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Atlas of Scottish History to 1707

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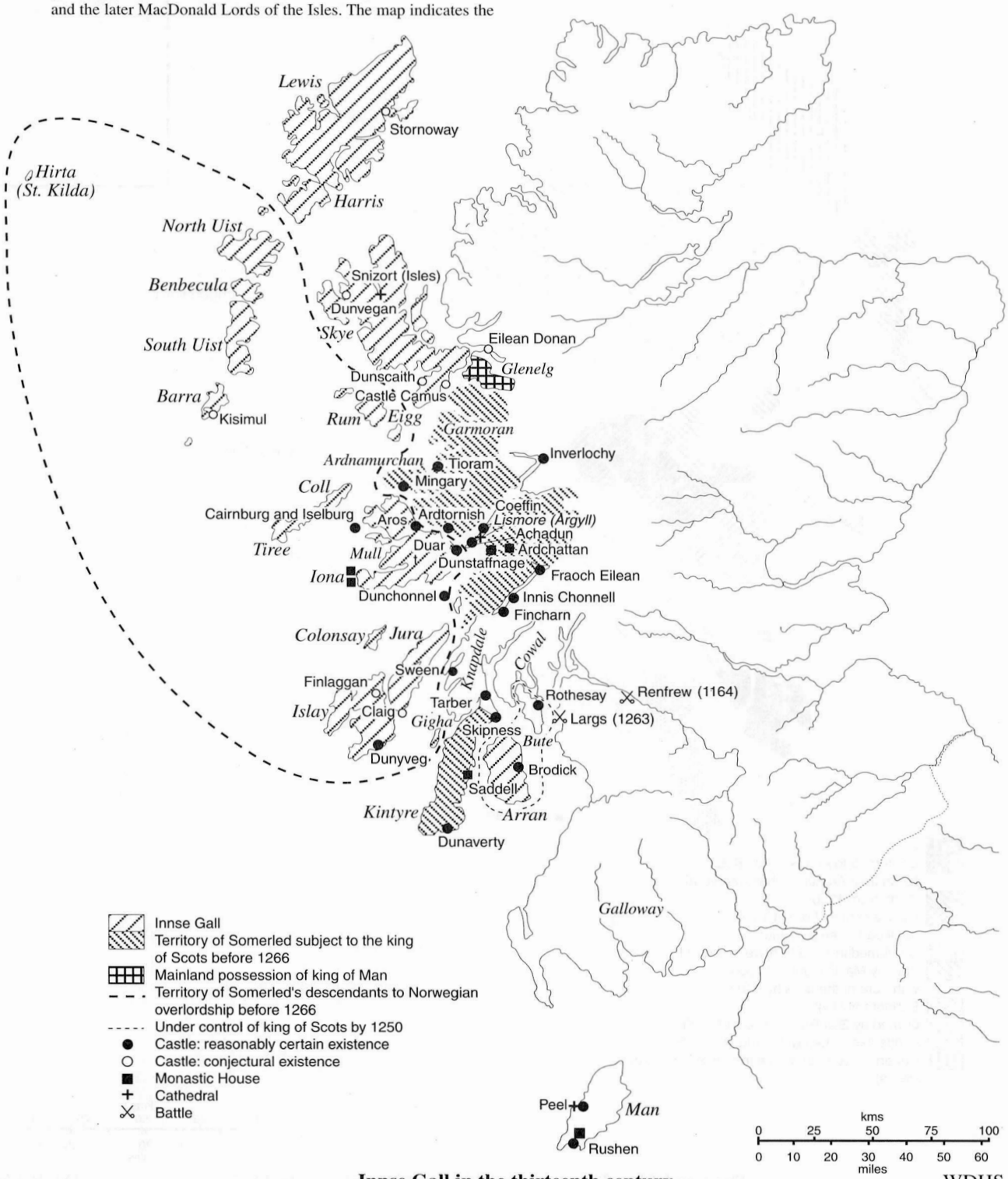
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Regional and local

Innse Gall in the thirteenth century

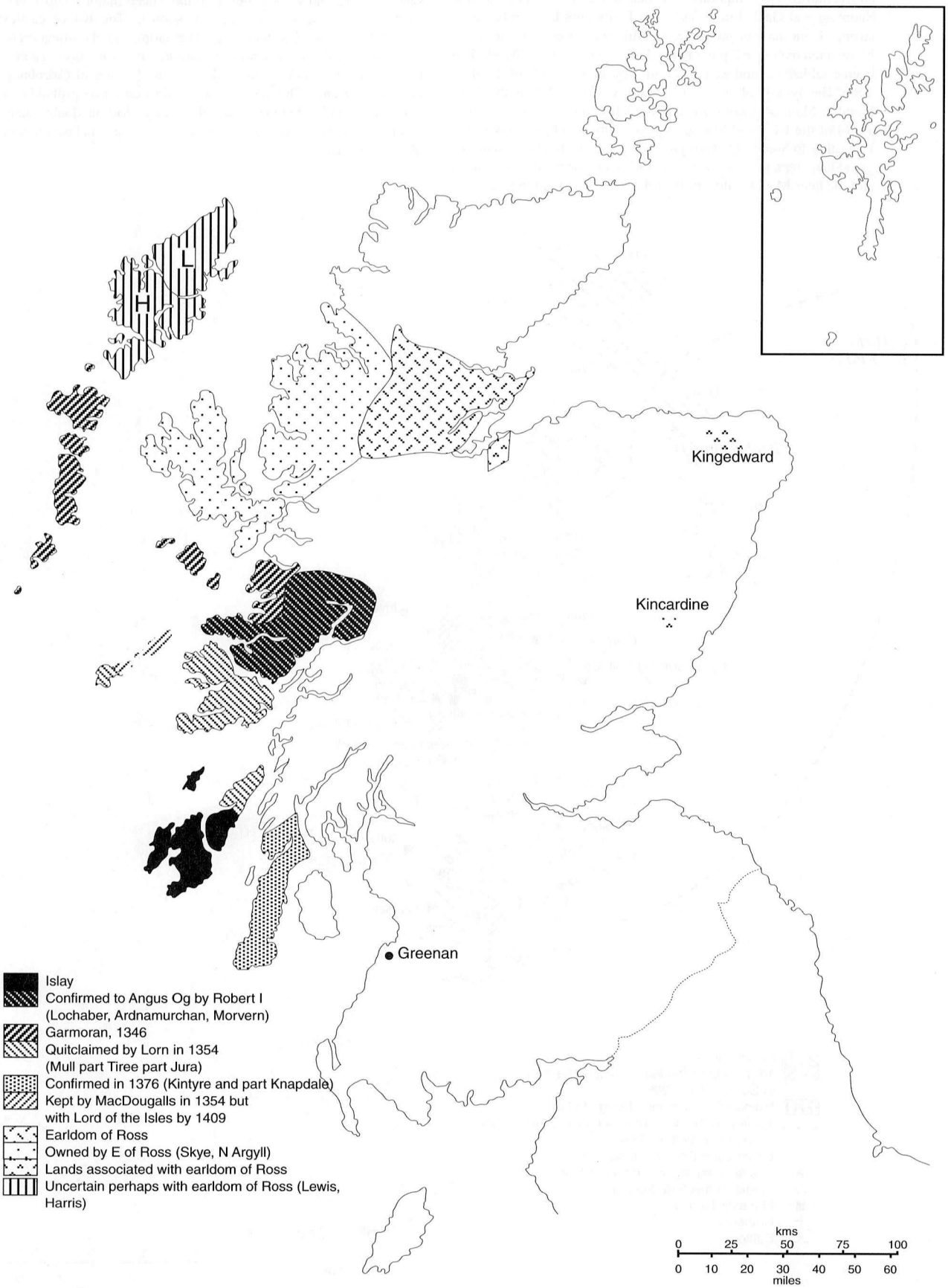
The Kingdom of the Isles, extending from the Calf of Man to the Butt of Lewis, emerged as a political unit in the tenth and eleventh centuries. Contemporary nomenclature by both Norwegian (the Sudreys) and Gael (Innse Gall - the Foreigners Isles) reflected a strong Scandinavian presence. By the twelfth century at latest, Norwegian overlordship in matters both secular and religious had been established, and was to continue until the treaty of Perth in 1266. The dynasty of Godred (or Godfrey) Crovan (d. about 1095), based in Man, originally ruled all the isles, but lost control (about 1156) of the Islay and Mull groups of islands and probably of the Uists also, to Somerled of Argyll. Somerled had married Godred's granddaughter and is the ancestor of the MacDougalls,the MacRuaris and the later MacDonald Lords of the Isles. The map indicates the likely division of territory between the kings of Man and the house of Somerled. The areas of the mainland where Somerled's descendants are known or believed to have been major landowners, subject to the king of Scots, are also shown. The list of castles should be regarded as tentative. The dating and classification of Hebridean castles is notoriously fraught with problems. The intention is to include stone castles (or, in the case of Cairnburg, Iselburg and Dun Chonnel, strongly fortified sites) probably in existence by the end of the thirteenth century. Without doubt, many older brochs and duns were also in at least occasional occupation then and later.



Innse Gall in the thirteenth century WDHS

The Lordship of the Isles

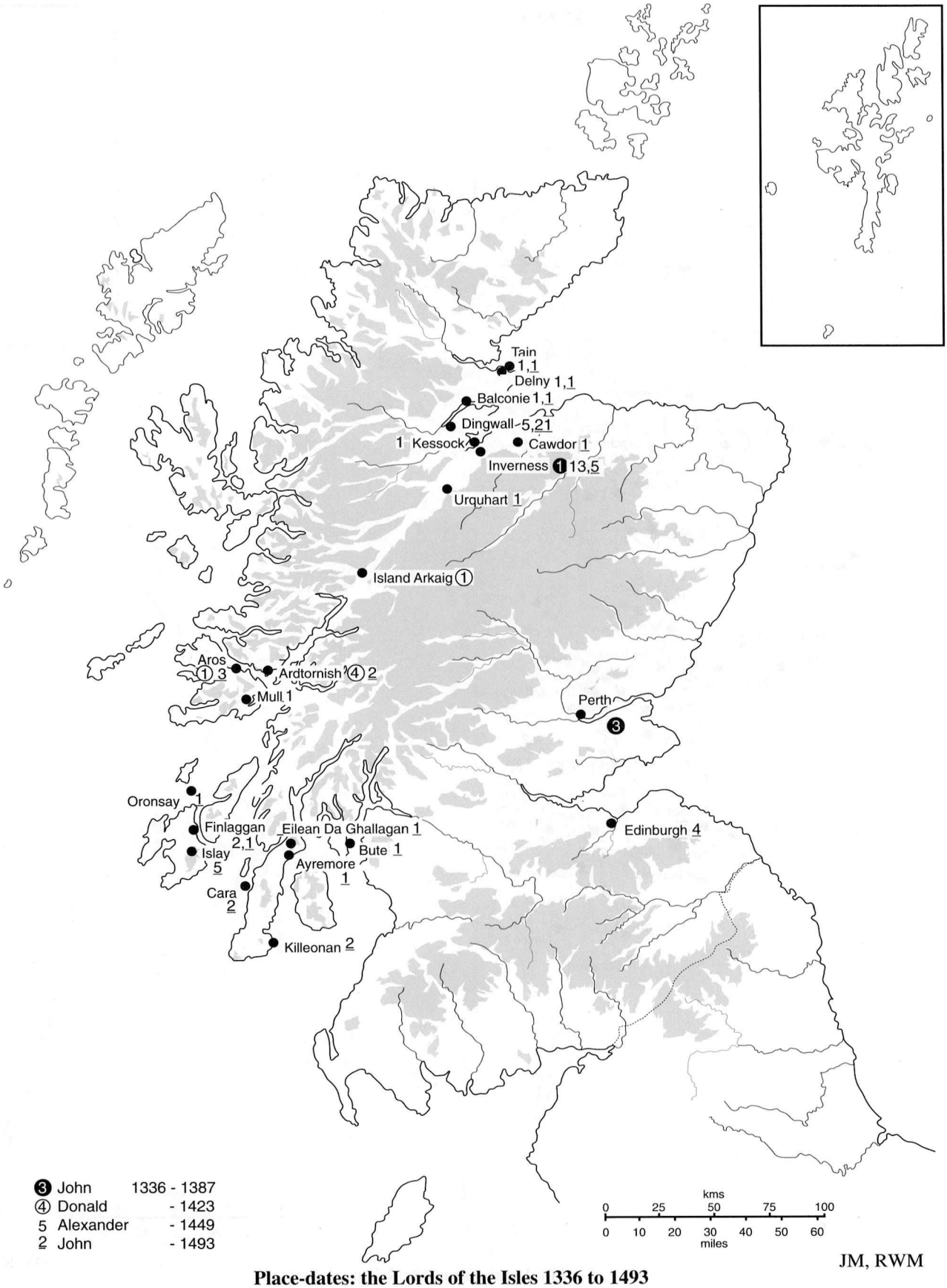
The lands which belonged to the Lords of the Isles, descendants of Somerled of Argyll, in 1475 were acquired in a variety of ways and were all held from the king of Scots following the Treaty of Perth in 1266. Expanding from the family's base in Islay, some lands were granted or confirmed by Robert I and David II as reward for support in the wars of independence, partly at the expense of the MacDougalls. Others were acquired through the marriage of John, Lord of the Isles first with the heiress of the MacRuaris of Garmoran and later with a daughter of the Steward of Scotland (the future King Robert II), and of Donald, Lord of the Isles with the daughter of William, earl of Ross.



The Lordship of the Isles: lands from 13th century to 1475 JM, RWM

The Lordship of the Isles

Most of the acts of the Lords of the Isles of which the texts survive record the place and date of issue. While the lordship was held along with the earldom of Ross - that is, from at least 1437 until 1475 - places within the mainland earldom predominate, even when the acts themselves relate to the Isles. Of the others, places of origin are scattered throughout the southern part of the lordship; if any were issued on the seaboard or islands north of Ardnamurchan, none is known to have survived.

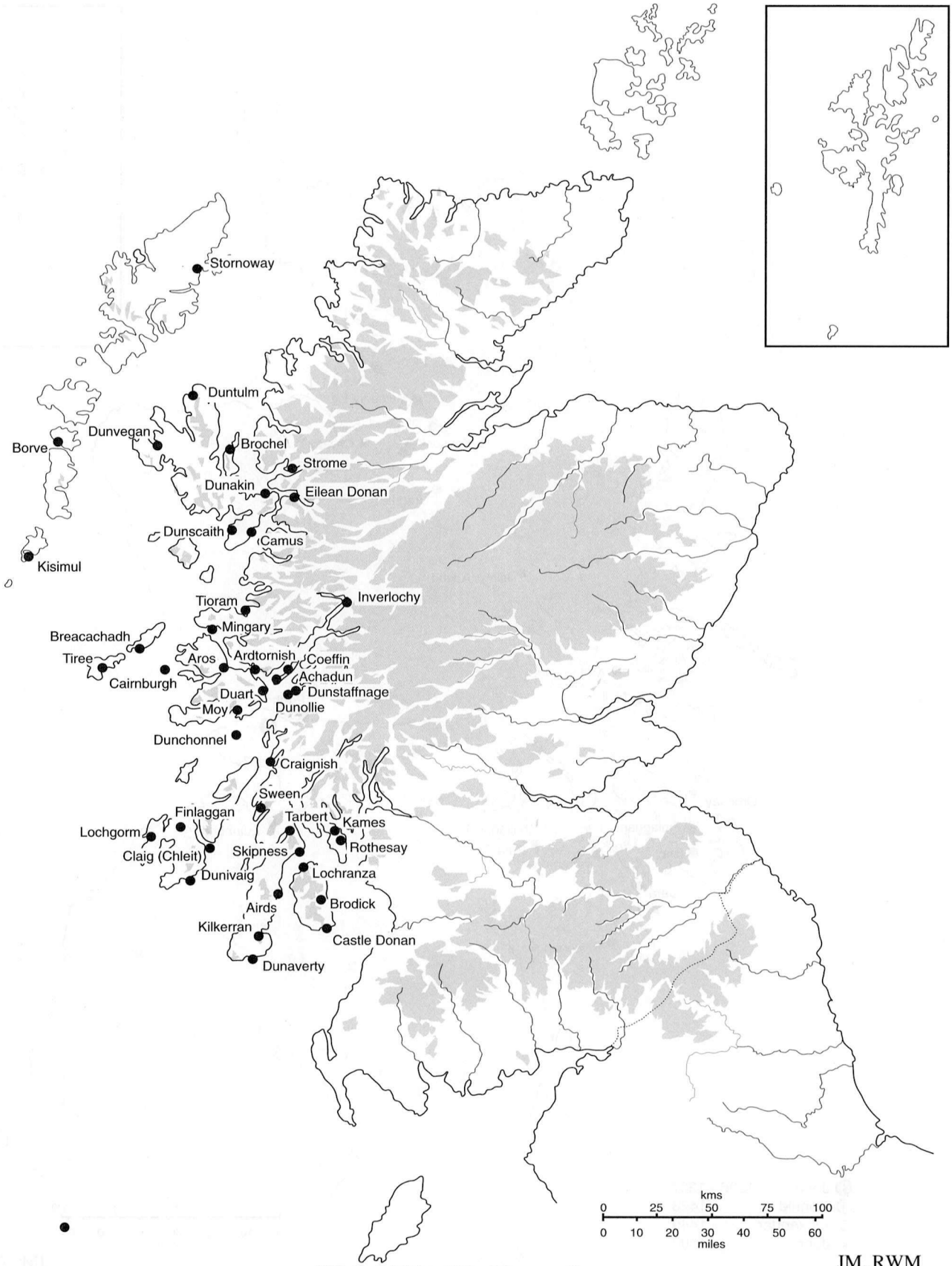


JM, RWM

Place-dates: the Lords of the Isles 1336 to 1493

The Lordship of the Isles

A remarkable series of stone castles built on the western seaboard and islands, where traffic in peace and war was essentially by sea, are evidence of the power and influence of the Lords of the Isles and their branch families and adherents. Many of the ruins are difficult to date, and some forts and duns of prehistoric origin show signs of later occupation and re-use. Those shown on the map are mentioned in documents, chronicles or topographical accounts written before 1550, when the last attempt to restore the Lordship of the Isles had ended.

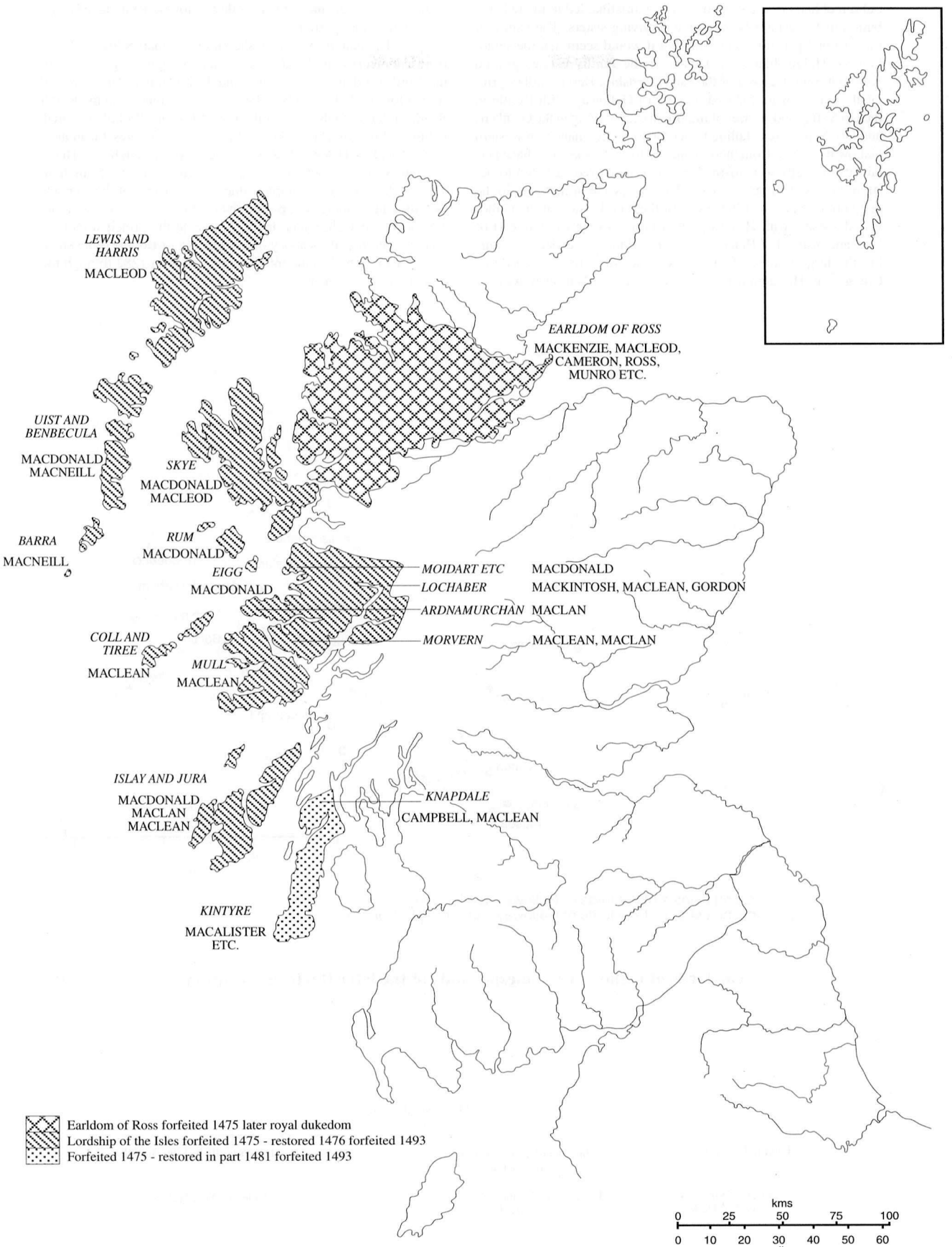


The Lordship of the Isles: castles

JM, RWM

The Lordship of the Isles

After the forfeiture of the earldom of Ross in 1475 and of the Lordship of the Isles in 1493, their territories were granted by the crown mainly to the heads of Clan Donald branches or other leading families who had held them from the forfeited superior. Charters in the Register of the Great Seal indicate those to whom the lands passed following the forfeitures.



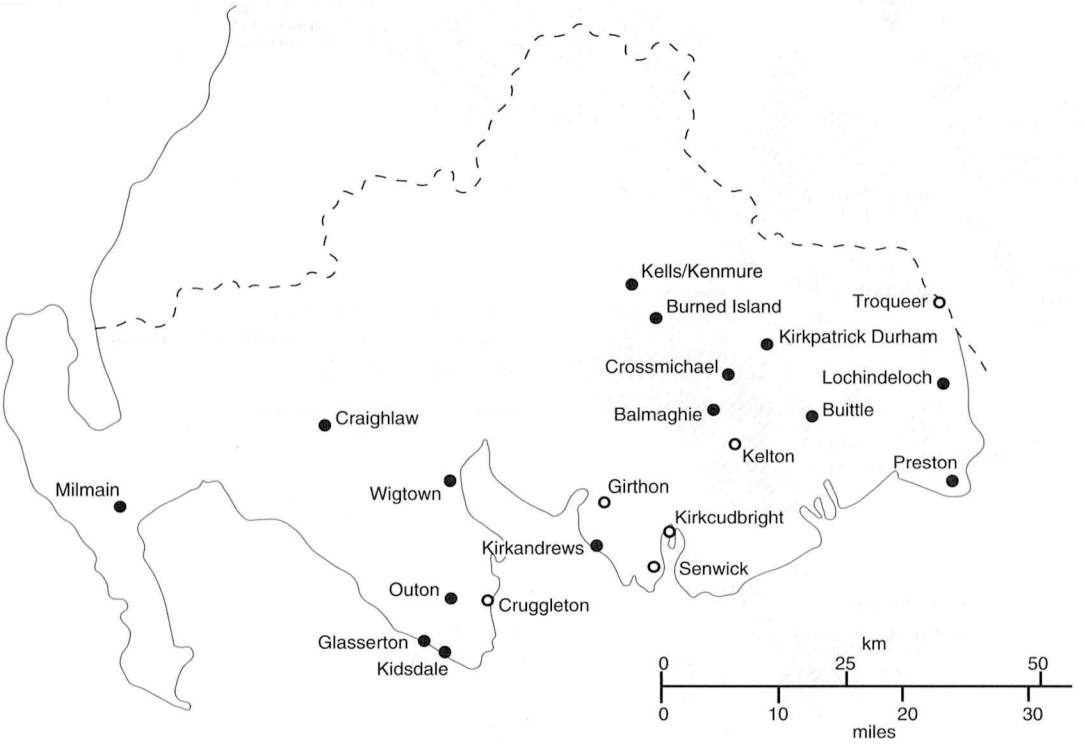
The Lordship of the Isles: dissolution

JM, RWM

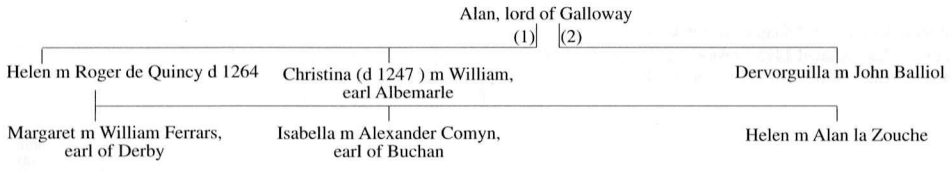
The Lords of Galloway

Following the death in 1234 of Alan, last of the male line of the Lords of Galloway, the demesne estates of the Lordship were partitioned between his three daughters and their husbands (see family tree). This arrangement lasted only until 1247, when the death without direct heirs of the second heiress, Christina, led to the redistribution of her estates between the surviving sisters. The nature of this original partition is unclear, but it would seem that the senior heiress, Helen, had gained most of the family estates around Kirkcudbright, the core of the early Lordship. Dervorguilla's principal interests were focused on eastern Galloway, with Buittle in the Urr Valley and a series of important estates lying in the Glenkens and Dee Valley areas falling to her lot. Outlying manors in western Galloway, remote from these main territorial blocks, may have pertained originally to Christina's portion, being redistributed to her surviving sisters after her death. The succession of heiresses to the de Quincy estates in 1264 saw a further subdivision of the Galloway demesne, with Helen's portion falling to the Comyn, earl of Buchan, husband of Helen's second daughter, succeeded in acquiring the largest share of the estates, including the key castle of Cruggleton. His dominant position in western Galloway was secured by his acquisition of the office of sheriff of Wigtown, putting his family in general control of the country west of the Cree. The fragmentation of the de Quincy estates left the Balliols as the largest single landowning family in the Lordship, a position augmented by the exchange of land outwith Galloway for estates assigned originally to the other portioners.

The pattern of estates shown on the map below is drawn from a number of unrelated sources, there being no single survey of the Lordship demesne until the mid-15th century. The principal source for the Balliol lands is the series of documents in the Rotuli Scotiae relating to the ancestral lands of Edward Balliol, 'restored' to him by Edward III in 1334. For the de Quincy estates, the inquest into the lands of Helen de la Zouche, the youngest daughter of Helen de Quincy, held at Berwick in 1296, provided much information. The list, however, is incomplete due to the poverty of the sources. Certain estates, moreover, passed in and out of the lordly demesne, e.g. Lochkindeloch, which in 1273 became the principal endowment of Dervorguilla's abbey of Sweetheart, or Borgue (not shown on the map), which came into her possession in 1282 through the quit claim of the tenant.



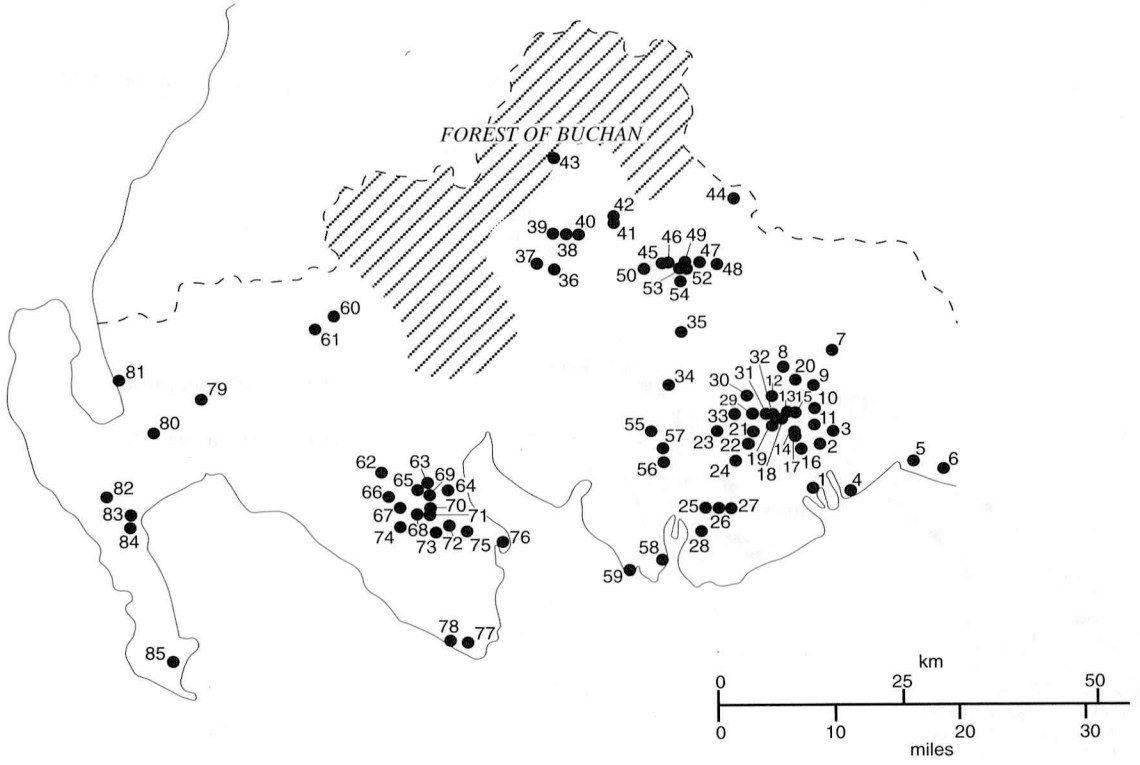
The lords of Galloway : demesne lands of the later thirteenth century RO



The lords of Galloway: genealogy RO

Galloway: Douglas estates

The map below is based upon the list of forfeited Douglas estates in Galloway accounted for in September 1456 by Walter, Abbot of Dundrennan, royal chamberlain for Galloway. The map is incomplete, as certain of the land names in 1456 are no longer identifiable. In general, however, those places shown on the map correspond to modern farms or topographical features. The Douglas lands in the southwest developed out of the grant in 1325 of the former Balliol manor of Buittle to Sir James Douglas 'the Good', one of Robert I's principal adherents. This formed part of the entailed Douglas estates in 1342, but found its way into the possession of Sir William Douglas of Liddesdale. In 1367, on the death without heirs of his daughter, Mary Douglas, Buittle passed into the possession of her cousin, Sir James Douglas of Dalkeith. Rights to the estate were claimed by Archibald Douglas, illegitimate son of the 'Good Sir James', eventual head of the main line of the family, and the superiority was restored to him. This remained a major source of dispute with the Dalkeith line, but the right of superiority remained with the descendants of Archibald until their forfeiture in 1455. The component farms of the barony of Buittle formed one of the principal elements of the Douglas estate in Galloway, together with land in Balmaghie and Kelton forming the core of the demesne. The bulk of the Douglas estates were acquired in 1369, when David II granted Archibald the Grim all royal lands between the Nith and Cree in free barony. These were composed principally of the former estates of the Balliols, focusing on Kells and Balmaclellan in the Glenkens and Balmaghie, lower down the Dee Valley, where Archibald built his fortress of Threave. At this time also, he may have secured possession of the Forest of Buchan, former Comyn territory which had been taken into the royal demesne by Robert I. Having achieved territorial dominance in eastern Galloway, Archibald turned to the lands of the Cree and in 1371 bought the earldom of Wigtown from Thomas Fleming. The latter had been unable to control the minor nobility of that region, but Archibald's firm administration of the law and superior landed base in eastern Galloway enabled him to assert his overlordship. His purchase of the earldom brought him a concentration of estates around Kirkinner, the main area of Fleming's interest, plus further portions of the former Balliol demesne in the southern Machars and Rhins, to a large extent reuniting the portions of the old Lordship of Galloway, divided since 1235. In 1388, Archibald succeeded to the earldom of Douglas and his lordship in Galloway was absorbed into the lands and titles of that dignity.

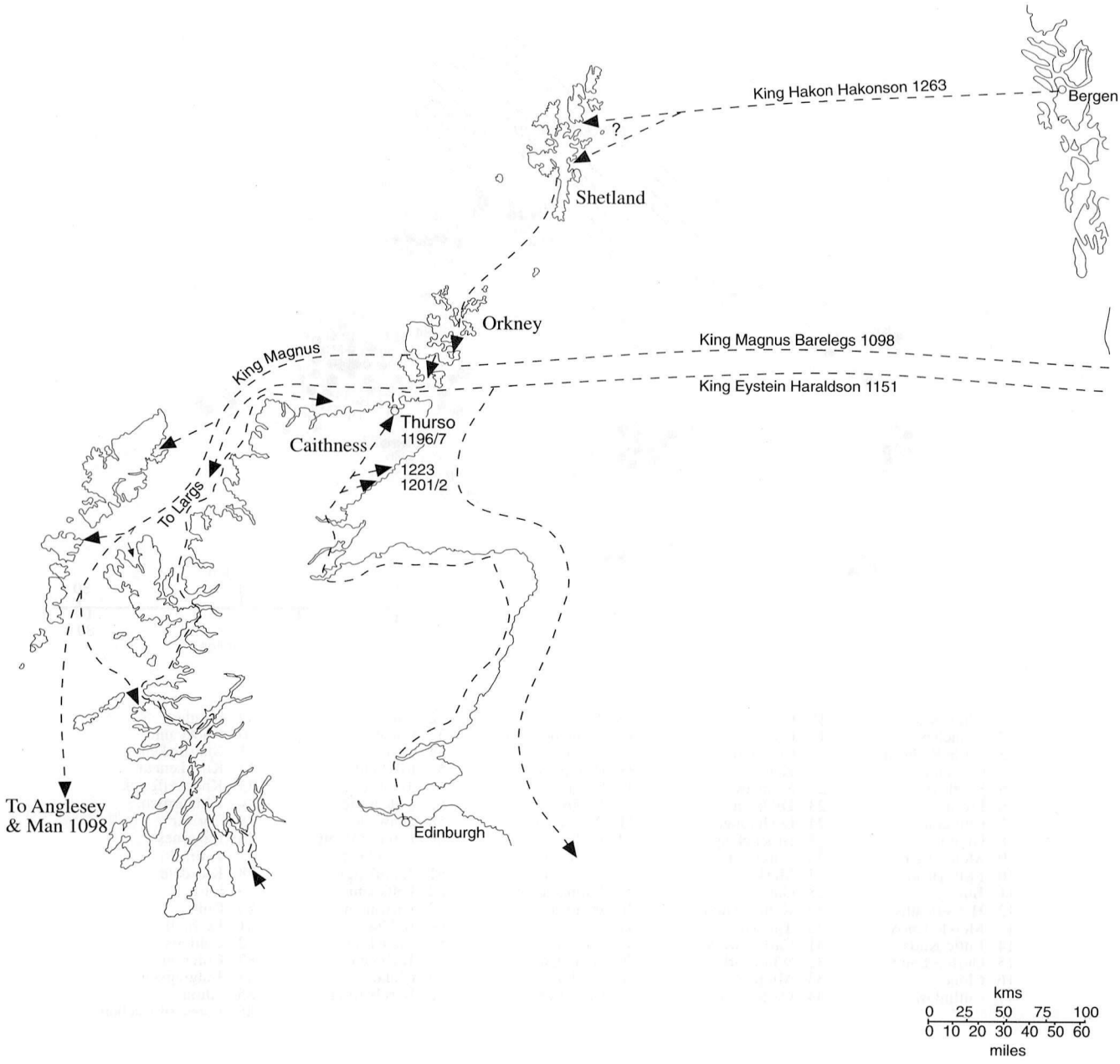


1 Almorness
2 Munches
3 Little Richorn
4 Colvend
5 Southwick
6 Preston
7 Culmain
8 Grange
9 Mote of Urr
10 Firth Head
11 Buittle
12 Halketleaths
13 Meikle Knox
14 Little Knox
15 Guffog Land
16 Clone
17 Cullinlaw
18 Corra
19 Cuil
20 Corbieton
21 Kelton
22 Slagnaw
23 Dildawn
24 Lochdougan
25 Brockcleugh
26 Balgreddan
27 Marks
28 Galtway
29 Kelton Mains
30 Threave
31 Carlingwark
32 Whitepark
33 Midpark
34 Cullenoch
35 Airds
36 Craigenbay
37 Garrary
38 Drumbuie
39 Clenrie
40 Largmore
41 Barskeoch
42 Earlston
43 Castlemaddy
44 Craighuie
45 Balmaclellan
46 Ironlosh
47 Lowes
48 Caldow
49 Bartaggart
50 Cubbox
51 Cassenvey
52 Barlay
53 Curse
54 Craig
55 Miefield
56 Trostrie
57 Culcaigrie
58 Senwick
59 Dunrod Point
60 Fintalloch
61 Tannilaggie
62 Killadam
63 Kirwaugh
64 Baldoon
65 Clauchrie
66 Kirbreen
67 Clutag
68 Barnbarroch
69 Barglass
70 Knockann
71 Blairmaken
72 Knockencur
73 Knockefferick
74 Killdarroch
75 Corwar
76 Eggerness
77 Arbrack
78 Kidsdale
79 Larg
80 Cults
81 Leffnoll
82 Caldons
83 Culgroat
84 Balgreggan
85 Alton
86 Forest of Buchan

Douglas estates in Galloway 1456 RO

Orkney and Caithness

The earls of Orkney and Caithness strove to retain their traditional independence in an era of growing royal power, when the kings of Scotland were determined to extend their authority over the northernmost parts of the Scottish mainland. The earl who suffered particularly from this process was Harold Maddadson (1139-1206) who had to face two royal expeditions against his Scottish earldom; the first (1196/97) after he had led a raid into Moray and his son had fought a battle near Inverness against 'the King's vassals'; the second (1201/2) after he had led an attack on the Bishop of Caithness who was at his castle of Scrabster, near Thurso. Earl Harold survived by submitting to King William, although his successors were to lose much land to the foremost of the 'king's vassals' in the north, the de Moravia family. The earl's Norwegian overlords managed to maintain some authority in the Northern and Western Isles by periodic naval expeditions. The first historically authenticated was that of King Magnus in 1098 when he claimed all the islands off the Scottish coasts by sailing round them, even being dragged in a skiff across the neck of Kintyre. At the same time, he firmly subjected the earls of Orkney to his authority and even tried to establish some control in Ireland, where he was killed on a second expedition. Harold Maddadson also had to submit to his Norwegian overlords, being forced to pay tribute to King Eystein when taken by surprise in the harbour of Thurso in 1151, and after being involved in the unsuccessful Eyskeggjar rising against King Sverre in 1193. On the latter occasion he was allowed to keep his island earldom although losing control of judicial rights in Orkney and forfeiting Shetland. The final effort to retain authority by the King of Norway, in a changing world, ended with the skirmish at Largs in 1263 and the retreat of the Norwegian fleet to Orkney. Significantly, Earl Magnus of Orkney had disappeared during the king's progress south and was not even present in Orkney when King Hakon returned, to die, in December 1263.

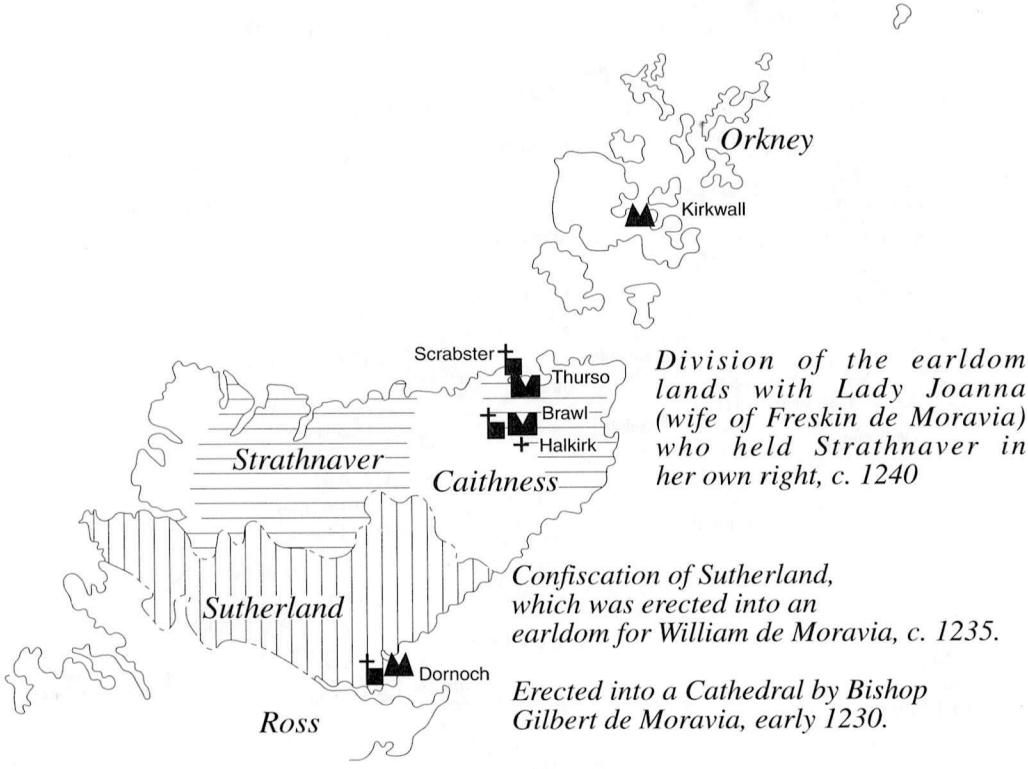


The expeditions to Orkney and Caithness by the kings of Norway and Scotland 1098 to 1263 BEC

Orkney and Caithness

The enormous loss of power and influence suffered by the Norse earls of Orkney and Caithness is illustrated in this map. The problems experienced by Harald Maddadson and the forfeiture of Shetland have been discussed in the commentary to the previous map. His son, Earl John, was antagonistic to the church's policy of tithe exaction and allowed himself to be associated with the attack on Bishop Adam which resulted in the bishop's death by burning in his own manor house at Halkirk in 1222, and the subsequent avenging expedition of King Alexander to the north. The immediate result was the imposition of a heavy fine and the loss of lands by both the earl and those men of Caithness convicted of responsibility for the crime. Another very significant result was the moving of the main diocesan church to a safer location in Sutherland, where a cathedral was built at Dornoch. This was done by Gilbert de Moravia, appointed Bishop Adam's successor, whose relatives were already in possession of lands and rights in Sutherland, which was detached from the earl of Caithness' sphere of influence and erected into a separate earldom about 1235. Finally, the Scottish king was able to benefit from a very confused period of inheritance of the Caithness and Orkney earldoms, when the direct line died out and heiresses from the Scottish house of Angus inherited, one of whom, *nobilis mulier domina Joanna*, was married to another member of the de Moravia family and given half of the earldom lands in Caithness, which can be traced in the hands of her descendants. The earls, left with a fraction of their former power and influence on the north Scottish mainland, were confined henceforth to the heartland of the former earls' dominion, the Orkney Islands.







Reduction of the earldoms of Orkney and Caithness BEC

The Borders from the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries

The last independent King of Cumbria or Strathclyde, Owain (the Bald) son of Dyfnwal (Donald), died about 1018. His kingdom came under the control of Malcolm II, King of Scots, who set over it as ruler (probably not as king) his own son-in-law Duncan son of Crinan. Duncan succeeded as King of Scots in 1034 and even after his death six years later at the hands of Macbeth, Cumbria remained under Scottish rule, or at least within the Scottish sphere of influence. Its political history for the next two centuries was largely a matter of shifting boundaries and a tug-of-war between northern and southern influences. The northernmost portion, Lennox, strongly Gaelic when it emerges into record in the earlier 13th century, had almost certainly been absorbed within Scotia, i.e. Scotland north of Forth and Clyde, before 1000. In the south west, Galloway was effectively a distinct kingdom and culture. Only towards the east and south do the Cumbrians seem to have maintained their frontiers till the late eleventh century, although what emerges as Cumberland and Westmorland had received and been irreversibly affected by intensive Scandinavian settlement from the tenth century or earlier, while English-speaking settlers, pressing westward up Tweeddale and Teviotdale, had begun to spill over into the Annan and Clyde valleys by about 1100. William II Rufus, King of England, cut Cumbria in two in 1092, driving out the Scottish-backed lord, Dolfin, son of Cospatric and introducing southern English settlers to supply and support his new castle at Carlisle.

David I ruled Cumbria north of Solway in the reign of his brother Alexander I (1107-24), restoring the ancient see of Glasgow and bringing in feudatories of continental origin (Bruce, Morville, Stewart, Soules, etc.) who built the region's earliest castles. In 1136 David, now king of Scots, recovered 'English' Cumbria as far as Stainmore Common (the Rere or Rey Cross), and for a decade (1139-49) controlled the Honour of Lancaster as far south as the Ribble. In 1157, the situation reverted to what it had been from 1092 to 1136, for Henry II overawed the young King Malcolm IV and wrested control, permanently as it proved of Cumberland, Westmorland (and, for good measure, Northumberland) from the Scots, thus putting the Border back on the Solway-Tweed line. The twelfth century saw a thoroughgoing absorption of northern or 'Scottish' Cumbria into the kingdom of the Scots, while the northern English counties, despite William the Lion's strenuous attempt to recover them (1173-4), became steadily integrated within the shire-based English governmental system. The Treaty of York (1237) formally confirmed the Border essentially on the line which it was to keep until the present day, save that important adjustments were made between Esk and Sark on the west, while on the east, Scotland lost Berwick-upon-Tweed.

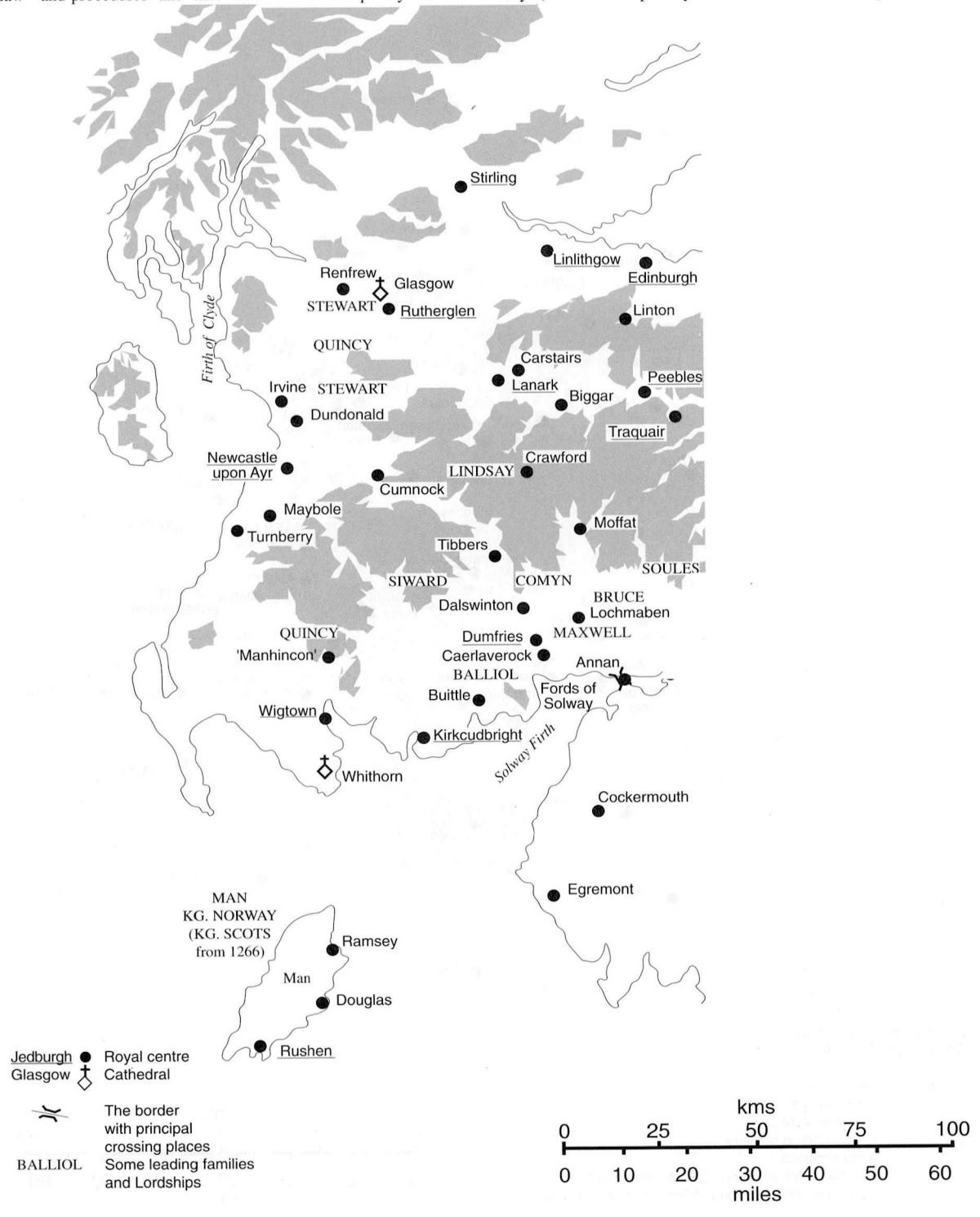


The Borders: Cumbria to 1237

The Borders from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries

By the mid-thirteenth century the Anglo-Scottish Border confirmed by the Treaty of York (1237), had settled down as a long-established feature of the political landscape, although its influence for social intercourse, landownership and settlement was relatively slight. Even politically, it must be noted that the treaty confirmed the Scottish king's lordship over the Liberty of Tynedale (i.e. the valleys of North and South Tyne), and added the Honour of Penrith, on either side of the River Eden. Yet, as the Laws of the Marches (revised and formally promulgated in 1249) make clear, the border was a true international frontier separating two distinct jurisdictions and administrative structures, punctuated by recognised crossing places - whether up-to-date like Berwick Bridge, or archaic like the Clochmabenstane, embodying the name of the Celtic pagan deity Maponus. Thus, in Penrith and Tynedale, the courts held by authority of the king of Scots followed English law and procedures and met with the same frequency as the eyres of assizes for Cumberland and Northumberland. North of the Border the king's authority, when not exercised directly, was delegated to the justiciar of Lothian (sometimes reinforced by a justiciar of Galloway), below whom the key administrative officers were the sheriffs of Dumfries, Roxburgh and Berwick, normally appointed from powerful baronial families such as Lindsay, Maxwell or (rising fast in the thirteenth century) Randolph.

In keeping with the prevalence of peaceful relations between the death of King John of England (1216) and the reign of King John of Scotland (1292-6), the border was relatively unmilitarized and only thinly furnished with fortifications. On the Scottish side the king had important castles at Berwick-upon-Tweed, Roxburgh, Jedburgh and Dumfries. His backup defence consisted partly of a Tweed-Clyde line marked by castles, hardly first-rate, at Selkirk, Peebles, Lanark and Rutherglen, partly of the major castles at Ayr (New Castle-upon-Ayr founded 1197), Edinburgh and Stir-

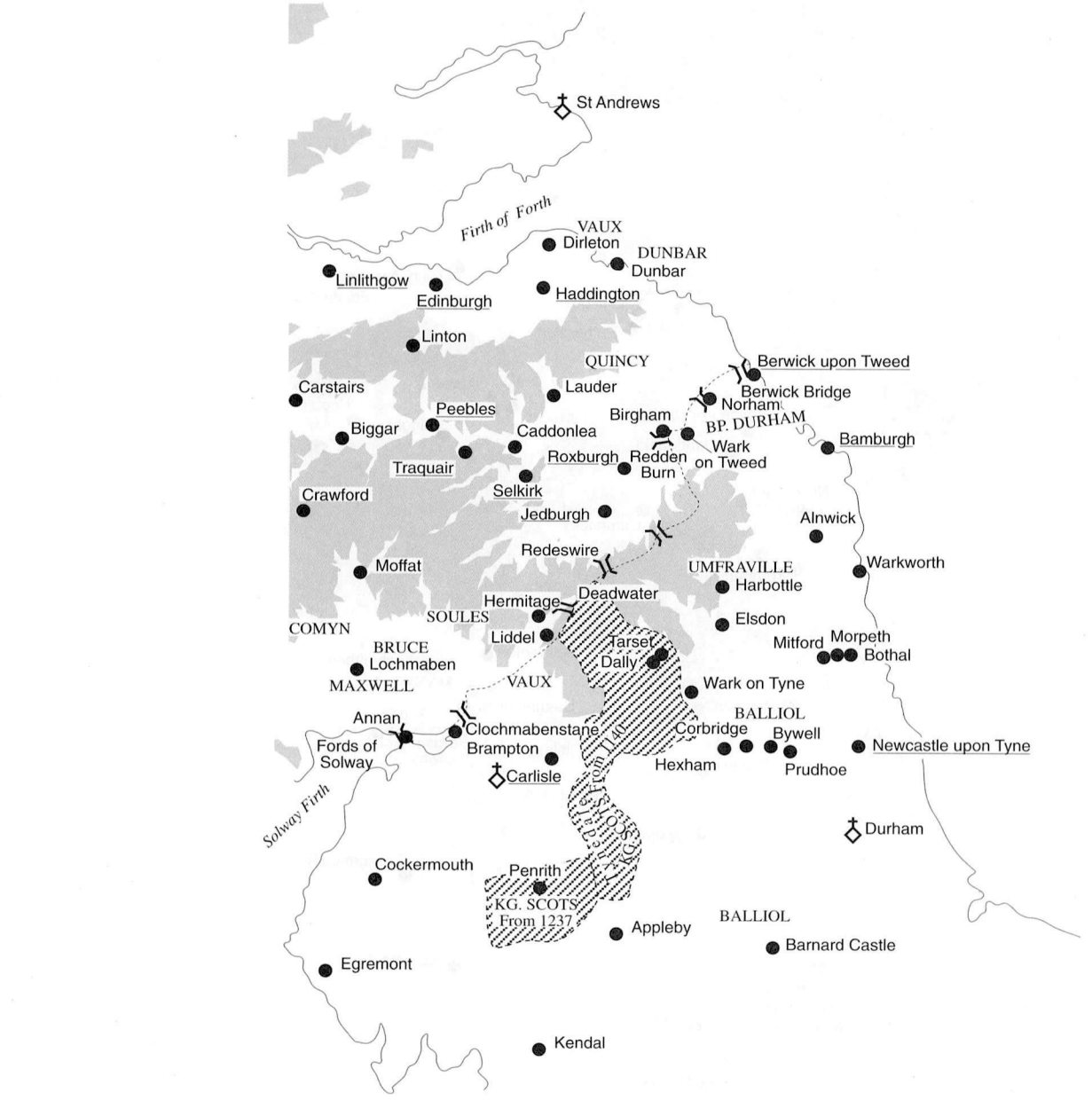


The Borders about 1250: western side GWSB

The Borders from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries

ling. Magnatial strongpoints included Dunbar (earl of Dunbar), Dirleton (Vaux of Scotland), Hermitage (Soules 1244?), Lochmaben (Bruce), Caerlaverock (Maxwell 1244?), Buittle (Balliol) and Crawford (Lindsay). On the English side, Newcastle and Carlisle were formidable strongholds, but represented a frontier withdrawn southward, especially in the east, to which the lesser castles of Warkworth and Bamburgh scarcely formed exceptions. The Bishop of Durham maintained a first-rate fortress at Norham, a bowshot from Scottish soil, but other magnatial castles, e.g. Wark on Tweed (Ros), Harbottle (Umfraville), Mitford (Bertram) Morpeth (Merlay then Greystoke), Brampton (Vaux of England) and Liddel Strength (Turgis of Brundis), were of less consequence and only the fine Umfraville castle at Prudhoe, south of Tyne, could compare with Norham or the royal strongholds. Wark on Tyne belonged to the king of Scots.

It is doubtful if what later became thought of as the Border region of southern Scotland was seen thus in the mid-thirteenth century. Scotland south of the Clyde-Forth line, save for Galloway, was by medieval standards populous and prosperous. The kings frequented the many royal castles, houses and hunting lodges in the area between the Forth and the Cheviot Hills, in Clydesdale, Tweeddale, Teviotdale and Lothian. This reflected a more fertile soil and favourable climate than characterized the northernmost counties of England, although the long Eden Valley and parts of the lower Tyne had much productive land. The biggest contrast between the Scottish and English border regions in the two or three generations before the first war of independence lay in the fact that the counties south of the frontier formed a remote and little-known part of the kingdom of England, whereas the sheriffdoms to the north constituted the Scottish realm's very heartland.



Jedburgh ● Royal centre
Glasgow ⛪ Cathedral

The border with principal crossing places

BALLIOL Some leading families and Lordships

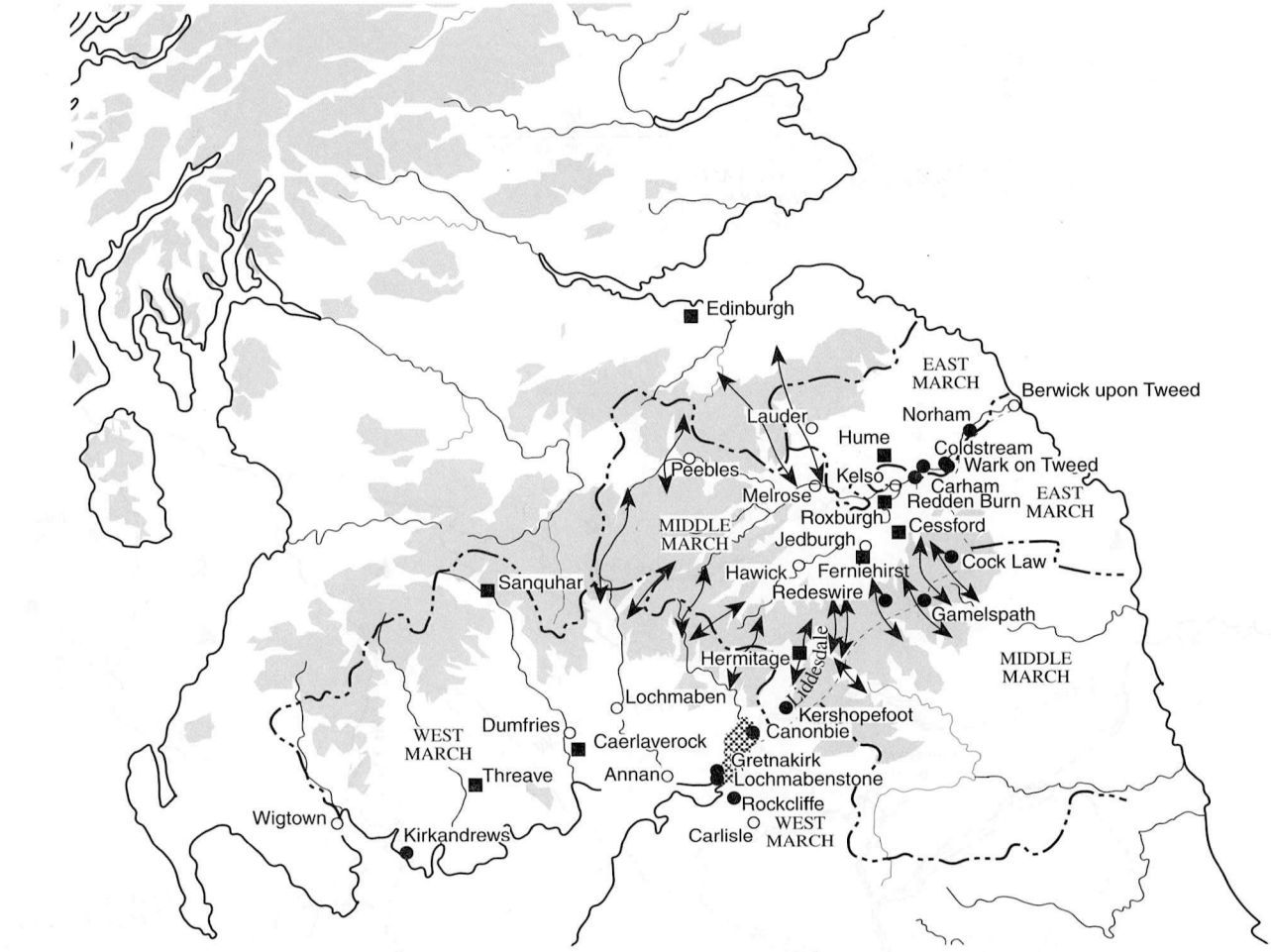
Penrith (hatched), King of Scots from 1237
Tynedale (hatched) King of Scots from about 1140

kms 0 25 50 75 100
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 miles

The Borders about 1250: eastern side GWSB

The Borders from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries

The aims of Scottish frontier administration were adequate military defence and maintenance of law and order. The hilly terrain presented difficulties but warfare with England became less frequent in the sixteenth century. Peacetime administration was a matter for international control. All transgressions of the frontier, violent and non-violent, were expected to be submitted for settlement under the Laws of the Marches, which was administered by Scottish and English wardens of the Marches. There were three Marches on each side of the frontier - East, West and Middle - and each had its own warden, although at various times one warden might administer two marches. The Scottish middle March was divided during the sixteenth century and the Liddesdale area was separately administered by a keeper. Scottish and English wardens assembled at recognised meeting places to engage in diplomacy and dispense justice at 'days of truce', using procedures adapted so that the guilt or liability of defenders should be determined by their own countrymen.



- Castles
- Meeting places
- Other places
- Border between Scotland and England
- Main routes
- Boundary of the Marches
- The Debateable land

kms 0 25 50 75 100

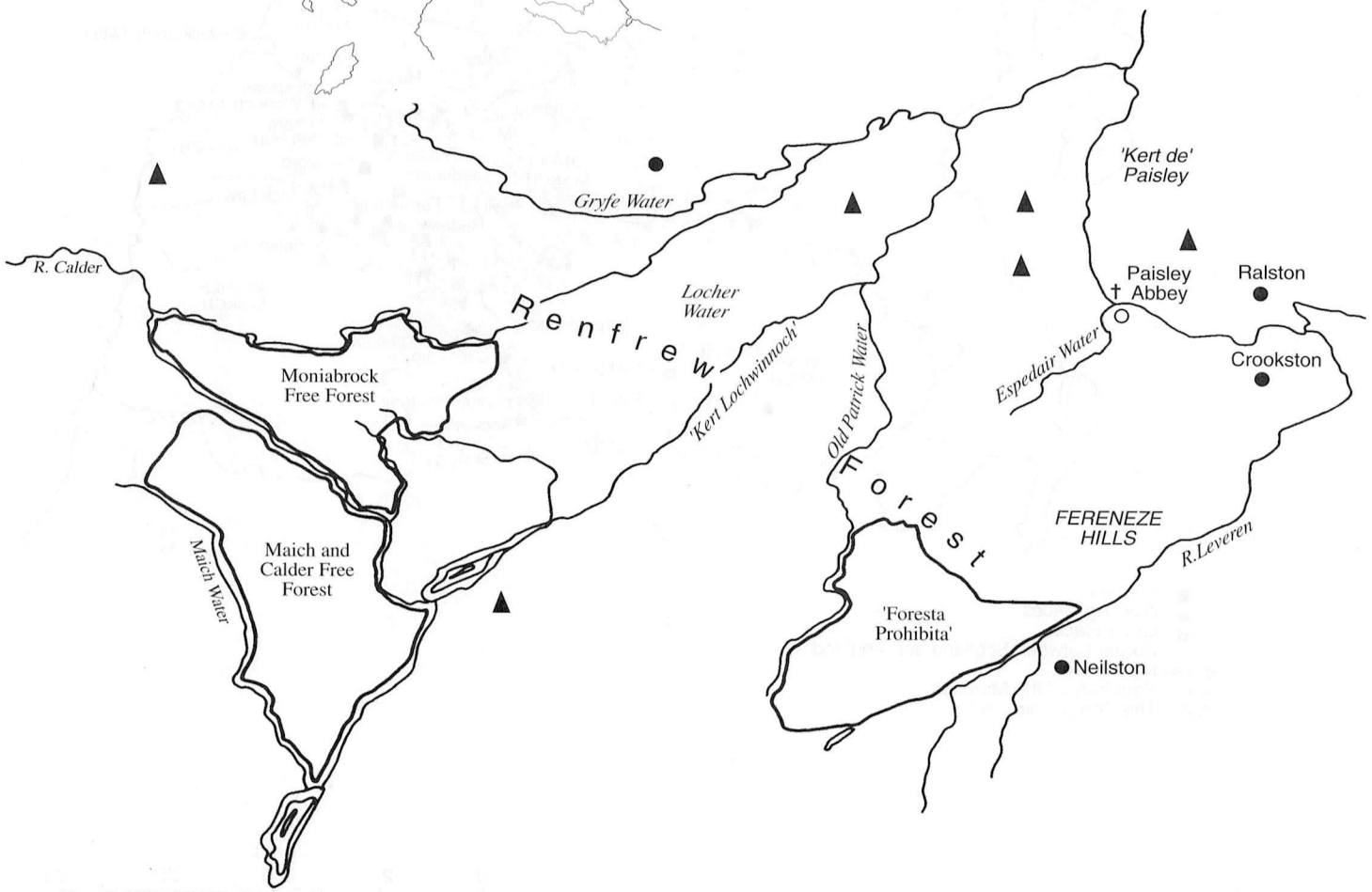
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 miles

The Borders in the sixteenth century TIR(MM)

Forests

By 1214 Walter Steward held three reserves including Renfrew. In Renfrew the Stewards faced the same problem as the king faced in royal forests, namely, the difficulty of maintaining a forest as a hunting reserve while at the same time permitting economic activity, whether grazing, woodcutting or leasing within the forest. In the thirteenth century, pasture fines were carefully organised: the fine was heavier in the close season and a watch was set; but no distinction was made in the open season between tended and untended animals. In 1208 x 1214, Walter permitted Paisley to graze animals freely on their lands between the Old Patrick Water and the Espedair Burn; but these lands remained within his forest since he reserved the birds and beasts on them. James Steward, by 1294-5, has tackled this problem much in the same way as Robert I did after him. He created a '*foresta prohibita*' within his reserve where no economic activity was permitted, but liberated such exploitation in the rest of his reserve. The abbey had to pay the exactions - which had assumed the character of fines to a large extent - when their beasts were found on the unlet parts of the forest which presumably included the *foresta prohibita*. The map shows the Renfrew Forest and the other forests in the area with lands of the Stewards and Paisley Abbey.





○ Blackhall Park
● Lands of tenants of Stewards
▲ Lands of Paisley Abbey

kms
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
0 1 2 3 4
miles

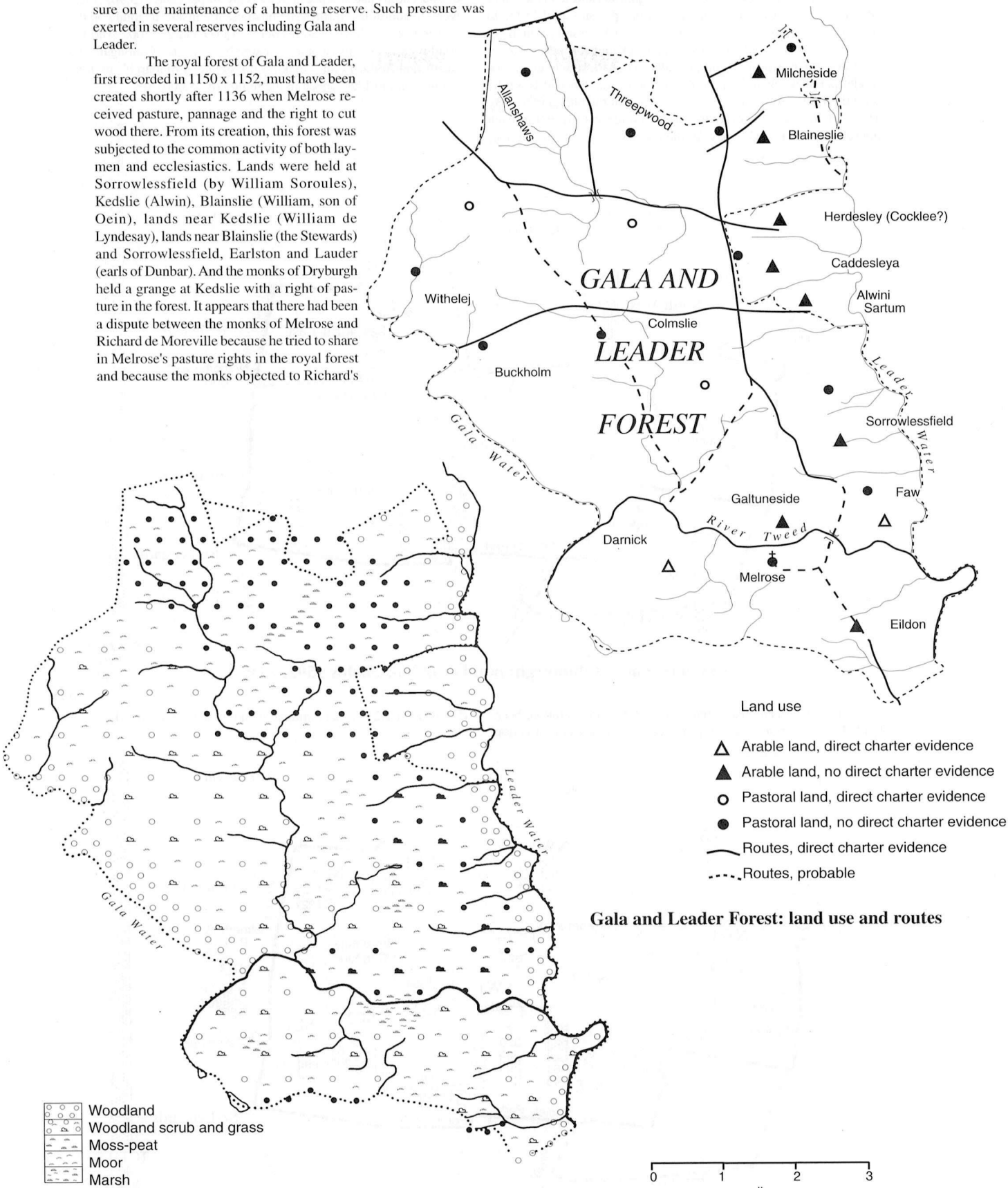
Renfrew Forest JMG

Forests

Hunting reserves were not only exploited by their owners. Some abbeys had exemptions from forest rights. The provision of fuel, the grazing of flocks, the construction of folds and shelters for the animals and of temporary shielings for the herdsmen must have made considerable inroads into a forest's vegetation and put pressure on the maintenance of a hunting reserve. Such pressure was exerted in several reserves including Gala and Leader.

The royal forest of Gala and Leader, first recorded in 1150 x 1152, must have been created shortly after 1136 when Melrose received pasture, pannage and the right to cut wood there. From its creation, this forest was subjected to the common activity of both laymen and ecclesiastics. Lands were held at Sorrowlessfield (by William Soroules), Kedslie (Alwin), Blainslie (William, son of Oein), lands near Kedslie (William de Lyndesay), lands near Blainslie (the Stewards) and Sorrowlessfield, Earlston and Lauder (earls of Dunbar). And the monks of Dryburgh held a grange at Kedslie with a right of pasture in the forest. It appears that there had been a dispute between the monks of Melrose and Richard de Moreville because he tried to share in Melrose's pasture rights in the royal forest and because the monks objected to Richard's hunting throughout the forest (especially in Threepwood) and the monks tried to increase their buildings in the forest.

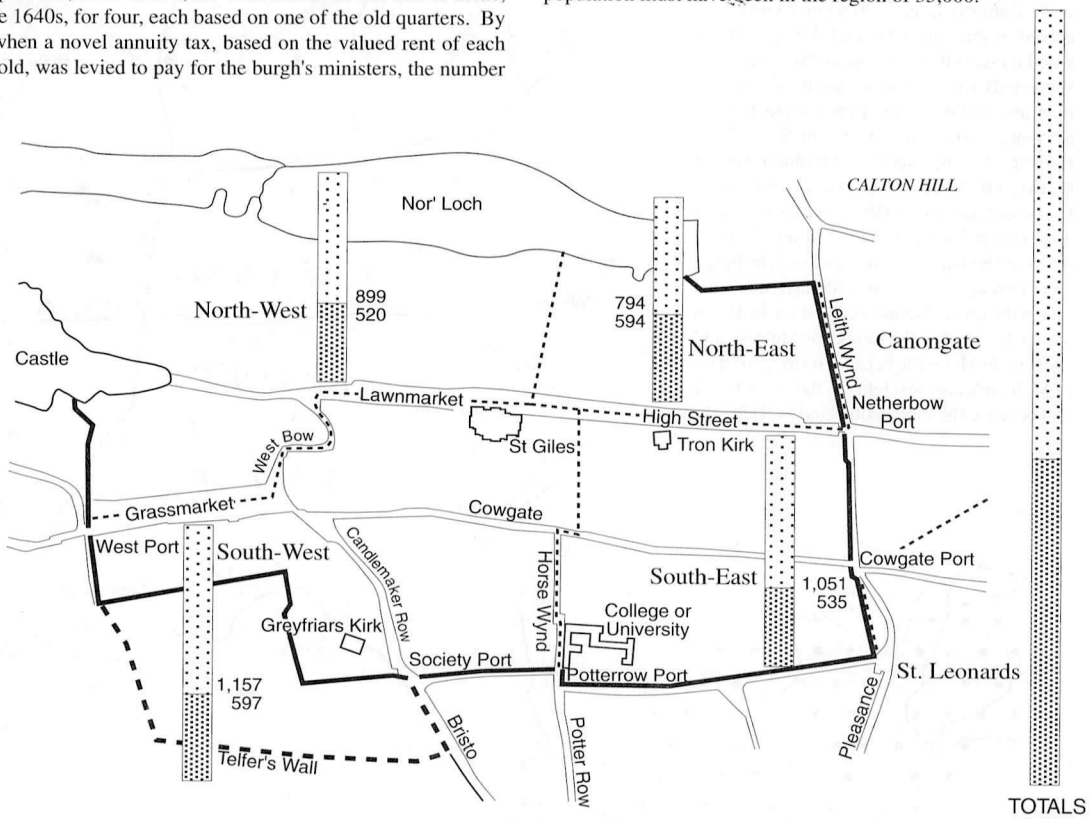
The first map gives an indication of the vegetation of the Gala and Leader Forest; and the second map shows the land use and routes in the forest.



Burghs: development of Edinburgh 1550 to 1650

In 1400 Edinburgh had reportedly only 400 houses. Its population by 1558, when 736 merchants and 717 craftsmen (both with their apprentices and servants included) were recorded in a muster roll, was about 12,000. Although this was at least twice the size of any other Scottish town, it did not fully reflect either Edinburgh's position as an administrative capital or its growing stranglehold over Scotland's export trade.

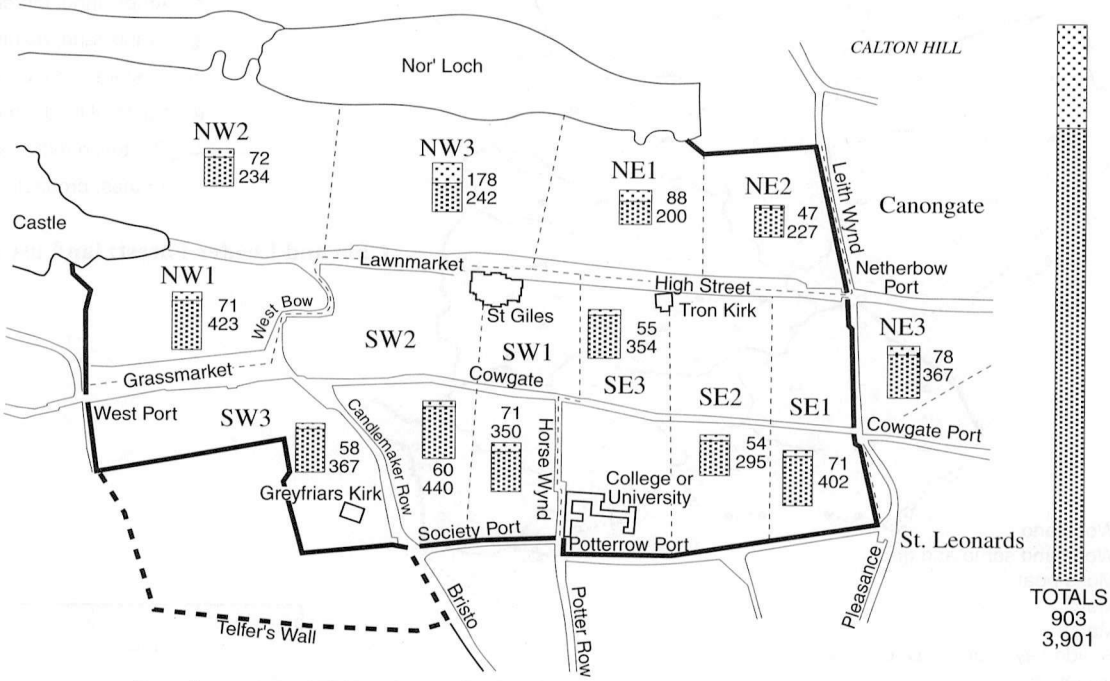
Edinburgh was divided into four quarters and, also like other Scottish burghs, it was made up of only one parish - until 1592. In that year a census was conducted by the kirk session, which revealed 2,239 households and exactly 8,000 examinable persons (over 12 years of age) within the burgh walls. The kirk sought eight new model parishes, each with 1,000 communicants but had to settle, until the 1640s, for four, each based on one of the old quarters. By 1635, when a novel annuity tax, based on the valued rent of each household, was levied to pay for the burgh's ministers, the number of households had sharply increased, by 74 per cent, to 3,901; there were, in addition, a further 903 business premises. Its total population is likely to have been between 21,000 and 23, 500. And beyond its walls lay three other sizeable burghs - the Canongate and North and South Leith - making up 'greater Edinburgh'; its total population must have been in the region of 35,000.



Development of Edinburgh: number of households 1592, 1635

ML

By 1635 each quarter had, for ease of administration, been divided into sub-thirds, which proceeded in a clockwise direction (North-west 1,2,3...) beginning and ending at the Grassmarket.

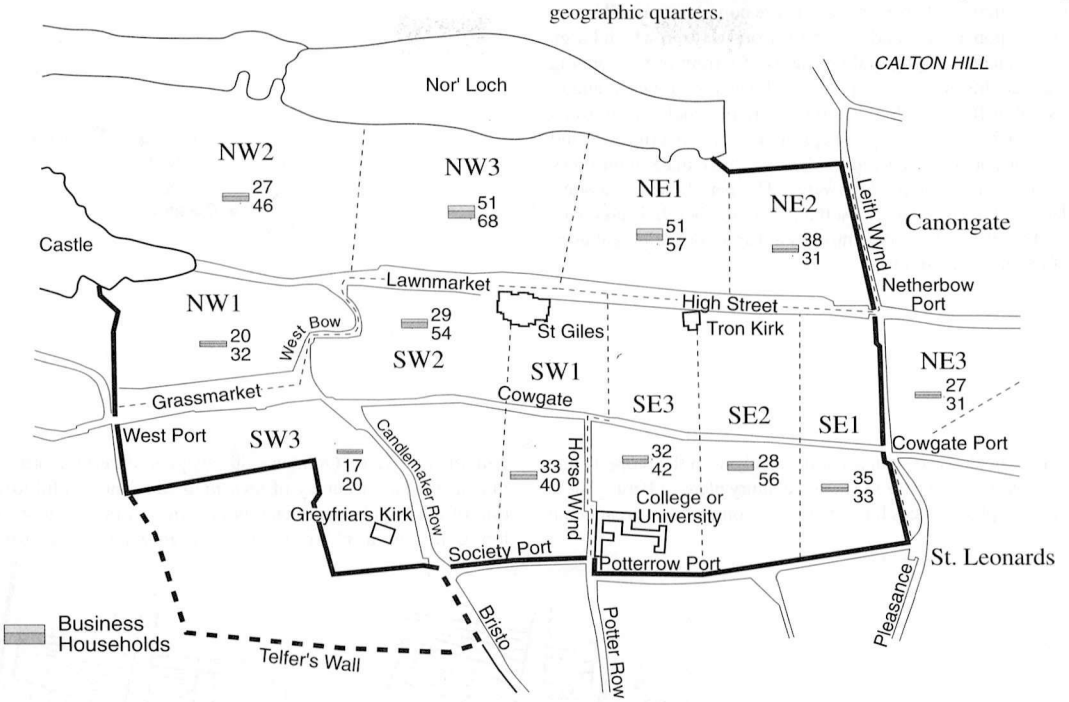


Development of Edinburgh: number of households and businesses 1635

ML

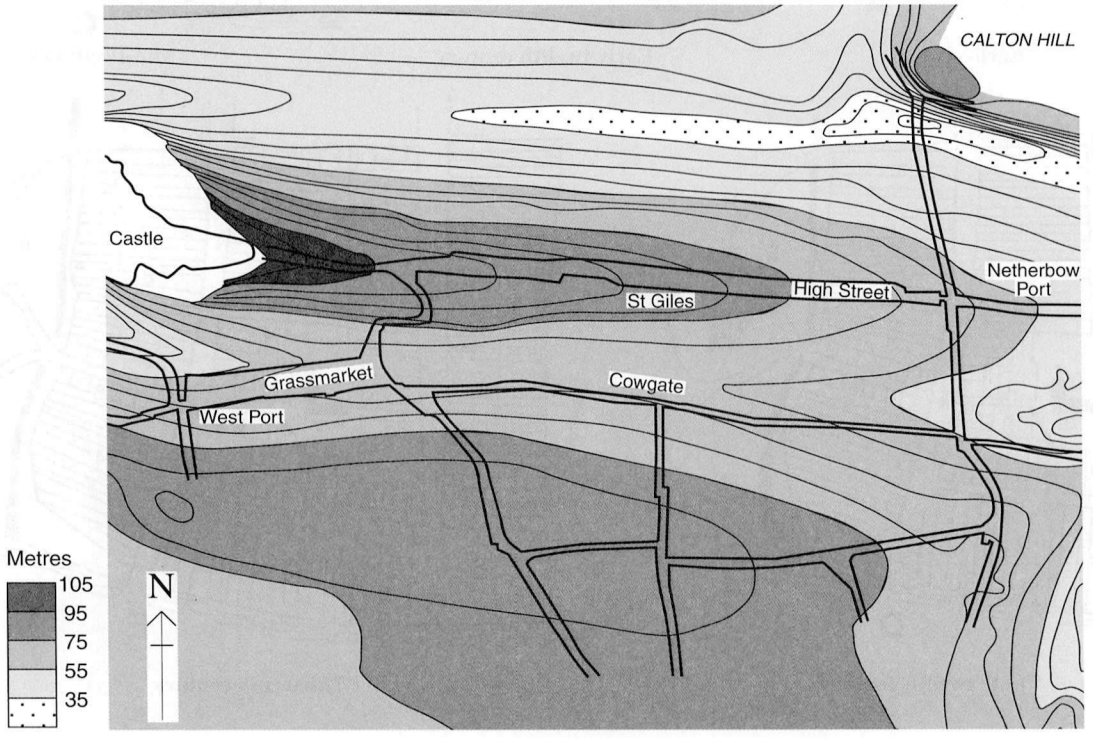
Burghs: development of Edinburgh 1550 to 1650

One reason for the markedly different rates of population increase between the southern and northern quarters of the town was terrain. On the steepest parts of the ridge, above St Giles' and to the north of the High Street, only well-built and expensive multi-storeyed tenements, such as Gladstone's Land which still stands, were likely to accommodate growing numbers. Further similar building, behind the market frontage of the Lawnmarket, had to wait until the 1670s. But two other patterns lay behind the population increase of 95% on the south side: cheaper building and the filling-in of backlands was more viable in the south-east quarter between the High Street and the Cowgate where the slope slackened; and growth made heavy demands on south-west 3 and north-west 1, where much of the town's stables and unpleasant industries had long been sited. The former was a novel pattern in burgh settlement, for rich and poor had until then mixed more closely together, often separated more by storeys of tenements (the poor at street level) rather than by richer and poorer geographic quarters.



Development of Edinburgh: average rents of households 1635 ML

These more sharply defined divisions in settlement patterns are confirmed by different levels of household rent, which ranged from the £360 in the Lawnmarket to £4 barely 300 yards away, on the south side of Grassmarket. The varying levels of rent for business premises, too, reflect the gulf between the merchant's or moneylender's booth and the skinner's or candlemaker's workshop, typically pushed to the urban periphery.



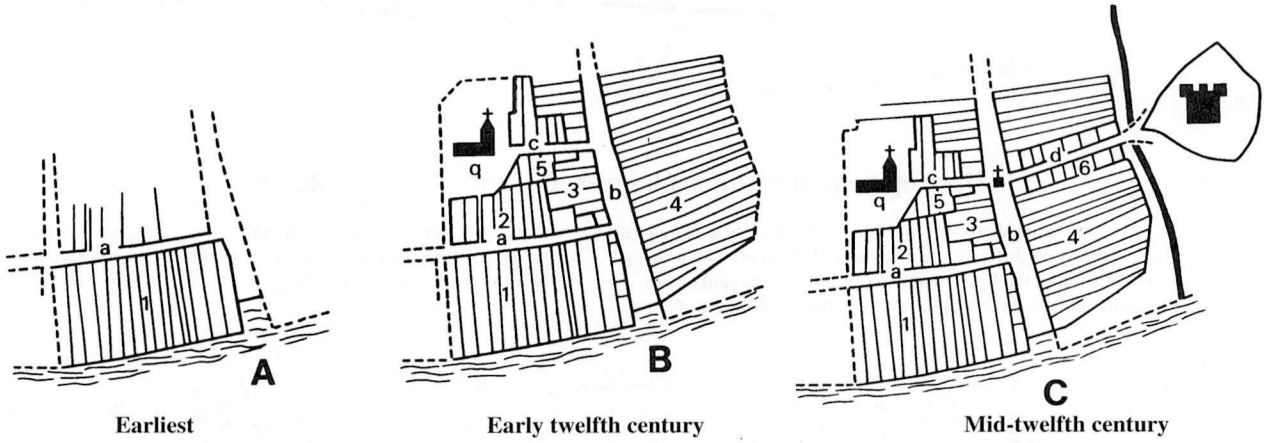
Development of Edinburgh: relief ML

Settlement in burghs

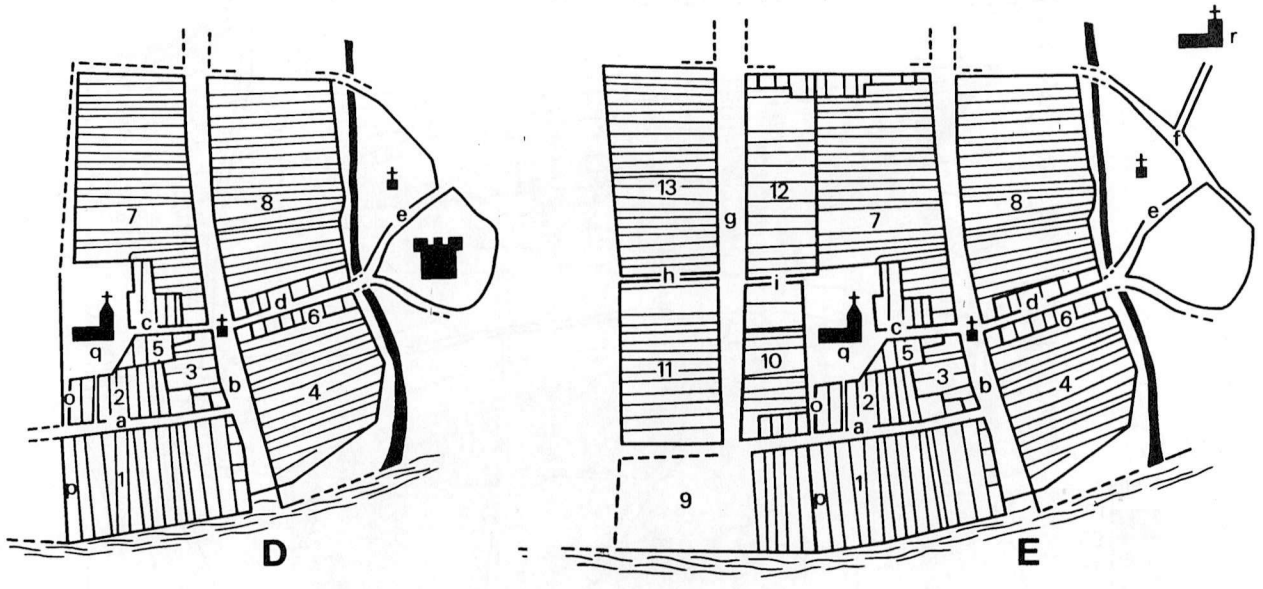
Although the burgh as a formal institution was freshly imported into Scotland at the beginning of the twelfth century, it owed much, as a unit of human settlement, to the nucleated village familiar in Britain wherever Germanic settlers had established permanent agrarian communities; and it may have owed something, in purely physical terms, to at least the more simply planned among the trading towns ('Ports', 'boroughs') of England and Flanders. The plans given here are designed to show evolution of types of layout, from the pristine simplicity of Forres to the relative complexity of Glasgow or Berwick upon Tweed, and also the various ways in which burgh plans were adapted to physical problems of terrain or to changing historical circumstances. It will be noted that save at Perth (and to some extent at Berwick) Scots burghs were not enclosed by walls but relied on 'back dykes', often represented by modern roads and building plots, punctuated by gates ('ports') which marked the entry and exit points of principal highways. The peripheral yet associated placing of a castle, never itself a part of the burgh, is noteworthy, as is the siting- whether central as at Elgin, or peripheral as at Ayr - of the chief parish kirk.



These plans are derived from a detailed analysis of the property and street boundaries shown on eighteenth century plans of Perth. These early cartographic sources have then been compared in great detail with the first 1:500 Ordnance Survey plan of Perth in order to provide a standard accuracy of measurement. The careful identification of the largely man made boundaries within the town, has allowed the various phases in the towns growth to be identified.



Earliest **Early twelfth century** **Mid-twelfth century**



Late twelfth century **Thirteenth century**

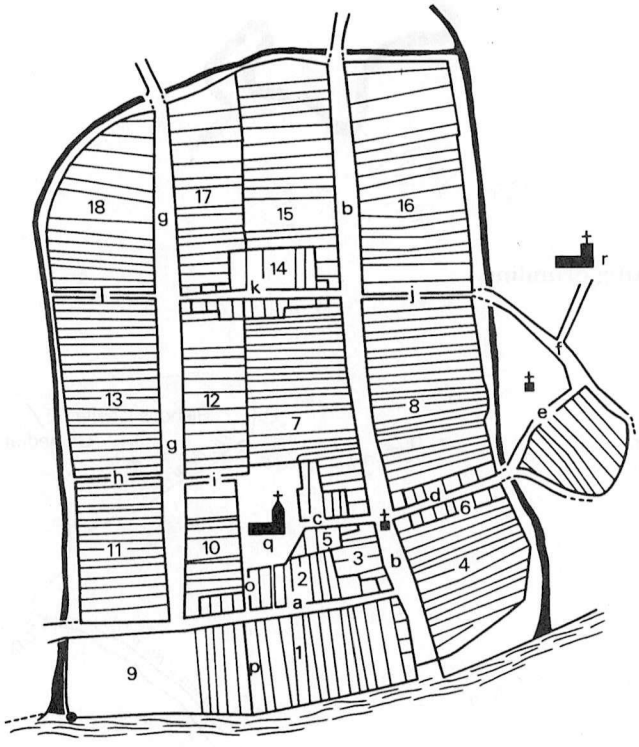
Settlement in Perth

RMS

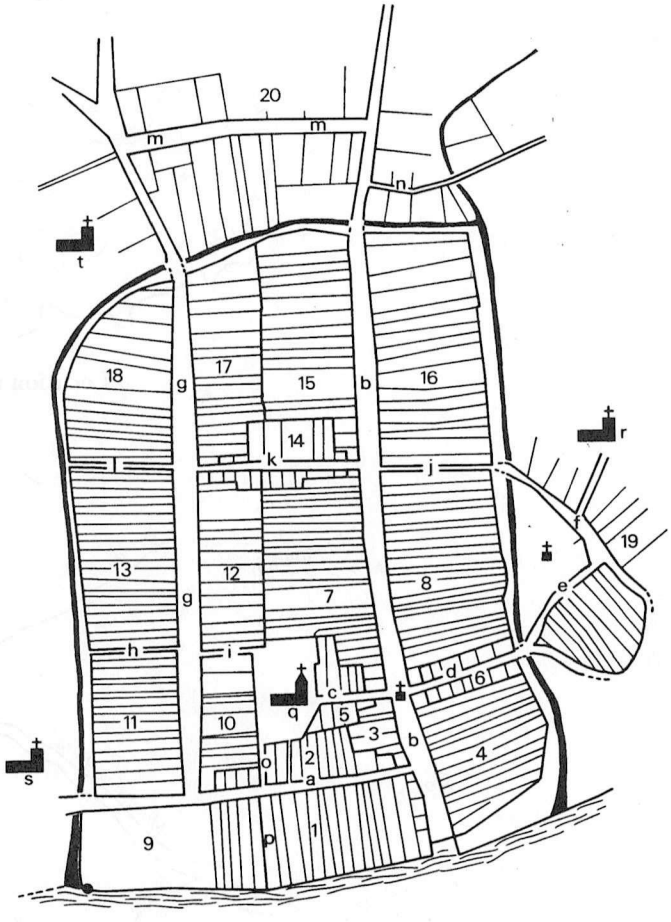
Settlement in burghs

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a	Watergate
b	High Street
c	Kirkgate
d	Skinnergate
e	Castlegable
f	Curfew Row
g	South Street
h	Cow Vennel
i	Flesher's Close
j	Roger's Close
k	Meal Vennel
l	Candlemakers Close
m	New Row
n	Mill Wynd
o	Baxter's Vennel
p	Glen Close
q	St John's Church
r	Dominican Friary
s	Franciscan Friary
t	Carthusian Monastery



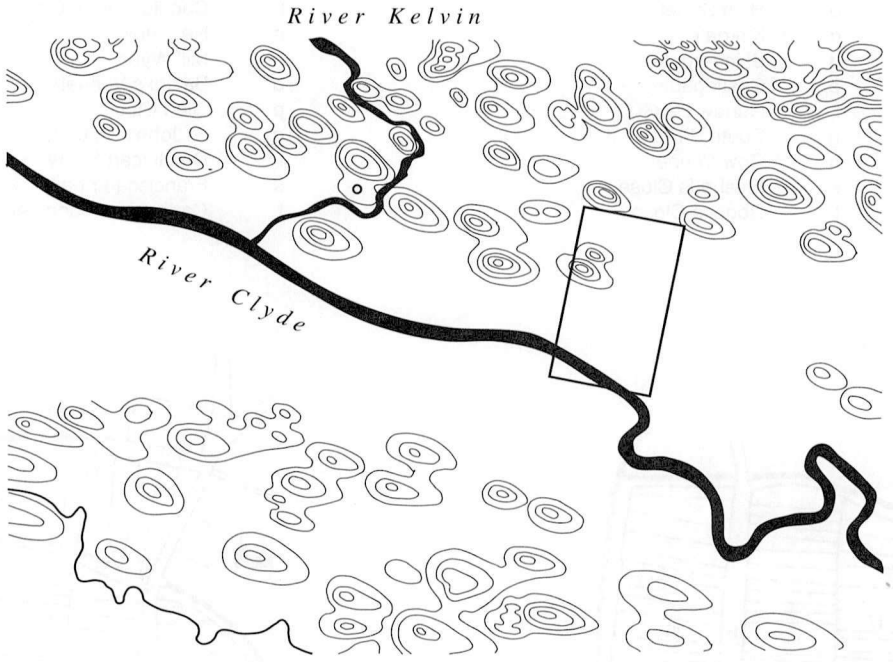
Early fourteenth century



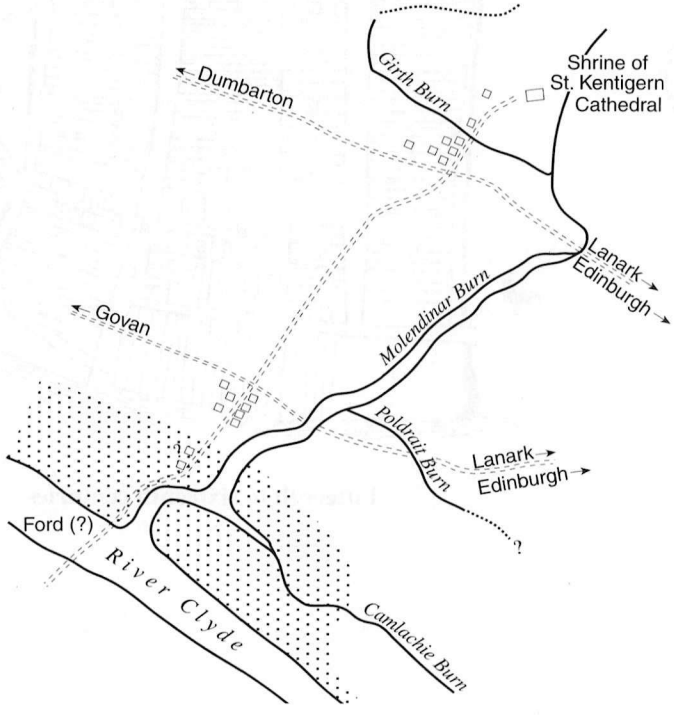
Fifteenth to sixteenth centuries

Settlement in burghs

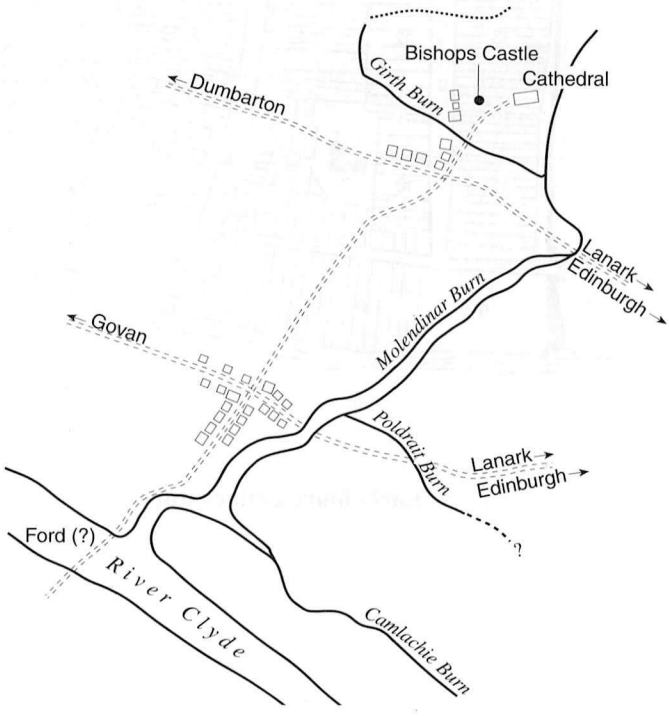
The development of settlement portrayed in this series above is largely based on documentary sources available for a study of the medieval burgh and on town plans produced between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. Archaeological excavation, particularly the recent work of the Scottish Urban Archaeological Trust, has provided supplementary evidence.



Location map, showing drumlins

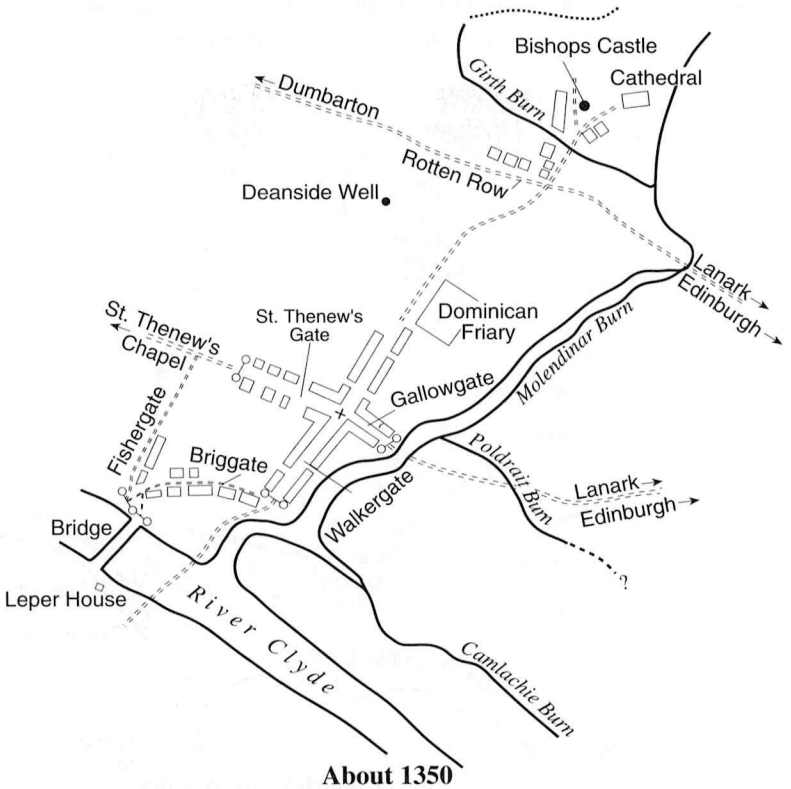


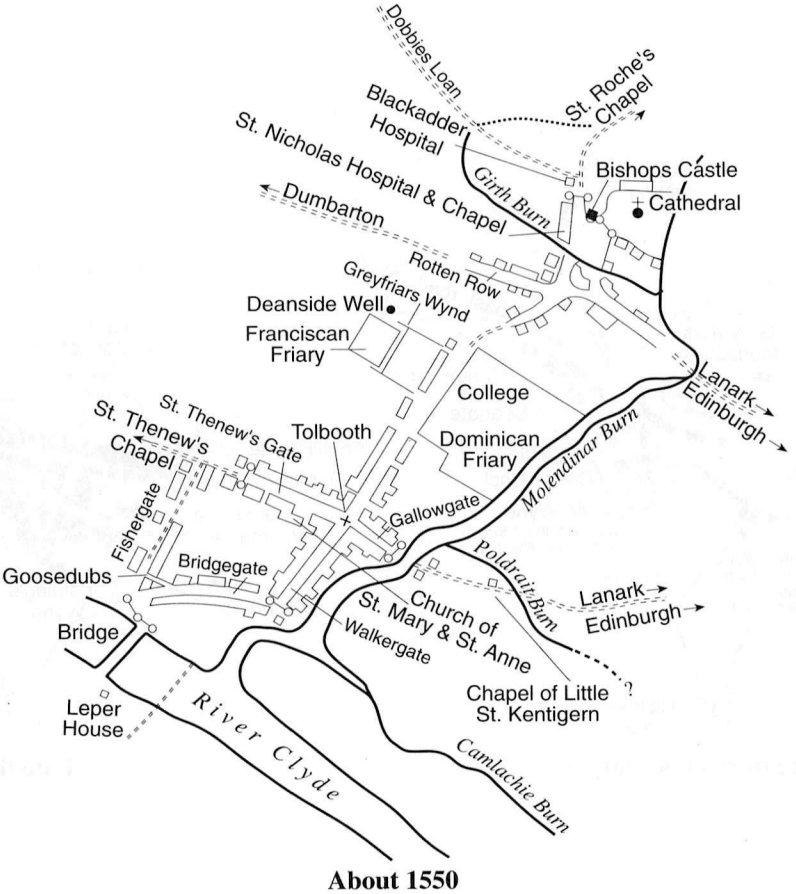
Before 1175



About 1225

Settlement in Glasgow EPD



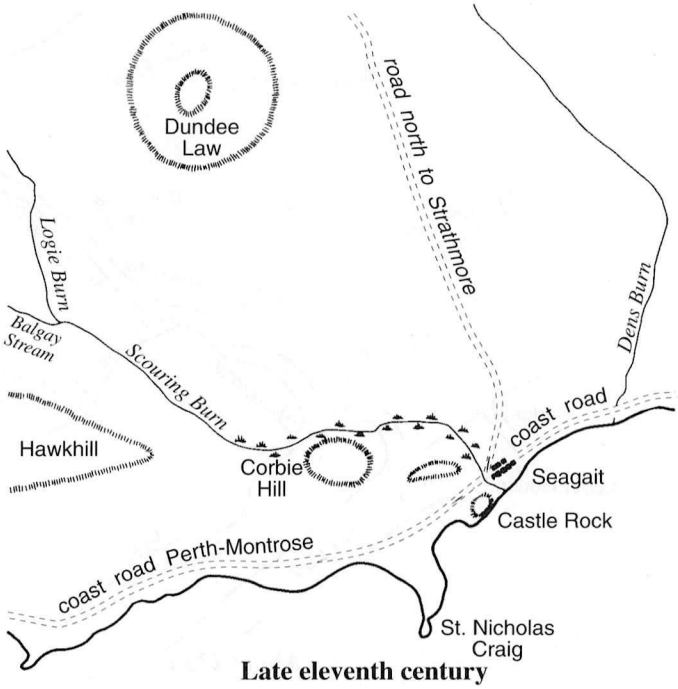


Settlement in Glasgow

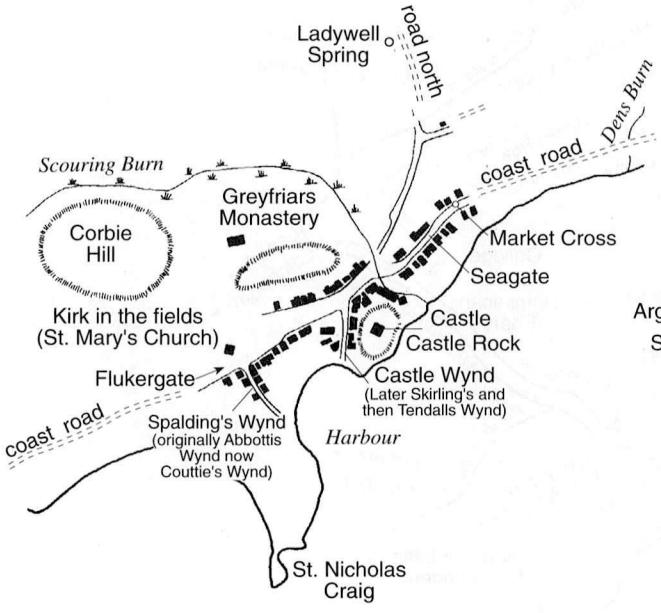
EPD

Settlement in burghs

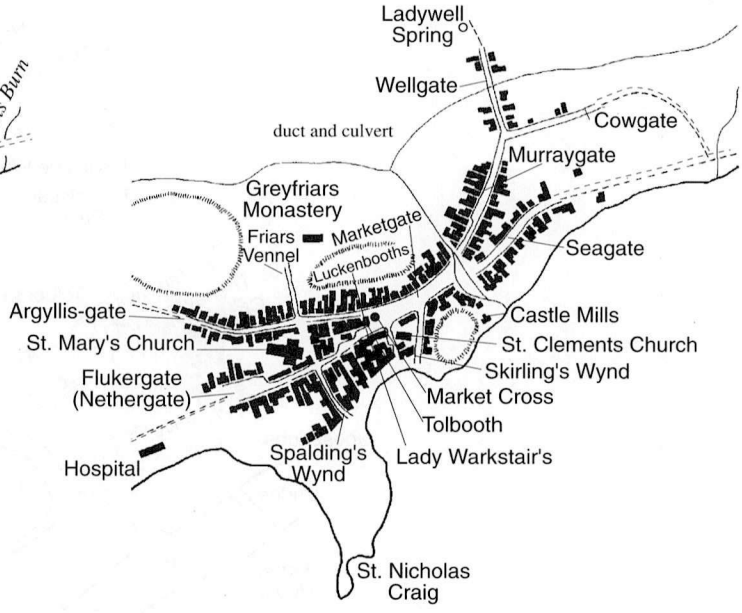
This series indicating the development of settlement is necessarily conjectural to some extent. Reliance has been placed on a relatively narrow range of source material since much of the documentation of early medieval Dundee has been lost. Archaeological evidence is minimal and likely to remain so. Town council minute books, burgh head court books, protocol books and records of the guild merchant, crafts, presbytery and kirk session have survived from the late sixteenth or early seventeenth centuries. These, together with maps dating from the seventeenth century to the nineteenth are the basic sources.



Late eleventh century



Late thirteenth century



Late fifteenth century

Settlement in Dundee EPD