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Hume Village and Castle: the setting of a late medieval stronghold and post medieval folly in the Scottish Borders

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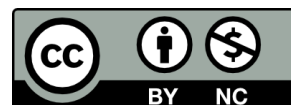
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Hume Village and Castle: the setting of a late medieval stronghold and post medieval folly in the Scottish Borders

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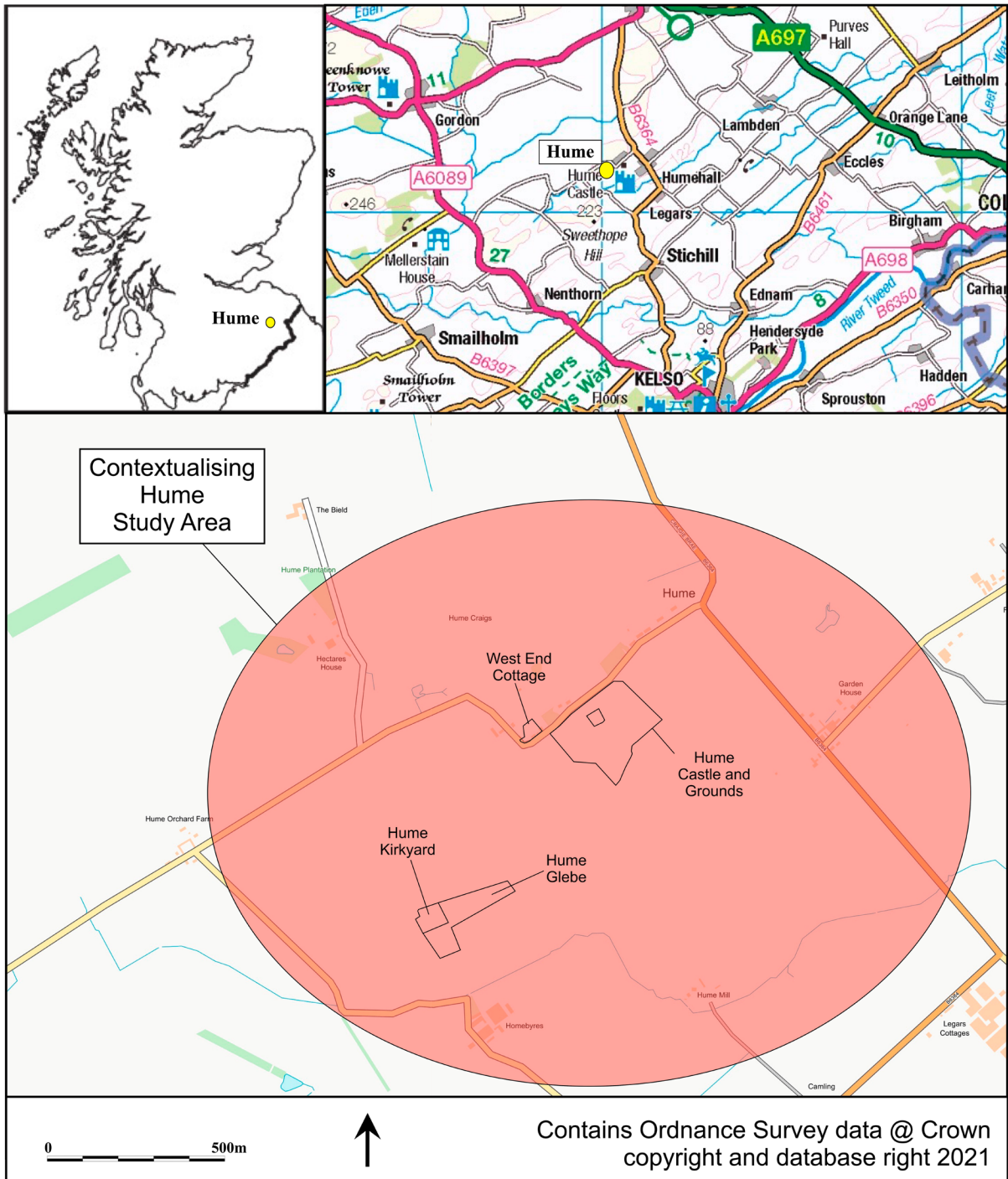
1. ABSTRACT

A three-year community archaeology project was completed on behalf of the Hume Castle Preservation Trust at the village of Hume in the Scottish Borders. The project engaged with over 300 members of the public, providing training and volunteering opportunities in a suite of archaeological skills. The project work focused on Hume Village and its surrounding landscape; in particular Hume Castle and the remains of the former medieval village immediately surrounding it, and the associated kirkyard which housed the former Hume Parish Church. Extensive survey work was completed in the kirkyard and adjacent Glebe, in the grounds of Hume Castle, and at the castle itself. Excavations were completed in the castle grounds, the Glebe, and in the garden of West End Cottage in Hume Village. The results of the survey and excavation works portray the changing settlement pattern and use of land in the village area, particularly highlighting occupation and use of the former buildings surrounding the castle up to 200 years after its destruction. A similar pattern was found in the kirkyard, with continual use of the cemetery over 300 years after the abandonment, and probable destruction, of the former kirk. The results indicate that despite the destruction of its castle and kirk, the village of Hume has persevered, maintaining an important sense of place and memory in the landscape.

2. INTRODUCTION

The Contextualising Hume Project was a community engagement project that ran from summer 2018 until early 2022, focussing on Hume Village and Castle and their immediate surrounding landscape (NGR NT 70472 41393; centred on Hume Castle SM387, NRHE No. NT74SW 3, Canmore ID [58561](#)) (Illus 1). The project was funded by the

National Lottery Heritage Fund and the Fallago Environment Fund. The archaeological works and project delivery was undertaken by Heritage & Archaeological Research Practice (HARP) on behalf of the Hume Castle Preservation Trust (HCPT). HCPT owns Hume Castle and the land immediately surrounding it, and administers, maintains, and promotes the Castle. The project also engaged local delivery partners including the



Illus 1 Location plan (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

Hume Community Association (HCA), the Borders Family History Society (BFHS), and Knitting For All Kelso, Melrose and Jedburgh (KFA).

A number of training opportunities and workshops were provided for local volunteers, archaeology students, and primary school pupils over the course of the project. Two seasons of excavation were carried out, which included excavations in the castle grounds, glebe field of the former Kirk of St Nicholas (former parish church of Hume), and a garden in the modern village.

This report presents the results of the archaeological aspects of the project, with detailed analysis of the artefacts uncovered during excavation works, and an analysis of Hume Village and Castle and their setting.

2.1 Background to the project

The Contextualising Hume Project aimed to undertake a range of archaeological techniques to research, excavate, and record Hume Village and its surrounding landscape. This included Hume Castle and the remains of the former medieval village immediately surrounding it and the associated kirkyard that used to house the former parish church. The project engaged with over 350 members of the public including volunteers from the local community, school children, university students, and local interest groups. Opportunities to learn more about the history of Hume were provided, and over 100 people received skills training in archaeological survey, excavation, and recording (Illus 2).

Key research questions that the project aimed to address included: When did occupation and/or activity in the settlement remains immediately surrounding Hume Castle cease? Does the settlement at Hume follow a traditional model based around castle, church, or both? How was the settlement at Hume affected by the abandonment, and possible destruction, of the former parish church and destruction of the castle? What significance is maintained at a settlement whose church and castle have been abandoned and/or destroyed?

To answer these questions the project covered four central archaeological themes: Research; Survey and Recording; Excavation; and Interpretation. The aim of each theme was to enhance current understanding

of Hume Village and the surrounding landscape, and to provide opportunities for volunteers to engage in archaeological activity.

The research theme involved exploring the historical narrative of the village and castle. Their immediate setting was explored and included analysis of historic maps, aerial photographs, an assessment of publicly accessible documentary evidence, and an appraisal of existing archaeological evidence and reports.

A central theme of the project was a series of non-invasive surveys and archaeological recording techniques to provide a more complete record and understanding of the Hume landscape, and to help inform the excavations that were carried out. The survey and recording elements of the project included a condition survey of Hume Kirkyard including a survey to identify and record visible and non-visible gravestones and remains of the former kirk (church); a geophysical survey of the kirkyard and surrounding glebe fields to identify any subsurface features; and a landscape survey of the land immediately surrounding Hume Castle. An Historic Building Record (HBR) for some elevations of the castle was also undertaken to provide volunteers with the opportunity to learn this aspect of archaeological recording.

Two seasons of excavation were conducted to target specific aspects of the Hume landscape. In the land immediately surrounding Hume Castle, two trenches and three test pits were excavated to investigate the remains of structures and features identified during previous survey works. A trench was excavated to investigate the remains of a former workshop identified in the gardens of West End Cottage in Hume Village, and two trenches were excavated in the glebe field to the east of Hume Kirkyard to investigate circular anomalies that had been identified during the geophysical survey.

Interpretation was highlighted as one of the most important outputs from the project as there is a lack of easily accessible, detailed information available to the public with regards to Hume Castle and its immediate vicinity. Alongside this publication, four data structure reports were completed to detail the results of the survey and excavation works. A suite of new interpretative material, providing a basic historical background and to disseminate the



Illus 2 Volunteers and students excavating in Hume Glebe (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

results of the project, were completed including three new interpretation boards sited at the castle, village, and kirkyard, and two new information booklets made freely available at those locations. The project also explored engagement with heritage by different audiences using craft as a theme, with a hand-crafted (knitted) replica of Hume Castle produced for an exhibition hosted in Kelso at the end of the project.

Beyond the key research questions outlined above, the principal aims and objectives of the project were to engage members of the local community with an opportunity to learn new skills whilst discovering the heritage of Hume Village and Castle and their immediate surroundings.

2.2 Historical setting of Hume Village

It is beyond the scope of this paper to provide a discussion of medieval lordly structures, medieval parish development and function, the history of the Dunbar Earls and their association with Hume, or the gentry in the borders region (for analysis and discussion of these matters see Meikle 1988; Hamilton 2010; Gledhill 2013). Rather, a historical setting is discussed to provide evidence of the earliest records of the church, castle, and village, and to highlight evidence related to clear changes and adaptations, or abandonments, of these entities.

Hume Village originally had an associated parish kirk, at least as old as the castle and located

approximately 800m to its south-west. The earliest record of the Kirk of St Nicholas dates to between 1128 and 1138 when it was granted property (one ploughgate), the parish of Hume and half of the parish of Gordon by Cospatrick I, 1st Earl of Dunbar (Beam et al 2019a, 2019b). The church was later gifted to Kelso Abbey by Cospatrick II, 2nd Earl of Dunbar, at some time between 1138 and 1165 (Beam et al 2019c, 2019d). It is possible that an earlier kirk was located in the vicinity, with a quadrangular, ecclesiastical, hand-rung bell, dating to between AD 600 and 900, found at Hume Castle (Gunn 1899: 219). This bell is now held in Scottish Borders Museum Service store at Duns Museum (Andrew Tulloch, pers comm). The kirk is one of 22 from the Merse specifically mentioned in two letters from the Bishop of St Andrews in 1555 and 1565, noted as being either partly ruinous or at risk of collapse (McRoberts 1959), and had possibly been affected by the wars with England (A Corpus of Scottish Medieval Churches 2008). The Parish of Hume was merged with that of Stichill at some point before May 1611 (CH2/1325) and the kirk was in a ruinous state by 1637 (Gunn 1899: 218). Despite the merging of the parishes, Hume Parish still maintained its own Parish Council and ecclesiastical independence (ibid: 218). The kirkyard at Hume continued to act as a burial ground for locals from the 18th century onwards and contained the 'Earl's Aisle'. This was recorded as the place of sepulchre for the Home family (OS Name Book 1856–58: 17), although it is not known which, if any, Earls of Home were buried there. The 'Earl's Aisle' is depicted as a roofed building (a mausoleum) on the Ordnance Survey First Edition map of the area (1859). It was located on the northern side of the former kirk, occupying part of its transept, but was removed in the early 1990s. The south-east corner of the kirkyard has also been recorded as the location of a 'Pest Knowe', believed to be the burying place of those who had succumbed to the plague in Hume in 1681. There are, however, no records of plague in Scotland in the second half of the 17th century, suggesting that any epidemic or outbreak in Hume was not actually the plague. The mound was investigated by a Lady Scott of Stichill House in the early 19th century, but no evidence of human remains was found (OS Name Book 1856–58: 17). Later suggestions propose that this

mound is actually formed of the structural remains of the kirk (Gunn 1899: 218).

Hume Castle was originally a medieval stronghold dating back to the 13th century, occupying a crucial site for controlling the Merse and the eastern Borders. At least part of the lands at Hume were owned by Ada (Daughter of Patrick I, 4th Earl of Dunbar) and her first husband William de Courtenay at some time between 1206 and 1217. Ownership of more land at Hume was donated to Ada on her marriage to Theobald de Lascelles at some point between 1220 and 1232 (Beam et al 2019e, 2019f). Following the death of Ada, Lady of Hume, the lands passed to Sir William, Lord of Home (Beam et al 2019g). He was Ada's cousin, William of Greenlaw (Hamilton 2010), and from whom the descent of the Home/Hume families is traced (Kerr 1809). William of Greenlaw was probably responsible for the construction of the castle. It was initially built, in all likelihood, of earthworks and timber (Canmore [SC 2072971](#)) and then re-built in stone: first as a castle of enclosure (Canmore [SC 2073035](#)); then as a tower house with artillery fortification (Canmore [SC 2072972](#)) that subsequently saw further artillery fortifications through the 16th century (Dixon 2017). The strategic location of the castle was of particular importance during the Anglo-Scottish Wars, sitting atop the highest point within a 5km radius, and providing unhindered views to the Eildon Hills in the west and the Berwickshire coast to the east. This was highlighted in the 16th century during the Rough Wooing when the castle was besieged and captured by the Duke of Somerset, before being retaken by Alexander Home, 5th Lord of Home, in 1549 (MacGibbon & Ross 1889: 109). Hume Castle was ultimately destroyed in 1651, reportedly by Oliver Cromwell's troops from Berwick under the direction of Colonel Fenwick (ibid). The rebuilding of the castle as a folly in the late 18th century (Canmore [SC 2073036](#)) by Hugh Hume-Campbell, 3rd Earl of Marchmont, saw the structure sitting atop the rubble footings of the earlier castle (MacGibbon & Ross 1889: 109).

The castle is flanked on the north by the modern village of Hume comprising just under 30 properties. Around the base of the castle's rocky outcrop are the remains of the original, likely medieval, village of Hume. This is partially depicted on William Roy's

map of the Lowlands of Scotland (1747–55), the first to show the village of Hume in any real detail. The buildings within the village are shown surrounding the castle on the east, north, and west sides (despite the castle having been destroyed 100 years earlier) with the settlement extending west towards Hume Orchard and Fallsidehill. The former size of the village is alluded to in historic documents, with the Ordnance Survey Name Books (1856–58) noting that the Earls of Home had been able to raise 400 armed men from Hume alone. Similarly, Hearth Tax Rolls from 1694 recorded that Hume Parish had 127 hearths, 105 of which were located in Hume belonging to 94 different households (E69/5/1/18; E69/5/1/19; E69/5/1/20). As the Hearth Tax Rolls did not record those located in hospitals, or those of the poor, it is probable that Hume had even more properties than those recorded by hearths at the time. Medieval settlement patterns in Scotland are complex, and whilst generalisations can be, and have been, made regarding settlement type and character there is no model that fits every case. The settlement pattern at Hume is mixed, with arguments to suggest it is more suited to the classification of a ‘castletoun’, and other reasons to suggest that it could be classified as a nucleated

village with rows of property lining a street, as depicted in Roy (1747–55) and further displayed on the Ordnance Survey First Edition (1859) (see also Dixon 2003 for an analysis of settlement types). Roy depicts the route of the loaning that leads west from Hume Village and Castle and then south towards Hume Byres and the location of the former parish church. The church, however, is not depicted as it was already in at least a ruinous state by this time. Survey work completed by the Border Burghs Archaeology Project (BBAP) in 1987 shows evidence of settlement extending along this loaning to the west of the castle and village (Canmore [SC 1545028](#)), suggesting that the original settlement at Hume extended between the castle and church. This pattern follows other examples of nucleated villages, such as Rattray, with a central street flanked by houses with the castle at one end and the church at the other (Dixon 2003: 59). Improvements were made in Hume in the early 1800s with both the construction of new buildings, and repairs to existing ones noted in a report drawn up on the Marchmont Estate by David Low in 1819 (SBA/1314), but the village itself was apparently seen as a burden rather than a benefit to the estate (*ibid*).

3. ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESULTS

3.1 Castle grounds walkover survey

Previous surveys of the castle grounds include a plane table survey as part of the BBAP in 1987, which recorded the extent of the wider settlement remains. More recently, drone survey and ground-truthing (Canmore [SC 1574488](#)) was completed by Historic Environment Scotland (HES, Dixon 2016; Cowley et al 2018) identifying the detailed settlement remains in the immediate vicinity of the castle, and an enhanced phasing of the castle itself. During the Contextualising Hume Project, field survey was completed in the land immediately surrounding Hume Castle, and owned by HCPT. The purpose of this walkover survey was to provide specialist training to volunteers on how to identify and record archaeological sites and monuments in the landscape. It also allowed for condition assessment of the identified monuments, and the identification of sites suitable for excavation. The land was systematically walked by a HARP team member and project volunteers.

During the field survey, 54 sites were identified and recorded in the study area (Illus 3). Of the 54 sites identified the most common encountered were interpreted as terraces (18) and buildings or building platforms (12). Ten banks were identified, as well as five potential wells. One ditch, two walls, and two trackways were revealed, whilst one cairn and one drainage feature were also identified. The features were spread throughout the study area, but the largest concentrations of features were located to the west and south-west of the castle.

On comparison with the HES survey results it was possible to reconcile the more ambiguous platforms or terraces identified in the walkover survey with buildings and terraces previously recorded. Whilst the majority of the sites recorded during this walkover survey had been previously identified, it was not possible to identify all of the sites recorded in the drone survey. This was mainly due to vegetation cover and difficulty to pick up subtle elevation changes whilst surveying at ground level. In particular, areas of rig and furrow cultivation to the south-east of the castle and a building directly to the NNW of the north-western corner of the castle could not be identified during this walkover

survey due to vegetation cover. The combination of drone and traditional walkover in the previous HES survey was able to provide a more complete set of results (Cowley et al 2018: 9–10).

In general, the topography, vegetation cover, and visible remains of the sites made it difficult to fully understand the complexities of each area of the former village. It was, however, possible to identify a small number of distinct building footings, which allowed for targeted excavation and a greater analysis of the structural remains of the former village.

3.2 Kirkyard survey and condition assessment

Michelle Gamble

A survey and condition assessment of the gravestones situated within Hume Kirkyard was completed as part of the project. The purpose of this work was to provide a baseline condition of the monuments in order to allow an opportunity to assess potential risks to the monuments, and to be able to assess the rate of potential deterioration. At the same time, the survey provided an opportunity to record extant monuments and compare the information to previous monument inscriptions recorded by the BFHS in 1994 (BFHS 1994). The earlier survey work did not, however, record all of the gravestones in the kirkyard (in particular the more recent gravestones on the southern side of the kirkyard), nor did it record the location of each gravestone, and so direct statistical comparisons have not been possible (Gamble 2022).

The kirkyard is entered from the west and is defined by a drystone wall, with the only mortar bonded sections of wall being the stone pillars of the gated entrance. The northern wall of the kirkyard partially acts as a retaining wall for the higher ground level in the field adjacent to the north. There are effectively two levels within the kirkyard with the remains of the old kirk to the north, sloping southwards to a lower level where new graves are being inserted. The kirkyard is partially lined with mature trees, the roots of which are impacting on some of the gravestones. There is also ivy growing on the walls of the kirkyard, most notably on the north wall where two memorials are inserted. There is no defined or formal path, however, there is a well-trodden stretch of grass that acts as an informal path to the more recent burials.

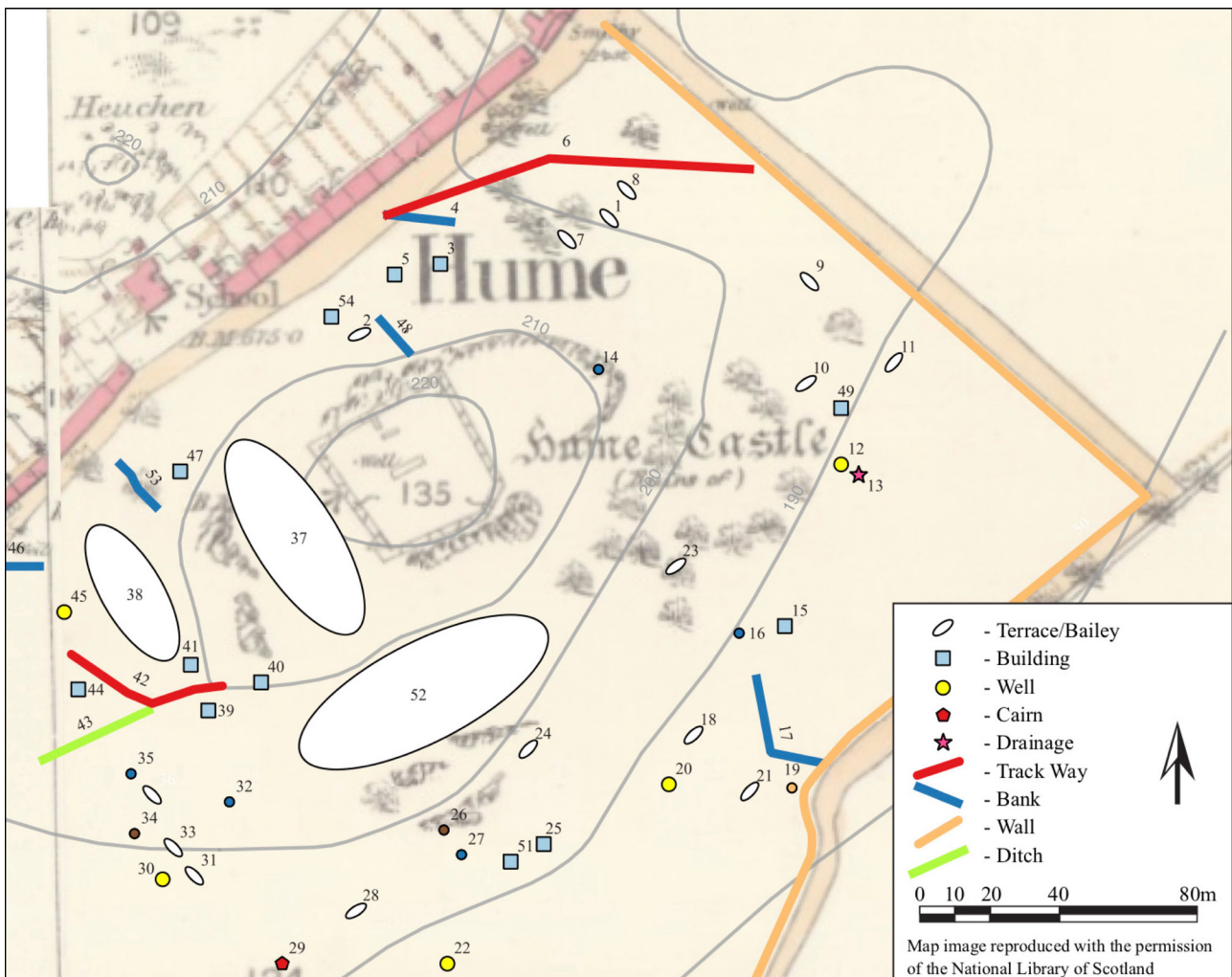
The footings, or footprint, of the former kirk are located towards the northern centre of the kirkyard, visible as an elevated mound with a significant slope towards the south, and are affected by a large yew tree growing at their eastern end. A burial enclosure located adjacent to the west of the former Earl's Aisle now only partially remains, with the northern portions still intact and a collection of well-established trees and a large holly bush growing there. Two further burial enclosures are located along the north wall of the kirkyard (Illus 3).

The south-east corner of the kirkyard is characterised by a low mound containing trees and surrounded by a low drystone wall, the 'Pest Knowe'. The south-west corner of the kirkyard is heavily overgrown with vegetation, and no visible monuments or gravestones are present, however,

there does appear to be stonework or rubble remains within this area, and it appears to be used as a dumping ground by Scottish Borders Council (SBC) for grass cuttings and waste material.

3.2.1 Results

A total of 120 memorials or gravestones were identified and recorded during the kirkyard survey. Each memorial was documented during a plane table survey to record its location, and recorded by completing Gravestone Recording Form: Incorporating Condition Survey forms, produced by the Council for Scottish Archaeology as part of their Carved Stones Advisor Project (Buckham 2006) Each memorial was recorded in detail as to its fabric, situation, inscription or other decorations, condition, and other aspects of its surrounding



Illus 3 Results of walkover survey in Hume Castle grounds overlaid on the Ordnance Survey 25 inch-to-the-mile first edition (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

landscape which may have bearing on its preservation. A photographic record was completed for each gravestone, with at least a general record shot of each; where appropriate, further detailed photographs were taken of distinct features.

The vast majority of the memorials are headstones (upright monuments denoting a burial location), with 87.5% (105/120) falling into this class of monument. This is followed by ledger or flat stones with 4.2% (5/120) and by a combination of headstone and flat stone with 3.3% (4/120). There were two wall monuments recorded (1.7%). Other than the two memorials built into a wall, the rest are free-standing with 4.2% (5/120) enclosed by a structure or fence and the other 94.1% (113/120) having no enclosure. The majority of the gravestones are made of various colours of sandstone (74.2%, 89/120) – predominantly grey and pink/red, with some yellow. Granite is the next most popular stone type, with 22.5% (27/120) in both pinks and greys. Finally, there are two marble stones (1.7%) and one of gneiss (0.8%). This leaves only one marker, which was a wooden cross. There does not appear to be any spatial or temporal relationship associated with stone type. Only the marble monuments can be grouped closely by date, to either the 20th or 21st centuries, but with only two headstones in this group it is too small a sample size to hold any significance.

With regard to the nature of the inscription technique, 82.5% (99/120) are inscribed with either text and/or images, a further 10.8% (13/120) are inlaid, 1.7% (2/120) are in relief, 4.2% (5/120) have no inscription visible, and 0.8% (1/120) are unclear in the technique used. Most memorials are inscribed on the east-facing side (69.2%, 83/120), with a smaller number inscribed on the west-facing side (14.2%, 17/120), and only a few on both their east- and west-facing sides (3.3%, 4/120). There are no memorials with text or decoration on their north face and only seven (5.8%) display an inscription on their south face. The upper face only displays text or decoration in five cases (4.2%). Four memorials had fallen over and in three cases the inscribed face was not visible. It was, therefore, possible to observe the inscribed face in 97.5% of the stones. The readability of the inscriptions varied, however, it is clear that the older monuments have suffered more weathering than the newer ones, and thus most of the instances where the inscription is no

longer legible involve older memorials. This has been found to be the result of both erosion of some of the inscriptions, as well as lichen growth, with at least one instance of lichen growth making the inscription completely unreadable. This is also evinced when the memorial inscriptions are compared with those recorded by the BFHS in 1994, when more detail could be recorded on a number of the gravestones. It must be noted however, that the earlier survey work will have included rubbings. During this survey and recording no rubbings were taken, and no intensive cleaning was undertaken of the gravestones so as not to risk further damage or erosion.

There is a legible name (or names) on 96 of the memorials (80%). Of the 24 without at least one legible first or second name, one memorial displays only relief carving and no text, and another memorial simply bears a small plaque that says, 'In Loving Memory'. The most common name now visible, appearing on 15 gravestones, is 'Bell'. This is probably representative of both the surname, 'Bell' and the visible part of the forename, 'Isabell' or, 'Isabella' which were identified collectively on ten gravestones in 1994 (the surname 'Bell' was only recorded on two). This is followed by, 'Leitch' (also, 'Litch', 'Veitch', 'Vitch') recorded on nine gravestones (previously recorded on 12 different gravestones). Most of the memorials display more than one name, where text is legible. Along with the names of individuals, the location of where they lived or were from, or even died, is recorded in over 100 cases on 68 memorials. The vast majority of places listed are within the Hume Parish boundaries, however, in later 19th and 20th century memorials places as far as the USA are recorded, and several people are listed as having died in Royal Edinburgh Infirmary.

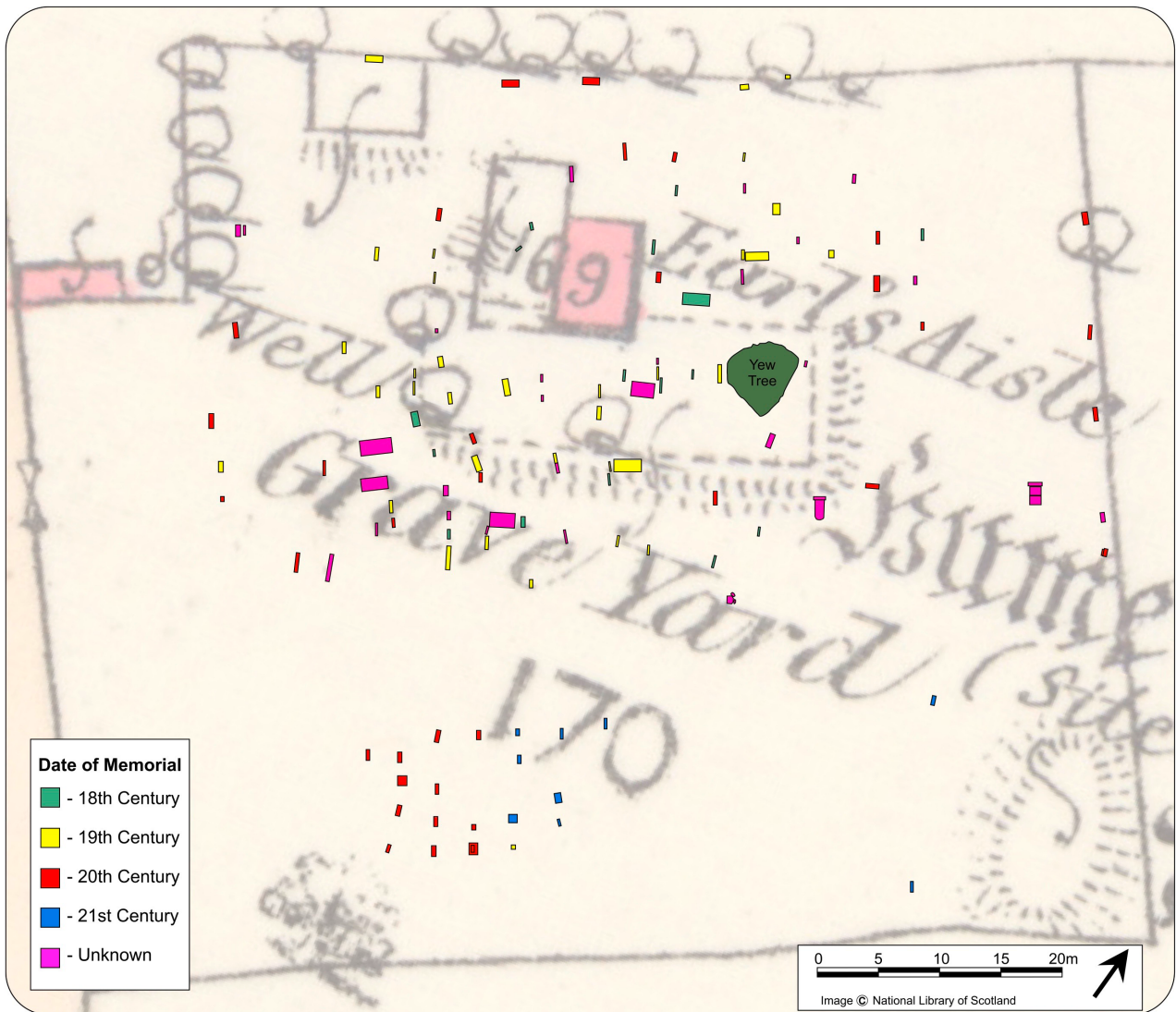
Of the gravestones recorded, 81.7% had an identifiable date, although in several instances only a general century could be assigned. Therefore, 22 monuments could not be assigned a date due to weathering and erosion of the inscription, or collapse of the monument preventing observation of the inscription. Where the inscriptions are worn away, it is sensible to assume that these monuments date to before the 20th century – most likely the 18th or 19th centuries. The earliest date on a memorial, that can be conclusively identified, is 1703 (first legible date on a memorial). Only one

gravestone in the 1994 survey displayed an earlier date, with a tabletop gravestone recording a death in 1647 (BFHS 1994: 43). The inscription on this gravestone is no longer visible. The most recently erected memorial in the kirkyard dates from 2019, reflecting the continual use of the cemetery for over 300 years.

While there is a wide range of visible dates from the early 18th century to the early 21st century, the majority present a date from the 19th century or early 20th century. Thirty-six of the monuments (30%) date from the 20th century with the vast majority of these, 33 (91.7%), dating from 1979 or earlier. Thirty-four of the monuments (28.3%) date from the 19th century, from 1800–1899. Finally,

there are 17 monuments (14.2%) which date from the 18th century. The rest, 9.2%, date from the 21st century.

Dates were recorded based on different criteria: The date the stone was erected (earliest 1800, latest 1894); the year of death of the first person mentioned on the stone (earliest 1724, latest 2018); and the first legible date on a gravestone (earliest 1703, latest 1991). With an earliest legible date of 1703, and only one gravestone displaying an earlier date (1647) in the 1994 survey it is probable that none of the visible gravestones in the kirkyard date to the time that the kirk was in use, and it is also possible that the kirkyard was not left unscathed at the time of the destruction of the castle in 1651. The



Illus 4 Layout of Hume Kirkyard with locations of gravestones categorised by date (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

positions of the gravestones are also of interest, with those dating from the early 18th century positioned around the footprint of the kirk, and no burials located its footprint until 1757, over 120 years after it was recorded as being in a ruinous state (Gunn 1899: 218). The majority of the currently visible burial monuments within the footprint of the kirk date from the 19th century, and none are from the 20th century or later (Illus 4).

3.3 Geophysics

Iain Pringle

Geophysical survey (magnetometry) was completed in Hume Kirkyard and its adjacent Glebe fields using a Bartington Grad601–2 Dual Fluxgate Gradiometer. The grids were marked out by hand using 60 metre tapes, covering a total area of 2.15 hectares. The collection of magnetic data using a north-south traverse is preferable for a magnetic survey, as enhancements to the magnetic field caused by buried features are mapped increasingly stronger the closer the traverse direction can get to a magnetic north-south direction (Breiner 1999). On this occasion magnetic data was collected on a north-west/south-east alignment due to the orientation of the survey grids and the available area. Data was collected by making successive parallel traverses across each grid in a zigzag pattern. The data collected from the survey was analysed using Terrasurveyor 3.0.33.6. The resulting data set plots are presented with positive nT/m values and high resistance as black and negative nT/m values and low resistance as white. The data sets were processed using clipping, de-stripping, and de-staggering.

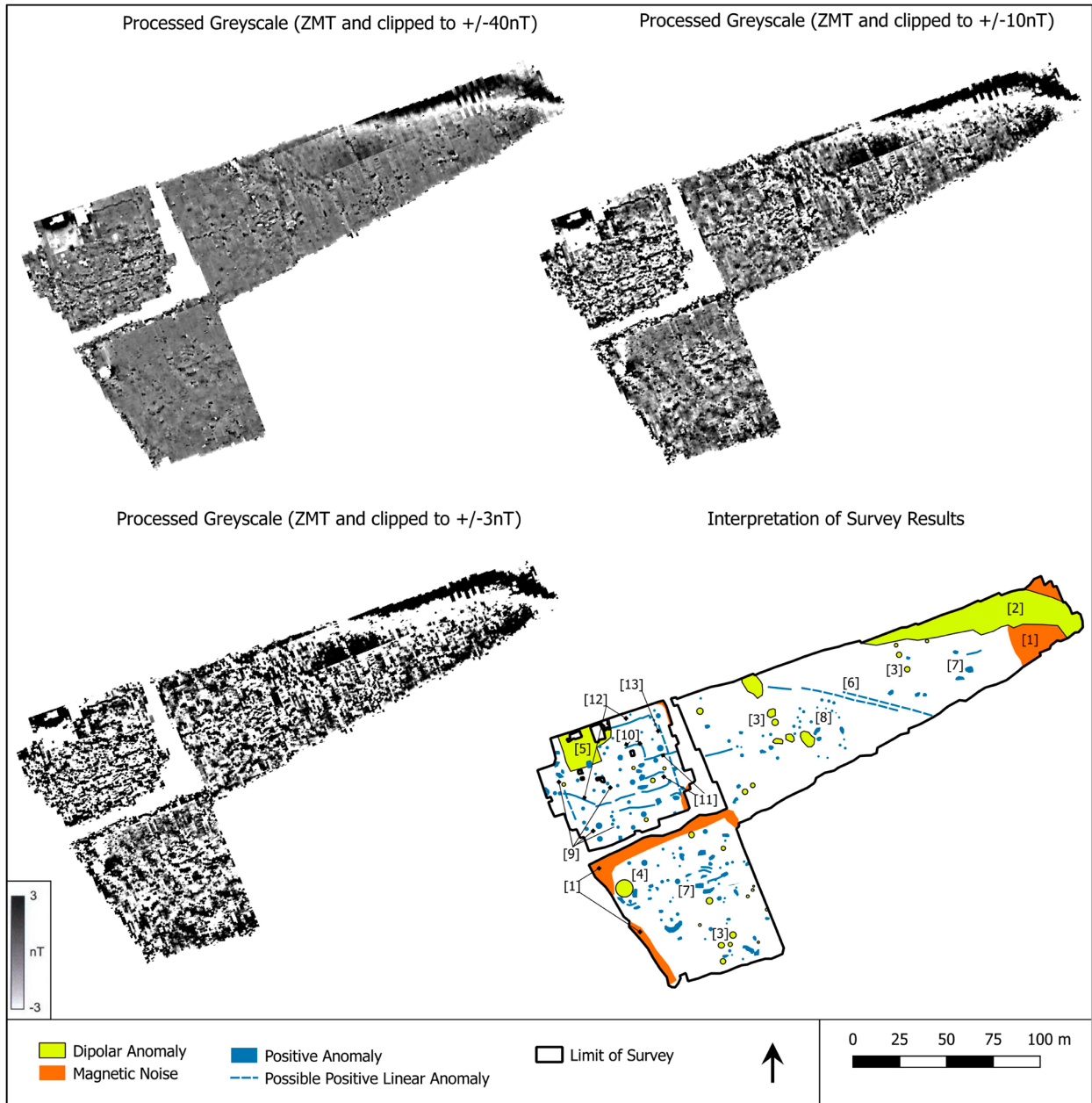
The clipping process is used to remove extreme data point values which can mask fine detail in the data set. Excluding these values allows the details to show through. The de-staggering process compensates for data correction errors caused by the operator commencing the recording of each traverse too soon or too late. It shifts each traverse forwards or backwards by a specified number or intervals. Plots of the data are presented in processed linear greyscale with any corrections to the measured values of filtering processes noted and as separate simplified graphical interpretations of the main anomalies detected.

3.3.1 Results

For the purposes of interpreting the anomalies, the survey data was processed to the values of -3 to 3 nT/m, -10 to 10 nT/m, and -40 to 40 nT/m. This enhances faint anomalies that may otherwise not be noted in the data. The survey results revealed a number of anomalies across the data set and these are discussed in turn and noted as single- and double-digit numbers in square brackets (Illus 5). Immediately noticeable are the areas of magnetic noise around the edges of area [1], especially within the Glebe fields. The magnetic noise around these areas is the result of wire fences that surround the fields. Also easily visible is the large dipolar linear anomaly [2] orientated north-west/south-east across the eastern end of the area. This produced readings between -100 to 100nT/m and is in all likelihood caused by a modern service running through the area. Scattered throughout the area are a number of strong and weak dipolar responses [3]; the characteristic dipolar response of pairs of positive and negative 'spikes' suggest near surface ferrous metal or other highly fired material in the soil. The large dipolar anomaly in the southern field [4] was caused by a metal feed trough used to feed cattle.

Within the kirkyard, along the northern edge, a number of large dipolar responses surround areas that were not able to be surveyed [5]; these were the result of large grave plots surrounded by iron railings. Aligned through the eastern Glebe field, a number of positive linear anomalies [6] gave readings between 10 and 20nT/m and are probably the result of modern agricultural activity within the field. Scattered throughout the fields were also numerous amorphous positive anomalies [7] producing readings between 10 and 30nT/m, possibly representing former pits and filled in hollows.

Along with the amorphous positive anomalies in the eastern Glebe field were a series of smaller positive anomalies in a circular shape, giving readings of 20nT/m [8]. These anomalies are characteristic of postholes and may represent a former feature within the site. The positive anomalies in the kirkyard [9] mainly gave similar readings of 60 to 80nT/m, with some giving a lower reading of 40nT/m. These were caused by the graves, most of which are marked by gravestones. Scattered throughout the graveyard were occasional dipolar anomalies that suggest near surface



Illus 5 Geophysical results and locations of identified features (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

ferrous metal and are likely caused by coffin furniture.

The positive linear features in the centre of the graveyard [10] produced readings between 20 and 30nT/m and represent the outline of the former kirk, which can be seen on historic maps, and are still visible as earthworks. Of particular interest are the east/west linear anomalies to the south-east of the footprint of the kirk [11] which may represent a different structure.

Aligned east/west, parallel with the northern wall of the graveyard, and entering the kirkyard from the west are positive linear anomalies producing

readings between 10 and 20nT/m [12], which represent part of a former gravelled path that ran through the kirkyard; this is also represented by the north-west/south-east aligned linear anomaly in the northeast corner [13], which produced readings between 10 and 30nT/m.

3.3.2 Conclusion

Throughout the site, the survey identified a number of features relating to the current kirkyard and former kirk. The kirkyard area is characteristic of

a heavily disturbed site, which is expected due to its prolonged use as a graveyard, and there are also numerous positive and dipolar anomalies producing similar responses, which are the result of the graves and the possible coffin furniture. Also within the kirkyard are a number of linear anomalies that correspond with the foundations of the former kirk, and further linear anomalies that may represent a different structure.

In the surrounding Glebe fields, two areas were identified as being of particular interest; some of the positive anomalies in the areas immediately surrounding the kirkyard produced very similar results to the graves there and may represent graves beyond the current boundaries of the kirkyard; and towards the centre of the eastern Glebe field a series of positive anomalies form a circular shape, which possibly represented the remains of prehistoric structures (Illus 5).

3.4 Excavation in the Glebe fields and Hume Village

Excavations during the Project were designed to include investigations outwith the castle and its immediate vicinity, and to investigate the potential for occupation during different time periods than that of occupation of the castle. For this part of the project two trenches (each measuring 3×6m) were excavated within the eastern Glebe field, and were positioned based on the results of the geophysical survey to investigate the possible negative features forming a circular shape in this area (Illus 6). A second area of excavation involved a 1×2m test pit in the garden of West End Cottage, Hume, located on the position of a probable 19th or 20th century workshop that had previously been attached to the western gable of the cottage (Illus 7).

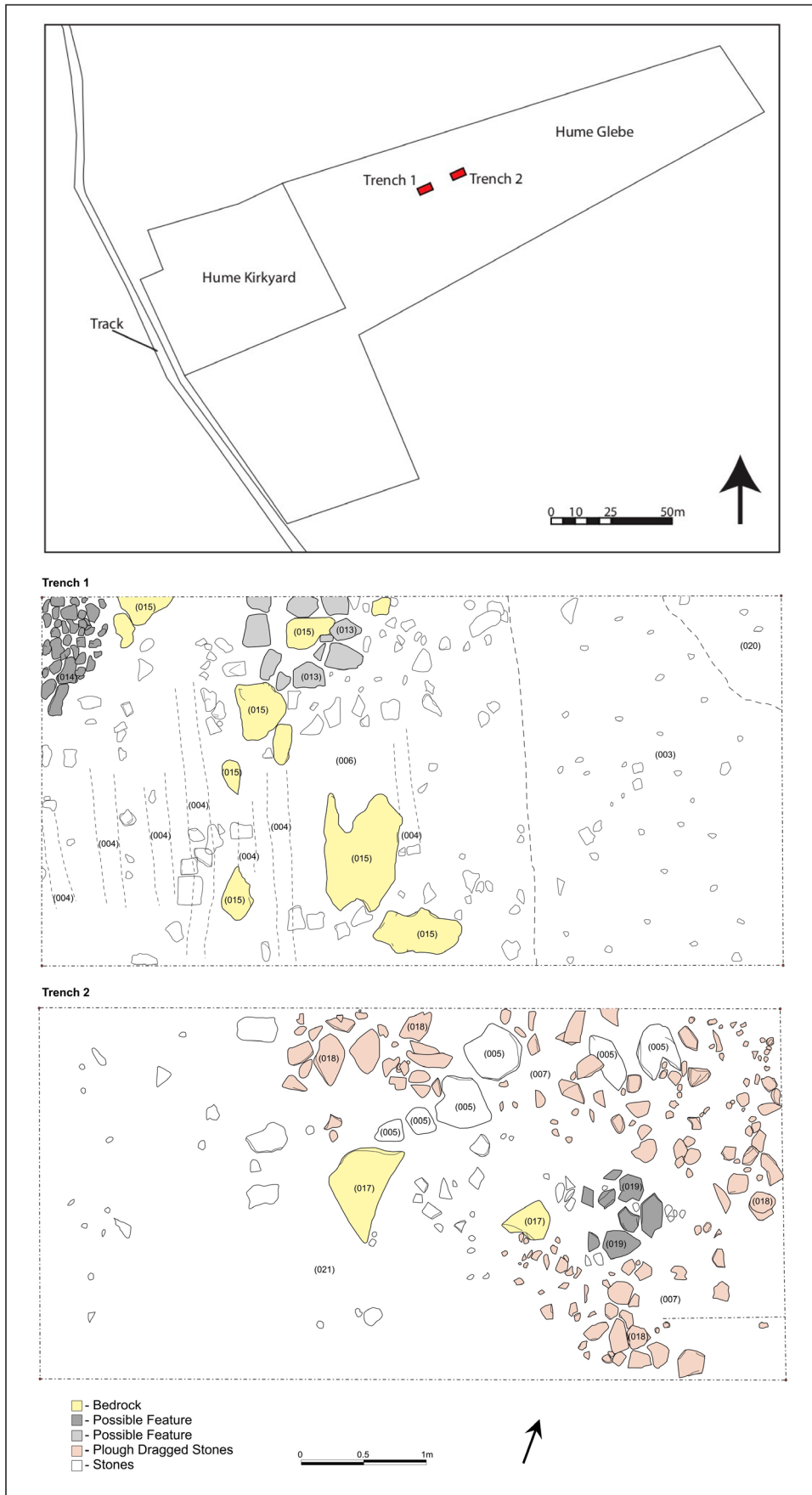
3.4.1 Excavations in the Glebe

The Glebe fields have been almost exclusively used for cattle grazing over the last 50 years, but there is clearly visible rig and furrow, running roughly north-west/south-east, across the entire field. There were clear distinctions between the soil of the rigs (Contexts 003 and 002 in Trench 1 and Trench 2 respectively) and the furrows (C006 and 007 in Trench 1 and Trench 2 respectively).

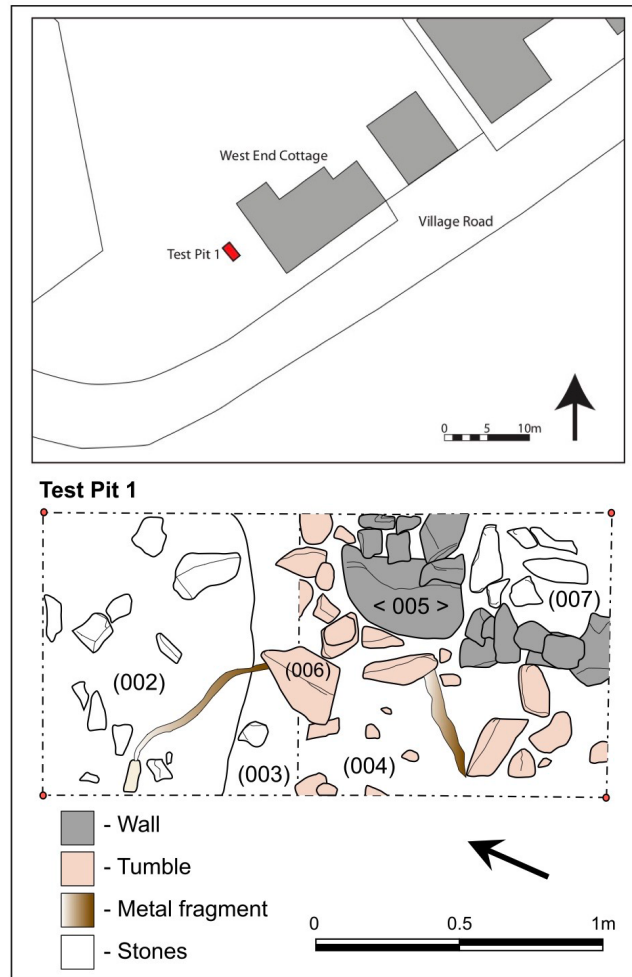
A modern ploughing event to improve and aerate the soil was evident across both trenches (C004 and 012), disturbing the earlier rigs and furrows to a maximum depth of 0.15m. The base of the rigs merged with sterile glacial tills below (C020 in Trench 1 and 021 in Trench 2), with a series of prominent stones and protrusions of bedrock in both trenches. On initial excavation the stone deposits identified in Trench 2 (C005 and 017) were found to form a circular pattern. They appeared to correspond with the anomalies identified during the geophysical survey, however, on further excavation it was determined that these stones (along with further stone deposits C018 and 019) were either naturally accumulated stones disturbed by ploughing, or outcrops of bedrock. Similar deposits of stone were identified in Trench 1 (C013, 014, 015), although none presented the circular or possible structural characteristics of those revealed in Trench 2. No significant archaeological features were therefore identified in the excavations in the Glebe field and only a small number of post medieval or early modern artefacts (all of which can be attributable to agricultural practices) were uncovered. Whilst some possible stone features were initially hypothesised, they are, in all likelihood, evidence of natural bedrock that has eroded away from the outcrop, and/or natural stones that have been dragged by ploughing. The nature of the deposits identified and the locations of the bedrock outcropping also suggest that the other similar anomalies identified in the geophysical survey are probably outcrops of bedrock.

3.4.2 Excavations at West End Cottage

The test pit in the garden of West End Cottage was excavated to locate the northern wall of a former workshop (Illus 7). Beneath a dark brown clayish loam, C002, and a mid-brown compact clay, C003, a deposit of rubble, C006, was identified, with a depth of 0.2m and identified as being associated with wall remains C005. This probable wall corner was formed of densely packed irregularly shaped cobble-sized stones, 0.55×0.94m, running south to north, and surrounded a mixed gravel deposit, C007, that may represent an internal demolition layer. The foundation remains were probably once attached to the existing western gable of West End



Illus 6 Trench locations and results in Hume Glebe (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)



Illus 7 Test pit location and results at West End Cottage (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

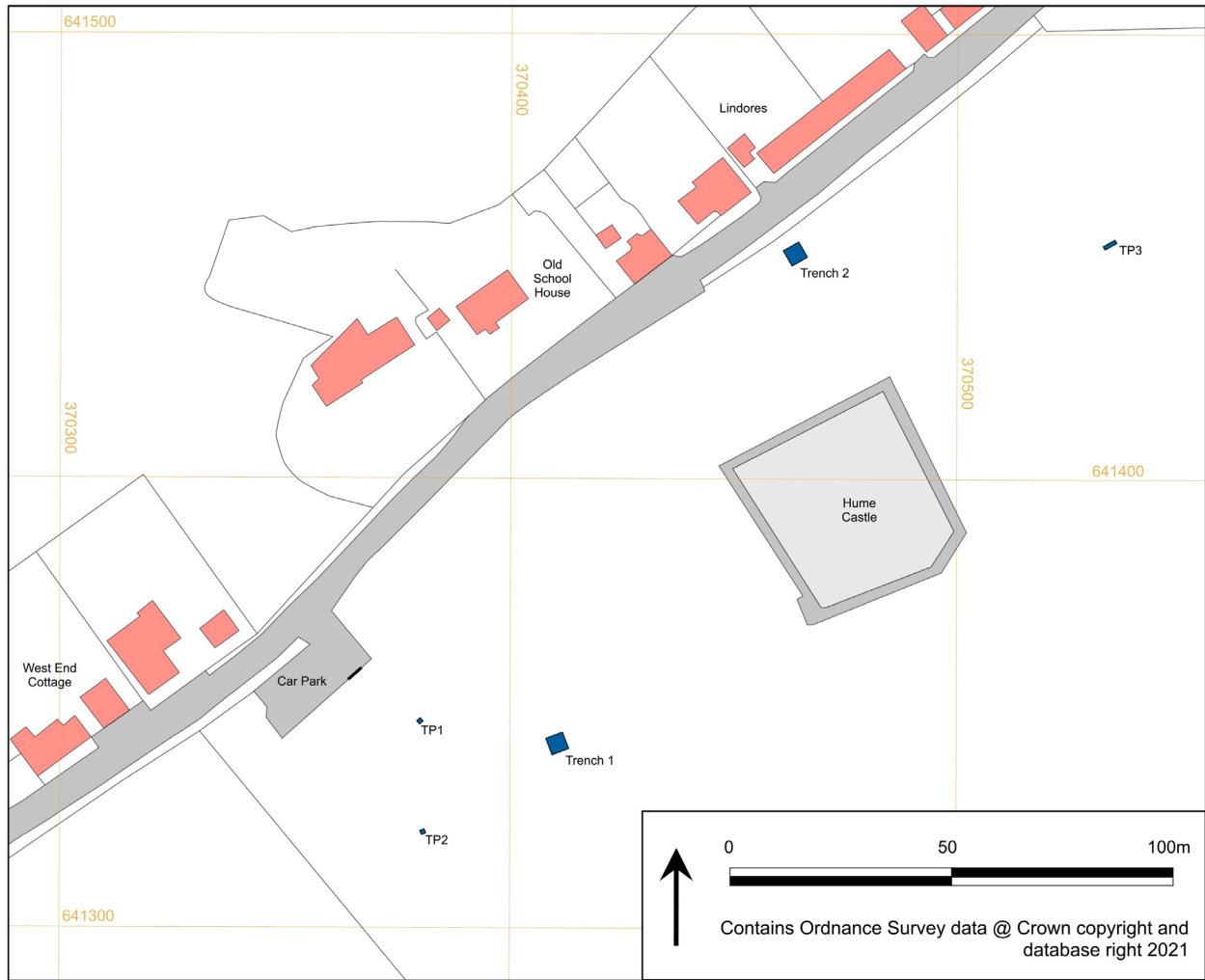
Cottage, and may have formed the northern wall for a building or workshop. The western gable of West End Cottage shows a bulge that may be representative of the extent of the roof of the former building or structure, and the position of the possible wall remains tie into the positioning evinced on the gable wall. The excavations revealed a large amount of debris and rubbish material, including ceramics, glass, and metal fragments, all of which appear to date to the 19th or 20th centuries.

3.5 Excavation in the castle grounds

A total of two trenches and three test pits were excavated in the grounds immediately surrounding Hume Castle to investigate and better understand identified structures from the settlement, the potential eastern defences of the settlement, and a

potential former routeway leading up to the castle from the west. The trenches and test pits were positioned based on the results of the walkover survey, and the results from the previous survey work completed by HES (Illus 8). Hume Castle and its surrounding fields are a Scheduled Monument (SM387), and as such Scheduled Monument Consent (SMC) was required to conduct the excavation works (case ID 300042946).

Trench 1 was located to investigate identified structural remains to the south-west of the castle, on the northern side of a possible access route up to the castle (site 41 in the walkover survey). The trench measured 4x4m, and was positioned to investigate the exterior and interior faces of the structures southern walls, whilst also being positioned in order to investigate a potential internal division. Trench 2 was located to investigate structural remains of a potential platform house with associated enclosure,



Illus 8 Trench and test pit locations in Hume Castle grounds (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

located to the north of the north-east corner of the castle (site 5 in the walkover survey). The trench measured 4×4m, and was positioned to cover both the exterior and interior faces of the structure’s walls, whilst also investigating the relationship between the structure and a potential associated enclosure on the southern side.

Test Pit 1 was located to investigate the deposits and geology to the west of the castle, and south of the entrance gate from the castle car park. The test pit was located on the route of a modern vehicle access track and measured 1×1m. Test Pit 2, measuring 1×1m, was located to investigate the deposits and geology to the south-west of the castle at the western end of a possible entrance route leading up to the castle from the west (site 43 in the walkover survey). Test Pit 3 was located to investigate the deposits and character of a potential

defensive rampart located to the east of the castle (northern end of site 14 identified in the walkover survey). The test pit measured 3m by 1m and was orientated approximately north-east/south-west across the potential rampart in order to characterise its construction and depth.

All excavations within the trenches and test pits were conducted by hand, initially to the top of intact archaeological deposits. Where structural remains were encountered, such as wall foundations or footings, these were characterised, cleaned and recorded. Archaeological deposits such as wall tumble, in fill, or slopewash, was removed to better define and characterise any structural remains. Where floor deposits were encountered, these were cleaned, characterised, and recorded, with only a small 0.25×0.25m sample excavation conducted through the floor deposit to further

evaluate, characterise, and define their extents and construction; all such excavations had 100% of removed fills sampled for environmental processing and analysis.

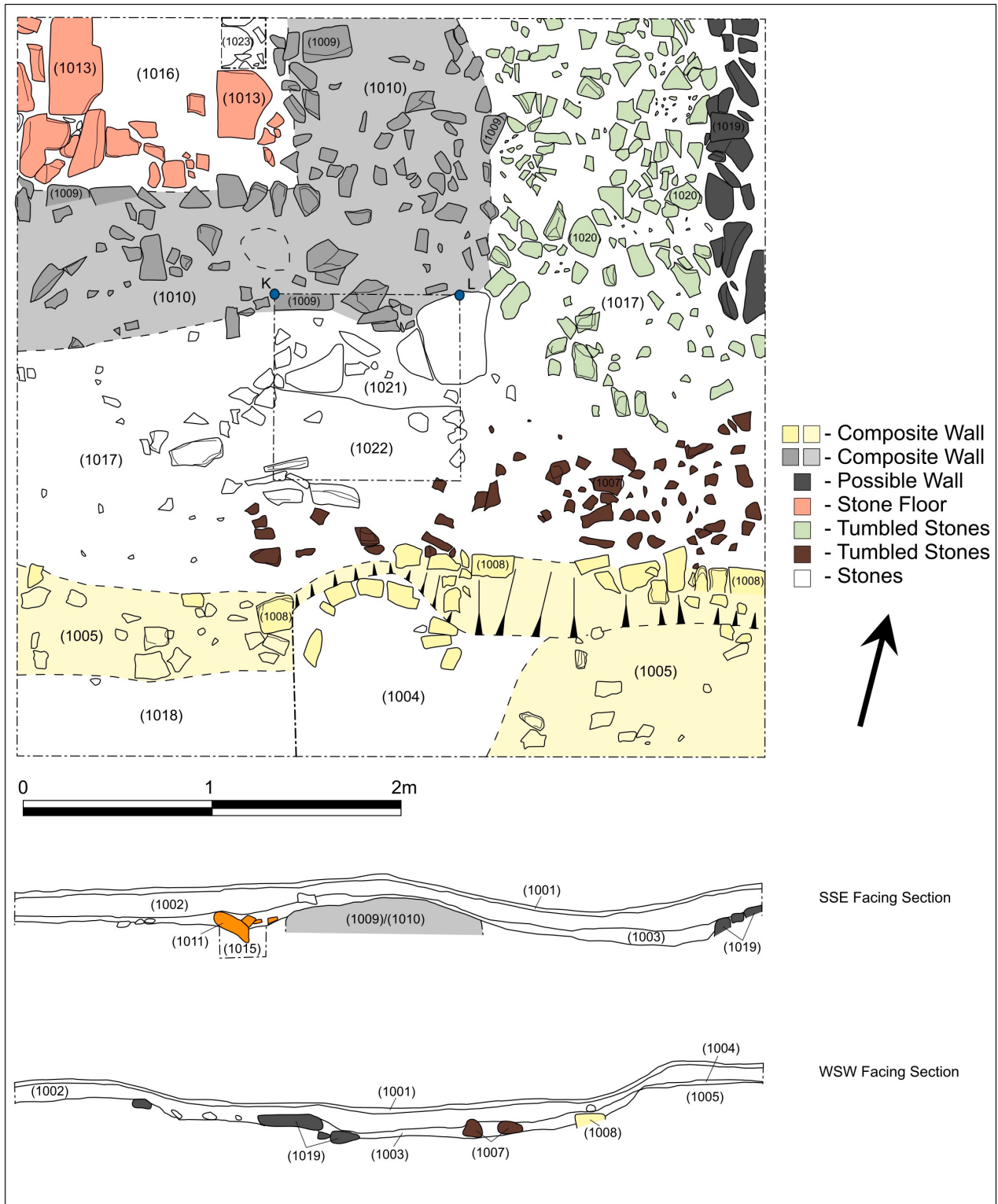
3.5.1 Excavation results in Trench 1

Trench 1 was located to investigate the possible remains of a building identified during previous aerial surveys by HES, and identified as Building 41 during the field survey (Hill 2018). The building is located at the southern edge of the potential lower bailey of the castle and on the north side of a holloway running east/west at the south-west of the castle (see Sections 3.5.5 and 3.5.6 for Test Pit 2). The building is identified in the previous surveys as being rectangular in shape, orientated approximately east/west, with an internal dividing wall running approximately north to south. The topography in the area was undulating, with visible remains of wall footings running east/west along the southern edge of the trench, and north/south along the centre of the trench.

The trench was covered with a dense turf layer, C1001, and a clay loam topsoil, C1002, that continued to a depth of up to 0.23m, with the deepest deposits located in the south-west corner of the trench. Two distinct deposits were revealed beneath, with C1003 a greyish brown clay silt and C1004 a greyish brown sandy silt. A large number of stones were also revealed in the north-west quadrant of the trench following the removal of topsoil, forming an 'L' shaped feature running into the trench from the western edge before turning 90 degrees and exiting the trench at the northern edge. On removal of C1003 in the north-west quadrant of the trench, this 'L' shaped formation of stones became clearer, with an obvious composite wall identifiable (Illus 9 & 10). The wall construction consisted of stone footings and facing constructed from undressed stonework, C1009, with a rubble and reddish orange clay core, C1010. The east/west arm of the wall measured 2.5m long and 0.9m wide, whilst the north/south arm measured 1.5m long and 1m wide, with the wall continuing beyond the edge of the trench to both the west and north. Removal of C1003 on the interior of wall C1009/1010 revealed a spread of irregular, angular stones, C1011, surrounded by a deposit, C1012, that merged with

C1003 above. Both deposits appeared to be slump and collapse that had spread north and west of wall C1009/1010. On removal of these deposits a series of large flat stones, C1013, were revealed including a large red sandstone flagstone, suggesting a laid stone floor that continued up to the edge of the wall. The stone floor did not however fully cover the internal space revealed during excavation, with a compacted peach-orange gravelly clay, C1016, identified between the large flat stones suggesting a mixed, stone and beaten earth floor. A small, 25cm, square sondage was excavated through these probable floor deposits at the north edge of the trench, adjacent to the west of wall C1009/1010. There were no floor stones at the location of the sondage, and the removal of tumble C1011 did not reveal a compacted floor surface either, however the tumbled stones in this area may have compressed or damaged the earthen surface. Beneath the floor a grey-brown sandy silt, C1015, overlay an accumulation of compacted, rounded stones, C1023.

The removal of topsoil and C1003 to the east of wall C1009/1010 revealed a linear arrangement of stones, C1019, running north/south and protruding from the eastern section of the trench. This possible wall was not fully uncovered, with it continuing into the eastern section of the trench and running out of the trench to the north, but the southern limit of the feature appears to align with the southern edge of wall C1009/1010. Between walls C1019 and C1009/1010 a deposit of tumbled stones from both walls, C1020, was identified but not removed. Beneath these tumbled stones, and to the south of wall C1009/1010 a brownish orange, gravelly sandy silt, C1017, was revealed, probably consisting of slumped and eroded material from the aforementioned walls. This deposit was investigated by a 1x1m sondage in the centre of the trench, adjacent to the south side of wall C1009/1010. C1017 continued to a depth of up to 0.2m, and contained a number of irregular, angular stones, further suggesting that this was a slumped/erosion deposit from surrounding walls, rather than a potential surface beneath wall tumble C1020. The sondage also revealed that wall face C1009 continued to a depth of up to four courses, measuring 0.3m. A potential foundation deposit, C1021, and possible old ground surface, C1022, were revealed beneath C1017, and excavation was halted at this level.



Illus 9 Excavation results in Trench 1, Hume Castle grounds (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)



Illus 10 Post excavation photo of Trench 1, Hume Castle grounds (© Brian Turnbull)

Removal of C1003 and 1004 at the south edge of the trench revealed a linear alignment of stones, C1008, running east/west and forming the northern face of a composite wall, which was abutted by an accumulation of stones, C1007, that had in all likelihood tumbled from the wall. The wall face showed evidence of three courses, and continued to a height of up to 0.25m, with a core consisting of a mix of stone and reddish orange sandy clay building material, C1005. The wall is most prominent running east/west in the south-east quadrant of the trench but an outer, or southern, wall face was not identified, and likely extends beyond the south edge of the trench. Composite building material C1005 did not extend as far to the west as the stone wall face and the wall itself appeared to disappear, or drop off to the west, at the south-west corner of the trench. A small semi-circular formation of the stone wall face suggested a possible termination to the wall, however, this area of the trench had also been affected by animal burrowing, disturbing the preservation of the wall at this location. A probable continuation of wall fill C1005 was found beneath the levels of animal disturbance, and continued beyond the western edge of the trench, with a width of 0.45m (Illus 9).

3.5.2 Discussion of Trench 1 results

Whilst the trench was excavated to target the internal division and the southern wall of the building, the uncovered remains indicated a more complex floor plan to the building. Rather than an internal division running north to south through a rectangular building, excavations revealed an outer (southern) wall to the structure that possibly terminated towards the western end of the trench, and as such the centre of the identified rectangular building. Whilst erosion may have caused the wall to be less intact, it is also possible that the lack of wall remains indicates an entranceway into the building. The excavation did not reveal a southern face to the wall, which is probably located to the south beyond the limits of the excavation. The uncovered remains however, suggest a significant composite wall surviving to a width of greater than 1m, with a stone (internal) face and a rubble and clay infill.

To the north (interior) of this wall, a significant amount of stone collapse was identified, along with two further stone-built walls. The remains of a possible north/south wall protruded from the eastern section of the trench, with the corner of a further building, or room, indicated by an 'L' shaped composite stone and clay wall in the

north-west corner of the trench. Neither of these two walls correspond with a north/south dividing wall that had been previously suggested, and whilst excavations did not fully reveal the extent of wall C1019 in the eastern section of the trench, it appears that the southern termination of this wall, or feature, corresponds to the southern limit of wall C1009/1010.

A built floor surface was not revealed on the interior of wall C1005/1008, but there is evidence of a possible old ground surface. There is a significant amount of tumble and slumped material that was not removed during excavations, however, it is possible that what was regarded as an internal space to a building in previous surveys may be some form of courtyard or walkway leading to a complex of smaller structures (that is, formed by walls C1009/1010 and 1019) within. In this manner, the southern wall of the building may be the remains of a more significant curtain wall and this complex of structures may have related to, or been in use, prior to the destruction of the castle in the 17th century.

The internal flagstone floor uncovered on the interior of the 'L' shaped wall in the north-west corner of the trench may indicate a higher status to this part of the building than buildings that would be constructed with a beaten earth floor, and the sondage excavated through the potential floor deposits also indicated a greater depth to the remains. A probable higher status for the building is further enhanced by the presence of window glass dating to the late 17th and early 18th centuries (see Sections 3.5.6 and 4.2), as well as its location adjacent on the northern side of a former trackway or access route leading up to the castle (see Sections 3.5.5 and 3.5.6). Together, these results suggest a probable direct association with the castle complex, likely forming an outbuilding, which also showed continued occupation after the destruction of the castle.

Whilst excavations at Trench 1 have revealed significant structural remains, there appears to be a greater complexity to their form than first thought, and it is difficult to fully ascertain their nature through the limited exposure. Further removal of slumped and collapsed materials, and expansion of the trench to the north and east may help to provide a better understanding of these remains, and

to determine whether they were associated with the earlier castle, or whether the remains were only in use during the early modern period.

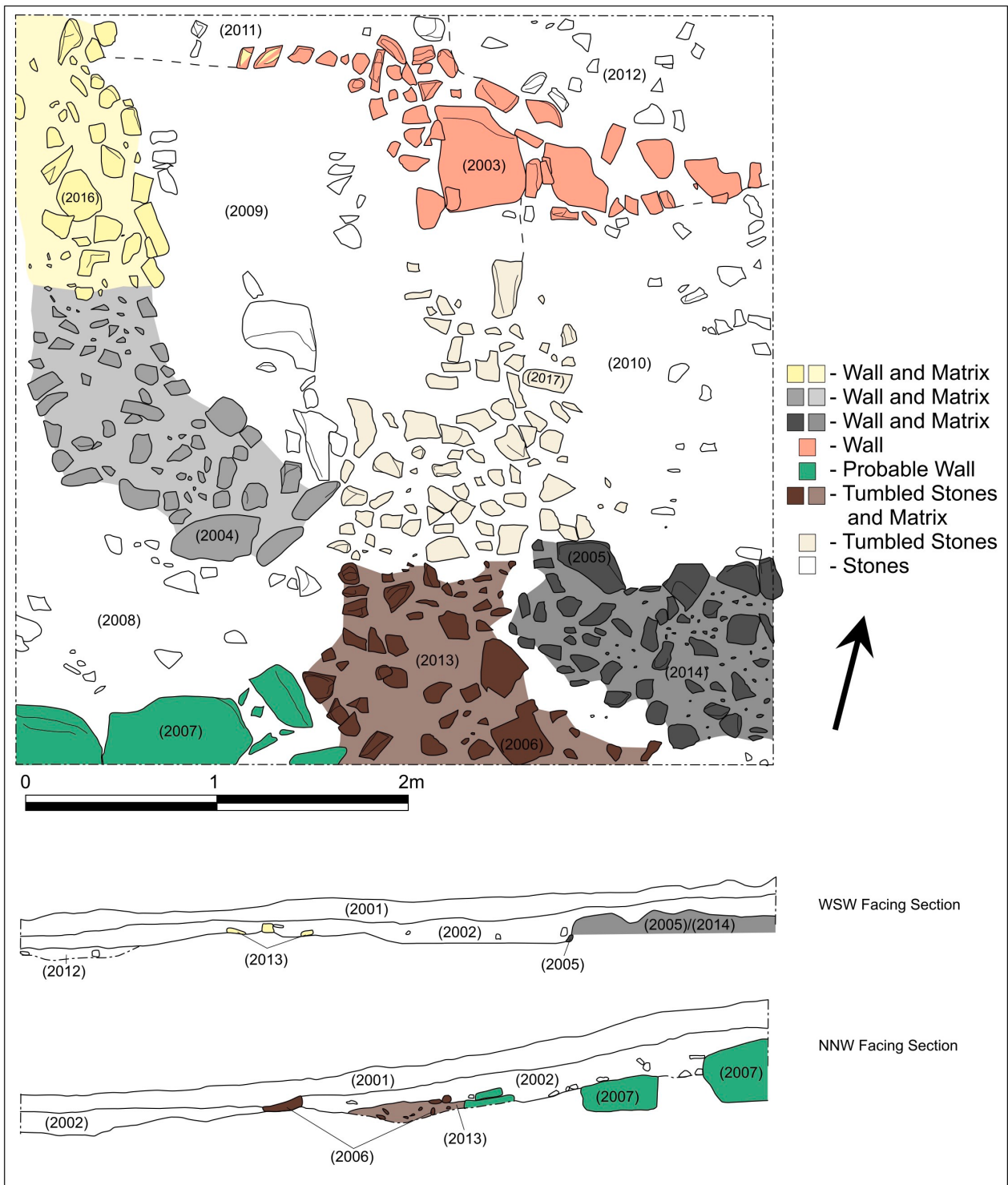
3.5.3 Excavation results in Trench 2

Trench 2 was located to investigate the possible remains of a building and associated enclosure identified during previous aerial surveys by HES, and identified as Building 5 during the field survey (Hill 2018). The identified building and enclosure are located at the base of the slope of the castle outcrop on its northern side, and opposite Lindores Cottage in the modern village.

Turf and topsoil were removed to reveal a dark, blackish brown sandy clay, C2002, that covered the entire trench, and continued to a depth of up to 0.1m. On the removal of this, further deposits and a series of stone features were identified throughout the trench, representing the walls associated with the probable building and enclosure (Illus 11 & 12). At the northern edge of the trench, wall C2003 was identified as running east/west, formed of at least two large boulders along with cobble-sized stones (*c* 15cm), and a pinkish-orange clay deposit that may have served as a mortar. This feature was partially surrounded by a sandy clay C2011 that was partially excavated to reveal a continuation of a single line of stones towards the north-west corner of the trench, probably representing a continuation of the wall, which also continued east beyond the edge of the trench.

At the west side of the trench, two linear arrangements of stones were identified (C2004 and 2016) and have been recorded separately, but probably represent different elements of the same wall. From near the western edge of the trench towards the south-east corner, the wall is curvilinear formed of cobble-sized stones, with clear facing stones on both the northern and southern sides of the wall; it also had a rubble core, filled in with tightly packed gravel. In the north-west corner of the trench it continues, but is more loosely formed with cobble-sized stones and a soil matrix.

At the south-east corner of the trench a further linear arrangement of stones, C2005, was identified as a probable wall running north-west for 1.2m, and up to 0.8m wide. The wall is probably a continuation of wall C2004, and is formed of



Illus 11 Excavation results in Trench 2, Hume Castle grounds (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)



Illus 12 Post excavation photo of Trench 2, Hume Castle grounds (© Brian Turnbull)

facing stones on the north face with cobble-sized stones forming the bulk of the wall, surrounded by a tightly packed gravel and soil matrix, C2014. It was not possible during the excavations to fully determine whether walls C2005 and 2004 were the same feature, as areas of unexcavated stones C2006 and 2017 obscure the probable wall remains between C2004 and 2005, and in all likelihood are collapse or tumble from these walls.

Three deposits were identified between walls, C2004/2005, 2016, and 2003. A brown sandy clay C2009, orange brown sandy clay C2010, and orange brown sandy clay C2011 were similar in nature and probably represent the same deposit. Different contexts were ascribed to allow for spatial differentiation, with C2009 located between walls C2004/2016 and C2003/2017; C2011 located to the north of the western portion of wall C2003; and C2010 located between walls C2003 and 2005 to the east of wall C2017. A further dark brown sandy clay, C2012, was identified to the north of wall C2003 at its eastern end. This differentiation was ascribed to allow for potential internal spaces between the identified walls. These deposits were only partially excavated, and whilst the wall remains stand proud of them, no obvious floor deposits or surfaces were identified.

In the south-west corner of the trench, the removal of topsoil and C2002 revealed the remains of large boulders protruding from the southern section of the trench. The stones were the largest identified within the trench, up to 80cm long, and formed a linear arrangement running east/west. The stones form a possible wall, C2007, at the base of the slope of the castle outcrop and continued beyond the trench to the west, however, excavations only revealed a very small portion of this feature. To the north, between walls C2007 and 2004 a dark black-brown sandy clay C2008 was identified as a further deposit. The rich, humic nature of C2008 was very different to deposits C2009 to 2012 and probably represents older topsoil deposits, or garden soils exterior to the identified walls (Illus 11).

3.5.4 Discussion of Trench 2 results

The uncovered remains in Trench 2 largely correspond to the postulated remains identified in previous survey work. The structural remains suggest a probable wall C2003 that would correspond to the southern wall of the identified building, with walls C2016, 2004, and 2005 representing a potential enclosure wall appended to the south side of this building. No floor deposits were uncovered

associated with the walls, however the nature of the deposits identified, quantity of artefacts retrieved, and the depth of the walls suggest that any surfaces or floors are likely just below the uncovered and recorded deposits.

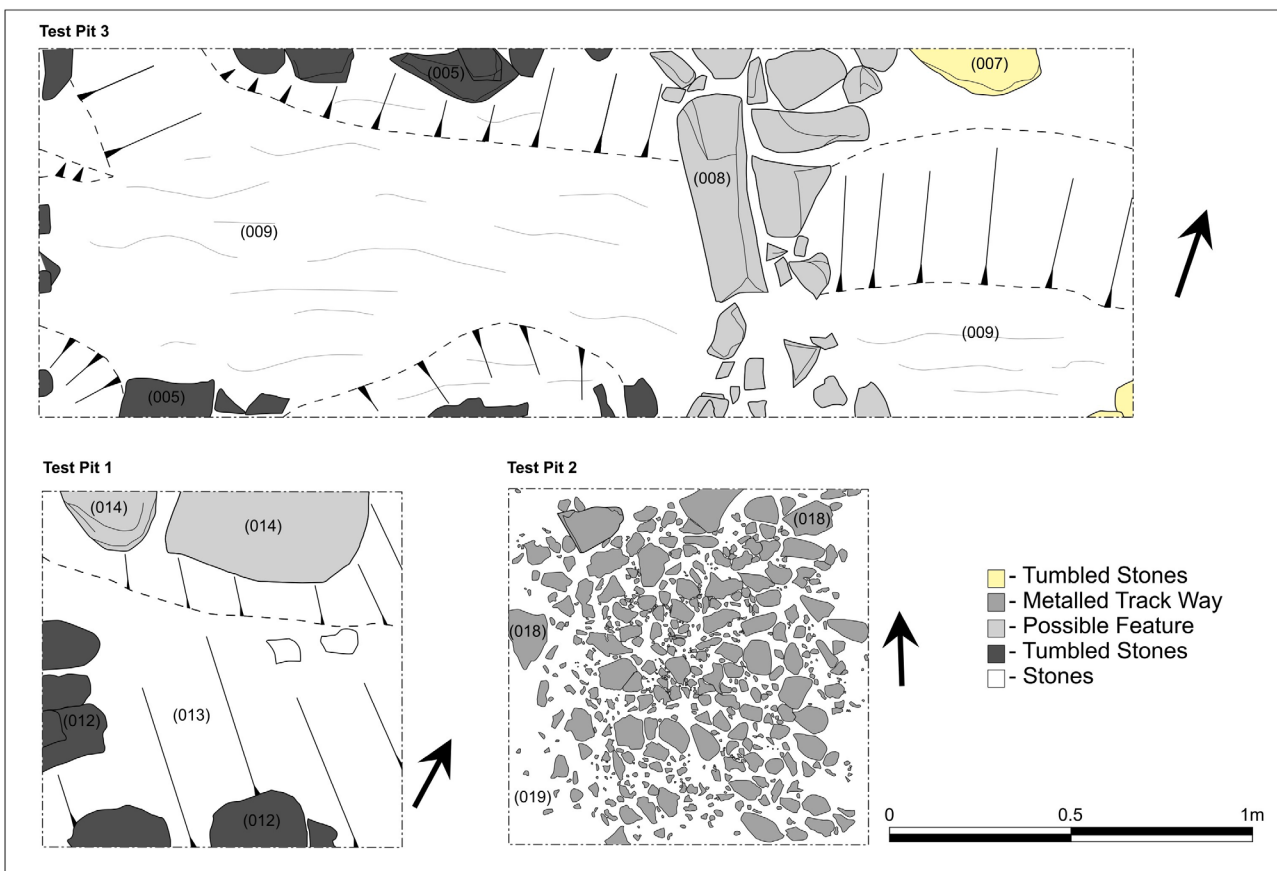
The nature of the walls was not fully determined during the excavation works, and a series of probable tumble deposits appear to be obscuring sections of walls C2004 and 2005. At the south-west corner of the trench the discovery of a series of large stones and boulders, C2007, suggest the possibility of a significant wall to the south of the identified building and possible enclosure. This wall sits at the base of a significant slope of the castle outcrop, and it is feasible that the wall was constructed to help retain material from tumbling downslope towards the building.

3.5.5 Excavation results in the test pits

Test Pit 1 was located to the west of the castle, and south of the entrance way into the castle grounds

from the car park, positioned adjacent to the modern path that leads visitors up to the castle. The test pit was located to investigate the deposits at this location in order to test the suitability and feasibility for potential future service works (electricity) leading up to the castle. Beneath topsoil and slopewash deposits, eroding bedrock, C013, was revealed and showed evidence of iron panning. The bedrock had a gradual slope downwards to the north-west, and had clear sections of eroding or broken off stones that were contained in the slopewash above (Illus 13).

To the south-west of Test Pit 1, Test Pit 2 was located between two east/west orientated bedrock outcrops, which formed a natural holloway. The test pit was positioned to investigate the potential for a former trackway leading up to the castle from the south-west. On removal of turf, topsoil, and a rich, mid-greyish brown clay silt, a layer of compacted cobbles and gravel, C018, was revealed. The deposit was surrounded by/compressed into a compacted brown sandy silt matrix/bedding deposit C019 and



Illus 13 Excavation results in test pits, Hume Castle grounds (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

probably represents the metalled surface of a former track located within the Holloway (Illus 13).

On the eastern side of the castle, Test Pit 3 was positioned to investigate the deposits and character of a bank (potentially part of the castle defences) identified in previous surveys. The test pit measured 3×1m and was orientated approximately north-east/south-west, with the natural slope of the ground running downslope from west to east. Removal of turf and topsoil revealed an extensive deposit of irregular stones, C005, surrounded by an orange brown sandy loam, C006, with the stones and soil deposit continuing to a depth of up to 0.21m. The stones were mostly concentrated in the western two-thirds of the test pit, and appeared to hit an abrupt end 2.2m from the western end of the excavation area. The stones showed no structural form, and appeared to be naturally tumbled stones from upslope to the west. This abrupt edge was characterised by a large boulder, and some smaller cobbles, C008, that appeared to form a linear arrangement running across the test pit in a north-west/south-east orientation. This alignment of stones was 0.4m wide and continued beyond the edge of the test pit to both the north-west and south-east. These stones were left in situ, potentially representing the remains of a small wall. To the east of this linear arrangement was a further collection of tumbled stones, C007. On removal of the deposits of tumbled stones, thin deposits of silty clays, C003 and 004, were found to overlie crumbly orange stone bedrock, C009, visibly eroding and having been laid down in east to west planes as identified in Test Pit 1. The bedrock was found to slope significantly downwards to both the east and north, indicating that the larger stones of C008 were located in a deeper area of C004 than any of the surrounding stones of C005 and 007, and may have settled naturally, having tumbled downslope from the west rather than being purposefully built (Illus 13).

3.5.6 Discussion of test pit results

Excavations in Test Pit 1 did not uncover any significant archaeological remains. The test pit revealed a bedrock outcropping only 30cm below ground surface at this part of the site, also indicating stone tumble from upslope to the east likely associated with erosion, however it cannot be ruled out that the tumbled stones may have been associated with the destruction of the castle and associated features.

The topography and bedrock outcropping, creating a natural holloway at the location of Test Pit 2, suggested the possibility of a trackway leading up to the south-west of the castle. This was confirmed by excavation following the discovery of metalled surface C018, and whilst only a small portion of the surface was uncovered in the test pit, it is likely that the track continues up the holloway and passes adjacent to the south of the structural remains in Trench 1. As the test pit was only 1×1m, it was not possible to identify the full dimensions of the trackway, or whether there was any evidence of drainage or cart ruts associated with it.

The large number of stones revealed in Test Pit 3 probably tumbled down the natural slope from the castle, tumbling west/east. The remains of a possible wall, C008, were recorded as running across the test pit north-west/south-east, these may correlate with the remains of a bank identified during the previous drone survey. The nature and topography of the exposed bedrock however, indicate that these stones likely came to naturally rest in a deeper hollow than those further upslope, potentially acting as a natural barrier to proceeding tumble, rather than having been formally built as a wall or boundary. These remains did not seem to indicate any evidence of castle defences, or associated boundaries, and are likely a reflection of the natural topography at this part of the site. The amount of tumbled stone located in this area however, suggests that the stone deposits may relate to the destruction phase of the castle.

4. THE FINDS

4.1 Pottery assemblage

George Haggarty and Derek Hall

The archaeological excavations from the Contextualising Hume Project retrieved 383 sherds of pottery, tile, and clay pipe. The authors have examined all the material by x10 hand lens and where possible it has been assigned to a recognised fabric name. A full catalogue of the decorated pottery sherds can be found in Appendix 1. It is indicated where sherds from the same vessels are present in different contexts. The catalogue of undecorated pottery and clay pipe fragments can be found in Appendix 2.

4.1.1 Undecorated pottery and clay pipe

Derek Hall

One hundred ninety-seven of the sherds in the assemblage are small body sherds from vessels in standard white earthenware, brown glazed earthenware, slip decorated redware, salt glaze stoneware, redware tiles, and daub, all of which are of 19th century date. There are only six sherds from C003 (Hume Glebe) and C017 (Hume Castle) which are potentially of a slightly earlier date. The three sherds from C003 are abraded glazed body sherds in Scottish post medieval oxidised ware of 17th/18th century date (Haggarty et al 2011). The three from C017 are very abraded redwares which are slipped white on one side. Similar fabrics have been recently identified from on-going excavations at Shootinglee, Scottish Borders where they are dated to the 17th century (Hall & Brorsson forthcoming).

The 22 fragments of clay pipe in this assemblage are dominated by largely undecorated or stamped pipe stems; there are three pieces from bowls. A stem from C2002 (Small Find 145) is marked with the letters ‘...ERWICK’ which are surrounded by dotted lines and have a pattern of four dots after the letter ‘K’ (Illus 14). This is liable to be of 19th century date and when complete was probably stamped ‘Tennant & Son’ ‘Berwick’ (PAS 2004, Find ID 70471).



Illus 14 Clay pipe stem from C2002, Trench 2 Hume Castle grounds, marked ‘..ERWICK’ (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

4.1.2 Decorated pottery

George Haggarty

The assemblage contained 164 fragments or sherds of decorated pottery, with 160 of these coming from Trench 2 in the castle grounds. Two decorated sherds came from Trench 1 in the castle grounds, one decorated sherd came from Test Pit 3 in the castle grounds, and one decorated sherd came from the excavations in Hume Gardens. It is a fairly mundane assemblage of industrial produced ceramics, containing nothing whatsoever of any status; it is much more reminiscent of those groups recovered from poor Scottish rural sites. Apart from a couple of sherds which just might slip into the 1790s, the material all dates from the 19th century, and mostly from the second half of that century. The assemblage displays no evidence to suggest the use of middle-class tea or dinner services and the sherds which may be earlier in the century are mostly badly frost damaged, suggesting that they lay on the surface for a period. Much of the material, such as the sponge printed, was produced over a long period of time, so in most cases it has only been possible to suggest a 25-year date span.

4.2 Glass assemblage

K Robin Murdoch

The assemblage of glass from excavations during the Contextualising Hume Project consisted of 370 shards, which were identified as follows: 303 bottle shards of various types, 57 shards of window glass, seven table vessel shards, and three other shards,

namely a spectacle lens, a jewellery bead, and a small button or stud. A full catalogue of the glass shards can be found in Appendix 3.

Most of the shards were small and in excellent condition which, to an extent, made identification and putative dating a bit more complicated. Glass lying in a buried environment often corrodes and the nature and intensity of this can help to identify and approximately date the shard/artefact. Corrosion is related to three basic factors: firstly, the pH of the buried environment, as glass is usually unaffected by acidic or neutral conditions but will corrode readily in alkaline conditions such as that deriving from the use of lime mortar in nearby structures; secondly, the amount of moisture in the ground can have a significant effect; and lastly, the composition of the glass itself. Despite the fact that there were 370 shards, they were recovered from only ten contexts; one from the Glebe, two from Hume Gardens, and seven from the castle grounds. Indeed, of the 367 recovered from the castle grounds, all but 38 were recovered from C2002.

Portable XRF (pXRF) analysis was carried out on one sample of each of the types of window glass identified (categories A–L) plus the ‘jewel’ SF80, and table vessel shards SF60 and 79.

4.2.1 Bottle glass

The bottle glass shards were recovered from a variety of bottles dating from the 18th to 20th centuries. There are undoubtedly a considerable number of 18th century bottle shards in the assemblage but very few carry diagnostic features, most are small and not straightforward to recognise. In common with many other Scottish sites, there is a prevalence of shards from wine or ale bottles. In the 18th century they were very similar in size and shape (Turnbull 2001: 275) and for that reason the term wine bottle is used universally in the catalogue but the original purpose could have been either. Throughout the 18th century and into the early 19th century these wine bottles were typically a dull mid-green colour. Black or brown glass bottles are seldom found in Scotland before the first quarter of the 19th century, unlike in England. This was in part due to the differing tastes in wine between the two countries; Scotland consumed sacks and clarets whereas port was a common English import from

the early 18th century. Port is a bottle maturing wine and black glass was preferred to stop strong light spoiling the contents. Wine bottles proved to be very useful universal containers and most base shards from Hume have considerable base-ring (BR) wear from re-use. Many would have been re-used over a considerable timescale and also contained liquids other than wine or ale, so manufacturing date could differ significantly from loss date. In more affluent households wine bottles tended to be used as decanters at table, rather than for storage, which no doubt also accounted for much of the base ring wear.

The glass wine bottle was introduced into England *c* 1630 from the continent and quickly became the accepted container particularly for alcoholic drinks, supplanting pottery alternatives. The shape evolution of the wine bottle from its inception through to the advent of semi-automatic moulds in 1821 and even later was quite drastic (Dumbrell 1992: 29–32). If enough of the bottle survives, or even a distinctive portion, then an approximate date of manufacture can be established. Glass bottles were initially very expensive and many owners/users had theirs identified by the means of an applied seal, usually on the shoulder of the item. These seals might have names of individuals, tavern logos, vintners, and even heraldic devices on them. However, the most important factor is that many carried dates which has allowed an accurate chronology to be developed (ibid: 26–9). The shards retrieved from Hume are typically small, however, there were a number that retain enough detail for approximate dating.

SF74 included a very small section of string ring (the protruding ring just below the lip, so-called because it was originally used to tie on the closure before the introduction of the internal cork in the later 17th century). Even after the introduction of corks, string rings were retained as a means of reinforcing the neck for the insertion of the cork. The string ring from SF74 was rounded in section and neatly made indicating a probable early 18th, perhaps even late 17th, century date. Contrarily, SF237 has a triangular section string ring, which is a later form, that is nipping in the neck which is typical of the late 18th century. SF125 indicates a diameter of *c* 100mm and has beelling; a feature that appears on wine bottles between *c* 1740 and *c* 1840. During that period bottles were blown in dip

moulds to render them approximately cylindrical, presumably to try to standardise capacity, whereas previously they had been free-blown. The kick (the indent in the base), however, was created after the bottle was removed from the mould. At this point the glass was still soft and not constrained by the mould, resulting in the lower body tending to splay outwards and creating a characteristic bulge just above the base. Belling was an almost universal feature of wine bottles from *c* 1740 until Henry Ricketts of Bristol introduced his semi-automatic moulding machine in 1821. These moulds would not have been adopted immediately at all works and it is reasonable to allow around twenty years for their universal use to be adopted. The colour, diameter and shape of SF125 is indicative of a third quarter of the 18th century date. The almost complete inkbottle from SF81 is another regular on Scottish sites and whilst the example from Hume looks as if the neck has been broken off, only a small piece is missing. SF81 displays a shear-lip, a cheap and quick technique where the bottle is simply sheared off from the blowpipe and not finished off into a smooth or regular lip form, therefore leaving a jagged edge. An oversize cork could then be simply jammed on to the bottle for closure. A few of the other bottle shards in the Hume assemblage could also derive from shear-lips, especially the copper-blues. This is definitely the case with the shards from SF107. Shear-lips were very popular from the mid-19th century in a range of particularly small bottles, possibly up to *c* 1914. The very small shard from SF217 retains just enough to identify it as part of a probable Codd bottle (glass marble closure), one of a myriad of 19th century inventions to seal aerated water bottles; patented by Hiram Codd in the 1870s, it was popular at least up to *c* 1914. The very pale blue bottle shards similar to SF188 probably came from medicine bottles of the late 19th to 20th centuries.

4.2.2 Window glass

Fifty-seven shards of window glass were recovered and were nominally divided into 12 different types. These samples were allocated alpha references A–L and one sample of each type was selected for chemical analysis. Following analysis, type F was redefined as a probable 19th century flat-sided bottle

shard. Of the remaining 11 types, C and D are very similar and could have come from the same batch. Similarly, H, I, and perhaps even J, are possibly from the same or similar batch. This reduces the likely number of different types to eight.

Type A was the only recognisable 18th to possibly early 19th century variety present. Comprising 19 shards exclusively from C2002, it is a standard kelp-fluxed glass dated by Dungworth and Girbal to *c* 1700–1835 (Dungworth & Girbal 2011: 2). Types B to E are of a type not included in Dungworth's analysis, but whose composition has been seen elsewhere (Dungworth pers comm). This author has also seen the composition quite frequently with examples including from Whitefriars in Perth and Botanic Cottage in Leith, which yielded examples from probably later and earlier contexts respectively. Perhaps more significantly, it was present in surviving windows in Traquair House, by Innerleithen, in a wing dated to 1690 and where the fenestration appears to be original. It is a high lime low alkali (HLLA) glass with at least some kelp in it. Dungworth assembled his chart from analysis of window glass of known reliable dates but had no dated examples of this composition to include in his analysis. HLLA window glass composition originated in Germany during the 14th century and had spread to France in the 15th century. It was then introduced into England around 1570 by Huguenot glassmakers escaping religious persecution. Dungworth dates the changeover from HLLA to pure kelp fluxing to *c* 1700 and, considering that many early glassmakers in Scotland had come from England, it is probable that a similar composition change took place there around the same time. It is, therefore, not unreasonable to assign a date of the second half of the 17th century to the Hume types B to E. Even allowing for a slight slip in date for the changing technique to spread to all manufacturers, this glass type is extremely unlikely to date to later than *c* 1710.

The other main group of window glass types is synthetic soda fluxed, introduced into Britain in the 1830s. Synthetic soda was sodium carbonate derived from sodium chloride in a process developed by Nicolas Leblanc in France *c* 1790 but not adopted in Britain until much later because of the Napoleonic wars. Leblanc's process was superseded by another developed by Ernest Solvay in the 1860s. The earlier

window glass types up to *c* 1835 were plant ash fluxed and the synthetic soda varieties required slight compositional tweaks as the production process developed during the 19th and 20th centuries. This initially included a small amount of arsenic to help purge bubbles from the melt. Types G to K have this arsenic component present and can therefore be dated to *c* 1835–1870 (Dungworth & Girbal 2011: 2). Type L does not contain arsenic but does contain magnesium; this is an indication that it is an automatically drawn glass probably of *c* 1930–1960 date (*ibid*).

When looking at the distribution of the different types of window glass from the grounds at Hume Castle, the early HLLA varieties were the only types that occurred in Trench 1. Trench 2 yielded examples of all types except types C and E (Table 1).

4.2.3 Vessel glass

Seven shards of vessel glass were recovered, of which, two substantial pieces were in white opaque glass similar to cosmetic jars whilst a third displayed slight translucency. All three appear to have been tableware, but the two opaque shards (SF60 and 224) quite probably came from the same, stemmed ‘bowl’. The analysis of this glass indicated 27% lead and 6% arsenic, which would have created the opacity. The slightly translucent shard SF79 is probably 19th century country-market glass, sometimes known as milk-and-water glass, made for fairs, gifts, and souvenirs (Newman 1977: 79). The

partial opacification in this case was from calcined bone (calcium phosphate), and the glass itself was a cheap imitation of opaline glass, a French type popular between *c* 1810 and 1890.

The three clear shards from SF104 and 105 have no distinguishing features other than that they are thin and probably come from a drinking vessel(s). The thinness of the glass might indicate a date prior to *c* 1845 (the date at which tax on glass was repealed). The final vessel shard is a section of foot from a stemmed vessel (SF171), possibly a drinking glass but with a diameter *c* 90mm therefore perhaps more likely a stemmed bowl of sorts. The pontil scar (the rough area in the centre of the underside of the foot where the pontil rod was attached) has been neatly ground off and the profile of the foot is relatively flat. From *c* 1750 the pontil scar was ground off on better quality wares and had completely gone by *c* 1850 (Newman 1977: 246). Because of the ground-off pontil scar and the flat profile this shard is probably very late 18th to mid-19th century.

4.2.4 Miscellaneous

A black glass bead from SF80 is probably from a double stringed necklace; there are two holes through the bead which would have allowed it to be strung with the long axis vertical. It is quite crudely made with the rear effectively unfinished and the faceting indistinct. It appears that the faceting is the result of moulding rather than cutting given

Table 1 Distribution of window glass types. Identification of glass types: A: kelp fluxed *c* 1700–1835; B–E: high lime low alkali with kelp component. No positive dating as yet but probably 1650–1725; G–K: synthetic soda 1, *c* 1835–1870; L: synthetic soda 3, *c* 1930–1960

Context	Type										
	A	B	C	D	E	G	H	I	J	K	L
1002					2						
1003		1	1	3							
1004			3								
1006			1	1							
2002	19	10		1		5			2	1	2
2012							3	2			

* After analysis type F was identified as probable 19th century bottle glass from a flat-sided container.

the slightly rounded edges. It is most likely a piece from funerary jewellery which was popular in the later 19th century following the behaviour of Queen Victoria after the death of Prince Albert. The only approximate Scottish parallel this author has seen is a faceted glass jewel (also moulded not cut) from excavations at Botanic Cottage in Leith Walk, Edinburgh (built post 1763). This was the site of the Botanic Garden before it moved to Inverleith in 1820, however, the cottage was occupied long after that. Although the composition varies significantly with the Hume specimen in terms of proportion, the actual range of elements present are exactly the same.

A small oval spectacle lens from SF61 is also probably of 19th century date. Oval lenses appear to have been popular from just before 1800 through to about the 1920s but there is no framing evidence which would allow closer dating. The fact that both the inner and outer faces have been ground, however, might suggest later rather than earlier in the timescale. SF138 yielded a small button or possibly collar stud in opacified white glass of similar type to the vessel glass SF60 and 224, and is again probably Victorian, perhaps from a bodice-type garment or possibly for fixing a gentleman's detachable shirt collar.

4.3 Metal assemblage

Fraser Hunter, with contributions from Calum Robertson and Carl E Savage

From the excavations of the Contextualising Hume Project, ten items from secure contexts in the castle grounds were submitted for analysis, along with an unstratified cannonball found in the garden of West End Cottage. These items consisted of eight iron items, one piece of unclassified iron-working slag, and a coin (Illus 15). A catalogue of these items is provided below.

Most of the iron finds are intrinsically undatable but consistent with the early modern date suggested by the ceramics; the cleek from a gird and cleek toy is most likely 19th century. However, there are indications of earlier activity. A cast-iron cannonball was identified by Calum Robertson as a four-pound ball most likely of 17th century date, a period when conflict is attested at the castle, with the castle destroyed in 1651 (see Section 2.2). The only copper-alloy find is a French coin, identified by Carl

E Savage as a billon 'double *tournois à la croissette*' of Francis I (1513–47). Such 16th century French coins appear in Scotland from time to time both as single finds and in hoards. The general assumption is that they entered Scotland with French troops who were present in the country during the troubled early years of Queen Mary.

Of the other finds, several are fittings likely to derive from the buildings or activity within them: looped fitting SF28 and nail SF47 from Trench 1, and the oval loops SF238 from Trench 2. Two tools were found, a sickle, SF45, from layers under the identified stone floor in Trench 1, and a fine but incomplete knife blade, SF271, found on a possible compacted surface or floor in Trench 2. Perhaps the most striking find was a fine hooked iron tool with a bone handle, SF46, found within slumped wall material on top of an external surface in Trench 1. The loss of the tip makes identification tricky; it could be a textile-working tool, but its small size suggests instead it was a nail cleaner, and the decorative treatment of the iron shaft is consistent with such a personal function.

4.3.1 Copper alloy

Carl E Savage

► SF242 C2002

French hammered billon double *tournois à la croissette* of Francis I, uncertain type, dating to 1513–47.

Obverse: Three *fleur-de-lis*. Largely illegible. The surviving legend is +FRAN D[...]

Reverse: small, plain cross in the centre of a quatrefoil. The surviving legend is [...]NI BEN[...]

Die axis: 180 degrees

Diameter: 18mm

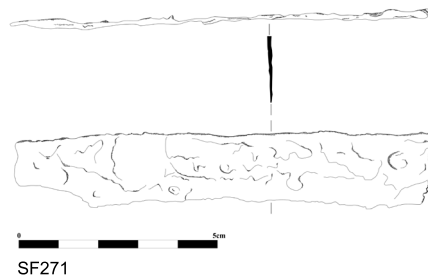
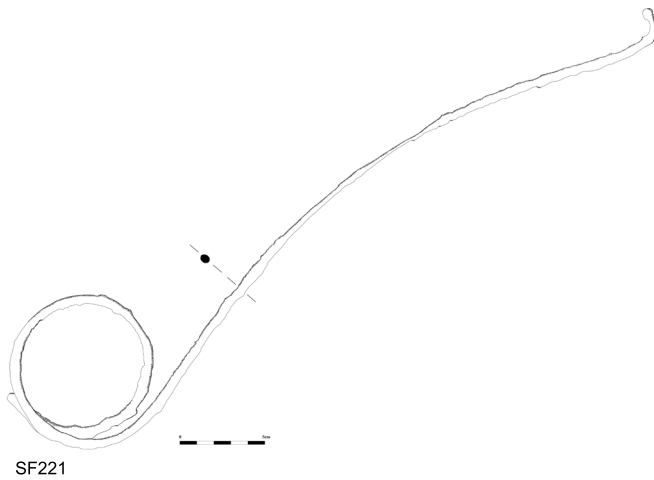
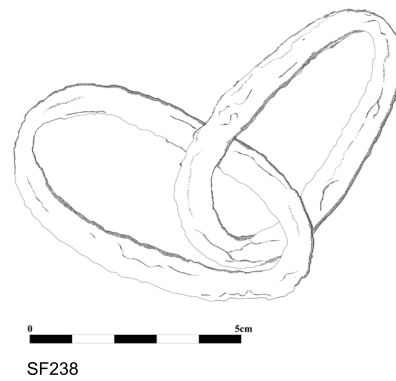
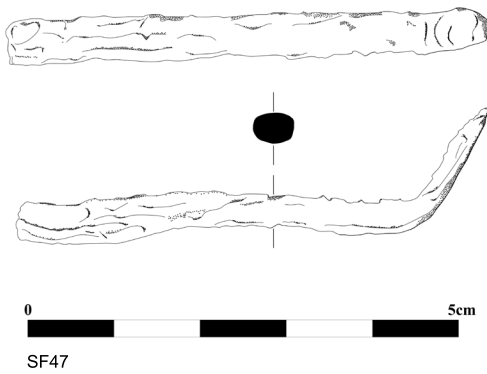
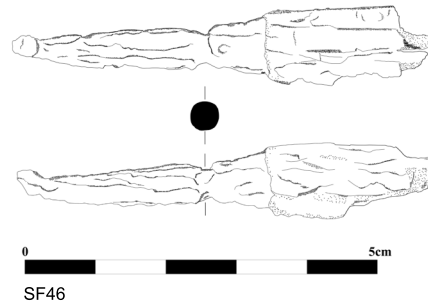
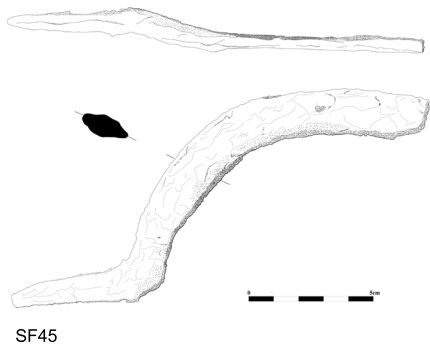
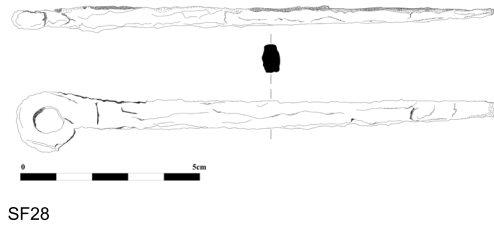
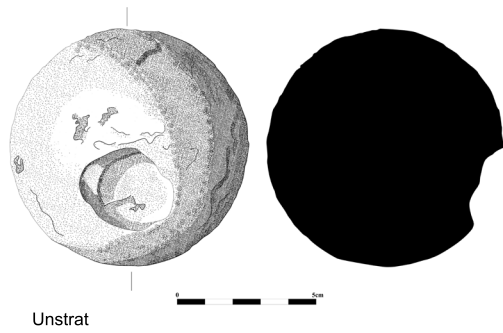
Chipped, with parts of the outer edge missing.

4.3.2 Iron

Fraser Hunter, with contribution from Calum Robertson

► SF28 C1003

Looped fitting with rectangular-sectioned shank expanding from blunt, chisel-like tip to the head, where it is thinned and turned into a circular loop (internal D: 7mm, external D: 16.5mm). The tip form suggests it was designed to be driven into wood. L: 134.5mm, shank expanding from 2×4mm to 5.5×8mm



Illus 15 Metal finds from Hume Castle grounds and West End Cottage: unstratified cannonball; SF28 looped fitting; SF45 sickle; SF46 hooked tool with bone handle; SF47 nail; SF221 handle (cleek); SF238 chain loops; SF242 coin; SF271 knife blade (Image by Heritage and Archaeological Research Practice)

► **SF45 C1013**

Fragmentary balanced sickle with short tapered tang and parallel-sided blade, broken at the end. There is no indication of a strong return to the curve, and it is likely it was quite an upright form. L: 183mm; tang L: 46mm, section 12×7mm; blade W: 17–19mm, Th: 5mm

► **SF46 C1017**

Fine hooked tool with remains of bone handle. Circular-sectioned shank, thickened just below the extent of the handle and then formed into a baluster moulding before tapering to the broken hooked tip. The broken tip makes identification tricky, but its decoration indicates it was a personal item. It could be a fine textile-working tool, although the short working length (only 35mm) is more suggestive of a toilet instrument such as a nail cleaner. L: 59.5mm; handle L: 23mm, D: 10.5mm; tang D: 5mm; active tool length 35mm, D: max 6mm

► **SF47 C1017**

Bent nail, the shank slightly sinuous, tip bent through *c* 120°; head end slightly distorted and lost. Square section tapering to rectangular-sectioned chisel-like tip. L: 55.5mm, section maximum 5×4mm

► **SF221 C2012**

Handle (cleek) from a gird and cleek toy, where the handle was used to control an iron ring. Late 19th century. Sinuous rod, one end rolled into an open spiral of 1¼ turns, the other end upturned into a finely knobbed terminal. L: 450mm; loop external D: 87mm; rod D: 5–6mm

► **SF238 C2014**

Two oval loops from a chain, one fairly symmetrical, the other tapered at one end, which shows pronounced thinning, as does one end of the symmetrical one. First (symmetrical): 74×40mm, rod D: 8mm; Second (tapered): 68×37mm, rod D: 8.5mm

► **SF271 C2012**

Knife blade with fine parallel-sided blade, broken at both ends. Cutting edge corroded, but a slight concavity indicates it has been resharpened. Tapers slightly in thickness to one end, presumably the tip. Corrosion damage at the other creates the false

impression of stepping into the tang, but this is not preserved. A line in the corrosion on both faces suggests it has a separately welded cutting edge, presumably of steel. L: 106, H: 19, Th: 2.5–4mm

► **Unstratified (Hume Gardens) Cast iron cannonball**

Has a shallow indent some 27mm in diameter on one face, probably from the casting. Slightly irregular surface. D: 73×77mm, M: 1680g

Calum Robertson writes: this is a (roughly) 3 inch / 4 lb ball, most commonly associated with a type of cannon called a Minion, but used in a variety of artillery pieces. It dates probably to the 17th century, but could range from the end of 16th century to the start of the 18th century. Commenting on distance is difficult when the actual artillery piece is not known, but it is probable that the type of gun for this cannonball would have been accurate up to around 300m. The cannonball is small so the artillery piece could have been easily moved and repositioned and it is quite possible it was being fired at a closer range (150m). Alternatively, it may be evidence of a misfire; there is a lot that can go wrong – especially in the heat of battle, with an inexperienced gun crew – and it may well be that the powder was damp or the charge too small.

4.3.3 Vitrified material

Fraser Hunter

► **SF43 C2012**

Unclassified iron-working slag, non-magnetic. Not diagnostic of either blacksmithing or smelting. M: 35.5g

4.4 Animal bone assemblage

Jennifer Thoms

A small assemblage of animal bones recovered from the excavations at Hume Glebe and Castle were submitted for analysis. There was a total of 17 bones in the assemblage, of which eight were identifiable to element and species (Table 2).

The bones were identified to element and species, where possible, and then examined under strong light and low magnification in order to assess their state of preservation and presence of any taphonomic indicators. Taphonomic indicators are signs or markings visible on the bones that can indicate if

Table 2 Animal bone typologies and species

Site	Find Number	Context Number	Element	Species	Side	Fragment	Preservation	Age	Taphonomy
Castle	70	2003	Femur	Sheep / goat	?	Mid shaft	Fair	N/A	None
Castle	91	2002	Astragalus	Sheep / goat	Left	Almost complete	Poor	N/A	Worn / eroded
Castle	196	2002	Canine tooth	Pig (male)	Right	Fragment	Fair	N/A	None
Castle	214	2002	Possible humerus	Cattle-sized	N/A	Near distal end	Fair	N/A	None
Castle	268	2012	Mandible with molar teeth	Sheep / goat	Right	Mandible with molars 1 to 3	Fair	6–8 years	None
Castle	281	2011	Fourth deciduous pre-molar	Sheep / goat	?	Fragment	Fair	N/A	None
Glebe	2	002	Canine tooth	Sheep / goat	?	Almost complete	Good	N/A	None
Glebe	10	010	Rib	Sheep / goat	N/A	Mid shaft	Fair	N/A	None

anything has happened to the bone since the death of the animal. Examples would include butchery marks, charring or burning, and recent breaks. The state of preservation was assessed by visual appraisal of the surface of the bone, and assessing how much, if any, had eroded away to expose the cellular inner structure of the bones.

Identification followed metrical and morphological criteria detailed in Schmid (1972) and Hillson (1986), with distinction between sheep and goat following Boessneck (1969) and Payne (1985). It is not possible to distinguish every element on the skeleton between sheep and goat, so there is usually a large proportion of any assemblage that can only be classed as sheep/goat. Ageing followed Silver (1969), Grant (1982), Halstead (1985), and Payne (1973).

The bones derived from cattle, sheep or goat, and pig. The pig bone was a canine tooth (tusk) from a male pig; two unidentifiable fragments within the assemblage may have been from the mandible that had contained that tooth. In general, the bones were in fair condition (76% of the assemblage), with only one tooth being recorded as in good condition, and three bones being in poor condition (where more than half of the outer surface has been eroded away). The well-preserved tooth came from the Glebe site, while the three bones in poor condition came from the Castle.

Only one bone, a sheep mandible, had any indication of the age-at-death, suggesting a well-aged animal of six to eight years old. Two bones showed signs of having been burnt or charred.

A small assemblage such as this can provide little evidence of food consumption or husbandry in the past, but it does give information about preservation conditions and site formation processes. The presence of a pig tooth is interesting, pigs being relatively rare in the archaeological record compared to sheep and cattle.

5. ENVIRONMENTAL REMAINS

Leilani Lucas

Bulk samples were retained from secure, or sealed, deposits during excavations. Some bulk samples were also retained from deposits where it was possible to retrieve environmental remains that may elicit suitable material for radiocarbon dating. Only during excavations within the castle grounds were such deposits encountered, and thus only a small assemblage of bulk samples was retrieved.

The small quantity of macro-botanical remains from Hume were preserved in charred form and were separated from the soil by systematic water flotation. The methods used in the recovery and processing of the data analysed here are consistent with best practice in archaeobotany, including the use of a low-pressure water flow tap for flotation, sieve sizes of 1mm and 250µm, and the use of a low power binocular microscope for identification. The flots (light fraction) were further separated into three fractions: >2mm, >2mm and <1mm (coarse flot), and >1mm (fine flot). These fractions were then sorted separately to make the process of identification easier as the eyes accommodate and recognise shapes of the same size more efficiently. Apart from the sample recovered from C1015 the samples comprised very limited quantities of poorly preserved, unidentifiable, wood charcoal. Two poorly preserved grains of hulled barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) were identified from C1015 (>2mm and > 1mm coarse flot). The grains were identified based on the most diagnostic characteristics of hulled barley in that they are

symmetric and flat-sided in cross-section (Table 3).

Dating material was therefore retrieved from two samples representing sealed or secure contexts, both from Trench 1 within the castle grounds. C1015 contained the remains of two charred barley seeds (*Hordeum vulgare*), providing potential for dating evidence from beneath floor C1003. Two samples of unidentifiable charcoal were retrieved from C1017, providing potential for dating evidence from the probable exterior wall slump from C1009.

5.1 Radiocarbon dates

Ian Hill

The charred seed and charcoal remains retrieved from C1015 and 1017 respectively were able to produce three radiocarbon dates, with two coming from the unidentified charcoal from C1017. The radiocarbon results are presented in Table 4.

The results from C1015 indicate that floor C1013 was probably laid at some time after 1446–1521 cal AD, suggesting that the floor itself and any associated remains relate, at most, to the last 200 years of use of the castle, and/or after the castle was destroyed. The nature of the slumped wall material, C1017, and the nature of the dated material from this deposit (small, unidentified charcoal fragments as opposed to annual seeds) mean that the radiocarbon dates calculated from this deposit are more ambiguous in determining a date for the collapse (or destruction) of the wall, and potentially the building. Three of these dates, from three separate fragments of charcoal, are of a very similar range suggesting that the tree or plant that this wood charcoal derived

Table 3 Environmental remains retrieved from bulk samples

Sample Number	Context Number	Wood Charcoal	Charred Plant Remains
1	1003	3 specimens wood charcoal <2 mm	-
2	006	-	-
3	003	-	-
4	004	3 specimens wood charcoal <2 mm	-
5	1015	1 specimen wood charcoal <2 mm	2 grains of <i>H. vulgare</i>
6	1017	specimens wood charcoal <2 mm	-
7	2012	-	1 small fragment of indeterminate plant material

Table 4 Radiocarbon dates from samples retrieved in Trench 1, Hume Castle grounds

Sample Number	Context Number	Laboratory Code	Uncalibrated Date BP	Calibrated Date (AD) at 95.4% Probability	Percentage Likelihood (95.4% probability)
5	1015	OxA-41796	388 +/-22	1446–1521	73.3%
				1586–1623	22.1%
6	1017	OxA-41917	334 +/-18	1490–1531	27.5%
				1537–1637	68%
6	1017	OxA-41918	346 +/-18	1475–1529	37.2%
				1547–1635	58.3%
6	1017	OxA – 42056	334 +/-19	1488–1637	95.4%
6	1017	OxA – 42057	339 +/-19	1480–1530	31.9%
				1540–1635	63.6%

from stopped processing CO₂ sometime between *c* 1540 and 1637. One date provides a broader range, extending as far back as 1488. What is not clear is whether this wood material was actually part of the wall fabric, or indeed whether these fragments

may have been derived from later insect or animal activity bringing the charcoal into the deposit. It does suggest, however, that the wall probably did not slump or collapse until after this date range, and in all likelihood after *c* 1540, rather than 1488.

6. DISCUSSION

Ian Hill and Michelle Gamble

The Contextualising Hume Project used a variety of archaeological techniques, investigating the remains of a village, church, and castle that are believed to have their roots in the medieval period. Through the results of the surveys, historical analysis, excavation, and gravestone recording, it is possible to flesh out the story of Hume Village and begin to analyse the nature of the wider settlement by addressing what type of settlement model Hume fits and how it was affected by the abandonment, and possible destruction, of the former parish church and destruction of the castle; when occupation and activity in the settlement remains immediately surrounding Hume Castle ceased; and what significance is maintained at a settlement whose church and castle have been abandoned and/or destroyed. Settlement activity at Hume appears in part, to be distinguished by distinct episodes either side of the destruction of the castle, and the deterioration (or destruction) of the parish kirk. Historical documents have described the importance of Hume Castle, and indeed the Home family, through the late medieval period, with a decline in significance of the castle following the relocation of the Earls of Home to the Hirsell in the early 1600s (Kidd et al 2003), and the castle's ultimate destruction in the early 1650s. Whilst the site of the castle itself, and the later folly, served as a warning beacon during the Napoleonic Wars (Kennedy 2013: 164), the village and wider settlement began a steady decrease in size evinced in mapping and historical records from the late 1600s through to the 1900s. This narrative is mostly borne out in the archaeological evidence, with the excavation results providing evidence of activity surrounding the castle in the later medieval period, followed by a gradual abandonment of certain areas of the village, particularly those immediately surrounding the castle.

Whilst Hume originally boasted both a castle and a kirk (and possibly a kirk prior to the fortification), the majority of the village and settlement appears to have built up around the castle rather than the former kirk. There is evidence to suggest an earlier kirk located in the vicinity of the 12th-century one,

and whilst the kirk and castle were not immediately adjacent they were likely intimately linked (Dixon & Fraser 2008), with local lords and landowners playing an important role in the patronage of ecclesiastical sites (Creighton & Barry 2012: 64). Beyond the church, castles and manorial houses (or similar lordly sites) also had an important relationship with the rural landscape and agriculture, intrinsically linked with the local social and economic spheres (ibid: 64), and Hume the castle is located within 1km of the former kirk, Hume Orchard, and Hume Mill. The position of a castle in the landscape is often oversimplified from a militaristic viewpoint (Creighton 2002: 5); however, the location of Hume Castle does lend itself to strategic purpose, being positioned on the highest vantage point (and closest to the location of the former kirk) for a 5km radius. Given the number of earlier period hill forts in the Borders, it is not infeasible for the castle to have been founded on an earlier settlement/fort, and it is not unknown for this to occur (Wright et al 2015: 31), with the extensive remodelling and construction on the Hume Castle mount potentially obscuring signs of activity preceding the 13th century. The location of the castle in relation to the possibly earlier kirk therefore presents a number of suggestions as to their founding: the early timber and earthwork castle may have been founded at a later date than the kirk, positioned in a prominent, strategic, and defensible position; kirk and castle were possibly contemporary with the settlement at Hume much larger than that seen today, extending between both castle and kirk in a planned fashion and incorporating wider economic factors including a mill and orchard; the castle was positioned on the location of an earlier hill fort, with settlement growing around it and expanding to include a kirk.

Previous survey work shows settlement extending up to 500m west of the current extent of the village towards the location of the former kirk, whilst mapping indicates that the settlement in the 18th century spread towards Hume Orchard (1km west of the current extent of the village), and also had a dense cluster of buildings to the east of the castle. Part of the settlement remains have been disturbed/destroyed by more modern activities, in particular ploughing in the fields to the east of the land immediately surrounding the castle, and an active quarry located on the north

side of the village. Excavation results in the Glebe fields indicate that this area of land has been used for agricultural purposes for centuries, with little to suggest settlement or occupation adjacent to the former kirk.

Later medieval occupation and use of the site are particularly highlighted in the archaeological remains by the French coin, SF242, found in Trench 2 in the castle grounds, and the cannonball found in Hume Gardens, indicating activity in the 16th and 17th centuries respectively. The location of the cannonball (approximately 150m to the west of a probable gun platform adjacent to the west of the current castle) and its probable date indicate that it may have actually been fired from the castle during the attack by Cromwell's troops in 1651. The radiocarbon date from beneath floor C1013 in Trench 1 in the castle grounds suggests earlier (but still late medieval) activity in this building in the 15th to 16th centuries. Whilst it was not possible to determine the age of the trackway identified in Test Pit 2 in the castle grounds, it is possible that this trackway provided an original access up to Hume Castle, and at the very least will have served as an access track to the building in Trench 1. All of these instances are isolated in demonstrating medieval activity at Hume, with the majority of the archaeological and artefactual remains demonstrating activity and use in the area (both at the village and castle, and at the kirkyard) in the post medieval and early modern periods. The excavations are limited, however, to discrete areas of the settlement, with excavation only permitted in the land immediately surrounding the castle and in the modern village of Hume, and not in the lands between the western extent of the modern village and the location of the former kirk. It is entirely feasible therefore that earlier, medieval, activity and occupation at Hume is located further west from the castle, and these areas would benefit from being tested by excavation.

It would be over simplistic to suggest that the destruction of the castle would have gone hand-in-hand with a destruction, or abandonment, of the settlement surrounding it, and the archaeological results also do not support this. They do however, indicate a gradual contraction of the village to the buildings still occupied today, with the buildings around the south and west of the castle potentially

falling into disuse first, with a steady contraction of the village to the north, in the lee of the castle ruins. The inhabitants of the village also appear to be towards the poorer end of the economic spectrum, with the ceramics in particular not displaying any high-class materials. The Hearth Tax Roll of the late 1600s also indicates that only one building in the village had more than one hearth at that time (see Section 2.2).

The artefacts retrieved during excavations in Trench 1 in the castle grounds indicate that the building there was still in use, after the destruction of the castle in the late 16th to early 17th century, with the window glass recovered all dating to this period. The occupation of this building, or at least activity within this building continued into the 18th century, possibly even into the 19th century, however, the lack of any window glass dating to the 19th century, and only one sherd of decorated ceramic that could be dated to the 19th century (SF2) suggests that this building may have fallen out of use by the 19th century. The sealed deposits below floor C1013 with a radiocarbon date from the 15th or 16th century suggests that whilst the artefactual evidence indicates post medieval and early modern occupation and activity, this building may have been in use for a much longer period of time. The nature of the walls also suggests a more complex structure than a simple sub-divided rectangular building, and it is possible therefore that this building, or complex of buildings was in use prior to the destruction of the castle, and may have formed an outbuilding of the castle complex. The remains uncovered during the excavations may be evidence of a repurposed, or indeed reconstructed, building on top of earlier structures that continued to be used many years after the destruction of the castle, with window glass dating to the late 17th and early 18th century suggesting that this building maintained a higher status than others even after the destruction of the castle, possibly representing the building registered with more than one hearth in the 1690s. The limitations of the excavation due to the scheduled nature of the site, however, make it difficult to investigate earlier remains below extant walls and floors.

The nature of the artefacts uncovered from the building in Trench 2 in the castle grounds suggest that this building was likely a domestic structure,

with large amounts of glazed ceramic and bottle glass uncovered. The majority of the ceramics and glass date from the 19th and 20th centuries, and whilst the late medieval coin, SF242, was retrieved from here, it is not an indication of medieval activity in this building, more likely the coin tumbled down from the castle outcrop above. What must be borne in mind, however, is the proximity of these building remains to the road and the modern village of Hume; it cannot be discounted that some of the artefacts may be rubbish deposits thrown over the low boundary wall located to the north.

In contrast to the gradual decline and contraction of the settlement at Hume following the destruction of the castle, the significance and use of the kirkyard as a burial ground has continued from the early 1700s to the present day, notwithstanding the fact that an active kirk has not been located there for over 400 years. It is intriguing as to why Hume, despite a decline in population and settlement size, has clung on and maintains an active cemetery following the destruction of its castle (and possible destruction of its parish kirk) and has not ended up as a medieval settlement that became entirely deserted as was the case with Rattray in Aberdeenshire, or nearby Springwood Park in Kelso (Dixon 2003: 57). This may, in part, be due to the ecclesiastical independence of the parish noted by Gunn (1899: 218).

It would seem that the longevity of the village of Hume is due to more than its strategic location at a high point in a rich agricultural valley. The landscape as we see it today has been impacted by a thousand years of inhabitants, politics, and social reforms. This landscape has, therefore, been shaped by both humans and nature, and when we consider the changes that took place here we must place them not only in their historical context, but also in the social memory of the people who inhabited this landscape, 'In as much as they can thus evoke, or indeed hide, the past, landscapes are linked to socially or culturally mediated remembrance and memory' (Holtorf & Williams 2006: 235).

At Hume, we can trace a shift in the nature of the settlement there through archaeological methods which, when placed in the context of the changes occurring through society at the various key moments in Hume's history, allow us to create a narrative for this location and here we focus on three aspects – Hume the Castle and medieval village;

Hume the folly and small, 'burdensome' village; and Hume Kirkyard as an active record of the people who lived and died in this area. Each of these facets of the Hume story are unique and, while linked to each other, are very much embedded in the wider narrative of Scotland. It is beyond the remit of this paper to explore the wider history of late medieval and early modern Scotland, but in this section we will touch upon the changes to the village and the aspects of that wider history that impacted this area and its landscape, alongside the concept of memory of place.

6.1 Hume Castle and medieval village

Hume Castle and the landscape surrounding it provide insight into the archaeology and theory of memory of place and the re-use of space as a symbolic aspect of establishing legitimacy and power. There are several phases and aspects to this at Hume. The castle itself has gone through several transformations, initially as a seat of lordly and administrative power or control and as a strategic location in the ongoing border conflict with the English, and finally, as a folly or visual representation of the wealth and power of the local laird. Hume Castle was amongst those built in the 13th century and whilst many of these castles and associated settlements fell out of use and into disrepair or were destroyed in various conflicts and not re-built, Hume maintained some level of habitation in the surrounding village to the modern day.

The re-building of a castle as technology changed is not uncommon and is seen frequently across the British Isles (Liddiard 2003, 2005; Tabraham 2005; Coventry 2006). Hume Castle, as a castle, falls into a rather typical grouping of border fortifications which were held by powerful and wealthy nobility in the medieval period that saw several modifications until the 16th century (see Section 2.2). Its earliest iteration was probably linked to the earlier kirk (Creighton 2002: 110), and whilst settlement at Hume extended most of the way between castle and kirk, there is no distinct evidence of a planned settlement, with no evident buildings adjacent to, or surrounding, the former kirk. Indeed, even with extensive archaeological survey and excavation it can still be difficult to identify evidence of settlement planning, and a modern understanding of settlement

'design' may also be misplaced (Creighton & Barry 2012: 71, 78). Recent survey work (Dixon 2016) helps to highlight that settlement patterns are not fixed, with former buildings at Hume immediately surrounding the castle on the west, south, and east sides potentially representing a more organic spread, suggestive of a 'castletoun'; in contrast, the modern, occupied village to the north side of the castle is more representative of a nucleated settlement with buildings part of thin rectangular plots, emanating from a central street. This differing nature of settlement pattern may be related to changes during the occupied and abandonment phases of the castle, with the earlier village building up around the castle during its occupation phases, and the modern village following the pattern of a declining nucleated village in the later medieval and post medieval periods (Dalglish 2012: 282), particularly after the destruction of the castle.

The changes identifiable from survey work, historic documents, cartographic sources, and excavation help to illustrate the fact that settlements are not static but are subject to change, redevelopment, improvement, and even abandonment during their lifetime (Dixon 2003: 57), and further excavation of the wider settlement may help to identify earlier medieval activity in the settlement, and help to elucidate its origins. It seems plausible that once the castle was destroyed in the 1650s, the nature of the village changed and soon after this episode it was transferred to the branch of the Hume/Homes of the Polwarth family, holding the title of Earl of Marchmont, and who were based at Redbraes Castle (Cruft et al 2006).

A castle is both a symbol of power and a living organism inhabited by people who keep it working. As a focal point in the landscape, the village would have grown around the castle, yet the primarily rural and agricultural nature of this area would have remained. As the castle changed, so too would the village, and the symbolic way that power was presented to the people, therefore, also changed, further emphasised by the rebuilding of the castle as a folly in the late 18th century.

6.2 Hume Folly and the 'burdensome' village

The site of Hume Castle became folly, in the late 1780s or early 1790s when Hugh Hume-Campbell,

3rd Earl of Marchmont (who died in 1794) commissioned it to be built as a picturesque view from his newly built home, Marchmont House (Canmore ID [58561](#)). A folly, in architectural terms, is a structure or building that is constructed primarily for decorative purposes but whose appearance suggests a different purpose. They were very popular in the 18th and 19th centuries, when landscape design followed the tenets of Romanticism, inserting sham medieval castles, crumbling Classical period temples or monumental statues and columns to emphasise the pictorial qualities of the landscape. While many were built to resemble medieval castle ruins, few were built on the site of an actual medieval castle. Headley and Meulenkamp (1999) provide an extensive list of follies in Great Britain and while only a brief survey was conducted, few follies were found to be built atop medieval remains – notable exceptions include Cardiff Castle and Castell Coch.

This is where Hume is somewhat unique. Possessing the elaborate history of a medieval border fortification, followed by the aesthetic installation by a relatively newly established earl, who, following the success of his father and grandfather, was able to build a new palatial home (Marchmont House) and the necessary landscape features (Hume Castle) befitting his noble title. In the 18th century, when the folly was built at Hume, the village was rather smaller than it had been during the heyday of the medieval castle when in the 15th century the Earl of Home could draw on 400 or so men (see Section 2.2). This suggests a rather substantial independent village, compared to the 1792 Statistical Accounts of Scotland which records 959 people in total living in both Stichill and Hume Parishes, with Stichill the slightly more well-off community thanks to the Pringle family who were the landowners (Old Statistical Accounts 1792: 291). By 1835, the population of the united parishes of Stichill and Hume was 850 (New Statistical Accounts 1845: 457). Given that these numbers represent the entire parish area, it confirms a decrease of the overall population, and infers a general decrease at the village level. Within this decline however, a period of improvement took place at Hume, noted in David Low's report of 1819 (SBA/1314), which was undertaken to keep up the name and importance of such an historic village (*ibid*), despite the fact that

the village was viewed as a financial burden to the Marchmont Estate.

One has to wonder what it meant for the people of Hume to have this folly built in the centre of their village. Given the landscape of the castle mount, it seems likely that it was being used for grazing, though the archaeological evidence also suggests there were still buildings and enclosures in use directly north-west of the steep-sided castle hill (see Sections 3.5.3 and 3.5.4). It is from the archaeological remains that it seems clear that there was not a strong middle-class presence in Hume during the 19th century, as all artefacts suggest rather typical rural remains (see Sections 4.1 and 4.2). While the castle had been almost entirely demolished, the folly was built on the remains of original foundations (MacGibbon & Ross 1889: 108), and is evinced by visible architectural remains of the medieval castle at the lower sections of, and within, the folly walls (RCAHMS 1915: 96–7). To date, no contemporary accounts from Hume regarding the folly have been found, though this is not unusual given the highly agricultural nature of this area and the regularity with which follies were constructed in the 18th century. The Old Statistical Account (1792: 293) records no industry in Hume Parish, only agricultural practices are recorded and the difficulty of getting fuel to this area is noted. The presence therefore of this imposing, somewhat useless structure on the castle mount would have provided the local people with a conspicuous landmark on the landscape, perhaps reminding them of the differences in their situation from that of the person who could afford to build it.

6.3 Hume Kirkyard

Hume kirkyard is of particular interest in the discussion around memory and continued use of space. The history of the kirkyard is provided above and there is a very detailed church history provided by Reverend G. Gunn (1899), which pulls together an interesting combination of ecclesiastical records and local folklore/memories. Whilst the kirk would have become a Protestant institution by 1560 at the latest (as this was when the Scottish Confession of Faith by the Reformation parliament took place) the parishes of Stichill and Hume were united by 1611, with the kirk building itself being in a ruinous state

by 1637, and possibly completely destroyed by the 1650s. Despite the lack of a kirk, this seemingly remote and rural cemetery remained in use, and is currently still in use, with the most recent burial, at the time of writing, in 2019. Following the most recent kirkyard surveys (see Section 3.2), the earliest recorded date on any of the visible memorial stones is 1703. A previous survey by the BFHS was completed in 1994, and records a death in 1647 (BFHS 1994: 243) however, this inscription is no longer visible. This means that the kirk itself was no longer in a usable state when the earliest visible memorial was erected in the kirkyard, even when considering the earlier BFHS inscription date. The earliest grave recorded within the footprint of the ruined kirk dates to the 1757, approximately 100 years after the possible destruction of the building. While there are no grave markers reflecting use of the kirkyard during the time when the kirk was in use, it seems likely that any earlier memorials were either destroyed, made of an organic material or the burials were unmarked.

Whilst the continued use of kirkyards for burial following abandonment of a parish church is not unique to Hume, Tarlow (2013: 1150) has written on aspects of belief and religion in post medieval burial practices in Scotland, and notes that there is a growing body of research on burials that took place away from active kirks, such as that at Hume. Accordingly, there is a tradition where various types of sites, such as abandoned early ecclesiastical monuments, archaeological remains, or natural places, are used as burying places for those typically excluded from Christian burials (there is a long tradition in Ireland called *cillini*). While the burials at Hume do not seem to be excluded from a Christian burial, it is perhaps noteworthy that they were buried away from the parish kirk in Stichill, and Hume Kirkyard still remains active today. The choice of the location of burial is an aspect of changing Christian beliefs, with Catholics believing the efficacy of burying close to the altar/holy remains and Protestants eschewing this for burial outside of the kirk (Tarlow 2013: 1148) with the Kirk in Scotland actively discouraging burials within the kirk building after the Reformation (Spicer 2000: 150). This practice at Hume continued until the mid-1700s when the first burials are recorded within the footprint

of the kirk; the passing of at least 100 years since its abandonment, and possible destruction, was possibly seen as long enough to remove the notion of the kirk building as an intransigent obstacle or of burials within its footprint being insanitary. Interestingly, the erection of the Earl's Aisle, which in all likelihood postdates the abandonment of the former kirk, follows the tradition of burial aisles being constructed as an annex to a kirk to allow for some lairds or patrons to exact their rights and/or traditions to a place of burial whilst maintaining the wishes, or demands, of the Kirk (ibid: 153). From the memorial inscriptions it seems that there are a variety of individuals, primarily farmers and/or tenants in the local area who are buried within the kirkyard, and it is perhaps the attachment to the land in the area which prompted these individuals to be buried there. It is clear, that despite the unity of the two parishes and the only kirk in use being in Stichill, the people of Hume still felt drawn to this spot for memorialising and burying their loved ones.

The attachment to the land and land ownership would suggest that the Earls of Home (and then later the Earls of Marchmont) could have possibly been buried in the 'Earl's Aisle' as part of their claim to the land. However, this does not seem to have been the case. The earliest Lords of Home (from the 15th and 16th centuries) do not have their place of burial recorded (Kidd et al. 2003) and whilst the parish kirk at Hume may have still been active at the time Alexander 6th Lord Home was made 1st Earl of Home in 1605, the Home family had a Collegiate Church at Dunglass, founded by Alexander Home, 1st Lord Home, in 1443 (Cowan & Easson 1976: 219). From the time the Homes were earls the primary seat of the family was the Hirsell (Kidd et al 2003), and with strong links to Kelso Abbey and of Alexander Home, 1st Earl of Home to Jedburgh Abbey (Cowan & Easson 1976: 57, 90), there are several other likely locations for the Earls of Home to be buried, as opposed to in Hume. It is possible that one of the three Earls of Marchmont were buried there, however, while poetic in nature, it is unclear whether any earls have ever been buried in Hume Kirkyard, and it seems particularly unlikely that any were buried there from the 19th century when the recorded structure is noted as dating from (OS Name Books 1856–58: 17).

The archaeology of the castle and surrounding area suggests that Hume remained a primarily agricultural community and suggests that while the village itself changed its configuration, the people who lived here felt connected to this land. This can therefore be seen in the burial monuments, memorialising people who lived and worked in this parish, and it was this connection to the land which made it more important to be buried within the parish than near a kirk.

While the border abbeys and some kirks had suffered extensive damage by English attacks during the 'Rough Wooing', (see Bonner 1997; Fawcett 2012 for further discussion), it is unlikely that the kirk at Hume was directly affected by this. Its decline was likely more related to parish reorganisation in the 17th century (Maitland Club 1835), particularly given the record of the kirk's poor state of repair in the mid-16th century, and the merging of the parish of Hume with that of Stichill by the early 17th century. Gunn notes, however, the wonderful permanence of 'church-sites' in Scottish history (1899: 218); he goes on to say:

So that a church that has been Celtic and Saxon, Roman Catholic and Protestant, Presbyterian and Prelatic, has witnessed on the same spot for centuries to the continuity of the Truth appearing in varying external garb, it may be, but in its inward and vital meaning essentially the same (ibid: 220).

This continuity of place would have been felt strongly by the people living in the parish and perhaps still remains today (see Holtorf & Williams 2006: 241 for further examples of churches as places of memory, connecting the living with ancestors and past communities even if they have moved away). All of these details seem to indicate that there was a community memory associated with this land as consecrated land suitable for Christian burial (van Dyke 2019 provides a review of social memory and archaeology which is helpful in this interpretation). It reflects a continuous use of this area for religious purposes for at least 900 years (300 of which there are memorials present for).

The archaeology and history of Hume weave together a story of a place that holds a significant position in the landscape and overall history of

Scotland, and this attachment to the importance of place is evinced in Low's report of 1819 (SBA/1314: 141) where the village was improved as a result of its ancient and historic status. Hume Castle has seen many transformations over the centuries and yet still captures the imagination of the visitor and holds a special place for locals. The kirkyard at Hume is an active aspect of community life with people still choosing to be buried within its precinct. While

the nobility came and went with various lords and earls holding the deeds to the land, the local people have remained and continue to make their mark on the landscape. In the latest iteration, they are exploring the rich past of their landscape through the Contextualising Hume Project, ensuring that the story of Hume continues and that the ever-present changes in the landscape are memorialised for future generations.

7. APPENDICES

7.1 Appendix 1: catalogue of decorated pottery*George Haggarty**Hume Gardens*► **C001 SF1, sherds – 1 (late 19th century?)**

One small whiteware body sherd with traces of cobalt blue decoration (cut sponging?). This sherd has been frost-damaged suggesting that at some stage it has been on the surface.

Hume Castle► **C002 SF27 sherds – 1 (c 1810?)**

One small thin pearlware body sherd from a cup decorated with transfer prints on both surfaces. Not large enough to identify the light blue prints but almost certainly one of the many Chinoiserie designs of this period.

► **C1002 SF2 sherds – (late 19th century?)**

One small whiteware body sherd with traces of cobalt blue decoration (cut sponging?). This sherd has been frost-damaged suggesting that at some stage it has been on the surface.

► **C1003 SF14 sherds – 1 (c 1790/1810)**

One tiny very thin pearlware body sherd with a tiny trace of cobalt decoration on its interior.

► **C2002 SF50 sherds – 1 (end of the 19th century)**

One small whiteware rim sherd from a plate decorated with a very late debases form of blue shell edged decoration.

► **C2002 SF57 sherds – 1 (hard to tell possibly third quarter of the 19th century but could be earlier?)**

One whiteware body sherd from what seems to be a hemispherical bowl decorated with what looks like light brown sponge (cut?) decoration. This sherd has what looks like frost damaged so at some time it was probably on the surface.

► **C2002 SF68 sherds – 1 (cannot date)**

One tiny abraded body sherd with a slight trace of a blue and white transfer print.

► **C2002 SF67 sherds – 1 (second or third quarter of the 19th century, same vessel as SF83)**

One body sherd from a bowl in a cane-coloured

fabric decorated on its exterior with thin close bands of white slip. These have been applied while the vessel was on a lathe.

► **C2002 SF68 sherds – 4 (cannot date)**

Four tiny flakes three of which have traces of cobalt decoration and may be from different vessels.

► **C2002 SF69 sherds – 2 (third quarter of the 19th century, same as vessel SF246 A)**

Two basal sherds from a teacup decorated with a blue and white transfer print called the tea party. Unfortunately, a pattern produced by a large number of different potteries.

► **C2002 SF76 sherds – 2 (Victorian)**

Two conjoining body sherds from a thick whiteware plate decorated with a variant of 'Standard Willow'. At least 400 different companies produced variants of this design over a long period of time so research on these sherds is of little use.

► **C2002 SF83 sherds – 1 (second or third quarter of the 19th century, same as vessel SF67)**

One body sherd from a bowl in a cane-coloured fabric decorated on its exterior with thin close bands of white slip. These have been applied while the vessel was on a lathe.

► **C2002 SF84 sherds – 9 (second or third quarter of the 19th century)**

A – One thick whiteware body sherd showing part of a blue and white transfer printed border.

B – Eight tiny whiteware crumbs half of which have traces of cobalt decoration.

► **C2002 SF85 sherds – 1 (end of the 19th century)**

One rim sherd from a whiteware bowl decorated with a blue painted band below its rim and traces of cut sponge red St Andrews cross.

► **C2002 SF97 sherds – 1 (cannot date)**

One white earthenware body sherd with traces of a cobalt blue wash on one surface. Both surfaces are frost damaged suggesting it has been on the surface.

► **C2002 SF102 sherds – 36 (cannot date)**

Thirty-six whiteware body sherds from what is likely to be a small plate decorated with Chinoiserie blue and white transfer print. Only two of the sherds are

of a decent size as all the rest are tiny crumbs and all are badly frost damaged suggesting they were on the surface for a long time. Almost certainly English as it is not a known Scottish transfer.

► **C2002 SF120 sherds – 1 (possibly first quarter of the 19th century)**

One white earthenware rim sherd with traces of two different cobalt blue transfer prints. The interior with a version of fibre, a common pattern produced by a large number of potteries. The exterior shows traces of what may be a Chinoiserie design.

► **C2002 SF127 sherds – 1 (probably third quarter of the 19th century)**

One small body sherd in a cane-coloured fabric. Its exterior has a trace of a cut which has had blue cobalt rubbed into it. Almost certainly from a bowl of a type of which sherds are not that uncommon from sites around the Forth Estuary.

► **C2002 SF128 sherds – 24 (third quarter of the 19th century, A same as vessel SF180 A, SF275A)**

A – Twenty-three small white earthenware rim and body sherds (some conjoining) from a carinated shaped cup decorated with a blue and white sheet transfer printed on both surfaces. Transfer print not recorded.
B – One small rim sherd from a bowl decorated with blue cut sponging.

► **C2002 SF141 sherds – 1 (c 1840, same as vessel SF142, SF191)**

One thin, undecorated bone china cup rim sherd. A number of Glasgow potteries produced wares of this type including Bells and Verrieville, as well as a number in Staffordshire.

► **C2002 SF142 sherds – 1 (c 1840, same as vessel SF141, SF191)**

One thin, undecorated bone china cup body sherd with traces of a mauve coloured sprig. A number of Glasgow potteries produced wares of this type including Bells and Verrieville, as well as a number in Staffordshire.

► **C2002 SF146 sherds – 3 (cannot date but possibly third quarter of the 19th century)**

Three small whiteware sherds of which two conjoin. The exterior decorated with what seems to be cobalt blue loose sponging.

► **C2002 SF155 sherds – 2 (probably first quarter of the 19th century)**

Two thin pearlware body sherds from a plate with frost damage suggesting it has been at some time on the surface. The upper surface decorated with a floral blue and white transfer print, which is mostly destroyed.

► **C2002 SF161 sherds – 1 (hard to date but possibly second quarter of the 19th century)**

One pearlware body sherd from a vessel decorated with transfer prints on both surfaces. Not large enough to identify the light blue prints but almost certainly one of the many Chinoiserie designs of this period.

► **C2002 SF168 sherds – 3 (last quarter of the 18th or first quarter of the 19th century)**

Three undecorated creamware body sherds of which two conjoin. All three have been frost damaged, suggesting that they have been on the surface.

► **C2002 SF174 sherds – 3 (first quarter of the 19th century)**

A – Two conjoining body sherds from a straight sided dipped mug. The exterior is a very pale blue and interior a cream colour. The exterior has also been decorated with a fine horizontal lathe cut band through its dipped layer. The thinness of the sherd suggests that it is earlier than most of the industrial sherd assemblage.
B – One undecorated creamware body sherd.

► **C2002 SF180 sherds – 14 (third quarter of the 19th century, A same as vessel SF128 A, SF275 A)**

A – Four small white earthenware rim and body sherds from a carinated shaped cup decorated with a blue and white sheet transfer printed on both surfaces. Transfer print not recorded.

B – Ten very small body sherds from a white earthenware plate decorated with blue cut sponging.

► **C2002 SF182 sherds – 6 (second quarter of the 19th century)**

Six conjoining body sherds from a pearlware plate decorated with a pale blue and white transfer print of a late variant of the two-temple pattern. The rear has a blue and white triangle shaped backstamp containing 'SEMI / CHINA L'. It has been suggested that this is a mark used by the Victoria pottery in

Glasgow (1855–1953), with the ‘L’ standing for Lockhart. A number of potteries are, however, thought to have used variants of the mark it is far from proven and this plate is possibly a bit earlier.

► **C2002 SF183 sherds – 4 (third quarter of the 19th century)**

Four small conjoining body sherds from a white earthenware bowl decorated with a painted green band above a band of closely spaced small cut sponge circles overlain with a pale pink wash.

► **C2002 SF186 sherds – 1 (third quarter of the 19th century)**

One whiteware rim sherd from a plate decorated with a blue and white transfer print. This is a variant of the Asiatic Pheasant design, which unfortunately is the second most common transfer print used and which was produced by hundreds of different British potteries.

► **C2002 SF191 sherds – 6 (c 1840, same as vessel SF141, SF142)**

Six thin bone China cup body and rim sherds of which two have traces of a mauve coloured sprig. A number of Glasgow potteries produced wares of this type including Bells and Verrieville as well as a number in Staffordshire.

► **C2002 SF206 sherds – 3 (cannot date)**

Three conjoining, undecorated whiteware body sherds probably from a plate.

► **C2002 SF207 sherds – 4 (late 19th century, same as vessel SF220)**

Two white earthenware rim and two foot sherds, of which two conjoin from a bowl decorated with a pink lustre band below its exterior rim and above another band of mauve cut sponging.

► **C2002 SF210 sherds – 4 (Victorian, same as vessel SF219)**

Four small undecorated conjoining white earthenware sherds form a small plate from a child’s tea service.

► **C2002 SF212 sherds – 3 (c 1810)**

A – Two conjoining pearlware rim and body sherds from either a small slop bowl, teabowl, or cup showing on its exterior fragments of a transfer print

which has a small figure with a pipe below which may be a stylised elephant in front of a trellis. On its interior is a typical early border transfer.

B – One undecorated pearlware body sherd from a plate.

► **C2002 SF213 sherds – 1 (late Victorian)**

One sherd in a high fired white stoneware/porcelaneous body and moulded in the form of two chickens. Almost certainly the knop from a game tureen.

► **C2002 SF219 sherds – 1 (Victorian, same as vessel SF210)**

One small undecorated white earthenware sherd from a small plate from a child’s tea service.

► **C2002 SF220 sherds – 1 (late 19th century, same as vessel SF207)**

One white earthenware body sherd which conjoins with sherds from the bowl decorated with a pink lustre band below its exterior rim and mauve cut sponging. Same vessel as SF207. This sherd shows a second lustre band below the sponging.

► **C2002 SF222 sherds – 8 (second quarter of the 19th century)**

Eight rim and pearlware body sherds, of which some conjoin, from a saucer decorated around its rim with a painted blue band. Its interior looks as if the decoration is an all over sheet floral transfer print.

► **C2002 SF223 sherds – 6 (late Victorian)**

A – One brown Rockingham glazed sherd on a red earthenware fabric. From the body and handle of a teapot.

B – One tiny white earthenware body sherd with trace of blue sponge decoration.

C – Two undecorated pearlware body sherds one frost damaged and earlier than the other sherds in this context.

D – One white earthenware plate rim sherd decorated with a border transfer print in pale blue. This may be a pattern named Bracelet; produced by the Glasgow pottery of J & M. P. Bell & Co. Ltd, first formed in 1841 and which closed in 1912.

► **C2002 SF223 sherds – 4 (late Victorian)**

A – One redware body sherd from a white slipped dairy bowl. These cannot be dated as they were produced for at least two hundred years.

B – One whiteware body sherd with traces of blue sponge decoration.

C – One whiteware body sherd with traces of green sponge decoration.

D – One small whiteware body sherd with traces of blue transfer printing.

► **C2002 SF226 sherds – 3 (Victorian)**

Three conjoining rim sherds from a thick whiteware plate decorated with a variant of ‘Standard Willow’. At least 400 different companies produced variants of this design over a long period of time so research on these sherds is of little use.

► **C2002 SF232 sherds – 4 (1822)**

Four sherds of which three conjoin from the rim of a moulded plate. These plates are thought to have been produced by William Reid at his Newbiggin Pottery in Musselburgh to commemorate the visit of George IV to Scotland in 1822 (Haggarty 2019).

► **C2002 SF243 sherds – 3 (c 1820)**

A – One small body sherd with traces of blue and white transfer printing. The pattern has a small area of what is known as vermicelli and this has been identified on wares produced by both Rathbone of Portobello (Haggarty 2008, CD ROM) and the Don pottery in Yorkshire (Griffin 2001: 112). It is difficult to be sure but it is likely that this small sherd is a product of the Don pottery (1801–1893). There is also no doubt they sold a lot of pottery along the east coast of Scotland.

B – Two small thin pearlware body sherds; cannot be dated but the thinness suggests probably also c 1820.

► **C2002 SF244 sherds – 2 (late Victorian)**

A – One rim sherd from a whiteware dish/plate decorated with two painted red bands on its interior shoulder below which there are traces of sponging in shades of green.

B – One rim sherd from a whiteware bowl decorated with a blue painted band on its rim below which are traces of blue sponging. It is possible that this sherd is earlier than A.

► **C2002 SF246 sherds – 12 (third quarter of the 19th century, A same as vessel SF69)**

A – Seven sherds; five basal and two body (some conjoining) from a teacup decorated with a blue and white transfer print called the tea party.

Unfortunately, a pattern produced by a large number of different potteries.

B – Five small body sherds from a white earthenware plate decorated with flow blue cut sponging.

► **C2002 SF250 sherds – 2 (mid-19th century)**

Two whiteware sherds from a Staffordshire type figure with blue cobalt decoration and an area with a pink wash. Unfortunately, not enough survives allowing identification, but it is neither an early Pratt nor late flatback type which suggests a mid-19th century date.

► **C2002 SF251 sherds – 3 (late Victorian)**

Three thick whiteware conjoining rim sherds from a soup plate decorated with a black transfer print with a small reserve with a scene which may be the Tiber and Castel Sant’Angelo.

► **C2002 SF253 sherds – 1 (Victorian)**

One thick whiteware body sherd from a plate decorated with a variant of ‘Standard Willow’. At least 400 different companies produced variants of this design over a long period of time so research on these sherds is of little use.

► **C2012 SF275 sherds – 2 (third quarter of the 19th century, same as vessel SF128 A, SF180 A)**

A – One small white earthenware rim sherd decorated with a blue and white sheet transfer printed on both surfaces. Transfer print not recorded.

B – One white earthenware body sherd with traces of blue cut sponge decoration.

7.2 Appendix 2: catalogue of undecorated pottery and clay pipe

Derek Hall

Hume Glebe

► **C003 SF5 sherds – 3 (17th/18th century, Scottish post medieval oxidised ware)**

Very abraded body sherds of SPMOW glazed green internally and externally.

Hume Castle

► **C002 SF3 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

► **C002 SF13 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

- ▶ **C002 SF26 sherds – 1**
Basal angle from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowl.
- ▶ **C002 SF27 sherds – 1**
Body sherd of standard white earthenware.
- ▶ **C003 SF4 sherds – 3**
Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.
- ▶ **C003 SF6 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C003 SF20 sherds – 2**
Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.
- ▶ **C011 SF284 sherds – 3**
Rim and body sherds from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowls.
- ▶ **C017 SF285 sherds – 3**
Abraded body sherds of white slipped redware.
- ▶ **C017 SF286 sherds – 2**
Clay pipe stem and base of pipe bowl.
- ▶ **C1002 SF2 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1002 SF7 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1002 SF8 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1003 SF17 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe bowl.
- ▶ **C1003 SF20 sherds – 3**
Basal angle and body sherds from internally glazed vessel with slipped lines.
- ▶ **C1003 SF21 sherds – 1**
Body sherd in slipped redware.
- ▶ **C1003 SF 24 sherds – 1**
Body sherd of brown glazed redware.
- ▶ **C1003 SF25 sherds – 1**
Spalded sherd of slip glazed redware.
- ▶ **C1003 SF30 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1003 SF31 sherds – 1**
Body sherd of slip glazed redware.
- ▶ **C1003 SF35 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1003 SF36 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1003 SF37 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1003 SF41 sherds – 1**
Basal angle from vessel in brown glazed redware.
- ▶ **C1004 SF11 sherds – 2**
Body sherd of standard white earthenware.
- ▶ **C1004 SF12 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1004 SF40 sherds – 1**
Clay pipe stem.
- ▶ **C1014 SF44 sherds – 1**
Fired clay or daub.
- ▶ **C1016 SF48 sherds – 1**
Very tiny body sherd in standard white earthenware.
- ▶ **C2002 SF51 sherds – 1**
Rim sherd in slip glazed redware.
- ▶ **C2002 SF52 sherds – 1**
Body sherd of standard white earthenware.
- ▶ **C2002 SF53 sherds – 2**
Body sherd in standard white earthenware and base sherd with footring glazed white with traces of blue.
- ▶ **C2002 SF54 sherds – 1**
Rim sherd from slip glazed redware vessel.
- C2002 SF55 sherds – 1**
Tiny body sherd from spongeware vessel.
- ▶ **C2002 SF59 sherds – 1**
Basal angle with footring in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF62 sherds – 4**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF63 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of brown glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF65 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF71 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2002 SF73 sherds – 2**

Body sherds in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF77 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF78 sherds – 2**

Body sherds in slip glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF87 sherds – 1**

Redware tile fragment.

▶ **C2002 SF90 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowl.

▶ **C2002 SF92 sherds – 2**

A – Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

B – Earthenware body sherd glazed light brown with incised lines.

▶ **C2002 SF93 sherds – 4**

A – Rim sherd in slip glazed redware.

B – Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

C – Body sherd from transfer printed earthenware.

D – Spongeware rim sherd.

▶ **C2002 SF95 sherds – 1**

Redware roof tile.

▶ **C2002 SF98 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF101 sherds – 4**

Redware flowerpot.

▶ **C2002 SF103 sherds – 2**

Body sherds from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowls.

▶ **C2002 SF105 sherds – 3**

Body sherds of brown glazed earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF 110 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of brown glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF112 sherds – 2**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF118 sherds – 5**

Four body sherds and one base sherd with footring in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF122 sherds – 2**

Rim sherd and body sherd in brown glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF129 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF131 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of brown glazed redware (internally and externally glazed).

▶ **C2002 SF132 sherds – 1**

Redware tile fragment.

▶ **C2002 SF133 sherds – 2**

Redware tile fragments.

▶ **C2002 SF135 sherds – 1**

One body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF138 sherds – 8**

Body sherds of black glazed earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF140 sherds – 2**

Redware brick fragments.

▶ **C2002 SF143 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2002 SF144 sherds – 2**

One clay pipe stem and one body sherd of brown glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF145 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem marked ‘..ERWICK’.

▶ **C2002 SF147 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2002 SF149 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in brown glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF152 sherds – 1**

Stoneware ball or marble probably from the neck of a bottle?

▶ **C2002 SF157 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from unglazed redware vessel.

▶ **C2002 SF158 sherds – 9**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF159 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowl.

▶ **C2002 SF163 sherds – 3**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF165 sherds – 1**

Redware tile fragment.

▶ **C2002 SF167 sherds – 1**

Base sherd from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowl.

▶ **C2002 SF169 sherds – 1**

Rim sherd from earthenware vessel glazed white and red.

▶ **C2002 SF170 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe bowl fragment.

▶ **C2002 SF173 sherds – 1**

Rim sherd from slip glazed redware vessel.

▶ **C2002 SF178 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2002 SF179 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of slip glazed redware.

▶ **C2002 SF184 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF187 sherds – 10**

Body sherds from black glazed earthenware vessels.

▶ **C2002 SF193 sherds – 1**

Base sherd from internally brown glazed redware vessel.

▶ **C2002 SF194 sherds – 3**

Redware brick fragments.

▶ **C2002 SF200 sherds – 1**

Unglazed redware roof tile.

▶ **C2002 SF201 sherds – 4**

Two rim sherds and two body sherds glazed white, rim sherd has a blue feathered edge.

▶ **C2002 SF202 sherds – 1**

Narrow strap handle fragment glazed brown.

▶ **C2002 SF203 sherds – 2**

Body sherds from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowls.

▶ **C2002 SF204 sherds – 5**

Body sherds of brown glazed earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF205 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from slip glazed redware vessel.

▶ **C2002 SF215 sherds – 4**

Body sherds of salt glazed stoneware glazed light brown, three sherds have incised lines.

▶ **C2002 SF215 sherds – 2**

Rim sherds of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF216 sherds – 1**

Basal angle and footring from black glazed earthenware vessel.

▶ **C2002 SF218 sherds – 1**

Base sherd with footring in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF228 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF229 sherds – 4**

Two strap handle fragments and two body sherds in brown glazed earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF230 sherds – 4**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF231 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF233 sherds – 3**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF235 sherds – 2**

A – One body sherd of standard white earthenware.
B – One body sherd glazed brown internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF236 sherds – 3**

Body sherds in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF238 sherds – 5**

A – Two spalded body sherds from a slip glazed vessel.
B – One brick fragment.
C – One basal angle from flowerpot.
D – One abraded internal green glazed basal angle in SPMOW.

▶ **C2002 SF239 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2002 SF241 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2002 SF245 sherds – 2**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2002 SF255 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowl.

▶ **C2002 SF260 sherds – 1**

Redware brick.

▶ **C2002 SF261 sherds – 1**

Redware roof tile.

▶ **C2009 SF282 sherds – 1**

Clay pipe stem.

▶ **C2009 SF283 sherds – 3**

Body sherds of brown glazed redware, one with handle junction.

▶ **C2011 SF276 sherds – 2**

Body sherds from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowls.

▶ **C2011 SF277 sherds – 3**

Body sherds in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2011 SF278 sherds – 5**

Body sherds of standard white earthenware glazed white internally and externally.

▶ **C2011 SF280 sherds – 2**

A – One body sherd in standard white earthenware.
B – One unglazed earthenware body sherd.

▶ **C2012 SF262 sherds – 1**

Body sherd from internally white slipped redware vessel.

▶ **C2012 SF264 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2012 SF265 sherds – 2**

Body sherds from internally slip glazed redware dairy bowls.

▶ **C2012 SF266 sherds – 1**

Body sherd in standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2012 SF269 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of brown glazed redware (internally and externally glazed).

▶ **C2012 SF272 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of brown glazed redware (internally and externally glazed).

▶ **C2012 SF273 sherds – 1**

Basal angle from redware vessel internally cream glazed on a white slip.

▶ **C2012 SF274 sherds – 1**

Body sherd of standard white earthenware.

▶ **C2013 SF257 sherds – 3**

A – One body sherd of standard white earthenware.
B – Two small body sherds of blue glazed earthenware.

7.3 Appendix 3: catalogue of glass artefacts

K Robin Murdoch

Note:

WB = Wine bottle

WG = Window glass

BR = Base ring, the part of the bottle it rests on

SR = String ring, the narrow glass ring just below the lip

Kick = The indent in the base of a bottle

Belling = A swelling of the diameter of a bottle just above the base

Pontil = A solid rod temporarily attached the underside of a vessel to enable finishing

Pontil scar = A rough patch where the pontil rod has been snapped off

Glass gall = A greenish-blue opaque discolouration in the glass caused by an excess of sodium nitrate

Hume Glebe

► SF1 C001

Mid-olive green bottle glass, surface mould contact, probably 19th century.

Hume Gardens

► SF1 C001

Shoulder shard from a probable aerated water bottle in very pale green, external embossing 'SO', probably 20th century.

Small shard from a probable dark brownish olive WB, late 19th to early 20th century.

► SF22 C002

Part of a bottle base and sidewall in very pale aqua, mould blown, late 19th to early 20th century.

Small shatter shard, greenish aqua, too small for comment.

Hume Castle

► SF3 C1002

Two conjoining shards of WG, type E, pale dull green. L: 2.1–2.2mm

SF9 C1004

► Shatter shard from a bottle, mid-dull green.

► SF10 C1004

Three shards of WG, type C, dull olive green, two conjoin. L: 1.7–1.8mm

► SF13 C1003

Shard of WG, type B, dull green tint. L: 1.4mm

► SF15 C1003

Small shard of WG, type D, dull green tint. L: 1.1mm

► SF16 C1003

Shard of WG, type D, dull green tint. L: 1.1–1.2mm

► SF18 C1006

Shard of WG, type D, dull green tint, some surface marks. L: 1.5–1.6mm

► SF19 C1006

Shard of WG, type C, dull green tint, small seed. L: 1.6–1.9mm

► SF29 C1003

Shatter shard.

► SF38 C1003

Small shard of WG, type C, dull green tint. L: 1.5mm.

► SF39 C1004

Shard kick probably from a WB, dull mid-green, probably 18th century.

► SF42 C1003

Shard of WG, type D, dull green tint. L: 1.2mm.

► SF53 C2002

Small shard, dark olive, bottle.

► SF60 C2002

Part lower bowl in opaque white, probably same vessel as SF224.

SF61 C2002

Oval spectacle lens, clear, 35×25mm, concave inner, convex outer, slight magnification, probably 19th century.

SF62 C2002

Nine shards of a bottle in mid-dull green, quite thin, all probably from same bottle, vertical mould mark on one (two-piece mould), late 19th to early 20th century.

► SF64 C2002

Bottle shard, probably from same bottle as SF65.

► **SF65 C2002**

Eight shards probably from same bottle in dark brownish green, blown in three-piece mould therefore probably earlier than *c* 1880 and later than *c* 1830.

► **SF66 C2002**

Five shards of WG, type G, clear., L: 1.7mm

► **SF72 C2002**

Shard in dull mid-green from oval, flat sided bottle, late 19th to 20th century.

Further shard probably from same bottle.

Wall shard from brownish-olive bottle, similar date.

► **SF74 C2002**

Small shard from a WB rim and SR, 18th century possibly 1st half. Small shard from copper blue bottle, 2nd half 19th century.

► **SF75 C2002**

Clear shard of WG, type L., L: 1.8mm

► **SF79 C2002**

Shard possibly from a base, opaque white similar to SF224.

► **SF80 C2002**

Black oval bead 24×16×5.5mm max thickness, flat rear, faceted face (probably moulded not cut). Two through perforations for stringing. Probably late 19th century, funerary ware.

► **SF81 C2002**

Almost complete ink bottle in pale aqua, shear lip, mid- to later 19th century.

► **SF82 C2002**

Shard from a copper blue bottle? Mid- to late 19th century.

Shard from a bottle, pale dull green.

Shard of WG, type J, clear. L: 1.4mm

► **SF84 C2002**

Sixty-three shards from a WB, dull mid-green, two with flat section SR, no earlier than *c* 1850. Small shard from a clear bottle? Neck, probably 20th century. Small shard from a WG, type K, clear. L: 1.3mm

► **SF86 C2002**

Three shards from a bottle, pale rich green, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF88 C2002**

Shard from a bottle, dark green, probably 1st half of the 19th century.

► **SF89 C2002**

Shard from a WB, dark green, probably 19th century.

Small shard of WG, type A, very pale aqua. L: 1.6mm

► **SF94 C2002**

Two shards from a bottle, dark green (black), possibly 1st half of the 19th century.

► **SF96 C2002**

Shoulder shard, mid-rich green, possibly three-piece mould, 19th century.

Two small shards from a bottle, dark green (black), 19th century.

► **SF99 C2002**

Small shard from a bottle, nipped in neck, possibly late 18th century.

Vessel shard, clear, frosted outer face.

► **SF100 C2002**

Shard from a beer/ale bottle, black, mid-19th century.

Shatter shard.

► **SF104 C2002**

Shard from a clear vessel.

► **SF105 C2002**

Two shards from a clear vessel.

Shard of WG, type D, dull green tint, came shadow. L: 1.9mm

► **SF107 C2002**

Five shards copper blue from shear lip bottle, mid- to later 19th century.

► **SF108 C2002**

Two shards from a probable WB, dull mid-green, probably 19th century.

Two shards from a bottle, dark dull mid-green, crude ribbing on one face, probably 19th century.

► **SF111 C2002**

Shard from a bottle, clear, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF113 C2002**

Shard from a bottle, very dark (black), probably from 1st half of the 19th century.

Shard shoulder, mid-rich green, probably 19th/possibly 18th century.

Shard of WG, type A, very pale blue tinge. L: 1.6mm

► **SF119 C2002**

Five shards from a WB, 4 dull mid-green, 1 more brownish, probably 19th century.

► **SF121 C2002**

Three shards from a WB, dark brownish green, 19th century possibly early.

Shard from a WB, mid-dull green, 19th possibly/late 18th century.

► **SF123 C2002**

Eight shards WG, type A, pale aqua tint, 1.3–1.5mm.

► **SF124 C2002**

Three shards WG, type A, pale aqua tint, 1.5mm.

► **SF125 C2002**

Large shard from a WB, dull mid-green, belling, third quarter of the 18th century. Diam: *c* 100mm

Small shard possibly from the same bottle.

Bottle shard, very dark green, possibly from the early 19th century.

► **SF130 C2002**

Eight shards from a bottle, mid-dull green, probably 19th century.

Shards from a bottle, dark brownish green, probably 19th century.

► **SF134 C2002**

Shard from a brown bottle, possibly from same as SF137.

Copper blue shard from square section bottle, second half of the 19th century.

Small bottle shard, mid-dull green, probably 19th century.

► **SF137 C2002**

Six shards from a brown bottle, one with mould mark, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF138 C2002**

Thirty-five shards from a bottle, mid-rich green, lip added, possibly three-piece mould, second half of the 19th century.

Small button/collar stud in opaque white, rounded triangular shape with iron fixing.

► **SF139 C2002**

Bottle shard, palish rich green, mould contact, 19th century.

Small bottle shard, very pale blue, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF142 C2002**

Five shards from a brown bottle, late 19th to 20th century.

Two small shards from a bottle, pale dull green, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF150 C2002**

Five shards from a bottle, palish rich green, probably 19th century.

► **SF160 C2002**

Base shard from a WB, mid-rich green, possible belling, heavy BR wear, possibly late 18th century.

Diam: *c* 90mm

Shard from a bottle, pale olive green, 19th, possibly late 18th, century.

► **SF164 C2002**

Shard from a dark brown bottle, probably 19th century.

Two small WG shards, type A, very pale aqua. L: 1.2mm; L: 1.5mm

► **SF166 C2002**

Shard from a bottle, brownish green, probably 19th century.

► **SF171 C2002**

Foot shard from probable stemmed bowl, clear, no apparent pontil scar, probably 19th century. Diam: *c* 90mm

► **SF172 C2002**

Base shard from a WB, dull mid-green, mould contact, thick, moderate BR wear, late 19th century. Diam: *c* 80mm

► **SF175 C2002**

Thirty-five shards from a bottle, brown, mould contact, no belling, mid- to later 19th century. Clear shatter shard.

► **SF176 C2002**

Shard from a WB neck, pale dull green, striated, 19th, possibly late 18th, century.

► **SF181 C2002**

Small shard probably from a WB. Dull mid-green, slight abrasion/corrosion, possibly late 18th century.

► **SF185 C2002**

Bottle shard, dull mid-green, mould mark, 19th century.

Two shards from a square section bottle, copper blue, late 19th century.

► **SF186 C2002**

Shard of clear WG, type J. L: 2mm

► **SF188 C2002**

Sixteen shards from a bottle, very pale blue, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF190 C2002**

Three shards of WG, type A, very pale aqua. L: 1.4–1.5mm

Ten shards of WG, type B, pale dull green. L: 1.8mm

► **SF192 C2002**

Beer/ale bottle base in black glass, mould blown, conical kick with slight glass gall, moderate BR wear, second to third quarter of the 19th century. Diam: 78mm

► **SF197 C2002**

Part base black from a WB, belling, slight BR wear on high spots, first quarter of the 19th century. Original Diam: *c* 85mm

► **SF198 C2002**

Complete base plus conjoining shard from WB, very dark (black) brownish olive. Belling, heavy base ring wear, last quarter of the 18th century. Base Diam: 90mm; Kick Diam: 29mm

► **SF199 C2002**

Shard from a flat-sided bottle, very pale aqua, seedy, 19th century.

► **SF208 C202**

Neck, lip, and five shards from a probable utility bottle in dark green, late 19th century.

► **SF209 C2002**

Neck and lip shard from a bottle, very pale aqua, lip added separately, late 19th century.

► **SF217 C2002**

Shard from a probable Codd (aerated water) bottle, pale aqua, late 19th to early 20th century.

► **SF224 C2002**

Part of a lower bowl? And stem from opacified white glass, late 19th to early 20th century.

► **SF225 C2002**

Possible bottle shard, very pale aqua, some seed, probably late 19th to early 20th century.

► **SF227 C2002**

Shatter shard from a bottle late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF231 C2002**

Shard from a bottle, clear, probably 20th century.

► **SF237 C2002**

Shard from a bottle neck in pale dull green, triangular SR nipping in neck, late 18th century.

► **SF240 C2002**

Possible bottle shard. Neck in dull mid-green, large elongated seed, possibly as early as the late 18th century.

► **SF248 C2002**

Shard from a probable flat sided bottle. In dark dull green embossed 'L?' over '?ED'. Later than *c* 1880.

► **SF249 C2002**

Shard of WG, type L, clear, slight greenish tinge in edge. L: 1.8mm

► **SF259 C2012**

Two shards from a WB, very dark brownish, large seed, slight belling, probably 1st quarter of the 19th century.

► **SF263 C2012**

Shard from a probable WB, very dark green, possibly early 19th century.

► **SF267 C2012**

Three shards of WG, clear with very pale green tinge, type M. L: 2mm
Probable small shatter shard.
Copper blue bottle shard, mid- to later 19th century.

► **SF269 C2012**

Curved bottle shard (possibly from the shoulder) mid-dull green.
Shard from a bottle wall, mould contact, dark green, probably 19th century.

► **SF270 C2012**

Three shards from a bottle in very pale blue, some

seed, probably second half of the 19th century.
Two shards of clear WG, type I. L: 1.9mm

► **SF273 C2012**

Shard from a clear bottle, probably 20th century.
Tiny shard of WG, type A. L: 1.2mm

► **SF274 C2012**

Shard from a bottle, mid-dull green, late 19th to 20th century.

► **SF287 C017**

Six bottle shards, dull mid-green, but possibly from three different bottles. One looks 19th century, the others may be earlier.

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