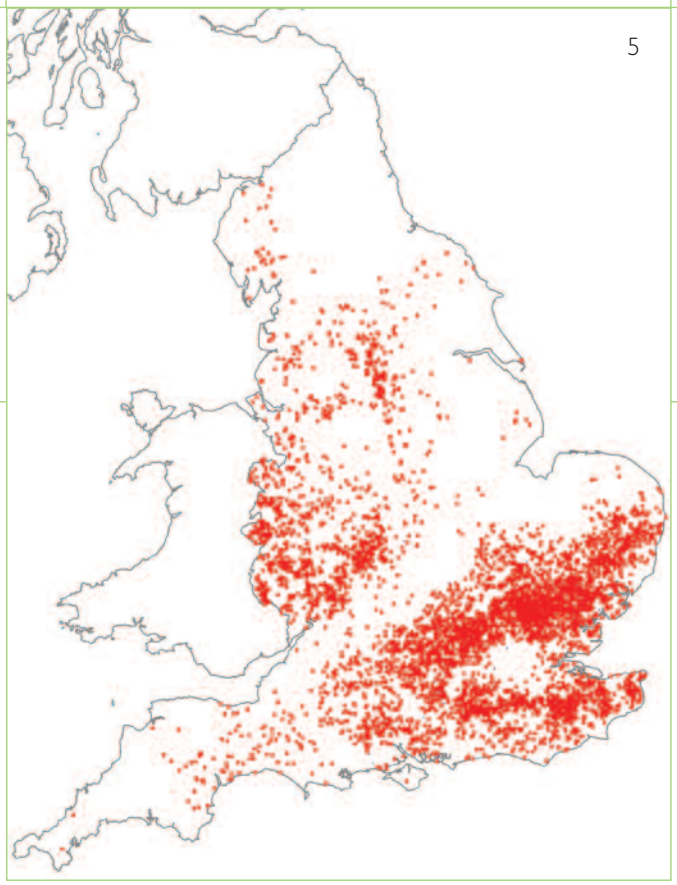
Mass-walled buildings now dominate the traditional farm building stock, almost exclusively so in the three northern regions. Stone and brick display a wide variety of treatment, their use reflecting not only the availability of materials but also the status of the farm and its owner. Large parts of England – particularly in the South East, South West, East of England, the East Midlands and the North West – display different traditions of walling in earth, dating from the 14th century (Figure 5). Concrete was used from the 1860s on some farms, for example for silage clamps, but did not achieve general use until after the 1950s.

3.1.1.3 Timber frame

Timber-framed buildings are concentrated in the East of England, the South East and the West Midlands. The basic vocabulary of construction had been developed by the 13th century – notably the use of sophisticated jointing techniques, particularly at the junction of the main posts and roof trusses (the so-called bay divisions), and timber sills raised off the ground on dwarf walls. Climate and patterns of land use and ownership have affected the availability of timber and, together with cultural factors, have influenced the distribution, appearance of distinct traditions in timber framing and the framing of roof trusses for mass-walled buildings (Smith 1965; Stenning & Andrews 1988; and Figures 3 and 5). The infill between the timber frames would either be wattle and daub (a clay and straw mix), brick (often a later addition) or simply left as a wattle framework. Timber planks, either rebated or slotted like wattle, were also used but now only survive in very rare instances. External walling and render can also disguise evidence of earlier timber framing, including cruck and aisled construction.

3.1.1.4 Timber cladding

In parts of the country – particularly in the South East, East of England and the western part of the West Midlands – timber frames were often clad in horizontally fixed weatherboarding. Hand-sawn hardwood boarding is now rarely found, as machine-sawn softwood was increasingly used from the late 18th century. Weatherboarding is either applied to a whole building (most commonly in regions in the South East and the southern part of the East of England) or to the upper portions of sidewalls (a common use in the West Midlands). Vertical boarding is mainly found in the South East. This had cover strips to prevent the ingress of rain; surviving examples date from the late 19th century. Hit-and-miss timber boarding, sometimes known as Yorkshire boarding, has been widely in use as cladding since the



5 Listed timber-framed barns in England. Although listing concentrates on the generally best-preserved sample of surviving buildings, this map broadly shows the extent of present survival. Note the separation – marked by the limestone belt running from Dorset to Yorkshire – of the major concentrations in south-east and central southern England and western and northern England, where separate traditions of carpentry and framing developed. The map also reveals much about patterns of loss, and particularly rebuilding in stone and brick, over the centuries. There is a sharp boundary, for example, between the claylands of south Norfolk and Suffolk and the lighter soils of Breckland and north Norfolk, where brick had generally replaced timber frame by the 19th century. The absence of timber frame in the North East, where again it is documented, is notable. Such a map presents an obvious invitation to future analysis and research.

1970s, since it provides good ventilation and meets modern animal welfare requirements.

3.1.1.5 Corrugated iron
See 3.1.2.3.

3.1.2 ROOFING

3.1.2.1 Thatch
Thatch was common in large parts of the country, and farmers used a wide range of locally available materials: heather, bracken, reeds, rushes, grass, turf, and straw from oats, barley, wheat and rye. Thatch, predominantly made of wheat straw or water reed, is now mainly confined to southern England and East Anglia (Figure 6). Heather and bracken was, until the 19th century, used in upland areas of moorland and heath, such as Dartmoor, the Pennines, the North Yorkshire Moors and the Cheviots. Solid thatch, where the whole of the roof space was filled with materials such as heather or gorse with a straw or reed topcoat, was formerly widespread but is now very rare (Moir & Letts 1999, pp.103–4).

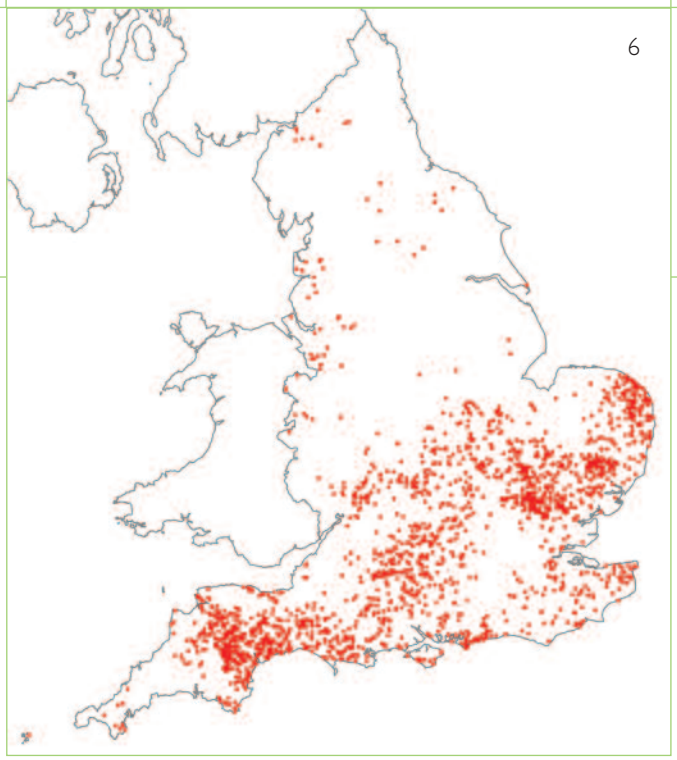
3.1.2.2 Plain clay tiles and stone slates
These materials were used at a high social level from the medieval period and are found in many parts of the country. Their use became increasingly widespread after the later 18th century, along with stone and brick walling, supplanting smaller farm buildings built of timber, earth and thatch in many parts of the country. The coastal trade and improved communications also enabled the widespread introduction of pantiles – instantly recognisable with their distinctive curved profile – into parts of the South West and across large areas of the eastern counties from north Essex to Northumberland, and of Welsh slate into many inland areas.

3.1.2.3 Corrugated iron and other prefabricated modern materials
Corrugated iron was used in England from the 1820s, initially for industrial buildings. Although several pioneering firms were producing portable corrugated-iron-clad buildings by the 1850s, it did not come into general use for new farm buildings (particularly on so-called Dutch Barns for protecting harvested hay and corn crops, see 6.4.1) until the farming depression of the 1880s made cheaper materials desirable. By the First World War, corrugated iron was in general use for the repair of roofs on farm buildings, particularly thatch. It was also used for the walling of model farmsteads built to a budget (Wade Martins 2002, p.175) and for smallholders' buildings in areas such as the New Forest. From the 1940s, asbestos cement cladding and a variety of insulating products found their way on to the farmstead. Hit-and-miss vertical boarding (also known as Yorkshire boarding) has been used as cladding since the 1970s.

3.2 BUILDING MATERIALS IN YORKSHIRE AND THE HUMBER

3.2.1 WALLING (Figure 7)

3.2.1.1 Stone
Over much of the Region there is no lack of good-quality building stone, the varied geology providing agricultural buildings with one of their most striking characteristics. Sandstone, limestone and millstone grit are available across the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Hills and the Yorkshire Dales and Fringe. The creamy white dolomite and dolomitic limestone of the Southern Magnesian Limestone is particular to that area and was widely exported (most famously to York Minster). Generally the limestone was used as roughly-dressed rubble, although by the 19th century a more regular finish was more commonly employed, and was sometimes combined with sandstone quoins and details. Sandstone was regularly coursed and worked square



6 Listed thatched agricultural buildings in England. Particularly evident is the concentration of surviving thatch – the majority of which in agricultural buildings is listed – in southern England, despite its widespread replacement by materials such as corrugated iron from the late 19th century. Rebuilding, and reproofing in slate and tile, has removed the evidence for its formerly extensive use (in straw, heather and bracken) from much of northern England. Such a map presents an obvious invitation to future analysis and research.

with tooled faces. Coarse diagonal tooling was often employed in the 17th century, and scutched tooling occurs sporadically from the late 17th century onwards. In the mid- to late 18th and 19th centuries the most widespread type was herringbone tooling. More regularly finished stone became more common in the late 18th and 19th centuries, especially for storeyed farm buildings and farmhouses, and is associated with the more widespread introduction of lime mortar (earth mortar being the standard bonding before).

In upland areas cobbles, rounded either by glacial or water action and widely found in streambeds and in glacial outwash, were used where better quality quarried stone was scarce. They are mainly associated with single-storey buildings and earlier houses. Cobbles are also found along the coastal areas of Holderness, usually combined with brick for quoins and openings. In the Yorkshire Wolds chalk rubble was used, typically from the later 18th century in combination with brick, to form the quoins and door and window openings. Chalk could also be completely clad in brick facing. In the Yorkshire Dales the use of through stones is a characteristic feature.

Watershot masonry, where the outer face is tilted to throw water off the walls, is a technique that was used in upland areas between the late 18th and mid-19th centuries.

3.2.1.2 Earth

There are no known surviving examples of mud-walled construction in the Region (in contrast to the adjacent East Midlands Region), although its use is well documented – particularly for the medieval period – in the north and east of the county (Harrison & Hutton 1984, pp.4–6; Pevsner 1972, p.26). Turf was used for both walling and fuel in upland areas.

3.2.1.3 Timber

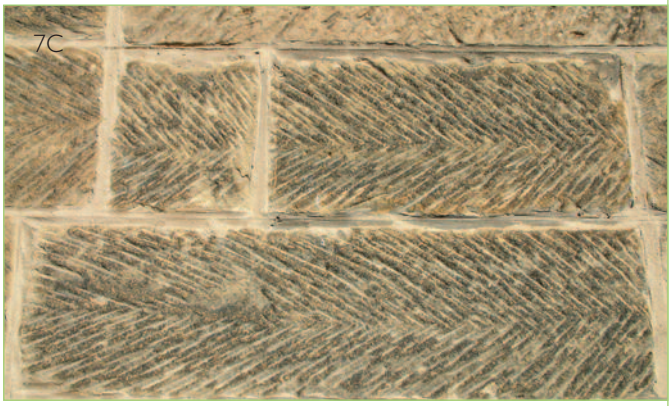
The Region displays a mixture of upland and lowland carpentry traditions (Ryder 2002). Timber was a major constructional material in many parts of the Region up to the 17th century, and has since been subject to extensive demolition and re-facing in stone. The use of structural timber framing is well documented, although there is evidence that it was far less common from the Vale of Mowbray northwards. It is now mostly concentrated in the Vale of York and Holderness, and also found in the aisled barns of the Southern Pennine area (see 6.1.3). It can range from the 14th to the 17th centuries and is frequently hidden behind later casings of brick or stone, providing an indicator for the form of early farm buildings. There is some evidence for plank-and-muntin construction as also found on the Welsh borders, where horizontal boarding was slotted into grooves in the upright timbers. Generally, however, it seems there is a low survival of the high-quality structural timberwork found in other Regions. Indeed, a reason given for the popularity of pantile roofs is the fact that they were relatively light and only required slight timberwork (Pevsner 1972, p.29). Timber for building in the Holderness/Humber area (Siddle 1967, pp.42–3) and upland areas was in very limited supply, and its use closely regulated, by the 16th century. In some upland areas stone boundary walls replaced boundaries topped with brushwood (Winchester 2003, p. 62). A strong regional characteristic, however, was the use of padstones, supporting the main posts of framed buildings or the bases of crucks and resulting in interrupted sill beams; these are documented from the medieval period (Pevsner 1972, p.26; Harrison & Hutton 1984, pp.4–7).

Cruck-framed buildings were predominant in the Region, including in lowland areas (BoE: East Riding 1972, p.25). In common with the other northern regions, and in contrast particularly to the West Midlands and parts of the South East and South West, the timbers – and thus the proportions of the buildings – were generally slender and small in scale. Since the 15th century crucks have been subject to replacement as farms became larger and more prosperous in different areas, storeyed houses and outbuildings requiring the replacement or careful reuse of crucks. None of the cruck-framed houses and farm buildings recorded at Settrington (Vale of Pickering) in 1599, for example, remains (Willan & Crossley 1941).

7 Examples of walling materials in Yorkshire and the Humber
A – E Much of the Yorkshire and Humber Region is dominated by stone buildings. There is a wide variety of building stones including sandstones, good quality limestones and relatively soft chalk which, although rarely used in other chalk areas of the country, is used on the Yorkshire Wolds. On the coastal lowlands cobbles were used in farm buildings, sometimes galletted with brick. This range of stone types contributes greatly to local distinctiveness and landscape character, as does building techniques such as the use of through stones (A) and methods of tooling. (A Yorkshire Dales; B, C North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills; D Holderness; E Yorkshire Wolds)
All © Jen Deadman (Continued overleaf)


7A


7B


7C


7D

The outlines of steeply pitched gable end walls on stone buildings in the Dales can provide an indication of where earlier cruck-framed buildings have been heightened and adapted, and parts of cruck trusses can be found reused throughout later farm buildings in the Region. Survivals are now concentrated in the North Yorkshire Moors (RCHME 1987, pp.197–8) and the southern Pennines area, with more fragmentary distributions in the Wolds, Holderness and the western uplands and fringes. They mostly survive in small houses, including buildings of longhouse origin, or in small barns and outbuildings, and were otherwise swept away with the introduction of larger two-storeyed houses – at varying rates, linked to the prosperity and holding size of each area – and farm buildings. Most probably had walls of stone rubble, evidence for timber frame being far more fragmentary in this Region. Their reuse in houses and outbuildings is common (RCHME 1987, pp.201–2). In more prosperous areas, such as the Upper Calder Valley, they are found only in small outbuildings and small houses; the high survival of mostly 16th-century cruck barns on the Millstone Grit uplands in the south-west of the Region is a consequence both of the relative poverty and continuing small size of farms in that area (Ryder 2002, p.124; RCHME 1988, p.42).

3.2.1.4 Brick

In a national context, the use of brick occurred very early in this Region with brick and tile first being imported from the Low Countries and manufactured in Hull, Beverley and then York by the mid-14th century (Pevsner 1972, pp.27–8). This early use of brick was restricted to high-status buildings but it began to be employed at a vernacular level from the late 17th century. The colour of the bricks is often locally distinct. Areas where brickwork is typical include the Yorkshire Wolds, Holderness and the Vales of Mowbray, Pickering and York. It was hardly used in the west of the Region until the later 19th century.

Certain constructional details are important features of brickwork in the Region. These include 'tumbled'

7 Examples of walling materials in Yorkshire and the Humber (continued)
F Timber-framing is rarely externally visible in farm buildings of the Region but some buildings provide evidence for a timber-framing tradition. This aisled barn has had its framed walls replaced with brick: the void mortices in the underside of the tie beam on the right show that it formerly connected to a wall post. (Vale of York)
G As there is little timber framing in the Region weatherboarding is also uncommon. Where used it is often found on later 19th- or early 20th-century buildings. (Southern Magnesian Limestone)
H Brick was widely used in eastern parts of the Region such as the Vale of York, Holderness and the Yorkshire Wolds, where stone was less freely available. Features such as tumbled brickwork on gables are characteristic. (Yorkshire Wolds)
All © Jen Deadman

brickwork, which protects the cut brick of gable tops from the weather, a feature found from northern East Anglia to Northumberland, and the use of dentilled or cogged eaves.

Brick is also often found used in combination with other materials such as the chalk of the Yorkshire Wolds, where it was regularly employed to form quoins and the dressings to openings. In the western part of the Vale of York, and in Holderness, brick and cobble are frequently combined in an attractive layered design that serves to hold the cobbles in course.

3.2.2 ROOFING (Figure 8)

3.2.2.1 Thatch
Straw thatch, heather and bracken were used for roofing, but by the 19th century – along with the North East and parts of the North West – its use was very rare by national standards. Where there was arable farming straw was available for thatching. Thatch survived longest in houses of inferior status and farm buildings, in the Dales for example into the mid-18th century (Fieldhouse & Jennings 1978, pp.247–8).

3.2.2.2 Slate
Tiles and stone slate roofs were used from the medieval period. Stone slates are characteristic of the Yorkshire Dales and the North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills. Usually of limestone, some of the Region's sandstones could also be split to create large tiles.

Although improved transportation allowed for an increased use of Welsh slate, this material had long been available in parts of the Region through the use of coastal shipping routes. By the 19th century Welsh slate was commonly used on new farm buildings, particularly in lowland areas.

8 Examples of roofing materials in Yorkshire and the Humber

A Thatch. Before the 19th century thatch was often used, particularly for low-status houses and farm buildings (A a former longhouse in the North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills). However, it is now a rare feature of roofs of the Region with most thatch being replaced by local stone slates (B Yorkshire Dales) or by Welsh slate (C Holderness), the use of which increased as the railways made transportation easier and cheaper. Welsh slate allowed a lower roof pitch to be used and being considerably lighter than stone slates enabled less substantial and, therefore, cheaper roof trusses to be used. The most characteristic roofing material of the eastern part of the Region in particular are the various forms of interlocking clay tiles and pantiles that often provide a bright contrast with the grey stone walls (D and F North Yorkshire Moors and Cleveland Hills; E Yorkshire Wolds). The use of pantiles is a key characteristic of the Region, forming part of a wider distribution of pantiles that extends southwards along the eastern side of England as far as East Anglia.

A, C, D and F © Jen Deadman; B © Peter Gaskell; E © Jeremy Lake


8A


8B


8C


8D


8E


8F

3.2.2.3 Tiles

Although clay roof tiles were in common use in towns in the 13th and 14th centuries it is probable that they were rarely used in the smaller houses of rural areas during the period. However from the mid-18th century red pantiles, with their distinctive wavy profiles and orange/red hues, became available in increasing quantities. They were both imported by ship as ballast into the Region and manufactured in increasing quantities from the mid-18th century in the East Riding (RCHME

1987, p.208; Pevsner 1972, p.29). Pantiles became the dominant roof covering in the eastern areas of the Region by the late 19th century, virtually completely replacing thatch and, sometimes, stone tiles. A Hornsea Company (Wade and Cherry) produced 'fishscale' tiles from the 1860s and these tiles can still be seen on some roofs within Holderness today.