

RESEARH ON THE ANGLO-SAXON GLOBAL LAW, HAMPTON COURT AND
THE CLIMATE CHANGE

C. ȘTEFAN¹, S.STANCIU²

¹*Banat University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine Timișoara: Faculty of Horticulture and Forestry; carolina_stefan@yahoo.com*

²*Banat University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine Timișoara: Faculty of Farm Management*

Abstract: *The Anglo-Saxon laws in Alfred's day (849-901) legislated for certain horticultural disputes. Most significant is the fact that vineyards received special attention; for vineyards entail a degree of skill in gardening which, in my belief, entitles us to assume that where there were vineyards there were orchards, vegetable, and herb gardens. Si quis damnum intulerit alterius vineae vel agro, vel alcui ejus terrae, compenset sicut quis Mud aestivate (Wilkins, "Leges anglo-saxonicaey London 1721"). Such small gardens were much cultivated by the monks and late Saxon England was rich in monasteries for not only was Edward a bigot if not a saint, but even the warlike Harold was a deeply religious man, as witness his Waltham Abbey. As for the Celtic part of these islands during the post-Roman pre-Norman centuries, there is evidence in plenty for orchards and it seems to me improbable that there would be orchards and no other kind of gardens whatever.*

Key words: *global law, climate change, Latin gardens*

INTRODUCTION

There is an ancient poem of Merddin the Caledonian which begins: "To no one has been exhibited at one hour of the dawn what was shown to Merddin before he became aged, namely seven score and seven delicious apple trees, of equal age, length and size, which sprang from the bosom of mercy. One bending veil covers them over. They are guarded by one maid with crisped locks. Her name is Olwedd with the luminous teeth. This Merddin was Judge of the North, and a bard, in the sixth century. In the same century St Teilo, bishop of LlandafT, crossing over to Armorica to spend some years with his erstwhile fellow-student bishop Samson of Dol, planted not a mere orchard but a whole forest of fruit trees; it is said to have extended over three miles. It still existed, known as the arboretum Teliavi et Samsonia five centuries later.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

Interesting evidence for the technical advancement of Welsh horticulture long before the Norman Conquest is to be found in the Dwl Gwynedd, a code of laws enacted by Howel Dda c. ad 910. For example: "A graft fourpence without augmentation until the kalends of winter after it is grafted." First, it is obvious that the tenth-century Welsh were practising grafting; this art was brought to Italy by Syrian slaves, imported by the Romans with the trees which the slaves were to plant and tend. That the Welsh, i.e. the Britons, had the art from Italy is clear, for both the verb to graft and the older word to imp are of Greek derivation and have Latin equivalents. In the second place, the practice implied in the above law, of withholding payment for the young tree until it was certain that scion and stock had made a good union, is remarkably sophisticated. The next phrase of the law is: "And thenceforward an increase of 2d is added every season until it shall bear fruit and then it is three-score pence in value".

In short we find it hard to believe that England was without gardens between Roman and Norman times if only because the care of fruit trees is a sophisticated part of gardening. It is at least possible, though I can offer no evidence, that Roman villa gardens were imitated about the great halls of the Saxon nobility. It is too easily forgotten that these halls were attributes of a settled and prosperous land and that their replacement by Norman castles, the fortresses of a hated occupying power, were, from the point of view of "civilization", retrogressive.

However, although the manners and even the wealth of the upper-class laity in England probably declined for some decades after Senlac, the so-called battle of Hastings, number and wealth of monasteries increased, and with monasteries came more gardens, of a kind. They were herb gardens, fruit gardens and vineyards. They were, in short, "Latin" gardens.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Dunstable School and later a professor at the Sorbonne, was describing in *De Naturis rerum* what a garden was like. His writings have been dismissed as not really derived from observation in England at all; the evidence advanced for this is that some of the plants he mentions are relatively tender and would not grow in our climate. But here two things are overlooked; if I printed a catalogue of what I have growing in my garden, it could be shown that I was a liar on the same grounds; plants which will not survive untended in our climate will live a man's lifetime if the gardener be careful. In the second place, evidence for a considerable climatic change is ignored. By the year ad 1300 vineyards, for example, had extended as far to the north as Finland. About the middle of the fourteenth century, however, there was, apparently, a big change in the climate of north-west Europe. It is discussed by Rachel Carson in *The Sea around us*; we find the vine, a key plant when we are considering climate, rapidly falling back until it has retreated behind the 50th parallel of latitude.

Evidence from monastic and cathedral chapter accounts, the only kind we have at this stage, refers only to produce of the garden that was bought and sold, so that we know that apples, pears, grapes, mulberries and cherries at least were grown, and such vegetables as leeks, carrots and peas, as well as medicinal herbs. If any flowers were grown; if these small gardens had design; if the beds were edged by clipped box, we should not know it. But in his *Gardening in Britain* by far the best book on the subject yet written, Miles Hadfield, a cautious historian, cites the interesting case of the Tresco Abbey daffodils: when, in 1872, T.A.Dorrien Smith began the commercial growing of daffodils in the Scilly Isles, the two varieties used were -those found naturalized among the abbey ruins, thereafter named 'Scilly White' and 'Soleil d'Or'. These must have derived from old garden plantings; and as far as I can discover daffodils have no medicinal value.

By the fourteenth and fifteenth century's noblemen as well as the regular clergy had their gardens of fruit, some vegetables and perhaps a few cultivated native flowers: mazes of clipped evergreens, usually box, were fashionable. The English gardens of this period were orderly and very formal, in fact as 'unnatural' as possible. They were simply European gardens which happened to be in Britain. It is true that by late republican times in Rome a taste for 'wild', for 'natural' corners in the gardens had developed. But this taste is possible only to a people who have built, cultivated and imposed order on so great a part of their landscape that there is a reaction in favor of the wild. Before men love the wild they must feel safe from it, it must have become clear to them that they have power to tame it. This was far from being the case in fifteenth century England where a couple of million people lived in relatively small enclaves of civilization set in a land still Nature's.

The argument of this work will be illustrated by reference to actual and still existent gardens; each will be, as far as that is possible, representative of a whole class of English

gardens. But as has been pointed out elsewhere the very fact that the English are active and enthusiastic gardeners means that very few gardens remain for long of one form or fashion; it is true that from time to time an attempt is made to restore a garden or part of a garden to the fashion of an earlier time: it is also true that a number of the great picture gardens of the eighteenth century, to which we shall come in due course, have been kept more or less as they were intended to be by the artists who made them. In their case a particular difficulty arises in that they were composed and made in the same spirit as that in which a landscape paints a picture, and in some cases with astonishing success. But paint is dead, whereas the material of the landscape artist is alive and continually escapes from his control: a garden whose trees are thirty years old does not look like the same garden with trees a hundred years old. However, from the eighteenth century onwards it is possible to present gardens representative of each change of fashion in gardening, each development towards the ideal of English gardening still, until Robinson's day, latent, dormant, unrealized in the English soul. For the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, then, the nearest we can get to a specimen garden now is that of Hampton Court.

The dominant influence in English gardening during the Restoration and until the arrival of Dutch gardening with a Dutch king was that of the French garden architect Le Notre. His method was to plant trees and shrubs in great number and according to a strictly geometrical pattern; or to cut an existing wood up so as to produce the same effect. This style was widely copied in Britain by such land-owners as could afford the very expensive waterworks, which often gave a great deal of trouble and did not always work properly, that went with it. Le Notre gardens are hardly gardens at all. They are rooms, or rather vast halls, out of doors. They are, at their best, stately and magnificent, but they are, to the English gardener, very dull. They are dull because they simply compose a single coup d'oeil which, having once impressed is to be taken for granted. The important thing in a great French garden is not the garden but the fact that as a setting it enhances the importance of the people who walk and converse in it. It has no interesting detail; the visitors or the owners provide that, in their own persons. The channel through which Le Notre's influence reached Britain was John Rose, gardener to Charles II, author of *The English Vineyard Vindicated*, friend of John Evelyn, that lover of trees, and the first gardener in Britain to grow pineapples successfully on hot beds.

CONCLUSIONS

As everybody knows, Hampton Court was built and laid out by Cardinal Wolsey. As a fairly representative Renaissance prince of the Church, Wolsey's taste, like his diplomacy, was Italianate. But Hampton Court garden was certainly not Italianate as we now understand the word. It was, as far as one can roots and seeds back from Holland, probably the most advanced country, horti-culturally speaking, in the world at that time excepting China and Japan. Later, the Tradescants collected plants in North America. The French queen sent Cecil five hundred fruit trees. The vineyard at Hatfield House was the largest planted in Britain until 1875; it must have covered seven or eight acres even if we allow for the overcrowding then common in vineyards, for thirty thousand vines were imported to fill it, at a cost of £60.

Paths in Jacobean gardens were of brick, sets or pebbles, arranged in symmetrical patterns; flower beds were knots; there was a lot of Italianate masonry. Clipped hedges were privet, box or thorn, never yew. Vineyards were commonplace, and elaborate summer-houses de rigueur.

As much of the gardening fashion came from France at this time, I believe that pleaching, whether of limes or hornbeam, probably reached England in the first part of the seventeenth century. Also from France, and in the same spirit, came the elaborate pruning and training of fruit-trees to form espaliers and wall trees, peaches, figs, cherries and

probably even pomegranates, although the latter seldom ripen in Britain and have done so only twice in the last half century.

The art of deforming fruit trees was an ancient one; the Romans had it, as usual from Syria but it may have been practiced by the earliest sophisticated cultures, perhaps at Byblos, a great proto-centre for pomology and viticulture. Pliny, a conservative, detested it, at least when it was carried to the extremes which he described. But he had odd ideas of what was possible, and so did even men of education in our own sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It was believed, for example, that you could graft grape-vines on to cherry trees. I call this curious because the men who propagated such nonsense were nevertheless genuinely interested in their gardens and must have been on more or less familiar terms with the gardeners they employed, practical men who could have told them just what could and could not be done.

REFERENCES

1. **AIKMAN L.**, (1983) – Herbs for all season, National Geographic, vol.163, nr.3, U.S.A.;
2. **BOHM C.**, (1987) – Gartenhandbuch, Verlag Paul Parey, Berlin, Hamburg;
3. **CHISĂLIȚĂ I., SOLOMONESC A., MOATĂR MIHAELA, ȘTEFAN CAROLINA** (2010) - Topographic and microclimatic issues in Moldova Nouă Local Sylvic Department, Journal of Horticulture, Forestry and Biotechnology, Facultatea Horticultură și Silvicultură, Timișoara;
4. **LILE R., CSORBA LUIELA.**, (2010) - The romanian energy market, Theoretical and Practical Approaches in Economics, “International Symposium: Research and Education in Innovation Era”, Arad 2010, “Aurel Vlaicu” University Publishing House Arad, Ed. Mirton Timișoara, ISBN 978-973-752-523-9;
5. **MURG OANA MARIA, MARTIN SIMONA CRISTINA, ABRAHAM IZABELLA, MATEOC T.** (2012) - The energetic willow solution for agriculture, energy and environment *Lucrări științifice Management Agricol, Seria 1, vol. XIV (2) „Dezvoltarea rurală durabilă”*, Facultatea de Management Agricol, Timișoara, 20 mai 2012, ISSN 1453-1410, pg.527-540;
6. **POPESCU GABRIELA, IASMINA IOSIM** (2009) - The influence of recycling on consumer behaviour in the European Union, USAMVB, Facultatea de Management Agricol, Simpozion Științific Internațional, ”Managementul dezvoltării rurale durabile”, *Lucrări Științifice, Serial, Volumul XI (2)*, Editura Agroprint Timișoara, ISSN 1453-1410;
7. **STANCIU S. M, TABĂRĂ AMÂNAR C.G.**, (2011) - Heritage silvic theft according to the Forestry Code, Law 46/2008.