# Ulster's Changing Borders
# - Fact Not Fiction -

**Heritage Tourism Project**

February 2008

Judith Carroll and Company Ltd.

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# 1. Introduction

The subject of this project is 'Ulster's changing borders', the archaeology and history of the east border region and the changes in the border from earliest times. The counties discussed are Counties Louth and Monaghan and parts of Armagh and Down with the Districts of Armagh, Newry & Mourne and Banbridge.

The present border is between the six counties of Northern Ireland and the 26 counties of the Republic. The 'border' in some shape or form has always been present between the province of Ulster and the rest of Ireland and the concept of a border or a cultural division around the east border counties is examined from its beginnings in prehistory. The Neolithic in Ireland, for example, is unique to the whole of Ireland and its culture is spread throughout the country. Yet its monuments are concentrated in distribution in the northern half of Ireland above a line from Sligo to Cavan and Monaghan. The distribution of Anglo-Norman mottes, on the other hand, shows a clear antipathy to the lands outside the east and south of Ireland, with a cut off line at north Louth to Monaghan.

The physical characteristics and the underlying geology of the border region may give some reasons as to why there is a 'border'. The fact that the Anglo-Normans encroached only a little into the present northern counties may have had a bearing on the future history of the region and reasons are given for their choice of settlement.

The stages of human occupation of the east border counties of Ireland are briefly described below. These stages include the first appearance of man in Ireland in the Mesolithic, and in the Neolithic when he first farmed and built stone tombs. In the Bronze Age metallurgy was first introduced into the country and trade in gold prompted the development of many exotic types of ornaments. The Iron Age with its major defence systems of border ditches and heroic sagas is described. This is followed by the early medieval period when monastic sites were founded over the entire island, and when ringforts were built widely as farmsteads. Souterrains, or underground passages built for refuge and perhaps also storage, were a major feature of Ireland during the 8th or 9th century AD to the 12th/13th century AD and their distribution is discussed.

The Anglo-Normans had a major impact on the country, in particular in the south and east of the country and in relation to the development of the border area. Their mottes and later structures are distributed widely in the areas they conquered. Later, defensive castles were built to defend their territories, and in many areas to defend the Pale from the land beyond the border, as will be shown.

The plantation of the border counties took place by 'British' settlers, a large percentage of which were Presbyterian in the 17th century. Towns and the linen industry developed throughout the 17th and 18th centuries and Presbyterian meetinghouses were built mainly during the 18th and 19th centuries as will be shown. Other buildings such as Orange Lodges are a feature of their culture. Large estates evolved in the 18th and 19th century,

held by mainly the Protestant gentry. During the Second World War, the six northern counties, as part of the United Kingdom prepared for defence and several features such as pill boxes and concrete bunkers still remain.

In later years, the north's well known troubles developed and fortified British Army structures were built on the crossing points between the Republic and the United kingdom and as well as in many 'hotspots' around the border areas. These are being dismantled at present but several army structures remain in place.

Photographs and descriptions of the sites illustrating the rich history and archaeology of the border counties of Louth, Monaghan and the southern parts of Armagh and Down are given both in this text and in the attachment files.

## 2. The geological background of the border counties

Ireland emerged from the last Ice Age about 13000-10,000 years ago, with the melting of the glaciers. The country can be described as 'saucer-shaped', with a tendency for mountain ranges to be distributed around its periphery, though much of the north is mountainous inland.

The physical characteristics of Ireland's landscape are fundamental to its history. The mountains of Donegal, Mayo, Sligo, Kerry, Wicklow and Antrim are concentrated around the edge of the country, north, south, west and even east, with the Wicklow-Dublin Mountains. However, north of Dundalk, mountains separate north Louth from Armagh and Down and the interior of this border region is also mountainous. The Fews Mountains, of north Louth to South Armagh, loom over the plains of Louth and form a natural defence. This mountainous border, combined with the underlying geology of the lands beyond, bears at least some responsibility for the development of Irish history.

Frank Mitchell's map of the main soil types distributed in Ireland today (fig.1) shows the distribution of gleys and peaty gleys and well drained soils throughout Ireland. Gleys and peaty gleys occur mainly in the north of the country above a line from Monaghan to Sligo, excluding Louth and parts of Down, South Armagh and South Monaghan. They occur in many parts of the west and south-west also. In contrast, the soils predominating in the south and east of the country are acid brown podzolics which are well drained, arable soils.

In prehistory, particularly in the Neolithic, most of which settlement and burial is distributed in the north, it is remarkable that the less arable landscape formed the main settlement areas. However, in many areas, currently with the development of wetter weather, boggy land may have formed on what was once more arable land around 4000 BC. For example, the Céide fields in north Mayo, presently under metres of bog, were once arable land.

The northern distribution of prehistoric sites suggests that Neolithic and Bronze Age man may have had a cattle based economy similar to that of their descendants. The Táin Bó Cúailgne saga, which describes Iron Age culture, strongly suggests that cattle in that period were a major part of an economy which must have had its origins in earlier prehistory. We know from early medieval texts that cattle formed the main measurement of wealth in early medieval Ireland, before the arrival of the Normans, and were the most important element of the economy.

The hilly landscape of the north is suitable for cattle rearing and 'booleying' on the hillsides during the summer months was a way of life in Ireland up to the 17th century.

The continuous heavy line divides the more
oceanic west from the less oceanic south-east.

| | |
|---|---|
| Calcareous | Shallow brown earths |
| | Grey-brown podzolics |
| Non-calcareous | Brown podzolics |
| | Acid brown earths |
| | Podzols |
| | Gleys |
| | Peats & peaty gleys |
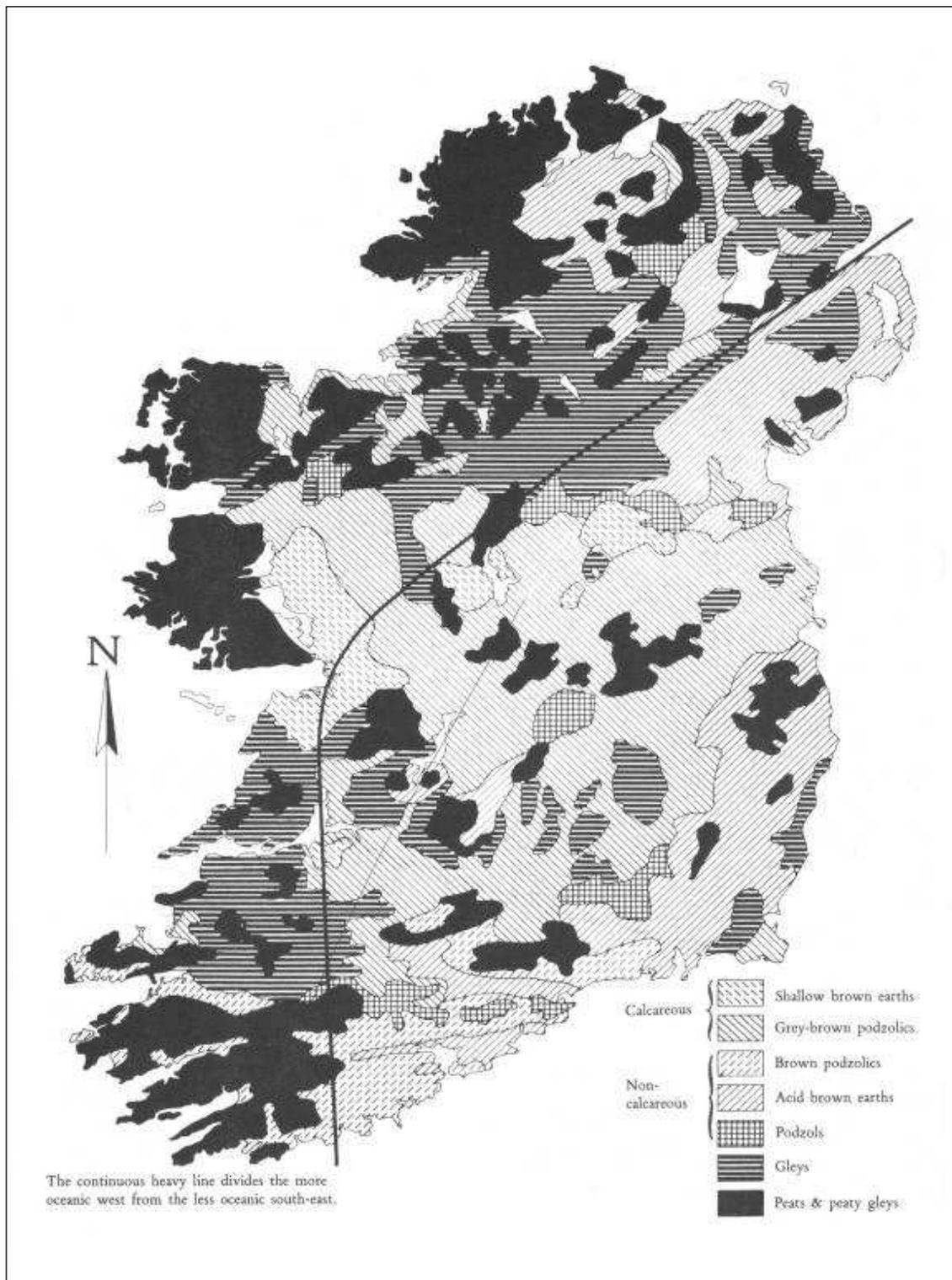
Figure 1: Distribution map of soil-types in Ireland (after Mitchell 1986, 176)

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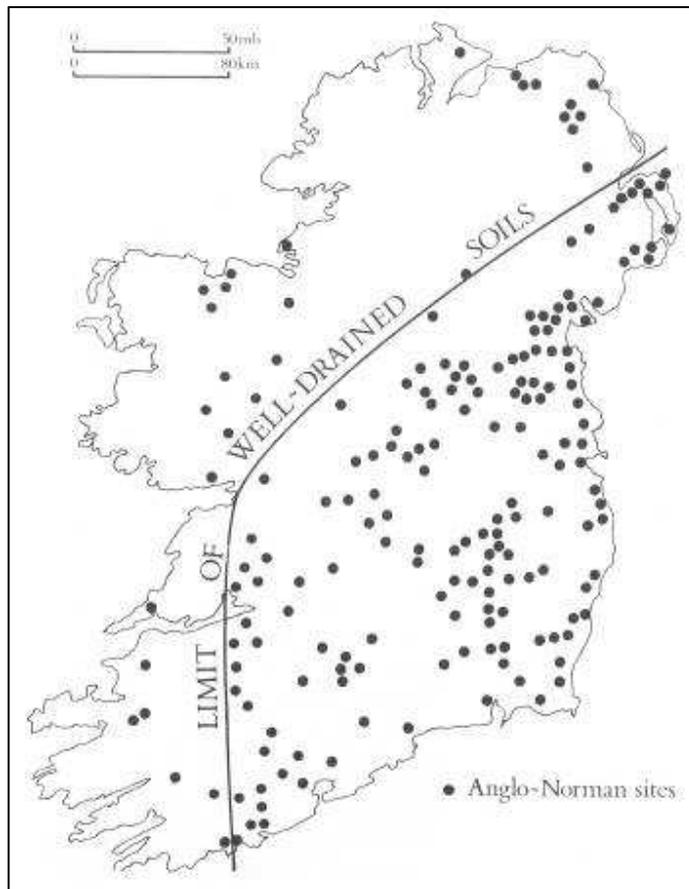
Figure 2: The distribution of Anglo-Norman sites in Ireland, and their relationship to areas of well-drained, fertile soils (after Mitchell 1986, 177)

There is very little significant difference in the distribution of early medieval ringforts throughout the country between the north and south of Ireland, while a lesser distribution in the south-east of the country may be due to the fact that the land was more arable and therefore the survival rate of the monuments was less. In Ireland, monastic sites are most densely distributed in Louth, Meath and the midlands but are scattered as much over the northern counties as those of the south and west.

The main difference in monument distribution in relation to soil types relates to Anglo-Norman settlement, where a striking parallel can be drawn between the distribution of acid brown earths which are arable and the distribution of Anglo-Norman mottes (post-invasion defensive structures). The Anglo-Normans cultivated wheat and oats as well as peas, beans and flax. The fact that the distribution of their settlement coincides with arable soil types indicates that they perhaps had little incentive to conquer the lands beyond the Fews Mountains.

The land was also heavily forested, boggy and marshy in many areas in the land north-west and west of Dundalk. When de Courcy entered Ulster, he was joined by the MacMahon chief of the Monaghan and South Armagh area and entrusted him with two forts which McMahon subsequently destroyed. On being questioned, MacMahon replied that he 'hath not engaged to keep stone walls' while his 'native woods were open for his reception and security'.

After their initial conquest of most of the country in the late 12th century, the area controlled by the Anglo-Normans shrunk by AD 1300, so that Anglo-Norman settlement was enclosing and defending itself rather than expanding by this time. The lack of farming incentive for early Anglo-Norman conquest of the lands north of the Fews, and the fact that it was hilly, forested and dangerous, permitted the pre-Norman culture of Gaelic Ireland to carry on unabated till the major upheavals of the late 16th and 17th centuries.

## 3. The first farmers and tomb builders

Not long after the end of the last Ice Age about 9000 years ago, man first arrived to settle in Ireland. He lived by hunting, fishing and gathering wild nuts and berries. He made stone tools and built temporary encampments. The period of hunting and gathering is known as the Mesolithic or 'Middle Stone Age' and lasted about three thousand years. Evidence from pollen analysis of bogs and lake bed sediments show that a farming economy emerged around 6000 years ago (circa 4000 BC). The period marked by the introduction of farming is called the Neolithic or 'New Stone Age'. It was also the period of tomb building.

From about 3900 BC there is consistent evidence of cereal growing and forest clearance. Habitation sites with Neolithic pottery, leaf shaped arrowheads and cereal grinding stones (querns) are also found from around this time. Domesticated cattle and sheep or goats appeared in Ireland for the first time. There is even industry and trade. Over 1800 polished stone axes have been recovered from this period, more than half of which have been made from porcellanite found at Tievebulliagh, Co. Antrim and on Rathlin Island. Axe factories exploiting this stone, made and distributed polished stone axes throughout the north-east of Ireland where they are densely distributed as far south as counties Meath and Dublin. They traded, too, throughout Scotland and England.

Though only stone tools, potsherds, charcoal, carbonised seeds and animal bone is found on Neolithic habitation sites in Ireland, the people would have made clothes, ornaments and domestic implements from materials that do not survive such as wood, leather and wool or flax. They would have woven wool and used leather and wood for a wide variety of domestic vessels. The foundations of houses of round and rectangular shape are found. These were most probably thatched and not too different from houses of later millennia.

The most enduring legacy of the Neolithic farmers and traders are the megalithic tombs, the word coming from the Greek words mega (big) and lithos (stone). There is a very large number of stone tombs distributed throughout Ireland, most predominantly in the northern half of the country. The tombs were used to bury the dead and also probably for ritual as suggested by the 'courts', the partly-enclosed spaces relating to the court tombs, and the passages and stone basins of the passage tombs. The fact that there is a clear relationship between the sun and the passage tombs at Newgrange and Loughcrew would also suggest ritual. Cremated and inhumated burials are found in the tombs along with pottery and other grave goods.

There are four main types of stone tomb: Court Tombs; Passage Tombs; Portal Dolmens; Wedge Tombs. The first three are Neolithic though, particularly in the case of passage tombs, later intrusive burials are also occasionally found. Some wedge tombs date from the Neolithic period but they are mainly Bronze Age in date.
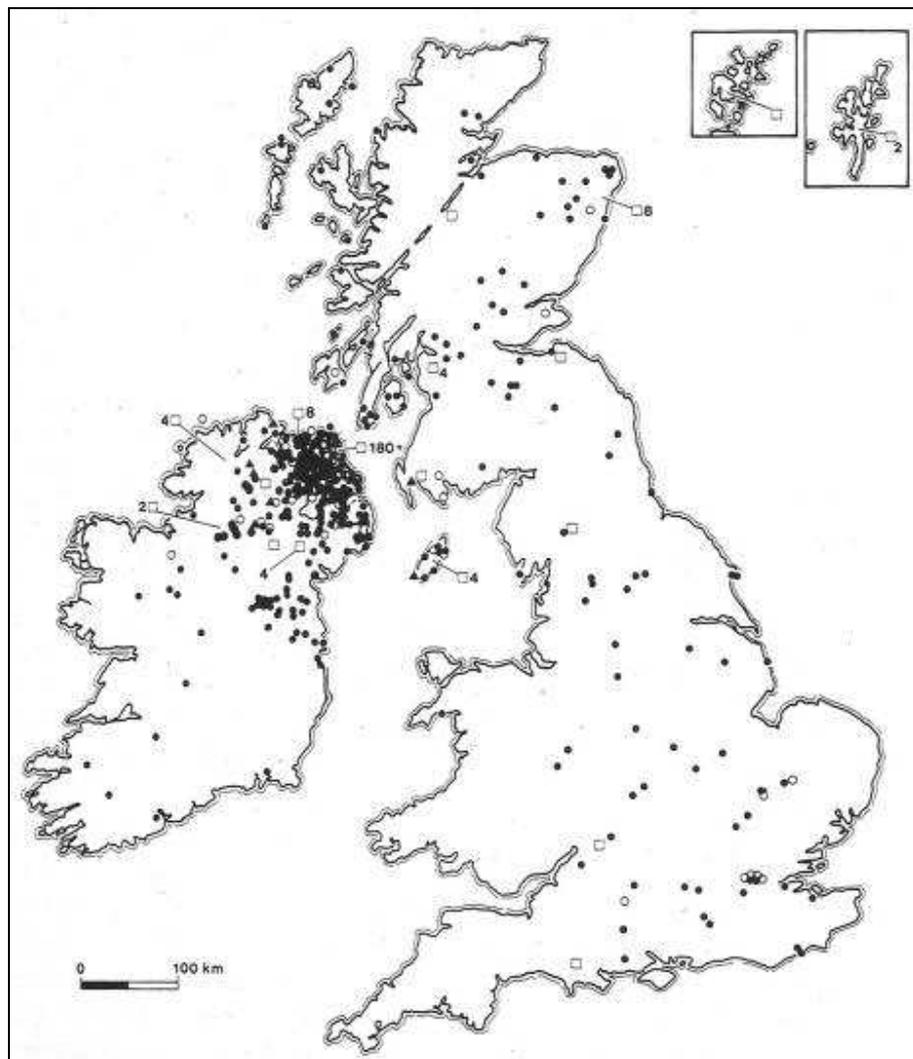
Figure 3: Distribution of porcellanite axes

**Court tombs**

Court tombs are characterised by a curvilinear forecourt of some description, usually a half circle or oval as seen in the plan of this example at Annaghmare, Co. Armagh, which is close to the border village of Crossmaglen. Court tombs typically have chambers extending inwards from the court, though chambers may be found in other parts of the tomb. Lateral chambers were found at the end of the tomb at Annaghmare. Roofs were occasionally built by 'beehive' corbelling, by which a roof is built by large stones placed on top of one another in circular form with a slight inward slant, the top stone forming a capstone. Corbelling was found in one of the subsidiary chambers at Annaghmare.

Figure 4: Distribution of court tombs in Ireland showing the concentration of this monument type in the north of the country

Unlike passage tombs, which were covered with circular cairns, court tombs were covered with long, rectangular or trapezoidal cairns of stone. Cairn lengths vary but on average they are about 25m-35m, though examples up to 60m in length are known. The example at Annaghmare (Plate 1) is 20m in length. During excavation of this site, a great deal of cremated bone was found, along with the unburnt remains of an adult female and a child. Neolithic pottery, a javelin head and flint scrapers were found. Court tombs are distributed in the north of the country above a line from Galway to Dundalk. They are most densely concentrated in north Sligo and south Donegal with clusters in north Mayo, Galway and south Down. None are found in County Louth, south of the Cooley area. This may relate to the survival of monuments located in areas of arable land.

Plate 1: View of court tomb at Annaghmare, Co. Armagh (No. 31)

Court tombs are characterised by a curvilinear forecourt of some description, usually a half circle or oval as seen in the plan of this example at Annaghmare, Co. Armagh, which is close to the border village of Crossmaglen. Court tombs typically have chambers extending inwards from the court, though chambers may be found in other parts of the tomb. Lateral chambers were found at the end of the tomb at Annaghmare. Roofs were occasionally built by 'beehive' corbelling by which a roof is built by large stones placed on top of one another in circular form with a slight inward slant, the top stone forming a capstone. Corbelling was found in one of the subsidiary chambers at Annaghmare. Court tombs were covered with long, rectangular or trapezoidal cairns of stone. Cairn lengths vary but on average they are about 25m-35m, though examples up to 60m in length are known. The example at Annaghmare is 20m in length. During excavation of this site, a great deal of cremated bone was found along with the unburnt remains of an adult female and a child. Neolithic pottery, a javelin head and flint scrapers were found.
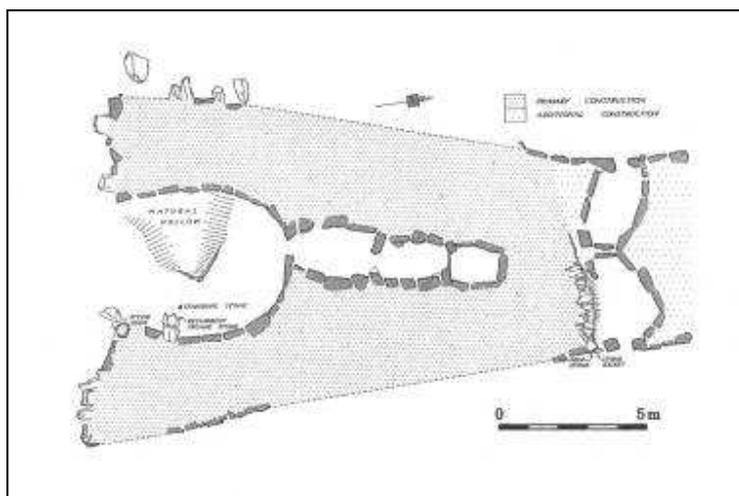


Figure 5: Plan of the court tomb at Annaghmare, Co. Armagh (No. 31)

Plate 2: Carn court tomb, Co. Monaghan (No. 11)

This site is a court tomb with a wedge shaped cairn 35m in length. There is a three chambered gallery with the end chamber containing a single jamb and backstone.



Plate 3: Aghnaskeagh court tomb, Co. Louth (No. 48)

Most megalithic tombs are Neolithic to Early Bronze Age monuments dating as early as the fourth century BC. The site at Aghnaskeagh comprises two cairns about 45m apart. One cairn is circular in shape containing a court tomb with four small chambers. Cremated bone, Neolithic pot sherds and flints were found in the chambers. The other cairn is oval in

shape with a roofless dolmen at one end with portal stones 2.8m high. At the other end of the cairn, six cist chambers of Bronze Age date were found. Typically both types of tomb would have contained Neolithic or Bronze Age pottery, flint and burials, probably cremation. The town of Dundalk is 6.8km SSW of this monument.


Plate 4: Tiredegan court tomb, Co. Monaghan (No. 12)

This site comprises a double court tomb and cairn and is known as 'Cairnbaine Giants Grave'. The east tomb has the remains of a court and two façade stones. Two entry jambs give access to the chamber. The gallery continues beyond this and at the opposite end of the cairn is a chamber.


Plate 5: Croaghan court tomb, Co. Monaghan (No. 57)

This court tomb comprises seven separate two chambered galleries through which a trackway (possibly prehistoric) has been placed, as it is lined with megalithic orthostats or roof stones. This court tomb appears to have become a complex monument possibly over a number of centuries. Court tombs usually consist of a long cairn. There is no cairn evident at Croaghan court tomb but this may have been destroyed over time. Court tombs date from the fourth millennium BC and usually yield a number of interesting finds such as pottery, flint, javelin heads etc.



Plate 6: View of Edergole court tomb, looking east, Co. Monaghan (No. 109)
(inset: Edergole court tomb, looking west)

Court tombs are characterised by a curvilinear forecourt of some description, usually a half circle or oval. They typically have chambers extending inwards from the court, though chambers may be found in other parts of the tomb. Roofs were occasionally built by 'beehive' corbelling by which a roof is built by large stones placed on top of one another in circular form with a slight inward slant, the top stone forming a capstone. Court tombs were covered with long, rectangular or trapezoidal cairns of stone. Cairn lengths vary but on average they are about 25m-35m, though examples up to 60m in length are known. The court tomb at Edergole is situated beside an old graveyard and has been cut through by a road. It is incorporated into a road fence. Part of the gallery survives but the court has been destroyed. The gallery is comprised of large boulders and one roofstone which stands on jambs at a height of 1.5m.

**Passage tombs**

Some of the finest Irish megalithic tombs are passage graves of which there are about 230 probable examples. The name comes from the stone passage inside the cairn which ends

in chambers. Typically there is a passage with an end chamber and two side chambers, but the shape of the arrangement and number of chambers varies. Passage tombs vary in size but they differ from other megalithic tombs in that their cairns are circular while they are often massive in scale and occur in cemeteries. The most impressive examples at Newgrange and Loughcrew have tall orthostats (vertical stones) lining the passages. A feature of the passage tombs is the incised decoration of the orthostats and kerbstones.

Another feature is the siting of cairns on heights and over spectacular landscapes. Slieve Gullion, Co. Armagh is one example of this and there are two cairns, a north and south cairn on this mountain. To the west of the Co. Armagh passage tomb cemetery are the Co. Sligo cemeteries of Carrowkeel and Carrowmore. To the south are the cemeteries of Loughcrew and the Boyne valley, which include the sites of Newgrange, Knowth and Dowth.



Plate 7: Passage way of Slieve Gullion South Cairn, Co. Armagh (No. 34)
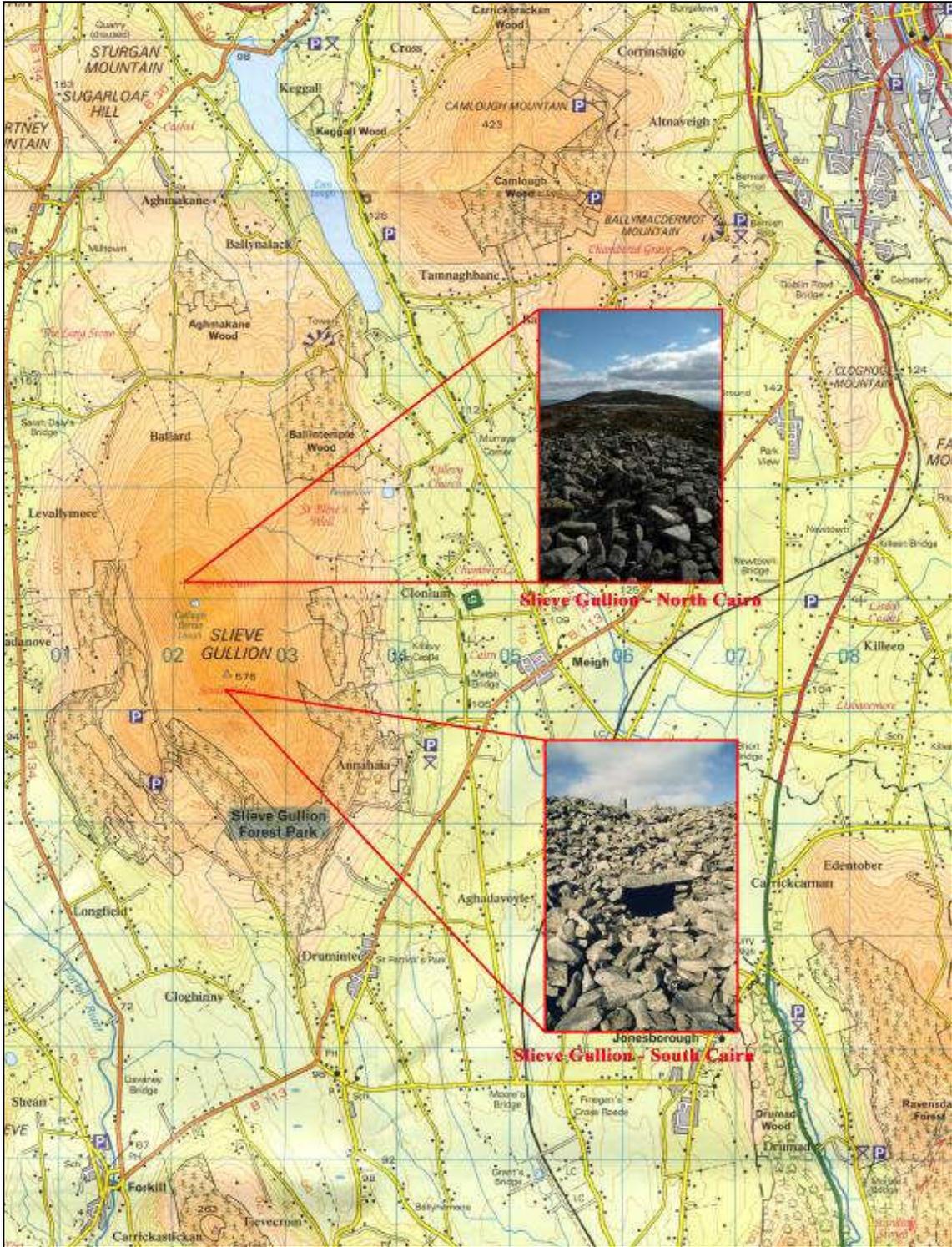
Figure 6: Map of Slieve Gullion showing location of North and South Cairns,
Co. Armagh (No. 34)

There are two cairns located on Slieve Gullion. The cairns are situated on either side of a lake. The southern cairn is
known locally as 'Calliagh Berra's House'. It is a large passage grave which stands 570m above sea level making it the

highest surviving passage tomb in Ireland. The tomb contains an octagonal chamber reached through a short passage. The passage is roofed with stone lintels and the chamber shows stone corbelling similar to that at Newgrange. During excavation in 1961 only tiny fragments of cremated bone and worked flint were found as the tomb had been disturbed by treasure-seekers. Three hollowed basins used for burial deposits were found. The northern cairn is a round or circular mound of stones approximately 40ft in diameter. Two cists were found in the cairn, one containing burnt bone and fragments of food-vessel pottery. The northern cairn dates to the Bronze Age (2000BC-500BC).

Like the court tombs and indeed the portal dolmens, the passage tombs have a northern distribution, but are concentrated in the north eastern part of the country and in that way differ from court tombs which are concentrated in the north-west of the country. Though there are large cemeteries in Carrowkeel and Carrowmore, Co. Sligo, the passage tombs are concentrated in the counties of Antrim, Down, Derry, Tyrone, Armagh, Louth, Meath and as far south as Dublin and Wicklow.
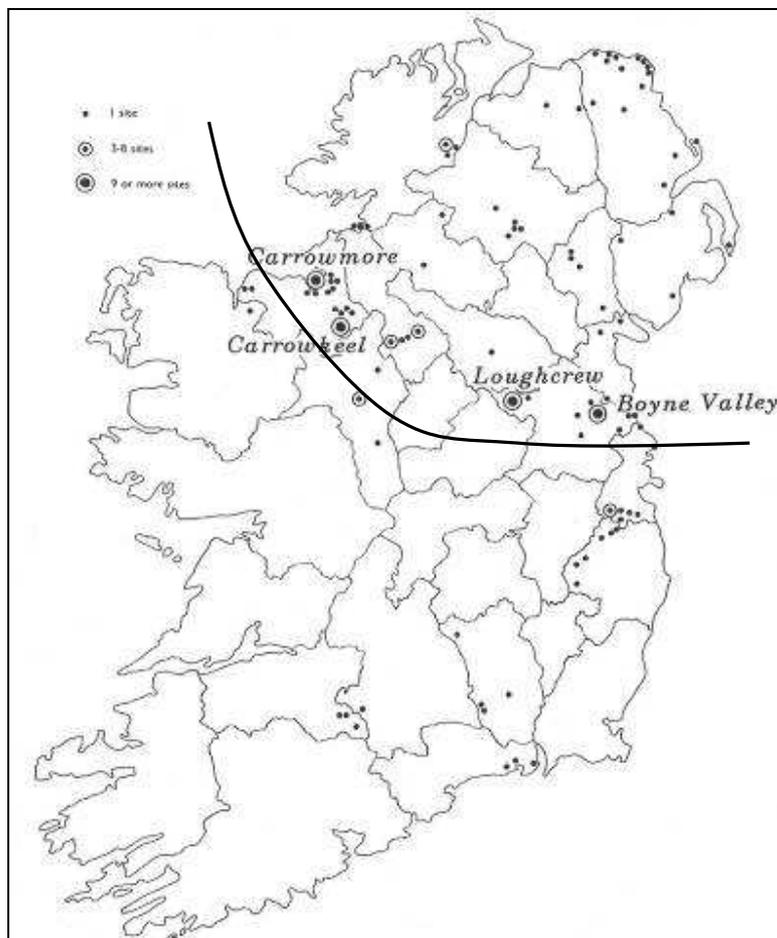


Figure 7: Distribution map of passage graves in Ireland

Figure 8: Passage grave finds: pendants, antler pins and Carrowkeel Ware

**Portal dolmens**



Plate 8: View of Legananny portal tomb, Co. Down (No. 30)

The tripod-dolmen is striking with a view of the Mourne Mountains to the south. The capstone is over three metres long and the two portal stones are 1.5m in height. A slight trace of a cairn is evident at Legananny. This may have been more substantial at the time of its construction. Around the winter solstice the morning sun illuminates the entire underside of the capstone and tip of the backstone. Portal tombs were built by Neolithic farming communities and date to as early as the 4th century BC. Burials, usually cremations, were placed in the tombs and finds of flint, stone implements, pottery and beads have been found accompanying the cremation burials.



Plate 9: View of Kilkeel portal tomb, Co. Down (No. 29)

This dolmen or 'portal tomb' would originally have been freestanding and would have been at the entrance to a burial cairn but in more modern times has been incorporated into a fence and hedge. It is quaint and impressive and is known locally as 'The Crawford stone'. The portal tomb is over 2m in height with a capstone of 2.5m in length. Portal tombs were built by Neolithic farming communities and date to as early as the 4th century BC. Burials, usually cremations were placed in the tombs and finds of flint, stone implements, pottery and beads have been found accompanying the cremation burials.



Plate 10: Kilfeaghan portal tomb, Co. Down (No. 26)

This site overlooks Carlingford Lough and lies on the border of the ancient kingdom of Mourne. This granite dolmen has a large 2m wide capstone. Orthostats and cairn material are evident. The cairn (which is now mostly disappeared) is thought to have extended over 7m in front of the north facing chamber. Bones, flint scrapers and Neolithic pottery were found during a small excavation at the site in 1956.
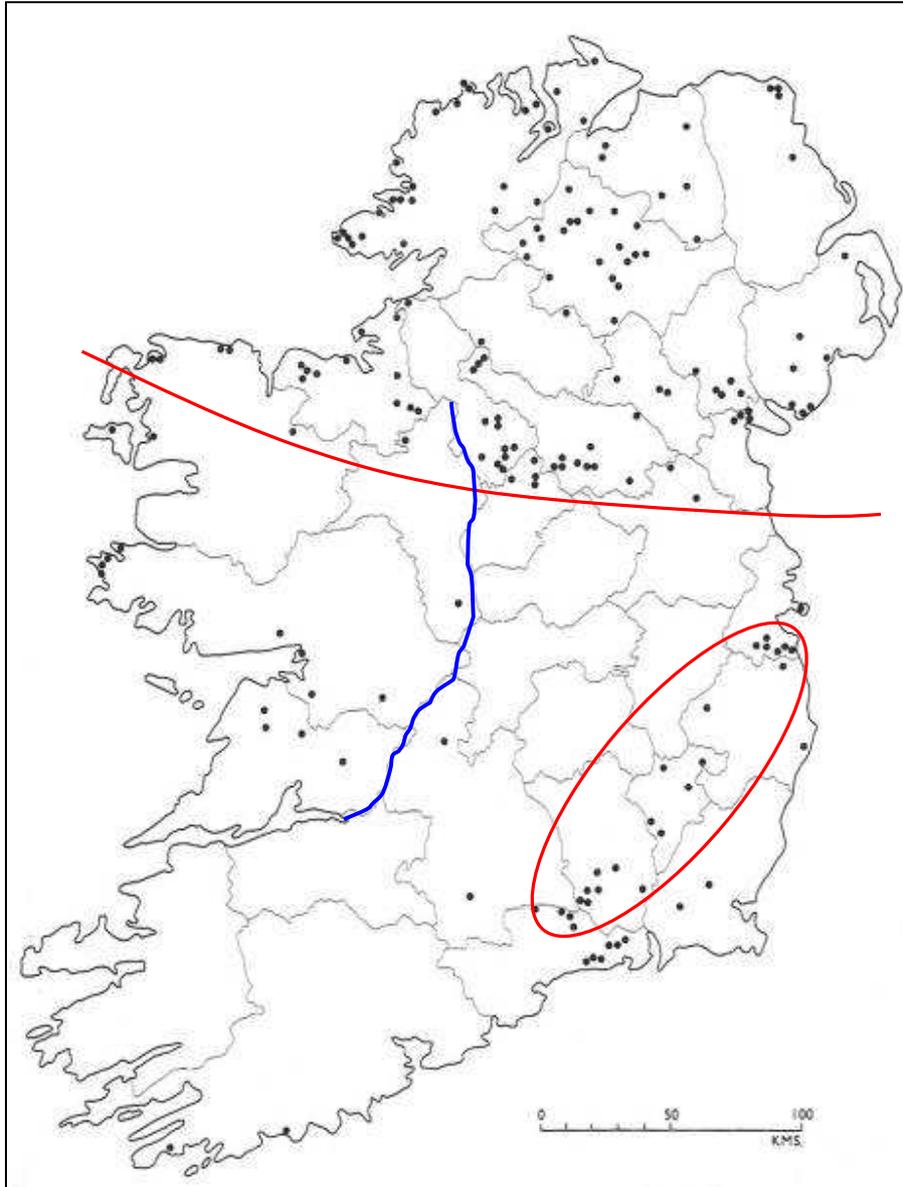
Figure 9: Distribution map of portal tombs in Ireland showing a generally northern distribution with a south-easterly 'outlier' and the River Shannon marked in blue.
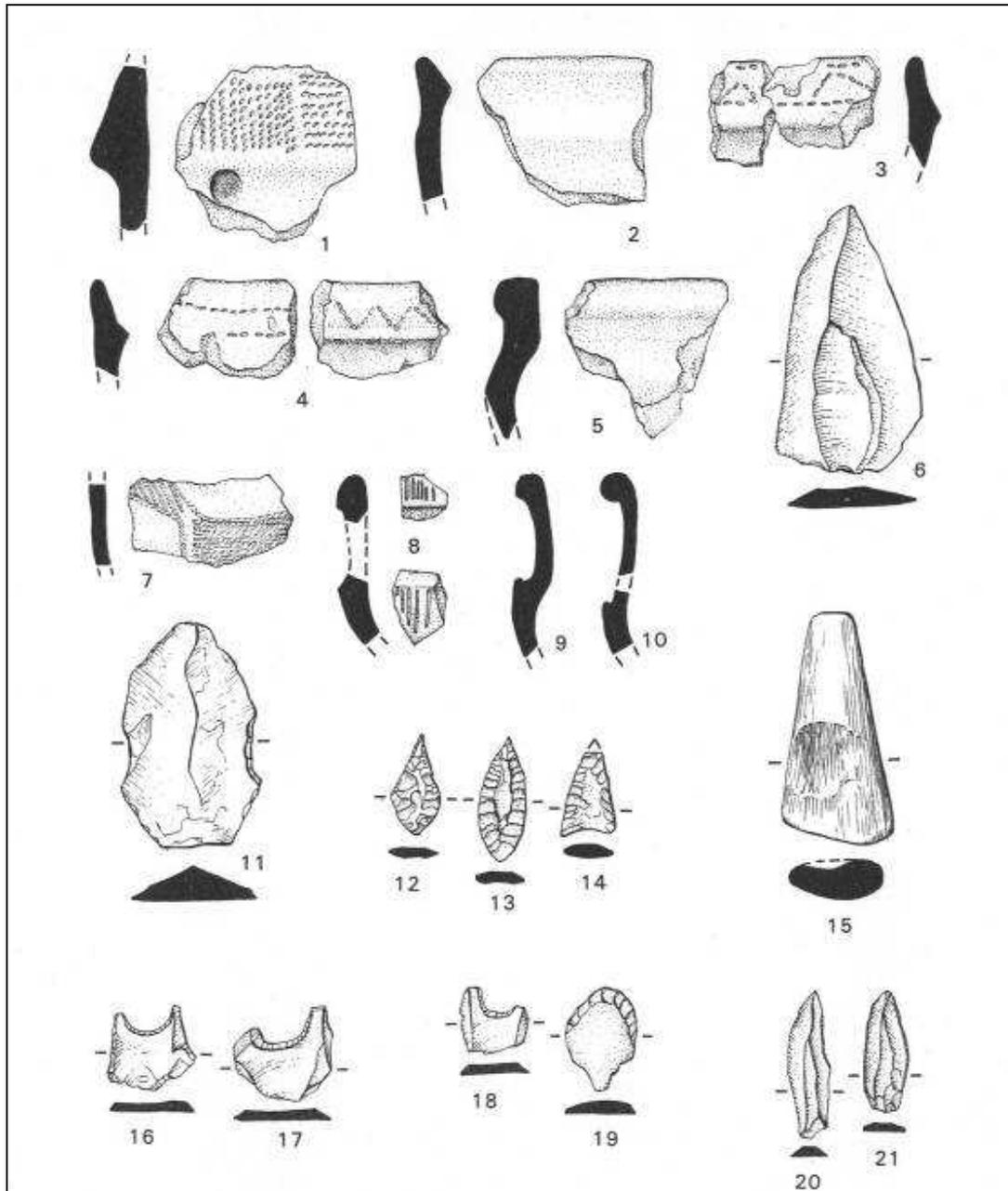
Figure 10: Pottery, flint and stone finds from portal tombs

1 Greengraves, Co. Down; 2 Kilfeaghan, Co. Down; 3-5, 14, 16-19 Kiltiernan Domain, Co. Dublin;
6, 7, 13 Ticloy, Co. Antrim; 8-10, 12 Ballyrnan, Co. Tyrone; 11, 15 Drmanone, Co. Roscommon;
20, 21 Aghnaskeagh A, Co. Louth

From the evidence, the majority of dolmens appear to have been covered with elongated sub-rectangular cairns, but short oval and round cairns also exist. Only a very few of the 174 known dolmens have been excavated. Chambers are usually sub-rectangular in plan, narrowing, but occasionally broadening, towards the rear. Many of the tombs are found

in low-lying positions, often near streams as was the case with the Ballykeel Dolmen, near Camlough, Co. Armagh (Pl. 5). Excavation of the Ballykeel dolmen showed the remains of a long sub-rectangular cairn, some 28m in length with the tomb situated at the southern end. A large amount of pottery was found including some highly decorated vessels (see fig. below). Flint implements were also found. It was interesting that no bone survived, burnt or unburnt. Acidic soil conditions may well have destroyed unburnt bone.



Plate 11: View of Ballykeel portal tomb, Co. Armagh (No. 32)

From the evidence, the majority of dolmens appear to have been covered with elongated sub-rectangular cairns, but short oval and round cairns do exist. Chambers are usually sub rectangular in plan, narrowing, but occassionly broadening, towards the rear. Many of the tombs are found in low-lying positions, often near streams as was the case with the Ballykeel Dolmen, near Camlough, Co. Armagh. Excavation of the Ballykeel dolmen showed the remains of a sub-rectangular cairn, some 28m in lenght with the tomb situated at the southern end. A large amount of pottery was found including some highly decorated vessels. Flint implements were also found. It was interesting that no bone survived, burnt or unburnt. Acidic soil conditions may well have destroyed the probable unburnt human bone interred within. Charcoal from the body of the cairn at Ballykeel provided a C14 date of 1742-1526 BC, though other portal dolmen excavations have yielded dates of the 4th millenium BC. The dolmen is charcaterised in many cases by the size of the capstone which is often massive. At Proleek, Co. Louth, the capstone is 30-40 tons in weight, though it is not the largest. The dolmen at Brownshill, Co. Carlow is 100 tons.

Charcoal from the body of the cairn at Ballykeel provided a C14 date of 1742-1526 BC, though ten C14 dates from a dolmen at Poulnabrone, Co. Clare, indicated that the burials

at that site dated between 3200 and 3800 BC. It has been suggested that the court tombs and portal tombs (dolmens) are contemporaneous as there are features of similarity between the portal tombs and court tombs. Both are entered through a pair of portal stones, while both have a similar shape of long cairn.

The dolmen is characterised in many cases by the size of the capstone which is often massive. At Proleek, Co. Louth, the capstone is 30-40 tons in weight, though it is not the largest. The dolmen at Brownshill, Co. Carlow is 100 tons.



Plate 12: View of Proleek portal tomb, Co. Louth (No. 45)

The dolmen is about 3m high and has a huge capstone weighing approximately 35 tons. The two front portal stones are two metres high. Known as the 'Giants Load'., it is a local legend that the dolmen was carried to Ireland by Scottish giant, Parrah Boug McShagean who is said to be buried nearby. In fact the Portal tombs were the front entrances to cairns of stone covering burials of Neolithic date. In the case of a great many of these toms, including Proleek portal tomb, there is no visible trace of a cairn. Such dolmens may have been contemporary with court tombs and may date from as early as 3800 BC. Burials, usually cremations were placed in the tombs and finds of flint, stone implements, pottery and beads have been found accompanying the cremation burials.

The knowledge of metallurgy brought an end to the period we know as the Neolithic in around 2000BC. It is unlikely that the new skill brought in a new people or that there was

an immediate change of culture and tradition. It is more likely that the need for minerals, such as lead and copper, which are found in Ireland, brought miners and metallurgists from overseas.

The fourth class of megalithic tomb, the Wedge tomb, was most probably present during the Neolithic and crossed the divide between the Neolithic and the Bronze Age. It will be discussed and illustrated in the section on the Bronze Age.

# 4. The Bronze Age

The Bronze Age (circa 2500-500 BC) is considered to have begun with the introduction of metallurgy to Ireland which occurred around 2400-2500 BC from our earliest radiocarbon dates. This simply meant that the technique of smelting ores and minerals to make bronze (e.g. copper with tin or arsenic) was introduced into Ireland. This phase coincides with the first appearance of the Beaker culture in Ireland and of single burials in pits and also with the appearance of the Food Vessel burial culture. Both these cultures are part of a wider European cultural tradition of the 3$^{rd}$ millennium BC. The presence in Ireland of these peoples may have been associated with prospecting and trade. Copper is found in the west of Ireland, particularly in Co. Clare and in Co. Cork. Gold is found in the Wicklow hills.
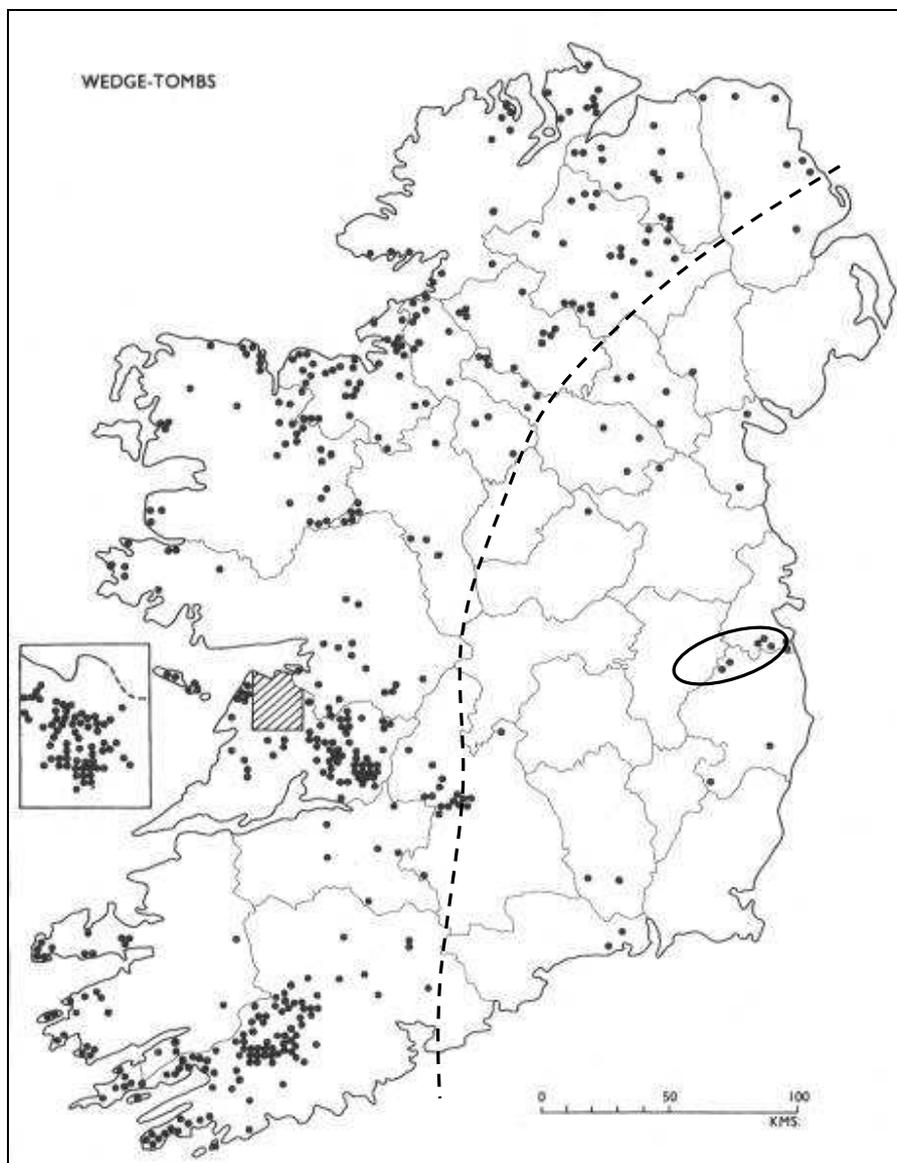
Figure 11: Distribution of wedge tombs in Ireland

Wedge tombs are one of the main forms of early Bronze Age burial. They are so called because they have typically one main chamber of a relatively narrow wedge shape or trapezoidal plan which decreases in height and width from front to rear. This main chamber is typically constructed of orthostats or standing stones and is roofed with one or more capstones. Cairns covering them were round, oval or D shaped. Though evolving from the Neolithic in Ireland, Wedge tombs typically produce Beaker pottery and are Bronze Age in date. Wedge tombs are concentrated in the west of Ireland from Sligo to west Cork but are most densely distributed in the Burren region of Co. Clare. They are distributed less densely across the northern counties to as far south east as Armagh, Cavan and Monaghan. Though they are scattered across the border counties, they are very sparse in the midlands, south and east of the country.

Though there was cultural change and the arrival of new groups, the indigenous culture is likely to have continued on. The Slieve Gullion tombs in Armagh are an example of continuity in tradition of burial. While the south cairn is Neolithic in date, the north cairn (see Slieve Gullion tombs in Chapter 2) is Bronze Age.



Plate 13: Proleek wedge tomb, Co. Louth (No. 46)

This wedge tomb is situated within the grounds of Ballymacscanlan house and is situated 80m from Proleek dolmen. The site comprises a gallery 6m in length and 1.5-1m in width. Eight large stones enclose the gallery and a roof stone is in position in the east end of the gallery. Wedge tombs are one of the main forms of early Bronze Age burial. They are so called because they have typically one main chamber of a relatively narrow wedge shape or trapezoidal plan which decreases in height and width from front to rear. This main chamber is typically constructed of orthostats or standing stones and is roofed with one or more capstones. Cairns covering them were round, oval or D shaped. Though evolving from the Neolithic in Ireland, Wedge tombs typically produce Beaker pottery and are Bronze Age in date.

Plate 14: Lisnadarragh wedge tomb, Co. Monaghan (No. 52)

Lisnadarragh wedge tomb comprises a narrow gallery surrounded by outer walling. The roofstone lies in the southeast of the gallery and the orthostats enclosing the gallery decrease in size from the southwest to the northeast. Wedge tombs are one of the main forms of early Bronze Age burial. They are so called because they have typically one main chamber of a relatively narrow wedge shape or trapezoidal plan which decreases in height and width from front to rear. This main chamber is typically constructed of orthostats or standing stones and is roofed with one or more capstones. Cairns covering them were round, oval or D shaped. Though evolving from the Neolithic in Ireland, Wedge tombs typically produce Beaker pottery and are Bronze Age in date.

The Bronze Age is divided into the Early Bronze Age, Middle Bronze Age and Late Bronze Age. The early and middle Bronze Age are characterised by the use of wedge tombs and the continuity in use of the megalithic tradition where a great many burials of Bronze Age date are found in cairns. It is characterised also by the advent of the Beaker and Food vessel cultures and the use of single burial. The burial cist found at Emyvale in Co. Monaghan with its single crouched burial and accompanying food vessel, probably placed there to sustain the dead in the afterlife, is one of the finest examples of such cists. Of course, it would be impossible to view the burial in the cist in situ. Once discovered, it was excavated by a team of archaeologists and reconstructed. It is now in the National Museum of Ireland. Some cists of probable Bronze Age date were found relating to a cairn at Fieldstown, Co. Louth.

Figure 12: Fieldstown cist, Co. Louth (No. 64) (after Buckley and Sweetman 1991, 65)

This site comprises a multiple cist cairn at Fieldstown. There are two cists and a possible third evident in the cairn at Fieldstown. Cist one has a capstone and two site stones. It is located in the north face of the cairn. Cist 2 is located in the east quadrant of the carin and has a loose captone. The interior of the tomb can be seen at one corner. A large capstone of a third possible cist is visible in the centre of the cairn.

Part of ritual in the early/mid Bronze Age were standing stones and stone circles. Many standing stones are the remnants of stone circles of Bronze Age date, which, in many cases, have been suggested to have a link to the movement of the earth around the sun. Occasionally burials are found relating to stone circles or standing stones. Ballard Standing Stone, Co. Armagh is one such example.

Plate 15: Ballard standing stone, Co. Armagh (No. 40)

The Ballard stone also known as 'the Longstone' is located in the Slieve Gullion area. It stands 1.5m in height and leans slightly to one side. It tapers gently into a fine point at the top. Such standing stones are mainly dated to the Bronze Age and were often parts of ring of standing stones which had a ritual or astronomical purpose. Burials have been found in relation to standing stones.

Rock Art is a feature of the continuity between the Neolithic and the early mid-Bronze Age and have been found occasionally in dateable contexts. The remarkable inscribings cut into rock depict motifs such as concentric circles or cup and ring marks, often marked by radial lines. What they mean is unknown. Examples are found all over Ireland but some fine examples have been found in the Border counties. An example is Carrick Robin, Co. Louth, while a field of carvings cut into rock outcrops have been found at Drummiril, Co. Monaghan.

Plates16 and 17: Rock art outcrops at Drummiril, Co. Monaghan (No. 60)

At least seventy examples of rock art can be seen at Drumirril (Droim Oirghialla). The area is known as Deerpark and rock art designs range from single cup shaped hollows to seven ringed cup designs. The cup and ring mark is the most commonly found motif in rock art and tends to be seen near places where copper or gold ores were smelted. It has been suggested that these sites may have had a ritual significance.

Throughout the Bronze Age and indeed into the Iron Age and medieval periods, one of the most widespread monuments is the burnt mound conventionally called the *Fulacht Fiadh* or 'cooking pit'. It is a mound usually crescent shaped, formed of burnt stones with associated pits for boiling water, and hearths. The mounds are usually found near a source of water and often are found in wetland or marshy areas.

The classical explanation for the *fulacht fiadh (pl. fulachta fiadh)* is that they were ancient cooking places or 'cooking places or the Fianna', where they were used to cook meat by boiling in water-filled troughs. With the water heated using stones heated in hearths and deposited in the troughs. When the stones were used they were thrown in heaps around the trough before it was reused.

Generally examples of *fulachta fiadh* are not found in the field. They are found during development and by farmers. Excavation usually reveals everything we know about them and they are of course destroyed in the excavation process. Below is an example of a *fulacht fiadh from* Ballymaclode in Co. Waterford with a Bronze Age bracelet which was found during its excavation.

Plate 18: *Fulacht fiadh* from Ballymaclode, Co. Waterford with Bronze Age gold bracelet found during excavation
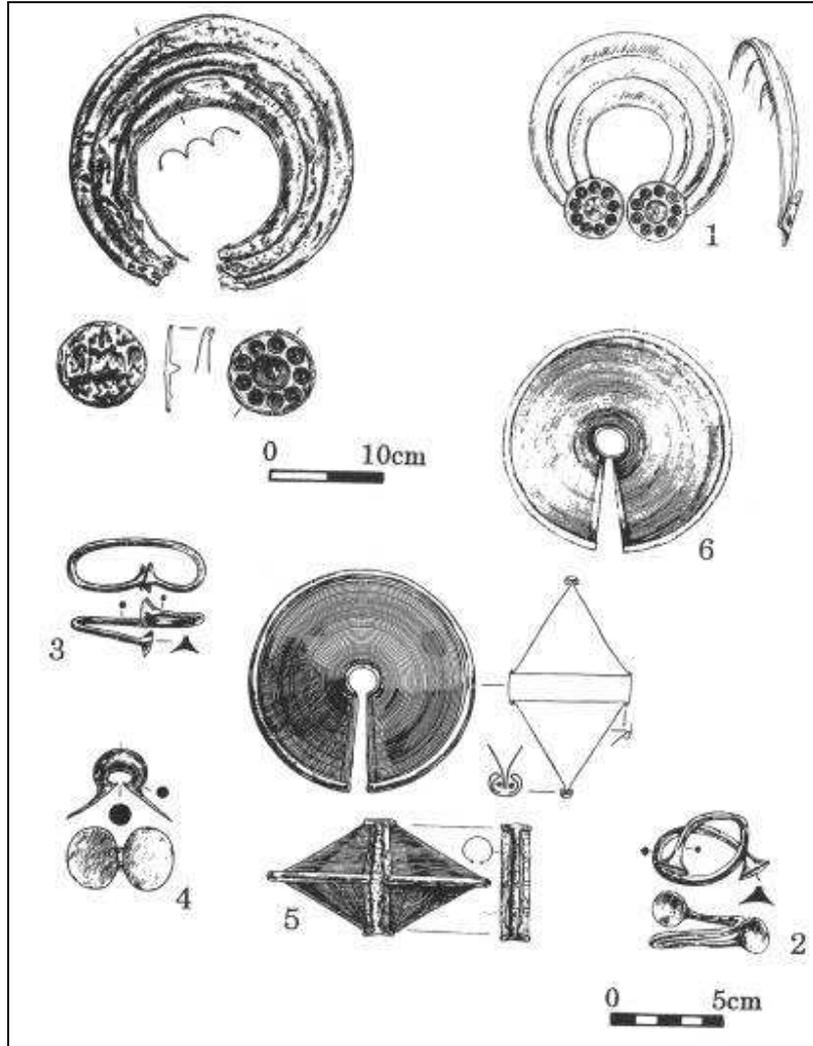
Figure 13: Hoard of gold objects from Gorteenreagh, Co. Clare


The Late Bronze Age (1500-500 AD) saw much technological development, for example in the technique of casting weapons and tools. The increased contact with Britain and the rest of Europe is reflected in the trade of goldwork and many elaborate gold ornament types are found distributed, often in hoards, around the country.

Cremation burials in plain, bucket-shaped urns of coarse pottery are typical of the Late Bronze Age. Cremation burials are usually related to ringbarrows which are circular bank and ditch structures, with internal ditches and low interior mounds. The practice of cremation burial in ringbarrows is attested to by the large number of such monuments found to be of this date, though ringbarrows can be earlier and also continue into the Iron Age.

Plate 19: Collon Barrow, Co. Louth (No. 66)

This site is a ringbarow and is located on the top of Mount Oriel. It comprises a circular round topped mound enclosed by a fosse. The ringbarrow is a burial mound and would have contained burials, usually cremated, and accompanied by pottery and perhaps metal or glass or ornaments. Usually ringbarrows occur in cemeteries and there are two other barrows located close by. The ringbarrows usually date to the Late Bronze Age or Iron Age.



Plate 20: Coarseware pottery of late Bronze Age

Ritual sites such as the King's Stables in Co. Armagh belong to the Late Bronze Age. The exact nature of this site is unknown, but it may have been a votive site, or a place of offerings or sacrifices. A cut portion of a young adult, probably male, was found at the bottom of the lake when it was excavated.

Plate 21: The King's Stables, Co. Armagh (No. 99)

The King's Stables is located 1km from Navan Fort and comprises a deep man made pool. The pool is 30m wide and 2-3m in depth and is enclosed by a bank. It is thought that the site was used as a ritual lake. Excavation revealed finds of animal bones, clay moulds for making bronze swords and the facial part of the skull of a young adult, probably male.



Figure 14: Haughey's Fort from the south (No. 100) (photo: Queen's University, Belfast)

Haughey's Fort is approximately 1km west of Navan Fort. The site comprised a large silted up ditch and two outer ditches. Excavations at the site revealed it was occupied at the same time as the King's Stable and is of Late Bronze Age date. The site is larger and older than Navan Fort. Gold ornaments, Bronze Age pottery, animal bone and

carbonised seeds were found during excavation. It has been suggested that Haugheys Fort may have been an aristocratic settlement in the Bronze Age however it has also been suggested that the site may have had a ceremonial or ritual purpose.  During drainage works at the nearby Loughnashade four large bronze horns were found along with a number of human skulls and other bones.



Plate 22: Drumbanagher hillfort, Co. Monaghan (No. 63)

The site comprises an oval earthen bank enclosure with an external fosse. The site is a possible Iron Age site but with possible Viking associations.

Hillforts, defensive enclosures, which may have related to the *oppida* of the Continental celts were built first in the Late Bronze Age but were occupied into the Iron Age.  The first hillforts such as Rathgall, Co. Wicklow and Mooghan, Co. Clare were occupied by the Late Bronze Age and may have formed the main dwelling places of the population. They were defensive sites with earth and stone bank and ditch ramparts following the contour of a hill, with inner concentric ditches. Haugheys Fort in County Armagh is a defensive fort in the same tradition. It is late Bronze Age in date, 1100-900 BC but was occupied later, in the Iron Age also. It consists of an oval enclosure surrounded by two concentric ditches and at its widest is 350m across.

The Late Bronze Age ends with the introduction of iron working to Ireland in around 500 BC.

## 5. The Iron Age

Around 500 BC iron was introduced to Ireland and early examples of ironworking suggest that the technique was learned by Bronze Age metallurgists. These examples include the Drumlane, Co. Cavan cauldron and the cauldron from Lisdrumturk, Co. Monaghan which was made in the Bronze Age fashion. Axe heads similar to late Bronze Age types in style, but made in iron, were provenanced in the one of the Lough Mourne crannógs in Co. Antrim. It is interesting that these examples of early Ironworking are in the border counties and north of Ireland.

Some archaeologists have suggested that iron was brought about by a wave of invasions from the Continent and indeed there is some indication from legends that population groups such as the 'Milesians' from Spain invaded Ireland as a result of Roman conquests. There is some evidence of influence from the continental La Téne because of the use of the La Téne art style to decorate a large amount of swords, bridle bits, gold objects and stones but there is no evidence to suggest an influx of new peoples on any scale.

However, a major cultural change coinciding with the first introduction of ironworking is indicated by the disappearance of a whole range of bronze and gold types so typical of the Late Bronze Age somewhere around the mid-first millennium BC.

Iron swords and weaponry increased the potential and capability for warfare and a more warlike tribal society emerged in the Late Bronze Age and early Iron Age. The population appears to have lived in hillforts, crannógs and major defensive sites, such as the site of Emain Macha or Navan fort or the large circular earthen enclosures at Tara, Co. Meath or Knockaulin, Co. Kildare.
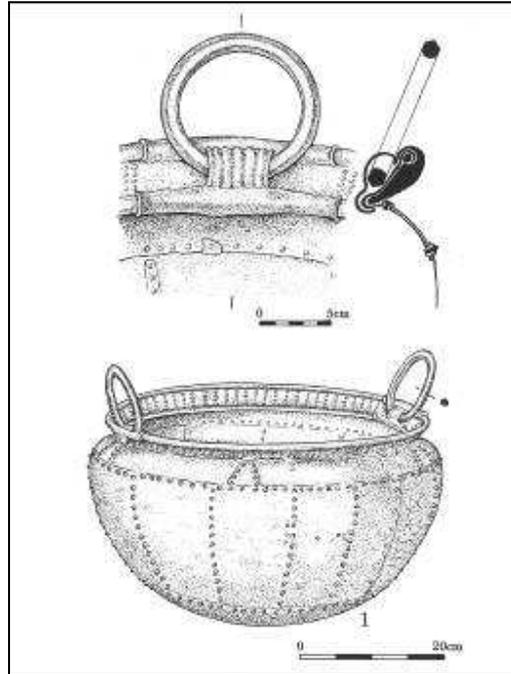
Figure 15: Cauldron from Lisdrumturk, Co. Monaghan
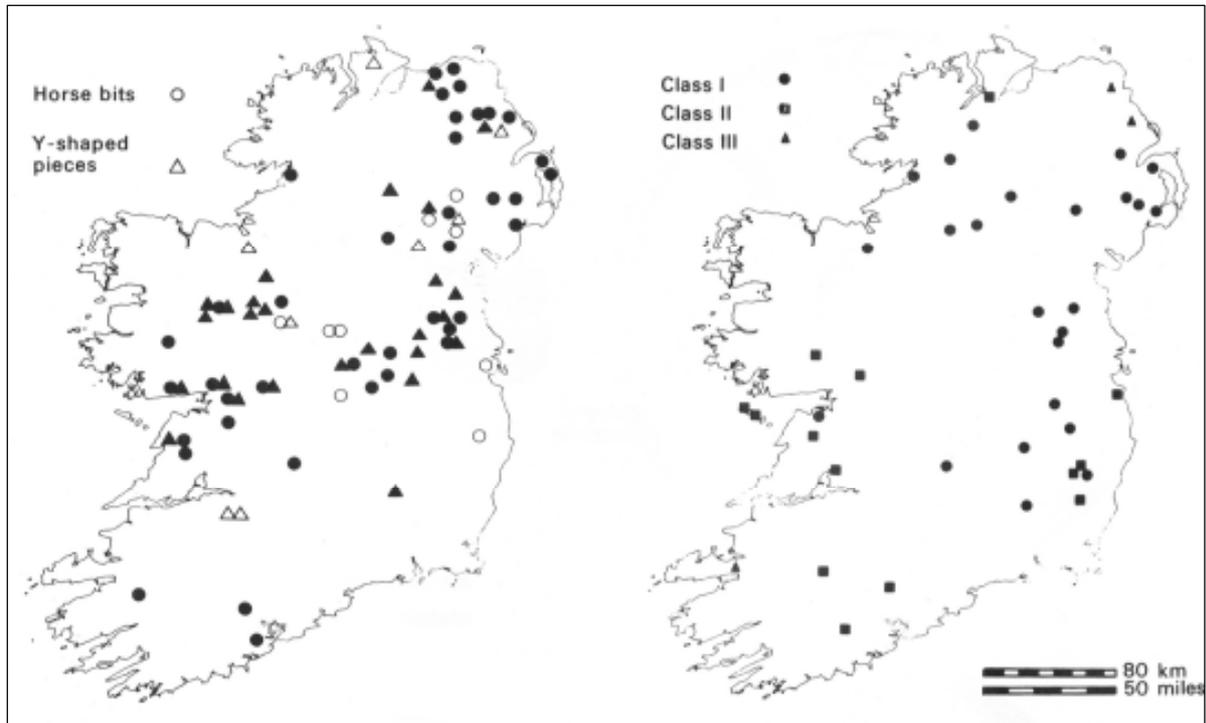


Figure 16:    Left: Distrobution map of bridle-bits and Y-shaped pieces.
             Right: Distribution of hill-forts

Iron Age people used tools of iron, weapons and ornaments of iron and bronze and beads of glass. As we have little pottery from this period, it is likely that wood was used for ordinary domestic vessels. To give an idea of the ordinary vessels people used, the wood vessels (below) from Co. Armagh has been radiocarbon dated to 213 BC to 61 AD. Its handle is in the La Téne style current on the Continent and Britain.
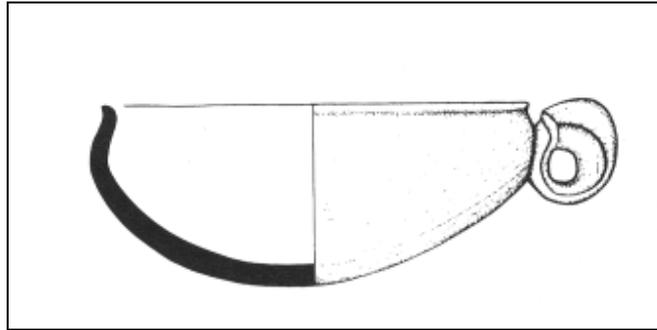


Figure 17: Wooden bowl from Co. Armagh
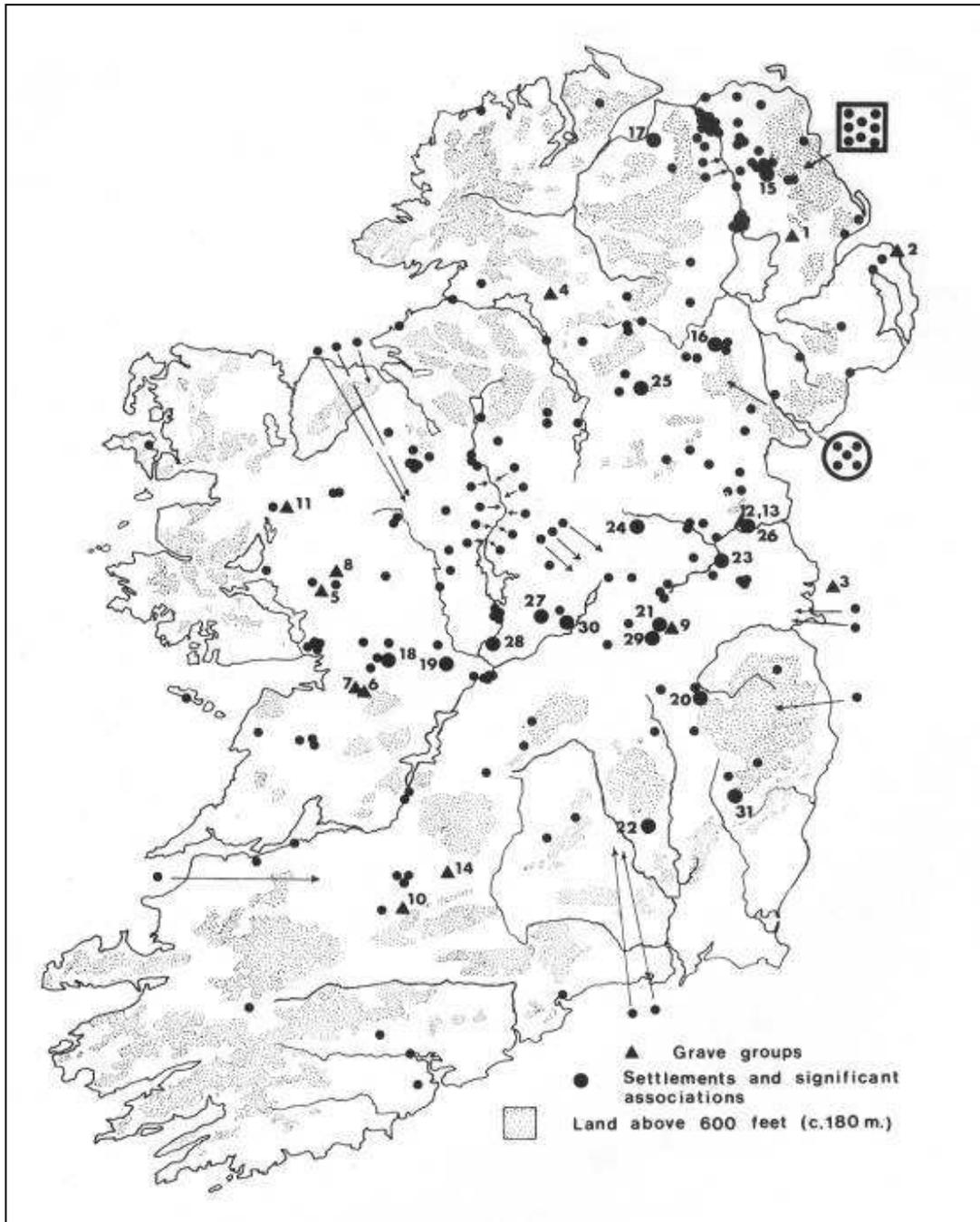
Figure 18: Distribution map of La Téne metalwork and related material in Ireland

The Iron Age in Ireland is well represented very well around the border counties and north of Ireland. The highly decorated swords in the La Téne style found at Lisnacroghera crannóg, Co. Antrim are some of the best examples of the Continental La Téne style and reflect the heroic culture of legend that emerged in Ireland by the Iron Age. The distribution of Iron Age decorated bronze bridle bits and Y shaped pieces is interesting and shows these objects concentrated in the north-east of the country.

Navan fort or Emain Macha in Co. Armagh, a massive circular enclosure, a mound and a ringbarrow, is one of the most important sites of the period in Ireland. In the myths and legends of the Ulaidh (the Ulstermen) Emain Macha is shown to be a royal headquarters. The fort dates to the latest centuries BC and produced evidence of a large wooden house in its interior. It is part of the Navan complex in which monuments date back to early prehistory. Nearby is Haughey's Fort (last chapter) which dates to the late Bronze Age but was also occupied in the Iron Age.



Plate 23: Navan Fort, Co. Armagh (No. 91)

Plate 24: The uppermost mound of Navan Fort, Co. Armagh (No. 91)

Navan Fort, also known as Emain Macha ('the ring of Macha' is one of its translations) was the residence of the Kings of Ulster in the Iron Age. It features in the Tain, the heroic saga of the 'Cattle raid of Cooley' which dates to the pre-Christian period. One king, King Conchobar, ruled the kingdom of Ulaidh from Emain Macha and is said to have had three great halls, one for the Kings, one for weaponry and one for severed heads.  One interesting find from the archaeological excavations at Navan Fort was the skull of a Barbary ape indicating wide trade and contact. The site of Emain Macha or Navan Fort is very roughly circular in shape and is surrounded by a large ditch enclosing an area of 12 acres. The ditch was excavated in 1998 though excavations had been taking place since the 1970s. At the bottom of the ditch, excavation revealed a timber oak beam dendrochronologically dated to the 90s BC. An elegant lathe turned wooden bowl was found here also. The ditch was therefore shown to be the same date as the Dorsey, the great defensive ditch close by (discussed separately here) which traditionally divided the territory of the Ulaidh, from which the name Ulster was derived. Within the enclosure area of Navan fort, there are two important sites: a late prehistoric burial monument known as a ringbarrow (site A) and a large artificial mound (Site B), a 5m high feature, found, under the tosoil to comprise a cairn of limestone boulders. Excavation of Site A revealed wooden huts under the mound, pottery of Late Bronze Age date, a rare weaving comb of early Iron Age date and other objects. Later, the site was used as a burial site, when a ringbarrow was built over the structures. The excavation of Site B showed that In 100BC the houses were cleared and a circular structure, 40m in diameter was built. The structure comprised a large central post and four rings of posts within an outer post-ring wall. It was later filled with limestone rocks and it has been demonstrated by the excavator (Chris Lynn) that a huge wooden structure was burned. It has been suggested by Lynn that the structure of Site B may have been a ritual burning, possibly of a wicker idol such as that recorded by the Romans in Britain. Close by is the ritual site of Loughnashade where four decorated ritual trumpets of Iron Age date were found-probably votive offerings; Haugheys fort and the Kings Stables, also probably a votive site, are also close by. Navan Fort has been an important site throughout history and is thought to have influenced the establishment of Ard Macha nearby.  The King of Ulster, Brian Boru camped at Navan Fort in 1005 and Niall O'Neill built a house there in 1387.



Figure 19: Aerial view of Navan Fort, Co. Armagh, from the north-west (No. 91)

Plate 25: Lisleitrim crannóg, Co. Armagh (No. 68)

Lisleitrim crannog is located in Lisleitrim lough. A small excavation of the crannog revealed a cooking spit, iron pot, finds of pottery and layers of ash and charcoal. The site is located close to Lisleitrim multivallate rath which is suggested to have been a royal rath.

Crannógs were also occupied during the Iron Age though these sites are mostly early to late medieval in date. Lisleitrim crannóg, Co. Armagh, is an example.

In the border counties are the remains of several linear earthworks which appear to be territorial divisions, the most famous of which is the Black Pig's Dyke. These have been identified in Counties Armagh, Cavan, Down, Leitrim and Monaghan. The *Black Pigs Dyke* runs in several sections close to the present border. A section near Scotshouse in Monaghan, close to the Fermanagh border, was excavated and was found to have consisted of a timber palisade. Oak timbers produced a date of 390-70 BC. *The Dorsey* in Co. Armagh, 5 km north-east of Crossmaglen is a series of earthworks and timber palisades which appear to form an irregularly rectangular enclosure of some 68 hectares. The name comes from the Irish word *Doirse*, the doors, and reflects the tradition that this earthwork was believed to be the gateway to the north. Oak timbers from the palisade were dated by dendochronology to 100-90 BC and 140BC. *The Danes Cast* is another similar ditch defence between Down and Armagh.

It is interesting that the distribution of La Téne material is concentrated in the northern half of Ireland. Though there is a concentration to the north-east of Ireland, the distribution of the material runs in a line, roughly extending from Louth to Westmeath and Westmeath to Galway. The border between the *Ulaidh* or Ulstermen and the rest of the country may therefore have been more southwards during the Iron Age.

Plate 26: The Dane's Cast, Co. Down (No. 5)

The Dane's Cast is an Iron Age ditch which comprised a ditch and bank and spans 2km from the south end of Camlough to the townland of Aghayalloge, southeast of the main Newry to Meigh Road. It measures approximately 15m in width and consists of a rough stone wall, a 3-4m wide ditch and an earthen bank 1m high and 5-6m wide. The wall is not an original feature of the Cast. There are a number of folklore tales relating to 'The Dane's Cast'. In the townland of Killyfaddy the Dane's Cast is known locally as 'The Hog's Back' and is said to be haunted by a ghostly pig. In fact, this story probably comes from the fact that it is one of a group of Iron Age ditches in the area, including the 'Black Pigs Dyke' which has a similar story attached to it. The Danes Cast is one of a group of linear earthworks which appear to be territorial divisions and where dated, have been dated to the Iron Age, in the century before and just after the birth of Christ. The most famous of these ditches is the Black Pigs Dyke. The ditches, the first border defences, have been identified in Counties Armagh, Cavan, Down, Leitrim and Monaghan.

Plate 27: The Dorsey, Co. Armagh (No. 42)

The Dorsey is an Iron Age defence which spans 4km and encloses 300 acres. The defence system comprised massive dykes, banks and ditches and a wooden palisade. Oak timbers from the palisade were dated by dendochronology to 100-90 BC and 140BC. The dating from the wooden palisade revealed that the timber had the same date as that used in Navan fort and that there may have been a link between the two sites. It is possible that the Dorsey controlled access to Navan fort. The name comes from Doirse, the doors, reflects the tradition that this earthwork was believed to be the gateway to the north. It would suggest that the site was used as an access way through the Kingdom of Ulster who's capital was Emain Macha, Navan fort. It is also thought that The Dorsey may have been part of a more extensive defensive system. In the border counties are the remains of several linear earthworks which appear to be territorial divisions, the most famous of which is the Black Pigs Dyke. These sections have been identified in Counties Armagh, Cavan, Down, Leitrim and Monaghan.

The Táin Bó Cúilgne or the cattle raid of Cooley was translated from early Irish texts by Thomas Kinsella in the 1960s. These writings are thought to preserve oral history/legend from an age predating Christianity in Ireland.

They reflect, as heroic sagas, highly coloured graphic accounts of the magnificence of warriors and their prowess in battle. Emain Macha is mentioned in the Táin which reflects a tribal society, based on cattle as its main form of wealth. It is also one of war and kingship. As the Iron Age emerged into early history we find that tribal groups in Ireland formed under a series of kingships.

Prior to Christianity, the most usual form of burial during the Iron Age was cremation in ringditches/ringbarrows. There are several Iron Age burials known from ringbarrows (which are also found in the Bronze Age, see above, Collon ringbarrow) in which the cremated remains are placed within the ditch of the circular barrow, accompanied often with melted glass beads. These were on the corpse when it was cremated. Ornaments of

bronze such as La Téne or Roman type fibulae and objects of iron are also found in ringbarrows and again probably adorned the corpse. In the early centuries AD, however, probably as a result of influences from Roman Britain, inhumation burial was introduced. This involved burial in stone lined cists, a burial tradition which became country wide with the advent of Christianity and lasted well into the medieval period.

Stone idols such as the Tangadree, Co. Armagh idol and the Boa Island idols as well as decorated stones, are features of Iron Age Ireland. The stones are decorated with La Téne type decoration and include such stones as the Killycluggin, Co. Cavan stone, the Derrykeighan, Co. Antrim stone or the Turoe stone, Co. Galway. The Tangadree, Co. Armagh, idol is now in Armagh Cathedral (CoI).
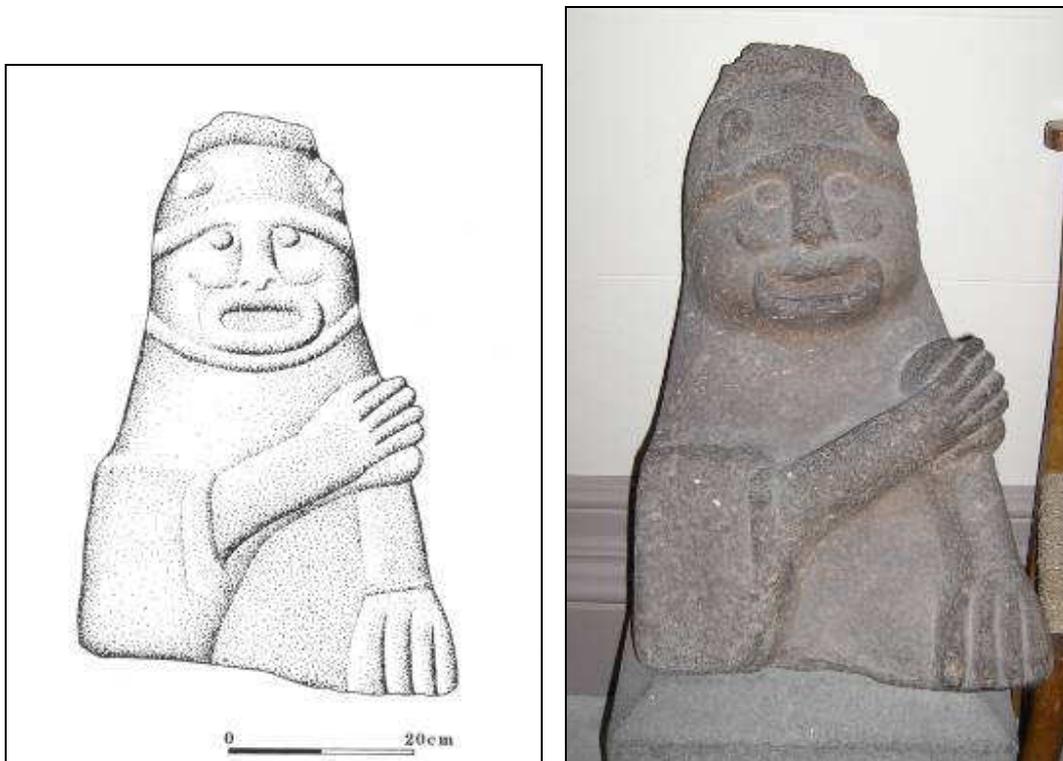


Figure 20 and Plate 28: The Tandragee Idol, Co. Armagh (No. 6)

The Tandragee idol is a free standing stone anthropomorphic figure of a possible soldier. The carving is one of a group dating to the Iron Age, possibly La Téne, which would also include the Boa Island, Co. Fermanagh figures. It is likely to date to around the first century BC to the 1st century AD. Found in Tandragee, Co. Armagh, the carving is now on display in Armagh Cathedral.

It is interesting that the distribution of La Téne material is concentrated in the northern half of Ireland. Though there is a concentration to the north-east of Ireland, the distribution of the material runs in a line, roughly extending from Louth to Westmeath

and Westmeath to Galway.  The border between the *Ulaidh* or Ulstermen and the rest of the country may therefore have been more southwards during the Iron Age.

## 6. The early medieval period

The early medieval period is the term used by historians to describe the period between 410 AD, the date of Roman withdrawal from Britain, and 1000 AD. Though the Romans did not invade Ireland and there are no Roman settlement sites known from Ireland, the impact of Roman civilisation, and its decline, in the rest of Europe affected Ireland in many ways. 1000 AD is the date usually given for the end of the early medieval period, as towns and urban settlement sprang up over Europe around this date. In Dublin, for example, the first coins were minted in 997 AD.

The early medieval period brings Ireland for the first time into the light of history. Before the fifth century we have no contemporary writings, though later records such as the annals of Ulster and the Leabhar Gabhala, record events carried by oral tradition. With the beginning of Christianity, records, writings, manuscripts and letters give us a picture of life in Ireland during the period between 400 and 1000 AD.

The most important events during this period were the introduction and spread of Christianity, the Viking raids and settlements and the emergence of such powerful tribal groups as the Uí Néill. A very large number of settlement sites such as ringforts and crannógs sprang up over Ireland. Ringforts are the most widespread field monument in Ireland. Most of the crannógs known belong to this time, though crannógs do appear to have been first constructed and occupied during the Late Bronze Age and the Iron Age. Monastic sites sprang up across Ireland, forming the origin of a very large number of Irish towns and cities.



Plate 29: Corliss fort, Co. Armagh (No. 82)

Corliss fort is a large bivallate rath. The site is known locally as 'The Beech Fort' or 'Donaghy's Fort'. It has two banks surrounding it and an intervening ditch. The site overlooks a crannog in Lough Ross and two other forts in the townland of Lisamry and Tullyard. A souterrain is present in the centre of the rath and is built of drystone walling. The fort is surrounded by beech trees which are thought to have been planted by the landowner and there are two entrances to the fort which the landowner is thought to have altered in the 19th century to enhance the appearance of the site. Excavation was carried out at the site in 1939 and revealed evidence of postholes surrounding the outer edge of the inner bank. These may indicate evidence of a timber palisade which would have been a defensive feature. Corliss fort is a good example of an early Christian farmstead. Though such forts are predominantly 7th to 10th century AD in date, the fort may have been lived in up until the 17th century.

Christianity probably came to Ireland to Ireland before the arrival of St. Patrick, but it was Patrick who arrived in Ireland as a missionary in 432 AD and who had a major impact on the country. He famously converted the high king at Tara, thus opening the country to wide scale conversion, and set up the earliest churches. The northern Irish saint of the 6$^{th}$ century, Columba, had a far reaching influence on Western European monasticism. Columba set up monasteries in Ireland and the Scottish island of Iona and his disciples travelled around the Continent as missionaries.

Many monuments can be attributed to the period of the early church. Ogham stones and grave slabs, early pillar stones and stone pillars with incipient cross arms belong to this early period. Kileavy stone pillar is one example and probably belongs to around the 6$^{th}$ or 7$^{th}$ century.



Plate 30: Kileavy church, Co. Armagh (No. 43)

Killevy meaning 'Church of the Mountain' is the site of an early convent founded by St. Moninna (Locally known as St. Bline) in the 6th century. It is situated on the eastern slopes of Slieve Gullion.Vikings raided the site between 795AD and 830AD and in 923AD. The convent was later re-established in the Middle Ages as a house of Augustinian canonesses and was dissolved in 1542 under the Suppression of monasteries by Henry VIII. The site at Killevy contains

the ruins of two churches dating from the 10th and 15th centuries. There may have been a round tower in the southwest area of the early church which is thought to have been blown down in 1768. A souterrain was found in the graveyard at Killevy but has been sealed over for preservation. The holy well known as St. Bline's Well has a path leading to it along the north wall of the graveyard and up the mountain. In the north part of the graveyard there is a plain granite slab which is said to mark St. Moninna's grave.

As the Christian church in Ireland grew churches became monasteries. In many cases large, informal settlements grew up around them. Around the country, monastic sites were contained in wide enclosures of irregular and curvilinear shape. Usually there was a nucleus enclosure which contained the church and monastic houses. This was surrounded by a wide outer enclosure which contained houses, industrial areas and burial areas. In a great many examples the outer enclosure contains the shape of what became a medieval town and forms the basis for modern towns.

People were now usually buried in the monastic enclosures close to the churches. Christian burials were always inhumations extended lengthways, orientated with their faces to the east.
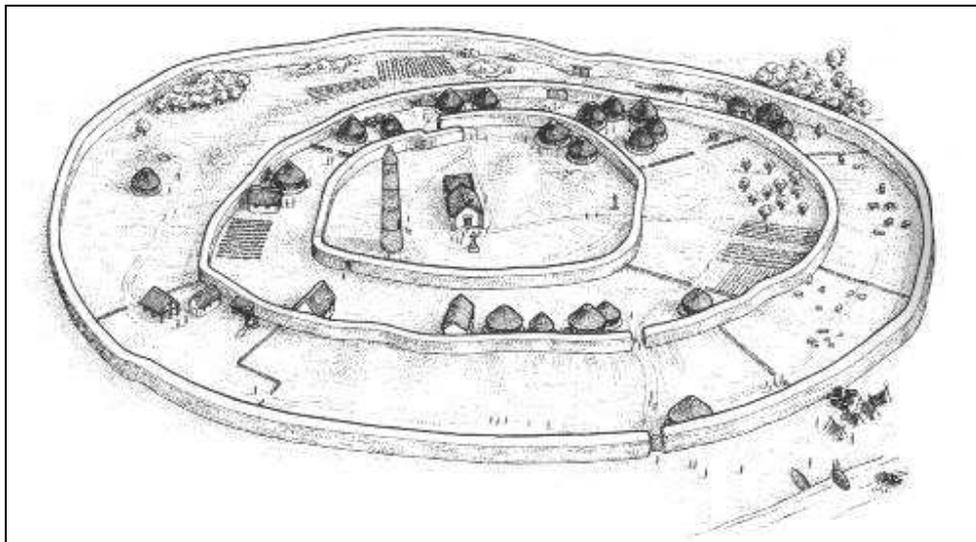


Figure 21: The early Christian monastery of Nendrum, Co. Lough
(after A. Hamlin, 1977 'The modern traveller to the early Irish church')

This monastery was founded as early as the 5<sup>th</sup> century by St. Mochaoi. Excavations have shown that its various quarters were divided by a series of concentric walls. This plan was typical of the early monastic sites in Ireland.

Plate 31: Termonfeckin High Cross, Co. Louth (No. 95)

Termonfeckin monastery was founded by St. Fechin in 665 and Arroasain cannons were established here by Donchad O'Carroll, probably around 1144-8, at the time of St. Malachy. The monastery was suppressed in 1539 at which time it appears to have been a nunnery. The monastic remains survive in the graveyard of the Church of Ireland church at Termonfeckin.There is a decorated sandstone high cross in the graveyard. It has a ringed head with a house-shaped shrine at the top. The shaft of the cross is decorated with panels of interlacing on the east face, one with snakes and dragons in combat. The panels on the west face of the shaft have interlace and angular fret and knot patterns. The head of the cross has a crucifixion scene on one side and Christ in Glory on the other. The cross dates to the 9th or 10th century AD. The base of the cross is recent in origin.

Plate 32: Kilbroney cross, Co. Down (No. 20)

This site of Kilbroney or 'Church of Bronach' is associated with St. Bronach, a 6th century saint who founded a convent here and this site would appear to have continued in use through the medieval period. There are two crosses in the graveyard of the site. One, a free standing crucifix, is decorated in interlace and fretwork and is thought to date from the late 8th and early 9th century. The date of the other cross is probably 6th or 7th century and may be an early type of face cross, though it has also been suggested to be a post-medieval grave slab. At the north side of the church are the ruined nave and chancel of a 15th or 16th century church. St. Bronachs Bell, an early medieval church bell was also found at this site around 1800 and is now is St. Mary's Catholic Church, Rostrevor.

Plate 33: Kilnasaggart standing stone, Co. Armagh (No. 41)

The Kilnasaggart pillar stone lies on the *Slighe Midhluachra*, one of the five great roads of Ireland which ran from Tara through the Moyry Pass to Dunseverick in Antrim. The area is also part of 'the Gap of the North'. An excavation carried out around the stone has revealed that there was an early Christian graveyard surrounding the stone and a map by Bodley in 1609 depicts a roofless church in the area. The lands belonged to the Armagh Culdees at this time and these were a Christian sect of anchorite monks. The stone has thirteen crosses carved on it, and an inscription which records the dedication of the place by Ternoc, son of Ceran Bic, under the patronage of Peter the Apostle. The Kilnasaggart stone can be dated to the late 7th or early 8th century as Ternoc's death is recorded in the annals as 714 or 716 AD.

High crosses developed from the early incipient crosses and were soon erected countrywide with the basic purpose of teaching the illiterate population. A great many high crosses of the 9th and 10th centuries, in particular, are decorated with biblical scenes.

The golden age of Irish monasticism, including missionary activity to Britain and the Continent, was brought to an end by the Viking attacks which began in late eighth century.

As a measure of protection during the Viking invasions, round towers were added to monasteries. These were tall, narrow, circular stone buildings with conical roofs. Doors were placed high in the buildings and access such as ladders would presumably have been removed during Viking raids by those who sought refuge there. The towers may also have been bell towers.

Plate 34: Clones round tower, Co. Monaghan (No. 92)

Plate 35: St. Kevin's Shrine, Clones, Co. Monaghan (No. 92)

Clones 12th century church is located in a graveyard in Clones town. It site is known locally as 'The Abbey' and comprises the nave and chancel of a church. There is a chancel arch and a round headed window.



Plate 36: Iniskeen church and round tower, Co. Monaghan (No. 53)

This is an ecclesiastical site in the village of Inishkeen. Inishkeen takes its name from *Inis Caoin Dega* meaning the beautiful island of Daig. St. Daig founded a church in Inniskeen in the 6th century. The remains of Inishkeen round tower dating to around the 10th century stand in the graveyard of the site. The tower is about 12.6m high and its door is 4m above the ground. The site is close to the river Fane and it is recorded that the monks of the monastery had a mill there. The parish church was located on the site in the middle ages and remains of the medieval church are still visible.

Plate 37: Tynan Cross, Armagh (No.103)

Tynan was the site of an Early Christian Monastery founded by Saint Vindic. In the 1306 papal taxation, Tynan was listed as a parish which suggests the monastery was succeeded by a Medieval parish church. There are at least four high crosses in the area, the most striking of which is the Tynan village cross. The cross has been moved a number of times and now stands on the roadside in Tynan village. It is thought that Tynan cross is made from the parts of at least two or three other crosses.

Ringforts are described as the most widespread field monument in Ireland. Sean P. O Ríordáin's definition is given here as follows: In its simplest form the ringfort may be described as *a space most frequently circular, surrounded by a bank and fosse or simply by a rampart of stone. The bank is generally built by piling up inside the fosse the material obtained by digging the latter. Ringforts vary very considerably in size. In the more elaborately defended examples, the examples take up a much greater area than that of the enclosure.* Ringforts are usually made up of one bank and ditch, the ditch on the outside of the bank. There are a large number of two-banked (bi-vallate) forts or multi-vallate forts. Ringforts usually, when excavated, produce evidence of a small number of house structures suggesting that one or two structures stood at one time within the enclosure. The enclosure is therefore likely to have been a simple, defended farmstead. Evidence of domestic habitation is usually found during excavation: pottery, iron and bronze objects, often pins, brooches, glass beads, bone pins, combs or spindle whorls, iron slag suggesting ironwork nearby, as well as the bones of cattle, sheep and pigs. Occasionally corn-drying kilns were used for the drying of cereals. The evidence would suggest that ringforts are domestic dwellings or farmsteads. There are relatively few weapons found in ringforts suggesting that their nature was primarily domestic.

Plate 38: Tullyrain ringfort, Co. Monaghan (No. 47)

Tullyrain ringfort comprises a circular enclosure surrounded by two earthen banks and an intervening fosse. There is a causewayed entrance at the east side. Ringforts typically date between the 7th and the 10th century AD. Usually, when excavated, they produce evidence of a small number of house structures suggesting that one or two structures stood at one time within the enclosure. The enclosure is therefore likely to have been a simple, defended farmstead. Evidence of domestic habitation is usually found during excavation: pottery, iron and bronze objects, often pins, brooches glass beads, bone pins, combs or spindle whorls, iron slag suggesting ironwork nearby, as well as the bones of cattle, sheep and pigs. Occasionally corn drying kilns were used for the drying of cereals. The evidence would suggest that ringforts are domestic dwellings or farmsteads. There are relatively few weapons found on ringforts suggesting that their nature was primarily domestic.

## Plate 39: Lisleitrim fort, Co. Armagh (No. 80)

Lisleitrim rath is a multivallate rath located on a hill overlooking Lisleitrim Lough. The site is known locally as "the hero's important fort'. There is a souterrain in the centre of the rath which is now closed up. The rath is thought to be a royal rath given its size and its close proximity to the crannog.



## Plate 40: Lisnavaragh ringfort, Co. Down (No. 116) (insets: showing internal banks and ditches)

Lisnavaragh fort is a tri-vallate ringfort with a causewayed entrance orientated approximately north-south. The banks are still standing to a height of more than 2m in places. The banks are extensively overgrown with trees. Ringforts typically date between the 7th and the 10th century AD. Usually, when excavated, they produce evidence of a small number of house structures suggesting that one or two structures stood at one time within the enclosure. The enclosure is therefore likely to have been a simple, defended farmstead. Evidence of domestic habitation is usually found during excavation: pottery, iron and bronze objects, often pins, brooches glass beads, bone pins, combs or spindle whorls, iron slag suggesting ironwork nearby, as well as the bones of cattle, sheep and pigs. Occasionally corn drying kilns were used for the drying of cereals. The evidence would suggest that ringforts are domestic dwellings or farmsteads. There are relatively few weapons found on ringforts suggesting that their nature was primarily domestic.

Plate 41: Lisnagade fort, Co. Down (No. 111)

Lisnagade fort is an early medieval multivallate rath. It consists of three banks of up to 6m in height, which surrounds the site, and the inner area is 60m in diameter. A smaller rath is located to the north of this. Lisnagade meaning "the fort of a hundred". A number of silver coins, a brass cauldron and spear-heads have been found at the site. In 1783 a battle took place at Lisnagade fort between two apposing religious factions, the Catholic Hearts of Steel and the Protestant Break of day boys. At which a number of Hearts of Steel lost their lives. In 1789 the Loughbrickland Protestants clashed with Catholics at Lisnagade on their way to the commemoration of the Battle of Aughrim at Gilford. This became known as the Lisnagade Riot.

Crannógs are found all over the country but are very prevalent in the north and midlands. They are found in lakes or in marshy or boggy lands. In many cases, these wetlands were once lakes. Crannógs are artificial islands made with layers of brushwood and wooden platforms. They were surrounded by wooden palisades and contained within a small number of hut sites. They were dwelling places, much the same as ringforts, but may have functioned also as refuges. There is more of a tendency for crannógs to produce richer and finer material, indicating that their occupants were higher in social status. The richest and best known crannóg is Lagore Crannóg in County Meath which early Irish records tell us was the seat of the Úi Néill kings of Brega, Co. Meath who lived there from the 7th to the 10th century AD. Crannógs were occupied in prehistory too, as we have seen, and formed defensive sites for the Gaelic lords well into the 17th century.

The Úi Néill, the ancestors of the 16th and 17th century O'Neills of Ulster and the descendants of Niall of the Nine Hostages, a pre-Christian king, were powerful during the early medieval period in the northern half of Ireland. They were divided into two groups. The northern Úi Néill dominated most of the north west of the country from Sligo to Derry. The southern Úi Néill a large area of land from North Dublin and Louth to Westmeath. Very powerful in the 7th to 10th century, the Úi Néill dominated other tribal groups in the area, obliging local kings to pay tribute to them but offering protection in return. To the north-east were the Ulaidh and the Airgialla, once in the north-midlands of Tyrone and Armagh. Both were pushed eastwards and Argyle in Scotland became the home of the latter. The name Scotland comes from the Latin *Scotia*, meaning 'Irish'.

The Vikings raids commenced at the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century and from then on the Vikings were a significant presence in Ireland. They raided monastic sites in particular, and it was for refuge from the Vikings for the monks of Iona off the coast of Scotland that the famous monastery of Kells in Co. Meath, was founded in circa 804 AD. The Book of Kells now in Trinity College is associated with this monastic site. The Vikings, by the 10<sup>th</sup> century had settled down as traders and had founded several major towns in Ireland, including Dublin and Waterford.



Plate 42: Lisanisk crannóg, Co. Monaghan (No. 114)

A crannóg is an artificial island built usually of brushwood and held together with stakes and piles, usually in a marsh or lake. Some crannógs date from the Late Bronze Age, but most were built during the early and late medieval period. They continued in use into the 17th century and were often used as strongholds by the Ulster chieftains, in particular. Lisanisk crannóg is located in Lisanisk Lough and comprises an oval cairn. There is little information available on this particular site which is situated at the northern end of Lisanisk Lake and now forms part of the shoreline.

Plate 43: Drummond Otra on Lisanisk Lough, Co. Monaghan

A crannóg is an artificial island built usually of brushwood and held together with stakes and piles, usually in a marsh or lake. Some crannógs date from the Late Bronze Age, but most were built during the early and late medieval period. They continued in use into the 17th century and were often used as strongholds by the Ulster chieftains, in particular. Drummond Otra crannog is located in Lisanisk Lake and comprises a circular cairn. The crannóg is situated at the southern end of Lisanisk Lake and now forms part of the shoreline. There is another nearby crannog located in Loughnaglack lake also called Drummond Otra. There was a collection of Late Bronze Age and Early Christian material recovered from this site.

Souterrains, from the French words *sou* (under) and *terrain* (ground), in Ireland may have initially been developed in response to the Viking raids. Souterrains are underground passages of stone with chambers of stone, sometimes circular and corbelled and sometimes rectilinear. They are found widely around the country, especially in coastal areas. They are densely concentrated in Louth and in parts of south Down, as well as in patches of coastal areas of north Antrim, Cork and Kerry and the west coast. They are more sparsely distributed in Monaghan, parts of south Armagh and south Down. They are very rare, if present at all, in north Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh as well as Cavan. Souterrains generally do not produce many finds, though a type of pottery *Souterrain ware*, which is found in the northern counties, is often associated with them. They may have been places of refuge, but it is argued that they may have been for storage, either or as well. Souterrains date from the 8th/ 9th century and last into the 12th or even the 13th century.
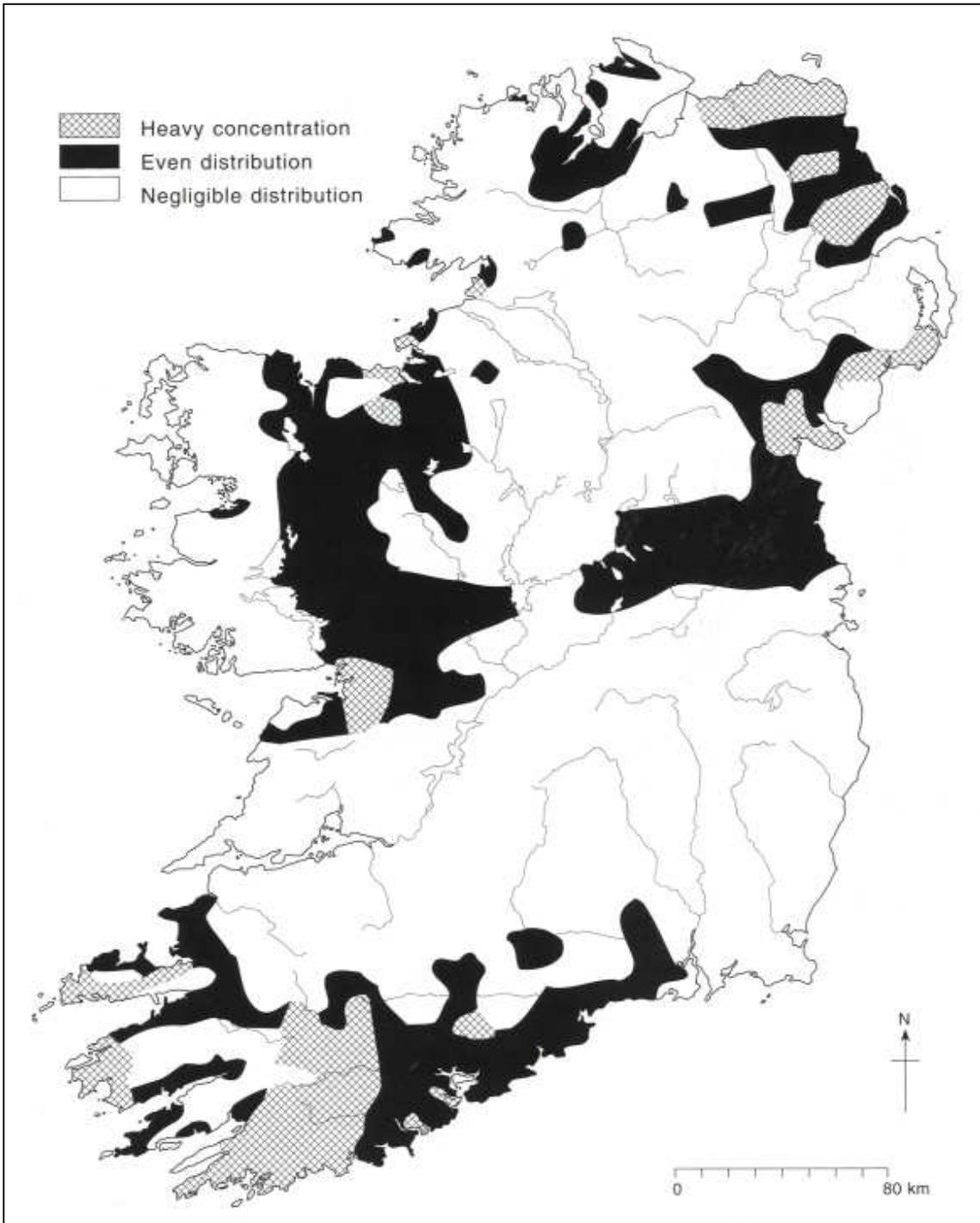
Figure 22: Distribution map of souterrains in Ireland (after Clinton 2001, 34)

Figure 23: Crumlin souterrain, Co. Louth (No. 75) (after Buckley & Sweetman 1991, 117)
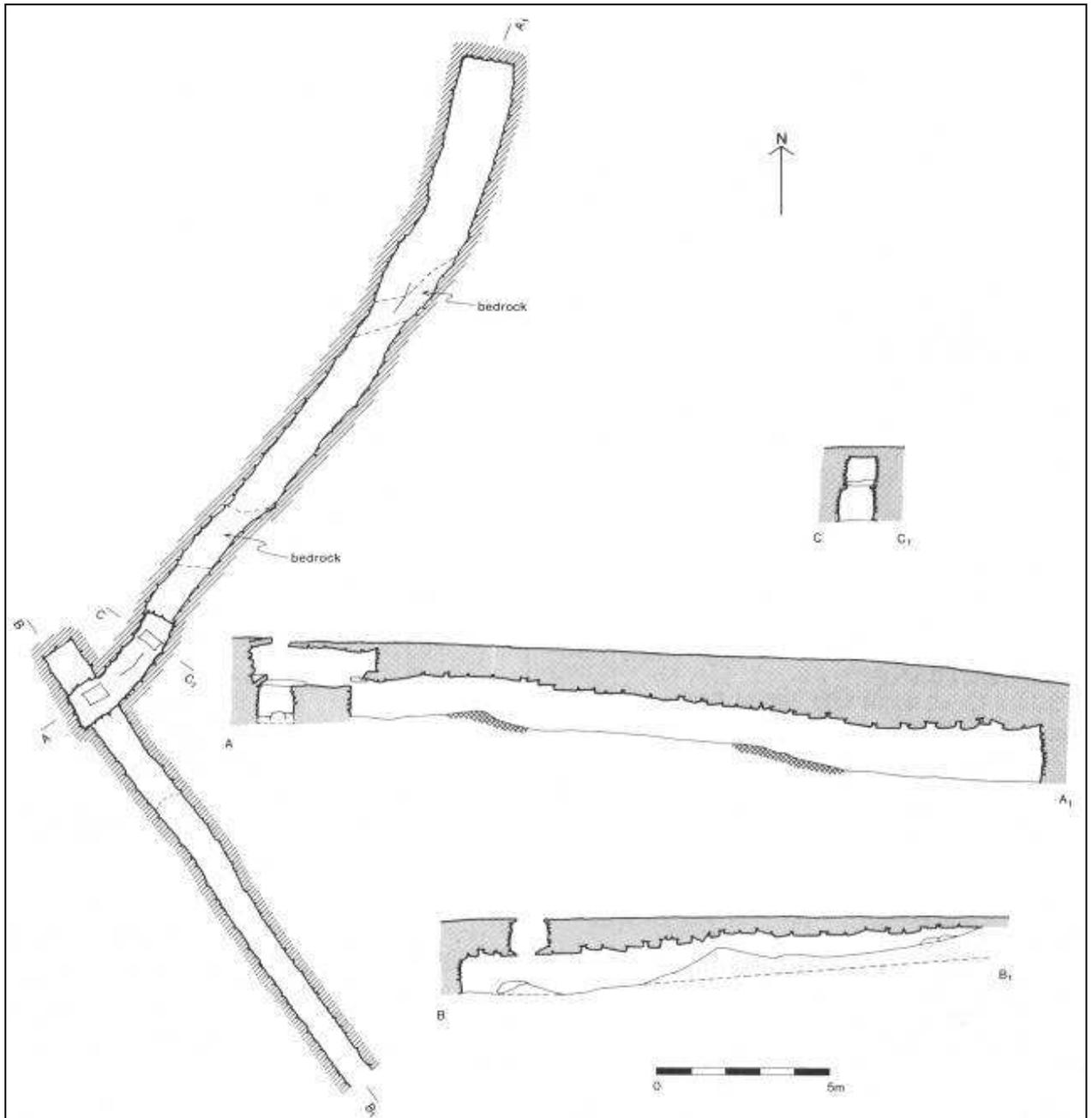
Figure 24: Plan of Crumlin souterrain, Co. Louth (after Buckley & Sweetman 1991, 116)

Crumlin souterrain comprises two passages L-shaped in plan and drystone built. There are a number of drop-hole creeps, both giving access to a gallery-like passages. The souterrain floor is cut into the bedrock at some points in the northeast passage and at the end of this passage there is a pseudo-chamber.
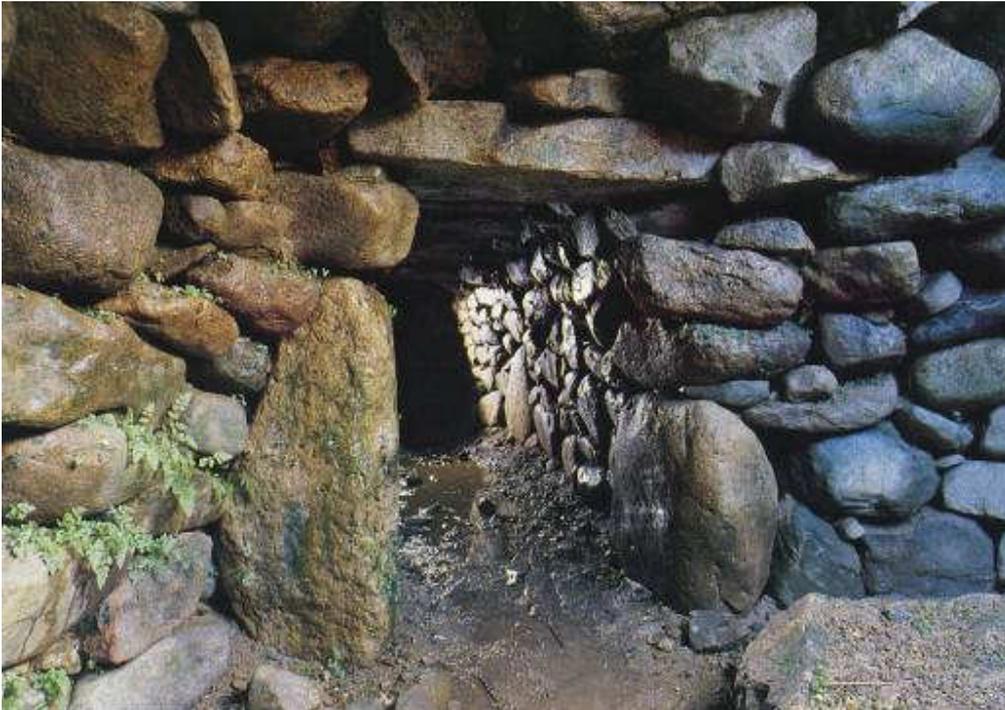
Plate 44: Benagh souterrain, Co. Louth (No. 74)

Benagh souterrain comprises a series of passages and chambers. There are a number of creeps giving access to passages and beehive chambers. The souterrain is constructed of drystone walling and a number of sherds of souterrain ware have been found in the construction trench of the tunnel.
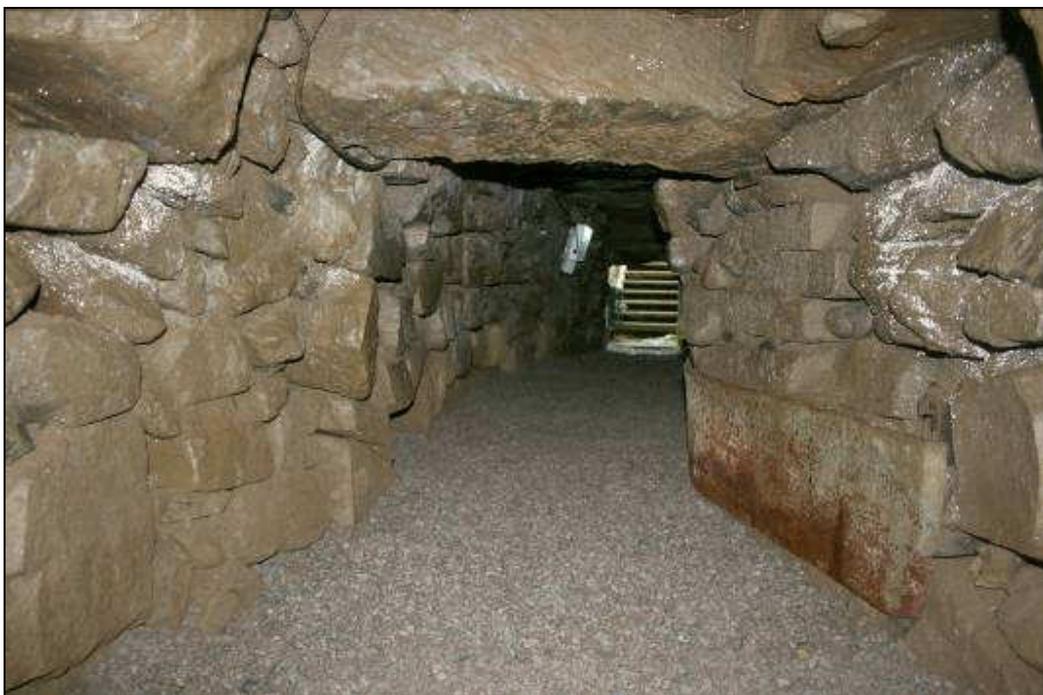

Plate 45: Finnis souterrain, Co. Down (No. 28)

Finnis souterrain dates from the 9th century and comprises a stone built underground complex containing three passages. The main passage is 29m in length and two shorter passages run off it. It is an extremely well preserved example. Most souterrains date to late in the early medieval period, somewhere between the 9th and the 12th or 13th century and usually they relate to habitation sites of some sort. The souterrain would have been used as a hiding place or for storage. It is known locally as 'Binders Cove'.

# 7. The high medieval period

In August 1170, Strongbow, or Richard de Clare, landed in Ireland, at the behest of Diarmait Mac Murchada, and a month later attacked Dublin which was a Viking town at the time. As a result of his rapid success, the Norman King of England, Henry II came to Ireland in 1171 and the Anglo-Norman takeover of much of the east and south-east of the country was rapid from then on. In 1176, John de Courcy came into conflict with the native kings of Uriel which corresponds to most of present-day County Louth.



Plate 46: Castleroche, Co. Louth (No. 49)

Roche castle is thought to have been built in 1236 by Lady Rohesia de Verdon. Some dispute this date and believe that it was her son John who built the castle at a later date. However, Castleroche is extremely similar in design to Beeston castle in Cheshire which was built in 1225 and thus it is probably of this time. The castle is located on the Louth-Armagh border and stood over an ancient route into what is now south Armagh. The site of the castle marks the boundary of the Gaelic province of Ulster and the Anglo-Norman 'Pale'. The castle itself comprised a great hall which may have been up to three storeys high. There are large windows evident on the first floor which had window seats. The great hall was accessed by a doorway in the north wall and there is evidence of a small rectangular building off the great hall which may have been added at a later stage. Access to the castle was gained through a gatehouse with two towers. A ditch encloses this side of the castle and there may have been a drawbridge infront of the gatehouse. The area around Castleroche is noted for its red soil which has given rise to many legends.

Most of north county Dublin and Louth and southern counties like Waterford and Kilkenny were to become heavily settled by the Anglo-Normans. The settlers, such as the Plunketts of Louth, became the Old English families who were to take a prominent place in Irish history in the next few hundred years. The areas settled by the Anglo Normans stretched around the Antrim and Down coastline to Louth and most of the east and the south of the country. As we have seen there is a distinct relationship between Anglo-Norman settlement in Ireland and the distribution of soil types as has been seen in

Chapter 2. The Anglo-Normans distinctly avoided ill-drained lands and focussed on arable lands of the east and south of Ireland.



Plate 47: Dromore motte, Co. Down (No. 79)

Dromore motte and bailey was built after the Norman conquest in the 13th century by John de Courcy. The mound was thought to have been an archery tower and would have commanded views of the town and the Upper Lagan Valley. Palisading may have surrounded the bailey.

Anglo-Norman rule over a large part of the country was characterised by the appearance in the country of mottes, defensive castles and the development of towns, which usually had monastic beginnings. Anglo-Norman mottes are densely distributed in the county of Louth and are very sparse and barely present in the counties of Monaghan and Armagh, though Iniskeen motte in Monaghan is a fine example.

Plate 48: Inishkeen motte, Co. Monaghan (No. 83)

This site comprises a flat topped motte covered in trees with traces of a bailey. It once belonged to a series of fortifications built as the Anglo-Normans attempted to advance into Ulster in the 13th century. The motte is surrounded by a ditch on the east side. Local tradition tells of a 'passage lined with stones and covered with large flags' found in the motte which may suggest a souterain or earlier burial mound. In 1875, a report in the Journal of the Royal Society of Antiquaries of Ireland reports that a small chamber was discovered in the side of the passage and contained 'a well'. There is a rectangular bawn located northeast of the bailey. This is later in date and remains of a gatehouse have also been found.

Plate 49: Castletown motte and bailey, Co. Louth (No. 78)

This Anglo-Norman motte site, known as 'Dun Dealgan', comprises a large circular mound enclosed by a fosse with an external bank. Adjoining the fosse of the motte at the northwest is a small bailey. A larger bailey, which has now been destroyed, existed in the east. The ruins of a late 18th century castellated house known as 'Byrne's Folly' is on top of the motte, built in 1780 by Patrick Byrne, a well known pirate. On the east side of the mound is a causeway across the fosse, the date of which is unknown. A souterrain is also evident in the south side of the motte.

Plate 50: Haynestown motte, Co. Louth (No. 97)

Haynestown motte and bailey is situated 210m south of Haynestown castle and church. It comprises a small flat topped motte with a fosse and remains of a bailey.

One of the most significant features of Anglo-Norman rule was the creation of the marches in the borderlands. A marked difference in culture and identity developed between the people of the hilly, forested lands to the north and west of Dundalk, County Louth and the lands of the Pale to the south. Before the arrival of the Normans, this major cultural difference is not apparent. Settlements based on monastic sites had emerged in these areas: Monaghan, Emyvale, Clones in north Monaghan and the major monastic town of Armagh are examples. The bishops of Armagh for a long period lived in the monastic site of Termonfeckin, Co. Louth.

Plate 51: Emy Lough crannog, Co. Monaghan (No. 56)

A crannóg is an artificial isalnd built usually of brushwood and held together with stakes and piles, usually in a marsh or lake. Some crannógs date from the Late Bronze Age, but most were built during the early and late medieval period. They continued in use into the 17th century and were often used as strongholds by the Ulster chieftains, in particular. The McKenna clan were Ulster chieftains in the area from the 12th century to the 17th century and it is believed that the McKennas used the crannóg as a stronghold and refuge. It is also believed that St. Enda, prior to founding a monastery on the Aran Islands, had a cell on Emy Lough crannóg.



Plate 52: Kilkeel church, Co. Down (No. 94)

Plate 53: Greencastle, Co. Down (No. 25)

Greencastle Castle was built in the mid 13th century by Hugh de Lacy, the Anglo-Norman invader of this area of the country, and consisted of a strong rectangular two storey tower located at the entrance to Carlingford Lough. The castle was attacked a number of times, by the Irish in 1260 and 1375 and by Edward Bruce in 1316. For defence purposes a further storey was added to the tower in the 15th century. Further alterations were made to the castle in the 16th century when Gerald, the Earl of Kildare, came into possession of the castle. Nicholas Bagenall, whose daughter Mabel, Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone married many years later, was granted possession of the castle in 1552. It was held for the Crown until the 17th century when it is thought to have been abandoned.

In terms of economy, much of the Irish early medieval economy was based on cattle and wealth was measured by ownership of cattle which could be reared in the hilly forested landscape. This type of economy and lifestyle was very different to that of the Anglo-Normans whose farming practices were based on the cultivation of arable lands. Major castles were built by the Normans in the 13th century, defending the areas northwest and west of Castleroche in Dundalk and west of Mannan Castle in Donaghmoyne, Monaghan.

Plate 54: Mannan Castle, Co. Monaghan, (No. 59)

Mannan castle was built around 1193 by an Anglo-Norman knight named Peter Pipard. The castle is likely to have been wooden originally and a stone castle was erected in 1244. The site comprises a large motte, two baileys and the stone castle. In 1302 the Crown had possession of the castle and it was leased to a number of Anglo-Norman families such as the Clintons and the Gernons. By the 15th century the castle had been abandoned. Little remains of the castle. However, fragments of the castle walls are visible on the site.

A very sharp cultural division thus emerged in the east border area between the native Irish culture of the counties of Armagh and Monaghan, and beyond, and the culture of the settlers in the counties of Louth and Down which were under English control by 1300 AD.

Plate 54: Franciscan Friary, Co. Armagh (No. 39)

The Franciscan Friary was founded in 1263/64 by Archbishop O'Scannail. A number of important patrons are buried in the Friary church such as Gormlaith O'Donnell, wife of Domhnail O'Neill in 1353. The Friary was suppressed in 1542 and some of the buildings were involved in warfare in the late 16th century and ruined by 1600.

Plate 55: Saint Patrick's Cathedral, Church of Ireland, Armagh (No. 9)

In 445AD St. Patrick founded his first stone church on the hill of Armagh. The present St. Patricks cathedral (Church of Ireland) which now stands on the site was built in the 13th century. There have been many restorations carried out on the building over the centuries, the last being in 1834. An 11th century celtic cross and a number of Iron Age figures (Tandragee Idol) are on display in the cathedral. A plaque commemorating the burial of the Brian Boru (High King of Ireland) in 1014 is located on the exterior of the west wall of the north trancept.



Plate 56: Clones Motte and Bailey, Co. Monaghan (No. 115)

Anglo-Norman rule over a large part of the country was characterised by the appearance in the country of mottes. A motte was an artificial mound on which stood a wooden tower. At ground level, below the motte, was the bailey. This was usually oval or kidney shaped and surrounded by a bank and ditch. Clones Motte and Bailey was built in 1212. The site comprises a cone shaped mound with a series of terraces and is surrounded by a fosse at the base. The bailey is sub-rectangular and is surrounded by an earthen bank. It is linked to the motte by traces of a causeway. Clones Motte and Bailey site was burnt down shortly after its construction in 1212. It was later fortified.

## 8. The later medieval period 1300-1500

From the early 14th century, the area of the Anglo-Norman colony in Ireland became somewhat diminished and the lands under their control shrank to an area between Dundalk in Louth and Dalkey in south County Dublin. Settlers were more exposed to Irish raids and there were complaints about absentee lords leaving their lands open to attack. The sense of separateness between English and Irish increased. In 1297, laws were passed forbidding the English from adopting Irish dress but the infamous Statutes of Kilkenny of 1366 were most notorious for the preservation of the separate identity of the English and Irish. They forbade Irishmen being appointed to certain church offices or from being received as members of religious houses in the area of the Pale. They forbade intermarriage or fosterage between Irish and English and forbade Englishmen from speaking the Irish language or dressing in the Irish style.
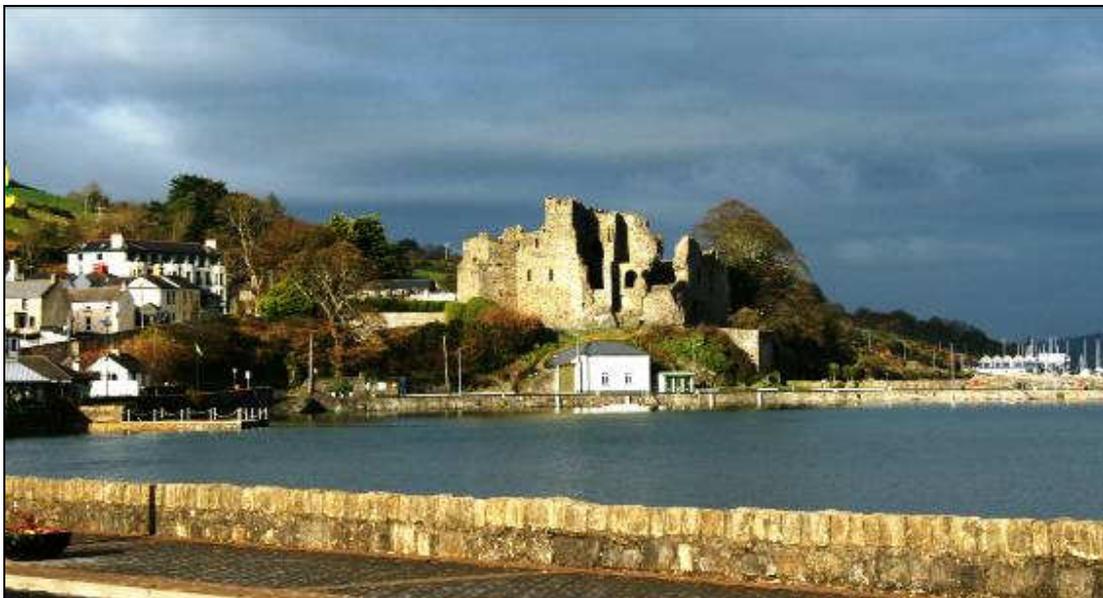


Plate 57: Carlingford Castle, Co. Louth (No. 15)

Carlingford castle known locally as 'King John's Castle' is a thirteenth century Norman castle overlooking Carlingford Lough. King John is thought to have visited the castle for three days in 1210. The castle comprised a courtyard with two storey buildings within it and two rectangular towers at the entrance. In 1261 the eastern half of the castle was added which included a number of rooms and probably a great hall. There were a number of alterations made to the castle over the centuries and late medieval features are evident. The castle was later used as a hospital during the Williamite wars which ended with the Battle of the Boyne by Fredrick Herman, Duke of Schomberg in circa 1690.

The town of Carlingford, Co. Louth, founded by King John in the thirteenth century grew and the Dominican priory was founded in 1305 and the Mint, a town towerhouse with an extended window over the door and mullioned windows was built during this time. A number of other tower houses were built and often superimposed or replaced the earlier Norman motte and bailey.

In the later medieval period, from the beginning of the 14th century, the native Irish held the lands of most of the north of Ireland, apart from the coastal areas east of the Foyle (the land, including the coastal areas, to the west of the river Foyle was held by the O'Donnells). The O'Hanlons and MacCartans held Down and south Armagh, the O'Neills, Tyrone and parts of Armagh, the MacMahons and O'Reillys Monaghan and Cavan.



Plate 58: Castletown Castle, Co. Louth (No. 93)

This castle was built by Richard Bellew in 1472. It is a large tower house four storeys high with four corner towers. An earlier deVerdun castle is once thought to have stood on the site. The castle was renovated in the 1940's by the Sisters of St. Louis and is now used as a school.

# 9. The 16<sup>th</sup> and early 17<sup>th</sup> centuries

Plate 59: Narrowwater Castle, Co. Down (No. 23)

The castle of the 'narrow water' was built to guard the waters where the Newry river enters Carlingford Lough. The site comprises a three storey towerhouse and enclosing bawn. The castle was built by a John Sanky who was paid £36, 4s and 2d for building and maintaining the castle. In 1568, he employed four kern (soldiers) and the folowing year, he maintained twelve. In 1580, the castle was held by Hugh Magennis. In 1608, it was held by Sir Arthur Macgennis. The castle remained in use until the 18th century.

The 16<sup>th</sup> century saw the rise of the Tudor monarchs, principally Henry VII, Henry VIII and Elizabeth I. During the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the English sought further to extend their control over the Irish chieftains and Henry VIII brought in what was seen as a new solution in the process called 'surrender and regrant'. By this the Gaelic lords would surrender to the English monarch and abide by English laws, but be granted back their land with a title by the monarch. The earldom of Tyrconnaill (for the O'Donnells) and the earldom of Tyrone (for the O'Neills) were come about in this manner. This system clashed with Irish law and caused a great deal of conflict among the ruling families.

After Henry VII broke with Rome he took the title "King of Ireland". Previous English kings had been "Lord of Ireland" under the pope, a situation which originated in Henry II's request of a crown of Ireland for his son John, which the pope had refused.



Plate 60: Haynestown Castle, Co. Louth (No. 98)

Haynestown tower house is a rectangular three storey structure with four corner towers. The entrance is through a doorway on the ground floor in the west wall. The southeast tower contains a stairwell which gives access to all levels. The tower house dates from the 16th century.

The 16th century saw the suppression of monasteries by Henry VIII. Religious houses throughout Ireland were dissolved, the religious communities cast out and their buildings and lands taken over by the King. The extensive lands of monasteries were granted or sold to the king's administrators.

Nicholas Bagenal, a settler from Staffordshire in England, was granted lands formally belonging to the Cistercians in Newry and developed the town of Newry. Nicholas's daughter, Mabel, was to elope with Hugh O'Neill, the earl of Tyrone, a marriage which was unhappy and ended by Mabel's untimely death, possibly from tuberculosis, at Dungannon Castle. Her brother, Henry, became a sworn enemy of O'Neill's.

The lands of Ballymacscanlon, Co. Louth, granted to the Cistercian order in 1185 by the Norman, Hugh de Lacy, passed from the hands of the Cistercians as a result of the dissolution and were granted by the Crown of England to Sir Edward Moore and were to remain in the hands of the Moore family till the 18th century. Ballymacscanlon house in Louth was built by the Moores and this house has a long and interesting history.

One link Ballymacscanlon House has with an historical event in the 16th century is as follows:

*In 1587, the teenage heir to the O'Donnell dynasty, Aodh Rua O'Domhnaill or Red Hugh O'Donnell, was captured by the English from Donegal and held as hostage in Dublin Castle. His contemporary biographer records his escape in 1591 to Gaelic-held Wicklow, and from Wicklow to the north of Ireland. The escape is known to have been organised by Hugh O'Neill the Earl of Tyrone who was a great friend of Garret Moore of Ballymacscanlon House. Red Hugh was given lodging at Ballymacscanlon House which is located just south of the gap of the north into which Red Hugh was brought to safety.*

Hugh O'Neill visited the house himself just before embarking on the ship which was to take him to Rome in the event known as *the flight of the earls*. The story is interesting in this context:

*The nine years war of the 1590s, led by Red Hugh O'Donnell and Hugh O'Neill, ended dramatically in 1602\* with the major defeat of the Irish at the battle of Kinsale. O'Donnell immediately departed for Spain to negotiate with the Spanish king, Philip III for more help. Disappointed by the lack of enthusiasm of the Spanish, he died a year later in Salamanca. O'Neill spent over a year in hiding and was pardoned in March 1603 at Mellifont by Mountjoy with the intervention of his old friend, Sir Garrett Moore. Elizabeth had died recently and her successor, James acceded the throne. The Treaty of Mellifont was signed by O'Neill who was restored to his former title but with major restrictions. He was now a vassal of the King of England and he witnessed the gradual erosion of his power and way of life. He now lived uneasily under English law with its increasing penalties against the practising of Catholicism. Especially after the recall of Lord Mountjoy, who was reasonably sympathetic to O'Neill and the instalment in his place of Sir Arthur Chichester, O'Neill felt the increasing suspicion of the English. From time immemorial the Úi Néill, of whom Hugh O Neill was descended, wielded supremacy over traditional under-lords such as the O'Hagans who had served him loyally at Kinsale. A dispute broke out in early 1607 between O'Neill and his son in law, O'Hagan, over the ownership of some land and both parties were summoned to England to have their case heard. O'Neill was warned by friends that his journey to England would end in the tower as was currently the fate of many other Irish lords. Though he put off the journey, it became clear that his life was in danger.*

\*(The date of the Battle of Kinsale is 1601 in the Julian calendar, which was in use in Britain at the time, and 1602 in the Gregorian calendar which was in use in Spain)

*In early September, organised by relatives and friends from abroad, a ship sailed into the Swilly with the purpose of taking to the Continent the remaining great Irish lords, including Ruari O'Donnell, Cuconnacht Maguire of Fermanagh and Hugh O'Neill as well as their families and retainers. When informed of the presence of the boat, O' Neill proceeded immediately to collect his children from their various foster homes, the practice of fostering being a tradition in Gaelic Ireland. O'Neill went first to the home of Sir Garret Moore in Ballymacscanlon House where one of his younger children was being fostered. Though he did not tell his friend of his real reason for the visit, his emotional farewell on that occasion to each member of the household was noted.*

The flight of the earls from the Swilly in Co. Donegal on 14 Sept. 1607 marks the end of the Gaelic lordship of a large part of the country and of a system of life which had existed in the country for perhaps thousands of years.

# 10. The 17th century

The 17th century is a period of war and upheaval in Ireland resulting in major sociological and religious change, the background to which is essential to the understanding of conflict and origin of the current border.

After the major defeat of the Irish at the battle of Kinsale, the settlement of the north of Ireland began. When the great Earls, O'Neill, O'Donnell and Maguire left for the Continent, they were considered to have committed treason. They were arraigned in their absence and their lands were held forfeit to the Crown.



Plate 61: Moyry Castle, Co. Armagh (No. 16)

Moyry castle, presently a small ruin, was built in 1601 by Lord Deputy Mountjoy to guard the Gap of the North. Moyry Pass or the Gap of the North was an important route into the north which remained under the control of the Irish until the very early 17th century. In 1601, Mountjoy seized control of the pass and it became the main routeway into the north. In 1641 Moyry castle was garrisoned by the confederates and King William's army marched through the Gap of the North from Belfast to Dundalk on their way to the Battle of the Boyne.

Vast tracts of lands belonging to the Ulster chieftains were confiscated in Armagh, Fermanagh, Donegal, Tyrone. These lands were settled by English and Scottish settlers, for the first time on a large scale.

This was unfortunate for the native Irish occupiers of land. In the Gaelic system of landownership, a practice going back to prehistoric times, land was owned by the tribal

group or clan. The chieftain of the clan was appointed through the system of *Deirfine*, by which any male of a common great-grandfather could be chosen by the people as leader. In effect, the chieftain held the land for the people. To the English, confiscation of land was the confiscation of land from an individual. To the Gaelic Irish of many of the northern counties, the confiscation of land was its confiscation from a population group who shared its ownership.

What the confiscations of lands from the earls meant for the ordinary Gaelic Irish of Monaghan, Down or Armagh outside the Pale areas and in the lands formerly ruled by the Earls and other defecting lords, was that they were left entirely landless and unemployed. Cattle raiding and booleying, the pasturing of cattle on the hills in the summer months, was a major form of employment as was farming. Otherwise men would usually generally be expected to act as swordsmen for their leaders and warfare was a common form of life, centred around the lords of the region.

The plantations involved the taking over of the lands of the Gaelic Irish of the northern counties by new settler families. All of these were non-Catholic, either Protestant (i.e. Anglican) or Presbyterian. Many of the Presbyterians, as non-conformists to the established church of England, and increasingly exposed to persecution, may have hoped to start new lives in Ireland in the same way as they were to emigrate in large numbers to America in the 18th century.

During the early decades of the 17th century repressive laws against dissenters, including Catholics and Presbyterians escalated. Fines were imposed on all non-attendees at the established church and Catholics were not permitted to hold office or practise the mass. This was also applied to Presbyterians and a Presbyterian minister could be fined or imprisoned. All were in theory obliged to attend the established church.

The Irish rebellion of 1641 is seen as one of the greatest dividing events between Catholics and Protestants/Presbyterians, particularly in the northern counties which it mainly affected.

When James I died, he was replaced on the throne by his son, Charles I. Civil war developed in Britain between the king and the parliamentarians and was brought to a height in 1642.

Many of the Irish saw the ensuing civil war as a religious war between the rightful king and rebel parliamentarians. By supporting the king they also hoped to earn religious tolerance and return of lands and freedoms. In the throes of civil war in Britain, several Irish lords plotted the overthrow of English administration in Dublin and the ejection of Protestant settlers from their former lands.

It should be noted that in 1641, though a very large sociological change developed in the lands of the Gaelic lords in the border counties, a large number of landowning Catholics kept lands and positions in the first half of the 17th century, particularly in Louth. This was to change.

A full scale rebellion was initiated by Rory O'More and Lord Maguire. It was taken up by Phelim O'Neill, a nephew of the Earl of Tyrone, Hugh O'Neill, in the north of Ireland and by a large number of other nobles. A coup was plotted for 22$^{nd}$ October 1641 when Dublin castle was to be taken over and simultaneously, in other parts of the country, strikes were to be made. This included the ejection of the settlers from the former lands of the plotters.

Particularly in the north of the country there was a great deal of violence in which numerous people were slaughtered or made homeless. The tales of violence in these areas have lasted to today and created an even sharper division between Catholic and Protestant.

The country was in a state of complete disorder and the Catholics along with James Butler, Duke of Ormonde, the lord deputy, who was a loyal supporter of the king and Eoin Rua O'Neill, nephew of the great earl and cousin of Phelim O'Neill, who had returned from the Continent, set up a provisional government in Kilkenny, known as the confederate government. It was supported by the Catholic Church and proved to be an unworkable mix of various elements in society.

After the battle of Naseby in England, the forces of King Charles lost to the parliamentarian forces who took control of government in Britain under Oliver Cromwell. Ireland began to be seen as a platform for the king to regain control and securing the country under the control of the new revolutionary British government became an important step for Cromwell.

Cromwell sent over to Ireland a promising career officer, Lieutenant Michael Jones, who was of a settler family in Ireland. Jones secured Dublin and won the major battle of Dungan's Hill against the confederates in 1647 and the battle of Rathmines against Ormonde in 1649. In 1649 Cromwell came over to Ireland and proceeded to systematically subjugate Ireland winning victory after victory as castle by castle fell under his sieges. He is well known for the massacres in Drogheda and Wexford. Having won complete victory over the confederate armies, Cromwell proceeded to bring in laws to abolish 'popery' and to survey the country and record land ownership.

One of the main concerns of the Cromwellian government was the payment of the back pay owed to parliamentary soldiers during the Irish campaign and it was proposed that this be done through land confiscated from the Irish or Old English who had taken part in the rebellion or been on the Confederate side during the wars. Many Catholics lost lands and this included Old English Catholics who played a leading role in the Confederate wars.

The effect of the Cromwellian wars was the further subjugation of Irish Catholics, while the border counties became the haunts of outlaws, once native Irish lords and landowners such as Redmond O'Hanlon, while Catholic priests were hunted down. A number of officers in Cromwell's army settled on lands they were granted after the wars, others sold

their land. Landed families in Down and Louth include the Sibthorpes, the Fosters, Fortescues or Bellinghams. Such families built large houses and rented out lands, becoming the firmly Protestant landlord class of future generations.

Charles II was restored to the throne of England in 1660. An amiable man, he did not concern himself greatly with the problems of the Irish. He was succeeded in 1685 by his brother James, a Catholic, who, unlike Charles, was openly pro-Catholic. James quickly appointed one of the Irish confederate leaders, Richard Talbot, head of Irish affairs. Talbot built up the army almost entirely with Catholic officers. Catholics became a majority in the Irish judiciary and were appointed to the corporations of cities and towns.

James made his position on Catholicism clear in Protestant England and public unrest made his rule untenable by 1688 when his son in law, the Protestant William of Orange, husband of his daughter Mary, disembarked in the country and James fled to France. In March 1689, James landed in Ireland and advanced on the settler town of Derry which had in December shut its city gates against royalist troops beginning the most famous siege in Irish and British history. The citizens of Derry lasted out the siege and their victory in doing so, perhaps more than any other factor, gave Ulster Protestants and Presbyterians a sense of self and a new independence which was to see them through the succeeding centuries.

On the 16th of June, 1690, James advanced from Dublin towards Dundalk but retreated back across the Boyne when he heard that William had arrived in Carrickfergus. On July 12th (July 1st in the old calendar), the Battle of the Boyne began. The battle of the Boyne on the Louth/Meath border is perhaps the most famous battle in Irish history and indeed decided which of the two kings, William or James would rule England, Ireland and Scotland. Fate decided in favour of William.

When William left Ireland in September 1690, Jacobite forces were still relatively intact and fresh hopes were given to the Irish Catholic forces by the arrival of French troops under the Marshal St. Ruth. However, William's troops engaged the Jacobite forces under St. Ruth at the hill of Aughrim, Co. Galway, where nearly 7000 Irish were killed. The siege of Limerick began a month later and the treaty of Limerick was signed on the 3rd of October 1690. Twelve thousand Irish troops, led by Patrick Sarsfield left Ireland on the 3rd of December 1690 for the Continent. The event of the departure is known as *the flight of the wild geese*. The Williamite wars spelt the death knell for the hopes of the Irish Catholic nobles and gentry recovering their land and for freedom of religious practice for the Catholics. About a million acres of land was confiscated from the Irish who were implicated in the wars while a series of penal laws were enforced reducing Catholic land holdings much further.

Plate 62: The Gap of the North, Co. Armagh and Louth (No. 17)



Plate 63: The Gap of the North, Co. Armagh and Louth (No. 17)

The Gap of the North was an important route into the north which remained under Irish control until the early 17th century. The route was extremely wooded and was located between two mountains. When Hugh O'Neill and his army left the pass unguarded, towards the end of the nine years war, in 1601, Lord Deputy Mountjoy took control of the pass and cleared much of the woodland surrounding the pass. He built Moyry castle to guard the route. Part of the castle still survives overlooking the once treacherous pass and a railway line now runs along the Gap of the North.



Plate 64: Ballymascalon House, Co. Louth (No. 44)

The lands of Ballymacscanlon, granted to the Cistercian order in 1185 by the Norman, Hugh de lacy, passed from the hands of the Cistercians as a result of the dissolution and were granted by the Crown of England to Sir Edward Moore and was to remain in the hands of the Moore family till the 18th century.

Hugh O'Neill, the Great Earl of Tyrone, visited the house in 1607, as he was a great friend of Sir Garret Moore just before embarking on the ship which was to take him to Rome in the event known as the *Flight of the Earls*. Sir Garret had fostered one of his children. Ballymacscanlan house was century house refurbished in the early 19th century by Sir Frederick Foster. It later became the home to the County Louth branch of the Plunkett family who lived there for over 50 years. The name Ballymacscanlan comes from the medieval sept of Scanlans who where rulers of the district of Oriel in the Anglo-Norman period.

The present structure originates in the 16th and 17th century, though it has mainly been refurbished in the early 19th century.

## 11. The 18<sup>th</sup> century

From Acts of the Irish Parliament in 1704, Catholics were not permitted to have seats in parliament, to bear arms, to own a horse worth more than £5, to maintain schools, to send their children abroad for education, to acquire land from Protestants either by marriage or inheritance and limited leases to 31 years. It forbade them to make wills and decreed that the land should be divided equally between the sons of the deceased, unless a son conformed to Protestantism, whereby he inherited all. In 1728, Catholics were denied the vote. The Catholic clergy were expelled from Ireland.

Plate 65: Derrymore house and demesne, Bessbrook, Co. Armagh (No. 38)

Derrymore is a beautiful thatched cottage dating to the 18th century. The house was built by Sir Issac Corry who represented Newry in the Irish House of Commons for 30 years. Derrymore House is situated on parkland and there are walking trails around the grounds. The house is now owned by the National Trust.

Protestant dissenters such as the Presbyterians who were very strongly represented in the north, perhaps more significantly in the border counties, were also discriminated against

by the 1704 acts. Because they would not take an Anglican sacramental test, they were debarred from public office and from military employment.

Presbyterians and Catholics were not the only dissenters. Quakers, too, emigrated to the north of Ireland and suffered similar discrimination. Bessbrook is a Quaker town.

Presbyterians were prohibited from congregating for religious purposes from the early 17th century. In 1680, the earliest Presbyterian meetinghouses were built in Convoy and Ramelton, Co. Donegal, but it was only after 1714, when Presbyterians were granted freedom of worship (by the Toleration Act 1714) that Presbyterian churches were built on a general scale.



Plate 66: Scarva Presbyterian Meeting House, Co. Down (No. 2)

Scarva Presbyterian Meeting House is a T-shaped stone building built in the traditional form of Presbyterian meetinghouses of this date, in 1753, by Mr. Reilly, owner of Scarva House. The church seats 350 and the average attendance in 1836 was 300.

Only Protestants could go to university or practise the professions and now owned most of the land in Ireland. Much of this land was let out to tenant farmers and formed the basis of wealth for the landlords. Large houses were built and demesne lands with landscaped grounds were built around them. Demesnes of this type were built over all Ireland.

The Protestant ascendancy, though predominantly English, Scottish or Welsh by origin, was not exclusively British. The O'Reillys of Scarva House were a leading Irish family of the border counties who became Protestant.

The development of the border counties, particularly for the linen industry took place during this time and the linen industry flourished in the border counties during the 18th century. In Monaghan and Armagh, the land was tilled and flax was grown widely as

were other crops by the first half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Protestant landowners were keen to develop the linen industry. In the parish of Creggan, South Armagh, for example, Presbyterians were invited to settle in 1733 by Protestant landowners. North Louth was a spinning district for the linen industry. Roads were built to facilitate the transport of goods by carts. Fairs and markets were set up in towns and patents were granted.

In the history of Ireland, the movements and events leading up to the 1798 rebellion are significant. In 1791, a young Protestant, Theobald Wolfe Tone published a pamphlet called *An argument on behalf of the Catholics of Ireland*, calling for the abolition of all penal laws. Tone also helped found in Belfast the society of United Irishmen that year which also had a branch in Dublin. The Belfast society was predominantly Presbyterian and middle class. In Dublin it was a mixture of Catholic and Protestants of middle class. The United Irishmen aspired to the principles of the French revolution and were committed to a union of all Irish people irrespective of religious denomination. War broke out between Britain and France and the British government announced measures for the suppression of the United Irishmen in 1794. The rebellion was highlighted by the arrival of Tone in Bantry Bay in 1796 with an army of 15,000 Frenchmen. After many notable events such as the Battle of Vinegar Hill and the Battle of Ballinahinch, the rebellion was finally suppressed in 1798, its leaders executed.

This was followed by the Act of Union in 1800 in which the British government promised political rights for Catholics as a small minority in a new "United Kingdom". Ireland's Catholic bishops supported this union but George III blocked 'Catholic emancipation'.

Plate 67: Scarva House, Co. Down (No. 3)

Scarva House was built in 1717 by Miles Reilly and is now home to the Buller family. The house has been added to over time and displays a blend of Jacobean and Gothic styles. In recognition to his services to King William of Orange, John Reilly, High Sheriff of Down was granted the land. The Reilly family were one of Banbridge's most noble families, being descended from the O'Reillys, princes of East Brefny and owned extensive estates in the area including much of Banbridge town. The O'Reilly family built the village and Scarva 1756. On July 13th every year the 'Sham fight', a re-enactment of the Battle of the Boyne, takes place by the Spanish chestnut tree where King William III is alleged to have camped in 1690.



Plate 68: Bessbrook Millrace, Co. Armagh (No. 36)

Plate 69: Campbells Lock, Newry (No. 24)

The Newry canal forms the border between Co. Down and Co. Armagh. The canal was used to carry goods between towns and was built between 1734 and 1742. The canal stretches 18 miles from Newry to Portadown. Campbell's lock is north of Scarva town and the lock house dates from the 18th century.

Plate 70: Newry canal at Scarva, Co. Down (No. 24)



Plate 71: Dan Winters Ancestral Home, Co. Armagh (No. 61)

Dan Winters thatched cottage dates to the 18th century (pre 1750) and is located on the site of the famous Battle of the Diamond in 1795. The cottage contains living quarters, spirit grocers and weaver's quarters and a full working loom. The house was set alight during the Battle of the Diamond and the scorch marks can still be seen in the timbers of the building. The cottage now seems to be a pub but is not open.

Dan Winters ancestral home is located close by and was home to the Winters family from before 1700. The building is a listed 18th century vernacular thatched farmhouse. It is described in its listing as 'The meeting place following the Battle of the Diamond, where the decision to form the Orange Order was made'. There is vintage farm machinery displayed in the farmyard.

Plate 72: Adress House, Co. Armagh (No. 62)

Ardress House, once a modest farmhouse, was transformed in 1760 by George Ensor, a Dublin Architect. The house displays many paintings and 18th century furniture. The farmyard and outbuildings show aspects of farming history and display a number of farm machinery and implements. There is a garden and a woodland walk around the estate.



Plate 73: The Archbishop's Palace, Armagh (No. 22)

This building known as the Archbishops Palace was built in 1770 by Architect Thomas Cooley for the Church of Ireland, Archbishop Richard Robinson. The building is now the offices of Armagh City and District Council. Archbishop Robinson's Chapel is located beside the Archbishop's palace. This structure was built in 1781, also by Thomas Cooley for Archbishop Robinson.



Plate 74: Armagh Public Library, Armagh (No. 105)

Archbishop Richard Robinson founded Armagh Public Library in 1771 as part of his plans to improve Armagh and establish a University. A number of rare books are held in the library such as a first edition of 'Gulliver's Travels', a facsimile version of the 'Book of Armagh' and John Colgan's 'Sacred Antiquities of Ireland'. The library also holds medieval and 17th century manuscripts, engravings and Irish artefacts. The library gained museum registration in 2002.

Plate 75: The Royal School, Armagh (No. 101)

The Royal School built in 1774. It was designed by Francis Johnston as part of an improvement scheme for Armagh by Archbishop Robinson.



Plate 76: Armagh Gaol (No. 102)

Armagh Gaol was completed in 1780 by architects Thomas Cooley, William Murray and possibly Francis Johnston. The Gaol was built on the site of the old barracks which was built in 1736. The Gaol was closed in 1988.

Plate 77: Armagh Observatory (No. 106)

Armagh Observatory was founded in 1790 by Archbishop Richard Robinson. The grounds of the Observatory span 14 acres and are known as Armagh Astropark. There are currently about 25 astronomers studying in the Observatory.

## 12. The 19<sup>th</sup> century

The 19<sup>th</sup> century saw Catholic emancipation by the efforts of a number of individuals. Henry Grattan, a member of the British House of Commons from 1805 devoted himself to Catholic emancipation till his death in 1820. Daniel O'Connell is, however, perhaps the most famous in the story of Catholic emancipation. O'Connell was a member of an Irish Catholic landed family in Kerry who had managed hold on to their estates and send their sons to the Continent to be educated. He was one of the first Catholics allowed to practice at the bar and is famous for setting up the Catholic Association, a political movement with the immediate goal of the admission of Roman Catholics to Parliament. He stood for election and won. In April 1829, the Catholic emancipation act became law. Catholics were now allowed to enter the Imperial Parliament in Westminster and were made eligible for all the senior offices of state except Prime Minister and Monarch.

Perhaps the most traumatic event of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in Ireland was the great famine of 1845-49. The country had undergone a massive rise in population in the last century. Most of the rural population, which was most of the country, depended on the potato as a staple food, and when it failed in successive harvests, widespread starvation and disease followed along with large scale emigration, in particular to the United States.



Plate 78: Bessbrook former mill, Co. Armagh (No. 36)

Bessbrook mill was set up in 1846 by the Richardson family and was very important to the linen industry of the area. The spinning mill flourished over 40 years employing hundreds of workers. The mill building had slanted windows which were designed to face north and allow a certain light to fall on the looms which aided the workers. There were approximately 300 looms used in the mill. The mill was taken over by the British army in the 1970's and a substantial army base was set up there. The mills two chimneys were demolished and steel walls were erected around the old mill.

Plate 79: Craigmore viaduct, Co. Armagh (No. 35)

In 1849, the construction of Craigmore Viaduct began and the bridge was opened in 1852. Sir John O'Neill designed the viaduct which crosses the Camlough River and it is the highest viaduct in Ireland. The Enterprise Train now travels across the viaduct on route from Belfast to Dublin.

The employment of a very large number of people in the northern counties at the time of the famine was in the linen industry, both linen spinning and linen weaving, and so suffered least in the famine. Statistics have (Duffy 2000, 156) shown the percentages of people engaged in the linen industry prior to the famine. The counties of Sligo, Leitrim, Longford, Cavan, Monaghan, Louth, Fermanagh and Donegal (linen spinning) formed a band or 'border' of counties where this industry was the main means of employment. In the counties Tyrone, Derry, Antrim, Down and Armagh linen weaving was the predominant industry. Neither linen spinning nor weaving was common in the rest of the counties that now form the Republic. The linen industry counties are the ones with least excess mortality during the famine as shown by statistics in Duffy (Duffy 2000, 158). However, the emigration rate is about the same in the north as the rate in the south half of Ireland.

The 'Home Rule' movement was initially the creation of Isaac Butt who favoured the idea of the return of a parliament to Ireland though he believed that Ireland should continue to be represented at Westminster. In 1873, he set up a new body, the Home Rule league. Charles Stewart Parnell was particularly dedicated to this movement and committed to the reform of agrarian and tenancy laws. He became president of the Irish National Land League founded by Michael Davit. Parnell paved the way for Gladstone to draft a Home rule bill which was defeated narrowly in Parliament in 1886.

Plate 80: Scarva Orange Hall, Co. Down (No. 71)



Plate 81: Roman Catholic in Monaghan Town (No. 84)

Monaghan town is a 16th/17th century plantation town. The town layout is unusual and comprises four interconnecting squares: Market Square, Church Square, The Diamond and Old Cross Square. The market house which was built in 1792 and is located in Market Square. The 'Old Cross' which is situated in Old Square is the oldest architectural feature

in the town and dates to the 17th century. The town was once a prosperous linen industry town. Monaghan town has an excellent award winning museum which displays a comprehensive archaeological and historical background for the town.



Plate 82: Ulster Canal, Monaghan Town, with stores building beyond bridge (No113)

The Ulster canal was built in 1841 linking Lough Erne to Lough Neagh. Due to a lack of water supply the canal fell into disrepair within 20 years of it being built. The canal was originally planned to link the ports of Belfast and Coleraine with the river Shannon and carry on to Limerick or Waterford. However, by the time the Shannon Erne link was built the canal had already become derelict. The canal was closed for repairs but by the time it re-opened the Shannon Erne link had almost been abandoned. The canal comprises 26 locks and is 46 miles long. Seven locks were built at the Monaghan town section of the canal to facilitate the rise into the town.

Plate 83: Saint Patrick's Cathedral, Roman Catholic, Armagh (No. 18)

Building began on this cathedral on St. Patricks day (March 17) in 1840. The foundation stone of the church was laid by Archbishop Crolly. The Cathedral took 64 years to be completed and was consecrated in 1904

Plate 84: The Argory, Armagh (No. 70)

The Argory was built in 1824. Its most celebrated feature is a cabinet barrel organ built by James Bishop of London which is an important piece of its kind. It is still in working order.



Plate 85: Gosford Castle, Armagh (No. 104)

Gosford Castle was built in 1850 by London architect, Thomas Hopper. The castle was commissioned by Archibald Acheson, second earl of Gosford when his previous dwelling had burnt down. The castle was built in Gothic style and with over 150 rooms. The castle was commandeered in the second world war and used by the Bristish Army and then by American forces. A prisoner of war camp was set up in the grounds. The estate remained in the Gosford family until after the second world war. During the troubles in Northern Ireland the army was once again stationed in the castle.



Plate 86: Tandragee Castle, Armagh (No. 107)

Tandragee castle was built in 1836 by the Duke of Manchester. It was built on the site of O'Hanlon castle which was the seat of the O'Hanlon clan until it was burned down in 1641. Tandragee castle was the seat of the Duke of Manchester until 1939 when the building was requisitioned by US troops in World War II. The castle was home to the US troops until the end of the war. The castle was purchased by the Hutchinson family in 1955, who run the Tayto factory, which is located within the grounds of the castle. The Tayto offices are within the castle itself.

Plate 87: Gilford Mill, Co. Down (No. 112)

Gilford village dates from the middle of the 17th century. The land was acquired by the Magill family from whom the village took its name. In 1691 a tuck mill and corn mill were granted to Thomas Purdy. The Purdy's began processing linen and retained their interests in the linen industry until the last quarter of the 18th century. In 1775 the mills became the possession of George Law, a leading linen merchant. Gilford began to attract the attention of other entrepreneurs in the industry. The town was in a good location with the Newry canal facilitating imports and exports to the town. The water from the river Bann had properties which were excellent for whitening the linen and water power was easily accessible.  In 1841, the spinning mills were completed, which was the largest industrial undertaking on the Bann. The mill was one of the largest of the flax spinning mills in Ireland and was a huge success. A house building project was started in Gilford to accommodate the large numbers of workers which were coming to Gilford to work in the mills. In the 1980's the mill ceased production and is awaiting redevelopment.



Plate 88: Mullan Village, Co. Monaghan (No. 110)
Mullan Main Street

Plate 89: Two buildings at the southwest end of Mullan Village (No. 110)



Plate 90: Concrete bench on Mullan Main Street, Co. Monaghan
(inset: Water Pump on Main Street)

Mullan is a 19th century mill village located close to the Armagh border. The village has many examples of Victorian architecture. There are a number of interesting heritage features within the village including a mill-race (reputed to be the longest in the country at 1km), a concrete bench and a working water pump. Mullan was a centre of the linen industry in the 18th and early 19th century. A substantial flax mill, mill race and a number of cottages existed in Mullan by 1857. The village was later known for the manufacture of Bullock Irish Serge. The mill fell into disuse in

the 20th century and the village lay idle until 1924 when a shoe factory was established. The following year 80 people were employed in the shoe factory manufacturing the Mill Brand and the Border Brand of heavy footwear. In 1944 the Boylan family bought the village and it was a busy rural centre until the late 1970's. The decline of the village was due to its border location and its mill houses fell into disrepair and its population dwindled.

# 13. The 20<sup>th</sup> century

The Home Rule movement campaigned throughout Ulster. Its results, county by county, show the attitude to rule from Dublin. Protestants (including Presbyterians) outnumbered Catholics and how the two sides voted clearly shows a pattern of opposition to Home Rule by the Ulster Protestants/Presbyterians at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Six of the nine Ulster counties were adamantly against Home Rule. A division of these six Ulster Counties from the nine forming the province of Ulster was made in 1920 by Lloyd George when he set up two Home Rule type parliaments in Ireland. One parliament was to be based in Dublin, the other catered for the six unionist counties. This is the origin of the six county divisions.

The Easter 1916 rising which took place in Dublin which led to the formation of the Irish Republic is well known. Several leaders were executed in 1916 but the battle continued and in December 1921, the Articles of Agreement establishing the Irish Free State were signed. The six counties with its predominantly Protestant and Presbyterian population opposed Home Rule set itself against any division from Britain.

In January 1922, the Treaty, part of which was the agreement to partition of the six unionist Ulster counties, was passed by the Dáil, many leaders recognising the clear opposition of the six counties to separation from Britain. Eamonn DeValera and his followers opposed the Treaty and civil war followed. The border took on a new meaning and became very clearly a division between two states. There was an exodus of many Protestant families to the six counties from the Free State. Many northern Catholics emigrated southwards. A very clear border, not only physical but social and cultural emerged.

The Free State established its own government over 26 Irish counties, the six unionist counties remaining under British rule. However, Articles 2 and 3 of the new constitution of Ireland, brought in by deValera in 1937 stated that Ireland aspired to dominion over the remaining six counties and had territorial claim to them. These articles were only dropped as a result of the Good Friday agreement in 1998, thirty years after the beginning of the troubles.

Plate 91: Scarva Pillbox, Co. Down (No. 4)

This pillbox is situated at the entrance to Scarva House. It contains 2 machine gun embrasures at front left and right. On the inside of each embrasure is a stepped machine gun platform and a square recess which was probably used for ammunition or water coolant. The pillboxes were built for defence in Northern Ireland during the last world war, in case the province, as part of the UK, were to be attacked by the Germans. The Scarva pillbox was part of the Lough Neagh-Carlingford Lough line of defence. The river Bann and the Newry canal were used as the main obstacles in these areas and the pillboxes would have been used to defend crossing points.



Plate 92: Kilkeel pillbox, Co. Down (No. 19)

The pillboxes were built for defence in Northern Ireland during the last world war, in case the province, as part of the UK, were to be attacked by the Germans. This pillbox at Kilkeel held a backup generator which would keep nearby

radar units going when the main power supply failed. It is located in a field on Herbert Stevenson's land about a mile outside Kilkeel. Approximately 400yards from Kilkeel pillbox is a concrete bunker that housed an RAF radar unit.

Not long after the creation of the state the Second World War (WW2) broke out. Though a very large number of Irishmen joined the British forces, DeValera, now Taoiseach of the Irish Free State did not hasten to the aid of Britain, opting instead for neutrality. In the north, Harland & Wolff and Shorts factories built aircraft and other factories produced shells and uniforms.

Whether or not the Germans fully grasped it, Ireland north and south was in two very different positions facing the war. The north of Ireland defined by the six counties was part of the United Kingdom and was prepared for defence against attack-while the Republic was not. Several defensive structures relating to the Second World War can be found in the six counties today. There are Pillboxes, defensive concrete structures, found in many parts of the six counties and other defensive structures such as Bunkers and shelters.

In the north of Ireland, Protestants and Presbyterians, because of their history in the northern counties, tended to be the landowning, business and professional classes. In the mid- 20th century they represented the majority while the Catholic minority, again because of their history, tended to be working class. There was without doubt a real fear among Protestants that some day the Catholics would out-vote them and that they would be subjected to a government they perceived to be fundamentally opposed to their history, faith and culture. Discrimination against Catholics was perceived and issues in relation to housing allotments sparked off the Civil Rights marches of 1968.

The civil rights movement was started by such people as John Hume and others in Derry and formed protest marches. Attacks on the Civil Rights marchers resulted in the calling in of the British army to protect the Catholics from attack, but they themselves were perceived as having a role in attacks against Catholics. The IRA re-formed. Decades of violence on both sides of the divide followed.

Especially around the border counties, military watchtowers and checkpoints were set up by the British army. Up to recent years, it was possible for the traveller from the south only to enter the north by one of five main roads, all of which were guarded by British soldiers. The soldiers were armed and were backed up by unseen colleagues from the watchtowers, an unnerving experience for those entering the north. We have no photographs of the soldiers at the checkpoints as these could endanger the individuals if they were identified, but we have the remains of several of the watchtowers which have been dismantled in the last decade.

Plate 93: Crossmaglen army structure, Co. Armagh (No. 21)

Crossmaglen RUC station and army barracks (also known as Golf Five Zero watchtower) is situated in the middle of the town of Crossmaglen. It was an important army base during the 'troubles' in the south Armagh border town. It is named 'Borucki Sangar' after James Borucki of the Parachute Regiment who was blown up by an IRA bomb in 1976.

The troubles in the north lasted at least 30 years. Nineteen ninety eight and the signing of the Good Friday Agreement can be perhaps seen to be the beginning of the process that has brought peace at last to the Northern Counties.



Plate 94: Newtownhamilton army structure, Co. Armagh (No. 69)

Newtownhamilton is a heavily defended British Army barracks in South Armagh and was in use throughout the troubles of the latter part of the 20th century in Northern Ireland. The towers are fortresses with rooms beneath where soldiers could live for months at a time. Soldiers in these watchtowers had the technology to see for miles around and computer terminals where linked to the main military intelligence databases.

Plate 95: Poyntzpass Pillbox, Co. Armagh from a distance showing its position on the hill
(No. 8)

Pillboxes were used for defence in Northern Ireland. During world war II a concrete pillbox or machine gun post was constructed overlooking the bridge in Poyntzpass which was considered a potentially important crossing point in the event of invasion. The river Bann and the Newry canal were used as the main obstacles in these areas and the pillboxes would have been used to defend crossing points.



Plate 96: Tassagh Railway Viaduct, Armagh (No. 108)

The Tassagh Railway Viaduct was built between 1903 and 1910 by the Castleblaney, Keady and Armagh Railway Company. The engineer was Sir Benjamin Baker and its purpose was to keep the ambitious Midland Great Western out of the zealously guarded territory of the Great Northern Railway.