This document illustrates the historic character of traditional farmsteads and buildings in Cornwall. The Cornwall Farmsteads Guidance aims to inform and achieve the sustainable development of farmsteads, including their conservation and enhancement. It can also be used by those with an interest in the history and character of the county’s landscape and historic buildings, and the character of individual places. Also available are:

- The Cornwall Historic Farmsteads Assessment Framework which provides a step-by-step approach to considering the reuse of traditional farm buildings and the sustainable development of farmsteads, through identifying their historic character, significance and potential for change.
- Farmstead and Landscape Statements for the 8 National Character Areas that include Cornwall.

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Cover image: A classic example of a West Penwith dispersed multi-yard farmstead, which developed into its present form from the farming hamlet of Trengothal on the south coast. © Historic England NMR 29036/009
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INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

A farmstead is the place where the farmhouse and the working buildings of a farm are located, although some farms also have field barns or outfarms sited away from the main farmyard. Traditional farmsteads and their buildings reflect both local traditions and national influences, and make a significant contribution to local character and distinctiveness. They do this through variations in their scale, layout, buildings and materials, and the way that buildings of different dates and types relate to yards, other spaces and the surrounding landscape and settlement.

**Traditional farmsteads** include:

- Buildings of 19th century or earlier date, whether vernacular buildings which display local traditions and styles or designed buildings which display national influences in their architecture or engineering. They will often show evidence of successive episodes of change as farmsteads and buildings were developed and added to over time.

- Locally distinctive buildings built between 1900 and 1950. These are relatively uncommon in Cornwall. They include late examples of vernacular buildings and examples designed by architects and engineers for estates and, between the 1890s and 1930s, for county council smallholdings.

Prefabricated and standardised industrial buildings fall into two categories:

- Pre-1950 buildings, including timber or metal-framed Dutch barns of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, silage towers and dairies with steel windows and roofs, all rare in Cornwall.

- Post-1950 multi-functional sheds and their associated hard-standings for vehicles and moving stock, which met increasing requirements for minimising labour, the environmental control of livestock and on-farm production, particularly of milk. They were either built on the site of the older farmstead or to one side, often with separate access. Milk quotas, economies of scale and government subsidies resulted in many dairy farms changing to beef production together with associated building requirements from the late 20th century.

The scale, materials and form of late C20 ‘industrial’ farming buildings contrast markedly with the vernacular in Cornwall even, as seen on the right, when fulfilling the same broad functions: (© Eric Berry)
INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

Traditional farm buildings illustrate significant developments in agricultural and rural history. Farmstead groups with 18th century or earlier working buildings (typically barns) are very rare; 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, landownership, conditions of tenure and other factors. Planned farmsteads from this period can also mark nationally-significant developments in agricultural improvement and engineering. As a general rule farmhouses pre-date farm buildings, of which the larger-scale or high status buildings generally have the greatest chance of survival from the earlier periods, in particular barns, which were consistently used for the same purpose or capable of being adapted to later uses. Site survey and the comparison of historic with modern Ordnance Survey maps enable traditional buildings to be identified and distinguished from later non-traditional buildings.
The remainder of this document summarises the historic character and significance of farmsteads and their buildings in Cornwall under the following key headings:

Section 1: Historical development

This examines the processes that underpinned the development of farmsteads and their buildings.

- In Cornwall these provide testament to significant themes in its agricultural and social history – the importance of stock rearing across much of the county, of arable farming in some localised areas and earlier patterns of land use and settlement which developed from around the 5th century AD and make Cornwall highly distinctive in a national and European context.

- It is less common than in some other regions to find surviving 18th century or earlier buildings in Cornish farmsteads.

Section 2: Landscape and settlement

This examines the wider context – how farmsteads relate to the landscapes around them.

- Cornwall has a marked variety of agricultural and farmstead types; within often tightly defined areas, these are related to the varied landscapes associated with stock rearing, localised arable areas, extensive moorland/upland grazing, intense horticultural development, extensive (and late) subsistence farming associated with miners’ smallholdings.

- Distinctive to Cornwall, but increasingly under threat, are farmsteads which have a clear visual relationship to the earthworks remaining from medieval and earlier cultivation and settlement.

Sections 3 and 4: Farmsteads and building types

These sections explore how the functions of farmsteads are reflected in a variety of plan forms and building types.

- Examples of particular significance in Cornwall, because never common, include model farms associated with landed gentry and/or architects which date from the later 18th century; most will be associated with landscape parks (either within or on the edge of).

- Also significant, but more typically Cornish, and once very much more common, are small-scale farmsteads and smallholdings, typically sited around areas of ancient pasture and generally associated with areas of former mineral/stone extraction or other industrial activity; although large areas are still recognisable in field patterns and landholdings, the farmsteads themselves increasingly rarely survive in legible form.

- Evidence for mechanisation within the farmstead is also particularly significant, partly because always limited in its use in Cornwall, mainly on the relatively fewer larger farms, but also because increasingly rarely surviving (wheel houses or engine houses; belt-drive wheels for powering steam engines, earthwork evidence for leats/mills / wheel pits etc.).

Section 5: Materials and detail

The study of the historic development of materials and constructional techniques and fittings has shown that many features either rarely survive or are currently under represented in the records in Cornwall. Examples include: stalls and other interior features (e.g. mangers, hay racks) of 19th century and earlier date. Historic graffiti and other marks relating to agricultural use and folk beliefs.

Section 6: Area summaries

This section offers a summary of how Cornwall and Cornish landscapes and farmstead types subdivide into different areas.
SECTION 1: HISTORIC DEVELOPMENT

Historic farmsteads form part of distinct agricultural regions which developed from the medieval period, mixing or specialising in, to differing degrees, the production of corn, livestock or dairy products. Farm holdings have generally grown in size, but small farms developed and even increased in number in some areas. Farmers and smallholders have sometimes combined farming and industry, often utilising common grazing on moorland and heath – in these regions farmstead patterns were influenced by patterns of landownership, communications, urban development and industry, as well as the nature and intensity of earlier land use.

Agricultural productivity has always been sustained by new techniques in crop and animal husbandry, and the restructuring, enlargement or reduction of farm holdings. These developments, and local variations in the prosperity of farming, are often expressed in successive waves of rebuilding of houses, barns and other structures. The period 1750-1880, and especially the capital-intensive ‘High Farming’ years of the 1840’s-70’s, saw a particularly sharp increase in productivity, in which the rebuilding of farmsteads played a key role, although in Cornwall there were few of the architectural showpieces built with non-agricultural wealth as found in the rest of the country.

These overall trends were intensified in Cornwall by association with the huge economic influence of mining and associated industries – although the phasing of agricultural change remained broadly similar to the national picture, this did create some local variation in its dating and intensity.

The late 19th century highpoint was followed by a long but regionally varied depression which lasted until the Second World War. Most new buildings in this phase comprised large framed sheds, new forms of pig and poultry housing, hygienic dairies and milking parlours and County Council smallholdings – which followed parliamentary acts passed in 1907 and 1908 and after the First World War. Although increasingly standardised, all these new types displayed local variations in their distribution.

The Second World War witnessed a temporary rise in productivity although this did not necessarily result in a rise in the number of new farm buildings. Since the 1950s changing animal welfare standards and increasing use of machinery have resulted in the development of multi-purpose pre-fabricated buildings that economise on farm labour and are critical to the survival of the modern farming industry. Redundant farmsteads and their buildings have become increasingly popular for non-agricultural modes of rural living. Family farms have further shrunk in number, as the intensity of production and the size of farms has increased. Despite this, Cornwall retains a higher proportion of small farm units than the rest of the country. Although diversification has been encouraged by Government to enable farms to survive, this is often not a realistic option due to access difficulties or planning issues.

The key developments in agricultural and farmstead development in Cornwall are outlined below:

- Rural landscape and settlement patterns still recognisable today emerged in Cornwall from the 5th century AD.
- In the medieval period much of the county, already well settled by the year 1100, saw the expansion of arable cultivation and the spread of farmsteads onto marginal land as a result of population pressure. Deserted farmstead sites high on Bodmin Moor stand as evidence for medieval arable farming well beyond the present-day limits of cultivation.
- After the Black Death, and in some areas before, there was a general reduction in arable land in favour of livestock, especially cattle. Arable production became concentrated – in the south-east of the county, along some coastal areas such as Mounts Bay, and around sheltered valleys and major estuaries such as the Fal and Camel. Stock rearing emerged as a Cornwall-wide industry from the 15th century, with many of the animals reared to supply market towns and ports (including those in Devon, like Plymouth, affecting the east of Cornwall), where manufacture, fishing and mining had swelled local populations.
- Orchards for the localised production of cider develop from the 16th century.
- The practice of convertible husbandry in Cornwall, whereby permanent pasture was broken up and farmed as arable for two or three seasons, persisted from the medieval period (or earlier) onwards.
- The importance of furze/gorse and bracken as fodder and fuel persisted alongside convertible husbandry; large areas of open downland were as much part of the managed landscape as farmland.
The strength of local landholding and inheritance customs was a highly distinctive feature, in particular three-life leasehold tenure (a tradition reinforced by association with the mining industry in the 18th and 19th centuries) and partible inheritance (all sons inheriting land, not just the eldest). These fostered distinctive patterns in some areas:

• hamlets/farm groups with more than one farmhouse, often in a shared farm complex.

• ‘unit living’ where members of the extended family lived attached to the main farmhouse range or separately.

• larger, older farmsteads with outlying, smaller farms/cottages.

• relatively small scale and often unsustainable ephemeral farm holdings.

• lack of stability, fluid nature of tenures could mean rapid turnaround of units, affecting the survival of building stock, sometimes with reduction of farming hamlets to single farms.

• sub-division of plots, successive relocation and conversion of buildings meaning, for instance, that farm buildings can reveal evidence for having been houses.

In the early 19th century there were developments with root crops and rotations. Mangolds were grown in increasing quantities after 1815 and used for feeding cattle as an addition to the existing grassland.

Although not as marked as some areas of the country, even in Cornwall large estates were driving agricultural improvement, often alongside the encouragement of smallholdings. There are some exceptional examples of early 20th century investment in farms including experimental designs such as Tremedda near Zennor, and Ford Farm at St Cleer.

West Penwith – with the construction of a new farmhouse in the early 19th century the old farmhouse was converted to a barn, then further adapted in the 20th century to mechanisation with the enlarging of the doorway; note the gentle ramping up to the entrance. © Eric Berry
Ford Farm, St Cleer – Henry Rice’s original design for a model farm. Many Cornish farms aspired to this sort of regularity; the importance of the Royal Cornish Show and local agricultural societies in spreading this sort of ideal design cannot be overemphasised. Typically in Cornwall the courtyards are much more ad-hoc in development and, like this design itself, very rarely fully realised. From Denton, J.B. (1864) The Farm Homesteads of England

- Through the course of the 19th century steamship services and the rail network facilitated the development of market gardening in the Tamar Valley and West Cornwall.
- A sharp increase in cattle numbers from the mid-19th century, accompanied by the increased use of imported fodder, cattle housing and more secure leases encouraged tenants to invest in new farming methods.
- This period was one of major change, characterised by an increase in livestock specialisation and capital expenditure often being directed towards providing improved housing for stock.
- There are high densities of mid to late 19th century farm buildings in some areas and a subsequent loss of high numbers of earlier farm buildings.
- The 21st century trend of a home-working economy coupled with tourist accommodation is a particular Cornish and South-west issue stimulating the continued alternative uses for existing farm building stock.

A barn conversion – a former farmstead on an urban edge – this, incredibly, was the barn, converted to residential use in the 1980s. © Nick Cahill
SECTION 2: LANDSCAPE AND SETTLEMENT

Historic farmsteads and their buildings are an integral part of the rural landscape and how it has changed over the centuries. They relate to different scales and patterns of fields, to boundaries, trees and woodland and sometimes to areas of surviving common land and industrial sites. Most parts of the country are characterised by a mix of settlement patterns, but a clear distinction can be drawn between those areas, mostly in central England, dominated by large nucleated villages with few isolated farmsteads and those areas like Cornwall that have fewer and smaller (if indeed scarcely any) purely agricultural villages and higher densities of isolated farmsteads and hamlets.

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 (the traditional Cornish hedge is a solid earth and/or stone structure – not always with planting on it), are some of the most distinctive features of the Cornish landscape.

In contrast to much of England, over two thirds of the Cornish landscape is Anciendy Enclosed Land, a land pattern established by the medieval period (and in the case of West Penwith, for instance, in prehistory), with many farming settlements documented before the 17th century AD.

The resulting field patterns are generally distinct in shape, size, history and significance from the typically straight-sided fields of later enclosure.

The rest of Cornwall’s landscape is made up of coastal and upland rough ground and more recently enclosed land; this latter includes large areas of smallholdings and larger regularly laid out farms.
CORNISH LANDSCAPE TYPES

Cornwall’s historic landscapes were defined by the 1994 Cornwall Historic Landscape Characterisation programme; the main types are as follows:

Anciently Enclosed Land (AEL) has irregular field patterns with medieval or prehistoric origins. Many blocks of AEL have the remnants of medieval strip fields, either the enclosed strips themselves or the enclosed cropping units which contained these strips. Anciently Enclosed Land is also subdivided into two types; Farmland Prehistoric which is confined to West Penwith (the characteristic small, irregular fields seen left), and Medieval Farmland (below, near Cotehele in east Cornwall), which is very widespread, covering more than half of Lowland Cornwall. © Historic Environment, Cornwall Council, 2006; F68-130 (left) and 2008, F83-113 (right).

Anciently Enclosed Land (AEL) have the remnants of medieval strip fields, either the enclosed strips themselves or the enclosed cropping units which contained these strips. The land tends to be relatively sheltered but can extend onto high downs. Conversions and demolitions are greatly reducing the number of intact pre-20th century farmsteads.
Anciently Enclosed Land altered in the 18th/19th centuries (AEL 18/19) is AEL whose field systems were re-organised by the replacement of relatively irregular fields by more regular or rectilinear fields with perfectly straight sides. Lanes and roads were also often altered. It is usually possible to pick out certain sinuous boundaries which survived the transition, and other aspects often retain the feel of AEL, notably the farming settlements themselves which were often not rationalized in the same way as the fields.

Medieval farmlands taken in from the waste around Goss Moor –19th/20th century straight sided subdivisions contrasting with both the broadly sub-circular original enclosures and earlier subdivision into strips. © Historic Environment, Cornwall Council, 2005; F70-003
Anciently Enclosed Land altered in the 20th Century (AEL 20) consists of AEL whose field systems have been substantially altered by large-scale hedge removal in the 20th century. Fields are very large for Cornwall, but usually with sinuous sides as strategic ancient hedges are retained; often farmed more intensively than in AEL. Settlements and most of the other historic components of the Zone are similar to AEL although farmsteads are often altered, with numerous large covered yards, silage pits etc. The use of heavier agricultural machinery means that there are fewer prehistoric features visible at surface and sub-surface remains are more likely to be damaged or destroyed.

© Cornwall Council Licence 2015. Imagery copyright Getmapping PLC.

The need not to dismiss recently enclosed land, and the farmsteads associated with it, as being devoid of historic interest or archaeological potential is demonstrated by the fields (near Probus) in the centre of the aerial photograph (above): in the HLC these are classed as ‘Farmland 20th century’, but the First Edition OS map of 1880 shows the landscape is clearly one of Anciently Enclosed Land.

Map based on OS 2nd Edition 25” map c.1907. © and database right Crown Copyright and Landmark Information Group Ltd (All rights reserved 2012). Licence numbers 000394 and TP0024.
Recently Enclosed Land (REL) consists of land enclosed from the 17th century onwards, usually from medieval commons on Upland Rough Ground, and mainly in the second half of the 18th century and the 19th century. The fields usually have perfectly straight sides and often have hedges and walls with less mature or varied vegetation. The roads are straighter and link single farms, placed quite close together.

Upland Rough Ground (URG) has the longest history of human interference; its principal attributes are impoverished soils supporting heath/scrub vegetation, but these are themselves a product of prehistoric human intervention and maintained through medieval and early modern land use systems. There are often highly important remains of prehistoric and medieval settlements and ceremonial and ritual monuments surviving in Upland Rough Ground.

Although apparently just rough grazing, this is a landscape that has been shaped by thousands of years of human activity and agricultural exploitation. Note the remains of a probable Bronze Age round house in the foreground. The middle distance contains evidence of ancient fields systems. On Rough Tor in the background there are remains of a Neolithic Tor enclosure – enigmatic features amongst the oldest surviving structures in the country. © Ann Reynolds
Coastal Rough Ground (CRG) consists of unenclosed sloping ground beyond fields but above cliffs. It is generally only found as a narrow band and is the result of thousands of years of human activity, particularly through summer grazing, turf-cutting and the extractive industry. There are often remains of human activity related to the coast; cliff-top barrows, cliff castles, coastguard sites, fortifications, etc. Of considerable importance, its rare and well-preserved archaeological features survive in understandable complexes where time-depth is clearly visible. In much of West Penwith the cliffs were given over in the 19th century to small flower-growing and vegetable growing plots – a distinctive feature sometimes associated with small cottage holdings. Coastal Rough Ground is highly valued by both local people and visitors and has good potential for research and presentation.
SOME GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF CORNWALL’S FARMSTEADS IN THE LANDSCAPE

There can be very strong variations, marked by contrasting farmstead and landscape types, in the densities of farmsteads 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. Linear plans and the smallest-scale and dispersed courtyard plans are concentrated in areas of small-scale cattle-rearing and dairying farms, particularly in upland or common edge landscapes with small-scale enclosed fields.

The dates of farm buildings also merit consideration in their landscape context. 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, landownership, 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.

Cornish character

- In Cornwall’s anciently enclosed landscapes there are many traditional farmsteads sited within or next to earthworks remaining from medieval and earlier cultivation and land use, and the archaeological remains of shrunken or deserted settlements and field systems.
- Many Cornish farmsteads are the remnants of shrunken hamlets, a process commencing in the 13th century and especially marked in emerging pastoral areas in the 15th century.
- As well as being evidence of single-phase movement into new grounds (as on the moorland edges), isolated farms in Cornwall could represent the end of a long period of ebb and flow in more anciently settled and farmed landscapes, e.g. shrinkage of settlement or a mobile farming community.
- Transhumance (the seasonal transfer of livestock from one grazing ground to another, especially from lowlands to highlands) was a feature of traditional farming throughout much of Cornwall. There remain a characteristic presence of route-ways and evidence for transhumance particularly in West Penwith and Bodmin Moor between lowland fields to coastal and upland summer-shared grazing.
- Outlying fields, or the edge of the farmstead where it meets the farmland, may contain field barns and shelters and locally distinct structures such as crows and butterwells.
- By the 14th century so-called barton farms had emerged in some areas, creating distinctive landscapes. These were the farms of free tenants with (relatively) large landholdings or demesne farms of the greater land owners (usually staffed by a managing steward and servants). The process was reinforced by the transfer of large blocks of land after 1350, by the early 16th century giving rise in some areas to compact farms of 100 acres or over. Barton farms are particularly prevalent in mid and east Cornwall. Many declined in status and continued as smaller farms. In some areas a substantial historic building complex and large farm holding indicates this high-status origin. Barton farms in Cornwall are often no bigger than normal farm sizes elsewhere in the country, but have high potential for archaeological and architectural evidence of earlier buildings.
- Smallholdings are sometimes locally dominant; more likely to be of one age, design and completeness, with a small multipurpose range of buildings in the immediate vicinity of the farmhouse.

Crowan parish – a medieval farm (a tre settlement – one of the primary settlement types in the Cornish landscape), not only takes its name from the adjacent round, but exploits it for a yard; the present farmhouse and courtyard developed over the 19th century – the earlier buildings were within and on the ramparts of the round itself. © Historic Environment, Cornwall Council, 2009; F90-053
SECTION 3: FARMSTEAD TYPES

THE FUNCTION OF FARMSTEADS

The size and layout of farmsteads results from their status, farm size and the extent to which farms mixed or specialised in the growing of corn, the rearing and fattening of cattle and dairying. Their principal function was to house the farming family and any workers, store and process harvested crops and dairy products, produce and finish meat, provide shelter for livestock, carts and implements and produce manure for the surrounding farmland. These functions required:

- A farmhouse, either attached to the working buildings positioned to one side of them or detached with its own driveways and gardens, a position often seen in larger and high-status farmsteads of the 18th and 19th centuries.
- Access to and from its farmland, communal land, other settlements and markets.
- Peripheral features, either on the edge of the farmstead where it meets the farmland, and/or in the wider farmland, e.g. butterwells, crows, sheep creeps, transhumance huts, field barns.
- Specialist or combination buildings or ranges.
- Open and enclosed yards and other spaces for stacking harvested corn and hay, sorting and containing livestock, milking cattle, gardens or orchards.
- Townplaces: communal spaces with routes passing through them, often a result of a shrunken farming hamlet or partible inheritance that creates more than one farmhouse around a shared yard (a west Cornwall characteristic).
- In some cases cottages for farm workers or rooms for live-in farm labourers – usually in the attic or back wing of the house. Seasonal workers were sometimes housed in the lofts of farm buildings.
- Gardens within or to one side of the farmstead, which were usually developed as private areas with a distinct and separate character.
- The plan types or layouts vary according to how buildings and spaces are arranged, reflecting their status, farm size and the extent to which farms mixed or specialised in growing corn, rearing and fattening cattle or dairying. Large arable farms required more space for stacking, storing and processing corn, and also more space for storing grain and carts, and housing horses for pulling ploughs and other vehicles and machinery, than farmsteads which grew little corn and specialised in the rearing of cattle and dairying.
- Generally it was not until after the 1840s that some degree of rationalisation occurred with farmsteads re-organised around yards, particularly as L- and U-shaped complexes built around cattle yards. In Cornwall few farm buildings pre-date 1800 and the rebuilding of farmsteads around yards in the early to mid-19th century was invariably accompanied by farm amalgamation.
- In Cornwall only a minority of estates are known to have built planned courtyard farmsteads.
**FARMSTEAD TYPES: AN OVERVIEW**

**Courtyard plans**

a-d) Loose Courtyard layouts have detached buildings loosely arranged around one (a) or more (b – 2; c – 3; d – 4) sides of a yard. Those with working buildings to one or two sides are common across Cornwall, the largest are found on high-status sites, such as estate and barton farms.

k) L-shaped plans with additional detached buildings to the third or fourth sides are generally large to very large in scale.

e-j) Regular Courtyard layouts consist of linked ranges formally arranged around one or more yards:

- L-plans (e) and U-plans (f) – typically small-medium scale resulting from comprehensive rebuilding in the 19th century.
- Full courtyard (i) – working buildings developed around all four sides of the yard, found on barton and other high status farms.
- Multi-yard plans (j) have multiple yards grouped together and regularly arranged, with linked ranges, set around one or more cattle yards, found on large farms that were reorganised over the 19th century.

**Dispersed plans** face outwards in different directions.

A distinctive feature of the Cornish landscape, it is not always easy to distinguish variations in form – most smaller dispersed plans, particularly on the rough-ground margins, incorporate elements of all 3 main sub-types:

- working buildings may be apparently randomly dispersed within the boundary of the farmstead (l), they usually relate to droveways (m), dominated by the route ways to them, which often served to move stock from one farming zone to another, but these routes often converge on a central ‘Town Place’ around which are loosely dispersed multi-yards (n).
- Dispersed multi-yards are also typical of larger-scale farmsteads containing two or more detached yards, often with other scattered buildings.

**Linear and other plan types** face in a single direction

These have the working buildings built in-line with integral farmhouses (l) and occasionally extended into L-shaped plans (m). They are most closely associated with upland and common-edge farmsteads in England. Most probably the dominant farmstead types until the 17th century, this type includes the longhouses dating from the medieval period which are such a significant surviving feature of the upland moors in the South-West as well as the small farmsteads in the rural industrial landscapes to the west. 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.

F-, E-, T-, H- or Z-shaped plans (not illustrated) are uncommon in Cornwall and are more typically found on reorganised lowland landscapes in England.
FARMSTEAD TYPES: AN OVERVIEW

Courtyard plans

In courtyard-plan farmsteads, the working buildings are arranged around one or more yards. These are common across Cornwall. The largest courtyard farms are found on high-status sites, estate farms and in the arable lands, 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 – as areas 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.

Plans can vary according to whether they serve mixed arable farms or upland pastoral farms, or were loose courtyard or regular courtyard plans:

Farmsteads of this type have detached buildings that have developed around one or more sides of a yard. The principal openings typically face into the yard, external elevations having few openings.

The flow process in a smaller Cornish mixed farm evolved over a period of time. Cereal crops were stacked in an open area known as the Mowhay (1) before being taken into the first floor of the Chall Barn (2) for threshing and grain storage. The resulting straw is dropped down to the feedwalk (3), part being used for litter and part for fodder. Roots (4) are also processed into fodder for the livestock, which includes fatstock in the ground-floor shippon (cow house) and horses in the detached stable. Manure and litter are removed from the animal houses to the midden (5). Milk is taken from the shippon to a dairy (6), usually within the farmhouse. The waste from the dairy is fed to the young stock and pigs (7). Manure is removed from the farmyard to the fields (8), horses move between the fields and the stable (9), and livestock leave the farm for sale at the market (10). Adapted from illustration by Allan T Adams in Bodmin Moor Vol II © English Heritage 2008 (see bibliography).

Although on a different scale, the same basic processes can be followed in large, regular and planned courtyard farms in the lowland areas, as here in south-east Cornwall – albeit a relatively unusual form for Cornwall in that house and yard are so close – typically the courtyard would be built away from the house, giving garden space, as part of the ‘improvements’ to the farmstead. Just as with the smaller farms, the farmstead revolves largely around the management of cattle – pure arable-based farmsteads always untypical in Cornwall. Drawing © Historic England
Courtyards show great variety in scale, age and relationship to the farmhouse: a small yard and largely single-storey buildings completely detached from the farmhouse near Mullion (left) contrast with the scale of the U-shaped farmstead near Goldsithny (right); despite the appearance of unity in the latter yard, both actually share the same long period of development over the course of the 18th/19th centuries. Photos © Eric Berry

Left, a small courtyard was developed on the far side of an important post-medieval barn away from the house with an early 19th century granary and stable/horse engine (in the barton landscape of St Kew parish, north Cornwall). Contrast this with (right) a very late 19th century detached, single-phase multi-courtyard at Towednack, West Penwith, associated with farm amalgamations, and a significant reduction in size of an ancient farming hamlet.

A typical loose courtyard arrangement – simply an area around which a series of buildings grew up over time, often free-standing as here (Otterham parish, North Cornwall). © Eric Berry

Larger farms typically developed over time into two or more yards, but, although now with the appearance of a regular multi-courtyard layout, until the mid-19th century the only buildings in this complex were the old, 16th century (manor) farmhouse at extreme left, and the mid-late 18th century cow houses at extreme right, with an extensive yard/garden area between. The small yard immediately adjoining the old house contains a calf-house and piggeries- both dependent upon the by-products of the dairy situated within the house; a fine, large mid-19th century barn (with a waterwheel still visible in the gable end) separates this more domestic area from the main farmyard; a late 19th century farmhouse stands to the rear, the old house becoming labourers’ cottages at that time. (St Martin by Looe parish).
Dispersed plans

A distinctive feature of the Cornish landscape, they appear often to have developed around routeways to common land for holding stock. Historic maps show that many courtyard farmsteads developed from these dispersed plans over the 19th century. Most smaller dispersed plans are set within an irregularly bounded paddock typically related to drove-ways and roadways which often converge into a central ‘Town Place’ around which are loosely arranged groups of buildings, usually more like small multi-yards than truly randomly dispersed.

Although strongly associated with areas of the smallest farms and smallholdings close to former rough land and common, and areas of irregular fields resulting from clearance in the medieval period, dispersed multi-yards are also typical of larger-scale farmsteads containing two or more detached yards, often with other scattered buildings.

They are most commonly found away from areas of planned enclosure and within Anciently Enclosed Land.

Dispersed plans provided more adaptable working spaces, sometimes at nodal points in routes and tracks. The flow processes within the farmstead are in many ways identical to those in the small courtyard plans. They are often associated with farmsteads that specialised in the rearing and fattening of livestock, the various yards being used to separate stock of different age. In some landscapes, especially around areas of rough ground, the cattle were provided with bracken and leaves.

Map based on OS 2nd Edition 25" map c.1907. © and database right Crown Copyright and Landmark Information Group Ltd (All rights reserved 2012). Licence numbers 000394 and TP0024.
Linear and parallel plans

Linear plans have the farmhouse and a farm building, usually a barn, attached in-line with little or no difference in the width of the two elements. Any detached buildings are typically small-scale, such as pigsties and calf houses.

These are most closely associated with upland and common-edge farmsteads, now mainly concentrated in fringes of Bodmin Moor and the West Penwith moors where small-scale fields and family farms remained as a distinctive feature of the farming landscape into the 20th century.

Some developed from longhouses where humans and animals shared the same entrance, which are now very rare. Most of the post-medieval sites are associated with smallholdings – for example, many of the early to mid-19th-century intakes around Bodmin Moor were being worked by part-timers in local industries, their linear farmsteads (with attached combination barns) on average serving 42-acre farms (half the size of pre-1808 moorland farms) and accommodating eight to ten cattle.
Outlying field barns and outfarms

**Field barns** and **outfarms** are set within the fields away from the main farmstead. They saved on transporting the harvested crop (hay or corn crops) to the farmstead, and enabled manure from the cattle housed in them to be carted back out to the distant fields.

**Typical features of field barns**

Field barns are single buildings set within or on the edge of a field away from the main farmstead, and in Cornwall they are frequently found as the footings of walls attached to hedge-banks and walls in fields. They are often found in areas where land holdings were intermixed, especially in some upland pasture areas. The earliest examples date from the 17th century.

Field barns could be:

- Shelters for sheep, typically with low doors and floor-to-ceiling heights – not thought to be common in Cornwall.
- Shelters for cattle and their fodder (hay) – probably the most common type in Cornwall.
- Hay barns.
- Combination barns (see **Chall Barns**) with a threshing bay and storage for the crop, and housing for cattle.

**Outfarms** are not common in Cornwall; they consist of one or more buildings set around a yard away from the main farmstead, typically having shelter sheds for cattle flanking a threshing barn. A cottage for a farm worker could also be sited nearby. They are particularly associated with areas of large farms which could have fields a long way away from the farmstead. Some outfarms eventually became farmsteads in their own right.

**Significance**

- The majority of 19th century and earlier structures have been lost; surviving examples are rare – any intact 18th century or earlier examples particularly so, even documented post-1880s are unusual in Cornwall.
- Some field barns and outfarms may be the remnants of former farmsteads where the house has been lost but the buildings retained as a result of farm amalgamation.
- Field barns and outfarms have always been vulnerable to dereliction once redundant. Most outfarms and field barns present at the end of the 19th century have been lost from the landscape.
Smallholdings

In contrast to farmers, who derived their primary income from the pursuit of agriculture, smallholders used small-scale subsistence farming to supplement the income derived from other (usually industrial) activities such as metal mining and/or working, quarrying or fishing. Smallholders often relied upon access to common land and woodland and typically had little enclosed land. Smallholdings will often be identified by their location in areas of small fields close to, and indeed often on, former areas of common land.

There are considerable areas in Cornwall, typically but not exclusively associated with mining, where smallholdings were created, often by large landowners and often in extensive and very regular patterns, as part of significant moorland clearance or reorganisation of existing larger fieldscapes. Farms and their enclosures often reduced in size in these industrial areas, counter to the broad national trend which witnessed the amalgamation and enlargement of farms in this period.

These areas saw some of the highest densities of farmsteads and dispersed rural settlement, including smallholdings. There is clearly a degree of overlap in these areas with sites that can be mapped either as squatter cottages (which may be of a similar size, but will usually be set on roadsides without a clear association with fields), or as 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.

- Despite the overall scale of the areas affected and the past significance of ‘rural industrial’ settlement, much of the evidence for smallholdings comes only from historic maps or in still-surviving field patterns, but in which many or most of the buildings have been swept away. It is common to find rebuilt structures within their plots.

- Typical buildings of smallholdings and their landscapes are pig sties, crows and calf houses.

- Some areas had field barns/ isolated buildings which served smallholdings.

- A common Cornish variation was that of garden settlements (similar to those known in the Cornish-settled areas of the United States as Locations) where cottages with very limited outbuildings are set within blocks of one-five acre plots – contrasting with somewhat larger smallholdings plots (seen best, for instance, at e.g. Halsetown or Pensilva).

Carnyorth – a mining related smallholding –although now converted, the simple arrangement is still clear – a minimum arrangement of house, chall barn stable and pig-sties, set on the edge of a small common. © Nick Cahill.
Pensilva – the full range of industrial housing provision on the edge of the South Caradon mining district on Bodmin Moor – landless cottages in the village, then, in ever larger size, garden plots, smallholdings and larger farms on the moorland edge – a mix of altered ancient fieldscapes and new in-takes from the moor.

Map based on OS 1st Edition 25” map c.1880. © and database right Crown Copyright and Landmark Information Group Ltd (All rights reserved 2012). Licence numbers 000394 and TP0024.

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SECTION 4: BUILDING TYPES

FARMSTEAD ARCHITECTURE

Traditional buildings can be ‘vernacular’ or ‘designed’. All display a remarkable variety of plan form and building type, in contrast to mass-produced structures or multi-functional sheds. By the late 19th century mass-produced buildings were becoming available, the Dutch barn being the most commonly seen prefabricated building of the period nationally, but not actually seen to a great extent in Cornwall. 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.

Vernacular buildings are characteristic of their locality – using whatever material is available locally, set into and sheltering in the landscape, lacking unnecessary detail or finesse, adapted and added to as needed. (St Kew parish). © Eric Berry

Designed buildings are usually built in a single phase, deliberately make a bold statement, using imported materials, and sometimes in a recognisable architectural style. Restormel Manor. © Eric Berry
This section describes the typical features and significance of the principal kinds of building and other features that are likely to be encountered in or around a farmstead in Cornwall. The buildings are grouped according to broad functions, and arranged alphabetically within each group.

The scale, range and form of working buildings reflect their requirements for internal space and plan form, lighting and fittings. Some buildings were highly specialised in function (such as dovecotes, pigsties and threshing barns) whilst others combined two or more functions in the individual rooms or sections of a single building.

THE FARMHOUSE AND RELATED FEATURES

Housing the farming family and farm workers

Local tradition and status were the principal reasons farmhouses faced towards or away from the yard, and might be attached or detached from the working buildings. Farmhouses attached to working buildings are common in Cornwall. Farmhouses along one side or gable end to the yard had a closer relationship to the workings of the farmyard than those where farmhouses are detached from the yard. These typically face away from the working yard, into gardens with separate access and overlooking a ‘prospect’ of gradually or newly enclosed landscapes. They are strongly associated with high-status sites or the larger regular courtyard and loose courtyard plans, and thus demonstrate the status of their tenants or owners. In the 18th and 19th centuries farmhouses were often remodelled or even re-sited to face away from the group into their own driveways and gardens.

FARMHOUSE see also LONGHOUSE

The main dwelling house of a farm, it can be either separate from or attached to the working buildings. The house can either share the main elevation with the working buildings or may face in a different direction, commonly into a garden area.

Detailed discussion of farmhouses as a separate building type stands outside the scope of this report. Sources (see p.73) provide a good guide to understanding farmhouses and other vernacular domestic buildings.

One particular feature of many Cornish farmsteads is the evidence of farmhouses that have historically been converted into farm buildings, or the other way around, either as the farmstead decays or a more modern farmhouse is built. This is a common feature in west Cornwall where huge temporary population fluctuations were associated with the expansion and contraction of mining over a relatively short period in the early-mid 19th century. In turn, in recent years, some of these farm buildings have been converted again to domestic use.
Plus ça change…21st century re-use of redundant farm buildings in West Penwith (in this case, the modern houses are conversions of a barn and outbuildings that were themselves 18th century/early 19th century cottages converted to farm buildings mid-19th century). © Nick Cahill

**KITCHEN** see also **BAKEHOUSE, BREWHOUSE** and **WASH-HOUSE**

Detached kitchens separate but close to the farmhouse are extremely rare and significant, but very similar to bakehouses, brewhouses and wash houses (see pages 27 and 31).

**LONGHOUSE**

A building with a shared entrance (or sometimes two separate entrances) for humans and cattle under one roof, the **cow house** being usually built down-slope from the accommodation.

**Typical features**

- If originally built with a shared entrance to a through-passage for humans and cattle, this was typically sited adjacent to the open hall at the higher end of the house.
- The **cow house** is usually marked by a central drain and a manure outlet at the lower gable end.
- As living standards changed the animals were often provided with separate access. This development could also result in the demolition of some **cow houses** and the conversion or rebuilding of others to domestic or new agricultural use (**barns**, for example).
- The basic longhouse plan exerted considerable influence on the subsequent evolution of farmhouses, and the piecemeal rebuilding and conversion of both lower end and house-part is often clearly visible in the buildings.

**Significance**

- Surviving examples are highly significant.
- Longhouses were often found grouped together in farming hamlets and associated with strip
farming of the surrounding fields. Documents and archaeological excavation indicate that they had a more widespread distribution in the medieval period, gradually being replaced by yard layouts with detached houses, barns and cow houses from the 14th century.

- However, they may not be as universal in Cornwall as has been thought – the evidence for them is particularly concentrated around the central and eastern moorlands.
- Surviving examples with integral cattle housing are of extreme rarity.

The suggested evolution of a linear farm from a medieval longhouse on Bodmin Moor (St Neot parish). © Cornwall Council, adapted from 1996 archaeological assessment.

**WELL** includes **WELL HOUSE, WELL COVER, WELL HEAD** (but not **BUTTER WELL** – q.v.)

A shaft or pit dug in the ground over a supply of spring-water.

**Typical features**

- Local vernacular e.g. shillet, granite, wood, metal cover, open stone-lined hole etc.
- May be shallow or deep, or situated to access a surface watercourse.
- Variety of uses and styles, e.g. dip wells, hand pump situated at well head, stone lined trough etc.
- Sometimes a well marked in sources such as maps may be little more than a natural spring head.
- Often sited away from farm complex and lacking security.
- The covered wells within farmsteads typically are situated on a supply of spring water and the roof and associated walls are designed to protect water within the sump from contamination.

**Significance**

- Vulnerable to infill, even when an upstanding structure is present.
- Pumps may be sold or stolen due to portable nature.

- Can silt up through lack of use and location lost.
- Vernacular style is of interest due to its variation from one area to the next.
- In Cornwall covered well houses are often designated as holy wells and these can often be strikingly architectural in their design and construction, often incorporating reused ecclesiastical architectural elements.
BREWING, BAKING AND DAIRY

BREWHOUSE/BAKEHOUSE see also KITCHEN and WASH-HOUSE

These are detached buildings sited close to the house that may have originated as dairies or as detached kitchens for brewing, baking and other purposes.

Typical features

- Typically sited close to the farmhouse; often domestic in scale and appearance.
- A single-storey building, usually with a single entry, and windows to the side walls.
- They will always have a chimney stack.
- Internally may retain a large fireplace for an oven and usually a copper.

Significance

- Examples appear to be concentrated in the west of England, extending into Wales. Most are 19th century, and earlier examples are very rare.
- Few examples survive as they have usually been subsumed by the farmhouse and converted for other use.
- Surviving bread ovens and copper vessels for brewing and washing are rare.
BUTTER WELL

A small stone structure, usually at a spring (may present as a bog when the site falls out of use), in which dairy products were kept cool on slate shelves. Actually may be for any produce –as in buts/buttery – not necessarily just dairy produce.

Typical features

- Usually small square structure, the internal (usually slate) shelf is a key distinguishing feature from ordinary covered well heads.
- Built in north-facing hedge or wooded area.
- More common in east Cornwall, within sight of farmhouse, often over spring.
- Rarely had a door.

Significance

- Rare; often built over during hedge repair.
- Under-represented in record; require further research while extant examples remain.

CHURN STAND see MILKSTAND
DAIRY

A detached building, or more often a room at the rear of the farmhouse, where milk was stored and processed to make cheese and butter. Cheese would be stored in a loft above the dairy or in the attic of the farmhouse (cheese room). Back kitchens in farmhouses were often associated with dairies as fireplaces were needed to produce cream.

Dairying for urban markets was already a specialised enterprise by the 1750s. Commercial cheese making and foreign imports (from the colonies) made inroads from the 1860s, and by around 1914 very little was being produced and sold from farms. In contrast, the production of liquid milk from the mid-19th century increased in importance (see milk stand).

Typical features

- Externally wide doors and ventilated or shuttered windows.
- Ornate dairies may form part of estate home farms.
- Internal slate shelves and brick/stone floors to keep milk and interior cool.

Significance

- Complete surviving examples with original fixtures, such as slate or stone shelves for cooling the milk, are very rare. This is because changes in hygiene regulations and the centralisation of production through the 20th century had a major impact on dairies, with the majority becoming redundant to their original use.

From the exterior farm dairies are often hard to distinguish from other outhouse types—although there are grand and ornamental examples. © Eric Berry

Prideaux Place – dairy interior. © Eric Berry
MALTHOUSE

A low-ceilinged building for the malting of barley before brewing, specifically for the germination of the crop on malting floors and then drying in a kiln.

Typical features

• Low-ceilinged malting floors with access to a kiln for drying the barley after it has germinated.
• Often situated next to creeks in Devon and Cornwall.

Significance

• Maltings were rarely built on farms, and the few surviving and highly significant examples are concentrated where barley was grown in large quantities.

MILK STANDS usual Cornish term for CHURNSTAND

A stand for milk churns, often built at the farm gate to save the milk cart or lorry from having to come to the farmstead.Examples are still common.

The sale of liquid milk had become massively important in many areas by the early 20th century. New milk-production plants, the abandonment of all but a handful of farmhouse dairies and cheese rooms, and the stands for milk churns, were all visible consequences of these developments.

Significance

• Many examples lost by widening farm entrance.
• Few examples remain that do not incorporate modern materials e.g. concrete block.

WASH-HOUSE see also BREWHOUSE/ BAKEHOUSE and KITCHEN

Detached buildings separate but close to the farmhouse often/usually indistinguishable from brewhouse/kitchen etc. and shares physical appearance/internal and external characteristics.
STORING AND PROCESSING CROPS

BARN

The barn is a building for the storage and processing of grain crops and for housing straw, farm equipment and occasionally livestock and their fodder. Its principal purpose was the dry storage and processing of the harvested corn crop and for housing straw after threshing before it was distributed to animal housing and yards. In many areas it was the principal or only building on the farmstead until the 19th century. The two basic types are:

- **Threshing barn** – a barn containing one or more threshing floors and bays for storing the sheaves of unthreshed corn and often the straw after threshing. The standard Cornish types were of three to five-bays, either a threshing barn or a split level barn. Larger barns are rarer: the largest threshing barns in Cornwall more than five bays and with two or even three in the same farmyard – were built in arable coastlands – there were some even larger ones with two threshing floors to the east of Fowey.

- **Combination barn** – in Cornwall usually a 2-storeyed threshing barn that also houses livestock and sometimes other functions (storing grain, housing carts etc.), either in outshuts at one end of the building or below a first-floor threshing and storage area. These are much more common in Cornwall than threshing barns, and resemble those found in upland and upland fringe areas of England. Storeyed barns, locally termed chall barns, with steps along the front elevation, are largely confined to Cornwall and parts of north Devon and north of Exmoor. Most combination barns date from the late 18th century and replaced smaller-capacity barns, bringing the key functions of these farmsteads under a single roof. Those with steps to gable end are mostly mid-19th century and later, made possible as wider buildings were built in this period.

Typical features

- The lack of timber framing tradition and the strong internal subdivision that comes from it means that it is less common in Cornwall to find stalls or grain or hay bins and so-on being closely related to internal building ‘bays’. Cornish barns tend to have much more adaptable, and less easily defined, spaces and uses.

- Threshing floors in the ‘threshing bay’ for beating out the harvested crop.

- Opposing doors to enable winnowing on the threshing floor in a cross-draught. The separation of grain from the chaff was usually achieved by throwing the grain into the air and using the wind to blow the lighter chaff away from the grain.

- It was more common in Cornwall for opposing doors to be very small, rather than being large enough to admit a laden wagon, and in some cases there might just be an opposing opening rather than a door for this purpose.

- Other openings comprise pitching holes for forking the crop into storage bays, or hay for animals, and doorways into animal housing or spaces which could be used for a variety of purposes (such as shearing sheep).

- Animal and steam power was increasingly used from the late 18th century, visible traces being belt drives and holes for drive shafts from earlier fixed or portable machinery and projecting horse engine houses, where horses powered threshing and mixing machinery – sometimes only the raised platform bases survive. Water power was also used, channelled to farmsteads by leats.

- There was scarcely any known use of fixed steam engines in Cornish farms (although the county had the earliest example in the world on the Trewthen estate, the 1812 engine itself now being in the Science Museum).

- However, as elsewhere, the introduction of the portable steam engine and threshing machine in the 1850s heralded the end of the traditional barn as storage and processing building, as the crop could be processed outdoors. These machines have
left no trace in the architecture or archaeology of farmsteads, except in the belt drives and shafting that conveyed power to rooms for mixing animal feed elsewhere in the barn.

- From the late 19th century, many barns were converted into cow houses and fodder processing and storage buildings. Barns may retain evidence for this change of function in the retention of stalling etc.

**Significance**

- Structural evidence for historical development and internal subdivision can show how these buildings have changed in response to national and local trends in agriculture.
- Barns are usually the oldest and largest buildings on the farmstead, but those that survive are only a small proportion of those documented. 18th century and earlier barns are very rare in Cornwall.

The key sub-types of Barn in Cornwall are:

**BANK BARN** see also **CHALL BARN**

**Typical features**

- A type of combination barn of usually two storeys. Through constructing the barn against a bank, both floors can be entered from ground level. They are concentrated in the northern uplands of England, and parts of Somerset, Devon and Cornwall.
- Typically bank barns have a **threshing barn**, sometimes with a **granary** and **hayloft**, sited above **cattle housing**, **stables** and other functions such as **cart sheds**.
- A typical Cornish variant is the ramped or stepped access to a **chall barn** (see below)

**Significance**

- Related to the storeyed barns, but simple bank barns are not common in Cornwall.
- Small water mills often have much the same construction and layout – grain fed in to the upper floor, the milling taking place on the lower floor; conversion may have taken place from one building function to the other.
CHALL BARN – the common Cornish term for a combination barn – see also BANK BARN

**Typical features**
- A type of combination barn of usually two storeys.
- Typically chall barns have a **threshing barn**, sometimes with a **granary** and **hayloft**, sited above **cattle housing, stables** and other functions such as **cart sheds**.
- Most surviving examples are early/mid-19th century

**Significance**
- The almost ubiquitous farm building type in Cornwall – effectively a do-it-all complex in miniature and often the only two-storey structure apart from the farmhouse.
- Related to **bank barns**.

DUTCH BARN – also POLE BARN

An iron-framed, open-fronted building for the shelter of hay or corn.

**Typical features**
- Iron frames, sometimes with manufacturer’s nameplate or relief moulding, with corrugated-iron roofing.
- Sometimes partly enclosed by corrugated metal sheeting or planking side walls.

**Significance**
- These are highly distinctive but typical buildings with a widespread national distribution, although they are not common in Cornwall. Any documented pre-1880s examples will be rare.
FIELD BARN – see page 21. See also CHALL BARNs, HAY BARNs, SHEEP HOUSE, SHIPPON

Field barns could be:

- Shelters for sheep, typically with low doors and floor-to-ceiling heights – not thought to be common in Cornwall.
- Shelters for cattle and their fodder (hay) – probably the most common type in Cornwall.

- Hay barns.
- Combination barns (see chall barns) with a threshing bay and storage for the crop, and housing for cattle.

HAY BARN – see also LINHAY

An open-fronted building for the storage of hay. Initially hay was stored in lofts above the animals but as the importance of good ventilation for animal welfare was increasingly understood in the 19th century, other methods of storing hay were required – either in ricks or purpose-built hay barns.

Typical features

- Open-sided structures with roofs supported on high brick, stone or timber piers.
- Prefabricated iron-framed Dutch barns may be considered a later form of hay barn.

Significance

- Traditionally built hay barns as part of coherent traditional farmstead will be significant.

THRESHING BARN

A barn usually containing a central threshing floor.

Typical features

- Large doors opening onto threshing floor.
- Robust floor above ground space which would have been multi-purpose.
- Pigeon holes under eaves to allow feeding on (and clearing up) loose grain.
- Main opening for winch may retain its hood.
- Sometimes with water-wheels as later addition; evidence of machinery, internal fittings and gearing and external water supply.

Significance

- Prominent and recognisable building, focal point in farm yard.
- Often the largest building in a farmstead and thus a likely target for conversion.

The most characteristic elements of a threshing barn – simple, uncluttered open spaces, an even threshing floor and typical wide door for through-drafts – in this case on an upper floor; Week St Mary, north Cornwall. © Eric Berry
The Great Barns are few and generally attached to large houses or principal home farms. Only one certain example of a tithe barn is known, although others may have been used for this function (a barn used for the storage of tithes – the payment of a tenth of crops and produce paid to the Rector of the church for his maintenance. Payment in kind was generally changed to a cash payment in the mid-19th century although this occurred earlier in some parishes).

**Typical features**
- Usually larger in scale than other barn types.
- Usually single storeyed unlike the typical Cornish chaff barn, although some great barns, as at the 16th century Trerice, are two-storeyed combination barns.

**Significance**
- There is only one known probable tithe barn in Cornwall but there are also a number of large barns (sometimes termed ‘great barns’) associated with great houses that resemble the design of tithe barns.
- Very significant and rare structures.

**CORN-DRYING KILN** – also **GRAIN-DRYING OVENS**

A building for the drying of corn after harvesting. Small kilns for drying corn and particularly malt for brewing have been recovered through excavation and a small number of much larger and more solidly constructed examples survive from the 17th century, especially in the upland areas of northern and south-western England.

**Typical features**
- A two-storey structure, with an internal stone-slatted floor set above the kiln.

**Significance**
- Surviving examples of corn drying kilns nationally are extremely rare; concentrated in upland farming areas.
- In Cornwall appear to survive only as archaeological features related to abandoned medieval settlements on Bodmin Moor.
A building or room for the dry and secure storage of grain after it has been threshed and winnowed

**Typical features**

- Ventilated openings – either louvres, shutters, sliding vents or grilles.
- Some granaries are incorporated into the upper floors of barns and other working buildings, especially stables.
- If the granary was sited in the loft of a working building, it required substantial steps and/or a hoist for pulling up or lowering the heavy sacks of grain.
- Close-boarded or plastered and lime-washed walls internally, and a strong load-bearing floor construction with tight-fitting lapped boards to prevent loss of grain.
- Grain bins, or the slots in vertical timbers for horizontal planking used to make them.
- If the granary was detached, it would be raised on arches or mushroom-shaped **staddle stones** to keep it safe from vermin.
- Strong association of granaries with the larger barton farms and large houses, and often clustered in the best agricultural lands – e.g. St Kew parish.

**Significance**

- Where examples survive with internal fittings or form part of complete traditional farmsteads they will be of significance.
- Most examples are of 19th-century date, earlier examples being of great rarity.
- Even when the buildings have gone, extensive survival of **staddle stones** either from former use as granary supports or for rick-platform supports (although the brisk trade in real and reproduction staddle stones can present false evidence of former granaries or ricks).
HORSE ENGINE HOUSE (ROUND HOUSE) – also known as WHIM HOUSE

A round or polygonal building containing a horse engine used for powering threshing machinery following its invention in 1786. These were usually attached to existing barns and the equipment was also used (usually as a later adaptation) for chopping and crushing fodder.

Typical features

- Horse-engine houses comprise open-sided (or with a series of large doorways) semi-circular, polygonal or square projections from barns, on the side facing the stack yard and opposite the cattle yard.

Significance

- Horse engines, as found in wheelhouses, and in-situ threshing or winnowing machines, are decreasing in number.
- The uptake of horse-powered machinery varied across the country.

MILL (corn, flour or grist) – see also THRESHING BARN

A building for the milling of corn to flour, or, more coarsely, for animal feed.

Typical features

- A structure of two storeys or more with storage areas for the grain and milled flour, the mill machinery and associated water wheel.
- Mills are typically associated with systems for the storage and channelling of water (leats, launders, wheel pits, tail races etc).

Significance

- Mills were rarely built on farms, and are highly significant where found in this context.
- Examples with internal machinery and water wheels are of extreme rarity; most have lost link with their associated leat system.

Farm mill loft interior (belt drive and line shaft detail) in a late 19th century estate farmstead near Porthleven. © Eric Berry
MOWHAY Cornish term for RICK YARD or STACK YARD and sometimes for LINHAY

A dialect term for a farmyard or enclosure for containing stacks of hay, corn, peas etc. alternative terms are rick yard and stack yard. The stacks would be built on raised platforms (often carried on staddle stones) to protect the grain from rodents and thatched to protect from rain.

Typical features
- An area within the farmyard rather than a building – not necessarily easy to define.
- May be traces of rick–platforms or staddle stones.

Significance
- Widespread, but easily adaptable to other uses.
- Extensive survival of staddle stones may indicate former presence of granary or rick-platform (although the brisk trade in real and reproduction staddle stones can present false evidence of former granaries or ricks).

ROUND HOUSE – see HORSE ENGINE HOUSE

RICKYARD – see MOWHAY

SILAGE CLAMP – also TOWER

These both comprise airtight containers for the storage of freshly cut grass and its conversion into silage. It was first developed in the 1880s, after its initial use elsewhere in Europe, and had the advantage over hay making in affording the opportunity to cut and store grass for bulk fodder without the risk of poor weather or storage conditions spoiling the hay or root crop.

Typical features
- Silage clamps were brick or concrete walled structures, in which the silage would be placed and then covered over.
- In Cornwall a usually 3-sided structure where the freshly-cut or wilted grass in carried into the clamp by tractor and compressed with the tractor wheels and then covered in a plastic membrane, sometimes within a roofed building but often in the open. Often designed so that one end of the clamp can be approached from higher ground.
- A silage tower – for the airtight storage of freshly cut grass and its conversion into silage and where compression is caused by gravity – is recognisable as a tall structure. Tower silos were introduced from the United States in 1901, but were not in general use until after the Second World War.
Significance

- Intact examples of silage towers of 1940 or earlier, using concrete or displaying a degree of architectural elaboration, are rare.
- Silage clamps in Cornwall become common in the post-war (later C20) period and most of these are built from concrete, either mass concrete or concrete blocks. Some were cut into the ground so that there was an opening from one end. Some were constructed from timber, often reused railway sleepers.

STACKYARD – see MOWHAY

WHEELHOUSE – see HORSE ENGINE HOUSE and ROUND HOUSE

HOUSING AND MANAGING FARM ANIMALS

Evidence for cattle housing is rare before the 19th century and largely confined in Cornwall to longhouses and linhays and some detached cow houses and housing in multi-functional barns. Most cattle housing dates from the 19th century and comprise calf houses, cow houses, loose boxes for fattening, open-fronted shelter sheds and covered yards from the 1850s.

BULL HOUSE see also LOOSE BOX (and BULL PEN and OX HOUSE)

BULL PEN see LOOSE BOX

Calf House

A building or part of a building, for housing calves. Typical features

- Calf houses are similar to but typically smaller in scale, with lower eaves, than cow houses or loose boxes.
- They are often located close to the farmhouse in part because the calves were typically fed on dairy by-products.

Significance

- Calf houses are a distinctive feature of cattle-rearing areas, particularly around Bodmin Moor and West Penwith. They can be difficult to distinguish from pigsties, although often clearly larger when seen together.
- Not all calf-houses were purpose built – but could be adapted from other building types.
A covered yard is the term used for a whole farmstead, or part of a farmstead, for a cattle yard (or in some areas sheep yard) that is fully covered by a roof – the aims of which were to protect the nutrients in the manure collecting in the yard from being washed away by the rain and to provide an environment where cattle would fatten more quickly. By the 1850s it had been proved by agricultural chemists that the nutritional value of manure would be better preserved if it were under cover, and as costly feeds produced richer manures, the incentive to protect them was great. So far there is only one known example in Cornwall –and that appears to be specifically designed for holding sheep. The potential for more examples to be recognised may be significant.

**COW HOUSE or SHIPPON**

An enclosed building or part of a multi-functional building, for stalling cattle (often dairy cattle).

*Typical features*

- Externally, lower and wider doorways than stables.
- Limited light and ventilation. Openings are largely confined to ventilation slits in the walls and holes in gable ends or side walls for the throwing out of muck: the latter was especially the case in areas with limited straw from corn crops for bedding.
- Windows and other features to assist ventilation date from the mid-19th to early 20th centuries, e.g. hit-and-miss ventilators, and air ducts and ridge ventilators.
- Internally, ceilings were typically low and there was very little light. Hay was often stored above in lofts.
- Cows were usually tethered in pairs with low partitions of wood, stone, slate and, in the 19th century, cast iron between them. Feeding arrangements can survive in the form of hayracks, water bowls and mangers for feed.

*Significance*

- Surviving examples of pre-19th-century cow houses – including within barns – are rare in a national context and are of high significance.
- Very few cow-house interiors of the 19th century or earlier have survived unaltered because hygiene regulations for the production of milk have resulted in new floors, windows and stall arrangements being inserted.
LINHAY – see also HAY BARN

Two-storeyed building with open-fronted cattle shelter and hay loft. Historically the term linhay (‘linney’) was used to refer to a wider range of buildings including field barns and cart sheds, and mowhay could also be used as an alternative term for the linhay as well as the yard associated with it.

Typical features

- An open-fronted shed used for a variety of purposes that will differ for each farm, sometimes with an additional hay loft. The shorter and milder winters in the South West enabled cattle to be housed in open-fronted buildings.
- The hay loft may be constructed as a conventional floor or simply created from poles.
- Linhays can range in size from a single bay to L- and U-shaped ranges of over twenty bays, and are often associated with yards for cattle.
- The linhay can face into the principal farmyard or be set within its own yard or field. (NB – associated with mowhay, a term used for an area or structure where hay is stored).
- It is quite usual to find that part or all of the open-fronted side, especially the upper part, was later boarded up: this was an alteration associated in some areas with the development of the dairying industry (and the need to shelter cattle indoors) in the later 19th century.

Significance

- The linhay comprises one of the earliest forms of farm building that survive. Examples date from the 16th century, and many are pre-19th century in date.

LOOSE BOX also ALSO BULL HOUSE, BULL PEN or OX HOUSE

An individual cubicle for housing fatstock and bulls, found in the form of lean-tos attached to barns or other buildings, or as continuous ranges with an optional central or rear feeding passage. Usually related to a small contained yard or pen.

Typical features

- Loose boxes were either built as individual boxes or more usually in a row with a central or rear feeding passage, distinguished externally by continuous rows of doors.
- Double rows would have a central feeding passage and were to be found on many farms by 1860.
- Often the floor of the boxes was sunken and the manure would build up in them during the winter.
- They reflected a realisation that warm and dry conditions would promote weight gain (through minimising heat loss) and retain the quality of the manure.
- The ceilings could be lined with thatch, to minimise condensation.
- Bull pens, essentially no more than structurally enhanced loose boxes, have been an integral component of commercial beef and dairy farms since the late 18th century. They may have access to an adjacent walled ‘mating pen’.
- Rare examples exist of a solidly constructed bull or mating house within its own walled pen.
Significance

- Extensive ranges of loose boxes are a distinctive feature of farmsteads in areas where cattle were intensively fattened, usually in combination with the growing of roots and arable crops. They are all of 19th-century date.

Bull house and yard or pen – typical wide doorways, enclosed yard (an essential element of the type); an estate home farm near Lostwithiel. © Eric Berry

OX HOUSE

A building or part of a building, for housing draught oxen.

Typical features

- A building similar to a single or two-storey cow house or a shelter shed.
- Based on the height of doorways and the general scale of the buildings it seems very likely that the ground-floor area of many small barns would have housed draft cattle as well as nurse cows or dairy cattle. Many farms have no provision for large horses and the probability is that cattle were used as multi-purpose animals including their use as draught animals.

Significance

- Surviving examples can often only be identified through documentation and are very rare, and typically hard to identify in Cornwall.

PIGGERY/PIGSTY – see also CROW

Structures providing secure housing for pigs.

Pigsty defined as an enclosure for pigs that includes a covered pen and yard.

Pigs were most commonly kept in dairying areas or market-gardening areas, where whey (a by-product of dairying) or potatoes were available for feed. On most farms (also common feature on small-holdings) only a few pigs were kept for domestic use and here, being normally fed on kitchen scraps or whey, pigsties were often placed near the kitchen or dairy, and/or associated with a swill room where food was prepared for the pigs.

Larger-scale piggeries were found on larger farms where commercial fattening was practised. Imported feed sustained the growth of the pig industry in the inter-war period, more specialist producers taking the ‘Danish’ or ‘Scandinavian’ system as a model for the industrial housing of pigs. The American battery system of housing poultry was used for pigs from the late 1920s.

Typical features

- Pigsties in Cornwall take on a variety of forms. They were typically built as single-storey structures comprising individual boxes, occasionally with their own individual yards.
- Often a simple cell covered in granite slabs and turfed over and one of the variants of the building type described as a ‘crow’.
- More substantial individually built examples resembled, and can be hard to tell apart from, calf houses.
- More commonly built in rows and could be served by external feeding chutes, often with a heated swill kitchen at one end. A small chimneystack could mark the position of the boiler house.
- Some had poultry housed on the upper floor.
- Often had small courtyard(s) in front which have often subsequently been lost.
Significance

- Any pre-19th-century examples are very rare.
- Particularly vulnerable to unsympathetic conversion/demolition during re-use and renovation work.

The range of plan forms is a distinctive feature of Cornwall (Barnwell and Giles p. 116-7 © Historic England)

In West Penwith especially, the semi-subterranean crow was often used as a pigsty, Rosemergy, Morvah. © Eric Berry

Pigsty range, near Ladock, with swill house at end left – the yards have been removed. © Eric Berry
SHELTER SHED

An open-fronted structure for cattle facing onto cattle yards. Cattle yards with shelter sheds were typical of mixed farming areas where cattle were housed on the farmstead as fatstock and for their manure.

Typical features

- Single storey ranges. Shelter sheds can be detached buildings, attached to the gable end of or built against the side of the barn.
- Common internal fittings were mangers and hayracks, and sometimes stalls.
- Doors in one or both of the gable ends near the back wall gave access to a feeding passage.
- In Cornwall they were frequently provided with gates, the evidence for which is in the form of hinges.
- Linhays are often another form of shelter sheds but with fodder storage over.

Significance

- Pre-19th-century examples will be rare and of significance.
- Shelter sheds forming part of complete traditional farmsteads will also be of significance.

SHEEP HOUSE

- Evidence for sheep housing is very rare, as sheep rarely needed purpose-built structures. The only times of year when all the sheep would be gathered together was for shearing and salving and dipping. Barns, when empty, were sometimes used for shearing and sorting the wool, and there are rare examples in Cornwall of barns that seem to incorporate permanent provision for sheep housing. Some isolated field barns with low eaves may have been used to house sheep, but there is no firm documentary reference for this.

Early-mid 19th century open-fronted Bullock shed or shelter shed in a demesne farm at Pelynt; It makes use of the back wall of the stable and shares the same roof as an extended lean-too; hay could be dropped into either the stable or the bullock shed. The pillars supporting the roof are unusual in that they are circular and made of stone, rather than granite columns as is more usual. © Ann Reynolds

One of the very few attested sheep houses in Cornwall – part of an informal group of traditional farm buildings in north Cornwall, of which this is perhaps the oldest, c.1800. Otterham parish. © Eric Berry & Cornwall Council
SHEEP CREEP

A hole in a stone hedge built to allow sheep and lambs into adjoining fields to get the best of the new grass before the cattle. Possibly also built to trap rabbits/hares.

Typical features
- Found across Cornwall but particularly Bodmin Moor, West Penwith. New examples built recently by National Trust.
- Built into hedges at ground level, away from farmyard.
- Small rectangular hole with lintel; usually granite.

Significance
- Increasingly vulnerable to blockage, hedge rebuild or removal.
- Resurgence in recent years of use as a stock management tool.

SHIPPON see COW HOUSE

STABLE

A building or part of a building, for housing horses and their harnessing and tackle. The largest stables are concentrated in industrial areas where horses were hired out, or effectively formed part of the transport establishment of a large industrial concern (e.g. at Hayle), and in corn-producing areas, where farms were larger and more horses were needed for ploughing and many other tasks. The huge numbers of horses and mules used in industrial Cornwall, well into the late 19th century, led to large numbers of stables being attached to small holdings and cottages.

Typical features
- Stables can be distinguished from cow houses as they have tall and relatively narrow doors. They might also be found located away from or at the top of the farmyard.
- They are either integrated into other working buildings, especially barns, or less commonly found as detached buildings.
- Single-storey stables, often with cast-iron ridge vents, were built from the later 19th century.
- Wooden or cast-iron (for high-status or late examples) stalls with access to manger and hayrack.
- Floors of earth, stone flags/cobbles and from the mid-19th century of engineering brick, sloping to drainage channel.
- Pegs for harness and tack, sometimes in a separate harness room with fireplace.
HISTORIC FARMSTEADS CHARACTER STATEMENT

- Sometimes housing farm workers in the lofts above.
- Sometimes chaff boxes for storing feed, and cubby-holes for lanterns, grooming brushes, medicines etc.

Significance

- After the barn, the stable is often the oldest building on the farmstead, but pre-19th century examples are still rare in Cornwall.
- Examples retaining internal fittings including stall partitions and feed racks are rare and significant.
- Perhaps the building, apart from the house, most likely to attract architectural treatment – there are some significantly large, grand and architectural stable blocks associated with large farms and higher status houses which had mixed farming, domestic and sporting uses.

HOUSING AND MANAGING FARM BIRDS

DOVECOTES – see DOVEHOLES under components section

Dovecotes are usually square or circular towers with pyramidal or conical roofs for housing pigeons and their manure, these are more associated with gentry houses, while the alternative arrangement where ranges of dove holes are incorporated into the walls of other buildings such as stables and barns are more typical of a wider range of farms and a common feature of Cornish farmyards.

Typical features

- The earliest examples are medieval but the majority date from the 18th and 19th centuries, built mainly for their picturesque value and typically associated with manor or gentrified farmsteads.
- Dovecote doorways were low perhaps to discourage the birds from flying out.
- Nest boxes, in the earliest examples were formed in the thickness of the wall but usually in stone, brick or wood.
A potent, a central pivoted post with arms supporting a revolving ladder, provided access to the nest boxes for collection of the young birds (squabs) and eggs.

**Significance**

- Most dovecotes were built to ornament home farms in the 18th and 19th centuries.
- They are also particularly associated with mills – feeding on and cleaning up excess grain.
- Surviving internal fitments are of great rarity, notably potences and removable wooden nest boxes.
- Dovecotes with corbelled roofs (as at Cotehele) are a highly distinctive feature, as this form of construction is only otherwise found in south west Wales (for dovecotes and pigsties), Ireland, the Channel Islands and Brittany.

The scheduled medieval dovecote at Tintagel Vicarage; typically associated with higher status sites, and probably always a rare type on ordinary farmsteads in Cornwall © Eric Berry

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**GOOSEHOLE – or GOOSE HOUSE**

A compartment for housing geese, either singly or in groups.

**Typical features**

- Low, square stone-lined compartments, almost always of granite, usually incorporated into a wall or hedge and at ground level.
- Mostly sited towards the peripheries of farmsteads, usually facing outwards as geese often used for security.
- Sometimes sited within a farm building – underneath external steps, for instance

**Significance**

- Limited knowledge of this site type; likely to be under-represented in the archaeological record.
- These are found in other upland landscapes of the British Isles.

Goose house, Mabe parish © Eric Berry
POULTRY HOUSE also known as HEN HOUSE, and FOWL HOUSE see also GOOSE HOUSE

Hens usually ran freely about a farmyard, but were encouraged to nest safely away from predators and so that the eggs could be more easily collected.

Geese could be housed in free-standing pens or alcoves in farmyard walls (see goosehole).

**Typical features**

- Hen houses usually include a small pop hole for the hens as well as a full-sized door for human access for feeding and egg-collection.
- The walls could be lined with nest boxes/roost holes often with wooden stop-boards across the front and/or alighting boards.
- Ladders to higher roost holes sometimes provided but rarely survive.
- Nest boxes for hens often built into the walls of wagon or cart houses.

**Significance**

- Wooden components that provide definitive evidence of function are vulnerable to loss as are the roost hole recesses when re-used, blocked or covered.
- Where historic examples do survive they often form part of another building, such as a pig house: it was thought the animals would share warmth, and the pigs would frighten foxes away.
PROCESSING ANIMAL FEEDS ETC.

BOILING HOUSE or SWILL KITCHEN

A building or more usually part of a building, for the heating and preparation of animal feed. Often integrated into calf houses or pigsties.

Typical features
- Boiling houses are externally indicated by stacks.

Significance
- There are no known pre-19th century examples, and they will only have significance as part of a farmstead group.

CHAFF HOUSE – in Cornwall – more generally FODDER STORE, also ROOT STORE and MIXING HOUSE

FODDER STORE

A building used to prepare and store dry food such as hay and straw for the feeding of cattle, and/or storage for the chaff, or outer husks of crops, a typical by-product of threshing. Chaff was used as fodder for horses (also known as chaff house or root store).

Typical features
- A small cubicle with an opening for forking in/out the chaff.
- Often integrated into another building, such as stables.

Significance
- Significant as an integral part of well-preserved barns.

MIXING HOUSE – see also ROOT HOUSE, ROOT ROOM and ROOT STORE

A compartment within a range, and sometimes detached, where grain, cake and roots for animals would be prepared, usually with the aid of machinery such as chaff cutters, cake breakers and root crushers.

Typical features
- Mixing houses were built in increasing numbers during the 1840s to 1870s, often replacing barns for hand threshing as mechanisation made them redundant.

- Mixing houses are often hard to identify as they are usually found incorporated into barn ranges and in relationship to cattle yards.

Significance
- Any examples with 19th-century internal machinery will be of extreme rarity.
ROOT ROOM – alternative terms ROOT HOUSE, ROOT STORE

As the use of fodder crops, such as turnips, and over-wintering of cattle became countrywide, there developed a need to store the fodder in earth clamps or small rooms. In some of the better-planned farmsteads the root and fodder stores would be incorporated into the cattle housing, usually located close to where the cattle were stalled with access between the two. On smaller farmsteads the root store was either a separate building or formed part of a combination building, perhaps being associated with a granary or workshop.

Typical features

• At present, it is not possible to identify any particular features of these buildings, other than the building materials, that are regionally characteristic.

• In Cornwall often designed with a loading hatch to enable filling from higher ground.

• Sometimes known in Cornwall as a Mangold House.

Significance

• Identifiable examples likely to add significantly to understanding of the type and distribution.

TRANSPORT

CART SHED or WAGON SHED (see also LINHAY), also, in Cornwall, JINGLE HOUSE or SHED, TRAP HOUSE or GIG HOUSE

A building used for housing and protecting carts, wagons and farm implements from the weather, often open-fronted. It was typically free-standing or attached to a barn or another building as a lean-to.

The cart shed housed not only carts for transporting muck to fields, the harvest to the farmstead and grain to market, but also the implements needed (primarily for arable cultivation) on the farm. It could also accommodate the coach or pony trap.

Typical features

• Open-fronted and sometimes open at each end although one or two bays may be enclosed with doors for the storage of small implements.

• Cart sheds are typically either single-storey buildings or have two storeys with another use such as a granary above.

• Cart sheds often face away from the farmyard and may be found close to the stables and roadways giving direct access to the fields.

• Trap houses (also known as ‘jingle sheds’) are often found incorporated into one end of the cart shed.
• There are examples of recesses in internal and external walls with variety of uses e.g. bee boles, poultry roosts, ‘keeping holes’.

Significance
• The size of cart sheds reflects the size and function of the farm – larger examples are found on large arable-based farms.
• Pre-19th-century examples are rare. The largest cart sheds are found on large corn-producing farms.

FORGE (alternative name SMITHY)

A building housing the ironworking processes of a blacksmith.

Typical features
• Forges required wide doorways and access to a water supply.
• They were built to serve farming and rural communities, and were also built on large estate farms.
• They required bellows for working the forge and benches for working.

Significance
• Examples with internal fitments (bellows, hearth) are rare, and those with internal racks for forge implements rarer still.
• Most examples are within hamlets but built to serve a rural community including farms.
• Many blacksmith shops also associated partly or entirely with industrial activity in Cornwall, even in rural areas.

OTHER TYPES – PROCESSING, STORAGE, OTHER ANIMALS

ASH HOUSE

Ash houses stored ash from the hearth fire, used as a fertiliser.

Typical features
• Small square or circular plan building with a small opening and often a stone corbelled roof.

Significance
• There are few surviving examples, concentrated in an area from the eastern edge of Dartmoor to west Somerset, and similar examples are also found in the Channel Islands and north-west France.
• There is potential for further sites throughout Cornwall which are yet to be identified.
BEE HOUSE – see also BEE BOLES under ‘components’

A building with shelves and/or stands for skeps or wooden hives, and flight holes through the walls for bees.

Typical features

- Externally resembles small shed; wall and roof materials in keeping with local vernacular.
- At least one wall will possess a series of flight holes, possibly with alighting boards.
- Interior will house shelves or recesses to hold skeps or wooden hives; their entrances will but up to allotted flight holes.

Significance

- Provides insight into local farming practices.
- Very few extant examples recorded in Cornwall.
- Difficult to interpret without inspecting the interior and thus likely to be under-recorded.
- Vulnerable to loss due to re-use of building.

CIDER HOUSE

A building associated with the milling and pressing of cider apples to produce cider (or pears for perry) and for storing the drink in barrels.

Typical features

- Cider houses are frequently incorporated into other buildings ranged around the yard. Where the cider house is a separate building it usually does not have any particular external characteristics, other than a wide doorway allowing for the passage of barrels.
- Occasionally the cider mill and/or press survive within the building.
- On farms where cider was grown for export cider houses could be built with a storage area for barrels.

Significance

- Cider houses are often difficult to distinguish from other storage buildings on the farm.
- Examples where the cider mill or press survives in
situ are of high significance.

- Numerous examples of granite apple-crushing bases, and cider-pressing bases, prove the widespread production of cider on many, if not most, farms of any importance throughout Cornwall.

**APPLE STORE**

Rather than separate buildings, these typically in Cornwall were storage lofts, or part of lofts, in the farmhouse or adjoining ranges.

Evidence for these is rare and hard to find. It is most commonly in the form of internal hatched access to loft spaces etc.

In this manorial complex near Mevagissey, later reduced to a tenanted farm, the apple store is in the far left upper floor – note the blocked windows to maintain the dark, cool atmosphere. The press was in a barn attached to the rear – itself a former 16th century domestic wing. © Nick Cahill

**CROW**

A multipurpose stone chamber usually for housing animals (especially pigs), occasionally food, roots and farming implements.

*Typical features*

- Constructed from stone with either a stone or turf roof, covering a roughly square or polygonal plan (rarely exceeding 2.5m across) defined by drystone walls and with a corbelled roof, usually topped with slabs.

- The low entrance, defined by upright granite jambs or well-constructed heads had a wooden door, the only perishable feature. This could have also been closed off with a boulder, a piece of corrugated tin etc.

Crow, Zennor parish; this one seems to have been used as a pigsty. © Eric Berry
HISTORIC FARMSTEADS CHARACTER STATEMENT

- They could be built into a Cornish hedge or wall, or freestanding.

Significance
- Highly distinctive feature of the Cornish landscape.
- Often missed during survey of farmstead as may be found in outlying fields.

GLASSHOUSE

Glasshouses were usually on commercial scale linked with flower growing and soft-fruit industry: primarily on Isles of Scilly, around Mount’s Bay and in the Tamar Valley (cherry growing).

Typical features
- Large open span structures with either wooden or metal frames; may incorporate heating system such as a boiler house, and pipe work.

Significance
- Few historic examples survive from what was once acres of coverage.
- At oldest late 19th/early 20th century – ‘vernacular’ details therefore lacking.
- Small, architecturally less distinct, sheds associated with the flower growing areas along Penwith cliffs are a related type.

HULL

Underground passage with storage chambers found in South West England.

Typical features
- Cut into sides of banks or hillside.
- Support provided by ‘mined’ subsoil or rab.
- Similar to tall narrow adit in appearance.
- May have several small side-chambers for storage.
- Main chamber usually head height.

Significance
- Increasingly rare.
- Hulls are widespread in Cornwall, although more than 78% of recorded examples are found in the Carnmenellis area.
SECTION 5: MATERIALS AND DETAIL

Historic farmsteads reflect Cornwall’s locally significant variations in building traditions and wealth, estate policy, access to transport links and the management of local resources, but perhaps above all the huge local diversity in geology. This is particularly significant in Cornwall given the dearth of sufficient substantial timber for timber-framing – found only in towns, and even there very far from universal or dominant.

The choice of any material reflects not only its own innate durability, workability, and availability but also the status of the farm and its owner. This has contributed to great contrasts and variety in traditional walling and roofing materials and forms of construction, which often survived much longer on working farm buildings than farmhouses.

Of these various factors, availability was probably critical – the cost of transport was always proportionally much greater than quarrying and working, and became prohibitive over relatively short distances – this led to a pattern of small local quarries/workings very near buildings – possibly a ‘lost’ feature of local farming landscapes. Workability was only rarely significant in farm buildings, while poor durability could be compensated for by rendering, rough cast or slate-hanging as additional protection, and the lifetime expectation of more humble buildings in the past was often quite limited, so durability was not always a critical issue.

From the later 18th-century mass-walled buildings in quarried stone, often with brick detailing, roofed with slate, increasingly replaced earlier forms built from earth (cob), rubble stone and thatch. Building materials such as iron, softwood timber, brick, slate (and, in some localised spots, pantiles) could also be imported onto the farm via coastal and river ports, canals and rail. There also appeared in the 19th century a range of standard architectural detail, such as part-glazed and ventilated windows and the use of cast and wrought iron for columns. Prefabricated construction in industrial materials made its way onto farms from the 1850s, but did not become dominant and widespread until after the 1950s.

WALLING MATERIALS

STONE

IGNEOUS

Granite – (Isles of Scilly, West Penwith, Carnmenellis, Bodmin, Hensbarrow). Despite growth of commercial quarrying from C16 on (especially for finer varieties), until the 19th century most was ‘moorstone’ taken directly from the surface (or from shallow surface workings) rather than quarried and cut. Used for hedging, walling, architectural elements (lintels/door surrounds), pillars (open cart sheds etc.).

Mid-19th century washhouse range, near Constantine; the local granite is distinctly silvery compared to the St Buryan moorstone, and here carefully dressed and coursed because it forms part of a group with the main house. © Eric Berry

Left: St Buryan moor stone granite – large, roughly squared blocks with galletting (small inset stones to fill large mortar joints), and cement-washed slate and corrugated asbestos roof. Vertically set granite uprights (‘orthostats’) used as hedging. © Eric Berry
China stone – a softer, partially decomposed granite in the Hensbarrow area – much used locally for building (and internal carved detail in medieval churches over a wider area).

Elvan (Quartz porphyry) – like a very fine grained granite, buff, cream, grey, even red, looking like Devon sandstone. Very localised in ‘dykes’ or thin linear outcrops. Their fineness of grain means they can be very workable – some, like Pentewan stone, were considered a freestone (like sandstone/limestone) used from medieval times onward as a quality material and often at some distance from source for higher status buildings – but also found in farm buildings local to the dykes, and sometimes as re-used material close to some medieval sites. Most elvans are very hard but others surprisingly soft – e.g. Newham stone from around Truro weathers to powdery dust in exposed situations.

Mount Edgecumbe home farm – the local red elvan, looking very much like more familiar red Devon Sandstone is used as freestone here in a significant architectural context. © Eric Berry

Much of Cornwall, but especially the metamorphic ring around granite areas, is often typified by walling in a great variety of stone – killas, granite, elvan, blue elvan/greenstones all used indiscriminately together – especially in earlier, vernacular buildings (i.e. before development of large scale quarrying).

Animal houses and cart shed in an old mining area, probably serving a nearby row of cottages/smallholdings. Perranarworthal parish. Dating from at least three 19th century phases, the range of materials includes local killas, spar-stone (high feldspar content), elvan, granite; original slate to oldest range now replaced with corrugated iron, post 1880 extension with remains of probably original boarded and felted roofs, some of which has been further covered with corrugated iron sheeting. © Eric Berry

METAMORPHOSED SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

Includes slates and the clay-slate or shale-slates known in Cornwall by the generic but non-specific name of Killas.

Most widely used stone in Cornwall, but huge variations in quality and appearance. Compare the smooth, closely-textured fissile Delabole slate used for roofing and slate-hanging all over Cornwall, or the large slabs used for floors, partitions, even fencing and posts in the north Cornwall slate areas, to the quite soft, crumbly killas with little tensile strength (although still very extensively used for walling and hedging, and as galleting and shilleting – that is small pieces mixed into mortar joints or in cob).

Although Cornwall is famous for its granite – the various slate and shale stones are a more common building material over most of the county, sometimes used entirely on their own, as here in Davidstow, North Cornwall. © Eric Berry
MINOR BUILDING STONES

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

Only locally important in some small areas, but show a great range in composition, texture and colour – e.g. some dark brown-red sandstones in north Cornwall on Culm measures, richer reds in south-east Cornwall.

THE LIZARD

The Lizard has complicated geology including hornblende, gabbro and serpentine – none easy to work and not always weatherproof.

Dark green Serpentine on the Lizard – granite and red brick lintels and dressings on an early 19th century estate home farm (Trelowarren). © Eric Berry
BLUE ELVAN/GREEN STONE

Blue elvan/Green stone – dolerites etc. – mostly hard and difficult to work and now mostly quarried for road stone – but found in vernacular buildings where outcrops – e.g. Mousehole, St Ives etc.

BRICK

Brick is not an early vernacular material in Cornwall, it was an aristocratic import in the 17th century and mainly a material of show (Ince Castle c.1630, Stow 1680s) and by the early 18th century it was a high-class urban material (especially in and around ports).

Brick is not commonly used in farm buildings in Cornwall, although there were many brickworks in Cornwall by the later 19th century, mostly associated with industrial use (chimneys/clay dry etc.), industrial housing or urban development.

COB

The key ingredients of cob are clay, straw, aggregate such as shillet, water, perhaps dung etc. Cob was widely used across the south west of England, but its survival in Cornwall is confined now to specific areas: north-west of Launceston, parts of south-east Cornwall around Padstow, Roseland, Truro-St Agnes area, the parishes bordering the Fal and Helford estuaries, the Lizard and on the fringes of the West Penwith granite.

Cob was formerly more widespread (even in granite and slate areas), and often found used to build upper floors of rural and town buildings into 19th century.

RAB

A sub-soil, often but not always degenerating granite – used as a type of cob base and as a matrix for building, often with simple lime additive, as an alternative to mortar.
CONCRETE

Concrete was used from the 1860s on some farms, for example for silage clamps.

In some mining areas, where concrete was extensively used around 1900, concrete outbuildings can be found – often they prove to be a re-use of abandoned mine buildings.

Concrete block making has a long history in Cornwall, often associated with china clay waste or beach sand; extensive block works were in operation at Pentewan by 1909, for instance.

Concrete only achieved general use in Cornwall after the 1950s

Associated with the use of concrete in Cornwall is the particular local problem of mundic.

The Cornish word mundic is used to describe deteriorating concrete (blocks or in situ) due to the decomposition of mineral constituents, typically from the use of metalliferous mine waste, especially in buildings that were built in or prior to 1950.

ROOFING MATERIALS

SLATE

Now universal, but until 19th century more restricted to slate producing areas, higher status buildings, or close to ports. In Cornwall and parts of Devon Cornish slate laid to random widths and diminishing courses is the predominant tradition for slate roofing. Rag slate consists of large slates with no upper size limit but diminishing to a size comparable to the largest slates used for scantle slate roofs (about 14 inches in length).

See also slate hanging under WALLING MATERIALS (slate).

Although usually laid to a steeper pitch than Welsh slate, Cornish slate could still be laid at a lower pitch than thatch, thus distinguishing many farm buildings of the late 18th and 19th centuries from earlier thatched buildings. The greater thickness, richer textures, less regular sizing and silvery grey colour readily distinguish West Country slate from its Welsh (and foreign imported) counterparts.
THATCH

The use of thatch was ubiquitous away from the slate areas before the late 18th century/early 19th century, and has become increasingly rare since that date: the Lizard/Meneage and St Agnes areas retain significant numbers.

Many 18th century and earlier 19th century stone and cob farm buildings were originally thatched and these can usually be identified by their steeply-pitched roofs, the thatch typically replaced with corrugated iron or slate. The roof structure also gives clues – close-spaced principal rafters often indicate a thatched roof.

The three main types of thatching are listed below. In practice farmers used a wide range of locally available materials – heather, bracken, reeds, rushes, grass, turf, and straw from oats, barley, wheat and rye. Until the early 20th century heather and bracken was used around the Cornish moors. Rope thatch was used in the Isles of Scilly until quite late and there is photographic evidence for its former use in Cornwall. Ricks were thatched until surprisingly late. The last known rick thatching was still being practised at Menadarva near Camborne until the 1980s.

Of the three main types of thatching, reed thatch was always rare in Cornwall;
Combed wheat reed in which all the straw is laid in the same direction with butts down, the stems of the straw are not bruised or crushed as with longstraw and the finished roof more closely resembles reed thatch rather than longstraw, is found in Cornwall on houses in settlements and a few farm buildings, for example around the plateau of the Lizard, but rarely elsewhere.

Longstraw is a term used to describe a thatching method where the ears and butts of the straw are mixed. The stems of the straw are bruised and crushed and the result is a generally looser coat than combed wheat reed or water reed. The appearance of the roof is quite different from combed wheat reed and water reed, with a much thicker covering of straw.

CORRUGATED IRON

In Cornwall usually known, rightly or wrongly, as corrugated tin.

Developed in the 1820s, common by the 1840s; although often replacing slate roofs, a very common use in Cornwall was as an outer protection for thatch (instead of re-thatching).

Although asbestos or mineral-cement roofing was developed around 1900 as an alternative to traditional shingles and sheet-roofing, it was only used in numbers for the 1920s, and is mostly a post-war material (1950s-70s).
PANTILES

Roofing tiles with a wavy profile; mostly in Cornwall came from Somerset (Bridgewater) and associated with import of Bristol Channel coal, mainly found in and around ports, more usually in industrial contexts, but sometimes in farmsteads, particularly on the north coast.

ARCHITECTURAL AND CONSTRUCTION TERMS

ROOF CONSTRUCTION

A cruck is a pair of curved timbers, usually halved from the same tree trunk, that form an A-frame extending from the ground to the apex of the roof. They are medieval to 17th century in date. In Cornwall, the usual type is what is known as a raised cruck, where the feet of the crucks are usually embedded in a masonry wall. Two of the earliest barns in Cornwall have roofs constructed of raised base crucks with alternate principal and secondary trusses.

Some 18th century farm buildings have roofs with collar trusses carried on tie beams. Prestigious farm buildings often have king-post trusses, but the most common form of truss employed in Cornwall during the 18th century and throughout the 19th century is the collar truss, usually with pegged joints until the early 19th century when iron nails or iron bolts straps and tension bars become increasingly used. The tradition for pegged joints and higher quality carpentry sometimes continued, usually in estate buildings.
The form of the roof truss is one of the main elements used to help date buildings. Generally, the date range for the various roof forms is based on research into houses; it is not unusual to find carpentry techniques used in farm buildings at a later date than they were used in houses. It must also be remembered that the use of the various forms can overlap by many decades.

**CORBELLED ROOFS**

Corbelled roof to crows/goose houses/hulls etc.

A feature of these distinctly Cornish outbuildings—often built into the stone hedges or earth banks, utilising buildings techniques dating back centuries.
FLOOR CONSTRUCTION

BEAM AND JOIST FLOORS

Beam and joist floors in farm buildings (for load bearing where spanning deep plans) especially barns, contrast with the wide-spread introduction of joist floors into houses – although sometimes the joists are as large as domestic floor beams.

Typical simple joist and board floor – complex spine-beam floors are rare in Cornish farm buildings. © Eric Berry

LIME

Not native to Cornwall, but from the 16th-17th century onwards lime burning for both building and agricultural use led to creation of dozens of lime kilns all over coastal areas of Cornwall – actually part of the agricultural scene as much as the industrial.

COMPONENTS, FITTINGS AND DETAIL

Surviving fittings and details within farm buildings are mostly of 19th and early 20th-century date but occasional examples of earlier doors, windows and flooring can be found.

Typical features

• Stalls and other interior features (e.g. mangers, hay racks) in stables and cattle housing of proven 19th century or earlier date sometimes use large slabs of slate.

• Doors with iron strap hinges and handles, and heavy frames – usually planked/ledged and later examples also braced; from c 1850 sometimes opened horizontally carried on pulleys on iron rails.

• Gates: peculiar to Devon and Cornwall are five bar gates with long diagonal braces raised to the top of the hinge post, well above the line of the top rail; the Devon type more typically with a vertical stay and single diagonal brace, the Cornish has a doubled diagonal brace. In West Penwith is a locally distinctive metal gate – slim proportioned and simple – the product of local foundries such as Holman Brothers (Penzance and Tregeseal).

• Windows, often of a standard type nationally, usually with central mullions that are half-glazed, often as hopper heads shuttered and/or with hit-and-miss ventilators. Horizontal sliding hit-and-miss ventilators or louvres achieved wide popularity in

Slate stall-dividers (Week St Mary parish, north Cornwall). © Eric Berry

Standard window and door details – note hit and miss ventilation (Manaccan in Meneage). © Eric Berry
the mid- to late 19th century.

- Historic surfaces such as brick, stone and slate-flag and cobbled floors to dairies, stables and cattle housing, with drainage channels (runnels) often constructed from dressed granite.

- Industrial fittings (iron or concrete stalls, mangers etc.) associated with planned or industrial 19th-century farmsteads. In Cornwall stall partitions and mangers were often constructed from Delabole slate monoliths with timber rails to hold them in place.

**Significance**

- Particularly vulnerable historic floors (e.g. lime ash floors, rush withy floors, threshing floors).

- Doors and windows of pre-19th-century date, e.g. mullioned windows, sliding shutters to windows.

- 19th century joinery generally is significant and this is usually replaced when buildings are converted.

- Dairies with internal shelving etc., barns with in situ threshing machines and other processing machines, horse engine houses with internal gearing, cider houses with internal mills and/or presses.
OTHER COMPONENT TYPES COMMONLY FOUND IN FARM BUILDINGS INCLUDE PIGEON/DOVE HOLES, STADDLE STONES, MOO STONES, RUBBING POSTS, RUBBING STONES

BEE BOLES

A recess in a stone or brick wall, often bounding a garden or orchard, set off the ground, in which a bee skep or wooden beehive is placed either all year round or for over-winter protection.

Typical features
- Usually sited at waist or chest height.
- Often in pairs or groups but single examples are recorded.
- Usually set into external walls of buildings but facing into farm complex for security: hives/skeps easily stolen.
- Usually sited away from main thoroughfares.
- Size of recess uniform throughout group to accommodate skep type used by farm; skep sizes varied from area to area depending on maker and materials used.
- May be confused with roosting holes for poultry, and also with ‘keeping places’

Significance
- Under-recorded site type which requires further research.
- Size and location of structures provides insight into local beekeeping and skep making industries.
- Only widely recognised in recent years; many sites likely to have been lost.
- Vulnerable to loss by blocking up during renovation/reuse of building
DOVEHOLES or NEST HOLE

Multiple holes built into inner or outer walls of structures, e.g. barn, dovecote, house, farmyard/garden walls to facilitate nesting of doves or pigeons. Distinct from roost holes for poultry.

Significance

- A more common feature of Cornish farmyards than fully constructed Dovecotes or pigeon houses.

![Dove holes set in a barn (near Launceston). © Eric Berry](image)

RUBBING STONE

A large stone used by cattle to rub up against and so scratch themselves.

Often takes the form a slender, tall granite post in the middle of a field.

Significance

- Sometimes mistaken for, although very rarely may actually be, re-used, prehistoric standing stones.

STADDLE STONES

Mushroom-shaped stones on which free-standing granaries or rick-platforms were raised to keep them safe from vermin.

Significance

- Most examples are of 19th-century date, earlier examples being of great rarity.
- Even when the buildings have gone, extensive survival of staddle stones either from former use as granary supports or for rick-platform supports (although the brisk trade in real and reproduction staddle stones can present false evidence of former granaries or ricks).
- Supporting stones for hayricks are sometimes also known as moo stones (on Bodmin Moor).

![Not all staddle stones were of the classic shape and size – in this case the granary straddles a leat feeding the farm waterwheel (Restormel). © Eric Berry](image)
WATERWHEEL-DRIVEN SYSTEMS

WATERWHEEL, WHEELPIT, LAUNDERS, LEATS, TAIL RACES, MACHINERY, INTERNAL FITTINGS and GEARING

Significance

- Evidence for water power is exceptionally rare within or on buildings, although there is better evidence for the leat systems themselves.
- In Cornwall, threshing machinery was often driven via a series of flat-rods from a waterwheel to a barn on higher ground.

Carkeet St Cleer – amongst the best remains of evidence for a water-powered system in Cornwall. Barnwell and Giles, © Historic England

(Ruinous) gable-end water wheel, leats, pit and drive slots surviving on a mid-19th century barn in a Barton farmstead of south-east Cornwall. © Nick Cahill

Flat rod supports linking a remote water wheel at the bottom of the valley to machinery within the farm complex (internally housed threshing machine) Altarnun. © Ann Reynolds
OTHER UNUSUAL FEATURES OF HISTORIC INTEREST

Other unusual features of historic interest, often difficult to spot, include:

- **Tallies** near threshing floors in barns for noting production of grain, and numbers to grain bins.

- **Incised ritual marks** for protecting produce or livestock, which are usually in the form of ‘daisy wheels’ or ‘Marian marks’.

- **Burned ritual marks** made to ‘fight fire with fire’ and thus to prevent fires happening in buildings that are themselves flammable, or which store flammable materials. Some marks date from the 17th century, but most date from the revival of the tradition in the 19th century. The marks usually take the form of a deep candle scorch, or a scorched daisy wheel pattern.

- **Graffiti** or **artwork**, such as soldiers’ graffiti, which is tied in with significant cultural events or occupation or graffiti recording names of workers, sales etc.

**Significance**

- Few of the above marks have so far been clearly identified in Cornwall but there are sometimes hand-written tallies of production.

- Constructional marks associated with the transport and prefabrication (i.e. laying-out marks from the carpenter’s yard) of structural carpentry, such as shipping and carpenters’ marks; these may be more relevant for Cornwall.
SECTION 5: AREA SUMMARIES

**Killas – West and central Cornwall**
The heartland of Cornish farming where larger farms, often linked with wealthy estates, predominate. Associated with productive, sheltered land in areas of ancient medieval enclosure, strip fields and farming hamlets, many of which devolved into individual farmsteads.

**Killas – North coastal plain**
Higher predominance of small scale farms dating from the 17th century and often situated on less productive, exposed land subject to regular enclosure. Farms tend towards the independent farmer rather than estate owned tenanted farms, although these occur in pockets of more ancienly enclosed land. Includes areas of very distinctive miners' smallholdings.

**Killas – South-East Cornwall**
Similar in character to west and central Cornwall with productive, sheltered land in areas of ancient medieval enclosure, strip fields and farming hamlets, but with proportionally higher numbers of relatively large farms, particularly arable based. Many of the farms are linked to just 4 or 5 dominant estates; classic Cornish barton landscape.

**Hensbarrow**
Exposed granite upland landscape of dynamic change dominated by China Clay industry. Dispersed farmsteads and hamlets with a few larger church-towns, smallholdings and cottages on moor edges and intakes. Relatively low levels of investment, especially in areas under threat of expanding mineral extraction, mean that Hensbarrow ironically has some of the oldest surviving farmstead and field patterns in Cornwall, but increasingly only in remnant patches.

**Carnmenellis**
Small, roughly circular granite upland; most complex evidence for historic expansion and contraction of land use on the granite uplands; one of the least researched and understood areas in Cornwall. Significant ancient metalliferous production, influencing medieval and 19th century enclosure. Predominantly isolated farmsteads and hamlets, mixed with small nucleated mining/quarrying settlements, surrounded by key industrial towns and houses/parklands. Little inward investment since decay of mining industry; much amalgamation of farms and re-use of both agricultural and industrial buildings.

**The Culm**
The heartland of Atlantic coastal and hinterland – open, sparsely populated, agriculturally poor, with heavy soils. Predominantly dispersed settlement and irregular field patterns of medieval origin with few small market centres; multi-yard layouts, buildings set around scattered yards and route-ways, and small-scale loose courtyard layouts. Some higher status arable farms and regular yards.

**Bodmin Moor**
Exposed granite upland dominated by moorland beef and sheep farms; richer barton-landscape in lower slopes and valleys. Mixture of medieval field patterns and mid-late 19th century enclosure, including some smallholdings. Mainly isolated farms, with small hamlets and church towns off the moor. Linear, dispersed and loose courtyard plans, commonly with a combination barn to just one side of the yard; many examples of larger improved courtyard steadings.

**West Penwith**
Cornwall's only major coastal granite upland. Sparsely populated; mining and fishing as dominant as agriculture in history and settlement. Heavy emphasis on pastoral farming, with extensive rough ground grazing, limited mixed arable in the fertile southern area (St Buryan) and sheltered valleys. From 19th century horticulture developed in coastal areas and Mount's Bay fringes. On the edges of the peninsula a number of small fishing or mining villages/towns, otherwise predominantly hamlets with dispersed layouts, especially associated with town-places – one of the most distinctive aspects of the area, as are many small-scale miner-farmer linear smallholdings around St Just.

**Lizard and Meneage**
Gently undulating exposed heathland plateau cut by sheltered river valleys; complex geology. Historical distinction in landownership, land quality and use between the Lizard (south and west of the area) and the richer Meneage (north and east). Good mixed farming/grain lands set amongst extensive areas of rough grazing. Significant evidence of ancient farming and settlement in a hamlet-based settlement pattern, interspersed with occasional rural market, fishing and quarrying centres. Early farmsteads typically linear or dispersed (although noticeably less 'townplace' farmsteads than e.g. West Penwith). Widespread rebuilding to loose and regular courtyards with 19th century amalgamation of holdings and move to yard feeding of cattle. Significant survival of cob and thatch.
SECTION 7: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This section can be used to help inform local and county-wide research and recording into the development of farmsteads and their landscapes. Listed below are research questions which aim to guide those researching the development of farmsteads, landscapes and settlements in Cornwall, and which are relevant to those carrying out detailed appraisals.

1. The density and location of farmsteads and the date and orientation of their buildings (including the farmhouse) contribute to an understanding of changing farming practices, social change, settlement patterns and landscape character.

2. The development of farmsteads can supplement documentary and landscape evolution evidence to form a clearer understanding of the social and economic history of the county.

3. 18th century and earlier buildings are rare, and it is important to try and spot evidence for partitions and floors which show how barns and other buildings were subdivided. Evidence for cattle housing and stabling is particularly rare.

4. The scale, orientation and dates of rebuilding of farmhouses and working buildings can also reveal much about the development of increasingly large and higher-status farms.

5. Cornwall has significant evidence for the development of estates and of planned farmsteads from the 18th century, which can also be very well documented.

6. Field barns and outfarms are very difficult to reuse and vulnerable to change. They document the exploitation of farmland away from the main steading, on new sites in landscapes subject to piecemeal or planned enclosure or close to the sites of deserted farmsteads and settlements or platforms for stacking corn or hay.

7. There remain many misunderstood or under-recorded features in and around Cornish farmsteads, e.g. horse engine houses, butter wells, hulls, crows, cider presses, graffiti etc.

8. Some geographical areas are significantly under-researched – Carnmenellis, for instance: the layering of settlements, farmsteads and field patterns here is unusually complex, and the ebb and flow of intensity of industrial and agricultural exploitation particularly marked.

9. Some other themes needing coordinated research include:
   - Systematic survey of farmstead and town place development.
   - Systematic survey of farm building re-use.
   - Change or continuity of use of materials such as cob and thatch on farm buildings.
   - Hedge survey, hedgerow furniture, time-depth.
   - Further research on orchards/market gardening in Tamar Valley and Mounts Bay areas.
See the Historic England website – HistoricEngland.org.uk – for further details of projects elsewhere in England, and also for a full series of regional statements which set out the historic character and significance of farmsteads in a national context.

FARM BUILDINGS, SETTLEMENT AND LANDSCAPE


Herring, P 1994. Historic Landscape Characterisation Johnson & Rose 1994, pp. 98–100; Peter Herring, Cornwall Archaeological Unit, notes


Taylor, C 1983. Village and Farmstead: A History of

Rural Settlement in England. London: George Philip


CORNISH SOURCES AND STUDIES


Cornwall and Scilly Historic Environment Record

• Sites and monuments reports, accessible via Heritage Gateway:
  http://www.heritagegateway.org.uk/gateway/

• Includes numerous site reports on individual farmsteads, e.g. (Lizard area sample);

• Berry, E & Dudley, P & Thomas, N, 2005, Kestle Barton Farm Buildings, Manaccan, Cornwall – Historic Building Analysis, Historic Environment Projects, Cornwall Council


• Sharpe, A, 2011, Gwills Farm, Gunwalloe, Cornwall: Historic Building Recording, Historic Environment Projects, Cornwall Council

• Sturgess, J 2010, Higher Tregaddra, Cury Cross Lanes, Cornwall: Historic Building Record, Historic Environment Projects, Cornwall Council

• Sturgess, J, 2011, Trewothack farm buildings, Gillan, Cornwall: Historic building record, Historic Environment Projects, Cornwall Council

• Numerous reports on rural industrial/agricultural settlements as part of Cornwall-wide Cornwall Industrial Settlements Initiative (CISI) programme:
CORNWALL HISTORIC FARMSTEADS GUIDANCE


Cornwall and West Devon Mining Landscape World Heritage Site Management Plan 2013-2018
Cornwall Archaeological Unit – forthcoming:
- ‘Lowland Cornwall’ monograph
- West Penwith monograph

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Herring, P, Ed, 2008, Bodmin Moor An archaeological survey Volume 2: The industrial and post-medieval landscapes Principal authors: Peter Herring, Adam Sharpe, John R Smith, Colum Giles, with Nicholas Johnson; CC & EH © English Heritage

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