PEAK DISTRICT

FARMSTEADS & LANDSCAPE PROJECT

for

PEAK DISTRICT NATIONAL PARK
&
ENGLISH HERITAGE

PART I
BACKGROUND

FORUM
Heritage
Services

PEAK DISTRICT

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PROJECT

for
NORTH PENNINES NATIONAL PARK
&
ENGLISH HERITAGE

PART I BACKGROUND

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FORUM
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report summarises the overall results of the Peak District Farmsteads and Landscape Project, covering the Peak District National Park. It provides the background to the project, and the national and economic context. The historic character of farmsteads is then summarised, followed by an analysis of the mapping data. The mapping was carried out by Forum Heritage Services and management support was provided by Jeremy Lake of English Heritage.

The principal aim of this project was to create a consistent landscape-level understanding of farmstead character and survival in order to inform policy and interpretation. Its objectives were to:

1. Create a Geographical Information System (GIS) dataset of farmsteads for the Peak District National Park, adding to the existing mapping of traditional farmsteads within the Staffordshire part of the National Park completed previously. The mapping records farmstead name, recorded date, historic plan form and degree of change, obtained from historic and modern Ordnance Survey maps and other data;
2. Use the resulting data and interpretation to:
    - enhance county Historic Environment Records with data on the heritage potential and historic character of *all* traditional farmsteads, field barns and outfarms;
    - inform land use and planning policy including Environmental Stewardship;
    - provide a starting point for more detailed analysis.

The project resulted in the creation of the following products:

- Farmsteads Mapping – GIS layer of farmsteads as point data with all attached attributes;
- Project Report which includes:
    - Description of the mapping methodology;
    - Agricultural history and landscape background;
    - Description of farmstead typologies;
    - Analysis of spatial distribution of key farmstead plan types, and time depth, and relationship to character area data;
    - Case studies examining the mapping data at a more detailed level;
    - A summary research agenda.
- Revised *Farmstead and Landscape Statements* for the following National Character Areas - 50: Peak Fringe and Lower Derwent, 51: Dark Peak, 52: White Peak, 53: South West Peak.

The project seeks to develop an evidence base for farmsteads through understanding how farmsteads, and in particular traditional farm buildings of 19th century or earlier date, contribute to local distinctiveness and a sense of place. It has mapped and described the locations and characteristics of all farmsteads shown on late 19th century Ordnance Survey maps, and recorded how they have changed and relate to the landscape, enabling the development of an evidence base for farmsteads to be viewed in their landscape context across the Peak District and beyond. Those farmsteads that retain some farmstead character may be regarded as Heritage Assets, particularly those that survive within the two categories of least change. This project follows on from similar farmstead mapping projects undertaken in South East England and the West Midlands including Staffordshire. These projects have largely used a consistent methodology for mapping farmsteads (except for some minor developments in recording) which means that the data for these areas can be combined to produce a wider picture of farmstead character. For details on how this can be used to prioritise farmsteads and buildings for the Agri-Environment schemes, see Edwards 2012b.

Future change in historic farmsteads is inevitable if they are to be retained as a distinctive part of the rural landscape. Where it is fully informed, new uses can make a positive contribution to landscape character and inspire appropriate high-quality new development. English Heritage will use the results of this project to help decision-makers to unlock the potential of historic farmsteads, based on an understanding of variations in their local character and significance. The local authorities that extend into the Peak District will also be able to use the data as an evidence base to inform the development of area-specific policies as well as in site-specific decision making, for example, in development control work or advising on Agri-Environment schemes. The data will also make a substantial contribution to the Peak District Historic Environment Record (HER) as it records farmsteads that contain no designated heritage assets and so are largely unrecorded features of the historic environment.

The mapping project has been used to finesse Farmstead and Landscape Statements for the principal National Character Areas within the Peak District – 51 Dark Peak, 52 White Peak and 53 South West Peak. It will inform the development of planning guidance for the Peak District and its planning authorities based on understanding the key characteristics, significance and pressures for change for farmsteads.

SUMMARY OF THE MAPPING OF FARMSTEADS IN THE PEAK DISTRICT

The Farmsteads Mapping in the Derbyshire Peak Project has mapped 2523 farmsteads and 2614 outfarms and field barns present on the 2nd Edition 25" Ordnance Survey (OS) map of c.1900, recorded farmstead date based on surviving recorded buildings and the extent of change through comparison with modern OS mapping. In addition, 500 sheep folds and bields and 386 lime kilns were recorded.

Historical Development

- The moors result from the clearance of the native upland forests in the Neolithic and Bronze Age to provide grazing land. They have for centuries been utilised by surrounding communities for summer grazing, with peat, heather and bracken cut for fuel, bedding, roofing and fodder.
- Ecclesiastical and secular estates worked stock farms in the medieval period, and extensive areas were later managed by substantial landowners such as the Dukes of Devonshire and the Earls of Derby.
- Sheep farming developed as a key element of the agricultural economy, combined with cattle rearing, dairying and arable farming in the lower dales and the White Peak. The area (like other parts of the south Pennines further north) exported to the urban and industrial markets of Lancashire, east Cheshire and the Potteries, and in the 18th and 19th centuries increased productivity was enabled by the enclosure of substantial areas of moorland that had formerly served as communal grazing.
- By the 19th century cattle rearing to supply meat, and dairying with liquid milk production for urban centres, had grown in importance.
- Lead mining and smelting provided seasonal alternatives to farming. The late 18th century brought further industry to the area in the form of textile mills which benefited from the abundant water power of the Derwent and its larger tributaries. Coal mining, from the medieval period to the early 20th century, was concentrated in the Flash and Goldstitch Moss are in the South West Peak: it was often combined with part-time farming. Copper was also worked from the medieval period, production peaking in later 18th century.

Landscape and Settlement

- There is a high density of farmsteads and field barns in the landscape. The highest densities are commonly associated with small-scale fields in the pastoral upper dales. Larger farms are found in the lower dales where arable farming was more commonly practised.
- 20% of farmsteads are recorded within villages. The distribution of village-based farmsteads in the White Peak and southern part of the Dark Peak is closely associated with the extent of Grade 3 land, the better quality soils found in the area. The enclosure of the open fields around villages was underway by the 16th and 17th centuries and included the dispersal of farmsteads of this date around the fringes of the villages. Farmsteads here are largely located outside areas of former open field strips or, where within such areas, they are typically located on the fringes of the area and so probably represent farmsteads that have moved from village cores to newly enclosed lands in the late medieval or early post-medieval periods – 15-17th centuries.
- 80% of recorded farmsteads formed part of small farmstead clusters or hamlets or were more commonly isolated. There is a very high density of dispersed settlement in some areas, especially the South West Peak, most farmsteads being on medieval to 17th century sites and relating to fields enclosed from woodland or on a piecemeal basis over the same period. Isolated farmsteads also relate to areas of regular enclosure which have replaced these earlier patterns and relate to moorland newly-enclosed in the late 18th and 19th centuries, with larger fields and farmsteads developing on the some of the arable estate lands.
- Large rectangular fields in the White Peak can be 12th-14th century enclosures associated with monastic grange farms (e.g. One Ash Grange, Monyash) but they are generally associated with post-1750 enclosure of extensive wastes and commons. In the White Peak these are associated with high numbers of dew ponds and lime kilns which reflect the need to provide water for cattle once common access to water supplies ceased, and the maintaining of farmland fertility.
- Shelter belts to isolated farmsteads.

Farmstead and Building Types

- Farmsteads are, as is typical of upland areas, predominantly small-scale plan types; small dispersed groups (around 20%), loose courtyard groups with buildings to one or two sides of the yard (24%), and linear plans with the farmhouse and working buildings attached in-line or forming an L-plan range (over 35%).
- Examination of these smaller plan types, especially in upland areas, suggests that the small loose courtyard plans and dispersed clusters lie on a spectrum with buildings set formally around a yard at one end of the range and irregular, dispersed scatters at the other end of the spectrum. Towards the centre of the spectrum the distinction between a loose courtyard and a dispersed cluster can be slight.
- Similarly, there is a degree of cross-over between the small plan types as it is relatively common for a linear plan range to form part of a dispersed cluster or a loose courtyard plan. Again, the point where a farmstead with a linear range accompanied by detached buildings can be defined as having predominantly linear character or predominantly dispersed cluster character can be subjective.
- These plans are the basic types found across the whole of the mapped area of the National Park but there is a noticeable concentration of dispersed cluster plans along the western edge of the Dark Peak NCA south of Glossop: this is a landscape of small, irregular fields created through piecemeal enclosure, possibly through the clearance of woodland, and is a characteristic of landscapes where dispersed cluster plan farmsteads tend to be found. A second upland fringe area to the south, between Hayfield and Chapel-en-le Firth, also contains

part of the concentration of dispersed plans but here the small fields appear to be the product of more regular enclosure: whether the straight field boundaries came about as a result of the reorganisation of older field systems or the enclosure of moorland or common is not clear.

- Dispersed multi-yard (4%) and dispersed driftway plans (2%) are not found in high numbers. They seem to be associate with areas close to moorland grazing.
- The larger loose courtyard groups and regular plan types are also relatively uncommon and tend to be found in areas where farms and their fields were larger, often on better soils. Regular Courtyard plans consist of linked ranges, either the result of a single phase of building or incremental growth, set around one or more cattle yards. They are mostly of 19th century date and display greater consistency in the use of materials and constructional detail, often employing more non-local materials like Welsh slate, than other farmstead types.
- Regular plans are concentrated in the south-east part of the Peak District, mainly within the White Peak NCA and the southern part of the Dark Peak NCA in the area around the valleys of the Derwent, Wye, Bradford and Lathkill. This concentration is associated with the presence of large estates such as Chatsworth in this area. Very few examples other than L-shaped plans are shown on the tithe maps of the 1830s-40s, showing that the great majority probably acquired their historic character during the High Farming years of the 19th century.
- Regular L-plans, the smallest of the regular forms, are the most common type in this group (8%), and they are commonly found in other upland areas of England.
- Regular multi-yards form 4% of the total and comprise farmsteads with two or more yards that whilst smaller than in lowland areas tend to be found on better-quality soils.
- Regular U-plans represent 2% of the recorded farmsteads whilst the larger regular types such as full courtyards or E-plans are rare and seem to be dircet result of estate-led improvement on poorer soils (1% or less).

Most farmhouses on courtyard and dispersed-plan farmsteads are attached to their working buildings, as found in most upland parts of northern and western England. High-status farmsteads, those rebuilt to regular courtyard plans in the late 18th and 19th centuries and those in the lower dales are most likely to have detached houses which sometimes face away from the working buildings.

Most working farm buildings are planned around the need to serve a mix of functions – housing cattle and their fodder, storing and processing corn and other functions such as housing calves, hens and pigs in smaller buildings and, to a lesser extent in the Peak, stabling horses. Key building types are:

- Two-storey combination barns, generally 18th century in date are common to all farmsteads and frequently the largest yard building.
- Part-lofted combination barns, typically with the threshing area flanked by lofted bays for cattle housing or alternatively a hay mow and a lofted bay for cattle housing.
- Granaries are uncommon except in the White Peak and in the Eastern Fringe where more corn was grown. There is evidence for granaries in the form of broad stone steps to first-floor loft doors in working buildings or sometimes houses.
- Cow houses of 18th and 18th century date, including a small number with inscribed pre-1750 dates. These are typically two-storey ranges with lofts over cow houses.
- There are a few bank barns, mostly of early-mid 19th century date, with banks and ramps enabling access to upper-floor hay mews and barns for storing and threshing corn. threshing floors above animal housing.
- Lean-tos and other extensions for housing additional cattle and sometimes horses are common.

- Stables are rarely built as free-standing buildings, and cartsheds are usually modest in scale and often attached to or built within a combination barn. Stables and cartsheds are similarly larger in corn-producing areas.
- Small multi-functional buildings, including single-storey calf houses close to the house and hen houses/pigsties.
- Dovecotes of 18th or 19th century date are found on some manor or estate farmsteads.
- Roadside churn stands close to farmyards or farm entrances are another distinctive feature dating from the 1920s and relate to the supply of liquid milk by lorry to creameries and other settlements via railway stations.

Isolated buildings

Isolated buildings almost wholly comprise:

- Distinctive 18th and early 19th century field barns with hay lofts above cow stalling. These are clustered in areas of intensive lead mining, such as around Winster and Bonsall, and around the market centres of Bakewell and Alstonefield.
- Field barns are identified as single buildings with no defined yard area whereas outfarms are defined as a building or buildings associated with a yard.
- Across the National Park 66% of recorded examples are considered to be field barns with one or more detached buildings set within or on the edges of fields.
- Of the outfarm groups, 85% were loose courtyard plans with one or two buildings facing into a yard. Regular L-plan ranges represent 9% of recorded outfarms.
- It is rare for these buildings to be listed; 10 field barns have listed buildings including one Pre-1600 barn and two 17th century buildings. Three outfarms include a listed building, one being a 17th century barn. The early examples suggest that there is potential for early examples to be identified within a group of buildings that have been relatively neglected in terms of research.
- Other isolated buildings recorded include 500 sheepfolds and bields (free-standing walls usually set as a cross with three or four arms) and 386 field lime kilns dating from the late 18th and 19th centuries, where limestone was burnt to provide lime for spreading on fields.
- 65% of sheepfolds and bields have been lost from the landscape whilst 84% of limekilns do not retain recognisable structures although some may be represented by earthworks.

Materials and Detail

- Limestone and gritstone used either singly or in combination are the predominant building materials, the latter particularly for lintels and architectural detailing.
- Stone slate (gritstone) roofs later replaced by later Welsh slate roofs. Staffordshire blue tiles particularly seen in the west of the Peak.
- Some 16th century or earlier timber frame building. Evidence for cruck framing is extremely rare, more so than in the adjoining Dark Peak and South West Peak. Some very rare examples of early weatherboarding to former external walls.
- Evidence for building in timber is very fragmentary and is largely confined to evidence for reused timbers including cruck blades in lintels and roof carpentry.
- 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 of masonry dressing 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).
- 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 century.

Significance

Contribution to local character and distinctiveness
Significant traditional farmsteads will make a positive contribution to *local distinctiveness* and an area's *sense of place*.

- The Peak area has amongst the highest levels of survival of traditional farmsteads, comparable to other upland areas and considerably above the average for other parts of England where farmsteads have been mapped.
- The farmsteads and field barns of this area have a strong and coherent architectural character, in large part due to the dominance of stone and slate. The farmsteads and working buildings sit within an upland landscape which retains clear visible evidence for land use and settlement from the prehistoric period.

Farmstead Date
- Generally, there is not a high level of survival of early farmhouses and agricultural buildings as represented by listed buildings. Across the National Park just 7% of farmsteads have a pre-1700 listed farmhouse and less than 2% have a pre-1700 listed farm building. Buildings of pre-1700 date are of high significance in a national context and the small number of farmsteads that have both a pre-1700 farmhouse and agricultural building are of particular significance.
- Within the NCAs, The White Peak reflects the National Park average whilst the Dark Peak has the highest percentage of pre-1700 farmhouses (8%) despite the fact that historic farmsteads must have been lost through the creation of the reservoirs along the upper Derwent valley and Longdendale in the north of the character area. Within the South West Peak just 4% of farmsteads have a pre-1700 farmhouse. In the Dark Peak, the early farmsteads are concentrated in the Derwent valley and in the Vale of Edale.
- The South West Peak also has a low percentage of 18th century farmhouses (2% compared to the National Park average of 7%). The White Peak has the highest proportion at 10% with the Dark Park having 8%.
- The White Peak also has the highest percentage of both listed 19th century farmhouses (7%, just above the National Park average of 5%) and listed 19th century working farm buildings (3%). The Dark Peak has 5% and the South West Peak 3% of listed 19th century farmhouses and 2% and 1% of listed working buildings respectively.

Special local and national significance
The following are known to be of particular significance:

Landscape Contexts
- Farmsteads within or next to the earthworks remaining from medieval and earlier cultivation and land use, and the archaeological remains of shrunken or deserted settlements and field systems.
- Farmsteads that have a clear visual and/or historic relationship to historic parks and gardens.
- Small-scale farmsteads and smallholdings that are sited around areas of historic common land.

Farmstead Groups and Buildings

- Farmstead groups with 18th century or earlier working buildings, buildings other than barns being particularly rare. Working buildings with 18th century and earlier fabric are rare. They are most commonly associated with the large combination barns on high-status farmsteads or the larger farms.
- Planned farmstead groups designed in a coherent architectural style.
- Well-preserved examples of groups representing the smallholding movement of the 1890s to the Second World War.
- Evidence for internal subdivision of barns into animal housing and other purposes such as granaries. The use of barns for housing cattle is a distinctive feature of this area, which it shares with other upland and upland fringe areas of England.
- Stalls and other interior features (e.g. mangers, hay racks) in stables and cattle housing of proven 19th century or earlier date are rare in a national context.

Issues for Change

Farmsteads

- Farmsteads in upland areas have the highest degrees of survival than any other landscape types in England. They also have the highest rates of farmsteads in continuing agricultural use, and a higher take-up of Entry Level maintenance options and Higher Level conservation repair options. Agri-environment schemes have assisted in the maintenance of buildings in poor or declining condition. However, the future of these schemes is uncertain and future changes in the farming industry may release many more sites onto the property market. In the Peak District the numbers of holiday homes substantially exceed regional expectations. Projects in the Lake District and Yorkshire Dales National Parks (Courtenay et al, 2007-8) have also the links between farm building restoration work and the benefits to social and economic regeneration in rural areas.
- Across the mapped areas of the National Park over 83% of farmsteads survive with more than 50% of their historic form intact, a very high percentage in a national context. This high level of survival is partly explained by the presence of high numbers of linear plan farmsteads; when these farmsteads have been removed from agriculture it is common for the working building element to be retained, often to be converted to residential use, adding to the accommodation of the farmhouse. In most, but not all cases, the conversion of the agricultural building has retained some aspect of the former agricultural character of the working building element.
- However, the high level of survival of traditional farmstead character in the National Park is not solely due to the presence of linear plans; most plan forms including the regular plans types appear to retain much of their historic form. The small plan types such as dispersed cluster plans and small loose courtyards have been most susceptible to loss but are still much better retained than the areas of lowland England that have been mapped to date; 73% of dispersed cluster plans retain more than 50% of their historic form whilst 83% of loose courtyard plans with buildings to one or two sides of the yard retain more than 50% of their historic form.
- When examined at NCA level, the White Peak has the highest level of survival at 87% and the lowest percentage of farmsteads that have been completely lost from the landscape since c.1900 (3%). The South West Peak NCA has 83% of farmsteads with more than 50% of their historic form surviving but in the Dark Peak 79% of farmsteads have been recorded in the two categories of least change. Additionally this area has seen a higher level of complete loss of farmsteads at 11% of recorded farmsteads. Here, the slightly lower percentage of farmsteads with more than 50% of their historic form surviving may be explained by the slightly higher percentage of dispersed cluster plans that were recorded in this area.

Field barns and Outfarms

- Almost half of these retain some traditional farmstead character although it is probable that many of these sites are suffering from some level of dereliction but sufficient survives to be marked as a standing building on the modern OS maps. This level of survival, even if the buildings are in decay, is high by national standards – elsewhere where farmsteads mapping has been undertaken loss rates are around 75% of the recorded resource.
- Out of the 2600+ field barn and outfarm sites just 13 have a listed building, four of which are of pre-1700 date. This very low level of designation of field barns and outfarms is typical of this type of site across most of England. It almost certainly represents under-designation but further work is required to better understand the significance of the resource.

Other issues

- Upland and upland fringe areas retain very high numbers of surviving traditional farmsteads in agricultural use, many within landscapes of high amenity and landscape value. However, they are more economically disadvantaged for modern farming than other parts of England, and many farmers (in the remoter uplands in particular) are increasingly dependent on diversification and other sources of income. A far lower than average capital endowment and economic mass characterise many of these areas. The condition of the great stock of buildings that are not listed is in visible decline, and the CLA and others have stressed that in the long term the condition of most of the building stock will decline without either an appropriate use or sufficient investment. English Heritage and the Cavendish Estates conducted a review of the building stock in Wharfedale, which largely bears out these observations and raised with the Yorkshire Dales National Park the need to better evaluate the historic character and sensitivity to all the options for change of the building stock. Similarly, students from Harper Adams College working with the results of Farmsteads Mapping in Shropshire have found that the condition of buildings markedly deteriorates in upland areas, as the potential for adaptive use is low.
- These same upland areas have a very low proportion (under 20%) of surviving traditional farmsteads with buildings that are designated as heritage assets through listing of the house and more rarely a working building. The undesignated farm buildings of these areas, which are often of 19th century date with earlier cores, are significant elements within a high quality upland landscape. Their loss would be detrimental to this landscape.
- Outfarms and field barns have been subject to high rates of loss, and as their sensitivity to other forms of use is very high (due to their generally limited access and prominence in the landscape) the most significant landscapes with field barns need to be identified for enhanced maintenance through the Agri-environment schemes.
- Given the projections for the decline in the numbers of farms in the next decade – and animal welfare standards that are making more buildings redundant - it is clear that there are likely to be substantial issues regarding re-use or dereliction of historic farm buildings in these areas.

AREA SUMMARIES FOR THE MAIN NCAS IN THE NATIONAL PARK

DARK PEAK (51)

HISTORIC CHARACTER

- High densities of dispersed settlement, with farmsteads set in landscapes enclosed from the medieval period. There are some areas of regular enclosure including some designed 'estate landscapes' such as those of the Chatsworth Estate.
- Linear farmsteads are predominant, and courtyard-plan farmsteads (mostly U-shaped) were developed on some estates.
- Field barns and field barn landscapes.

SURVIVAL OF TRADITIONAL FARMSTEADS

- 76% of recorded farmsteads in the Dark Peak NCA within the National Park retain more than 50% of their historic form, lower than the 83% across the whole of the NCA.
- 20% of farmsteads in the Dark Peak NCA within National Park have lost all traditional farmstead character compared to 19% across the whole of the NCA.

PRESENT AND FUTURE ISSUES

- Many farmsteads are in residential use, including some linked to 'hobby farming'.
- The Photo Image Project (2006) recorded a high proportion in this National Character Area of listed working farm buildings converted to non-agricultural use (47.5%, the national average being 32%). The project also noted an above-average percentage (13.3%, the national average being 7.5%) of listed working buildings showing obvious signs of structural disrepair.

WHITE PEAK (52)

HISTORIC CHARACTER

- Farmsteads mostly relate to fields dating from piecemeal enclosure since at the least the 15th century, and areas of regular enclosure which have replaced these earlier patterns and relate to moorland newly-enclosed in the late 18th and 19th centuries, with larger fields and farmsteads developing on the some of the arable estate lands.
- Medium-high density of small to medium-scale farmsteads in the landscape, increasing to very high in the west adjoining the South West Peak. These mostly comprise loose courtyard plans and linear and L-plans with farmhouse and farm buildings attached and in-line. They developed within a landscape
- The present predominant pattern of stone and slate farmsteads results mainly from rebuilding in the 19th century. Earlier cores date back to the late 17th century but very rarely before.
- Combination barns providing crop processing areas flanked by cattle housing and stabling.
- Some bank barns built gable-end to slope.
- Two-storey ranges providing cow houses with lofts above.
- Field barns providing housing for cattle with haylofts over are a major feature of the area.

SURVIVAL OF TRADITIONAL FARMSTEADS

- 87% of recorded farmsteads in the White Peak NCA within the National Park retain more than 50% of their historic form, slightly higher than the 83% across the whole of the NCA.
- 7% of farmsteads in the White Peak NCA within National Park have lost all traditional farmstead character compared to 11% across the whole of the NCA.

PRESENT AND FUTURE ISSUES

- The West Midlands Farmsteads and Landscapes Project has revealed that this area has a high proportion of historic farmsteads remaining in agricultural use (43% in Staffordshire). There is a (relatively) high level of conversion to non-residential uses outside of agriculture (7%): this includes provision of holiday homes, and other tourist accommodation to a greater degree than is typical of the region as a whole.
- The Photo Image Project (2006) recorded a low proportion in this National Character Area of listed working farm buildings converted to non-agricultural use (17.9%, the national average being 32%). National Park designation has enabled the funding of maintenance and repair through the Agri-environment schemes, reflected in the fact that the project also noted a markedly below-average percentage (3.3%, the national average being 7.5%) of listed working buildings showing obvious signs of structural disrepair, in contrast to the surrounding upland and upland fringe areas which mostly lie outside the National Park.

SOUTH WEST PEAK (53)

HISTORIC CHARACTER

- A very high density of dispersed settlement, most farmsteads being on medieval to 17th century sites and relating to fields enclosed from woodland or on a piecemeal basis over the same period. Nucleated villages are concentrated to the south west, where isolated farmsteads relate to more recent phases of enclosure.
- Predominant pattern of linear farmsteads, some originating as medieval-16th century longhouses and others developing as parallel or L-shaped plans with later cow houses, cartsheds and stables.
- Small-scale courtyard plans, and dispersed plans which developed within the anciently-enclosed landscapes and on routeways to the moors, are another distinctive feature.

SURVIVAL OF TRADITIONAL FARMSTEADS

- 83% of recorded farmsteads retain more than 50% of their historic form.
- 12% of farmsteads have lost all traditional farmstead character.

PRESENT AND FUTURE ISSUES

- The West Midlands Farmstead and Landscape Project showed that the area (that part in Staffordshire) has a low economic mass and a high proportion of farmsteads remaining in agricultural use (45%) with relatively high diversification of farm business (numbers of holiday homes substantially exceeding regional expectations) but both relatively low residential use (51%) and relatively low participation in business.
- The Photo Image Project (2006) recorded a below-average proportion in this National Character Area of listed working farm buildings converted to non-agricultural use (21.4%, the national average being 32%). This reflects more restrictive policies for the area within the National Park. The sample was too small to determine the figures for structural disrepair. However, National Park designation has enabled the funding of maintenance and repair through the Agri-environment schemes

THE PEAK DISTRICT
FARMSTEADS & LANDSCAPE PROJECT

PART I - BACKGROUND

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Historic Farmsteads

Farmsteads – and in particular traditional farm buildings of 19th century or earlier date – make a fundamental contribution to *local distinctiveness* and a *sense of place*, through their varied forms, use of materials and the way that they relate to the surrounding form and patterning of landscape and settlement. This is because their character has been shaped by their development as centres for the production of food from the surrounding farmland. Every part of England's farmed landscape has inherited its own distinct and recognisable characteristics, each resulting from a combination of physical and natural factors such as land form and geology, and historical processes such as how individuals and communities have worked and managed the land, in response to local and distant markets. By the late 19th century mass-produced buildings were becoming available, the Dutch barn being the most commonly seen prefabricated building of the period. This period also saw the first use of mass concrete for walling, and by the end of the First World War there was much greater standardisation in building forms. After the Second World War changing animal welfare standards and increasing use of machinery resulted in the development of larger multi-purpose pre-fabricated buildings that have no regional characteristics.

Farmstead with traditional (top) and modern buildings

The English Heritage (EH) and Countryside Agency publication '*Living Buildings in a Living Landscape: finding a future for traditional farm buildings*' (2006) recognises the important contribution that farmsteads make to the landscape, and identifies the need to understand the "character, condition and sensitivity to change" of these buildings in order to inform policy development. It also recognises that both listed and unlisted farm buildings need to be understood in order to develop policy. It highlights the continued need to develop tools for understanding and informing change to farmsteads which:

- Build advisory capacity at a local level;
- Guide the identification of priorities and the targeting and monitoring of resources;
- Provide a solid foundation on which further more detailed studies of historic farmsteads in the landscape can be built.

Historic farm buildings are generally poorly represented in Historic Environment Records, most of the HER records comprising Listed Buildings. In areas such as the Peak District, the majority of farmsteads consist of buildings of 19th century date or buildings that were substantially altered, retaining an earlier core and so are rarely listed. This means that farmsteads represent a largely unrecorded aspect of the historic environment. The project area's stock of traditional farm buildings are subject to a variety of pressures, as the farming sector restructures in the face of changing global markets, Government policy and EU-funding regimes.

It is clear, as a result of research and consultation by EH (see the HELM website http://www.helm.org.uk/server/show/category.19600), that:

- There is limited and inconsistent information to inform the sustainable development of historic farm buildings, including their distribution, character, significance and any impact of development.
- There are inadequate tools and methodologies for consistency in development control.
- There is uncertainty among owners stemming in part from inadequate information and advice.
- There is imprecise targeting of resources.
- There is an inadequate evidence base to inform a question-based approach to future recording and planning policy.

1.2 Introducing Farmstead Characterisation

Characterisation, as developed since the 1990s, is designed to provide context for the detailed records of individual sites and designated highlights, and inform change, planning and conservation above the scale of individual sites. Examples include the National Character Areas (NCAs), which integrate an understanding of the natural, historic and geo-diversity of England's landscapes, now up-dated by Natural England (www.naturalengland.org.uk/ publications/nca/default.aspx), and the development of Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) as a finer-grained framework for use by local authorities and others. The new NCA profiles are guidance documents that will help to achieve a more sustainable future for people, places and natural and cultural resources, protecting and building on the diverse and distinctive landscapes of England.

The NCAs and many examples of LCA have taken on board the results of past historic characterisation exercises, most notably Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC), which map change and time-depth in the landscape and have been developed in order to help professionals and communities to manage the *present* environment as a product of *past change* and the raw material for *future change*.

In 2004 EH supported a pilot project 'Historic Farmsteads and Landscape Character in Hampshire' which aimed to examine methods for developing an evidence base for farmsteads, assessing and describing the relationships between the character of historic farmsteads and landscape character at a variety of levels from NCAs to individual farms (Edwards, 2005). One element of the pilot project was the trial digitisation of farmsteads as point data using a Geographic Information System (GIS), focusing on rapid identification of the historic character and survival of farmsteads marked on historic Ordnance Survey mapping. Initially the 1st Edition 6" mapping of c.1870 was used but in later projects the 2nd Edition 25" mapping of c.1900 was used. This mapping was compiled after the last major phase of constructing traditional farm buildings in England and thus provides a snap-shot of farmsteads before the widespread introduction of mass-produced sheds. The Hampshire project demonstrated a close correlation between the historic character and survival of farmsteads and the historic landscapes in which they are located (Edwards and Lake, 2006 and 2007). Subsequently, the mapping of farmsteads across the whole of Hampshire, West Sussex, East Sussex and the High Weald AONB in the South East and Staffordshire in the West Midlands was carried out, all to the same consistent methodology (Edwards 2006-8). The mapping methodology was then applied to the whole of the West Midlands region (http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/wmidlandsfarmsteads), the project being led by English Heritage (now Historic England) in partnership with the region's county and metropolitan councils, Kent (Edwards and Lake, 2011; Lake, Edwards and Banister 2014) and Wiltshire (Edwards and Lake 2013).

2.0 HISTORIC, LANDSCAPE & SETTLEMENT BACKGROUND

2.1 National background

(This text is largely derived from the *Preliminary Farmstead Character Statement: East Midlands* written by Jeremy Lake, Bob Edwards and Susanna Wade Martins, University of Gloucestershire/English Heritage 2006).

2.1.1 Historic development

Farm buildings illustrate significant developments in English agricultural and rural history. Barns comprise the great majority of 18th century or earlier working buildings. Farmstead groups with 18th century or earlier working buildings are very rare, and from this period planned farmsteads can also mark nationally-significant developments in agricultural improvement and engineering. The working buildings on the great majority of farmsteads date from the 19th century, but this is subject to a great deal of local variation due to developments in farm size and type, land-ownership, conditions of tenure and other factors. As a general rule, farmhouses pre-date farm buildings and the larger-scale or high status buildings (in particular barns), which were consistently used for the same purpose or capable of being adapted to later uses, generally have the greatest chance of survival.

Most traditional farm buildings date from the 19th century, earlier examples being increasingly rare. Agricultural development in England from the medieval period 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 also improved the quality and efficient redistribution of farmyard manure. 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

The last phase of investment in traditional farmstead buildings falls at the end of the 19th century. The rising costs of labour, feeds and other inputs, combined with the decline in prices and rising levels of imports, ensured that little was invested in fixed capital in the period up to the Second World War, although the rates of investment were subject to regional variation. Arrears in rent characterised the period, even in years of relative recovery (such as after 1936 in arable areas). As a consequence there was little fresh investment in farm buildings other than repair and modification, and any buildings constructed tended to be of the cheapest materials. Many, such as Dutch barns, were prefabricated, and concrete and corrugated iron or asbestos sheets were being increasingly used for the refitting of cow and dairy units and the repair of traditional roofs. National and local surveys, such as the 1910 Land Tax Survey, attest to the growing levels of disrepair, especially of pre-improvement farm buildings using traditional materials such as thatch and timber. Hygiene regulations in the inter-war period resulted in new forms of cow house and with concrete floors and stalls and metal roofs and fittings. New forms of housing for the intensive farming of pigs and poultry were also developed.

County Councils entered the scene as builders of new farmsteads, built in mass-produced materials but in traditional form, in response to the Government's encouragement of smallholdings of up to 50 acres (20 hectares).

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, 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. From the mid-1950s, strongly influenced by American models, there emerged a growing body of trade and advisory literature. The first of these, produced in 1956, highlighted the dilemma of 'old buildings too good to pull down but not suitable for their new purposes' (Benoy, 1956). 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. The national stock of farm buildings grew by a quarter between 1945 and 1960 alone. The Agricultural Research Council's *Farm Buildings Survey of England* (published 1967) estimated that the average farmstead contained 6 pre-1914 buildings, 2.4 from 1918–45 and 2.5 built since 1945.

2.1.2 Landscape and settlement

Local character and distinctiveness has been shaped by historical patterns of land use and settlement. The scale and patterns of enclosure of fields by hedgerows, walls and banks in the present-day farming landscape, and their relationship to the siting of isolated farmsteads, dwellings and settlements, can reveal how the land and its resources was farmed, exploited and managed in the past.

Historic farmsteads and their buildings are an integral part of the rural landscape and how it has changed over centuries. They show how landlords and rural communities have used and adapted farmland, alongside resources such as woodland, rough ground and industrial sites such as quarries. By the 11th century major distinctions had emerged between areas dominated by villages and their open fields (nucleated settlement) and those dominated by hamlets and isolated farmsteads around which farmland was interspersed with blocks of strip fields, rough land and extensive areas of woodland. These strip fields and common land were subject – at varying rates – to amalgamation and enclosure by tenants and landlords from the 14th century. The enclosure of remaining common fields and grazing land from the 18th century typically produced more large-scale and regular fields. This process of piecemeal and regular enclosure was often associated with the creation of new holdings and farmsteads.

Farmsteads, including those in clusters and located in hamlets, usually relate to landscapes of enclosed fields. Fields with hedges, banks or walls to their boundaries are some of the most distinctive features of the English landscape. Over 70% of the land area in England is enclosed farmland, which results from:

- *Ancient irregular enclosure* is 17th century or earlier in date, and may relate to the creation of farmland from woodland (sometimes termed assarting) and areas of rough grazing in and around heath, mosses and upland moor. Ancient enclosure is strongly associated with dispersed settlement, around which farmland was interspersed with blocks of strip fields, rough land and often extensive areas of woodland.
- *Piecemeal or gradual enclosure* results from a long process – starting in the 13th century – of farm amalgamation and the exchange of land between farmers, and often the re-siting of farmsteads away from settlements. Boundaries may retain the curved form of the strips into which the medieval open fields around villages and other settlements were subdivided. The development of large farms has often resulted in the removal and sometimes the straightening of boundaries to create larger-scale fields.
- *Regular or planned enclosure* usually results from a later process of formal agreement between the late 17th and 19th centuries, often driven by estates and in some cases by parliamentary act. Planned enclosure landscapes display a great variety in the scale of their fields and the density and size of their farmsteads. Sinuous roads may respond to the boundaries of earlier fields or tracks, whereas some areas were completely re-planned with straight roads.

Most of England had been enclosed by the 1750s, sometimes accompanied by the contemporary or subsequent construction of new farmsteads (sometimes on the site of earlier settlements) to serve its needs. Isolated farmsteads either sit astride a road or public path, as is frequently found in areas of ancient and piecemeal enclosure, or have a single, private point of access as found in some regular enclosure landscapes where the fields and routeways were substantially remodelled in the 18th and 19th centuries. As farmsteads could be remodelled, so could the wider landscape; areas of earlier enclosure could be re-planned resulting in the removal of ancient field boundaries to create larger fields and, in some areas larger early fields sub-divided. The English landscape is the product of many changes over time.

English Heritage has commissioned work on mapping the patterns of historic settlement and landscape character settlement (HLC) in the English countryside. *An Atlas of Rural Settlement in England* (Roberts & Wrathmell 2000) and *Region and Place, A Study of English Rural Settlement* (Roberts & Wrathmell 2002) present the results of a project to map and analyse the patterns of rural settlement. 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 2.1). The majority of the study area lies within Roberts and Wrathmell's Western Province.

Historic Landscape Characterisation seeks to interpret and understand the inherited character of all places, and the evidence for change and continuity in the present environment. It is based on the need to understand and help professionals and communities to manage the *present* environment as a product of past change and the raw material for future change. It always works at an area-scale, above that of individual sites and features (protected or not). It differs from research and survey, as undertaken in the historic environment sector, by its promotion of broad and generalised approaches to understanding the historic environment. The key method promoted by English Heritage and its county-based partners (www.englishheritage.org.uk/ characterisation) is Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC). This is a tool for understanding the processes of change in the historic environment as a whole, for identifying what is vulnerable, and for maintaining diversity and distinctiveness in the local scene. It is based upon the identification and then analysis using GIS mapping of archaeological, historical and other environmental features (attributes) such as ancient woodland, building plots and enclosed farmland. These are then grouped into land parcels ('HLC polygons' within GIS) and used to identify distinct *character types*, and *historic character areas* which are each defined by a common and/or predominant character. The techniques of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) mapping are then used to map change and time-depth in the landscape. HLC has been undertaken in the Peak District National Park (Barnatt, 2003).

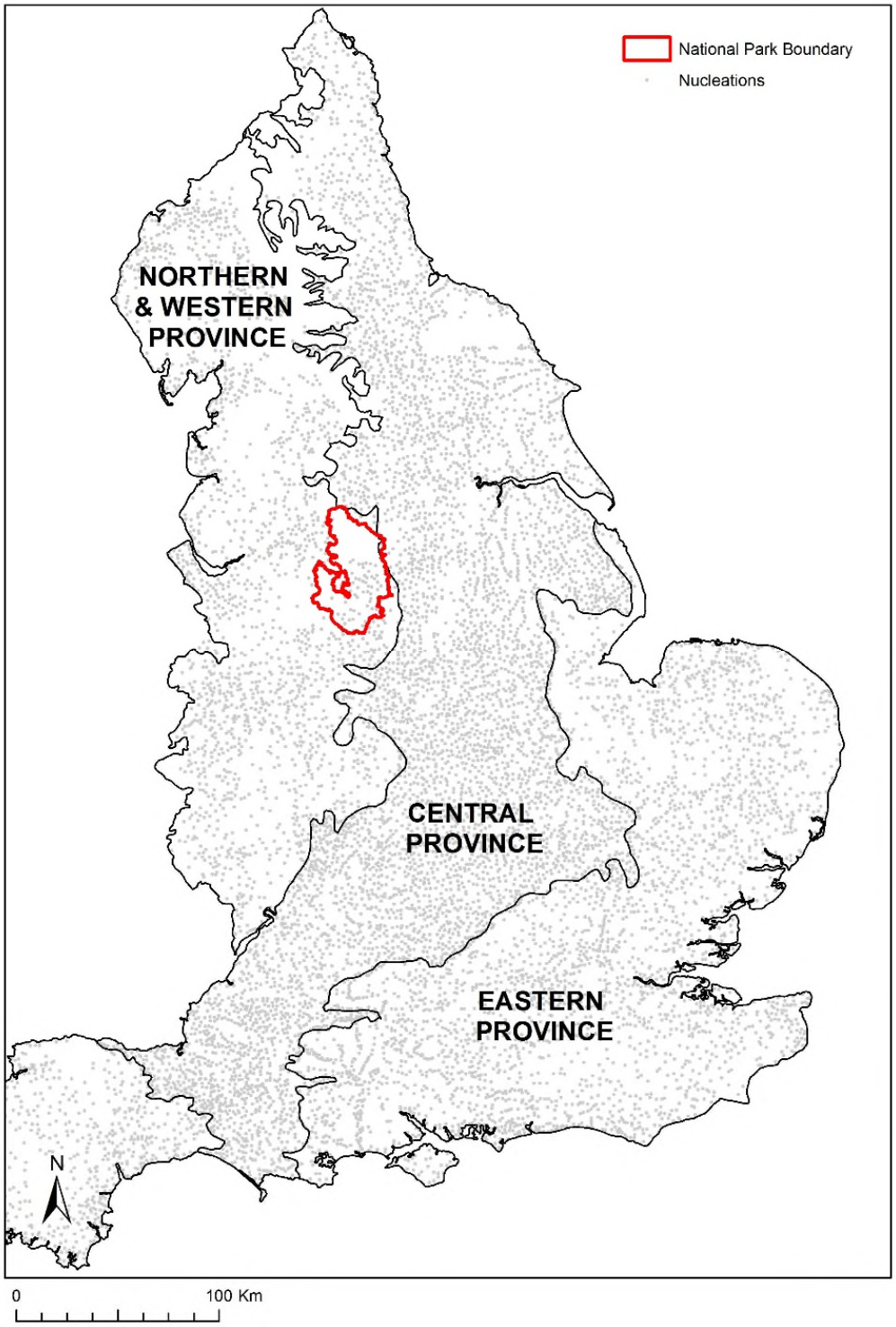

Figure 2.1 Settlement provinces in England based with mid-19th century nucleations. The Peak District National Park lies almost wholly within the Northern and Western Province where settlement is predominantly dispersed with isolated farmsteads and hamlets inter-mixed with some villages (based on Roberts and Wrathmell, 2000).

2.2 Peak District Background

2.2.1 Historic Background

This section is largely based on *The Peak District. Landscapes through time.* Barnatt and Smith 2004. Other sources are referenced in the text.

The whole of the Peak District was extensively settled in prehistory; even the gritstone Moorlands of the Dark Peak reveal evidence of Mesolithic hunter-gatherer populations. Late Neolithic and Bronze Age farmers were present in some numbers across all parts of the Peak District and it is probable that much of the woodland on the limestone plateau was cleared at this time. Agricultural communities also exploited now less-favourable areas such as the eastern gritstone uplands of the Dark Peak where boundaries of prehistoric fields survive as earthworks together with clearance cairns, and occasionally house sites. These upland farms probably went out of use in the Iron Age due to worsening climatic conditions and these peripheral sites have remained beyond the limit of viable agriculture, apart from rough grazing, ever since which has allowed the survival of this important evidence of prehistoric land use. In the areas where farming continued, later practice has destroyed much of the physical evidence for earlier agricultural practice and settlement.

There is evidence that the mineral wealth of the Peak District was being exploited in the Bronze Age including copper and lead. The presence of lead ores made this area particularly important to the Romans and the ores were widely exploited although archaeological evidence of the actually workings is minimal due to later mining activity. The landscape continued to be farmed, often from isolated farmsteads or hamlets, particularly the limestone plateau where the local populations seem to have prospered. The understanding of the history of the area in the 5th to 7th centuries AD is limited; it seems likely that Romano-British communities continued to live in the area and that, for a period at least, they retained their cultural identity after the arrival of Anglian peoples. Linear earthworks possibly separating the two communities, place-names and the distribution of 7th century Anglian graves all indicate the survival of a British population in the Hope Valley and upper Derwent valley.

The farmers of the medieval period probably continued the agricultural practices of the preceding centuries; the area was predominantly pastoral with small areas of arable land. On upland farms cattle provided dairy products for home consumption and young stock for fattening on lowland farms and sheep provided wool, meat and milk. A key factor that sustained farming communities in the uplands was the huge proportion of inter-commoned grazing on the moorlands. Walled tracks were created, leading up from the valley bottom to the fell tops, giving access to the open moorland for summer grazing. Livestock were moved up and down the valley sides at different times of year: flocks of sheep grazed on the hill tops in summer and were brought down to the sheltered valley bottoms in winter and for lambing in the spring; cattle were over-wintered in buildings on the valley bottom and slopes and moved onto the hills in the late spring. Upland farms were typified by mixed arable and pasture in the valley bottoms, pasture in the valley sides and seasonal grazing of the rough upper fells. The arable land and meadows lay either in closes or in small common fields, around individual settlements or around dispersed groups of individual farmsteads.

By the 16th and early 17th centuries in the moorlands of the South West Peak farms produced store sheep and cattle: it was not uncommon for farms to carry large flocks of 300 to 600 sheep, together with a breeding herd of a dozen cows. The arable fields were small and grew little more than oats – a cereal best suited to the short, wet summers. In the Peak District of north-west Derbyshire (Dark Peak) large breeding flocks were also kept for the making of ewes' milk cheese (Thirsk 1967, 102). The valleys of the Dove and Derwent were known for the quality of the pastures for feeding cattle (ibid,

103). However, some parts of the area were too wet for sheep until at least the 18th century, when improved breeds and better drainage extended the range of hill sheep farming.

2.2.2 Landscape and Settlement

The Peak District National Park contains three principal landscape areas as defined by the National Character Areas of the Dark Peak to the north, the limestone plateau of the White Peak and the South West Peak (Figure 2.2). These areas, with some limited cross-over, have marked differences in landscape character, land use and settlement pattern, which are, in part determined by the quality of the soils (Figure 2.3). The patterns of settlement, enclosure and land use have been mapped through projects such as Roberts and Wrathmell's research into settlement patterns which, in addition to the major settlement provinces, has defined three sub-provinces which extend across most of the Peak District National Park (Figure 2.4) and Historic Landscape Character mapping (HLC) (Figure 2.5).

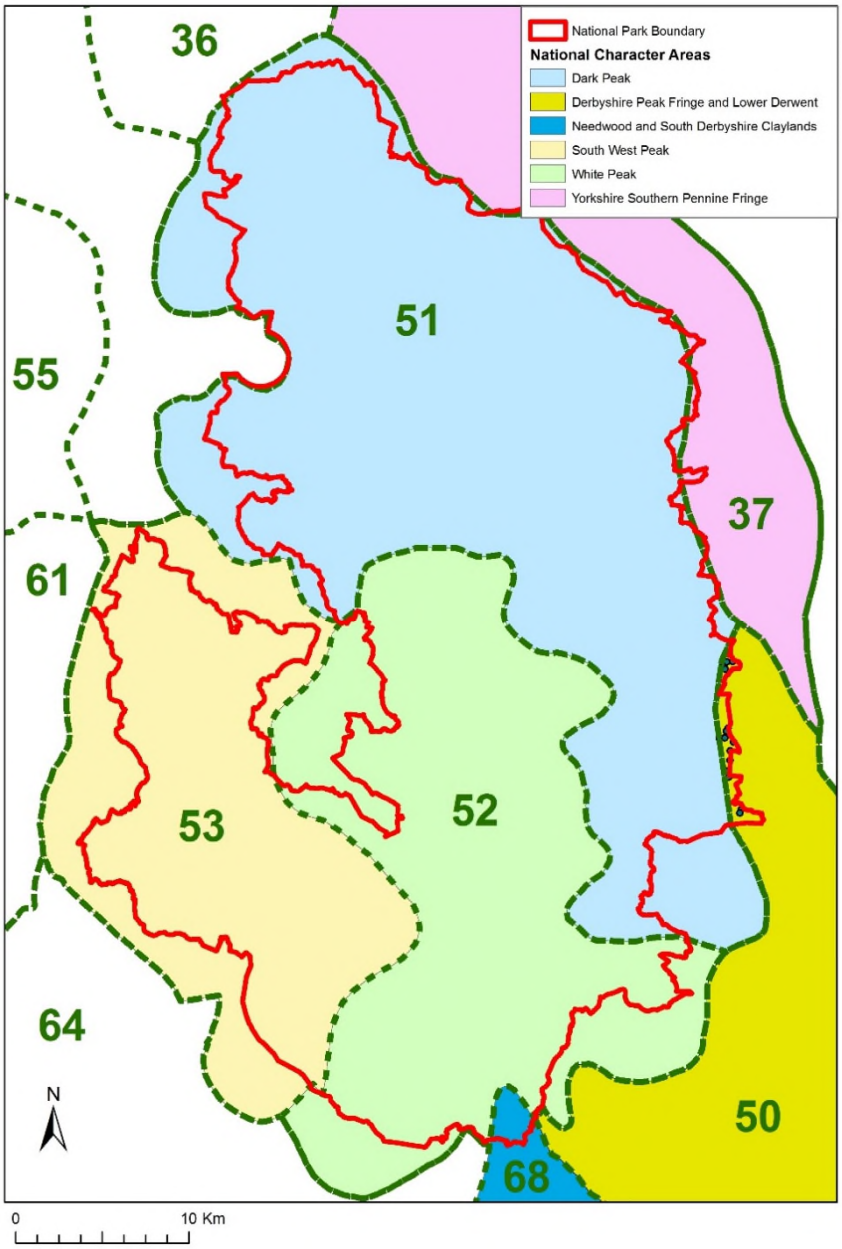

Figure 2.2 National Character Areas within the Peak District National Park

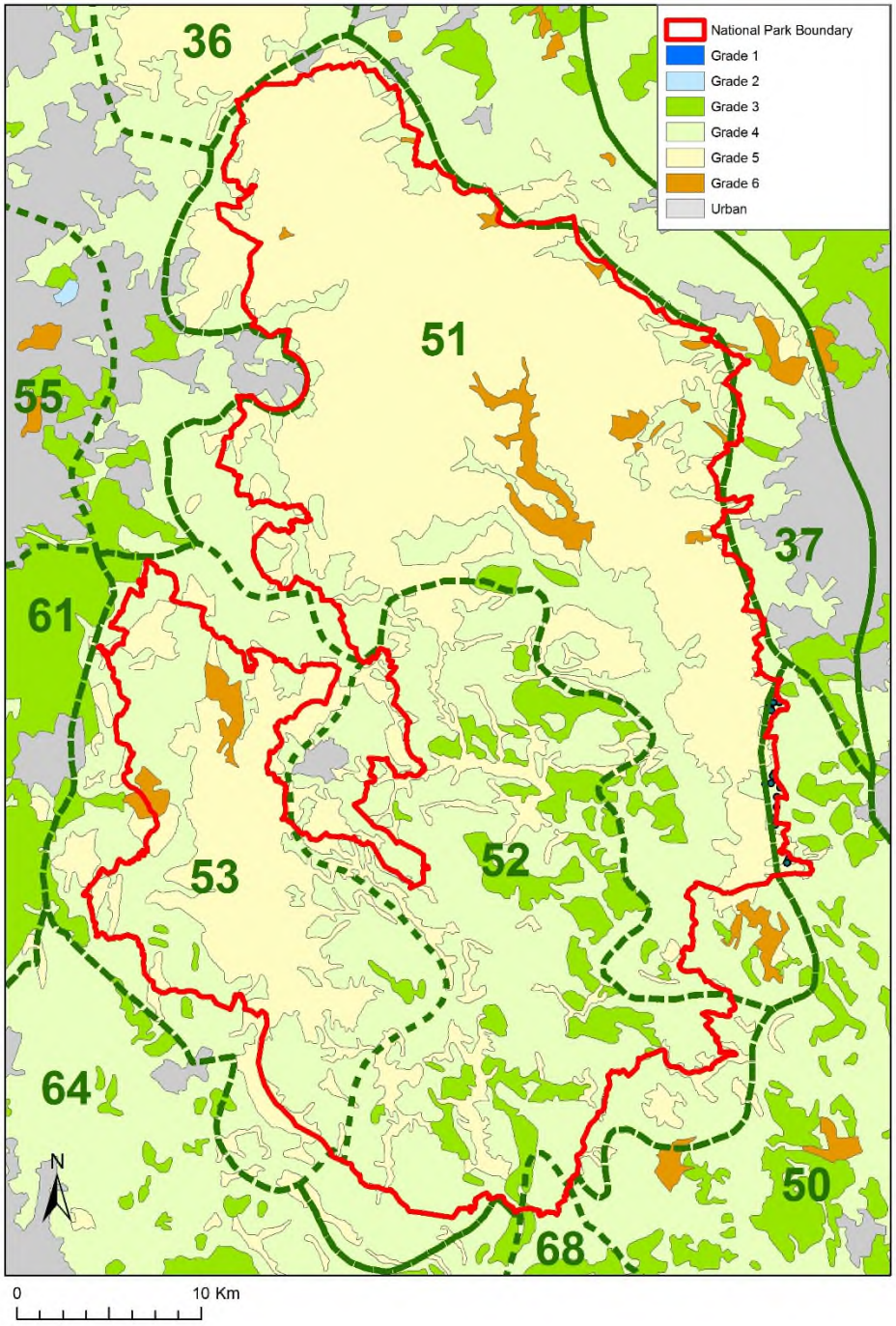

Figure 2.3 Soil quality. The highest quality land in the Peak District, Grade 3, is concentrated within the eastern part of the White Peak NCA. These areas correlate relatively closely with areas of former open strip fields identified through HLC (see Figure 2.5).

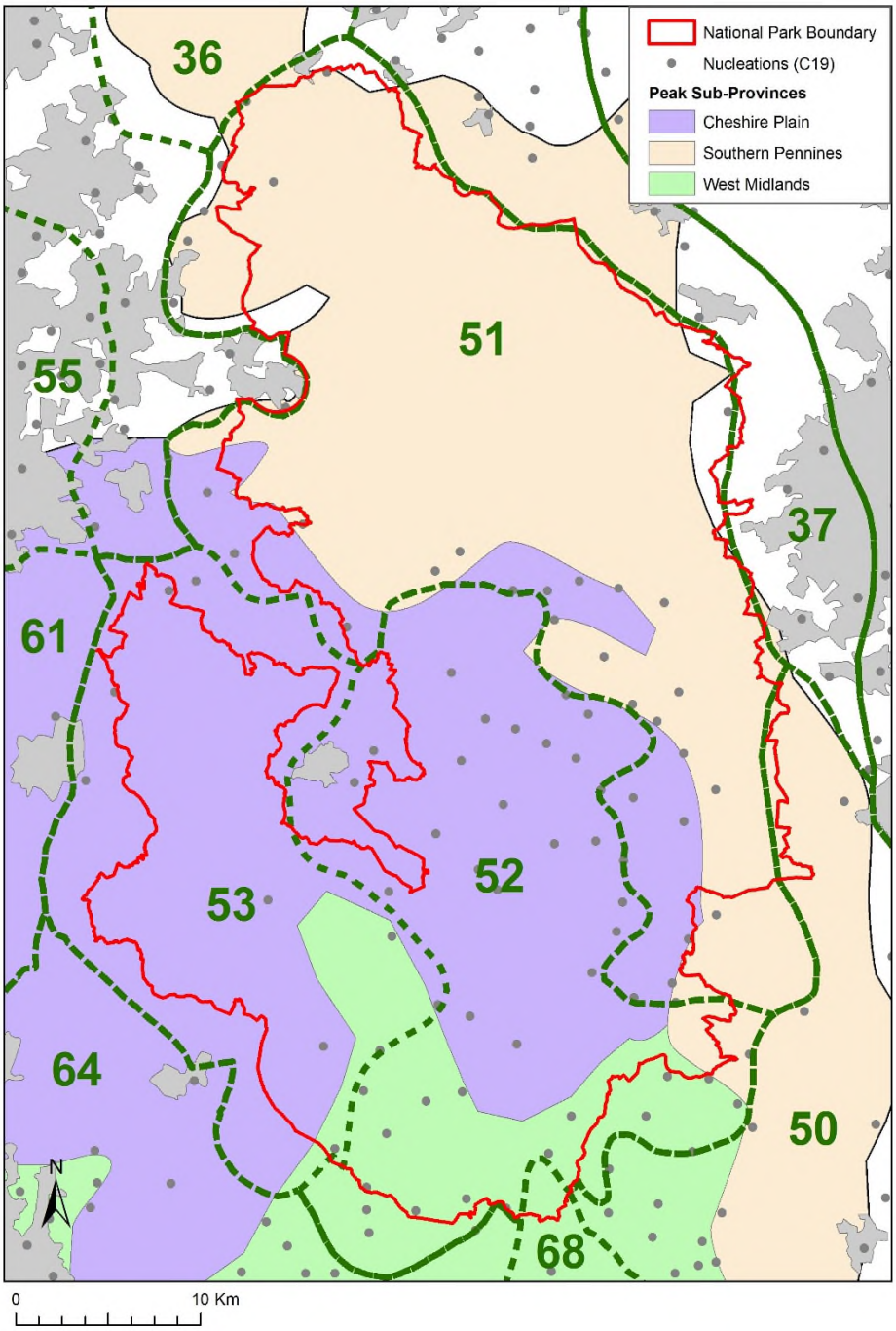

Figure 2.4 Settlement sub-provinces and 19th century nucleated settlement within the National Park (Roberts and Wrathmell, 2000)

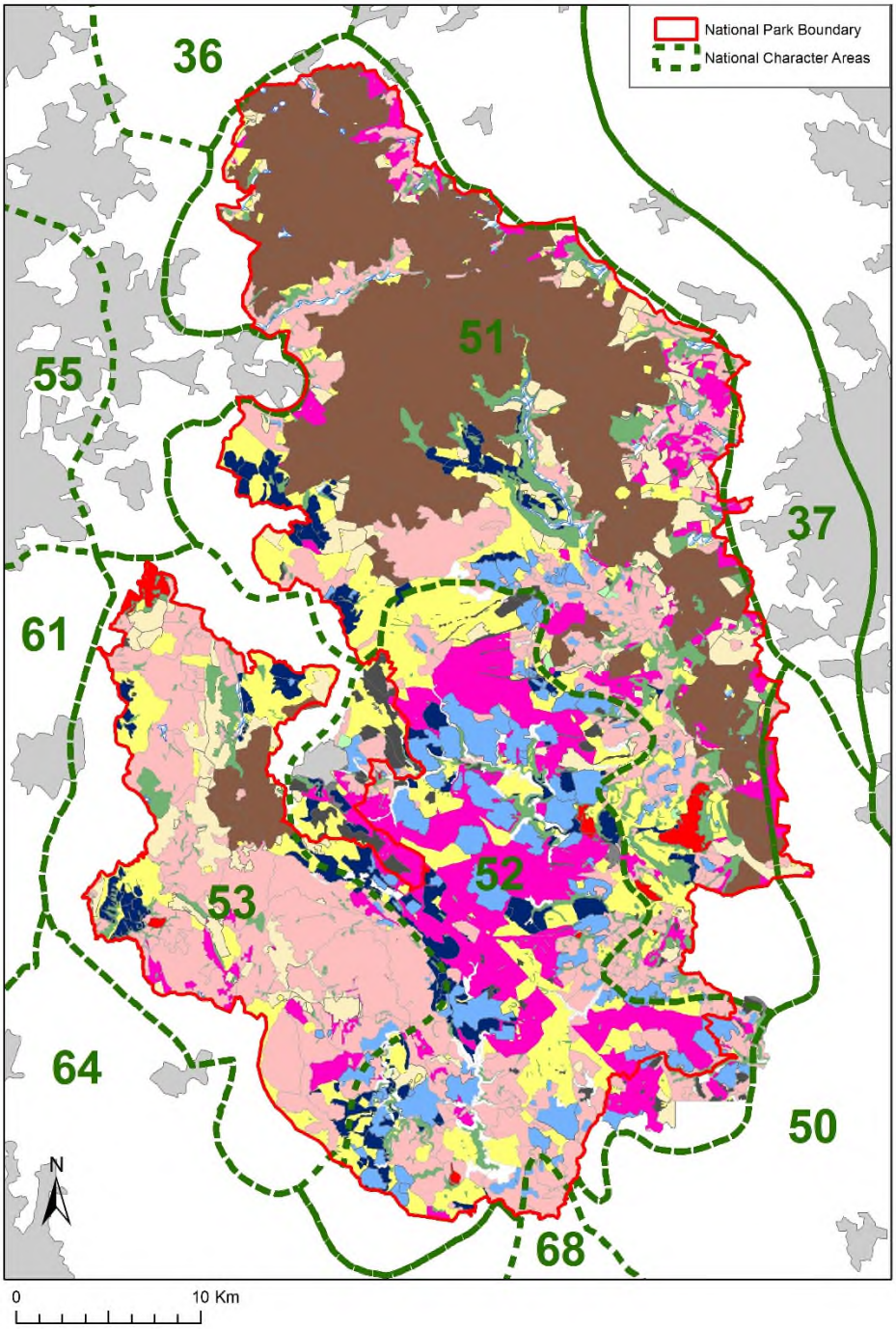

Figure 2.5 Historic Landscape Character within the Peak District National Park. This is a simplified map showing the main phases of enclosure. The principal areas of former open strip fields are concentrated in the White Peak NCA – whilst there were open fields in the adjacent parts of the Dark Peak, they were significantly smaller in extent.

KEY:
Dark blue: Ancient irregular enclosure (not strip fields)
Pale blue: Ancient enclosure – strip fields
Yellow: Post 1650 enclosure
Light pink: Enclosures of unknown date
Dark pink:
Green: Woodland or scrub
Brown: open wastes and common
Red: Parkland

Dark Peak (NCA 51)

This area is dominated by the gritstone uplands which provide only moorland and rough grazing on the poor quality acid Grade 5 land. Within the small valleys and on the fringes of the upland which are mainly Grade 4 soils with a limited area of Grade 3 land, there are small hamlets and many individual farmsteads, some of medieval origin including monastic grange farms, surrounded by ancient and post-medieval patterns of enclosure (Barnatt & Smith 2004, 78). Some of these grange farms were associated with large enclosed fields that were only sub-divided in the post-medieval period. Individual farms were thus created out of the moorland sides between the 15th and 19th centuries, typically set within their distinctive 'intakes' of enclosed land. Large 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 settlement of the areas bordering the White Peak include nucleated villages, some associated with areas of former open strip fields and represent extension of the predominant settlement pattern of the limestone plateau area. The extent of the open strip fields as recorded by HLC are notably smaller in extent than in the White Peak. Accordingly, the Hope Valley falls into the same Roberts and Wrathmell settlement sub-province, Cheshire Plain, as most of the limestone plateau. Earlier open field farming is reflected in the enclosure of long, slightly sinuous fields around valley settlements, for example, at Castleton and Hope in the Hope Valley, some (as at Chatsworth Park) including fossilised ridge and furrow (Barnatt & Smith 2004, 81). Mixed agriculture traditionally occupied the valley sides and floors, and cattle rearing was dominant by the 19th century. Inter-commoned summer grazing took place on the moorland tops, accessed by trackways from valley bottoms. There are also areas of irregular piecemeal enclosure typical of ancient assarting, for example, in the area south of Glossop and in the Woodlands Valley whilst the irregular fields of Edale are recorded as largely undated in the HLC. The late 18th/19th century enclosure of the open moor and common was undertaken by large landowners, such as the Dukes of Devonshire. In addition to the grazing of sheep, the heather moorlands were conserved for grouse shooting from the early 19th century.

White Peak (NCA 52)

The limestone plateau of the White Peak, in contrast to the Dark Peak, has more fertile and loamy soils with relatively large areas of Grade 3 soils in the east and south of the area and only small areas of Grade 5 land. The settlement of this area consisted mostly of small, nucleated villages surrounded by their open common fields which, in turn, were surrounded by common grazing, much of which was subject to parliamentary enclosure in the 18th and 19th centuries. Although the open field strips indicate arable farming, livestock was always more important with the arable primarily providing fodder crops. The exchange and enclosure of the narrow strips was probably occurring as early as the 14th century when, after the Black Death and climatic deterioration, there was even more emphasis on livestock. The fossilisation of the strips with stone boundaries has resulted in distinctive landscapes. Interspersed into this pattern are the anciently-enclosed and regular fields of medieval grange farms and areas of post 1650 piecemeal enclosure although some enclosure of the open moor and common had begun by the 16th century. Some early piecemeal enclosure resulted in large regular fields that resemble parliamentary enclosure. The enclosure of moor and common also resulted in many new farmsteads being built within the new in-takes (Barnatt & Smith 2004, 68-85).

Sheep farming, in combination with arable cropping, was dominant from the medieval period. By the 19th century cattle rearing, to supply meat to the growing cities nearby, had grown in importance although intensive dairy farming on improved grassland is now the dominant land cover. Farms were

considerably larger in the non-mining west in contrast to areas where lead mining provided important by-employment.

South West Peak (NCA 53)
The area of the South West Peak within the National Park is largely divided between a central core of Grade 5 soils on open moorland surrounded by Grade 4 land. There is very little Grade 3 land. This is an area of predominantly dispersed settlement set within a landscape of small, irregular fields of uncertain date. There are some small villages, mainly in the south, where evidence of the strips of former open fields survive. Some small-scale enclosures and isolated farmsteads are associated with intakes from the moor, typically from the 15th century (Dyer 1991, 84-5) and occasionally earlier. Regular and medium-scale enclosures are associated with late 18th/19th century enclosure of the open moor and common, dotted with field barns and isolated steadings. This was predominantly a pastoral farming landscape with sheep and dairying being important. The main arable crop of the area was oats, grown for both human consumption and as fodder.

Three other NCAs extend into the Peak District National Park but with only very small proportions of their area in the National Park:

Yorkshire Southern Pennine Fringe (NCA 37)
This is a transitional area between the uplands of the Pennines and the lowland landscapes to the east. The National Park boundary includes very small areas of this NCA with little, if any change in character. Where farmsteads have been mapped in this NCA, they are usually common-edge sites that relate to regular enclosure of moorland.

Derbyshire Peak Fringe and Lower Derwent (NCA 50)
The valleys, including the open fields around nucleated villages, and valley sides had been largely enclosed by 1750 and the area is a mixture of small to medium irregular fields with some blocks of regular enclosure of common. Enclosure of the open moor on the fringes of the Peak District that fall within the National Park was largely completed in the late 18th and early 19th centuries and resulted in regular fields with some new farmsteads built within the new intakes, as well as isolated field barns.

Needwood and South Derbyshire Claylands (NCA 68)
In the southern part of Derbyshire dairying and rearing was of greatest importance, with 90% of the whole county under pasture in the 1850s (Rowley 1853, 65). The western side of the NCA, and the northern tip which extends into the National Park, retains much of the irregular piecemeal enclosure patterns associated with clearance and colonisation from the 12th century onwards.

3.0 FARMSTEAD AND BUILDING TYPES

A farmstead is the homestead of a farm where the farmhouse and some or all of the working farm buildings are located, some farms having field barns or outfarms sited away from the main steading. A farmer's income has historically been derived from working the land, although some small farms in particular combined farming with other occupations; at the smallest scale such farms may not be recognisable through plan form on historic mapping but may be defined as smallholdings where the occupier relied upon access to common land for grazing and may have little enclosed land and few farm buildings.

This section outlines the functional requirements of farmsteads, and then how these are expressed in different farmstead types.

3.1 National Background

The scale, range and form of working buildings reflect the functional requirements for internal space, lighting and fittings (Table 1). Some can be easy to identify because they are highly specialised in function (such as dovecotes, pigsties and threshing barns) whilst the functions of other buildings or ranges of buildings may be more difficult to unravel because they are multi-functional. They all display significant variation both over time and regionally, and are closely related to the overall plan of the farmstead and the way that it functioned and developed over time.

How on-farm functions are expressed in farmstead fabric and areas	
Crop storage and processing	
Key function	*Spatial Requirement*
Storing the harvested corn in dark and well-ventilated conditions. Processing the corn into grain, through threshing and winnowing.	Corn was stacked in the *barn*, and sometimes in a stack yard next to the barn as well. Barns have: • large open spaces to the storage and threshing areas • wide doors to threshing floors and other openings for ventilation or pitching-in the crop Barns may also have evidence for horse, water and steam power. *Threshing barns* were built solely for the storage and processing of the harvested crop. One or two-storey *combination barns* combine these functions with others (e.g. cattle housing, stabling, cart sheds) and so have many more openings and can be floored. Split-level *mixing barns* developed from the later 18th century as a result of the widespread introduction of machinery for processing corn and fodder.
Keeping grain clean, dry and secure from rodents and pilferers.	*Granaries* could be: • detached structures, placed above the ground; • or located in the loft of the house, above the stable or cart shed, or within a combination barn
Shelter and Housing for Animals	
Key function	*Spatial Requirement*
Managing and accommodating cattle	Yards, sometimes sub-divided for different types of stock Shelter or housing, usually facing onto yard areas, which are: • open-fronted shelter sheds • small cubicles (looseboxes) with doors for intensive fattening or for bulls • cowhouses with stalls, and with access for both the cattle and in some cases passages for feeding and mucking out • large cattle sheds or covered yards Interiors to cattle housing could be quite dark with slits providing ventilation, proper lighting being more commonly introduced in the 19th century.
Stalling horses	Stables were generally well-lit and ventilated buildings, with typically tall and narrower doors than to cowhouses.
Housing other animals such as pigs, poultry and doves	Pigsties, dovecotes, henhouses, goose pens. Nesting boxes for doves, within dovecotes or incorporated into the exterior walls of farm buildings.
Storage and Processing of Animal Fodder	Hay needed to be kept dry and well-ventilated, and was commonly stored in lofts above stables or cattle housing. Some farms needed hay barns. Rooms for mixing and preparing fodder adjoined cattle housing – at one end or from the mid-19th century as a mixing barn.
Vehicles	
Key function	*Spatial requirement*
Sheltering carts, wagons and implements	Cart sheds for carts and implements are open-fronted with lock-ups for implements. They typically face away from the cattle yard and often onto an access point or track.

Table 1

3.2 Peak District

The Peak District was generally characterised by a pastoral farming economy, but arable farming was always practiced to a greater or lesser extent, predominantly for oats: the limestone-based White Peak was the main area of arable farming combined with sheep husbandry, which has left little trace. Three- or four-bay cruck-framed barns of 15th to 17th century date survive, clustered in the Bradfield area, part of a group extending into the Lancashire and Yorkshire Pennines (Figure 3.1). In the Peak District, as across the uplands of northern England, combination barns dating from the 17th century date are found, often with barn, stabling and/or cow housing in one range. From the late 18th century, many barns were built as part of a range with the threshing area flanked by animal housing (Figure 3.2). Mechanisation in farmsteads is not a common feature. Only in isolated cases was power incorporated in farmsteads, such as on large estates or in farmsteads that were built using contemporary factory design to increase efficiency. A group of farmsteads owned by the industrialist Strutt family near Belper in Derbyshire variously incorporated both steam and horse engines (Wade Martins 2002, 94–100).

Figure 3.1 The gable of the barn to the centre of the photograph shows the remains of a cruck truss, probably of an earlier barn fossilised within the wall of the enlarged building.

Figure 3.2 A combination barn with cattle housing at the lower, left hand end and the threshing bay and hay and crop storage to the right and above the cattle.

Except for the larger farmsteads in the lower valleys and in the north-east of the study area there was limited need for large teams of horses, the majority of farms having only one or two horses which were either riding horses or pack animals. Therefore, large stables are rare across most of the area and are usually found as part of a combined building (Figure 3.3). Individual granary buildings are also rare in the area; although there was arable farming, the relatively limited production could be stored in lofts in buildings above other functions accessed by external steps or in the farmhouse.

Figure 3.3 Stabling was often combined with other animal housing

The working buildings of farmsteads in the Peak District demonstrate the importance of cattle in the farming systems of the area with cattle housing being the most common building type on farmsteads – whilst sheep were also significant in the agriculture of the area, they were rarely provided with specific buildings. Cow houses usually provided accommodation for between eight and twelve animals, except on the smaller farms in more remote upland areas. The standings allowed for two cows between each division with vertical stone slabs set within wooden frames dividing the stalls (Denyer 1991, 98). The animals were tethered in these stalls for the winter with a manger along the wall in front of them. Cattle could be stalled across the width of the building or along its length.

As farm size increased, so did the number of buildings required, particularly for housing cattle, which were normally in-wintered for up to six months in upland areas of northern England. Cow houses can form part of a larger building, either at one or both ends of a single storey barn, within a partially lofted barn, below a lofted extension or in the ground floor of a bank barn. Small byres for milk cows for domestic use were usually provided within the farmstead, usually near the house or the cattle yard. There is very little additional evidence for cattle housing until the late 18th century. From the early 19th century, wider buildings were being built, which had entrances in both side walls and gable ends, the latter to a long axial passage into which cattle would face: these served as both a feeding passage and a source of cross-ventilation. Increasingly from the mid-19th century the stalls were being turned round and placed across the building in back-to-back blocks with doors in the front wall to serve each group, the cattle facing a vented passageway into which fodder could be dropped from above.

In addition to the traditional cow house, enclosed and accessed by one or more doors, from this period cattle were kept in open yards with long, low, open-fronted shelter sheds (Figure 3.5). Such ranges are mostly found on the larger courtyard farms and often adjoined the barn, the source of their fodder and straw for litter. Sometimes these shelters had a hayloft or a granary over.

Figure 3.4 A two storey cow house with hay lofts over.

Figure 3.5 Open-fronted shelter sheds are typically associated with mid- to late 19th century courtyard farmsteads built by estates.

The production and storage of hay was essential in maintaining the stock over the long, harsh winters. Hay was often stored in lofts above cattle housing in both the cow houses within the farmstead (Figure 3.4) and within field barns standing isolated within the fields. Purpose-built hay barns with one or more open sides, often supported on stone piers but also as part of larger ranges, are also found (Figure 3.6).

With relatively small areas of arable, most small farmsteads required few vehicles and implements and so cartsheds tend to be small compared to lowland arable farms. The smallest farms might need only one cart for transporting hay or dung but in many hill-side areas a horse-drawn sled would be used instead of a cart. Cartsheds are usually open-fronted single storey buildings (Figure 3.7) but small examples may have the opening in a gable end (Figure 3.8).

Figure 3.6 A hay barn combined with cattle housing standing in a hay meadow on the edge of a village.

Figure 3.7 An open-fronted cartshed located adjacent to the entrance to the farmstead

Figure 3.8 A cartshed with an open gable end

As is typical for much of southern and central England, sheep were rarely provided with buildings, even in the Pennine upland areas of the Region, in contrast to the Lake District and northern Pennines to the north where isolated hogg houses were built in the fields. Although there are few identified sheep houses in the Peak it is likely that most are associated with outfarms or field barns.

3.3 Farmstead Plan Types

The range of plan types or layouts display differences in how these buildings and spaces are arranged, reflecting their status, farm size and the extent to which farms mixed or specialised in the growing of corn or other arable crops, the rearing and fattening of cattle and dairying. Large arable farms required more space for stacking, storing and processing crops, and also more space for storing grain and carts, and housing horses for pulling ploughs and other vehicles and machinery, than farmsteads which grew few or no arable crops and specialised in the rearing of cattle and dairying. The principal farmstead types, illustrated on the following pages, are:

- Courtyard plans where the working buildings are arranged around one or more yards.

- Dispersed plans where there is no focal yard area and the working buildings are dispersed along a routeway or within the boundary of the farmstead.
- Linear and L-plan farmsteads with integral farmhouses, where the house and working buildings are attached and in-line. Farmsteads where the working buildings are set in a row (row plans) or parallel to the farmhouse (parallel plans).

Across England there can be very strong variations, marked by contrasting farmstead and landscape types, in small areas. Medium to large-scale courtyard plans are predominant in estate landscapes and across those areas with more productive soils where corn production was prevalent. The smallest-scale courtyard plans, dispersed plans and linear plans are predominant in upland, wooded or common edge landscapes with small-scale enclosed fields.

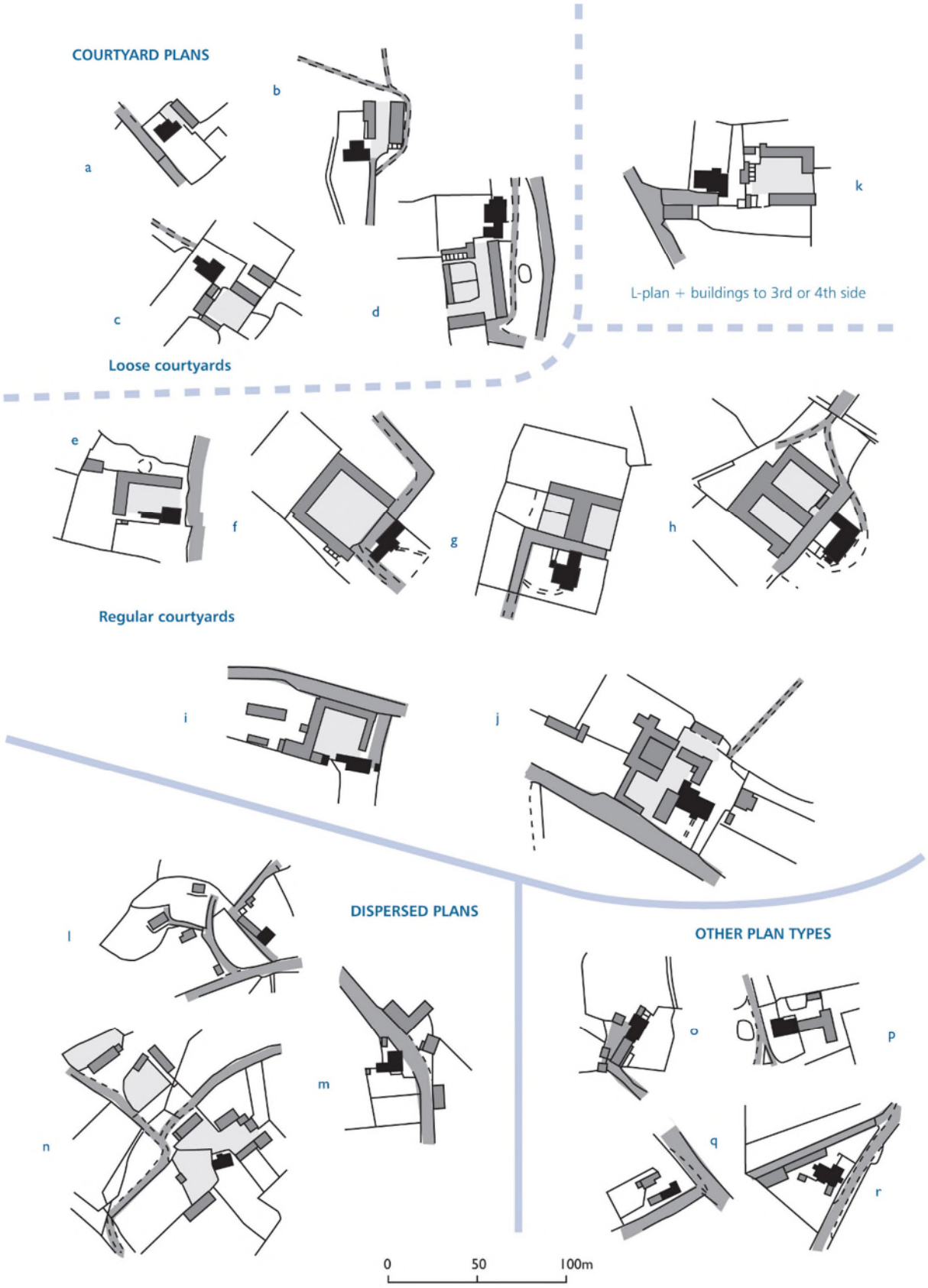

Figure 3.9 Farmstead Plan Types

Courtyard plans are the most common forms of farmstead layout, where the working buildings are arranged around one or more yards. The largest courtyard farms are found on high-status sites, estate farms and in the arable vales, wolds and downlands of England, and the smallest in stock-rearing and dairying areas. Cattle yards either developed as areas for treading straw from the threshing barn into manure, or – especially in upland areas – an area for moving cattle and storing the manure. They may have scatters of other farm buildings relating to routes and tracks, usually cart sheds and other ancillary buildings.

a-d) Loose Courtyard farmsteads. These have buildings loosely arranged around one (a) or more (b – 2; c – 3; d – 4) sides of a yard.
e-j) Regular Courtyard farmsteads. These consist of linked ranges, formally arranged around one or more yards, and subdivide into: L-plans (e), U-plans (f), F-, E-, T-, H- or Z-shaped plans (g and h), full courtyard plans (i) and multi-yard plans (j) which are typically the largest in scale.
k) L-plan plus buildings to 3rd or 4th side

l-n) Dispersed plans have no focal yard area and the working buildings are dispersed along a routeway or within the boundary of the farmstead. They are concentrated in upland and wood pasture landscapes including areas close to common land for holding stock. They vary greatly in scale and are often bisected by routeways and public footpaths. l) dispersed clusters where the working buildings are dispersed within the boundary of the steading, m) dispersed driftways which are dominated by the routeways to them, and which often served to move stock from one farming zone to another and n) dispersed multi-yards, which are large-scale farmsteads containing two or more detached yards, often with other scattered buildings.

Linear and other plan types are most closely associated with upland and common-edge farmsteads.

- o) linear farmsteads, where the houses and working buildings are attached and in-line, or have been extended or planned with additional working buildings to make an L-shaped range (p). They were either built in a single phase or have developed and extended in a piecemeal manner, and from the medieval period many were incorporated within larger farmsteads as they expanded into courtyard or dispersed plans.
- q) parallel plans where the working buildings are placed opposite and parallel to the house and attached working buildings with a narrow area between. They have often developed from linear farmsteads.
- r) row plans, often medium as well as small in scale, where the working buildings are attached in-line and form a long row.

Linear Farmsteads

Figure 3.10 A large linear range with a continuous roofline across house and working buildings.

Figure 3.11 A medium-sized linear range with house and working buildings clearly of different phases.

Figure 3.12 A L-plan (house attached) group. As with many linear and L-plan farmsteads, there are other smaller detached buildings within the group.

Linear plans have the farmhouse and a farm building, usually a barn, attached in-line (Figures 3.10 and 3.11). Attached L-plans have the house and working buildings attached to each other in an overall L-plan (3.12). They can include linear plans extended into this form. These are often distinguished by evidence for differential building, often in the form of quoins, between the house and the barn. The agricultural end is normally towards the prevailing wind, thus adding some protection to the domestic accommodation. Any detached buildings are typically small-scale, such as pigsties and calf houses. All the buildings typically present one main elevation, facing onto a yard and/or a main entrance and circulation area. Stack yards and other working areas may be sited to the rear.

Some farmhouses may retain possible evidence of their origin as former longhouses where humans and animals originally shared the same entrance, but there is only fragmentary evidence for this. This evidence comprises hearth-passage plans (where the chimney stack backs onto a through-passage) and rebuilt lower ends (now serving as outbuildings or integrated into the domestic plan) which could have served as cattle housing. A small number of longhouses have been tentatively identified in Derbyshire but in all the examples recorded it appeared that the byre end of the house had been rebuilt, removing the evidence that would positively identify the building as a longhouse (Hutton 1991, 8–9). Longhouses are found across large areas of the uplands of England and Wales, in parts of south-west England and in north-west France. They are most strongly associated with areas of small-scale dairying or cattle rearing, where there was an obvious need to tend to the needs of milking cattle or young stock close to the house, and in hill farming areas marked by sheep farming.

A major reason for the persistence of the layout in the uplands was that it was suited to smaller farms (of 50 acres or less) needing fewer buildings – other than for the storage of subsistence levels of corn or other grains for the household and livestock, and the housing of some milk cattle, poultry and pigs. The close proximity of farmer and livestock during the winter months was another factor, cattle being stalled indoors from October to May. It was also a layout ideally suited to building along the contours of a hillside and so this farmstead plan remained in use in upland areas of England into the 19th century.

Linear farmsteads include laithe houses, which are typical of the central Pennines. They were built from the mid-17th century (with a concentration in the 1780–1840 period) and were designed to serve farms of about 30 acres, being frequently associated with holdings whose occupiers gained income from alternate and frequently industrial means of employment – primarily textiles, but also lead working (Brunskill 1987, 106–110). The house and farm buildings are usually of one build, the latter typically comprising a barn (hay and grain crops) with stabling and a cow house (often for as little as six cattle) at the lower end.

Dispersed Plans

Figure 3.13 A small dispersed cluster group set close to the edge of the moorland of the Dark Peak. The house and working buildings are set around the edge of a small irregular enclosure.

Figure 3.14 A Dispersed Multi-yard group in a village in the Needwood and South Derbyshire Claylands.

Dispersed plans display no obvious evidence for planning in the layout of the buildings, and there is no principal yard area. These are farmsteads where the buildings and yards are loosely arranged within the overall area of the farmstead. They are often bisected by routeways and public footpaths. Buildings present many facets to the surrounding landscapes, which often provide open views into the groups.

They are strongly associated, in the uplands of northern and western England, with areas of the smallest farms and smallholdings close to former rough land and common and around the routes and tracks for moving livestock to moorland and other extensive grazing areas.

Courtyard Plans

Loose Courtyard Plans

Loose courtyard plans have individual buildings set around one or more sides of a cattle yard, with or without scatters of other farm buildings close by. The smallest examples with working buildings to one side of the yard are typical of many upland areas in northern England. The larger examples with buildings to three or especially four sides of the yard are associated with large or high-status farms (such as manor farms and the home farms to estates).

Figure 3.15 A loose courtyard with a building range to one side. The two storey building was constructed as a combination barn, the threshing bay being later blocked and the building turned to serve solely as animal housing and hay storage.

Regular Courtyard Plan

These consist of linked ranges, set around one or more cattle yards. They more often result from a single phase of building or rebuilding and display greater consistency in the use of materials and constructional detail than other farmstead types. Some of these courtyard plans evolved over time into their present form, such as the carefully-planned steadings built by the Strutt family of industrialists to supply Belper with meat, malted barley and dairy produce (Wade Martins 2002, 94–9).

They are most commonly found as L or U-shaped layouts – often with the house attached to the working buildings but facing away from the farmyard. Larger-scale examples are rare and concentrated in areas of large-scale regular enclosure resulting from the improvement of moorland or the reorganisation of farmland in the lower dales.

Figure 3.16 A regular L-plan group with both ranges at two storeys

Figure 3.17 A medium-sized courtyard group with buildings to three side of the yard. The 'polite' early 19th century house faces the road passing the farmstead and away from the yard.

3.4 Outfarms and Field Barns

In addition to the main farmstead, some farms also constructed buildings away from the farmstead and within the fields.

An outfarm is a complex of buildings set around a yard and detached from the main farmstead, typically in areas where farmsteads and fields were sited at a long distance from each other which allowed certain functions normally carried out in the farmstead to be undertaken at locations remote from the main steading.

A field barn is defined as a single building which could serve as a:

- Shelter for sheep, typically with low doors and floor-to-ceiling heights.
- Shelter for cattle and their fodder (hay) without a yard.
- Threshing barn.
- Combination barn with a threshing bay and storage for the crop, and housing for cattle.

Field barns in the Peak District and other Pennine upland and fringe areas are often found in the corners or on the edges of many fields and are small stone buildings providing haylofts above and livestock accommodation below. Unlike the field barns within the northern part of the Pennines, Peak District field barns are typically set on a flat site rather than built into a slope (Brunskill 1987, 156). They date from the late 18th and 19th centuries, and in the White Peak are clustered in areas of intensive lead mining, such as around Winster and Bonsall and around the market centres of Bakewell and Alstonefield (Barnatt and Smith 2004, 99-100).

Figure 3.18 An example of a large outfarm group with a cattle yard. Examination of the masonry of the central range shows that there are several phases of construction and remains of an earlier field barn may be incorporated into the group – there is often more than one phase of construction in these isolated buildings suggesting changing requirements over time.

Figure 3.19 A small field barn providing lofted cattle housing set in the corner of a hay meadow.

Figure 3.20 an 18th century field barn. The main body of the building is divided into two parts, one part aisled to the rear (see Figure 3.21).

Figure 3.21 The interior of the left hand part of the field barn shown on 3.20 showing the aisled character of this part of the building.

Upland farms typically made use of existing buildings for shearing sheep, and the patterns of surrounding walls indicate that they were built for the sorting and handling of sheep. In common with other northern upland landscapes, communal sheepfolds and folds next to streams for washing can be found in upland grazing areas, with small openings (sheep creeps) built in field boundaries. On the open moorland walls were sometimes constructed, usually forming a cross or three-pointed star, to provide shelter for sheep from driving rain and wind.

3.5 Smallholdings

In contrast to farmers, who derived their primary income from the pursuit of agriculture, smallholders combined small-scale subsistence farming to supplement the income derived from other (usually industrial) activities such as woodland management, quarrying, coal or lead mining or metal working. Smallholders often relied upon access to common land and woodland and typically had little or no

enclosed land.

Individual smallholdings may be difficult to identify with certainty from historic mapping, particularly where they were located within villages or hamlets, and their survival or loss recorded in broad terms. Smallholdings will often be identified by their location in areas of small fields close to areas of common land and dispersed small-scale industry, whereas cottages, which may be of a similar size, will usually be set on roadsides without a clear association with fields. Historic Landscape Characterisation (HLC) can also assist in the identification of smallholdings, as these distinctive landscapes can be identified as areas of squatter enclosure.

There is clearly a degree of overlap in these areas with sites that can be mapped as farmsteads, in particular the smallest farmsteads that can be identified as linear, loose courtyard (the smallest ones in this category with a building to only one side of a yard) and dispersed cluster plans. Their size and association with smallholdings may however imply a similar small-scale subsistence farming practice coupled with other activities.