A Retrogressive Study of the Landscape
History of Part of Southern
Northumberland

The Townships of Prudhoe, Prudhoe Castle, Hedley, Hedley-Woodside,
Dukeshagg, Mickley and Eltringham, in the Former Parish of Ovingham

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Preface

Through a variety of archaeological, historical and geographical techniques, this thesis presents an analysis of the appearance of the landscape of part of southern Northumberland at various points in the past. It also demonstrates the former land-use practices employed within the study area during those past periods, as well as making observation on the contemporary societies employing them.

In addition, the techniques and methodologies employed in the creation of this analysis are explored, along with the results of their application.

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INTRODUCTION

Landscape archaeology is about change in the historic cultural landscape and the processes, both human and natural that cause change.

This thesis attempts to reconstruct the past topography of an area of the Northumberland landscape of northern England. It also tries to show how the pattern of human activities within this landscape has changed with time and how land-use practices have affected, and been affected by the place and the historical context in which they took. This project is an attempt at a multidisciplinary ‘Total Archaeology’ study of the type proposed by Christopher Taylor (1974) and uses a number of different sources of information to recreate former landscapes. Additionally, it applies similar principles to those proposed by Paul Coones (1985) by trying to view the landscape in broader terms, with some attempt to see it in its entirety (which includes both the natural and the cultural environment). However, I unashamedly admit that this work does not go as far towards a study of the entire landscape as Coones would wish. This is because most of this study has been carried out by myself alone, and I have had to draw certain limits to my research, although these limits were not rigidly fixed, as useful data was sometimes found outside them. These limits were set both spatially (see spatial limits later) and temporally, as well as certain limits in the techniques used. The temporal limits to the project are from circa AD 1845 back to circa 1,000 BC. This is essentially from the appearance of the modern landscape (but before more recent activities obscured or destroyed much of that landscape), backwards in time to the earliest period in which features still visible in the landscape can be identified. The exclusion of more recent times is not due to lack of interest (Coones, 1985, p.6), nor because the study of the modern landscape is ‘distasteful’
(Hoskins, 1955, p.231), or because I view the pre-industrial world as 'bucolic' (Coones, *ibid.*), but purely for practical reasons of time and ability. Indeed, for example, I have had to study certain aspects of early industrial activity as part of the contemporary land-use practices and used them for the relative dating of certain boundary features. Additionally, the exclusion of more ancient periods, is again, not due to lack of interest¹, but because it allowed a series of maps to be produced of the ancient landscape, using a similar method of presentation.

These maps, which depict the landscape at carefully chosen points in time, present as detailed a picture of the contemporary landscape as possible, but they must also be viewed as dynamic representations of the period shown. This is because the specific periods on which the historic maps are based upon were going through the process of specific change from one system to another, at that time, and therefore include aspects of both older and newer systems of land management. Additionally, there is less data available for older systems and less accuracy over their dating, and the length of time it took for systems to change. As a result, the older periods, in particular, tend to cover a much wider date range and in less detail than more recent periods, and aspects of more than one, not necessarily contemporary² systems are sometimes depicted.

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¹ As a programme of fieldwalking was carried out within the area
² Or the different systems may have existed at the same time briefly as one was abandoned in favour of the other.
Section One: Theoretical Background and Project Setting

A Road Mender (T. Bewick)
Chapter One: - Aims and Objectives

Definition

It is difficult to define landscape archaeology, as it encompasses such a diverse range of subjects, and besides archaeologists, it is of interest to a large number of groups such as, historians, geographers, geomorphologists, ecologists, economists, agriculturists, and any others with an historic interest in the landscape. Each of these have their own specific emphasis and interests, but, to some extent, the landscape archaeologist needs to study them all.

Because of this wide range of interests, there is also an increasingly diverse source of potential data available and it is rare that a study of the historic cultural landscape will fully exploit this range, or “reflect the unity of its subject matter” (Coones, 1985, p.5). Moreover, the landscape archaeologist can now spend as much time in an office, library, or archive, as they do studying features in the field. The range of field data has also increased considerably, no longer is it adequate to record obvious upstanding archaeological features or artefact spreads in the ploughsoil; now, frequently, other features are used; such as, hedgerows, walls, fields, woods, buildings, industrial remains, plant species distribution and geomorphological features.

Aims and Objectives

This study is similar to those carried out by Christopher Tolan-Smith (Smith, 1977), Gladys Bettess (1994) and Myra Tolan-Smith (1995), the latter of which is of an area immediately to the north of this one (and with this project forms part of the Tyne-Solway Ancient and Historic Landscapes Research Programme). And with this type
of study, the main aim is to reconstruct past landscapes in order to better understand the societies that produced them, and to monitor, document and explain the processes of landscape change (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995).

To achieve this, I have applied some of the ideas of 'Total Archaeology' (Taylor, 1974) and 'Landscape Entirety' (Coones, 1985), with additional aspects of the 'Community Areas' approach (Kuna, 1991; Neustupny, 1991) and tried to relate the collected data, and the analysis, with the environmental history of the area. Ultimately, one of the objectives of this project was to see how effective a multidisciplinary study of the landscape would be and the effectiveness of the various methods and techniques used.

A particular problem with a project such as this arises from the complexity of using so many different types of data to achieve an analysis. These differing sources, which vary with subject period and methodology, cause great variability in the level of detail available, resulting in slight changes of emphasis. These variations are unavoidable, with much more detail available for the more recent past and progressively less detail for earlier periods. Additionally, each level of detail varies within the study area. Therefore, another objective should be to see how these differences might effect the project results, and how these problems might be circumvented.

The adoption of a retrogressive approach is one way of attempting this, because by reading history backwards, it is possible to take advantage of the greater detail available from the recent past and, therefore, the information it provides on earlier periods. This approach, as advocated by Bloch, Landau, Seebohm, Maitland, and others (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.39-40), forms the overall linking methodology of my
thesis, and a major objective is the assessment of how successful this method might be.

Of course, the process of analysing so many different types of data causes its own difficulties. One is reminded of the old adage “A jack of all trades and a master of none,” and an inherent problem of a study of this kind is that some attempt must be made to master all the techniques involved.
Chapter Two: - A Review of Landscape Archaeology Literature; Past and Present

In this chapter I will briefly review the history of landscape archaeology and the literature produced, particularly that relevant to this study.

The topographical study of the British historic landscape is as old as archaeological research in general, with observations and records by the great early antiquarians, such as Leland, Camden, Aubrey and Stukeley, becoming important sources in their own right (Aston & Rowley, 1974, p.15). Despite this, it is only since the latter part of the nineteenth century that any real attention been given to the historic landscape (Darvill, et al., 1993, p.563). This early curiosity was not taken-up generally by archaeologists until recently, as they were mainly concerned with artefacts, chronologies, and upstanding monuments. However, certain geographers, agriculturists and economists showed some interest, and they remained the foremost forces in landscape studies for many years.

Geographers, in particular, led the way because they were more concerned with space and tended to take the time-element as inherent in their discipline. Ogilvie (1952, p.1) encouraged the promotion of this aspect, because of the effect that past events have on the existing composition and character of a region (ibid. p.5). He stated that the ‘cultural landscape’ "... has to be unravelled by the methods of the historian and the archaeologist, yet always with the 'eye for country' which the geographer should possess and with regard for the findings of the ecologist...". And that the "investigation has to be done piece-meal and in detail and is greatly helped by the existence of cadastral plans, old and new, as well as by air-photographs..." (ibid. p.7). Essentially, these are some of the main concepts of landscape archaeology.
Ogilvie (1952, p.7) and E.M. Yates (1960) both emphasised the use of the period map as "... an integral part of the methods of historical geography...", "the reconstruction of vanished boundaries being often the only method of dating elements in the cultural landscape" (Yates, 1960, p.32). Yates also emphasised, as Ogilvie had, the time-element of geography, in the study of settlement and that "... the modern map is an imperfect guide to past patterns of settlement" (ibid. p.46). The period map, a retrospective map showing the known age of features on the modern map, can be an important part of total landscape analysis; and when combined with the retrogressive approach, they both up-date each other, and aid in the overall analysis.

Much of initial awareness archaeologists took in the wider historic landscape should be credited to the historians W.G. Hoskins and Maurice Beresford. They, along with Christopher Taylor, have probably had the greatest influence on British landscape archaeology. Beresford's The Lost Villages of England (1954), presented a series of detailed case studies on the medieval landscape based on documents and fieldwork. As was his other important early work History on the Ground (1957), where he investigated a number of aspects of the pre-industrial landscape. "By examining the work of the sixteenth and seventeenth century cartographers we are admitted not only to the landscape of the Tudor's and Stuart's portrayed on the parchment but to the far older landscape which had not then been completely effaced" (ibid.). Hoskins in his The Making of the English Landscape (1955) applied a multi-period, multidisciplinary approach to the evolution of the English countryside. He emphasised that, "The English landscape itself, to those of us who know how to read it, is the richest historical record we possess" (Hoskins, 1955, p.14). His approach has encouraged the great variety of sub-branches within landscape archaeology since, and has inspired
many inter-disciplinary studies. These three works are considered the most important pioneering works on the historic landscape, and have been both an introduction and inspiration to all that study it.

Even before the publication of the works of Beresford and Hoskins, another group of archaeologists was already taking a more large-scale approach to the subject, by using aerial photographs for their studies. The development of flying had led to the recognition of patterns and features that were hard to detect from the surface and came to archaeological significance through the work O.G.S. Crawford and A. Keiller (1928). Particularly their book *Wessex from the Air*, was considered to have "... consolidated a systematic foundation for the archaeological study of aerial photographs" (Bradford, 1957) and was a major influence on later aerial photographers, such as John Bradford and David Wilson (1982). Bradford's *Ancient Landscapes* (1957) was another important early work, in which he aimed to use aerial photography to comprehensively recover large areas of the ancient landscape (*ibid.*, iii). *Medieval England: An Aerial Survey* (Beresford & St. Joseph, 1979) should also be mentioned here for its wide-scale view of the medieval landscape.

Archaeological research into the historic landscape became more significant from about 1960 (Aston, 1985, p.9), when investigations began moving away from the definition of chronologies and the cultural narrative (Foley, 1981, p.1), to an increasing spatial scale. Moreover, along with changes in theories, a new school of landscape archaeologists was established (Darvill, *et al.*, 1993, p.563), which was heavily influenced, and continues to be influenced, by contributions from historical geography, anthropology and environmental politics (*ibid.*). While landscape
archaeologists rarely lead the way in the development of this research, they continue
to adopt ideas and techniques from other disciplines.

Early works tended to concentrate on the regional and local levels of analysis (M.
Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.11) and this continued right through the 1970s and 1980s, with a
number of single- or multi-period studies. Single-period works include the one on
Charlton by Cunliffe (1973), and Fleming’s numerous studies on the Dartmoor reeve
systems (e.g. 1978, 1983, 1987), or wider single period studies, like Rowley’s (1974)
and Della Hooke’s (1985) works on the Anglo-Saxon landscape. Multi-period studies
include the Royal Commission’s study of Danebury (1984), and their 1985 study of
the county of Northampton, which has now become something of a classic,
particularly Volume V with its broad contextual view (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.12).

One methodological approach of relevance for those studying historical geography
and the agricultural landscape is to read history backwards, either retrospectively or
retrogressively. The first of these concentrates on the present and uses the past only as
a means of better understanding the present and the historian Roger Dion was its chief
advocate (Baker 1968, p.244-5). The other, promoted by historian Marc Bloch, is one
of the main concepts of this project and is more concerned with the past, and uses the
present or recent past to further our understanding of less well known earlier periods
(ibid.). Although some historians from the late nineteenth century had employed this
latter methodology, it has not been widely used by landscape archaeologists, until the
1970s when it was used by Christopher Tolan-Smith in his PhD thesis (Smith, 1977).
This study is now producing a school of other such works, including this one, Myra
Tolan-Smith’s work on Horsley (1995) and Gladys Bettes’s study of Alnmouth
(1994). He also appears to have been one of the few people who has attempted
Christopher Taylor's ideal of 'Total Archaeology' approach (Taylor, 1974), and both of these methods will be examined further in the next chapter. In his thesis, a wide variety of techniques, methods and data sources were employed, along with retrogressive analysis, to reconstruct the historical topography of an area, to show the processes of landscape change (Smith, *ibid.*). Another archaeologist to have applied a retrogressive approach\(^1\), was Williamson (1987) who used it to recover pre-Roman field-systems in East Anglia.

As more and more studies were carried out, landscape archaeology, not surprisingly, tended to concentrate on the study of particular artefact types (including monuments etc.), methods, or theories; this reflected the social trend towards narrow specialisation (Coones, 1985). Examples of this type of work include; - David Wilson's work on the use of aerial photography (1975); the work by Oliver Rackham on woodland history (1975, 1976, 1980, 1986); studies on hedgerows by Pollard *et al.* (1974); and Gelling's work on place-names (1978). There were also slightly less specialised works such as; - *Pottery and the Archaeologist* (Millet, ed. 1979); *Archaeology from the Ploughsoil* (Haselgrove, *et al.*, 1985); and *Archaeological Field Survey in Britain and Abroad* (Macready & Thompson, 1985); along with many others. There were also a number of general works produced, Taylor's *Fieldwork in Medieval Archaeology* (1974) and *Landscape Archaeology* by Aston and Rowley (1974) being examples. One of the most important studies to influence landscape archaeology from this period is Baker and Butlin's *Studies in the Field Systems of the British Isles* (1973). This is a work of historical geography, concentrating on post-medieval and

\(^1\) Even though he does not use this term.
medieval open-field systems, and encouraged a retrogressive approach. It remains one of the basic text sources for studies of the agricultural landscape.

The 1980s also produced a number of works with a broader context, such as Brian Roberts' the *Making of the English Village* (1987). Not only is this one of the most important studies on the analysis of village plans (gathering together much of his previous research), but also puts those villages into their social and physical setting; additionally, he discusses the methodology, techniques and relevant theory on their study. Previously, Christopher Taylor (1983) produced a similar study, *Village and Farmstead*, aimed at a much more general audience, as later did Richard Muir (1989) in his *Portraits of the Past*.

Oliver Rackham's work on woodland history also deserves further mention, particularly his *History of the Countryside* (1986 & 1994), which also deals with a number of other landscape aspects. He has probably done more to remind us of the importance of woodland in the life of medieval man, than any other author has, as well as the role of the natural environment in the historic landscape.

Two other important books of interest to most landscape archaeologists are *Fieldwork for Archaeologists and Local Historians* by Anthony Brown (1987) and Mick Aston's *Interpreting the Landscape* (1985). The first concentrates on the techniques and methods of landscape archaeology, whereas the second is a comprehensive study into the use and meaning of the collected data. Together, the two works provide a useful introduction to the study of the historic landscape, and along with the above mentioned works, have laid the foundations which are now allowing some landscape
archaeologists to take a broader, multidisciplinary view of their subject and further the development of the theoretical basis.

Many of the theories developed (e.g. ‘Off-Site Archaeology’ (Foley, 1981) and ‘Community Areas’ (Kuna, 1991; Nuestupny, 1991)) were mainly developed to help understand prehistoric communities and their ecological environment, social organisation and cognitive behaviour (Foley, 1981, p.1). This approach should have as great a role to play with later supposedly more complex ‘historic’ societies, but many archaeologists shy away from studying them (e.g. Rossignol, 1992, p.4). There has also been a realisation that past human activities beyond the edge of the traditional archaeological site were of equal importance, and that this is a great source of potential archaeological data. Many archaeologists realised that they can no longer rely purely on traditional sources to interpret the landscape and are keen to investigate the wider aspects of the natural and cultural historic landscape (ibid. p.4-5).

An article by Brian Roberts ‘Some relict landscapes in Westmoreland: A Reconsideration’ (1993), has also been important for this study, as it up-dates much of his theory put forward in the Making of the English Village. Specifically, “In the study of relict landscapes the definition of layers or phases may be logically necessary but can be fundamentally misleading. The real world normally involves a continuum of activity, in which continuity is more important than cataclysmic change” (ibid., p.433). That multi-period landscape study has similarities with this thesis, particularly the apparent discontinuity between ‘prehistoric’ and ‘Romano-British’ settlements and the villages and hamlets of the historic centuries. This is “... undoubtedly a product of a lack of extensive excavation...” (ibid.). And that “All elements of the settlement system, those functioning today and those deserted and appearing as archaeological
sites, are part of a seamless robe of development in which phases of stability and quiescence have been temporarily and spatially intercalated with phases of marked instability and rather rapid change" (ibid.).

The landscape theoretical debate has deepened in recent years as it has developed. 

*Space, Time and Archaeological Landscape* (Rossignol and Wandsnider, 1992), has particularly tried to encourage landscape studies to take a more scientific processual approach to the understanding of change in social and economic systems (Rossignol 1992, p.3). Whereas, Tilley’s work *Phenomenology of Landscape* (1994) has encouraged a post-processual view, where a ‘scientific’ conception of space abstracted from human affairs is called into question (ibid. p.7).

Landscape archaeology now has as many variants in its methodological and theoretical approach as any other archaeological discipline, with specialisation common and it is under as much pressure as any other aspect of archaeology to become an exact science. Despite the indubitable importance of the many theoretical works (such as Rossignol & Wandsnider (ibid.)), one wonders if this is not an aspect of the over-specialisation bewailed by Coones (1985), especially as there are some aspects that can not be exactly quantified or proved. There will always remain aspects that will be speculative, as the debate on the appropriate cultural, spatial and temporal framework continues, now that landscape archaeology has matured into a distinct separate branch of landscape study, but its disparate, multidisciplinary, origins, should not be forgotten.
Chapter Three: Total Archaeology, the Multidisciplinary Approach and Retrogressive Analysis

**Total Archaeology and Multidisciplinary Archaeology**

Archaeologists have often tried to explain the past through simple single cause models. But, in the same way that ecologists have realised that food-webs need to be studied, rather than simple food-chains, many archaeologists have realised that past life processes in human societies were just as complicated as today, and as now, cannot be studied separately from their natural environment. In Britain, the realisation of the true complexity of the cultural landscape has been recognised in several ways. For example, many aspects of the modern landscape were actually determined by some action perhaps made thousands of years ago (Aston, 1985, p.10). It has also been recognised that there is a bewildering variety in the form and development of British settlement, over the millennia (Taylor, 1983, p.12), and particularly how the focus of a settlement can shift through time (ibid.).

Paul Coones (1985, p.5) has complained about the increasing specialisation of landscape archaeologists and the lack of breadth to some studies of the landscape (ibid.). Now, things are a little better but still we have seen few of the multidisciplinary, multi-period studies that he encouraged.

"The landscape is in truth nothing less than the complex interrelated and unified material product of the geographical environment, a seamless totality in which the immemorial processes of nature and the much more recent activities of mankind interpenetrate" (ibid.).

And, Taylor (1983, p.11-12) states that

"... with a few notable exceptions, archaeologists tend to be myopic, perhaps because of their inevitable concentration on the minutiae of human activity that are their base source of information. Thus, though much information about settlements
has been recorded by various archaeological methods, archaeologists have been slow in seeing the overall patterns which cross cultural and period boundaries”.

The multidisciplinary, ‘Total Archaeology’ (Taylor, 1974; 1983) approach, involves bringing together all the appropriate data available in order to study the landscape in its entirety. For most studies, this will entail the examination of all existing data, and the collection of new, from a variety of sources. At present, these sources include traditional archaeological fieldwork such as excavation, fieldwalking, topographical survey, and aerial photography, along with more recent branches such as woodland surveys, boundary studies, and geophysics. This should be combined with ‘indoor’ survey work in archives and libraries, looking for supporting cartographic and documentary evidence, which includes place- and field-name evidence. It is as important to carry-out this indoor survey study as the outdoor work, as even if the researcher is only interested in a single period, or early landscapes, the identification of recent features helps prevent their mistaken identification as features of earlier importance.

When applying the multidisciplinary, ‘Total Archaeology’ approach to the landscape it makes sense to apply some of the aspects of the ‘Community Areas’ approach. As mentioned before, these ideas were developed for application to prehistoric societies, but there is no reason why they should not be applied to later ones. The basic concept is that populations are approached as divided into ‘communities’, each of which has a common shared territory, where the majority of the community activities took place and with which the community identified itself (Kuna, 1991, p.332). These areas are made up of a number of sub-areas, where specific activities took place, such as habitation, production, and burial (ibid.). These ideas can therefore be applied to the better known community arrangements of medieval and later societies, where the
‘communities’ can be identified at differing levels as the township, parish, manor or barony, for example.

**Retrogressive Analysis**

Most normal histories, and archaeological surveys, when covering a number of periods, will tend to use an evolutionary approach to their narrative; they start at some fixed point in the past and progress towards the present. This approach is still frequently used today, and is often used to show human progress and improvement with time, rather than simply depicting the past for its own sake. Neither does this approach view individual periods in the past from their own perspective, as their own contemporary present.

As we saw in the last chapter some historians have employed methods where they read history backwards, either retrospectively or retrogressively. For example Yates (1960) used relic features to explain the modern landscape and therefore used a retrospective approach, as is Coones (1985, p.6) view of the landscape; in contrast Brian Roberts (e.g. 1993) often uses relic features as a means of recovering the form of earlier landscapes.

Although Marc Bloch is credited with being the main advocate of the retrogressive method (1954), it must be remembered that earlier writers, such as Landau, Seebohm, Grey, Petrie and Maitland had used similar methods. Also, Seebohm in his *English Village Community* (1883/1890) attempted to trace an open-field system back to the Roman period, and although this was designed as a vehicle for his political ideas, it remains an interesting work on economic history. In addition, Flinders Petrie had earlier used the relationship between Roman roads and field systems to recognise
elements of the pre-Roman landscape (Petrie, 1878). But it is Maitland, in his preface to *Domesday Book and Beyond* (1897/1907) that was the first to use the term retrogressive method, although he was only naming and using Seebohm's techniques, where you;-

"... proceed from known to unknown, carefully to trace back the shell [of the open-field system] by searching and watching for its marks and traits as far into the past as the evidence can be found" (Seebohm, 1890, xiv).

This remains the basic principle of retrogressive analysis.

Williamson (1987) used topographic analysis to date an East Anglian field-system to the Iron Age or Romano-British periods, in a similar way to Petrie. Unfortunately, he appears to have had little interest in later periods and only used the data available from them as a means of deriving the earlier landscape. More recently, although Hinton (1997) has brought some doubt into the assigning of an early date to such coaxial systems, the main stratigraphic principle remains sound.

The retrogressive approach has been well used by historical geographers, but among landscape archaeologists, the concept has rarely been taken-up. This is strange, as archaeologists take it for granted that when they are excavating a 'site' they are working, layer by layer, backwards in time, even though they then normally go on to present the data in a successive form, from the earliest to the latest periods. When using a retrogressive approach, the landscape archaeologist excavates the whole landscape as he would a site.

**Practical Problems of Retrogressive Analysis**

One major perception problem with retrogressive analysis is that archaeological interest is often drawn away from later landscapes and concentrates on the earliest.
The reader will tend to pay most attention to the earliest landscape presented to them, whether the eighteenth century AD or BC, and equally important later landscapes will tend to be ignored.

Also, as part of any retrogressive study it is necessary to make a map showing the earliest known, or probable, date of all features of the modern landscape. This of course is a retrospective analysis! Indeed a rough retrospective map of the study area was created in the early stages of this project. However, the strange fact is, that the true date of many modern landscape features (or the origin of the influence or their creation) can often only be derived via a retrogressive analysis of the map; where a feature can be seen to be stratigraphically earlier than others. A retrospective-retrogressive seesaw, of 'successive' and 'antecedent'\textsuperscript{1} features is then formed, each aiding the other, as a test-bed for hypotheses. It is much the same when collating contemporary data for any period map, and relevant data from both earlier and later periods is often used to provide either negative or positive evidence for the existence of a feature, in the same retrospective-retrogressive cycle.

There also arises the problem of undateable material, which is known to be earlier than 'x', and a \textit{terminus ante quem} date can only be applied (e.g. many place-names and early features).

\textbf{Conclusions}

Retrogressive analysis can be used in the intensive study of a group of related historical communities, making it possible to recover information on earlier lesser known periods, especially when combined with archaeological and environmental

\textsuperscript{1} These are the terms applied by Roberts (1987) to explain earlier and later features during historical analysis.
fieldwork. This permits the observation of long-term patterns, such as the effects of environmental change on communities, or the recognition of long-term stability in the landscape, and how the efforts of earlier populations have influenced later societies.

Although it is possible to do landscape archaeology without using either retrogressive methodology, ‘Total Archaeology’, or the ‘Community Areas’ technique, I feel that it is only when the application of these approaches is attempted that any real explanation of past human activity in the landscape can be achieved. This is especially so, if the desired result is an interpretation of the landscape in which the past communities actually lived, and if we require a fuller picture as to how these communities developed. In particular, by applying retrogressive methodology, it is possible to observe the consequences of past activities before identifying their causes (C. Tolan-Smith, pers. comm.). This is often more definitive than attempting to identify possible causes from a particular time selected purely on the period bias of the author. In the same way, no single period can really be studied in isolation or therefore any one technique or single theory used, without bias, so by applying a variety of approaches some attempt to dissipate these discrepancies can be made.
Chapter Four: - The Spatial limits of the Study Area

A lot has been written regarding the ideal size of a landscape study area (e.g. Gaffney & Tingle, 1985; Shennan, 1985), but much of this was written by those mainly concerned with quantifying the archaeological record, and therefore finding the minimum amount of work needed to achieve statistically meaningful results. Many of these studies were based on a regional level, and for the recovery of prehistoric or Roman ‘sites’, so their statistical approach was designed to find out the best regional method of quantifying the number of potential ‘sites’ within an area. Even now, it would appear that the Government is encouraging an official nationally accepted survey technique (Darvill et al., 1993).

In a study that covers many periods, it is only possible to examine in detail the community landscape arrangements for the last few centuries, and it has to be accepted that there will be increasingly less detail available from earlier periods. In addition, it is impractical to apply a ‘Total Archaeology’ approach to a large regional study, such as an entire county or district; so, a smaller area must be chosen.

In the case of this study, a group of townships within part of an ancient Northumberland parish (Ovingham) were selected (see Map 1 in pocket at rear). These townships relate to a specific topographical area and each was a basic farming community, but of varying size, form and status. The River Tyne separated the selected townships from the rest of the large Ovingham parish and its other townships. Additionally, the studied townships had a number of other relationships with neighbouring townships and to areas further afield. There were also the wider secular relationships of the manorial system, as the townships were managed as parts of two separate baronies. One was centred within the study area at Prudhoe (the barony of
Prudhoe or Umfraville) and the other from the neighbouring parish of Bywell (the barony of Bywell or Balliol). The history of these two secular organisations has had a considerable effect on the townships studied, as have other wider political and social events, such as the relationship between the Scots and English, and the mixed, but separate communities of the border region. This resulted in periods of resource destruction, due to raiding activities and the movement of armies, and was a varying problem throughout the medieval and early post-medieval periods in this area.

Additionally, an interesting two-fold problem arises when studying the landscape history of this part of Northumberland. As a lowland to marginal region, there are not the obvious abandoned relict landscapes of the type found in parts of the uplands. Moreover, because of the generally more amenable climatic conditions found at lower altitudes, the area has probably been in continual occupation for millennia. The result of which is the obscuring of earlier antecedent settlement patterns that have been built upon by succeeding developments. Furthermore, the economic value of the townships has led to a greatly variable historic record for the two secular baronies. The barony of Umfraville has a long archival history, as it passed into the hands of the Earls of Northumberland. Whereas, in comparison, the barony of Balliol has had a very chequered history resulting in a fraction of the records and much of this area is in the 'Dark Ages' until the eighteenth century. An interesting problem arising from this mixed history is that the good documentary and cartographic coverage of the barony of Prudhoe allows the recovery of detailed ancient topographic information. By contrast, the lack of archival data for the barony of Balliol results in the need for detailed recovery via archaeological techniques and for the careful examination of
documents from quite recent periods. This provides a useful test-bed for hypotheses, such as boundary theory (Chapter 11), through comparative study.

When retrogressive analysis is used in the intensive study of such a group of related historical communities, it is possible to recover information on the earlier lesser known periods, especially when combined with archaeological and environmental fieldwork. This permits the observation of long-term patterns, such as the effects of environmental change on these communities or the recognition of long-term stability in the landscape and how the efforts of earlier populations have influenced later societies.

Study area size selection also has to meet the practical constraints of the surveyor. Too large an area and it is impossible to carry out an adequate survey, too small and the wider community arrangements cannot be studied. Nor is it possible, within a small area, to fully appreciate large-scale features and effects. In some ways the study area chosen was too large for a single person intensive survey, but for the reasons outlined above the dropping of any one township would have considerably lessened the overall effectiveness of the study. This resulted in the necessity of variable levels of intensity and technique throughout the whole.

An advantage of carrying out a study in this particular part of Northumberland, was that it falls within the area covered by the Tyne-Solway Ancient and Historic Landscapes Research Programme, a major research programme into the landscape archaeology of this region (Briefing Paper No. 1, December 1993). This research is being carried out by a group of archaeologists, geographers and historians, who by working together can lend support to the various research projects in the region. One
piece of research recently finished is Myra Tolan-Smith’s (1995) thesis on the landscape history of the townships of Horsley and Harlow-on-the-Hill, which are also in the Parish of Ovingham and are immediately to the north of this study area. Her research, obviously, has had a great bearing on any other work in this part of Tynedale, and provides an interesting source of regional data, with which to compare and contrast my own results.
Chapter Five; - The Physical Environment

Any landscape study needs some understanding of its physical and environmental history, as past human activities occurred within their own contemporary environment. Even today, many human actions are still determined by the physical environment and for earlier societies, their own environment and changes within that environment, would have been an even greater controlling factor on land-use activities. These activities include the settlement pattern, and the arrangement and types of subsistence systems carried out around them. The range of available natural resources would also have determined the nature of land utilisation in an area; which in turn would have affected the types of external (trade) contacts a society needed. Likewise, it should be remembered that the physical form and geographical position of a place could determine how much external societies affected an area. In this case, the major route-way, the Tyne-Solway corridor, and the presence of important north-south river crossings, have all had their part to play on the area under review.

When it comes to recovering the physical history of the Prudhoe area, we face varying quantities of local and regional data; reflecting, not only the interests of particular past projects but also economic and preservation factors. For example, research into the coal and aggregate resources of the region has led to a reasonably detailed local geology, but a similar level of environmental and geomorphological data is not available and one often has to rely on evidence from immediately outside the study area, or upon regional data.

I will now present a description of the current landscape; its drainage and relief; its climate; and modern land-use. Then there is a brief history of how this landscape was formed and how it has changed since the last Ice Age. Some further details on the
vegetation history will be discussed in Chapters 10 and 11 and within the chapters of Section Three, where appropriate. This chapter will also help the reader familiarise themselves with many of the locations detailed in the main analysis. After some consideration it was decided not to present the data in this chapter retrogressively, because the environmental changes discussed occurred successively, as the dominant vegetation types and soil conditions, along with human activity, altered in response to local and regional climatic changes. Additionally, all the narratives on this subject are presented in a progressive form and it is not really part of this project's aim to completely re-write them. Within Section Three the contemporary environmental and climatic conditions of the period being discussed will be reviewed where necessary.

The Present Environment

The landscape under study is a wineglass shaped area between the rivers Tyne and Derwent, with its sides mainly made by a number of small streams and topographical features. This area can be broken down into a number of smaller physical components (Maps 1 & 2), consisting of, from north to south:

1. The Tyne Valley Zone (mostly the townships of Prudhoe Castle and Eltringham), which because of its geographical size, and its historical and economic importance, has received most attention in the past. The glacial and post-glacial deposits lining the south side of the Tyne valley dominate this area.

2. The Tyne/Stanley Burn Watershed (mostly Prudhoe and Mickley townships), which includes the higher, steeper parts of the south side of the Tyne valley and the south facing slopes of the land to the north of the Stanley Burn.
3. The Stanley Burn/Derwent Watershed (mostly Hedley township), this area is very similar to the Tyne/Stanley Burn Watershed and includes the higher parts of the north side of the Derwent valley.

4. The Derwent Valley Zone (mostly the township of Hedley-Woodside) defined by the glacial and post-glacial deposits lining the north side of the river.

5. Mickley Common, an area of former common land that had been shared by a number of townships. This mainly consists of bolder clay covered land to the west of the two watersheds. Historically this area had also included the western slopes of the watersheds.

**Drainage and relief**

As can be seen from Maps 1 and 2, the study area is dominated by the valleys of the Tyne and Derwent, each of which has steep north facing slopes on their south side, and longer, much more gently rising, south-facing slopes, to their north. It is also interesting to note how township distribution almost exactly reflects the physical components of the landscape (as defined above), so that each township exploits a different aspect of the landscape.

The valley of the river Tyne is the lowest part of the study area, at around 10m or less above sea level, and coincides with the extreme tidal limit of the Tyne, at the point where the Stanley Burn flows in to it. At this point, the valley is a glacially over deepened, partly buried, broad, deep, steep-sided trough (Robson, 1981, p.60; Macklin, *et al.*, 1993, p.125). The valley fill consists of various glacial, glaciofluvial and alluvial deposits, and the present river channel (and that of the Derwent), is set within these Pleistocene and Holocene deposits, or bed-rock (Macklin, *ibid*.). A large
area of glacial sand and gravel (the *Hag Bank* and *Eastwood* area) at the eastern end of this zone, appears to have formed during ice-melt and must have dammed the valley for a while, before the current river channel was cut around the north side of this feature. Parts of this gravel bar and an area of alluvial ‘haughs’\(^1\) to the west have been exploited for aggregates in recent years. The heavy development of Prudhoe considerably reduces the recovery potential of archaeological data from this half of the Tyne Valley Zone.

Additionally, there are a number of ‘denes’, consisting of minor streams, with steep-sided, narrow valleys, draining into the Tyne, leaving a series of ‘heughs’\(^2\). These streams become much less distinct when crossing ground that is more level and can disappear on post-glacial alluvial deposits lower down. Many denes are now dry-valleys or only carry small streams (Lunn, 1993, p.39), but were formed as melt-water channels during deglaciation, when erosion forces were great enough to cut such deep channels.

The two watershed areas to the north and south of the Stanley Burn, are parts of a large block of sandstone, dipping eastwards, with a steep scarp slope at the western end of the northern block. The northern half dips gently eastwards from Mickley, its highest point at 207m A.O.D., down to the glacial gravel deposits filling the *Prudhoe Moor* area. The other half is higher, 242m A.O.D. at Hedley, rising to 259m a little to the east, before falling slowly eastwards beyond the study area.

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\(^1\) The local term for flat alluvial areas besides rivers.  
\(^2\) The local term for topographical features projecting above the river valley floor, normally consisting of glacial material, Prudhoe Castle being built on one of these.
There are now few existing watercourses on the watersheds, but this was not necessarily so in the past. Many of the older maps show that there were a number of brooks and wells, formerly feeding into the Tyne, Derwent, and Stanley Burn. It appears that the changes in water courses in this central area was due to a combination of nineteenth and twentieth century land improvements and various mining activities. There is no longer any deep-mining here, but large parts of the landscape have been destroyed since World War II, through open-cast coal mining, which still threatens much of the area.

The vale of the Stanley Burn, for the sake of convenience, is the section of that stream between the two watersheds and not the part below its confluence with the Clinty Burn. The bulk of the modern drainage into the vale of the Stanley Burn is from the *Hyons Wood* area (*Maps 1 & 5*), but as mentioned above, formerly there were other brooks and rills draining into it.

The Derwent Valley, although much smaller, is similar in origin to that of the Tyne. Both have large deposits of glacial and post-glacial sand and gravel, which in the Derwent valley has been of considerable economic importance. The glacial sand and gravel forms a distinctive ‘heugh’ in the *Chester Hills* area of Hedley-Woodside (*Map 1*) and below it are a number of distinctive ‘haughs’ along the north bank of the river. The Derwent Valley is currently being heavily affected by aggregate extraction, which have been greatly expanded in recent years, destroying a considerable amount of the natural and historic landscape around the *Chester Hills* area. Because of the size and nature of the sand and gravel resources in this region, it is likely that extraction will continue to be a threat here in the future.
Before enclosure, *Mickley Common* consisted of an undulating area of boulder clay on the western fringes of the study area. Historically, it was shared by number of townships, both in the parish of Ovingham and the two neighbouring Bywell parishes, with no fixed boundary between these.

As can be seen from Map 2 and from the description above, the topography of the study area varies considerably and rapidly throughout. There are the river valleys and Mickley Common, which are typical of much of lowland Northumberland. Then there are the often-steep scarp slopes of the two ridge ends on the sandstone block, parts of which rise into the ‘moorland edge’ zone (Lunn, 1993, p.25), the boundary between more or less intensively managed farmland and extensively farmed moorland systems. Typically in Northumberland, this zone is found at around 200-250m above sea level (*ibid.* ) and it is very sensitive to climatic change. For example, during warmer, drier climatic conditions\(^1\), on higher ground in other parts of Northumberland and moorland elsewhere, this land becomes viable for arable exploitation and population expansion. When the climate changes to wetter and/or colder conditions\(^2\), the moorland edge zone is the area in which arable farming becomes no longer viable. In Northumberland, there is a clear link between altitude and cooler, wetter, climatic conditions, and this is the zone affected most by changes in the regional climate. Moreover, prevailing winds, slope steepness and aspect will effect the relative climate of any area. So one would expect north facing slopes and the higher parts of the study area to have been more directly affected by past changes in the regional climate.

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\(^1\) Such as the mid- to late Bronze Age and the early Middle Ages  
\(^2\) During the 'Little Ice Age' for example.
The Present Climate

Northumberland is the coldest county in England and within the county, precipitation increases towards the west and with height, making the local climate very sensitive to altitude (Lunn 1993, p.41). Therefore, because it is in the rain shadow of the Pennine Uplands, lowland Northumberland is relatively dry (ibid.). The average rainfall in the summer half of the year is similar to that of the winter half, with July and August being the wettest months, and March and April the driest (ibid. p.43), which affects crop growth in the spring and the summer harvest. As a whole, north-east England receives more snowfall than any other district in England and Wales, and it often lies on hilltops, in shady hollows or on north-facing slopes for long periods in the winter and early spring. Because of the topography of the study area, winter precipitation can often fall as snow on the higher ground and as rain lower down. At other times rain clouds, particularly thunderstorms, coming from the west are often funnelled down the Tyne and Derwent valleys, sometimes causing crop damage.

Because of the cold Northumberland climate, a modest increase in altitude can bring severe agricultural soil limitations and the ‘moorland edge’ boundary roughly reflects the 890 mm. rainfall isohyet (Lunn, 1993, p.43). Also, a fall in mean temperature and an increase in precipitation with altitude, within this zone, leads to increased leaching and infertility of coarser-textured soils and increased water-logging of finer-textured ones (ibid. p.25). Soil limitation such as these, plus the risk of poaching (often resulting from the intensive grazing of wet areas), and direct climatic limitations on plant growth with altitude, normally restrict upland areas to extensive livestock rearing systems, based on moorland rough grazing or forestry (ibid.). The fact that some arable farming does take place within the two higher parts of the watersheds in
Figure 1: Drift Geology Map

Key
- Sandstone
- Lower Coal Measures
- Boulder Clay
- Glacial Sand & Gravel
- River Terrace Deposits & Alluvium

0 1Km
the study area (Map 3) shows that even slight variations in latitude, altitude, soil condition, and aspect can have an effect on arable viability.

**Solid and Drift Geology (pre 10,000 BP.)**

The solid and drift geology of the study area is depicted in Figure 1 (p. 32) is based upon the 1:50,000 series of geology maps produced by the British Geological Survey (England & Wales sheet 20, Newcastle-upon-Tyne Solid Geology, 1989).

The underlying solid geology of the study area consists mostly of Middle and Lower Coal Measure sandstones interlaced with coal seams, shale, seat-earth and mudstone, all dating from the Carboniferous period (Robson, 1981; Taylor et al., 1978; Giles, 1981). Although other strata have had a less obvious effect, over the last 150 years, the economic importance of coal has had a considerable effect on land-use and population size. In addition, over half the total area being studied is covered by variable thickness of over-lying glacial and post-glacial drift, which have had a greater effect on soil conditions than any underlying strata. The glacial drifts in this area are all thought to have been deposited during the Dimlington Stadial of the Late Devensian cold event, 26,000 to 10,000 years ago (Giles, 1981, p. 3; Macklin, *et al.*, 1993, p. 125). The glaciers of this period removed any previous deposits from earlier glaciations and together with the rest of the Devensian cold events deeply scoured and over-deepened the valleys of the Tyne and Derwent.

**The Boulder Clay**

The Devensian ice which flowed down the Tyne valley deposited extensive layers of undifferentiated, unstratified, Boulder Clay (Robson, 1981, p. 53), which in places is up to 18m thick (Giles, 1981, p. 4), to a thin smear on higher ground. In the Prudhoe
area this consists of a stiff, sandy to silty, dark grey to brown, stony clay, with boulders mostly from local Carboniferous rocks, but also erratics from Borrowdale, the Lake District and southern Scotland (ibid.). Within the study area, these boulders vary dramatically in size, with some examples over a metre square incorporated into field walls and scatters of boulders can still be seen littering the ground in the *Hyons Wood* area.

**Glacial Sand and Gravel**

At the end of the Dimlington Stadial, around 16,000 years ago, the ice finally retreated from the Tyne valley (Macklin, *et al.*, 1993, p.125). Climatic amelioration was rapid, releasing vast amounts of water (Robson, 1981, p.53), which created further erosive features in the landscape (the denes, etc.), and the deposition of huge quantities of glacial sand, gravel and silt, in terraces along the sides of the Tyne and its tributaries (Giles, 1981, p.4).

**River Terraces**

A number of Late Pleistocene and Holocene river terraces have been identified in both the Tyne and Derwent valleys, which can have a thickness of around 7m and generally support thin topsoils (Giles, 1981, p.4).

**Alluvium: Post 10,000 BP.**

At times of lower sea-levels\(^1\), many river channels were formed which since (post 11,000 BP) have been in-filled with alluvial deposits, which have then built up to form a floodplain (Giles, *ibid.*). The Holocene alluvial sediments of the lower Tyne valley are generally fine-grained and vertically accreted, but they can consist of sands,

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\(^1\) Such as during the Loch Lomond Readvance.
silts, clays, or gravels, and are similar to the River and Glacial terrace deposits. Smaller streams, depressions, and gullies can also contain alluvial deposits (*ibid.*).

Prudhoe falls approximately halfway between two major geomorphological studies carried out on the Tyne basin by Macklin, Passmore, *et al.* (e.g. Macklin, *et al.*, 1993). One site at *Farnley Haughs* is a piedmont stretch of the river and is only some 9km to the west of Prudhoe, and the other is at *Blaydon Haughs/Shibbon Pond*, Scotswood, about 9km to the east. Their work has allowed the examination of the redistribution of eroded soil from past settlements located in the upper reaches of the river (*ibid.* p.125), but this unfortunately tells us little of the possible soil erosion effects within the Prudhoe area itself.

At Scotswood, just above the Derwent’s confluence with the Tyne, some 10m of Holocene alluvium were found to overlie up to 40m of Pleistocene glacial and glaciofluvial deposits (*ibid.*). However, the *Farnley Haughs* site is perhaps a little more similar to the depositional history of the Tyne within the study area (particularly at Eltringham). Excavations here revealed an alluvial sequence of ‘row terraces’ produced by a laterally shifting meandering river channel, with sedimentation separated by shorter periods of river cut-and-fill (*ibid.*; Passmore & Macklin, 1994, p.138).

**Soils**

Variations in soil type in this area would appear to be mainly due to parent sub-soil material and drainage, rather than topographical features (such as aspect or altitude). This is a reflection of the geological history, particularly the large spreads of Boulder Clay, sands, and gravels masking the underlying bedrock.
Areas of Boulder Clay within the study area, have produced soils which are often seasonally waterlogged, known as Stagnogleys or Pelo-Stagnogleys, of the Surface-Water Gley soil association (Lunn, 1993, p.45). These soils are common throughout Northumberland, and reflect the clayey, fine loamy or fine silty nature of the parent materials. Generally they have a slowly permeable sub-soil, which when combined with seasonal precipitation excesses causes bad drainage (ibid.).

Most of the agricultural soil of lowland Northumberland and those of the 'moorland edge' marginal zone are Stagnogleys. Since the eighteenth century, these soils have been subjected to intensive land improvement schemes, such as field-drainage, sub-soiling, mole ploughing and the straightening of natural watercourses (ibid.). This has had a considerable effect on the natural flora and soil condition and causes additional difficulties in the reconstruction of past land-use patterns.

Another common soil type in Northumberland are the Brown Soil group, which have developed where the parent material is of a coarser texture (such as glacial sand and gravel, and coarser alluvium), or over relatively drift free sandstones (ibid. p.48). Most of these soils belong to the Brown Earth group, but soils formed from sandier water-laid sand and gravel belong to the Brown Sands group. Where the Brown Earth soils have developed on not so well draining, coarser Boulder Clays, they are known as Stagnogleyic Earths, or Stagnogleyic Argillic Brown Earths (ibid.). Brown Earth soils are formed in areas of deciduous forest (Stamp, 1974) and have a higher humus content than podsols (Whitten, 1972), which can develop on well-drained soils by leaching.
Archaeological Landscape Availability

- Urban & Industrial Areas
- Areas of Open-Cast Mining (former & present)
- Known Sites of Mines, Shafts & Bore Holes
- Woodland Areas & Plantations
- Unobserved Areas
- Areas of Landscape Relatively Free of Damage or Urbanisation.

Figure 2: Archaeological Landscape Availability.
Modern Land-use

Map 3 depicts the current land-use pattern, as derived from maps, aerial photographs and personal observations made mainly between spring 1993 and summer 1996. It shows the distribution of built-up urban areas; areas affected by open-cast mineral and aggregate extraction; along with the main road/rail system. In addition, it displays the distribution of land observed under arable cultivation; areas of pasture (mostly improved, used for grazing sheep and cattle), and areas rough grazing (mostly unimproved, sheep pasture), along with areas of woodland and forestry plantations. Figure 2 (p.37) is very similar but simply displays the areas of open-cast mining, aggregate extraction, urban development, woodland, and the road and railways network. This allows the easy identification of areas within which the historic landscape has been totally or partially destroyed (open-cast and some urban areas), areas that have variable preservation or access for archaeological work (urban and woodland areas) and those areas where archaeological preservation and access should be reasonable (light grey areas).

The large impact on this landscape over the last 150 years by urban growth and industrial activities will become obvious when the map is compared with those produced for the chapters in Section Three. Of the areas still used for agriculture, in general the farmers carryout mixed regimes of arable, cattle, and sheep. Some farms concentrate more on one aspect or another, but few other types of agriculture employed, except for some horse stabling. Most of the current farms are much bigger than in the last century, reflecting modern trends, where single families have amalgamated blocks of farms into single management units. Moreover, whereas in the past, the Duke of Northumberland was the main landholder, along with a number
of other smaller freehold families, the bulk is probably now owned by the former Coal Board or R.J.B. Mining. They have a number of tenant farmers in the area, along with a few others on the Duke's remaining farms; the only non-tenant groups now appear to be the large family agglomerations mentioned above.

**The Environmental History**

This section summarises the climatic, vegetational and geomorphological history of the area. Because of the lack of direct environmental data available from this area, it has been necessary to use a few regional sources and then check them against the nearest local sources. The appropriate parts of Nick Higham's (1986) chapter on the environmental history of northern England has also been used, along with a similar chapter by Lunn (1993) on the vegetation and climate history of Northumberland. Macklin, *et al.* (1993), provide another major source of a more local nature, along with detailed geomorphological, vegetational and climatic evidence for the Tyne valley. Two other good local environmental sources were used to check for changes from the regional pattern, the pollen cores from *Cranberry Bog* (Turner & Kershaw, 1973) and *Fotherley Moss* (Turner and Hodgson, 1981). The first was a core site some 12km east-south-east of the southernmost parts of the study area, and is a lowland moss near the valley of the River Team, Beamish, Co. Durham. The core provides information on the late-glacial and Holocene environment, but because of its small size and the surrounding high ground, it is thought that the data is of very local significance (Turner & Kershaw, 1973). Even with these limitations it still supports the general regional pattern and is therefore of use in recreating the vegetational history of the study area. *Fotherley Moss*, at 204m above sea level and only some 6km to the west of the study area, is not only closer, but of similar altitude to the
higher watershed parts of the study area. This core covers the whole environmental history of the Holocene, and is probably of more value to the vegetational history of the Prudhoe area (Turner and Hodgson, 1981). Again this pollen core compares well with the regional picture given by other sources.

**Conclusions**

One aspect noted during the research for this chapter has been that most published pollen diagrams appear to show little interest in the post-Roman periods. This is partly due to preservation factors, as higher levels within a core site tend to be affected by recent changes in local conditions, but also due to archaeological obsession with human effects on particular periods. For example, interest often concentrates on the arrival of farming communities, major forest clearance episodes, or the effects of the Roman occupation. Unfortunately, for the project periods presented, this limits the use of many of the local core sites, and it is only through the work of Macklin and others within the Tyne Valley that much of the local post-Roman environmental history is available.

Another observation, was a preoccupation by climatologists and geomorphologists with climatic deterioration, and it was often difficult to recognise the periods of climatic amelioration that occurred between deteriorations. Ideally, it is important that any multidisciplinary, multi-period study has access to a full-unbiased environmental history of the area under consideration, so that the history of human activities can be compared along side contemporary environmental conditions. The reality is that we will have to depend upon piecing together the environmental history from what is available, but by working together with environmental historians, we can provide mutual benefit to both disciplines.
SECTION TWO: - OFFICE AND FIELD DATA COLLECTION METHODS, TECHNIQUES AND RESULTS

A retrospective (as opposed to a retrogressive) study of the present day landscape, by a variety of methods, allows the collection of information on datable relict features, social structure and land-use strategies, which with some of the same methods can be used, in the retrogressive reconstruction of past landscapes.

The methods and techniques of data collection discussed in the next section, have, through necessity, been placed under individual chapter headings. But it must be stressed here that all the different subjects relate to each other, to a lesser or greater extent, and there is a considerable overlap between them. Because of this some of the subjects that have played a lesser role within this study have been grouped together with similar subjects. There are two main subject groups; that is field-based and office-based research with aerial archaeology forming a cross over between the two.

First, I deal with the non-fieldwork techniques, which is generally research carried out in record offices, libraries, and museums. Much of this work is carried out before fieldwork begins, then continues throughout the course of field activities, enhancing the interpretation of field research and leading to specific questions to be answered by fieldwork. Fieldwork techniques are influenced by the above indoor research, but one must also bear in mind their own agendas to avoid missing information not available from other sources. Not only does this help with the interpretation of historic periods, but it is the main way of recovering earlier prehistoric activities (in the case of this study pre-'history', is that time before adequate local historical sources).
Chapter Six: - Historic Documents and Pictures, Their Uses and Restrictions

Historic Documents

Introduction

The many and varied types of documents used during this aspect of my research, have brought out many of the advantages and limitations of using these sources, and, along with other methods, provide the evidence required to date many features earlier than cartographic sources can provide. There are many books and articles that provide a guide and background reading to this aspect of the study (Tate, 1960), Rogers and Rowley (1974), Aston and Rowley (1974), Taylor (1974), Emmison (1974), Brown (1987), Riden (1983), West (1982), plus Baker and Butlin (1973)). Additionally, Stuart (1992) was particularly useful for understanding manorial records and Watts (1975) for Northumberland in particular. Then some works contained useful glossaries, which were helpful when translating Latin documents, or with local terminology. For example, the glossaries in Surtees Society Volume CIII (Durham Cathedral Priory, 1900) and Stuart (1992), along with a useful old source Jacob’s (1729) *A New Legal Dictionary* which was very helpful by providing the meaning of some ancient manorial and legal terms.

Prudhoe and Bywell were both important medieval baronies with rich secular histories and together with the Ovingham parish administration records, this has resulted in a large number of documentary sources; not all of which were suitable, but many were appropriate after some lateral thinking. It proved impossible to check every reference to a document, or search for uncatalogued ones in all archives; and so, I have had to
concentrate on those sources which were most readily available, or the most important ones from archives which could not be regularly visited.

Among the documentary sources, those held at the Northumberland County Records Office (NRO) provided some of the most abundant and useful primary evidence. Other important sources included the Durham diocese archives kept by the Department of Palaeography and Diplomatic, Durham University, the libraries of Durham and Newcastle Universities, the Durham County Records Office and those for Tyne and Wear in Newcastle and Gateshead.

The most important single secondary source was the *Northumberland County History* (NCH), produced by the Northumberland County Records Commission between 1893 and 1940. They transcribed and published many documents of local historical importance, making the production of a *Victoria County History* for Northumberland unnecessary. Volume XII covering Ovingham parish was the most useful (Hope-Dodds, 1926), along with Volume VI on the two Bywell parishes (Hodgson, 1902).

These volumes, although invaluable, were not written with the landscape archaeologist in mind, and some times the data had to be looked at carefully. For example, occasionally, it was necessary to check some of the information in the NCH with their primary sources or from other primary translations. Generally, the information presented in the NCH was correct, but there are occasional mistakes or omissions, some of which are only of interest to the landscape or economic historian.

The various editions of the *Surtees Society* (SS), *Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries, Newcastle-upon-Tyne* (PSAN), and *Archaeologia Aeliana* (AA) also contain transcriptions and translations of many local documents.
Another very important primary source were the archives of the Percy family at Alnwick Castle, which contain records relating to the earls and dukes of Northumberland since the fourteenth century. Their long family history has produced vast quantities of estate material, some of which has been reproduced by the NCH, the Surtees Society, or other works, resulting in easy availability. However, the bulk of the Alnwick material is still unpublished, so it was necessary to visit this archive to view certain vital sources.

The most important material held in the Northumberland County Records Office relates to the Bell family, who ran a local surveying business in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; this is known as the Zan Bell Collection (Taylor, 1961). Thomas Bell had actively collected archival material, adding them to old family business papers and copies of plans that they had made for many local landholders, including the Duke of Northumberland. There is also another important collection of material, which relates to that part of the Bywell barony obtained by the Wrightson family in 1724 (the Battie-Wrightson Collection); it is held in county archives offices at Doncaster and Leeds. This collection contains most of the known surviving estate material, relating to Mickley and Eltringham, earlier than the late eighteenth century. Both these collections included a number of documents unrelated to maps or plans, which often provided useful information on the non-ducal estates in the study area. The Zan Bell Collection (Z/B) also includes copies of many of the documents contained within the Duke of Northumberland’s archives at Alnwick. Together, they provide some of the most important sources, forming the retrogressive link between the modern landscape and earlier periods.
A brief description of the different types of document consulted is given below, along with some of the uses and problems associated with each type when applied to a study such as this one (a calendar of documentary sources appears in Appendix 2).

**Post-Medieval Documents**

**Antiquarian Accounts, Contemporary Memoirs and Agricultural Histories**

The area of Hadrian’s Wall (immediately to the north of the study area) was visited by many of the great antiquarians, such as Leland, Camden and Horsley. Their accounts of the Roman frontier provide details, not only of the Roman works themselves, but also afford passing references to other features. Unfortunately, these descriptions show little interest in the area south of the River Tyne, and so were of no real use in this study.

One antiquarian source that comes close to the study area, is Maclauchlan’s (1852) memoir of his survey of Watling Street [Dere Street]. He provides a description of the Roman road, where it crosses the Derwent in the Newlands area (Map 1), a little to the south-west of the study area.

One useful eighteenth century source was the memoir of the wood-engraver Thomas Bewick (1753-1828), who was born at Cherryburn Cottage (Fig.3a, p.45). He dictated his memoir as an old man in the 1820s (Bain, 1979) and it provides a contemporary description of life in the study area, along with details of older practices that were still then in use. They suffer a little from family pretensions, but they do

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1 Now a museum next to Elrington House
provide a description of the *Mickley Common* area before its enclosure in 1816. Other aspects of his memoirs will be discussed in **Chapter 12**.

There are also a number of old agricultural histories for Northumberland (e.g. Bailey & Culley, 1805; Grey, 1841; Colbeck, 1848), most of which tell us more about the agriculture of the authors own time and the preceding century, than they do about earlier practices. The main purpose of these works was to show how agriculture within the county had improved from former practices and how new scientific methods could lead to further improvements. This would have had an influence on the major landowners of the area, as many of them were members of the Royal Agricultural Society.

**Tithe Schedules**

The old practice of paying the church a tithe, one tenth of all produce (crops, animals or industrial goods), had always been very unpopular (Hindle, 1988, p.56), and by 1835, many townships had already commuted land to the church in lieu of tithes.

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*Figure 3a: Cherryburn Cottage (T. Bewick)*

1 e.g. the Duke of Northumberland and William Wrightson (the owner of the Mickley estate)
As part of the process of commutation, many communities produced extensive surveys of their townships. The maps produced with these documents will be discussed in Chapter 8, but these and the accompanying schedules attached to them are extremely useful as a starting point for a retrogressive study. The tithe schedules covering the townships of Prudhoe (1843/9, NRO DT 385 M; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.160), Hedley (1843/5 NRO NB DT 231/2M) and Mickley (1842 NRO DT 318 M), give full details of landowners, tenants and property types. All the farms are listed, along with the extent of their lands, which can be identified on the map by a numbering system. They also frequently give details of the quantities of land used for arable, meadow/pasture and woodland, which give some idea of the relative importance of certain land-types at the time.

**Manorial Court Rolls**

Under the feudal system, each township was governed through a manorial court, which dealt with the management of the lord’s estates. A manor or barony could consist of a single township, a group of townships, or there could be more than one manor within a township. Neither did the bounds of a manor have to coincide with that of any one parish; which is certainly true with the townships studied here, all of which are within the same parish but form parts of two different baronies. The administration of the baronies of Prudhoe and Bywell are not well documented, but appear to have held the two standard types of English manorial court. Probably meeting every third week, was the *Court of Baron*, “... where unto all the suitors and freeholders are to appear...” (*Alnwick Mss.* A. ii, 8), to state the customs of the manor relating to land tenure, its use, and the enforcement of dues and services to the lord (Stuart, 1992, p.1). Then there was the *Court Leet*, or *view of frankpledge* (*Alnwick
Mss. A. ii, 8), which met twice a year, after Easter and Michaelmas, and dealt with law and order (Stuart, *ibid.*).

The records produced by these courts, along with other administrative and estate documents produced by the lord’s steward, or reeve, which can provide a great deal of detail on the tenantry and agricultural arrangements, and can reflect many of the earlier medieval arrangements.

**Estate Documents: Rentals, Accounts, Letters and Miscellanea**

These include a whole variety of documents, produced by large estates, such as annual accounts, rentals, leases, plan schedules, survey books, way-leaves, deeds, quitclaims, tree-feller accounts, repair accounts, letters and other miscellaneous documents. These compliment the cartographic evidence that increases in frequency from the sixteenth century onwards.

The early post-medieval estate accounts of the Percy family (James, 1955, p.9-27), are essentially similar to fifteenth century examples (to be discussed below); as are the rentals for all the studied townships (many of which are published in Hope-Dodds (1926)). These similarities are important, because they show that late medieval arrangements continued into the early post-medieval period, allowing the results to be compared.

Rentals are a list of the lord’s tenants in a settlement and are one of the best sources for recovering their number at a particular time. Along with their tenantry status, these lists can be used as a guide to the number of households, and the names of particular families can sometimes act as a guide to the existence of individual house
plots known from later evidence. They can also refer to individual landscape features like mills, quarries, coal mines, fisheries and woods, as this type of feature was normally leased or rented. For example, the earliest known direct reference to *Cherryburn Cottage* is from a Rental of 1706 (*Leeds BW/N/I1/6*).

When there are details of freeholders, as well as the lord’s tenants, rentals are probably the most reliable source of information on the number of farmholds a settlement had at a given time, although they do not give the exact population size of that settlement. Where there are a number of these documents, they can be used to monitor continuity or change within a township, as tenant numbers can be compared with the known size of the village at different times (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.103).

Details of particular features recovered from leases can be used to back-up much of the data recovered from the rentals. They give an idea of when the status of customary tenants changed from earlier systems to leases and changes in leasing policy. For example, by 1570, the customary tenants of Mickley had become leaseholders, called *tenants-by-indenture* (*K.R. Misc. Books* vol. xxxvii p.365; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.244). This coincides with the estate escheating to the Crown in 1568 (*ibid.*).

Letters can occasionally provide *terminus ante quem* and *terminus post quem* dates for particular features, or information on cultivation practices. One example in 1607, to the earl of Northumberland, discusses the state of *Prudhoe Castle Farm*, said to have “much barrey ground, the most part overgrown with rammel [scrub] and birkes [birch], which will be costly to destroy the rammel and saile the birkes” (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.120).
Estate surveys were usually cartographic, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, normally accompanied by a schedule listing the extent of individual tenant holdings, field-names, acreage, and often land value and use.

Additionally, numerous other miscellaneous estate documents are sometimes found hidden within larger groups. A good example of this is found within the rentals of the Battie-Wrightson Collection. It is entitled; "The proper having of the new enclosures of Mickley Fields" (Leeds BW/N/II/6) and is dated 1762. This is the only known evidence for the enclosure of the open-field system here and the areas discussed can be related to the leasehold farms on an estate map of 1787 (Z/B 11/4).

The only surviving direct evidence of the arrangements at Mickley before enclosure is a ‘Survey Book’ of two pages (Leeds BW.R.18.5), "A Note of the Quantity of Acres in Mickley Town Fields as by a Survey Taken thereof in August Ye 18-1724". It lists the main field groups and their acreage, but with no attached plan, it has been extremely difficult to relate this document to later cartographic evidence.

These post-medieval estate documents are one of the most important sources for furnishing details on the landscape of this period, but much of this evidence is difficult to relate to the overall scene, without the use of material from other sources.

**Crown and Estate Surveys**

Along with schedules attached to cartographic sources, the detailed crown and estate surveys, written in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, are probably the most valuable sources of topographic and economic information.
Crown surveys were generally of confiscated estates (escheated) and with private surveys of estates and manors, provide vital details for the reconstruction of land-use arrangements in the early modern landscape. The Crown surveys are housed in the PRO and private estate surveys can be found in both public and local archive collections.

Crown surveys were made of the study area, after the lands of Thomas Percy, Earl of Northumberland (baron of Prudhoe) and Charles Neville Earl of Westmoreland (baron of Bywell) were escheated, after their involvement in the 'Rising of the North', a Catholic revolt in 1569/70. The Crown survey of the Earl of Northumberland's properties (PRO E 164/38, p.215-221) contains only very general information and is of little use in landscape reconstruction (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.112). A survey made of the baronies of Bywell and Bolbec in 1570 (Hall and Homberston's Survey, PRO E164/37, King's Remembrancer: Misc. Books, Series I; Hodgson, 1902, p.82-4), contains brief details of the townships of Mickley and Eltringham, along with some references to the fisheries and woodland. This was followed by a more comprehensive survey of the baronies of Bywell and Bolbec in 1608 (Hagget and Warde, PRO LR2/223, Land Revenue Office Misc. Books, vol. xlii, p.42-163), containing details of the tenants, their customs, land values, woods and the salmon fisheries.

The earl of Northumberland estates were soon returned to the Percys, but the Neville lands remained with the Crown, who broke it up into various parcels (Hodgson, 1902, p.81), leading to the dispersal of any early estate documents. Soon after the ninth earl of Northumberland inherited his estates, a private survey of the barony of Prudhoe was commissioned in 1586. This survey held at Alnwick Castle, is one of the most
important documents relating to the study area and was carried out by William Stockdale (*Alnwick* Mss. A ii 8) and parts of it are published in Hope-Dodds (1926). The survey begins with a general description of the barony (its customs etc.) and a boundary description (bounder) of Prudhoe, Hedley and Hedley-Woodside. There is then a description of the woods and customary payments for grazing and wood collection rights, followed by a description of the castle and townships, including details of the demesne lands in the barony, field-names and their approximate size. It also includes a list of the tenants, their status and the acreage of their farms and values, etc. When using this survey alone, many of the topographic details from the Stockdale Survey are difficult to locate, but when the field-names can be related to later sources, it is possible to reconstruct most of the sixteenth century landscape of the Prudhoe barony. It is unfortunate that a similar level of information is not available for the barony of Bywell.

Later, another, more detailed survey of the barony of Prudhoe was carried out by William Mason between 1612 and 1623 (*Alnwick* Mss. A ii), this time accompanied by a series of maps by Robert Norton (*Alnwick* Mss. O viii, Chapter 8).

The beginning of the survey appears to be based on the Stockdale one, with similar details on the situation and customs of the barony, followed by updated information on the woods and coal mines, and a rewritten bounder. There then follows a more detailed description of all the land-holdings in Prudhoe, Hedley and Hedley-Woodside, both freehold as well as demesne land, down to individual strip-holdings in the open-fields, and house order in the village street. Land values are not given in this survey, but there is generally much more information on land-use than the earlier
survey. The field-names given in this survey are of topographical importance, and can be used to locate many of those and the farmholds described in earlier documents.

The details presented in the Mason Survey and the accompanying maps are so good, it is possible to tie it in with the Stockdale Survey and other documents, confirming that many of the landscape features were present in the mid sixteenth century or earlier. But like all historical documents, it must be remembered who the survey was for and its purpose. In this case it appears that the primary objective was to see what the exact situation was before putting forward enclosure propositions. A letter sent to the earl in 1622/3 from William Orde, tenant of Prudhoe Castle, seems to confirm this:

"... And albiet everie towne hath a peculiar and proper disease, yett in generall the lardgeness and great distance of their corne feildes and commons from the townes are the most effectuall cawes of their weakness th' one being thereby too chardgeable and costly to manuure, and the utmost parte of th' other eaten up and depastured on by neigbours adjoyning.

Therefore it would please your lordship give order to both theise inconevientes by debarring other men from th' eatage of your commons who have no right, which may be done by causring the tennantes to inclose the uttermost circit from others, or els to improve it for others, and to cause the corne feilds to be divided and inclosed, and the houses to be removed to the next places where their tillage shal be laied. So shall they make the full benefitt of their pasture and be inabled with less chadge to manuure the husbandrie" (Alnwick Mss. A viii 7; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.109-10).

There followed a series of negotiations with the freeholders in the 1650s regarding enclosure and engrossment (ibid., p.158-9), but because of the number of freeholders involved enclosure in Prudhoe was slow (ibid., p.159) and engrossment patchy. It was the nineteenth century before a farming system, as described by Orde, was achieved throughout the study area.
Turnpike Acts

From 1555, it was the responsibility of every parish to repair any major roads running through it (Albert, 1972 p.4, 8), but the state of maintenance was very variable and generally inadequate. From the late seventeenth century onwards a number of private trusts (‘Turnpike Trusts’), were set up through local acts of Parliament, which charged a toll for the use of their better maintained roadways.

The only turnpike road running through the study area is the modern A 695. The trust was set up after an act in 1777 (Journal of the House of Commons (Vol.36, p.512)), and runs between Gateshead and Hexham, along with a branch road “... from Mickley Bank [Branch End] to Lead Hill or Silver Hill” (ibid.).

The Turnpike Acts can provide some specific dates to individual roads (in their present form) and a relative date for any associated features (such as hedgerows along their length or cut by them). The act itself only tells us that an existing stretch of road needed improving, not the actual date at which any stretch was improved, and repairs and alterations could occur throughout the life of the trust (Hindle, 1993, p.107 & 109).

Enclosure Records

The record of enclosure for common open arable land, along with common pasture and wasteland, is very variable throughout Britain, and has been studied in detail by Gonner (1912), Tate (1967), and others. Within the study area, common arable land was enclosed piecemeal, by private agreement, and without any official act of Parliament; so there are few historical sources on this process available here. The
main documentary sources covering the enclosure of both *Prudhoe* and *Mickley Commons* is cartographic, and so they are dealt with under Chapter 8.

The enclosure of the open arable fields of Prudhoe has already been mentioned above (p.53) and occurred, piecemeal, by the engrossment and exchange of holdings, between circa.1650 and 1766 (Thompson plan Z/B 41/7). The large number of freeholders had probably complicated the situation at Prudhoe; so many features of the old landscape arrangements were preserved. At Hedley-on-the-Hill this was less of a problem and there were major changes to the landscape when the townfields were enclosed, in 1767/9 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.178; Alnwick Mss. A, ii 14c.). Hedley-Woodside also appears to have been enclosed at about the same time, with similar results. The enclosure of Mickley townfields (along with *Mickley East Moor*) has also been alluded to above (p.50).

The only areas of parliamentary enclosure were two large areas of common waste, *Prudhoe Rise Moor*, or *Fulcherside* in 1780 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.246-7) and *Mickley Common* in 1816 (Hodgson, 1902, p.166). The schedules attached to the enclosure plans give a list of the freeholders with rights to the commons and the quantity of their share; this supports the information given on the plans and is discussed below (Chapter 8).

**Wills and Inventories**

A study of the family history of farmers would appear to be of little relevance for a project such as this, but it became obvious that family histories could be used to trace the occupation of farmholds back in time, in a similar way to place- and field-names.
A number of sixteenth and seventeenth century wills were looked at that are housed in
the Department of Palaeography and Diplomatic in the University of Durham (see
Appendix 2). The Surtees Society had published some of these, but many were
transcribed from the originals, which were extremely difficult to read especially if
damaged and/or in Latin. The head of a household mainly made them on their
deathbed, or during an illness from which they might not recover (Gibson, 1974, xv).
Most were accompanied by an inventory, which are probably the most useful
document for recovering hard data on the agricultural economy, as they often list the
quantity, value and range of livestock kept and crops sown, or stored on the farm. The
wills themselves, are a good source of information as to the tenantry status of the
testator, and both may give topographical details, like field-names etc.

Besides the economic data obtained from the inventories (Table 8, Appendix 1), their
main importance was in providing terminus ante quem dates for certain farms by
name or implication, or to fill in gaps in the known occupation of others. For
example, the only pre-eighteenth century documentary evidence for Hallyards Farm
(Mickley) comes from the will of William Newton, who died in 1589 (Durham
Probate Index).

It is important with these documents to be aware of the competence of the appraisers
or possible omissions or biases (normally appraisers were friends or neighbours, who
might have a vested interest in undervaluing objects which might be used in
repayment of debts etc.). One also needs to be aware of the time of year when the
inventory was taken, as the types and quantities of crop or livestock listed varies with
the seasons.
Despite these limitations, a study of the details from a large number of wills and inventories can help determine regional variations in farming practices, in the early post-medieval period (Baker and Butlin, 1973, p.17).

**Medieval Documents**

Despite the apparent variety of medieval documents discussed below, Northumberland, in general, has fewer early documents than other parts of England. The shortage of documents reflects the stormy history of the region, not just the frequent Anglo-Scottish Wars, but earlier devastations by William the Conqueror and various Scandinavian incursions. This led to the destruction of documents, as well as property, or parts of the area not being recorded in the first place. For example, the *Domesday Book* (1086) does not cover Northumberland. Nor is the study area included in its nearest northern equivalent, the *Bolden Book* (1183), as this only records the bishop of Durham's holdings.

What medieval documents there are have generally been studied in secondary sources, such as the calendared versions of those in the Public Records Office, the *Northumberland County History*, or volumes of the Surtees Society, *Archaeologia Aeliana*, and the *Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries of Newcastle-upon-Tyne*.

**Close, Patent, Charter and Pipe Rolls**

The Public Record Office holds a number of original medieval Chancery documents, but few of these, even those relating to the study area, are of any use to the reconstruction of past landscapes. Only the calendared versions (PRO) were easily available and used.
Under the feudal system land was held directly from the king who granted most land and titles through letters Patent and Close ('open' and 'closed'). Within the study area the main references are concerned with the various grants of the manors of Prudhoe and Bywell, and contain little topographic detail in the calendared versions. There are some specific, often incidental references, including frequent mentions of the fishery (fish weir) in the Tyne between Ovingham and Prudhoe. This was one of several fisheries along the Tyne (Watts, 1988) as salmon was an important economic resource, and appears in both the Close and Patent Rolls between 1325 (19 Edw. memb. 34, p.387) and 1454 (Hen. VI memb. 3, p.215).

Charter Rolls contain copies of Royal Charters issued when granting land, titles, offices, or privileges. The Pipe Rolls are daily accounts of the royal officials with annual amounts paid to the royal treasury by county sheriffs. They contain little topographical detail but they can give an indication of the type of economy practised in an area (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.117-119). In this case, these proved to be of little value for this study.

**Inquisitions Post Mortem and Inquests Miscellaneous**

*Inquisitions Post Mortem* are descriptions of the holdings of the lord of a manor, or their widows, at the time of their death. The inquisitions were needed so that the king might know the extent and value of the land and manors, before deciding whether or not to re-grant the estate to the lord's heir. Where the heir was underage he would also have to decide who the guardian would be, as this could be of great political and economic value to the grantee. *Inquests Miscellaneous* were similar documents.
undertaken at different times other than death, such as when the heir came to age, or when a widow remarried.

The extents attached to these inquisitions can provide a detailed topographical description, useful for the reconstruction of the medieval landscape of the particular manors described. They can give details of the amount of arable, meadow, pasture and woodland, along with other features such as fisheries, dovecotes and mills, and types of tenure and services. These extents were not the accurate measured surveys found from the seventeenth century onwards, as they were based on information given by local testimony (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.27).

The original documents are held in the Public Records Office, but because (like all the medieval documents held there) they are difficult to read and translate by the uninitiated only the published abridged transcriptions have been consulted.

There are fourteen inquests recorded for the baronies of Prudhoe and Bywell in the published calendars. The inquest of Gilbert De Umfraville I, who died in 1245, is the earliest (c. Hen. III. file 3. (9); Inq. p. m., 29 Hen. III. No. 46), which fortunately has been published in full along with its extent (Bain, 1881, p.304-6). From this we are able to establish that there was already a park at Prudhoe (see Fig.3b p.60), two unnamed woods totalling 400 acres and pasture for 200 sheep. There is also a good deal of general information on the barony as a whole, regarding land tenure and value, as well as the mills, fisheries and brew-houses. From the inquest of John de Balliol, taken in 1268 (Bain, 1881, p.498-502; Inq. p. m., 53 Hen. III. No. 43) we have our first details of that barony. We find that Eltringham was held in drengage, an
Fig. 3b: Prudhoe Park & Eastwood Field in the early 17th century, based on Robert Norton's Map (Alnwick Mss 0 xviii) and Smith & Tolan-Smith (1997).
uncommon form of tenure dating from before the Norman Conquest of Scandinavian
origin. There is also the earliest description of Mickley;

“There are in demesne 105 acres, value of the acre 6d.; total 52s. 6d. Also of
meadow in demesne 4 acres, value of an acre 16d.; total, 5s. 4d. Also 9 bondi each
holding 24 acres, and paying yearly 6s.; total, 54s. Also 5 cottars each holding a
cottage with a curtilage, and paying yearly for everything 6s. 6d. Also from the
said vill for multure yearly, 11s. Also there are freeholders; viz., Adam de
Mickey holds one carucate of land, and pays yearly a pound of pepper, value 8d.
The same holds a toft in increase of his holding, and pays one pound of cumin,
value 1½d. He also holds one culture of 6 acres by himself, and pays yearly 12d.
Also Henry de Hauilton holds a carucate of land, and pays yearly one pound of
cumin, value 1½d. Also William son of Adam holds 40 acres, and pays yearly two
pounds of pepper, value 16d. Also Henry of the Butellary (de buceiller') holds 24
acres, and pays yearly one pound of cumin, value 1½d. Also William son of
Michael holds 12 acres and pays yearly one pound of pepper, value 8d. Also
Edemond de Byrteley holds 12 acres and pays yearly one pound of pepper, value
8d. Total of the vill, £6. 14s. 0½d." (Bain, 1881, p. 499).

Again there are many important factors here that will be discussed in Chapter 13.

Other Medieval Charters, Bounders and Abuttals

These are the charters for parcels of land granted by the lord of the manor, or
ecclesiastical bodies, generally as gifts to abbeys and priories, or as chantry chapel
foundations, and as exchanges between institutions. Bounders give a detailed
description of the boundaries of these grants, and abuttals give details of the position
of the particular holdings in relation to others in the township. These documents can
provide large quantities of topographic information, vital to the reconstruction of the
medieval landscape, but often with some ambiguity over the actual area being
described. This leads to difficulties when de-constructing the descriptions to recreate
the landscape at the time, often due to problems over local land measures and the way
in which it was measured. One of the most useful aspects of this group of documents
is the toponym evidence that they can produce. These can take a name back from a
known topographical position, into the dimmer past. These documents can also produce the best evidence for the past existence of open-field cultivation.

For the study area, there are a handful of surviving medieval charters, abuttals and bounders, published in transcript (and occasionally in translation) in volumes of the Surtees Society and the Northumberland County History, as well as within some of the Close and Patent Rolls. Most of these relate to gifts to Hexham Abbey, Durham Priory and Newminster Abbey, and where they can be related to later cartographic sources they are of great importance.

One of the most interesting charters is that of Adam of Mickley for his land in Hedley, which although undated was probably made between 1268 and 1296 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.168). This charter is given in full here, as it will be referred to frequently throughout the rest of this study; -

"Know men present and future, that I Adam of Mickley, have given, granted and by this my present charter confirmed to my son William, two tofts in the village of Carl Hedley [Hedley-on-the-Hill]. Actually that toft which a certain Richard Hirnyngs once held from me and that toft which David of Craucruke [Crawcrook] held from me and 24 acres of arable land and meadow in the field of that village, namely 7 acres lying towards that toft which Richard Hirnyngs held and 2 acres lying towards that toft which David held, and 6 acres in the Eastfield above Aquel ridings [Akewell Riding in 1613], and 6 acres in the New assart [New Close in 1613] and one piece/strip of meadow formerly ploughed on the west part of the way towards/against Mickley [probably Modigar's Lane], next to the fence/hedge that lies correctly between [northern/wooded?] croft and the meadow of the New assart, and all my meadow without restrictions in the western part of the New assart [stinted pasture in 1613] besides the piece/strip of Walter son of Nigel towards the west, namely one piece/strip between the meadow of the said Walter on the opposite side and the southern part abutting upon ...leche and the northern/wooded part above the hedge/fence and another piece/strip between the meadow of the said Walter on the east and the meadow of the blessed Mary [St. Mary's Meadow in 1613 and 1769], on the west and a third piece/strip between the meadow of the blessed Mary on the east and the meadow of Walter son of Nigel on the west. Thus I have granted to the same William the whole of my part of the waste of Eldeney and Gruduelstane and all the third
part belonging to me at Hedley Park, and all the part which I bought from Adam son of William of Heddeley; to be had held etc. ... named in my charter which I have from Lord Gilbert de Humfranville, Count of Angus, and not named to me either or my men of Hedley or by my tenements in the same, etc.” (Alnwick Mss. D, viii. a; Hope-Dodds, ibid.; translation by author and Martin Williams).

Another group of important documents includes several surviving versions of the bounder between Chopwell (Ryton parish) and Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; this is also the county boundary between Durham and Northumberland. These date between circa.1162-89 (Fowler, 1876, SS 66, p.45) and 1613 (Alnwick Mss. A. ii). There are minor variations, some of which are of importance, but generally they run like the following example from 1317 in the Newminster Abbey Chartulary; -

“Beginning where the Milkwellborn falls into the Derwent, and so ascending to the old ditch of Ravenside, and so from the corner of this ditch following another old ditch to the east by the eastern sheepfold of the abbot [of Newminster], and so descending by another stream called Wodechik to the Stokestile...” (Fowler, 1876, p.19).

There are obviously several factors of topographic, historic and economic importance in the above examples, and these will be discussed further in the appropriate chapters of Section Three.

Lay Subsidies

To help pay for their wars in France, kings Edward I and II, levied a tax called the Lay Subsidy from 1290 to 1332. In rural areas, this tax was usually based on 1/15th of the value of a person’s livestock and grain. Houses and land were normally exempt, as were people below a certain valuation threshold.

The resulting Lay Subsidy Rolls can be used to get an idea of the relative wealth of various people and townships listed, and of the number of households within them, in
the late thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries. But the Lay Subsidies have to be viewed with some caution, particularly as evasion was high. Also people who held land in more than one township might only appear on one list. For example, Adam of Mickley (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.243) is valued in 1296 for £3 16 s. 0 d. in Mickley (more than any other listed there), but is not listed for the same year in Hedley (ibid. p.169), where we have already seen he held land (p.61). Therefore, these lists only appear to give a minimum number of households (Wrathmell, 1975, p.27-8) and are no longer thought appropriate in deriving an estimate of the actual population (Smith & Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.58). Also, tax exempt persons were not recorded.

The first complete roll for Northumberland is the one for 1295-6 (PRO E179/158/1), but the transcripts published in Hope-Dodds (1926) and Frazer (1968) were actually used for this study. There is also a transcript of the 1336 roll (PRO E179/158/7) published in Hope-Dodds (ibid.).

When the values of the study area townships are compared with some of the surrounding ones, there appears to be considerable variations in value compared with the number of taxpayers listed. On average in 1296 people within this region were assessed to a value of between £1 10s. and £2 pounds each. But at Stocksfield (Bywell) three persons were valued at a total of £1 18s. 9d. (Frazer, 1968, p.14) and two in Apperley (Bywell) at £19 16s. 10d. (ibid., p.12-13); although in this later case, one was the town clerk of Newcastle-upon-Tyne and probably held additional lands elsewhere. There was no Lay Subsidy for Prudhoe in 1336 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.155), but the other townships of the study area record a slight fall in the number of taxable persons; though the relative wealth of those taxed had increased slightly on
average to around £2 each\(^1\). Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.117) discussing nearby Horsley township, also notes a fall in the number of taxable persons, and thinks that this was probably due to the effects of the Anglo-Scottish wars on the region. It also appears from her work (ibid.) and that of Hoskins (1957, p.16) in Leicestershire, that only 25% of the population were actually recorded, emphasising the unreliability of the Lay Subsidy Rolls as an estimate of population and the number of households in an individual settlement. Therefore, one of their best uses, is as an indicator of the presence or absence of certain individuals, or their families, which, with other data, might be used to take back individual households into this period.

**Estate Records: Rentals and Accounts**

The different types of medieval estate records are essentially similar to the post-medieval ones discussed above.

The medieval estate records of the barony of Bywell have been mostly lost, probably due to the mixed history of the barony after John Balliol became king of Scotland and the seizure his English estates by the Crown in 1293. Frequent subsequent re-granting and the division of the barony presumably led to the dispersal of other early documents. Besides details available from the *Inquisitions Post Mortem*, there are some brief details available on tenantry arrangements within Mickley and Eltringham from the *Feet of Fines*, of Durham and Northumberland (Newcastle-upon-Tyne Records Committee, 1931, p.48) and the *Book of Fees* or *Testa de Nevill* (*PRO* Part II 1242-1293 *HMSO* 1923). From the last source we learn that Adam de Eltringham held Eltringham for 16s. and Gilbert de Humframvill [*sic*] held Mickley in

\(^1\) Ignoring the possible effects of inflation etc.
maritagium (by marriage). In the latter case, it probably refers to the estate of Edgewell then part of Mickley, but later a detached part of Prudhoe Castle Township. One rare account survives from 1425-8, when Ralph Neville (2nd earl of Westmoreland, and heir of the barony of Bywell) was in his minority. At this time, the Bywell barony was in the custody of the bishop of Bath and Wells and the earl of Stafford (PRO Minister's Acts 1124/1,4 6Hen. VI). It lists only four messuages in Mickley, as well as two cottages, 80 acres of arable land, and 200 acres of wasteland and wood. Also, there was one cottage called Mynetreacres, with 60 acres of arable, and 40 acres of wasteland, moor and wood. The cottage of Mynetreacres is otherwise unknown, but may be another name for the Edgewell estate and the list may only cover the demesne land of Mickley. Contemporary estate details for the barony of Prudhoe are available from fifteenth century editions of the Percy Bailiff Rolls, discussed above. The ones covering Prudhoe and Hedley townships for the years 1471/2 are published in Hodgson (1921, SS 134, p.63-7). They cover details of income and expenses occurred by the relevant estate reeves for rents and leases of demesne land, woods, mills and orchards, along with other details such as pannage of pigs, holynfall and coal mines. Besides the value of these features, they can be used to date the existence, or otherwise, of other features, as well as families and field-names. This dating can be particularly precise, when a feature appears under the heading 'New Rent'. An early Prudhoe rental of 1434/5 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.155) lists the former free tenants and former tenants-at-will (customary tenants). One former tenant-at-will was Stephen de Clyston; the 1613 Mason Survey (Alnwick Mss. A ii) lists both Cliston Croft and Clistons Close, presumably named after the man, or his family, rather than being of topographic origin.
Early estate documents, such as these, therefore, provide one of the best pre-cartographic sources for information on the late medieval landscape, and allow the plotting of social and economic change (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.120), along with the topographic data discussed above.

**Other Miscellaneous Medieval Records**

There were a whole variety of other medieval sources consulted, some of which are discussed below.

Occasionally there can be references of topographical importance from legal documents, such as the Assize Rolls. For example, from the *Northumberland Pleas from De Banco Rolls* we have a series of references of interest regarding a legal dispute between Gilbert de Umfraville II (1245-1307) and Adam of Mickley (Thompson, 1950, p.79-116). In 1275, Adam accused Gilbert and others of taking his cattle wrongfully and withholding them from him. From a Patent Roll of 1276 (*PRO memb. 31 d. Ed.I. 1901, p.176*) we find some important additional detail;

"... on complaint by Adam of Mikeleye, that whereas Gilbert de Umframvill took his beasts divers times ... the said Gilbert removed them so that they could not be found, and also would not permit him to have his common of pasture in the woods of Prudehou and Hedleaye which he and his ancestors had been accustomed to have by reason of the land which Adam now holds in Mikeleye and Hedleye, caused unjust distraints and grievous amercements to be made against his farmers of Hedleye, until he extorted money from them, compelled Adam’s men to pay multure to him for his foreign [from outside the township] corn, and subtracted certain rights which Adam and his ancestors had in the wood of Hadleye."

Strangely, Adam withdrew his writ after being beaten up in Newcastle; possibly through fear of his life; this also about the time in which he made his charter quoted above (p.62).
From an Assize Roll of 1292-3 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.243) we find that, “Robert son of Thomas of Eltringham was cutting down a tree in the woods of Mikeleg hogh when the tree fell on him and crushed him so that he died three weeks afterwards. Verdict, misfortune”. This is the earliest specific mention of a named wood in Mickley, and is likely to relate to the two woods now known as Low and High Close Woods (Maps 1 & 5).

Other important incidental references can come from medieval chronicles and histories, such as from the Life of St. Goderic, Hermit of Finchale (Stevenson, 1845, SS 20, p.384) which contains a mention of a certain Ade [Ede] matron of Michelleie. This is supposedly the earliest historical reference to Mickley and dates from circa. 1190 or earlier.

Then from Jordan Fantosme’s Chronicle of the War between the English and the Scots, we have the earliest description of Prudhoe and its environs. In it he describes how King William the Lion of Scotland besieged Prudhoe Castle in 1173/4, then held by Odinel de Umfraville; -

“Prudhume.

1676 They will succour Prudhoe with their sharp swords.
1677 Three days lasted the siege, to my knowledge:
Odinel had many good men their within.
Against the Flemings they defended themselves bravely,
1680 They did not lose within, I assure you I do not lie,
As much as amounted to a silver denier;
But they lost their fields with all their corn,
(And) their gardens (were) ravaged by those bad people;
And he who could not do more injury, took it into his head
To bark apple trees: it was bad vengeance.
1693 Let us allow our Scots to waste the sea-coast,
Woe to them if they leave standing a house or church;
And we will allow the Galloway-men to go in another direction,
To kill the men in Odinel’s land:”
(Michel, 1834, SS 2, p.77)
Figure 3c: Prudhoe Castle in 1728 (artist unknown).
Even after making allowances for poetic license and the obviously bias of the work, the anecdotal nature of this section has a ring of truth about it. This also gives us documentary detail of the effects of devastation, which was probably one of the most important aspects of settlement re-foundation and re-planning in northern Britain (Roberts, 1992).

These examples show how it is important to look through a number of different documents in order to establish a fuller picture.

**Figure 3d: Prudhoe Castle, 1786 (Grimm)**

**DRAWINGS AND PAINTINGS**

Early pictorial evidence of the study area is extremely limited. Mostly it consist of a few drawings and paintings of Prudhoe Castle (copies of most of which appear in
Hope-Dodds (1926)). These include a pen and ink drawing by an unknown artist made in 1728 of the castle (Fig. 3c, p.69), showing the castle mill pond and a background landscape of the area to the north of the Tyne. There are also a series of pen and ink drawings done by S. H. Grimm in 1786 (N.R.O. (256) ZMD 163/7-8; M.542), showing various views of the castle (Figs.3d, p.70, 3e, p.71 & 3f, p.72).

One of these shows the castle from the south-west (Fig. 3e), from the (presumably) newly hedged turnpike road (now the A695); and another is from north of the Tyne showing the castle, and below it the castle farm (Fig. 3f).

Both reveal a predominately open countryside with some areas of enclosure, but it is difficult to tell if some of the open land is used for arable or whether it is mostly pasture. Some of the field boundaries are obviously hedged, but these appear to be older long established divisions of patchy overgrown hedges with some standard timber trees. Below and around the castle is an area of scrub pasture and trees and to
the east an area of woodland, which was presumably the area then known as Bog Wood (Map 5).

Among the wood engravings of Thomas Bewick are a few pictures of local interest, that are not of the castle. He was active in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, and made several vignettes of country-life in the Tyne Valley, most of which are non-specific and of little use. There is one vignette of children building a snowman outside Cherryburn Cottage, which shows part of the Eltringham countryside in the background (Fig. 3g, p. 73), the area between Mickley Common and Eltringham House Farm. There appears to be broad rig cultivation, which is normally thought of as being medieval in origin; but today, this area is under sheep pasture, with areas of faint narrow ridge and furrow, normally assumed to be post-medieval. It is possible that Bewick records an earlier medieval system which was replaced by
narrow rig soon afterwards, but it seems more likely that this was simply artistic
convention, used to in-fill large spaces in country scenes.

Some pictorial evidence can be a particularly unreliable record of a place, at a
particular time. There is one painting of Prudhoe Castle by William Turner, which
makes the area look like Rhineland Germany and is almost entirely useless from an
archaeological point of view.

It is important to look at pictorial evidence critically, to recognise the audience it was
aimed at and determine how much artistic license or artistic convention (for the media
and time in which the work was produced) was used.

**Problems with the use of Historic Documents and Pictures**

Many general and specific problems relating to historic documents and pictures have
already been discussed above.

The primary evidence produced by the Surtees Society, etc., has been invaluable, even
though there may be translation and/or transcription errors, and those that have been
published represent only a sample of those available in the main collections. For
example, only a few of the wills and inventories kept by the Dean and Chapter of Durham Cathedral have so far been published.

Another factor concerns tenantry and land ownership details on estate surveys and plans, which show a strange mixture of landowner, major tenants, and sub-tenants. For example, eighteenth century estate plans of Prudhoe show one freehold that belonged to the Eltringham family, who were in fact tenants of the Dean and Chapter of Durham Cathedral. The men held the land as both freeholders and leaseholders, and obviously held far more land than they could possibly farm by themselves. Unfortunately, the survey does not tell us who or how many sub-tenants there were, which makes true population estimates or farm numbers difficult to ascertain.

Probably one of the most serious problems is that of differing translations and interpretations. Unfortunately, this is not easily avoided, especially, as language and the meaning of specific words change with time, as well as our image of the past. Problems of this type, also arise, because much of the data has been assessed on a national or regional scale, and it is often only when looking at the local scale and a variety of sources, that a truer picture can be obtained.

The sources used in this chapter have hopefully shown the great variety of documentary material available for the reconstruction of land-use and topographical details. When used with the other types of data, to be discussed below, this not only creates a fuller picture of past landscapes, but historic documents can provide some of the best specific, and relative dating evidence, for relic features in the landscape.
Chapter Seven: - Place-names and Field-names

In the past, when most communities lived much more within their local landscape, it was important that its inhabitants could easily identify every part of it. This led to most topographical features being named, either by their use, shape, nature, relationship to other features, or because of some unusual feature. Nowadays, most people are only aware of a fraction of the former wealth of topographic names in their locality. Moreover, most farmers have dropped the use of field-names, beyond relative distances such as ‘near’ or ‘far’ field, with little distinction between which near or far field that might be! Then the easy availability of Ordnance Survey maps have also reduced the need for a verbal description of the landscape, as, along with written histories, they have fossilised many names in their nineteenth century form.

Place- and field-names were seen in Chapter 6 to occur in a variety of sources, including both state and manorial documents, estate surveys, tithe documents, enclosure awards, wills, inventories and letters, and from maps, plans and their accompanying schedules. A gazetteer of place- and field-names from the survey is presented in Appendix 3.

The main difference between place-names and field-names, is that place-names (which might be better described as ‘settlement-names’), tend to be the name by which a territorial area is known from outside its community, and field-names deal with how that community viewed the terrain it occupied. Experts often appear to treat place- and field-names separately, although in origin they are often similar.

Place-names dictionaries (such as Mawer (1920), Smith (1956), Ekwall (1960), Cameron (1961; 1963), Gelling (1978; 1979; 1988), Beckenstall (1975; 1992) and
Mills (1991)), tend to concentrate on the ethnic origins and, therefore, the potential foundation dates of settlements. In this way, all the township names within the study area appear to be Anglo-Saxon, implying an origin of that date. However, caution must be used when trying to further refine this broad date category, as opinions have varied with time and place, as to the relative ‘lateness’ or ‘earliness’ of name forms (Gelling, 1978, p.106-29; Roberts, 1992, p.20).

Despite this the -ingham element of Ovingham (Ovingeham 1238) and Eltringham (Heldringeham 1200) still appear to imply an ‘earlier’ Saxon origin (locally), but are no longer considered necessarily to be of the earliest Saxon settlers (Gelling, 1979, p.115). These are supposedly the ‘hamlets’ or ‘homesteads’ of Ofa’s and Aelshere’s people’ respectively. But the personal name element of Eltringham could have a Scandinavian origin (Mawer, 1921, p.20), and this combined with the same -ingham element, could indicate an Anglo-Scandinavian date, as it could be one of the so-called grimston hybrid names of the ninth to early eighth century (Morris, 1977, p.98, Watts, 1989). As was seen in the Inquisition Post Mortem of John de Balliol (p.59) in 1268 Eltringham was held in drengage, an old Anglo-Scandinavian type of tenure. This supports the idea of a possible Scandinavian origin to Eltringham, although most modern place-name authorities prefer a purely Anglo-Saxon one. Most of the other townships studied, Prudhoe (Prudho 1173), Hedley (Hedley 1242) and Mickley (Michelleie, 1190), are named after contemporary topographical features and are almost certainly secondary settlements to Ovingham (the parish centre). These appear to date from the ‘later’ Saxon or early medieval periods, of the eleventh to thirteenth centuries (Roberts, 1992). Prudhoe could have its origins as ‘*Prudha's Hoh*’, or

1 * Means that the name element does not actually occur in any contemporary sources.
more likely 'the proud (or bald) heugh', as Prudhoe Castle stands on a projecting heugh (spur) above the Tyne flood plain. In this part of the north-east, Hedley and Mickley are both examples of the most common single category of place-name. These are names ending with -ley from the OE leah an Anglo-Saxon name for a meadow or clearing (Gelling, 1978), although in areas where woodland was not common it appears that -ley names can actually indicate the existence of a wood (Rackham, 1986). In this case, the -ley place-names of the study area appear to imply woodland clearings, especially when all the others in the area are considered. Hedley is then the 'heathy (heather) clearing', Mickley the 'large clearing', as is Bradley (Ryton, Co. Durham). Additionally within the twin parishes of neighbouring Bywell there are the townships of Broomley ('broom clearing'), Hindley ('clearing where there was a female deer'), Apperley ('apple tree clearing') and Ridley ('the clearing from which the trees had been cleared (ridded)'); and then in Ovingham parish there is Horsley (the 'horse (pasture) clearing'). Gelling (1993, p.198), suggests that OE leah names were in use before A.D.730, but are far more common after this date.

The only known place-names of Celtic origin are the two main rivers. The Tyne is one of the numerous Celtic or pre-Celtic names for a river, and the Derwent (eighth century Deruuentionis fluvii) is supposedly the Celtic for a river where oak-trees grow abundantly (Mills, 1991). This lack of Celtic name survival, appears to be normal in this area, and is obviously of some significance, suggesting a lack of population continuity.

2 Although some authorities prefer 'Horsa's clearing', I think that this is unlikely considering that none of the others of this type, locally, appear to have personal name elements.
There appears to have been less attention to field-names, and those works that concentrate on them (like Beckenstall (1977) and Field (1972; 1990; 1993)) are therefore of great interest. Besides using the main place- and field-name dictionaries, field-name interpretation has been aided by the use of glossaries found in Volume CII of the Surtees Society and in *Agriculture and Country life in Northumberland; thirteenth- to twentieth-centuries* (NRO, 1968). These help with some of the local words arising in field-names, and I am grateful for the help received from Victor Watts in checking some of my interpretations.

Field-names generally have a topographic origin and from them it is possible to gain information on former land use practices, tenurial status and their relative location (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.33), as well as possible ethnic origins of those names. Field-names can change with time, as they were given by the people who lived and worked in their own contemporary landscape. They also provide a contemporary view of the landscape at the time when they were given and it is thought (Gelling, 1979, p.110) that where the majority of field-names in an area are of a similar ethnic origin, this probably indicates the ethnic origin of the settlers. Within the study area, the vast majority of field-names have an Old English origin, with no known Celtic ones, and only a few Scandinavian and French elements, most of which are terms probably introduced at a later date (such as *Intake* and *Close*).

One of the most important benefits of field-names is in the identification of former land use. Sometimes this land-use can be contemporary to the use of the name, or can indicate former land-use of an area from a time before. Examples of contemporary land-use include *Ponton Plane* (1613, *Hyons Wood*, Hedley; Map 10) and *Countess Plain* (1769, *West Ridding Wood*, Hedley; Maps 5 & 8), both of which indicate that
these parts of the wood were used as wood-pasture, rather than coppice (Chapter 10).

Whereas the names *The Spring* and *Spring Bank* (1787, *Hallyards Farm*, Mickley; Map 9), both indicate areas formerly of coppiced woodland, all now pasture.

In the Northeast, farms or fields including the word *riding* can indicate the former existence of woodland (or scrub on a common), as the term indicates areas that have been ‘ridded’ of trees or scrub (i.e. cleared, or *assarted*) from the common waste. These can often date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries (Lomas, 1992, p.157), such as Ridley Township (see above), but within the study area, the *More Ridding Field* in Hedley (1586, Stockdale Survey; see Map 12), is an *assart* which appears to date from after this.

Some names can undergo considerable changes with time, which can cause difficulties with their interpretation. For example, the field-name *Spetchells*, now associated with the large piles of calcareous waste, in Low Prudhoe (Maps 1, 8 & 11), might appear to indicate the former presence of an ancient meeting place, or ‘speech-hill’. But when the name and position are reviewed over time one sees that the name has been *Spetchinges* (1586), *The Spechess* (1607), *Spachins* (1619), *Spetchane* (1613/29), *Spetchells* (1693) and *Spetchels* (1766, 1839). This probably means a *spetch* a local term for a patch of rough scrubby ground (Victor Watts *pers. comm.*). Another example comes from the Hedley/Mickley township boundary. Here a track on the Hedley side of the boundary is called *Modigars Lane* (Maps 1 & 9) and would appear to be named after someone. But in 1816 (Mickley Common enclosure plan) it was known as *Linegars Loaning* [Lane], and a map of 1769 (Z/B 2/4), shows this area as “a scribe [a strip] of the *Morrow Grass*”. From a rental of 1676 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.174), we find a reference to this area as the “*Morry Grass*”, which was a small
parcel of common, bordering upon Mickley Common. These two examples show how it is important to look at early examples of a toponym to get a truer meaning. But, occasionally the reverse can be true; the area of Hedley East Field recorded as Aquel ridings in the late thirteenth century (Adam of Mickley’s charter, p.62) can be interpreted as the “North Riding”, but it is recorded as Akewell Riding in 1613 (Alnwick Mss. A ii; see Map 12) and Oakwell Riding by the eighteenth century Z/B 2/4), showing its probable true meaning. This shows the effects of local dialect as well as language development.

A common use of field-names is in the identification of former medieval open arable fields. The terms communi campo or communibus campis in Medieval Latin documents can indicate common open-fields, but campus on its own can mean an enclosure (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.33). Similarly, the term townfield, or common-field, is not always proof of open common arable fields.

The best indicators are certain elements like butt, dole, selion, furlong, shott, flatt, rigg, gore, which are normally associated with open-field cultivation, but some of these terms can have different origins. The term dole, or dale, for example, can also be applied to a woodland coppice compartment (Chapter 10). An example comes from Mickley, where in 1787 there were several dales to the north of the village (see Map 9) that may have been created by the enclosure of an open-field, or could have been separate ‘long tofts’ from the start (Chapter 14). It is important to seek as much evidence as possible for open-field cultivation, especially where no contemporary cartographic evidence exists. With Hedley and Mickley in the late eighteenth century, for example, there is a little surviving field-name evidence for the former extent of any open-field cultivation, but it can be confirmed in Hedley, because of the Mason
Survey (*Alnwick Mss. A ii*). For Mickley, there is direct evidence from references to its town-fields in 1724 (*Leeds BW + R.18.5*), and from some of its field-names (such as *West Field*, *Meadow Field*, *Upper Field*, *Long Lands*, *The Flatt* and variations on *The Acre*; see *Maps 8 & 9*). There are also references in the Surveys of 1570 (*PRO E164/37*, Hall and Homberston’s Survey, vol. i) and 1608 (*PRO LR2/223*, Hagget and Warde, Land Revenue Office Surveys vol. *lxli*) to some of these same field-names and/or to land being held in common. However, there is no certainty over former land-use arrangements here, and it is only by looking at the distribution of these names and other types of evidence that an attempt be made at the reconstruction of any open-field areas.

Named roads and tracks, like “lanes to Crawcrook and Prudhoe” (Mickley, 1803, *Z/B 11/5*) or *Spenstrete* (Hedley, 1312 (*SS LXVI*, p.51)), can show the relative importance of communities outside of their own (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.143). On the other hand, a road name can indicate its function, or the line of important route-ways. The *Lead Road* and *Lead Lane* (see *Maps 1 & 12*) are two good examples of this, being two routes of the ancient pack-horse way taking lead from the north Pennines to the Newcastle and Blaydon area since before 1160 (*Ledehepes way* (Fowler, 1876, p.45)).

The size and shape of a field can be indicated, along with the types of crops, or its relative fertility and other such factors. Examples include *The Bents* (Mickley, 1787; *Z/B 73/7*; see *Map 9*), indicating an area with bent grass (coarse pasture); plus numerous examples of *Great Field* and *Great Hill* in Prudhoe and Hedley-Woodside, which indicate the gravelly nature of the sub-soil, not their size. There are also several fields in these areas named the *Boggs* indicating locally wetter patches.
Features of archaeological interest can also be indicated. Such as the site of a medieval cross mentioned as a township boundary and route-way marker in Hedley (Crosse way Intake, 1613 (Alnwick Mss. A ii); see Map 12). Moreover, the term Chester can indicate Roman or Romano-British settlements (Gelling, 1978, p.151-3). Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.144) has shown with her study of Horsley and Harlow Hill, that this name can indicate such sites, three examples from her work being thonichester, High Chesters and Bowchester. Within this study area there are two examples of this term. The first in Hedley-Woodside is Chester Hills (1767, Z/B 30/2; see Maps 1 & 8) or the Chesters (1613 Alnwick Mss. A ii); this general area could have received its name because it over-looks Ebchester (County Durham), or after a possible former promontory fort identified on the nearby Ebchester Heugh (Robinson, 1892, p.214; see Chapter 15). The other example comes from Mickley, where a field named The Chesters (1803; Z/B 11/5) is now seen to lie within the area of a possible early enclosure (Chapter 14).

When the field-names of a particular area are available from a number of maps or documents, it can show how the land-use of that area has changed (or not), with time. Or when a land unit can be identified over a long period, it can be of vital importance in landscape reconstruction. The uses of this type of land-unit identification within this study are numerous and many more examples will be given in Section Three. Like St. Mary's Meadow and Akewell Riding, both appearing in the Mason Survey of 1613 (Alnwick Mss. A ii; see Map 12) and Adam of Mickley's charter of the late thirteenth century (Alnwick Mss. D, viii. 6a; see p.62).
Problems with toponyms

It is important not to use place- and field-names in isolation. As with historic documents, many of the dictionaries look at these names from a national perspective, and even county surveys will tend to base their work on evidence gained from non-local experts. When toponyms are used in conjunction with other historic and archaeological evidence, at the local level, it is often possible to recognise a truer meaning than that available to specialist detached from the local landscape, although it is imperative that their expert experience is borne in mind to avoid misinterpretation.

One has to be aware of spelling changes, which, as indicated above, can change the apparent meaning of the word. Generally, it is recommended that the earliest spelling is used, but this can be difficult when there are no field-names surviving from before the eighteenth century.

Particularly in more recent centuries, some fields became named after a local tenant or owner, especially where that field was farmed separately and some confusion can occur when their surnames happen to have a topographic or occupational derivation. One example is the field called Donkin Close (Eltringham, circa 1800, Z/B 3/2; see Map 9). A donkindale is a local term for an evening mist that rises in hollows, but the field is probably named after John Donkin of Eltringham (1730, NCH IV, Pedigree of the Bell family, Harlow-Hill).

This last example, again, shows how the most obvious interpretation is not always right, and of the care and research that is needed in using this type of evidence.

Finally, one must be careful over the implied ethnic origin, and any suggested settlement foundation date derived from place- and field-name evidence. This is
because, this evidence only provides a *terminus ante quem* for the territorial unit that they applied to and the population naming these features in all probability were taking over some pre-existing landscape features.

Therefore, unfortunately, a map based purely on either ethnically dated origins or land-use practices, derived from toponyms, does not present a picture of the landscape at any one particular period. This means that this type of evidence can not be used to form a complete picture of the landscape in a period before cartographic or historic data, but it can be used to support this evidence and helps to provide a partial view of earlier landscape arrangements.
Chapter Eight: - Cartographic Evidence

Cartographic sources can be used in the reconstruction of landscapes of all ages and are key to the understanding of village plans and field systems, by providing a bird’s eye view of the landscape (Roberts, 1990, p.5; Harley, 1964; 1972). Additionally, from the sixteenth century onwards, maps have been one of the best direct records of topographical change in Britain and are one of the most important sources of evidence for the reconstruction of earlier landscapes. However, it must be remembered that without other sources of evidence, only a partial picture of the past can be restored.

There have been a number of cartographic sources employed by this project¹, the most important of which have been the various editions of the Ordnance Survey maps, a series of early seventeenth century maps belonging to the Duke of Northumberland, the Tithe maps and various estate plans and sketch maps. Several works deal with the history and use of this type of evidence (Harley, 1964; 1972; Hindle, 1988; Smith, 1988), as well as a number of general works on landscape archaeology that cover their use (Baker & Butlin, 1973; Brown, 1987; Aston, 1985; Rackham, 1986; Roberts, 1987; 1990).

Omission and Transcription Errors

When looking at cartographic sources it is important to remember that it does not necessarily show the landscape exactly as it was at the time of the survey. One should be aware of whom the map was for and the personal bias of the surveyor. The absence of features on a particular map (such as boundaries or houses), that are present on older and younger sources can reveal some of these biases, but of course, the same applies to maps where there is no comparable

¹ Listed in Appendix 4
evidence available. No map can show every detail of the landscape and they will mainly depict those required by the commissioner or those of interest to the surveyor. It is important that this is remembered so that one does not try to extract information from a map that it does not contain (Hindle, 1988, p.9, 37).

In addition, transcription errors can occur at any point during surveying, drawing, copying, or can arise from the scales, survey techniques and reproduction types employed. And again one must be aware of the idiosyncrasies, deficiencies and even dishonesties of land surveyors and map makers (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.1). No maps are free from inaccuracies, even Ordnance Survey maps can have errors and omissions, and it must be accepted that errors are simply one of the inevitable hazards of cartography (Roberts, 1987, p.12). For example, a line representing a wall or hedge at a scale of 1:25,000 actually represents 0.75m on the ground (ibid. p.198).

**Small-Scale Maps**

Whitaker (1949) reviews a number of early County maps of Northumberland; these include maps by Saxton (1575/9), Speed (1610/23), Warburton (1716), and Bladesdale (1741/2). All these maps show little cartographic detail beyond the relative position of most (but not all), of the settlements in the study area, plus the Tyne and the county boundary, all with little accuracy. Armstrong’s map of Northumberland (1769) falls between the category of small- and large-scale maps, and depicts several named features from within the study area, including a number of farms and villages, along with some woods and watercourses. Most of the road network (and/or wagon-ways) depicted on this map do not appear to relate to other contemporary cartographic evidence. This casts some doubt on its reliability in areas where this contemporary data is lacking. It does however have the only known detail of buildings on **Prudhoe Moor**, which was still unenclosed at that time.

Most of the above maps are of little archaeological value to this study.
Large-Scale Maps

The only large-scale maps of any use have been those produced by the Ordnance Survey over the last 150 years. The 1:2,500 (25-inch to the mile) maps of the 1856 first edition are close enough in date to the Tithe maps to allow the double-checking of data, and provide the most accurate early survey of the area. These maps would have been excellent as the starting point for a retrogressive study of this area, but only cover the townships of Prudhoe, Prudhoe Castle and Eltringham. The second addition (surveyed in 1860, revised in 1895, and published in 1896/7) provides the first complete coverage of all the townships at this scale. This edition also includes field acreage (in decimal acres), and allows these acreages to be compared with earlier field size evidence. Together with the first edition, they constitute a highly detailed, accurate survey of the landscape in the nineteenth century. The field boundaries and field pattern depicted on these maps is essentially similar to those surviving today, wherever modern development has not obliterated them. They have therefore been used as the administrative basis for the Surface, Woodland, and Boundary Surveys (Appendices 5, 6, & 7).

There are also Ordnance Survey maps at a scale of 1:10,560 (6-inch to the mile), first produced around 1861, with a second edition in 1898 and a third edition in 1921. The main edition used for this survey was published in 1967. These omit some of the details of the 25-inch maps (including field numbers and sizes), but they do have contours on them, which are absent from the other maps (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.5).

The nineteenth and early twentieth century 6-inch maps are best used to date relict landscape features from those periods (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.125-6), such as mineral lines, open-cast quarries, mines, waste heaps and gravel pits, some of which are already difficult to distinguish from more ancient features (especially in woodland).
Roberts (1987, p.12), outlines the problems of reproducing detailed maps in a reasonable page format. A scale of 1:2,500, although ideal, is not a practical format for the large area covered by this study (around 30Km²), so map scales of 1:25,000 (2½-inch (1991)) and 1:10,560 (6-inch (1964-7)) have generally been used. I could not obtain the 1:10,000 metric maps (1980/1) for the southern half of this study area, at the time when needed, so only those from the northern half were consulted.

**Tithe Maps**

The maps accompanying the tithe apportionment schedules, discussed in Chapter 6, provide the earliest complete coverage of the study area at a scale large enough to be comparable with the early editions of the Ordnance Survey maps and eighteenth century estate plans. When used with the apportionment schedule, it forms one of the best starting points (when used with the early Ordnance Survey maps), for a retrogressive analysis such as this (see Map 7).

Each parish or township was covered by a large-scale map, with the appended apportionment, either by the Ordnance Survey or local surveyors, mostly at a scale of 12- or 25-inch to the mile (Hindle, 1988, p.58). They generally show a high degree of accuracy, though in some cases the map information and apportionment roll data differ for a particular parcel, partly due to a difference between the date of collection and survey (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.7).

The tithe maps undertaken of the study area (Prudhoe (NRO DT 385M, 1849), Prudhoe Castle (NRO DT 386, 1839), Mickley (NRO DT 318M, 1842), Eltringham (NRO Z/B 73/3, 1840), Hedley (NRO, 1845), Hedley-Woodside (NRO, 1842) and Dukeshagg (Z/B 73/2, 1840)), are not of a particularly high quality. The local surveyors (the Bell family) who carried out the work appeared to have copied much of the details from earlier plans that they had undertaken in the area. Only certain areas were updated, like village streets and buildings, which resulted in certain mistakes and omissions from some earlier estate plans being perpetuated. Particularly,
the Mickley tithe map appears to have repeated some omissions from a survey of 1787 (Z/B 11/4) and other parts of the map of are very slapdash. It is only by looking at other estate surveys and the Ordnance Survey maps that these mistakes can be identified.

**Enclosure Maps**

The pattern of enclosure in the study area has been discussed briefly above (Chapter 6). The only detailed enclosure plans were drawn up for the Parliamentary Enclosure Acts of Prudhoe Moor (Rise Moor/Fulcherside and High Riggs Common’s, Act 1780; plan 1778, NRO 691/61/29; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.246-7) and that of Mickley Common (Act 1817; plan 1812/16: NRO 2049/11; Hodgson, 1902, p.166). In both cases there is no real record of what the common land looked like before enclosure, as earlier estate plans generally left these areas blank. So, there is very little information of what features may have existed on these commons before enclosure, such as areas of scrub woodland or any boundaries. Both give details of the quantity of land allotted to the various freeholders, along with the distribution of the holdings. This information can be used to gain an idea of their grazing rights before enclosure. It was only at the time of enclosure that large parts of the township and parish boundaries were fixed to their present positions, as beforehand the commons had been areas of shared rough grazing.

One unanswered problem is whether the preserved plans actually represent the pattern of division finally implemented, or were there changes in boundary layout at the time of implementation? Theoretically, the Act should have been implemented as passed, but there are differences between the enclosure plans and other maps made soon afterwards, resulting from changes made by the farmers and landowners immediately after enclosure.

**Estate Maps and Surveys**

From the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries onwards, maps have formed the most common form of estate survey, replacing earlier written ones as an easier record of land ownership and of
tenantry status. This was especially true as more land became enclosed, leased, and sold, or where a plan was needed of new buildings, roads, settlements and collieries, etc. (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.11).

The various estate plans in the Zan Bell Collection (Z/B) have formed the basis of the reconstruction of much of the eighteenth and nineteenth century landscapes (along with one plan in the Battie-Wrightson Collection (Leeds BW Ma/36). Of these, some of the most useful are a series of plans carried out for the Duke of Northumberland by F Thompson, copies of which are contained in the Zan Bell Collection. They cover the townships of Prudhoe/Prudhoe Castle (1766, Z/B 41/7), Masters Close (1766, Z/B 9/14), Hedley (1769, Z/B 2/4) and Hedley-Woodside (1767, Z/B 30/2). They give us a contemporary view of most of the study area, with details of fields, farms, villages, woodland, roads and paths. These maps form a good basis for the appearance of the eighteenth century landscape in the area and, except for their lack of coverage of Mickley and Eltringham, they give us the best point on which to base the map used in Chapter 12.

The eighteenth century landscape of Mickley and Eltringham must be built-up from all the others small estate plans held in the Zan Bell Collection, filling in any gaps between the period of the tithe maps and the Thompson plans. These generally only show small parts of the landscape, such as individual farmholds, like Prudhoe's 12 acre farm in Mickley (undated, Z/B 11/13; Fig.6a). Alternatively, two plans of the East and West Farms in Mickley (Map 9), show how changes can occur in a short period (1803, Z/B 11/5; 1819, Z/B 11/14). Other plans only showed those parts of an estate that was being exchanged between two landowners. For example, that proposed in 1780 between the Duke of Northumberland and Joseph Bell of parts of their lands in Prudhoe (Z/B 41/9; Fig.8e-f). These only illustrate small parcels of land, which can be difficult to relate to other features without the use of more complete surveys.
The Thompson plans formed a useful link between those of the tithe period and the earliest maps of the study area, drawn in the early seventeenth century by Robert Norton, five of which are relevant to this study. They include two general surveys at an approximate scale of 1:14,000 and three large-scale surveys of Prudhoe Castle, the *Eastwood Field* (Fig.3b), Prudhoe (*Map 11*), and Hedley (*Map 12*) at an approximate scale of 1:4,000. The survey was carried out between 1610 and 1630 to accompany William Mason's Survey of the barony of Prudhoe (*Alnwick Mss. 0 xviii*). As such they can be used to locate on the ground most of the information from Mason's survey, except that the maps only shows land as belonging to the Duke or not. It is necessary to read the full details in the main survey to recover the actual extent of the individual leasehold and freehold farms, which give a fuller insight into the landscape arrangements at that time.

Considering their relatively early date, they are well drawn and accurate, and are enhanced by using colour and symbols to indicate land belonging to the Duke, unspecified freeholders and waste. Common arable land can be discerned by field and furlong names, and by the major strip-holding boundaries. They also indicate how the demesne land was used; A, for arable; P, for pasture; M, for meadow; W, and tree symbols, for woodland. Portions of a Maltese cross (to a maximum number of four whole crosses) were used to indicate the land quality of these areas; the lowest quality land having the least number of cross portions (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.11). Houses, coal-pits, streams, rivers, and millraces are also depicted, along with some roads and tracks, but only where they passed between major features. Some antiquities are also depicted, such as the *Hedley Cross*.

Unfortunately, these maps tell us little of the land-use of the freeholders in this area and even after plotting all the extra data from the Mason Survey, there are still patches where land-use is unknown. However, the survey does allow us to pinpoint the position of many of the field-
names given in contemporary and earlier documents. This reveals that several locations given in medieval sources were still in existence, and that the early seventeenth century landscape was still essentially medieval, making it easier to deconstruct this landscape back to an earlier one. It is a shame that this level of information was not available for the barony of Bywell, which had to be reconstructed from fragments of evidence from eighteenth century estate plans and documentary sources from the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries.

When individual maps are compared with each other and with the written Mason Survey it becomes obvious that the Norton maps were not all drawn at the same time, as there are frequent differences in the depictions. There is also a general decline in accuracy, with distance from Prudhoe Castle and Hedley village, partly because of the time element, but also I suspect because of a lack of interest by the surveyor and his client in these areas. The worst examples occur in the Hedley-Woodside area, much of which was either common waste, or temporary farmers intakes and it has proved extremely difficult to relate the features drawn to later cartographic evidence.

Maps of this early date and accuracy are obviously of great importance and, as such, have been used in several studies (Dendy, 1893; Batho, 1957; Butlin, 1967; Baker & Butlin, 1973; Beckensall, 1977; Roberts, 1987). The early estate maps of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, by Norton and others, such as Norden, Saxton, Symonson and Senior, generally arose from the desire of great landowners to have an accurate record of the extent, quality and modes of a tenure of their land (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.10). As was seen when discussing the Mason Survey previously (p.52), this was often in advance of proposed changes to the arrangements of the landscape and social systems recorded.
Limitations of Cartographic Evidence

Many of the limitations of cartographic evidence have already been covered, particularly under omission and transcription errors, but there are other factors still needing discussion. For example, the Zan Bell Collection has obviously been of great importance to this study, but much of the material is undated, and has to be related to other works within the collection. Sometimes this can give an exact date, but generally only relative dates can be obtained, via the names of tenants or the presence and absence of certain features (such as whether a common is enclosed or through the presence of the turnpike and railroad). These undated documents can be particularly annoying, because they are often important. For example, there is very little information available on the early appearance of Eltringham, and we have to rely upon the relative differences between the three undated plans of the estate, dating to the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries (circa. 1840, Z/B 73/3; circa. 1832, Z/B 3/4a; pre-1800, Z/B 3/2). Other undated maps can be seen to be part of a sequence of undated documents or are obviously copies of earlier works, because the paper often has a dated watermark.

The estate maps have probably provided the best information as to the appearance of the pre-Ordnance Survey landscape, but frequently lack the details of land-use, field boundaries and the distribution of holdings required by this project. Again, these plans were normally produced for quantitative valuation, before changes in these arrangements, or because of changes in estate ownership. For the project, this resulted in many of the required details being absent, or only obtainable via indirect evidence, such as field-names, or field size and shape. This is especially true for the areas of former common arable land not covered by the Norton maps.

Another problem already mentioned, regards maps drawn with proposed landscape changes, which might then have been altered or abandoned. For example, a plan of a proposed Tyne-Solway canal was drawn in 1796 (NRO QRUP 3), which would have run past the front of
Prudhoe Castle! Fortunately, this canal was never built, but the plan shows features along the route, including parts of Elteringham and this helps to date parts of this estate and the above mentioned maps. Related to this problem, is the unrevised use of earlier surveys, where despite changes to the landscape the surveyors decided to save the time and money involved with revision. This is particularly noticeable with the tithe map of Mickley, which clearly reused much of the data collected in a survey of 1787.

Conclusions

By applying a retrogressive approach to a series of maps it was possible to trace a number of features back through time, but this technique also revealed some of the problems in using cartographic evidence. For example, an early map may not show a particular boundary, which can be shown to have existed through fieldwork. There are also cases where retrogressive analysis can help explain other features. Such as two unlabelled water features on the Norton maps, only identifiable as millraces from eighteenth century plans.

Where cartographic evidence is particularly useful is in relation to the morphology of field and settlement patterns, as they can provide a visual representation of spatial relationships and tenurial units, but can convey little information on their function or genesis (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.16). Therefore, one of their most useful functions is that of raising questions and hypotheses that need to be tested and answered by other sources (ibid.)
Chapter Nine: - Aerial Photographs and Surface Survey

Aerial Photographs

With aerial photography, it is possible to view the landscape on a wide scale similar to cartographic sources and it is possible to recognise long-term, large-scale features not necessarily obvious from the ground. It is also possible to identify features that are no longer upstanding, through crop- or soil-marks, and the existence of slighted and minor features, which may not have been significant enough to be mapped. An aerial photograph is also an historic document; it preserves a 'snap-shot’ of the landscape at a particular point in time, showing far more detail than most maps, and generally without the interpretative biases of the cartographer.

There are two types of aerial photographs available to the landscape archaeologist. The first are those, normally oblique, photographs actually taken for archaeological purposes. These concentrate on individual historic features and their surroundings. Then there are those taken by other bodies and for other purposes, such as the RAF and local authorities. This second group of photos are normally taken vertically, at established mapping scales of 1:10560 and 1:10000, which allows the direct mapping of features onto the appropriate maps (with allowances for optical distortion).

Both vertical and oblique photographic sources were consulted to see if there were any unmapped features of archaeological importance observable within the study area. Those consulted are listed in Appendix 5; any features located by aerial photography are presented on Map 4. No new photographs were taken.

There are a few oblique, archaeological photographs available for consultation in the Department of Archaeology at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne.
surprisingly, these photographs tend to concentrate on Hadrian’s Wall and its immediate environs, but there are a few pictures of Prudhoe Castle from the air and one photograph of a small circular crop-mark feature to the north of High Mickley (NZ 081621, see Map 4 & Chapter 15).

Figure 4: - Landstat Image of the Study Area

A number of vertical aerial sources were also consulted at the R.C.H.M.(E) office in Newcastle. These included RAF photographs taken in 1947, 1958 and 1959, and some taken in 1971 for local government purposes. Also, there are a number of prints taken in 1968 and 1969 for British Coal. These had been at the Open Cast Executive, Newcastle, but have now been given to the appropriate county record offices. Some of those deposited at the Northumberland Records Office (Melton Park) were consulted, but at that time they had not been fully reorganised or catalogued.
Two other potential sources of aerial image became available just as this thesis neared completion. One is the *Millennium Map*, available from getmapping.com, and is a new ‘Domesday Survey’ of the whole of Great Britain. Unfortunately, the study area images still had not come online at the project’s completion. The other source is the Landstat satellite images of the area (Fig.4, p.100) now readily available for next to nothing from give-away sources such as the *Window on the UK 2000* (*Sunday Times* 9th April 2000/British National Space Centre (© Space Imaging 1999, © Euroimage 1999). Although this does not provide any high definition images of the study area, it does give an excellent overview of the whole area and shows the current land use strategies very clearly. An amazing factor of this image is the way in which the activities of individual farmers can be observed (e.g. the large arable block of *Mickley Grange Farm*; Maps 1 & 7), along with a number of individual features (such as the *Chester Hills* gravel pits and the county boundary; Maps 1 & 3).

Unfortunately, aerial photography was of limited use for this study. Unlike areas immediately to the north, in the area covered by Myra Tolan-Smith’s study (1995), air-photographs of the Prudhoe area have produced few crop- or soil-marks, partly due to the greater amount of urbanisation, industrialisation and the large pasture areas. For some reason, in the Prudhoe area, there is little of the broad, slightly curving, ridge-and-furrow thought to be of medieval date. Where it has survived, it appears mostly outside the main open-field areas of the townships (often in wooded areas). This appears to represent temporary arable expansion outside the main field-systems probably resulting from a period of population pressure, perhaps before the plagues and devastations of the mid-fourteenth century (Rackham, 1986). What the air-photographs do show well, is the distribution of straight and narrow, post-medieval
ridge-and-furrow. This is found mainly around the edges of earlier open-field areas, or on the former commons, enclosed in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century. Additionally, some of the early post World War II photographs reveals the poor state of woodland in this area as a result of wartime clear-feeling for pit props. Some of these photographs, covering the area of West Riding Wood (Map 5), reveal a series of small circular features scattered within it. These might be charcoal-burners platforms, from earlier centuries, but it is more likely that these are the sites of bonfires used for burning branches from the recently felled trees.

It was unfortunate that aerial photographs were unable to provide much useful information, but this emphasises the limitation of the technique, to mainly arable areas, or places where soil conditions, or later agricultural improvements have allowed earthwork features to survive.

**Surface Survey**

The term surface survey can be used to cover all the following chapters on non-invasive archaeological techniques. However, due to the specialist nature of those methods, this sub-chapter will only cover those archaeological features, upstanding in the landscape, which are not used as current field boundaries or within woodland. This leaves very few surviving features to describe. They are generally found in unploughed areas of permanent grazing, and include such features as areas of ridge-and-furrow, cultivation terraces and lynchets (without boundaries), wells, and disused unrecorded boundaries.

An attempt was made to visit all fields within the study area, partly to investigate current land-use practices (Map 3), and also to examine any archaeological features
identified from aerial photographs, or to locate any unknown earthworks, etc. The results of this work are depicted on Map 4, along with any crop- and soil-mark features observed in aerial photographs, and all features investigated are detailed in Appendix 5. All the fields listed were visited at least once, and some several times, under a number of differing conditions in order to make sense of features only clearly observable under certain conditions. For areas of pasture that is in the Winter to Spring, when the grass is short; as long grass can mask slight features, and reduce the visible contrast of certain features, such as ridge-and-furrow.

No measured survey was carried out of these features (although desirable), due to lack of time, and because the final presentation scale would not display this data adequately. For the same reasons, no geophysical surveying, or excavation, was carried out. These techniques may have been able to add detail, or new features, to certain areas, but are best used to answer particular questions later. Field numbers are taken from the 25” Ordnance Survey (2nd edition) 1896/7 (see Map 6).

There follows a brief discussion of some of the features investigated.

**Ridge-and-Furrow**

Ridge-and-furrow earthworks, provide the best physical evidence of past arable field distribution of the medieval and early modern periods. As stated above, there is little surviving ridge-and-furrow within the study area, although from the Mason Survey (Alnwick Mss. A.ii), and from some other sources, we know that a strip cultivation system had been used; so why is there so little surviving evidence?

The lack of surviving medieval, broad-rig, may be due to soil conditions; much of the core areas of the former open fields, appear to have been on either gravely sub-soils,
or where boulder clay depths were thin, or absent. It could be that these soils are too light to form high ridges, and/or post-seventeenth century agricultural practices, may have led to their destruction. Areas of post-medieval, narrow-rig, survive better, perhaps because they are more recent, but also because much of this is either on land with a heavier, boulder clay content, and/or areas of former common, only ploughed briefly (mostly during the Napoleonic Wars), before returning to rough pasture.

In most cases, what surviving ridge-and-furrow there is, respects field boundaries, whether they are post medieval or earlier; except for The Goas (field No. 168; Map 9) in Mickley, where the boundary respects an area of slighted ridge-and-furrow. Also in Mickley, to the north of the Stanley Burn/Hyons Wood area (Field No.'s 182 & 183; Map 6), areas of apparent broad, medieval, ridge-and-furrow (on aerial photographs), either respects or is respected by a nineteenth century hedge (Boundary No. 182/183). This actually appears to be some kind of field drainage system, feeding into a small reservoir, relating to the Hedley Colliery site.

Lynchets

Lynchets are an earthwork feature found on hill slopes, and are formed by ploughing action and soil-creep. The steeper the slope, or the longer the ploughing, the larger the lynchet-step becomes. Although individual lynchet banks are fairly common within the study area, the only known area where these form a distinctive lyncheted field-system, is to the north and west of High Mickley (Maps 4, 10, 13 & 14). Most of these lynchets have hedges on them (so are covered in Chapter 11), but the existence of those boundaries, which can be traced through woodland to those no longer used as boundaries, shows that this is all part of the same system.
House Tofts

There are remains of house tofts surviving in what was the south row of High Mickley (Map 4). These were abandoned sometime between 1787 (Z/B 11/4) and 1842 (NRO, Tithe map), and appear to have been cottage crofts, probably dating back to the Anglo-Norman period. This is an area, which may respond to more detailed archaeological work, in the future, such as excavation, or geophysics. As would the remains of Hyons Wood Farm (Hedley, Field No. 31; Maps 4, 7, 8, 10 & 12), that was abandoned after 1896, but dated back to at least 1586 (Ainwick Mss. A ii 8), and was probably originally the woodward’s house.

Although there is little to be said about this study aspect (due to the other chapters covering much of this subject), it was important that all parts of the area were examined, on the ground, as a means of getting to know the local countryside (pays). It was also important to do this in order to confirm some of the features identified from other sources, such as maps and aerial photographs. Therefore, despite the briefness of this section, it is still an important part of this study.

In particular, it must be remembered just how closely certain aspects of this chapter relate to others. The unhedged lynchets on the steep scarp slopes to the west of High Mickley (Map 4) are a good example of this, as they show that it is only because they are no longer used as a physical boundary that they are not classified as such. In the past obviously they would have been a physical, probably hedged boundary, but as the chapters in this section examine the archaeological data retrospectively, their current form is the one which affects their classification.
Chapter Ten: - Woodland Survey

This chapter extends into woodland, the area survey of the previous chapter, and acts to a certain extent as a precursor to the next on boundaries, as well as being a subject in its own right. This is because woodland archaeology was avoided in the last chapter, and much of the species data and boundary information in this chapter is relevant to the next.

For centuries, the Tyne and Derwent valleys have been famous for their woodlands (Bain, 1979; Tomlinson, 1898; Hope-Dodds, 1926) and the timber taken from them was considered to be of great importance. Even today, around 10% of the study area is still covered in woodland, scrub, or conifer plantations. Obviously, the history of this type of land-use is an important part of this study, but due to its large extent, it was impossible within the time constraints to make extensive measured woodland survey. Likewise, a detailed survey of woodland species types was impossible, for similar reasons, as well as questions as to how much information this gives us on past conditions in any wood. In addition, in this case, the scale of final presentation prevents the adequate display of any details of woodland species distribution, or features within a wood. Therefore, woodland survey has generally consisted of the identification and distribution of the main species and the location of woodland boundaries, within them and around them.

Woodland archaeology has in recent years become much more fashionable, but is still heavily influenced by the works of Oliver Rackham (1975; 1976; 1980; 1986; 1989 & 1997). Much of his work is based on his researches in Cambridgeshire and Essex, so

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1 Regional environmental historical data may be more appropriate.
it is good to see some specialist interest now being paid to the woodland of northern Britain (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995; unpublished Ph.D. of Tom Gledhill; Gulliver, 1995).

**Definitions**

Woodland itself can be defined as “... land on which trees have arisen naturally” (Rackham, 1986, p.64), but not necessarily as Rackham claims “... managed by the art of woodmanship to yield successive crops of produce in a perpetual succession” (ibid.). In Britain, woodland does not mean forest. There is nowhere within the country where natural woodland can be considered forest like those in Central Europe. The medieval Forests of Britain (such as the New Forest and Sherwood Forest) were legally defined areas within which Forest Law applied. These were Royal hunting reserves, and contained a mixture of land-use types and settlements. It is also important to consider the definition of ‘ancient woodland’. Popular media dealing with woodland, tends to suggest that every wood has been there forever (or at least since the end of the last ice age). However, those who make a proper study of this subject are far more aware of the fact that there is very little of this post-glacial ‘wildwood’ left surviving in the British Isles (Rackham, 1986; Gulliver, 1995). Even without human interference, the original post-glacial ‘wildwood’ would not now exist in its original form as change would have occurred due to natural vegetational changes over the millennia, caused by climatic variations (Willis, 1993; see also Chapter 5). Moreover, it is only via general regional pollen analysis that the long-term history of woodland can be perceived. So even when there is an allowance for this climatic change; there is probably little of the British Isles that has always been wooded since the last glaciation (known as primary woodland), or since before 4,000 BC (Gulliver, 1995, p170). The vast majority of apparently ‘ancient’ woodland is now proving to be
secondary, that is woods which have arisen on ground that at some point had been cleared of earlier woodland, and this could have happened at any time from prehistoric times onwards (Rackham, 1986, p.67). Ancient woodland is therefore a term of great ambiguity and is generally applied to any wood that has been around since at least medieval times (M. Tolan-Smith, *ibid.*), or can be proved to have existed in Tudor or Stuart times (Gulliver, 1995, p.176).

A difficult question, regarding the definition of woodland regards plantations. These can be considered as another cash crop like wheat, rape and even improved pasture (Rackham, 1986). The problem arises when conifer or deciduous timber plantations have been planted into areas of clear-felled, ancient woodland, and those areas of native conifers on areas of former open common land, which have probably been planted, but might possibly contain similar, naturally derived species\(^1\). Generally, unless specified, it will be naturally arisen woodland, rather than plantations, that this chapter will deal with.

**Woodland Management**

To some extent, in the past, virtually every stick of woodland within the British Isles would have been exploited for wood products; or cleared (either manually, by bad management, or through animal grazing) to prevent re-growth.

There are two main traditional ways of obtaining wood products from woodland, coppicing and timber trees.

Most native deciduous trees when cut down to ground level, and then allowed to regenerate, will naturally produce a number of new shoots from the tree stump. One

\(^1\) Both of which need to be considered locally.
or more of these shoots will take precedence over the others as the tree attempts to form a new trunk; this can result in a multi-stemmed tree. If this process is done deliberately, and repeated every few years, to produce additional new shoots, it is known as coppicing. This produces a crop of underwood products, such as poles, rods and branches, which can be used in the construction of minor buildings, tool and furniture parts, and other uses like firewood and fodder. With time if a tree is continually cut back it will form a low, multi-stemmed stump, known as a coppice stool.

The process of coppicing rejuvenates the tree every time it is cut, so coppice stools can be hundreds, if not thousands of years old. For example, small-leafed lime (*Tilia cordata*) trees in the Durham area have not been able to regenerate naturally from seed since the ‘climatic optimum’ of the 7th millennium b.p. (Rackham, *pers. comm.*). These trees must, therefore, have regenerated through vegetative means, coppicing being one of the most likely. When coppicing of an area ceases the natural ageing process starts again and a multi-trunked tree can be the result, or sometimes they can form a circle of trees when the old coppice stool has rotted away.

The actual management of a coppiced wood took some care. The clear felling of all timber trees from an area of woodland would result in a shortage of communal timber for many years, and most communities had a great demand for underwood in a variety of size and age. Therefore, coppiced woods were normally divided into a number of compartments (known as *hags*, *springs*, or *panels*), with a new compartment being cleared of most of its underwood each year. However, each compartment would contain some underwood re-growth of different sizes and age, with a number of
standard timber trees left to grow to a large size. Specific wood products could then be removed from individual compartments depending on the size of material required.

The other main woodland product was timber, which was used for planks and beams in major construction work, and was derived from trees that had been allowed to form a single straight trunk, these are known as timber trees or standards. Timber production became more important than underwood from the late sixteenth century onwards, as the demand for oak for shipbuilding increased. The woods of Chopwell (next-door to the study area) were a particularly valuable Crown resource for this purpose (Tomlinson, 1898). Sometimes woodland was clear-felled of all its timber trees\(^1\) and multi-stemmed re-growth of this type can often be difficult to distinguish from genuine old coppice stools. Nevertheless, generally, in northern Britain, if a multi-stemmed tree is an oak or birch, it is not likely to have been coppiced (Rackham, 1989, p.198).

The coppice-stool and standard-tree system only works where grazing animals are prevented from nibbling the young shoots from the stools\(^2\). Because of this, areas of coppiced woodland had to be fenced off from the attention of goats, sheep, cattle, pigs, deer and the like. As this was not an easy task, it could involve a number of specific features, which will be discussed below. Where the demand for grazing was so great, or the woodland was used as a deer park\(^1\), a wood-pasture system was employed. In this case the only way of obtaining timber and underwood products was by not cutting timber trees down to ground level; this is called pollarding. A pollard is in effect a coppice stool in the air, above the grazing height of animals (around 1.5 to

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\(^1\) As occurred to most of the woods in Northumberland during the two world wars.

\(^2\) Probably the way most woodland was actually cleared in antiquity, rather than fire, as most deciduous trees do not burn easily when still green.
2m depending on the type of animals kept). Pollarding creates a characteristic ‘lollipop’ shaped tree and was also used for trees outside woodland, allowing the production of timber and underwood from areas such as hedgerows and parkland. Pollards were also commonly used to define the legal boundary of a wood, so they can sometimes be found on the outer face of a woodbank (Rackham, 1986, p.67).

Old pollard trees have multiple branches, springing out from the same point above the ground, but ornamental trees are often treated in a similar way, leading to possible confusion over their original purpose. Single trunk trees can also lose the upper part of their stem by accident, and these too will produce a pollard-like tree. The timber from a pollarded tree was often of more value than that from a coppice-wood standard tree, as the boles of these trees often were used for specific building functions and joints (Rackham, 1986).

Woodland earthworks and former land-use indicators

Woodland was a valuable resource in the Middle Ages, so it needed guarding from theft as well as grazing animals. Therefore, coppiced woodland would normally have a hedged earth bank around it to keep grazing animals out of it; and sometimes a Woodward’s cottage. These woodbanks were generally raised from an external ditch, which in southern England, can be up to 20 to 40 feet wide. Ancient woods can frequently be identified from the existence of these banks, which often form sinuous curves around the wood defining an irregular shape (Rackham, 1980; Gulliver, 1995, p.180). Areas of wood-pasture, used as a deer park, often had a wooden fence (a pale) around them, and/or an earthen bank with the ditch on the inside designed to keep the deer in. Deer parks can often have a special earthwork feature in their boundary called

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1 Originally for hunting but later normally as a venison farm.
a deer-leap (see Maps 5, 8, 10 & 11). This is a break in the pale, with an area of low ground on the inside, which let wild deer in from the outside, while still making it difficult for deer on the inside to get out!

In some areas, a wood can employ a number of different systems, or combinations, which can change with time and local need. A wood that perhaps started as a purely coppiced one might have a formal woodbank with an external ditch. Later, grazing may have been allowed within certain parts, which required internal boundaries between areas of wood-pasture and coppice. Sometimes these boundaries can be major and permanent features similar to the external woodbank, in other cases they might be temporary divisions to keep animals out of recently coppiced areas. In other cases it might be possible to identify areas of wood-pasture within a wood by the occurrence of pollards in certain compartments, and likewise areas of coppicing from old stools. Woodland may preserve other management features, such as sawpits, and particularly in iron-working areas, charcoal burners platforms (Rackham, 1986).

Despite the fact that most woods are found in parts of a township which are of a low arable value¹, there are still periods in which population pressure might lead to areas of woodland being converted to arable land. These periods of ploughing within a wood were normally of short duration, and can be identified through the survival of boundaries and ridge-and-furrow within them; and may perhaps have obvious secondary woodland species over it (see p.118). Similarly, some areas within a wood may be cleared specifically to create new pasture, in which case there will be no timber trees, or coppice-stools surviving, and perhaps only an old boundary line to indicate its presence after it has regenerated.
Formerly wooded areas can also be identified from certain field-names, such as the use of the term -ley, Shaw, Stob, Assart, Intake and New, as well as terms like Hollies, Oaks, and Ox Close. The field-names coppice, copse, spring, and hag can refer specifically to coppiced areas, and the term plain or plane, to areas of wood-pasture, or areas of grazing between woods. Examples and limitations of this type of evidence were discussed in Chapter 7.

Besides field-names, former areas of woodland can also be recognised through the identification of relict wood boundaries and woodland indicator species in other boundaries (see Chapter 11 for former woodland indicators in hedgerows). This allows the identification of the former extent of woodland in an area.

As well as earthworks relating to woodland management or those that might show the former extent of woodland, within a wood there can also be older earthworks. Earthworks such as hill- or promontory-forts, Iron Age or Romano-British farmsteads, dyke- and field-systems, or barrows, can all be found within woods, features which may have been ploughed out or obscured outside. One example is the promontory fort identified by Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.98), in Horsley Wood, Northumberland. These features give us some of the best evidence for the actual age of a wood, often proving their secondary nature.

Other earthworks that can occur within a wood include features not related to woodland management or older land-use, the most common of which in Northumberland generally relate to its mining history, and include bell-pits, drift-mines, colliery remains, waste tips, wagon-ways, and other mineral-lines. Some of these features relate to early mining activities of some historic land-use importance to

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1 Which is normally why the area has been left as a wood (Rackham, 1989, p.190).
this study, but the majority of these features can be dated from cartographic evidence to within the last 150 years and are outside the interests of this project. The identification of recent relict features of this type can still be important as a means of preventing miss-interpretation of some features and can provide relative dating evidence for others.

Ponds and hollows are also often found within woods. These can be of great interest, as they can be all that remains of the original post-glacial land surface, and the wetness and unevenness of these hollow features are often another reason why the area has remained as woodland (Rackham, 1986). Woodland ponds can also be the source of pollen cores, which can be used to determine the environmental history of the wood, but not generally of the whole region as the bulk of the pollen would have come from within the trunk space of the surrounding wood (Turner & Kershaw, 1973).

**Woodland flora**

In addition to all the factors discussed above, another aspect of woodland archaeology needs to be looked at; that is the contribution a study of woodland flora can make to understanding its history.

A number of species are claimed to occur mainly in ancient woodland and others are said to indicate the type of management a wood has received. Some of these species are not found as far north as Northumberland, and many are grasses, mosses, or ferns, which require some expertise to identify, so have not been looked at in detail.

So-called woodland relic indicator species of ancient woodland (Peterken, 1974, p.239-45; Peterken & Game, 1984; Rackham, 1976, p.123-6; 1986, p.106-8; Gulliver,
are plants with particular environmental requirements, which are slow to colonise new areas, and are generally only found in woods that are at least 300-400 years old. These are shown in Table 1 (p.112).

Gulliver (1995) carried out a study of particular relevance to the woodland of northern England by examining 160 woods in north-east Yorkshire. Here he recorded the presence or absence of 35 herbaceous and 10 woody species, in order to identify indicator species considered to be found mainly in primary, ancient or recent woodland, etc. Although, his work was undertaken only two counties to the south, there are dramatic differences in species presence, due to climatic conditions. For example, only three or four of the trees and shrubs he studied occur naturally within the study area, and only one of these, wild crab apple (*Malus sylvestris*) may be of any significance. In addition, none of the key primary/ancient woodland indicators occurs within the Prudhoe area and many of the other indicator species are either too rare or difficult to recognise to have been of use to this study. Those possible indicator species that do occur within the study area, along with those identified by Oliver Rackham are shown in Table 1 (p.112) and discussed below when the fieldwork results are considered.

Other species considered to be phosphate lovers are said to indicate former habitation sites, but phosphate enrichment can also occur in woodland from grazing animals (Rackham, 1989, p.206). A lack of phosphate loving plants can be equally significant, possibly indicating areas that were formerly coppiced, as the removal of wood-products over the years has resulted in low nutrient quantities. Unfortunately, most modern woods are not managed according to medieval practices, and grazing animals
Table 1: - Ancient Woodland Indicator Species

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Name</th>
<th>Latin Name</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>In Study Area?</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bird cherry</td>
<td><em>Prunus padus</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>dogwood</td>
<td><em>Cornus sanguinea</em></td>
<td>P</td>
<td>A</td>
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<tr>
<td>elderberry</td>
<td><em>Sambucus nigra</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>field maple</td>
<td><em>Acer campestre</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>guelder rose</td>
<td><em>Viburnum opulus</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>hazel</td>
<td><em>Corylus avellana</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>native hybrid lime</td>
<td><em>Tilia cordata</em></td>
<td>P</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>small-leaved lime</td>
<td><em>Tilia cordata</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>spindle</td>
<td><em>Euonymus europaeus</em></td>
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<td>spurge laurel</td>
<td><em>Daphne laureola</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wild crab apple</td>
<td><em>Malus sylvestris</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wild privet</td>
<td><em>Ligustrum vulgare</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wild service tree</td>
<td><em>Sorbus torminalis</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>woodland hawthorn</td>
<td><em>Crataegus laevigata</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>barren strawberry</td>
<td><em>Potentilla sterilis</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>bluebell</td>
<td><em>Endymion nonscriptus</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>cow parsley</td>
<td><em>Anthriscus sylvestris</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>cuckoo pint</td>
<td><em>Arum maculatum</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>dog’s mercury</td>
<td><em>Mercurialis perennis</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>hedge garlic</td>
<td><em>Alliaria petiolata</em></td>
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<td>herb paris</td>
<td><em>Paris quadrifolia</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>ivy²</td>
<td><em>Hedera helix</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>oxlips</td>
<td><em>Primula elatior</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>primrose</td>
<td><em>Primula vulgaris</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>stinging nettle</td>
<td><em>Urtica sp.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wild garlic</td>
<td><em>Allium ursinum</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wood sorrel</td>
<td><em>Oxalis acetosella</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>wood anemone</td>
<td><em>Anemone nemorosa</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>woodruff</td>
<td><em>Galium odoratum</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*a* = Species only in woods over one hundred years old (Rackham, 1986, p.67, p.108).

*b* = Species said to indicate woodland that is more recent (ibid.).


*d* = Species that are phosphate lovers (ibid.; 1989, p.206).

*e* = Species in Gulliver (1995; * = Recorded but with mixed results; P = Thought to be an indicator of primary woodland; A = Indicator of ancient woodland; T = Transitional species; MC = Moderate coloniser sometimes in post-1850 woods; F = More common outside woods or in those post-dating 1850; I = Infrequent species strongly associated with ancient woodland; A = other ancient woodland indicators).

1. Possibly occurs in Plessey Woods (Northumberland).
2. Said to occur in Whittle Dene, Ovingham, nearest definite populations are found near Durham City.
3. But here probably results from garden escapees.
4. Seldom abundant in ancient woodland.
have found access to them, so phosphate quantities have been enriched.

A species still fairly common in Northumberland woodland is wych-elm (*Ulmus glabra*), which is a ‘normal’ tree, sprouting from the stump when it is cut down and commonly growing from seed, unlike most other elms which grow from suckers when cut down (Rackham, 1989, p.200). This species now seems to be suffering from a new strain of Dutch Elm Disease (Swan, 1993), and there are many dead trees in the *Ebchester Heugh* area (Map 5). Additionally, in Northumberland, large parts of many woods are dominated by birch (*Betula sp.*), which can generally be seen as an indicator of secondary re-growth. As does aspen (*Populus tremula*) where it occurs, and sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus*), all of which are good re-colonisers, especially of those woods that were clear-felled.

Other plants can be used as soil type indicators. For example, dog’s mercury grows best on moderately well drained soils that are not too acid (often suppressing other herbaceous species). Then rough-tufted grass (*Descampsia caespitosa*), violets (*Viola sp.*), and primroses (*Primula vulgaris*) are found in wet areas (Rackham, 1989, p.206). Brambles (*Rubus fruticosus*) are common in Northumberland woodland and predominate in areas of more acid soils with less shade, particularly in woods that have been clear-felled (Rackham, *ibid.); whereas, shady acid soils can have abundant growths of wood sorrel or primrose (Rackham, *ibid.*).

**Fieldwork in the Study Area**

As indicated above, the amount of woodland within the study area is quite considerable, which makes any in depth study of the whole a project in its own right. Nevertheless, the subject has been split into a number of different categories.
Appendix 6, lists all the woods studied and any relevant data recovered, and Map 5 shows all the different areas of existing and former named woods discussed below.

There are recognisable named areas of woodland (such as Hyons Wood (Hedley), or Priest Close Wood (Prudhoe)); which can be studied as single entities. Then there are generalised areas of woodland, with no particular name (such as the Eltringham Scar area), or with names depending on where you are within them (such as the area of woodland and plantations running along the south-west boundary of the study area, between Hedley, Hedley Woodside and Whittonstall). These areas are generally along steep dene sides or river bluffs. There are also a number of small woods, odd scrub areas, plantations and shelterbelts, which in some cases are remnants of former wooded areas, woodland re-growth, or colonised from other existing woods. In some cases, these latter areas may represent survivals of small copses on former open common land.

Woodland fieldwork was carried out at two levels. An initial reconnaissance level was carried out on all woods in the area to establish species range and suitability for further work. This was followed by some more detailed work within those woods that appeared to contain features of interest. An early attempt at detailed measured fieldwork was abandoned as I found that I literally could not see the wood for the trees. It was easier and quicker to sketch by eye features and species details onto a 25-inch to the mile scale map, guided by fixed features within the wood. When this information was reduced to 1:10,000, it was almost impossible to show any but the largest features; but these reconnaissance notes could form the basis of future detailed work.
Only four distinct woods were examined in detail: *Hyons Wood* (Hedley), *Priest Close Wood* (Prudhoe), and *Low Close* and *High Close Woods* (Mickley). Five other historically important woods, *Colliery Close Wood* (Mickley), *Broom Wood* (Mickley), *Horse Close Wood* (Prudhoe), *West Riding Wood* (Hedley) and *Beaumont Wood* (Eltringham), have either very limited woodland remnants, have been partly replaced with conifer plantations, and/or affected badly by modern developments. All these woods are now discussed in general below and some extra details are available in Appendix 6.

**Evidence of Woodland Management in the Study Area.**

Within the study area, evidence for former woodland management practices comes from a number of sources, from historical and cartographic sources (discussed previously), from physical remains, and from their floral content.

One feature frequently found in the woods listed above are old hazel coppice stools, which provide the best botanical evidence for the former existence of coppice management practices, or that the wood is ancient. In the north-east, hazel had commonly been cut as corfe-rods, used in the manufacture of coal carrying baskets in the local collieries. Coppice stools of other species seem to be rare or absent, possibly due to bad management over the last century or two, but also because corfe-rod production may have been continued until fairly recently and this would have encouraged the survival of hazel stools. Gulliver (1995, p.186) points out that genuine mixed species coppice was extremely rare in North Yorkshire and suggests that many of these were converted to timber tree regimes.
There is also some field-name evidence that coppicing took place locally; with the names *Spring* and *Spring Bank* in *High Close Wood* (Map 9) all thought to be late-medieval terms for coppice compartments (Tom Gledhill, *pers. comm.*). Pollarded trees are rare throughout the area and have mainly consisted of a few 200-year-old beech trees normally on the boundaries of woods or internal compartments. It could be that I have failed to recognise them, but it is more likely that most of any wood-pasture systems and hedgerow pollards are now removed, as most of the known wood-pasture areas are now under pasture.

Evidence of wood-pasture compartments within formal woodland also comes from other field-names, such as the term *plain* or *plane*, found within both *Hyons Wood* and *West Riding Wood* (Maps 5, 8 & 10). Rackham (1989, p.255) states that most plains are at least 400 years old and some are the sites of former coppices.

**Woodland Earthworks and Other Features**

The woods within the study area do not generally have the large distinctive woodbanks found in Southern England. For example, the former boundary of *Low* and *High Close Woods* (Maps 5, 7, 8, 9 & 10) is clear from historic and cartographic evidence. However, when this is examined on the ground it is seen to be far from substantial and varies from being a bank, to a lynchet, depending upon the topography of the surrounding ground. This appears to be typical of most ancient woods in this area. It might be that locally woodland was so common that it was not as strictly managed as in areas where its value was higher. Similarly, Gulliver (1995, p.186) found that woodbanks were uncommon in his study of woods in North Yorkshire and suggests that in the Middle ages they were surrounded by fences or by hedges.
At first it appeared that *Hyons Wood* had a woodbank, at least in places. Its eastern boundary (*Boundary No. 21-22/215-216; Map 6 & Appendix 7*) in particular, with a distinctive broad ditch and large internal bank, seemed to be a classic wood bank as illustrated by Oliver Rackham (1986; 1994, p.40), but the other sides are not so clear. The southern boundary is now outside the existing woodland area, and has a distinct lynchet falling down into the wood. Halfway along this is the site of *Hyons Wood House Farm*, abandoned now for about a hundred years, but dating from at least the sixteenth century (*1586 Alnwick Mss. A ii*), and was probably the woodward’s cottage. The north boundary is less clear, but parts of it fall as a lynchet into the *Stanley Burn*, but this could be a natural bluff as it extends outside the wood for some distance to the west. Similarly, the west boundary is unclear, but does appear to be defined by a small semi-natural dene with occasional bank sections both internal and external to it¹. In its modern form, *Priest Close Wood* (*Map 5*) also has a clear boundary ditch on its eastern edge, but like *Hyons Wood*, the rest of the boundaries are less formal. With this wood, *Low/High Close Wood*, and *Hyons Wood*, the most clearly defined boundaries occur on the wood edges facing onto open commons. Perhaps these more public areas were the only places where a clear division was needed.

There is only one official park within the study area, which is at Prudhoe (*Fig.3b, p.60*) and it has already been seen that this dates from before 1245 (p.59). The Norton Map of 1629 (*Alnwick Mss. O xviii*) depicts a park-pale around it and a map of 1826 (*Z/B 9/2*) clearly has a deer-leap marked at the park’s southern end. Despite this, there

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¹ See Chapter 14, it now seems that most of the boundary of *Hyons Wood* is made up of earlier or natural features.
is no other definite evidence of deer management and most of the records here relate to cattle grazing. For example, in 1405 there was a grant of six oxen from the park (Cal. Patent R. Hen. IV, Memb. 17, p.68). In addition, from the sixteenth century onwards (1586 Stockdale Survey, Alnwick Mss. A. ii 8) the park was always described as an area of wood and pasture. There is also a possibility that Low/High Close Wood was also laid out as a small park, as it is a similar shape to most medieval deer-parks and its boundary appears to have crossed parts of a pre-existing field-system in Mickley (Chapter 14). Unfortunately, there is no direct historical evidence for a park here and it may never of survived long enough as one to be included in the surviving medieval records. All those other areas within the study area called parks are generally a corruption of the word parrock or paddock (a pasture area) and can also be seen to be areas of wood-pasture.

Some of the best evidence that much of the current woodland is secondary comes from earthworks within the woods. For example, in Low Close Wood, there is an area of ridge-and-furrow (Map 4), now once more under a canopy dominated by birch (in this part). This area of cultivation probably occurred during the High Middle Ages before the effects of the plagues and wars of the later fourteenth century (Chapter 13), but there is evidence of much earlier clearances of woodland in this area. Such as a series of lyncheted boundaries, to the north of High Mickley, which can be traced into High Close Wood, proving that the area was once cleared of woodland, probably in late-prehistory or during the Romano-British period (see Chapters 11, 14 & 15). Environmental evidence (Chapter 13 & 14) suggests that this secondary re-growth occurred in the second half of the first millennium AD. Much of the woodland around
Prudhoe Castle and the steep gravel terrace bluffs there is also secondary, as it would not have been wooded as long as the castle maintained a military role.

Another feature which is probably older than much of Hyons Wood, are the remains of a boundary which appears to link the Milkwell Burn with part of the Ravenside Dyke, and the site of Hedley Cross, with Hyons Wood Farm (see Chapters 11 & 15, & Map 14). A similar boundary runs north from Hyons Wood/Low Ridding Wood to the Otter Burn, called at various times in the past the Horse Close or Edgewell Dyke. These potentially important features can be traced within Hyons Wood to a certain extent, but on the 1629 Norton plans the former boundary appears to coincide with the division between Hyons West and East Woods.

Locally within woods, there are a number of other identified features.

Much of the woodland is quite wet with streams, rills and boggy areas in most, but only three ponds have been identified. One is in Low Close Wood, forming a shallow, rectangular scoop, but there are no historic records to show how old it is (see Appendix 6). Another is definitely modern and was made by the local wildlife trust in Priest Close Wood, but it is either on or near the site of a possible medieval fishpond as the area was known as the Vivery in the seventeenth century (Alnwick Mss. A ii; see Chapter 13). There is also Fishpond Wood (Map 5), which can be seen from nineteenth century map evidence to have formed a feeding reservoir for Hedley-Woodside Mill.

Within the southern part of Hyons Wood are a number of small hollows, possibly shallow coal workings known as bell-pits, which could date from any time before the

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1 Similarly, Horsley Wood was divided in two by an equally ancient boundary (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997)
last century as they are unrecorded. And within Riding Low Wood (Map 5) is a well preserved section of the eighteenth century wagon-way, which ran from the collieries on Mickley East Moor, and was constructed sometime between 1766 (Leeds BW Ma/36) and 1787 (Z/B 11/4). This includes the remains of a considerable embankment (a ‘battery’) which crossed the Stanley Burn, along with another preserved to the north of Dukeshagg Wood (Bennett, et al., 1990, p.149; see Maps 4).

One feature that appears to be missing from the woodland here are charcoal-burning platforms. Their doubtful possibility within West Riding Wood has already been discussed above (p.98), but as they were supposed to be common within northern woodland (Crossley, 1990) this is surprising. Charcoal was burned as close to the coppice as possible and the sites of burning platforms along with the burners huts, have been identified in woods in the Lake District, the Furness fells and the Peak District (ibid. p.23). Within the study area it may be that I have failed to identify them or that they were uncommon due to more importance being attached to timber (for pit-props especially) in more recent centuries and (except in the Derwent Valley) no local iron industry. Another possibility is that the area of pitting mentioned within Hyons Wood is actually the remains of charcoal-burning pits, rather than bell-pits, as I have seen similar features in Hungarian woodland, which result from this practice.

**Woodland Flora Evidence**

Within the twentieth century the clear felling for pit props of most of the woods in this area has badly affected floral diversity. Priest Close Wood is a good example of this where there are few timber trees older than about fifty years and bramble forms an almost continuous under-blanket. What trees there are here are mostly oak, birch,
sycamore, and the only evidence that this wood may once have been coppiced comes from occasional surviving hazel bushes.

The only woods that still seem to have a rich ground flora are Low Close Wood, and parts of the area between Hyons Wood and Low Riding Wood (Appendix 6; Map 5). This latter area is of particular interest as it provides dated evidence that puts some of the theory on ancient woodland indicator species to the test. The eighteenth century wagon-way in this area has already been mentioned and it has since been colonised with birch, oak, mountain ash, holly and hawthorn, along with some herbaceous plants including bramble, wood-sorrel, bluebells, honeysuckle and various ferns. Another part of this area is described as being planted on a plan of 1781 (Z/B 41/19) and it contains oak, holly, mountain ash, honeysuckle, sycamore, birch, alder, dog's mercury, bluebells, wood sorrel, wild garlic and nettles. Some of the species in these areas are considered indicators of ancient woodland (Table 1, p.112), though birch can be an indicator of secondary woodland. Nearby, at the south end of the Mickley East Moor area, a patch of woodland (Field No. 9; Maps 5 & 6) has cartographic evidence suggesting that it was unwooded in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It contains a mix of gorse, dog rose, mountain ash, sallow (two species), hawthorn; oak, birch, honeysuckle, hazel, guelder rose and holly. However, this area forms a steep natural bluff falling into the Stanley Burn, so it is unlikely to have ever been under cultivation and the woodland here was probably ignored in the past, or may have been under pasture. Therefore, these three areas, along with some others, cast some doubt onto the reliability of some of these so-called ancient woodland indicator species. One explanation may be that these generally small areas of woodland were

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1 That appears to have escaped clear-felling
ignored or deliberately not recorded as they were probably part of the common waste, or had been recently cleared and have since regenerated. In this latter case some of the herbaceous flora could have survived a brief period out in the open or re-colonised these areas from other nearby woodland. As most of the research on indicator species was carried out in south-east England where light and temperature levels are higher, another possible explanation could be that the cooler temperatures and lower light levels of the North would be less restrictive to plants requiring cool shady conditions. This may encourage the survival of these plants in areas of former woodland or allow the faster re-colonisation of any new woodland.

**Conclusions**

The fieldwork evidence presented above, along with historical sources, reveals that much of the woodland within the study area is probably ancient. However, it is certain that its diversity has been heavily effected by human interference, particularly over the last 150 years by bad management. It is unlikely that any of these woods can be considered to be primary, except that many of them occupy steep deneside areas and scarp slopes (Gulliver, 1995, p.176-7) that have probably always had woodland on them, but will still have been affected by human actions such as woodland management.

Originally I had looked at the study area landscape as one that had been completely wooded in antiquity and that this had been largely cleared of woodland during the medieval and post-medieval periods. My research has revealed that much of the existing woodland is secondary and is younger than former field boundaries within it. In addition, as will be seen in the next chapter, many of the field boundaries outside of the wooded areas can be seen to contain woodland species (such as hazel, holly, and
guelder rose, see Chapter 11). These boundaries can be used to indicate the former extent of woodland in this area and can help to reveal a truer picture of what the landscape looked like in Saxon and Medieval times, along with identifying some even earlier features.

This work has also revealed some potential problems with accepted woodland archaeological theory, due to most of the research being carried out in Southern England. This is particularly true of the standard list of ancient woodland indicator species, which may be better colonisers and survivors in the cooler north. Further work within northern woodland may reveal more about the differences between north and south, and hopefully a clearer picture will emerge.
Chapter Eleven: - Boundary Dating and Analysis

The analysis of landscape boundaries, is one of the main areas of interest of this thesis, and the study of their form, botany, history, and physical relationship to each other, provided some of the best supporting evidence for reconstructing the past topographies presented in Section Three. In particular, it was hoped that fieldwork might identify any local feature types that could be used to date those parts of the landscape lacking historic and cartographic evidence.

There are not many works dealing specifically with this subject (Hooper, et al. 1971; Pollard, et al. 1974; Muir, & Muir, 1989), although the subject is covered in a number of general ones (Reece, 1983; Rackham, 1986; Roberts, 1987; 1990; 1993). However, most of these are concerned mainly with hedgerow species and dating theory, and the form or physical relationships of boundaries are generally neglected.

Hedgerow Dating

Background to the technique

Many field boundaries can be dated from cartographic and documentary sources; but this often only gives a terminus ante quem for the existence of a boundary and not necessarily its form. When Dr. Max Hooper (et al. 1971) proposed the idea that there was a direct connection between the number of woody tree and shrub species in a hedge and its age, it was thought that a simple way of dating boundaries and their related features had been found. This is often called the ‘Hooper Hedgerow Hypothesis’. He thought that with time, the original plants in a hedge would be supplemented by new species, through the natural process of woodland succession. Hooper found that by dividing a hedge into 30 yard stretches (stints) and then counting the number of woody species in each stretch, that the average number of
species in that hedge equalled the age of the hedge in centuries. This was later refined to $x = 110y + 30$, where $x$ is the age of the hedge in years and $y$ is the average number of species in a thirty yard stint (ibid. p.6).

Early on Hooper realised that things were not as simple as first seemed, so he only expected to use the method to distinguish hedges that were either Saxon, Tudor or eighteenth century; but did not expect to distinguish Georgian from Victorian ones (Pollard, et al. 1974, p.850). His initial results based on a sample of 227 hedges, from the counties of Devon, Kent, Huntingdonshire and Lincolnshire (Hooper, op cit. p.6; or Devon, Lincolnshire, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire and Northamptonshire, according to Pollard op cit. p.79), showed that different regions produced slightly different levels of deviation from the model. This was probably due to local variations in climate, soil type and differences in management, etc. (ibid. p.85). He saw that it was important to establish a local chronology, by surveying hedges of a known or implied date that would then give the correct formulae for that region.

It is thought that north of Derbyshire (Rackham, 1986, p.202) that the technique is of less value, because of harsher growing conditions and the smaller range of species available for colonisation. So one of the main objectives in basing the boundary survey of the Prudhoe area on this technique was to see if a local chronology could be established here, or whether the technique was indeed valid. Additionally, it would be possible to collect other types of boundary data at the same time, so that the different types of information could be compared with each other, or tested against other techniques of boundary dating.
The origins of hedges

The origins of hedges must be considered and Pollard (*et al.* 1974, p.86) points towards four ways in which a hedge may originate.

The first occurs when an area of woodland is *assarted* (cleared) to make new fields and thin strips of woodland are deliberately left between the fields to be managed as hedgerows; additional plants could then be added to fill any gaps. These hedges will naturally tend to have a high species count, including a number of woody and non-woody woodland relict species.

Secondly, some hedges will arise along a boundary simply through neglect, or time, as scrub growth begins the natural process of woodland succession.

Additionally, a hedge may be deliberately planted with a number of species, and in the days before plant nurseries, these would often be taken from woodland (Muir & Muir, 1989, p.138; Rackham, 1986, p.197).

Lastly, the hedge may have been planted with a single species, and later attained other species as part of the same process of natural woodland colonisation (*ibid.*), as above.

Of course any combination of the above four types of origin may also occur.

Benefits and criticisms of the hedge-dating technique

Right from the start the simple basic Hooper technique has been criticised and examined for flaws. For example, it was soon realised that proximity to woodland would increase the species count. Moreover, another major problem arises due to there being no agreed standard list of which trees and shrubs should be counted (Rackham, 1986, p.194). There is general agreement that under-shrubs, such as
bramble (*Rubus fruiticosa*), should not be used, although some studies have included it (e.g. M. Tolan-Smith, 1995), nor woody climbers like ivy (*Hedera helix*) and old-man’s-beard (*Clematis vitalba*). In this study, bramble has generally been recorded, but then any calculations were done with and without its inclusion. It is also suggested that finer taxonomic distinctions be ignored (like the differences between various East-Anglian elms). Rackham (*ibid. p.195*) does not explore this problem further, but does give a list of trees and shrubs for use in hedge dating. Some of these plants are not found in the Prudhoe area, so a further 11 woody species found in the region and thought suitable for counting are suggested (*Tables 2a & 2b*, p128-9).

Richard and Nina Muir thought that the Hooper technique does not work (*op cit. p.138*), because in the days before plant nurseries hedges were made by taking seedlings and saplings from local woods, gardens and existing hedges, and so would be mixed from the start. This would invalidate the dating theory as some mixed hedges continued to be planted until the end of the eighteenth century (*ibid.*).

Moreover, in recent years many garden and environmental schemes have used a variety of species from the start\(^1\); also garden escapees can invade many hedges. However this does not allow for the specific selection or rejection of certain species at the collection stage limiting the number of species in a new hedge, which would then experience the normal process of woodland succession. So rather than the succession progressing from 1 species upwards, it might start with perhaps three or four and increase in number from that point.

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\(^1\) Often a ‘pick-&-mix’ selection of plants are chosen from nursery lists that take an account of soil type but not a region's environmental history. Therefore, there is no thought as to whether a species occurs in the region naturally or not.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plant Type</th>
<th>Scientific Name</th>
<th>Indication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alder</td>
<td>Alnus glutinosa</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apple (including Crab)</td>
<td>Malus sylvatica</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>Fraxinus excelsior</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beech</td>
<td>Fagus sylvatica</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blackthorn</td>
<td>Prunus spinosa</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broom</td>
<td>Sarothamnus scoparius</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherry, Common</td>
<td>Prunus avium</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherry-Plum</td>
<td>Prunus cerasifera</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog Rose</td>
<td>Rosa canina, R. rubiginosa</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elder</td>
<td>Sambucus nigra</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elm: Wych</td>
<td>Ulmus glabra</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Elm</td>
<td>Ulmus procera</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furze/Gorse/Whin</td>
<td>Ulex europaeus</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guelder-Rose</td>
<td>Viburnum opulus</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawthorn/Quickthorn</td>
<td>Crataegus monogyna</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hazel</td>
<td>Corylus avellana</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holly</td>
<td>Ilex aquafolium</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hornbeam</td>
<td>Carpinus betulus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime: Common</td>
<td>Tilia X vulgaris</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-leaved Lime</td>
<td>Tilia cordata</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oak: English</td>
<td>Quercus robur</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sessile (including hybrids)</td>
<td>Quercus petraea</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plum (including Bullace)</td>
<td>Prunus domestica</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poplar: Aspen</td>
<td>Populus tremula</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Poplar</td>
<td>Populus nigra</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Poplar</td>
<td>Populus alba</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privet</td>
<td>Ligustrum vulgare</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowan</td>
<td>Sorbus aucuparia</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sallow</td>
<td>Salix caprea, S. cinerea</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scots Pine</td>
<td>Pinus sylvatica</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sycamore</td>
<td>Acer pseudoplatanus</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wayfaring-tree</td>
<td>Viburnum lantana</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitebeam</td>
<td>Sorbus aria</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willow: Crack</td>
<td>Salix fragilis</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Willow</td>
<td>Salix alba</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yew</td>
<td>Taxus baccata</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These species are mostly garden escapees, or have been deliberately planted.
# In this region, these trees have all been planted mainly within the last 250 years.
? These plants are probably garden escapees, but there is a possibility that they are native to the region.
@ Small-Leafed Lime is extremely rare in southern Northumberland, as it is at its extreme northern limit (see Chapter 5).
✓ Species actually noted during the survey.
Table 2b. Other trees and shrubs found in the Prudhoe area used by the author, for hedgerow dating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tree</th>
<th>Scientific Name</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birch</td>
<td><em>Betula pendula, B. pubescens</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bird-Cherry</td>
<td><em>Prunus padus</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black-Currant</td>
<td><em>Ribes nigra</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grey Poplar</td>
<td><em>Populus canescens</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gooseberry</td>
<td><em>Ribes ultra-crispa</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heather</td>
<td><em>Calluna vulgaris</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse Chestnut</td>
<td><em>Aesculus hippocastanum</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larch</td>
<td><em>Larix decidua</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raspberry</td>
<td><em>Rubus idaeus</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red-currant</td>
<td><em>Ribes sylvestre</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowberry</td>
<td><em>Symphoricarpus rivularis</em></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Muirs (*ibid.*) also point out that the species count can be depressed by certain invasive shrubs as they spread along the hedgerow (e.g. elm (*Ulmus sp.*), blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*), holly (*Ilex aquifolium*) and bird cherry (*Prunus padus*)). Rackham (*op cit.* p.199) also comments on the invasiveness of English elm in hedges, but this is so rare now in the north of England, that it is a factor of little importance to this survey. Moreover, bird cherry is rare in hedgerows here (but does occur in woods and on riverbanks), whereas holly and blackthorn are common, and can be seen to be invasive in places; so they could suppress the species count in these cases. Events in the local enclosure history can also cause the Hooper Hypothesis to fail (Rackham, 1986, p.200 & 202). Normally this arises when a few eighteenth century farmers chose to save money by taking plants from existing hedges and woodland; or the remnants of older hedge systems were incorporated into the new system.

An additional criticism is that the physical boundary type may be of more importance in trying to date local landscape development than the number of species in any hedge on it. For instance, it might be possible to identify a woodbank or a particular way of revetment construction, which could possibly be related to local field-boundaries of a known age (*ibid.* p.203, Roberts, 1990, p.11). In this way, the shape of a boundary
can sometimes reveal the age of that hedge, often with more certainly than the Hooper technique. Like the straightness of parliamentary enclosure hedges (which are generally of hawthorn, with a few early colonisers, such as elder, dog rose, bramble and sycamore (Muir & Muir, 1989, p.139)). In addition, since about AD 1700, most hedges have run straight; unlike early enclosure hedges, which are likely to be sinuous or irregular (Rackham, op cit. p.202). For example, hedges from pre-Parliamentary enclosure are very distinctive, and in many cases followed the boundaries of the old open-field divisions, and will therefore have the sinuous, reversed-S, shape of the field-strips (ibid. p.203). So even if the Hooper technique is found not to work (at least locally), the data collected is still of value for the discovery of relatively older hedges. Rackham (ibid. 202) points to some examples where statistically ancient hedges are indistinguishable from nineteenth century enclosure hedges, but these hedges can often be separated by the types of species that are found within them. At Neroche, for instance, elm and hazel are characteristic of old hedges, gorse is found in hedges of intermediate age, and sallow, privet and oak in hedges dating from after enclosure in 1833.

Another benefit of carrying out hedgerow analysis is that it can be used to locate the extent of former woodland, through the identification of so-called woodland relict species (the same as those listed in Table 1, p.112, for ancient woodland). Similarly, it might be possible to identify the extent of other former land-use types, for example, heathland possibly by the extent of heather, gorse and broom.

In addition some other observations have been made regarding species mix or hedgerow form, independent of the number of species in the boundary. For example, in many post-AD 1800 hedges the original line of hawthorn is still obvious; and
medieval hedges often have old pollarded trees or coppice-stools on them (Rackham, 1986, p.203). Most two species hedges consist of hawthorn with ash, oak, dog rose, or blackthorn, as they are good colonisers (ibid.). Moreover, Hazel and spindle are poor colonisers and are mainly found in hedges with at least six species, which are generally of pre-Tudor origin (ibid.). It has also been observed that nearly all hedges will contain hawthorn, except some very ancient mixed ones; and elder can occur in any hedge as it is a short-lived shrub and colonises easily (ibid.).

**Fieldwork Applications**

**Methodology and Analysis**

The boundary data collected by this survey are listed in Appendix 7, while Map 6 depicts the geographical distribution of this data. The numbers used to identify each individual boundary section, are based on the field numbers given on the 1896/7, 25” to the mile, Ordnance Survey maps. These field numbers represent areas on the ground and form a convenient unit by which to record the present and past topography. Each field generally has a number of boundaries, each of which adjoins other numbered areas of the landscape. An individual boundary of length $\chi$ relates to at least two numbered areas or fields and is made up of a number of sections, which only relate to two adjoining field areas; thus a reference number can be made-up from these field numbers. This avoids the problem of using long and complicated grid-references, and Brian Roberts employs this method for his own field surveys (Roberts, 1993, p.433).
Fieldwork used the basic Hooper Hypothesis collecting technique, although 36-pace/step stints were used\(^1\), rather than using 30-yard stints, as this meant that a tape measure was unnecessary; then within each stint the presence of all woody species was recorded. Another early alteration to the method employed was the collecting of additional information on boundary form (such as, the presence of walls, banks, ditches, revetments and lynches, their size, and their form of construction). In addition, information on the state of boundary management and hedgerow condition was collected, as this may have been of statistical importance. The collection of this additional data was heavily influenced by the ‘Great Hedge Survey’ of parish and township boundaries in County Durham, organised by Jennie Garrod in 1993/4. Her work on behalf of Durham County Council (Environment Department) is used as an aid to their management of hedgerows and walls in that county. The other effect her work had on mine was the adoption of an alpha/numerical key for the data collected in the field (see Appendix 7), although in practice it proved difficult to use her definitions, as many boundaries fell between categories.

At the same time, the adoption of a system that collected all relevant boundary data helped to circumvent a basic problem of the Hooper technique. Normally data is only collected from hedges that are in a good physical condition and many boundaries are ignored, because they have gaps or only have a fence or hedgerow remnant. By collecting data on form and condition it allowed an investigation of all boundaries. Another problem arose due to the above proposed level of detail, as it is time consuming and very tedious for many of the low species boundaries. This could have led to a survey based only on those hedges that appeared interesting. By adopting a

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\(^1\) Which approximated to 30m
system where the level of data collected was variable, it would allow a reasonable
amount of data to be collected from all the boundaries within an area. Detailed work
could be carried out on those hedgerows that needed it and a note could be made of
those consisting of only one or a few obvious species. This would also allow the
collection of reconnaissance data from a greater number of boundaries.

The first important step in discovering whether the Hooper Hypothesis worked within
the Prudhoe area was to try and establish a local hedgerow chronology (Hooper, et al.
1971). This was of such importance that most of the first season’s fieldwork
concentrated on collecting data from hedges of a known date or of likely antiquity,
along with some general area work to establish the range of species growing locally.
The establishment of such a chronology is not easy as the actual age of boundaries
older than cartographic evidence is hard to establish. Hoskins (1971, p.15) suggested
that county boundaries are some of the earliest lines of demarcation that can be dated
with any certainty. Although these boundaries usually consist mostly of natural
features (such as rivers and streams) there are areas where they have to cross-
watersheds etc. and artificial boundaries had to be established. Similarly, parish and
township boundaries are often of great antiquity, or can be often dated fairly precisely
if of more recent date. One problem here directly relating to the Hooper Hypothesis is
that many of these boundaries are over 1,100 years old and this appears to be beyond
the age limits of the technique. Hoskins (1971, p.15-19) pointed to a number of
dating sources for boundaries, including charters, place-names and early estate maps,
but many of these sources only give a relative date or a terminus ante quem and not
the original date of construction. With many modern boundaries¹ the problem does

¹ Especially those under two or three hundred years old
not exist, as it is often possible (via the sources listed above) to date their construction to within a decade or so, but this does not normally tell us when or whether a hedgerow existed on it! The case of the county boundary between Northumberland and County Durham, the Ovingham parish boundary and those of the townships within them, are detailed within Chapters 14 and 15, but it is impossible to establish the precise date of many of them. Saying this there are many minor boundaries within the study area whose date can be established, especially those appearing on cartographic sources, but one must remember the deficiencies, errors and omissions, which many of the pre-Ordnance Survey maps may contain (see Chapter 8). In addition, many of these, if of any antiquity, are often semi-natural features, woodbanks, within woods, or had formerly been within woodland. This obviously negates the Hooper Hypothesis as they either had a high number of species to start with or have a greater access to new species from adjoining woodland areas.

One of the few datable largely non-woodland boundaries to be identified, was the line of the former Prudhoe Park pale (Fig.3b, p.60). The Norton plan (1629 Alnwick Mss. O xviii) of the area depicts the park boundary as a series of wooden posts (the pale), and if this was the actual form of the boundary (and not cartographic convention) any hedge along this boundary can be assumed to be later. The map also shows the park-pale cutting across a number of other boundaries, which are presumably of an earlier date. The Park itself was probably created a little before AD 1245 (p.59), so the boundaries it crossed can be assumed to be of an even earlier date. Unfortunately, the Low Prudhoe/Prudhoe Park area has been subjected to more modern development than almost any other part of the study area. This has resulted in the destruction or
modernisation of nearly every scrap of the former park boundary and any earlier non-natural boundaries it crossed.

Another very important factor that seriously effects the recovery of boundary data is the way in which many older boundaries have been re-aligned, re-planted, have lost hedgerow density through bad maintenance, or been replaced with a barbed-wire fence; all factors leading to the suppression of species number. In many cases boundaries which are known to be ancient had a low species count or have a mixture of high and low species stints along them (lowering the overall average). This has also happened to old boundaries that have been straightened. All these processes, plus ploughing and soil-creep, can also slightly shift the position of a boundary with time, which often results in a patchy mixed density hedge or one with a low number of species. Also a boundary does not need to have any physical form at all as long as those who know of its existence respect it.

After a number of boundaries that had a known or approximate date had been surveyed an attempt at a local chronology was made against which hedgerow theory could be tested (Pollard, 1974; Rackham, 1986 p.194). The results of this were unlikely to be precise due to the factors outlined above. In addition, Hooper (1971, p.6) noted in his chronologies variation in a range of around 200 years either side of the exact date for hedges aged about 1,000 years old. For this reason a number of different chronologies were attempted from the survey data based on the average, estimated and total number of species (Figs. 5a-d, p.141-2). One is based on data from hedges whose date can be fixed fairly precisely, or their creation date can be implied from their relationship to other features. Another chronology used the same data, but added data from those boundaries where a *terminus ante quem*, was
available. Some of these boundaries may be a lot older than their earliest known date, and they should, theoretically, have a higher number of species than a hedge planted at that date (an estimate of their actual date could be applied to the same chronology). It is also important to note here that there appeared to be little difference between those hedges where an average number of species was worked out according to the Hooper techniques, and those which had only been subjected to a reconnaissance level of collection. This was proved in the cases of those that were surveyed more than once, and by the two methods. It was also found that generally the time of year the data was collected made little difference to the species recorded, except that those less common flowering plants (such as crab apple and cherries) were recorded more frequently when in flower (due to increased visibility).

Therefore, if a direct link between age and the number of species found in a hedge is assumed, one could try to use hedgerow data to construct aspects of the landscape history. Hooper (op cit. p.8) and others (e.g. Rackham, 1986, p.196), using this assumption have produced graphs based on the percentage of hedges of a particular number of species. However, this only gives information on the frequency of plant species and how they relate to each other in various plant communities. It does not actually tell us the age of these hedgerows. In addition, these graphs only have any validity if every hedge within a survey area has been examined. Where there is not complete coverage or a carefully controlled sample, all these graphs may be showing is the frequency of hedges of a particular species count visited by the collators\(^1\). This is another reason for adopting a collecting policy that records data from as many hedges as possible.

\(^1\) There is a natural desire to survey hedges that are obviously going to be more interesting.
Pollard, et al. (1974, p. 100) produced similar graphs, which suffered from the same sampling problems. These looked at the data for individual species and the number of species in a hedge as an (assumed) indication of age compared with the percentage frequency of that species in the hedges surveyed. These diagrams were produced to counter a theoretical objection to the hedgerow-dating hypothesis (ibid. p. 99). He suggested that if individual species were colonising hedges at a consistent rate then the addition of new species to a hedge would decline as the proportion of hedges occupied increases. Although this is true of the overall picture, what was important was that he showed that some species have an inability to colonise newer hedges, where growing conditions were presumably unsuitable (e.g. too much light and/or not enough shelter, as most of these species were woodland plants).

Other Methods of Establishing the Age of Boundaries

As seen above, the establishment of the age of many field boundaries is not at all easy; a better estimate of the true age of the origin of a boundary (with or without a hedgerow) can often only be derived after further fieldwork and/or from cartographic and documentary analysis. Not forgetting the sampling problems outlined above, it was important that the Prudhoe survey data was checked against other methods or data types to test the Hooper Hypothesis and to enhance the chances of an historical correlation.

An extensive early attempt was made to check the data using a local, theoretical, chronology based on the T-junction Rule, that is where one boundary adjoins another the cross of the T is older than the stem\(^1\). Using the T-junction Rule, an attempt was made to construct a Harris Matrix as a relative chronology onto which precise dates

\(^1\) I do not know the origin of this method, but Dr. Christopher Tolan-Smith introduced this idea to me.
and other data from the hedgerow survey (both botanical and physical) could be added. I hoped that this would provide an independent means of checking whether the Hooper technique worked in this area or possible reveal another method of dating boundaries. I also thought that the sampling errors and other factors suggested above would not heavily affect this method and the effects of woodland proximity could be directly shown on species distribution. Unfortunately, even with the use of a computer program to construct the matrices, it proved far too complex a task to cope with all the T-junction relationships from even a small area. A major problem, when using the Ordnance Survey 25" to the mile maps (1st and 2nd editions), was that there were often cases where the relationships of the area tested, as a whole, did not work out. Using the T-junction Rule, it was impossible to distinguish the correct relationship of many boundaries, presumably because in these cases the real relationship was not as appeared. It became obvious that in order to correctly identify the chronological relationship of these boundaries; earlier cartographic evidence was needed. Of course the same relationship problems would certainly occur when using these sources. Even if there were yet earlier sources available this would defeat the object of using the hedgerow data to recreate early landscapes in the first place.

Finally, as the survey continued, it became increasingly obvious that the overall pattern of species distribution and boundary form may have a greater significance to the recovery of historical information, than the number of species within any individual hedge. In particular, the distribution of species thought to be woodland relic indicators (particularly holly and hazel) were plotted. This revealed that there was a relationship between the occurrence of these species and proximity to existing

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1 Boundary shifting via ploughing and soil creep was a major factor effecting this.
woodland, and that they often occurred in hedges with species counts greater than four. However, they were often also found in low species hedges (especially holly) and in some cases these hedges revealed a shadow left on the landscape showing the extent of former woodland. As the modern extent of woodland has changed little since the late eighteenth century this woodland clearance must have occurred before then. Some examples are presented in the result section below.

Results

We have already seen some of the survey results above and certain details regarding specific boundary types are covered in other parts of this thesis (such as Township Boundaries, Chapter 14).

Overall, around 743 individual boundary sections were examined within the study area\(^1\). Of these only 119 sections had been fully stunted with a count of the average number of species according to the Hooper Hypothesis. These tended to be the more interesting examples (i.e. generally not post-medieval enclosure hedges), but blanket coverage was carried out over the whole area in sufficient numbers to avert too much bias. Only 40 of these could be assigned a reasonable secure date of origin and not surprisingly mostly date from the last 200 or 300 years. A further 49 boundaries can be assigned a \textit{terminus ante quem} date, which only shows that they are older than the assigned date.

The results showing the average number of species against different date categories are shown in Figures 5a and 5b (p.141). The first depicts the results where the origins are known, probable, or falls approximately between two known dates. The data from more recent centuries is more reliable, as the older dates are far more
approximate or based on fieldwork and archaeological comparisons from other studies. Despite these limitations the data does appear to show a series trend indicating a greater number of species with age, but the regression line is far too shallow to be reliable and the data spread is too variable to allow safe predictions based on these results. When the average species data is compared against terminus ante quem dates the result is very different. The regression line is now reversed and there is a decline in species abundance with age, but these dates are only the earliest definite date for hedges that might be thousands of years old.

The results on species abundance when the total number of species is compared with age is probably more useful as there was a far greater sample size, although many of the same limitations still applied. In this case there were 499 hedgerows that had a fairly reliable date of origin or terminus ante quem for their construction and 229 of these could have a probable or approximate date of construction assigned. These results are shown in Figures 5c and 5d (p.142). This time they both show a regression line that indicates that there is a tendency for older boundaries to have greater species abundance, but again this line is far shallower than in the Hooper model. Again the results are far too variable to give any reliability for this method to be used to date any other hedgerows.

A number of aspects arise from these results. For example, the shallowness of the regression line is probably due to the smaller species range available locally for colonisation. In addition, some of the variability in species count is due to the blanket inclusion of all datable boundaries, whether hedged or not, and also includes examples that may have been enhanced due to proximity to woodland or gardens.

1 The actual number varies depending upon how they are classified, grouped or counted.
Figures 5a & 5b

Average Number Species

- Bramble
+ Bramble

Average Number Species

- Bramble
+ Bramble

Probable or Approximate Date

Probable or TAQ Datee

Average No. Species
Figures 5c & 5d

**Total Number of Species**

- Bramble
- +Bramble

![Graph of Total Number of Species vs. Probable or Approximate Date](image1)

![Graph of Total Number of Species vs. Probable & TAQ Dates](image2)
Therefore more work needs to be done on narrowing down the types of boundary included, but this does not necessarily improve the reliability of the model, as any hedgerow of an unknown date would have to be carefully screened.

Other results were derived only after applying a certain amount of retrogressive analysis and the careful study of cartographic and historic sources, along with different types of boundary data. For example, it was noticed that many of the straight(ish), north-south boundaries, to the south of High Mickley, actually ignored a ragged former wood-edge identified there (compare Maps 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 & 14). To the north of this old wood-edge the boundaries mainly had a low-species count consisting of hawthorn with a few elder and dog rose, typical (supposedly) of eighteenth century enclosure. But to the south of this line the same boundaries tended to have a higher species count, including species such as holly, hazel, mountain ash, guelder rose, gorse and apple/pear. Why should eighteenth century farmers, planting hedgerows, switch so distinctly between hawthorn and woodland species, along the same boundaries?

One explanation, might be that because of its proximity to the Hyons Wood the re-colonisation potential of the area was high; but then why was there such a distinct informal wood-edge line running across this system of formal north-south lines. It might be that any division of the townfields here also included any existing common stinted wood-pasture (Chapter 13) and the allotments may have run into the wooded areas without any formal boundary. The woodland may then have been cleared piecemeal through individual effort and hedgerows were formed by leaving thin strips between allotments. This would explain why there are a number of other minor wood
edges fitting within this north-south field system\(^1\), but this does not explain why the same boundary form (banks and ditches, etc.) is maintained along the whole length. In addition, when the relationship between these boundaries and other features were examined (such as the lane from High Mickley to Hedley-on-the-Hill), it became clear that these north-south boundaries were (at least in origin) older than the former woodland that had grown over them. This means that at some stage there was at least one phase of woodland regeneration over parts of an earlier field-system, the rest of which was maintained, or remained conspicuous enough to be reused when the secondary woodland was removed. This former woodland has left a shadow over the landscape and the old wood edge can be seen as a ‘High Tide Mark’ of woodland regeneration. Williamson (1987) has carried out this sort of relative dating in East Anglia, where he noticed that some field-systems were actually bisected by a Roman road. Consequently, a number of other boundaries in the Mickley area have now been proved to be older than the woodland either still on them, or have had secondary woodland cleared from them. This shows that there are probably the remains of an extensive late prehistoric or Romano-British field system surviving or influencing the existing boundaries in this area (Chapter 15).

This type of analysis eventually resulted in the identification of a number of different boundary categories that had origins earlier than the eighteenth century, representing remnants of the pre-modern landscape, and are generally boundaries to which only a \textit{terminus ante quem} can be affixed. Data from this boundary analysis is presented in Tables 3a, 3b, 3c & 3d, and Graphs 1 to 11 (Appendix 1), although it should be noted that the average number of species results ignores zero counts. Many of the

\(^1\) Such as Boundary No. 8/24 (Map 6), which does not appear on any early cartographic material.
limitations that affected the average number of species results also apply here, and again much of the data is very variable, with the small samples leading to seriously generalised results that may not be of any real significance. There are a number of possible interpretations, origins and histories, within these boundary groups, which leads to some, or parts of some appearing in more than one category. For example, parts of the north-south boundary system discussed above can occur to the north and south of the woodland High Tide Mark, so these parts are analysed again separately to demonstrate particular effects. The details of the origins and meanings of the various boundary types are given in Chapters 14 & 15, but briefly they can be ascribed the following dates. Within the study area, the ‘Open Field’ boundaries can be considered medieval, but have a variety of origins. Their internal divisions (furlong boundaries) can be contemporary or have different origins, but in this case most can be considered to be medieval to early post-medieval. The ‘Long-Strip’ and ‘Long-Toft’ boundaries can be considered part of the landscape reorganisation that probably occurred in the Anglo-Norman period, although they often incorporate earlier features. The ‘Long-Linear Feature’ boundaries are thought to be of an early Iron Age date, and the ‘East-West Lynchet’ system may be Iron Age and/or Romano-British.

As was discussed above, many of these early boundaries have been identified through recognising the extent of secondary woodland regeneration over them, which was subsequently re-cleared, leaving the High Tide Mark. This re-growth could have occurred during a period of low population in the late fourteenth to sixteenth centuries. Woodland re-growth and the creation of an area of wood-pasture over large parts of the field system is possible within this short time period, as the woodland survey part of this thesis demonstrated the possibility of fairly rapid re-colonisation
from nearby existing woodland (p.121). This might be especially so during this
climatically difficult period of cooler conditions, when the lower damper areas of the
field system may have been converted to pasture. The other likely period, in which
this could have equally happened, is during the sub-Roman to mid- or late Saxon
periods. This would give a greater window of opportunity for slow woodland
colonisers such as hazel to spread out into these areas\(^1\). This would give an earlier
date to the origins of the wood-pasture system, but this is no problem.

Table 3a (Appendix 1) shows the Average Total Number of Species, the Average
Average Number of Species, the Maximum Total Number of Species, the Average
Maximum Total Number of Species and the Average Minimum Number of Species in
the Various Boundary Categories, both with and without bramble. Table 3b shows
the Total Number of Occurrences of Individual Features or Species within each
boundary category. Table 3c demonstrates the Occurrence as a percentage of each
feature or species within the individual boundary categories. Lastly, Table 3d
compares these percentages with the average percentage of occurrence of the feature
or species in the survey as a whole, the results given being the difference between the
two. Tables 3c and 3d are perhaps the most useful in identifying particular
characteristics for each boundary category as they emphasis similarities and
differences, although with the latter table, if a feature or species mainly occurs in that
boundary category the percentage difference will be low. The results are also depicted
in Bar Graphs 1 to 11 (Appendix 1) to emphasis the results.

\(^1\) Generally, the lack of hazel in most areas thought to have been re-colonised over the last 150 to 200
 years is significant.
For example, the Open-Fields have a slightly higher percentage of boundaries without hedgerows and a relatively low percentage with ditches. We can see that these boundaries tend to have more banks and lynchets than the average boundary, which presumably reflects their use as arable land and resulting soil-creep. The average number of species found in both internal and external open-field boundaries are similar, but the external boundaries generally tend to have a slightly higher average, presumably due to earlier creation, the incorporation of earlier features, and/or creation via assarting from woodland. In addition, the external boundaries have higher than average numbers of holly, rowan, apple/pear, blackthorn, hazel and bramble, but have lower than average amounts of birch, elder, gorse, oak and wych elm. The internal divisions tend to have more open-area species and less woodland type plants. They have higher than average quantities of ash and holly, but lower amounts of birch, bramble, elder, gorse, guelder rose, hazel, oak, rowan and sallow/willow. These internal divisions were probably planted and all before the late eighteenth century. Therefore, this is evidence of the taking of plants from existing hedges and woodland, rather than from a nursery, and it also demonstrates a preference for hedges with holly and ash trees. Many of the other species are invasive so could have appeared through natural succession.

The Long-Toft boundary data is very noisy due to the small sample size, but appear to have above average occurrences of banks and ditches (more so than open-field boundaries). A large number have no hedge and there are low numbers with walls, this probably relates to the more domestic nature of these boundaries, which are found at the back of farmsteads. The low occurrence of lynchets may indicate that little ploughing took place, despite the aratal curves preserved in them, which indicate that
they represent the enclosure of earlier arable strips. Evidence from Hedley (Chapters 13 & 14) suggests that by the early modern period most long-tofts were under pasture, so any lynchet formation was likely to have occurred before the seventeenth century. Alternatively, this may reflect the local topography of where they occur. For example, the main surviving boundaries of this type are found to the north of Mickley, and in both cases they run up and down the slopes rather than along the slope so that lynchets are less likely to form. Most of these boundaries have a high occurrence of ash, blackthorn, bramble, dog rose and elder, and particularly gorse, holly and sycamore. Again this may show a preference for holly and ash hedges, with most of the other species invading the hedge through natural processes.

The external boundaries of the Long-Strip fields have a fairly high percentage with no hedge, and a high number with ditches and lynchets, despite running up and down the slopes, which may reflect the continued use of arable crops in many of the adjoining fields. Alternatively, this might be due to their great length that ignores local topography in which case there can be sections running along minor slope variations. There are also low occurrences of walls and banks (despite the occurrence of ditches). In contrast, the internal boundaries have smaller numbers without a hedge and far fewer ditches and lynchets, but unlike the external boundaries tend to have a bank. These may have resulted from the deposition of stones cleared from adjacent ploughed areas along field divisions. Then there are a number of differences in the species make up of the external and internal Long-Strip boundaries. The external ones have high occurrences of birch, blackthorn, dog rose, gorse, guelder rose, holly, oak and rowan, but low numbers of sycamore and elder (like the open-field boundaries). The internal long-strip boundaries only have high occurrences of ash and sallow/willow,
and low amounts of blackthorn, bramble and hazel, but overall the numbers are close to being an average hedge as regards species composition. This suggests that the internal boundaries were not deliberately planted with a hedge and any hedge may have arisen through natural processes along a fence line for example. Alternatively, only pure hawthorn hedges were planted and the hedges have been invaded by other species later. Overall, the variability in composition of these boundaries is affected by the fact that they traverse the woodland re-growth High Tide Mark.

For similar reasons, the Long-Linear feature boundaries are also very variable in make-up, as they tend to traverse different landscape habitat types. Most of these consist of earth and stone banks, but this does not necessarily have a ditch\textsuperscript{1} and some sections have no hedge on them, generally where they cross former common land. Walls are not common\textsuperscript{2}, nor are lynchets, presumably because they are not arable landscape features and again tend to go up and down slopes. There is no particularly significant species commonly occurring on these boundaries, but they have lower than average occurrence of ash, dog rose, elder, hawthorn and sycamore. The low numbers of these species is particularly interesting, as most hedges with a similar average number of species (2.6/8) are generally arable field internal divisions, or enclosure hedges, which are dominated by these species. The other main difference is that the Long-Linear features have a much greater variation in total numbers of species. This appears to indicate that a hedge was not deliberately planted on them, or if there was a formal hedge they have not survived.

\textsuperscript{1} The original ditches may now be in-filled, or the banks may have been made through field clearance.  
\textsuperscript{2} As these mainly seem to be a late 18\textsuperscript{th} and early 19\textsuperscript{th} century feature.
The East-West lyncheted boundaries on the steep scarp slope to the north of Mickley, have mostly had secondary woodland over them until fairly recently\(^1\), and the results can be compared with those different parts of the long-strip boundaries occurring above and below the re-growth High Tide Mark. A surprisingly high percentage of the East-West boundaries have no hedge, due to sample sections recorded in or on the edge of current woodland, which generally have no physical barrier on them or a barbed-wire fence. Not surprisingly, they have a very high occurrence of lynchets, as this is their main distinguishing feature. Some of these lynchets were up to 2m high and often could have areas of drystone revetment in a variety of different styles on the same patch. This indicates that the revetments had been added to them later, conceivably as the height of the lynchet started to cause stability problems. In addition, the differences in style show that this was not necessarily all done at the same time, or by the same builders, but were probably patched over a number of generations. Some of these walling techniques have also been observed in parts of the Long-Linear features and Long-Strip features, especially where there are lynchets, which could mean that they are at least as old, or have been repaired in a similar way\(^2\).

The abundance of individual species is generally lower than the overall survey average, but this probably reflects their rich species content\(^3\). They are generally low in hawthorn because thick holly hedges dominate them. They also have a low occurrence of ash, presumably because if these hedges were derived from the assarting of fairly rich or shady woodland ash would not have been common, as it is a tree of more open countryside.

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\(^1\) Perhaps until 400-300 years ago

\(^2\) Much of this drystone walling is in a herringbone pattern and in Co. Durham Brian Roberts (pers. comm.) thinks these are Medieval and/or Prehistoric, although Jim Crow (pers. comm.) does not think they are prehistoric.

\(^3\) Although this is lower than some other boundary types.
Similar low quantities of ash and hawthorn are recorded along the Current Wood Edges, because the vast majority of these simply consist of a barbed-wire fence. The exception tends to be those old wood edges that have survived from medieval times, but overall they rarely survive as modern woodland boundaries due to post-medieval assarting. Because of this they generally have a low occurrence of most species because they have no hedge.

In Mickley, the re-growth High Tide Mark boundaries tend to be rather informal as they appear not to have been planted or well managed, so have a high percentage of unhedged sections. Ditches are uncommon, perhaps because they are often at the bottom of the old arable areas and water probably drained straight into the former woodland. Banks are fairly common, maybe due to stock control between arable and wood-pasture areas, and lynchets are frequent, due to soil-creep building against them at the bottom of the arable fields. Except for blackthorn, species abundance tends to be low, particularly bramble, dog rose and oak. This encourages the view that they were not deliberately planted with a hedge, except for those sections with hawthorn hedges that may have been planted at a later date.

Those sections of long-strip boundaries found below and above the High Tide Mark are very different. Below the mark few sections are unhedged and most have a clear bank and ditch, both of which are uncommon above the mark, where unhedged boundaries are more frequent. Significantly, lynchets are much more common above the mark than below it, reflecting the more intensive arable use of adjoining fields. In addition, not surprisingly, species abundance is far greater below the High Tide Mark than above it, although both have high occurrences of ash and dog rose. This may support the idea that the secondary woodland here had been used as wood-pasture,
which would have been lighter woodland more suitable for ash and dog rose. On the other hand, it may reflect the greater light intensity of these south-facing slopes.

Those boundaries below the mark have higher occurrences of apple/pear\(^1\), bramble, dog rose, gorse, hawthorn, holly, rowan and sallow/willow, reflecting their former woodland character. Interestingly, there is not a significantly high occurrence of hazel, but this is probably due to statistical presentation. Hedges with a species average close to the overall survey average for that species will tend not to show a significant difference, because they are the average category of hedge in which that species occurs.

Those boundaries that have been identified as being Old Wood Edges can be compared with modern ones and the High Tide Mark. A fairly high proportion of these boundaries are now without a hedge, although they may not necessarily have been hedged in the first place, as they may have had some kind of fence. The traditional few of medieval wood boundaries are of a bank and ditch, so the poor representation of ditches in this data is significant. This may be due to soil in-filling any ditch with time, or it may reflect the fact that woods in the north-east of England simply were not protected to the same extent as southern examples. Saying this, banks are common to these old woodland areas and perhaps a hedged or fenced bank was all that was considered necessary here. Lynchets are very common, sometimes because of arable activity, but also due to the presence of sunken lanes outside them or local topography and soil-creep. Species abundance is high, due to proximity to current woodland, but the pattern does not seem to exactly reflect any of the other boundary types. For example, there are high quantities of ash, blackthorn, bramble,

\(^1\) Perhaps resulting from miners discarding cores when walking to and from the Hedley Park Colliery.
hazel, holly, oak and rowan, but this may reflect the great variety of situations in which these boundaries are found, as well as their former woodland edge status.

When the Total Maximum Number of Species data is examined, it reveals a lot of similarity between the different boundary types, which reflects their pre enclosure period origin. Many of these hedges may have originated naturally through succession, were planted with more species in the first place, or are the remains of assarted woodland. The main difference between these early boundary types becomes apparent when the Average Total Number of Species and the Average Number of Species are examined (Tables 3a, Appendix 1). Generally, the internal divisions of Open- and Long-Strip fields are lower than their external boundaries, and a low number of species are frequently found in areas outside those areas that are currently wooded or have had secondary woodland removed from them. Those boundaries that cross between open and wooded, or formerly secondary wooded areas, not surprisingly, generally have a great deal of variability in their statistics. What is more interesting is that although the woodland regeneration High Tide Mark boundaries tend to have a higher diversity of species than those above it, the average number of species is similar. In addition, these boundaries are generally less diverse that those below the mark or other former wood edges. Management differences may have caused this, or perhaps Long-Strip boundaries between different owners were thickened with plants taken from the woodland at clearance? This may also reflect distance from current woodland. Similarly, many of the Long-Strip boundaries have higher diversity towards existing woodland and many of the former wood edges are only a short distance from the remains of the woods they used to bound.
Some other general survey results also need to be considered. For example, the recording of the presence or absence of bramble seems to have made very little difference to the overall averages, etc. It may contribute in the identification of the quality of former woodland, or its one-time existence, as its frequency has generally been higher in areas that had been wood edges etc. Moreover, an examination of species composition can bring out subtle differences between different boundary categories not apparent from aspects such as average number of species, such as the Long-Linear and enclosure boundaries.

Likewise, the results of this survey can be compared with the smaller survey carried out by Myra Tolan-Smith (1995) across the Tyne in Horsley. She also found that enclosure hedges consisted of two or three species and were based on hawthorn, normally with dog rose, elder, gorse, or perhaps a standard tree of ash or sycamore (ibid. p.156). In Horsley woodland relic species were generally absent, but some hedges with oak, holly and hazel suggested to her that they too had been formed fairly recently from old woodland (ibid.). In addition, a number of enclosure boundaries crossing an area of moorland contained an average of 3 or 3.5 species, which was higher than expected. She thought that extensive pre-enclosure vegetation cover had become formalised into the new boundaries or that the hedges had been quickly colonised from this cover (ibid. p.159). This is another possible explanation for developments to the south of Mickley. However, part of the township boundary between Prudhoe and Mickley crossing the former East Moor Common (boundary 13/184=14/182-183=14/184=15/180b=15/182=16/180b=34/177-8, Map 6) has high species numbers, including hawthorn, dog rose, holly, ash, oak, sycamore, gorse and broom, but no hazel. Cartographic evidence appears to show that this hedge was
planted between the early seventeenth and mid eighteenth centuries, and the mixture of species seems to indicate that the plants were taken from near by woodland. There appears to have been the same preference for holly (with ash and oak trees), as seen elsewhere for pre-enclosure hedges and the above mentioned hedge crossing moorland in Horsley identified by Myra Tolan-Smith, may have had a similar origin.

**Conclusions**

One of the main reasons for undertaking such a detailed study of the local hedgerows was to see if the Hooper Hypothesis or any other boundary dating method could be used to ascertain the age of the early boundaries within the study area. Certainly, this study has clearly demonstrated that locally the Hooper Hypothesis is not feasible, for the reasons outlined above, but this does not mean that it might not work elsewhere. It is only through carrying out a series of thorough test cases, like this one, that this will be proved one way or another. Even then, one of the main problems will be finding enough boundaries for which a precise date can be established. This is particularly difficult, as this study has shown that many of the oldest boundaries have been replaced or re-aligned several times and each change can reset any potential dating clock or mix-up the evidence from different periods.

Neither has this study developed or discovered any other identification system to replace the Hooper Hypothesis. The T-Junction Rule gave some early promise, but did not work, because, if applied strictly, using either modern or old maps, individual sections of the old wood edge High Tide Mark had shifted through lynchet formation.

The reality of why hedgerow dating based on current form can not work is because there are no definitive constants that can be compared. There is no fixed list of
species or features and there are rarely any definite dates for the construction of a boundary in its present form, let alone origin. Despite this the collection of data from individual boundaries is very important as a means of obtaining the general information preserved in them and to get a feel for the landscape change and continuity they represent. Its main use here has been in identifying the former extent of woodland and whether the overall pattern of boundaries in an area ignores or respects this. It has been through the identification of this relationship that the survival or influence of very ancient boundaries has been observed, revealing that decisions on the division of the landscape made hundreds or even thousands of years ago still have an influence on the modern world.
Section Three: - Synopsis of reconstructed Periods

Boy Riding Goat (T. Bewick), with Prudhoe Castle possibly in the background
Chapter Twelve: - The Early Modern Landscape; circa.1650-circa.1850

Introduction

The period covered in this chapter (circa.1650 to circa.1850) saw the creation of the current landscape, along with the introduction of modern landscape management techniques and modern social attitudes towards it. By the end of this period the landscape was considerably different from the basically feudal communal one that had been operating in this area at the beginning. The changes which will be covered include some of the social as well as physical processes, as growing urban populations led to an increased demand for beef and butter along with an increasing dissatisfaction by the rural population with the “old system” (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.93).

The agricultural systems in the second half of this period (circa.1750 to circa.1850) are well documented by contemporary authors (such as Bailey and Culley (1805), Grey (1841), Colbeck (1848) and Bates (1895)), who look back to Northumberland in the eighteenth century as a somewhat archaic and idyllic place¹. From Thomas Bewick we have direct evidence of what life was like in the perceived “Golden Age” of his youth. He tells us that; -

“The health and happiness of the peasantry who kept a few sheep or a kyloe cow on the beautiful wild common adjoining Cherryburn [Mickley Common] were at this time unbounded, though their daily fare consisted of rye-bread, potatoes, oatmeal-porridge and milk, varied with meat-broth on Sundays. Honest and independent, they still greatly respected the gentry, and were equally respected by them” (Bates ibid. p.271).

In his day, the whole country between Wylam and Bywell presented the appearance of a continuous forest (ibid. p.270), with unimproved areas covered with broom, whins

¹ Although they appear to be largely unaware of the changes that had already occurred by that time.
(gorse), or rushes (Grey, 1841, p.151). Much of this rural Elysium ended with the arrival of the railway in 1835, which led to an intensification of coal mining and related industries in the area, along with a major population increase, agricultural intensification and changes in the field systems.

**The Period Maps**

*Map 7* is a map of the whole study area, at a scale of 1:25000, showing the community and land-use arrangements at the time of the tithe assessments in the 1840s. It was made up by plotting the information on the various tithe maps and schedules produced for this area at that time (see Appendix 4). The accuracy of this map is high, as it was easy to relate the tithe assessment contents to the nineteenth century Ordnance Survey maps. By this time virtually all the surviving modern field boundaries and systems were in existence, but it also demonstrates the appearance of the landscape before modern development either destroyed or enveloped it. This map serves as an introduction and starting point for all the other retrogressive maps contained in Section Three.

*Map 8* is a map of the whole study area, at a scale of 1:25000, showing the community and land-use arrangements at around 1760 to 1770. This map has been made up from a series of estate and other plans, supplemented with information from documents and fieldwork. The land-use practices depicted at that time are the earliest period for which it is possible to give a full definitive view of the landscape. However, it should be noted that some elements had to be taken from nineteenth century plans and some from undated plans, which by analogy can be seen to be late eighteenth century. It should also be noted that this map is a dynamic representation of the changes occurring at this time. It actually depicts a landscape where the
Tenants in 1787

Leaseholders
- Thomas & William Buick
- Wm. Eltringham: Hallyards East Fm
- Wm. Eltringham: Hallyards West Fm
- William Browell
- Charles Browell
- Cuthbert Ridley
- George Siddall

Freeholders
- Anthony Humble
- Thomas Davison: West Farm
- John Newton
- Stephen Thompson: East Farm
- Newton & Thompson Shared? Estate
- William Prudhoe

Figure 6a: - Tenant Distribution in Mickley in 1787

Figure 6b: - Eltringham in 1856 (O.S. 1st Ed.).
different community areas (townships) are at different developmental stages, because it is at the very point at which they changed rapidly from a half enclosed to a fully enclosed one. For example, Mickley is shown with the townfield areas enclosed, but the East Moor area is not, and Hedley is on the eve of enclosure. Also, Mickley Common and High Riggs/Prudhoe Common are still unenclosed, and the main Hexham to Newcastle road has not yet been turnpiked. Within a few years of 1770 most of the field systems had changed to that seen on Map 7.

Map 9 is a detailed picture at a scale of 1:1040 of Mickley and Eltringham at around 1780 to 1790. It is essentially similar to Map 8, but depicts the now enclosed Mickley East Moor and changes that occurred at about the same time to the Edgewell estate. This was created, as it is the earliest fully detailed map of the area that can be made from the various known surviving estate plans and gives a complete set of field-names and land tenure. This map was an important step in recreating this area in earlier periods. Figure 6a (p.160) is essentially similar but concentrates on tenantry details as this was of importance in reconstructing the earlier landscapes of this area. Figures 6b (p.160), 6c & 6d (p.162), 6e & 6f (p.164) and 6g & 6h (p.166), are all close-up views of Eltringham, Prudhoe, Hedley and Mickley, respectively, at the time of the tithe maps and later eighteenth century.

**Climate and Terrain**

The climate of north-east England has not changed dramatically over the last 350 years, except that during the chapter period winters were generally wetter and colder. This was due to a period of climatic deterioration known as the 'Little Ice Age', which lasted from the mid-fourteenth century to the early nineteenth century (Lamb, 1981, p.61; Macklin, *et al.* 1993).
Figure 6c: - Prudhoe in 1849 (Tithe Map NRO DT 385M).

Figure 6d: - Prudhoe in 1766 (Thompson Survey NRO Zan/Bell 41/7).

(The Duke & Bell exchanged the East & West Garths in 1772).
It is marked in the Tyne Valley by a major episode of very coarse sediment alluviation from around circa.1450 and continued until the late eighteenth century when channel degradation and entrenchment began (Macklin, et al. ibid.). Eighteenth century alluviation was encouraged by lead mining in the upper reaches of the River South Tyne and extensive land-drainage, which released large amounts of sediment that was deposited in the Lower Tyne Valley (ibid. p.135). This was associated with a number of flash floods, the most famous of which occurred in 1771 when nearly all the bridges over the Tyne were swept away, along with the Prudhoe/Ovingham boat house.

The main effect this had on the study area was the deposition of a gravel bar and bank deposits, mainly in the Spetchells area of Prudhoe where a large area of rough pasture and scrub arose. There were also a number of ‘braiding’ features formed in the river bed as the Tyne migrated to the north side of its flood-plain, including a gravel bar opposite the confluence of the Whittle Burn, Ovingham, which built up to form an island (Boat House Island, Prudhoe, 1613, Mason Survey). Cartographic evidence shows a number of vegetated and active medial gravel bars between the Island and Hag Bank from the eighteenth century onwards (Passmore, et al. 1993, p.210). This led to the formation of the Spetchells area of Prudhoe Castle Township.

The cold winters of the ‘Little Ice Age’ caused some other difficulties such as a lack of fodder for livestock. For example, we are told (Bates, 1895, p.270) that during the hard winter of 1765, the young Thomas Bewick was employed in ‘creeing’ tender whin shoots with a wooden mell for horses and cattle. It is probable that holly was also used as a winter fodder, as it was in the southern Pennines (Spray, 1981), where the place-name Hollinggs is associated with its use (such as Hollings Farm, Hedley-
Figure 6e: Hedley in 1845 (Tithe Map NRO NB DT 321/2M).

Figure 6f: Hedley in 1769 (Thompson Survey NRO Zan/Bell 2/4).
Woodside); along with records of 'holynfall' sales in fifteenth century Prudhoe (Alnwick Mss. C, vi 2a; SS CXXXIV, 1921).

Despite the cold climatic conditions, from the sixteenth century (Lamb, 1981, p.560) population levels rose to a level higher than it had been since the middle of the fourteenth century. By this time there was general permanent woodland clearance for pasture and arable farming in the lower Tyne (Davis & Turner, 1979; Macklin, et al. 1993, p.126), and within the study area. The increased sedimentation presumably reflects the continued use of basically medieval agricultural practices, which caused greater soil loss under the now wetter conditions; this would have been another factor encouraged agricultural change.

Another difference between the modern landscape and that from before around 1800, has been the loss of some of the upper reaches of the Stanley and Mill Burns, as well as the loss of many other small brooks and rills, mainly through mining, open-cast excavations and drainage. In addition, the topography of Hedley-Woodside has been much altered through the major gravel workings there.

**Historical, Social and Economic Context of the Period**

The landscape changes that occurred during this period should be set within their social and economic context. In northern England it was not until after the English Civil War and the threat of the thieves and 'Moss-Troopers' or Border Rievers had been removed (Grey, 1841, p.151-2), that it was really felt safe enough for effective economic and social changes. Insecurity in the early seventeenth century had led to the retention of much of the old border feudal society and systems of land management. This slowed down the introduction of new landscape arrangements, as
Figure 6g: - Mickley in 1842 (Tithe Map NRO DT 318 M).

Figure 6h: - Mickley in 1787 (NRO Zan/Bell 11/4).
"... the fruits of industry were too uncertain and precarious to induce to its exercise in the cultivation of the soil..." (ibid. p.151).

Various landscape reforms had been occurring in Northumberland from before the seventeenth century but overall progress had been slow. For example, landlords had gradually been substituting traditional customary tenures with leases (see p.49; Baker & Butlin, 1973), and has was seen on page 53 by the early seventeenth century, there was a general dissatisfaction with the old agrarian methods, which were now thought unprofitable (ibid.). In addition, from the sixteenth century many townships were divided into halves and quarters, supposedly for a more rational concentration of holdings. This may have happened here in the mid-sixteenth century with a division of Prudhoe from Prudhoe Castle, Hedley from Hedley-Woodside, and the creation of Dukeshagg Township. The enclosure of any common, open, townfields that followed this can be seen as part of the same process of holding rationalisation (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139). As things became more settled there was also an increase in Northumberland land values encouraging land management reform. Despite this, during the first half of this period, the Northumberland countryside remained generally unenclosed and that part which was enclosed consisted mainly of small crofts adjoining their dwellings (Grey, 1841, p.152), or other small closes and temporary common-land intakes.

From the fifteenth century onwards one of the most important factors leading to landscape change was the growth of the urban markets, in London, Bristol, Norwich, York, and, particularly locally, Newcastle. Along with this growth in the urban population, from the seventeenth century, another important factor was the development of local industries and together these had an increasing effect on the
grain and livestock markets (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139; Crossley, 1990, p.7). The growing national population stimulated intensive cereal cultivation, the production of better quality livestock (Baker & Butlin, *ibid.* p.139), and a well organised long distance cattle droving trade (Crossley, *ibid.* p.12-13).

It was thought by the early agricultural historians that Northumbrian farming began to show rapid improvement from the middle of the eighteenth century (Grey, 1841, p.153); although this may have had as much to do with their proximity to the period and the spirit of their age. These improvements were seen by them as a spirited co-operation between landlord and tenant, as they strove to improve the county and countryside at large through giving the tenants farms “... of such size as to afford scope for their operations to be conducted with economy and effect” (*ibid.*). Lease length was also increased, generally to not less than twenty-one years, guaranteeing a return for any expenditure and improvements made (*ibid.*).

There was also a national change that had a local effect. A major part of English trade had been in the exporting of corn to Europe, but from the mid-1760s England began to import more corn than it exported. This was especially so during the period of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars, when continental corn supplies were restricted and self-sufficiency was encouraged through agricultural improvement (Rowe, 1972, p.iii).

Other significant changes also occurred in Northumberland from the middle of the eighteenth century. These were the universal adoption of turnip growing (requiring well-manured fields), and the introduction of improved pasture through the use of new grass varieties (Grey, 1841, p.153-4). This “... made a complete revolution in the
management and value of land, and added immensely to the productiveness of the country" (ibid.).

Not surprisingly these changes led to a gradual increase in rents¹; but landlords felt encouraged to pay for substantial and permanent landscape improvements (ibid.). By the late eighteenth century rising farmer's profits had resulted in an increased competition for land, due to profits gained from renting it (ibid.). Large amounts of capital were raised in this way, leading to the reclamation of large areas of wasteland, by the clearing of large stones, followed by drainage and liming, producing more agricultural land that could then be rented (ibid. p.154-5).

At the same time increasing labour demands in the developing manufacturing and mining industries attracted much of the manpower away from the countryside. This encouraged some of the stock and crop improvements mentioned above and led particularly to agricultural mechanisation (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139; Crossley, 1990, p.7). These included a change to mechanical threshing (by horse, water, wind and steam) and various new commercially produced ploughs, harrows, and other equipment. Other changes included the erection of many new farm buildings, often away from village centres, situated centrally within their new separate holdings. From them roads diverged to give easy access to all parts of their farms (Grey, 1841, p.154). For example, Mickley and Hedley Grange Farms were set-up in the 1840s, with well-planned layouts and modern buildings. A distinctive feature of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries are the round or octagonal buildings that were added to

¹ Especially after the end of the American War of Independence in 1783
many existing farms at this time, which were horse-driven threshing sheds known locally as *gin-gangs*.

These agricultural developments should not be viewed as a simple smooth curve of improvement and growing profits. For example during the Napoleonic Wars (1795-1805) rents became artificially high, which lead to rent reductions, the failure of some leaseholders and changes of occupancy (Grey, 1841, p.155; Colbeck, 1848, p.437).

Other improvements, such as field drainage, sub-soiling and the application of imported fertiliser (*guano*) and lime, meant that by the middle of the nineteenth century there had been an approximately threefold increase in productivity since the beginning of that century (Colbeck, *ibid.*).

**Land Tenure**

Within Northumberland, at the beginning of this period, there were still many of the old medieval customary services in practice, such as rent paid in kind and personal services (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.30; Grey, 1841, p.152). Many of these services were thought to be restrictive to agricultural improvement and were gradually being commuted for cash payments (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139). For example, a rental for Prudhoe from 1663 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.110) lists some of these payments and services; such as *cornage* (a cattle tax) from each township, *greenhue* (for pasture) from the tenants of Prudhoe, *overshot on Fowlchester Common* for the tenants of Hedley, and 1lb of pepper from Dean and Chapter (of Durham), for their freehold in Prudhoe.

The land in the study area itself was held and farmed by a number of standard tenures, in demesne, by freeholders, as tenants-at-will, or as cottagers.
By this time most of the northern medieval demesne lands had been leased (demised) to freeholders and customary tenants (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.136-9) and these farms had often lain separate from the main townfields and villages. For example, the whole of Prudhoe Castle Township (*Prudhoe Castle, Hagg Bank, Broomhouses* and *Edgewell Farms*), Dukeshagg Township, *Hedley Park, Hyons Wood* and *Hallyards Farms* (all on Map 8).

Customary tenants (generally referred to as tenants-at-will in contemporary records) held most of the land. Within the study area each of the main townships had between about 4 and 8 customary farms (see Table 4a-c (Appendix 1) & Table 5 (Chapter 13)). Before the enclosure of the common pastures and wastes each farm ranged in size from around 16 to 24 acres, and grew to around 70 to 100 acres afterwards¹. Each farm, or husbandland, was based on the old medieval bondage units, where one tenant held as much land as he could manage and still feed his family. By the post-medieval period, many of the tenants held more than one farm, but others sometimes only a half a tenement (*ibid.*), or, locally, only a third.

In the Prudhoe area, by the mid-seventeenth century, the customary farms were held by lease rather than by any earlier form of tenure (such as *copyhold*). Most leases in this area were for 21 years in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, although in Mickley they changed to 11 years when William Wrightson became lord of the manor in 1724 (Hope-Dodds, 1926). This lease term length and farm size (after enclosure) appears to have been the norm in Northumberland and the letting of large farms with

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¹ Similar to the c.26-80 acres average for Northumberland, given by Baker & Butlin (*ibid.* 138).
21 years leases supposedly encouraged tenants to make the improvements recommended at the time (Bailey & Culley, 1972, p.23, & p.32).

Changes occurred in the value of leases with time, partly due to inflation, and as the farm size increased, but there is generally an average rent for a holding within a town at any one time. This gives a degree of equality, and, when this is not specified, a chance of working out how many farms a particular tenant held. One particular example, the Browell family of Mickley, can be seen to have generally held one and a half farms from the early seventeenth to the late eighteenth centuries (Table 7, Appendix 1). The rent value per acre also varied with the quality of the land and a farm's distance from the village (ibid. p.30). For example, a land valuation of Mickley in 1789 (NRO 691/1/4/7) records a correlation between proximity to the village centre and distance, probable land-use and land quality (former common land being the cheapest and farmstead crofts being the dearest).

Freeholders were supposedly much less common in Northumberland (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139). In the seventeenth century most of them had their arable strips interspersed within the common fields, along with the customary tenants, and they had similar common rights (ibid.). Generally, within the main study area townships there were equal numbers of freeholders and leaseholders, although the size of their holdings varied considerably. Some of the freeholders also held leaseholds within a township and some held lands in more than one township, which must have been worked by sub-tenants (increasing the number of leaseholders). There were also a few freehold farms outside the townfield areas similar to demesne farms (from which some originated), including Eltringham Township, Durham Riding, and parts of Hedley-Woodside.
Within the study area, the class of cottager, where a tenant held a cottage and an acre or two in the common fields (with rent often paid in kind or labour), appears to have virtually disappeared by this period. In seventeenth century rentals, cottagers or cottages are mentioned (for example, in Mickley 1608 (PRO LR2/223, Land Revenue Office Misc. Books, vol. xlii, p.42-163) and Prudhoe 1613 (Mason Survey)), but most appear to be rented cottages with garths and no labour service is implied. Additionally, freehold families rented the Mickley examples, and these were presumably in addition to their own holdings. Extended family members and/or the farm labourers needed for multiple holdings must have occupied some of these cottages and additional houses, where a customary or freehold tenant held more than one farm. These were the resident village labourers, normally married men, who, along with their wives and children, would have carried out the bulk of the work on the land, as ploughmen, carters, barnmen and shepherds, etc. The larger farms also kept a few servants in the house, including a maid or two and a couple of extra men (Bailey & Culley, 1972, p.164; Colbeck, 1848, p.436). In addition, there were also a number of day labourers working for wages “without victuals, or any allowance of beer” (Bailey & Culley, ibid. p.165), for which there is even less information as most of these were seasonal workers coming from Scotland and Ireland.

Settlement Form

The pattern of settlement occupied by the study area communities, in the mid-eighteenth century, shows a variety of forms (Map 8), all of which had medieval or early post-medieval origins, therefore, details of their origins and form will be covered in the next chapter. What is important to note is that in the main settlements of Prudhoe, Hedley and Mickley, the farmsteads (house and toft/croft) remained
within the village centres after seventeenth and eighteenth century enclosure\(^1\) and it was not until the 1840s that some of the leaseholders moved out into the centre of their holdings (see Figs.6c-g, p.162-6). Consequently, part of the *south row* in Mickley was abandoned and many of the old farmhouses became domestic dwellings. This was unusual in some ways, as it was expected that farmsteads should move from the village centres as part of the process of landscape reorganisation (Crossley, 1990, p.17-18), but even today some of the leaseholds have parts of their farms spread out in detached parcels. In part this appears to be because many of the post enclosure holdings were laid out so that they could be managed easily from their existing sites. But also much of the land away from the main settlements was already managed from a number of pre-existing non-centralised estate centres (like *Edgewell, Durham Ridding, Hallyards* and *Hyons Wood Farms*).

Some of these isolated farmsteads used an *infield-outfield* land management system, a type supposedly more common further north in areas such as the Till valley (Grey, 1841) and in Scotland. However, there is clear evidence from the maps in the Mason Survey that it was practised in the *Broad Oak* area of Hedley-Woodside (Map 10). Here, the farms consisted of a number of permanent, intensively farmed and manured closes near the farmsteads (the ‘infield’) and temporary ‘intacks’ or ‘intakes’ on the large common (the ‘outfield’). The less fertile outfield could only produce a few corn crops before it was left to recover naturally over a number of years as pasture (*ibid.;* Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.110). In Northumberland and Durham, the term ‘infields’ or ‘ingrounds’, was generally used to describe the more intensively utilised common arable and pasture lands near the main settlement, as opposed to the less intensively

\(^1\)As was the case in nearby Horsley (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.159)
used ‘outfields’ or ‘outgrounds’ (ibid. p.110, & p.136). For example, at Heddon-on-the-Wall the ‘ingrounds’ are mentioned in the enclosure award (1717 NRO, ZMD. 86; Baker & Butlin, ibid. p.137) as being the arable, meadow and pasture grounds (but not the waste). Overall it would appear that the close and intack system employed before enclosure at Hedley-Woodside was likely to have been the more northern form of ‘infield-outfield’ system.

**Enclosure**

Landscape histories tend to concentrate on the main townfields of nucleated settlements and there is little to be found on the evolution of the areas away from these. This is partly due to the dominance in the literature of the open, common, three-field system (‘Midland’), or the enclosure of the wastes and moors, as all these systems are generally well documented. In addition, it is far more difficult to trace the changes that occurred in the areas between these townfields and the waste.

Large parts of the study area lay outside the main townfields and consisted of separate demesne and freehold farms, or were woodland, wood-pasture and pasture. Also around Prudhoe Township were a number of small private closes used mainly for pasture. All these areas show signs of organic, piecemeal, long-term change, and mainly appear to have originated within woodland, or by nibbling away at the edges of the waste. Many of these features developed before this period, but at this time there appears to have been a general change in emphasis from stinted wood-pasture systems\(^1\), to private pasture, or, especially after the removal of communal management systems, to arable.

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\(^1\) Where tenants had equally sized unenclosed strips of pasture or meadow.
One of the best examples is the area to the south of the Highfield, Prudhoe, which had been an area of common, stinted ('gaited') pasture in the early seventeenth century (Highfield Pasture/Gaits, Map 11). After the enclosure of Prudhoe in the mid-seventeenth century, this area lost its common rights and become part of the large freehold estate of the Fenwick family. By the 1780s this area was now in the hands of the Orde's (Z/B 41/7, Z/B 75/24) and had been joined to Durham Ridding Farm forming an area of small closes. The field-names seem to indicate that most of this area was now cattle pasture (Ox Closes, Map 8). Today much of this area is under arable cultivation. There is little indication as to the age of the enclosures in this area; its former status as stinted wood-pasture should imply that it had been unenclosed and any boundaries here would be of post-medieval origin. However, hedgerow analysis and a close study of seventeenth century sources would indicate that at least some of the main divisions were older (Boundary Nos. 150/171=171/173=172/173=180b/182 =181/187 and 173/174=178/180=178/180a =178/180b; Map 6). This may point towards medieval management practices, but retrogressive analysis of this area seems to indicate that some of these lyncheted boundaries might be much older.

Similar processes occurred in other areas of wood-pasture, such as the South Pasture (Mickley), Paddock Wood (Hedley), the Edgewell Estate, Dukeshagg, the Eltringham Scar area, and the High/Low Intacks area between Mickley and Eltringham. Formal coppiced woodlands were also effected, with the cutting of closes into New/Low Close Wood (Mickley) and West Ridding Wood (Hedley) and the creation of a mixed farm within Hyons Wood (Hedley). It would appear that during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a general devaluation of many wood products, although (as will be seen) there remained a high demand for timber, and much of the demand...
for wood products could still be raised from the increased number of hedgerows. The
greater availability of coal for domestic purposes would obviously have affected local
wood product requirements, along with the large demands for pasture and corn by the
growing urban markets. Although, within the study area, during this same period, it
should be noted that while woodland and wood-pasture declined in general there was
actually an increase in woodland and scrub within Prudhoe Castle Township, as the
*Boggs* and *Spetchells* areas became scrub woodland (Map 8).

The enclosure of common arable townfields in the Prudhoe area, as with most of
Britain, began before the middle of the seventeenth century (Crossley, 1990, p.9;
Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.135-6). Some new arable and pasture enclosures had been
created in the sixteenth century, managed both communally and in severalty
(privately) as “Intacks” and “Improvements” (Maps 11 & 12). This was additional
land to the existing townfields and mostly taken in from the large common wastes or
woods. There had also been a degree of unrecorded long-term consolidation of strip
holdings within the open-fields and some enclosure of these within the *Highfield*,
(Prudhoe). This too was typical of many villages at the time (Crossley, 1990, p.10),
and in the study area limited open-field systems continued in use for about the first
one hundred years of the chapter period.

By the middle of the eighteenth century there were few townships in north-east
England that still used communal landscape management systems, involving arable
and meadow strips, and by 1800 they had almost totally disappeared (Baker & Butlin,
1973, p.139-140 & 93). This pattern is reflected within the study area where the last
remnants of any communal arable systems were removed in the 1760s. Communal
systems had been employed in Prudhoe, Mickley and Hedley townships (and in part of
Hedley-Woodside) from before the sixteenth century until the 1760s, although it has already been seen that Prudhoe was reorganised and enclosed in the seventeenth or early eighteenth century. Detailed descriptions of these systems will be given in the next chapter.

Adapted versions of three- and four-field systems had been employed in Prudhoe, Mickley and Hedley, and may have used the form of arable land management associated with the more classic 'Midland' form, in which a crop rotation of one fallow year in three or four was employed. By the late sixteenth century many landlords had been considering the abandonment of this system as it was thought less profitable than non-communal management. Later it was said that this was because individual farmers had to sow the same crops as the others and one lazy farmer could lead to the rapid spread of weeds (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.62; & iv). It was also difficult to use machinery on the small strips and much of the land between individual strips was wasted (ibid.).

Unfortunately, for the townfields of the study area, we have none of the detailed maps and terriers giving exact information on the process of enclosure, such as those for nearby Crawcrook in 1794 (NRO Griffiths Ms., ZGR, dm.13 (copy)) and Corbridge in 1779 (Baker & Butlin, ibid. p.103). This was because, as has already been stated (p.54), all the study area fields were enclosed by private agreement rather than by Private or Parliamentary Acts.

The enclosure of the open arable fields of Prudhoe (Eastwood & Milkwell Heugh on Maps 10 & 11) was discussed above and occurred piecemeal by the engrossment and exchange of holdings between circa.1650 and 1737 (A.A. (3), IV, 114, where the
Eastwood Closes are mentioned). The large number of freeholders had probably complicated the situation at Prudhoe, so many features of the old landscape arrangements were preserved. One interesting factor was the lack of farmstead dispersion into the newly enclosed fields and the old centrally based farms continued into use until after the mid-nineteenth century. The situation at Hedley-on-the-Hill was very different, as when its townfields were enclosed in 1767/9 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.178) there were fewer freeholders to deal with. This allowed a major reorganisation of the landscape; with Aubone Surtees (the main freeholder) gaining most of the southern half of the township and the Duke and Duchess of Northumberland getting the rest (ibid.). A plan of Hedley dated 1769, presumably immediately before its actual enclosure (Alnwick Mss. A, ii 14c; Z/B 2/4), suggests that much of the old common arable system may already have collapsed (or was not drawn). Seemingly by this time much of this area was operated as open pasture.

Hedley-Woodside was also probably enclosed at about this time (or earlier) with similar results (Z/B 30/2), as permanent boundaries replaced a series of previously temporary enclosures.

As there appear to be no surviving plans of the Mickley townfields before the 1760s and 1780s, the reconstruction had to depend upon very careful retrogressive analysis of the few surviving documents. The enclosure of the townfields in around 1762 has also been mentioned previously (p.50), and included parts of the South Pasture, which were added to the tenant holdings in the West Field, along with the division of Mickley East Moor (compare Maps 8, 9 & 10). These areas can be related directly to the non-freehold farmholds on an estate map of 1787 (Z/B 11/4), along with other increases in tenant land in New Close Wood (the various New Closes on Map 9).
Except for its share of *Mickley Common* there are no other known records dealing with any enclosure at Eltringham, but cartographic evidence suggests gradual, probably long-term, piecemeal changes of a landscape of small closes. What we do know is that the landscape of Eltringham was considerably changed between the late eighteenth century and the construction of the Newcastle-Carlisle railway, in 1835. The irregular field-system seen on Maps 8 and 9 was swept away to create a series of large open fields (Map 7) that the railway appears to run directly across.

At the beginning of this period, large parts of the Northumberland landscape (besides the townfields and wood-pasture) were covered in rough pasture, heaths and moorland. Most of these areas were not enclosed until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and then generally by private and general acts, producing more surviving records of its enclosure than the common arable fields (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.98-99, p.139-140). Although this type of terrain was called waste for centuries it had provided much of the communal grazing for the townships of Northumberland and Durham (as much as 30% to 60% of the total township territory (*ibid.* p.137)). The high moors of the western uplands, with their shielings¹ have received some attention, but very little has been paid to the summer shielings that occurred in the lowlands (for example, *Merryshield*, Stocksfield, has its origin as ‘St. Mary’s Shieling’), here it was generally known as intercommoning (*ibid.*).

Within the study area, there had been four main commons, all of which had provided extensive grazing for the neighbouring townships. *Mickley Common* (circa.1800

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¹ Summer pastures with associated shepherds' huts.
acres) was the largest intercommoned area, not only for Mickley Township, but was also used by the communities of Eltringham and Hedley (in Ovingham parish), and Stocksfield, Stocksfield Hall, Apperley, Wheelbirks, Merrishields, Old Ridley and Ridley Mill (all in Bywell). The communities of Prudhoe, Hedley and Hedley-Woodside had shared Prudhoe Common, also known as Rise Moor, High Riggs, or Fulcherside Common (1573 acres) at least since medieval times, but appear not to have shared it with any other neighbouring townships. Mickley East Moor (circa.100 acres (+17 acres in Prudhoe Township)) and Hedley-Woodside Common (423 acres, covering the area between the Hollings and Woodhead Farms, and the Broad Oak/Chester Hills area) also had been large open commons (Map 10).

Most estate plans show little or no detail of what the wastes looked like before enclosure, showing perhaps the odd coal pit or unfenced road, but nothing else was deemed important. However, before enclosure the commons would not have been flat featureless grass. Waldridge Common, an area of unenclosed waste in County Durham, shows what parts of the larger non-intensively grazed commons may have looked like. Most of the vegetation consists of lowland heath and rough grass, but much of it is also covered with small patches of birch wood, with areas of denser oak, hazel and alder wood in the denes. Another unenclosed common still exists at Cockfield, also in County Durham. This common is still intensively grazed and mostly consists of rough pasture, but some similar scrub also occurs in places. What is common to both of them are the remains of mining and mineral extraction activities, also an important aspect of their survival. Similarly we know from Bewick and others that before its enclosure Mickley Common had had areas of whin (gorse), heather and fine green pasturage (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.248). Although the heather
has gone, gorse and birch can still seen on its remnants to the west of High Mickley. Also there is possible a fragment of old common flora surviving within a plantation near Leadgate (Field No. 68a; Map 6), consisting of heather (*Culluna vulgaris*), bilberry (*Vaccinium myrtillus*), birch, rowan, gorse, broom, bramble and bracken (Appendix 6).

Mineral rights on the common waste could be an important source of revenue to the lord of the manor and they were generally let on a short lease to local entrepreneurs, granting them liberty to construct wagon-ways to take the coal to market. Cartographic and documentary evidence shows that collieries were in operation in the area from before the seventeenth century and various wagon-ways were built across the local commons from the late seventeenth century (Bennett, *et al.* 1990; Warn, 1982).

In addition to pasturage and mineral rights, the commons provided other important local resources, such as supplementary arable land (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.138), turf for fuel (*ibid.*) and roofing, along with heather for thatching, winter fodder for livestock and wood-products from the scrub-wood.

The desire to maintain the common rights of the freeholders led to occasional inspections by the commoners and any of the lord’s representatives. For example, there were perambulations of Mickley Common in 1759 (*Leeds BW/N/III/i*) and 1797 (*Leeds BW/N/IV/83*), which led to many unauthorised encroachments being broken down and laid open. It could also take many years of negotiation to actually arrange the enclosure of a large common and, for example, various letters were written over
the proposed division of *Mickley Common* between 1748-67 (*Leeds BW/N/II/i*), which failed at that time to get a result.

Only two areas of common were enclosed by Parliamentary act, they were *Prudhoe Rise More Common* (with part of *Mickley East Moor*) in around 1780 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.246-7) and *Mickley Common* in 1812/6 (Hodgson, 1902, p.166, p.246). The schedules attached to the enclosure plans give a list of the freeholders who had rights to the commons and the quantity of their share.

One thing that can be shown from the records is that the date of an enclosure agreement does not necessarily give us the actual date of enclosure, or of any associated boundaries resulting from that enclosure. For example, the agreement of division at Mickley in 1762 (*Leeds BW/N/II/6*) would suggest immediate enclosure, but a 1766 map of the *East Moor Colliery* (*Leeds BW/Ma. 36*), shows that the modern field pattern existing by 1787 (*Z/B 11/4*) had still not been initiated. This is because even after a Parliamentary award change was not always rapid (Crossley, 1990, p.19) and to a certain extent enclosure could be permissive. For example, on the North Yorkshire Moors (*ibid.*), fencing and reclamation took place over decades, especially where a landlord’s mineral rights were affected (as on *Mickley East Moor*).

The recommended boundaries used to create the new enclosures (Grigor, 1846) were generally hawthorn hedges, often planted on a slight bank or on the up-cast from a ditch. Within the study area a number of boundaries were examined that were known to date from or close to the enclosure date of the open-fields or commonland. Most of these had the expected number of species for a 200 to 240 year old hedge; that is an almost pure hawthorn hedge with one or two early colonisers, such as elder or dog
rose, and they were frequently planted on a small bank or besides a ditch. There are also a large number of drystone walls dating from this period, mainly in the Hedley and High Riggs area. These mostly relate to the land owned by Aubone Surtees at the time of enclosure. There are also a few unexpected multi-species hedges, among the sample. These hedges are similar to a number of hedges dating from the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, mostly hawthorn, but with a variety of other species, such as holly, mountain ash, guelder rose, and even hazel. It is probable that the plants for these hedges were taken from local woodland, whereas the majority of the enclosure hedges were planted with nursery grown hawthorn.

Tenants shares were rationalised into holdings and separate enclosures, their size depending on the degree of agreement reached between the main landlords and the small farmers (Crossley, 1990, p.18-19). Where the smaller landowners were strong, older enclosures were often retained leaving small and irregular fields and house tofts in the centres of villages might be extended over parts of the open-field (ibid.). This seems similar to the eighteenth century plan of Mickley (Map 9), where the numerous small freeholders seem to have continued earlier practices. Where there were larger stronger landlords, the open-fields and unenclosed uplands were set out in large regularly bounded parcels (ibid.), such as at Hedley-on-the-Hill. The division of the common waste in northern Britain was the final part of the process removing communal common rights. Much of this wasteland improvement took place at a time of high food prices, when reclamation could be rapid. Because much of this land needed high levels of management, through repeated ploughing and liming, when food prices fell some of these areas were allowed to revert to low-intensity moorland grazing or abandoned altogether during the late nineteenth century (Crossley, 1990,
p.19). This explains the frequent survival of narrow rigs, on much of the former High Riggs Common (Map 4).

Crossley (ibid.) also states that besides the colonisation and fencing of the post-medieval landscape, it is also important to consider the new building and rebuilding of farms that accompanied these alterations, along with developments in field drainage, irrigation, and local road improvements.

**Agricultural Systems**

**Arable**

The amount of arable land in this area has increased over the last three or four hundred years, generally at the expense of woodland or wood-pasture, and those areas converted to arable on the former common waste have generally reverted to pasture.

Baker and Butlin (1973, p.99) were unsure as to how the newly enclosed fields were managed in the eighteenth century. Field-names, such as Kiln Riggs (Bolam, Co. Durham; ibid.), suggested to them that the field was still farmed in strips by ridge-and-furrow. However, Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.158) thought that these names were more likely to have been transferred from earlier furlongs. This is one possibility, but it is obvious from contemporary writings (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.66-67; Grey, 1841, p.163) and from the physical evidence of the narrow ('Napoleonic') ridge-and-furrow, that arable-rigs continued to be used in at least this form, even if they were no longer managed communally. In the late eighteenth century, rigs, whether narrow or broad, may have continued in use out of habit, but also, perhaps, because there were still some oxen being used for ploughing (Bailey & Culley, ibid.), which had generally
been used in strip cultivation. Additionally, rigs could be used to help with field drainage, especially those damp areas of former woodland.

By the second half of the discussion period various crop rotations were in use or recommended, especially as the effects of agricultural science and locally successful rotations were published in the Journals of the Royal Agricultural Society. Bailey & Culley (ibid. p.69), in the late eighteenth century, suggested one based on one year fallow, successively followed by crops of wheat, oats and then fallow again, continuing in grass for seven or more years afterwards. By the early to mid nineteenth century other specific rotations were being recommended for particular soils in Northumberland. On clayey soils (such as those parts of the study area covered in boulder clay), a four course wheat rotation was universally used in Northumberland; namely of wheat, followed by clover or beans, then oats, then fallow (Colbeck, 1848, p.424). These farms only kept a little stock as any permanent grass would be either made into hay or employed in rearing young cattle (ibid. p.427). On dry soils (such as the glacial and river gravel terraces), oat based systems were recommended. This consisted of two years in oats, followed by turnips (with lime and dung added to the field), followed by barley or wheat, and then sown with clover and rye-grass, followed by four to seven or more years in grass depastured principally with sheep (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.69). Barley/Turnip rotations were also recommended for a dry porous subsoil (Colbeck, 1848, p.427); of turnips, followed by barley, then clover and grass seeds for three years, and then a crop of oats.

Turnip cultivation increased considerably in the nineteenth century with the general use of bones and guano as fertiliser. It was said (ibid. p.428) that it allowed a considerable increase in stock and produce. Apparently when farmyard dung had been
the only source of fertiliser farmers could not raise enough food to fatten stock during
the winter (ibid.). Moreover, the introduction of imported fertilisers coincided with
the beginnings of climatic improvements, which would have additionally enhanced
crop yields. From the middle of the nineteenth century a cheap local source for
manuring fields was utilised, through filling empty coal trucks with waste from the
earth closets (‘nettles’) of the Newcastle area. This resulted in large spreads of broken
Victorian pottery (disposed of in the same waste) over many of the study area fields.

Rye was among the other crops cultivated in Northumberland in the late eighteenth
and early nineteenth centuries, which had formerly been the principal grain grown
upon thin, sandy, and light soils. With the introduction of lime, turnips and improved
pasture, it became a rarity except upon very sandy soils (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.79).
In earlier periods this would presumably have been the main crop sown on the sandy
gravels of the Tyne and Derwent valleys.

Small quantities of flax had also been formerly cultivated (ibid. p.109), mainly for
family use, but was no longer recommended because fields which had had flax on
them needed extra manure afterwards (ibid.). Evidence of its former use within the
study area comes from Hedley where in the former open-fields there had been a
furlong called ‘Lint [Linen] Lands’ (see Chapter 13).

In the Hexham area (ibid. p.110; Grey, 1841, p.163) the harvest generally began in the
first week of August, although on cold situations oats might be left uncut until
October or November, although the main harvest was in September. Most of the corn
was cut by women using sickles in teams of seven, with a man to bind after them, the
cut corn being set in stooks on the ridge to dry before being taken to stack-yards on
the farmstead. Oats and barley were sometimes mown (Bailey & Culley, 1805 p.110). By the nineteenth century most of the harvest was done by day wages using transient Scots and Irish labourers (Grey, 1841, p.163) and thrashed by horse or steam *gin-gang* machines on the farm (*ibid.* p.163).

**Stock Rearing Systems in Northumberland**

Another important agricultural product from the study area was cattle and sheep rearing, and large pastures made-up most of the open areas of the landscape. During the eighteenth century much of this grassland had been improved by occasional arable crops, drainage, and by the introduction of new grass varieties. The growing urban demand for meat and dairy produce (Crossley, 1990, p.20) particularly stimulated these improvements.

Hay was an especially important resource for fattening cattle (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.111), but in Northumberland there were few natural water meadows (Grey, 1841, p.173) such as those found in southern England. Therefore, hay was either cut from fallow arable fields or from old grasslands that could stand a severe annual cropping.

Locally, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, ox pastures seemed to have been particularly common. These were usually areas of good quality grassland on similar soils as the common arable fields and were normally located between the common fields and the common waste (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.135). This certainly appears to have been the case within the study area (e.g. the *Ox Closes* of Prudhoe and Mickley; *Map 8*) and most of them seem formerly to have been areas of stinted wood-pasture (*Map 10*).
Field-names on eighteenth century maps, such as *Cow Law* (Mickley) and *Cow Loan* (Hedley-Woodside), show us that milk cows were also kept locally, but mainly for home consumption (Bailey & Culley, 1972, p.119); Northumberland not being a dairy county.

Sheep were raised in large numbers, mostly in the western and north-western parts of Northumberland, on Hill or Breeding farms (Colbeck, 1848, p.429). They could also be kept on dry, loamy soils, which provided poor quality pasture; such as the open common wastes or the rough pastures of the Derwent valley gravels, where the grass was too poor to keep cattle (Grey, 1841, p.175-76).

Horses had more or less replaced oxen by the late eighteenth century as the main source of traction on the farm. Most of them were imported into the county (Colbeck, 1848, p.435), although they had been reared in greater numbers in the past (as evidenced by the common field-names *Colt Close* and *Horse Close* (Maps 10 & 11)).

Overall, the main limiting factor on the amount and type of stock kept on a farm, was the quality of the land itself (*ibid*. p.430, p.433). Sheep, for example, could not be kept on damp ground and cattle normally had to be over-wintered in byres or cow-houses (as often did sheep). As urban demand for meat was greater than local production, this demand was met by importing cattle from Scotland. It was only with the common usage of turnips (and the importation of the necessary fertilisers) that it was possible to produce enough stock to meet local demand.

**Woodland**

In the post-medieval period the profit potential from agriculture was generally far greater than that of timber and underwood products. Unless there was a strong local
need for the produce, such as for shipbuilding or charcoal for iron smelting, this resulted in at least partial clearance of many woods for agriculture (Crossley, 1990, p.21-22). There are many examples of small and large-scale woodland clearance within the study area (Maps 7 & 8), like the small closes within New/Low Close Wood (Mickley), or the larger clearances from within High Close/Eltringham Banks Wood (Mickley) and West Ridding Wood (Hedley). Woods survived mostly in places where the land was not suitable for anything else (p.109), but especially if there were local industrial demand (charcoal for the Derwent valley iron industry, and pit props and baskets for the local collieries). There also remained a major demand for good quality timber for shipbuilding. Much of this was taken from the neighbouring Crown property of Chopwell Woods (Tomlinson, 1898), but elsewhere timber continued to be obtained from hedgerow and wood-pasture pollards.

In 1693 a valuation of the Earl of Northumberland’s woods in Prudhoe barony (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.180/1; Alnwick Mss. C, ix. 4f.) points to many of the above points. It lists several areas of wood and wood-pasture, specifically mentioning oak springs (coppice), and the number of oak, ash, elm and birch trees for timber. Also there were areas of stobb-oaks (tree stumps), which were being left to regenerate as sciplins (saplings), along with areas of rammel (underwood or scrub). The mention of cock-shotts (mist netting of woodcock) shows that woods could produce other resources. A lease of 1614 (ibid.; Alnwick Mss. A ii 11a), specifically mentions permission to produce charcoal, despite the lack of any obvious charcoal burning platforms in the area (p.98 & 119-20). There is also a 1786 account from the Mickley forester, appropriately called “Forster Stubbings” (Leeds BW/N/II/G), of wood taken from
Cherryburn ground. As well as the value and feet of timber cut, it lists the ale given to the tree-fellers (as part payment), along with the ouzers of trees and keelers of bark.

Although substantial disafforestation occurred, ample woodland was left with a coppiced core\(^1\), and it was often only after disputed common grazing or timber rights (\textit{ibid.}) were solved that clearance could occur. Many of the Crown woods, in the seventeenth century, were seen as badly managed, for example, the woods of Bolbec (Bywell) barony in 1629 (Sewell, 1978). The main complaints were theft (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.180) or over-grazing by commoners preventing regeneration (Crossley, 1990, p.21). Where woodlands were enclosed, the fields created within them frequently mark former woodland parcels (\textit{ibid.}), for example, possibly, \textit{The Spring} and \textit{Spring Close}, Mickley.

The demand by the collieries and lead mines was mainly for underwood and young timber, causing the owners of woods on the Tyne and Derwent to cut trees more frequently (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.123). For example, the woodlands of \textit{Hallyards} and \textit{Eastwood} (Mickley) in 1789 (\textit{NRO 691/1/4/7}) are recorded as being cut after fifteen and six years of growth. The normal period between fellings in the late eighteenth century was twenty-five to thirty years for oak, elm, and ash, although birch, willow, and alder, were cut more often, and hazel-rods once in every three or four years (\textit{ibid.} p.124). By this period it was the general practice to cut all the growth at the same time (\textit{ibid.}), though some owners still preferred to manage their woodlands in the more traditional way. Anthony Surtees of Newbiggin (related to Aubone Surtees, of \textit{Broad Oak}), for example (\textit{ibid.} p.123), still felled in patches,

\(^1\) Like many 17\textsuperscript{th} century Crown forests (Crossley, 1990, p.21), and \textit{High and Low Close Woods}, Mickley. Compare Map 8 with 10.
letting some older trees stand as timber, providing shelter for the re-growth.

Plantations became increasingly common in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Many of these were planted as shelterbelts for cattle or sheep, rather than for timber, and it was thought that they would add to the “ornament and improvement of the country” (ibid. p.123). Larch was recommended as the best as it was fast growing, but they could be planted together with varieties of firs and pines (ibid.). A note on a plan schedule from Hedley (Z/B 73/4) from around 1800, suggests a mix of beech and larch for old quarry heaps at Airey Hill\(^1\), but generally most surviving shelterbelts of the period tend to be mixes of scots pine, beech, ash and birch. The extension of conifer plantations into existing woodland appears to have taken place after the middle of the nineteenth century.

The conversion of woodland to agriculture, in this area, was partly due to the reduced value of woodland towards the end of the chapter period, which was closely tied-in to the pressure of rising urban populations, particularly Newcastle. Locally, the apparent over-abundance of woodland, plus changing attitudes to land management, also meant that there was no perceived shortage of woodland for local industries, and any shortfall in local timber production could have been made-up with cheap imported material from the Baltic. This left the way clear for the clearance of woodland, and particularly within the study area, wood-pasture, for more profitable agricultural employment.

**Fishery and corn mill**

An important natural resource that should not be forgotten, were the large quantities of salmon and sea trout available to the local economy. The River Tyne here had three

\(^1\) The actual mix seen there at present is of beech, scots pine, larch and oak; and it appears to have been planted at about the time of the above note.
sections with ancient fishery rights; at Ovingham/Prudhoe, Eltringham and Bywell (XX to YY & YY to ZZ, on Maps 8 & 10); the last two split the same length of the river down the middle. The profit from these fisheries was important enough that they continued to be the source of ownership and lease disputes in the eighteenth century (SS 131, p.1918).

The Ovingham/Prudhoe Fishery was based on a weir near Hagg House Farm (Prudhoe Castle), the remains of its timber structure can still be seen at low water (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.167), and it was probably washed away in the 1771 flood (ibid.). The other two fisheries appear not to have used weirs in this period (Z/B 12/10, 1819), but there is some evidence suggesting the existence of a weir in the sixteenth century (see Chapter 13).

Within the study area there were corn-grinding mills in Prudhoe Castle and Hedley Woodside, but it appears that no mills were ever built within Mickley or Eltringham, which probably ground their corn in Bywell. Both the Prudhoe Castle and Hedley mills suffered from limited water sources, and both had reservoirs and millraces, probably of medieval origin, designed to increase water supply (Maps 8 & 10). The fact that these mills must have had difficulties is attested by the need of the tenants to grid their corn at Ovingham Mill during a drought (Alnwick Mss. Bvi 1), which shared the fishery weir on the River Tyne (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.166/7).

**Roads**

The roads of the area mostly become clearly defined in their modern sense from the late eighteenth century onwards, after the enclosure of the townfields and commons, and especially with the creation of the Newcastle to Hexham turnpike (p.54). Before
then the roads had mostly been undefined tracks wondering across the open commons, or even across open arable fields (over which there was a right of way). For example, on the Mason Survey maps of 1629 roadways only appear where they pass through settlements or between areas of old enclosure and woods.

Many of the roads shown on Map 8 were old packhorse route-ways. The Lead Road, which had several lines passing east-west through this area, has only one labelled as such on modern maps. Much of the traffic along these routes is unrecorded, lead transportation being perhaps one of the most important, particularly in the eighteenth century, as the ore was carried from the Allandale area to the Tyneside coalfields (Nicholson, 1975). Generally, though, evidence for trade routes through this area is circumstantial. Ellis (1989) has pointed out the evidence for this traffic through the Chopwell area, and Atkin (1989) demonstrated the occurrence of the Hollin’g name element along packhorse routes in Northwest England, often associated with small greens. This is exactly the situation at Hollings and Woodhead Farms (Hedley-Woodside), where holly hedges are still growing and small greens existed in the eighteenth century (Map 8). It is thought that these greens were sheltered overnight stopping places for the travellers and presumably, any neighbouring farm or village would have benefited financially from this. The lack of documentary evidence is strange, the profits for this trade would be of interest to the lord-of-the-manor; it can only be assumed that this is reflected in the cost of any farm leases.

In Northern Britain, another important form of route-way was the drove-road, along which the herds of Scottish and Cumbrian cattle were driven to the markets of Newcastle and York. None of these appear to actually pass through the study area, but the old Roman road Dere Street (generally known as Wailing Street in the nineteenth
century) passed along the south-west edge. Coincidentally these were the same routes used by invading armies.

Maintenance of some of the main roads can be assumed from the sixteenth century onwards, as there was a regulation passed in 1555 (Albert, 1972, p.4 & p.8) for all parishes to do so. However, even the creation of the turnpikes, did not guarantee good order (Bailey & Culley, 1805, p.169), and smaller roads within a township were not kept in good condition (ibid.).

Another important part of the local communications and commerce network were the fords across the Tyne and Derwent. The main fords were between Eltringham and Ovington, Prudhoe Castle and Ovingham, and Hedley-Woodside and Ebchester, but there was also a ferry in Prudhoe Castle (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.161; Mason Survey, 1613), for the times when the river was too high. It is probable that until the late nineteenth century a bridge across the Tyne was impracticable, because of the “flashy-floodiness” (p.163) of the river during the period. The fords would also have moved and changed with time, as gravel bars moved like waves down the river (Passmore, et al., 1993).

Industry

Industry is not really part of this study, as it is a specialist subject of its own right; but in the early modern period it was an important use of the landscape and provides a few details of what the commons looked like and relative dating to other features.

There had been coal-mining in area since at least the fifteenth century (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.163), but it was not until the eighteenth century that it really expanded beyond a few odd pits to collections of bell-pits (Map 8) or galleried collieries (Crossley,
1990, p.206-7). Such early coal-mining activities were found on *Mickley East Moor* in the 1760-90 period. In addition there was the associated surface transportation of coal, by cart, or from the late seventeenth century (Bennett, *et al.* 1990) by wooden-railed wagon-ways (Crossley, *ibid.* p.208).

A slate quarry existed at Hedley from the fifteenth century, which is mentioned in seventeenth century rentals (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.172), but the exact location is not given. It was presumably near the *Quarry Field* (*Map 12*), but was not on the site of the eighteenth century one there and may possibly have been at *Airey Hill*.

**Conclusions**

The development of individual land management responsibility and property should be seen within the context of the same general economic and social trend away from the feudal system. This trend had started before the middle of the fourteenth century and had been encouraged by the great plagues of that time, which hastened the erosion of the old system. The rise of the coal industry during seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was of particular importance in encouraging the rapid removal of common-rights and was thus another influence on agrarian change in Northumberland (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139). The degradation of the medieval landscape and social systems, especially from the middle of the seventeenth century, meant that those townships which had not changed earlier were forced to revise their land management systems, simply to survive.

The information presented here came mainly from the larger estates, because of the consistent well-preserved archives that they generated (Crossley, 1990, p.7). Also, large-scale enclosure events, by Parliamentary act, or where litigation was needed,
reflecting “... contemporary changes in local landed political power...” with a “perception of new market opportunities” (ibid.) are poorly recorded in Northumberland and Durham (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.93). The few surviving records often fail to clearly document landscape changes, which in this area were often piecemeal, long-term, and by local agreement. This can lead to the distortion of other aspects of improvement, “... with great schemes overshadowing the work of individuals...” (Crossley, 1990, p.7). The rapid expansion of Prudhoe from about the 1850s (Bulmer, 1886, p.490), as well as the creation of mining villages such as Mickley Square and West Wylam, have led to the loss of large amounts of countryside, and therefore, the disappearance of many of the old farms. This has helped encourage the amalgamation of many of the remaining holdings into the even larger estates of today.
Chapter Thirteen: The Medieval Landscape; circa. 1200 to circa. 1600

Introduction

Beresford (1954, p. 371) saw Northumberland and the Tyne Valley as a landscape largely consisting of nucleated villages, but there has been some argument as to whether these settlements had extensive open-fields or not (Beresford ibid.; Baker & Butlin, 1973, p. 141). Tuck (1991, p. 176) and Baker & Butlin (ibid.) all thought that these townships featured three or four large common arable fields, with tenant holdings distributed in direct proportion to the size of the fields (ibid. p. 120). Williams (1982, p. 86), when considering the north and west of England at the time of the Norman Conquest, saw a different picture. His view was a landscape of small, clustered settlements and individual houses, surrounded by small irregular fields won from the waste. These two different views of the northern countryside are looking from difference scales and from different ends of the medieval period, but do indicate that either their statements are incorrect or that there was a change in the landscape between these two periods.

The establishment within the study area of the true picture is the aim of this chapter, although it is difficult due to the lack of important documentary sources and this is where fieldwork, comparative studies and retrogressive analysis have helped distinguish the developmental process.

The period maps

Map 10 depicts the likely appearance of the study area landscape in the later Middle Ages (circa AD 1400) at a scale of 1:25,000. It was made through a retrogressive analysis of Map 8 and via information contained within the Mason
Survey, but with any features known to date from the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries removed. Some boundaries have been discerned as being of at least medieval date by means of their association with other features and others by their relationship to wood-edges etc. discovered through field and office work. This has been one of the main methods for creating the parts of the landscape not covered by the Mason Survey. The probable courses of the river Tyne and Derwent have been restored, using cartographic and geomorphic evidence, as well as the evidence from township boundaries, which are now across the river concerned. Additionally, any surviving broad rig and furrow has been added to areas, both inside and outside known open-field areas.

Again, this is a dynamic representation of the landscape, because there is less specific period data available on the land-use arrangements of the communities operating it and therefore this map represents a broader time-scale than Map 8 (approximately 100 years). This allows the known land management practices of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in Prudhoe and Hedley, to be combined with the less certain arrangements elsewhere within the study area.

Maps 11 and 12 are a specific reconstruction of the landscapes of Prudhoe and Hedley in the early seventeenth century taken directly from the Norton Maps contained in the Mason Survey and then corrected to a scale of 1:10400. Any features that were thought to exist at that time, but not recorded in the Survey have been added to make a more complete picture. Additionally, all the land-use information and any other appropriate information included within the written part of the Mason Survey has been

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1 It can be assumed that these parts of the township boundaries were originally in the centre of the river course.

2 Although these field systems would obviously have changed between circa.1400 and circa.1600.
included. Figures 8b and 8e (Chapter 14) are based upon the tenantry detail contained in the Mason Survey and depict the distribution of non-communal holdings in Prudhoe and Hedley in 1613.

**Climate and Terrain**

From the late tenth century until around AD 1300, Northumberland experienced a period of generally warmer temperatures than today (Bell & Walker, 1992, p.72-3), with 'continental' climatic conditions of relatively cold winters and dry summers (Lamb, 1981, p.60). This climatic period is known as the 'Little Optimum' (Bell & Walker, *ibid*).

It would appear from the archaeological, toponym and environmental evidence that most of the townships of the middle Tyne Valley were settled, or at least took a nucleated form, in this period. Overall, either at the time of township foundation or afterwards, this evidence appears to indicate a largely wooded landscape and clearings with lowland heath.

During this time, much of northern England was depopulated through military devastation ('wasted' from the period *circa*.1000 to *circa*.1350), leading to the abandonment and dereliction of much of the landscape, with woodland re-growth a possibility. Nevertheless, at the same time, despite the wasting there was increasing gradual re-colonisation by new populations and a re-expansion of forest clearance and cultivation (Williams, 1982, p.87).

Population growth during the medieval period as a whole was at its greatest in areas with the largest amounts of waste into which to expand (*ibid*. p.89; Tuck, 1991, p.34), conditions which prevailed over much of the north. Thus population expansion in this
period was probably a response to its ability to expand the amount of land under cultivation (Williams, *ibid.*). New populations were brought to northern England from further south, from ‘Midland England’, where there was a shortage of available land, and these southern settlers would presumably have brought some of their social and cultural practises with them (Miller, 1976, p.15; Roberts, 1996, p.24). This may well be true for much of the region as a whole, but it must be pointed out that within the study area, when surnames or place origin names are available, they generally indicate local origins¹.

Unlike woodland clearance episodes in the late Iron Age and Romano-British periods (Macklin, *et al.* 1993, p.135), at this time the increasing deforestation and recultivation of the Tyne Valley landscape did not lead to an increase in alluvial sedimentation in the Tyne Basin. This was probably due to the generally genial climate and reduced fluvial activity during the High Middle Ages, so there was less soil run off from valley slopes delivering sediment to the valley floor for re-disposition downstream (*ibid.*).

The fourteenth century saw another period of severe population contraction throughout England and much of the Europe (Lomas, 1992, p.160; Tuck, 1991, p.34-6), partly due to the Black Death, other plagues and failed harvests (Lomas, *ibid.*), but particularly in Tynedale due to the frequent raids by Scottish armies (Tuck, *ibid.*). In addition there were worsening climatic conditions (Lamb, *ibid.* p.61), which probably had a considerable long-term effect on the landscape, with earlier medieval subsistence systems now unable to support the same of level of population (even without the other population pressures).

¹ Although most of these names are not recorded until the late Middle Ages
This period of global climatic deterioration, known as the ‘Little Ice Age’ (Bell & Walker, 1992, p.73), stimulated general agricultural and social change throughout Western Europe and lasted, with fluctuations, until the nineteenth century. As a result there were colder, wetter, conditions throughout the year (ibid.). In the Tyne Valley it is marked by a major episode of very coarse sediment alluviation from around AD 1450 until the late eighteenth century (Macklin, et al. 1993, p.135), associated with an increasing number of flash floods. One such flood is recorded in a Prudhoe rental of 1434/5, when there was “... nothing for the farm of a boathouse there, because ... it was carried away by the waters of the Tyne” (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.161).

Between the later fourteenth and the sixteenth century, despite continued cold climatic conditions, the regional population began to slowly rise again (Lamb, 1981, p.560; Tuck, 1991, p.36-7). This was probably due to a quieter border situation and changes to social and agricultural systems (Lomas, 1992, p.160), although the population remained generally low until the middle of the fifteenth century. Despite this, by 1500 it was still only half of what it had been one hundred and fifty years earlier (ibid.). As arable farming expanded in the Lower Tyne the clearance of large areas was now permanent (Davis & Turner, 1979; Macklin, et al. 1993, p.126), particularly in areas of former woodland and upon the edges of large commons. The resulting increased sedimentation presumably reflected the continued use of basically medieval practises causing greater soil loss under the now wetter conditions.

**Historical, Social and Economic Context**

In the North of England, the eleventh to thirteenth centuries saw a major period of new village foundation, or the re-planning of many existing settlements (Roberts, 1986; Campey, 1989, p.60-89). This was especially so on the estates of the major lay
and ecclesiastical landlords (Aston, 1985, p.72; Lomas, 1992, p.150; Roberts, 1986), and particularly in areas such as Tynedale, which had been devastated and impoverished by the Scots and Normans in the eleventh and twelfth centuries (Williams, 1982, p.87; Roberts, 1986, p.212; 1992, p.24). For example, in 1092 King William Rufus restored Carlisle and re-settled the area with peasants from further south, who brought their wives and livestock with them (Roberts, 1988, p.173; Roberts, 1996, p.24). Roberts (ibid.) provides other historical evidence of new populations being introduced into Carlisle in the late twelfth century, but admits that there is no concrete proof of 'new settlements' or 'new layouts', although these are probable. In a similar way the Norman Conquest initiated complex changes in church architecture, which also drew upon Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Scandinavian antecedents (ibid.).

The social and tenurial framework of the communities within the study area mainly originated from the time of William Rufus and Henry I, but it was not until the thirteenth century that consistent records began to be kept. For example, Bywell was recorded from the early ninth century (Hodgson, 1902, p.14), but the barony was not mentioned before it was granted to the Balliol's in around 1093/4 (Tallentire, 1996, p.4; Bates, 1895). When John de Balliol inherited the barony of Bywell in 1228 it included the townships of Mickley1 and Eltringham (Testa de Nevil, p.385). And again, even though the Prudhoe Castle site was occupied from the mid-eleventh century onwards (Keen, 1982), and is first recorded in Fantosme's poem (p.72), it is not until the thirteenth century that the villages of Prudhoe and Hedley began to be specifically mentioned.

1Mickley is mentioned in the Life of St. Godric, dating from the late 12th century (Stevenson, 1845).
Charters and other medieval documents reveal that by the early thirteenth century, large parts of the local settlement pattern had already developed into a form that was similar to that which would be recorded in detail in sixteenth and seventeenth century surveys. For example, Gilbert de Umfraville I confirmed the gift of his father (died 1226) to Hexham Abbey of a tenement in Prudhoe.

“Tenant also in Prudhoe, on the west part of the town, near the north boundary 1 toft & certain acres of land in the walled field with 1 croft, containing in all 1 acre & 1 rood & from the south part of the Rayhill syde 1 acre & 3 roods called Hexham land; & on the north part, next to Bradwyner on the other part of the Viner' way, 2 acres of land; & on the west part of the said acres from the crossing of the aforesaid way, & abutting upon the to the south boundary of the same, 2 acres; & upon the Smalrodes, abutting upon the Bradwell Meadow, 1 rood; & upon the Ulyrudes, abutting upon the demesne land there, 1 rood; & on the west part next to the Cokrelliswell, 1 rood; & on the west part, near the said well, 1 rood; & on the east part of the town, under the garden of Robert Hyne, half a rood. And pays yearly 8 s.” (Raine & Longstaffe, 1864 [pre-1477/9]; Lomas, 1992, p.149 [1379 rental])

Then we have Hugh de Balliol’s (baron of Bywell 1193-1226/8) gift of a carucate of land in Mickeleg (Edgewell) to the same Umfraville when he married his daughter (Feet of Fines Northumberland and Durham, 19 Hen. III. [1235] p.48, 180/3(50)). This gives us important early dating evidence of that estate’s boundary, and also determines a terminus ante quem for a number of other features.

Also in this period we find that in 1294 Gilbert de Umfraville claimed an immemorial right to a market every week in Ovingham, as well as a yearly fair, a pit, gallows, tumbrel, pillory and toll (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.137-8).

In the late thirteenth century Edward I of England made John Balliol king of Scotland.

By 1295 Edward had confiscated all of Balliol’s lands and of all Scotsmen with land

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1 This charter can be related to the land farmed by the Bell family in the 16th and 17th centuries (Fig.8e) and the Hexham Lands remained as a named field area until the 19th century.
in England (Hodgson, 1902, p.63). Consequently, the Scots entered Northumberland in 1296 and caused great devastation of the countryside (ibid. p.66). Warfare with the Scots continued sporadically throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, with many Northumberland villages being destroyed as many as three or four times (Beresford, 1954, p.371-2; Tuck, 1991, p.36). Their reconstruction then depended partly on continued enemy activity, the environmental marginality of any particular site and the keenness of a lord to maintain his income.

Things were particularly bad during the fourteenth century, with Scots armies invading Tynedale every year between 1311 and 1323, and further large-scale incursions in 1340, 1343 and 1346 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.138; Smith & Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.57). The Scots burnt and ravaged the Ovingham area in the period 1312-16 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.xii) and Prudhoe Castle manor was wasted again in 1325 (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem 18 Ed. II. p.607; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.112). At this time it is recorded that in Prudhoe the orchard and pigeon-house [dovecote] had been destroyed by the Scots, and the demesne land and bond tenements lay wasted for want of tenants. Another example is recorded in 1332, when the castle, manor and town, which had been worth before devastation 10s. yearly, was now worth only 5s. (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem Vol. VII Ed. III. 29 (8) p.284). Likewise, a survey of 1335 stated that the manor of Bywell had not been rebuilt since it was pillaged by the Scots some ten years earlier (Hodgson, 1902, p.74). This pillaging included the wasting and destruction of the woods and the banishment of the inhabitants (ibid.). Bywell was again ravaged by the Scots in 1346 and 1347 (ibid.

\[1\] There were further major Scots raids in 1439/40 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.156) which caused a decrease in rent.
p.75) and still had not recovered from these raids by 1388 (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem, Sir John Neville 12 Rich. II, No.40).

It is also possible that Scottish devastation was sometimes exaggerated in order to avoid paying taxes to the king, and/or that some of this devastation was actually caused by local Northumbrian reiving. This form of anti social behaviour is recorded even as far south as the Derwent in the fifteenth century. For example, in 1473 various yeomen from Prudhoe were involved in cattle theft (Durham Quarter Session Rolls 11/16 (Frazer, 1991, p.63/4)). And again, in 1510, various yeomen from Hedley-Woodside "... assembled riotously at Chopwell Moor in Durham and seized 86 sheep worth 100s. belonging to ... [5 others] ... and drove them to Prudhoe Castle" (Frazer, ibid. p.67).

Of all the ills affecting the communities of the study area in the fourteenth century, it is surprising that there is no reference to the 'Black Death' of 1349. It certainly did have effects in Northumberland and Durham; with a death rate as much as 50% in some townships (Tuck, 1991, p.36; Lomas, 1992, p.160), and Beresford (1954, p.372) has pointed out that the estates of Tynemouth Abbey carried out many changes of tenure as a result. Such changes occurred regionally and included single tenants having larger, or multiple holdings and the pasturing of demesne land.

When Gilbert de Umfraville III died (probably in 1378 (1380 Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem 4 Rich. II. p.176-434)), his wife married Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland. After she died in 1398 the Umfraville inheritance passed to the Percy family (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.104), leading to a decline in the importance of Prudhoe castle, which was now no longer a principle residence. The construction of a
large new hall in the Outer Bailey at about this time (Saunders, 1993) was presumably so the earl could impress guest while using the castle as a hunting lodge. The castle also made an impressive residence for the various bailiffs who rented the demesne from then on.¹

The history of the fifteenth century is complex, due to the national political situation ("The War of the Roses"), complicated further locally by a great feud between the Percy and Neville families (Pollard, 1989, p.104). Nationally, in the first half of the fifteenth century, there was a general economic depression, leading to depopulation and the conversion of arable land to pasture (ibid. p.88). Locally there were reports that a number of places had been deserted due to the frequent plagues and of similar conversions to pasture by some local lords (ibid.). In the period 1438-40, further difficulties were caused by an agrarian crisis of pestilence and failed harvests, which hit north-western Europe and north-eastern England in particular (ibid.). The financial effects of this crisis on the aristocracy apparently had a major effect on national political stability (ibid.).

When Harry ‘Hotspur’ (Percy) rebelled against King Henry IV in 1403, his estates were confiscated by the Crown, who held them, on and off, until 1470. The Prudhoe estate was managed as part of the royal forests while in the hands of the Crown (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.113; Smith & Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.30). During this period there were a number of appointed foresters including William Jankyns (1438, Calendar of Close Rolls); a copy of part of a charter probably belonging to him survives (p.214).

¹ Apparently the renting of the whole demesne to only one tenant was unusual in northern England and it was normal to let the demesne to a number of tenants (Tuck, 1991, p.588-9), as was the case in Hedley.
Sir Thomas Neville, earl of Westmoreland, was granted the manor of Bywell in 1454 (Calendar of Patent Rolls Hen, VI. mem. 3, p.215). And in 1460s the Nevilles were also briefly barons of Prudhoe and earls of Northumberland (Calendar of Patent Rolls Ed. VI 340, mem. 4), although by 1489 these last two titles were back in the hands of the Percys (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem 4 Hen. VII. 11, 7, series II. Vol. 19(4)).

The Percys lost Prudhoe to the Crown again in 1537, as a result of the Catholic rebellion the 'Pilgrimage of Grace' (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.115). Also in this year we have the last reference to hunting at Prudhoe by Thomas Percy in his deer park there (Letters & Papers of Henry VIII, Vol. 12, part 1, no.491 23). During the early 1550s John Dudley was briefly created Duke of Northumberland and it is likely that Dukeshagg was named after him. The small township of Dukeshagg appears to have been created shortly before 1558 (Hope-Dodds, ibid. p.165-6) from woodland or scrub on the edge of Fulcherside/Fulscalside Common, at a time of other apparent changes to the demesne of both baronies. For example, Hallyards was probably created after Edgewell finally became part of Prudhoe Castle Township in this period.

In 1569 the earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland were again in trouble, as leading activists in another catholic rebellion known as the 'Rising of the North' (Merrington & Merrington, 1985, p.13; Hodgson, 1902, p.80-1). The rebellion's failure resulted once more in the Crown confiscating their estates; the Neville lands being permanently lost to the Crown (to be bestowed piecemeal in various grants (ibid. p.80-1)), but the Percy's lands were restored by 1580 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.108).
While these estates were in the hands of the Queen they were stripped of timber and game (Smith & Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.30), and the Bywell barony appears to have suffered similarly; so Crown management was obviously aimed at immediate short-term profit. The Hall & Humberston (1570 PRO E164/37, King's Remembrancer: Misc. Books, Series I) and the Stockdale (1586 Alnwick Mss. A ii, 8) Surveys were undertaken partly to find out what was left of these estates, and were followed later by the Hagget & Ward (1608 PRO LR2/223, Land Revenue Office Misc. Books, vol. xlii, p.42-163) and Mason (1613 Alnwick Mss. A. ii) Surveys.

In 1603, when the English and Scottish crowns were joined and border warfare was supposedly terminated, agrarian change proceeded rapidly (Chapter 12). Leases generally replaced traditional customary tenures (Tuck, 1991, p.587; Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.139), and there was a general keenness to rationalise and concentrate holdings, ultimately through enclosure, and usually by “agreement” (ibid.). Additionally, the growing urban markets, such as Newcastle, encouraged intensive cereal cultivation and the production of better quality cattle and sheep (ibid.).

**Land Tenure**

Numerous accounts and surveys give details of the forms of tenure and service in the Middle Ages, but explanations of what these actually meant are not generally contained within the documents themselves. It is possible to find explanations of many of these from other local sources, one of the best being the Survey of the Debatable Lands (Sanderson, 1891) a survey of the barony of Langley (Northumberland), compiled for the Crown in the early seventeenth century.
A reeve collected the rents and dues in each township, and was responsible for forwarding cash surpluses to the lord’s receiver or bailiff (Lomas, 1992, p.182). For example, cornage (a cattle tax) was paid annually by the township of Prudhoe, and every tenant of the barony paid each year for greenhue, paying one chicken called a wood hen (for the right to take wood and green branches from the lords woods).

Townships frequently made payments for, or claimed the rights of use, or access to, many wood-pasture areas, both within and outside their own community areas. We find that in 1586 (Alnwick Mss. A.ii, 8), the tenants of Prudhoe claimed the herbage (grazing) of Wyham Wood, which was not even in the same county! Similarly the tenants of Horsley had rights of pasture in part of Horsley Wood and access through it to the Tyne so they could water their cattle (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.47). These herbage and access rights caused many disputes between tenants and their lord, and between lords of different manors. A good example of this was quoted previously (p.71) when in 1276 Adam of Mickley complained that Gilbert de Umfraville had taken his cattle (Calendar of Patent Rolls 176. Mem. 31d.).

These herbage rights are important as they help demonstrate the pattern of inter-commoning outside and between township areas, and may represent arrangements in the countryside from before the formalisation of the township boundaries. They also show how important it was to the tenants to maximise the amount of land available for pasture.

Another customary service was the payment of a pound of pepper, or cumin (or a money equivalent) as a rent from some of the freeholders. Many of these freehold payments are recorded as far back as the thirteenth century, but may be much older. A freehold payment similar to this type of ‘peppercorn’ tenure was that recorded in 1386
for John son of John de Creswell, when he was granted an acre of land in “Purdhowe” at the yearly rent of a white greyhound in lieu of all services (Calendar of Patent Rolls Rich. II, *mem* 18, p.287, 1386).

Payments and labour services also had to be given to the church. Although no specific glebe land is recorded from within the study area, tithes were collected before the dissolution of the monasteries for Hexham Priory and Ovingham church. Hedley, for example, paid annually to the vicar of Ovingham a tithe of hay and straw known as *Lez Hedlemasse penneys* (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.53; Misc. Books Augmentation Office vol. cclxxxi p.17; PSAN (3) 3 1908 p.32). This was probably from *St. Mary’s Meadow* that was sold as freehold land after the dissolution; and the *Church Lands* freehold recorded in the Mason Survey in Hedley-Woodside was probably of similar origin.

**Tenure Types**

Of the actual tenants there are three basic types found in the medieval records, which carry on into the post-medieval period (Chapter 12), these are customary tenants, freeholders and cottagers.

The status and form of customary tenure changed with time. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, they are recorded in both baronies as *bondi* (unfree tenants), bound to manage the lord’s demesne in return for their house and land (Fowler, 1901), along with grazing and other rights. By the fifteenth century they are recorded as being *tenants-at-will* (of the lord), holding their lands by copy of the manorial court roll (*copyhold*, mentioned specifically in an account for Prudhoe 1612 (James, 1955, p.27)). From the early seventeenth century survey of the barony of Langley, we find
that this type of tenant paid the lord of the manor one year's rent for an entry fine (Sanderson, 1891, p.124). Also in that barony there were tenants who did not pay a fine as they claimed to have lost their copy and said they were copyholders by inheritance, claiming Tenant Right (ibid.). This customary border tenure\(^1\), although common in Northumberland (Baker & Butlin, ibid. p.139), is not recorded in the study area, but it is referred to in a will from neighbouring Ravenside in Chopwell (John Thompson, 1636, Durham Probate Records). This form of tenure was often falsely claimed in Northumberland, as a means of avoiding the payment of fines and service (Watts, 1971). After the barony of Prudhoe became part of the Northumberland estates, land there was let according to the custom of Cockermouth, or Cumberland (Hedley, 1515/16 (Percy-Hedley, 1969, p.63)), the standard customary tenure form for the earl’s tenants.

In Northumberland, a number of customary tenants held their land in severalty (separate, not managed in common with the other tenants). At Fourstones (within the barony of Langley), leaseholders in severalty held their land by customary copyhold (Sanderson, 1891, p.124). Examples of this in the study area are the farms of Hedley-Woodside and Hallyards Farm.

_Cottagers, cottars or cotmanni_ are also recorded from the thirteenth century onwards. They held a cottage and a small piece of land (normally an attached croft), and rendered to the lord of the manor a money rent and labour services. Normally only their numbers are recorded in any survey; for example there were 5 cottars in Mickley in 1268 (Calendar of Documents Relating to Scotland Vol. I. p.498)).

\(^1\) Where a farm was held on condition of keeping arms in defence against the Scots.
This type of servant, along with customary tenants, servants and hinds (a variant of cottar), were responsible for working the demesne land. By the fifteenth century, the demesne appears to have been leased out (demised), as most northern lords had done by this time (Tuck, 1991, p.587). Despite the castle and its manor no longer forming the centre of an important estate, the castle was still a desirable address so we find it rented by fairly important people who were also generally barony bailiff's (see also footnote p.607). In the sixteenth century, Sir Thomas Bates lived there; who also held lands in Hedley-Woodside. In the seventeenth century, Sir William Orde rented the castle and when he died in 1631 an extensive inventory of his belongings was made, listing the various rooms in the castle etc. (Durham Probate Collection). In Hedley, there were various demesne closes, included Hedley Park and other wood-pastures lying between Hedley-on-the-Hill and Hedley-Woodside. The Stockdale and Mason Surveys record these areas as being leased to a number of major tenants most of who held other free- and leasehold farms in the area (such as Sir Thomas Bates). The renting of the demesne in this way was much more typical than the for the Prudhoe Castle demesne (Tuck, ibid.). These large farms were maintained by a number of sub-tenants or lesser family members, most of whom are not recorded.

Most of the freeholders held their lands in socage; rendering to the lord of the manor neither military or labour services, but paying him one years rent for a fine (Sanderson, ibid. p.124). The exception to this was Eltringham; although it was generally listed as being held in socage, in 1269 it was held in drengage (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem 53 Hen. III. [p.218] 691), a form of tenure originating from before the Conquest. Freeholders are important to a study such as this as they

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1 Who carried out various early agricultural improvements (Bates, 1895, p.221 & p.280).
frequently drew up charters confirming the ownership and succession of their holdings, and these can give its extent and position. When they survive, they give details of the medieval landscape and a relative date for many features. Unfortunately, where field-names or the landscape have changed significantly it can also be frustratingly difficult to locate the features they describe. This charter of William Jennings (see p.207) is an example of this (Blackett/Ord Collection N.R.O. 324/W.3/12):

“Deed of gift from Symon de [blank] to Wm. Jannayne & Alice his wife of one messuage with curtilage in the village of Prudehow situate between the house of [blank] and the house of Thomas Ffabri [the smith], and seven acres of arable land in the places following: on Staunceley [Eastwood Field(?)] one acre and three roods of land, and on Stanly nigh(?) the Birks one acre and a halfe, and att [blank] one acre of land and att le [blank] one acre and att (?)(Rosschok/Rolscllick(?)) half an acre, and at Mickley Field [Highfield?] half an acre, and att la [blank] nigh the way one rood, and att Aluryland one rood, and att Crow/Cromlandes half an acre ...”.

During the later Middle Ages the biggest freeholder in Prudhoe Township must have been the church, judging by the amount of land listed as “late chantry” in the Mason Survey². Most of this land had been given during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries to various chantry chapels belonging to the houses of Hexham, Newminster and Kelso (Hope-Dodds, 1926). It has proved impossible to trace exactly which particular parcels recorded in the seventeenth century were granted to which particular body. However, the charter for a large part of a gift to Hexham survives (p.204). Another gift to Hexham was the Master’s Close, a parcel within the Prudhoe Castle Township given by the earl of Northumberland in 1378 (Raine & Longstaffe, 1865), to support the master of a cell of Hexham Abbey in Ovingham.

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¹ This was part of a collection of deeds copied in 1715, where this deed was stated to be 14th century, but is probably from the early 15th century.
² 323 acres around a third of the total land area
One small freehold appears to originally have belonged to a certain William the Pagan and later his land appears to have come into the hands of the Dean and Chapter of Durham: -

"... I, Richard de Humframvilla [baron c.1195 c.1226] concess and give, and by my present charter confirm Willelmo son of Pagani, for homage and service, 16 ½ acres of land in the field of Prudhou, which Richard Helle held, with common rights of pasture, and 8 acres in the waste to the east of the land which Richard had given to Nicholas son of Uchtred, to hold there annually to me & my heirs for a pound of pepper¹ – for all services, except foreign services, ... To grind(?) also at my mill without multure..., & receipt of pannage of ones own, swine pigs".

Outside of Prudhoe there appears to have been little land belonging to the church and this must have consisted of glebe land. Some strips in a field attached to Woodhead Farm in Hedley-Woodside, called Church Lands and St. Mary’s Meadow in Hedley may well have been glebe, but by the time of the Mason Survey both were freehold. In the seventeenth century the tithes and glebe of Ovingham were sub-let by the Lay Rector to tenants in the various townships, who paid in hay, corn, calves, lambs, wool, poultry and fish, or a money equivalent (Hodgeson, 1918, p.184-5).

As in the last chapter, there is a large part of the population which is unrecorded. This includes many of the sub-tenants, farm workers and about 99% of the female population. This is addressed to a certain extent in the sixteenth century by references in wills and inventories to non-tenement holders, but often it is difficult to identify where they actually lived. Another source of otherwise unnamed persons result from their appearance in legal records. Good examples come from the Durham Quarter Session Rolls (Frazer, 1991) of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, where we find a number of otherwise unlisted residents of Prudhoe and Hedley.

¹ 1 lb. of pepper was paid annually by the Dean and Chapter of Durham, in the 16th and 17th centuries.
Tenement Holdings

After discussing tenure types, it seems appropriate to look at the pattern of tenement holdings within the townships during the Middle Ages. Tables 4a-c (Appendix 1) summarises many of the details of tenures recorded throughout time, and Table 5 gives a direct comparison of tenant numbers and farm size. The evidence presented is gathered from a number of different documents (see footnotes), either directly or via analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Farm No's</th>
<th>Tenant No's</th>
<th>Farm Size in acres</th>
<th>Approx Total Area</th>
<th>Farm No's</th>
<th>Tenant No's</th>
<th>Farm Size in acres</th>
<th>Approx Total Area</th>
<th>Farm No's</th>
<th>Tenant No's</th>
<th>Farm Size in acres</th>
<th>Approx Total Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C13th</td>
<td>10^3</td>
<td>7^4</td>
<td>12 84^7</td>
<td>16^8</td>
<td>9/6/5 24</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>24 180</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C14th</td>
<td>5^2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 80</td>
<td>6^4</td>
<td>14^9 4/2^10</td>
<td>20 80</td>
<td>5.6 22</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C16th</td>
<td>9(10)</td>
<td>7(9)</td>
<td>16 or 20</td>
<td>8/6</td>
<td>8/6 20</td>
<td>160/120</td>
<td>5.6 5</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C17th</td>
<td>7(8)</td>
<td>7^12</td>
<td>23 161</td>
<td>6/7</td>
<td>6/7^14 19</td>
<td>114/133</td>
<td>5.6 7/8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>134</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The freeholders shown on Tables 4a-c probably mainly paid pepper rent etc.

The average farm size in Prudhoe can be seen to be around 16 to 23 acres, smaller than the 24 acre farms recorded in Mickley. It can also be seen that average farm size in Prudhoe and Hedley increases through the Middle Ages, while farm size in Mickley remains similar. The enlargement of average farm size in Prudhoe and Hedley

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2 Prior to the 16th century it is impossible to distinguish which area is specifically referred to.
3 Number paying after the baron in 1296 Lay Subsidy (see p.63).
4 Number paying in 1296 Lay Subsidy.
5 From Adam of Mickley’s Charter.
6 From Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem C Hen III 1268 & Calendar Documents Relating to Scotland Vol.I 498. Customary tenants/freeholders/cottars. There were 12 Lay Subsidy payers in 1296. 1325 (Hope Dodds, 1926, p.112).
7 Number paying in 1336 Lay Subsidy
8 In 1346-54 there was a dispute over 2 messuages, 24 acres of land and 4 acres of meadow (Assize Roll. 21 27 Edw III, Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.170).
9 No. messuages/cottars & 80 acres of arable land in 1425-28 (Minister’s Accts. 1124/1,4 to 6 Hen.VI).
10 Number paying Lay Subsidy in 1336.
11 A least 27 garths (potential holdings), with or without houses, are apparent from the Mason Survey.
12 A least 21 garths (potential holdings), with or without houses, are apparent from the Mason Survey.
probably relates to the engrossment of holdings by fewer tenants, as evidenced by the number of houses and garths shown in the Mason Survey. Such increases in the amount of common arable available in a township are due to assarts and new fields, for example via the construction of the Back-of-the-Hills Intack (Prudhoe) in the mid sixteenth century. As a comparison Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.190-1) has worked out that in Horsley in 1330 there were 24 bondagers holding 336 acres between them, there were also 4 cottagers holding a total of 24 acres and up to 2 freeholders holding 48 acres, giving a total of 388 acres. These holdings were known to be below peacetime numbers due to Scottish devastation, and it was likely that before the raid there had probably been 32 holdings and about 635 acres (ibid.). She was able to show that in Horsley at the end of the thirteenth century the same amount of arable land had existed as in the early seventeenth century (ibid.). In the nearby township of Newlands in the thirteenth century, we find that a freehold carucate could be 105 or 46 acres, and the 14 bondlands were each of approximately 27 acres; there were also 7 cottages with 5 acres each (Lomas, 1992, p.154). At the same time in Whittonstall there were 27 tenants with holdings of about 18-19 acres, and in Shotley there were 8 bondlands of similar size (ibid. p.154-5). The main difference between these townships is that one was a new foundation and the others had probably grown piecemeal, with time. Therefore, it may be that those thirteenth century townships that have a larger farm size may represent new colonies and vice versa. Going by the figures in Table 5 this might imply that Prudhoe and Hedley townships are older than Mickley, but further analysis (Chapter 14) suggests very mixed origins for these townships, meaning that no significance can be attached to this result.
It can be seen that in the Middle Ages around 80 acres of common arable were farmed in Prudhoe and that this increased to around 144 acres by 1586. This was presumably due to the addition of the Back of the Hills Intack, and probably increased again to circa.160 acres in by 1613 (105 for Eastwood and 55 for Milkwell). Possibly, parts of the Prudhoe townfields were of recent construction in the early seventeenth century, or perhaps older areas were reincorporated into the townfields. Similar increases occurred in Hedley. Whereas, in Mickley there is a big drop in the number of farms after the thirteenth century, numbers do not begin to increase again before the fifteenth century, and even by the seventeenth century the common arable area is only a third of the size cultivated in the thirteenth. In Prudhoe, the drop in population between the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries is considerable (to zero); due mainly to Scottish raids, and it can be presumed that this is the cause of decrease in Hedley and Mickley.

It is possible that much of the former wood-pasture detected by fieldwork in Mickley (for example, Hallyards: West Pasture and the South Pasture), formed over large parts of an earlier medieval field system at this time.

When the size of holdings are compared with other townships in Northumberland, it can be seen that they are generally smaller in the study area. For example, Long Houghton (Northumberland), in the seventeenth century, contained 13 husbandlands, farmed by 12 tenants, varying in size between 47-52 acres (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.138).

By looking at Tables 6a & b (Appendix 1), it can be seen that in 1613 of the total holdings (including the total land in the common-fields, garths and closes), most freehold and leasehold tenants in Prudhoe tended to be similar. In Hedley, at the same time, although the average farm size can be seen to be around 20 acres, there was
actually a remarkable variety in size. These variations in size, particularly in Hedley, are mainly due to individual tenants holding more than one farm, and possibly through partible inheritance. Baker & Butlin (ibid.) note that an equality of size is highly characteristic of the townships of Durham and Northumberland.

**Settlement Form and Agricultural Systems**

It is difficult to separate the form of a village from its supporting agricultural system, so here I will discuss both field systems and house plots, along with their associated crofts. Further details on the development and origin of these plans will be dealt with in the next chapter.

As can be seen from Map 10, the apparent main settlement form of the later Middle Ages was similar to that of the eighteenth century, with the three nucleated villages of Prudhoe, Hedley and Mickley, and their associated open-field systems dominating this pattern. These three villages all appear at first glance to be similar two-row settlements; Prudhoe aligned north-south, Hedley and Mickley east-west. In fact, Mickley appears to be a classic planned two-row, east-west aligned, green village, typical of much of the Northeast (Roberts, 1971 & 1987). A closer look will show that much of the landscape consisted of dispersed settlement, which perhaps reflects the true or original form of settlement in this area.

Baker and Butlin (1973, p.140) suggest that the settlement and arable field pattern of Durham and Northumberland in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, show a remarkable similarity to those recorded in the medieval land surveys and fiscal documents. Moreover, Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.189) in her study of the medieval field systems of Horsley, has shown a close correlation between the early seventeenth
century maps in the Mason Survey and the field systems of two or three hundred years earlier. So by closely studying the field systems detailed in the Survey and then taking those systems back a generation via that Stockdale Survey, we can grasp a view of the probable immediate antecedent field arrangements in those areas.

Within the study area, reconstruction of the medieval field systems using archaeological fieldwork has proved difficult, because of the lack of pottery from fieldwalking and a shortage of surviving ridge-and-furrow. Only two pieces of medieval pottery were recovered during a field-walking programme of the area, one piece from Broom Hill in Mickley and another from East Field, Hedley. Both of these areas had formed part of the previous open-field systems. Of the surviving broad rig-and-furrow shown on Map 10 that which falls outside of the areas of known open-field systems is of most interest, as it probably represents arable expansion beyond the established field systems prior to the population collapse of the fourteenth century (Tuck, 1991, p.34-35).

**Hedley**

In Hedley there were four main arable fields, Quarry Field, West Field, East Field and New Close (Map 12), divided into a number of furlongs\(^1\), generally called *flatts* or *shefs*\(^2\) and then these were further subdivided into the tenant strips. At first glance, this field system appears to have an almost classic 'Midland' form, with its common open-fields immediately surrounding the village, and its tenements in two semi-

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\(^1\) The basic unit of cultivation referred to in documents (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.141).

\(^2\) Akwell Riding, and the Middle and Over Shefs in the East Field; the Crofts, the Dean Lands, Cawtron balke Cawtron Flatt, Broad Gap and Heeldes, in the Quarry Field; Short Lands, Esh Flat, Wheat Acres, Hudson Reines, Lint Lands, Fuster Flatt, Heildes, Penroodes, Benwell Letch, the Howt Flatt, Lowe Heides, Greensyd Flatt and Ridding Closes Head, in the West Field; and, Nether Birke Hill, Upper Birke Hill, Upper Birke Hill and New Close Flatt in the New Close.
regular east-west rows. Much of the overall settlement plan can be implied to be earlier than the late thirteenth century, mainly due to features identified in Adam of Mickley's charter (p.62). As this does not mention any features that can be fixed to the south row, possibly implying that this row is newer than the north, despite several field-names in the northern part of the village suggesting the opposite (New Close etc.). These latter field-names are external to the North Field area, and may have been added to an earlier core. The south row appears to be at the western end of a furlong of the Quarry Field called the Crofts, and the south row tenement crofts/tofts extended directly back into this furlong. At present it is difficult to know if this row of houses extended further east, but it is possible that the row was inserted onto an earlier open arable field, as the boundaries curve slightly as if following the lines of arable strips. The eastern half of the Crofts was obviously once part of the Over Shefe in the East Field, and details in the Mason Survey reveal that many of the rigs on either side of the Lead Road link across to form a regular furlong unit. In addition, some of the same tenants cultivated rig fragments on either side of the road. The western half of this area could also result from the addition of enclosed toft-tail seloins (strips) as crofts to existing short tofts (Roberts, 1987, p.56), such as the southern tenement row in fourteenth century Killingworth, Northumberland (ibid.).

Most of the area known as the North Field in Hedley consisted of long narrow, probably at least partly enclosed areas, which were mainly meadow by 1613. Adam of Mickley's charter mentions a meadow strip that had formerly been ploughed and seems to refer to this area, suggesting that the basic form of this area had changed little since the thirteenth century. Meadow strips within common arable fields, as well as small meadow closes, are known from other Northumbrian townships, such as
Horsley (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.193), and generally these had previously been under arable cultivation (e.g. South Charlton, Northumberland (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.121)). This area may also have been a long-toft compartment extending out from the back of the houses (such as at Cockfield, Co. Durham (Roberts, 1978)), and is similar to the area of shorter tofts (the Crofts) running from the back of the south row.

The leasehold tenants cultivated further arable strips in an area called More Riding Field, which they had assarted (cleared) from the common waste, probably in the fifteenth or sixteenth century. Other fields with riding names like this in north-east England, are mostly of a twelfth or thirteenth century origin, such as on Spennymoor and at Fotherley, in County Durham (Lomas, 1992, p.157). In this case, a later date is more likely, as various other similar intakes were made in Hedley and Prudhoe at this time (e.g. Hedley-Woodside Intack).

At some time there seems to have been an attempt to organise the Hedley field system into some kind of three-field rotation, based upon the Quarry Field, West Field and East Field. Table 6b (Appendix 1) shows that if the arable land of the New Close is added to that of the East Field, then the total acreage of these three fields are very similar. It is unknown when this reorganisation was instigated, but the area known as the New Assart (Close) is mentioned in Adam of Mickley’s charter, as is the Aquel (Akwell) Riding (Map 12). Mysteriously the other two townfields are not mentioned, which could imply that they did not exist or that Adam only held land in certain parts of the township. The latter would certainly make some sense, and would imply that the fields were reorganised into a pseudo-three-field system afterwards. Other apparent three-field rotations are known from elsewhere in the north-eastern lowlands, including some Holderness manors in North Yorkshire, Bamburgh and Ebleton in
Northumberland, and Quarrington and Witton Gilbert, in Co. Durham (Miller, 1976, p.8).

Table 6b (Appendix 1) also reveals that by the early seventeenth century any three-field system that may have existed in Hedley had already broken down. Some of the tenants have a good even spread of strips among all the common-fields, which show that a three-field organisation may have existed. However, many of them had their holdings distributed unevenly and no real relationship can be established between street plan and field organisation. Many of the tenants also had engrossed some of their holdings into separate closes or into larger strip blocks; this is particularly true of the freeholders (e.g. Raphe Swalwell and John Turner).

In 1613, Addeson’s leasehold occupied a position at one end of the north-row, and mainly consisted of the adjacent East and West Closes. He also held a little land in the common fields, suggesting that his farm was a later addition and/or had been a demesne farm. Similarly, the Wilkinson farm at the west end of the south-row, had a very limited distribution of land and also may have been a demesne farm.

Prudhoe

Prudhoe Township consisted of four main tenement compartments, with one double row to the north of the Hexham-Newcastle road and two more to the south, and an additional row extended from the south-east compartment. The detailed survey of the properties given in the Mason Survey can probably be applied to most of this period (Table 6a, Appendix 1) and various elements can be given terminus ante quem dates. For example, we can see that the Chapel of St. Thomas and its associated close (Map 11) have been inserted into the green at the south end of the village, and as this chapel
probably dates to the early fourteenth century\(^1\), it implies that much of the basic street-plan is older. The lands associated with this chantry chapel and another in the castle *Peleyard* had to be given to the church before the suppression of the chantries in 1536. However, most of this land must date from a gift by Gilbert de Umfraville III in 1301 (*Calendar of Patent Rolls* Ed. I, p.588; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.72) of "... two tofts and 118 acres of [arable] land and 5 acres of meadow to the chaplain of the chapel of St. Mary in the castle [Our Lady of the Peleyard]"\(^2\).

The extension to the south-east row is more problematical in its dating. It was probably an addition to the basic street-plan, as it included the cottage of Robert Harrison, which the Stockdale Survey stated was lately enclosed. This would suggest an early sixteenth century date, especially as the croft belonging to the Dean and Chapter of Durham Priory is on the same extension and this is not definitely recorded before then (1508, Lomas & Piper, 1989, p.200). However, the prior of

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\(^1\) A 13\(^{th}\) century arch (Fig.7a) and a 16\(^{th}\) century fireplace in *Prudhoe Grange* (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.76; Grundy *et al.* 1992), a building on the site of the *Chantry Chapel of St. Thomas*, I believe are not *in situ*. 18\(^{th}\) and 19\(^{th}\) century map evidence seems to suggest that the house may have been rebuilt at least once during that period. The arch may have been obtained and rebuilt from elsewhere, perhaps from the former castle chapel *Our Lady of the Peleyard*.

\(^2\) This land is probably the *Priest Close*, etc., recorded in the 17\(^{th}\) century.
Durham had been a freeholder in Prudhoe before this and the croft might possibly be the tenement of William the Pagan mentioned above (p.215). More definite dating may be derived from the fact that one tenant, William Bell, held the garth at the end of this row and there is a field attached to this called the Clyston Croft in the Stockdale Survey. The garth looks as if it may have been inserted into this croft, which may be named after Stephen de Clyston (or a relative), a tenant-at-will in 1434/5 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.155).

The main field arrangements in Prudhoe were very different from those in Hedley. Rather than having the main townfields immediately around the farm tenements, here they are detached well away from the village centre (Maps 10 & 11). Also there was a larger amount of arable cultivation in separate closes and small fields, not shared by all the tenants.

In the early seventeenth century, there were two common open-fields, Eastwood and Milkwell Heugh, which, like at Hedley, consisted of a number of furlongs\(^1\) that were sub-divided into arable strips. From the Mason Survey it is possible to see that arable strip numbering was fairly strictly regulated to both fields. When carefully examined it shows a good clockwise relationship between street plan and field arrangements, like other earl of Northumberland estates, such as at Acklington (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.118; Roberts, 1987, 54; see also Table 6a (Appendix 1)). To a certain extent, this numbering system ignored the furlong boundaries, so that strip order in a particular furlong did not always represent a complete house/strip order (or sometimes it was simply reversed). Milkwell Heugh Field was possibly a later creation from the

\(^1\) Blackburn Shef, Short Blackburn Shef, Hunter Style Reymes, Hirst Flatt, Oaks Flatt, Birke Balks, East Howle Cloughe, Salt Pool Flatt, Salt Bank and Salt Bank Hole, in the Eastwood Field; and South Blackburne Shefe and South Flatt in Milkwell Heugh.
common waste and was almost exactly half the size of *Eastwood Field*\(^1\). Therefore, if the *Eastwood Field* was split in two\(^2\), some kind of three-field system could have operated here. This type of arrangement, where a strip order follows street order, has the appearance of being an adapted form of the Scandinavian *solskifte* or ‘sun division’ system (Roberts, *ibid.* p.46). Crawcrook, a township neighbouring Prudhoe, also had its tenant holdings distributed equally throughout three common arable fields (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.102).

Other aspects of the origins of this open-field system will be dealt with in the next chapter, but for now the origins of the early seventeenth century arrangements will be investigated.

By the way some of the tenants strips are distributed it is possible to get some idea as to when the open-field system was organised into the form presented in the Mason Survey. A large part of the township was listed as belonging to “Mr. Valentyne Ffenwick, late chantry, Freehold”. As stated above (p.224), all this land must have been granted to the chantries before their suppression in 1536; otherwise, the land would only have been recorded as belonging to Mr. Ffenwick. The gifts were probably made before 1340\(^3\), by which time the main chantry gifts had already been granted, but long enough before 1536 so that the main chantry strips had been reorganised into large blocks. The alterations also appear to have included the creation of the three-field system discussed above, and again, this must have been a reasonable time before the suppression, as additional farms had been granted to the

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\(^1\) *Circa.* 55 acres (including waste), as opposed to 105 acres.

\(^2\) The Survey suggests this to a certain extent by listing the strips in two circular walks, if the furlong boundaries are ignored (as the strip order does).

\(^3\) Besides the gift 1301, we have the first specific mention of the “Chantry of St. Thomas the Archbishop” in 1340 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, xii, 76).
chantries, which have their strips scattered amongst the other tenants. These later gifts were presumably made by the Umfravilles prior to their demise in 1378 (1380 Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem 4 Rich. II. 176-434), which could give us a \textit{terminus ante quem} for the reorganisation. In 1328 King Edward III had ordered the restitution of all the lands and pensions in England of the abbeys of Kelso, Jedburgh and Melrose, which had been ceased by his father during the Anglo-Scottish War (Haig, 1835, p.164). The return of these lands, along with the re-construction of the townships at the time, would have given an opportunity to re-organise the landscape into a more southern form, especially if non-local settlers were brought in at this time.

Another good time for reorganisation was when the earl of Northumberland took over the barony after the demise of the Umfravilles, as the earl’s agents may have wanted to arrange things differently. \textit{Milkwell Heugh} may date from this reorganisation or before it as it has the same pattern of late chantry land in it, but generally sticks much more strictly to the regulated pattern. This suggests that it had been set up after the \textit{Eastwood Field}, as there had been less time for minor changes to creep in. However, closer examination suggests that the strips of the \textit{Short Blackburn Shef} in the \textit{Eastwood Field} and those of the \textit{South Blackburn Shef} in the \textit{Milkwell Heugh} may once have been part of the same furlong (as with the \textit{Over Shefe} and \textit{Crafts} in Hedley). Also the furlong names in the \textit{Eastwood Field} suggest that this area was assarted from woodland (presumably from the ‘east wood’). A possible interpretation (Map 13), would have the \textit{Blackburn} furlongs and perhaps the \textit{Oaks Flatt, Hirst Flatt} and \textit{Hunter Style Reymes} as the centre of a field system. This would be older than the \textit{Park} boundary and woodland in the \textit{Priest Close}, with the rest of the \textit{Eastwood Field} an extension cleared after the \textit{Park} had been created, and then woodland partly re-growing over an earlier field system. Again, the suggested developments here are
speculative, as none of these field-names are definitely recorded prior to the Mason Survey.

A further area of arable, the *Highfield* is described in the Mason survey as being "... in question..." presumably because enclosure or reorganisation was being considered (p.53). Interestingly, not all the tenants of Prudhoe farmed this area and by the early seventeenth century it had already been divided between freeholders in the western half and leaseholders in the east. Although there are no other definite references to this area in earlier documents, it was probably called *Mickley Field* in the early fourteenth century (*Blackett/Ord NRO 324/W.3/12*). Surviving boundary evidence suggests that this field had been created from woodland and/or had had woodland regrowth over it at some stage. It is impossible to tell from the seventeenth century maps whether individual tenants had enclosed their strip blocks at that time, but some surviving internal enclosures are fairly rich in species, suggesting that these boundaries are pre-eighteenth century. It is possible that the *Highfield* is all that remains of a long-toft compartment similar to that of the north rows of Mickley and Hedley, or it may have represented a lost early settlement focus, perhaps with only one open-field (see Chapter 14).

Another part of the township that was farmed by a limited number of tenants, was the area that included the *Hexham Land* strips. According to the Mason Survey this area consisted of a number of small closes mainly of meadow, but also of arable. Although apparently enclosed by this time, this area, and the one immediately to the south of the *Hexham Road*, look as if they were originally part of a common open-field, perhaps
dating from before the establishment of the main arable field system\(^1\). The closes to
the east of Prudhoe main street are similar, if not so obviously, and these may also
have been part of a former common open-field, or they may simply represent small-
scale piecemeal enclosure from woodland. Instances of the partial enclosure of
common-fields are apparently rare, as it was prohibited (Baker & Butlin, 1973). Most
closes referred to in surveys and documents were enclosed from demesne land that
had been leased to copyhold tenants (ibid. p.136). Whether this is the case in Prudhoe
is unclear, but one small close, Benton Tounge, was let to a single cottage tenant in the
sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (Stockdale and Mason Surveys), and this area
seems to have formerly been wood-pasture, as part of the demesne.

A possible sequence of events could be that the *Eastwood Field* was created after
those closes immediately around the farmsteads, as secondary expansion due to
population increase. This would probably have been in the thirteenth century, either
before or after the establishment of the park boundary, with the older common land
being enclosed with time. Alternatively, the closes around Prudhoe village and the
Eastwood area may represent activity by two separate communities and/or periods,
with a separate settlement focus based in the Eastwood area\(^2\).

**Mickley**

Any reconstruction of the early landscape of Mickley has depended upon careful
examination of what few documents there are and then comparing them with the
known situation in the eighteenth century. Table 4b (Appendix 1) reviews the
information on the village in the eighteenth, seventeenth and sixteenth centuries and

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1 We have already seen that the gift of Hexham Land was circa.1226, so the field system must be older.
2 This settlement may have been called Stanceley, and will be examined in the next chapter.
these can be compared with Table 7d (Appendix 1) that reviews what is known about the village in the thirteenth century.

The most obvious elements of the settlement layout at Mickley are its two regular east-west aligned rows and the village green between. Eighteenth century evidence reveals that the north-row was occupied by the main leasehold farmsteads, with cottager tenants in the south-row. The house-plots of the north-row also appear to have an associated long-toft compartment attached to the back of them (like at Cockfield (Roberts, 1978)). This is similar in some ways to the crofts of the north and south rows in Hedley, but the question remains as to whether any or if all three of these croft/toft compartments were enclosed or not, and when. Those on the north rows of both Mickley and Hedley may have been enclosed by the eighteenth and seventeenth centuries respectively, or earlier, and they both appear to have previously been arable fields, but it is difficult to say what the early arrangements were like.

Curiously, nearly all the freehold farmsteads were at the eastern end of the village;¹ this is obviously of some significance, especially when the former manor house site of Edgewell is restored. A note saying, “Here was the ancient house of Edgewell, now decayed” accompanies one of the Norton maps; a house is shown on it; so it may have been a standing ruin at the time². We know that the estate and presumably the manor house date from before the early thirteenth century (p.204), but without any early maps or detailed surveys we have no definite evidence that the arrangement of houses we see in the eighteenth century was similar before that period. If we accept that this arrangement was like the medieval layout then the village may have started life based

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¹ In the 18th century the Humble freehold, at the far west end of the south row, is the exception and was probably bought later.
² In the 18th century this area was known as the Housestead (1766, Z/B 41/7).
on Edgewell manor house, in a similar way to the demesne estate at Harlow Hill (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.210).

A diagram by Baker & Butlin (1973, fig.3.1, p.100) of the distribution of field systems in the north-east of England appears to show a symbol for a three-field system in Mickley. Presumably, they had seen the two crown surveys of 1570 (Hall and Homberston’s Survey, (PRO E164/37, King’s Remembrancer: Misc. Books, Series I) and 1608 (Hagget and Warde PRO LR2/223, Land Revenue Office Misc. Books, vol. xlii, p.42-163), in which common-fields are named or suggested. Three common-fields are specifically named in the 1608 Survey, the West Field, Middle Field and Upper Field. These can be related directly to a list of the townfields of Mickley made in 1724 (BW/N/II/5 & BW+R.18.5), except by then the Middle Field was known as the Meadow Field. Unfortunately, none of these surveys are accompanied by a plan, although the one of 1724 gives the name of several other areas some of which can be related to the 1787 survey (NRO Z/B 11/4)¹. The area of the three seventeenth century common fields can be compared with an area called the West Field in an enclosure proposal of 1762 (Leeds BW/N/II/6); the total acreage of both are similar, if the area that was probably part of the South Pasture in 1724 is removed. It can therefore be proposed that via the field size and field-name evidence, that the West Field area was that of the three common-fields of 1608, and probably earlier. This is a relatively

¹ The South Pasture (192-2-11); The West Field & Meadow Field (91-3-12); The Pasture part of the Meadow Field (4-2-36); The Upper Field Pasture (43-2-38); The Broom Hills and the Haggs (36-1-12); Mickley Hills faugh (16-3-29); The Back of the Hills (26-2-15); The New Lee (25-1-35); The Middle piece of the pasture (16-2-00); The Whinny or East part of the pasture (7-2-18); The Riffs (63-0-15); The piece of common (11-3-00); The East Loaning (1-2-00); The South Loaning (1-3-00); Total 550-1-21. Hallyard’s Farm (The West Pasture (55-1-10); The Spring (23-0-20); The East Pasture (87-0-15); The Intack (6-2-00)); Total 172-0-5. [Those areas, which can be directly related to the 1787 map, are emboldened].
small area considering the size of the rest of the township, and implies that much of
the rest of it was not common arable.

Still using the eighteenth century evidence, a tentative reconstruction of the rest of the
field system in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries can be attempted. There was
probably a large area of wood-pasture running along the south edge of the township,
the South Pasture and New Lee, evidenced by the surviving traces of a wood edge
`High Tide Mark' (Chapter 11) and woodland species in this and boundaries to the
south. This was probably known as the Common Pasture in 1570, an area in which
the leaseholders had beastgaites presumably measured in stints. Above the eastern
half of this was an area known as the Back-of-the-Hill and The Hill, with the Broom
Hill and Hagges to the west, linking to the West Field. On the eastern side of the
township was the East Moor, described as being unstinted pasture in the 1608, and “in
dispute” on one of Robert Norton’s maps. A map of the East Moor from 1766 (Leeds
BW/ Ma/36) shows three enclosures and a hedge line marking the boundary between
Mickley and Prudhoe, running across one of these (Boundary No. 13/184= 14/182-
183=14/184=15/180b=15/182=16/180b; Map 6). The enclosures may date from the
early sixteenth century (1525/6 PRO Rentals & Surveys 13/62; Hope-Dodds, 1926,
p.244; Hodgeson-Hinde, p.133-6), when the township of Mickley paid for a parcel of
the lords waste which had lately been enclosed. Alternatively, they may have been of
an earlier date, and/or sheep ranching features.

Freeholders in the eighteenth century exclusively occupied the Back-of-the-Hill and
The Hill area, and their fields were divided into a number of long coaxial holdings
(Fig.6a, p.160). On the 1776 plan of the Newton and Thompson estate (Z/B 11/8), we
can see that this part of their estate was shared, implying another possibility, that in

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the past the freehold estates had been farmed in common, but separately from the
leaseholders¹. Because of the lack of cartographic and historic evidence, this is
impossible to prove, but if the freeholders had their own separate field system, it
might explain why their estates were all at the eastern end of the village. Certainly in
the seventeenth century, the Newton family, who made up the bulk of freeholders, had
some of their land described as being in several tenure (separate from the others
(1629, Calendar of Patent Rolls 5 Chas.I. pt.9), but this might in fact refer to
Eltringham). As can be seen from Map 9 and Figure 6a (p.160), the freeholders also
had a series of dales to the north of their farmsteads, like the leaseholders. If the
freeholders were separate from the rest of township in the eighteenth century and
probably in the sixteenth, we have to consider when this situation arose (see Chapter
14).

A similar pattern of long freeholdings occurred in eighteenth century East Halsham, in
the Holderness area of Yorkshire (Fig.7b, p.234). Here it is suggested (Matzat, 1988,
p.135) that in the past this township and others (in the same area and examples in
Germany (ibid.) had farms consisting of a number of long-strips, running from one
side of the township to the other.

General tenant levels shown in Tables 4b and 7a-d (Appendix 1) suggest that the
level of population and the amount of land cultivated in Mickley in the fifteenth
century were probably similar to that of the sixteenth century. However, the field and
documentary evidence indicate a higher population level in the thirteenth century. The
area of the West Pasture (Hallyards) appears to be contained within what may have

¹ Like parts of the Highfield in Prudhoe?
been part of a much larger former open-field system, defined by a possible head dyke (Brian Roberts pers. comm.).

If the acreage of the West Field is added to that of the West Pasture, we find that they add up, more or less, to the area required for 9 bondi at 24 acres each. Of course because the areas are similar, does not mean that only this part of the township was
used for non-free tenants. The more acceptable answer to the medieval agricultural arrangements would be a much greater area of open-fields, with all the tenant holdings mixed together, and with the freeholders separating off their land at a later date. Perhaps some kind of mixed history should be looked for; a thirteenth century landscape of long-strips running north south across the whole of this landscape, with the freeholders and unfree either mixed or not. Then after a period of settlement contraction in the fourteenth century and perhaps woodland re-growth over large parts of the field system, a more limited clearance and the setting up of a segregated field system. Woodland or scrub re-growth is probable as the population of Mickley appears to have contracted considerably in the fourteenth century, and an increase in wood-pasture in the late Middle Ages is known elsewhere at this time (for example, in Swaledale, following the fourteenth century economic recession (Fleming, 1997, p.69)).

Non-nucleated Settlement

Within the study area, Prudhoe Castle Township was the most important of the non-nucleated settlements, as a high status palisaded feature had existed here from at least the middle of the eleventh century (Keen, 1982). Then from the late eleventh century, it was the seat of a baron’s demesne estate, consisting of the castle, peleyard (outer bailey), two chapels and a number of ancillary structures related to the running of the castle, including a corn-mill outside the gate. It is probable that within the peleyard there was a certain amount of settlement, which may have been the precursor to Prudhoe village. Below the castle was the Castle Farm, situated on the Tyne

1 And/or the deliberate separation of some parts of the former arable field as pasture?
2 More likely, perhaps?
floodplain, and there were two other dispersed farms *Hagg House* and *Broomhouses*. The latter farmed the gravel terrace area to the south of the castle, and *Hag House* was probably the park-keeper's house, so may not have existed before the thirteenth century. All of these are probably pre-sixteenth century, but there are no definite records.

From the mid sixteenth century, *Edgewell* was farmed as part of the Prudhoe Castle demesne, but had been listed as a messuage of arable, wood and pasture, since the early thirteenth century. Before the mid sixteenth century, *Edgewell* was always recorded as being in Mickley and the baron of Prudhoe paid a freehold rent to the lord of Bywell; so the estate originally appears to have been a demesne farm in Mickley. When it was finally transferred to Prudhoe Castle Township it appears to have led to the creation of a new demesne estate in Mickley, *Hallyards Farm*, as the two estates are of similar size. When this actually occurred is hard to say. The earliest definite record of the *Hallyards* was in 1617 (*NSAN* (II) VII p.185, or Hodgeson, 1918, p.185) and it was specifically listed as being separate from Mickley. However, when William Newton died in 1589 (*Durham Probates*) his will stated that he had the *farmholde* (leasehold) of *Hallyeard*, Ovingham; suggesting that this is probably the same place. The position of the farmstead obviously within the former bounds of *High Close Wood* and the field-names *Spring*, *Spring Bank*, etc. show that the house site was created by assarting from coppiced wood. Other field-names in the *West* and *East Pastures*, along with evidence from the boundary survey, also suggest that much of these areas had been covered in secondary woodland at some time.

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1 And perhaps also originally *Master’s Close*.
2 A house plot and associated estate.
Eltringham Farm stands alone in its own township, although sixteenth and seventeenth century documents often lumped it together with Mickley\textsuperscript{1}. Besides an old fortified (bastle) house (Grundy, et al. 1992) and assumed wood-pasture and woodland, there must have been at least some arable land and pasture of the Common. The very limited reconstruction of the farm on Map 10 simply depicts the main structural boundaries shown on Map 9. This appears to show that developments here were very organic and based upon individual woodland clearances.

There are few details available on the history of Dukeshagg, but it probably started out as an enclosure, perhaps within non-coppiced woodland on the edge of Fulchersyde Common. The creation of Dukeshagg was not popular with the local commoners. In 1568 various local tenants were accused of rioting there, forcibly ejecting the tenant, and felling trees at Fulchersyde (Percy-Hedley, 1969, p.63; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.165/6). Across the common from Dukeshagg was Durham Riding, which was listed in the Mason survey as being ‘late chantry’. This farm had probably been given to Durham Priory, but there appears to be no record of this in the Cathedral archives. Another farmstead standing by itself was that of Hyons Wood, which must originally have been the Woodwards house. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it was let as part of the demesne, and appears to have been a cattle farm, grazing wood-pasture within the wood itself.

Hedley-Woodside was the largest area of non-nucleated farmsteads, where a number of which are known to have existed from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries (Hollins, Woodhead\textsuperscript{2}, Hole House and Broad Oak), but it is difficult to know whether

\textsuperscript{1} It is not listed specifically in either the 1570 or 1608 Surveys of the Barony of Bywell.
\textsuperscript{2} Both old bastle houses (Grundy, et al. 1992)
these same farms existed any earlier. In the fourteenth century, when the area was almost certainly known as Derwenthopes (Map 10), there was probably a similar scatter of farmsteads. For example, in 1302 a waste place and 6 acres of land in the wood of Derwenthopes in Hedley was granted there (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.168) and in 1332 (Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem Ed. III. Vol. VII 284) we find that this area produced rent from diverse freemen and a wood called Derwenthopes (presumably Heugh Wood).

In the Middle Ages, new communities were often created by splitting them away from an existing township (Baker and Butlin, 1973; Taylor, 1995, p.27), in this case Hedley-Woodside away from Hedley, or as new settlement on wastelands (ibid.). Similar 'secondary' dispersed settlements resulting from colonisation or reclamation are known in Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire and Cambridgeshire, mainly dating from twelfth or thirteenth centuries (Taylor, ibid. p.28-31). A Northumberland example of a new community settled on wasteland is the township of Newlands, in the barony of Bywell. It was created in this way as a “New Assart”, between Whittingstall and the Derwent before 1228 (Hodgson, 1902, p.37; Lomas, 1992, p.153). In other parts of the country, such as in south-west England and in parts of the Welsh Marches, where non-nucleated settlement is still dominant, these settlements can date from either the late, early or pre-medieval periods (Taylor, ibid. p.27). Additionally, dispersed settlement can also occur within classic nucleated medieval villages in southern and central England, and often represent the remains of an earlier settlement pattern (ibid.).

Most of the farmers of Hedley-Woodside in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, appear to have been using an 'infield-outfield' system (discussed in Chapter 12),
consisting of small closes and fields besides their farmhouses and a number of shared, temporary, *Farmers Intacks* on their extensive common. Similar patterns of settlement are known from Gunnerton and Stannersburn, in the valley of North Tyne, (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.108-9) where small-scale intensive agriculture of the 'infield-outfield' (or 'runrig') type was practised. *Woodhead* and *Hollings Farms* are arranged differently. They both appear to have a one-field system attached to them, as well as a number of small closes. This is similar to some of the isolated farms, hamlets and small villages of highland Northumberland (*ibid.* p.125), for example Harbottle (*ibid.*), Nunwick, Eels, Slaggyford and Chatton, (*ibid.* p.143).

The arrangement of the farmstead at *Woodhead* and *Hollins* also has the appearance of what Roberts (1999, p.95-97) calls a shareland field system and the details of the systems here are covered in detail in the next chapter.

**Crops**

We can gain some idea of the types of crop grown in these arable fields from eleven wills dating from between 1587 and 1639 preserved in the Durham Cathedral archives (*Durham Probates*; see Table 8, Appendix 1). Oats and rye are the most commonly recorded crops, with surprisingly few references to barley\(^1\) or wheat (hard-corn, which can also be rye). Baker & Butlin (*ibid.* p.134) suggest that wheat was much more commonly grown in lowland Northumberland and Durham than these wills indicate. This possibly reflects the cool climate of northern Britain during of the 'Little Ice Age', or it may have been that locally wheat and barley were restricted to more favourable places. There is also a reference to lint, used to make linen cloth, but its

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\(^1\) Known locally as Bigg
growth is also suggested by the field-name *Lint Lands* in Hedley, and ‘Lint’-names occur elsewhere in Northumberland (e.g. Chatton, Northumberland (Roberts, 1987, p.156)). Most of the wills listing crops in their inventories also recorded the presence of a plough and gear, along with a draft oxen or horse.

**General Comments**

Within seventeenth century Northumberland there are many references to common-fields (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.121-2), occurring in combinations of three, four or more fields, but these had uncertain arable management systems. However, Baker & Butlin (*ibid.* p.143-4) point to a lack of references to fields (as opposed to furlongs) in medieval documents. They suggest that this, taken with the large amounts of recorded assarting, indicate a gradual evolution from a system based on groups of furlongs to systems based on one, two, three or more common-fields (*ibid.*). If this is the case, it is interesting that in the late medieval period examples of all of these systems appear to have existed within the study area. They also suggest that the medieval field systems of the region had had a complex history, with periods of expansion and contraction, particularly in the fourteenth century due to plague and devastation, along with changes in land tenure and form (*ibid.* p.142; also Tuck, 1991, p.34-5). The common arable fields of Hedley and Prudhoe, and probably Mickley, also contained meadow or waste strips within them. Some of these were balks and headlands, unploughed divisions within the fields, but there are also the apparent long-tofts of Hedley and Mickley, whose curving boundaries suggest that they had originally been arable.

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1 One exception is a reference in the early 15th century to *Mickley Field*, Prudhoe.
From this study, it can be seen that three-field systems were at least attempted in some of the townships, and close parallels can be made between this area and townships in North Yorkshire, Cumbria, and elsewhere.

**Enclosure**

Various enclosures in and around the townships have already been referred to, and these were generally small closes, tofts or crofts; but as was seen some of these had been enclosed from areas that had once been common arable. There were also other areas that had been enclosed from the common waste, such as the Back-of-the-Hill Intack and the Hedley Intacks (Maps 11 & 12). This sort of enclosure was different from the temporary ‘outfield’ (farmers intakes) of the Broad Oak area, as they were carried out by the tenants in order to permanently extend their holdings.

As seen previously (p.59), another enclosure already in existence before 1245 was Prudhoe Park, (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.92). It is generally thought that the construction of parks was mainly a twelfth and thirteenth century fashion (Cantor, 1982), primarily as a status symbol and recreation facility, but also as an important part of the demesne estate (ibid.; Lomas, 1992, p.158). By the late Middle Ages the Nevilles had at least four parks in County Durham and the Percys had at least four in Northumberland (ibid.) in addition to Prudhoe (although someone as important as the bishop of Durham had as many as seven (ibid.)). Norton’s map of Prudhoe Park (Fig.3b, p.60) clearly depicts a wooden pale around it, although this may have been cartographic convention (Smith & Tolan-Smith, 1997), and forms the classic elliptical shape of many similar enclosures (Cantor, ibid.). Unfortunately, there no longer appears to be any obvious remains of this fence, but if it were like the park pale of Beaurepaire, in
County Durham, it would probably have consisted of a low bank with a hedge or fence upon it (personal observation).

Within the *Hagg Bank* area of the *Park*, at the top of a steep natural slope, is a large earthen bank surmounted by mature trees (*Boundary No. 98-108/99-107; Map 6*). As it is not depicted on any of the seventeenth century maps, Smith & Tolan-Smith (*ibid.* p.36) thought that it was constructed afterwards, especially as a felled tree suggested to them a *terminus ante quem* of around 1700. But as there appear to be no trees within the study area of any great antiquity, and no internal features are shown within woodland on any of Norton’s maps, this does not mean this feature did not exist at the time the map was drawn. Therefore, this boundary may in fact be older than the Park itself.

The fact that this was a deer park in the past, is confirmed on one early nineteenth century map (*Z/B 9/2*), which shows a *deer leap* at the far south end. Although there are references to hunting in this park, its main use was probably always for cattle, as a wood-pasture. For example, in 1405, six oxen were given from *Prudhoe Park* to John Boterell (*Calendar of Patent Rolls Henry IV Vol. III*, p.68). Similarly, the bishop of Durham’s park at *Beaurepaire* was mostly used to sustain draft animals (oxen), as a horse stud, a sheep farm and as a source of timber, bark, peat and coal (*Lomas, 1992*, p.159). There was never any evidence of hunting in that park (*ibid.*).

**Stock Rearing Systems**

Throughout medieval Northern Britain, stock rearing was probably as important as arable farming, if not more so. On average, at least half the total township area was devoted to grazing of one kind or another (*Lomas, 1992*, p.149), and even arable fields
were used for communal grazing at certain times of the year (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.142). References to areas of meadow and pasture in closes, parks and even within the common arable fields have frequently been mentioned throughout this chapter and will not be repeated here.

By the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, most pasture and meadow areas were gaited (also called gatts, stints, dales, or doles), where the system of strips used in the common fields was extended to the rest of the landscape. For example, in Prudhoe, the wood-pastures areas Horse Close, Eastwood Gatts, and Highfield Pasture, were all gaited, with each tenant having a very regulated share of each area. The herbage rights of other wood-pasture areas (part of the demesne) could be either let to all the tenants of a township, or to only one or two of them. Examples include the tenants of Hedley, listed in the Stockdale Survey as having the herbage of a number of wood-pasture closes\(^1\). Whereas only one tenant held the herbage of Hyance [Hyons] Wood and three held the Parocke. This is typical of most of earl of Northumberland's townships (ibid. p.135), such as the townships of Denwick, Middle Chirton, Preston, Monkseaton, Backworth and Eastwick, all with stinted ox pastures and meadow (ibid. p.134-5).

An idea of the range of animals kept on the farms can be gained from the same wills and inventories mentioned above (Table 8, Appendix 1). Cattle and sheep, in a variety of ages and sexes, were the most frequently listed stock, but their numbers varied, probably according to farm size and tenant status. Additionally, most of the farmers had a horse or two, probably mainly for traction, but riding horses are also

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\(^1\) Somer Close, Meadowfield, West Rydden, Horse Close (Spinnells) and Headley Parke.
sometimes listed. Around half of these farmers kept a few pigs, but the numbers do not appear to be related to farm size, as some farms which generally had more animals than average only had a few pigs. Traditionally one or two pigs have been kept by even the most lowly of cottars in a sty at the back of their house, and this is probably reflected in these figures. Only one inventory contained a reference to poultry (“... a hen, a cock and a goose ...” (1636 John Thompson, Ravenside (Durham Probates)), it may be that poultry were of such little value that it was generally not recorded, rather than due to lack of presence. Older documents seem to suggest a similar range of animals in the medieval period.

**Waste**

The use of the common waste has been discussed in the previous chapter, and it must be remembered that this had always been an important source of pasture for the tenants of the surrounding townships.

Hinton (1997, p.11) warns of the difficulties of defining boundaries to commons prior to any piecemeal enclosure, and therefore the difficulty of using any known common boundary to define what it was like earlier. Despite this warning the boundaries of the commons on Map 13 have had to be assumed from the seventeenth and eighteenth century maps.

Within Durham and Northumberland, the right of commonage, the practice of ‘summering’ animals on the common waste, was proportionate to the number of husbandlands a tenant held (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.138-9). From the 1608 Survey of Mickley we find that the number of animals each tenant could graze on a common was very regulated (Table 7b, Appendix 1), and these restrictions were presumably
originally related to the original carrying capacity of the land (*ibid.* p.126). However complaints about overstocking were frequent (*ibid.* p.138), presumably as climatic changes led to poorer growing conditions and overgrazing. Additionally, overgrazing would make soil conditions worse, through trampling and nutrient removal.¹

Work on ‘summering’, has tended to concentrate on upland transhumance, where small seasonally occupied *shieling* huts are a characteristic feature. *Shielings* also occurred on lowland commons, with two examples within the study area. One is the *shepcot* (sheep-barn) shown on the Norton maps on *Fulcherside Common* (Map 10). This was part of a sheep ranch belonging to the monks of Newminster based in Chopwell (who had a number of other similar farms (McDonnell, 1988; Tuck, 1991)). The other example is *Merryshield* on the northern edge of *Mickley Common*, which presumably was originally ‘St. Mary’s shieling’.

The tenants of the townships surrounding *Mickley* and *Fulcherside Commons* all shared the rights of commonage on them. The tenants of Mickley holding *beastgaites* without stint on the *Common Pasture* (on *Mickley* and *East Moor Commons*). Similarly, the common pasture of Alnemouth (Northumberland) was also without stint, and was shared with the tenants of Houghton (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.137). Moreover, *Shildon Moor* (just across the Tyne from the study area) was intercommoned by a number of townships, including Bywell, Newton Hall and Ovington (*ibid.*). Shared commons inevitably led to disputes between townships, probably at times when population and/or economic pressures were greatest. The Norton maps of the Prudhoe barony contain two labels pointing to presumably

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¹ Even though a certain amount of nutrients are returned in the manure that the cattle would have deposited, their removal to market still take nutrients away from the local soil supply circuit.
ongoing disputes on *Mickley East Moor* and *Hedley Common*. Both of these disputes had been decided by the time these two areas are mapped properly in the mid-eighteenth century. For example, on *Mickley East Moor* a new township boundary appears to have been created, cutting across some earlier features (p.232).

**Woodland**

As can be seen by comparing Maps 8 and 10, there was significantly more woodland and wood-pasture in the medieval period than in the eighteenth century. Indeed, it was the clearance of this woodland, along with the enclosure of the common arable and wasteland that has had the greatest effect on the appearance of the modern landscape. Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.197) was able to show that areas of woodland depicted on the Norton maps was almost certainly in existence in the thirteenth century. Within the Prudhoe area earlier distribution can only definitely be confirmed to the sixteenth century, from surveys such as a valuation made in 1538 (*Alnwick Mss. A* i.2; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.179). This lists many of the woods within the Prudhoe barony, which were all:

"... well replenished with Byrche, alders, hasell, ashes and other underwood, and rotten trees being of lytell valewe there to be sold, and also there ys growing in the same wood okes ffor tymber MD [1500] trees, valued at CC [200] marces." The Stockdale Survey describes some of these woods as containing oak timber, underwood and *rammel*\(^1\).

The mention of underwood and timber trees certainly implies that some kind of coppice management was being carried out in at least part of these woods.

Woodland trees were of great value and there are examples of timber and wood right infringements from historic documents. For example, in the early seventeenth century

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\(^1\) Literally branches or twigs, possibly as fodder or from the shedding of timber trees.
George Baits of Woodhead accused Thomas Newton of Hedley of cutting and carrying away: -

"... certain hollings growing in his lordships grounds ... he maketh cloggs and runggs of the same and maketh great spoyle and waste of his lordships woods in his lordships grounds in Hedley Woods."

And in 1548 (Hope-Dodds, 1926 p.179), two men were accused of cutting down and carrying away large numbers of trees from the woods belonging to the castle.

Whereas in the post-medieval period wood was mostly in demand for pit props and shipbuilding, in Middle Ages its other uses were probably of greater importance, such as a source of firewood, construction materials and industrial products.

As discussed above, in Northern Britain, through herbage rights woodland provided the important facilities of additional pasture, leaf fodder and hay (Fleming, 1997, p.57; Rackham, 1986, p.120-2). For instance, Hyons Wood was depicted on the Robert Norton maps as part of a much larger area of woodland consisting of what are now Hyons East and West Woods and part of Hedley Park. The map reveals that the East Wood was split into two, Little and Great Ponton Plane. The term plane or plain normally indicates an area of grazing between coppices (Rackham, ibid.), but clearly in the early seventeenth century the whole of this area was used as wood-pasture, as is attested by the details in the Mason survey. As has already been mentioned, there was also a farm that had presumably been the woodward’s cottage.

There is also evidence for coppicing in other woods, including the field-name evidence for coppice within High Close Wood (p.116), but generally by the early modern period nearly all of the woodland had become wood-pasture. This was probably due to the increasing demands for meat and dairy products from the growing
urban market, and perhaps reflects the difficulties of a reliable corn harvest during the 'Little Ice Age'.

**Fishery and Corn Mill**

Fisheries and corn mills were important aspects of the pre-industrial landscape. The passage of salmon and sea trout, caught in the fisheries of the River Tyne, was a major source of protein and revenue, and corn mills were needed to make bread-flour.

As previously mentioned (p.193), there were two fisheries within the study area: the fishery of Ovingham/Prudhoe between *Hagg Bank* and the Whittle/Ovingham Burn, and the joint fisheries of Eltringham and Bywell between there and *Bywell Dam*. There are no known records of any fisheries on the River Derwent.

The Bywell/Eltringham fishery was divided down the middle of the river, and the south side belonged to the freehold estates of Stocksfield Hall, Merryshields and Eltringham. An early reference to this fishery occurred when it was involved in a legal dispute in 1377 (*Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem* 51 Ed. III. [337] 339 file 262). Mary de Sancto Paulo (then baroness) complained that her fishery in Bywell was of no value because Gilbert de Umfraville had "... newly raised a hedge in the river Tyne ten feet higher than usual, so that salmon cannot have their accustomed passage... ". There are few other references to this fishery until 1569, when at the time of the rebellion the Eltringham fishery was seized by the Crown (Hope-Dodds, 1926; Hodgson, 1902, p.252). A dispute followed, culminating in 1598/9, when a number of tenants "... in a riotous manner armed with staves and swords were alleged to have broken open the locks of the dam" (*ibid.*; Dendy, 1908, p.16; Hodgson, *ibid.* p.86). These two reference give the only known evidence for a weir on this fishery,
presumably across the Tyne between the mouths of the Otter and Whittle Burns (Map 8). This also gives us some idea of how valuable fisheries were, if people were willing to go to such lengths to control them.

The Prudhoe/Ovingham fishery also has a long history, the details of which can be seen in an article by Victor Watts (1988). He states that we must be careful to distinguish between the fishery of Ovingham and the fishery at Ovingham. The first is the *Piscaria in aqua de Tyne que spectali ad feodum de Whitehil et de Ovingham*, the legal right of fishing in certain waters. This could be an exclusive right of fishing in public water derived by royal grant (free fishery), or exclusive rights to fish derived from ownership of the soil (several fishery), or the right of fishing in another man’s water (common fishery). It can also be a fishing establishment, the place where fish are caught, or a fish weir (Watts, 1988, p.56). It is first mentioned in *circa*.1200 (ibid. p.55), which Watts states actually extended eighteen miles down the river to the Howdon Burn. Whereas the fishery at Ovingham, is the dam or pool at Prudhoe/Ovingham (Maps 10 & 11), and it is recorded as belonging to the barony from *circa*.1195-1226 (ibid.; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.145). A Post Mortem of 1307 (*Calendar of Inquisitions Post Mortem* Ed. II. p14; ibid. xii, p.154) revealed that in Prudhoe there were two watermills, a pool and a fishery in the River Tyne. The pool was probably the area behind the dam or the millpond, but it may possibly have referred to an area later known as of the *Vivery*, or the parts of the *Eastwood Field* known as the *Salt Pool*. The *Vivy* is possibly referred to in the charter for the *Hexham Lands* (p.204), which mentions the *Viner’* or *Viver’ way*. This may have been a very early fishpond or another possibly explanation could be that this area and the *Salt Pool* were used for the storage of salmon caught in the river.
The Ovingham/Prudhoe fishery was mentioned throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, but by around 1500 it had fallen into disrepair through lack of maintenance (Watts, 1988, p.55). It was repaired in the early sixteenth century and can be traced from then on until the middle of the eighteenth century (ibid.).

The existence of two corn mills in Prudhoe in the early fourteenth century has been mentioned above, one of these was probably Ovingham Mill that used the fishery-weir, and the other was almost certainly outside the gates of Prudhoe Castle. The earliest reference comes from the Great Charter of Inspeximus of the prior & convent of Hexham, confirming their lands and possessions in Northumberland. In it we find that the Dean & Chapter of Durham were allowed to grind corn at the mill of Richard de Umfraville (circa.1195-1226) in his gift to them (Fowler, 1898; xvi ii Preface Dean & Chapter of Durham i, 3, Specialium). The earliest Prudhoe barony rental of 1434/5 fails to mention any mill in Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926, 155), but as it was recorded in the fourteenth century (1343 (Fowler ibid. p.39)), it may have been temporarily abandoned during the time of the Scottish troubles. By the time of the rental of 1471/2 (Hodgeson, 1921, p.63; Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.179) it was obviously in use again, as the grain mill there was leased to a tenant, who had had certain expenses for its repair, including buying two new millstones. A millrace (Map 11) depicted on Robert Norton’s maps of Prudhoe formed the township boundary between Prudhoe and Prudhoe Castle, as well as the southern boundary of Master’s Close, so the line dated from at least the late fourteenth century, and possibly the twelfth. Field study reveals an irregular ditch, often with a slight bank to the north (downhill) side.

1 The remains of which can still be seen today.
2 Or his father's
It appears to have been used to collect water from the Otter Burn and some other minor rills, in order to feed the castle millpond, although no dam structure is visible on the burn. Interestingly, the line\(^1\) continues beyond the burn to form the northern boundary of *Beaumont Wood*, Eltringham, which suggests an origin earlier than barony boundary formation.

Another mill was constructed in Hedley-Woodside, possibly as late as the sixteenth century as there appear to be no earlier records (see also below), and it was recorded as being rented by the same tenant throughout most of that century (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.179). It also has a millrace depicted on the Norton maps, which the eighteenth century map of Hedley-Woodside (1767, *Z/B 30/2*) showed to be of a quite complex nature, as it followed the ground contours (Maps 8 & 10).

No other mills are recorded or known from within the study area and the lack of a mill in Mickley or Eltringham is interesting\(^2\). It appears that those communities had to take their corn to a mill in Bywell, as the tenants of Mickley had to pay *multure* (a sort of grinding tax) to the lord of Bywell barony in the thirteenth century (p.61). Also, it appears that one reason for the dispute between Adam of Mickley and Gilbert de Umfraville (p.67) was due to Adam’s preference for taking his corn to Bywell mill rather than the one at Prudhoe. This also encourages the view that the mill at Hedley-Woodside was not constructed until after the late thirteenth century.

There are two other possible reasons for a lack of other mills within the study area. The first is that such a large, complicated and expensive structure was likely to be an

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\(^1\) But not necessarily the millrace.

\(^2\) There was an illegally built windmill on common land in Ovingham in 1279 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.137; Northumberland Assize Roll (SS Vol. LXXXVIII, p.281).
easy target for raiders, whether Scottish or local reivers. This might explain why the only definite early mills are located near to Prudhoe and Bywell Castles. The other possible reason for a lack of mills may be due to such a high concentration of cattle farming rather than arable production. It may simply be that there was not the demand, locally, for any other mills. Either explanation remains a strong possibility to this intriguing factor.

Roads and Trackways

Transport and communication links were obviously important in the medieval landscape and several long distance routes passed through or near the study area, as well as numerous local links.

Most of the long distance transportation was by packhorse as there were few major routes capable of taking wagons (Hindle, 1993, p.84 & p.52). As a result a common feature of medieval roads systems, was the duplication of tracks as they spread out from where the route left cultivated land onto the common waste (ibid. p.53). This could also happen where a hill had to be climbed, with a hollow-way forming with time (although these can also be of pre- or post-medieval date (ibid.)). Evidence of these features are numerous within the study area. For example, the farms of Hollings and Woodhead appear to be alongside ancient route-ways, side-tracks of the Lead Road, and each had a small green, at least in the eighteenth century (p.194). An association between places called Hollins and packhorse routes has been proposed in Cumbria (Atkin, 1989), where the greens were used for overnight camping and grazing. The numerous Horse Closes found throughout the Tynedale area (for instance, those found in Prudhoe Castle, Prudhoe, Hedley and New Ridley) may also relate to packhorse roads, as they occur along route ways and often on the edge of
townships. Similarly, the Sommer Pasture in Hedley, could possibly be where packhorses grazed\(^1\), or simply as pasture only used in that season (Victor Watts *pers. comm.*).

The *Lead Road* itself has been discussed to certain extent in the previous chapter (p.194). Like most ancient roads, it followed a natural ridge-way along with a multitude of other different routes. It was an important route-way, and would have carried a variety of goods, including lime, wood and coal, besides lead ore from Allendale to Newcastle. The earliest reference for the main course comes from a bounder for the township of Chopwell dated between 1153 and 1159 (Nicholson, 1975, p.33); the route was then called *Ledehepes way*. A new version of this bounder produced in 1312/3 (Fowler, 1876, p.51; Tomlinson, 1898, p.256-7) refers to "... the road called the *Heddeley wai* by the *Ravensid dike* to the east as far as the gate, which is, called *Prudow iet* [gate]...." This means that the place later known as *Lead Gate* does not directly refer to the road running through it\(^2\), but to a gate across the road at this point. This would have controlled traffic along the road and prevented cattle from exiting *Fulcherside Common*. Gates frequently were placed where route-ways entered villages or cultivated land from areas of common (Rackham, 1986), and were important features controlling and protecting the village and its cattle at night.

The relationship between the *Lead Road* and its entry point into Hedley is interesting, because it can be seen from *Map 12* that the area between the *Over Shefe* in the *East Field* and the *Crofts* in the *Quarry Field*, once formed part of the same unit. Medieval roads had right of way over arable fields (Hindle, 1993), and it is obvious that at some

\(^1\) Packhorses were also known as *sumptner* or *summer horses*.

\(^2\) The term *gate* was frequently used for a road (Hindle, 1993, p.53).
point the field system was re-arranged and hedged\textsuperscript{1} off from the road, presumably sometime before the fourteenth and possibly before the twelfth century.

Another class of route-way were \textit{drove roads}, most of which have medieval or earlier origins (\textit{ibid.} p.56). These roads were used to drive cattle from highland production areas, often in Scotland, to lowland markets, and because of this they often (like packhorse routes) have fattening places along them (\textit{ibid.} p.71). The main drove-way passing near to the study area, was the old Roman road of \textit{Dere Street}. Although this route does not run directly through the study area, proximity to it would have had some effect on the local economy, especially for those seeking an alternative north-south route.

Local roads and paths were also important as they connected the community infrastructure to the main road system. Many of these would have consisted of minor field-tracks and lanes linking the townships to the manorial centre of Prudhoe and to their parish church in Ovingham\textsuperscript{2}. Many of these would also have been of a pre-medieval origin (\textit{ibid.} p.57).

The rivers were generally crossed using numerous fords, but when the water level was high a ferry between Prudhoe and Ovingham could be used. This existed from before the early fifteenth century, as the Prudhoe rental of 1434/5 states that there was “... nothing for the farm of a boathouse there, because a long time ago it was carried away by the waters of the Tyne” (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.161). The Mason survey and accompanying map of Prudhoe (Map 11) shows that there was a boathouse on the

\textsuperscript{1} Parts of a hedge are recorded in the Mason Survey.

\textsuperscript{2} The residents of Hedley-Woodside had to worship in Ovingham church despite living immediately across the river from the one at Ebchester.
south side of the Tyne, with an attached piece of ground called *Boat House Island*. Later this was moved to the north side of the river.

Because of the strategic importance of Northumberland in Anglo-Scottish affairs, it was important that a system of watches were kept at certain parts of the landscape, such as fords and along certain roads. These watches were kept not only to observe the movement of enemy armies, but mainly to looking out for night-time raids by reivers. For example, in 1552 at the ford west of Ovingham a watch was kept nightly by two inhabitants of Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926). Additionally, a *Watching Tree* is mentioned on *Hedley Common*, in the Mason Survey bounder.

Roads were of great importance to the prosperity of medieval towns, especially new centres of trade like Newcastle, which depended on its proximity to a number of main routes (Hindle, 1993, p.51). Similarly, the location of important routes passing through or near the study area would have directly affected the local economy, although the larger markets of Newcastle and Corbridge would have prevented local trade from growing too strong. The numerous fords across the Tyne and Derwent would also have been an important factor, affecting the position of roads and settlements, but ultimately, Prudhoe's position guarding the western approaches to Newcastle would have been of great strategic importance.

**Industry**

There is a little evidence for only three industrial activities taking place locally in the medieval period; they were charcoal burning, coal extraction and stone quarrying.

The Prudhoe barony rental for 1434/5 refers to coals (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.155), but this was probably charcoal, although the one for 1471/2 specifically states that there...
had been no income from coal-mines, which implies that there had been some (ibid. p.179; Hodgeson, 1921, p.63). Other coal mining activity is recorded from the Stockdale Survey when Reynold Heron (bailiff and resident of the castle) held a mine, probably on Fulchersyde Common, and then in 1590/1 (ibid. p.164), he had leave to take timber from Hedley-Wood for sinking pits.

Beside the above, there are no other references to charcoal, and as discussed in Chapter 9, there is little surviving physical evidence for this from within the study area.

In Hedley, the Quarry Field could have been named after a stone quarry, but there is no evidence as to its exact location. The Stockdale survey of 1586 does record that Edward Slater had the lease of a stone quarry there, and his family continued to do so into the seventeenth century.

**Conclusions**

Within this study area, the overall view of the mid to late medieval landscape, is a mixed one consisting of both nucleated and dispersed settlement. Therefore, to a great extent, the views of both Beresford (1954) and William (1982, p.86) as stated at the beginning of this chapter (p.198) have proved to be true during this period. Additionally, we have seen that a variable number of common open arable townfields were cultivated (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.120) alongside various variably sized enclosures. We have also seen that the actual pattern of settlement and land-use when examined in detail does not fit the classic 'Midland' model, although it appears that some attempt had been made to impose this model onto this landscape. To what
extent the recovered pattern was influenced through the retention of local antecedent systems is uncertain, as is the influence new populations or individuals had on the imposition of new systems, but the major fluctuations in the population due to devastation must have had an effect. In the fourteenth to fifteenth centuries, this appears to have led to a major reorganisation of the landscape, coinciding with a period in which the surviving populations were gaining greater freedom from manorial control (Crossley, 1990, p.9). Here, certainly by the late fifteenth century and in sixteenth century, there appears to have been a move by some individuals or small groups of individuals towards the enclosure of land in severalty, along with new communal endeavours, both intended to extend farming profit potential. The rationalisation and reorganisation of the townfields in the area could also have been due to manorial interdiction as well as the desire of the tenants to improve their incomes. Finally, new ideas on landscape management would have come into the area as the lords encouraged outside tenants to take to vacant tenements (Crossley, 1990, p.9).

Roberts (1996, p.21) when referring to a similar situation in Cumbria, has pointed out, that in the face of so many raiding armies, just how resilient agricultural communities were, by adopting strategies to preserve life, stock and seed-corn. He points to historical sources, which suggest that they took to the woods\(^1\). He also suggests that new populations migrating to the north would have needed imported grain at first, supplied by the local lord, while land was cleared for agriculture (ibid. p.27).

Devastation not only destroyed and changed settlements, but could also encourage the

\(^1\) Another important reason for the retention of so much woodland within this area.
reiteration of earlier features (Roberts, 1992, p.24-6). Roberts (1996, p.21), argues that the ‘vernacular architecture’ of local regional plans was sustained and reinforced by repeated devastation, and may have helped to preserve some ancient formalised layouts. At a time when populations were new, or transient, and it was uncertain as to the exact earlier arrangements, any surviving ‘on ground’ record of antecedent arrangements (boundaries) would have been used as a basis for the new organisation (ibid.). This could explain how somewhere like Mickley, could appear to retain features of a much earlier landscape into the present day. Devastation as a primary factor changing tenurial arrangements and the general instability of the border region, were also factors delaying changes in land management reform. Along with this, worsening climatic conditions throughout the later Middle Ages led to restrictions on what could be achieved within the landscape
Chapter Fourteen: - The Anglo-Saxon & Anglo-Norman Landscape

Introduction

In this chapter I will be discussing the landscape of the Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman periods or at least that part of it recoverable by retrogressive and comparative techniques as prior to circa AD 1150 the area is virtually prehistoric. Because the reconstruction of these landscapes relies almost entirely upon comparative, archaeological and retrogressive data sources, the actual interpretation and analysis is therefore incomplete. Despite the limitations, these methods do allow the immediate antecedents of the modern villages to be displayed with at least some authority.

A major problem has been the paucity of other wide-scale analyses of the Anglo-Saxon landscape. Most sources, dealing with the Anglo-Saxon countryside, only show individual buildings (e.g. Muir, 1989), pottery scatters, or discuss very late Saxon open-field arrangements as antecedents of medieval field systems (which I will also have to do to a great extent). In this country, Romano-British and Prehistoric field systems have been far more thoroughly studied, and Anglo-Saxon ones are often assumed to use these or were simplified versions of medieval open-field systems. I hope this chapter will demonstrate whether either case is true.

The period map

Map 13, at a scale of 1:25,000, presents a probable picture of the study area at around AD 1100. It is even more of a dynamic representation than Maps 8 and 10 were, as it depicts an agglomeration of landscape features thought to date from before the mid-thirteenth century and was made through a retrogressive analysis of Map 10. The appearance of the villages and field systems has been derived through a very careful
study of their plans and the evidence presented in later surveys, etc. but still a certain amount of assumption and intuition has had to be applied. As a result, both pre- and post-conquest features are shown at the same time, to demonstrate the immediate antecedent non-nucleated settlement pattern and some of the radical changes that occurred to this pattern as a result of Anglo-Norman reorganisation.

**Climate and Terrain**

The climatic history of this period is fairly well understood, but much of the information presented here is of a regional nature as few of the local pollen cores cover this period.

From the fifth to the seventh centuries AD, Britain experienced a short-lived general climatic deterioration, with colder winters and wetter summers than the proceeding centuries (Lamb, 1981, p.57; Higham1987; Macklin, *et al.* 1993, p.135). This along with any social factors, led to famine in the middle of the sixth century (Huntley, 1999, p.77), resulting in population decline and a reduction in the amount of cultivated land in the late sixth and seventh centuries (Higham, 1986, p.314). Locally at this time, communities that had been economically dependent on the Roman garrisons and Hadrian’s Wall suffered badly, and pollen diagrams reveal substantial woodland regeneration (Dark & Dark, 1996; Dark, 1996).

There was little climatic improvement until the end of the seventh century (Macklin, *et al.*, 1993, p.135), but in the eighth there was a period of drier ‘continental’ climatic conditions, with warmer summers and colder winters. A period of climatic fluctuations and lower temperatures followed this in the ninth and early tenth centuries (Lamb, 1981, p.60-1). Palynological studies in Northern England have shown
woodland regeneration following a period of settlement contraction in the latter part of
the first millennium AD (Davis & Turner, 1979; Higham, 1986; Macklin, et al. 1993,
p.126). In Chapter 11 we saw how the settlement contraction and forest regeneration
of the second half of the first millennium AD, appears to be represented in some of the
local field boundaries.

This was followed by a return to ‘continental’ climatic conditions from the later tenth
century (Lamb, 1981, p.60; Bell & Walker, 1992, p.72-3), with renewed woodland
clearance. For example, at Fellend Moss (Northumberland), this has been dated to
circa. AD 1000, and at Steng Moss, short-lived re-afforestation in the late mid
millennium, was followed by renewed clearance activity in the mid-tenth century
(Turner, 1983; Higham, 1986, p.314). It would appear that the townships of the
middle Tyne Valley were founded or took a nucleated form during this period.

Historical, Social and Economic Context

The first millennium AD is largely prehistoric, in the sense that no part of the study
area has any direct historic references, so any interpretations depend upon regional
archaeological data and local histories.

After the withdrawal of the Roman legions from northern Britain in the early fifth
century, there followed a period of political and social confusion (Higham, 1986,
p.313-5; 1987, p.43). Britons, Scots, Picts and Germanic groups vied with each other
for control or survival, in a country wracked with warfare and famine, exacerbated, as
we have seen, by a generally worsened climate. The lack of Celtic place-names in the
north-east is obviously significant and even though the supposed ethnicity of the
political leadership does not necessarily reflect its population base, the predominance
of Anglo-Saxon place-names would seem to indicate that during this period it was largely replaced by Germanic settlers.

Eventually in the middle of the sixth century, Ida succeeded in founding an Anglian kingdom in Northumbria, but by AD 600, because political leadership and the royal succession were uncertain (Anderson, 1971, p.8; Higham, 1986, p.286), Northumbria had split into two kingdoms. One of these was based on York called Deira and the other was based at Bamburgh called Bernicia. Which of these two kingdoms the study area fell within is undecided, as the boundary could have been either the River Tees or Tyne (Higham, 1986, p.253, Watts, 1989, p.17, Lomas, 1992, p.2). It is likely to have been the Tees as the community of Saint Cuthbert based at Lindisfarne in Bernicia was later given large parts of what is now County Durham.

During the period AD 550-685 the Northumbrian kings competed successfully with neighbours in southern Scotland and northern England, and the kingdom expanded considerably during this period throughout northern Britain (Higham, 1986, p.287). However, after this period of rapid expansion the kings began to have difficulties in rewarding their supporters with patronage, as tribute and booty began to dry up. Consequently they had to rely upon granting land from within the kingdom (ibid.), but as more and more royal land was given away, the monarchy's ability to reward services gradually diminished (ibid.). By the late seventh and eighth centuries, a practice of permanently giving large estates to the various northern monasteries exacerbated this situation even further (ibid. p.287-82). After the Synod of Whitby in 664, these gifts to the church increased considerably, leading to the foundation of a monastery at Hexham (in AD 674), and the endowment of large tracts of land to Lindisfarne (ibid. p.288-9). Due to this resource being removed from the royal gift
pool, in the late seventh century tension between the church and the crown became a problem \((ibid.)\), leading to some political changes. One of these changes was that in the seventh to ninth centuries some royal estates began to be granted to a group of important aristocrats known as ealdorman. They had the responsibility of defending the northern marches of Bernicia \((ibid.\ p.291)\), and it is from them that the earls of Northumberland finally derived.

Bede and his contemporaries name a number of estates or villaæ belonging to the community of St. Cuthbert, many of which had been derived from the Crown. Villaæ in many cases denoted a specific settlement and its tenurially dependent area. For example, in the first half of the ninth century, the villa of Gainford (Co. Durham), was a specific site with a church and an area of land stretching from south of the Tees to the Wear, and from Dere Street to the high ground in the West \((ibid.\ p.293)\). Then a grant of AD 737 names several villaæ containing the place-name element ing(a)ham, which possibly indicates that these settlements performed a central function \((ibid.)\). Similarly, Ovingham appears to have been an estate centre, possibly originally a royal estate (Hope-Dodds, 1926) and/or part of the earldom of Northumberland, like Bywell had been (Bates, 1895, p.114). Moreover, although Ovingham is not named in any Anglo-Saxon charters an early date can be suggested from its neighbours. For example, Bywell church was consecrated in AD 803 (Hodgson, 1902, p.14) and it is likely that the one at Ovingham is of a similar date, with an estate already probably in existence. Additionally, the township of Chopwell had belonged to the bishop of Durham from before the mid-twelfth century and land to the east of Ovingham had been granted to the monastery at Tynemouth (dating from the seventh century).
Overall, the social upheavals of the period AD 550-700 led to a decline in the northern population and a reduction in settlement (Higham, 1986, p.293-4; 1987). This caused no significant change to the basic social unit at the bottom end of society (ibid. 1986, p.293), but by the mid-ninth century it was organised via a new hierarchical structure. A comparatively small elite was at the head of a socially cohesive but politically fragmented structure, as is apparent by their continual competition over the succession to the Crown (ibid.).

Social problems in the late eighth century led to internecine warfare, which worsened during the ninth, as the situation was compounded from the late eighth century onwards, by increasing numbers of Scandinavian raids (ibid. p.306). These Vikings came at first as pirates or explorers, then to trade and eventually as settlers, although during the ninth century, their raids had little lasting impact on the English kingdoms, except for the destructive effects of devastation.

Danish incursions increased from the AD 830s onwards, especially in southern Northumbria in the 860s and 870s, particularly after AD 865 when a 'Great Army' was specifically targeted on it (ibid. p.307-8). Ten years later, Halfdan led part of his host into Bernicia, causing devastation and disruption as they ravaged the whole of Tynedale (Graham, 1992, p.2; Higham, 1986, p.310). According to West Saxon chroniclers, in AD 876 Halfdan shared out the lands of the Northumbrians and they proceeded to plough and support themselves (Higham 1986, p.308; Watts, 1989, p.17). However, Higham (ibid.) thinks that they entered local society as the new owners of the villae and estates, rather than as peasant cultivators (ibid. p.308).
The area north of the Tyne was beyond the control of Halfdan’s successors, but not outside the influence of the community of St. Cuthbert, which was by far the most influential landowner in Northumberland (ibid. p.311). They re-established a home at Chester-le-Street after AD 883, and purchased or received estates from the Scandinavian elite in the Tees basin and all the land from the Tyne to the Wear, between Dere Street and the sea (ibid. p.310). This demonstrates that the community recognised the Danish kings as legitimate successors to the Northumbrian throne (ibid. p.311) and is apparently the origin of Palatinate status of the Durham bishops in the Middle Ages (ibid.). It is also likely that the formalisation of the Durham/Northumberland county boundary may date from this time.

The English kingdoms came to rely upon Danish anti-Norse feeling, upon some senior religious leaders and certain aristocratic families, the ‘ealdormen’, such as that based on Bamburgh (ibid. p.311), who during the tenth century established themselves as a largely independent dynasty and assumed semi-regal status (ibid. p.311-13).

New Scandinavian armies and colonists affected the north in the early tenth century, but this time they came from Norwegian and Gaelic colonies in western Britain (ibid. p.312). One large host led by Ragnald was particularly successful. He attacked the English and Anglo-Danish areas of Northumbria from AD 914 (ibid. p.312), culminating in two victorious battles in the Corbridge area between AD 913 and 918 (ibid.; Watts, 1989, p.18). This period would obviously have had a major affect on the Tyne Valley and presumably the study area.

After the death of Ragnald in AD 921 other kings of Dublin continued to control York, but the kings of Wessex expanded their influence from the south (ibid. p.313),
and those of Scotland did the same from the north (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.215). By AD 954 the English kings had secured tenure of the Northumbrian throne (Higham, ibid.).

Finally, the destabilised fragments of the Northumbria kingdom were annihilated in AD 1069-70 during the Norman Conquest (ibid. p.313) and in the devastation that followed. William I then sold the earldom from 1067 to a succession of native rulers (Lomas, 1992, p.11), who were replaced in 1096 by a Norman dynasty (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.215).

**Township Boundaries and the origin of the Community Areas**

It is important to investigate the origins of parish and township boundaries, not only in their own right, but because they frame the edges of the territorial units exploited by the township communities and help to place the different elements of a large estate into context. In some parts of Southern Britain, there are charters proving the existence of their parish or estate boundaries from at least the tenth century AD (Sawyer, 1978; Hooke, 1985; Gelling, 1978; Beresford, 1957; Rackham, 1986; Aston, 1985). However, for the parish of Ovingham direct documentary evidence earlier than the twelfth or thirteenth centuries does not exist, and even what documents there are can be ambiguous. Despite this, the existence of the estate can be implied by the *terminus ante quem* dates of its neighbours and because of the existence of its Saxon church\(^1\). This suggests that the estate was probably already in existence by the ninth and possibly seventh centuries, with most of the sub-townships originating afterwards within the estate as small peasant farming communities (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.215).

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\(^1\) The first church built here may have dated to the late 7th century and the current one probably has material dating from the period AD 950-1050 (Goodacre, 1990).
Myra Tolan-Smith (ibid.) thought that most of the individual Ovingham manors had become separate entities by the twelfth century, which may give a date to individual boundaries separating them from each other. She thought that these boundaries were relatively static from that period onwards until nineteenth century administrative changes (ibid. p.186). Unfortunately, the boundary survey has revealed some difficulties in accepting this in the southern part of the parish. Certainly, a pre-thirteenth century date seems to apply to most parts of the local township boundaries that were fixed prior to the enclosure of the commons in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. However, not only were there no early fixed township boundaries on the various commons, but also it would appear that some of the boundaries within wooded areas were not fixed until the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries. Additionally, there appear to have been many minor changes over the years, perhaps as hedges were replanted, or because of local disputes and realignments.

After establishing some possible *terminus ante quem* dates for their boundaries, an attempt can be made at trying to identify the origins of the townships and the estate.

It has been suggested that some Anglo-Saxon estates were derived from late Romano-British ones of the fourth century AD (Branigan, 1977; Sheppard, 1979; Greene, 1986) and that some Roman estates had late pre-Roman Iron Age origins (Bonney, 1976). But other work has shown that some late Saxon townships are superimposed across earlier Roman and prehistoric road and field systems, with no continuity between the two (Williamson, 1986). Of course there is no reason that Anglo-Saxon settlers might not use surviving Romano-British boundaries, without the need for
estate or population continuity. Certainly, where contemporary communities have accepted a major feature as an estate boundary, its legal position can be strengthened. For example, estate exchanges in the ninth century between the Scandinavian elite, English ecclesiastical institutions and secular landholders may have encouraged the formalisation of their boundaries. The county boundary between Ovingham and Chopwell, is one of the most important of these boundaries. Rosemary Cramp (1970, p.199) has stated that in the Anglo-Saxon period, Co. Durham was meaningless as a political and cultural unit, except after circa. AD 995 when the community of St. Cuthbert, now at Durham held large territorial units between the Tees and the Tyne. However, the grants and purchases of estates to the Community after AD 883 (Higham, 1986, p.310) should have included the study area, unless of course the Ovingham estate was already in existence and its boundary was respected. Even if the estate was in existence was there a formal boundary between Ovingham and the Chopwell area? For example, in the Ravenside area the county boundary forms part of an interesting rectangular shape. In the mid twelfth century the boundary between Chopwell and Hedley is recorded as running “... from the spring which is called Milkwell ... from the upper part as far as by the road called Ledehepes weye [the Lead Road] as far as a wood called Fulscaleside [probably a wood on the Chopwell side of the boundary]...” (SS LXVI, p.45).

By the early fourteenth century, various bounders record it as: -

“... and so ascending to the old ditch/dyke of Ravenside, and so from the corner of this ditch following another old ditch to the east...” (ibid.).

It is probable that these boundaries are much older than the county boundary and the possibility remains that elements of this system may be of a Romano-British or prehistoric origin (see Chapter 15). In fact elements of it could be interpreted as a
major prehistoric land-division (Bonney, 1972; Darvill, 1987), but it is unlikely that it has remained as important throughout, as a period of discontinuity between the Roman and Anglian landscape is likely (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.222). In addition, Myra Tolan-Smith has suggested that the northern parts of the Ovingham parish boundary, and others in the region of Hadrian’s Wall are unlikely to pre-date the Roman period. This is despite the fact that the wall is not generally used as a parish boundary (ibid. p.220-21), which would normally indicate an earlier origin (ibid.; Winchester, 1990). Similarly, to the south of the river Dere Street is not generally used as a parish or township boundary either, unlike in other parts of the country where Saxon settlements are not generally found on Roman roads, but do use them for parish boundaries (Hindle, 1993, p.48). As the route remained important it could imply that the boundaries ignoring the road and using natural features could be older than the Roman road. Nevertheless, in the Whittonstall/Newlands area (Map 1), there appears to have been very little use of this area before the Middle Ages, which may have been due to the area being on the very dangerous main route way for rampaging armies.

Another way in establishing the potential origins of the Ovingham estate and its townships is by looking at the place- and field-name elements represented in the countryside. We have already seen (p.262) that the study area is dominated by toponyms with an Anglo-Saxon origin and that except for the main waterways, there are no surviving Celtic elements. Place-name evidence certainly supports the idea that Ovingham is likely to be an earlier population centre than its sub-settlements. It is known that place-names containing elements such as -ham, -caester, -tun, ing(a)ton and -wic were probably named prior to AD 900 (Higham, 1986, p.294).
Of the townships within the Ovingham estate, Eltringham can probably claim to be one of the oldest, due to its –ingham element (p.76), and its potential Scandinavian personal name element¹ suggesting a ninth or tenth century date. With such a combination of relatively early and later Anglo- and Scandinavian elements, the possibility remains that the personal element of its name may have changed with ownership and that the settlement originates from pre-Viking times. But work in County Durham by Victor Watts (1989, p. 19, 53-4), suggests that places with names like these were founded by Scandinavians in the early tenth century, are relatively late secondary (daughter) settlements rather than ancient English ones, and often becoming deserted or shrunken. Also, Brian Roberts (1987, p.102) states that villages with Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian place-names attached to them, relate to settlement territories rather than individual locations.

Although unlikely, the possibility remains that the Salt Pool field-name of the Eastwood Field in Prudhoe (Map 11) might be another Scandinavian toponym. The name may be derived from the word salterg ‘a shieling’ (Watts, 1989, p.26), perhaps a pool besides one, which would possibly make more sense than ‘a pool with salt water’². With the other townships³ the predominance of -ley place-names is notable, which are not known to occur before AD 730 (Gelling, 1993, p.206), but are more common afterwards, through to the twelfth and thirteenth century (Lomas, 1992, p.155). Here, all the evidence points towards a date earlier than circa.1200 for the establishment of the areas these communities occupied, if not the nucleated settlements themselves, as when records begin the townships are all fully formed and

¹ Known as a Grimston-hybrid name (Watts, 1989, p.19), but see also below on p.296?
² Victor Watts (pers. comm.) has suggested this, as the River Tyne is tidal up to the Stanley Burn, but surely the amount of salt water reaching this far upstream is minimal?
³ Ignoring Dukeshagg
have elements such as assarts that are not necessarily new. Also of the -ley townships, Mickley was probably mentioned in the *Life of St. Godric*, a chronicle dating from the late twelfth century or earlier (Stevenson, 1845).

Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.218) looked at work carried out by Winchester (1987, 1990) on a series of large parishes in West Cumberland. It was argued that the pattern of township boundaries mirrored the twelfth century baronial estate pattern, each of which was centred on a castle located within a parish (*ibid.*). In addition, the three parishes that were studied each had an early parish church, like at Bywell and Ovingham and their boundaries corresponded closely to boundaries of the three baronies. Winchester thought that in Cumberland and in northern England generally, the pattern of over-lordship had a great influence in determining the pattern of the parish boundaries (*ibid.*). Wrathmel (1975) studied shrunken and deserted medieval villages in southern Northumberland and looked at the relationship between parish area and pre-Conquest estates (*ibid.* p.73-76). He concluded that the twin parishes of Bywell St. Peters and Bywell St. Andrew related closely to the two Norman baronies of Balliol (St. Peters) and Bolbec (St. Andrews), and that they originally formed a single estate that was later divided (*ibid.*; M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.220). Bywell had been part of the earldom of Northumberland in the eleventh century and it is assumed that Ovingham had also been part of the earl’s lands, as Norman royal grants usually mirrored pre-Conquest ownership (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.79-18). Also, Lomas (1992, p.148-9) pointed out that the largest north-eastern townships were generally towards the west, where low fertility meant that more land was needed to support the same population size as richer areas. Alternatively, the larger townships tended to be longer
established settlements than smaller later ones carved out of them, such as the sub-units found within Ovingham.

**Land Tenure**

Because of the lack of historic documents it is extremely difficult to find any details on the social and tenantry status of the Ovingham estate during the Anglo-Saxon period. It has been suggested (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.79; Roffe, 1989, p.174) that the baronies granted to the new Norman lords in the late eleventh century did not cause a radical change in land tenure, and that in most cases there was direct continuity in tenure and service. Therefore, it is probable that the tenurial situation at this time was essentially similar to the post-conquest system that we have already looked at and that largely the only change was in the names given to the elements of this system. For example, a Norman king’s baron and his barony were the same as a Saxon king’s thegn and his thegnage (Roffe, 1989, p.159). Earlier in the eleventh century, before the Conquest, Bywell had formed part of the earl of Northumberland’s lands and despite any direct historical evidence it has long been assumed that Ovingham had also belonged to him (Hope-Dodds, *ibid.*). Moreover, large northern thegnage estates such as Bywell (Roffe, *ibid.*) were known as ‘shires’, because they were part of the earl’s share of the county (*ibid.* p.157) and could belong to the king, the church or other noblemen (Lomas, 1992, p. 22-23). Other local examples include Hexhamshire, Tynemouthshire and Bamburghshire, all large ancient parishes similar to Bywell and Ovingham and it is possible that all were pre-Conquest secular estates in origin (Lomas, 1992, p.23; M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.218).

In the medieval period these ‘shares’ would often contain up to twelve (or a multiple of twelve) farming settlements interspersed through a large common pasture area,
Each was based upon a demesne or ‘Home’ Farm (ibid.), such as Prudhoe Castle Farm, and it would appear that most of the townships in the study area also had their own demesne farmsteads. Work on the demesne farms was carried out by the previously mentioned unfree bondi peasants (p.211-2) who were granted their husbandlands for this and other duties. Otherwise, apart from the drengage service at Eltringham (p.59 & p.213) there is little other information available regarding tenure and status specifically within the Prudhoe area.

**Settlement Form and Agricultural Systems**

As stated previously, it is difficult to separate village core layout from its supporting agricultural system and this is particularly difficult within the period under discussion. However, because of the complexity, I will here discuss the different elements of the field systems and village plans under separate sub-headings.

Map 13 displays the probable settlement pattern at around AD 1100 and is derived almost entirely from retrogressive analysis. As with Map 10 the three nucleated villages dominate the picture, but the probable position of “Stanceley”, the precursor to Prudhoe, is also added. The nucleated villages are displayed at a point soon after their creation; but the layout of Stanceley is unknown. In addition, some of the pattern of dispersed settlement is also indicated. It also depicts the probable or possible early field arrangements associated with these villages, including the open-field systems as they may have appeared in the eleventh or twelfth centuries. What is most noticeable is that they appear to have consisted of much longer arable strips, at Hedley, Mickley and Prudhoe Highfield, and also probably in the Eastwood Field. Related to these
areas are a series of long house tofts, attached to the north rows of both Mickley and Hedley (and possibly the Highfield).

Brian Roberts (1996, p.27) has pointed out how little we know of the ordinary rural settlement pattern during the Dark Ages, and indeed, trying to find any supporting evidence as to its appearance is difficult. However, it appears that when the Normans arrived, they found a pattern mainly of dispersed hamlets and steadings, of Celtic, Anglo-Saxon or Scandinavian roots, organised into large estates (Roberts, ibid.; Higham, 1986, p.293). There were a few native nucleated villages, generally attached to the larger monasteries (Higham, ibid.), but most were formed by Norman importation of outside populations and by aggregating some of the surviving native population (Higham, ibid.; Roberts, ibid.).

Open field systems

The fully developed open-field systems of the study area were discussed in the previous chapter; here we will examine some of their possible origins.

The unusual position of the townfields at Prudhoe has already been commented upon (p.225), placed so far from the village centre either due to topographical limitations or because of the continued use of a previous field system. Indeed, the site of Prudhoe village with a very steep slope immediately to the north would have restricted the possibilities of any normal open-field layout, which is why the Hexham lands had to be fitted onto a sloping terrace. It could be that the Eastwood area was the only place where a large extensive field system could be set up, but a combination of the two ideas of restricted topography and an earlier field system is a strong probability. The possible existence of a village called “Stanceley” next to the Eastwood Field has
already been mentioned (p.273), unfortunately the area where this village may have existed is now under housing, so archaeological research can not be carried out to prove this.

Brian Roberts (pers. comm.) had suggested that the Eastwood Field originated after the establishment of the Park presumably in the early thirteenth century (p.59), with the field wrapping around the park pale. However, Christopher Tolan-Smith (pers. comm.) thought that if the furlongs were extended beyond the pale, to form strips of even length, then the field system would be older than this boundary. This latter interpretation is preferred, because of the evidence of an earlier settlement focus in this area and similar occurrences of other townfields being crossed by park pales (for example, Witton Gilbert, County Durham).

The length most of the Eastwood Field arable strips on the Norton Map, and the probable length of the strips if they are extended into the Park, are around a standard furlong (200m), or less in length. But there are strong indications that this may have been due to the major reorganisation discussed in the last chapter and there are hints that there may have been two different fields or furlongs here at a time before the creation of Prudhoe Park. One of these furlongs may have been between two coaxial north-south boundaries and both probably had had arable strips over 200m long. Indeed, when Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.227) carried out a retrogressive analysis of the thirteenth century landscape of Horsley and Harlow Hill, she found that the early furlongs probably consisted of large blocks of strips all running in the same direction. These original larger blocks had been sub-divided into short furlongs of roughly 200m by the time of the Mason Survey (ibid.), which sounds very much like the situation in neighbouring Prudhoe. This is almost identical to the field system at Hedley, where
the furlongs of the Quarry Field were mainly of long arable strips on the Norton Map and those of the West Field may have been subdivided from an original longer strip layout. Matzat (1988, p.141) indicates that in England, the introduction of the common three-field system probably led to the subdivision of longer strips sometime before the thirteenth century.

It is possible that another early arable field existed between the sites of Prudhoe and Stanceley at some stage, and the Oakwell Close, although it is only named from the eighteenth century\(^1\), two adjoining closes, the Stony Flatt\(^2\) and Long Riggs\(^3\), provide some supporting evidence. Unfortunately, none of these are mentioned in the 1613 Survey, but as this survey does not give any specific field-names to the collection of small crofts and closes shown here on the Norton Map their existence remains a possibility.

As regards the introduction or origin of open-field systems in this area, thoughts are mixed and generally we have to rely upon evidence from Britain as a whole. For example, both Seebhom (1905) and Gray (1915) thought that the open-field system was brought to England by Anglo-Saxon invaders, though Seebhom (1905) also thought that it might have originated through the continuation of Roman methods of farming. To a certain extent these ideas have now been dismissed as there is evidence of some ridge-and-furrow strip fields in the Midlands post-dating early and middle Saxon settlements, as well as Roman ones (Hall, 1982). In fact, in the central and southern England open strip-field terminology appears in many tenth century boundary charters (Hooke, 1988) suggesting that such systems were already well

\(^1\) Z/B 41/7, 1766 & Z/B 75/21, 1770/2
\(^2\) Z/B 41/19, 1781
\(^3\) Z/B 41/19, 1781
established. The Orwin's (1938) thought that strip farming resulted from the introduction of the mould-board plough. These encouraged strip ploughing in order to make the most economic use of labour and time by reducing the amount of turning time (ibid.). However, overall, there appears to be no definite evidence as to the exact origins of open-field agriculture and a mixture development is extremely likely.

Accurate dating evidence for open-field agriculture in the study area is limited due to the lack of early documents; thirteenth century charters from the area (p.62, p.204 & p.215) confirm that land was being ploughed here by that time. Unfortunately, only Adam of Mickley's (p.62) charter refers directly to strips, but many of these are meadow, although it does indicate that some of these had formerly been ploughed. Whether the proposed three-field systems discussed in the last chapter were in operation by then is doubtful. For example, if the version printed in Hope-Dodds (1926) is complete, the Adam of Mickley charter only lists holdings in the *East Field* and *New Close* area of Hedley, which might suggest that the *Quarry Field* and *West Field* were not in existence in the late thirteenth century. If this was the case, why call *East Field* “East Field” if it had been the only field, surely “Town Field”, or “Akewell Field” would have made more sense. If we assume that the main common fields were already in existence, it would suggest that Adam did not have any part of the other fields, so a three-field system was probably not in operation.

**Long-Strip Fields**

Long-strip field systems have already been mentioned (p.233), and here I will further expand on this subject, demonstrating their close relations with long-toft features, which will be discussed further below.
Roberts (1987, 1996), Hooke (1988) and Matzat (1988) have all noticed that many villages and hamlets in northern England were associated with long arable strip-fields. For example, Roberts found some Cumbrian fields had arable strips that had been over 400m in length (i.e. not the 'normal' 200m furlong) or much longer (Roberts, 1996 p.17), and Hooke (1988, p.123) has noted examples over 1km long in Holderness and the Vale of Pickering. Moreover, Matzat found that in the East Riding of Yorkshire, two different types of field layout existed. One type found on the Wolds and in the Vale of York, consisted of a number of long and short furlongs, running in different directions that were similar to Hedley in the seventeenth century. Then in the Holderness area and on other parts of the Wolds, there was a type consisting of extremely long strips (for example, 10m wide and 1250m long), covering most of the township (Matzat, 1988, p.133-4). Roberts (1999, p.95) and Hall (1982) have also found that long-field systems had existed in Derbyshire and in the Midlands.

The Cumbrian examples are generally found in villages with regular or part-regular row plans with long field strips measuring over 350m in length, which extend into the settlements as toff boundaries (Roberts, 1988, p.169-170; 1996, p.17). One example, Newby (Westmoreland) comprises of an irregular row plan associated with long enclosed strip fields that varied in width and measured between 750-800m (Roberts, 1988, p.170). They are clearly different from the classic 'Midland' system and give no clue as to the crop rotations practised within them (ibid.). Such long-strips are found throughout Cumbria, and seventeenth century estate plans show that they lie at the core of rather small irregular townfields, with other furlongs sometimes having long-strips, sometimes short, or sometimes grouped in blocks around them (ibid.).
Strip systems have also been identified at the core of complex subdivided field systems, such as at Hayton and Talkin (Cumbria), or may even form the entire townfield, while in other cases (Cumwhitton, Cumbria) they lie at the centre of a ring of peripheral enclosures (Roberts, 1987, p.60). Another example, Thornholme (Yorkshire Wolds) has long-strips running to the township boundary and was rearranged into shorter furlongs, sometime between the early fourteenth and eighteenth centuries (Matzat, 1988, p.138).

Figure 8a: Great Kelk, Holdernes, 1842 (Matzat, 1988, p.134, Fig.2).

Roberts (1996, p.17) states that these long-strips represented ownership units, which Matzat (ibid., p.134) has confirmed through medieval deeds. He found that in the Holderness villages of East Halsham (Fig.7b, p.234) and Great Kelk, (Fig.8a) that farms occupying the open-fields were themselves made up of long and narrow strips of land which ran in many cases from the village closes to the extremities of the township (ibid.). He suggests that at Thornholme, two furlongs of arable land named
Long Tofts and Short Tofts might represent a former village site, associated with a nearby furlong named Long Lands (Matzat, 1988, p.138). Other examples of long lands include a mention in Harlow Hill (Stockdale Survey, 1586) of an area called the Langlands (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p. 228)¹ and of course we have already noted evidence from Mickley (Map 9 & p.232). Here, in the eighteenth century, there were two fields called Long Yards and a Toft Hill², in the Westfield. Figure 6a (p.160) demonstrates that the freehold lands of Mickley stretched from at least the top of The Hill down to the Stanley Burn, and dales running north of the village. The Highfield area of Prudhoe (Map 11) is another possible example and there may have been a system of long-strips underlying the Eastwood Field in Prudhoe (p.275).

In Cumbria, and elsewhere, the long-strips have smooth, sweeping lateral boundaries in aratral curves, proving that they were once ploughed (Roberts, 1996, p.17). Clearance stones were dumped at their edges making a low bank topped with a hedge and/or fence, or a large bank with or without a substantial ditch, a stone revetment, a drystone wall, or a lynchet³. Slopes along their line were not avoided, but were sometimes ploughed up and down to help with drainage, and where ploughing was across or along a slope, a lyncheted strip was created (ibid.). In Cumbrian villages the long-strips were normally in furlongs immediately abutting the rear of the village toft compartments or even formed the lateral boundaries of the tofts, which continued outwards to become the lateral boundary of the field strip immediately behind the toft (ibid.). Sometimes (for example, Great Asby), the aratral curves within the furlong can be seen to continue within the toft compartment, showing that the compartment

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¹ Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.228) thought that this area had pre-12th century origins.
² Watts (1989, p.26) states that the use of this term in County Durham is a late foundation, naturalised into Middle English in the sense of ‘foundations, abandoned habitation site, deserted village’
³ Similar to those in the study area (see Chapter 11)
containing the village farmsteads was superimposed over a pre-existing strip field (*ibid.*). This is similar to the North Fields at both Hedley and Mickley, and the Crofts in the former (Map 12). From this type of evidence, Hall (1987), Matzat (1988) and Roberts (1996) have all suggested that long-strip fields resulted from fixed mouldboard technology. Although it should be noted that there are examples of long-strip fields in East Germany that were cultivated with an ard (Matzat, 1988, p.140).

Brian Roberts (1996, p.23) classified long-field strips into three groups, depending upon their length. *Group X*, where the strips are of the order of 200m in length, and never, even with the toft included, exceeding 250m. *Group Y*, which has two subdivisions, Y- where the strips are in excess of 250m but are generally below 350m and Y+ with strips ranging between 350-500m. Lastly, there is *Group Z* for settlements with long-strip furlongs in excess of 500m. It is interesting to compare the long-strips of the study area with these categories.

In Hedley *Group X*, long-strips were found in the original East Field¹, although in the Akwell Riding, probably a later addition, the strips are shorter at 210-234m long. Strips of a similar length are found in the New Close², but these may have originally been around 550m long (*Group Z*). In the Quarry Field, the strips vary between 150m and 33m long, but the shorter ones have probably been truncated by the later laying out of the East Field, thus the average length makes them *Group Y-*. Then the strips in the eastern compartment of the North Row (long-toft strips) are *Y+*. Parts of the West Field may also have originally consisted of *Y+* or *Z* strips (up to 495m long) that were later broken into 200-280m lengths (mostly *Group X* here). It is possible that the

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¹ When the Shefe's area of the East Field is combined with that part of the Crofts, in the Quarry Field that was obviously once part of it.

² 236m and 275m respectively in the New Close and Upper Birke Hill
Over Shefe in the East Field is later than the long-strips of the Cawtron Flatt, which it obviously cuts into. Alternatively, the Cawtron Flatt is later and had to wrap around the East Field. Personally, I feel that the two neat square furlongs Cawtron Flatt and the Heeldes of the Quarry Field\(^1\) are more likely to be earlier.

In Prudhoe, the probable long-strips of the Highfield are mostly Y+, 450-70m long and 30-40m wide, but the easternmost part of this field is made up of two compartment are around 620m long (Group Z) and 50m wide. In the Back-of-the-Hills Intack (a sixteenth century creation), the strips fall into Group Z as they are around 800-900m long. Whereas the strips of the other probably sixteenth century intack, the Hedley West Moor Riding, the strips are only around 200m long.

In Prudhoe the strips of the Eastwood Field ran east-west and were generally very short, only 100-200m in length, but there are indications that the furlong may have originally consisted of north-south long-strips of around 400-500m (Group Y+). The strips of the Milkwell Heugh are mostly around 200m long, but it is probable that the South Blackburn Shefe of this joined with the Short Blackburn Shefe in the Eastwood Field, in which case there is a possibility that they had combined strips over 800m long. There were a number of other arable closes in Prudhoe, clustered around their farmsteads, or along the main east-west road route. Nearly all of these closes appear to relate to arable strips of around 200m long or less, which suggests that all of these closes were formed after the introduction of a standard furlong length, so are thought to be later than any possible long-stripe arrangements.

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\(^1\) I think that this field-name means the “Square Field” rather than being the site of an early quarry, even though Victor Watts (pers. comm.) doubts it.
The Dales running north from the North Row in Mickley, may be another set of long-strips, but it also appears to be part of a long-toft system, so is discussed below (p.285 & 294). However, the rest of the field system in Mickley appears to have consisted of long arable strips (see also p.230), but it is difficult to tell how long they may have been. Their possible length depends very much upon where measurements are taken, but they could have been as much as 1200m or even longer if the two rows of the village had been laid out over a pre-existing field system.

Overall, the great variety of long-strip size in this area, would appear to indicate that there is no actual local strip length set here, and that strip length (as in the sixteenth century Intakes), was determined by topography and the space available. Despite this it could be argued that Group Y strips are more common than any other group, and that very long Group Z strips may underlie some of these systems. It also appears that right up until the sixteenth century, or even later, the local habit here when creating new communal arable fields involved the use of a long-strip system.

Dating the origins of these field systems is problematic. In Cumbria Roberts (1996, p.19) thought that it was likely that the first field arrangements were one with rather broad long tenurial strips\(^2\), which represented townfield arable cores. He thought that these long-strip field cores were an integral part of their village and must be part of the same plantation process (Roberts, 1988, p.176). In addition, he suggests (1999, p.95) that these field systems resulted from the reclamation of woodland, pasture and marsh. Progressively earlier dates for the existence or possible origin of simple strip field system have been suggested over the years, ranging from before the early fourteenth century.

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1 The High Intacks, Mickley (Map 9), for example.
2 Such as the freehold strips proposed at Mickley (Fig.6a, p.160).
century to the seventh and ninth centuries AD (Matzat, 1988, p.135-6). Roberts (1988, p.176; 1996, p.27; 1999, p.95) thinks that all the Cumbrian long-strip villages probably date to the first half of the twelfth century, and were new Norman settlements. Whereas the very similar long narrow strip fields found in East Yorkshire (Roberts, 1987, fig.3.13; 1999, p.95) are considered to date from before the Conquest (ibid., 1999). These systems are found throughout northern Europe where they can date from anytime between the Carolingian period through to the Middle Ages (Roberts, 1999, p.95). For example, there are abundant examples of planned villages with long-strip furlongs in areas of East German colonisation founded in the eleventh and twelfth century (Matzat, 1988, p.138). Moreover, in West Germany there are some small areas with a long-strip pattern of the 'Holderness type' and large areas with multiple short furlongs (ibid.). Therefore, it has been suggested that the Anglo-Saxons introduced this long-strip system into Britain (ibid. p.139). The identification of the origin of long-strip fields is probably complicated, as many may be of more than one period, with surviving earlier coaxial field arrangements of a prehistoric, Romano-British or early Anglo-Saxon date affecting the situation (Roberts 1988, p.176). Mary Harvey (Matzat 1988, p.138) has suggested that in eastern Yorkshire before the ninth century, there existed an irregular field layout (as at Eltringham) until a long-strip pattern was introduced as a new, planned feature (ibid.). In addition, David Hall (Matzat 1988, 138) has argued that the long-strip pattern is the 'archaic' type of field arrangement, dating from the eighth or early ninth century and was later modified into the multiple, short furlong type, and only in some peripheral areas like Holderness did the older type survive.
Overall, it would appear that within the study area, as probably in much of the rest of the Northeast, long-strip fields, whether open or not, were the most common form of field system employed in the nucleated settlements in their early form. Additionally, the exact dating of the introduction of this form of agriculture is unknown, but it appears that here, at least, it is closely associated with the establishment of the villages; which will be discussed below.

**Row Villages and Farmstead Tofts**

It has already been noted that the original core plans of the townships of Prudhoe, Mickley, and Hedley were based upon rows of farmstead tofts and cottage crofts. In this section, the origins and form of these rows will be examined in more detail.

By looking at nineteenth century maps and other evidence, Brian Roberts (1971; 1977; 1987; 1988) has demonstrated that settlements based upon rows were common throughout northern England. He has also identified a great variety of different forms, which allows regional comparison, but only the two-row forms identified from within the study area, will be examined here.

Roberts (1976, p.256; 1992, p.23) found that over 60% of the villages in Durham and Northumberland had consisted of two regular rows of farmsteads, normally facing each other along an east-west axis and if irregular row-plans are included the figure rises to over 80% (ibid. 1976). Of these villages, over three-quarters of the rows faced onto an open green, while the others only fronted onto a street (Lomas, 1992, p.147). Most greens were thin rectangles, ellipses, or formed a half-ellipse, often with the roads turning sharply at the ends of the rows (ibid.), defining the compartment blocks. Several have compartments in which the tofts containing the farmsteads were of a
very similar size, often relating to the length of a standard rod or perch, or to the quantity of arable land belonging to them (ibid. p.148). At Shelom, for example, each toft was 48m wide, which equals eight 20 foot rod lengths, and at Carlton the standard toft width was two 21 foot rod lengths for every bovate\(^1\) of land (ibid.; Roberts, 1971, p.45 & 48). The implication is that there had been some form of regulated planning behind so many similarities of layout and village form, suggesting that they had been laid out on a single occasion. However, a close study of some of these villages in County Durham has revealed that many of them resulted from the accumulative effects of local development over a period of time (Campey, 1989, p.60). In Westoe, County Durham (ibid. p.78), for example, the north row was composed of shorter tofts than the earlier southern one, and here it was thought that the south row may have been carved from a pre-conquest demesne farm. Subsequently, expansion occurred along both rows (ibid.). Roberts (1996, p.19), looking at similar village plans, also noted cases where different rows in a village take different forms, which suggested that there had been two growth phases. He thought that this might occur in a village that had two different manors, so an apparently homogenous single row compartment, actually contained two or more development phases (ibid.). Similarly, in Horsley, Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.229) found that the eastern end of its south row had a group of five tofts contained within its own boundary and that the remainder of the row abutted this feature (ibid.). This suggested to her either a post twelfth century expansion of a planned village or that this feature is a pre-planned village nucleus around which the planned village was originally focused and subsequently expanded (ibid. p.230).

\(^1\) As much land as one ox could plough in one year in the common arable field (Adams, 1976).
Figure 8b: - Tenant Distribution in Hedley at the Time of the Mason Survey (1613)

Figure 8c: - Hedley, Village Plan Development
(see text for full explanation)
This demonstrates that a close study of row compartment form can provide some details of village plan development, which is especially important when historical material is lacking. In addition, it appears that nucleated villages with row-plans are closely tied in with the long-strip fields discussed above, and this is particularly noticeable when the length and form of farmstead tofts are examined. In the north of England these tofts normally extend back from the street frontage a distance of between 50-150m (Roberts, 1987, p.56), but early work by Brian Roberts (1978; 1996, p.19), identified cases where the tofts were in excess of 150m and Cockfield (County Durham) is the type-site (ibid.; 1987, p.56). Additionally, where the tofts exceeds 200m it can become the primary field strip (ibid. p.58), and the term ‘strip-tofts’ can be applied (ibid.).

Hedley

Of the row-plan villages in the study area, Hedley presents some of the best evidence for its origins and development, due to the details on the Mason Survey map (Map 12 & Figs.8b-e, p.287). It appears that the North and South Rows were of an irregular or semi-regular layout, but closer examination reveals that these were probably once much more regular, which can result from either reorganisation or the decay of once regular arrangements (Roberts, 1987, p.86).

Overall, it can be seen that all the farmstead croft and toft arrangements, of whatever age, fit between four basic boundaries, most of which are probably older than any of the farmstead arrangements discussed below (Map 14). There was one major boundary defining the northern limits of this area, lying between the New and Caufe Closes, and the Broad Meadow/Pasture Closes area. Another major boundary ran between the main southern open field areas and the small furlongs and crofts to its
north, such as the *Esh Flatt* and *Short Lands*. This boundary appeared to have had a coaxial relationship with the one defining the southern edge of the townfields system. The other two defining boundaries ran more or less at right angles to the major east-west coaxial ones. One formed a clear line dividing the *Quarrie Field* from the *West Field*, and may have continued across into the west Pasture area, whereas the other formed the boundary between the *Miller’s* and *Wheat Closes* and *Akewell Riding*.

Within these limits it can be seen that the six tofts (1-6 Fig.8c) at the eastern end of the *North Row* formed a distinct compartment, of around 60m long with each toft approximately 27-35m wide, but if the long-strips in the *North Field* immediately behind them are included, they would measure about 374m (the northern part of the area shown in orange on Fig.8c). Whether these or any of the other long-strips in the village were enclosed or not is difficult to tell from the map. If they were then we have a series of long-tofts and if not they form a series of strip-tofts. There are good indications that this toft and strip compartment had been inserted into a much larger unit including parts of the *Broad Meadow*, part of the *Middle Shefe*, the *Wheat* and *Miller Closes* (the red lines on Fig.8c). This larger unit would therefore have been older and was likely to have formed part of a long-strip field. This would also imply that the route from Hedley to Mickley is younger than this compartment, in a similar way to the relationship between the *Lead Road* and the *Over Shefe/Crofts* area. Alternatively, the long-strip field may have been laid out over an existing route-way that was later reinstated. This long-strip field also appears to have extended further south to include the *Crofts* of the *South Row* (the southern part of the area in orange on Fig.8c). In addition, the main toft compartment of the *North Row* contained mostly freehold farmsteads, whereas the *South Row* contained a mixture of tenants who were
mainly leaseholders. This may suggest an original division between freeholders on the North Row and customary tenants on the South, with any deviation away from this distinction due to ownership changes with time. This might explain why Adam of Mickley's freehold charter (p.66) only listed holdings in the East Field, the North Field and the New Close\(^1\). Thus this compartment arrangement must date from before the later thirteenth century, but whether it is earlier than the rest of the North or South Rows is hard to tell.

In the early seventeenth century, the western part of the North Row and most of those parts of the North Field and Broad Meadow not included before were leased by only two tenants (7 & 8 Fig.8c). The westernmost farm (dark green on Fig.8b) had the appearance of once being part of the manorial demesne, possibly even the site of a manor house and may have been assarted from an area of wood-pasture. Additionally, the western end of the North Row appeared to have been on a slightly different alignment, and appeared to be earlier than the eastern compartment discussed above. Certainly the West Close Pasture seemed to have been assarted after the East Close, and this latter area appeared to form a distinct, broad, long-strip unit (dark green lines either side of No.8, Fig.8c). The East Close, although meadow in the seventeenth century, had probably formerly been arable, with long-strips around 350m long. Altogether, the two Pasture Closes, and the western parts of the Broad Meadow and North Field appeared to form another distinct unit, which ultimately may have been part of a unit large enough to define the whole village plan area (outer dark green lines). In addition, Newton's croft appeared to have been enlarged at some time and may originally have consisted of three or four farmsteads or cottages.

\(^1\) This also points to this freehold as being part of Thomas Turners in the early 17\(^{th}\) century.
The relationship between the eastern freehold compartment of the *North Row* and its western leasehold end is complicated by an unconformity in the long-strip/toft arrangements of the *North Field*. The eastern edge of Booteflower’s share of the *Broad Meadow* seemed to form a continuation of a line forming the western edge of the freehold compartment. However, this relationship is not straightforward as Carteess held an awkward shaped toft that either crossed or was crossed by the compartment’s western boundary (dark green line between Nos. 1 & 8). What the actual chronological relationship was in this area is unknown, but evidence from the *South Row* suggests that the Carteess toft had been squeezed onto the western end of the freehold compartment, and the long/strip-toft was later extended into the eastern part of the *North Field*, to make a more regular unit. In addition, where the long/strip-tofts of the leasehold compartment crossed between the *North Field* and the *Broad Meadow* they had been subdivided into two sections, each approximately of a standard furlong. Whether this indicates an extension of the long/strip-tofts into the *Broad Meadow* or a contraction of long/strip-tofts leading to the formation of the *Broad Meadow* is unknown; the latter is the preferred interpretation.

The western end of the *South Row* also consisted of two leasehold farmsteads (Nos. 9 & 10) that were not part of the rest of the row and matched directly across with the probable demesne farm on the *North Row* (Nos. 7 & 8). This encourages the view that at least the western part of Newton’s croft had originally been the site of another farmstead. In the early seventeenth century, one tenant (light green on Fig. 8b) leased the two southern farms, and certainly the westernmost farmstead looks as if it too had originated as a demesne farm. This farmhouse was set on the green outside of its toft, which is about 51m long by 86m wide. Wilkinson’s other leasehold was set in a toft
97m long by 70m wide, although its western boundary lines up with the west side of Cawtron Flatt in the Quarry Field, with which it may have once been joined. It is also possible that at some earlier stage the Wilkinson's eastern croft may have contained two farmsteads and been part of the same toft compartment as the farmholds immediately to its east, as it was twice the width of these other tofts. If this was the case, then originally there could have been a toft compartment that was approximately 200m long by 330-400m wide (dark blue dotted line on Fig. 8c).

Immediately to the east of these two farmholds, was Swalwell's freehold (grey on Fig. 8b), which appeared to suffer from the same relationship problems as Carteess's on the North Row, with his long/strip-toft apparently squeezed between the edge of the Wilkinson leasehold and the more regular toft arrangements to the east. However, the irregular shape of his toft was probably caused by the east-west arable strips in the double flat to the west of his toft. This double flat also extended over much of Wilkinson's eastern leasehold, and this arable arrangement was probably responsible for the removal of any boundary that may have linked the one between the Cawtron Flatt and Heeldes and the one dividing the two Wilkinson crofts. This appeared to have resulted from an agreement between the farmers of the three westernmost cottages on the South Row, as they farmed most of this area. Ralph Swalwell's freehold was also the same width (39m) as leaseholds immediately to his east (No. 12, Fig. 8c). However, the other tofts in middle of the South Row, whose farmsteads were on the village green1 were all 23m wide (Nos. 13-18). This suggests that the middle part of the South Row was of a different age or status than the western end.

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1 Although one of these tofts appeared not to have a farmstead and two of the farmsteads seemed to have shared one double toft.
Additionally, there were another three tofts at the east end of this row (Nos. 19-21) of variable length (between 180m to 210m long), which alternated in width between 15m and 23m wide. These may have been laid out at yet another time than the rest of the row, or again perhaps been of a different status. I suspect that they represent part of the changes carried out to the village after a period of reduced population and a loss of regularity to the rows. Reinstatement after devastation is a likely cause, perhaps in the fourteenth century, but this part of the south row and the easing in row and field compartment regularity appear to be related. Evidence for this comes from the curving street frontage and route-ways running across field systems (light blue lines, Fig. 8c), and we have seen that the Lead Road was already established by the mid-eleventh century (p. 253). This seems to indicate that the regularity of the row compartments must have broken down soon after establishment, before this date, and it may have been as much due to the volume of traffic along this road as Scots devastation.

The map in the Mason Survey also depicts a feeble line wiggling behind the tofts of the South Row, which might represent the southern end of the toft compartment, making their length vary between 40m and 70m. However, it is clear from the Mason Survey that the same tenant held the land in the rest of the long/strip-toft beyond this line, in the Crofts. By the eighteenth century (Z/B 2/4), much of this line had developed into a formal boundary defining the farmstead crofts, so in the seventeenth century this line may have been fairly new and was formally enclosing the crofts off from their strip-tofts. In a similar way, the line defining the back of the North Row tofts may also have been a recent development at that time.
Mickley

Mickley (Map 9, Figs 6a (p.160) & 8d) retained a regular row layout until the eighteenth century (Fig.6h, p.166), by which time part of the South Row was abandoned and deliberate in-filling began on the green (Fig.6g). The two rows appear to have reflected each other diagonally, the main farmsteads occupying the North Row with mostly cottages in the South.

The North Row was in three parts. At the eastern end was a freehold farmstead (lilac on Fig.6a), on a different alignment from of the rest of the row and was within an enclosure containing most of the other freeholds (red line on Fig.8d). Then there was a central section with four main leasehold farmsteads (brown, pink & red, Fig.6a) and finally a western freehold section made from a row of around four cottages (in mid...
The farmsteads and cottages in the western two-thirds of this row were all on the same alignment and shared the same street frontage. They were positioned at the southern end of a series of long linear *Dales* (*Map 9*), forming a compartment which can possibly be considered as a ‘North Field’, similar to the situation in Hedley (the northern part of the area in orange on *Fig.8d*). Like at Hedley, these *Dales* appear to be either strip-tofts, or more likely long-tofts each around 30-40m wide. In the eighteenth century (*Z/B 11/4*) they ran up to the lane besides *High Close Wood*, and therefore vary in length from between 300-500m long. However, it is possible that the tofts may have been extended from a shorter original length to fill the available area and may be quite late, even post-medieval extensions. Another possibility is that originally the long-toft block formed an even sided rectangular compartment, with the tofts probably extending around 450-500m to an east-west line corresponding with the boundary between the *Hallyards Farm* closes and the current site of *St. George’s Chapel*, in *High Close Wood*. The block would have cut across two early east-west boundaries extending beyond either end of *Colliery Close Wood* (pink lines on *Fig.8d*, see *Map 14* & next *Chapter*), which fieldwork has shown are earlier than the woods north-south boundaries. This would mean that later the external boundary of *High Close Wood* and the lane to Eltringham were laid out across the north end of the long-toft compartment (green lines). Evidence for this comes from the way that the line of the sunken lane, running north from the western end of the *North Row* defining the western edge of the compartment, continues across into the *Hallyards* farmyard. Also one of the toft boundaries appears to continue across the *Eltringham Lane* to reappear between the *Spring* and the *East Spring* (*Map 9*). This latter case would help support the idea that *High/Low Close Wood* had been part of an unrecorded deer park, presumably in the late twelfth or early thirteenth centuries (Cantor, 1982). However,
the field-name *Spring* would seem to indicate that this area had been a coppice compartment (p.109 & p.116) and any woodland can be assumed to be the same age as that in the rest of *High Close Wood*. It is possible that these two *Springs* became woodland after any attempt at a deer park was abandoned, especially as the term *Spring* is probably of late medieval usage. There is also a strong reason to believe that the footpath running north through the *Dales* area is an ancient route to Eltringham, from Mickley and further south (dotted blue line, Fig.8d). This path lines up with the line of the Hedley to Mickley lane, before the strange right-angled kink at its northern end. The footpath follows a sunken field access way to the *Dales* area lying between the eastern end of the *North Row* and the freehold enclosure; this also leads to *Cuddy's Well*\(^1\). This route-way is likely to be older than the current road layout to Eltringham (green lines), which respects both the village row and toft system, as well as *High Close Wood*. Therefore, overall, it appears that both the modern road and the row and long-toft system are all part of the same contemporary layout. This is further evidence that the *High Close Wood* boundary is an older feature, and consequently the Dales long-tofts must have in-filled the available space between the *North Row* and the wood.

It is probable that originally the *North Row* consisted of eight long-tofts, each around 30m wide, with three at the western cottage end, then five farmsteads in the middle, the eastern most being only 18m wide, but extending eastwards around the proposed freehold enclosure. In the eighteenth century (*Z/B* 11/4) this farmstead (brown on Fig.6a) included the field next to *Colliery Close Wood*. This farm may have been a

\(^1\) Possibly *St. Cuthbert's Well*, or the *Donkey’s Well*, but more likely that it is named after various Cuthbert Ridleys, who were tenants in the adjoining farmstead from the 17th to 19th centuries.
later addition to the row, squeezed into the row like the Carteess freehold in the *North Row* of Hedley, but if contemporary, it proves that this arrangement of dales was laid out around the freehold enclosure.

The *South Row* was also in three parts. At the western end were the main farmstead and a cottage of the Humble freehold (mid blue Fig.6a) in a toft approximately 50m long and 40m wide. To the east of this was a row of six or seven cottages (e) in variably sized crofts ranging between 70m and 100m long, and between 25m and 100m wide. It is likely that before amalgamations and alterations that the central part of the croft compartment contained four cottage crofts at around 100m long and each 30m wide, and at the eastern end there were four more cottages (pink & brown on Fig.6a) in crofts 60-70m long that were each around 25m wide. This three-part arrangement of different plot sizes is similar to the *South Row* in Hedley, although there is no direct evidence for long/strip-tofts here.

This gives us two similar but reversed rows, each probably with eight farmsteads or cottages, plus two additional freeholds diagonally opposite each other at the row ends and approximately four freehold farmsteads in the enclosure to the east. The two rows and their long-tofts may have been laid out over a pre-existing long-strip field, as its lines can be traced across the village green and the toft boundaries have a curve that would seem indicate ploughing prior to enclosure. Probably the two freeholds were outside of the long-strip compartment used by the rows.

Finally, we have seen that the bulk of the freeholds were located within a possible enclosure that appears to be earlier than the row layout (red lines, Fig.8d). The origins of this enclosure will be discussed in the next chapter, but for now it can be
seen that it contained a scatter of three or four farmsteads and prior to the early
seventeenth century a demesne manor house. This enclosure must also have
contained an open-field at some time as boundary 167-8/169 (Map 6) clearly follows
the line of three arable strips that were a standard 200m furlong in length. As will be
seen below (p.304), this would tend to indicate that this area was under the plough at a
later period than an assumed foundation date prior to the early thirteenth century. It is
also interesting that the enclosed arable strips (The Goas, whatever that might be)
were farmed by one of the leaseholders in the eighteenth century. This could indicate
that any open-field in this area had not been farmed exclusively by freeholders in the
more distant past and that their exclusivity of farmstead location within this area may
not of had antiquity after all. Nevertheless, it is unlikely that so many freeholders
could have been persuaded to move home into this area, unless the village was being
re-established after a period of abandonment. However, it more likely that if the
village was re-established at some stage, that any lord would install customary tenants,
rather than a cluster of freeholders, so the freeholders probably represent a strong
nucleus of independent farmers. The Goas situation may have arisen through one of
the freeholder’s selling-off part of his estate to pay debts. In a similar way the lord of
the manor may have sold off the Humble freehold, in the basically customary tenant
rows, as a means of raising income.

**Prudhoe**

In Prudhoe (Map 11 & Figs.8e-f, p.299) there were five basic row compartments, but
because of the number of holdings involved, the picture here is far more complex than
in the other villages and the view is far from clear. Figure 8f depicts a number of
possible compartment arrangements, not all necessarily of the same date (the pink
Figure 8e: - Tenant Distribution in Prudhoe in 1613

Figure 8f: - Prudhoe Village Plan Development (see text for full explanation).
lines are probably much earlier than all the rest on this figure). The obvious place to start is with the *North-West Row* compartment (light & dark green, & white on Fig.8e). Here three houses, part of the Bell leasehold and freehold (Table 6a, Appendix 1), and two other houses belonging to minor tenants, were located in their own distinct toft compartment (western red lines on Fig.8f). The compartment was about 120m long, with the two houses closest to the crossroads in crofts 15m wide, and three houses in crofts about 50m wide. This compartment is clearly younger than the southern end of the *Stable Close* of Prudhoe Castle Township (which presumably relates to the twelfth century castle), but may have formed part of a larger compartment including the *North-East Row* compartment (the rest of the red lines). An early date can be assumed for this compartment, as the freehold part of this compartment (light green, Fig.8e) was part of the *Hexham Land* gift of a pre-existing farm in the early thirteenth century (p.204), and it is possible that this area started as a demesne farm.

The *North-East Row* compartment is complex, it contained the main farmsteads of four leaseholders (red, orange, brown & pink), and the first two form their own east-west sub-row. The tofts all vary in size and shape, which does not conform entirely to a neat block and they appear to have been reorganised at some stage. Within this compartment, two sections appear to be evident. There is an approximately 25m wide strip running north alongside the road and this may relate to the block across the road. Then another part seems to be in-filling the area between this street block and the arable closes to the north of the road to Newcastle, although its eastern boundary appears to relate to the *North-West Row* compartment.
The *East* and *South-East Rows* can be divided into four compartments. The northern end consists of a compartment of five cottages and a garth (lilac, light blue, white & mid blue Fig.8e, orange lines on Fig.8f) with an additional freehold farmstead to the south (dark blue, Fig.8e). This last house looks as if it once was part of this row, but a kink in a close boundary behind seems to indicate that it had a different toft length. Originally, it looks as if there were six cottages each in a croft around 30-40m long by about 22m wide and a double sized freehold, 50m wide. They probably had a series of linear tofts or field strips running back from these cottages for a length of either 80m or 140m. At some stage, seven freehold (mid blue) and four leasehold (three yellow & one gold) cottages were added to the southern end of this compartment, although these may have been built as a link to the most south-eastern end of this row.

By the early seventeenth century this *South-East Row* consisted of two cottages with linear crofts (purple & dark green) 30m and 60m wide and 170m long, although the second croft was probably originally two separate ones both 30m wide. However, it appears that these cottage crofts may have earlier been part of a row compartment 170m square, if the close in yellow (Fig.8e) is included, and would have contained seven cottages. This south-east extension looks as if it may have been an early attempt at an east-west row village layout, as in Hedley and Mickley. There are also hints that behind this row may have been a long-strip field (up to 450m long), which suggests that any early settlement focus here was partly abandoned at some point and was later linked by the row of newer cottages.

Finally, the *South-West Row* had probably consisted of two sections, which may have begun as one large compartment or long strip field, that could also have contained the *East Row* (green line on Fig.8f). There is a southern half consisting of a garth and
four tofts or crofts (light blue, white, lilac, mid blue & grey, Fig.8e), and were mostly freehold at the time of the Mason Survey. These tofts were around 70m long, but of very variable widths, measuring from the south, 35m, 18m, 42m, 20m, and 28m wide. The northern half contained three farmsteads all freehold (lilac & mid blue) and an unenclosed cottage on the green without a garth belonging to the Crown. Their garths were variable in size and shape, but there was a common back boundary line, linking with the southern section, making a toft compartment some 80m long. These two parts of the toft compartment appear to have formed one unit, with perhaps long-tofts running back in varying lengths of between 150-200m. Also, the boundary between the two halves of this unit has the appearance of being laid out between arable strips, which reinforces the interpretation of a former arable field in this area.

It is also possible that another village previously existed in the Stanceley area of Prudhoe. There is no direct evidence for its existence, but the local settlement-names would certainly support the idea of their formerly being a village here, with the -ley suggesting that, it was named after the “Stony-clearing”. This would also explain the name Stanley Burn, which is not immediately next to the Stanceley area. There is very little evidence for it on the ground as modern housing now covers the area, but careful retrogressive analysis of cartographic evidence suggests an enclosure here similar to the one they may have existed at Mickley (light blue lines on Fig.8f, but this is very conjectural). The -ley place-name element indicates that it may have a similar foundation date to the others in the area, in which case this would explain why the Prudhoe townfields were separated and so far away from the village centre. Presumably, Stanceley predates Prudhoe village and its abandonment may have led to the establishment of the latter, perhaps after the Scottish devastation of 1174/4 (p.72).
General comments on Row Plans

After establishing some details of the relative chronology of village plan development within the study area, a review of the regional evidence is needed in order to date these developments.

The regularity and uniformity across northern England of these classic two-row villages must result from wholesale formal planning and deliberate reorganisation that can only have been the work of powerful lords (Roberts, 1992, p.23; Lomas 1992 150). Indeed, they have similarities to some of the ‘New Town’ plantations of other parts of England (Roberts, 1987 p.194), which often had burgage plots of a similar layout to the farmstead rows and tofts of the villages. In fact within County Durham, the ‘true’ towns such as Chester-le-Street and Darlington use “…the same planning ‘rules’ as do the rural villages!” (Roberts, 1987 p.194).

According to Roberts (1987, p.196), when applied to village rows, these ‘rules’ include the setting out of seven full status tofts and two half tofts, giving eight units in all. Indeed, in Hedley, a core of two rows, each with eight tofts or crofts, is probable, if the two ‘demesne’ farms at the western ends of the rows are ignored, along with the four cottages in the Crofts. Moreover, in Mickley a similar core arrangement is obvious, but in this case, the two freehold farms need to be ignored. Within Prudhoe, there are no simple rows consisting of eight crofts or tofts, except perhaps the northern end of the eastern row, and this may be of dating significance. Otherwise, any earlier more formal arrangements may have been obscured by various reorganisations, or less formal, more long-term piecemeal development.
It is likely that these villages were laid out using land rods varying in length from region to region (Maitland, 1897; Roberts, 1987, p.196; Adams, 1976). The use of the 20 foot (6.1m) rod at Carlton and a 21 foot (6.4m) rod at Shelom has already been mentioned (p.286), and it has been shown that a 20 foot rod was also used to lay out the toft compartments at Middlestone, in County Durham (Roberts, 1987, p.197-8). This points to the use of a local 20-21 foot rod in the planning process of the villages within County Durham and this is likely as the local acre unit known as a ‘Bishops Acre’ of 7,840 square yards (Adams, 1976, p.2), is based on the 21 foot rod. This gives a basic furlong unit of 280 by 28 yards, whereas a standard statute acre of 4,840 square yards is based on the statute rod of 16½ feet, at a ratio of 40 by 4 rods (ibid.)¹.

Tables 9a & b (Appendix 1) attempt to present the basic measurement data for the tofts within the study area and to consider which rod length was used. Roberts (1987, p.198) gives some indication of the difficulties of making the measurements due to problems that can occur through minor inaccuracies in measurement and drawing. And one of the problems with the data presented in the tables is that a certain degree of inaccuracy has been recognised, thus the nearest whole number has been given to rod measurements within two tenths of it. The results presented in the tables suggest a strong relationship with the standard statute rod length, but the smaller size of this rod means that there is an increased chance of correlation. Nevertheless, there is some evidence that the shorter tofts, which are probably from later reorganisations, reflect the use of a statute rod and that the underlying longer tofts may reflect the use of the ‘Bishop’s Rod’. Roberts (1988, p.169) suggests that long-tofts (150-250m long) were more common in the western uplands of the north of England, with shorter tofts on east side of Pennines (less than 150m long) that probably date after AD 1070 (ibid.).

¹ Instituted by Ed. I (Adams, 1976, p.2), but this would have already been in use by some communities.
Overall, the regional evidence indicates that the two-row villages were deliberately planned and laid out before AD 1300, if not before 1200 (Roberts, 1972; 1978, p.252; 1987, p.196; 1988, p.171-3), and that those with long-tofts may preserve elements of an earlier form of planned settlement (Roberts, 1978, p.252; 1992, p27). Planning on such a scale within the rural community required a considerable degree of overlordship, such as in the late eleventh century and early twelfth century when the political upheaval and military activity of the Norman Conquest would have resulted in a need for radical reorganisation (Lomas, 1992, p.150).

Roberts (1987, p.199-200) refers to the work of locators, men known from Continental sources to be land agents involved with the foundation of new villages for a lord, laying out and obtaining tenants from either local or distant sources. Some of these were involved in several settlements and others only with one, after which they would be given their own large share of a planned village or a separate farmstead (ibid.). There is certainly evidence for this from County Durham (ibid. p.200) and in Pembrokeshire, the personal names of some Flemish locators became attached to both planned settlements and large farmsteads. This may possibly be seen within the parish of Ovingham, with the various –ley settlements, and may explain the origins of the names Horsley and Prudhoe if the personal name interpretation is accepted. However, I have already pointed out reasons why I think this unlikely (p.77), but this may well explain the origins of Eltringham, as Roberts (ibid.) points to the award of drengage tenure by some of these locators in County Durham (ibid.). We have already seen that this was the earliest form of tenure recorded for this settlement in the early thirteenth century (p.59 & p.76). Roberts (ibid.), also points to complications due to the settlements bearing earlier Anglo-Saxon place-names, like with Eltringham. He
suggests that the *locators* in these cases were involved with the resettlement by new populations, of older villages (*ibid.*), presumably after the ‘Harring of the North’ in the late eleventh century. This may explain how most of the village row within the study area and elsewhere appear to have be laid out over earlier long-strip fields. These fields may well have been the remains of Anglo-Saxon settlements devastated by the Normans (see non-nucleated settlement below).

In conclusion, it has therefore been well demonstrated that in the north of England, devastation played an essential role in the introduction and application of new settlement forms. Moreover, the early Norman lords, due to the low population densities and relative political instability within a frontier zone, easily initiated the regionally distinctive settlement types characterised by planned forms (Roberts, 1992, p.29). They would have had a great desire to establish stable populations on their new estates, so that a profit could be returned (*ibid.*). Finally, Roberts (*ibid.*) suggests that the processes generating these regular village forms, though initially occurring within a relatively short time period, were probably reiterated by repeated later devastation and re-plantation, with the originally imposed types gradually becoming the regional settlement norm (*ibid.*). In the study area, this may have resulted in the construction of new farmsteads within short tofts using a standard statute rod length, replacing some of the old longer tofts that had been laid out with a ‘Bishops Rod’.

**Non nucleated Settlement**

There is no clear evidence as to what the field systems and settlement pattern of the non-nucleated farmsteads were like in this period, but two types of field system are discernible. One of these is based upon the small irregular fields seen on later cartographic sources, are likely to have had their origins at this time, if not before.
The other field system type now emerging through retrogressive analysis, are single, rectangular long-strip fields, underlying the village rows of the Anglo-Norman period. Overall, therefore, much of the non-nucleated settlement pattern discussed previously (p.174 & p.235), is probably a reflection of earlier developments, although the farmstead sites have not necessarily remained the same. Moreover, it is safe to assume that the whole landscape was dominated by dispersed settlement before the late eleventh century, as environmental and social conditions discouraged nucleation and extensive arable cultivation (Higham, 1986, p.293). These conditions encouraged a herding subsistence strategy, by scattered populations exploiting grazing resources, and Higham (ibid.) has stressed the similarities between this system and those of the late prehistoric and Romano-British periods.

Certainly in the medieval and early post-medieval periods, non-nucleated settlement in the area generally consisted of both freehold and leasehold farms, either singularly or in small-scattered hamlets. Many of the leasehold farms, and probably, originally, some, if not most of the freeholds, were demesne farms, part of the baron’s estates. Lomas (1992, p.156) has stated that demesne farms probably constituted a small minority in the Northeast, with new farms\(^1\) mostly being granted as freeholds to tenants whom the lords wished to reward or flavour. A great estate, such as Ovingham, might include demesne land, along with areas of specialist employment (Higham, 1986, p.294) and specific resource exploitation, presumably in sub-settlements. Within the study area, demesne farms appear to have been relatively common in the medieval period, although most had been leased or sold by the fifteenth century. In addition, they seem to form the antecedent core of many of the

\(^{1}\) Referring to the end of this period and later in the medieval period
nucleated villages formed in the late Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman periods, or they are attached to the early phases of many rows. Single or small groups of farmsteads, such as these, forming the focus for later nucleated settlement, can be referred to as 'magnate' farmsteads (Roberts, 1987, p.73), and within the study area, a good example would appear to be the cluster of freeholds in the Chesters area of Mickley (Map 13 & Fig.6a, p.160). The term also appears to be applicable to other simple dispersed settlement foci of higher social status, perhaps containing a lord's hall or manor house, even if they do not attract further growth (ibid. p.74). A good example of this type of settlement is Eltringham, which never appears to have grown beyond the size of a hamlet (before the nineteenth century).

Along with a simple nucleus of one or two farms, most dispersed settlements consist of a primary dwelling, along with some ancillary structures and associated enclosures (Roberts, 1987, p.70). Normally there is a surrounding ring-fence defining the extent of the settlement, along with other boundaries defining driftways, arable land, grazing land, and woodland (ibid.). The ring-fence can also be defensive, and can be circular, polygonal, or D-shaped, although sometimes these shapes are formed by an existing feature as one of its sides. The area defined as being a possible enclosure in the Edgewell/Chesters (Map 13) area could be the ring-fence to a magnate core site and appears to incorporate some earlier boundaries. On some maps, Eltringham appears to be within a D-shaped enclosure (Fig.6b, p.160) but its shape is due mainly to topography, as it is on a raised heugh between a small dene and a series of river terraces. This shows that we need to be aware that apparent similarity on a map can

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1 A similar cluster may have existed within the similar proposed enclosure at Stanceley, Prudhoe.

2 Wrathmell (1975) classified Eltringham as a shrunken village, but I personally feel that it never reached a size big enough to be considered as such.
be due to a variety of causes.

Brian Roberts (1987, p.73) presents a number of similar magnate farmsteads. For example, Cumrenton (Cumbria) is on an artificially raised platform and has embanked driftways leading out in two directions. Another magnate site at Brockley (Cumbria) has a sub-circular bank and ditch surrounding a hall and a church of pre-Conquest origins. Then at Bygrave (Hertfordshire?) a similar polygonal structure surrounds a moated site and medieval church (ibid.). Like at Mickley, there is a small village lying next to the enclosure of at least Anglo-Saxon date. At Stanton Lacy (Sa.) a village with a plan very similar to Mickley (but in reverse), has an enclosure which is half churchyard and half great farm. It seems to have been incorporated into the structure of the modern village and a portion of the encircling rampart is preserved within the churchyard of the Anglo-Saxon Church.

The layout of Prudhoe Castle Township was covered in the last chapter (p.235) and little more needs to be said except that it was obviously an important magnate site during this period, as even before the Conquest it is likely to have been the seat of the thegn. Certainly there was a high status palisaded feature here (Keen, 1982), but whether any of the other farmsteads within the township existed before the Conquest is unknown.

In Prudhoe village, the Hexham Lands and adjoining Bell farmhold may represent an early magnate site, possibly as a single farmstead with its own small attached field. The arable strips here are small, no longer than about a furlong, which does not suggest an early date, but strip length would have been restricted here by the steep topography. There is also a possibility that, like at Eltringham, two or more families
may have farmed the holding, which would explain why there were two farms here in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Additionally, the small size of the arable strips could have been because as a family farm there was no need for long-strips created by a large communal effort.

Returning to Eltringham, place-name and documentary evidence suggests that it could be of pre-Anglo-Scandinavian origin (p.59 & p.76), or was the gift to an Anglo-Norman locator (p.305). The field layout in the Anglo-Saxon period is unknown as there is no direct evidence, but development here appears to have been very organic, and based upon individual small-scale woodland clearances. No definite early arable focus has been identified, but the very irregular fields and field-names suggest that livestock may have been of more importance from the beginning. Areas of wood-pasture and woodland around the site can be assumed, along with pasture rights on the common. In fact the existence of Mickey Common can be argued to have similar bounds to that in the Middle Ages, as Eltringham is obviously placed in order to exploit it; with drove ways converging on the site.

The roughly circular enclosure at Mickley can also be interpreted as an original single-field, or in-field system, probably attached to, or as part of, the Edgewell manor house site (e.g. Aston 1985, p.129), we have already seen that arable strips were cultivated within it (p.298). Alternatively, there may be some combination of interpretations here, which are difficult to separate. In addition, within Mickley, place-name evidence suggests that an early settlement focus probably existed upon Toft Hill (Maps 9 & 13) within the West Field especially when combined with the adjacent Long Yard field-names (Matzat, 1988). It is probable that these two settlement foci dated from before the establishment of the classic two-row village. Therefore, these
represent areas of pre-Conquest nucleation, but they may only have been on a scale similar to that at Eltringham.

In this period, Hedley-Woodside (Derwenthopes) was probably part of Hedley Township and earlier may have just been part of the overall Ovingham estate. It probably consisted of a number of dispersed farmsteads of variable ages and sizes, in enclosures scattered around the edge of a large common. The farms of Hollins and Woodhead, had attached peripheral greens similar to what Roberts (1987, p.158/9) calls a 'lonying green', typical of 'green lanes' (packhorse roads) in northern England. It is therefore not surprising to find that later these two farms were both on packhorse route-ways. They also have the appearance of what Roberts (1999, p.95-97) refers to as a 'shareland field-system', where girdles of farmsteads are found around a shared arable focus. The farmsteads of Ravenside and Labourn's Fell in Chopwell also have the appearance of a system like this, and a large long-strip system may have existed here in the Anglo-Saxon period. Whether the Woodhead and Hollins farmsteads existed in this period is unknown, but it is possible that at some time there had been a shared strip-field area between the two farms, along with another larger strip-field to the north of Woodhead1. In the seventeenth century, this latter area appears to have been too large for only one farmstead, so there may have been others earlier. The length of the strips in both of strip-fields suggests a later, rather than an earlier date. For example, the strips in the southern field all have a length of around one-furlong2. Then on the Norton map, the few strips depicted in the northern field are all around half a furlong in length, but these are obviously later subdivisions of what may have

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1 These are basically the same as the proposed single long-strip fields underlying the village rows.
2 Typical for this type of field system (Roberts, 1999, p.95)
been a long-strip field. Alternatively, as with the Hexham lands, the fields could have been created through family labours and a system of long-strip may not have been necessarily. This area can also be interpreted as being a hamlet with both a block and strip-field system, a type which Roberts (ibid.) suggests are difficult to date, but may retain elements of ‘Celtic’ systems¹.

The Broad Oak area bears a strong resemblance to what Roberts (ibid.) refers to as a townfield kernel and hamlet, with enclosures containing single farmsteads. This type of settlement is generally found in the woodland or upland regions of north and west of Britain, which are areas where the potential for arable development was either slow or were severely limited by environmental circumstances (ibid., p.95).

It can be seen that within the study area that there were two forms of dispersed settlement from which villages could have evolved, small cluster settlements, like Toft Hill and Edgewell/Chesters in Mickley and magnate farmsteads, like Eltringham (Roberts, 1987, p.152). Roberts suggests that either can be Anglo-Saxon, but neither is this self-evident, as some clusters and magnate sites could have Romano-British or even prehistoric origins (ibid.). For example, in Cumbria, Roberts found that some of the ‘Romano-British’ steadings were probably still occupied when the local population was being aggregated into villages (Roberts, 1993; 1996, p.26).

Crops

Excavations have revealed a little evidence as to what crops were grown in Anglo-Saxon Northumberland, but it is likely that other crops were grown in smaller quantities that are known from before and after this period. Bread wheat in particular and hulled barley are the most commonly recovered cereals and have been found at a

¹ presumably he means Iron-Age or Romano-British
number of the Anglo-Saxon monasteries as well as other sites (Huntley, 1999, p.77). In addition, a certain amount of Spelt wheat has been found, which had been commonly grown during the Roman period and this could represent a degree of continuation in agricultural practices (ibid.). However, the discovery of rye in a late context at Lindisfarne (circa. AD 1000) demonstrates Danish influence (ibid.), at least locally, towards the end of this period.

**Stock Rearing Systems and the Common Waste**

The rearing of stock within the study area during this period would have been as important as it was in the Middle Ages, and generally for similar reasons. Particularly during troubled times, the mobility of livestock resources would have been attractive.

Presumably, similar types of livestock were kept as those in the medieval period, but cattle were probably the most numerous (Higham, 1987). The re-growth of woodland over earlier field systems during this period may have been deliberately or passively allowed as it resulted in the creation of large areas of wood-pasture, in which the cattle could be hid as much as fed.

**Common Waste**

It is obvious from place-names and historic records that by the middle of the eleventh century most of the commons were almost certainly in existence and probably took much the same form as in the medieval period. Therefore, they must have been well established before the eleventh century, but it is currently impossible to say exactly how they developed. The next chapter will demonstrate how a much larger part of the study area was clear of woodland during the Romano-British period and we have already seen that woodland regenerated over large parts of the landscape after this.
Presumably, prior to the woodland re-growth these open areas must have been of a better land quality than they were after they became common wastes. Since the enclosure in the eighteenth century, most of the lower parts of the medieval commons have mainly been used for cattle and to a lesser degree for arable. Arable production on the higher areas failed so it is now mainly used as sheep grazing. Therefore, it seems that land quality in these areas is affected by three factors, intensity of usage, soil quality, and presumably climatic conditions. It is suggested that during periods of climatic amelioration, such as during the late Iron Age/Romano-British period and between the eighth and fourteenth centuries, land quality in these areas would have been higher. Alternatively, at times of climate deterioration, such as between the fourth and seventh centuries and during the ‘Little Ice Age’, land quality and usage would have declined. However, there is little evidence to suggest that intensive use was made of the wasteland from the Late Saxon period to the High Middle Ages, or earlier, except perhaps for the establishment of the potential long-strip system at Ravenside\textsuperscript{1} and may be the East Moor area of Mickley. It could be that the population was too small to adequately exploit this large land resource, however the discovery of areas of ridge-and-furrow (p.118) within woodland areas would suggest that there was a demand for new land, probably in the thirteenth century. So perhaps its usage as common rough grazing had become highly valued and legally protected? Another aspect that may have resulted in low usage may have been land quality, as the poor climatic conditions during the Early to Middle Saxon period may have resulted in soil leaching in those areas that are poorest today.

\textsuperscript{1} I think that this might be a failed plantation of some kind or a ‘share land’ system like at the Hollins/Woodhead site.
There has been plenty of evidence presented throughout this thesis for the widespread re-growth of woodland over large parts of the landscape during the Early and Middle Saxon periods. An idea of the amount of re-growth that occurred can be seen in Map10 that depicts its probable extent in the Middle Ages. During the Anglo-Saxon period its extent would probably have been greater, because prior to the establishment of the nucleated villages it would have included much of the townfield areas of Hedley and Prudhoe, in particular.

The level of management of this woodland appears to have been low, as there was far too much of it for more than a small part to be turned into coppice. In addition because of its quantity, there would have seemed to be little need to carefully manage a resource that was so plentiful. Moreover, even after the establishment of the nucleated settlements, the vast wood-pasture areas that were established suited local population needs as both pasture and somewhere to hide stock from raiding armies.

Conclusions

I started this chapter by stating that far more was known about Romano-British and Prehistoric field systems than those of the Anglo-Saxons and that it was assumed that they reused older systems or had simplified versions of medieval open-field systems. Myra Tolan-Smith (1995, p.215), talking about neighbouring Horsley and the surviving social and economic structures at the end of the Roman occupation, suggested that they were either taken up and left unchanged, taken over and altered, or made out a fresh by Anglo-Saxon settlers. In addition, Roberts (1996, p.26) thought that any colonists would take new land under varying conditions according to their needs and prior land use. Therefore, the adoption and adaptation of old systems,
along with the creation of new ones, are all possible. For example, in Wharram Percy at the end of the Roman occupation there was a mixture of settlement continuity and discontinuity (Higham, 1993, p.72). However, the overall evidence in northern Britain is for the abandonment of Romano-British settlements in the fifth century AD (ibid.), as the economic stimulus of the Roman army was no longer there (ibid.).

Generally, the pre-Norman antecedent settlement pattern is elusive (Roberts 1996, p.27). Certainly in Cumbria a pattern of small hamlets of loosely grouped steadings is assumed (ibid.) and this sounds very much like Hedley-Woodside, if not other parts of the study area as well. This would indicate a landscape in the period between the leaving of the Romans and the arrival of the Normans as one of small enclosures and vast rough grazing, on the open commons or wood-pastures (ibid.). Although towards the end of the Saxon period or in the early Norman period we have seen that there is evidence for some settlements based upon single strip-fields. Scottish, Scandinavian and Norman devastation in the Late Saxon period produced a stressed, demoralised, dispossessed peasantry who were introduced to new settlement systems and populations by their new Norman lords (Roberts, 1992, p.23, 26). However, despite repeated devastation in the twelfth and fourteenth centuries continuing to provide a sharp stimulus to initiate more innovation (ibid.), earlier field and settlement systems still managed to have an influence on their layout. I am thinking specifically of the early, probably pre-Saxon field systems, such as at Mickley, whose layout remained such a strong influence on later farmers that large parts of these systems still survive today. It seems to me, within the Prudhoe area, despite repeated devastation, periods of abandonment and the introduction of new populations that these events were always of a short-term nature. And that there was always enough of the earlier
populations, or their field boundaries, surviving that most new landscape systems had to respect the older community area arrangements to at least some extent.

Brian Roberts (1987, 1988, 1993 & 1996) has paid some attention to this subject and sees the Anglo-Norman strip-fields as a distinctive layer of settlement activity, in Cumbria (Roberts, 1996, p.24), and presumably elsewhere in the North, it is superimposed over earlier layers of landscape activity (ibid.). He thinks twelfth century colonisation probably occurred in localised pockets of both rapid expansion and gradual accretion (ibid. p.26). In addition, the colonists must have faced a landscape in various stages of abandonment or dereliction, or a residual population still occupying and farming parts of these landscapes. He suggests that the reiteration of earlier landscape patterns would have helped calm the social tensions between the incomers and any pre-existing populations. “In this way substantial features, earlier enclosure lines, earlier land usages, even earlier burial grounds could be incorporated into the morphology of a growing village” (Roberts, 1987, p.70).

This helps us approach a better understanding of the developments within the study area. Reiteration of earlier landscape systems seems to have been combined with varying degrees of innovation and implantation, leading to a very homogenous settlement pattern, with different rates of change depending on each community’s personal history.
Chapter Fifteen: - The Late Prehistoric and Romano-British Landscape

Introduction

In Chapter 11 we saw that there were a number of north-south and east-west boundaries within the study area that appeared to form an underlying grain to the landscape (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.76, 78) and it is thought that these boundaries date from the Romano-British period or earlier. As this was the earliest landscape for which boundary data was recovered, it was considered that it would make a suitable cut-off for this thesis, which has relied heavily on the cartographic representation of boundary data. In addition, many of the landscape management decisions made during this period still affect the landscape of today. Therefore, this chapter will examine those features that have been identified as probably being antecedent to the late Anglo-Saxon field systems. As with the Anglo-Saxon landscape, there is a degree of confusion or ambiguity over the dating phases, which again, at times, leads to more than one possible interpretation.

The period map

Map 14 depicts the antecedent landscape features that appear to underlie the Anglo-Saxon landscape discussed in the last chapter, at a scale of 1:25,000. It was made through a retrogressive analysis of Map 13 and fieldwork, but it also relies upon a certain amount of intuition and guesswork, as only certain parts of this landscape can definitely be proved to date from this period. In addition, those parts of the late Prehistoric/Romano-British landscape detected by Myra Tolan-Smith (1997, *fig.6.5*) in Horsley that adjoin this study area are shown at the north end of Map 14, along with some apparently similar boundaries in neighbouring Chopwell.
As the actual date of origin of the features shown in this section is not known an arbitrary cut-off date of the beginning of the first millennium BC has been chosen as this should cover most of the possibilities.

**Climate and Terrain**

At the beginning of the first millennium BC the climatic conditions were wetter than today and cooler by perhaps one or two degrees (Lamb, 1981; Bell and Walker, 1992, p.71, Woodside & Crow, 1999, p.29), which by about 750 BC may have resulted in a shorter growing season (Lamb, *ibid.*). In addition, there is palynological evidence from the second millennium BC that the northern landscape consisted of a shifting pattern of small temporary woodland clearances with few permanent features. The forest cover was made-up of a deciduous mix of ash, elm and alder on soils that were more fertile and oak, hazel and holly on the less productive plateaux (Dumayne & Barber 1994, p.165-173). However, by 1000 BC, it would appear that east of the Pennines more permanent vegetation clearance was beginning to appear (Haselgrove, 1982, p.76). This was particularly the case in County Durham, whereas in Northumberland the clearance was discontinuous for most of the first millennium BC (*ibid.*).

It was not until the later part of the first millennium and the beginning of the Roman period, that large-scale clearance occurred in general. This was earliest in the drier eastern parts of the region (Higham, 1986, p.118; M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.43; Turner, 1979; van der Veen, 1992, p.12; Dumayne & Barber, 1994, p.165-173). It appears that it was during the late Iron Age, specifically before the Roman conquest, that a permanent pattern of clearance and landscape division was established (Van der Veen, *ibid.*; M. Tolan-Smith 1995, p.261). Moreover, Myra Tolan-Smith (*ibid.*)
thinks it is possible that in the generally more amenable terrain of the lower Tyne Valley, these clearances may have occurred earlier within in the first millennium BC. Good evidence for this particular forest clearance comes from the probable Iron Age field-systems in the Horsley (ibid.) and Mickley areas.

Pollen and geomorphological evidence show that the removal of woodland throughout the north-east resulted in increased surface run-off and slope erosion, leading to the delivery of more alluvium to river valley floors (Turner & Kershaw, 1973, p.925; Bell & Walker, 1992, p.167; Higham 1986; Macklin, et al. 1992, p.127-8). This erosion and alluviation phase coincided with a period of slightly wetter and cooler conditions, a century or two either side of the BC/AD change (Macklin, ibid. p.135).

After about 150 BC the general European climate began to improve, becoming milder and drier. Conditions continued to improve throughout the Roman period, until by mid first century AD conditions were similar to today (Lamb, 1981, p.56-57). Then from around AD 250 to about AD 400, Britain experienced steady climatic conditions which were a little warmer and drier than today (Lamb, ibid.). This would have increased the possible range of viable subsistence strategies in the area, including cereal cultivation, especially on the lowland plains and in major river valleys (Higham, 1986, p.182; M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.233-4).

Pollen diagrams show that during the Roman occupation the deforestation that had begun in the late Iron Age continued throughout northern England and southern Scotland (Richard Tipping, pers. comm.). For example, recent profiles from within the vicinity of Hadrian's Wall, at Glasson Moss and Walton Moss in Cumbria, have confirmed that a period of rapid clearance started during the late Iron Age at 295 cal BC and 65 cal AD respectively (Dumayne and Barber, 1994). Although another site,
Fozy Moss in Northumberland (only 24km to the west of the study area) showed little human impact until the Roman period. Here the percentage of grass pollen rose suddenly to 80% by circa. AD 130, suggesting an almost totally treeless landscape (ibid.). Additionally, at Vindolanda, excavations revealed that large oak construction timbers in the early phases were later replaced by much thinner, shorter oak and birch timbers (Robin Birley, pers. comm.). This suggests that the quality and size of timber available for building work decreased with time, therefore, local timber resources were becoming exhausted and good woodland management practices were not being employed\(^1\). Dumayne and Barber (ibid.) thought that large-scale clearance occurred across the whole of the Tyne-Solway area, due to the timber demands for the building of Hadrian's Wall and its forts, as well an increased number of native agricultural farms.

After the end of the Roman occupation, from the fifth to the seventh centuries AD, there occurred the short-lived general climatic deterioration, that was discussed in the last chapter (Lamb, 1981, p.57; Higham1987; Macklin et al., 1993, p. 35). Locally, this contributed to an overall drop in a population, which had become economically dependent on the Roman garrisons (Dark & Dark, 1996; Dark, 1996; M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.44).

**Historical, Social and Economic Context**

In the period covered by this chapter, there is no local historic evidence for the study area so it is totally prehistoric and the history of human activities at this time has had to depend entirely upon regional and national archaeological evidence and general history.

\(^1\) Personal observation of a number of Roman timbers preserved at Vindolanda failed to produce any definite evidence that they had come from managed woodland.
The climatic conditions of the early first millennium BC appear to have coincided with the abandonment of a number of field-systems that had been initiated in the previous millennium. This abandonment occurred not only in the upland regions which were most affected by the climatic changes, but also many of those in lowland areas in Wessex and the Midlands. They seem to have been replaced by a new type of large-scale linear earthwork, associated with the reorganisation of the landscape into large open areas, divided by the new boundaries (Fowler, 1983, p.189; Darvill, 1987, p.127, Woodside & Crow, 1999, p.27-9). With the upturn in climatic conditions after about 600 BC the large possibly tribal regional groupings of the earlier first millennium started to disintegrate (ibid. p.133). This is clearly demonstrated by a growing regionalisation in artefact styles and settlement types, with a diversification of the subsistence base and greater self-sufficiency among individual communities (ibid.).

The environmental conditions of the early first millennium BC had also resulted in a shortage of resources, and/or because of social factors led to a greater demand for them. It resulted in a period of aggressive unrest and it is traditionally thought, led to the emergence of a hill-fort based society after about 650 BC (ibid.). This was certainly true of some areas, but other parts of Britain resolved these problems with a number regional variations in their subsistence economy and political organisation (ibid.). For example, in northern England, only a few hillforts are known from the Pennines and/or the upland peripheries of Northumberland (Fowler, 1982, p.121; Darvill, ibid.). Whereas in the Cheviots, the Borders and North Yorkshire, various types of enclosed homesteads were the norm. At Thorpe Thewles (Cleveland), for example, a sub-rectangular enclosure was constructed at around 200 BC containing a large roundhouse some 19m (62 feet) in diameter (Darvill, ibid. p.150).
aggression and warfare became a central part in social relations, as was the control of essential resources, such as metal ores, salt and imported luxury items, which became important in some areas (ibid. p. 133).

At this time, the study area probably fell within the territory of the tribe known from Roman sources as the Brigantes. It has traditionally been thought that the river Tyne formed the boundary between their domain and that of the neighbouring Votadini tribe (Frere, 1987, p.41). However, Brigantian territory probably extended further north, or could have included both sides of the Tyne and it is likely that the Votadini area was in northern Northumberland (Higham, 1986, p.147). The possibility remains that the territories of the two later Anglian kingdoms had their origins at this time.

Although the Romans invaded southern Britain in AD 43, before the last quarter of the first century AD they largely had a non-military influence on the northern tribes. They did this by encouraging a demand in and then controlling the supply of foreign luxury goods, and through the political support of favoured tribal leaders. Finally, due to a number of factors, the Romans took direct control of northern England, largely without any notable resistance, and began to advance into Scotland. They eventually consolidated along the Tyne-Solway corridor by building a number of forts and the Stanegate a major east-west road between Carlisle and Corbridge. This frontier was later solidified into a permanent feature by the construction of Hadrian’s Wall in AD 122. It remained the Empire’s north-west frontier for most of the rest of the occupation, except for a brief expansion into Scotland later in the middle of the second century AD.

No actual Roman remains are known from the study area, but considering the close proximity of Roman activity around the area it is inconceivable that it was not directly
affect by their occupation. For example, to the north, not only was there Hadrian’s Wall itself, but two milecastles (15 & 16), as well as a number of watch-towers along the wall. Then at the south end of the study area, across the Derwent was the Roman fort at Ebchester, which is also likely to have had a civilian settlement outside it (a vicus). Moreover, running along the south-west fringes from Ebchester to Corbridge, is the Roman road of Dere Street.

Once the environment improved, after the later part of the first millennium BC population levels rose substantially and continued to increase until about AD 300, coinciding with a climatic optimum. In addition, a new range of crops and tools arrived, along with a plough capable of extending arable cultivation on to a number of lowland soils (Higham, 1987, p.41). In the north-east arable agriculture now became feasible on all well-drained lowland areas east of the Pennine watershed, including the middle Tyne valley and even some less well-drained lowlands areas could support mixed agriculture (Higham ibid. p.43).

During the Roman period, the population levels appear to have been raised artificially due to the political and cultural circumstances, particularly in areas of greatest resource demand such as the garrisons of Northern England (ibid.). It is likely that this is due to native farmers supplying the Roman garrisons (Higham, 1986, p.179), either indirectly through fort vicl, or directly via taxation (ibid. p.224).

The withdrawal of the Roman legions in the early fifth century, led to the political and social confusion (ibid. p.313-5; 1987, p.43) discussed in the last chapter. The different ethnic groups competed with each other, but warfare and famine caused population levels to fall dramatically as they struggled to form new societies.
Settlement Form and Agricultural Systems

Through fieldwork and retrogressive analysis a number of features have been identified as being probably or potentially of a pre-late Anglo-Saxon date. Most of these are field boundaries, both extant and removed, which mainly appear to form a structure of coaxial or long linear features.

Coaxial Field Systems

The most extensive of the coaxial systems surround Mickley village, which appear to consist of a long north-south system and an east-west lynchet system, the latter wrapping around the scarp slopes to the north and west of the village. Whether the two systems have different origins or are contemporaneous can be proven either way.

We have seen that much, if not all, of the north-south system was probably reused in the Anglo-Norman period\(^1\) as a long-strip field system, and that it presumably pre-dates the lane from Hedley to Mickley as well as a period of woodland re-growth over the system. In addition, the nucleated village of Mickley was probably created from two separate basic settlement clusters (p.310) and that the cluster in the Chesters/Edgewell area appears to have been contained within some kind of enclosure.

The area of east-west coaxial fields is definitely earlier than *High Close Wood* (p.118), and the size of their lynchets indicates that they had been under cultivation for a considerable period of time. Parts of the system are now under cultivation but over the last couple of centuries, and probably since the secondary woodland was cleared from this area, they had mainly being used for pasture. The potential period of arable operation of this system is most likely to have been within the period 100

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\(^1\) And probably the Anglo-Saxon period
BC to AD 400. It is suggested that this system is younger than elements of the north-south system, because even if most of the surviving boundaries of the latter are actually Anglo-Saxon or Norman in origin, a field system on these milder more gentle slopes is likely to have developed earlier. It is only during a period of population and/or economic pressure that the steep, cold, damp, north facing slopes were likely to have been developed. Alternatively, it is possible that they were cultivated during the climatically improved conditions of the twelfth to early fourteenth centuries, when there was also a great degree of population pressure. If the latter case is true, then it is likely that an earlier field system was being reused and that this did not include the areas now within High Close Wood. It is more probable that the field system originated and developed during the period circa AD 100 to circa AD 400, when climatic conditions were reasonable and there would have been a great demand for cereals by the Roman frontier garrisons. Indeed in this period, these cool north-facing fields would have been suitable for the cultivation of oats needed by Roman cavalry.

The two coaxial field systems at Mickley bear a close resemblance to other coaxial systems, which in northern Britain have generally been dated to any period between the Bronze Age and Romano-British periods (Darvill, 1987; Fleming, 1987, p.192). For example, the Chesters/Edgewell enclosure and the north-south system when viewed as a whole looks very similar to the Romano-British coaxial field arrangements of the crop-mark site at Yanwarth, in Cumbria (Fig. 9, p.327; Higham, 1980, p.44-46; 1986, p.204). There a large, D-shaped, farmstead enclosure appears to have been constructed against an existing linear feature (perhaps part of an earlier coaxial north-south system), along with a series of east-west coaxial boundaries running at right angles from it. Excavations of these linear features revealed that they were constructed mainly of field clearance boulders and soil (1980, ibid.), in a similar
Figure 9: Northern Romano-British Field-Systems
(From Higham, 1986, Figure 5.6, p.204). (a) the Eller Beck settlement and enclosure complex, Lonsdale, Cumb.; (b) Yanwath Wood; (c) Coldberry Hill, Humbleton, Northumb.

way to many of the antecedent boundaries within this study area (Chapter 11). Higham (ibid.) showed that these boundaries were mainly part of an arable system, but some other boundaries were probably involved with cattle ranching. In addition, he demonstrated that the arable fields were laid out to be sheltered from the prevailing winds, rather than being on warm south facing slopes (ibid.). This is possibly similar to the lyncheted field system at Mickley, but in both cases this may be due to their survival on these generally poor exposures, and other parts of the system with more
favourable conditions may have been ploughed out by later farming activities
(Higham, 1986, p.203). Apparently, where other similar field systems have been
recognised in northern England, north-facing slopes have been rare and most have had
broadly southern exposures (ibid.).

In Mickley, the shape and size of the potential early enclosure can be interpreted in a
number of ways. In fact, there is a strong possibility that there were actually two
enclosures, one inside the other, which were not necessarily contemporary. Either can
be interpreted as a non-defensive ring-fence around a magnate site, similar to
Eltringham (p.308-10), and a similar enclosure may have existed at Stanceley,
Prudhoe, but any associated early fields there are far from certain. Other double
ditched farmstead enclosures are certainly known in the north of England. For
example, at the less irregular two period, ditched crop-mark site at Castlesteads,
Dobcross Hall, Dalston in Cumbria (Higham, 1986, p.129), where there was a large
later Prehistoric, defensive enclosure, with a smaller ditched enclosure at its centre,
occupied during the Roman Period. The application of field-names like Castlesteads
or Chesters is also a common occurrence with sites of this type in northern England,
which again encourages the interpretation of there being an early enclosure here.
Certainly, locally, Myra Tolan-Smith (1997, p.44) found a Romano-British farmstead
and part of an associated field system, and an Iron Age promontory fort within the
known medieval extent of Horsley Wood. Moreover, this provides additional
archaeological evidence for a cleared and organised agricultural landscape during the
Roman Period over which woodland subsequently regenerated (ibid.). Both the
Stanceley enclosure and the one at Mickley appear to have possible antennae
extending from them, a feature common to many other Iron Age sites, such as Little
Woodbury (Wilts.) and Gussage All Saints (Dorset), although they are much smaller
than the study area enclosures. This type of feature has been dated to between the fifth and second centuries BC (Darvill, 1987, p.140).

Most of the lyncheted cultivation terraces to the north of High Mickley are still hedged and were discussed under Chapter 11. Those to the west of the village are also on a scarp slope, and consist of a couple of terraces visible in Field Nos. 139 and 140 (see p.100, plus Maps 4, 6 & 14), although the hedged boundaries immediately above and below them might be part of the same system. The northern part of the system includes a circular crop-mark site (p.96, Maps 4 & 14), that possibly represents the remains of an Iron Age or Romano-British hut circle. If this is the case, then its position on its own and away from the proposed hilltop enclosure, is interesting. The site is obviously undefended and is significantly at a point in the lynchet system where it is inset into a slightly less steep part of the slope. Whether the site was ever only occupied by one farmstead or not is difficult to answer, as the photographic evidence needs to be confirmed through excavation. For example, excavations at Burradon in Northumberland revealed a whole series of circular buildings when only one central structure had been identified from air photographs (Young, 1994, p.13). Moreover, at Thorpe Thewles, in Cleveland, excavations revealed a series of structures at odds with photographic evidence (ibid.). Another possible Iron Age/Romano-British farmstead may have existed in Hedley, where a semi-regular shape is discernible at the east end of the Crofts furlong and the Over Shefe furlong, at a point where the Lead Road leaves the village crossing a probably antecedent east-west boundary. The ploughed strips here appear to preserve and respect an earlier enclosure feature approximately 100m square, in a similar way to the ploughed strip layout in the Thornickester furlong, Horsley (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.77). The strip arrangement there is thought to preserve the site of a possible
Iron Age farmstead (ibid.) and the toponym evidence there supported this interpretation.

The east-west field system of Mickley appears to extend eastwards into Prudhoe along the line of the main road (A695) and another parallel lynchet probably runs from Beaumont Wood to Prudhoe Castle¹. There are also hints of other east-west field systems, particularly in the Dales/Colliery Wood and East Moor areas of Mickley, as well as the Highfield Pasture area of Prudhoe. There were possibly some others in Hedley and Hedley-Woodside. Seemingly, many of these boundaries underlie the north-south systems within the study area, supporting the view that they are in fact purely an Anglo-Norman long-strip field system, despite the woodland regeneration evidence and its similarity to other Romano-British layouts. The answer may again be due to multiphase activities, with an early east-west layout on the warm south slopes being replaced in the Roman-British period by a north-south system, which was later incorporated into the Anglo-Norman one. Alternatively, the Anglo-Norman long-tofts may have been extended over a pre-existing system of east-west boundaries, which would explain their removal².

**Long Linear Features**

All the above coaxial systems appear to relate to, or are respected by a number of other major linear features (Map 14), which often have long traverses over the landscape, and frequently ignore or form parts of township boundaries. One of the clearest can still be seen running northwards from south of the county boundary, to be lost in the middle of Hyons Wood, where it possibly becomes a brook feeding the Stanley Burn. A large part of this slightly irregular, earth and stone bank formed the

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¹ This is the line of the medieval millrace and ignores the township boundary and the Otter Burn.
² A slight ridge is preserved running across the Dales (Field No.103) at right angles to the long-tofts.
township boundary between Hedley and Prudhoe; it also divides the *High Moor/Fulcherside Common* between the two townships\(^1\). The antiquity of this line is certain because of its relationships with *Hyons Wood* and the county boundary, which suggests a pre-AD twelfth century date. Moreover, the relationship between this boundary and all the other major ones in the Ravenside area is very curious. The north-south section of the county boundary between *Ravenside Farm* and its meeting point with the east-west section, anciently known as *Ravenside Dyke* (p.63), is of a very similar alignment and construction to the *High Moor Dyke*. It has some sections with a few courses of drystone revetment, constructed in herringbone fashion\(^2\), but is generally, like most of the boundaries of this type a low earth and stone bank. This boundary appears to have had secondary woodland over parts of it at some point, as its southern half has a thick species rich hedge and its northern half is virtually hedgeless. On Map 14 it looks as if it should form some kind of coaxial relationship with the ‘High Moor Dyke’, but on the ground there is no obvious evidence to support this, as it clearly ends abruptly at the point where it meets the east-west section of the county boundary\(^3\). This too has complex relationships. To the east of its junction with the ‘High Moor Dyke’, it is of a different construction from that part of it to the west. The east section to *Labourn’s Fell* consists of a double earth and stone bank with double ditch, which fades to a single bank and ditch at the west end. To the west of the junction, the boundary clearly consists of an earth and stone bank and/or lynchet, with a relatively large ditch to the north. To a lesser extent this arrangement continues on westwards past the junction with the *Ravenside Dyke*, at least as far as *Field No. 97-99/100 (Map 6)* and from there it appears to have been removed. At the

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1 For convenience, from here on it will be referred to as the ‘High Moor Dyke’, although this is a name made up by myself.

2 See footnote No.2, p.150

3 Geophysics would probably help to confirm this.
junction of the two boundaries with the 'High Moor Dyke', it can clearly be seen that the two sections are on different alignments, with a gap or kink in the county boundary the width of a modern farm gate.

Reinstatement, realignment and changes in status\(^1\) on a number of occasions may have complicated these relationships. Therefore, a correct relative chronological relationship is very difficult to achieve. For example, a presumably medieval wayside cross, in the region of what is now *Crossbank Plantation*, is shown on the Norton maps, but it does not show a large section of the 'High Moor Dyke'. This missing section probably existed at the time, but was not drawn\(^2\), as it is implied in the bounder contained in the Stockdale Survey. It is difficult to decide whether the cross was deliberately placed beside or on this line; or even if the boundary is aligned on it. Whatever the actual events in this area, using the T-junction rule, it appears that the east-west section of the county boundary west of the 'High Moor Dyke' and its continuation is older than the *Ravenside Dyke*. It is difficult to tell if the 'High Moor Dyke' is older or younger than the western part of the east-west section, but the eastern section, if it has not been realigned, is probably the youngest section. This suggests that some of the other east-west alignments in the area\(^3\) may also be of an early date.

The *Ravenside* and 'High Moor' dykes can be seen to link the Milkwell Burn (or its tributaries with the Stanley Burn as a major land division, and a similar boundary the *Edgewell and Horse Close Dykes*\(^4\), link this stream with the Otter Burn. Surprisingly,

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\(^{1}\) Despite its political status, its actual physical importance may have declined once the land either side of the county boundary was owed by the same family in the 18\(^{th}\) and 19\(^{th}\) centuries.

\(^{2}\) These maps show virtually no details of the commons.

\(^{3}\) Such as the Hedley/Hedley-Woodside township boundary

\(^{4}\) As named on the bounders in the Stockdale & Mason Surveys
it has an almost identical boundary arrangement to that in the *Crossbanks* area, in the *Mickley East Moor/Highfield/Riding High Wood* area (Map 14). The potential for examining the former relationships of the boundaries has been badly affected by open-cast mining in this area. From the *Highfield* southwards, the modern township boundary between Mickley and Prudhoe (from Boundary No.'s 34/178 to 13/184; Map 6) smoothly follows the probably seventeenth century division of *Mickley East Moor* (p.154), but eighteenth century cartographic evidence clearly shows the relationship between boundaries in this area was once far more complicated. These sources1 show that there was a discontinuity in the township boundary and a dogleg at the point (No. 34-35/177) where it intersects with the *Edgewell/Mickley* township boundary (No. 34/35, now removed). It can be clearly seen that the east-west boundary No. 24/35 is older than the *Highfield Dyke*, or another similar dyke (Nos. 180a/180b to 185/186) running south from this junction to the Stanley Burn. This earth and stone bank, which can be referred to as the 'Riding Dyke'1, survives and is very similar in construction to those in the *Ravenside* and *Crossbanks* area. Moreover, the same cartographic sources indicate that the east-west section of the *Edgewell/Mickley* township boundary is on the same alignment as boundary No. 176/178-9, and is therefore probably a continuation of the same boundary.

A number of other possible long'linear features have been identified, mainly through retrogressive analysis of the cartographic sources, and some possible extensions are proposed along with a few other possible lines on Map 14. These include a number of semi-regular coaxial lines to the south of Prudhoe, some other very similar extant boundaries in Chopwell and various east-west proposals not necessarily relating to the others. Except for those already discussed, most of these do not now exist so they

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1 For example the 1766 Thompson Plan of Prudhoe (*NRO Z/B 41/7*).
would be difficult to prove. Where surviving sections have been examined\textsuperscript{2}, they proved to be earth and stone banks with a ditch and/or lynchet so are very similar to those discussed above.

It is also obvious that these too are parts of coaxial systems rather than just single entities, although those coaxial parts that do survive tend to be less regular than the ones discussed above. In addition, these coaxial relationships fall into two categories. The first group are those in the Highfield area of Prudhoe and the Chopwell area, with apparently narrower fields than those in Mickley, but of a similar length. The strips in Chopwell are particularly irregular and are on a different alignment from the others, so they may represent woodland assarts of any date. However they are of a similar form to the other linear features discussed here, and their irregularity may have chronological significance. The second group consists of those north-south and east-west boundaries found in Hedley, Hedley-Woodside, and at Ravenside and on the High Moor, which are much more widely spaced than those at Mickley (except perhaps the East Moor part of that system). The north-south coaxial field system of Mickley may in fact be the same sort of system as these, but I may have incorporated additional boundaries from the Anglo-Norman layout. With both of these groups, and at Mickley, it is hard to tell if the surviving arrangements accurately reflect their original layouts. I feel that these long sinuous boundaries are not quite the same as the more regular coaxial ones discussed earlier. They appear to be similar to another type of boundary found throughout England (Fowler, 1983, p.189; Darvill, 1987, p.127), which generally seem to post-date the more regular systems of the late second and early first millennia BC (Darvill, \textit{ibid.}). However, as most of the local

\begin{itemize}
\item[\textsuperscript{1}] It is not referred to specifically in either Bounder in the Mason and Stockdale Surveys.
\item[\textsuperscript{2}] Particularly, the east side of Hyons Wood and parts of the line linking Ash Tree Farm, Chopwell, with Leadgate and the Clinty Burn.
\end{itemize}
regular field systems are thought to be later Iron Age or Romano-British (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.77) I suspect that these date from before, rather than after those in Mickley. The widely spaced boundaries of this type can be interpreted as major prehistoric land-divisions (Bonney, 1972; Fowler, *ibid.*) similar to the reaves found on Dartmoor, etc. (Darvill, 1987, p.127.). Major territorial arrangements like these were probably for the control of cattle, possibly operating as ranch boundaries (Fowler, *ibid.*; Darvill, *ibid.*), and probably date from the late Bronze Age or Early Iron Age (Fowler, *ibid.*; Darvill, *ibid.*).

**General Comments**

Overall, the picture is similar to that presented by Myra Tolan-Smith (1997, *fig.6.5*), which is not surprising considering the close proximity of her study area. The main differences are that Myra Tolan-Smith was able to locate more settlement sites, although fewer field boundaries appear to have survived in her area. Interestingly, these coaxial field arrangements are both aligned similarly. However, this may be a factor of topography rather than of any other significance as most river valleys run east-west in Northumberland. What may be of greater significance is the way in which many of the larger boundary units, of both Horsley and Prudhoe, divide the landscape up into strips each incorporating the same different varieties of terrain types. In this way, each north-south strip unit receives a certain amount of marginal rough summer grazing, richer lower land for pasture or arable and bottom land for winter pasture (Higham, 1986, p.202). In addition, each unit has watering access for cattle. Therefore, despite the ungainly nature of each holding, a great deal of equality of access to resources seems to be implied. A similar arrangement appears to have occurred on Dartmoor in by about 1300 BC, where the landscape had been divided up into unequally sized units each containing valley land, hill-slope land and high open
moorland (Fleming, 1983; 1987; Darvill, 1987, p.108). The Scole-Dickleburgh of East Anglia appears to divide the landscape in a similar way (Williamson, 1987) and this system, and others from northern Britain, have generally been thought to be of at least late Iron Age in date (Fleming, 1987, p.199).

The organisation of the Bronze Age landscape on Dartmoor is thought to represent a major investment of time and energy, and needed considerable political power to instigate but probably resulted from a single decision rather than through piecemeal extension and elaboration around a core area (Darvill, 1987, p.109). In the Tyne and Derwent Valleys the organisation of the landscape into the various units does not seem to be as extensive, nor quite as regulated, and appear to represent a smaller scale of investment on more than one occasion. Nevertheless, the amount of organisation involved in such relatively large land division and allotment should not be underestimated. Nothing approaching this scale of organisation appears to have been repeated in this area until the Anglo-Norman period, when to a great extent they seem to have reinstated much of this old field system.

Another feature of probable significance is the way in which these linear boundaries link the tributaries of the main rivers and streams with each other, which seems to be a common feature of other lowland Northumberland systems (Higham, 1986, p.202). This may have religious significance, or it might be a purely pragmatic way in reducing the amount work involved in laying out the units by making use of the natural boundaries.
A Iron Age Promontory Fort?

Hope-Dodds (1926, p.11) mentions a "... naturally formed fortress..." which she vaguely places on the glacial drift north of the Derwent and incorrectly names Currock Hill. Fortunately, there is a reference to a lecture by J.F. Robinson read to the Society of Antiquaries of Newcastle-upon-Tyne in about 1892 (Robinson, 1892), who places the fortress on Ebchester Heugh in the Chester Hills/Broad Oak area of Hedley-Woodside (Map 14). Unfortunately, the interior of this hill has now been quarried away, but apparently it used to be possible to pick up considerable numbers of flint flakes from the ploughsoil, some fashioned for "... domestic or warlike use" (ibid.). The evidence appears to point towards a promontory fort similar to the presumed Iron Age one located in Horsley Wood (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.73), although the lithic material here (including arrowheads (Robinson, ibid.)) would indicate an earlier occupation. Because of the destruction of this potentially important archaeological site its origins and form can now never be confirmed.

Crops Stock and Rearing Systems

Subsistence strategies in the Iron Age/Romano-British period are better understood than Anglo-Saxon ones, due to a larger number of excavations and were based on a combination of arable and pastoral practices (Macklin, et al. 1993, p.126). We have already seen above that local agriculture probably changed focus with time from pastoralism in the earlier Iron Age to intensified arable production in the late Iron Age (Haselgrove, 1982, p.17). During the Roman period these strategies were continued with further arable intensification (Higham, 1986, p.201) combined with extensive grazing, producing sheep, cattle and horses (Roberts 1996, p.27). There are also some hints that during the Roman period arable cultivation was concentrated in the
lowlands and that highland communities concentrated on pastoralism (Higham, *ibid.* p.203).

In northern England and southern Scotland several crops have been identified, including 6-row hulled barley, club-wheat, emmer and spelt-wheat, all from late Prehistoric or Roman deposits (Higham, 1987, p.36; Huntley 1999, p.77). Throughout this period barley appears to have been the most commonly grown cereal, but by Roman times the amounts of spelt, oats and rye had increased, although oats were more frequent west of the Pennines as the climate was wetter (Higham, *ibid.*; Huntley, *ibid.*, p.77-9). Additionally, emmer wheat was more common north of the Tyne and in lowland Scotland, while bread wheat, rye and oats occurred more irregularly to the south of the river (Huntley, *ibid.*, p.77). During the Roman period this pattern is found on both military and native sites (*ibid.*).

During the Roman occupation pastoralism was probably as important as arable to the communities of the study area. The most numerous type of livestock appears to have been cattle and they probably comprised a significant part of the communal economy (Higham, 1987, p.36). In addition, there are indications that within the Roman period pastoralism was intensified in both the highland and lowland zones, perhaps as a means of paying taxation in kind (Higham, 1986, p.201; Roberts, 1996, p.27). For example, the Frisii of Friesland were taxed in oxhides for military purposes (Higham, *ibid.*; Tacitus, *Annals IV*, 72), which means that tax demands must have affected the local economy (Roberts, *ibid.*). Certainly, there is evidence for the supply of local Celtic shorthorn cattle to the Roman forts of Vindolanda and Corbridge (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, p.78), but these could have arrived through commercial supplies as much as from taxation. In the same way the presence of the remains of wild animal
bones suggests hunting (Higham, 1987, p36), but it is difficult to tell if the low numbers of animals recovered resulted from commercial exploitation, taxation, or even from sport.

It is probable that even during the climatically favourable conditions of the third and fourth centuries AD, the Fulcherside or High Riggs Common area and Prudhoe Common were used for extensive pastoralism. The best evidence for this comes from the lack of any surviving arable field features in this area, from before the abortive attempts in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The lack of any obvious arable exploitation at any period, both above the 200m contour\(^1\) and lower down in the Stanley Burn valley, must be due to general soil conditions, fertility, etc., rather than climatic conditions with altitude.

**Woodland**

The discovery of large field systems both within the study area and in adjoining Horsley, indicate that extensive woodland clearance had taken place by the late second century AD (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.235). The evidence of the field systems is important, as there is no direct palynological or geomorphological evidence from the study area and these demonstrates that the regional picture derived from scientific sources probably provide a reliable source for the environmental history of this area. Therefore, it is likely that the tree canopy was cut back considerably so that only the steep-sided denes would have retained any woodland, as is assumed to have happened in Horsley (M. Tolan-Smith, 1995, p.235-6).

The possibility of woodland management also needs to be considered. Whether this resource had been managed during the later Iron Age, when presumably it was

\(^{1}\) The start of the moorland marginal zone (p.30).
beginning to become restricted is unknown, but there is evidence of such from other parts of the country (Rackham, 1997, p.35). Rackham (ibid. p.36) to a certain extent assumes that the Romano-British communities managed their wood resources and this might be true in some areas. However, the evidence from Vindolanda (p.321) does not support this idea locally, as it was obvious that later phases at the fort could not get hold of good quality timber. As both the military and native inhabitants of the frontier zone would still have required woodland resources (M. Tolan-Smith, ibid.) the question remains as to where they obtained it. Again, at Vindolanda, not only did the size and quality of timber reduce with time, but also the type changed from oak to birch and alder (Robin Birley, pers. comm.). Both these latter species are relatively fast growing colonisers and are the same types of timber that began to be employed as pit props within the study area from the eighteenth century, for cheapness and easy availability. This suggests to me that after the first century AD, what woodland there was, whether coppiced or not, would have tended to produce mainly low quality birch and alder\(^1\) timbers. However, a certain amount of species rich woodland must have existed along the Tyne Valley and southwards, to survive to re-colonise the post-Roman landscape, and indeed to endure to the current day.

**Conclusions**

The study of the Iron Age and Romano-British settlement pattern of the north of England is particularly difficult due to the lack of material remains (Clack & Gosling, 1976, p.24). Therefore, the recovery of so much detail on the landscape of this period has demonstrated the particular value of retrogressive analysis and the close study of environmental evidence from existing boundaries.

\(^{1}\) Which of course grow in the wet areas of the denes.
Higham (1986, p.205) has suggested that the development of field patterns in upland areas of the North consisted of piecemeal enclosures associated with individual dispersed settlements. However, south of Hadrian’s Wall, he thought a larger more widespread and inter-linked pattern of fields was commonplace, which implied a high degree of co-operation between various settlement groups (ibid.). The evidence from this part of the frontier hinterland appears to support this interpretation and the common orientation of many of the boundaries does suggest controlled planning of some kind. However, one has to be aware of the local topography, as the rivers generally run east-west and so the significance of this layout may purely be down to ensuring that each strip received an equal share of all the different land qualities.
Section 4: - Overall Conclusions

End piece (T. Bewick)
Funeral at Ovingham
Chapter 16: Overall Conclusions.

This thesis set out to reconstruct the past topography of an area of Northumberland and to demonstrate how with time the pattern of human activities changed within this landscape. It also aimed to investigate how land-use practices affected, and were affected by the place and the time(s) in which its societies lived.

To accomplish this I attempted the application of the multidisciplinary ‘Total Archaeology’ approach and tried to view the landscape in its entirety, including both the natural and the cultural environments. I did this by reviewing all the available historic and archaeological data that I could locate relating to the study area. I also gathered new field data, particularly by studying the boundary systems in the area, as this proved to be the most extensive surviving source of archaeological information on past landscape arrangements that could be collected. In addition, I created new data through the analysis of existing information not necessarily written with the landscape archaeologist in mind. Likewise, I reviewed the environmental history of the region and tried to relate this to the study area, showing how this has affected the agricultural strategies in the area. Moreover, I have looked at the general social developments of the region and nation as a whole, examining how these related to the study area communities. And overall, I have tried to tie all the different aspect of the study together to provide supporting details to my interpretations, often only derived through the application of a retrogressive approach to the data. That is I “excavated” the entire landscape by peeling off layers of information known to date from after the period being examined, and by examining the relationships between features known to have existed at a particular point in time and other surrounding features. In fact the main advantage of studying such a wide range of material and by applying a
A retrogressive approach to its analysis has been the recovery of information on periods via some techniques that others could not provide. For example, at the start of the project, I was fairly confident that through the early cartographic material contained within the early seventeenth century Mason Survey (p.52) I would be able to reconstruct much of the later medieval landscape, and this indeed proved to be true. However, there was little surviving pre-eighteenth century material covering that part of the study area that fell within the barony of Bywell, and even less material for earlier periods as a whole. Nevertheless, the retrogressive approach led to the identification of many long- and short-term trends, the identification of relict landscape systems and the recognition phases of landscape abandonment.

I now feel that I can give a brief summary of the landscape developments within the study area from the first millennium BC through to the nineteenth century AD.

The earliest landscape features that I have been able to recognise are depicted on Map 14 and have been derived almost entirely from retrogressive analysis, through the recognition of underlying boundary systems forming a grain to the landscape that have influenced much of the landscape development here ever since. Their antiquity has mostly been proved via their relationship to other features in the landscape that can be shown to be later; such as the woodland re-growth ‘High Tide Mark’ identified in parts of the landscape (see Chapter 11).

Map 14 reveals a series of long linear boundaries, often forming coaxial relationships with each other to form field systems, while others appear to stand alone in the landscape as single entities. These early boundaries can also be seen to be similar to
other such systems both within the landscapes adjoining the study area (such as the
neighbouring village of Horsley (M. Tolan-Smith, 1997, fig. 6.5)) and field systems in
other parts of the north of England (such as Yanwath Wood, Cumbria, Fig. 9, p. 327).
They even have similarities to prehistoric field systems from further afield (such as
Dartmoor, Dorset & Nottinghamshire (Fleming, 1987)), although many of these other
systems relate to a much wider time period than the ones within the study area.
Nationally such boundaries can date anywhere from the Bronze Age to the Romano-
British periods (ibid., p. 192), but within the north-east of England they are generally
thought to date from the mid-Iron Age at the earliest, but are more likely to be late
Iron Age or Romano-British (Higham, 1986). Regional environmental evidence
invariably supports this, with little evidence for extensive landscape clearance any
earlier within the north as a whole (Van der Veen, 1992, p. 12). In particular, such
systems as that proposed for Mickley (p. 326) are most likely to have reached their full
extent during the Roman occupation, when population levels were high and there was
a great demand for intensive food production on nearby Hadrian’s Wall.

However, there are probably some earlier boundary features represented in the study
area, such as the long linear dykes of the Ravenstide, High Moor and Horse Close
areas (p. 330). These are likely to relate to some of the earliest major divisions of the
landscape, separating each of the sandstone ridges into two sub-units and forming the
basis of the township boundaries that still exist today. The way in which these
apparently territorial boundaries link or use natural water features is possibly of
significance, although this may have been for purely practical reasons rather than of
any religious significance.
Despite the similarity of the boundary features recovered in the study area to prehistoric reave systems surviving on Dart Moor, it should be noted that here they are nowhere near as extensive as those systems. There, coaxial systems often continued for great distances, even across water features and ravines (Fleming, 1987, p.190). Whereas, within this study area, even the longest of the lineal features and coaxial field systems all respect the Stanley Burn and do not run right across the landscape from the Tyne to the Derwent or beyond like a Dart Moor type system would do. This is presumably due to the northern systems being laid out at a different time and by different people, for whom such a high degree of landscape planning and control was not necessary, unthought of, or beyond their capabilities.

This study has recovered little detail on the landscape of the succeeding early and middle Saxon periods, but has demonstrated that there was a major population collapse, with the Celtic population being replaced largely by Germanic settlers; a pattern seen over much of eastern England. However, the place-name evidence seems to indicate that most of any Germanic settlement occurred in the mid to late Saxon period or even the Anglo-Norman period (Gelling, 1978; 1993, p.198). Regional palynological work supports this by demonstrating a major period of woodland re-growth during early to mid Saxon times (Dark & Dark, 1996; Dark, 1996). Local environmental evidence recovered from the boundary survey also demonstrates that there was a long period of landscape abandonment, during which woodland re-grew over earlier field systems. When population levels began to rise again, it appears that large parts of these old field systems were reused as the boundaries for new landscape arrangements.
The settlements established in the later Saxon period, from which the settlement pattern we see today originated, appears to have consisted of a number of small non-nucleated magnate farmstead sites (Roberts, 1987, p.73-4), some of which attracted further settlement (such as at Mickley), while others did not (like at Eltringham). This was the pattern of settlement development over much of northern and western Britain (for example, Cockfield, Co. Duham (Roberts, 1987)) but has been found to underlie the settlement pattern of much of the rest of Britain (ibid.; Taylor, 1995). Many of these magnate sites appear to have formed the nuclei of the demesne estates of the medieval period and as such appear generally to lie beside rather than at the core of later village centres. In fact, in Hedley, Mickley and Prudhoe, I have identified single large long-strip fields attached to magnate/demesne sites, which after a period of ploughing had row settlements laid out over them in the Anglo-Norman Period. Further long-strip fields were then set out around the rows of most of these villages, except in Prudhoe where the residents did not lay out their field system around their farmsteads, but instead carried on using a field system at the abandoned village site of Stauncely (Map 13).

This village appears to have been abandoned due to devastation by the Scots in the mid-twelfth century and was presumably based on a magnate site that had probably existed within the proposed enclosure surrounding the village site. This enclosure is very similar in size and shape to one at Mickley, which contained one of that villages two settlement foci, its other probably based on Toft Hill (see p.312). This leads to a number of interesting possibilities. One is that at Prudhoe there had also been at least two settlement foci (other than the castle), one within the Stauncely enclosure and others perhaps based around the Hexham Lands and/or the Highfield, and that the
different *foci* may have been of different tenantry statuses. For example, at Mickley any settlement that may have existed on *Toft Hill* probably formed the origin of the two-row part of the Anglo-Norman village, which mainly consisted of bonded tenants, whereas the tenants within the enclosure were the antecedents of the later freeholders. Another interesting factor regarding the *foci* based on these two enclosures is that they both appear to have formed the *focus* of Iron Age or Romano-British settlements. This raises the possibility that many of other magnate farmstead sites within the dispersed settlement pattern within the region as a whole may represent a continuation of settlement *focus* on pre-Saxon sites. This does not necessarily mean a continuation of settlement occupation or of population, rather that the remains of such sites were still visible within the landscape and attracted new settlement, or that incoming Germanic settlers took over these magnate sites from their earlier occupants. The re-use of existing settlements was partly due to the ease in which such sites could be brought back into operation, for example woodland re-growth is likely to be lighter or generally absent from such places. This was certainly a factor within the medieval period, when periods of settlement abandonment at times seem to have occurred fairly frequently.

The later Saxon developments that have been identified (*Map. 13*), indicate that settlement was based upon single large Strip-Fields in a basically non-nucleated pattern, with the farmsteads either based within or next to the magnate/demesne sites or with the farmsteads ringing the arable fields in what Roberts (1999, p.95-7) calls a Shareland system (p.239). This was altered to a nucleated pattern with the establishment of the Normal baronial system in the late eleventh and early twelfth centuries. Through out northern of Britain this was a major period of settlement
nucleation and landscape alteration, resulting in the laying out of planned row settlements at the core of most villages.

This move to a planned nucleated landscape must partly represent a fashion in estate management, although nucleation may also have been for practical reasons as it would be easier to control the recently conquered northern population. However, due to Norman and Scottish devastation much of the local population had to be reinforced or replaced by immigrant populations from further south, with many villages being completely refounded in this period (Roberts, 1987; 1996).

Within this study area the overall view of the mid to late medieval landscape is a mixed one consisting of both nucleated and dispersed settlement (see Map 10).

Much of this period was dominated by continuing Scottish raids and periods of open warfare resulting in deliberate devastation, and the whole of northern Britain was not safe from these attentions, or from the local Border Rievers, until after the seventeenth century. Particularly during the fourteenth century, Scots devastation had a far greater impact on the townships of the Tyne Valley than the plagues affecting most of north-west Europe at the time. Devastation led to a dramatic fall in population from a late thirteenth century high to very low levels in the fourteenth century, or even to zero in Prudhoe in the middle of the century. Population levels remained low for the next 200 years with levels also being affected by the climatic deterioration known as the 'Little Ice Age' (Lamb, 1981). These climatic conditions reduced the arable production potential of all of north-west Europe, from the middle of the fourteenth century through to the nineteenth, and locally encouraging cattle rearing strategies. Coincidentally, by the sixteenth century the dairy and meat demands of growing urban
populations, particularly locally, that of Newcastle, encouraged further cattle production.

During the later Middle Ages and the early modern period, growing levels in cattle production put increasing pressure on the landscape for grazing, particularly within the large wood-pastures that covered much of the area (Map 10). These consisted to a great extent of secondary woodland that re-grew in the early to middle Saxon period, but was probably enhanced or increased during the period of low population of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The intensive use of these wood-pasture areas during the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries led to the prevention of natural woodland regeneration in many of these areas, and by the late eighteenth century most were clear of any woodland.

As suggested above the main townfields of the study area were open arable fields using the same system of regulated strips as was seen throughout Midland Britain and much of Europe at the time. However, within the township there were some areas of non-open arable land or pasture in small separate closes, especially around the centre of Prudhoe. There were also several non-nucleated farmsteads in Hedley-Woodside, which early seventeenth century evidence shows employed an ‘infield-outfield’ system of agriculture. This is a type of cultivation more commonly associated with Scotland and northern Northumberland (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.110), in which a series of small closes next to the farmsteads (the infield) were heavily manured and temporary arable strips (also known as intacks) were cultivated on the common away from the farmsteads (the outfield). After a year or two of crops on temporary arable strips the ground would be left as rough pasture and left for several years to recuperate (ibid.).
A sign of how important pasture was to the local economy, even before the fourteenth century climatic deterioration, is the way in which many of the field strips were specifically recorded in the documents as meadow (e.g. p.62). The production of hay was important for the over-wintering of breeding stock and was generally in short supply within the study area, and this was a major restriction in expanding the local agricultural economy further until the introduction of imported fertilisers in the nineteenth century.

This study has found some important aspects of the open townfields within the study area. From the evidence contained within the early seventeenth century Mason Survey of the earl of Northumberland's estates, it can be seen that a classic 'Midland' three-field rotation system was at least attempted in the townfields of Hedley and Prudhoe. A three- or four-field rotation is the type of cultivation cycle that is normally expected from open arable fields following the 'Midland' model. And indeed the Mason survey reveals open arable townfields with tenants holding their cultivation strips in an apparently evenly dispersed pattern, which would allow a regulated three-field rotation. However, when the survey is closely studied, it reveals a much less even distribution of strips in Hedley, with a move towards individual tenants starting to group their strips together (a move toward eventual separate enclosure). In both townships any rotations were probably based upon individual furlongs within the open-fields rather than upon individual open-fields, which was a common practice in north-east England (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.143-4). The Survey also demonstrates that most arable strips were of a standard furlong length of 200m, but there are areas with much longer strips, which when combined with a study of the furlong boundaries, reveals that a long-strips system had been the more common practice here
previously. The change over from long-strip dominated furlongs to shorter standard 200m furlongs may have resulted from the establishment of a ‘Midland’ three-field rotation system. Alternatively, it may have been due to new populations bringing with them their own cultivation practices, or via the enforcement of the standard statute acre. However, the obvious retention of some long-strip furlongs seems to indicate that other long-strip fields had been broken-up into new shorter arrangements at some time; probably as a result of wetter climatic conditions from the middle of the fourteenth century (Matzat, 1988, p.144; Lamb, 1981, p.61). Shorter arable strips could take better advantage of minor changes in topography and so encourage natural drainage, and examples can be found in other parts of Britain and Germany (Matzat, *ibid.*).

In Mickley a very different form of field system was probably employed, that definitely did not follow the ‘Midland’ model. Here the evidence appears to indicate a village in two parts with two different field system types. The most of the east side of the village appears to have been farmed exclusively by freeholders, with their farmsteads placed within the remains of an enclosure probably dating back to prehistory. This enclosure also contained the manor house of Edgewell, the seat of a large demesne estate taking up the north-east corner of the township. The freeholders appear to have farmed their land in long-strips in a series of broad long fields running up from the Stanley Burn, and this system seems to have survived until the late eighteenth century. However, the western end of the village was dominated by two farmstead rows occupied almost exclusively by bondsmen and cottars. At least in the early post-medieval period, they appear to have operated three open arable strip fields of the ‘Midland’ type, probably in a similar way to Prudhoe or Hedley, and was
utilized as such until enclosure in the 1760s. Nonetheless, there is plenty of evidence to suggest that even the unfree tenant common fields had previously been cultivated in long-strips. The late survival of long-strip fields, like those of the freeholders is known from other townships, such as East Halsham, in Holderness (Matzat, 1988; see Fig.7b, p.234)), but such a distinct split between free and unfree tenants appears to be very rare, and no other examples can be given. This could help explain the retention of areas of long-strips in the other townships, as strong freeholders and major leaseholders were in a better position to resist changes proposed by local lords.

Another interesting aspect of townfields in the study area comes from Prudhoe, which appears to have had the most strictly regulated open-field system here (p.223-9). Here, in the early seventeenth century, there was a good clockwise relationship between street plan and field arrangements, like other earl of Northumberland estates, (like Acklington (Baker & Butlin, 1973, p.118; Roberts, 1987, p.54)). This type of arrangement has parallels with Scandinavian field systems where it is known solskifte or ‘sun division’ (Roberts, ibid., p.46)).

Although within the study area there had been a certain amount of enclosure and farming in severalty (separate from the common arable fields or pasture) beforehand, from the early seventeenth century there was general encouragement towards the idea of all farmers working their land separately and non-communally. This was as much a general fashion in landscape management as anything, but to a great extent it was thought that the letting of individual separate farms would be more profitable. It was also thought that it would be healthier for the stock (by not letting disease spread easily among township herds) and discourage the lazy farmer from relying upon his neighbour’s efforts. However, except for Prudhoe, communally operated open arable
field systems remained in operation in most of the study area until the 1760s (Prudhoe was enclosed sometime between the middle of the seventeenth and the early eighteenth centuries). By 1770 all the townfields and a large part of the common waste in Hedley-Woodside had been enclosed to form the field pattern seen today, and by 1780 the large Fowlcherside/High Riggs Common had also be enclosed, although Mickley Common was not enclosed until the early nineteenth century. None of this was unusual, and a very similar pattern of enclosure was seen in hundreds of villages throughout Britain in the period. However, one thing which was unusual was the way in which the farmers continued to live in the village centres, they did not move there farmsteads out into the centre of their new holdings, which was the normal practice in most newly enclosed landscapes (Crossley, 1990, p.17-8). How much of this was to do with the strong independence of many of the farmers, a factor delaying enclosure to a certain extent, is unknown, although the way new enclosures were laid out may have meant that farmers did not need to move their farmsteads. Also, because some of the farmers already cultivated much of their land in non-communal closes, both near and far from their farmsteads, they were used to having land scattered about the township. However, in the 1840s some new model farmsteads were built for a few major leasehold tenants in the middle of their holdings (see Map 7), nevertheless even today a few farms are still managed from the village centres.

From the late eighteenth century, except for the enclosure of Mickley Common and the construction of the railway, the landscape of the study area remained largely unchanged. It was only really with the coming of the railway in the 1830s that new significant changes began to occur. Easier access to the markets of not only Newcastle but further abroad led to increasing exploitation of mineral resources, as
well as agricultural intensification with the importation of fertilisers increasing crop yields. In addition, the introduction of turnip cultivation, which depended upon the new fertilisers, led to a dramatic increase in the amount of cattle that could be over-wintered in the area, encouraging further cattle-breeding intensification.

The new mines also attracted growing numbers of workers who needed local housing. This led to the creation of some new villages (like West Mickley and Mickley Square (Map 1)) and a considerable expansion of Prudhoe. With all the other urbanisation processes that have occurred in the area over the last 150 years, Prudhoe now covers nearly its entire township area. However, much of the rest of the countryside within the study area is free of major modern development and most of the surviving field pattern and the appearance of the landscape is very much as it was in the mid-nineteenth century.

I feel that the pattern of landscape development that this thesis has presented (and summarised above) has only been achieved through the application of diverse archaeological and historical techniques. It was also important to explore a variety of methodologies, as well as the problems that arose from the use of so many different sources of information. I think that I have achieved a much deeper understanding of this landscape than I would have if I had only applied a limited range of techniques, or had only studied one particular period in more detail; as the information from the whole study has bolstered the interpretation of the different periods and techniques. For example, there was a certain amount of unavoidable variation in detail from different periods and places within the study area, which could only be circumvented,
to a certain extent, through the careful examination of more recent data and transposing it back via retrogressive analysis. In fact, the adoption of the retrogressive approach was probably one of the most successful aspects of this study, but only by combining it with the idea of ‘Total Archaeology’, to generate the required range of data. In the same way all the different forms of data have either supported each other or provided benchmarks against which interpretations could be tested, and indeed, sometimes provided either contradictions or alternatives. Therefore, the whole topographic landscape has had to be examined in detail before sitting back and looking for overall long-term trends. These trends include the effects of environmental change or stability on communities and how the efforts of earlier populations have influenced later societies.

I have already stated that it is possible to do landscape archaeology without applying retrogressive methodology, ‘Total Archaeology’, or the ‘Community Areas’ technique (p.20). However, I hope that I have demonstrated that through attempting their application a more detailed explanation of past human activity within the studied landscape was achieved. Moreover, I feel that I have also accomplished the desired result of reconstructing the actual landscape occupied by particular past communities, and obtained a fuller picture of how these communities developed and managed their landscape. In particular, by applying retrogressive methodology, I was able to observe the consequences of past activities before identifying their causes (C. Tolan-Smith, pers. comm.), giving me the keys to other probable past activities.

Overall, this led to many interesting and important discoveries, depending on subject or period and the reader should refer to individual chapters for details, but there are
some particular highlights that I think need further mention that were not covered in
the above historic summary.

For example, regional environmental data suggested that much of the existing
woodland is secondary, and within this study area I have confirmed this, through the
identification of former field boundaries within woods relating to others outside them.
In addition, those boundaries with woodland relic species on them could be used to
indicate the former extent of secondary re-growth, and thus helped to date various
landscape developments. I have also discovered problems with the accepted lists of
ancient woodland indicator species, which are based upon evidence from southern
England and may not be applicable in the cooler, less light intensive, north of the
country.

The study of field boundaries has been one of the main areas of interest of this thesis,
and has derived some potentially important results, partly due to the lack of other such
extensive studies on the subject. For example, locally, I have demonstrated that the
"Hooper Hypothesis" is unfeasible, but have failed to develop any other adequate
boundary dating system to replace it, beyond the identification of relative chronologies
based upon the presence or absence of certain species or forms. It may only be
through carrying out additional studies and further analysis of the collected data that
progress can be made. Personally, I would now like to carry out some further, less
intensive, studies of this type, targeting boundary systems of a known or probable age.
For example, it would be very interesting to carry out research on the East Anglian
coaxial systems studied by Williamson (1987), some of the early post medieval
enclosures of the Midlands and examine some apparently early boundary systems in
the West Country. Additionally, more locally, I have already started to identify more
potential coaxial systems underlying the landscape parts of County Durham and Northumberland, and it would be interesting to compare these boundaries with the ones located by this survey. However, all the outlined problems, such as replacement or re-alignment, will continue to provide ‘fuzzy’ data (Orton, 1980) and unclear results best suited to Basian statistics.

It would also be interesting to carry out some further archaeological work within the study area. For example, various excavations could be carried out in Mickley, particularly on the remains of the long-field system, the probably prehistoric enclosure and the site of the hut-circle to the north of the village centre. Additional excavation and geophysics would also be useful within this enclosure, examining the site of the medieval manor house, with similar work possibly carried out on the house tofts on the south row there, and on the site of the medieval woodwards house at the entrance to Hyons Wood.

Other concepts were also examined, such as how devastation has played a major role in the change and development of the settlement systems. Medieval and earlier devastations led to major fluctuations in population, and to social change resulting from the introduction of new populations and/or ideas. Devastation also allowed significant reorganisation of the landscape, but also led to the retention of many old boundaries and/or ownership patterns, perhaps preserved by surviving populations, and/or by new settlers accepting antecedent layouts (Roberts, 1992, p.24-6).

Finally, it must be said, that with hindsight, perhaps I took on too large an area to study adequately, or should I say too many townships, and this resulted in vast quantities of data that have taken years to sift through. In fact, only a fraction of the
cornucopia of collected information has been presented within this thesis\textsuperscript{1}. However, without looking at this particular collection of related community areas as a whole, much of the comparative material that has aided the interpretation of the past settlement pattern would have been unavailable. In addition, the individual townships have mostly proved to be very different from each other, although they have often had common underlying themes. This revealed influences on the landscape history of this area, which demonstrate social connections between societies in various places in northern Britain and further afield. This variety in settlement form has also been one of the most interesting aspects of this study, and it has deserved the close and detailed examination that I have given it.

\textsuperscript{1} For example, the fieldwalking data collected as part of an investigation of the prehistoric landscape will be presented elsewhere.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species in the Category</th>
<th>Open Field</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
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*Note: The table includes data for various boundary types, such as unhegded, ditch, bank, wall, lynchet, Ash, apple, Birch, Blackthorn, Bramble, Dog rose, Elder, Gorse, Guelder Rose, Hawthorn, Hazel, Holly, Oak, Rowan, Sallow/Willow, Sycamore, Wych Elm, and Other Species. The percentages are calculated based on the sample size for each category.*
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<td>3.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>-8.4</td>
<td>-16.3</td>
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<td>15.2</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
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<td>3.9</td>
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<td>3.5</td>
<td>-12.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>-12.8</td>
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<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>-4.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>-4.0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>-4.0</td>
<td>10.2</td>
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<td>-3.1</td>
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<td>11.2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>-3.1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>-3.1</td>
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<td>-8.9</td>
<td>-8.9</td>
<td>-5.2</td>
<td>-8.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>-8.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<td>Wych Elm</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
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<td>-2.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
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<td>3.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 1: - Average Total No. Species, Maximum Total No. Species, Average Average No. Species, Average Maximum No. Species, Average Minimum No. Species, on Open and Long-Strip Field Boundaries (See Table 3a).
Linear & Lynchet Boundaries

Graph 2: - Average Total No. Species, Maximum Total No. Species, Average Average No. Species, Average Maximum No. Species, Average Minimum No. Species, on Linear & Lyncheted Field Boundaries (See Table 3a).
Graph 3: - Average Total No. Species, Maximum Total No. Species, Average Average No. Species, Average Maximum No. Species, Average Minimum No. Species, on Boundaries Relating to Re-growth 'High Tide Mark' (See Table 3a).
Graph 5: Occurrence by Percentage of Different Species on Open & Long-Strip Field Boundaries (see Table 3c).
Graph 6: - Occurrence by Percentage of Different Species on Linear & Lyncheted Boundaries (see Table 3c).
Graph 7: - Occurrence by Percentage of Species on Boundaries relating to the Re-Growth 'High Tide Mark' (see Table 3c).
Graph 8: - Comparison Between the Occurrence of Different Boundary Features, by Percentage, on Specific Boundary Types, with the Occurrence of those Feature Types Within the Survey as a Whole (see Table 3d).
Graph 9: - Comparison Between the Occurrence of Different Species, by Percentage, on Open & Long-Strip Field Boundaries, with the Occurrence of those Species Within the Survey as a Whole (see Table 3d).
Graph 10: - Comparison Between the Occurrence of Different Species, by Percentage, on Linear & Lyncheted Field Boundaries, with the Occurrence of those Species Within the Survey as a Whole (see Table 3d).
Graph 11 - Comparison Between the Occurrence of Different Species, by Percentage, on Field Boundaries Relating to the Regrowth 'High Tide Mark', with the Occurrence of those Species Within the Survey as a Whole (see Table 3d).
### Table 4a: Prudhoe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. Farms</th>
<th>Average Farm Size</th>
<th>No. Non-Free Tenants</th>
<th>Annual Rent</th>
<th>Lease length</th>
<th>No. Free Tenants</th>
<th>No. Cottars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1245</td>
<td>50 Bondi &amp; 66 Cottars (each with 1.5 acres), in barony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1296</td>
<td>10 Lay Subsidy payers (other than baron)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1307</td>
<td>40 Bondi (18 acres each) &amp; 16 Cottars in barony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1325</td>
<td>5 16 acres in want of tenants (a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1331</td>
<td>5 16 acres</td>
<td>25s.</td>
<td>13s. 4d.</td>
<td>17 (10s. 11d.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1434/5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>£6 8s. 7d. rent of all farms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1471/2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>£3 10s. 0d.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1552</td>
<td>10/14 (b)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1581</td>
<td>£4 7s. 10d. (rent &amp; farms)</td>
<td>£6 14s. 5d.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1586 (c)</td>
<td>9(10) 16 or 20 7(9)</td>
<td>£4 0s. 0d.</td>
<td>21 years</td>
<td>7/5(6) 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1597 &amp; 1605</td>
<td>leases in Blackett/Orde Papers for 31 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1612</td>
<td>£6 14s. 5d.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1613 (d)</td>
<td>7(8) 23/6-10 7</td>
<td>7/17.5</td>
<td>8/7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1622</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1625</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>£9 4s. 10d.</td>
<td>21 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1650/1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10 tenements + 4 others</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1663</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1749</td>
<td>6 (e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1766</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7(8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1780-1800</td>
<td>7 + 6 minor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1845</td>
<td>5 or 6? 73 acres</td>
<td>5 or 6?</td>
<td>4/6 + (f)</td>
<td>several</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(a) A good time for the re-organisation of the field system  
(b) Former/present tenants (probably includes cottars).  
(c) No. Farms & tenants, with & without small parcels; length of lease from Blackett/Orde Papers;  
annual rent for 7 farms only=£3 11s. 0d.; freeholders=former/present + 1 small free cottage; cottage  
rents=9s. 10d. (excluding 1 free cottage mentioned above).  
(d) No. Farms, +1 parcel; freeholders+No. Tenants/No. Farms; cottages=lords/freehold; average farm  
size=total farm size for lords & freeholders/arable only in two main fields.  
(e) 7 year leases for Dean & Chapter freehold during eighteenth-century.  
(f) Freeholders=No tenants/No. Farms, there were also a No. of minor freeholders.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. Farms</th>
<th>Average Farm Size</th>
<th>No. Non-Free Tenants</th>
<th>Annual Rent</th>
<th>Lease length</th>
<th>No. Free Tenants</th>
<th>No. Cottars</th>
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<tr>
<td>1268</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24 acres</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>£2 14s. 0d.</td>
<td>6/7?</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1425</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20 acres</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>£2 7s. 0d.</td>
<td></td>
<td>2/3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1525</td>
<td>4+</td>
<td>22 acres</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>£6 1s. 8d.</td>
<td>1+</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1570</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>24 acres</td>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>£8 11s. 3d.</td>
<td>21 years</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>1608</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24 acres</td>
<td>3/4?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1624</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>24 acres</td>
<td>1/4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1+</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1706</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<td>1+</td>
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<td>1+</td>
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<td>1724</td>
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<td>33 acres</td>
<td>11 years</td>
<td>3/4?</td>
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<td>4.5</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>1+</td>
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<tr>
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<td>30 acres</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>£100 0s. 0d.</td>
<td>3/4?</td>
<td>1+</td>
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<tr>
<td>1742</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>30 acres</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>£120 0s. 0d.</td>
<td>3/4?</td>
<td>1+</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1752</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>30 acres</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>£120 0s. 0d.</td>
<td>3/4?</td>
<td>1+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1756</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<td>30 acres</td>
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<td>1+</td>
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<td>30 acres</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>1842</td>
<td>2/7</td>
<td>?????</td>
<td>2/7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>several</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(a) Change in lord of manor, and change in lease length, but not rent. 37% increase in farm size.
(b) 58% increase in rent, + rationalisation of farm areas.
(c) Old & new rents, 20% increase in rent.
(d) Old & new rents, 25% increase in rent.
(e) Estimate before enclosure.
(f) Division of West Field area & East Moor area, + part of South Pasture = 121% increase in average farm size, but includes former common pasture; no increase in rent; coincides with lord of manor taking out mortgage.
(g) Complete survey & valuation of estate; 30% increase in farm size (includes all intakes & closes, not previously included); 58% increase in rent, perhaps to cover enclosure/mortgage cost.
(h) Tithe assessment
Table 4c: Hedley & Hedley-Woodside

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. Farms</th>
<th>Average Farm Size</th>
<th>No. Non-Free Tenants</th>
<th>Annual Rent</th>
<th>Lease length</th>
<th>No. Free Tenants</th>
<th>No. Cottars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1268-96</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24 (a)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>£2 14s. 0d.</td>
<td>6/7?</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1325(b)</td>
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<td>£3 11s. 9d.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>1332(c)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1346-54</td>
<td>12 (d)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>demised</td>
<td>2+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1471/2</td>
<td>(e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>£9</td>
<td>demised</td>
<td>2+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1472/3</td>
<td>(e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>£9</td>
<td>demised</td>
<td>2+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1499(g)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13 (f)</td>
<td></td>
<td>8/4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1553(g)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1553</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>leased</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1554/7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21 years from Crown</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1586(h)</td>
<td>8/6</td>
<td>20 acres</td>
<td>8/6</td>
<td>£9 16s. 11d</td>
<td>leased</td>
<td>8/2 1-2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1607/8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>leased</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1612(i)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>£11 4s. 2d.</td>
<td></td>
<td>16s. 14d.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1613(j)</td>
<td>6/7</td>
<td>19 acres</td>
<td>6/7</td>
<td>4(+2)/4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1622/3(k)</td>
<td>7/7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>new leases</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1658/9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (l)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1663</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7/4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1763(m)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1767/9</td>
<td>Both Hedley's enclosed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834/5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>leased</td>
<td>1(5)</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834/5</td>
<td>101 acres total leasehold land; 76 acres total freehold land.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Adam of Mickley's Charter (Freehold).
(b) Yearly rent of freeholders in Hedley; 107s. 9d. for Derwenthopes (probably Hedley-Woodside).
(c) Yearly rent of freeholders in Hedley; plus Derwenthopes.
(d) 1346-54 ?? of Mickley's law suit; freehold.
(e) Hedley & Hedley-Woodside, newly enclosed parcel in Hedley-Woodside, demised for 3 years.
(f) 1 also a freeholder.
(g) Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; also includes Hyons Wood Farm.
(h) Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; also includes Hyons Wood Farm; 16s. 5d. rent from freeholders; 10 freehold farms held by 7 freeholders; also Hedley Corn Mill and several new improvements.
(i) Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; also includes Hyons Wood Farm; total includes increases.
(j) Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; also includes Hyons Wood Farm; average farm size excludes stints, intakes, etc. in Hedley; +2 freeholders=2 small parcels; the other 4 freeholders held 6 farms, 2 of which also held land in Hedley-Woodside; 2 of the freeholders of Hedley-Woodside are also leaseholders; also Hedley Corn Mill.
(k) Hedley/Hedley-Woodside; also includes Hyons Wood Farm; enclosure at Hedley-Woodside.
(l) Hedley-Woodside
(m) 11 payers of Land Tax in Hedley (+Woodside?); lease for a wagon-way wayleave.
Table 6a: Predoux 1613

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tracks</th>
<th>Trees</th>
<th>Hay</th>
<th>Corn</th>
<th>Wood</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
- Includes 13 0 77 waste ground.
- Numbers do not always add up due to mistakes during copying and errors in the original document. Numbers and names are based upon Mason's Survey 1613.
Field and Court Closets

From 1:00, N of Mitchell, across North St to 1st St.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Court</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>Detailed plans...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>ARP</td>
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<td>ARP</td>
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<td>Detailed plans...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>Detailed plans...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 64: Healy 1915
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Freeholders</th>
<th>No. Farms</th>
<th>Crofts</th>
<th>Dales</th>
<th>Broom-hill &amp; Hags</th>
<th>Low Fields</th>
<th>Back of the Hill</th>
<th>Close on the Hill</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anthony Humble</td>
<td>1 farm + row cotts</td>
<td>27-2-8</td>
<td>8-0-30</td>
<td>27-3-37</td>
<td>49-2-31</td>
<td>1-0-32</td>
<td>North Field</td>
<td>113-1-26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wm. Prudhoe</td>
<td>1 farm</td>
<td>2-3-24 Croft 6-3-16 Calf Cls</td>
<td>7-1-26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12-1-18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Newton</td>
<td>1 farm + 2+7 Cotts</td>
<td>1-2-0 Croft</td>
<td>3-1-10</td>
<td>32-3-11</td>
<td>13-3-4</td>
<td>3-3-3</td>
<td>2-1-21</td>
<td>62-3-9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Davison West Farm</td>
<td>1 farm + The Flat cottage</td>
<td>0-2-0 enclosure 6-0-9 The Flat</td>
<td>2-3-0</td>
<td>1-3-0</td>
<td>31-2-31</td>
<td>10-3-15</td>
<td>11-0-16</td>
<td>21-4 lanes 0-0-35 Water hole</td>
<td>70-1-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stephen Thompson East Farm</td>
<td>1 farm + 1 cottage</td>
<td>0-2-10 Cottage &amp; enclosure from waste</td>
<td>2-3-21</td>
<td>5-0-0</td>
<td>8-0-0</td>
<td>5-2-0</td>
<td>840-0 + 22-0</td>
<td>25-1-37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newton</td>
<td>2+? Cons</td>
<td>5-1-0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Davison The Flat</td>
<td>6-0-9 The Flat</td>
<td>1-3-0</td>
<td>0-0-35</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>70-1-3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Browel</td>
<td>1 farm</td>
<td>2-3-28</td>
<td>78-3-26</td>
<td>49-3-15</td>
<td>6-0-36</td>
<td>13-0-35</td>
<td>150-3-36</td>
<td>91-0-0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Siddall</td>
<td>0-3-0 + 0-2-22</td>
<td>7-2-36</td>
<td>55-1-4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>97-1-1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7-0-7</td>
<td>23-3-37</td>
<td>41-1-25</td>
<td>25-2-8</td>
<td>8-1-23</td>
<td>12-2-36</td>
<td>91-0-0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leases</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tho. &amp; Wm. Bewick</td>
<td>2-1-34</td>
<td>East P. 73-3-6 Spring 5-2-5</td>
<td>8-0-37</td>
<td>87-2-8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wm. Eltringham Hallyards's East</td>
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<td></td>
<td>70-0-30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wm. Eltringham Hallyards West</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>W. Browel</td>
<td>1 farm</td>
<td>2-3-28</td>
<td>41-1-25</td>
<td>25-2-8</td>
<td>8-1-23</td>
<td>12-2-36</td>
<td>91-0-0</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ch. Browel</td>
<td>1.5 farms</td>
<td>2-3-4</td>
<td>78-3-26</td>
<td>49-3-15</td>
<td>6-0-36</td>
<td>13-0-35</td>
<td>150-3-36</td>
<td>91-0-0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuth. Ridley</td>
<td>0-1-27</td>
<td>7-2-18</td>
<td>44-0-18</td>
<td>27-2-16</td>
<td>5-0-0</td>
<td>87-1-39</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Siddall</td>
<td>0-3-0 + 0-2-22</td>
<td>7-2-36</td>
<td>55-1-4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7-0-7</td>
<td>23-3-37</td>
<td>41-1-25</td>
<td>25-2-8</td>
<td>8-1-23</td>
<td>12-2-36</td>
<td>91-0-0</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Probably formerly part of the South Pasture
2 Held by the Humble family since probably 1724, before that it had been the Joplin family freehold since before 1608.
3 Croft, Greenfield & Honey Spot
4 There is very little surviving on this freehold, dates from before 1776.
5 From Z/B 11/8 (1776) minus Thompson's share; freehold can be traced to early 18th cent, probably at least 16th century.
6 The North field & The Riding
7 From Z/B 11/5 (1803). Davison's bought freehold 1780, formerly Lumley's from before 1722, and probably before 1608.
8 The Chesters & The Acre
9 Farmed partly with John Newton in 1776 (Z/B 11/8), freehold of Thompson's from before 1608, bought by Davison's in 1803, and then to Duke of Northumberland in 1819.
10 From waste
11 Derived from leases.
12 Probably including the area known as the South Pasture (192-2-11), and all of the Upper Field Pasture (43-2-38), West Field & Meadow Field (91-3-12), and the Pasture part of the Meadow Field (14-2-36), in 1724. The area was enclosed 1762
13 Including the area known as New Lee in 1724 (25-1-35). The area was supposedly enclosed in 1762, but was still shown unenclosed on a plan of 1766 (BW Ma/36).
14 Cherryburn Leased by Bewick's from 1742; rented by Johnson's from 1702, probably is cottage rented by Johnson's in 1570.
15 The two Hallyard Farms were rented by Eltringham's from 1706, is probably the Hall Yearde farmhold in 1589.
16 The Browel's were tenants in Mickley from the 16th to 19th centuries; this particular leasehold can be traced back to 1706.
17 See 14 above. This lease can be directly traced to 1706, and the two Browell leases together are probably the same one as the 2.5 farms leased by George Browell in 1608 and therefore the 1.5 farms of John Thompson in 1570.
18 There was a lease to one Cuthbert Ridley or another from 1706 to 1813.
19 For the Goar, not part of the main Dales area.
20 Farm can be traced from 1706, and was generally let in a 1/3 and 2/3's ratio, often to the estate manager. This same ratio occurs in 1608 with the joint lease of Wm. Eltringham and Roger Newton. If it is the same farm than it was let to Cuthbert Meekley in 1570, and possibly widow Eltringham in 1526.
21 Road & waste between.
22 Minus Cherryburn and road
23 Minus parts of area likely to have been part of South Pasture in 1724
24 207-2-2 in 1762
25 119-0-6 in 1762
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenant</th>
<th>Leasehold</th>
<th>No. Tenements</th>
<th>No. Farms</th>
<th>Common Field A</th>
<th>Total Inclosed</th>
<th>M &amp; P In Acres</th>
<th>Common of pasture</th>
<th>Beast-gates</th>
<th>Total Holding In Acres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John Joplin</td>
<td>Cottage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Luce Newton</td>
<td>Cottage</td>
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<td>Stephen Thompson</td>
<td>Cottage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arthure Lomley</td>
<td>Cottage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rowland Newton</td>
<td>Pepper rent</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anabel Newton</td>
<td>Pepper rent</td>
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<tr>
<td>Edward Lawson</td>
<td>Pepper rent</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Newton</td>
<td>1 house &amp; a barn</td>
<td>0.66 (1)</td>
<td>12 A</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michael Newton</td>
<td>1 house &amp; a barn</td>
<td>1.5 (2)</td>
<td>garth</td>
<td>6 M 30 P</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roger Newton</td>
<td>1 house &amp; a barn</td>
<td>0.75 (1)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6 + garth</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Eltringham</td>
<td>1 house &amp; a barn</td>
<td>0.25 (0.33)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>garth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raphe Newton</td>
<td>1 house &amp; a barn</td>
<td>0.66 (1)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6 M + garth</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Snowball</td>
<td>2 houses &amp; a barn</td>
<td>1 (1.5)</td>
<td>18¹⁷</td>
<td>2 garths</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Brewell</td>
<td>3 dwelling houses &amp; a barn</td>
<td>1.5 (2)</td>
<td>28¹⁷</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>17.5</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>Robert Johnson</td>
<td>Cottage</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10 houses</td>
<td>4 cottages</td>
<td>8 tenements</td>
<td>6.32 (8.83)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5 intacks</td>
<td>6 garths 24 acres</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7 tenants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Discounting several closes total = 132 acres; (without Richard Newton’s) [=entire 1724 West field/Meadow Field and Upper Field area area 150-2-6); only 131 acres in 1570 so 15 acres increase or inaccurate measures, or Bishops acres?; 1787 145 acres]

1 On Meekeley West Common & Meekeley Moore without stint.
2 In the Common Pasture
3 Died 1633. The family held this freehold until 1715/ circa.1723. Probably was the freehold that the Humble family acquired in Mickley at about this time, which can be traced to the present day.
4 Formerly John Newton’s, in 1570.
5 This freehold is the East Farm, and remained with family until 1803 when the Davison’s bought it, then by the Duke of Northumberland in 1819.
6 This freehold is the West Farm, and remained with family until 1780 when it was bought by the Davison’s, then by the Duke of Northumberland.
7 Mentioned as freeholder.
8 Richard Newton of Eltringham (died 1623?), is probably not the same person as in 1570, but is probably the same holding. In soccage; possibly Eltringham.
9 Probably the same person as above, but leasehold. “late in the tenure of John Newton his father”. “Arable lande two closes called Beamonte, and Tyneface[?]”.
10 Appears to hold that held by Roger Newton in 1570. Possibly Halliards? Possibly son of William Newton of Hall-lands (died 1589), who had held “farmolde”.
11 On Meekeley West Bankes without stint
12 Also a freetholder? and possibly also tenant in Prudhoe Arable land in the Westfield, Middlesfield and Upperfield. This farm appears to be the one held by Cuthbert Meekeley in 1570. This could be a different Robert Newton; total = 24 acres for 1 farm same as in 1268. Probably the same tenement held by various tenants in the eighteenth century, including Geo. Siddal? in 1787; traceable to nineteenth century.
13 A margin bracket in the survey links Roger Newton with William Eltringham and states “both make one lease ...” “late in the tenure of Cuthbert Meekeley”. Probably the holding farmed by Edw. Eltringham in eighteenth century?
14 Probably born in 1569, son of John Newton the Elder of Eltringham; of Eltringham in 1598/9; 48 in 1617.
15 “late in the tenure of John Pattinson”.
16 “late in the tenure of Thomas Snowball”. 1622/3 the Crown gave the profits of the lease to Henry Fane lease tenement with garden, on, orchard 22 acres arable, meadow and pasture, late Thomas Snowball late tenant-at will; 1624 Thomas Snowball late indenture
17 Does not say if common or not.
18 “late in the tenure of John Thompson”. 1622/3 the Crown gave the profits of the lease to Henry Fane lease 35 acres of arable, meadow and pasture in vill and field of Mickley late John Thompson now or late Henry Brewell; probably same as held by the Brewell’s eighteenth-century; = 1.5 farms
19 Does not say if common or not.
20 Cherryburn? 1570 Elinor Johnson?; 1618 cottage granted to Edw. Bee formerly in the tenure of Robt. Johnson “houldeth ther a cottage And halfe an acre of land. And payeth yeerely rent for the same.”
### Table 7c; - Mickley 1570

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenant</th>
<th>Leasehold&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt; Freehold</th>
<th>No. tenements</th>
<th>No. Farms&lt;sup&gt;4&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>A, M, P. in Common Field</th>
<th>Total Closed In Acres</th>
<th>Unspecified A, M, P. In Acres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Richard Newton&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>2 (2.22)</td>
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<td>orchard 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Newton&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>Elinor Johnson&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>John Newto&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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### Table 7d; - Mickley 1268<sup>11</sup>

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<tr>
<th>Tenant</th>
<th>Holding</th>
<th>Total In Acres</th>
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<tr>
<td>Demesne&lt;sup&gt;12&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>105 acres +4 acres of Meadow</td>
<td>109</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 Bondi Villeins</td>
<td>24 acres each = 216 acres</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Cottars</td>
<td>Cottage each with courtage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Freeholders</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adam of Mickley</td>
<td>1 carucate 1 lb. Pepper</td>
<td>48?&lt;sup&gt;13&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>1 toft in increase of his holding 1 lb. Cumin</td>
<td>24?&lt;sup&gt;14&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>1 culture/ploughland&lt;sup&gt;6&lt;/sup&gt; 6 acres by himself [enclosed?]</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry of Halton</td>
<td>1 carucate 1 lb. Cumin</td>
<td>48</td>
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<tr>
<td>William son of Adam</td>
<td>40 acres 2 lb. Pepper</td>
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<tr>
<td>Henry of the Butellary</td>
<td>24 acres 1 lb. Cumin</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>William son of Michael</td>
<td>12 acres 1 lb. Pepper</td>
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<td>Edmond of Byrteley</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<sup>1</sup> All except Richard & Roger Newton, by indentures dating from 1566.

<sup>2</sup> Based on average farm size, from the total number of farms at time. (x) = number of 18 acre farms.


<sup>4</sup> Probably the same as the above, but leasehold for 10 years, for 2 new closes of arable and pasture.

<sup>5</sup> Died? 1589 or 1598/9? Hallyards?

<sup>6</sup> One house/tenement, plus another in increase. Probably 17 acres definitely in common field.

<sup>7</sup> 1622/3 = Henry Fane. Does not specify whether in common or not.

<sup>8</sup> 5 cottages with crofts of new enclosure, outside the common of Mekeley, by Patent Indentures dating from 1566.

<sup>9</sup> Possibly Cherryburn?

<sup>10</sup> Cottage with croft and liberty of adjacent common, by Patent Indentures dating from 1566.


<sup>12</sup> Edgewell?

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1 bovate = 8 bovates, ploughlands or oxgangs of between 6 to 30 acres (varied locally considerably). In Durham a carucate was between 60 and 80 acres (Adams 1976)

13 Presumably this was the same size as a tenant's holding?

14 Which would mean that Adam's carucate = 48 acres, but this seems a little small.
Table 8a: Prices of livestock and goods 1587 to 1639, in the Prudhoe Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1587</th>
<th>1587</th>
<th>1589</th>
<th>1596</th>
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</table>

i Sir Thomas Bates, Prudhoe, Nov., 1587
ii Radulph Surtees of Hedley-Woodside, Sept. 1587
iii William Newton, Hallyeard, Ovingham, Sept. 1589
iv Oswald Surtees, Yeo., Hedley Hill, May 1596
v William Harrison, Prudhoe, Jan. 1601
vi William Blaxton, Gibside (Co. Durham), 1607 (SS 142, p.30-1; for comparison).
vii Richard Newton, Eltringham, Nov., 1623
viii Sir William Orde, Prudhoe Castle, May 1630
ix John Joplyn, Mickley, Sept., 1633
x John Thompson, Ravenside, Chopwell (Tenant Right), 1636
xi Anthony Humble, Newton Hall, Bywell St. Peter, March 1638
xii John Eltringham, Yeo., Hedley-Wood, Jan. 1639/40
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>each toft Length m</th>
<th>rod lengths 16½ foot</th>
<th>20 foot</th>
<th>21 foot</th>
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<td><strong>Hedley</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td>North Row East end 6 freehold farmstead, as short tofts</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>11.9(12)</td>
<td>9.8(10)</td>
<td>9.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>North Row East end 6 freehold farmstead, as long tofts</td>
<td>374-440</td>
<td>74.4-87.5</td>
<td>61.4-72.2(72)</td>
<td>58.4-68.7</td>
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<td>North Row West end 2 eastern leasehold farmsteads</td>
<td>2X200</td>
<td>39.8 (40), 79.5</td>
<td>32.8(33), 65.6</td>
<td>31.2(31), 62.5</td>
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<td>69.6</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>54.7</td>
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<td>8.4</td>
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<td>South Row eastern leasehold</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>15.9(16)</td>
<td>15.1(15)</td>
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<td>South Row 6 or 7 farmsteads</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>15.9(16)</td>
<td>15.1(15)</td>
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<td>South Row 2 farmholds</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>41.8(42)</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>32.8(33)</td>
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<td>South Row change of direction 5 farmsteads outside tofts</td>
<td>164-200</td>
<td>32.6-39.8(40)</td>
<td>26.9(27)-32.8(33)</td>
<td>25.6-31.2</td>
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<td>4 tofts east end</td>
<td>180-210</td>
<td>35.8(36)-41.8(42)</td>
<td>29.5-34.5</td>
<td>28.1(28)-32.8(33)</td>
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<td>South Row later change to toft length</td>
<td>40-70</td>
<td>7.9(8)-13.9(14)</td>
<td>6.6-11.5</td>
<td>6.2(6)-10.9(11)</td>
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<td><strong>Mickley</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>North Row 7 long tofts farmsteads</td>
<td>300-500</td>
<td>59.6-99.4</td>
<td>49.2(49)-82</td>
<td>46.9(47)-78.1(78)</td>
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<td>Short interpretation</td>
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<td>32.8(33)</td>
<td>31.2(31)</td>
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<td>Long interpretation</td>
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<td>32.8(33), 82</td>
<td>31.2(31), 78.1(78)</td>
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<td><strong>South Row</strong></td>
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<td>west end farmstead and cottage freehold</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9.9(10)</td>
<td>8.2(8)</td>
<td>7.8(9)</td>
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<td>4 cottage outside crofts 100m long</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>19.9(20)</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
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<td>4 cott.s outside crofts 60-70m long</td>
<td>60-70</td>
<td>11.9(12)-13.9(14)</td>
<td>9.8(10)-11.5</td>
<td>9.4-10.9(11)</td>
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<td><strong>Prudhoe</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bell leasehold/freehold 2 cottages</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>23.9(24)</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>18.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bell leasehold/freehold 2 farmsteads</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>23.9(24)</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>18.7</td>
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<td>eastern row north end 6 cott.s+garth</td>
<td>30-40, 80</td>
<td>6-7.9(8), 15.9(16)</td>
<td>4.9(5)-6.6, 13.1(13)</td>
<td>4.7-6.2(6), 12.5</td>
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<td>double sized freehold farmstead</td>
<td>80, 140</td>
<td>15.9(16), 27.8</td>
<td>13.1(13), 23</td>
<td>12.5, 21.9(22)</td>
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<td>7 freehold and 4 leasehold cottages southern end</td>
<td>c.150</td>
<td>29.8(30)</td>
<td>24.6</td>
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<td>south-eastern row 3 cottage crofts</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>33.8(43)</td>
<td>27.9(28)</td>
<td>26.6</td>
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<td>south-western row</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>south half 4 tofts/crofts+garth, free- and leaseholds</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>13.9(14)</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.9(11)</td>
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<td>northern half 3 freehold farmsteads and cottages, garths variable in size and shape</td>
<td>80, 150-200</td>
<td>15.9(16), 29.8(30)-39.8(40)</td>
<td>13.1(13), 24.6-32.8(33)</td>
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<td>rod lengths</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>16½ foot</td>
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<td>21 foot</td>
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<td>48</td>
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<td>Carlton</td>
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<td>2.1(2)</td>
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<td>North Row East end</td>
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<td>6 freehold farmstead</td>
<td>27-35</td>
<td>5.4-7</td>
<td>4.4-5.7</td>
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<td>South Row west end 2 leaseholds</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>13.4</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>South Row 6 or 7 farmsteads</td>
<td>36(35)-42</td>
<td>7.8-3</td>
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<td>5.6-6.6</td>
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<td>3.8(4)</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>4 tofts east end</td>
<td>15 &amp; 23</td>
<td>3 &amp; 4.5</td>
<td>2.5-3.8(4)</td>
<td>2.3-3.6</td>
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<td>Mickley</td>
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<td>North Row 7 long tofts farmsteads</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.9(5)</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<td>1 eastern most farmstead</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8(3)</td>
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<td>west end farmstead and cottage freehold</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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<td>4 cottage outside crofts 100m long</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.9(5)</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<td>4 cott. s outside crofts 60-70m long</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Prudhoe</td>
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<td>Bell leasehold/freehold 2 cottages</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
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<td>Bell leasehold/freehold 2 farmsteads</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>7.8(8)</td>
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<td>north-east row strip running north alongside the road</td>
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<td>3.9(4)</td>
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<td>eastern row north end 6 cott.s+garth</td>
<td>22(23)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>double sized freehold farmstead</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>7.8(8)</td>
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<td>7 freehold and 4 leasehold cottages southern end</td>
<td>15?</td>
<td>3?</td>
<td>2.5?</td>
<td>2.3?</td>
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<tr>
<td>south-eastern row 3 cottage crofts</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.9(5)</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<td>south-western row</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>south half 4 tofts/crofts+garth, free- and leaseholds</td>
<td>35, 18, 42, 20, &amp; 28 (143/5=28.6)</td>
<td>7, 3.6, 8.3, 5.6</td>
<td>5.7, 3, 6.9(7), 3.3, 4.6 (4.7)</td>
<td>5.5, 2.8(3), 6.6, 3.1(3), 4.4 (4.5)</td>
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<td>northern half 3 freehold farmsteads and cottages, garths variable in size and shape</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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Appendix 2; - Historic Documents

Documents held in the Alnwick Castle Archives

c.1268-96 Adam of Mickley’s Charter, Alnwick Mss. D, viii, 6a (Hope-Dodds, 1926).

1499 Cartington Rental of the Prudhoe Barony, Alnwick Mss. A. ii. 3a (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.156).

1515/16 Alnwick Mss. ?? Bailiff Roll, Hedley (Hope-Dodds, 1926)

1538 Valuation of Woods in the Lordship of Prudhoe Alnwick Mss. A.I.2 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.179)

1552 Rental of the Prudhoe Barony Alnwick Mss. A. ii. 4 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.157 & p.172)

1596 Stockdale Survey of the Barony of Prudhoe Alnwick Mss. A.ii, 8

1612 Wm. Orde Account, Rental of Prudhoe Barony Alnwick Mss. ?? (Hope-Dodds, 1926)

1613-29 Mason Survey, Terrier of the 9th Earl of Northumberland; Prudhoe; Alnwick Mss. A ii

1622/3 Alnwick Mss. A viii 7, Ord Certificate (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.109-10)

1625 Alnwick Mss. ?? Survey Farm sizes in Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.157/9)

1658/9 Survey of Hedley-Woodside Alnwick Mss. A. viii. 5a

1693 A Valuation of the Earl of Northumberland’s Woods In Prudhoe Barony Alnwick Mss. C, ix. 4f
    (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.180/1).

Papers in the Battie-Wrightson Collection held in the Leeds and Doncaster Archives


BW/W/II/6 Rentals Bywell & Mickley

1706 May Day: Rent:

1715 May Day Rental Bywell

1721 Martinmas Rental Bywell [Extracts] [c.1722/3 as on the same paper as 23]

1723 Rental Bywell [Extracts]

1724 May Day Rental

1740 May Rental:

1741 May Day Rental Mickley & C

1742 Martinmas New Rental

1724 Rents due at Martinmas Last

1752 Rental due at May Day [Mickley colliery]

1752 Rents due to Wm. Wrightson Esq. at May Day

1756 Rental of Rents due to Wm. Wrightson Esq. at Martinmas

1756 Rents will be due to Wm. Wrightson Esq. at Martinmas.

1759 J Morpeth Rental of Mr. Wrightson’s Estate in Northumberland May Day

1759 Rents due to Wm. Wrightson Esq. at May Day

1763 BW/N/IV/57-58, Wayleave from Hedley Fell

1764 Mickley rental

1758 Rental of Mr. Wrightson Estate claiming right on Mickley Common

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A Rental in the year 1758 which they propose to Divide Mickley Commons by what have a Right Share belonging to Wm. Wrightson Esq.

The proper having the new Inclosures of Mickley Fields 1762

1812 Mickley Rents

William Wrightson Esq. Forster Stobbart Jnr. 1786 May 22 Ale to Fellers & Ouzers of Trees

1709 BW/N/II/Misc. [Note] Coson? [from John Newton] Bywell

Cherry Burn Intake – 1707

1582/3 & 1566 BW/N/IV/I Letters Patent regarding lease in Mickley

1758 BW/N/II/5 Schedule of the Poor Rate in Mickley

1756 BW/N/II/5 List of Freeholders with rights on Mickley Common

1748-67 BW/N/III/I Sixteen Letter Mainly over a proposed Division of Mickley Common.

1724 BW/N/IV/18 Quitclaim to Mickley Manor Estate

**Documents held in the Northumberland County Archives**

**Blackett/Ord Collection**

*N.R.O. 324/W.3/12; 1715, Copies of various Charters and Legal Documents relating to Freeholds in Prudhoe*

1715 Note attached to main document

1694 Deed of Partition in Prudhoe

1669 Conveyance in Fee in Prudhoe

1656 Lease in Prudhoe

1652 Conveyance in Fee in Prudhoe

1614 Assignment in Prudhoe

1610 Conveyance and Letter of Attorney in Prudhoe

1605 Tripartite Assignment in Prudhoe

1597 Lease in Prudhoe

1586 Lease in Prudhoe

1585 Conveyance in Fee Letter of Attorney and Exemplification of a fine in Prudhoe

1575 Conveyance in Fee and Letter of Attorney in Prudhoe

1568 Deed of Gift in Prudhoe

1567 Conveyance in Fee and Letter of Attorney in Prudhoe

1566 Deed of Gift in Prudhoe

1402 Deed of Gift in Prudhoe

**Fourteenth-century [probably actually early fifteenth-century] Deed of Gift in Prudhoe**

**Other N.R.O. Documents**

1763 Z/B 73/1 Half a farm in Hedley

1772 Z/B 75/21 Deed of Confirmation of a Division of Lands in Prudhoe (ties in with plan Z/B 41/9).

1786 N.R.O. (256) ZMD 163/7-8; M.542

1787 Z/B 73/7 Particulars of the Several Farms on the Plan of the Mickley Manor Estate

1789 NRO 691/1/4/7 Valuation of land in Mickley, belonging to Wm. Wrightson.
1791 ZIB 73/7 Particulars and Conditions of Sale (Mickley Manor Estate)
1843/9 Tithe Schedule Prudhoe, N.R.O. DT 285 M
1843/5 Tithe Schedule Hedley N.R.O. NB DT 231/2M
1842 Tithe Schedule Mickley N.R.O. DT 318 M

Documents held in the Gateshead Archives
1785 T & W.R.O. 15/55 Deed of a farmhold in Hedley

Documents held in the Dept. Paleography (Durham Cathedral Archives)

Durham Probates
1545 Will of Thomas Surtees of Broad Oak Hedley-Woodside (SS 112)
1577 Will and condicon of Richard Newton of Eltringham
1579 Will of William Surtees of West Myres and Hollins in Hedley-Woodside (SS 112, p.83)
1583 Will of Robert Browell of Myekley
1587 Will and inventory of Radulphi Surtees (of Hole House of Board Oak) Hedley-Woodside
1587 Inventory of Thomas Baites of Prudhoe and Hedley-Woodside
1589 Will of William Newton of Hall Yearde (Hallyards?, Mickley)
1596 Will of Oswald Surtees of Hedley Hill
1596 Will of William Newton of Eltringham
1601 Will and inventory of William Harrison of Prudhoe
1621 Will of William Surtees of the Broad Oak Hedley-Woodside
1623 Will and inventory of Richard Newton of Eltringham
1630 Will of Richard Newton of Ovingham
1631 Inventory of William Orde of Prudhoe Castle
1633 Will and inventory of John Joplyn of Mickley
1636 Will and inventory of John Thompson of Ravenside
1639 Will and inventory of John Eltringham of Hedley-Woodside

Most of these Wills are unpublished but some can be found in the Surtees Society Volumes 2, 30, 38, 110, 112, 116, 126, and 142.

Other Documents Held in the Department of Paleography
PNI/CATH Lease Renewal Books 166 128 Counterpart Leases p.40-244 & p.578; some Lease details of a cottage in Prudhoe belonging to the Dean & Chapter, between 1732 and 1866.

Crown Surveys held in the Public Records Office

Crown Surveys

Calendar Close Rolls (all available volumes were consulted, only a selection presented here)
1325 19 Ed. II. mem. 34, p.387 Lands and tenements in Barony of Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.112)
1375 Ed. III Vol. XIV mem 9, Ovingham Fishery.

Calendar of Patent Rolls (all available volumes were consulted, only a selection presented here)

1276; 1272-81 Ed. I AD p.176 Membrane 31d. Complaint of Adam of Mickley

1282; 1281-92 Ed. I AD p.91-2 Membrane 24d Aperley Park.

1386 Rich. II, mem. 18, p.287, Grant of an acre in Prudhoe.

1405 Henry IV Vol. III, p.68, Grant of Oxen from Prudhoe Park.

1454 Hen. VI memb 3, p.215 Ovingham Fishery

?? Ed. VI 340, mem. 4

1554/57 Phil. & Mary Vol. I p.291, Lease in Hedley-Woodside

1618 16 Jas. I p.113, Grants in Mickley

1622/3 21 Jas. I. Pt.16 Lease to Henry Fane in Mickley

1629 5 Chas.I. pt.9 Grants in Mickley

Calendar Inquests Post Mortem (all available volumes were consulted, only a selection presented here)

1245 c. Hen. III. file 3. (9); Inq. p. m., 29 Hen. III. No. 46, Gilbert de Umfranvil I (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.92)

1268 53 Hen. III. No. 43 [p.218] 691 John Balliol

1307 Ed. II. p14; ibid. xii, p.154, Gilbert de Umfranvill II (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.154)

1325 18 Ed. II. p.607 Robert de Umfranvill IV (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.112)

1332 Vol. VII Ed. III. 29 (8) p.284, Robert de Umframvill

1377 51 Ed. III. (337) 339 file 262

1378 (1380) 4 Rich. II. p.176-434, Gilbert de Umframvill II

1399 15-23 Rich. II. p.467, Maud wife of Henry, Earl of Northumberland

1388 12 Rich. II No. 40 Sir John Neville

1489 4 Hen. VII. 11, 7, series II. Vol. 19(4), Henry Earl of Northumberland

Calendar Inquests Miscellaneous (all available volumes were consulted, only a selection presented here)

1416 4 Hen. V. File 295 (2) Petition of Henry earl of Northumberland.

Other Public records Office Documents

1212 Book of Fees Vol II pp.114-5, First Return for Barony of Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.79).

1235 Feet of Fines Northumberland and Durham, 19 Hen. III. p.48, 180/3(50), Gift of a Carucate of Land in Mikleg.

1268 Calendar of Documents Relating to Scotland Vol. I. p.498 Mickley Rental

1242-1293 Book of Fees or Testa de Nevill p.385, P. R.O. Part II

1292/3 Assize Roll 21 Ed. I (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.243)

1295-6 Lay Subsidy Roll P. R.O. E179/158/1 (Hope-Dodds, 1926; Frazer, 1968)

1336 Lay Subsidy Roll P. R.O. E179/158/7 (Hope-Dodds, 1926.)

1346-54 Assize Roll 21-27 Edw III (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.170), Adam son of Richard of Mickley

1425-8 Minister's Accts 1124/1,4 6Hen. VI. Rental of Mickley
1473 Durham Quarter Session Rolls 11/16 (Frazer, 1991, p.63/4)

?? Letters & Papers of Henry VIII, Vol. 12, part 1, no.491 23

1525/6 Rentals & Surveys 13/62 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.244; Hodgeson-Hinde, 19??, 133-6), Mickley

1607/8 Grove Alienated Tithes p.lxxv Hedley (P.S.A.N. (II) VIII, p.183)

1777 Journal of the House of Commons Vol. 36, p.512 Turnpike

Misc. Books Augmentation Office vol. cclxxxi p.17 (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.53; P.S.A.N. (3) 3, 1908 p.32)

Surtees Society Volumes (all available volumes were consulted, only a selection presented here)

Vol. 11 Chronicle of the War Between the English and Scots, Fantosme 1173/4, p.77

Vol. 20 Libellus De Vita et Miraculis S. Godrici, p.384

Vol. 46 Priory of Hexham Black Book [pre 1477/9], Piscaria de Ovyngeham.


p.xvi-ii Preface Dean & Chapter of Durham i, 3, Specialium [Richard de Umfreville c.1195-c.1226]


Vol. 58 Feodarium Prioratus Dunelmensis p.306 Rentale Bursari 1539

Vol. 66 Chartularium Abbatiutiae de Novo Manasterio Newminster Cartulary. Portion of an Ancient Roll AD 1167 p.45; p.51; p.77; p.289

Vol. 82 Halmota Proratus Dunelmensis, Rental of a Cottage in Prudhoe, p.206, 1580.


De Villata de Alnewich

Vol. 99 (I) p 39 Rotuli Celerariorum 1343


Vol. 131 p. eighteenth-century

Vol. 163 Prudhoe Barony Rentals, 1581

Vol. 134 p.63-7; Bailiff Rolls/Rentals, 1471/2

Vol. 158 Northumberland Pleas from De Banco Roll No. 13, Ed. I. [p.78], 251 m.15, 1275 Writ between Adam of Mickley and Gilbert de Umframvil.


Vol. 199 p.63/4; Durham Quarter Session Rolls, 1473; p.68, Edward Harbottle of Prudhoe in fight, 1510; p.69, various residents of Prudhoe in fight, 1511.
Copies of Documents in Archaeologia Aeliana

1563 (2) Vol. XIX. p.258 Border of Prudhoe Barony

1598/9 (3) Vol. IV. p.16 Exchequer Commission and Depositions Relating to Northumbria, Eltringham.

1663 (2) Vol. XXIII. Estate in Mickley and Apperley

1669, 1695 & 1709/10 (3) Vol. XIV p.38, 48 and 60. Butchers Company in Newcastle records relating to individuals in Hedley area.

1749 (3) Vol. V. p.114; Partition deed in Prudhoe

Copies of Documents in the Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries of Newcastle-upon-Tyne

1608 & 1617 (2) Vol. VII p.185 Tithes in Ovingham

Miscellanea

1553 Lease in Hedley (Northumbrian Families)

1624 Mickley Rental, Bywell Papers, Hodgson Mss. Vol. D. 87

1663 Book of Rates, Prudhoe (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.159).

1763 Land Tax Returns for Hedley (Hope-Dodds, 1926, p.174)
Appendix 3 A Glossary of Place- and Field-names

The suggested origins of the place- and field-names below is derived from various sources, particularly, Beckenstall (1975), N.R.O. (1968), Field (1972, 1990, 1993), Smith (1956), Cameron (1963), Ekwall (1960), gelling (1978, 1988, 1993) and Mawer (1920). And I would particularly like to thank the personal contributions made by Victor Watts to these interpretations. See also Chapter 7.

A.S. = Anglo-Saxon; M. E. = Middle English; O. E. = old English; O. N. = Old Norse.

Airey Hill (Hedley, 1800); origin unknown.

Aluryland (Prudhoe, fourteenth-/fifteenth-century); probably 'alder' or 'elder' land.

Aquel ridings (Hedley, circa. 1278-96), Akewell Riding (1613), Oakwell Riding (eighteenth-century); 'oak-well' + ridding, probably named after the source of a nearby stream that has now disappeared. Oakwell Close (Prudhoe, 1770/2), probably a similar origin.

Assart, New assart (Hedley, circa. 1278-96), New Close (1613); ground recently cleared of trees or scrub, but how recently is a relative term considering it was still referred to as new in 1613.

Back-of-the-Hill (Mickley, 1724), Back-of-the-Hill Intack (Prudhoe, 1586); the hill appears to refer to the ridge on which both Prudhoe and Mickley are on.

Balk, e.g. Cawtron Balke (Hedley, 1613) and Birke Balkes (Prudhoe, 1613); O. E. balca, a common term for the piece of unploughed land in the common arable field, used as an access path or furlong division.

Beaumont Wood (Eltringham, 1608); M.E./French 'fair-hill'.

Benton Touge (Prudhoe, 1552), Benet Bankes (1434/5); possibly from someone's name, or relating to rough 'bent' pasture (Bents), plus tongue.

Bents (Mickley, 1787); O.E. Bent, indicating an area with bent grass (coarse pasture).

Benwell Letch (Hedley, 1613); probably 'a bean field', plus lech.

Birke Balks (Prudhoe, 1613), Nether Birke Hill, Upper Birke Hill (Hedley, 1613); land with, next to, or formerly with birch trees.

Blackburn Shef, Short Blackburn Shef, South Blackburne Shefe (Prudhoe, 1613); presumably named after a stream with dark water.

Boggs, e.g. The Bogge (Prudhoe, 1693), Bogge Close (Hedley-Woodside, 1586); M.E. for a bog, locally wetter patches, but also relating to the local term 'Boggle-Hole', a place frequented by 'Bogeymen'.

Bowman's Forest (Prudhoe, 1586), Bowman-furrowes (1607), possibly relating to Beaumont Wood in Eltringham (doubtful), more likely land ploughed by Bowman (= oxman not archer).

Brackley Fields (Eltringham, circa. 1800); probably heathland with bracken of little agricultural value except for composting or bedding litter.

Bradwell Meadow (Prudhoe, 1226); presumably a wide well.

Bradwyner (Prudhoe, 1226); see viver.

Broad Oak (Hedley-Woodside, 1545); presumably named after a large oak tree growing in the open (oak tree do not form wide crowns in woodland).

Broom, e.g. Broom Wood (Mickley, 1787), Broom Hill (Mickley, 1724), Broomyleaze (Prudhoe, 1586); land with, near, or formerly with broom on it.

West & East Bulling Hills (Eltringham, circa. 1800), area now known as Bullion Hills (1850); former bull pasture.

Burnt Close (Prudhoe, 1613); probably scrubland cleared by fire.

Cawtron Flatt (Hedley, 1613); O.E. cald cold.

Cherryburn Cottage (Mickley, 1702), Chireyburn (1754); probably a stream with cherry trees, but also possibly a 'happy place'.
Chesters, Chester Hills (Hedley-Woodside, 1767), The Chesters (Hedley-Woodside, 1613), The Chesters (Mickley, 1803); Chester can indicate Roman or Romano-British settlements.

Cleugh, e.g. Trowes Cleughe (Hedley, 1613); O.E. cloh, a ravine or dell

Cliston Croft and Clistons Close (Prudhoe, 1613), in 1434/5 a former tenant-at-will was Stephen de Clyston

Clough; East Howle Clough (Prudhoe, 1613); is probably the same as Cleugh.

Cawtron balke and Cawtron Flatt (Hedley, 1613); origin unknown.

Close, New/Low Close Wood (Mickley, 1787), New Close (Hedley, 1613); from M.E./French for enclosure.

Cock Shot Hill (Eltringham, circa.1800); probably the wood-pasture area within which ‘cock shots’ (mist nets to catch woodcock) were set.

Cokrellis-well (Prudhoe, 1226), Cockerrildelf close (1613); probably from the surname Cockerell, plus O.E. delf for a quarry or pit.

Coarf/Cauf Close (Hedley, 1613), possibly actually ‘Calf Close’, probably land with corfe-rods on it, or had had them on it (these are the branches springing from hazel coppice stools used for making baskets).

Coatwell Close (Prudhoe, 1613); could be cot plus well, but in Northumberland coat can be used in the sense of “on the borders of”.

Crook Wood (Eltringham, circa.1800), possibly ‘le crok meadow’ (1414); O.N. Krokr, M.E. Crok, a crook or bend, after the shape of the township boundary here.

Derwent (eighth-century Deruventionis fluvii) is supposedly the Celtic for a river where oak-trees grow abundantly.

Dale/Dole, e.g. Lamb Dole (Prudhoe, 1613), Hayme Doyle (Prudhoe, 1613), Dales (Mickley, 1787); O.E. dal a share of the common land, or dael a valley.

Donkin Close (Eltringham, circa.1800); a ‘donkindale’ is a local term for an evening mist that rises in hollows, but the field is probably named after John Donkin of Eltringham (1730).

Dukeshagg; probably named after John Dudley briefly duke of Northumberland in mid-sixteenth-century.

Edgewell Farm (Prudhoe Castle, 1434), Egewell (1398); most probably the well at the edge of the steep slope, but also possibly from O.E. edisc ‘an enclosure’, ‘an enclosed pasture’.

Eldeney (Hedley, circa.1286-96), Eldon & Eldon bridge gate (1613); very ancient name, A.S. personal name in genative, plus ey = O.E. eg ‘an island, a patch of good ground’.

Eller Wood (Prudhoe, 1693); equals elder or alder tree wood.

Eltringham, Heldringeham (1200) the ‘hamlet’ or ‘homestead’ of Aelfhere’s people’ (see also Chapter 7).

Faugh, Mickley Hills faugh (Mickley, 1724); O.E. falh ploughed, fallow land, or O.E. (ge) fall a clearing.

Fewbridge (Prudhoe, 1613), or Ffowbridg Hole (1613); probably foul, plus possibly brerig a place overgrown with briars.

Fulcherside (1434/5)=High Riggs Common & Prudhoe Moor (Prudhoe/Hedley), Fowchersyde (1586), Fulchersyde (1629), Fulscalside (1153-9); O.E. ful, ON Skáll (M.E. Scale), O.E. side, “land extending along the edge of the dirty shieling”.

Fuster Flatt (Hedley, 613); origin unknown.

Goas (Mickley, 1787), origin unknown.

Great, Great Field & Great Hill (Hedley-Woodside, 1767); indicate the gravelly nature of the sub-soil, not their size.
Grisgarth (Hedley-Woodside, 1499/1500, 1552); M.E. gris ‘a pig’ from O.N. grís, a pig-yard.

Gruduelstane (Hedley, circa. 1268-96); very ancient name ‘grundwell-stone’ O.E. stan ‘bottom-well’ or ‘deep-well’. A Grundewylle occurs in Wiltshire in 962.

Haggs, Hagg Bank (Prudhoe, 1586), Dukeshagg (circa. 1558); M.E. hagg a woodland coppice compartment or clearing.

Hall Rush (Prudhoe, mid-eighteenth-century); probably from O.E. halig ‘holly’, as in woodland.

Hallyards Farm (Mickley, 1724), Hallyeards (1709), Hallyeard (Ovingham, 1589); O.E. hall the property of the lord of the manor (most likely, as it appears to have replaced Edgewell as the manor estate for Mickley), O.E. halig ‘holly’ (possible considering local fieldnames and the fact that it is built within former woodland), O.E. halh a haugh (less likely).

Hanging Well Field (Mickley, 1787); O.E. hanger or anger a wooded hill or land on a steep slope.

Haufh; O.E. halh a nook of land in the bend of the river.

Hayme Doyle (Prudhoe, 1613), Home Dales (1613); shares in the common (waste?) closest to home.

Hayning, e.g. The New Hayninge (Prudhoe, 1607); the grass preserved for cattle in an enclosure.

Hedley (1242); the ‘heathy (heather) clearing’, see Chapter 7.

Hedley Grange Farm; set-up in the 1840’s with no connection to any religious organisation.

Heeldes/Heildes, e.g. Lowe Heides (Hedley, 1613); O.E. helde a slope.

Heugh, e.g. Milkwell Heugh (Prudhoe, 1613); O.E. hoh, a projecting ridge of land, generally above a river.

Hexham land (Prudhoe, 1226); land granted to Hexham Abbey in the early thirteenth-century.

Hirst Flatt (Prudhoe, 1613); probably from O.E. hyrst, a copse, wood.

Holly, Hollin’g(s) (Hedley-Woodside, 1553), East, West & Middle Hollies (Mickley, 1787); land or hedges with holly (probably connected with its use as winter fodder and as a shelterbelt).

Hogh, Mikeleg hogh (1292-3); see Heugh.

Honey Spot (Mickley, 1841); probably the place where the beehives were kept.

Hopes, Derwenthopes (Hedley-Woodside, 1302), The Hope (Mickley, 1787); probably the same as hogh above, but also possibly O.E. hop a small enclosed valley.

Howle, e.g. East Howle Cloughe (Prudhoe, 1613), Howt Flatt (Hedley, 1613); same as Heugh above.

Hyons Wood (Hedley, ), Yonderswoode (1499/1500), Hyanse Wood (sixteenth- & seventeenth-centuries), Ions Wood (1861), Eyance Wood (1693), Jenes woode (1554); perhaps from ‘John’s wood’, or derived from the surname Ewens/Ewings /Uwins/Yewen/Youens, a Scottish surname.

Jet, Prudow iet (Hedley/Chopwell, 1312/3); a gate at the entrance to Fulcherside Common.

Intakes/intacks; various sixteenth- to eighteenth-century “Intacks” and “Improvements”, in all the townships, indicate land taken in from the waste and improve through clearance of scrub or trees, for pasture or arable. Often these fields were ephemeral, as part of the ‘infield’-‘outfield’ system employed on the common waste.

Knows Wood (Prudhoe, Modern), Knavesclose (1613), Prudhey Knows (1693), North Apperley Knowle (Mickley, 1787); O.E. cnoll a hillock or hilltop.

Law, Cow Law (Mickley, 1787); O.E. hlaw a hill, but O.N. lagr (pronounced “law”) means “low lands”.

Letch, e.g. Benwell Letch (Hedley, 1613), Fowle Letch (Hedley/Chopwell/County Boundary, 1613); a long narrow swamp in which water moves slowly.

Lint Lands (Hedley, 1613); ‘linen lands’, fields where flax was cultivated.

Ledehepes wai (Hedley/Chopwell, 1153-9), the Lead Road along the ridge (Heugh), the packhorse route from Allenheads to Newcastle.
Loaning, East & South Loaning (Mickley, 1724), and Cow Loan (Hedley-Woodside, 1767), Cow Loan (Eltingham, circa.1800); O.E. lâning a lane.

Meadow of the blessed Mary (Hedley, circa.1278-96), St. Mary's Meadow (1613 and 1769), land from which a hay tithe was taken for the church and/or possibly belonging to Hexham Abbey.

Mickley, Michellæie (circa.1190); the ‘large clearing’, appears to date from the ‘later’ Saxon or early medieval periods, of the eleventh- to thirteenth-centuries (see Chapter 7).

Mickley Orange Farm; set-up in the 1840’s with no connection to any religious organisation.

Milkwell, e.g. Milkwellborn (Hedley-Woodside, 1305); a stream originating from a spring with cloudy water. Milkwell Heugh (Prudhoe, 1613); presumably an alternative name for the Stanley Burn.

Masters Close (Prudhoe, 1608), Maisters Close (1550); gift of the earl of Northumberland in 1378 to the master of the cell of Hexham monks living in Ovingham.

Modigars Lane (Hedley), Linegars Loaning (1816); corrupted from Moory Grass (1676 & 1769).

Mettlebed (Prudhoe, 1613); a bed of nettles, often indicates soil enriched by cattle manure or the site of a settlement.

Nunne Lease (Prudhoe, 1586), likely to relate to religious organisation.

Otterburn (Prudhoe/Mickley/Eltingham boundary), Totterbourne (1586); presumably the same as the place further north in Northumberland, perhaps a stream frequented by otter.

Ovingham, Ovingeham (1238); the ‘hamlet’ or ‘homestead’ of Ofa’s people’, appears to imply an ‘earlier’ Saxon origin (locally), but are no longer considered necessarily to be of the earliest Saxon settlers.

Park/Parrock/Paddocks, e.g. Hedley Park (circa.1278-96), Parrocke (Hedley, 1586), Paddock Wood (Hedley, 1767), (S)Parrock Close (Prudhoe, 1629); except for the medieval hunting park at Prudhoe (1245), the other ‘park’s’ are generally a corruption of the word parrock or paddock (a pasture area) and can also be seen to be areas of wood-pasture.

Penroodes (Hedley, 1613); perhaps relating to a pen or penfold, or a penway a narrow trackway for pedestrians and packhorses. A rood equals ¼ of an acre.

Pigdon (Hedley-Woodside, 1819), ‘pig-hill’.

Plain, e.g. Countess Plain (Hedley, 1769), Ponton Plane, (Hedley, 1613); a flat open are of meadow or wood-pasture between areas of coppice, often used for the grazing of deer in parks.

Priest Close Wood (Prudhoe), Prest Close (1613); former chantry land.

Prudhoe, Prudho (1173); could have its origins as ‘*Prudha’s Hoh’, or more likely ‘the proud (or bald) heugh’.

Pye/Lye? Field (Prudhoe, 1613); could be from O.E. leah a clearing or O.E. leas a pasture or meadow, or from M.E. pightel a small enclosure, or O.E. pyll M.E. piled barked (as in trees ring-barked as a means of killing them, as part of the process of clearing the land).

Quarry Field (Hedley, 1613); a field with or next to a quarry (or formerly was), or possibly ‘squarry-field’ a square field, after its shape.

Reines/Reymes; e.g. Hudson Reines (Hedley, 1613), Hunter Style Reymes (Prudhoe, 1613); O.N. rein/reen, land on a boundary, or a terraced strip of land on a steep hillside showing signs of past tillage (a lynchet). Also Reen in modern usage is any division between the field strips, except unploughed balks. Can also be a water channel between rigs.

Riding; e.g. Aquell Riding (Hedley, 1278-96), More Ridding Field (Hedley 1586), West Riding Wood (Hedley, 1613), Durham Riding (Prudhoe, 1613); O.E. an area cleared (‘ridded’) of trees or scrub, as an assart or intake.

Ray, Rayhill syde (Prudhoe, 1226); O.N. ray equals land in the corner or a boundary.

Rosschok/Rolsclick? (Fourteenth-/fifteenth-century); origin unknown.

Ravenside (Chopwell), Ravenside Dyke (Durham/Northumberland County Boundary, 1317), Ravensid dyke (1305); ‘raven hill-side’, but may possibly relate to Ray.
Rift Nook (Mickley, 1787); M.E. rift a fissure or cleft, plus M.E. nook a secluded place.

Riggs, e.g. High Riggs (Prudhoe/Hedley, 1777); in this case indicate a ridged hill.

Salt Pool Flatt, Salt Bank and Salt Bank Hole (Prudhoe, 1613); possibly means ‘pool or deep place with salt water’ (as this is close to the highest tidal point of the River Tyne), or (more likely) Scandinavian toponym salterg ‘a shieling’, i.e. a pool besides one.

Scrogs, The Scrogs (Mickley, 1787); M.E. schrogge bush, brushwood.

Shank, Middleburn Shank (Eltringham, circa.1800); side (shank) of a projecting hill that slopes down to level ground.

Shaws, Oak Shaws (Mickley, 1787); O.E. shaw a small wood, copse.

Shef(e), e.g. Blackburn Shef, Short Blackburn Shef, South Blackburn Shefe (Prudhoe, 1613), Middle and Over Shefs (Hedley, 1613); a common local term for a furlong in the common field.

Shouldbrades (Mickley/Hedley, 1613 (Tongue End in 1851)); possibly O.E. brad broad, or O.E. braec a thicket, more likely M.E. shovel-brade, a brede is a narrow strip of land (shoul, shul is a shovel), after its shape (in which case it could also be named after a Shoulder of Mutton).

Spenstrete (Hedley, 1312); an alternative name for the Lead Road (Ledehepes way (1150’s) as it heads to Spen (County Durham).

Spetchells (Prudhoe), Spetchinges (1586), The Spechess (1607), Spachins (1619), Spetchane (1613), Spetchells (1693) and Spetchels (1766,1839), Spetchens (Eltringham, circa.1800); from spetch local term for a patch of rough scrubby ground.

Spring; e.g. The Spring and Spring Bank (Mickley, 1787); thought to be late-medieval terms for coppice compartments.

Stanley Burn (Prudhoe, 1586), Staunceley (Prudhoe, fourteenth-/fifteenth-century), Stanceley Close (Prudhoe, 1613), Great & Little Stanley Wood (Prudhoe, 1766); O.E. stan ‘stone, plus leah ‘a clearing’.

Stob, Acre Stobs (Mickley, 1787); from O.E. stubb tre stumps, a recently felled area of woodland.

Stobart Stile Hill (Mickley, 1787); possibly after stob, more likely in this case to be named after forster Stobart the estate forester.

Summer/Somer Close (Hedley, 1586); a summer [horse] pasture, or a pasture used by ‘summer’/‘sumpter’ horse [packhorses].

Swingle Free Mire (Hedley-Woodside, 1677); a swingle-tree is a piece of wood swung to beat flax, e.g. a flail. Flax appears to have been grown in Hedley (see also Tenter-hill).

Tenter-hill (Hedley-woodside, 1613); M.E. ‘teyntour-land’ containing cloth stretching frames (e.g. “on tenter hooks”).

Toft Hill (Mickley, 1787); often an indication of a former dwelling or settlement site.

Tonge, e.g. Tonge Ends (Mickley, 1856), Benton Tongue (Prudhoe, 1552); O.E> tunge a thin piece of land

Trousdon/Trowes Cleughe (Hedley, 1613), probably is Troughstone Hill (1967); origin uncertain.

Tyne, is one of the numerous Celtic or pre-Celtic river names in the U.K.

Ulyrudes (Prudhoe, 1226); Uly might be ‘owl-wood’ or ‘yew-tree wood’, O.E. ule or iw+leah; M.E. rode ‘a rood a cross’, or a rode ‘a clearing’, plus a land measure.

Viver or Viner way (Prudhoe, 1226), Vivers Close (1629), The Vivery (1781); a viver is an old word for a fishpond.

Way, Heddeley wai (Hedley/Chopwell bounder, 1312/3); O.E. weg a road.

White Rigs (Mickley, 1787); describes the colour of various dead grasses.

Yards, Long Yards and Hallyards (Mickley, 1787); a yardland is a virgate, hide or bovate, the amount of land an ox could plough in one year.
Appendix 4 Maps

Maps and Plans Consulted at the Northumbrian Records Office

Maps in the Bell Collection of Plans and Surveys relating to Northumberland.

Based on a hand list compiled by H. A. Taylor in March 1961. Notes in [*] by S. Cousins. Notes in (*) from plans. Zan/Bell (Z/B) Series

Series A Large Portfolios

1. Wylam Parish
   1. Wylam 1766 (belonging to Christopher Blackett, Esq. [1751-1829])
   2. Waste of Wylam 1824 (Thomas Bell surveyor).
   3. Wylam 1857 (belonging to Edward Blackett Esq. [1798-1824; 1824-1873])

2. Hedley Township
   1. Hedley (Plan reduced from one by George Laws, copied by Thomas Bell & Son).
   2. Hedley (Schedule of lands in Township).
   3. a & b. Hedley & Wood-head 1800 (belonging to William Surtees by R. Snowball).
   5. Hedley (List of contents of William Surtees Esq. estates).
   7. Plan of Hedley.

3. Eltringham
   1. Plan of railway through Eltringham.
   2. Eltringham (estate of Thomas Humble Esq.).
   3. Eltringham Township (by Thomas Bell).
   4. a, b & circa. Three Plans of Eltringham.

5. Wylam Township
   1. Wylam (by Thomas Bell & Sons).
   2. Wylam (belonging to Edward Blackett Esq.).
   3. Birk Piece & Dean Field [woods] (Christopher Blackett’s [1751-1829 or 1787-1847], surveyed by Thomas Bell & Sons).
   4. Wylam 1792 (Robert Surtees; by R. Wilson).
   5. Wylam Woods (Christopher Blackett [1751-1829 or 1787-1847], by Thomas Bell).
   7. Plan of village Wylam.
   10. Wylam 1792 (Robert Surtees; copy by R. Wilson).
   11. Holling Hall 1844 (Late Anne Simpson, by Thomas Bell).
   12. Wylam Hills Farm 1810 (Christopher Blackett [1751-1829 or 1787-1847]).
13. Wylam 1827/1844 (Christopher Blackett [1751-1829 or 1787-1847]; by E. Grace).
14. Wylam 1844 Manor & Lordship (copied from an old plan).

9. Prudhoe Castle Township

1. Prudhoe Castle township 1854 (Thomas Bell & Sons).
2. Prudhoe Castle & Park 1826 (Thomas Bell).
3. Prudhoe Castle township.
4. Prudhoe Castle lieu of tithes (rent-charge agreed to be paid, copied from various surveys by Thomas Bell).
5. Plan of North East Farm, Prudhoe.
6. Plan of Prudhoe Hags Farm.
7. Prudhoe Park (plan/boundary of).
10. Edgewell House Farm; Duke of Northumberland.
11. Prudhoe Platt, Ye Park, Eastwood 1826 [Copy Mason Survey Plan of 1629].
12. Prudhoe Castle Plan of Township.
13. a, b, c & d. Prudhoe Castle (four plans of land in the township).
14. Master’s Close (from Thompson’s Survey).
15. Part of Plan.

11 Mickle Township.

1. Mickley Common
2. Mickley Common (enlargement of part of).
3. West Mickley 1856 (sale of).
5. Mickley 1803 (plan of an estate).
6. Mickley (plan of road and part of village).
7. Part of Mickley (plan of John Prudhoe’s lands, by John Bell Surveyor).
8. Part of Mickley 1776 (plan of Mr. John Newton’s & Mr. Stephen Thompmon’s estate; & Riding, Broad Meadows & Dales belonging to Mr. John Newton).
10. Part of Mickley 1842 (plan of lands purchased at Mickley by Duke from Mr. Thomas Thompson.
11. Mickley estate (plan).
12. Humbles Mickley Farm (plan of + list of contents).
13. Part of Mickley (plan & contents of William Prudhoe’s Estate).
14. Part of Mickley 1819 (plan & contents, Dukes estate purchased from John Davison Esq.).
15. Mickley plan of part of Wrightson estate.
16. Plan of Township of Mickley (copied from sundry surveys by T. Bell).

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18. Mickley Farm & Cottage Land.
19. Mickley (part of Wrightson’s land)
20. Mickley plan of part 1824 (by T. Bell & Sons).

Ovington

_NRO ZAN Bell 12/10 Fishery 1819_ (belonging to Wm. Peters Esq.).

29. Ducas Hag Township
1. Duke’s Hag Township.
3. Duke’s Hag 1840 (township showing its connection with other lands in Prudhoe & Prudhoe Township; surveyed by Geo. Laws).

30. Hedley-Woodside Township
1. Plan of part of Hedley & Hedley-Woodside.
2. 1767 (by F. Thompson).
3. Sketch plan of farm buildings at Woodhead & Turner’s Close.
5. Sketch plan of lands in Hedley-Woodside.
7. Proposed exchange of lands between the Duke & Robert Surtees 1809 (by John Bell [copied from above?]).
11. Plan Hedley-Woodside Township (by Thomas Bell).
12. a & b. two plans by Thomas Bell.
13. Plan of Hedley-Woodside Township (by Thomas Bell & Sons).
15. Reference to plan of the farms in Hedley-Woodside Dukes 1811.
17. Plan Hedley-Woodside 1811 (sundry farms belonging to the Duke).
18. Copy of J. Wilkins plan of the ground given in exchange (1805) by William Surtees to Duke, for West, Low, Middle & Great Holling Hills.

31. Ovingham Township
10. Plan of an estate at Holling Hill (by Thomas Bell & Son).

41. Horsley & Prudhoe Townships
7. Prudhoe 1766 (by J Thompson, copied by C.F. Bell 1839).
8. Prudhoe grounds.
10. Prudhoe Miss Simpson’s lands at Prudhoe.
12. Prudhoe plan of Township
13. Prudhoe plan of lands belonging to Mr. Anthony Bell.
14. Prudhoe 1851, plan of village (by J. & B. Green)
15. a, b & c. three plans of lands in Prudhoe.
19. Plan of Mr. Ords freehold u.d.

Series B Small Portfolios
Portfolio 73 Prudhoe

73 Ovingham Parish
1. Common in parish of Ovingham etc.
3. Tithes apportionment; Eltringham.
7. Mickley stuff including sale of an estate 1791.

75 Prudhoe
11. Allotment gardens set out at Prudhoe, off Broomhouse farm 1881.
14. Valuation of estate at Prudhoe belonging to J.J. Humble
18. Contents of township + Capper's estate.
20. Valuation of J.J. Humble's Mickley & Prudhoe estate 1724-1948
21. Indenture concerning division of land at Prudhoe. The Duke of Northumberland, Joseph Bell, Daniel Alder & Anthony Humble 1770
22. Plan of Prudhoe village.
24. Reference to a plan of an estate at Prudhoe belonging to John Ord 1781.

Z.G.I. Bell Collection Part 2 Deposited by Sir William Gibson

VIII. Bywell St. Peter Parish: Apperley.
1. Plan of Apperley Common division allotments 1816 (Thomas Bell & Wm. Todd commissioners).
2. Plan of Apperley estate (tracing not dated [c. 1820]).
3. Plan of Apperley estate (tracing not dated [c. 1820]).
4. 

Z.H.E. Bell Collection Part 3 deposited by W. Percy.

28.1/1 Ovingham & Prudhoe valuations.
1b. Memoranda of land sold by Duke of Northumberland 1817-1841.
1c. Allotment of commons to the Duke 1769-1809
34. Files relating to a proposed History of Agriculture in Northumberland [c.1851+], by Thomas Bell, containing notes and old working papers under various subject headings.
Deposited Plans Index; County of Northumberland Plans deposited with the Clark of the Peace

O.R.U.P.

3. Canal from Hexham to Stella deposited 2nd. September 1796

9. Turnpike Road from Stanhope to Greenhead 1814 (branches to Gateshead and Dilston turnpike road [1819].

iii. From ... Leadgate, Ravenside and Newlands.

17. Railway from Newcastle to Carlisle 1825

21. Newcastle to Carlisle Railway 1828

Other N.R.O. Maps and Plans Consulted

(81) N.R.O. 691/1/4/7 Surveys, Plans, Valuations 1789 12 valuation books

N.R.O. 725/C2/182 Plan of Hedley u.d

NRO 341 Plan of an estate at Prudhoe 1781

(81) NRO 691/61/29 Prudhoe enclosure act 1777.

(36) ZHE 98/24 Plan of Prudhoe estate including Wylam Wood (early nineteenth-century).

(82) NRO 725/C.2/192 Sketch & plan of Prudhoe land scale colliery part? of water scheme. u.d. [probably mid nineteenth-century +????].

NRO 341 Plan of estate of John Ord Esq. 1781

(5) DT 318 M Tithe map 1842 [Mickley].

(5) DT 385 M Tithe map 1840 [Prudhoe].

(5) DT 386 Tithe map 1839 [Prudhoe Castle].

N.R.O. 691/1/4/7 1789 Part of Mickley Common

N.R.O. 309/M 1421 1721 Chopwell/Leadgate area

Maps and Plans from other Sources

Battie Wrightson Collection (Leeds Archives)

B/W Ma/36 1766 A plan of Mickley East Moor Colliery Surveyed by Henry Ridley
Appendix 5; - Aerial Photographs & Surface Survey Results

Aerial Photographs Reviewed

RAF 1947 low winter sunlight

RAF 1958 and Jan 1959 (sortie 58/2685)

1971 Local Government purposes

(B/4688/1 Nb.U050663 to U050670; U050626 to U050635; U050641 to U050650)

A number of prints are also available, taken in December 1968 and April 1969, for British Coal (NRO.4553/1/11 NCB 3-4-69; NCB 24-12-68 11/594).

A number of vertical aerial sources were also consulted at the R.C.H.M.(E) office in Newcastle.

Surface Survey

Land Use

Most land use was recorded directly onto map, which was used to make up Figure 4.

Results

Prudhoe

5 14-10-95; present Eastwood Park, recreation ground, area of slighted ridge and furrow running north-south; taq 1766; tpq c.1650. Also there is a bit of bank or rig running east-west along the north edge of the field; taq 1766, but possibly on a line of pre 1629 strip.

180/180c 24-5-95 4; D/a/e, boulder line (d?), ditch/track?, running north-south across Field No.180, directly in line with boundaries Nos. 178/179 & 189/190; H; 1; removed pre 1896 (track crosses line), taq 1849; not shown on 1766 or 1781.

180 (a) 24-5-95; to north of the middle part of fence 180/189 is a spring, in a truncated triangular pit, with a bolder revetted well head forming a step inside it. Although no connection can be seen, it must have linked to a trough and ditch feature to the south of the fence and lynchet, in Field No. 189.

189 24-5-95; a trough and ditch feature to the south of the northern fence and lynchet, consists of an arrangement of rough stones forming the trough, sunken into the ground. It is at the East End of a ditch (D/a/e) which runs parallel to the northern fence line, as far west as just past the end of boundary 180/189. The East End of this ditch has an area of bolder revetment lining it. A little further to the south a ditch/spring line (D/a/e-f) can be seen flowing towards Durham Riding. This appears to have been the original line of a natural spring. These water collection/drainage features not shown on any map, probably Victorian.
Hedley

120 25-8-95; D/a/e to north and west feeds into Milkwell area (120)+ lots of small boulders. At north end B/c made up of small to medium boulders, + earth and stone revetment in the west face, set in rough courses, set diagonally from vertical, + D/a/d to west; Bt; 1; taq 1629, mid 12thC (120/D); alongside County/Parish/Township Boundary between Co. Durham and Northumberland, Ravenside Dyke, +probably source of Milkwell Burn. The arrangements of this rectangular area probably as a reservoir for the millrace of Hedley Mill and/or watering place.

Eltringham

4-3 (now one field) 19 to 20-11-93; two palaeochannels can be seen running west to east across this field. Running parallel with the southern boundary of Field No.4 is a low gravel terrace with a light covering of alluvium.

5 19-11-93; a palaeochannel can be seen running west to east across this field, which links up with one in Field No.4. Running parallel with the southern boundary is a low gravel terrace with a light covering of alluvium, which is the same one as in Field No.4

9 11-12-93; this field contains the remains of coke ovens running alongside the railway. They were constructed sometime between the building of the railway (late 1830's) and 1850.

Mickley

78 29-3-96; contains narrow (Napoleonic) ridge-and-furrow, running north-south. This assart from High Close Wood dates from before 1787.

80 29-3-96; contains narrow (Napoleonic) ridge-and-furrow, running north-south. This assart from High Close Wood dates from before 1787. A rill runs diagonally across the north-west corner of this field.

103 8-11-96; this area to the north of the village centre contained farmers dales in 1787, and is possibly the remains of a long toft compartment or long strip-field. The western third of this large field contains long narrow ridge-and-furrow, which is straight and about 3m wide (so is apparently late Napoleonic). The eastern two thirds of the field is complicated by a small rill running northwards from Cuddy's Well (probably become the Riding Dene). This part of the field is divided into two sections, each about a furlong long, north to south, by a bank or headland. This runs east-west from approximately the Centro line of Colliery Close Wood and has two oak trees on it. To the north of this (and east of the rill) the field contains north-south running ridge-and-furrow, which is straight and about 3 to 4m wide. There is one large-boiled old oak tree in this area. In the southern half of this third of the field, immediately to the east of the rill is a prominent ridge dividing narrow rigg to the west (merging with that in the western third) and broader rigg to the east (circa.4m wide). None of the riggs in this field appear to be curved, and their straightness might suggest a late date, perhaps using a horse-drawn plough.

104 8-11-96; this field immediately to the west of field 103 was also part of the farmers dales in 1787. It consists of improved pasture with no visible surviving ridge-and-furrow.

106 29-3-96; general area of sharply sloping ground between roads outside Hallyards Farm; taq 1842, 1816 (when this extension of Mickley Common formalised); tpq 1787? (in present form); possibly on line of a prehistoric or Romano-British boundary?

158 8-11-96; this field immediately to the west of field 104 was also part of the farmers dales in 1787. It consists of improved pasture with no visible surviving ridge-and-furrow.

161 31-5-1993; area under grass, but some house platforms mark the site of the former south-row toft-compartment of Mickley village.
165 31-5-1993; area under grass, but is the site of the eastern end of the former south-row toft-compartment of Mickley village.

167 31-5-1993; this grass field contains possible north-south ridge-and-furrow.

168 31-5-1993; a field containing rough pasture now but also has signs of north-south ridge-and-furrow, a furlong long.

174 31-5-1993; the eastern half contains some short north-south Napoleonic(?) ridge-and-furrow, with the remains of a ditch forming the western edge of this rigg area. This ditch continues the line of boundary 98/169.

183 24-5-96; an area that from aerial photos seemed to be north-south ridge-and-furrow, on closer inspection turns out to be a series of parallel drains respecting Boundary No.182/183.

189 24-5-96; signs of narrow north-south ridge-and-furrow.

196 24-5-96; possible slight north-south ridge-and-furrow, or signs mole ploughing or drainage.

234 24-5-96; possible slight north-south ridge-and-furrow, or signs mole ploughing or drainage.
Appendix 6; - Woodland Survey Results
(See Appendix 7 for Boundary Key and further details)

Low and High Close Wood (Mickley)

Low Close Wood has probably been least affected by twentieth-century clear felling, but, like all woods in this area, it has not received any formal management for many years. It was once joined with High Close Wood, but they have been separate since before 1787 (Z/B 11/4). Historically these woods are probably Miklegg Hoh Wood mentioned in 1292-3, as the Heugh Dene still runs down the western side of High Close Wood. Also, there is a fairly clear wood-bank, easily traced on maps, now outside the extent of the existing woods, also dating before 1787. But when this wood-bank is examined in detail, it is far from substantial, and varies from a bank to a lynchet, depending upon the surrounding topography. This appears to be typical of most ancient woods in this area. Low Close has a more varied flora than High Close, or any other area of woods identified in the area. High Close Wood, although not floristically important, contains some of the best evidence, locally, for the existence of features older than the current woodland growing on them. A series of lynchet boundaries, to the north of High Mickley, can be traced into the wood, proving that the area was once cleared of woodland, probably in late-prehistory, or during the Romano-British period. Environmental evidence suggests that the secondary wood re-growth occurred in the second half of the first millennium AD.

Both these woods contain evidence that they were formerly coppiced. Old coppice stools are found, particularly in Low Close, and particularly of hazel, which are one of the best indicators of this in this area, as hazel was commonly cut as corfe-rods, used in the manufacture of coal-carrying baskets, in the local collieries. There is also plenty of field name evidence, particularly the names Spring and Spring Bank in High Close Wood, thought to be late-medieval terms for coppice compartments (Gledhill pers. comm.). There also survives an eighteenth-century tree-feller’s account.

Low Close 4 to 5-4-95; Earthworks Identified; the southern edge of the current wood (Field No. 70) is marked by barbed wire fence running along the main road (A 695). Falling northwards from this road is a sloping area of presumably made-up ground with a second break in slope a little to the north, perhaps representing the made up ground of an earlier road(?). Within the wood there are three main streams or rills, which join to become two and then one stream (Bellasis Burn) by the northern end of the wood. The main course of the Bellasis Burn, running along the western edge of the wood, is set along most of its length within an increasingly deeper dene. The other two rills (one running through the centre line of the wood the other along much of its eastern side) only start to run within a dene from just before their conjunction in the middle of the wood. There are a couple of large marshy areas along the course of the eastern rill, particularly near the start of its dene, along the middle of the eastern edge of the wood. Along the eastern edge of the Bellasis Burn dene there are three or four sunken areas which are probably meltwater channels and/or old alternative routes of the other rills. A much larger channel(?) runs alongside the eastern side of the other main dene (in the northern central part of the wood after the conjunction of the other two rills). There is a possibility that these are old sunken paths (perhaps logging roads), or perhaps both are true. The eastern channel in particular looks more likely to have been a path running up from different parts of Mickley Common. In the northern part of the wood there are two or three other probable meltwater channels. One is on the general slope down to Mickley/Eltringham Commons and appears to be in line with the upper reaches of the central rill.

Another much larger meltwater(?) feature occupies the north-east area of the wood, between the north-eastern boundary of the wood and the general slope in the northern end of the wood. This consists of a large shallow, marsh filled, scoop, which is possibly semi-natural and possibly part manmade (as a former pond perhaps). Filling the area between the large scooped feature and the central dene, and between the general northern slope and the marshy area in the eastern central area, is a large area of ridge and furrow cultivation. Although fairly straight, the width of the riggs suggests a date earlier than the narrow Napoleonic riggs found elsewhere in the area. The riggs appear to be cut by an apparently later double banked feature which is directly in line with (and therefore contemporary with) the boundary between Field’s Nos. 68 and 69. This feature appears to line up with the possible sunken lane feature in the dene to the west.
Low Close 6-11-93; Plant Species Identified; beech, wych elm, hazel, holly, elder, dog rose, oak, birch, bramble, blackthorn, ash, sycamore, wood sorrel, raspberry, cherry, cherry-plum, hawthorn.

10-4-94; Plant Species Identified; elder, holly (*Ilex aquifolium*), hawthorn (*Crataegus monogyna*), bramble, cherry (*Prunus avium*), Myroboln? -plum (*P. cerasifera*), birch, ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), sycamore, oak, hazel, dog-rose (*Rosa canina*), wych-elm, dogs mercury, bluebell, wood sorrel, wild garlic, lesser celandine.

4 to 5-4-95; Plant Species Identified; the wood has an interesting and varied flora, consisting of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), elder, holly, hawthorn, cherry, bird cherry (*P. padus*), Myroboln? -plum, birch, ash, sycamore, oak, alder (*Alnus glutinosa*), hazel (coppice stools), mountain-ash (*Sorbus aucuparia*), guelder-rose (*Viburnum opulus*), dog-rose, wych-elm, raspberry (*Rubus idaeus*). Besides hazel, a number of other trees appear to have been coppiced in the past.

High Close 29-3-96; Earthworks Identified; the current wood (Field No. 79) has been heavily affected by the construction of a house within it and the keeping of goats. Besides the Heugh Dene (forming the western boundary of the wood, part of which has been filled in as a car park up by the Bluebell Inn) and the upper reaches of the watercourses that run across into Low Close, there are few obvious topographical features. There is a much smaller dene running along the eastern boundary, which is the upper part of the Riding Dene. Running parallel with this, inside the wood, are a number of lineal rigg like features, but they do not appear to be either meltwater channels or arable riggs. They are particularly notable towards the north-east end of the wood, where their sharpness and size suggest a fairly recent date. So far the origin and function of these features has not been identified, they may in fact be some kind of (mining(?)) drainage feature. Running parallel with and to the south of the main road, at the northern end of the wood is a fairly straight feature, which is obviously a mineral line of some kind (perhaps relating to Mickley Bank Colliery). It runs across the Riding Dene on a damlike battery in the north-east corner of the wood. The probable Iron Age/Romano-British lynchet features with in the wood are discussed within the Boundary Appendix 7 (see boundary Nos. listed below).

High Close 10-4-94; Plant Species Identified; oak, hazel, birch, dog rose, bramble, holly, sycamore, dogs mercury, wood anemone, bluebells, wild garlic, wood sorrel, hawthorn, beech, whitebeam, rowan, elder, lesser celandine, honeysuckle, foxgloves, coltsfoot, also a lot of sedges and horsetails.

For further details see Boundaries; - 60? 62? /70; 61/67=61/68-69=62/70; 63/70-71=63/71; 69/70; 70/71; 76/109; 78/70; 78/80=79/80; 78/107-108=79/82=79/109; 79/80-81; 79/85; 82/84=83/84=84/107; 79/80-81; 67/70; 68/69; 68/70

Hyons Wood (Hedley)

*Hyons Wood*, has the best historical record, but has had a great deal of colliery working of various kinds, and clear felling, which has badly affected the diversity of its flora. It is also, extremely large, which makes any detailed study difficult. Fortunately, a survey is available from one of the local orienteering clubs (Northern Navigators), which show many detail not shown on any other cartographic sources. Although not carried out for archaeological purposes, it is useful for the basis of other fieldwork.

This wood appeared to have many of the features expected from a formal medieval wood. There seems to be a wood-bank clearly surviving on its eastern boundary, with a ditch and internal bank, but the other sides are not so clear. This now appears to be the remnants of a much earlier north-south coaxial field system. A lynchet and wagon-way form the southern boundary, a little outside the extent of the modern wood; half way along this is the site of Hyons Wood Farm. This farm, abandoned now for about a hundred years, dated from at least the sixteenth-century (1586, *Alnwick Mss. A ii*), and was probably originally a woodland’s cottage. The west boundary is far from clear, as it may have been damaged by modern mining activities, and the northern edge appears to be defined by a semi-natural lynchet along the south side of the Stanley Burn. There are other areas of scrub and wood, extending to the west and north of the formal boundary, historically not part of it, but some of this also shows some antiquity. Within the wood, are numerous rills, denes, hollows, paths, wagon-ways, mineral lines and boundaries, some of which can be shown to be of recent origin, and other that may be of archaeological interest, but generally the interior is very confusing, and features are difficult to comprehend.
Potentially, some of these internal divisions represent aspects of the medieval and early modern management, but there may also be some features of much greater antiquity. Such as the remains of a boundary which appears to link the Milkwell Burn, with part of the Ravenside Dyke, the site of Hedley Cross and Hyons Wood Farm. Another similar boundary runs north from Hyons Wood to the Otter Burn, called the Horse Close and Edgewell Dykes. The southern feature, has been traced for a certain distance within Hyons Wood, but then disappears in the dense undergrowth as a ditch or natural rill.

24-5-95; Eighteenth-Century Wagon-Way colonised by bluebells, birch, oak (cut or coppiced(?)), rowan, wood sorrel, bramble, honeysuckle, ferns, holly and hawthorn. Northern Edge 21-6-95; area to the north of Stanley Burn at the southern end of Mickley Moor, Field No. 7a (and south of Stanley Burn) holly, alder, guilder rose, hawthorn, bramble, birch, dogs mercury, nettles, hazel, cherry sp., ash, blackthorn and sallow sp.

8-5-93; West Wood; - wood sorrel, lesser stitchwort, rowan, ash, beech, alder, sallow (possibly 2 species), birch, honeysuckle, hawthorn, gorse, dog rose, bramble, holly, bluebell, oak, hazel, primrose, sycamore, wood anemone, foxgloves and violets. South End of East Wood (fairly open and scrubby); - 2 boundary marking beech trees (on the modern edge but not the original southern edge, circa.100 years old, natural looking growth), lot of birch, honeysuckle, wood sorrel, bracken, bramble, lesser stitchwort, hawthorn, holy, alder, rowan, ash, sallow and oak. South Boundary; - 4 boundary beech (pollarded, circa.300 years old, one has a graffito with date of 1937), 1 large pollard oak on southern boundary (circa.200-300 years old), more further west. Wood Pale(?)/East Boundary; - holly, bramble, fern, hazel, birch, hawthorn, honeysuckle, lesser stictchwort, wood sorrel, rowan, oak (few, circa.100 years of natural looking growth), beech and blackthorn. Eighteenth-Century Wagon-Way; - apple, vaccinium (on Lumley's Lane) and wild garlic.

For further details see Boundaries; - 24-29/28=31/32-104; 30/31

Priest Close Wood (Prudhoe)

Priest Close Wood is now managed by the Northumberland Naturalist Trust, but has obviously been clear-felled and has a low species diversity. Historically, there is less on this wood than most, because it did not form part of the Northumberland Estates. In the Mason Survey (1613 Alnwick Mss. A), this area was known as the Lady Prest, and formed part of the Fenwick freehold, but it was described as formerly being chantry land. This implies that the wood had been a gift to a religious house, in support of a chantry chapel, probably by the Umfraville family in the thirteenth- or fourteenth-centuries. Because the land was freehold the Mason survey does not make it clear whether this area was woodland or not, but a few trees are depicted on the accompanying Norton plan of the area, and a few hazel stools within the wood, do suggest that this is an ancient wood. Although it has the appearance of a rounded square at its eastern end (similar to Hyons Wood) and is typical of many medieval woods. But the western end is not so clear, partly due to topographical effects of some geomorphological features here and modern housing. It is only at the eastern end that the wood boundary is clear, and in this case is marked by a large ditch/brook feature. The southern boundary appears to be formed by a low bank, or lynchet, on the north side of a ditch/brook feature in the bottom of a dene. Woodland extends to the south of this boundary, to the top of the dene bank, but much of this has been planted with conifers, and was not probably part of any formal woodland. There are no significant internal features that appear to have any antiquity.

For further details see Boundaries; - 24-29/28=31/32-104; 30/31
Beaumont Wood (Eltringham)

There are some indications that this wood is ancient and once had a much richer flora. There is also some evidence that the wood was formerly under coppice management. The wood is now badly affected by the surrounding housing and has been further eroded by the construction of Prudhoe Bypass. There are a number of old sunken track-ways (?) and drains crossing each other, etc. 
14-3-93; Wood Anemone, Bluebell (possibly), elder, oak, holly (lots of coppiced bushes), birch (a few), sedges, wood sorrel, wild garlic, lesser celandine, cherry (quite a few in places), rushes, horsetails (a clump in the Otter Burn), alder (very few), broom (in cleared areas) and sycamore (some very large). 
23-3-98; Wood Anemone, Bluebell, blackthorn, elder, cherry, bramble, oak, hazel (coppice stools), holly, hawthorn, ivy, wych elm (?), birch, sedges, wood sorrel, wild garlic, lesser celandine, bird cherry (?) and Honeysuckle. 
For further details see Boundaries; - 8/11

Horse Close Wood (Prudhoe)

Only a small remnant of this wood survives running along the township boundary between Prudhoe Castle and Prudhoe, surrounded by housing estates and rough ground. There are some indications that the woodland on this scarp slope (which merges in with Beaumont Wood) has antiquity. Because of the steepness and linearity of this wood, there is only one path/drain within it, at the bottom of the bank (township boundary). This drain appears to be the medieval millrace into the castle mill, and has some old, large, coppiced hollies on it. 
14-3-93; Wood Anemone, Bluebell (possibly), elder, oak, holly (lots of coppiced bushes), birch (a few), sedges, wood sorrel, wild garlic, lesser celandine, cherry (quite a few in places), rushes, alder (very few), broom (in cleared areas) and sycamore (some very large). 
23-3-98; wild garlic, wood anemone, wood sorrel, holly, bramble, sycamore, wych elm, Prunus sp., lesser celandine and hazel (coppice stools).
For further details see Boundaries; - 5/52

Prudhoe Park (Prudhoe)

For further details see Boundaries; - 98/99-107/108; 98/99-107/108

Riding High Wood (Prudhoe)

24-5-95; Field No. 189; East part; - light wood with grass (wood pasture), hawthorn, birch, holly, oak (all young trees). Some hazel coppice stools inside the wood with more on the eastern edge, where the plants in general are more mature; lesser celandine, some bluebells, nettles and honeysuckle. North side of Wood is unfenced and appears to consist of thick growths of holly, birch, oak, dog rose and alder (oldish); no trees of any great age. West side consists of what appears to be a woodbank (B/C/D, but actually, probably part of the north-south coaxial system). Field No. 181; unfenced south end of wood; rhododendrons, birch, rowan (one very old), oak, holly, oak (old cut), bluebells, hawthorn, some stubby oaks at North end. 
For further details see Boundaries; -180a/181; 177/178=180/180a=180/181=187/189; 180a/181

Ridding Low Wood (Prudhoe)

Area 185 24-5-95; area between Hyons Wood and Low Riding Wood, apparently planted circa.1780; birch, oak (cut), holly, rowan and honeysuckle. An area of flat open wood here with grass, sycamore (cut), birch, alder (?), dog's mercury, lots of bluebells, oxalis, wild garlic, lesser stitchwort and nettles. At the lower end of Low Riding Wood there is a bank with holly, sycamore and birch. 
For further details see Boundaries; - 180a/180b=180b/181=182/187=185/186; 178/179=180/180c=189/190a=190/190a
West Riding Wood (Hedley)

For further details see Boundaries; - 225/389

Colliery Close Wood (Mickley)

8-11-96; the wood consists of grassy scrub with most of the tree surviving around the edge. Contains a mixture of holly, hazel, elder, hawthorn, blackthorn, dog rose, ash, oak, birch and gorse. Until the twentieth-century this area had probably been well wooded, but has been clear felled since. There are good indications that this wood is the remnant of ancient woodland that covered field-systems in the dark ages.
For further details see Boundaries; - 101/103; 100/101=100/102; 91/101

Heugh Bank/Ebchester Heugh (Hedley-Woodside)

17-1-93; wood sorrel, birch (been coppiced(?) or cut), oak (coppiced(?) or cut, + a few pollards), beech(?), apple(?), hazel (coppiced), holly (a few scrubby), alder (riverside), sycamore, broom, bracken, wood(?) rush, Bramble, heather (few), wood anemone, scots pine (1 only), white(?) willow, gorse and honeysuckle.
For further details see Boundaries; - 294/323

Other odd pieces of woodland

Field No. 9 (Mickley) 24-5-95; secondary(?) woodland shown unwooded on 1895 O.S. map (1894), but scrub woodland may have existed at that time as this is a steep, natural, bluff. It might be that the woodland was too small or unimportant to be noticed, or it may have been omitted by accident. Species present 21-6-95; gorse, dog rose, rowan, alder (2 or 3 different species), hawthorn, oak, birch, hazel, guelder rose and holly.

Field No. 19 (Eltringham) 10-8-94; wooded dene between railway/river bluff and lane to Ovingham Ford; pollarded oaks by lane, hawthorn, elder, wych elm, holly, ash and sycamore.

Field No. 22 (Eltringham) 10-8-94; Cold Kettle Dene (south of lane to Ovingham Ford); oak, sycamore, holly, elder, plum, ash, bramble.

Field No. 68a (Hedley) 13-9-95; Leadgate, a small area of scrub, consisting of heather (Culluna vulgaris), bilberry (Vaccinium myrtillus), birch, rowan, gorse, broom, bramble and bracken. The trees here may have been planted but this area may preserve some of the old pre-enclosure commonland flora.
For further details see Boundaries; - 8/9; 9/10; 9/12

For other odd pieces of woodland see Boundaries; - 8/24; 311/313; 38/63
Appendix 7: Boundary Survey Data

The numbers used to identify each individual boundary section, are based on the field numbers given on the 1896/7, 25 inch to the mile, Ordnance Survey maps (see Figure 9). This avoids the problem of using long and complicated grid-references (Roberts, 1993, p.433). Each field has a number of boundaries, but each boundary section relates only to two adjoining fields; thus a reference number can be made-up from these two field numbers. Rarely within the study area, do two different sections have the same numerical reference, but to help avoid confusion, the boundaries are also listed by township. Reference numbers are always given with the lowest field number first, which decides which township the boundary is placed under (unless lowest number is outside Ovingham parish). Those longer boundaries, relating to a number of different fields, are described in detail, under the section with the lowest reference number, and all other sections of that same boundary will be referred back to this.

Condition: 1 = unclipped & stock-proof; 2 = clipped; 3 = clipped with gaps; 4 = remnant; 5 = laid, (a) recently, (b) in the past, (c) in the distant past; 6 = overgrown; 7 = grazed; 7 = overgrown with outgrowths; 8 = fence; 9 = stream only (no hedge); 10 new hedge.

Form: W = wall, (a) intact, (b) fragmented, (c) derelict, (d) boulder dump, (e) boulder dump with orthostats, (f) mixed fieldstone and quarriystone, (g) quarriystone, (h) ashlar wall, (i) brick wall; T = hedge exclusively of hawthorn; B = bank, (a) no bank, (b) low <0.5 m high/ wide, (c) medium 0.5-1.2 m. high/ wide, (d) large >1.2 m. high/ wide, (e) earth & stone, (f) stone faced; D = ditch, (a) single, (b) double, (c) asymetrical, (d) small <0.5 m. wide/ deep, (e) medium 0.5-1.2 m. wide/ deep, (f) large >1.2 m. wide/ deep; L = lynchet(with direction of fall), (a) low <0.5 m. high, (b) medium 0.5-1.2 m. high, (c) large >1.2 m. high, (d) revetted.

Species: A = ash; Ap = apple; Bb = bramble; Be = beech; Br = birch; Bt = blackthorn; H = hawthorn; Hz = hazel; DR = dog rose; El = elder; GR = guelder rose; Ho = holly; MA = mountain ash; O = oak; Sp = Scots pine; Sy = sycamore; W = willow; WE = wych elm. A (T) following a species indicates that it was a tree or that the species was present in both tree and shrub form.

Date: taq = Terminus ante quem; tpq = Terminus post quem

Typical entry layout

Field No./Field No. = Field No./Field No. X Field No./Field No. [means that the boundary section between the first two numbered fields continues as the boundary section between the next two numbered fields, but despite appearance, does not continue as the boundary section between the next two numbered fields, as they have different origins].

(a) date (b) date, etc. [these are the dates on which the boundary was surveyed].

Field No./Field No. Status or name plus notes [gives notes on an individual section of the boundary between the two numbered fields]

(Date letter) [When the section was surveyed] condition [see key]; physical form [see key]; list of species [see key]; total number of species [total with bramble included is given in brackets]; taq and tpq dates for the existence of the boundary section derived from maps, documents and implication [known dates of adjoining features, etc.].

Stinted boundaries are laid out in the same way, but the stint number precedes each stint [1: etc.]. After the last stint total, the total number of species for the section is given, followed by the average number of species of the boundary section. Sometimes more than one total and average are given, depending on whether a particularly thin [or bald] section of the hedge is included or not. Notes, etc. for the boundary as a whole follow this.

Finally, in bold, an estimated date range is given for the origin of the boundary as a whole. It should be noted that a modern boundary might have been reinstated along an earlier one, with periods of absence (or lack of depiction) in between. Therefore, there may be a number of different date ranges given for the boundary’s origin.
PRUDHOE CASTLE

5/52-8/11 (a) 14-10-95 (b) 23-3-98; 5/52 Prudhoe Castle/Prudhoe township boundary, north boundary to Horse Close Wood and millrace on 1629 map; ditch c.1.5 m. wide, c.0.5 m. deep, with Ho & Hz coppice stools on banks & earth bank to north down slope to north, c.1 m. wide, c.0.5 m. high + bigger in places; (b) 8; sharp L/c(N) along (most?) of township boundary (Masters Close to north); ditch line c.3-5m. in from fence line, potentially other ditches feeding into it in wood, at the point where the ditch is crossed by a path at current east end, it becomes cultivated, with a large stone of concrete block and grill; taq 1766, 1629, 1586, Prudhoe Castle mill fed by mill race dates from before 13??; 8/11 Eltringham, north boundary of Beaumont Wood, in line with boundary and mill race on other side of Otterburn; (a) ditch c.1.5-2.0m. wide, c.0.75m. deep, steep sides of earth broken down in places; taq late-eighteenth-century (NRO ZAN Bell 3/2); possibly prehistoric or Romano-British in origin, perhaps as a cultivation terrace.

21-45/22 (a) 25-5-93 (b) 14-10-95; Broomhouse Lane, north side of lane; (a) H, DR; 2; a very short scalped hedge on an earth bank (B/c); (b) 2; L/c-a(N); H, DR; 2; taq 1826. 1766-1826

2223-24 (a) 24-4-93 (b) 14-10-95; Broomhouse Lane (sample only); (a) 4 stints (W to E), each c.30m. 1: H, El, Ho, Hz, Garden Sp.; 2: H, El, Ho, Hz; 2(3); 3: H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, El, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species 5(6); Average No. Species = 3.6(3.7); (b) 2; B/b; H, DR, El, Bb; 3(4); taq 1896, 1856, 1826, 1796 (implied); tpq 1839, 1766. 1766-1796 xxx 1826 xxx 1839-1856.

22/25 14-10-95; Broomhouse Lane; H, DR; El; 3; to gateway (heading from west end) then 2; L/b-c(N); H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, Bt, Bb; 6(7); back to H+? by school; taq 1796, part 1766; tpq part 1766, 1629?

22/36 14-10-95; Broomhouse; 8; unfenced road edge on both O.S. 25” editions; taq 1967; tpq 1896. 1896-1967

22/37-39 14-10-95; Broomhouses; Quarrystone Wall; 0; taq 1896; tpq c.1861. c.1861-1896

22/41 14-10-95; 8; 0; taq 1896. 1896-1967

22/42 (a) 25-4-93 (b) 14-10-95; Broomhouse Lane to end of allotments, Prudhoe/Prudhoe Castle township boundary; (a) 4 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; 1: H, El, Ho, Be, Cherry (Prunus avium); 5; 2: H, El, Ho, Be; 4; 3: H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, El, Ho; 3; Total No. Species 5(6); Average No. Species = 3.5(3.7); (b) 2; L/a? to B/c; Ho at beginning; taq 1826, 1629?; tpq 1766? -1629? 1766? -1826

22/43 (a) 25-4-93 (b) 14-10-95 (c) 9-11-96; Broomhouse Lane, a very mature hedge with allotment gardens (Taq 1856) behind, township boundary Prudhoe/Prudhoe Castle; (a) 7 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; 1: H, El, Ho, A, WE; 5; 2: H, El, Ho, A; 4; 3: H, DR, El, Ho, WE, Bb; 5(6); 4: H, DR, El, Ho, A, Br, Current; 7; 5: H, El, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, El, Ho, Hz, A, Bb; 5(6); 7: H, El, Cherry (Prunus avium), Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 10(11); Average No. Species = 4.2(5.3); (b) WE at west end, Hz at east end; L/a-c(N); spring(?) starts half way along to east, flows to approximately opposite 58/60; (c) now partly destroyed for new estate access; taq 1826, 1766 (this section), 1629(?) (line appears different but possible drawn loosely, and township boundary suggests age, therefore taq mid-sixteenth-century, medieval?)

29/30 14-10-95; Prudhoe Park, township boundary of Prudhoe/Prudhoe Castle; 2; H, El; 2; taq 1856, 1826 (but looks much altered afterwards), 1766 (ditto); tpq 1629?

29-38/30=41/42=43-45/95-96=43/97 (a) 8-10-94 (b) 21-6-95 (c) 25-10-95; 29-38/30 Edgewell, Prudhoe Castle/Mickley township boundary, realignment of lane from Prudhoe to Mickley. Possibly eighteenth-century or possibly earlier than seventeenth-century as in line with township boundary t the south. Mickley tithe map (1842) suggests that the lane was altered and straightened after 1842; (a) H, El, O(?); 3(?); (b) east end 2/8; B/c; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); southside H+?; 1+?;taq 1766, 1629, mid-sixteenth-century, early-thirteenth-century; 41/42 (a) 1; H; 1; taq 1856; tpq 1839, 1766 (but on a similar line to one of that date), possibly recreation or realignment of an earlier boundary; 43-45/95-96 (c) township boundary Prudhoe Castle/Mickley, Edgewell/East Pasture boundary; at the corner of 96/97 & 43-45/95-96 has a pile of large boulders, one of which has a number of scratches on it either through repeated plough damage before clearance or perhaps sharpening stone; 9 stints (S to N), each c.30m. except 9 which was c.38m.; condition = 7 for stints 1, 5, 7 & 9, rest all 3/7; 1: B/c/e c.2m. wide earth & stone; H, El(large), Ho, Bb; 3(4); 2: B/c/e small boulders; H, El, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 3: B/c/e some larger stones; H, Ho, O(T); 3; 4: B/c/e; H, Bt; 2; 5: B/c/e + remnants of walling, large boulders again; H, DR, Ho, O(t), Bt, Br (small); 6: B/c-b/e, slight L/a(W), D/a/d to west; H, DR, Ho, O(t), Bt; 5; 7:
V/c/e to L/a(W), D/a/d to west; H, Ho, O(t), Bt, Hz; 5; B/c-d/e, D/a/d-e to west; H, DR, Ho, O(t), Bt, Br, Hz; 7; B/c-e, D/a/e; H, DR, Ho, O(t), Bt, Hz; 6; Total No. Species = 8(9); Average No. Species = 4.5(4.8); taq 1766, pre-early-thirteenth-century; 43/97 (c) B/b?; H, DR, El, Ho (at south end); 4; taq 1856; not on tithe map 1839, but possibly proposed change on Z/B 9/10 dated 1839? 1839-1856 Overall possibly of prehistoric origin.

30/41=30/98=8-10-94; 30/41 Edgewell Farm; 6 stints (E to W), each c.30m.; all 1/3; stints 1 & 2 D/a/e, rest D/a/f; 1; H, Bb; (12); 2; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 3; H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 4; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 5; H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 6; H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 4(5); Average No. Species = 2.5(2.5); 30/98 Edgewell Farm; 1/3; H, DR; 2; 38/42; Edgewell Farm; 8 in general; at west end = 3/4/8; with Ho and boulders at west end; 1; taq 1856, but much affected and straightened before that after 1766; tpq probably 1766 but parts on an early line?

30/98-174 8-10-94; Edgewell farm, Prudhoe Castle/ Mickleby township boundary; 30/174 4/8; B/d; 30/98 H; 1; taq 1842, 1766? (30/174 possibly drawn but doubtful?), 1629, fourteenth-century, early-thirteenth-century.

30-32/33 14-10-95; Prudhoe Park; 8; 0; taq 1896, unfenced before that to pre 1766; tpq 1629. 1856-1896

38/39 North side 8-10-94; Edgewell Farm, south side of lane from farm to west corner of field 38/39; 8 stints (NE to SW), each c.30m., all 1; L/c-b, stint 6 has D/a/e also; 1; H, DR, Ho, Bb; (3(4); 2; H, Ho; 2; 3; Ho, Hz, O; 3; 4; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 5; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 6; H, Ho, A, Bb; 3(4); 7; H, DR, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 8; H, DR, Ho, A, Bt, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 3(3.7); taq 1839, circa.1823-39, 1766 (but heavily straightened after), no internal division of Edgewell estate shown on 1629 plan, but this boundary could well be early in date, plus possibly a wood edge?

38/39 West Side (a) 8-10-94 (b) 21-6-95; Edgewell Farm, realignment of lane from Prudhoe to Mickley. Lines up with line of township boundary to the south, so could be old. Mickley tithe map of 1842 suggests that this line was realigned post that date; (a) H, DR; 2; (b) 2/8; L/a(E), only slight to B/b; H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); taq 1856, 1839, c. 1823-39, 1766 (shown as a dotted line so probably proper boundary made afterwards), tpq 1766, 1842. On line of township boundary so possibly a recreation or formalisation of an older boundary not drawn on maps. 1842-1839

41/45 14-10-95; Broomhouses; 1/ L/b(E); H, DR, El, Bb; 3(4); taq 1796; tpq 1766 but on a similar line to an earlier one. 1766-1796

41/97=41/99=42/43=98/99=98/169 (a) 8-10-94 (b) 12-2-95 (c) 25-10-95; Edgewell Estate; 41/97 (c) large bank continuing from 42/43 at east end; B/d/e earth & some large boulders (later clearance?) on top in places, becomes 98/99 at west end; H, DR, Ho, Hz, Broom, Bb; 5(6); 11 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; stints 1 to 3 & 5 = condition 3/7, stints 4, 6 7 & 11 = 7, stint 9 = 1/2; 1; L/b(N), D/a/d to north; H, DR; 2; 2; B/d/e circa. 3m. wide to L/b, D/a/d to south (same to stint 7); H, DR, Ho Bb; 3(4); 3; L/b to B/d/e; H, DR, Bt, Bb; 3(4); 4; B/c/e; H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, Bt, O; 7; 5; B/c/e; H, DR, Ho, Hz, Bt, O, Bb; 6(6); 6; L/c, B/c/e; H, DR, Ho, Hz, Bt, Bb; 5(6); 7; B/c/e, D/a/e to south (continues to stint 10); DR, Ho, Hz, Bt, O, Bb; 5(6); 8; B/c/e c.3m. wide; H, DR, Ho; 3; 9; B/c/e; H, DR; 2; 10; B/b, D ends?; H, DR, Hz, Bb; 3(4); 11; B/d/e c.3m. wide; H, DR, Ho, Hoz, Bt, Bb; 6(6); Total No. Species = 8(9); average No. Species = 4(4.7); taq 1856, c.1823-39 (showing proposed alterations?), 1766 (but straightened afterwards). Woodbank?; 41/99 (b) H, Ho?; 2? 42/43 (a) where the path (pre 1856) crosses through the area of the gateway the drain (1m. deep) is bridged by a stone structure made from roughly shaped blocks and field stones. The drain is also partially lined with stones here. The straightness of this boundary suggests a date later that 1629 (but not completely straightened); 1; D/a/e, B/c; H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, O(t), Br(t), Bb; 7(8), high No. species possibly due to proximity of former woodland or planting from wood, assarted former wood edge; (c) west end of hedge has Hz, & Ho in it, + gaps. Probably straightened. Large ditch to south still there. Earth bank at west end B/c to 41/97; taq 1839, c.1823-39, 1766 (straightened afterwards); tpq 1629? but possibly much earlier as no internal boundaries shown on this map; 98/99 (b) L(N); H, DR, Ho, A; 4; (c) 1/2/7; L/b(N), D/a/d on north side; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); taq 1856, c.1823-39 (with proposed changes indicated?), 1766; 98/169 township boundary Prudhoe Castle/Mickleby; 8; B/b; tpq 1766, 1629, early-thirteenth-century.

41/98 (a) 8-10-94 (b) 12-2-95; Edgewell Estate; (a) 1/3; H, DR, El; 3; (b) Ditch with slight bank B/b; DR, Ho; 3 = Total No. Species of 4; taq 1856, c.1823-39 but shown as a proposed alteration?, not on 1839 (tithe), 1766?
42/44-43/44=44/45 8-10-94; 42/44 Prudhoe Castle; 3/4/8; mostly barbed wire fence and holly, with the remains of a dry-fieldstone wall; H, DR, El, Ho, Bb; 4(5); taq 1856, 1839?, c.1832-39; tpq 1766;
43/44 former edge to Edgewell Wood in nineteenth-century and wood interior before that; 7 with 8 to west; D/a? with B/b in centre (brook/drain line, west branch of Otterburn); 9 stints (N to S), each c.30m. except 9=c.14m.; 1: H, DR, Ho, Hz, Bb; 4(5); 2: H, DR, El, Bt, Ho, Hz, O(t), MA, Raspberry, Whitebeam, Bb; 10(11); 3: H, El, Bt, Ho, Hz, MA, Broom, Bb; 7(8); 4: H, DR, El, Ho, raspberry, Bb; 5(6); 5: H, DR, Ho(t), Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, El, Ho, Broom, Bb; 5(6) 7(to bend): H, SR, El, Ho, O(t); 5; 8: H(t), DR, El, Ho, Hz, MA, Broom, (Bt); Gorse, Bb; 9(10); 9(to stile/gate, deep ditch): H, El, Ho(t), O(t), Whitebeam, Bb(t); 6; Total No. Species = 12(14); Average No. Species = 6.1(6.9); barbed wire fence to the west of path which runs to west of boundary has good examples of colonisation by plants from hedge line (H, DR, etc.); 44/45 continuation of former wood edge; 4; H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, Beech, MA, Bb; 7(8); taq for former wood edge, 1856, 1839, c.1823-1839, 1766?; not shown on 1629 map, but this shows no internal divisions to wooded areas, probably a natural line in origin.

43/45 (a) 8-10-94 (b) 25-10-95; (a) Edgewell Farm running west from former wood; 1; L/b; H, DR, El, Ho, Bb; 4(5); (b) B/b/c; taq 1856, 1839, c.1823-39, possibly pre or post 1766?; tpq 1629? (no internal divisions shown in this area).

44/50 25-4-93; From footpath sign opposite Kimberley-Clark Factory, this wooded bank with more or less natural hedge/wood line on the south side of a sunken lane/track running down from the castle entrance, to the bottom of the natural scarp/bluff. To the north of this lane is a wooded dune, without any hedge to the lane. On the 1629 map this lane runs between Nunlease/Nether Carr Close and the Orchard. This lane also runs between the glacial gravels of the bluff and the alluvium plain. There is also a fourteenth-century(? ) bridge used by the lane to cross another smaller dune, just before the start of the boundary tested; 6 stints (SW-NE), each circa.30m. 1: El, WE, Ho, Sy, O, Bb, 5(6); 2: H, WE, Ho, Sy, O, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, El, WE, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 4: El, WE, Ho, Sy, O, Bb; 5(6); 5: El, WE, Ho, A, Beech; 6; 6: H, El, WE, A, Larch, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species = 9(10); Average No. Species = 5.2(6.0), (possibly DR but not seen as deep in shade where the boundary was surveyed, and not sunny side, boundary probably arisen naturally as woodland remnant, as wood sorrel and dogs mercury also seen); taq 1629, 1586 (surrounding features), fourteenth-century (implied by bridge), c1150?

45/49-50-51 25-8-95; Prudhoe Castle/ Mickley township boundary; L/b-c (N/W), few large boulders; H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, Bt, Bb; 6(7); taq 1766, 1629, pre early thirteenth-century, old wood edge?

46/47/48 (a) 25-4-93 (b) 18-8-97?; Hedgerow survey of the lower section of the old lane between Prudhoe Castle and Prudhoe town crossroads. This old road, now a footpath, appears on the 1629 map as the main link between the town and castle and to Ovingham ford, so it is probably at least as old as the castle and or town; Eastside of lane (S to N), an earthen bank, with scrub, and another hedge boundary at the southern end. The bank is not continuous and bounds the dune to its east (there is broom on the modern road embankment); 7 stints (S to N), each c.30m. 1: H, El, A, Bb; 3(4); 2: H, El, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, DR, A, Sy, Sallow; 5; 4: H, DR, El, Ho, O, current sallow, Bb; 7(8); 5: DR, Ho, Sy, raspberry, Bb; 5(6); 6: El, Ho, Hz, A, Sy, Beech, Bb; 6(7); 7: El, Ho, A, Sy, Bb; 4(5); total no. species = 12(13); average no. species = 5(8).6; Westside of lane an earth bank with woody scrub beyond; 6 stints (S to N), each c.30m. 1: H, El, Ho, Hz, raspberry, Bb; 6(7); 2: El, Ho, Hz, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, Ho, Hz, O, raspberry, Bb; 6(7); 4: H, DR, Ho, A, SY, Beech, Bb; 6(7); 5: H, El, Ho, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, El, Hz, A, O, Beech, Bb; 6(7); Total no. species = 10(11); average no. species = 5.5(6.5); taq 1766, 1629, possibly pre twelfth-century.

92/96=93/95-96 25-8-95; 92/96 Prudhoe Castle/ Mickley township boundary; mixed hedge (with Hz) with similar mix to 92/93; ?L/c(E); taq 1766, 1629, early thirteenth-century?, possibly prehistoric/ Romano-British as woodland had grown over area in post Roman and hut circle aerial photo site immediately to east; 93/95-96 1/3; B/b-c with boulders, L?/E) to B/b only at north end; H, DR, El, Ho; 4; taq 1856, straightened post 1787, probably of similar origin to 92/96.

92/99 8-10-94; Edgewell Farm; H, DR, El; taq 1856; tpq 1839, proposed? boundary change on c.1823-1839 (NRO ZAN Bell 9/10). 1839-1856

92-99/100-99/169 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-10-94; Prudhoe Castle/ Mickley township boundary, Edgewell;
92-99/100 (a) H, DR, El, A, O, 5; (b) 3/7; D/a/d-e; 9 stints (SE to NW), each c.30m. except 9 = c.1.5m; 1: H, El, Bt, Hz, Ho, A(t), Bb; 6(7); 2: DR, El, Hz, Ho, A(t), Sy, Bb; 6(7); 3: H, DR, El, Bt, Ho, A(t), Sy, Aspen, Poplar; 9; 4: H, DR, Ho, A(t), Aspen, Poplar; 6; 5: DR, Bt, Ho, O, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, Bt, Ho, A(t), Bb; 5(6); 7: H, DR, Bt, Ho, A(t), Bb; 5(6); 8: H, Bt, Bb; 2(3); 9: H, DR, Bt, Bb; 3(4); total

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Species = 11(12); average no. Species = 5.1(5.9); 99/169 (b) 3/7; H, Sy; 2; taq 1766; 1629; early thirteenth-century, possibly prehistoric or Romano/ British in origin.

97/99 (a) 12-2-95 (b) 25-10-95; Edgewell Estate; (a) H, Ho; 2; (b) B/b-c (wiggley); H, DR< EL; taq 1839, c.1823-1839, 1766 (mostly).

98/99-107/108 14-10-95; Prudhoe Park, wood bank discussed in Smith and Tolan-Smith 1997; circa. 1-1.75m high, c.3m wide at crest of steep scarp slope of Hag Bank, falling west, made of earth with some small stones; 4/8; B/d-e/k; H, El, Ho, Hz, Sy, O(t, youngish), beech, WE, Bb; 8(9); taq 1826, 1766 (but slightly altered after; tpq 1629, but this map does not show internal divisions within wooded areas so it may have been there (contrast with Smith and Tolan-Smith 1997).

98/108 14-10-95; Hag Bank area Prudhoe Park (see Smith and Tolan-Smith 1997); H+?; 1+?; taq 1766; tpq 1629. 1629-1766

98/169 12-2-95; Prudhoe Castle/ Mickley township boundary, Edgewell Estate; 8 mostly; taq 1629, early thirteenth-century.

98/174 8-10-94; Prudhoe Castle/ Mickley township boundary, Edgewell Estate; 4/8; B/c/e; H, Bt; 2; taq 1629, early thirteenth-century.

98/190 14-10-95; Hag Bank, Prudhoe Park; stone revetted lynchet; taq 1896, ?1766?; tpq 1839. 1766-1839-1896

102/103 14-10-95; Prudhoe Park, western edge to park, Park Burn area; Hag Bank falls steeply down to level area, boundary area consists of low wide bank with ditch to west, then wagon way or track, with another ditch to the west of that; O.S. 1st ed. of 1856 showed 2 boundaries or drains and a pond at north end, the O.S. 2nd ed. of 1896 shows Park Burn and fence line with no pond, modern 1:10,000 O.S. shows Park Burn and boundary to west; taq 1826; tpq 1766. 1766-1826 but on similar line to old park boundary?

108/108 14-10-95; Prudhoe Park, Hag Bank; no boundary, road only; taq unfenced 1896, 1856, 1826, 1766; tpq 1629?, but might be old service road to Hag Bank Farm.

PRUDHOE

3/6 25-4-93; Tyneside Visitors Centre; hedge running from west side of Ovingham bridge (just north of visitor centre), running parallel with the river, to where it is dissected by the railway (1835). This area was part of Boathouse Garth (1613/29) and this hedge may be its northern boundary; 9 stints (E to W), each c. 30m. 1: H, DR; 2: H, DR, El, Ho; 4: 3; H, El; 2; 4: H, DR, EL, Hz, A, Cherry; 6; 5: H, El, Bt, Ho; 4: 6: H, El, Bt, Ho; 4: 7: H, El, Hz; 3; 8: H, El, Bt, Ho, G; 5; 9: H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); Average=3.5(3.7); Total 9(10); taq 1826, probably 1613/29, possibly 1434.

3/41 14-10-95; Prudhoe/Eltringham township boundary/Otter Burn. At the north end near where railway crosses the burn, there are two banks (B/d/e), to the west of the stream, running parallel with it, to the east of a sunken track way.

4/5 14-10-95; Eastwood; no boundary present to Eastwood Park, recreation ground. Area of slighted ridge and furrow running north-south in field no. 17; tap 1766; tpq c.1650.

5/6 14-10-95; Eastwood; bit of bank to south (or rig); 8 to O(t); 1; taq 1766, but possibly on a line of pre 1629 strip.

5/14-19 14-10-95; Eastwood, between recreation ground and golf course; 2/3/8; H, El, O(t), A(t); 4; + Lombardy poplars planted in a line to the west; taq 1849; tpq 1766. 1766-1849

7-8/30-32 14-10-95; Eastwood, Prudhoe Park Pale; drystone wall; taq 1896, 1826 (but altered since), 1629, 1245?

24-29/28=31/32-104 5-4-1995; north-east, east and south-east boundaries to Priest Close Wood; 8 mostly, ditch (D/a/elf?) feeds in and along 24-29/28, from north east; taq 1766, 1629 (part?), 1613, earlier.

30/31 5-4-95; boundary between current area of Priest Close Wood and access road to Prudhoe Hospital; 8; taq ????

98/104 5-4-95; Edge of Paddock Wood (see Priest Close Wood).
123/124-125 4-4-93; Eastern side of the Highfield; H, EL, A, O, Bb; 4(5); taq 1613/29, 1586; fourteenth-century? Mickley Field?

124/143 (a) 4-4-93 (b) 24-5-96; sub-division of sub-division of Highfield; (a) H, DR, El; 3; (b) L/a(falls N); taq 1849; tpq 1766. 1766-1849

124-125-127-142=126/127=174/175 (a) 4-4-93 (b) 24-5-96; Sub-Division of Highfield, either division by agreement, long toft, and/or prehistoric coaxial boundary in origin; 124-125-143/127-142 (a) 5 stints (? to ?), each c.30m. 1: H, DR, El, Ho; 4: 2:H, DR, Ho; 3: 3:H, El; 2: 4: H, A; 2: 5: H, A; 2; Average=2.6; Total=5; (b) D/a/d (remains on east side), B/b/e; H, A(t); 2; 126/127 (b) no hedge, slight remains of lynchet/bank; 174/175 extension of line to south, beyond, Highfield, on east side of track way to south, this element suggests boundary older than Highfield; 3/4; H; 1; taq 1629, 1613, fourteenth-century? Mickley Field; prehistoric origin??

125/126 24-5-96; Sub-division of sub-division of Highfield; removed, remains of fence line; taq 1856; tpq 1849. 1849-1856

127/130 (a) 4-4-93 (b) 8-10-94 (c) 24-5-96; Hedge at north end of Highfield, on the south side of Highfield Lane; (? area at north end was quarried at some time, but has now been restored?), a bank as the lane is sunken on the north/west side. Highfield appear on the 1629 map hardly different from its present form, except some of the sub-divisions to the west are fewer and the whole southern end has been open-cast mined and now restored to former boundary lines; 1 stint, c.30m. 1: H, DR, Bt, Ho, A, O, Broom; 7; (b) condition=7; L/c(falls north); (c) only section not quarried survives.

127/141 (a) 4-4-93 (b) 24-5-96; Sub-division of Highfield, possibly by agreement (sixteenth-century?), or long-toft?, slight reverse-S curve; (a) 5 stints (N to S), each c.30m. 1: H, DR, El, Ho; 4: 2: H, El; 2: 3: H, Ho; 2: 4: H, El, Ho; 3: 5:H, Ho; 2; Average=2.6; Total=4; (b) Ua(falls E) to B/b; taq 1613/29.

127/142 4-4-93; Sub-division of sub-division of Highfield; 1 stint, c.30m.; H, DR, El, Ho; 4; taq 1772, 1766 (but possibly straightened afterwards); tpq 1629. 1629-1766

130/129-131-132 8-10-94; north side of Highfield Lane; 8/4; lane edge taq 1766??

130/137-139-141 8-10-94; south side of Highfield Lane from Highfield House Farm entrance to opposite Edgwell Road; 10 stints (E-W), each c.30m. 1: 1; L/c; El, Ho, Bt, Hz, Bb; 4(5): 2: 3; L/b; Ho, Bt, Hz, Bb; 3(4): 3: 3; L/b; H, Bt, Bb; 2(3): 4: 3; L/a; H, El, Bb; 2(3): 5: 3; L/a; H, Ho, Bt, Bb; 3(4): 6: 3/8; H, Ho, A, Bb; 3(4): 7: 4/8; H; 1: 8: 3; H, DR, WE, A; 4: 9: 1; H, WE; 2 10 (16 paces to turn-off to cemetery (Edgwell Road)): H; 1; Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 2.9(3.1); taq 1613/29; 1629-1766

132/133 8-10-94; Edgwell Road end; H, + odd El; 2; taq 1766, possible early origin.

144/174/145 24-5-95; Nanny's Nursery; large Sy(t)'s; l; taq 1849 as shelterbelt, line 1766, see 145/146

145/146 24-5-95; Nanny's Nursery; large sycamore trees, = same as 144-174/145 (opposite side of shelterbelt); taq 1849, line (pre shelterbelt) 1781 and 1766.

146/150 24-5-95; not surveyed; taq 1849; tpq 1781. 1781-1849

150/150-152 24-5-95; L/a-b(?); H; 1; 150/152 taq 1751; 150/150 tpq 1896, but on a line taq 1766.

170/171=194/200(150/150-152?) 24-5-95; 8/4; B/b-c; (D or L?); H, DR, G; 3; taq 1766

150/152=151/152=151/169=200/203 24-5-95; 150/151=151/152 B/b; H, DR, O, Sy; 4; 151/169 2/3; D/a/e (roadside), B/b; H, DR; 2; stone gate post + nearby stone marker?; 200/203 7/8; DR, G, O, Be(t), Sy; taq 1781, 1778; tpq 1766; 1778 Enclosure Boundary.

150/151=171/173=172/173=180/189=180b/182=181/187 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 24-5-96; 150/171 (a); 3; L/b?; H; taq 1766 171/173 (a); unsurveyed; taq 1766 but altered after, or drawn simply; 172/173 (a); L/c(?), with some bolder revetment (at the west end at least); H;?; taq 1856, 1781 but altered after, or drawn simply, 1766 (ditto); 180/189 (a) east end 4/8; H; + bolder pile; mid-point 8; L/c(S); to north side of fence is a spring, in a truncated triangular pit, with a bolder revetted well head forming a step inside it. Although no connection can be seen, it must have linked to a trough and ditch feature to the south of the fence and lynchet. This consists of an arrangement of rough stones forming the trough, sunken into the ground. It is at the east end of a ditch (D/a/e) which runs parallel to the fence line, as far west as just past the end of this boundary (180/189). The east end of this ditch has an area of bolder
revetment, lining the east end. A little further to the south a ditch/spring line (D/a/e-f) can be seen flowing towards Durham Riding. This appears to have been the original line of a natural spring. West end 8; L/c(S), ending with this boundary section (180/189) and wrapping slightly round the corner to the north, along part of this lynchet is a slight flat-topped bank; at the bottom of the lynchet is a slight berm, before the ditch (D/a/e) explained above; to the south of the ditch is a bank, or up cast (B/c), and then a general grassy slope down to an unfenced wood-edge; 1896, 1781 (but with slight alterations at the west end), 1766, water collection/drainage features not shown on any map, probably Victorian; 180b/182 (a) 2/3; H, El, Sy; (b) B/c/e, D/a/d, on north side (drains into 182/187); H, Ho; 2; taq 1781, 1772 (possibly shown); tpq 1766 (not drawn on either plan); 181/187 (?); unfenced; taq 1766.

151/154-168 24-5-95; Prudhoe Hospital (formerly Prudhoe House) park/garden boundary, overgrown waste/garden; hawthorn or beech hedge, H, DR, Ho, Be, Bb; 4(3); Park belt taq 1896 (mixed wood), post 1856, boundary line taq 1856, implied 1781, taq 1778, when boundary possibly formalized, shown as western side of Back-of-the-Hill-Intack, which was created in the mid-sixteenth-century (pre 1586).

151/153 24-5-95; B/c to L/a(E); D/a/d-e (roadside); H, DR, Ho; 3; taq 1856 (ditch and hedge), 1781 (implied), 1778 enclosure hedge.

152/153 24-5-95; removed, now 8?; 1778 enclosure hedge.

153/169 24-5-95; 3/4; H, Ho; 2; 1778 enclosure hedge.

169/170 24-5-95; 2/3; D/a/e; H; 1; 1778 enclosure hedge.

170/200 24-5-95; D/a/d; H; 1; 1778 enclosure hedge

171/171 24-5-95; removed; taq 1849, tpq 1781 (but might incorporate earlier bits), 1766. 1781-1849

171/172=171/194 24-5-95; 3/4; B/b, D/a/e; H, DR, G; 3; taq 1849, post 1781 & 1766, but on a similar earlier line.

172/190a=173/180 24-5-95; 4/8; 172/190a B/b/e to c earth with medium boulders, slight D(higher up); H, Ho, + DR, O(t), Br, G (at top end); 2/6; 173/180 3/4; L/a(W7); H; + trees in past (stumps); taq 1766.

172/194 24-5-95; 3/4; L/b(S); H, +?; 1; taq 1849, west quarter 1781 & 1766, rest tpq 1781.

172/192-193 24-5-95; 3/4/8; L/b(S), D/a/d; H, Ho; 2; taq 1896, 172/192 probably earlier than 1781, 172/193 probably post 1781 but on a similar line to one pre 1781, which is pre 1766??, cottage or colliery at 193 in 1766??

173/179 24-5-95; 3/8; L/c(?), with B/b-c above; H, DR, El, Ho; 4; taq 1766.

173/174=178/180=178/180a 24-5-95; 173/174 3/4/8; L/c(S?); H; 1; 178/180 2/3/8; L/c(S) earth & bolder (revetted?), D/a-e-f slight bank above lynchet?, slight berm between lynchet and ditch in places, medium bank below ditch at east end, by gateway; H (planted in line on lynchet), DR, Ho, Bt, A(t); 5; 178/180a 3/8; L/b(?); H, Ho, A(t); 3; 178/180b 2/6/8; L/a-b(S); H, El; 2; taq ante quem all at least implied pre 1766, and possibly 1629, except 178/180b pre 1896 & post 1781, but possibly not drawn?

175/179 24-5-95; 3/8; west side of track; 3/8; H; 1; taq 1766

177/178=180/180a=180/181=187/189 24-5-95; 177/178 south end of 177 = B/b; H; 1; east side = plantation/shelterbelt; 180/180a=180/181 general 8; D/a-d-e, + boulders; 1 O(t); 1; 180/180a taq 1967, but present fence line on one removed prior to 1896 & 1849, & on a similar line to a stream pre 1766, 180/181 taq 1849, 1766 (as stream line); 187/189 wood bank (Photo); 8; B/c/d; taq 1766; tpq 1856, + 1787, 1781, 1772, 1766, but with alterations at township (west) boundary end, potentially prehistoric in origin?

178/179=180/180c=189/190a=190/190a (a) 24-5-95 (b) 24-5-96; 178/179 (a) H, DR; 2; (b) H; taq 1766; 180/180c (a) 4; D/a/e, boulder line (d?), ditch/track?; H; 1; removed pre 1896 (track crosses line), taq 1849; not shown on 1766 or 1781. 1781-1849, removed pre 1896; 189/190a=190/190a (a) track between 172 & 190/189 grassy strip with some gorse, approximately at the junction between 189/190 there is a double ditch feature feeding into 189/190; 189/190a = natural wood edge?, H, DR, Ho, Hz, O(t) low pollard, Br, GR; 7; 190/190a = denelet?/natural?, D/a/e; taq 1766 (1781 190/190a very wiggly, unfenced stream).
180a/180b = 180b/181 = 182/187 = 185/186 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 24-5-96; 180a/180b (a) 8; (b) removed; 180b/181 (b) west side of 181 wood edge; 8; B/c/e to D/a/d to not very much at all; 0; 182/187 (a) 4; bank? with D/a/e-f?; 10 O(t) on bank; 1; (b) 4 B/c/e, D/a/e (west side); O(t); 1; 185/186 (a) large denelet and wood edge, denelet continues through wood to fed into Stanley Burn (this section has a bank to the east and Hz, MA & Broom to west), there is an area of colluvial spread over surface between two sections; taq 1766, 1629?, possibly prehistoric in origin.

180a/181 24-5-95; unfenced wood edge, some scrubby oaks; 1; fenced boundary in 1896, ditto 1849 (but dog-legged), not on 1781, all wood in 1766.

182/183-186 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 24-5-96; (a) removed; 4; D/a/d-e?; remnant = H, G; 2; (b) removed; taq 1849, possibly 1781 or similar line; taq 1778.

183-186/184 24-5-95; 8, with some boulders; taq 1981, part pre 1778/1766 as line of wagon way

185/213 24-5-95; west end of 213 9; D/a/f, in wood (denelet) + some Hz; 1; north side of 213 8; 0; taq 1849; tpq 1781. 1781-1849

190/191 24-5-95; 8; taq 1896; tpq 1849 1849-1896

192/192 (east) 24-5-95; removed; D/a/f (mini denelet?); taq 1896 (unfenced) 1849, replacing wiggly line in 1781, track 1778, 1766?

192/193-194 24-5-95; 2/3/7/8; D/a/e; H, Ho, G, Bb; 3(4); taq 1766.

192/194a 24-5-95; 2/3; H, DR, 1 O(t) by gate; 3; taq 1849; tpq 1781. 1781-1849

194/194a 24-5-95; H; 1; taq 1849; tpq 1781 (with similar line nearby), 1766 1766-1781? 1849

196-197-212/214 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 18-8-97; (a) wagon way, bank to north; 3/4/8; H, + odd trees; 1+?; (b) 213/214 4; H, O(t), Birch; taq 1778, 1766, 1743. Possibly formalising an earlier track or lane to Crawcrook from Mickley (Lumley’s Lane).

201/203 24-5-95; to wall (north end); H, DR; 2; taq 1781, 1778, ?1766?, probably 1778 enclosure hedge.

208/208=209/210=210/218=211a-215a/217 24-5-95; 208/208 G; 1; taq 1967 tpq 1896, but also taq 1849 & tpq 1778 1778-1781 1849X1896-1967; 209/210=210/218 4/8; L/c(N); H, Ho, G, Bb; 3; taq 1781; tpq 1778. 1778-1781; 211a-215a/217 L/c(N); removed; taq 1781; tpq 1778. 1778-1781.

209/218 24-5-95; 8; G; 1; taq 1781; tpq 1781 1778-1781

210/211 24-5-95; 4/8; L/a, D/a/e-f; H+?; 1+?; taq 1849, 1781 (but possibly altered); tpq 1778. 1778-1781 1849

210/214=211-215/214 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 18-8-97; south side of wagon way from Mickley Moor to Crawcrook; (a) 210/214 4/8; L/a?, D/a/e-f; H+?; 1; 211-215/214 3/4/8; D/a/e-f; H, Ho, Bt, 1 O(t); 4; (b) 214/215 8; D/a/b to north; O(t), Birch(t); 2; taq 1778, 1766, 1743, possibly formalizing an earlier track or lane to Crawcrook from Mickley (Lumley’s Lane).

211/211a=215/215a 24-5-95; mineral line; removed; D/a/d-e?; taq 1967; tpq 1896. 1896-1967

211/215 24-5-95; removed; taq 1967; tpq 1896. 1849-1896

212/213 24-5-95; natural? Denelet?, growth from burn; D/a/f; H, A; 2; taq 1896, 1849 (but possibly on a different line); tpq 1781. 1781-1849? 1896

HEDLEY AND HEDLEY WOODSIDE

2/3=154/155 29-3-96; H,8,+W??; a few meter’s of rough stone walling, crossing (so older than) ditch of 2/155=3/154; taq ZB 73/4, ZB 2/7 (taq 1837), O.S. 1896; tpq 1769; Possibly follows line of strip division boundary (Broad Meadow) 1629. 1769-1837

2/155=3/154 29-3-96; 2/155 L/b(N), D/a-f (above); H + oak(t), rough stone gate post near junction with 2/3=154/155; 2; 3/154 B/c (or L?); D/a-f (above); H + DR, Bb; 2(3); taq ZB 73/4, c.1847, ZB 2/7 (pre 1837), O.S. 1896; tpq 1769 (though west end could be earlier). Crossed by 2/3=154/155 (so earlier). 1769-1837
2/233=3/234 (a) 31-5-93; (b) 24-5-96; L/b(N), (b) 2/3 H + DR, El, Bluebell (a) 2/233 7 Stints(E-W) 1: G; 1: 2: G; 1: 3: H, DR, MA, G, Bb 4(5); 4: MA, G; 2: 5: DR, A, G, Bb; 3(4); 6: DR, MA, G, Bb; 3(4); 7: G, Bb; 1(2); Total = 5(6) Average = 2(2.6): (a) 3/234 4 Stints(W-E) H, DR, Bb; H, El, Bb, Bluebell; H, DR, Bb; Total No. Species = 3(4); Average = 1.7(2.7); taq 1896 (O.S.), 1769, 1629; probably taq 13thC., 12thC. Township boundary between Hedley and Mickley

162-163/230 28-10-94; 8/4; H, Ho; 2; taq 1769, 1629, probably taq 13thC, 12thC. Township boundary between Hedley and Mickley

3/150=150/151-184=149/150 (a) 29-3-96 (b)30-3-96; 3/150 H, A(odd one), Bb; 2(3); 149/150 H, +?; 1; 150/184 Remains of drystone wall W; 150/151 ditto 150/184 (N half), then 8/4 L/a(E), G; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7), along line of similar boundary 1629 & 1769, but mostly post. Possibly a pre 13thC wood-edge in origin. ?-?1629-?1769-1837

4/6=6/7 (a) 30-3-96, (b)24-5-96; (a) 4/6 (a continuation of 6/7) 3/7 L/b broad(N) Ho, Bt, Hz, O(t),Bb; 4(5); (b) L/b-c broad(N) H, El, Ho, O(t),A(t, low pollard),Bb; 5(6); 6/7 3/4/7 B/b broad with scattered stones or L c.5m wide, H, DR, Ho, Hz, G; 5; (a) c.150m. East from junction with 4/6 & 4/7; H, Ho, O(t),G, to north is a 2m strip of grass, then D/a/d, then a B/c earth and boulder; taq 4/6 1629 (boundary to Millers Close), 6/7 not shown (or drawn). Could have early origins.

4/7=7/146=7/147=143/144=143/145=143/146=136/185 30-3-96 to 31-3-96; 4/7 north end D/a/e, B/c(broad) to L(E) 2-3m. wide, + clearance boulders; Bt, Ho, A(Bt); 4; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7); tpq 1769.1769-1837 but not part of it; 4/8; 143/145=143/146 W/c/d/e(derelict) base of drystone wall, field stone with orthostats + small stone fill; 8; 143/144 L/a-b(E) + W/c to east; a few Gooseberries at north end; 1; 136/185 (as far as kink) L/a(E); 8. Past kink L/a-b(E); 2; clearance pile of boulders (size up to 1m sq.) at south end by road; 1; taq 1769, 1629, but with possible minor alterations; 143/144 & 136/185 on line of strips of Overshef(East Field) in 1629, but probably later, taq 1769

4/147 30-3-96; 3/4; L/a(N), D/a/d to north, B/b to north of that; H, Ho, Bt, A(l); 4; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7); tpq 1769. 1769-1837 but not part of it; 4/8; 143/145=143/146 W/c/d/e(derelict) base of drystone wall, field stone with orthostats + small stone fill; 8; 143/144 L/a-b(E) + W/c to east; a few Gooseberries at north end; 1; 136/185 (as far as kink) L/a(E); 8. Past kink L/a-b(E); 2; clearance pile of boulders (size up to 1m sq.) at south end by road; 1; taq 1769, 1629, but with possible minor alterations; 143/144 & 136/185 on line of strips of Overshef(East Field) in 1629, but probably later, taq 1769

4/147 30-3-96; 3/4; L/a(N), D/a/d to north, B/b to north of that; H, Ho, Bt, A(l); 4; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7); tpq 1769. 1769-1837

4/150=146-147/150=150/151-184=144/150=145/150 29 to 30-3-96; 4/150=146-147/150 H, A; 2; 150/185=144/150=145/150 Drystone wall; taq pre 1837, tpq 1769. 1769-1837

4/235=6/235 (a) 29-3-96, (b) 24-5-96; 4/235 (a) B broad low; H, Ho; 2; (b) B/c to L/a(E) to D/a/e-f; 4; H, DR, Ho, Bt, A, Bb; 5(6); 6/235 (a) H, Ho, Hz, O(t), +?; 4+?; (b) H, Ho, Bt, O(t), A(t), Br, Bb; 6(7); taq1629. Pre 12thC.? Hedley/Mickley township boundary.

6/8 24-5-96; Gorse line between improved pasture area (6) & scrub area (8); B/b to D/a/d; 1; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7); 1896 O.S. 2nd. ed. but altered since; tpq 1769. ?1769-1837? post 1896? Formerly a boundary existed in this region c.1847.

6/190 24-5-96; Natural bluff on south bank of Stanley Burn L/c(N); H, Hz (coppice), Br, G, scrub; 4; taq c.1847 but far less straight; 1629. Natural, Hedley/Mickley township boundary.

7/139 30-3-96; 8; Gorse; 1; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7) but less straight. tpq 1767? but there was a similar earlier boundary. ?1769-1837

7/143 30-3-96; West end 4/8 L/c(N) to B/d c.1.5m high, sandstone revetment or earth & field stone; H, Ho, Hz. Curves northwards at West End junction. Mid point c.120m. from west end in slight hollow 4/8; L/c(N) c.2m high, very large sandstone revetment, large blocky boulders c.1 x 0.5 x 0.5 m. in size. One horizontal course remains insitu, + remains of second course. Probably field clearance stones in origin. H, Ho, Bt. East end L/c(N) ends at junction with 7/139 & 139/143. Lots of Ho here. Total No.
Species = 5; taq 1629; late 13thC. North boundary to Hedley’s medieval Eastfield (Aquel/Akewell Riding).

8/183-189 24-5-96; Natural bluff on south bank of Stanley Burn, L/a-c(N); taq 1629; c.1847 (but less straight); earlier than 183/189. Natural. Hedley/Mickley township boundary.

?19/34? =33/42=43/44=82/83=95/97a=95/97b=H/I=+?? (a) 25-8-95 (b) 13-9-95 (c) 18-8-97; ?19/34? In Hyons Wood (c) various possible banks and boundaries extending main line from outside wood into it, pitting and undergrowth confuses this. Further into wood along this line there is a sharp ditch; D/a/? c.1m. wide, 1.5m deep; possible banks on either side (Hz coppice, oxalis, Birch, Alder & sallow in area). Difficult to follow line through undergrowth. Further north there is a bank to the west of the ditch; O(t) some low pollarded, some clear-felled, one with oxalis growing on it; oxalis, Hz coppice, Bt, Alder, bracken, Birch(t), Bb in area; 33/42 (a) remains of boulder bank/wall, H at north end; 1; (c) north end 4; B/c; H; 1; with hollowow to east; middle 4; B/? earth & stone; with D to west and B/b to west of that; south end well laid wall base showing in track, circa. 0.65-0.8m. wide, straight faced, large blocks with infill on line of township boundary, less well made and doubtful further north, could have been gateway and collapsed wall remains; 43/44 (a) Old edge to Hedley township and Prudhoe Common; 8 (modern boundary); B/c to east of fence line, with no hedge, medium boulders + earth bank + some large boulders; + ?D/b/d?; G along both sides but not on it; (c) 8; B/c earth & bolder to east; 82/83 (a) 3/8; ?B/b, L/c; H, A, Sallow/willow+, +bracken; 3; 95/97a (a) 4; H; 1; 95/97b (b) 4/3/8; B/b; H; some stones; 1; H/I (b) 4/8; flagstone wall remains, slight bank; taq mostly pre. 1629, or pre 1769, or along similar lines; implied or actual 1586 Hedley township boundary; ?13thC.; possibly prehistoric in origin as continues into Hyons Wood. H/I is in Chopwell, Co. Durham.

21/213 18-8-97; Part of north-east boundary of Hyons Wood; 8; L/a(N), D/a/d to north in track way (Mickley to Crawcrook); 3; taq ???; tpq ????

21(216)-22/23-215-217 (a) 8-5-93 (b) 18-8-97; Eastern boundary to Hyons Wood; (a) largish woodbank; woodland edge species present include H, Ho, Hz, Br, MA, O(few c.100 yr. old, with no obvious evidence of management), Be, Bt, Bb, + ferns, honeysuckle, lesser stitchwort and wood sorrel; (b) north end 21/215 8; B/d, some stonework on corner; taq 1629. Possibly 12th/13thC, possibly much earlier as may be part of a line running north-south including boundaries; - Prudhoe 187/189=180/181=180/180a=177/178 (mainly township boundary between Prudhoe and Mickley). Hedley/Prudhoe township boundary.

30/44=42/43=42/79(south) (a)25-8-95, (b) 18-8-97; (a) L/c(N); former southern woodbank to Hyons Wood, falling down into the wood (so no good for keeping deer out, but good for keeping them in!). 18thC wagon-way along line, + remains of rails; (b) 42/79(south) 8; L/c(N), boulders slight bank B/b to south; low pollarded O(t) half way along; at junction of 42/79, 42/43 & 43/79 L/c(N), iron rail in bank, half way up, l-shaped, top 2 cm. wide, bottom 4.5 cm. wide, 4.5 cm. high; (b) 42/43 L/c(N); no fence; 1 Ho bush; 1; more rail line (more modern type?); double lynchet at east end; taq 1769; 1629. 12th/13thC?.

31/33 25-8-95; former entrance to Hyons Wood from Hyons Wood Farm; 8;

33/39/42/44? 25-8-95; Remains of Hyons Wood Farm, younger than 33/42=43/44 & 30/44=42/43; confusing groups of building & enclosure remains; Maps of farm, dating from between 1769 & 1845, show a variety of different farm layouts, both inside & outside Hyons Wood. Taq 1629; 1586; earlier?? A demesne farm.

38-42/41=42/79=area 38 18-8-97; 38-42/41 4/8; B/c earth & stone, Ditch to west; H, O; 2; 42/79 4/8; B/b, L/c(E); O(t) standard, Ho; 2; area 38 boundary in Hyons Wood, perhaps originally its west boundary, from just east of mine workings to 38/41; northend by slag heaps, west to east, L/b(E?), D/a/a-e (with oxalis 1.5m. wide, general species in area here; - A(t), Bb, DR, H, Hz, Birch(t), Honeysuckle, O, WE (nearby), Sy(t), Dogs Mercury), 8; slightly further south, still by slagheap; B/b with ditch to east; further south past slag heap; B/b with 8 to west and Denelet to east; by join with 38/41; steep scarp slope falls west (Birch, O, Sy, A, Bb in area); medieval or earlier?

41/79 18-8-97; Bank? or Lychet(S)?; H; 1; taq ???

43/43 25-8-95; 8; taq 1865 ZB 73/7; probably c.1847. Tpq 1769; 1896; ?1769-c.1847, removed between 1865-1896, replaced on old line 1896-196?
43/79 = 43-82a/82 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 18-8-97; (a) Dry flagstone wall; (b) drystone wall; taq 1896; tpq 1865
ZB 73/7 1865-1896

79/80 18-8-97; H; 1; taq ?

79/82 (a) 25-8-95; (b) 13-9-95; 3/8 H; 1; tpq 1769; taq pre 1837 but less straight; c.1847 ?1769-pre
1837? + later re-alignment.

81/82 13-9-95; 8; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769 1769-pre 1837

81/137 13-9-95; (b) 13-9-95; 3/8 H; 1; tpq pre 1769; taq pre 1837; part taq, part tpq 1769 (on older wigglier boundary, possibly the boulder bank); taq 1629. East boundary of Hedley Eastfield? so 12th/13thC origin?

82/82a = 82/43 25-8-95; 8; B/c; taq 1896; tpq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7) pre 1837-1896

82/86 (a) 25-8-95; (b) 13-9-95; 8; low drystone wall, below road bank; North side of Lead Road; enclosure road. tpq 1769; taq 1778. 1769-1800

86(179)/186 = 86(179)/187 = 86(179)/188 13-9-95; 4/8; drystone wall remnants; taq 1811? (watermark on paper); pre 1837; part pre part post 1800 & 1769; part on line of boundary taq 1629. Partly pre 1629 (13thC.? ) in origin, mostly c.1800.

96/97 25-8-95; 4; B/b; H; 1; tpq 1800; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7). Remains of hedge, formerly surrounding a shelterbelt of Pine & Ash trees (planted 1800-pre 1837); on site of bell-pits (taq 1769).

92/93 =? = 94/K-M = 95/I = 97/H (a) 23-5-93 (b) 25-8-95 (c) 13-9-95 (d) 4-3-2000; 92/93 (a)+(c) = H; ?1778? -1845-1895; 94/K-M (a) H, D/a/d to north; (c) H, D/a/d (c.2.5m wide) +B/b to north & south, earth & boulder, to south. At west end =D/a/e, B/b, H/8/3(?7?) +1 DR on north bank, 8 on south bank; 94/I-95/I = dito, double B/b + D/a/d between, + H hedge on north bank; (d) west end single ditch with hedge in middle, fence 8 to south, ditch follow round to north along 95/97; 95/I & 97/H link there is a kink in the boundary here, the width of a gate, on the line of 95/97=H/I (which is probably older) (d) 95/97 and H/I not too similar. Kink does not appear on maps until after 1845 and pre-1837, but not on 1800 or 1869, this could be due to cartographic limitations; suggests (with form differences), that 97/H is a different age; 97/H = (c) L/a-b(N) some stones in bank, + H. (b) L/a(N) at east end; west end = combined B/a & L/a(N), L faced with medium boulders; + 4/8 H; to north of 97/H & 97/98 = shallow ditch, c.1.5m wide, runs c.20m. east of junction & ??m west of it. 97/98 (b) B/b + ditch to north (see above); 3/8 H, E, A(t), +??; 3/97/98; (d) definitely not on same alignment as 95/1 etc; east end ditch fades into gateway area; , taq 1896, but on line of less formal boundary taq 1769. 94/k-M = 95/I+H/97 taq 1629, pre 13/14thC, probably pre 1154?; see notes on kink above. County boundary

97/104 = 98-99/100 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 13-9-95; 97/104 (b) B/b-c (earth & flag or quarry stone; 4H+8 to east; 98-99/100 (a) 3/8 H; taq 1800; tpq 1769 1769-1800

98/99 25-8-95; removed; taq pre 1837 (ZB 2/7); tpq 1800, dotted line in 1769. ?1769? -1800-pre 1837

98/111 25-8-95; L/a-b(S) to B/b + ?D/a/d to south, + drystone wall remnant at east end & slightly raised track; 4/8 Bt, Sy; 2; taq 1800; tpq 1769 1769-1800

98/H = 111/D = 111/H = 120/D = 121/A = 122/A (a) 23-5-93 (b) 25-8-95; 98/H (b) L/b(W), earth & small stones + some boulders showing (some tree pits?) at north end, + some revetment in west face; 4/8; H, Ho, 2; 111/D (b) B/c, with small to medium boulders; 4/8; Bt; 1; 111/H (b) L/b-c(W), boulder revetted, + large boulders and slabs, large stone gatepost with bench-mark (c.1.75m. high); 4/8; H, Bt, H; 3; 120/D (b) c.30m Stint at south end B/b, + D/a/e to west (feeding Milkwell area to south), + lots of small boulders; 4/8; El, Ho; 2; To north end B/c made up of small to medium boulders, + earth and stone revetment in the west face, set in rough courses, set diagonally from vertical, + D/a/d to west; Bt; 1; 121/A (b) 3 stints of c.5m. each + 4th of c.24m.; 1: B/c, D/b/d (to east), + stones in bank, large boulders. Bank c.4m. wide, + c.2m either side of rough, before D/a/d on both side, + boulders; 3/7; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 2: B/c, D/b/d, + slab set up on bank (c.90cm. wide X c.6cm. thick, with c.30cm. showing above ground); 3(7); H, DR, Ho (mostly); 3(7); B/c, D/b/d, + c.2m wide bank, with c.3m. of rough either side, + D/b/d-e, + more slabs; 3/7; H, Ho (mostly), Bb; 2(3); 4: 3/7; H, MA; 2; North end 4; H only; big gap from the end of stint 4, to near the end/junction, gap shows B/c (to d?), + D/b/d-e, + few boulders; total=4(5); Average = 2.5(3); 121/D L(E), + B; 8; 122/A (a) H, Bt, Sy, O, MA; 5; (b) 6 stints each of c.30m. + 7th of c.30m. +; 1: B/c (some very large boulders forming a revetment on the
east side); 3/8; Bt, Sy(t) large; 2; 2: B/c, D? to east; 3/7/8; H, DR, Hz, Bt, Sy, MA(t); 6; 3: stone revetment (east); 3/7/8; H, Ho, Sy(t), MA(t), Bb; 4(5); 4: B/c, ?D/a/d (to east); 4/7/8; DR, Bt, Ho, Sy(t), O(t), Bb; 5(6); 5: B/c-?d; 4/7/8; DR, Ho, O(t), Bb; 3(4); 6: B/c, + D/a/d, + revetment; 3/7/8; H, DR, Bt, Ho (mostly), Bb; 4(5); 7: B/c, ?D/a/d, revetment?; 3/7/8; H, Bt, Ho, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 8(9). 

Average = 3.8(4.5): taq 1629, mid 12thC; County/Parish/Township Boundary between Co. Durham and Northumberland, Ravenside Dyke.

104/106 13-9-95; no hedge, B/b; boundary inset from lane to Airey Hill, at west end of plantation; taq 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800

106/112 13-9-95; H only, east boundary to lane to Airey Hill, at west end of plantation. A perpetration; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1800; dotted line in position on 1769. ? 1769-1800

107-132/133-134=133/134 13-9-95; 107-132/133-134 H; 133/134 removed post 1967; taq pre-1837; parts tpq 1800; parts shown as a line crossing older (removed) boundaries in 1769, so possibly proposed at time. ?1769?-pre 1837

107-134/135 13-9-95; H; taq 1800; before 1769 there was a wiggly boundary here, which was taq 1629, possibly pre 13thC. in origin.

111/120 25-8-95; L/b(S) + drystone flagstone wall.; 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800

112/135 13-9-95; H, west side of lane to Airey Hill; taq 1800; tpq 1769 (but dotted line shown, so possibly unfenced). ?1769-1800

116/117 14-5-94; 3, H; taq 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800

116/129 14-5-94; 4, H; taq 1800. 1769-1800

116/130=117/129=126/127=126/247-248 14-5-94; 116/130=117/129 = W/g, B/b/e, + little 4, H; taq 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800; 126/127 Hedley Woodside W, B/b/g, + 4 H at north end; taq 1767; tpq 1629; 1629-1676; 126/247-248 Hedley Woodside B/b/e(c.4m. wide), 3, 7/8-5/6, H, Ho; 2; taq 1811 (but pencil line), 1800 (but dotted), 1767; ?taq/?tpq? 1629 ?1629?-?1800?

116/132 14-5-94; 2, H; taq 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800

117/118=125/126 14-5-94; 8, 4, H; 117/118 taq 1800; tpq 1769. 1769-1800 125/126 in Hedley Woodside taq 1896, 1845 (but straightened afterwards), 1629 as less straight line. -?1629-1845-1896

117/126=118/25=119/25=120/121=120/124=127/129=128/129 (a)14-5-94 (b)23-5-93 (c)25-8-95; 117/126 (a) B/b, 4, 8, H; 1; 118/125 (b) H, DR, EL, Hz, A, MA, Bb; 6(7); 119/124 (b) H, O, Be, Ho, O(t) 1 large, Be(t) 3 large; 4; (see also below); 120/124 no data; 127/129 (a) B/b/e?, 4, 8, H; 128/129 (a) B/b, 4, 8, H. Date taq 1629. Township boundary between Hedley and Hedley Woodside, dating from 15th or 16thC's. Additional (c) To the south of the east end of 120/121, is a small enclosure, running alongside the Ravenside Dyke (County Boundary). A barbed wire fence (8), surrounds an area of earthworks. Immediately inside the fence line, along the west and south sides, are the remains of a drystone wall (field- or free-stone), forming a revetment at the southern end of the enclosure. There is a bank (B) above the southern revetment, and a ditch runs north-south, alongside the bank (B/b-c) of the Ravenside Dyke; within these features is a platform. There is a sycamore tree (Sy) at the south-west corner and an oak tree (O) at the north-west corner. This enclosure appears to been the source (spring) of the Milkwell Burn, and this may have been somekind of reservoir. Date No structure is detailed on any maps, but the enclosure has a taq of pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); well shown pre 1800, with spring and burn shown clearly on maps of 1767 and 1629. 1800-pre 1837

129/130 14-5-94; 3, H; taq 1800; tpq 1769 (but possibly on the line of an earlier less straight boundary). ?1769-1800

130/132=130/215 14-5-94; 130/132 B/b/d, D/a/b, 2, H, DR, Ho; 3; 130/215 2, H; taq 1800; ?tpq 1769, but possibly new or proposed then, as line shown crossing earlier boundaries. ?1769-1800

132/133 14-5-94; D/a/e, 2, H; taq pre 1837; tpq 1800. 1800-pre 1837

tpq 1769. 188/212 taq 1896; northern third tpq 1845; southern two thirds taq 1845; tpq 1769; generally 1769-1800, part 1845-1896

134-213/188=212/214 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 13-9-95; 4, 1, 8, H; 134-213/188 taq 1845, 1800 (but altered since), line more or less taq 1629, as southern edge of Dean Lands, Quarry Field, but perhaps once part of East Field; 212/214 taq mostly 1845, stream line in 1769, line more or less taq 1629 as south boundary to Quarry Field. Both parts basically pre 13thC in origin, but altered or replanted in 19thC.

136/136 31-3-96; L/a(N), 8; modern fence, post 1896, but on similar line to one in c.1847.

136/143=144/185 30-3-96; 136/143 L/a(N), 8; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769. 1769-pre 1837; 144/185 W/c remains of wall base, with orthostats & flagstones becoming a revetment (L/b) in places; L/a(N) above wall; taq 1769, ?1629 (as boundary between Wheat Close & Middle Shef (East Field)), possibly medieval.

139/143 30-3-96; B/b-L/a, 2, H; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769 1769-pre 1837

144/145 30-3-96; L/a(N), B/b, 6/8, H, +?; taq 1896, pre 1837; tpq c.1847, 1769. 1769-pre 1837 ...

145/146 30-3-96; L/b(N), 4/8, H, El; taq pre 1837; tpq 1768. 1769-1837

148/154 29-3-96; East-west section L/b(N), 4/8, H, O(t); 2; North-south section H, Ho, O(t); 3; taq 1896, ?1769, ?1629.

162/163 28-10-94; H; taq 1896; tpq 1845. 1845-1896

163/167 28-10-94; interesting mixed hedge; 1769, 1629, north part possibly the edge of St. Mary's Meadow, therefore pre late 13thC.

165/169=247/252 14-5-94; 165/169 H, DR, El, A; 4; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769. 1769-pre 1837; 247/252 Mickley L/b(W) + boulders in lane, 7, H, El, A; 3; South side of lane to West Riding, Hedley, from Ridley; dating from the enclosure of Mickley Common (1816); tpq 1769.1816

165/174=165/175 14-5-94; 165/174 2; H (besides holiday); 165/175 6 Stints (south-east to north-west), c.30m each. 1: L/b; 2; H; 2: L/c; 2; H, Bb; 3: L/c; 3; H, Bb; 4: L/c; 3; H, DR, Bb; 5: L/c; 3; H, DR, Bb; 6: L/c; 3; H, DR, Bb; 2(3) total=2(3); Average 1.5(2.3); taq pre 1837; tpq 1769 (except parts shown as dotted line). ?1769-pre 1837

165/176-177 14-5-94; ?D/a/d-e, 2/4; 6 Stints (? to ?), c.30m. each. 1: H, Sy, Bb; 2: H, DR, Bt, Sy; 3: H, DR, Bt, Sy; 4: H, DR, Bt, Sy; 5: H, DR, Bt, Sy; 6: H, DR, Bt, Sy; 4(5); total=4(5); Average 3.7(3.8); taq 1896, 1845 (tithe) but alterations afterwards. In earlier form taq 1769; tpq 1629? ?1629-1769 ...

168/245=169-200/252 14-5-94; 168/245 D/a/d; 7/8; H, El, Bb; 2(3); 169-200/252 3; H, DR, A(t); 3; taq 1816 (enclosure plan); tpq 1769 (but dotted line shown for part. Township boundary between Hedley and Mickley probably dating from 1816 enclosure of Mickley Common, when it formed part of the Hedley East Private Carriage Road. Possibly there was a pre existing track here across common as this is a continuation of Modigar's Lane. 168/245 = edge of Mickley Common in 1816. Area 252 was part of Broomley in 1842 (tithe). =167/288=168/228-243.

169/170 14-5-94; 3; H; taq 1816; tpq 1769. 1769-1816

172-173/174 14-5-94; 6; H; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769. 1769-pre 1837

175/179=179/197=179/198 14-5-94 (b) 13-5-95; 175/179 (a) 2; H, Bb; 1(2); 179/197 (b) Ground falls away from road, probably H, possibly El & Sy; 179/198 (b) north-east to south-west 3; H, El, Sy; to where lane turns north-north-west, then L/b-c; 2/6; H, DR, G, Bb; further west becomes H, DR, Bt, Sy; 5(6); At west-end where it meets lane to West Riding Farm, H, El, Bb, +?; 2+?3(?); East of gateway H, El; 2; taq pre 1837; tpq 1769, 1629, mostly, but also possibly includes sections of West Moor Riding.

177/179 14-5-94; D/a?d-e; 3; H (single line), A(t), Sy(t); 3; taq 1769; tpq 1629. 1629-1769

179/185 31-3-96; Drystone wall; west part taq 1847, 18117 (water mark on paper), 1800 (at least in part); tpq 1769; east part taq 1769, 1629. ?-1629-1769-1800-1847
179/195=179/196=179/205 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 13-9-95; 179/195 (a) 2; H; 179/196 (b) L(bank rising up from road); H, A, Be, Bb, +?, 3(4)+?; 179/205 (b) H, DR, W(1 only); 3; taq pre 1837, ?1769? (unfenced track edge); tpq 1629. ?1769-pre 1837 179-201 13-9-95; Ground falls away steeply to north-west at east end; 2; H, DR, El, Bt; 4; taq pre 1837; tpq 1629, 1769 (but shown as a dotted line as unfenced road). Additional immediately to the north-west is another boundary, with gap (gateway?) at west end; Earth bank; H; tpq pre 1837. 179/203 13-9-95; At east end, forms an awkward join with 203/205, running parallel with it, from 179/205; low drystone (quarry- & flag-stone) wall; 8; Further west away from 203/205, L/c(bank rising up from road); DR, Hz, + ferns; 2; West-end L/c(as above) + stone revetment, in courses, set diagonally; 3/4/6/8; H, El, Cherry sp.; 3; taq 1769, almost certainly line pre 1629, probably a wood edge (of West Riding Wood), older than 179/195=179/196=179/205, an assart of West Ridding Wood. 179/388 13-9-95; H, DR; 2; taq pre. 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1769 (but shown as a dotted line, so there but unfenced?), 1629. 1629-?1769?-pre 1837 179/389 13-9-95; W, Drystone wall remains; 4; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7), 1769 (at least in part, but altered afterwards), line pre 1629. 186/187 13-5-95; Drystone wall; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1800. 1800-pre 1837 187/188 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 13-5-95; W/b/g; taq 1847; tpq mostly post 1845 (tithe)?, pre-1837 (Z/B 2/7). pre 1837-1845-1847 187-189 14-5-94; W/b/g; taq 1845 (tithe); tpq pre 1837; possibly on an earlier, similar line. ?pre 1837-1845 188/213 14-5-94; 8; taq 1845 (tithe), 1800 (but altered after), line taq 1769 & 1629?, as south boundary of Quarryfield (pre late 13thC?). ?pre late 13thC?-1800-1845 190/191 14-5-94; Hedley Village Back Lane South, a mix of quarrystone walling, walling and mixed hedges; taq 1800; tpq 1769?, 1629? ?1769-1800 194-206/195-196 13-9-95; 4/8 to 8 to 3/4 (east to west); H; 1; taq pre 1847 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1769. 1629-1837 195/196 13-9-95; 8; taq 1896, line partly pre 1845 (tithe); tpq c.1850, 1769. ?1769-?1845-c.1850-1896 196/205 13-9-95; Hedge to the east of track to Hedley Grange 4?/8; H, G scrub; 2; West side of track 8; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1769. 1769-pre 1837 197/198 13-9-95; H, + A(t) near road; 2; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1629. 1769-pre 1837 198/201 13-9-95; Track to West Riding Farm, east-side L/c(W), earth & stone revetment at base; H, El, Bb, +?; 2+?(3+?); West-side Ground falls steeply to north-west, as natural slope, with scrub of H, DR, Ho, G, Br, SP, Bb. No actual hedge; Track taq 1845 (tithe); tpq 1837 (Z/B 2/7). Pre 1837-1845. East side taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7), 1769 (in part); tpq 1629. 1629-?1769-pre-1837 203/205 13-9-95; L/b; drystone + earth & stone revetment, stones in courses, set close to vertically; 3; H; taq 1769, 1629? (probably). 225/228 13-9-95; 8; taq pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7); tpq 1769 (or possibly part before), 1629. A wood hag/parcel boundary?, perhaps not recorded earlier?? ?1769-pre 1837 225/389 13-9-95; Hedley/Apperley-Ovingham/Bywell township/parish boundary. The west edge of West Riding Wood [Wood here consists of a steep woody slope/bank, with scots pine (planted), ash, hazel, apple, oak, DR, Bb. Between the track and wood edge is an area of mixed wood, of oak (trees, some large), holly, ash?, mountain ash, Bb. What looks like a boundary bank to the wood is probably some kind of wagon-way/ mineral line, as it ends abruptly. Also it is made up of colliery waste, and there are no large trees on it. Actual boundary just a barbed wire fence (8); taq 1629. 12thC.?-1629 226-227/228-229 13-9-95; L/b-a(S); 3/4/8; taq c.1850 (but 226/228 probably later than 227/228), pre 1837 (Z/B 2/7), ?1769 (more likely later?); tpq 1629 (but part possibly earlier as south side of Greensyde Flatt).
HEDLEY-WOODSIDE/CHOPWELL

122/263=123/263=249/250=A/B=B/E-F-G=B/M-N North side of lane from Labourn's Fell to Ravenside, + presumed extension of line to Woodhead Farm (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94, (c) 25-8-95; A/B (a) 8 stints (W to E), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, Ho, Sy, Aspen, Bb; 5(6); 2: H, Ho, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, DR, Bt, Ho, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 4: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, MA, Aspen, Bb; 7(8); 5: H, DR, Bt, Ho, O, MA, Sallow, Aspen, G; 9; 6: H, DR, Bt, Ho, Sallow, Aspen, G; 7(8); 7: H, DR, Ho, Aspen, Bb; 4(5); 8: H, DR, El, Ho, Sallow, Aspen, Larch, Bb; 7(8); Total No. Species = 13(14); Average = 6.1(7); B/E-F-G (a) 20 stints (west to east), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, O, MA, Current, Larch, SP, Bb; 10(11); 2: H, DR, A, MA, Sallow (2 species), SP, Bb; 7(8); 3: H, DR, A, Sy, Sallow; 5; 4: H, DR, Ho, Hz, A, Sy, Sallow, Bb; 7(8); 5: H, DR, Bt, Hz, Sy, O, G, SP, Bb; 8(9); 6: H, DR, Sy, O, G, SP, Bb; 7(8); 7: H, DR, Ho; 3; 8: H, DR, Bt, Ho, O, G, Bb; 6(7); 9: H, DR, Bt, O, G, Bb; 5(6); 10: H, DR, A, G, Bb; 4(5); 11: H, DR, O, SP, Bb; 4(5); 12: H, DR, A, Br, SP, Bb; 5(6); 13: H, DR, SP, Bb; 3(4); 14: H, DR, O, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); 15: H, DR, Sy, Br, G; 5; 16: H, DR, G, Bb; 8(9); 17: H, DR, G, Bb; 7(8); 18: H, DR, Bb; 3(4); 19: H, DR, G, Bb; 3(4); 20: H, DR, G, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 17(18); Average = 4.9(5.8); B/M-N 3 Stints (w to e), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 2: H, DR, El, Garden Sp., Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, Snowberry, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 5(6). Average = 3(4). North side of lane to Ravenside from crossroads. 122/263 (a) 4 stints (w to e), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 2: H, DR, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, GR, A; 4; 4: H, Sy; 2; Total No. Species = 6(7). Average = 2.8(3). (b) 3; (c) Bank. 123/263 (a) 4 stints (w to e), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, A, Ho, Bb; 4(5); 2: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 3: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 4(5). (b) L/e-a; Average = 2.5(3.5); North side of lane from crossroads to Hollins Farm. 249/250 (b) 11 stints (e to w), each c.30m; 1: L/e; 3/4/8; H, DR, A; 3; 2: L/e; 4/8; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 3: L/e; 3/4/8; H, DR, Ho(t), A, Bb; 4(5); 4: L/e; 3/4/8; H, DR, Ho(t); 3; 5: L/e-b; 3/4; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 6: L/e-b; 3/4; H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); 7: B/b; 3; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 8: L/a-b; 2/3; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 9: H, DR; 2; 10: H, DR; 2; 11: L/b; 2; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 4(5); Average = 2.5(3.2); A/B=B/E-F-G=B/M-N tag 1766, 1721 (as line, but not in detail), not shown on 1629, but as Ravenside farm and other features not shown were in existence, so probably was lane), probably pre mid-12thC? 123/263=122/263 tag 1767, 1766 (route shown), 1629 (boundary shown? but not lane to Ravenside); mid 12thC? (see above). 249/250 tag 1896, 1805, 1767 (east half), 1629? (east half); tpq West half 1800?

TEMPORARY LETTERS

A/D Ravenside 25-8-95; 4/8; H+?; taq ?
A/E Chopwell Ravenside (a) 23-5-94 (b) 25-8-95; (a) H, Ho, A; 3; (b) L(E); 4/8; H, Ho; 2; Date
C/O Chopwell Ravenside 23-5-94; H, A; 2; Date ?
D/E Chopwell Ravenside 25-8-95; 4/8; H+?; 1; Date ?
D/H Chopwell Ravenside L/a(S); 4/8; Date ?
J/N-J/K Chopwell Ravenside (a) 23-5-93 (b) 13-9-95; (a) H, G; 2; (b) 4, H; Date ?
M/N Chopwell Ravenside (a) 23-5-93 (b) 13-9-95; (a) 8; (b) 8; Date ?
P/O Chopwell Ravenside 23-5-93; H, Ho, A; 3; Date ?
P/Q Chopwell Ravenside 23-5-93; H, El; 2; Date ?
V/W Chopwell Ravenside 23-5-93; Date 3/8; H; Date ?

68-86/W-V=90/U=92A/T=B/C=B/P=B/R-Q=B/S=250/251=250/262=263/264 County Boundary from Leadgate to Labourn's Fell; south side of land from Labourn's Fell to Ravenside; south side of lane from Ravenside to Woodhead Farm. (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94 (c) 13-9-95; 68-86/W-V 63/W County Boundary, Leadgate (going east), south of Lead Road and Leadgate Plantation. Possibly a wide shallow ditch to the north of the boundary, which could be a hollow-way. Boundary = a drystone wall (& earth bank?), c.90cm. high. Lots of lichen, (+ moss & ferns on north side) = long undisturbed

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stones. Consists of medium to largish rough field or quarry stone; rough flatish courses; 8; Couple of odd shrubby trees, e.g. O(t), MA, A, G, Br, Bb, + bilberry and bracken [reflecting former heathland plant communities, as well as plantations?]; 5(6); Further west the road dips down and is semi-sunken with a large rising bank between bank/lynchet between road and boundary; 86/V An area of scrubby heathery trees and shrubs; Br, MA, G, Be, Broom, SP, Bb, + Bracken, Bilberry; 6(7); Part pine plantation. Boundary (as above with wide shallow ditch (or sunken road) to the north, c.3m. wide, wall c.1m. high, signs of shallow quarrying in area; Date taq 1846 (for plantation), 1721, 1629, 1586, mid 12thC. Wagon-way along this line late 17thC? to 18thC; 90/V County/Township/Parish Boundary, Labourn's Fell Old boundary from Labourn's Fell to Lead Gate; (a) 23-5-93 (b) 13-9-95; (b) Low bank c.75cm. high, with a slight ditch on the north side, the hedge remains are sparse and outgrown; H, Bt, MA; 3; (b) Wooded boundary at east end, drystone wall, looking same further west; only a few remnant trees and shrubs; MA, Ho; 2; Date see above; 92a/T County/Township/Parish Boundary, Labourn's Fell. Older of two boundaries from where Labourn's/Ravenside Lane diverges from direct line to Leagade; Bank with a ditch in places; ends as a drystone wall & starts c.30m from new boundary 92a/91; 5 stints, (n-e to s-w), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, El, Ho, G, Bb; 5(6); 2: H, D, A, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, Sy; 3; 4: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 5: H, DR, B, G, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, B; 2; 7: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 8: H, DR, Sallow, Bb; 2(3); 9: H, DR, B, Sallow; 2(3); 1: DR, A, Sy; 3; 2: DR, A, S, MA; 4; 3: A, Sy, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); 5: DR, Sallow, Bb; 2(3); 6: Sallow, Bb; (12); 7: H, DR, El, Bt, H, A, MA, Sallow, Bb; 8(9); 8: Bt, Ho, H, MA, Bt, Sallow (3 species, Bb; 8(9); 9: H, DR, El, Ho, H, Sy, Sallow; 7: 10: H, DR, Ho, A, O; 5; Total No. Species = 14(15) Average = 4.2(4.8); taq 1721; B/P Continuation of same; 23-5-93 12 stints each c.30m.; (s-w to n-e); 1: H, DR, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 2: H, DR, A, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, Sy; 3; 4: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 5: H, DR, B, G, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, B; 2; 7: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 8: H, DR, A, Bb; 4(5); 9: H, DR, B, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); 10: H, DR, B; 2; 11: H, DR, El, Br, G, Bb; 5(6); 11: H, DR, A, MA, Br, Sallow, G, Bb; 7(8); 12: H, DR, A, B; 4; Total No. Species = 11(12) Average = 3.8(4.5); Date see above; B/C Chopwell. Southside of lane from Ravenside Farm to Labourn's Fell; 23-5-93; 10 Stints (s-w to n-e), each c.30m.; stints 1 to 6 = drystone wall with scraggy hedge, stints 7 to 10 = hedge; 1: DR, A, Sy; 3; 2: DR, A, S, MA; 4; 3: A, Sy, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, Ho, Bb; 2(3); 5: DR, Sallow, Bb; 2(3); 6: Sallow, Bb; (12); 7: H, DR, El, Bt, H, A, MA, Sallow, Bb; 8(9); 8: Bt, Ho, H, MA, Bt, Sallow (3 species, Bb; 8(9); 9: H, DR, El, Ho, H, Sy, Sallow; 7: 10: H, DR, Ho, A, O; 5; Total No. Species = 14(15) Average = 4.2(4.8); taq 1721; B/P Continuation of same; 23-5-93 12 stints each c.30m.; (s-w to n-e); 1: H, DR, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 2: H, DR, A, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, Sy; 3; 4: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 5: H, DR, B, G, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, B; 2; 7: H, DR, A, Sy; 4; 8: H, DR, A, Bb; 4(5); 9: H, DR, B, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); 10: H, DR, B; 2; 11: H, DR, El, Br, G, Bb; 5(6); 11: H, DR, A, MA, Br, Sallow, G, Bb; 7(8); 12: H, DR, A, B; 4; Total No. Species = 11(12) Average = 3.8(4.5); Date see above; B/R-Q Continuation of above lane; from east end of this section, the ditch on the north side of the lane becomes more obvious and wetter, with running water. Towards the west end of this section the ditch on the south side of the lane, becomes a small and winding burn. 14 stints, each c.30m., (s-w to n-e); 1: H, DR, Br, Sallow, Aspen; 5; 2: H, DR, Br, Sallow, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, DR, Sallow (2 species); G; 5; 4: H, DR, Br, Sallow, Aspen; 5; 5: DR, Bt, Br, G; 4; 6: H, DR, Bt, A; 4; 7: H, DR, A; 3; 8: H, Bt, A; 3; 9: H, Bt, A, Bb; 3(4); 10: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 11: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 12: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 13: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 14: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 9(10) Average = 3.4(4); There are also some odd Bluebells, violets, primroses, and shuttle-cock ferns, concentrating around stilt 8; B/S Chopwell/Bowser's Hole. Continuation of above lane; south side of track to Bowser's Hole; 23-5-93; The ditch to the north ends briefly here, until after track running south to Bowser's Hole. 4 stints (n-e to s-w), each c.30m; All H, DR, Bb, except for stilt 4 (no DR); Total No. Species = 2(3) Average = 1.75(2.75); Date see above; 250/251 South side of lane to Hollins from Ravenside cross-roads; a continuation of the line forming the south side of the lane to Lead Gate; 14-5-94; 7 stints (e to w), each c.30m.; 1: 2; H, DR, Ho, MA, Bb; 4(5); 2: 2; B/b; H, DR, Bt, Ho; 4; 3: 2; L/a; H, DR, Ho; 3; 4: 2; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 5: 2; H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 6: 3; L/a; H, DR, Ho; 3; 7: 3; L/a; Wb/t; Bt; 1: Total No. Species =5(6) Average without stilt 7 = 3.2(3.6); taq 1811; tpq 1805, South side of a small green in 1767, which may have provided some of the hedging material; 1805-1811; 250/262 Eastward continuation of 250/251, to crossroads; (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94; (a) sample only east end; H, DR, Ho, Apple and/or pear (2 species); L/a; 5; (b) 5 stints (e to w), each c.30m.; 1: 3; B/d; El, Ho(t), A(t), Apple/pear(t); 5; 2: 3; B/d-b, E; H(t), DR, Ho(t), Hz(t); 4; 3: 3; L/a; H(t), El, Ho(t), Apple/pear (t); 2 species; 5: 3; L/a-B; H, DR, El, H(t), A(t), Apple/pear; 6; 5: End of bank; H, Ho(t), A(t), Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 8(9); Average = 4.6(4.8); taq 1629; 263/264 South side of lane from crossroads to Ravenside, continuation of line between Woodhead and Leadgate; 14-5-94; L/b(S); 6 stints (e-w), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, A; 3; 2: H, DR, 2; 3: H, DR, Current; 3: 4: H, DR, 2; 5: H, DR, Ho; 3; 6: H, DR, A; 3; Total No. Species = 5 Average = 2.7 taq 1767; tpq 1629.
HEDLEY WOODSIDE

91/92a Labourn’s Fell boundary to the north-west of an apparently older one both running beside the south side of the lane from Labourn’s Fell to Ravenside; 23-5-93; Ends c.30m after the older boundary (92a/T). From the end of this there starts a deep ditch on the south side of the lane, with running water; 5 stints each c.30m. (n-e to s-w); 1; 2; 3; 3; 4; 5; H, Be, current; 4; Average = 1.2; North side of wagon way taq 1721, 1845 (tithe); tpq 1800 for actual boundary. 1800-1845

24/218 24-5-95 Hedley Woodside/Prudhoe township boundary. High Moor 8; G; Enclosure boundary from 1778. 1778

49-72/71 13-9-95; Westside of former engine road on High Moor Fell; 4; Drystone wall; taq 1778, probably enclosure boundary of that date, or earlier. 1778

49/72 13-9-95; 4; H; taq 1800; tpq 1778-1800

52/70=67/69 13-9-95; West boundary to Leadgate Plantation; 8 only; taq 1800; tpq 1778. 1778-1800

69/70 13-9-95; Hedley Fell area; 3/4; H; 1778 enclosure plan. 1778

60-70/71 13-9-95; High Moor Engine Road east side; 8 at south end to drystone wall; taq 1778, of that date or slightly? earlier.

69/86 13-9-95; Rough drystone wall; taq 1778.

72/75 13-9-95; Slight bank; Wall 4/8; H; taq 1800. 1778-1800

75/86=86/87 13-9-95; North side of Lead Road, Currick Hill; 8; 86/87 H only; 1778, probably enclosure period formalisation of road. Currick Hill Farm taq 1845; tpq 1800. 1778?

86/90=86/97=86/104 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 13-9-95 South side of Lead Road from Holgate to Leadgate; 86/90 (b) Rough stone wall; 86/94 H; 86/97 (a) 3/4/8; H; (b) 2; H; (b) B/b; 3/4/8; H, DR; Be; 86/90=86/94 1778 enclosure road. 86/97=86/104 taq 1778; tpq 1769. 1778

90/91 (a) 23-5-93 (b) 13-9-95; Drystone wall, + Bt at south end; taq 1800; tpq 1793, possibly altered between 1778 and 1800. 1793-1800

91/92 (a) 23-5-93 (b) 13-9-95; Drystone wall; taq 1800; tpq 1793. 1793-1800

91/93 23-5-93; Labourn’s Fell Farm 4; Drystone wall; + few DR, Ho, Larch, Bb; 4; taq 1629.

92/94 13-9-95; Hedley Fell abutting county boundary; H only; taq 1800; tpq 1778. 1778-1800

94/94 13-9-95; Hedley Fell abutting county boundary; H only; taq 1961/2; tpq 1896. 1896-1961/2

94/95 13-9-95; Hedley Fell abutting county boundary; B/b visibly later than county boundary ditch; H (probably); taq 1800; tpq 1778-1800

112/123-124=264-265/268=266/268 (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94; East side of Lead Lane from Airey Hill to junction to Hollins Farm. 112/123-124 (a) 19 stints (n to s) from Airey Hill Quarry (1st 9 = 112/124); 1: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 2: H, DR, El, Ho, MA, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, Ho, MA, Bb; 3(4); 4: H, DR, MA; 3: 5: H, DR, MA, Bb; 3(4); 6: DR, A; 2; 7: H, A; 2; 8: H, DR, A; 3; 9: H, DR, MA; 3; 10: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 11: H, DR, Bb; 2(3): 12: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 13: DR, Bt, Bb; 2(3); 14: H, DR, Bb; 3(4); 15: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 16: DR, Bb; 2(3); 17: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 18: DR; 1; 19: DR, Sy, Bb; 2(3). Total No. Species = 8(9). Average = 2.5(3.1); (b) 112/123 L/c; 264-265/268 Lane is a hollow-way here (a) 7 stints (n to s), each c.30m, to junction with 265/266; 1: H, DR, Bt, A, Bb; 4(5); 2: DR, Bt, MA, Bb; 3(4); 3: H, DR, Bt, White Willow, Bb; 4(5); 4: DR, Bt, Bb; 2(3); 5: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 6: 8; Bb; 0(1); 7: 8; Bb; 0(1); Total No. Species = 6(7); Average = 3(4); (b) L/c; 4; bluebells on corner (stint 1);

266/268 (a) from gate at junction with 265/266 to corner opposite track to Hollins Farm; 5 stints (n to s), each c.30m., last fence only (not in count); 1: H, DR, Bt, G, Bb; 4(5); 2: DR, G, Bb; 2(3); 3: H, DR, MA, Bb; 4(5); 4: H, DR, G, Broom, Bb; 4(5); 5: 8; Bb; 0; Total No. Species = 6(7); Average 3.2(4.2); (b) B/b to L/c; taq 1767; tpq 1629 (but generally lanes not shown). 1629-1767

112/125-249=262/268 (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94; West side of Lead Lane 112/125-249 (a) 10 stints (s to n, from crossroads), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, Bt, A; 4; 2: H, DR, A; 3; 3: H, DR, 2; 4: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 5: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 6: H, DR; 2; 7: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 8: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 9: H, DR; 10: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 4(5); Average = 2.4(2.9); (b) L/c; taq 1767; tpq 1629; 1629-1767
262/268 (a) 10 stints (n to s, from Hollins Farm turn off to crossroads), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, Bt, Hz; 4: H, DR, Bt, Hz, White Willow; 5: H, DR, Bt, MA; 4: H, DR, Bt; 3: H, DR, Bt, Sallow; 6 + 7, 8 & 9: H, DR, Bt; 3: H, DR, Bt, A; 4: Total No. Species = 8; Average = 3.6; (b) L/c(E) to L/a to L/c to L/a; taq 1629 but slightly altered between 1811 & 1845.

121/122=123/124 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 4-11-95; 121/122 (a) L? (S); H, DR; 2; 123/124 (b) B/c to L/a(S); 4/8; H; 1; taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

121/124=122/123 (a) 23-5-93 (b) 14-5-94 (c) 25-8-95; 121/124 (c) 4; H, A(t), Sy(t); 3; 122/123 (a) H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); (b) B/b; (c) B (south end), L(E) at north end; Sy(t); taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

127/128 14-5-94; B/b 4/7/8; taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

127/234-245 14-5-94; B/b; 4/7/8; taq 1767, probably cut back from earlier wood edge as earlier than 242/254.

127/247 14-5-94; enclosure to the north of Woodhead Farm; B/b/e (4m. wide); 6/8; H, G; 2; taq 1767.

235/243 13-9-95; 4/3; H; taq 1811; tpq 1767. 1767-1811

242/243 13-9-95; Northern edge of Paddock Wood; 7; H, Ho, Bb; taq 1629, probably cut back from earlier wood edge as earlier than 242/254.

242/254 13-9-95; South-east boundary to Paddock Wood; 8; taq 1629, probably pre 1629.

243/244 14-5-94; 4/8; taq 1896, part pre 1811; tpq 1767, part post 1848. 1767-1811? -1848-1896

243-244/252 13-9-95; L/b-c(?); 4/8; with trees; taq 1896, realigned post 1848, line pre 1629.

243/254 13-9-95; L(S), /a at west end, /b in middle (with medium to large boulder revetment in one course), L/c at east end (with revetment, stone courses set either diagonally or herring-bone); 3/6/7; H, DR, Ho, O(t); taq 1629, older than 242/254, probably was formerly continued to form an earlier northern boundary to Paddock Wood.

247/248 14-5-94; 3/7; H, A(t), O(t); 3; taq 1845, double pencil line 1811, dotted line 1800, 1767, possibly pre 1629 strip division.

251/252=252/262 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 8-11-96; 251/252 (a) 4; (b) in two parts, probably of one origin; east-west section, L/a(S); 4/8; H, Ho, A(t), Sy(t); 4; north-south section, 4/8; H, Ho; 2; possible remains from the division of a small common field (pre 16thC?); or wood assart?; taq 1629?, 1767, slight alterations? post 1805?; 252/262 (a) 4/8; (b) L/a(E) at south end; taq 1677 1629?, strip division??

251/262 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 8-11-96; (a) 3/4/8; H, Ho, S(t); 3; (b) north-south section, B/c to L/a(E), D/a/b to east; H, Ho, A(t) at junction of two sections); 3; taq 1629; east-west section, L/b(S), + boulders? & D/a/d?; H, DR, Sy(t); 3; taq 1767; tpq 1629.

252-262/261 14-5-94; North side of lane from Hollins Farm to Lead Lane; 10 stints (w to e), each c.30m, except stint 10 = c.60m; 1: H, El, Sy; 3: 2; L/b; H, El, Bt, Ly, Plum etc., Bb; S(6); 3: 3; L/b, B/e (fieldstone); H, DR, Ho, A(t), O(t); 5; 4: 2/3; L/a(S) to gate; H, DR, El, A(t), Sy; 5: 5: 3; L/b; H, DR, Bt, Hz, A; 5: 6: 3; L/a to no L; H, DR, Bt; 3: 7: 3; L/a; H, DR, Bt, Ho, A(t); 5: 8: 3: L/a; H, DR, Ho, A; 4: 9: 3; L/a; H, DR, A(t); 3: 10: (X2) 3; L/a, field boulders in bank; H, DR, Ho(S), A(S), O(S), Bb; 3.5(4.5); Total No. Species = 10(11); Average = 4; taq 1800, east end altered to modern form post 1677, pre 1629; old wood then small strip field edge?, plus ancient pack horse route? (of Lead Road).

254/227 Hedley/Whittonstall township boundary 13-9-95; 8; wood boundary; taq 1767, 1629. Natural line?

254/254a 13-9-95; 8; modern barbed wire fence; post 1967.

256/258 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 13-9-95; (a) H, +?; (b) B/c to L/b; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

256-258/260/261 14-5-94; south side of lane from Hollins Farm to Lead Lane; 9 stints (w to e), each c.30m. except stint 9 = c.60m., stints 1 & 2 W/a/f-g only so not in count; 3: 2/3; L/a(S); H, DR, Bt, Ho, Hz, A(t); 6: 4: 3; L/a(S); H, DR, El, I; 3: 5: 3; L/a(S); H, DR, A(t); 3: 6: 2; L/a(S); H, DR; 7: 3: L/a(S); H; 1: 8: 3; L/a(S); H, DR; 2: 9: (X2) 3; L/a(S), field boulders in bank, 60m to gate post; H, DR; 2; Total No. Species = 7. Average = 2.6; taq 1896, 1845 but straightened and realigned after, mostly pre 1767, west end partly pre 1629. Old packhorse route? of Lead Road.
257/257 4-11-95; 8; with very slight lynchet to south-west; taq 1967; tpq 1897; former mineral line, 1897-1967

257/258= 259/288 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 13-9-95 (c) 4-11-95; 257/258 (b) 4; L/a; (c) Hedge removed but low bank remains c.2m wide; B/b+ L/a(S), some large boulders in bank + on top, some very large (for hawthorn stumps; H, G; 2; taq 1767; tpq 1629 1629-1767; 259/288 2; B/c, D/a/e(N); H, DR, Sy(t), G; 4; taq 1811, 1767 (but possibly altered after); tpq 1629. 1629-1767?-1811

257/288-289 4-11-95; A former springhead with large boulders at the east end + trough. Edge to plantation of Scots Pine & Ash; consists of 4; H hedge on B/b, D/a/d-e(E), at southern end in the southeast corner of field 257, is a large pile of dumped boulders, some very large (up to 1m long/dia.; taq 1811, 1767 (north part altered); tpq 1629; south boundary of plantation = mineral line (1897-1967), plantation in top corner of 288 in 1897.

257/289 13-9-95; ditch line/straightened brook; Sy(t); taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

258/260 4-11-95; hedge (H, DR?, G), remains of D/a/d(W), + clearance boulders dumped in boundary from ploughing. At south end, where boundary turns west, above small plantation (on steep slope), D/a/d(W), L/c(S) at south end, hedge on low bank, c.1.8m wide; 3/8; taq 1767; tpq 1629 1629-1767

259-260=259/260 14-5-94; field boundary following line of mineral line from Redways Banks to Chopwell; 4/8; taq 1896. 1896-1961

259/268=260/268=268/288-289 14-5-94; west side of Lead Lane; 259/268 from Hollins Farm junction south to brick bridge; 9 stints (n to s), each c.30m.; 1: 2/8; H, DR; 2; 2/8; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 3: 2/8; H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 4: 5/6; B/c (wide); H, DR, Ho, A(t), Bb; 4: 5: 5/6; B/c (wide); H, DR, A(t), Sy; 4: 6: 7/2; 5/6; B/d; H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 7: 2; B/d; H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 8: 2; B/d; H, DR, Bt, Bb; 3(4); 9: 2; B/c; H, DR, Bt, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 6(7); Average = 3(3.8); taq 1629; tpq 1629-1629-1845-1897; 268/288-289 4/8; H; taq 1897, 1848 (but wigglier), 268/288 pre 1767; tpq 1629 1629-1629-1767-1848

264/County Boundary 23-5-93; County/Parish/Township Boundary; H, A, Be; 3; taq mid 12thC.

265/266 14-5-94; 3; H, Bt (by junction with lane); 2; taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1627

267/271 25-8-95; 4/8; taq 1848, possibly 1767 (but alterations in area); tpq 1845, 1811; 1629.

268/269-287 14-5-94; East side of Lead Lane 268/269-287 (to brick bridge) 8 stints (N to S), each c.30m. 1 to 4 = 2/8; H, DR, WE, Bb; 3(4); 2 & 3: H, DR, G, Bb; 3(4); 4: H, Bt, Plum etc., Bb; 3(4); 5: Bt, A, Bb; 2(3); 6: DR, A, Bb; 2(3): 7: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 8: DR, A, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 7(8); Average = 2.6(3.6). 268/287 (from gate south sample stint only 3/8; H, DR, WE, Bb; 3(4); taq 1629; tpq 1629; slight changes after 1845; 1767 map shows a mill race along this line, similar to one of 1629. 1629-1767

270/271 25-8-95; 2/3/4/8; H(mostly), DR, Bt(mostly north end), Ho, O(T; large, pseudo pollard); 5; large broad rough grass road to east of boundary, c.5m wide, with remains of dry fieldstone wall on east edge in places, to lynchet(E); taq 1629; tpq 1629. 1629-1767 close to woodland.

271/271 25-8-95; 2/3/4/8; H(mostly), DR, Bt(mostly north end), Ho, O(T; large, pseudo pollard); 5; large broad rough grass road to east of boundary, c.5m wide, with remains of dry fieldstone wall on east edge in places, to lynchet(E); taq 1629; tpq 1629. 1629-1767 close to woodland.

272/282-288 (a) 14-5-94 (b) 25-8-95; 272/282 8/4; Hawthorn hedge with slight bank becoming L/b-a(S) to east end. Also towards east end changes. East end H(all large and over mature), El, Bt, Ho, Hz, O(T large); 6; 283/284-286 7/8 hedge fence line; H; 1; taq 1629; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

275/275 25-6-95; 8; taq 1961; tpq 1897 1897-1961

275/276 25-8-95; removed; taq 1629; tpq 1629 1629-1627

275-277 25-8-95; Boundary on east side of brook on a largish lynchet; 3/4/8; some boulders; west side of brook much shallower with no boundary. 275/277 4/8 no brook, L/a(E), some boulders, later becomes a wide low bank with D/a/d remains to east for a while, ground lower to the west; H, Ho, A(T one dead); 3; 276/277 H, DR, El, Ho, Willow?, Sallow, Crab apple, Bb; 7(8); From where modern
fence goes west (with brook) and probably where boundary was (275/276), 1 large O(T) at
junction/gateway, probably less than 100 years old (unmanaged?); taq 1811; tpq 1767. 1767-1811

276/306 25-8-95; L/a(N), with a few boulders; 3/8; Hawthorn hedge, grown lanky so possibly never
layered; taq 1811, possibly 1767 but altered & incorporating boundary of the time; tpq 1629.

277/278 14-5-94; H; taq 1845, 1811 (pencil line), possibly one line of temporary boundary in 1629; tpq
1629 probably, 1767.

277/278 (East end of 278) 25-8-95; L/b(E), remains of Bank (to East) at south end, shallow & broad;
3/8; H, El, G; 3; taq possibly 1629?, 1845, 1811 (pencil line); tpq 1767.

277/282 25-8-95; 8; taq 1845; tpq 1811.

277/306 25-8-95?; 4/8 fence mostly, but former continuous H hedge; Lynchet rises to north with
remains of bolder revetment & rabbit burrows; large brick trough approx. 2x1m. with large boulder
packing around at end of brook; taq 1845; tpq 1811.

278/278 25-8-95?; 4/8; taq drain line? unfenced in 1897, 1845, 1811, except perhaps north end (tpq
1845); tpq 1767.

278/279-281=279/301 14-5-94; 4/8; taq 1845, 1811 (pencil line); tpq 1767.

278/301 14-5-94; fence line to north of Broad Oak; 8; taq 1845, 1811 (pencil line); tpq 1767.

278/306 25-8-95?; 3/8; slight bank with several large boulders, hedge layered in past; H, G; 2; taq
1845; tpq 1811.

284/285 14-5-94; 4/8; round base of hill; taq 1896, 1845 (unfenced line); tpq 1811.

284/286 14-5-94; Hedge line on a track way from Broad Oak Farm towards Hollings Farm (West
Side); 2; H, + odd El & Bb; 2(3); taq 1767; tpq 1629.

286/295 14-5-94; Fence line with track on south side, on north side of Chester Hills; 8; taq 1845, 1767
(possibly); tpq 1811, 1629.

288/289 13-9-95; Footpath; 4; L to B, pebble/bolder bank, scarp of lynchet changes along length from
north to south; A(T); taq 1767; tpq 1629. 1629-1767

294/323 31-3-96; Heugh Bank/Ebchester Heugh/ Chester Hills Sand Pit; Several flints of "a warlike
and domestic nature" collected from area of 323 over 100 years ago, so potential Bronze Age site. A
boundary which formerly existed between 296 and 323, could possibly have made the area of 323 into a
promontory fort. The edge of the current sand pit was examined to see if there was any surviving
evidence of any earthworks here. There was no evidence for any ditch ever existing here, but it appears
that there may have been a glacial meltwater channel, which may have been used for defence; About the
position of junction with 294/322, at top of slope to quarry edge, approx. 4(to 12+) piles of cobbles,
possibly from field clearance, certainly a while ago as mostly well grassed and overgrown. Where
pebbles exposed (especially 2 heaps) most are well weathered (with moss and lichen, where shady).
Other heaps follow along edge of former field boundary (294/323) = 4/8, H, on wood side of boundary.
At one point there are the remains of a c.30m. + length of drystone wall, c.0.6m thick (base coarses
only), made of boulders with small stone infill. Well weathered with moss and lichen. Possibly
pebbles/boulders/cobbles for wall construction but abandoned. Line of cobbles and wall base continue
for some distance, south, along crest of slope (until virtually vertical), remains of H hedge all along.
Pebble/cobble/bolder dump in places, all the way around. Possible wall base in hedge (remains), in
places uncertain. if it was there all the way around, it must have been buried along a lot of the route or
not present; taq 1896, 1811, 1767, 1629, but varies in depiction with time.

297/298 14-5-94; Fence line to west of Broad Oak Farm; 8; taq 1896, 1845 but straightened after,
1811, 1809 (ZB 73/3) but south end probably different, 1767 (possibly), 1629 (possibly).

297-298/301 14-5-94; Fence line on the north side of track from Broad Oak Farm towards Hollings
Farm; 8; taq 1811; tpq 1767. 1767-1811.

298-299/300 14-5-94; Fence line on SW side of track on SW side of Broad Oak Farm; 8; taq 1896; tpq
1845; but possibly this boundary is on a line of one taq 1767, ?1629?
298/301 14-5-94; Fence line along the south side of track from Broad Oak Farm towards Hollins Farm; 4/8; taq 1811; tpq 1767. 1767-1811

300/301 14-5-94; Fence line around close on NW side of Broad Oak Farm; 4/8; taq 1811; post 1767? alteration of earlier line, 1629?

301/302(3?)=301/304=305/312 (a)14-5-94 (b)25-8-95; (a) 301/302(3?) continuation of stream line 301/304, but dry; D/a/d; 4/8/9, very patchy; H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), O(t), Ap(t); 7; taq 1845 with remains of one of East Broad Oak Farm, 1767, 1629?; 301/304 (a) High wooded boundary with running ditch; D/a/d; 7/8; El, Ho, O(t), Bird Cherry, Alder(t); 5; taq 1629; 305/312 (b) Banks & ditches? (only seen at distance), brook?; 8/4; probable species = H, Sy(t), O(t), + other species of shrubs; taq 1896 brook line, 1811, straightened post 1809 (ZB 30/6); alteration of a pre 1767/1629 line.

301/305 25-8-95; Willow; taq 1845; tpq 1811.1811-1845

303/304 14-5-94; B/b; 2; H, DR(very few), El(very few); 3; taq 1845; tpq 1811 replacing a pre 1767 boundary. ?-1811-1845

304/314 (a) 14-5-95 (b) 25-8-95; boundary between 2 arable fields; (a) B/b; I/3; H, Plum etc.; 2; (b) 4/8; H, +?; taq 1896, straightened post 1845, which was pre 1767.

305/305 25-8-95; removed; taq 1896, drain line straightened post 1845; tpq 1811. 1811?-1845-1896

305/306=305/307=309/309 25-8-95; 305/306 L/a-c(E), some fieldstone revetment in places; 3/4/8; H, DR, El, Ho, A(trees very large on Lychet bank, with 2 large boulders above), Broom, Gb; 7(8); taq 1767, 1629?; 305/307 L/a-c(E); south side L/a(W); H, DR, El, Gb, Bb; 5(6); taq 1827 in origin.

305/309=307/309=312/310 (a)14-5-94 (b)25-8-95; (b)305/309 L/a-c(E); taq 1811, straightened post 1767, possibly pre 1629?

306/307 (E-W part) 25-8-95; Culvitted/dried-up brook, large & shallow ditch; 4/8 on west side; + springs (with sallow) some boulders on boundary & remains of a tree; H, DR, El, Cherry sp., Sallow, Bb; 6(7); taq 1811, straightened post 1767, possibly pre 1629?

306/307 (N-S section) 25-8-95; Slight bank with some boulders, B/b; 4/8; H; taq 1811, straightened post 1767, 1629? in origin.

311/313 14-5-94; Rough hedge along edge of River Derwent bluff, south side of track from Blackhall Mill to Broad Oak Farm; L/c(N); 7; 4 stints (E to W), each c. 30m.; 1: &2: H, DR, El, Sy(T), Bb; 4(5); 3: &4: H, El, Sy(T), O(T), Bb; 4(5); 5: L/b(E), slight D/a/d to west; 4/8; H, DR, O(seedling), G, Bb; 4(5); (a)310/312 H, DR, El, Bb; 3(4); Proposed division line in 1809, taq 1811. 1809-1811

313/311 14-5-94; Hedge to north side of track from Blackhall Mill to Broad Oak Farm; 3; 2 stints (E to W), each c.30m.; 1: H, El; 2: (hedge ends within c. 15m of this) H, DR; 2; Total No. SQ. = 3; Average = 2; taq 1896; tpq 1845. 1845-1896

ELTRINGHAM

8/8 14-10-95; Eltringham Road; stone revetment, L/c(W), sunken lane; Eltringham Road is post 1896, but replaced a track/pathway shown on both nineteenth-century O.S. eds., part of this at the south end where it goes into Beaumont Wood could be an older section of track.

12-13/26=17/26=22/26 10-8-94; south side of lane from Eltringham House Farm to Prudhoe; 12-13/26 4/8; 17/26 6 stints (W? to E?), each c.30m., except 6: =c.16m.; 1: 6; D/a/d; H, DR, El, Hz, Ho, Bb; 5(6); 2: 7; (wood edge); H, DR, El, Hz, Ho; 5; 3: 7; (by polluted O(t); El, Hz, Ho, Sy, O(t), Bb; 5(6); 4: 7/8; D/a/d; Hz, Ho, Sy, raspberry, 4(5); 5: 7; El, Ho, A, O, raspberry, Bb; 5(6); 6: 4; L/b; El, Ho, A, raspberry, cherry, Bb; 5(4); Total No. Species = 10(11); Average No. Species (adjusted for short stint) = 4.8(5.7); 22/26 (middle section) most of the oaks here are polluted, lining the sunken lane; 12 stints (W? to E?), in two batches, 1: to 4: from west end and 5: to 12: to the east end, each circa.30m. except 11:(c.43m.) and 12:(c.15m.), in between batches the hedge virtually non-existent; 1: 4/7/8; L/c(N?); H, DR, El, Ho, WE, Sy, O(t), cherry, Bb; 8(9); 2: 4/7/8; L/c(N?); H, DR, EL, Hz, Ho, A, O(t), cherry, Bb; 8(9); 3: 4/8; L/b(N?); H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 4: 4/8; Ho, A(t), O(t); 3; Total No. Species = 10(11).
Average No. Species = 5.5(6.2) BREAK 5: 4/8; L/b(N?); DR, Ho, A(t), O(t), Bb; 4(5); 6: 4/8; B/c; H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), Bb; 6(7); 7: 6/8; L/b(N?); H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), Sy; O(t); Bb; 7(8); 8: 6; B/c; H, DR, El, Hz, A(t), Sy; Bb; 6(7); 9: 6; L/c(S??, raised track), D/a/d; H, DR, El, Ho, Sy(t), O(t), Bb; 6(7); 10: 6/7; D/a/e; H, DR, El, Hz, Sy(t), Bb; 6(7); 11: 6; D/a/d; H, DR, El, A(t), Bb; 4(5); 12: 4/6/8; D/a/d; El, Bb; 1(2); Total No. Species = 8(9); Average No. Species (adjusted for irregular stints 11 & 12) = 5.6(6.6) OVERALL = Total No. Species = 10(11); Average No. Species (adjusted for irregular stints 11 & 12) = 5.2(6.1); 22/26 (west end) most oaks are large pollards lining sunken lane; 3 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; 4/8; L/c(N?); H, A, O(t), Bb; 6(7); 2: H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), O(t), Bb; 6(7); 3: DR, El, Ho, A(t), O(t), Birch(t), Bb; 6(7); Total No. Species = 10(11); Average No. Species = 6(7); taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/4a & 3/2, 1856; probably a very old route way, perhaps part of the Lead Road network, or earlier, or purely Anglo-Saxon or Medieval access way to Eltringham woods and to Ovingham and Prudhoe.

16/26 = 18/26 = 21/26 = 26/27 10-8-94; North side of lane from Eltringham House Farm to Ovingham and Prudhoe; 16/26 3 stints (W? to E?), each c.30m. 1: 4/6; H, El, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 2: 6; H, DR, El, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: 4/8; L/c(S?); H, A, O(t); Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 4(4.7); 18/26 8 stints (W? to E?), each c.30m., except 7: = 72m. 1: 6; L/b(S?); H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, A(t), Sy; O(t), Bb (dogs mercury); 8(9); 2: 3/6; L/c(S?); H, DR, El, Hz, A(t), Sy, O, Bb; 7(8); 3: 4/8; L/a(S?); H, DR, Ho, Sy, O(t), Bb; 5(6); 4: 6; H, DR, Ho, A(t), O(t), Bb; 5(6); 5: 4; B/b; A(t), O(t), Bb; 2(3); 6: 4/8; L/c(S?); H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, O(t), Bb; 6(7); 7: 6/8; B/b; H, DR, Ho, A(t), O(+t), Bb; 5(6); 8: A(t); 1; Total No. Species = 8(9); Average No. Species = 6(7); with stint 8 = 5.8(6.7). without stint 8 = 6.5(7.5); 21/26 5 stints (W? to E?), each c.30m. 1: 4/8; L/b(?); B/b; H, DR, EL, A(t), Sy(+t), O(t), Cherry(t), snowberry, Bb; 8(9); 2: 4/8; B/b; Ho, O(t); 3: 4/7/8; L/a(S?); B/b; El, Bt, WE, Ho, Hz, O(t), Bb; 6(7); 4: 4/6; B/c; H, DR, El, Bt, O; Bb; 5(6); 5: 4/8; L/c(N?) lane raised here for c.40m. until end by wooded dene; H, DR, El, O(t), Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species = 12(13); Average No. Species = 5(5.8); 26/27 most oaks are large pollards lining sunken lane; 4 stints (W? to E?), each circa. 30m; 4/8; L/c(S?); 1: H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), Sy, O, Bb; 7(8); 2: H, DR, El, Ho, A(t), Sy, O(t), cherry, Bb; 8(9); 3: DR, El, Ho, Hz, A, Sy, Bb, (dogs mercury); 6(7); 4: H, DR, El, Bt, Hz, A(t), Sy, O(t), Bb; 8(9); taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/4a & 3/2, 1856; probably a very old route way, perhaps part of the Lead Road network, or earlier, or purely Anglo-Saxon or Medieval access way to Eltringham woods and to Ovingham and Prudhoe.

19/21 10-8-94; west, east and north sides o field 21, assorted wood, fence (8) and woodland edge only; taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/2, 3/4a.

19/27 10-8-94; north and east sides of field 27, assorted wood, fence (8) and woodland edge only; taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/2, 3/4a.

26/27 10-8-94; west side of field 27, assorted wood; 1 stint only, c.30m; 4/8; L/c(W?); El, Ho, A(t), Sy(t), Bb; 4(5); taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/2, 3/4a, field 27 part wooded in 1796.

26/53-54 23-10-93; west side of Station Road/Bank from opposite Cherryburn Cottage to the entrance to Eltringham House Farm; less of a cutting than east side of road, but a stone revetment has been used along most of this section of the boundary (possibly showing a later re-cut/widening of the previously existing route); hardly a hedge at al, very sparse, more a collection of scrub and odd trees; also with large (under 30m) lengths with no hedge at all; this and the gorse suggest that this fence line crosses former common land and is in the most a hedge forming under natural processes; (a) 6 stints (S to N), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, A; 3; 2: H, DR, Sy, Gorse; 4; 3: DR, A, Sy; 3; 4: DR, Gorse; 2; 5: H, DR; 2; 6: H, El; 2; Total No. Species = 6; Average No. Species = 2.7; taq 1840, 1816; tpq 1796; 1816 enclosure road.


32/34 19-11-93; L/b(S); H, El; taq???, tpq 1819

32/37 19-11-93; colliery wagon way bank; 8?; taq NRO ZAN Bell 3/4a & 3/2, 1856, 1840 (boundary).

37-38/63 10-8-94; Township/Parish Boundary between Eltringham-Ovingham-Bywell-Merryshields Common-Stocksfield; line of trees and fence; 8; El, O(t), Be(t); 3; taq 1856 line of trees, 1840 but straightened and altered after, 1816 unstraightened.

38/63 10-8-94; Township/Parish boundary between Eltringham-Ovingham/Bywell-Merryshields; no fixed boundary or hedge; 6 stints (? to ?), all c.30m. except stint 6 = c.20m.; 1; L/b(?); 1: H, El, Hz, Bb; 3(4); 2: H, DR, El, Ho, Hz, A(t), Bb; 6(7); 3: H, Ho, A, O(t), cherry, Bb; 5(6); 4: H, El, O(t), Bb; 436
3(4); 5: H, DR, El, O(t), Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR?, O(t), Be, Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species=9(10); Average No. Species = 4.2(5); taq 1896 (called Common Wood (38), open woodland), 1856 (shows line of trees), 1816, track 1796; medieval? wood/common edge.


49/50 10-8-94; H; taq 1856, 1840 (undrawn?); tpq NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a. Early nineteenth-century - 1840 - 1856

49/61=49/62=50/61=52/59 10-8-94; Boundary to former Mickley/Eltringham Common; 49/61 4/8; L/a(S?); H, A(t, large); 2; 49/62 3/8; H, A(T, one very large); 2; 50/61 large semi-natural lynchet/start of dene; 1/8; L?c-a(N?); H, El, Bt, cherry; 4; 52/59 1856 map shows boundary and line of trees and a drainage ditch nearby, 1896 map same as 1856, but minus trees and an open rectangular feature shown at mine end of drain, drain presumably for Mickley Colliery drift mine; 8; A(t, large), O(t, large); 3; taq 1856, 1840, straightened post NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a.

50/51 10-8-94; West side of Mickley Colliery wagon way/Riding Dene, consists of track, B/d, Lc(W?), then D/a/f next to field, with scattering of oak, hawthorn and elder. Later (to the North) large raised track/wagon way with large side ditches; remnant wood/pasture lower down at northern end, including pollarded oaks; H, A(O), O(t); 3; both 1856 and 1896 O.S. eds. show Riding Dene as a wooded area, + ditch at the base of the west slope, and a saw pit at the south end of area 51, with spoil heap used to build up area; taq 1840 (but since no fixed boundary, 1816?, 1796?, basically pre NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a.

51/52=52/52 10-8-94; Delf Well [delf=pool or hollow]; 3/8; unfixed and unfenced boundary on 1840 (tithe) map, with some woodland; on 1856 map, in part, this is boundary to tramway (post 1840), some trees are indicated, woodland and reservoir feature; various alterations since late eighteenth-century, but pre-NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a in origin; 52/52 bottom end of Riding Dene, as a brook running through sheep pasture, in a deep rill?; 4; D/a/f; H, A(t), O(t); 3; natural stream line, not a hedge; on NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a.

60?62/70 10-8-98; boundary between Low Close Wood and Mickley Common, top of the dene wood edge; 8 only, woodland here = H, DR, WE, Ho, A(t), O(t), Be(t), Alder(t); taq 1816, altered slightly after 1787 (or no fixed hedge).

61/62 10-8-94; H, DR, + 1 WE; 3; taq 1896; tpq 1856. 1856-1896

61/64 10-8-94; township boundary Eltringham/Mickley, The Ridings; small and large pollard oaks and ashes; 6 stints (? to ?), each c.30m. except stint 6=c.16m.; 3/8, except 5:4/8; 1: L/a(N)?, D/a/e-f; El, Bt, O; 3; 2: L/a(N)?, D/a/e-f; H, El, Bt, Ho, A(O), O(B), Bb; 6(7); 3: B/b, D/a/f-d; H, El, Bt, Alder(t), Bb; 4(5); 4: L/a(N)?, D/a/f-d; H, El, Hz, O(t), Bb; 4(5); 5: L/c(N)?, D/a/f-d; H, El, A(O), O(B), Bb; 4(5); 6: L/a(N)?, D/a/d; H, El, Hz, Bb; 3(4); Total No. Species = 8(9); Average No. Species = 4(4.8); taq 1816, NRO ZAN Bell 3/2 & 3/4a, 1776; probably medieval wood/common edge, or earlier?

61/64 Bit connecting The Ridings with Low Close Wood 10-8-94; township boundary Eltringham/Mickley; southern bit = 3/8, H, El, A(O); 3; north-eastern bit (continuation of Ridings boundary) 4/8; D/a/d; O; 1; taq 1816; tpq 1776?, 1787? 1787-1816

61/67=61/68-69=62/70 10-8-94; township boundary Eltringham/Mickley, plus (mainly) former edge of Low Close Wood; 61/67 1 stint, c.30m; 1: 2: L/b(?); H, El, Bb; 2(3); 61/68-70 part of current boundary to Low Close Wood; 10 stints (? to ?), each c.30m, except 10=;c.20m.; all 3/7/8; & D/a/e (except 1: A(t, large)); plus additional features as indicated; 1: H, DR, El Hz, A(large); 5: 2: L/c(N)?; H, DR, El, Hz, A(O), O(B), Bb; 6(7); 3: L/c(N)?; H, DR, Hz, A(t), Bb; 4(5); 4: L/c(N)?; H, DR, El, Ho, Hz; 5: L/c(N)?; H, DR, El, Hz, Bb; 4(5); 6: L/b; H, El, Bt, Hz; 4; 7: L/a(N)?; H, El, Bb; 2(3); 8: L/a(N)?; H, El, Bb; 2(3); 9: B/b; H, El, Bb; 2(3); 10: L/a(N)?; H, El, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 8(9); Average No. Species=3.6(4.3); 62/70 4 stints (? to ?), each c.30m.; 7/8; L/a(?), D/a/d; 1: H, Ho(+t), O(t), Be(t); 4: 2: H, Bt, Ho, O(t), Be(t); 5: 3: H, DR, El, Bt, Ho, Hz(t), A(t), O(t), Be(t); plum; 10; 4: 0; taq 1787, probably medieval, or earlier, woodland and common edge.

63/63 10-8-94; Eltringham allotment of Mickley Common (1812/16, private carriage road), line of track from West Mickley to Merrishields Common; scrub line along track; DR, O(t), Gorse; 3; 1816?
65/66=119/121 10-8-94; 65/66 west side of turnpike (A695, Gateshead to Hexham), Eltringham/Mickley township boundary; 8 stints (SW? to NE?), each circa. 30m., except stint 9: = c. 13m.; I/7; Ub(W?); 1: H, DR, A(t); 3; 2: H, DR, A(t); 3; 3: H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 4: H, El, A(t); 2; 5: H, El; 2; 6: H, DR, El, A(t); 4; 7: H, DR, El, A(t), Bb; 4(5); 8: H, El, Bb; 2(3); taq 1816, enclosure act 1780; tpq not shown of drawn on 1787, so still perhaps turnpike unhedged. 1787-1816

65/119 10-8-94; enclosure boundary of Mickley Common, township boundary Eltringham/Mickley; 7?; H, El, A; 3.1816

MICKLEY

2/14 8-5-93; Hedley Park Colliery, hedge at west end of Hyons Wood (Westwood) with colliery remains at east side and wooded dene on west side, running south from the entrance to wood; on O.S. 2nd ed. roughly marked, mine post 1845; 4 stints (N to S), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, A, Birch, gorse, Bb; 5(6); 2: H, DR, Ho, A, Birch, Sallow, Bb; 6(7); 3: DR, Bt, Sallow, Alder, gorse, Bb; 5(6); 4: H, El, D, Birch, Sallow, Alder, Garden Sp., Bb; 7(8); Total No. Species = 11(12); Average No. Species = 5.8(6.7): taq 1896, 1845?, 1083?; colliery in use post 1845, still in use 1961; possibly as L/c(W) of prehistoric/Romano-British origin, or simply an area built-up as part of the colliery.

3/179=4/179 8-5-93; east side of lane from Hedley Park Colliery to Mickley; 3/179 7 stints (S to N), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, A, Birch, gorse, Bb; 5(6); 2: H, DR, Ho, A, Birch, Sallow, Bb; 6(7); 3: DR, Bt, Sallow, Alder, gorse, Bb; 5(6); 4: H, DR, El, Birch, Sallow, Alder, Garden Sp., Bb; 7(8); Total No. Species = 11(12); Average No. Species = 5.8(6.7): taq 1896, 1845?, 1083?; colliery in use post 1845, still in use 1961; possibly as L/c(W) of prehistoric/Romano-British origin, or simply an area built-up as part of the colliery.

4/4? 21-6-95; removed; taq 1961; tpq 1895. 1895-1961

4/178=5/25=187/188a(E-W)=180/181 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 25-8-95 (c) Autumn 95?; although discontinuous now, this almost certainly all formed part of the same wood boundary at some time prior to late eighteenth-century; 4/178 (?) removed autumn 1995; 5/25 (a) removed soon after survey (by 11-95); 6; L/a(S?), or D?; H, +?; 2; 187/188a(E-W) (b) 3; ?/b-c; H, +?; 180/181 (?) removed; L/a(S?)?; taq 1803, 1776, but with minor alterations since; probably medieval in origin or earlier.

5/6 21-6-95; old woodland boundary?; 6/8; H, DR, Ho; 3; taq 1803, 1787?; medieval?

5/8=6/8=5/24=24/25=26-27/176 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 5-11-95 (c) 24-5-96; 5/8 (a) 4; D/a; DR, Ho, Gorse; 3; 6/8 (a) 5 stints (S to N), each c.30m.; all 4/8, except 1: = 7; 1: L/b-c(W?), D/a/f; H, DR, Hz, Ho, A,
O(t, pollard?), Alder, Gorse, Guelder Rose; 9; 2: D/a/f; DR, Hz, O, MA, Birch, Sallow, Gorse, Guelder Rose, Bb; 8(9); 3: (natural?) D/a/f, B/b; H, DR, Gorse, Sallow; 4; 4: D/a/e to B/b; H, DR, Gorse, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); 5: D/a/e, B/c (to east); H, DR, Gorse, Sallow, Bb; 4; Total No. Species= 1203: Average No. Species=5.6(6); (c) south end, runs as far as the Lynchet/Bluff that forms the township boundary across the Stanley Burn; L/c(W); 5/24 (a) 3 stints (S to N), each c.30m.; 1: 2/3; D/a/e; H, DR, Gorse; 3; 2: D gone; H, DR, Gorse; 3; 3: 4/8; H; 1; Total No. Species= 3: Average No. Species=2.3; 24/25 (a) 4 stints (S to N), each c.30m.; 1: D/a/d?; H, DR; 2; 2: D/a/e/f, Ua(E? ); H, Bt; 2; 3: D/a/e (to west); H, Gorse; 2; 4: D/a/e (to west); H, Gorse; 2; Possibly No. Species = 4; Average No. Species=2; taq 1803, 1787, 1776. Possibly Romano/British or Prehistoric in origin as appears to be older than wood edge, wood growth which had been over it.

6/6 21-6-95; cutting for mineral line, associated with Hedley Colliery; overgrown with H, DR, Gorse, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); post c.1847; extended to current length post 1896; natural succession after line went out of use. 1896-1995

7a/8a (a) 21-6-95 (b) 24-5-96; (a) drain/booklet, natural?; 8; D/a/f; Alders, A, Bb; 3; + honeysuckle; (b) L/c(W).

7a/16=7a/17 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 24-5-96; Mickley/Hedley township boundary, Stanley Burn; (a) natural? unfenced; H, DR, Ho, O, Gorse; 5; (b) Township boundary consists of 8; L/c/bluff(N) to burn; woodland here consists of H, Hz(coppice), A(t), O(t), MA, Be, Bb; 6(7); + violets, dogs-mercury, wood-sorrel, bluebells & primroses; taq 1769, at least semi natural.

8/8=8/10=10/24=22/26=22/27=27/28 21-6-95; 8/9 a wood boundary; 7/8; D/a/f, B/b (to west); DR, MA, Gorse, Sallow; 4; (wood here DR, MA, Gorse, Sallow, O, Birch, 2 species of sallow, Hz, Guelder Rose, Ho, Honeysuckle); 8/10 6 stints (N to S), each c.30m.; 4/8, except 1: =8; D/a/e, with B/b-c (to west); 1: 0; 2: DR, Ho, Gorse, bb; 3(4); 3: H, DR, Ho, G., Sallow, Bb; 5(6); 4: DR, G, Sallow, Bb; 3(4); 5: H, DR, Bt, A, G, Sallow; Bb; 6(7); 6: H, DR, G, Sallow, Bb; 4(5); probably not a woodland remnant but natural growth along fence line from nearby woodland; Total No. Species=7(8); Average No. Species= 3.5(4.3)(4.2(5.2) without stint 1: ); 10/24 4 stints (? to ? ), each c. 30m.; 2; 1: =8; D/a/d, with B/b-c (to west); 1: 0; 2: DR, Ho, G., Bb; 3(4); 3: H, DR, G., Sallow, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species=5(6); Average No. Species=3.5(4.2); 22/26 2; H, DR; 2; 22/27 2; H, DR; 2; 27/28 2; H, DR; 2; taq 1787; tpq 1776. 1776-1787

8/24 21-6-95; gate stone at east end; estimate before walking, at east end=2/6; Ub/c(S? ), D/a/e; H, DR, Ho(makes up most of south side), A, GR; 5; 4 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; 2; 1: L/c(S?), ditch on south side; H, DR, Ho, A, GR; 5; 2: IJc(S? ); H, DR, Ho, A; 4; 3: Uc(S? ); H, DR, HO, A, GR; 5; 4: L/b(S? ), L/b(N? ); H, DR, Ho, A, GR; 5(6); Total No. Species= 4.5(5); taq 1896; 1842 shows a similar line higher-up the hill; not shown or drawn on 1787 or 1766, but appears to be a much earlier earthen bank, fitting with some of the general pattern of old woodbanks in this area, possibly this was not shown as it was not important enough?

9/10 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 24-5-96; (a) wood edge unfenced; (b) 8; L/c(S?); taq 1895; tpq 1842; possibly there in early nineteenth-century and eighteenth-century but possibly not drawn, etc., as this is the top of what appears to be a natural bluff above Stanley Burn.

9/12=10/11= 20/22=21/22 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 21-6-95 (c) 24-5-96; Mickley Moor; 9/12 (c) wood-edge/denelet; 8; D/a/f; 10/11 (a) south end; 3? /7?; H, Ho, A(t), G; 4; (b) north end; 1/3; H, DR, 2; (c) south end; D/a/e; north end; D/a/d; L/a(E, into ditch, at north end); H, G; 2;20/22 (b) 2/3; H, +?; 1+?; 21/22 (b) 2/3; H, +?; 1+?; taq 1787; tpq 1776. 1766-1787

10/23=23/24=25-178/177=171/186=172/185=173/180 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 25-8-95 (c) 5-11-95; south side of Lumley's Lane (mostly), the Lumley's were freeholders in Mickley in the eighteenth-century and seventeenth-century? in area of part of this lane; 10/23 (a) 5 stints (E? to W?), each c.30m.; 1: 3/4/6; L/b(N?); H, El, G; 3; 2: 3/4; L/B(N?); H; 1; 3: 4; L/b(N?); H, Ho, G; 3; 4: 4; B/b; Ho, G; 2; 5: 0; L/A(N?); 0; Total No. Species= 4; Average No. Species= without 5:2=2; taq 1895, 1842?, possibly part 1787, eastern 1766; 23/24 (a) 1st c.40m. from west gone; 6; L/b(N?) or B/c; H, Ho(at one point), G; 3; taq 1896, track on 1787 and 1766; 25-178/177 (a) 4/6; none to low bank (B/b); D? on north side; I cut A(t) towards the west end; taq 1803, 1787 (but not necessarily on same line as it only shows a little bit of it), possibly in existence by 1766 as start of track shown, but possibly not in present form; 171/186 part of possibly projection of Lumley's Lane line if this represents an old wood edge; (b) H, A, +?; 2=7; taq 1776; 172/185 part of possibly projection of Lumley's Lane line if this represents an old wood edge; (a) 2; H, +?; 1+?; (c) very distinct vertical sided bank c.0.5m high by c.1m. wide (B/b/e) earth & stone

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(some stones large), small ditch to north (Da/d); H, DR, Ho, plum, apple; 5; taq 1776; 173/180 part of possibly projection of Lumley’s Lane if this represents an old wood edge; (a) 2; L/a-b(S?); H, DR, WE; 3; (c) H, +?; 1+?; taq 1776.

11/12/13 11/14/14/15 21-6-95; 17/18b 17/18b=17/20=17/32=31/33=32/33 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 21-6-95; Mickley Moor; 11/12/13 (a) 3/7; Da/e, B/b (to west); H, Ho, O(t), MA; 4 (dog’s mercury also); 11/14 (a) 3/7; Da/e?, B/b (to west); H, Ho; 2; 14/21 (b) 3 stints (N? to S?); each c.30m.; 1; 2/3; B/b (no real ditch, goes all swampy); H, DR; 2; 2; H, DR; 2; 3; (to Lumley’s Lane) 2/3/8; B/b, Da/e; H, DR; 2; Total No. Species=2; Average No. Species=2; 17/18a (b) 2; H, El; 2; 17/20 2/3; B/b; H, DR, El; 3; 17/32 H, DR; 2; 31/33 (b) 8; 32/33 (b) 3 stints (N? to S?); each c.30m.; 2; 1: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 2: H, DR, Bt, Bb; 3(4); 3: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species=3(4); Average No. Species=2.3(3.3); taq 1787 (all except 17/18a taq 1842); taq 1776. 1766-1787

11/21 21-6-95; Lumley’s Lane, north side (south side non-existent here); 3 stints (to ?), 1: & 2: =c.30m., 3: =c.46m.; 1: 2; L/b(?); H, DR; 2: 2; L/b(?), D/a/d? (maybe had ditch at one time); H, DR, Ho; 3; 3: ends as gate & 8; H, DR; 2; Total No. Species=3; Average No. Species=2.3; taq 1787?, but lane there at time, so possibly an informal boundary there, and in 1766.

12/13 24-5-95; unfenced; taq 1787; tpq 1766. 1766-1787

South end 13 24-5-95; Mickley/Hedley(-Woodside ?) township boundary?; unfenced; G; 1; taq 1787; tpq 1766. 1766-1787

13/14 24-5-95; Lumley’s Lane; 3/7?; B/b(wide), D?; H, Ho, O(t), MA; 4; taq 1896; dotted line/track only shown on 1842, 1787, 1781, 1772, 1766; old wood edge?

13/184=14/182-183=14/184=15/180b=15/182=16/180b=16/18b=34/178=34/177 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 24-5-96; Mickley/Prudhoe township boundary, Mickley Moor; 13/184 (a) wood edge (Low Riding Wood?); dotted on 1781, 1766; 14/182-183 (a) 3/6/7/8; Da/f, B/c/d; H, DR, Ho, A, O(T, pollard?), Sy, G; 7; (b) 14/183 L/b(w) to B/b-c, Da/e (to west); H, DR, Ho, O(t), G; 5; 14/184 (a) wood edge; 4/8; B/b-c, D/a/f; H, Ho, O, Br; 4 (nettles); 15/180b (b) B/c/e, Da/a (east side); H, Ho; 2; 15/182 (b) B/c/e; H, Ho, A(t); 3; 16/180b (b) 4/8; L/b(E); H, G; 2; D/a/f; 16/178 (b) 3/4/8; B/c/e, L/a(E), Da/a (east); H, DR; 2; 34/178 (b) 4/8; Da/d-f; H, G; 2; 34/177 (b) B/b; H; 1; taq 1766; tpq 1629? (when Mickley Moor in dispute). 1629-1766, but possibly a former wood edge? except crosses earlier features on 1766 plan of Mickley Moor.

14/15 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 21-6-95 (c) 24-5-96; (a) H, +?; 1+?; (b) 2; L/b; H, DR; 2; (c) L/a(S); H, DR, + some Ho at east end (possibly part of pre 1766 line?); 3; taq 1895; tpq 1842 (but on a similar line to one in 1766. ?-1766?: 1842-1896?

15/16-17 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 21-6-95; Mickley Moor, (a) H?, +?; 1+?; (a) 15/16 L/a(S); H, DR, Ho; 3; (b) 2; L/c(S?); at west end; H, DR, bb; 2(3); taq 1896, 1842?; tpq 1787, but possibly on a line of one of 1766. ?-1766-1842-1896?

16/17=33/34 21-6-95; 16/17 H, +?; 1+?; 33/34 H, +?; 1+?; taq 1842, 1787 (or on a similar line to one of that time?); tpq 1766. ?-1766?: 1787?-1842?

16/34=17/33 (a) 24-5-95 (b) 21-6-95; 16/34 H, DR; 2; 17/33 H, +?; 1+?; taq 1895, tpq 1842, 1878 (but on a similar line to one in 1766). ?-1766-1842-1895

18/19 21-6-95; 8; taq 1895; tpq 1842. 1842-1895

18/20a-20b 21-6-95; narrow enclosure to the south of Mickley Moor Farm; 2; H, DR, El; 3; taq 1895; tpq 1842. 1842-1895

18/20c 21-6-95; boundaries on the south side of Mickley Moor Farm complex; 8 + gate, all fences + one bit of drystone wall; taq 1967; tpq 1896. 1896-1897

19/29=166/175-176 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 5-11-95; 19/29 south side of lane from entrance to Mickley Moor Farm to Mickley; wall on corner (east end); H, DR; 2; taq 1896, altered after 1842; tpq 1787, track implied 1766; 116/175 176 (b) H, DR; 2; taq 1803, 1787 (implied); tpq 1766. 1766-1787?-1803
19/32a 21-6-95; 3 stints (? to ?), each c.30m., except 3 = c. 36m.; 1: H, DR, Brt; 2: H, DR; 2: H, DR; 2: Total No. Species = 3; Average No. Species = 2.3; taq 1895; tpq 1842. 1842-1895
19/32b 21-6-95; track to Mickley Moor Farm; 3 stints (? to ?), each c. 30m.; 2: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 2: H, DR; Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 2(3); Average No. Species = 2(3); taq 1895; tpq 1842. 1842-1895
20/21 21-6-95; 2; B/b; H, DR, 2; taq 1895; tpq 1842. 1842-1895
22/23=23/26=175/177a=177/176 21-6-95; Lumley's Lane, north side, possibly old wood edge?; 22/23 2; L/b(S?); 5 stints (E? to W?), each c.30m., except 5 = c.15m; 1: H, DR, Ho, GR; 4; 2: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 3: H, DR, El, Ho; 4; 3: H, DR, El; 4; 5: H, DR; 2; Total No. Species = 5(6); Average No. Species = 3(2); taq 1895, 1842?, 1787?; tpq 1766 but track there; 23/26 1st. c. 40m from west removed; 6; L/b(N?); H, G(further west); 2; taq 1895 west half fenced, east half lynchet, 1842?; tpq 1766?, track shown on 1766 and 1787; 175/177a=176/177 2; L/a-b(S?), D/a/d (to south); H, DR; 2; 1 A(t) at approximate junction of two sections, and former boundary 173/177; taq 1809, 1766 implied.
22/28 21-6-95; 2; H, DR; 2; taq 1787; tpq 1766. 1766-1787
25/26 (a) 23-10-93 (b) 10-8-94; sparse remains of hedge on south side of the lane to the south of Eltringham House Farm. This forms part of the D of the D-Shaped enclosure of the Farm site (but not necessarily as a hedge) from the circa.9thC. or earlier. Hedge fades into the woodland beyond the turning for Oakwood Cottage; 4 stints (SW to NE), each c.30m; 1: H, El, A, Sy, 0; 5; 2: H, El, A, currant, White Willow; 5; 3: H, DR, El, A, Sy, Bird Cherry?; 6; 4: H, DR, Ho, Sy, Be; 5; 6: H, DR, El, Ho, Bird Cherry?; 5; Total No. Species = 9; Average No. Species = 5.2; (b) 6/7; taq 1856, 1835, minor alterations after 1787, medieval or much earlier?; tpq 1840?
25-55/26 23-10-93; Station Road/Bank, east side, Cherryburn, from the D of Eltringham D-Shaped enclosure to Cherryburn Cottages (start of gardens). This lane has been slightly cut into the hill to ease the slope, so the hedge is on a cutting. The land is a continuation of Eastgate Bank, forming a direct link between Mickley and Eltringham; it also gives access to the turnpike road and railway line. There may have been some planting on this bank, as paddock behind is semi-garden to Cherryburn House Museum; 6 stints (N to S), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, El, Ho, Sy, Bird Cherry?; 5; 3: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, White Willow; 6; 4: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, Bird Cherry?; 7; 5: H, El, Ho, Sy, Be; 5; 6: H, DR, El, Ho, Bird Cherry?; 5; Total No. Species = 10; Average No. Species = 5.2; there is some confusion as to the species of cherry recorded, as they were not in flower and there is a possibility that the numbers and types of cherry around the Bewick Museum may have been enhanced, because of the name of the cottage; taq 1840, 1816; tpq 1787. 1816 enclosure hedge.
26/27 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 5-11-95; (a) 2; B/c; H, DR; 2; (b) H, DR; taq 1787; tpq 1766, but on a similar line to an earlier boundary, which was post 1629?, though possibly earlier as this map did not show any details on Mickley Moor. 2-1766-1787
29/30 5-11-95; township boundary between Mickley and Prudhoe Castle, north side of lane between Mickley and Prudhoe, west end; 2/3; H; taq 1766, 1629, early thirteenth-century, west part may form part of an early enclosure on hill top.
31/32 21-6-95; 2 stints (? to ?), each c.30m, except 3 = c.40m.; 2; L/a?(N?); 1: H, DR, Brt; 3; 2: H, DR; 2; 3: H, DR; 2; Total No. Species = 3; Average No. Species = 2.3; taq 1896; tpq 1842. 1842-1995
23/25 25-8-95; removed; taq 1877.
51/52=52-89/94=86/86?=89/90 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 25-10-95 (c) 29-3-96; East Pasture, Mickley; 51/52 (a) south boundary of Broom Wood; very large boulders, L/c(N); 52-89/94 (a) Ho, +; (b) 2; L/c(N); H, DR, El, Hz, Ho(mostly), MA, Bb; 6(7); 786/86? ploughed out continuation of line (taq 1787, removed by 1842); 89/90 only partly shown on O.S. 1:10560 (1967?), exists as a lynchet (L/b-c?(N?)), lots of Ho forming hedge (area known as the Hollies in eighteenth-century); taq 1842, 1787 (but some straightening? after); likely to be a prehistoric Romano-British in origin as part of a system that can be shown to be earlier than nearby woodland; this boundary line can be seen to appear again within the High Close Wood area (e.g. 78/79 & 79/80).
51/95=86-90/91=86/103+90/93+94/95 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 25-8-95 (c) 29-3-96 (d) 8-11-96; 51/95 (b) 1/3; L/b-c(N); H, DR; 2; 86-90/91 (c) L/c(N), revetted in places; H, Ho, A; 3; (d) L/c(N), revetting consisting of different construction designs/ phases. One section of revetment towards the west end
(east of a gateway blocked with boulders) consists of a base layer of boulders, with two levels of stone slabs set herring-bone style above; towards the east end of 86/91 a revetment of a layer of small boulders, is overlaid by a layer of herring-bone slabs, overlaid by a layer of small boulders, overlaid by two layers of herring-bone slabs; this is cut diagonally, or is abutted onto by a revetment of irregular large flat boulders; lastly a section of revetment at the west end of 90/91 consists of a revetment of layered boulder, larger in the base than higher up, which is cut/abutted onto by a less regular boulder revetment of squarish to flat boulders; also there is another old stone gatepost, between the blocked gateway and the junction of 86/91 and 90/91; Ho, DR, EL, BB; 3(4); 86/103 (a) possibly end of long tofts? to north of main High Mickley North Row; 1 stint, c.30m.; H, EL; 2; (c) L/b-c(N), revetted; H; 1; 90/93 (b) H, +7; 1+7; 94/95 (b) L/c-b(N); H, DR, BB; taq 1842, some straightening post 1787 (51/95 taq 1856, not shown on 1842 or 1787, but lynchet likely to have been there even if no hedge), likely to be prehistoric or Romano-British in origin, as it forms part of a system that can be shown to be older than woodland growing over part of system; probably = to 79/80-81.

166/174 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 5-11-95; part of north side of lane from Mickley to Prudhoe; (a) 4 stint (?? to ?), each c.30m, only first three have hedge; 2; 1: H, DR, A, BB; 3(4); 2: H, DR; 2; 3: H, DR, BB; 2(3); 4: low drystone wall, boulders mostly; 0; (b) 2/3; H, DR (east end); 2; taq 1819; tpq 1803. 1803-1819

46/64 10-8-94; Division of The Ridings; 8; taq 1967; tpq 1896. 1896-1967

67/68 10-8-94; assart of Low Close Wood; a boundary which has been replaced and removed several times; EL, O; 2; not shown on modern O.S. 1:10,000, taq 1856, 1842 (but altered after), 1787; tpq 1816?

67/70 5-4-95; part of modern boundary to Low Close Wood; 8; taq 1856?; tpq 1842.

68/69 5-4-95; assart of Low Close Wood, now removed; taq 1856, 1842 (but straightened after), 1816, 1787.

68/70 5-4-95; part of modern boundary to Low Close Wood; 8; taq 1856?; tpq 1842.

69/70 5-4-95; part of modern boundary to Low Close Wood; 8; H, EL, Ho, Be, Cherry (on corner); 5; large stones near corner with 68/70; taq 1787.

70/71 5-4-95; part of modern boundary of Low Close Wood; 8; big stones in middle; H, Bt; 2; taq 1856, straightened post 1842, 1787.

76/109 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; part of the old boundary to High Close Wood; (a) 3/4; H; 1; (b) 4/8; H; 1; taq 1856, minor changes occurred at enclosure of Mickley Common, in 1816, which almost certainly included a replanting as well as realignment afterwards, 1787. ?-1787-1816

76/110 (north side) (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; (a) 2; H; 1; (b) L/a-b(N); H; 1; taq 1896; 1816 (possibly a new hedge at that time, or after, as minor alteration done in the area at time), 1787 (possibly minor alterations after? ). ?-1787-1816-1896

77/111 29-3-96; by Bluebell Inn, garden/field boundary; L/c(N); DR, Ho; 2; further-up, all H; 1; taq 1842, 1816; tpq 1787. 1787-1816-1842

78/79 29-3-96; High Close Wood boundaries; west side parallel with Heugh Dene (now filled in here); 8; D/a/d, B/b + drystone wall remains on east side; probably medieval wood bank to thirteenth-century High Wood; north side (probably = to 51/52=52-89/94=86/86? =89/90 & 79/80) wood edge; west end; wall remains; 8; ground falls steeply away to north (L/c(N)); centre section; 8; L/c-b(N), falls into general slope below, D/a/d-e remains (infilled) at top of Lynchet, wall remains might be a retaining wall; east end; L/a(N); taq 1787; Hallyards probably sixteenth-century with final loss of edge to Prudhoe Castle township, so assarts into High Close Wood probably occurred then or before 1787; north side of field probably prehistoric of Romano-British in origin and helps prove than the field system it belongs to is of an earlier date than the woodland.

78/80=79/80 29-3-96; boundaries to High close Wood, or within its former area; 78/80 unfenced; D/a/c remains; taq 1787, sixteenth-century?, former brook line?; 79/80 west side=78/80 L/a(E), D/a/e infilled, B/c; north side; D/a/e (along most of current wood edge, + D/a/d on north side of 8, B/b between; east side; north section; 8; short E-W section L/c(N) falling to 8 at bottom, boulder revetted in places, continues east into wood (=51/52=52-89/94=86/86? =89/90); merges with general slope and becomes bank with ditch above (to south), cut by a ditch and a dene in wood; taq 1787, probably Romano-British or Prehistoric in origin; south section; 8; (B/b; Ho, Be(t) at north end), at south end

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before hits churchyard wall = 8 with Be(t, low pollards?); rough bank, possibly clearance from
grayeyard extension; taq 1787, sixteenth-century? assert of High Close Wood? + see 51/52=52-
89/94=86/86? =89/90

78/107-108=79/82=79/109 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; **Hallyards Farm**; (a) 8; (b) 8; break of slope a little
to the north of garden and farm hedges here; slight hollow-way formed at corner where gateway gives
access to 78; 79/82 south end of modern High Close Wood; (a) 8; (b) 8, relatively level ground; 79/109
Bluebell Inn car park; L/a(N); taq 1787, sixteenth-century?, possibly Romano-British or prehistoric in
origin?

79/80-81 29-3-96; **St. George’s Churchyard wall**; north side; stone retaining wall also to B/c c.4m
wide, c.1m fall to north =L/b(N), possible D/a/d to south of bank; L/b-a(N) continues to east on same
line with possible D/a/d below, possibly=51/95=86-90/91=86/103=90/93 =94/95; west side stone wall
on B/b; east side stone wall; taq 1856, parts 1787, parts sixteenth-century?, part possibly Romano-
British or Prehistoric.

79/85 29-3-96; east side of **High Close Wood**; 8; boundary falls into dene (The Riding Dene), with lots
of Ho at south end; a whole series of ditches and banks (not ridge and furrow, but possibly industrial?),
runs parallel with dene inside wood; taq 1787, medieval? or earlier?

81/82 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; (a) wall; (b) formal stone wall to churchyard; taq 1787 (for boundary).

82/84=83/84=84/107 (a) 10-7-93 (b)21-6-95 (c) 29-3-96; former boundary to **High Close Wood**, **Eastgate Lane**; 82/84 (a) 3 stints (S to N), each c.30m.; 1: H, A, Sy, Garden Sp.; 4: H, Bb; 1(G); 3:
H, A, Sy, MA, Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species=5(6); Average No. Species=3.3(7); (b) 4/8; earth & stone
bank, B/b-c; H, DR, EI, A; 4; (c) at west end same as 84/107; drystone wall remains with L(7)(N); taq
1856, 1842 (but possibly straightened after), 1816 (road line separated from **High Close Wood** by a
strip of common); 83/84 (b) west side of **Eastgate Bank**; c.24m... to just past turning to church, garden
hedge; 6/7; H, Sy, Laburnum; taq 1856, 1842, 1816 (road line separated from **High Close Wood** by a
strip of common); 84/107 (c) part of old **High Close Wood Bank**; drystone wall remains with L(7)(N) on
east half; taq 1787; overall, this boundary is either part of or close to the line of the former edge to **High
Close Wood**, of Medieval or earlier origins.

82/107 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; division between **East and West Hallyards Farm**, in eighteenth-century;
(a) removed post 19607; (b) unfenced line of O(t)’s; B/c; taq 1787, early(er?) eighteenth-century.

84/84 21-6-95; 5 stints (N from the entrance to the church), each c.30m, followed by a 6th covering the
rest of the boundary, to the north; 1: 3/6; L/b(?W?); H, EI, Sy, Bb (+ferns); 3(4); 2: 3/6; L/b(?W?),
stone building?; H, DR, EI, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: 7; L/c(?W?); DR, EI, A, Sy, Br, MA, Bb; 6(7); 4: 7;
B/c?; H, DR, EI, Bt, A, Sy, We, Gooseberry, Bb; 8(9); 5: 7; L/c(W?); H, DR, EI, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR,
A; 3; Total No. Species=10(11); Average No. Species=4.8(5.6); taq 1842, 1816; tpq 1787 (shown as a
dotted line); although probably formalised with the enclosure of Mickley Common, in 1816, it may
have been a scrub line pre 1787. 7-1787-1816

84/86 21-6-95; **Eastgate Bank**, east side; 6 stints (S to N), each c.30m (ends at houses); 1=2/6, rest =6;
1=4/9a(?W?), B/b?, rest = L/c-b(W?); 1: H, EI, Sy, 3; 2: H, EI, Sy, Bb; 3(4); 3: H, DR, EL, WE; 4: 4;
H, DR, EI, Sy, Bb; 4(5); 5: H, DR, A(t), Sy, Bb; 4(5); 6: H, DR, EI, Sy; 4; Total No. Species=6(7);
Average No. Species=3.6(4.2); taq 1856, 1842, 1816 (road laid out at enclosure of Mickley Common in
1816, causing a re-alignment of a previous hedge (or a new one at time?), 1787 (but probably
altered).

84/103=84/104 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 21-6-95; **Eastgate Lane**, south-east side **Tinker’s Row**; lane follows the
old boundary of **High Close Wood**; 84/103 (a) 3 stints (SW to NE), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, EI, A, Bb;
4(3); 2: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, DR, EI, A, Sy, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species=6(7); Average
No. Species=4.7(5.7); (b) L/c(NW?); D/a/d; 84/104 (b) garden hedges (**Tinker’s Row**); L/c(NW);
mostly post 1896, garden alterations; taq 1856, 1816, 1787, but with odd alterations afterwards.

86/90 29-3-96; removed; taq 1856; tpq 1842. 1842-1856

90/94 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 25-10-95; (a) Ho, +?; 1+?; (b) south end; B/e?; H, DR, Ho(mostly), Bb(at south
end); 3(4); north end; no bank, shallow ditch (D/a/d?), El, Ho, Bb; 2(3); taq 1856, 1842, 1787 (before
or after).

91/93 8-10-94; removed post 1967; taq 1787.
91-93/92=91/100=91/101 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-10-94 (c) 25-8-95 (d) 29-3-96 (e) 8-11-96; 91-93/92 township boundary Mickley/Prudhoe Castle, Edgewall Estate; (c) west to east, to kink in hedge; 1/3; L/c(N), small to large boulder and earth revetment; H, DR, El, Ho, Bb; 4(5); from kink eastwards; L/c(N), as above; hedge layered in places, H, El, Bt, Ho, Hz, Bb; 5(6); (c) there appears to be a discontinuity with 91/100=91/101, but this may be due to later minor changes; 91/100 (b) L/b(N); H, El; 2; (probably a replacement hedge); 91/101 north boundary of Colliery Close Wood; (a) 3 stints (W to E), each c.30m; 1: H, El, Ho, Hz, A, Be; 5: 2: H, DR, Ho, Be, Plum; 5: 3: H, DR, El, Ho, Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species=8(9); Average No. Species=5(5.3); (d) L/b(N), stone revetted; taq 1787 (although I suspect that 91/100 is a later replacement); taq 1766 & 1629 for 91-93/92, which is almost certainly taq early thirteenth-century; system part of the east-west field system that is older than High Close Wood, so probably Romano-British or Prehistoric in origin.

91/103=X=101/103=X=102/103 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 29-3-96 (c) 8-11-96; 91/103 (a) east side of Mickley “North Field” or long toft compartment; 3 stints (? to ?), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, El, A; 4: 2: H, DR, El, A, Bb; 4(5); 3: H, DR, Ho, A; 4: 4: H, DR, Ho; 3; Total No. Species=5(6); Average No. Species=3.8(4); (b) B/b (+ boulders), D?; Ho, A, G; 3; on ground (and 1787 map) it can be seen in detail not to be = to the other two described boundaries, this boundary is actually a sub-division of the east-west field system, which is possibly prehistoric (although this boundary is not necessarily so); 101/103 west boundary of Colliery Close Wood; (b) 8; (c) D/a/d-e (deep & narrow), inside the fence line; wood edge consists of DR, Ho, Bt, A; probably of a later date than the other two boundaries described (assart? pre 1787); 102/103 east boundary to of Mickley “North Field” or long toft compartment; (a) general survey = H, El, A, Sy; 4: 2: H, El, Ho, Hz, raspberry, Bb; 5(6); 2: 1/3/7; L/b(N); H, Ho, Hz, Bb; 3(4); 3: 3; L/b(N); H; 1; 4: 3/7; L/b(N); H, Ho(one patch); 2 (+ some bracken); 5: 3/8; L/c(N); B/b; H; 1; 6: 2/3/7/8; L/b-c; H, Ho; 2; 7: 3/7; L/b-c(N); H, El, Ho, Hz; 4 (+ some bracken); 8: 3; L/b-c(N); H, El; 2 (+ some bracken); wiggly on both O.S. eds., extends to the west to become part of 92/97, but much straighter; taq 1856, 1787, 1619; possibly prehistoric or Romano-British in origin (around hut-circle site).

95/96 25-8-95; removed; straightened post 1877.

96/97 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 25-10-95; township boundary Mickley/Prudhoe Castle; (a) 3/4/8; L/c(N); H, +; 1+?; (b) earth Lynchet (falls north), contains some large boulders + diagonal stone revetment in places; 8 stints (E to W), each c.30m, except 8=less than 30m.; 1: 1/7; L/b(N) earth; H, El, Ho, Hz, raspberry, Bb; 5(6); 2: 1/3/7; L/b(N); H, Ho, Hz, Bb; 3(4); 3: 3; L/b(N); H; 1; 4: 3/7; L/b(N); H, Ho(one patch); 2 (+ some bracken); 5: 3/8; L/c(N); B/b; H; 1; 6: 2/3/7/8; L/b-c; H, Ho; 2; 7: 3/7; L/b-c(N); H, El, Ho, Hz; 4 (+ some bracken); 8: 3; L/b-c(N); H, El; 2 (+ some bracken); wiggly on both O.S. eds., extends to the west to become part of 92/97, but much straighter; taq 1856, 1787, 1619; possibly prehistoric or Romano-British in origin (around hut-circle site).

100/101=100/102 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 10-7-93 (c) 25-8-95 (d) 8-11-96; 100/101 East side of Colliery Close Wood; (a) 8; (c) 8; on west side (of east boundary) at top end (south), there is a small ditch (D/a/d), going north (but not at north end); possibly resulting from medieval or post medieval assarting; 100/102 (b) 4/?/8; O, Sy; 2; (c) B/b-c; 4/8; L/c-a(W) to 0 to B/b-c(north end); H, DR, Ho, O(t), Sy(t), Bb; 5(6); possible medieval or post medieval assart, or possibly part of a potential N-S aligned prehistoric or Romano-British field system; taq 1803; late eighteenth-century (NRO ZAN Bell Wm. Prudhoe plan), 1776, 1777, 1803.

100/102=102/168-9 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 25-8-95 (c) 8-11-96; 100/169 (a) 8?; H, Ho, A, O, Sy; 5; (b) long shallow slope falling northwards; 102/168-9 (a) L/c(N); H, Ho, O, Sy; 5; (b) 102/169 L/c(N); (c) 102/169 4/8; L/c-a(N), revetted in places, with boulders; Bt, A(t), Sy; 3; 102/168 4/8; L/a-b(N), revetted in places; H, Ho, A(t); 3; taq 1778, 1776, end of enclosed arable strips (The Goas); possibly part of an early (pre-medieval?) enclosure.

101/102 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-11-96; south-east end of Colliery Close Wood, wood edge; (a) 4 stints (NE to SW), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, Ho, Hz, Bb; 4(5); 2: H, DR, Bt, Ho, Hz, A; 6: 3: H, DR, El, Ho, A; 5: 4: H, El, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species=7(8); Average No. Species=4.8(5.2); (b) L/a(N); H, DR, El, Bt, Ho, A(t); 6; taq 1776; possibly part of an east-west aligned prehistoric or Romano-British field system.
103/103 (additional) 10-7-93; 1 stint; DR, Be, Apple; 3; taq 1961; tpq 1896; a garden hedge. 1896-1961

103/104 10-7-93; general survey = H, DR, El, Ho, A; 5; 6 stints (S? to N?), each c.30m., except 6=c.20m; 1: H, El, Ho; 3: 2: H, DR, Ho; 3: 3: H, DR, Ho; 4: H, DR, El, Ho; 4: 5: H, Ho, A; 3; 6: H, DR, A, cherry; 4; Total No. Species=6; Average No. Species=3.6; taq 1856; tpq 1842?; possibly a realignment or actually a long toft division (taq 1787)?

103/167=159/167 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-11-96; west side and main surviving part of potential early (pre-medieval?) enclosure; (a) H, DR, El, A; 4; (b) 3/8; L/a-b(falls sharply to N), revetted at east end, with a section of drystone walling by the gate between 102 and 167, further along to the south-west (after A((i)), D/a/d to L/a(N)); H, Ho, A; 3(4); 159/167 East side of Cuddy's Well Lane (which is either an access way to the well and/or to the field/long tofts to north of Mickley, also footpath to Eltringham), potential ancient route way associated with enclosure?; (a) 3 stints (N-S), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, El, Ho; 4; 2: H, DR, Ho; 3; 3: H, DR, Ho, A; 4; Total No. Species=4; Average No. Species=3.7; (b) walling at north end (round, squarish stones); H, Ho, A (by wall); 3; Main hedge = B/b (to east of sunken lane); High Ho hedge with H, A(t), Bb; 3(4); taq 1776; likely to be much earlier in origin.

105/166 21-6-95; garden hedges, Tinker's Row; generally Ho mix; taq mostly gardens now but, 1787 line, probably medieval? in origin?

107/108 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 29-3-96; (a) ?; (b) west side of access to Hallyards Farm = H; 1; East side of access to Hallyards Farm = Drystone Wall; taq 1787, sixteenth-century.

107/108 21-6-95; boundaries between farm buildings and 107; 8; various dates.

110/111-149 (a) 29-3-96 (b) 24-5-96; (a) H; 1; (b) 110/149=4/8; H; 1; at south end L/c(E), revetted, where meets 149/150 110/150; taq 1787.

110/151-150=149/150X145/147/148=139/141=141-142/143 (a) 29-3-96 (b) 24-5-96; south boundary of Hallyards Farm, West Pasture, although now as one boundary it is obvious on the ground and from maps that this is not how originated; 110/151-150 (a) 8; L/c(N), drystone revetment (with break in revetment in middle of 110/150, probably added later); 110/151 it would appear from 1803 map that 110/151 is not = to 110/150, but roughly = to 150/151; (a) 3/4/8; L/b(N), probably revetted; H, WE(t); 2; 149/150 S-Shaped boundary=110/150 but not 147/148; (a) east end, east-west section=8; B/c/e, L/a-c(N), drystone wall remains; Bt; 1; middle section, north-south aligned = on curve from east end 8; B/c, Uc(N); Bt; 1; north-south bit=8; L?/W, stone wall on B/c, revetted on north-west face, earth and stone+wall remains; west end, east-west section=4/8; L/c(N), with some flagstone revetment (becomes wall remains towards the east), double Lynchet in places; H, Bt, plum/apple/pear?; 3; 148/150 curves around from 149/150 to become 147/150, but not necessarily = to them; 4/8; L/b-a(NW), B/b, earth & stone; H, odd Bt; 2; 147/147 not = to 148/150 (probably later than it)=139/140 etc.; 8/7; L/c(N), flagstone revetment; H, etc.(?); 1+?; 139/141 (b) 4/8; L/c-a(N), to B at south end where it swings round to become 140/140, with wall remains (of large field stones, horizontally coursed, c.5m. long stretch, possibly part f building); H; 1; 141-142/143 4/8; L/c-a(N), plus clearance stones?; H, + El, Ho at east end; 3; taq 1787, sixteenth-century? or earlier?

110/166=151/166X152/166 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 21-6-95 (c) 29-3-96; 152/166 (a) small hedge at west end of town, part of hedge on west side of lane to Hallyards, remains of former cottage gardens purpurestrated into common green of lane (cottage site taq 1766); H, El, Bt, A, Plum, garden sp., Bb; 6(7); 110/166=151/166X152/166 west side of lane to Hallyards from High Mickley, from west end of green; (b) 12 stints (S-N), each c.30m; 1; 7; L/b-c(E), to road; H, El, Ho, A(t), Be(green and purple); 5; 2; 3/7; L/b(E); H, DR, El, Ho, Bt, A, Bb; 6(7); 3; 7; L/b(E); H, DR, El, Bt, A, Bb; 5(6); 4; 7; L/b(E), plus bank?; H, El, Bt, A(t), Bb; 4(5); 5; 7; L/c(E); H, DR, El, A(t), Bb; 4(5); 6; 7; L/c(E); H, El, Ho, currant; 4; 7; 3/6; L/c(E); El, Ho, Bt, Bb, (plus wood ferns); 3(4); 8; 2/7; L/c(E); H, El, Bt, Bb, (plus wood ferns); 3(4); 9; 3/7; L/c(E); H, El, A, Bb, (plus ferns); 3(4); 10; 4/8; L/c(E), c.3m.+ high, natural shrub? growth?; H, Bb; 1(2); 11; 4/8; L/c(E); A, Bb; 1(2); 12; 3/8; L/c(E); H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species=8(9); Average No. Species=3.4(2); 4=here nearest classification to a hedge which has grown up naturally; bottom end by 106=2; H; 1; (c) bottom end by 106=L/b(W); taq 1766, Hallyards = c. sixteenth-century (at least), double row of Mickley probably thirteenth-century or earlier, possibly part of a north-south aligned Prehistoric/Romano-British system?

111/112=148/149 24-5-96; 111/112 2; H; 1; 148/149 3/8; L/a-b(E) at south end where meets 148/150 149/150; H; 1; taq 1896, 1842(?check), straightened post 1787.
111/149=112/148=115/141-142=115/148 (a) 29-3-96 (b) 24-5-96; 111/149 (a) & (b) removed; 112/148=115/141-142=115/148 (a) 3/4/8; H, 1; taq 1896, straightened after 1787.

112/113 24-5-96; H, DR, El, Ho; 4; taq 1896; tpq 1842 (or not drawn); possibly on the line of an earlier prehistoric/Romano-British terrace, not drawn previously as on common. ?-1842-1896

138/139=216/217 24-5-96; Mickley Common; 6/7; L/b-c(W); H, DR, El, Ho; 4; taq 1896; tpq 1842 (or not drawn); possibly on the line of an earlier prehistoric/Romano-British terrace, not drawn previously as on common. ?-1842-1896

139/140 24-5-96; 2/3; B/b, plus a few large clearance boulders; H, DR, Ho(a few); 3; taq 1896; tpq 1842; not = to 110/151-150=149/150X148/150X147/148=139/141=141-142/143

139/143 24-5-96; 2/3; L/c(W), up to c.2m high, modern ploughing has possibly added c.0.5m. to this, gate stone near south end; H, DR, 2; taq 1896; tpq 1842; possibly a slight shift in position with time through ploughing, might actually have an older origin, as topographical? ?-1842-1896

140/141 24-5-96; 2/8; L/a(?); H, DR, El; 3; taq 1896, on similar line to one in 1842 & 1787; open-field/common edge/topographical; possibly a prehistoric/Romano-British terrace in origin? ?-1878-1842x1896

142/148 24-5-96; B/b; H, DR; 2; taq 1787.

143/144 24-5-96; removed; taq 1896; tpq 1842. 1842-1896

145/146 24-5-96; 2/3; H; 1; taq 1896, 1787 (except for little bit a south end), 1762/6 enclosure of West Field area.

145/205=146/204=154/199=156/198 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 1-11-94 (c) 24-5-96; 145/205 (c) B/b; H, 1; 146/204 (c) 3/4/8; L/b(N) to B/c7; H, 1; 154/199 removed; 156/198 (a) 4/8; one H, and one A, only; (possibly not = to rest as taq 1842; tpq 1787 but not necessarily drawn at time or a boundary reinstated on older line)); taq 1787; dating from 1762/6 enclosure of West Field area?

145/216=205/216 24-5-96; 145/216 1; L/c(W); H, DR; 2; 205/216 3/6/8; L/b-c(W); H, DR, Ho; 3; modern ploughing has possibly enhanced the lynchet; taq 1787; dating from 1762/6 enclosure of West Field area?

146-204/154-199 (a) 1-11-94 (b) 24-5-96; not as straight as first appears from map; (a) 2/3; B/b(c.5m.); H, +?; 1+?; (b) 146/154 3/4/8; L/a(E); H; 1; 199/204 4/8; B/b; H; taq 1787 (but straightened and altered in places), probably boundary of Upper Field, pre 1724, 1608, 15??; possibly part of the North-South aligned potential Prehistoric/Romano-British field system?

147/150=153 29-3-96; 3/8; B/b; H, 1; taq 1787

150-153 24-5-96; drystone wall, gate stone at position of former boundary J50/153; B/c? (broad and low), with L/a(W); taq 1819 (wiggly, slight changes each time drawn), 1803, 1787; possibly Prehistoric/Romano-British in origin? (North-South System)?

150/153 24-5-96; removed; taq 1896; tpq 1842. 1842-1896

151/153 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 24-5-96; (a) mature and patchy; H, 1; (b) 4/6; broad L/b(N) to B/c, D/a/d along south side; H, El; 2; taq 1819 (straightened after?), 1803, 1787.

151/155=153/155=154-199/155 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 28-10-94 (c) 24-5-96; west side of ward lane (enclosure road? from 1762/6?); 151/155 (a) hedge to gate, at north end of line; H, plum, Bb; 2(3);
153/155 (a) H, DR; 2; (c) 4; L/b(W), plus drystone wall; H, +?; 1+?; 154-199/155 (a) Ash trees/shrubs here had been layered in past; towards the south end the hedge is on a bank; 11 stints (N to S), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, El; 3; 2: H, DR, A; 3; 3: H, A; 2; 4: H; 1; 5: (gate stone); H; 1; 7: H, A, Bb; 2(3); 8: H, DR, A, Bb; 3(4); 9: H, A, Bb; 2(3); 10: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 11: H, Bb; 1(2); Total No. Species=4(5); Average No. Species = 1.8(2.3); taq 1787, 1762/6? (probably), 1724 boundary to West Field area? (possibly, if so possibly taq 160? & 15??, but that is all more likely for the east side of the lane). ? -1762/6-1787

155/156-198=196/201=196-234/233=197/200=197/201 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 31-5-93 (c) 28-10-94 (d) 24-5-96; east side of Ward Lane (enclosure road? from 1762/6? ); 155/156-198 (a) field stone wall (w) for 1st. c.60m, with WE (which had been layered & dominated parts of the hedge), A(t, large, in row, in middle section); 11 stints (N to S), each c. 30m; 1: H, DR, El, Bb; 1(2); 2: H, DR, Bt, A(t); 4; 3: H, DR, El, Bt, WE; 5; 4: H, DR, WE, A(t), Sy, Bb; 5(6); 5: H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); H, DR, Bt, A(t), Bb; 5(6); 8: H, DR, A(t), Bb, (bluebells); 3(4); 9: H, DR, El, Bb; 3(4); 10: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 11: 0; Total No. Species = 7(8): Average No. Species = (minus 11: ) 3.4(4.1): (c) 1; B/b-c; 196/201 (d) 3/6; L/a(E); H, DR, Ho, Bb; 3(4); 196-234/233 hedge line continuing the line of the east side of Ward Lane to the south where it meets Modigar's Lane (a) sharp Lynchet (L/b(E)); 6 stints (N? to S?), each c.30m.; 1: H, Ho; 2; 2: H, O; 2; 3: H, O; 2; 4: H; 1; 5: H, A; 2; 6: H; 1; Total No. Species = 4; Average No. Species = 1.7; (d) 4/6/8; broad bank at south end; H, C9th.; ; 2; 197/200-201 east side of Ward Lane; (a) no real hedge (8?); H, DR, WE; 3; (c) 4/8; (d) 4/8; L/a(W) to B/b; H, WE; H, DR, El; 3; 197/201 (b) 2 stints (? to ?), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, El; 3; 2: H, DR, Bb; 2(3); Total No. Species = 3(4); Average No. Species = 2.5(3); (d) 2; L/b(W), B/b; H; 1; taq 1787, 1766(implied), 1762/6 (enclosure of West Field Area, most likely time of construction); possible taq 1724, 1608, 15??

156/162=162/198=194/195=194/197 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 11-11-96; 156/162 hedge to West End Farm; (a) H, DR, El; 3; 162/198 (a) 5 stints (S to N), each c. 30m., except 1: =c. 86m.; 1: H, gooseberry; 1.3; 2: DR, gooseberry; 3; 3: H, DR, El, A; 4; 4: H, DR; 2; 5: H, DR, El; 3; Total No. Species = 5; Average No. Species = 1.7; (d) 4/194/195 (a) small piece of hedge; H, DR; 2; 194/197 (a) H, DR; 2; (c) L/c(S) at east end, boulders in places (revetment); H; 1; taq c.1851, 1842, 1876 (possibly as surrounding system in place), possibly dating from 1762/6 enclosure, but that probably only applied to other, non-freehold, parts of Mickley, possibly part of some pre-late sixteenth-century enclosure?, possibly part of North-South prehistoric/Romano-British Field System.

156/166 31-5-93; Fieldstone wall on east side of Ward Lane, at West End Farm; W; H, DR, El; 3; taq 1895, 1842?, some alterations post 1787, but line earlier, possibly from 1762/6 enclosure?

158/166 21-6-95; east side of sunken lane to Hallyards/Eltringham; 12 stints (S to N), each c.30m; 1: 6; B/? (earth & flatstone bank); DR, A; 2; 2: 6; B/? (earth & flatstone bank); H, A; 2; 3: 3/6; B/? (earth & flatstone bank); H, A, Bb; 2(3); 4: 3/6; B/? (earth & flatstone bank); Bt, A, Bb; 2(3); 5: 3/6; L/b-(d), revetted?; DR, El, Bt, A(t); 4; 6: 7; L/c(W), no revetment; H, DR, El, A; 4; 7: 7; L/c(W); H, DR, Bt, A(t), Sy, Bb; 5(6); 7: 7; L/c(W); H, DR, El, Bt, A(t), Bb; 5(6); 9: 3/7; H, DR, El, G; 4; 10: 3/4; L/c(W), c.3m. + high (natural secondary growth rather than 4); DR, El, G, Bb; 3(4); 11: 3/7; L/c(W); H, DR, G; 3; 12: (garden hedge); 6; L/c(W); DR, El, snowberry, plum; 4; taq 1787, 1766; medieval at least in origin? Hallyards at least sixteen-century, but forms part of the pedal plan of a classic two-row village plan, possibly on line of a potential prehistoric/Romano-British north-south field system.

159/159 (lane) (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-11-96; west side of lane to Cuddy's Well, High Mickley, possibly an old access way to fields to north of north row, or to well, plus footpath to Eltringham; (a) 3 stints (S to N), each c.30m., except 1: =c.86m.; 1: H, gooseberry; 1.3; 2: H, DR, gooseberry; 3; 3: H, DR, El, A; 4; 4: H, DR; 2; 5: H, DR, El; 3; Total No. Species = 5; Average No. Species = 4; (b) L/c(W); DR, El, snowberry, plum; 4; taq 1787, 1766; medieval at least in origin? Hallyards at least sixteenth-century, but forms part of the pedal plan of a classic two-row village plan, possibly on line of a potential prehistoric/Romano-British north-south field system.

162/194=197/198 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 24-5-96; (a) H; 1; 197/198 (b) H; 1; taq 1842, 1787 (or part implied), probably pre-1776; possibly dating from 1762/6 enclosure?

163-164/193 25-8-95; lane from Hedley to Mickley, Prudhoe and Eltringham; 2/3; L/E, falls down to road, B/b?; H, DR, El, Ho, Bb; 4(5); taq 1776, 1766; possibly part of prehistoric/Romano-British system?

163/193 25-8-95; H, A(t), +?; 2+?; taq 1842; tpq Wm. Prudhoe plan c.1800.
165/166 31-5-93; taq 1842; tpq 1787
166/167 31-5-93; taq 1842; tpq 1787
166/169 31-5-93; taq 1842; tpq 1787, realignment of an earlier line

166/167-173 21-6-95; 4 stints (E to W), each c.30m.; 1: 2/3; H, DR, A(t), Bb; 3(4); 2: 2; D/a/d; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 3: 2; D/a/d; H, DR, Bb; 2(3); 4: 2; H, DR, A(+t), Bb; 3(4); garden species also; Total No. Species = 3/4(4/5); Average No. Species = 2.505); taq 1819; tpq 1803. 1803-1819

168/169 (a) 10-7-93 (b) 8-10-94; open-field strip division; (a) H, Bt, Ho, A (probably actually El), Sy, O; 6; (b) 5 stints (S to N), each c.30m (from end of fieldstone walling (which runs from road to 2nd. strip bulge?)); 1: 3/4/8; W/e, L/a/d(E?); H, O(t), MA; 3: 3/4/8; B/b, D/a/d (to east?); H, El, Bt, Bb; 3(4): 3/4/8; H, Bt, Ho(t); 3: 4/8; B/b; O(t); 1: 5: 4/8; B/b; Sy(t), O(t); 2; Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 2.4(2.6); taq 1787; an enclosure of a medieval strip system.

169/174 21-6-95; site of east farm in 1803 (possibly ancient site); 8; taq 1766; possibly medieval? common/green edge?

171/172=183/189=184/188=185/186-187 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 6-11-95 (c) 24-5-96; 171/172 (a) 3; H, A(t), +?; 2+?; (b) 2/3; slight but wide bank (B/b-c%, shallow ditch to west (D/a/d); H, DR, El, A, apple, Bb; 5(6); 183/189 (a) 4/8; H, +?; 1+?; remains of track; (c) 4/6/8; B/b to L/a(W), D/a/d-e (to west); H, A(t), O(t); 3; 184/188 (a) B/b; H, DR, A(t), Sy(t); 4; 185/186-187 (a) B/c; H; 1; taq 1776; possible prehistoric/Romano-British in origin.

171-186-187/192 25-8-95; lane from Hedley to Mickley, Prudhoe and Eltringham; 2/3; IJa(E), falling away from road, road ditch further north; H, DR, Bt, crab apple; 4; taq 1766; medieval?; post Prehistoric/Romano-British Field system.

172/173 21-6-95; removed; taq 1830; tpq 1776. 1766-1803

173/177=179/180=179/181=179/182 (a) 8-5-93 or 21-6-95 (b) 8-5-93 (c) 21-6-95 (d) 25-8-95; west side of Hedley Park Colliery Lane; 173/177 (c) 2; H, DR, A; 3; 179/180 (c) H, DR; 2; 179/181 (a) 6 stints (S to N), each c.30m; 1: H, DR, MA, Bb; 3(4); 2: H, DR, sallow, G, Bb; 4(3); 3: H, G, Bb; 2(3); 4: H, G, Bb; 2(3); 5: H, A, sallow; 3; 6: H, G; 2; Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 2.7(3.3); 179/182 (b) from entrance to Hyons West Wood/Colliery to first hedge to west (181/182); 5 stints (S to N), each c.30m.; 1: H, DR, Ho, A, MA, sallow, G, Bb; 7(8); 2: H, DR, Ho, A, MA, sallow, Bb; 6(7); 3: H, DR, Ho, A, Sy, MA, apple/pear, G, Bb; 8(9); 4: H, DR, Ho, A, Bb; 4(5); 5: H, El, Ho, MA, apple/pear, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species = 10(11); Average No. Species = 6(7); (d) B/d, D/a(d)?; taq 1776; possibly part of potentially prehistoric/Romano British, north-south field system.

175/176 21-6-95; removed; taq 1819, 1803? (not on plan but implied in schedule).

175/177b 21-6-95; 2; H, DR, A(t, 1 by corner/reservoir), sallow; 4; taq 1803, implied 1787 & 1766 (start of track shown).

178/179 21-6-95; 8; taq 1894; tpq 1842, c.1847. 1842/7-1894

180/185=181/184 (a) 21-6-95 (b) 25-8-95; 180/185 (a) 3/6; H; 1; 181/184 (b) 1/7; Ditch? or bank?; H, Ho; 2; taq 1803, pencil line on 1766 plan, which may imply that it was planted at this time or drawn additionally to the plan at the time of the division of the shared Davison/Newton estate.

181/182=188/189=183/184=182/184 25-8-95; Old wood clearance/edge line?; 181/182 3 stints (E to W), each c.30m; 1/7; 1: D/a/f (to north); H, DR, Ho, crab apple, G, Bb; 5(6); 2: B/b, D/a/f (to North); H, DR, Ho, crab apple, G, Bb; 5(6); 3: H, DR, Ho, Bt, crab apple, Bb; 5(6); Total No. Species = 6(7); Average No. Species = 5(6); 188/189 3/4/7; B/b-c (earth & boulder (one large slab)), D/a/d (shallow, to north), large collection of boulders in hedge at one point (probably from field clearance); H, DR, Ho; 3; 183/184 2 stints (E to W), 1: c.30m, 2: c.40m; 1: 3/4/8; L/b(S?) to B/b (very large squarish boulder at end of stint); H, DR, Ho, A(t); 4; 2: 3/7/8; B/b (earth/small boulders, some very large boulders by ash tree and gate); Ho, A(t); 2; Total No. Species = 4; Average No. Species = 3; 182/184/short bit (from east) to hedge to south (182/183); 3/4/8; B/b-c to L/b(S), with boulders; 1 stint, c.35m; H, Ho, A(t), crab apple; 4; taq 1776.

182/183 (a) 25-8-95 (b) 24-5-96; (a) 2/3; large stone gate post at north end where former gateway; hedge been layered in past, H, +?; 1+?; (b) B/b-c; H, Ho; 2; on same alignment as drains in field 183, similar date as; taq 1896; tpq 1842, c.1847. 1842/7-1896
187/188b (north-south section) 25-8-95; 3; B/b-c, earth & boulder; parts of gate posts at north end, at current gateway and towards the south end (last two parts my be part of the same); H; 1; taq 1776

188/191=189/191 25-8-95; 3; B/b-c, earth & boulder; parts of gate posts at north end, at current gateway and towards the south end (last two parts my be part of the same); H; 1; taq 1776, possibly prehistoric/Roman-British north-south system in origin?

190/191 24-5-96; old wood clearance line?; removed; taq 1842.

192/195-234 (a) 31-5-93; 8; H, L/a/c, Bb; 1; taq 1842; possibly semi-natural, old stream line?

193/195 25-8-95; Hedley to Mickley lane from the junction with Modigar's Lane to footpath junction; H, DR, El, Bt, Sy, white poplar, Bb; 6(7); (b) 192/234 L/b(E); taq 1896, 1842 (with slight alterations afterwards), probably pre 1776 (but not necessarily hedged, as plan suggests not hedged, or undrawn).

195/196 (a) 24-5-96 (b) 11-11-96; (a) 3/6; H; 1; (b) 3/4; B/b (north end), D/a/d (east side); H; 1; taq 1842; possibly prehistoric/Roman-British in origin?

195/197=196/197 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 24-5-96 (c) 11-11-96; old wood clearance line?; 195/197 (a) H, DR, Bb; 2(3); (c) 3/8; L/c(S), boulders in places (affected by modern building at east end); H; 1; 196/197 (a) H, DR, El; 3; (b) 2; L/b(S); H, Bt; 2; taq c.1851, possible changes post 1842, ditto 1787 (part shown only?).

195/234=196/234 24-5-96; 4; B/b; H; 1; taq 1842; possibly semi-natural, old stream line?

196/197=200-203/204=205/207=215/219 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 24-5-96; old wood clearance line?; 195/197 (a) H, DR, El, Bt, Sy, white poplar, Bb; 6(7); (b) 192/234 L/b(E); taq 1896, 1842 (with slight alterations afterwards), probably pre 1776 (but not necessarily hedged, as plan suggests not hedged, or undrawn).

199/200=200-203/204=205/207=215/219 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 24-5-96; 199/200 (a) bit of field stone wall (W) + stone gate post; H; 1; 200-203/204 (b) L/a-b(S); H, +7; 7+7; 205/207 (b) 3/4/8; H; 1; 215/219 (b) 8; taq 1877 (except 215/219 which was beyond map and is possibly semi natural (dene edge), or from enclosure of Mickley Common in 1816?); possibly dating from the enclosure of the West Field Common arable area in 1762/6, or possibly older as the boundary between the Upper Field and Broomhill Field.

199/200=202/203 (a) 24-10-94? (or 31-5-93? ) (b) 28-10-94 (c) 24-5-96; Broomhill; 200/201 (a) H, DR; 2; (c) 2; L/a(S); H; 1; 202/203 (b) H, +7; 7+7; (c) removed?; taq 1778; probably from the enclosure of West Field Area in 1762/6.

200/203=201/202=232/233 (a) 28-10-94 (b) 24-5-96; 200/203 (b) 3/4; L/b(W); H; 1; 201/202 (a) H, DR; 2; (b) 2/3; H; 1; 232/233 (b) 4/8; B/b?; taq 1778; probably from the enclosure of the West Field common arable area in 1762/6.

201/233=209/210-231=208/211 (a) 31-5-93 (b) 28-10-94; old wood edge?; 201/233 (a) L/b-c(S); A(t, large); (b) 3/4; L/b-c(S); H, DR, El, A(t); 4; 209/210-231 (b) 6 stints (W to E), each c.30m.; B/b; 1: 3/7/8; H, El; 2: 2/3/8; H, El, Ho, Bb; 3(4): 3/8/4; H; El, Ho, Bb; 3(4): 4/8/4; H; 1; 5: 3/8; H, DR, Ho, Ht, Bt; 3: 6: 6/8; H, Ht, Bt, A(t), Bb; 4(5); Total No. Species = 7(8); Average No. Species = 3(5.3); 208/211 (b) (looks interesting) 3/7; Ho, Bt, +7; 7+7; taq 1787.

202/209=203/209=231/232=204/205 (a) 28-10-94 (b) 24-5-96; 202/209 (a) 4/8; one A(t); 1; (b) 4/8; L/w(W?); 203/209 (b) 4/8; L/w(W?); (all but northern end by well, pre 1778, 1842); 231/232 (b) 4/8; A(t); 1; (northern end had minor alterations post 1787); 204/205 (b) H; 1; taq 1878 (except where noted); probably dating from the enclosure of the West Field area in 1762/6.

205/214 24-5-96; 8; taq 1787; probably dating from the enclosure of the West Field area in 1762/6.

207/209 24-5-96; H; 1; taq 1787; probably dating from the enclosure of the West Field area in 1762/6, but possibly the boundary of the meadow part of the Meadow Field, in 1724 and earlier.

207-208/214=213/230 (east)=229/230 (east) (a) 28-10-94 (b) 24-5-96; 207-208/214 (b) L/a-b(W); H, Bb; 1(2); 213/230 (east)=229/230 (east) (a) 2; H, DR, El; 4; taq 1787; probably dating from the enclosure of the West Field area in 1762/6.

210/230 28-10-94; Mickley Grange; dry stone wall (field quarry stone); taq 1896; tpq 1842. 1842-1896

210/231=230/231 28-10-94; Mickley Grange; 210/231 2; H, El; 2; 230/231 2; H, El; 2; taq 1787; probably dating from the enclosure of the West Field area in 1762/6, or possibly slightly before (or after?), as probably part of the South Pasture in 1724.

449
214/214=214/219 24-5-96; 4/7; L/c(W); H, Ho, Bt, G; 4; taq 1787; probably the old common open, town-field/Mickley Common edge.

214-219/216 24-5-96; 3/4/8; line of Old Well Syke; B/b-c to L(S), altered recently; H, Bt; 2; additional boundary to north in 1842; taq 1787 (stream/Syke line).

215/216 24-5-96; edge to ? Dene area; remains of Old Well Syke can be seen feeding into this area; north-south part 8, some wall remains in south-east area of or L/a(W) revetment, generally falling into dene; H; 1; east-west part 8; L/c?(S) falling into dene; H; 1; dene planted with O(t), Be(t), Scots Pine(t) and WE?; taq 1896; tpq 1842. There is a possible prehistoric? lynchet (L/c(W)) running from 216 and crosses dene area (215); 1842-1896

215/219 24-5-96; south side of Dene; 8; taq 1896?; tpq 1842? 1842-1896?

219/219 24-5-96; 8; taq 1961; tpq 1896. 1896-1961

219/222 24-5-96; removed; taq 1842.

245/246 14-5-94; Modigar's Lane (north-west side); 1/7; L/b(?); H, DR, El, A, Sy(odd one), Bb; 5(6); taq 1842, 1816; tpq 1769; probably planted on enclosure of Mickley Common in 1816. 1816?

246/247 14-5-94; north-west side of lane to Hedley from West Riding; 7; B/c-e; H, DR, A(t), Sy; 4; taq 1842, 1816; tpq 1769. Probably planted on enclosure of Mickley Common in 1816. 1816?
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Map 4: - Aerial Photograph & Surface Survey Features.
Map 8: The Landscape in the mid Eighteenth Century.
Map 12: Hedley in the Early Seventeenth Century (based on the Mason Survey).