Medieval Settlement Research Group

Annual Report 4 1989

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AN EDITORIAL COMMENT

I am pleased to be able to present the 4th Annual Report of the M.S.R.G. for 1989, to the members of the Group. There are two developments concerning which I am particularly hopeful. Firstly, you will notice that this volume is substantially larger than the 3rd Report. There has been a welcome increase in the number of short articles as well as a surge of material from continental Europe. In addition, conference speakers were invited to summarise their own contributions, and the result has been rather fuller précis. The number of reports of work undertaken in 1989 has also increased over those offered in the last volume.

Secondly, the decision has been made to include a small number of black and white photographs in the text, and I trust readers will find that these add information and interest to the volume. Hopefully, the number included will rise in future years to, perhaps, 8 or 10, but this will depend on members supplying suitable plates to the editor.

Like Report No. 3, this Report is being printed by Silk and Terry Ltd. of Birmingham. My grateful thanks to Michael Silk for his professional advice and all the work done by himself and his colleagues.

The Annual Report is the mouthpiece of the Group, and exists to enable its members to inform each other of research undertaken and to exchange views. Its contents are limited to what the editor receives. I would like to express my gratitude to all the many members who sent material for this volume, and to take this opportunity to urge members (and non-members) to send me their contributions for volume 5, including short reports on research undertaken in 1990 and views they would like to share on medieval settlement. Let us try to keep the Annual Report as relevant, up-to-date and inclusive as possible. Letters, Reports, Articles, Figures and Plates please to the editor (address on page 2), by the end of April 1991 for the 5th Annual Report.

Nick Higham

ANNOUNCEMENTS

ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The Annual General Meeting will be held on **Friday, December 7th, 1990,** at **Vaughan College, Leicester.** The theme of the seminar will be recent work in the East Midlands.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE

The Annual Conference will be held at the **University of Birmingham** in conjunction with the **Society for Landscape Studies** on the **21st of September, 1991.** The theme will be **Moats and Manors in the Landscape.** Forms containing more information and for use in enrolment will be circulated to all members in due course.

GENERAL NOTICES

(i) Please note the change of district code for Fortress House, now **London W1X 2JQ.**
(ii) From 1991 or 1992, the archives of the MSRG will be moved to Swindon, at which point staff members at RCHME in London will no longer be able to answer queries. These will, for the future, be dealt with by the Secretary of the Group.

CORRIGENDA

(i) In the third annual report for 1988, The Shapwick Project was inadvertently placed in Avon (p.14). Shapwick remains in Somerset despite rumours to the contrary.

(ii) In the third annual report for 1988, page 19, description of excavations at Cleeve, penultimate sentence should read: A further building is emerging to the **east** but its relationship to building 1 is at present ambiguous.

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MSRG: Annual Conference at Oxford 9th-11th February 1990:
MEDIEVAL FORESTS AND WOODLAND: SETTLEMENT AND SOCIETY

Summaries of the papers presented, by the individual speakers, Christopher Dyer and the editor.

Christopher Dyer: Medieval Forest and Woodland: Opening Remarks

The understanding of this subject has been transformed in the last 15 years. It was possible in the 1950s for serious scholars to believe that the medieval tree cover was so extensive that a mythical squirrel could cross the country without touching the ground. It was also thought that woods were wastes, and that their wide extent proved the economic backwardness of England.

Now we are more ecologically aware, and realise that a good deal of woodland was necessary to achieve a balance of resources. Woods were of limited extent, having been cleared in many regions in prehistory. The remaining areas of wood had great value as sources of timber, wood, raw materials for industry, and food for people and animals. Woods were managed and harvested. Various unsolved problems remain.

Firstly there has been much disagreement about the changing area of woodland. Everyone accepts that much wood had been cleared before 400. After that date some argue for large scale regeneration, and others for continuity in land use. These rival interpretations are important for our understanding of the post-Roman centuries, and also for later periods. If the woods really expanded by a million or two million acres after 400, there would have been a correspondingly large scale of clearance at some time between 700 and 1300. If the woods expanded only slightly, the internal colonisation of the high middle ages is likely to have been on a relatively small scale. We should not presume that the extent of woodland was inversely related to the area of settlement and cultivation. When the population fell in the 14th and 15th centuries, there is little evidence that woods grew in size.

Secondly there is still much to learn about the management of woods. The question 'Who owned the woods?' is not capable of a simple answer, as access to woods was often shared between the king (if the wood lay in a royal forest), lords, and peasants. Woods were often shared by more than one community. Different users of the woods would clash because they had incompatible needs, and because demand for timber, wood, grazing, etc., outran supplies. The use of woods was regulated by law and custom, but were the rules adequate to prevent conflict? Or was conflict an endemic feature of woodland society?

Were wood and timber ever scarce? Some have denied the existence of shortage, but one suspects that at some periods (for example in the 13th century) the expense of obtaining wood and timber was high, whether in terms of time spent travelling to distant woods, or in terms of the cash paid for the large quantities of woodland products that came on to the market.

Thirdly there is the question of woods viewed as an aspect of settlement and social history. Each social class had its own perception of woods and expectation of them. The aristocratic view that woods were pleasure grounds, and the Cisterian notion that they were deserts suitable for contemplation, involved an element of fantasy. Both lay and church landlords had to take hard decisions about the use of woods — whether to give pleasure and status priority, or to make profit from them, either by intensive exploitation as supplies of grazing, wood, timber, etc., or by allowing them to be cleared to make way for agricultural land.

Woodlands were full of immigrants, suggesting that peasants, in weighing the disadvantages of woodland life (the oppressions of the king's foresters, poor soils, etc.) against the opportunities for pastoral farming, industry, etc. decided that woodland provided an attractive environment. We are aware of a distinctive grouping of institutions, settlement patterns and social structures in the woodlands — such areas often had a regime of forest law, large parishes with dependent chapelries, dispersed settlements, irregular field systems, extensive pastures, industrial activity, opportunities for hunting and gathering, and free tenure. These can be identified and observed at their peak of development in the 13th century, but had they always existed? There is good evidence for some form of royal control of hunting grounds, and dispersed settlements in the pre-Conquest period, but one suspects that at that time not all of the constituent elements of the woodland countryside were present.

Martin Bell: Changing Attitudes to the pre-Medieval Landscape and Woodland Legacy

W.G. Hoskins, writing in 1955, envisaged that great tracts of virgin forest survived at the time of the Norman Conquest. Advances in environmental and landscape archaeology mean that view needs drastic revision. The nature of natural vegetation *c.* 5000 BP was briefly considered followed by regional contrasts in the chronology of clearance. It was suggested that most areas of Lowland England had been subject to anthropogenic influence by the Iron Age. Oliver Rackham has, on the other hand, demonstrated that 'ancient' woodland survives in Britain to a previously unimagined extent, not as uncolonised waste but as a carefully husbanded resource, since woodland management goes back to the Neolithic.

The prehistory of ancient woodland is considered with reference initially to two areas which Hoskins argued contained considerable expanses of virgin woodland until medieval times: the Weald and the Midlands. Both are shown to contain significant evidence for earlier clearance and settlement. Schumer's study of Wychwood shows a great deal of evidence for prehistoric and Roman activity and implies that the medieval wood resulted from regeneration. Even the small Hatfield Forest in Essex and Leigh Woods, Avon contain archaeological sites which may suggest episodes of more open conditions. The hypothesis of continuity since wildwood times has

seldom been explicitly tested by palaeoenvironmental analysis. One exception is a study of Epping Forest which shows continuous wildwood cover since the Neolithic, although its composition has been changed as a result of management. The small Montingerbos Wood in the Netherlands tells a similar story.

Evidence for dark age regeneration is critically examined and though there are sites where it is confirmed by radiocarbon dating its extent has been exaggerated. A growing number of sites have produced evidence of continuity of agricultural activity after Romano-British times, sometimes this takes the form of continuity in the growing of specific crops. It is argued that environmental evidence suggests a greater degree of continuity of land-use in the post-Roman landscape than the site based archaeology, which tends to reflect the vicissitudes of individual failed settlements. Early clearances and archaeological sites in some areas which were assumed to be wooded until early medieval times suggest that some 'ancient' woodland is the result of regeneration, although we cannot necessarily assume that this occurred in the fifth century. Differing conclusions regarding the origins of ancient woodland to some extent derive from the contrasting data sets of pollen, historical sources, field archaeology and present day botanical composition, each of which relate to very different spatial and temporal scales. There is a need to test our hypotheses against independent data sets and for more integrated studies of archaeology and palaeoenvironment in a medieval rural context.

Petra Day: Reconstructing the Environment of Shotover Forest, Oxfordshire

The medieval Forest of Shotover lay immediately to the north-east of Oxford, and consisted of two parts: a core area which seems to have been within the Forest from the eleventh to seventeenth centuries (disafforestation occurred in 1660), and a peripheral area of surrounding parishes, which were partially or wholly covered by Forest Law at some stage in the medieval period.

From cartographic, onomastic, textual and topographic sources the extent of woodland in the Shotover area during the early post-medieval period can be reconstructed. At this time, Forest Law covered two discrete areas: Shotover Forest on Shotover Hill, and Stowood Forest, to the north of this. In the seventeenth century both of these Forest areas were mainly wooded, each consisting of nine coppices, covering 900 acres in Shotover and 600 acres in Stowood. Disafforestation in 1660 was followed by clearance of these coppice areas, so that by the early nineteenth century almost all of the woodland once within the seventeenth century Forest area had been cleared. Only two portions of woodland from the Stowood part of the Forest survived. In contrast, much of the woodland that had been peripheral to the core area of the Forest remained into the nineteenth or twentieth centuries. All of this surviving woodland overlay clay soils, in contrast to the Shotover and Stowood coppices which had overlain sand and limestone. The more rapid clearance of the Forest coppices is perhaps therefore at least partially attributable to the fact that they were on soils more readily utilised for agricultural purposes than the clays.

Shotover and Stowood Forests are mentioned in Domesday Book, together with the other Oxfordshire Forests, but there is no indication of the amount of woodland, if any, within them. However, a consideration of the woodland figures given in Domesday Book for adjacent manors suggests that the amount of woodland present in the eleventh century was similar to that which may be reconstructed for the early post-medieval period. This may indicate that relatively little woodland clearance occurred in the medieval period.

Sidlings Copse is today a small strip of woodland on a valley slope, and is a surviving fragment of one of the coppices of Stowood Forest. Investigation of the fen in the valley bottom has revealed a sequence of pollen-containing deposits covering the whole of the last 10,000 years. Analysis of this pollen sequence, combined with radiocarbon dating, has enabled reconstruction of the way in which the vegetation of the area has changed through time. The first impact of human activity on the vegetation was in the Neolithic period, but major clearance did not commence until the Bronze Age. By the end of the Bronze Age all dry-land woodland seems to have been cleared from the area, and by the end of the Roman period it seems that virtually no woodland remained. This open landscape continued into the Anglo-Saxon period, but in the late Saxon or early post-Norman period woodland regeneration commenced in the vicinity of the site.

This regeneration, when seen against a general background of increasing agricultural activity in the Oxford region, perhaps resulted from the imposition of Forest Law on the area. Assuming that this meant that, for the core area of the Forest at least, agricultural activities were curtailed, woodland regeneration could occur naturally over a few decades.

It therefore seems that the core area of the Forest may not have been wooded at the time of afforestation, but that woodland regeneration may have occurred as a result of changes in landscape-use resulting from the imposition of Forest Law.

Margaret Gelling: Place-Names and Woodland

Place-names provide reliable information about the flora and fauna of the Anglo-Saxon countryside. In his book *The History of the Countryside* (1986) Oliver Rackham failed to appreciate the value of this evidence because his ignorance of the Old English language vitiated his attempts to locate tree and animal names in place-names and in Anglo-Saxon charter boundaries.

The assembly and mapping of a corpus of names containing such animal and bird names as wolf, cat, beaver, raven would provide information about the likely incidence of these creatures in Anglo-Saxon times. A study of Old English *earn* 'eagle' in place-names has revealed that the term was used for two distinct categories of bird, one of which was the fish eagle, which nests in tall trees on the edge of forest clearings.

The main place-name indicator of ancient woodland is the generic *leah*, and the mapping of names containing this word outlines areas which were forested in the middle Saxon period. *leah* is by far the commonest topographical term in English place-names, and there is an inverse relationship between it and the generic *tun*, which is by far the commonest habitative term.

Some recurring compounds, such as Wootton, Acton, Thornton, Ashby, would repay study as possible indicators of specialised woodland activities.

Peter Warner: Medieval Woodland and Settlement in East Suffolk

Building on the work of scholars who have argued for the survival of some pre-Roman field-systems on the claylands of South Norfolk and North East Suffolk, this paper proposed that late Roman woodland regeneration was partly responsible for preserving a patchwork of rectilinear and curvilinear boundaries. The evidence for woodland in these areas from the time of the Domesday survey suggests that wood-pasture was concentrated in blocks which were intercommoned by neighbouring parishes. This pattern is responsible for the relatively small proportion of tree-pollen for the late-Roman period evident in the few samples taken in this area, all of which probably lay some distance from the blocks of woodland concerned. It is suggested that the underlying pattern of prehistoric and early Roman field-systems survived through a late-Roman phase of woodland regeneration and had a profound effect upon the development of Saxon and later settlement in some clayland areas. Furthermore, the patchiness of this woodland and the character of the landscape it preserved is central to a proper understanding of settlement development in parts of East Anglia.

Jean Birrell: Lords and Peasants in the Medieval Forest

Woodland served many purposes in medieval society: it provided not only wood, timber and wood fuel, but grazing for domestic stock and deer and pannage for pigs, and had a host of other lesser uses. It also formed a reserve of potential arable land. It could be managed to meet these various, sometimes conflicting, needs by a range of methods, including coppicing and pollarding, the creation of permanent or temporary compartments, or restrictions on the volume of use. However, different users had different priorities for the use of the woodland, and disputes were inevitable. The greater pressure on resources typical of the later thirteenth century inevitably increased the number and the intensity of such disputes; it also meant that those lords who could control woodland were in a good position not only to benefit from its resources themselves, but also to tax the use of woodland by others.

Detailed study of woods for which a range of different documents survives can illustrate not only how the woodland was used, but the specific issues round which disputes revolved. Two examples will be discussed here.

The manor of Essington, part of a small knightly estate, lay within the royal forest of Cannock (Staffordshire). The woodland was managed to produce both timber and wood; it fed sheep, pigs and deer; and it was being eroded by assarting. The enforcement of forest law in the second half of the thirteenth century meant fines on the lord of the manor himself for wasting his woods, and on the tenants for both vert offences and assarts. There was also an instance of violence in the early fourteenth century between the lord and two royal foresters, which seems likely to have been connected with the extortion and abuses known to have been practised locally by the foresters. A number of complaints that rights to common pasture in the manorial woods, often based on tenure in nearby manors, were being restricted or denied reached the royal courts, and suggest that pasture was becoming scarce. Within the manor, the lord was fining tenants for vert offences committed in the woods and also requiring commoners to produce satisfactory charters in support of their claims, which some were unable to do.

Several manors on the extensive Staffordshire estate of the bishop of Coventry and Lichfield also lay within the royal forest, though the bishop achieved their virtual disafforestation in stages, culminating in the appropriation of Cannock and Rugeley as a free chase. The wealth and prosperity of this estate was to a large extent based on the exploitation of its woodland resources, but here, too, conflicts over access to the woods become prominent towards the end of the thirteenth century. There were similar disputes to those found at Essington over pasture and wood rights, and suggestions that the bishop was challenging tenants' rights. The local peasant economy was largely based on the extensive woodland, which provided not only pasture for animals but wood and timber for various crafts and trades. The bishop was able to benefit from this throughout the later middle ages, not only by sales of wood and timber from the estate but by fines imposed on vert offenders in his manorial courts.

Paul Stamper: Did it matter if you lived in the Forest?

Forest Law has been viewed, as much by contemporary chroniclers as by modern commentators, as seriously detrimental to the quality of men's lives in the Middle Ages. But, in practice, was that so? While no single answer will cover the experience of all men, of all classes, in seventy forests over three centuries or more, some general observations are possible.

By the end of Richard's reign, and certainly in John's, the Crown was placing few restrictions, beyond the financial, on large-scale disafforestation. In fact, it was as much supply-led as demand-led. Many cases can be sited where individuals or groups paid to free a district, or even a whole county, from Forest Law. The sums paid were large, but when divided between those liable to contribute the *per capita* levy might be fairly modest. That was especially so when compared with the land's increased profit potential through enlarged assart rent rolls, and perhaps from more intensive woodland management. There were of course other important motives behind disafforestation, not the least being the desire to hunt. But the purchases of freedom from Forest Law must not be seen in isolation: in the late 11th and 12th century individuals and communities were prepared to pay large sums to gain liberty in many areas of life from the unpredictable exactions of the Crown: counties were paying to elect their own sheriff, and boroughs to achieve self-government.

Churchmen were among those active in buying freedom from Forest Law which, to their indignance and cost, did not recognise clerical privilege.

There are few indications of serious peasant opposition to Forest Law (*pace* Robin Hood) and indeed, by the mid 13th century, there were few grounds for complaint. The forests provided some of the best pasture grounds in the kingdom, and in general the Crown was careful to respect common rights. There was land available in many of them for assarting, even in the 14th century, generations after the supply had been exhausted in most other parts of the country. Fines, rents, and other payments were generally fair, some even fixed at levels that became increasingly attractive compared with those outside the Forest governed by market forces.

There is no doubt there were drawbacks to living within

the Forest for peasants and lesser lords and churchmen. Complaints about corrupt Forest officials at all levels of the hierarchy are common and loud in royal records. We also have much still to learn about life in the Forest, both from documents and from physical evidence. But we must proceed free of the preconception that the Forest was a Bad Thing; for many, it can be tentatively argued, it was a Very Good Thing indeed.

Vince Russett: Poachers and Purprestures — Settlement and Society in the Forest of Mendip

The Forest of Mendip in Avon (then Somerset), south of Bristol, was based for administrative purposes on the royal manor of Cheddar, situated in a core area with few trees, even in Domesday Book. Study of this forest has clarified the local meaning of several expressions: assarts were normally next to the dwelling; encroachment was an isolated phenomenon, and purprestures was a term applied to general enclosure for crops, for which a fine was normally paid. The uplands were probably open throughout the period, while steep slopes were wooded.

The Forest was probably there because of the 9th-11th century palace site of Cheddar, which was forgotten in the later middle ages. It had had a rational estate pattern, with a central infield, mills, the palace and market, and peripheral pasture, arable and woodland, associated with small settlements. A perambulation of 1300 established very clear boundaries. The Axe Valley was extensively drained for agriculture while the Forest was in existence, and the "New Cut" on the river Yeo was dated 1317.

Roman and medieval pottery has been found on a site granted to the Cistercians as a sheep walk. Several enclosed areas associated with settlements were grazed. Within the Forest, at Carscliffe, a holloway and agricultural lynchets are associated with the earthworks of a DMV, and further pronounced lynchets are visible at Batcombe, peripheral to the Forest. Land use seems to have broken down into common grazing on the high ground and woodland on steep slopes, with agriculture on the lower slopes and a mixture of land use on the levels, where drainage during the 13th and 14th centuries offered some land improvement. The lead mining industry was revived during the medieval period and this was another component of economic activity within and without the Forest.

John Steane: Hunting in Medieval Forests and Woodlands

Steane outlined the techniques of hunting used by the aristocracy, and especially the monarchy. This was no mere pastime, but was regarded as part of the necessary training of knights for war, many of the methods and skills being common to both the chase and the battlefield. He discussed the places for hunting, including parks; the equipment used for killing game and butchering the carcasses; and the dogs and hawks used for the pursuit of game. He demonstrated the value of contemporary illustrative material as a source for hunting.

Della Hooke: Medieval Settlement in Arden

At an early, but unspecified, date the woodland resources of the Arden region of north-west Warwickshire had been exploited by the more intensively developed agricultural regions in the southern part of the present county. The use of such resources gave rise to administrative links between the two regions which survived into later times. Considerable quantities of woodland are indicated by a concentration of *léah* place-names and recorded in Domesday Book and much of this is likely to have been woodland pasture. The date and likelihood of woodland regeneration in the Anglo-Saxon period is unknown but the fact that this was a frontier region then and perhaps earlier may have been a contributory factor. The presence of woodland, degraded woodland and heathland has given rise to many of the features characteristic of the region.

Church dedications seem to confirm the secondary nature of the Arden area, as in Kent, but should perhaps be seen as implying settlement hierarchy rather than stages of colonisation. In Warwickshire, in the diocese of Worcester, primary dedications are often to St. Peter, as in the cathedral church at the seat of the bishopric at Worcester, a church of 7th-century foundation. This is the dedication at Wootton Wawen on the southern fringes of Arden where a minster was established in Stoppingas territory in the early 8th century. Secondary dedications are often to St. Mary, as in the church established alongside St. Peter's at Worcester soon after 960. Such dedications are found, for instance, on the margins of the Wootton Wawen *parochia* where daughter churches might first be established. Within Arden dedications are frequently of a 'wilderness' type, to St. John the Baptist or the hermit-saints St. Giles and St. Leonard.

Some stages of settlement evolution can also be identified. In Tanworth, of a cluster of early *worth* or *cot* settlements near a ridge of higher land in the south of the parish, only the manorial nucleus of Tanworth itself was to survive and attain a small open field system. From this core, settlers were encouraged by the manorial lord to colonise the abundant waste beyond. Early assarting of woodland in the 12th and 13th centuries often gave rise to a pattern of small irregular fields, while later clearance of heathland and degraded woodland in both Tanworth and Lapworth gave rise to a more symmetrical pattern of medium-sized fields. It was the hedgerow trees which helped to perpetuate the appearance of a wooded countryside. The abundance of waste also enabled manorial lords to make deer-parks upon their estates, in which woods were often protected, and these were particularly common in Arden. The settlement pattern remained dispersed, with the more prosperous medieval colonists establishing farmsteads, often moated, upon their consolidated holdings, but with small tenant farmers, labourers or artisans establishing hamlet communities alongside patches of common waste.

Today, the dispersed settlement pattern and irregular road network of Arden remains clear but the majority of deer-parks were enclosed for stock in the 15th and 16th centuries, and the remaining commons enclosed in the 19th century. In the present century it may be possible to reinstate some parkland, while conservation of the well-treed hedgerows would also help to preserve the enclosed, intimate atmosphere of the region.

Glenn Ford: Industry and Settlement in Rockingham Forest, Northamptonshire

Rockingham Forest is the most intensively studied of the several Saxon and Medieval woodlands and forests of Northamptonshire, and its settlement and land use history was reviewed by contrasting the area around Oundle with that around Brigstock.

Oundle was owned by the Abbot of Peterborough and late 10th century boundaries correspond broadly with reconstructions of woodland from later sources. This and neighbouring medieval woods were exploited as wood pasture and pannage by the commoners, and were under clearance pressure with the expansion of open fields around several late Saxon nucleated settlements, and the creation of isolated but enclosed demesne agricultural land at Carmle Stibbing. By the 13th century, isolated farms, occasional deer parks and manorial granges were being created within the later assarts, in a context which was profoundly agrarian.

The Brigstock area saw far more modest medieval clearance and the woodland was intensively managed for deer and for charcoal production, principally for the iron industry of Rockingham Forest. Smelting occurred within the settlements, but bloomeries may have been sited in the countryside. The distribution of the industry was dominated by the presence of iron ore outcrops. In Brigstock Park, charcoal patches have been excavated and shown by C14 and pottery to belong to the 13th century, and these woodlands appear to have been managed as coppices. Burning occurred within the woodland, then the charcoal was transported to furnaces, generally in the same manor.

Pottery was also manufactured in Rockingham Forest, particularly at Stanion and Potters' Lyveden. Workshops and kilns are always found within the settlements, generally on minor manors away from iron working. Suitable clay was widely available, so fuel was probably the key raw material.

There is a wealth of archaeological and documentary evidence to be recovered concerning Rockingham Forest. If effectively integrated, this data will open up a detailed understanding of the character and history of medieval settlement in a woodland context.

James Bond: Charcoal Burning: The West Midlands Evidence

Charcoal-burning is one of the most ancient and widespread of all industrial occupations, and continued to be conducted by traditional methods well into the present century in some areas of Britain. Its contribution to the economy of woodland regions and its impact upon the landscape was considerable, yet, by comparison with other industries, it has received little investigation.

Before 1500 all forms of evidence are limited. Documentary records reveal something of the social and economic history of the medieval industry, but the sources are very scattered and miscellaneous in character, and are concerned mainly with attempts to control the exploitation of the woodland by legislation, with sales of licences and orders to burn charcoal, and fines for illicit burning. Place-names, field-names and personal names provide only a broad guide to the location and distribution of the industry. The archaeological evidence, too, is comparatively slight and often undateable. While charcoal-fuelled iron-making sites are fairly readily recognisable, the primary manufacture of charcoal leaves few traces in the landscape. Old hearths can be discovered by fieldwork or aerial photography in arable areas, but in dense woodland or permanent pasture even their recognition can be very difficult. Few sites have yet been examined by excavation.

Documentary evidence for charcoal-burning in the Middle Ages is most prolific in the Forest of Dean, but it can also be traced in Feckenham Forest and Needwood by the thirteenth century. There is little indication that it had commenced in the Wyre Forest, its last West Midland stronghold, much before the sixteenth century. The industry was to a large extent seasonal: many medieval charcoal-burners also worked smallholdings or forges.

The introduction of the blast furnace into the West Midlands in the late sixteenth century marks a significant turning-point. Greatly expanding demands upon fuel supply were met by the wider use of coppicing, and the quality and quantity of documentary and field evidence begins to increase.

The review concluded with a brief description of the traditional process of charcoal-burning as demonstrated by Joe Nevey of Bewdley in the Wyre Forest in 1973.

Julian Munby: Uses of Timber

Apart from a number of woodland by-products, e.g. honey, hawks and bark (for tanning), the principal materials obtained from medieval forests and woodland were wood and timber (the latter being distinguished as the building material).

Managed woods with standard trees and underwood could produce a continuous crop of coppiced wood, providing both for a number of crafts, such as charcoal burning and minor woodworking, and especially firewood. The latter was required in large amounts for urban and rural hearths, and its extraction was an organised (and sometimes illegal) activity. Methods of obtaining supplies ranged through charitable gifts to hospitals and monasteries, licences and sales, exercising common and demesne rights, to outright theft.

Archaeological evidence for turned tableware is extensive, as is documentary evidence for the production of hurdles for building, agriculture and warfare, cooperage, and the manufacture of bows, arrows and quarrels (bowwood was also imported from Spain and the Carpathians via the Baltic). Many domestic items, furniture and tools were wholly or partly wooden.

Timber was also acquired by right, gift, purchase or theft. Oak was predominant, though there are references to other timbers being used. Carpenters selected trees to meet their requirements, cut and converted them in the woods, before carrying them to the site or framing yard. Apart from sawing, the principal tool was the axe, and illustrations show carpenters working timber on trestles raised a little way off the ground.

The use of timber in building construction saw changes in joining and framing that led to almost mass-produced housing to standard patterns, e.g. crucks, urban jettied houses and wealden houses. On a larger scale were aisled barns and large-span roofing on stone buildings, which occurred in a range of styles.

Technological developments are also represented by advances in milling (largely employing wooden parts), and the invention of the windmill in the late twelfth century. Other machines with moving parts that relied on timber were cranes, engines of war (including siege-towers/belfries), and wheelbarrows.

Transport depended on wheeled wooden road vehicles (though the development of coach suspension was mostly a post-medieval advance). In shipping there was a complex, and not fully understood, transformation of the Viking longship tradition to the fully developed late-medieval skeleton-built ship with three masts that was so important for warfare and exploration.

Wood and timber affected every department of the medieval economy, and was the dominant material in all technological advances for long after the medieval period. For that reason we need to understand medieval woods and forests as producers of this important resource.

Christopher Dyer: Some Concluding Comments

The debate about the regeneration of woodland continues. Pollen analysis provided only limited support for the theory of large scale and universal expansion of woods after 400, though other sources of topographical information, in East Anglia for example, tended to support it. It is a problem that must be tackled on a regional basis, and we must be prepared for some surprisingly late dates for regeneration, for example in the 11th century in south Oxfordshire.

A similar striking regional variety emerged on the problem of woodland settlement patterns. In south Oxfordshire and parts of Rockingham Forest in Northamptonshire forest villages were nucleated, with extensive arable fields, whereas the generalisation that dispersed settlements predominated in woods holds true in the forest of Arden, Staffordshire and the Mendips. It would surely help us to appreciate the reasons for nucleation better if we could explain these differences. One possibility, in Oxfordshire for example, is that the imposition of forest law and a growth in woodland occurred after nucleation had taken place.

Nor did forest law have a uniform influence on settlement patterns. On Mendip dispersed farmsteads and separate blocks of enclosed land developed without apparent hindrance from the forest officials. Clearance of wood and the creation of new settlements was not forbidden by the forest law — the king was content to take his fines and derive a profit from breaches of the rules. Yet in some areas, such as Shotover Forest, the amount of woodland survived almost unchanged for hundreds of years, presumably because assarting and destruction of woods was forbidden. A complicating factor came from the lords, who also exercised much influence on forest settlement, encouraging assarting in one place, making parks in order to prevent it in another, and sometimes encouraging and sometimes holding back the exploitation of woodland resources for agriculture and industry.

THE EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES
by **Rachel Shaw**

There is a growing awareness amongst educationalists and archaeologists alike that archaeological sites represent a rich, but relatively untapped, educational resource. In this article I shall describe how, in theory and in practice, we have approached the challenge of turning this awareness into reality for thousands of Northamptonshire schoolchildren.

Three separate elements need to be taken into account:

The Archaeologists' Aims. What would **you**, as archaeologists, hope to see as the outcome of a venture into Education? No doubt, you would like more people to understand what has been found out about 'your' site, seeing its importance in a wider historical context. You probably have more general goals, too, such as the wish to encourage a greater awareness of our archaeological heritage, and the consequent need for recording, conservation and responsible management. You might well have some anxieties, too — the nightmare vision of hoards of children trampling in ignorance over your careful work; worries about safety, organisation, how much they will understand.

The Teachers' Requirements. In the present climate of uncertainty and rapid change within the teaching profession, archaeology does not feature very prominently on most teachers' agendas. Teachers are far more concerned with absorbing the implications of the National Curriculum, and Local Financial Management of Schools, and with finding time to cope with all the additional paperwork associated with continuous assessment of pupils' progress.

However, the picture is not quite as black as might at first appear. The value of out-of-classroom experience is generally recognised, as providing opportunities for learning new social and practical skills in an unfamiliar environment. It can provide a considerable stimulus to follow up work in the classroom, relevant to many areas of the curriculum. Recent trends in history teaching have created a predisposition towards an archaeological approach. Pupils are encouraged to be aware of all sources (written and artifactual) available to the historian, and to ask questions of the evidence. Local Studies are assuming more importance, leading teachers to look at their immediate locality and its landscape as a potential teaching resource. And, always, they are anxious for their pupils to gain 'hands-on' experiences. But very few teachers have any experience of archaeology and many would not know how to set about finding and using the archaeology that exists. Help is needed.

Therefore the aims of the archaeologist and the requirements of the teacher are complementary, but the third factor, **The Pupils' Perceptions**, must also be taken into account. Archaeologists look at a site with a trained and informed eye. They see what experience has taught them to interpret. A pupil sees a bumpy field, not so very different from any other field. A child seeing an excavation for the first time is hardly aware of the lengths of wall or ditch, the configuration of postholes, the significant colour-changes. They see activity: odd-looking people doing strange things with unfamiliar equipment. They notice incidental details (the shape of the trenches, grid-pegs, spoil heaps, the site hut, water containers) that you take for granted. This third element in the equation is essential. Whatever activity is planned, it must start at the level that the children are at, even if this means modifying the original aims.

The planning of an on-site project or exercise with

Figure 1: A sample from the teaching pack, Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit.

schoolchildren could well follow these stages:

1. **Inform** the teachers that the site exists, what is known about it, what related sources exist, and that you are willing for it to be used.

2. **Discuss** with the teachers the sorts of activities that are practicable, the numbers of pupils the site can safely cope with, and a sensible level of adult supervision. Decide what ground rules are appropriate to your site.

3. **Provide** appropriate materials for the teacher to use. Do not think in terms only of interim reports, site guides, etc. The teacher will be just as concerned with the **process** of discovery as with the 'final story' of the site. Therefore excavation records of every sort may be useful, as well as photographs, maps, and any relevant documentary sources. They will need to be explained to the teacher.

4. The teacher will **assimilate** all this and, using his/her professional expertise, will **develop a teaching programme** appropriate to the level of development of the pupils.

5. **Site visit and related work takes place.**

6. **Evaluate** the whole operation with the teacher. Did it 'work'? What, in fact did the pupils gain? How can it be improved next time?

Two things are clear: first, it is important to include teachers at an early stage, recognising their professional expertise, and to develop the programme jointly. Second, it is perfectly possible to organise a valid, active, educational experience for school children without the provision of additional (and expensive) interpretive material. The requirements of school pupils are not necessarily the same as those of the casual adult visitor to the site.

Case Studies

WEST COTTON (SP 976 725). This deserted medieval settlement has been excavated by D. Windell for Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit [MSRG Annual Report, 3 (1988), 22-3]. During the digging seasons of 1988 and 1989, many school groups, mainly of the 9-13 age range, visited the site. They came for the experience of seeing an excavation in action and finding out how archaeology works. A typical visit follows this pattern:

During the week before, I meet the children at school, show slides of the site, and generally introduce the idea of a 'dig'. The visit itself starts with a site tour. The children are provided with checklists of archaeological activities, and they tick off those that they notice. Then we divide the class into smaller groups, each supervised by a teacher or adult helper. Each group takes part in an activity such as section drawing, planning with a frame, using the dumpy level to produce a contour of part of the field, or working on the finds. Some groups devised their own activities. Simple, self-explanatory worksheets are drawn up, and the groups work on an area of the site not currently in use, independently of the archaeologists. All this takes about two hours.

At KIRBY (SP 927 937) the situation was different. We were looking for a site suitable for pupils following the

GCSE Schools History Project syllabus[1]. The 'History Around Us' section of the syllabus requires children to study a 'site' and there is scope here for archaeology. There are eight elements in this section, of which three are particularly relevant:

The interpretation and evaluation of sources;
Personal description and investigation of a site;
Relationship of the site to its historical context.

The earthworks of Kirby deserted village lie within the grounds of the English Heritage site of Kirby Hall, a ruined Elizabethan mansion. The earthworks have not been excavated. Current work by Brian Dix of Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit for English Heritage in the formal gardens of Kirby Hall has revealed some medieval buildings. Taken together, the Hall, gardens and deserted village provide an extremely wide range of historical and archaeological sources — aerial photographs, earthwork plans, early maps, documents relating to the desertion of the village, letters, the results of fieldwalking (including the finds themselves), geophysical survey, and excavations.

After much consultation with a group of teachers, we decided to focus on the question 'What happened to the village at Kirby?'. I then prepared relevant source material, from the list described above, and we organised a field day for the pupils. Here we introduced the site, and demonstrated techniques of fieldwalking, earthwork survey, and geophysical survey, so that the results (and limitations) of these methods would make sense to the pupils. Thereafter, the schools worked independently, visiting the site again and using the materials we had provided, with a much more informed appreciation of the nature and results of archaeological investigation of such sites.

The final comment comes from one of the pupils who came to Kirby.

"I found it very interesting, because I didn't realise that all the equipment was used and it was so scientific. I learnt that when I see a bump not just to say 'there's a lump of mud' but to know there may be some ancient remains underneath".

Reference: 1. National Curriculum History Working Group. Final Report. Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Office, H.M.S.O., April 1990.

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THE SOUTH EAST SUFFOLK FIELD SURVEY, 1983-88
by **John Newman**

Between 1983 and 1988, an area survey has been carried out in south east Suffolk to try and put the cemetery site of Sutton Hoo into its local, sub-regional context. This work was funded by the Sutton Hoo Research Trust. Over five winters of fieldwork the area walked totalled nearly 5,500 hectares and this represents most of the arable land in a rectangular block of 134 square kilometres centred on Woodbridge and bisected by the River Deben. Of the area covered, 90 square kilometres was on light sand and gravel derived soils of the Sandlings and 44 square kilometres on heavier boulder clay soils.

Extensive evidence of pre-historic settlement was found on the Sandling areas with a move on to the boulder clay plateau by the Iron Age. In the Romano-British period the area had a high population with a site density of one per square kilometre on the boulder clay areas and one every 2 square kilometres in the Sandling areas. Going into the following Early Anglo-Saxon period there is a marked drop in the number of sites with settlement evidence and the boulder clay areas appear to have been abandoned completely. While Early Anglo-Saxon pottery scatters in the Sandling area are often on or near former Romano-British sites, the question of continuity remains an open one from fieldwork evidence alone. The majority of Romano-British sites produced no ceramic or metalwork evidence of fifth or sixth century use.

The origins of the present settlement pattern can be seen from the Middle and Late Saxon periods. A settlement shift appears to have taken place in the seventh or early eighth century and all the major Middle Saxon sites are located close to parish churches. It was also from this period that the boulder clay plateau was re-occupied. Of 27 parish churches within the area surveyed, 12 have Ipswich ware (produced c 650 to 850 AD) scatters nearby and a further 6 do not have suitable land close by for fieldwork. The parishes with seventh or eighth century settlement evidence close to the parish church are Rendlesham, Sutton, Shottisham, Ramsholt, Hemley, Bucklesham, Great Bealings, Culpho, Grundisburgh, Clopton and Martlesham. The remaining sites close to parish churches fall into a phase of ninth or tenth century expansion and tend to be on areas of drier heathland on the Sandlings and on heavier boulder clay areas. These sites are dated by small amounts of Ipswich ware within Late Saxon, Thetford type ware pottery scatters. The sites close to the parish churches in Boulge, Brightwell and Debach parishes fall into this group. This phase of Late Saxon expansion also includes the lost vills of the Domesday Book which never achieved parish status. The survey has located the sites of Wilford in Bromeswell parish, Preston in Martlesham parish, Seckford on the Great Bealings/Martlesham parish boundary and Bing in Pettistree parish.

This Late Saxon expansion began the process which the dispersed settlement growth of the Post-Conquest period continued. By the thirteenth or early fourteenth centuries, when the population level reached its Medieval peak, each parish had a very dispersed settlement pattern. Occupation continued on the Middle Saxon nuclei near the churches, with the rest of the Medieval settlement pattern strung out along the lanes and footpaths that criss-cross each parish. A large number of these settlement sites were then abandoned in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The successful settlement sites that survived are now the ones that usually now have a later Medieval or early Post Medieval timber-framed farmhouse. A few later desertions were also found and include a possible manorial site in Bredfield parish which was abandoned in the sixteenth century and two settlement sites in Boulge parish which were abandoned in the eighteenth or early nineteenth century. This latter event was probably caused by the creation of Boulge Park at this time. Very few surviving earthworks were found during the survey and this reflects the heavy concentration on arable farming in much of East Anglia. However, three or four possible house platforms were noted in the centre of Grundisburgh village (TM 227509) during a watching brief. The pottery

found indicates a date range of thirteenth/fourteenth century to sixteenth or seventeenth century for these earthworks and the bulk of the site will survive as an open area adjacent to the residential development.

Survey Reports:
J. Newman "East Anglian Kingdom Survey" in Carver M.O.H. (Ed), *Bulletin of the Sutton Hoo Research Committee* 6, 1989, pp. 17-20.
J. Newman "East Anglian Kingdom Pilot Survey", in *Looking at the Land,* M. Parker-Pearson and T. Schadla-Hall (Eds) (Leicestershire Museums, 1990 forthcoming).

DESERTED AND SPARSELY POPULATED SETTLEMENTS IN SUFFOLK
by **Edward Martin**

The archetypal deserted medieval villages of the midland counties of England with their well-preserved earthworks and associated fields of ridge and furrow are largely absent from Suffolk (in fact no authenticated examples of medieval ridge-and-furrow are recorded, with the exception of that excavated at West Stow[2], which may be no more than the low ridging inevitably produced by ploughing with a non-reversible mouldboard plough). This does not mean that desertion and shrinkage did not occur, only that the visible effects are different. The scarcity of earthworks is partly due to the highly arable nature of the region, but this is not the whole explanation. Much work still needs to be done on the subject and all that can be offered here is a preliminary statement.

The clearest and most impressive signs of desertion are associated with the post-medieval emparking of land to provide suitable settings for great houses. The process appears to have started in the 16th century at places like Hengrave and Little Redisham, and ended with the Earl of Iveagh's rebuilding of Elveden village at the close of the19th century. A well-known example is that of Ickworth, which was emparked by the 1st Earl of Bristol in 1701, leaving only the church and some very faint earthworks to mark the site of the former village.

However the settlement at Ickworth was not a large one, for it was one of 74 places recorded in 1428 as having under 10 households[3] The map shows several such parishes with low populations running in an arc along the southern and eastern edges of the Breckland (a region of light sandy soils in N.W. Suffolk) and a very similar series of desertions caused by emparkation. Another underpopulated area subject to emparking can be seen in N.E. Suffolk around Beccles, an area which is also notable for the number of isolated and ruined churches. Interestingly this area of Suffolk was subject to considerably more Parliamentary enclosure in the late 18th and 19th centuries that the rest of Suffolk. All this suggests that there is a correlation between parishes with low populations and those that suffered radical reorganisation by a dominant landowner.

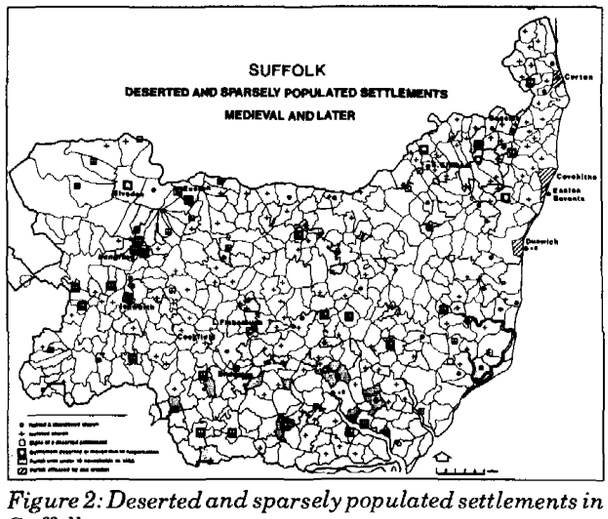

Figure 2: Deserted and sparsely populated settlements in Suffolk.

Ruined and isolated churches also occur frequently in an area of light sandy soils in S.E. Suffolk (the Sandlings). Many of these were in parishes that were unable to support large populations due to their poor soil. Also on the east coast are several places that were devastated by coastal erosion in the medieval period, most notably the major town of Dunwich.

In the clay areas of central Suffolk isolated and ruined churches are often a feature of very small parishes, like Little Finborough or Little Bricett, where settlements are never likely to have been large. In fact many of these churches could be regarded as private estate churches. In other cases it appears the settlement has shifted away from the church to another part of the parish, as at Bildeston. The growth of green-side settlements in the 12th and 13th centuries may be behind many of these shifts, as perhaps at Cockfield and Syleham. However the general settlement pattern of these clay lands included a large number of isolated farmsteads and small hamlets and it is by no means certain that every isolated church was once the centre of a nucleated village. Fieldwork by Mike Hardy around the isolated church of All Saints, South Elmham has failed to reveal evidence of a deserted village: all that seems to have existed beside the church was a parsonage and a hall, each within a moated enclosure.

Shrinkage of settlements is difficult to assess because of the dispersed pattern of farmsteads and hamlets, though at places like Mellis Green it is possible to see the gaps left by deserted tenements around the green. Detailed and extensive fieldwalking in Mendlesham and the South Elmhams has revealed the sites of many deserted farmsteads and cottages, some isolated and others clustered along lanes or around greens. In most cases these sites do not show as earthworks, but only as scatters of medieval pottery in ploughed fields.

Rural depopulation and the desertion of settlements are of course not a purely medieval phenomenon, and in many areas of Suffolk these processes have been very apparent in the last 30 years. The amalgamation of farms into larger units has resulted in many surplus farmsteads being left to deteriorate into ruins or bulldozed flat. Similarly the collapse into ruins of some rural churches, such as Knettishall and Linstead Parva, has occurred this century.

REFERENCES
1. A version of this map was first published in D. Dymond & E. Martin (eds) *An Historical Atlas of Suffolk* (Ipswich 1988, 2nd edition 1989). This map shows the parishes as they were in the mid 19th century, before reorganisation took place.
2. S. West, 'West Stow, the Anglo Saxon Village' *E. Anglian Archaeol.* 24 (1985), p.10; G. Astill, 'Fields' in G. Astill and A. Grant, *The Countryside of Medieval England* (Oxford 1988), 73-4.

3. D. Dymond and R. Virgoe, 'The Reduced Population and Wealth of Early 15th century Suffolk', *Proc. Suffolk Inst. Archaeol.* 36 pt 2 (1986) 73-100.
4. Summary reports on Mike Hardy's fieldwork in the S. Elmhams can be found in the 'Archaeology in Suffolk' section of the *Proc. Suffolk Inst. Archaeol.* for 1985, 1986, 1987, 1988 and 1989; see also M. Hardy 'The Waveney Valley Survey', *Current Archaeol.* 115 (1989), 266-9.

MEDIEVAL MOATS IN SUFFOLK[1] by Edward Martin

The greatest concentration of medieval moats is in eastern England, and Suffolk with some 740 recorded sites (as at 1988) comes a very close second to Essex, where over 770 are known. In Suffolk they are mainly found in a broad diagonal band running from Haverhill in the south-west corner to Bungay in the north-east, a pattern which closely matches the distribution of chalky boulder clay or Lowestoft Till. Densities of 40 to 50 per 100 sq.km. are not uncommon, reaching a peak of 60 in the Debenham area. The areas of sandy soils in the north-east and south-east of the county are virtually empty of moats. Within individual parishes, those moats near the centre are normally associated with major manors and parsonages; those on the periphery are normally linked with minor manors or free tenements.

The majority of the moats enclose platforms of under 0.4 ha (1 acre). This group includes some manorial halls and the majority of the moated free tenements and parsonages. Free tenement sites are often about 0.2 ha (half acre) in extent, as at Oak Tree Farm, Hitcham; a few copyhold tenements also appear to have moats at similar sites, as at Poplar Farm, Brettenham. Sites over 0.4 ha in size are more likely to be manorial or monastic. The largest moats, such as at Chevington Hall (a country seat of the Abbots of Bury St. Edmunds) enclose about 2 ha (5 acres). However, these are atypical.

Most of the moats are more or less rectangular in shape, though some are circular and possibly early, such as Nunnery Mount in Great Bricett and Wattisham Hall. The latest moats, of the late 15th and 16th centuries, tend to be large perfect rectangles and often have vertical, brick-revetted, sides, as at Helmingham Hall, Kentwell Hall in Long Melford and Wetherden Hall in Hitcham. It appears that the original position for the house was in the middle of the moated platform, facing the entrance — as at Brockley Hall, where an aisled hall of *c.* 1300 occupies this position. In many cases the entrance is in the middle of one of the shorter sides, implying that the original house lay at right angles to the long axis of the moat, thus giving room for a deep forecourt and a back garden. Later houses may be planned around three or four sides of a court, each range rising more or less sheer from the water, as at Helmington Hall and Playford Hall. The front range containing a gatehouse is sometimes the finest surviving feature, as at Gedding Hall. Barns and other farm buildings were usually sited just outside the moat, flanking the entrance. Sometimes these buildings were accommodated on subsidiary moats, as occasionally were gardens, orchards and dovecotes. On some sites, including some copyhold tenements, there are small moated orchards or gardens where there is no clear indication that the house itself was moated — as at Crossway Farm, Hitcham.

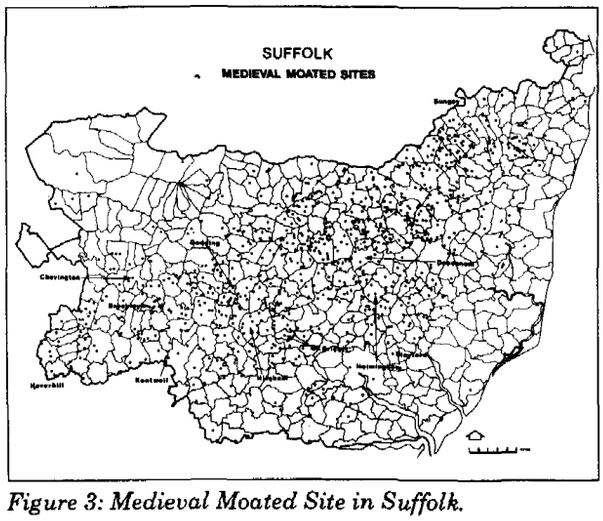

Figure 3: Medieval Moated Site in Suffolk.

REFERENCE

1. This note is based on information contained in the Suffolk Sites and Monuments Record; the map was first published in D. Dymond and E. Martin (eds) *An Historical Atlas of Suffolk* (Ipswich 1988, 2nd edition 1989).

THE DESERTED MEDIEVAL VILLAGE OF ROTSEA, HUMBERSIDE by W.D. Cocroft, P. Everson and W.R. Wilson-North

In May 1989 staff of the RCHME's Keele office planned the earthwork remains of the village of **Rotsea** near Great Driffield in the former East Riding of Yorkshire, a scheduled ancient monument, in response to a request from English Heritage for a survey to inform management negotiations. The combination of good, though confusing, field remains and documentary evidence of an interest and relevance unusual for smaller settlements makes it worth an extended published note. In summary it indicates a development from a nucleated medieval village to a reduced number of substantial farms, and finally to desertion of the site in favour of dispersed modern farms. Original field drawings and a fuller account are deposited in the National Archaeological Record (library catalogue numbers 1106 and 1299).

Rotsea (TA 070 514; NAR no. TA 05 SE 9) lies at 4m above OD on Boulder Clay. The settlement is situated on the W side of the north end of the valley of the River Hull: immediately to its E and S are former carr lands along the river, whose final successful drainage and conversion to arable followed canal and drainage schemes of the later 18th and early 19th centuries.[1] Administratively, Rotsea is a small township of 326 ha. (806 acres) occupying the extreme E end of the E-W linear parish of Hutton Cranswick. The twin settlements of Hutton and Cranswick lie some 5km to the W, forming part of a string of ridge-top settlements linked by the modern A164 road: also within the parish the further township of Sunderlandwick lies to the N and occupies 333 ha. (823 acres) of the overall parish total of 2607 ha. (6443 acres).

Rotsea is first recorded in 1086 but only in the Summary of DB so no indication of population level is available.[2] It passed with other of the Count of Mortain's Yorkshire holdings to the de Brus family, founders in 1119 of the Augustinian priory of Guisborough.[3] The addition by

Peter de Brus to Guisborough's endowment of 'all he had in Rottessee in eels, lands and services of his men in that vill, save the meadow that he had before given to Marmaduke of Twinge' was confirmed by his son Peter in 1239.[4] In 1285 the Prior of Guisborough was returned as holding 13 bovates of the two carucates belonging to the de Brus fee in Rotsea.[5] In *c.* 1300 the Priory's rent roll lists 31 plots in Rotsea described as either 'toft and croft' (18 instances) or 'toft and garden' or similar, all but four belonging to Guisborough: their farm was worth £6/3/.[6] These accounts are arranged topographically and allow some comparison with the surviving earthworks, if only in respect of a general arrangement of the settlement on the N and S sides of a through street (see below). Several properties appear distinctive by name or size: more commonly properties appear as tofts and crofts of half an acre with one bovate of land associated, that may have had a standard origin. There is evidence of sub-division of properties, evidence for engrossment of properties, and evidence of several properties in the same hands.

Later evidence for the settlement's size is limited and less detailed.[7] What it suggests is a considerable reduction of population in the later medieval period or in the early 16th century, and perhaps associated with it conversion of arable to pasture and early enclosure. For in 1539 the settlement presented only four names in the East Riding musters, compared with 50 for Hutton Cranswick and five for Sunderlandwick; for the musters of 1584 it could produce only two armed men, the lowest total in the Bainton Beacon section of Harthill wapentake and comparing with the total of 57 for Hutton Cranswick and seven even for Sunderlandwick.[8] Broadly similar

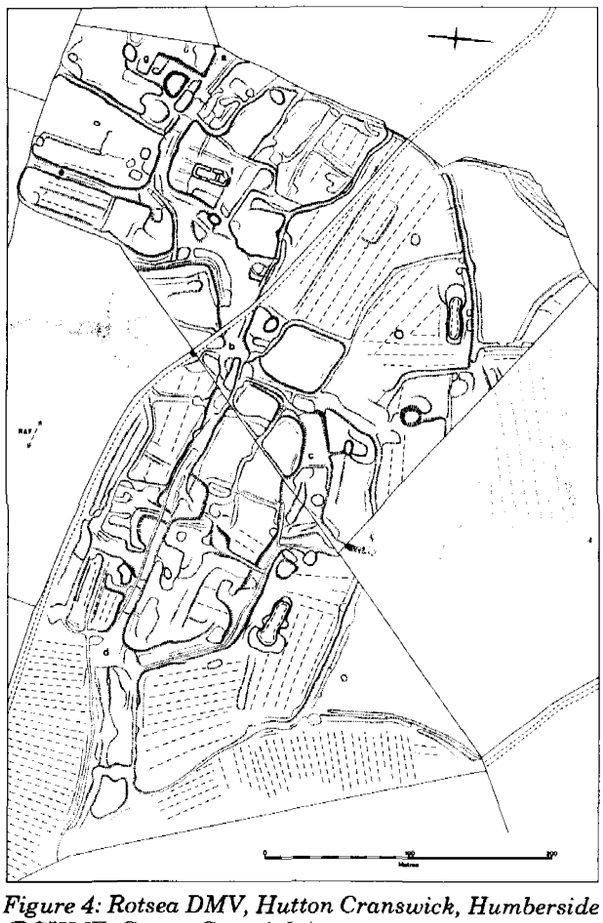

Figure 4: Rotsea DMV, Hutton Cranswick, Humberside (RCHME, Crown Copyright)

population levels appear to persist through the 17th century. A dispute in 1616 refers to two messuages and four cottages there, and a second the same year apparently involved a further messuage in Rotsea.[9] The Hearth Tax returns of 1672 and 1675 list eleven hearths in six dwellings — two of them more substantial properties with three hearths each — while those of 1663 and 1667 show the loss of two similar three-hearth properties in that earlier interval.[10] At this period the low lands of the Hull valley were chiefly used for grazing and Rotsea carrlands certainly were exploited for a poor hay crop.[11]

The date of the settlement's final abandonment is not clear. Rotsea continues to be named on all the principal county maps.[12] The first census in 1801 recorded 13 persons in Rotsea township.[13] Since Rotsea Manor farm existed by then the earthworks may have been deserted. Certainly they were by 1848, though the portrayal of 'Old Foundations' in two locations within the site on the 1st edition OS 6" sheet (surveyed 1850-1) suggests that some buildings had not long been abandoned.[14] Both the present Rotsea Farm and Rotsea Carr Farm were also in existence by this date.

Though it never had separate parochial status, there is documentary evidence for a medieval chapel, dedicated to St. Andrew, at Rotsea. It was 'newly built' in 1328.[15] A chapel at Rotsea still existed in 1509 when Marmaduke Thwing made bequests to it.[16] The Thwing family had a long-standing interest in Rotsea by sub-tenure of the de Brus fee.[17] Through their tenure, too, of the manor of Octonholme on the E side of the Hull valley in the 14th century they were responsible for the ancient ferry crossing of the Hull, *via* which Rotsea was on an E-W through route for men and beasts linking the Wolds with Holderness.[18] Marmaduke Thwing's will of 1509 implies a substantial residence at Rotsea by the end of the 15th century, whose creation may be directly related to the decline of population and alteration of the settlement's form. Whether it was sited on the settlement earthworks or was rather a predecessor of Manor Farm is unclear. The family, though rather minor gentry, are honourably recalled in the 19th century as one-time residents at Rotsea;[19] but certainly the Hearth Tax returns reveal no residence extant of any exceptional size.

The earthworks lie in three pasture fields some 500m SE of Rotsea Manor and form an unusual survival in a landscape now primarily devoted to arable farming. Traces of the former extent of the site survive as soil marks to the N and S: simple transcription of the principal features has been added to the survey diagram, on the basis of early APs.[20]

Typically of clayland sites, the earthworks have a confusingly complex appearance, here caused by numerous extant and abandoned beast ponds, informal drainage arrangements recutting some features and obscuring others, and (unusually) bomb craters dating from World War II, some partially filled in. In addition the site has been subdivided by a denser pattern of ditched field boundaries, parts of which were still depicted on the 1st edition OS map sheet of 1854.[21] Nevertheless, in general terms they form an irregular spread ranged along a sinuous hollow-way ('a'-'b'-'c'-'d' on Fig. 4) of generally E-W orientation, with a well-marked hollow-way ('e') striking off N towards the E end. This layout correlates recognisably if crudely with the Guisborough Priory accounts of *c.*1300, in which the properties are listed as 'on the N side' — 12 with one not precisely

located — and 'on the S side' — 18 — and with a common way splitting the N-side properties. The principal differences in the picture presented by the earthworks lie in the numbers of properties that appear to be represented, in their size and variable form, and in their loose and irregular arrangement.

Only in the NE corner of the earthworks may it be possible to relate these changes in a more specific way to the earthworks. For in the accounts of c.1300, six properties are listed to the E of the common way going N. On the ground this area E of the hollow-way ('e' on plan) is dominated by a single large property in which a complex of building platforms are grouped around a large hollow or crew-yard in a courtyard arrangement, with a subsidiary yard to the W. To its N, one end of the foundations of a stone building at 'g' is that marked as 'old foundation' on Ordnance Survey mapping of 1854. Both the form of the farmstead and the presence of these foundations suggest a late phase of activity. In contrast, between this property and the hollow-way 'e' much slighter earthworks may mark two long narrow properties that are the remains of the earlier medieval pattern. These have a regular planned appearance and abut on a straight section of hollow-way to the S; they also overlie arable ridging. They may correlate with the regular-sized tofts of c.1300.

It is not clear whether anywhere else on the site a similar survival of the earlier pattern can plausibly be pointed to. For to the S of the main hollow-way, for example, the solid foundations of a second large building, 'f' on plan, was also marked as 'old foundation' on Ordnance Survey mapping of 1854. Internal details and the location of opposed doorways can be seen. This too, must be the house of a late farmstead, and the ditched closes occupying the squarish block to its S and E belong with it. In places fragments of an earlier pattern, including a length of hollow-way and ridge-and-furrow, can be seen truncated by the network of ditched boundaries.

To the W of this farmstead the main hollow-way, curving SW, opens out into a broad low area shaped like two triangles, that may have been a green. Properties forming its stepped N side have a reasonable coherence of form, especially the long narrow plot or plots lying along the hollow-way 'e'. Like the presumed early plots on the E side of the way, it shows traces of scarps and hollows at the street end and a subdivided back area overlying ridge-and-furrow.

But W from 'b' the remains are more confused and offer no assured interpretation. The main hollow-way has two courses. One is practically straight from 'b' to 'd'; the other arcs S from 'b' via 'c' to 'd'. Both, though in general terms well-marked features, in detail are very cut about by hedge boundaries, drains, sumps and ponds, so that at best they are very uneven and in places are almost unintelligible. The most plausible village properties lie between these ways and N of the straight street 'b-d' and only to a lesser and more doubtful extent along the S side of the curving southern way. In places large hollow areas opening out from the hollow-ways may mark the sites of crew-yards typical of clayland sites at the end of the medieval period and later, but in the improved pasture at this end of the site they are difficult to distinguish with certainty from the frequent later ponds. In many of the closes, even abutting the hollow-ways, fragmentary traces of ridging are visible. In those between and N of the hollow-ways it is cut by ditches and hollows. But its presence means that even where on the N side of 'b-d' there appears to be a reasonable row of plots (albeit of no great depth), in fact only in the centre of the row does the field evidence suggest the position of buildings and a yard, and the whole row might rather together be interpreted as a single late property comprising farmstead and attached closes. To the S of the curving way ridging appears to lie in blocks within ditched close boundaries, and this is clearly the case with the more extensive blocks of relatively narrow and straight ridging to the NW and SW of the site. In one close to the SE two phases of ridging intersect, and nearby to the N a platform of good rectangular form suitable for a building is overlain by a block of ridges.

Alternative explanations appear possible for the pattern of main hollow-ways that articulate the settlement. They may be contemporary, in which case the settlement morphology was complex and not adequately reflected in the Guisborough accounts of *c.1300*. Alternatively the original village street was a continuously sinuous feature taking the S line 'b-c-d' and the straight way was a replacement for it from 'b' to 'd'. Its very straightness might suggest this, as well perhaps as its unevenness (which amounts almost to a blocking at its E end) and the manner in which some N-S linear features line up on either side of it, as if it was cutting through an existing pattern. This second alternative would certainly urge that attention be given to the closes on the S side of the curving way, where late cultivation may have obscured early settlement remains.

While detailed interpretation of the settlement at this level may not be without its problems, the picture mutually presented by documentary and field evidence is similarly one of shrinkage of population in absolute numbers in the later medieval period, probably through an economic shift to cattle pasture and a consequent change in settlement plan and the nature of the properties making up the village. It is perhaps these later properties, as farms with a group of attached closes, that account principally for the distinctive earthwork appearance of Rotsea. Desertion was thereafter a long drawn-out and not necessarily one-way process, that may have continued at least into the 18th century. In the end, as a township Rotsea was not deserted, but simply farmed from different locations. This may turn out to be a typical picture for the low-lying settlements of the Hull valley and one closely connected with the wider processes of drainage of that area.

Acknowledgements
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MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENT SITES WHICH ARE ACCESSIBLE TO THE PUBLIC
by **Christopher Dyer**

When the archaeology correspondent of the **Independent** newspaper asked the secretary of M.S.R.G. for a list of sites which could be visited by the public without needing to obtain prior permission, the Group's committee realised that there was no such list in existence. Accordingly the archaeological officers of each county were asked for information about sites in their area. This is the source of the information given here. Members of the Group should remember that the information may not always be up–to–date or fully accurate. In many cases the site is crossed by a road or footpath which does not entitle the visitor to wander over the whole site at will (this is indicated by (FP) on the list). In all cases visitors are asked to be cautious, and certainly not to use this list as a licence to walk over a site against the owner's wishes. They are also asked to treat all sites with care and to observe the normal courtesies and rules of the countryside. Some sites belong to the National Trust, and are open to the public at limited times, and on payment of admission fees etc.

The following counties made a negative return, reporting that they knew of no accessible sites in their area: Cleveland, Durham, Hereford and Worcester, Tyne and Wear, Glamorgan-Gwent, Gwynedd.

We are fully aware of the incompleteness of this list, and urge members of the Group to write to the compiler, at the address inside the front cover, with further information, which will be incorporated in a second list to be published next year.

County	Type of site	Modern location	Map reference	Medieval name	(FP)
Bedfordshire	Moat	Old Moat House Biscot, Luton	TL 078240	—	
Bedfordshire	Moat	Gannock's Castle Tempsford	TL 160529	—	
Buckinghamshire	Migrated village	Cublington	SP 834221	Cublington	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	DMV	Hogshaw	SP 751226	Fulbrook	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	DMV	Dinton Mill Ford	SP 790098	Moreton	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	DMV	Dinton Mill ford	SP 784072	Waldridge	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	DMV	Quarrendon	SP 805158	Quarrendon	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	Shrunken village	Woughton-on-the-Green	SP 875375	Woughton	
Buckinghamshire	Moat	Burnham	SU 946856	? Hartley Court	
Buckinghamshire	DMV	Wolverton	SP 803413	Wolverton	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	Moat	Woolstone-on-Willen	SP 876386	? Woolstone	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	House site and ponds	Bletchley	SP 884359	Simpson	(FP)
Buckinghamshire	Moat	Tattenhoe	SP 829340	Tattenhoe	(FP)
Cambridgeshire	Castle, house sites ridge and furrow	Giants Hill	TL 430680	—	
Cambridgeshire	DMV	Wimpole Hall	TL 337510	Bennall End Thresham End	
Cambridgeshire	Moat	Denney Plantation	TL 555628	—	
Cambridgeshire	Moat	Overhall Grove	TL 339633	Overhall Manor	

Cambridgeshire	Moat	Hall Orchard	TL 528562	Zouches Castle	
Cambridgeshire	DMV	Clopton	TL 302489	Clopton	(FP)
Cambridgeshire	DMV	Hall Farm	TL 134888	Washingley	(FP)
Cambridgeshire	Moat	The Round Moat	TL 424458	Fowlmere	
Cheshire	Deserted hamlet or village	Tatton	SJ 757815	Tatton	
Cornwall	Deserted hamlet	Louden Hill	SX 138802	Louden	
Cornwall	Deserted hamlet	Davidstow Moor	SX 159833	Lamlavery?	
Cumbria	DMV	Dalton	SO 543758	Dalton	
Cumbria	DMV	Thrimby	NY 553213	—	(FP)
Cumbria	DMV	High Knipe	NY 520196		
Devon	Deserted hamlet	Doones Houses	SS 792444	—	(FP)
Devon	Longhouse	Crownhill Down	SX 576610	—	
Devon	Deserted hamlets and houses	Okehampton Park (eastern part)	SX 582933	—	
Devon	Deserted hamlet	Hutholes	SX 702758	—	
Devon	Deserted hamlet	Houndtor	SX 746788 SX 745791	Houndtor	
Devon	Shrunken settlement	Challacombe	SX 693795	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Moreton Valence	SO 779097	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Queen Margaret's Camp	SO 895314	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Woolstrop Moat Quedgeley	SO 805141	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Aston Magna	SP 203356	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Weston Subedge	SP 127405	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	Moat	Haresfield	SO 810105	—	(FP)
Gloucestershire	DMV	Lower Ditchford	SP 227367	Middle Ditchford	(FP)
Gloucestershire	DMV	Walton Cardiff (Tewkesbury)	SO 907322	Walton Cardiff	(FP)
Gloucestershire	DMV	Hullasey in Coates	ST 973991	Hullasey	(FP)
Hampshire	DMV	Lomer	SV 593234	Lomer	(FP)
Hampshire	DMV	Abbotstone	SU 566346	Abbotstone	(FP)
Hertfordshire	Moat	Hoddesdon Park Wood Hoddesdon	TL 352081	—	
Hertfordshire	Moat	Cheshunt Great House Cheshunt	TL 346027	—	
Hertfordshire	Moat	Bourne Hall, Bushey	TQ 136956	—	
Hertfordshire	Moat	Whomerley Wood Stevenage	TL 247237	—	
Leicestershire	Moat and fishponds	Evington	SK 626027	—	
Leicestershire	DMV	Braunstone	SK 554027	Braunstone	
Leicestershire	Grange and fishponds	Beaumont Leys	SK 564092	Beaumont	
Leicestershire	Moat and deer park	Bradgate	SK 533101	Bradgate	
Leicestershire	DMV	Bosworth Battlefield visitor centre	SK 405000	'Ambion' or Anabein	
Leicestershire	DMV	Aldeby	SP 553991	'Aldebi'	
Leicestershire	Moat and fishponds	Oakham Castle	SK 861088	—	
Leicestershire	Moat and fishponds	New Parks Estate	SK 552059	Birds Nest Lodge	
London	Moat	Northolt	TQ 132840	Northolt Manor	
London	Moat	Camelot Moat Moat Wood, Enfield	TQ 288983	?Camelot Moat	
London	Moat	Headstone Lane	TQ 142898	Heggeston	
London	Moat	Hillingdon	TQ 072868	—	
London	Moat	Dagnam Park Farm Noak Hill, Romford	TQ 550926	—	
London	Moat	Fulham Palace	TQ 242762		
London	Moat	Elmers End South Norwood	TQ 354683	—	
Norfolk	DMV	Titteshall	TF 903220	Godwick	
Northamptonshire	DMV	Abington Park Northampton	SP 775616	Abington	

Northamptonshire	Moat	Saffron Road Higham Ferrers	SP 958687	?Saffron Park	
Northamptonshire	DMV	Boughton House	SP 901817	Boughton	
Northamptonshire	DMV	Raunds parish	SP 976733	Mallows Cotton	(FP)
North Yorkshire	DMV	Wharram Percy	SE 858642	Wharram Percy	
South Yorkshire	Shrunken village	Cusworth	SE 547041	Cusworth	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Eccleshall Castle	SJ 827295	Eccleshall Castle	
Staffordshire	Moat	Armitage	SK 090156	Handsacre Hall	
Staffordshire	Moat	Littywood Bradley	SJ 889190	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Old Madeley Manor Madeley	SJ 772423	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Norbury Manor, Norbury	SJ 796232	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Essington	SJ 953029	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Bagot's Farm Abbots Bromley	SK 090280	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Stoke-by-Chartley	SK 040296	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Hyde Lea, Coppenhall	SJ 905202	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Stallbrook Hall Seighford	SJ 885224	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Woodhouse Farm Haughton	SJ 854212	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Oncote Farm Eccleshall	SJ 863268	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Upper Reule Farm Haughton	SJ 848205	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Moor End, Gnossall	SJ 830220	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Sinai Park, Branston	SK 222230	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Lower Woollaston Farm Bradley	SJ 858162	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Booden Farm, Haughton	SJ 861197		(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Befcote Manor, Gnosall	SJ 804188	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Blymhill Grange Blymill	SJ 811120	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Chillington Farm Brewood	SJ 860073	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Moat House, Shareshill	SJ 930073	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Wood Hall Farm Codsall	SJ 848043	—	(FP)
Staffordshire	Moat	Engleton Hall, Brewood	SJ 898101	—	(FP)
Suffolk	Moat	South Elmham Hall	TM 308832	—	
Surrey	Moat	Albury Farm, Merstham	TQ 293527	—	
Surrey	Earthwork enclosure	Henley Wood, Chelsham	TQ 375585	—	
Warwickshire	DMV	Wormleighton	SP 445540	Wormleighton	
Warwickshire	Moat	Baddesley Clinton	SP 199714	Baddesley Clinton	
Warwickshire	Moat	Hunningham	SP 371680	—	(FP)
Warwickshire	Moat	The Pleasaunce Kenilworth	SP 267725	The Pleasaunce	(FP)
West Midlands	Moat	Pleck Park	SO 998967	—	
West Midlands	Moat	West Bromwich Moated Manor House	SP 005943	—	
West Midlands	Moat	Hobb's Moat	SP 146826	—	
West Sussex	DMV	Old Monkton, Hooksway	SU 829166	—	
Wiltshire	DMV	Yarnfield	ST 779384	*Gernefelle*	
Wiltshire	DMV	Sheldon	ST 884740	*Shuldon*	
Wiltshire	DMV	Snap	SU 222765	*Snape*	
Wiltshire	Deserted farmstead	Overton Down	SU 134708	—	
Wiltshire	Shrunken village	Slaughterford	ST 839740	*Slachtoneford*	
Wiltshire	Shrunken village	Etchilhampton	SU 053601	*Echesatingetone*	
Wiltshire	Moat	Bratton	ST 910527	—	(FP)
Wiltshire	Moat	Westbury	ST 856528		

DOCUMENTARY STUDIES AND LANDSCAPE HISTORY AROUND FOLKESTONE by Richard Cross

(First Published in the Annual Report of The Canterbury Archaeological Trust Ltd. for 1988-89, 63-7)

Data collection has been proceeding for the explanation of the changing use through time of the historical landscape affected by developments on the Eurotunnel terminal area at Folkestone. Two areas were defined for study; their selection was based on a wide range of considerations, including the historical continuity of their settlement and land use and the comparisons they furnished between the chalk of the North Downs escarpment and the Greensands of the coastal plain. To the south, the study area *in toto* incorporated features illustrative of the suburban growth of Folkestone; to the west, its limits followed the southern boundary of the former Beachborough (Brockman) estate, but included the focus of St Martin's Church and the topographical features of the Coombes carrying the Newington and Seabrook streams; lastly, it included the line of the former South Eastern Railway and its junction with the Elham Valley line - features which could be more directly related to the Eurotunnel developments within the context of transport history and land use.

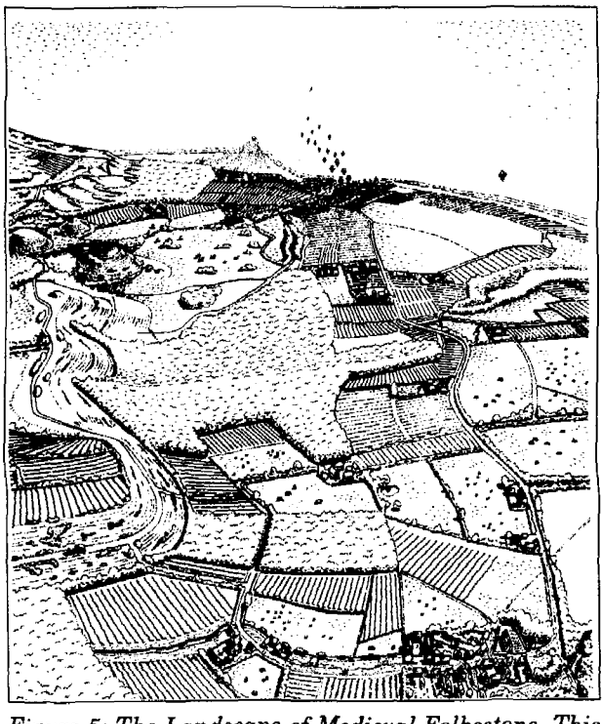


Figure 5: The Landscape of Medieval Folkestone. This panorama presents an imaginative birds-eye view of the Folkestone landscape in c. 1250-1350. Whilst archaeological evidence exists for a good proportion of sites, others are based on reconstructions of similar building types of the time. Beyond the 'vill' of Folkestone towards the foot of the North Downs escarpment the settlement pattern was one of dispersed farmsteads gradually extending towards the limits of the manorial boundaries and carving holdings out of the waste woodland and scrub. Many were also manorial centres where the court barons were held at regular intervals throughout the year. This drawing by John Bowen was commissioned by Eurotunnel for display in their new Visitor Centre.

Seen historically, the study areas fall within two former post-medieval estates, those of Jacob de Bouverie (later Earl Radnor, Viscount Folkestone) who purchased the Folkestone estate from Sir Basil Dixwell in 1697 and the Brockman family who owned land on the Beachborough estate from about the 1550s. As it was not possible to adopt the traditional approach of estate history, it was decided to study the individual units of each estate, in this case primarily the developments of farms. These ran, from west to east: Walton, Park, Morehall, Cheriton Court, Danton, Broadmead, Longport, Underhill, Bargrave, Stone, Forestall, Pound and Peene Farms. This has allowed for the study of the various elements (seen in any agrarian landscape) of buildings, woodland, arable and pasture, which in some cases could be directly related to the manorial medieval holdings. The other major theme of study has been the main settlement foci: Newington, Peene, Danton, Frogholt, Cheriton and the former medieval settlement of Dalmyngton, portions of which were also examined archaeologically. Lastly, some attention has been paid to themes arising out of more recent historical developments such as the railways, the former brick and tile works, clay pits and water engineering - part of the industrial archaeological heritage, all illustrating the changing use from the agricultural to semi-industrial and suburban landscape. The detail of agricultural history has not been touched upon. It is felt that the arbitrary nature of definition of the study areas precluded such historical analysis within any given period. A certain amount of information has been collected, however, for the occupants of the agricultural landscape (see below) and in turn some interesting aspects of social history have come to light. For the same reason, no valid overall economic history of the landscape can be deduced from such a restricted area. Essentially the aim has been to describe the historical development in terms of land ownership and from the viewpoint of its physical appearance, with the associated material remains of the past.

Fortunately extant archives for the two estates mentioned are fairly comprehensive. For the Brockman estate these cover the period c. 1550-1930. This archive is partly in the Kent Archives Office[1] (fully calendared), partly in the British Museum Department of Manuscripts,[2] which contains the bulk of the earlier medieval charters and manorial rolls, and partly in Folkestone Archives. Broadly these documentary sources fall into four main classes: family papers, estate papers, manorial rolls and title deeds. To date use has been made of selected relevant groups of title deeds, estate papers and manorial rolls held in the Kent Archives Office. Those papers held in the British Museum were found to be inaccessible in their present calendared form (see below), whilst those in Folkestone Archives were totally uncalendared in seven boxes. Much of the Kent Archives Office material carries the story back to the later seventeenth century, with a few deeds and manorial rolls extant from the 1550s. The survival of documents varies from property to property and is, of course, a reflection in part of the differing dates when particular land came into the ownership of the Brockman estate.

To the west of the study area much of the landscape fell within the Radnor estate. The bulk of this archive is in the Kent Archives Office,[3] dating mainly from the later seventeenth century through to the mid to later nineteenth century although the index covers some Memelson and Dixwell papers from the later fifteenth century. These documents are again broadly divided into manorial documents (court rolls, rentals), estate

papers, title deeds, ecclesiastical and legal papers. It also includes copies of a fine series of estate maps dating 1605-98. Radnor estate papers for more recent times and all the original estates maps and town plans are held in the former Manor Office, Folkestone. Only a selective look at the Kent Archives Office documents has been possible to date, such as Dixwell terriers, and documents relating to Park, Walton and Broadmead Farms.

There are, of course, gaps in the record of property ownership within the study areas where property belonged neither to the Radnor or Brockman estates. To date effort has been directed towards tracing the relevant sources, as in the case of Peene where most are in private hands. Other major landholders include the Honeywoods,[4] Scots[5] and Papillon[6] families. Other groups of relevant documents include antiquarian collections such as the Dering and Dodwell Collection.[7] Use has also been made of other record depositories. These include archives held as a branch of the Kent Archives Office at Folkestone, the bulk of which cover the official borough records but which also contain some relevant local material such as the Town Dyke,[8] the Cherry Garden Waterwork[9] and the long series of maps and plans. Unofficial archives have included much ephemeral documentation and biographical data and these have been useful in understanding the background social and family histories relating to the study areas. Business history records are poorly represented in public archives in Kent and little seems to have survived from the local brickmaking industry. Use has been made of the local history collection at Folkestone Reference Library to extract from many classes of sources information to fill in the gaps in the record. Such sources have included a number of obscure and unpublished histories and some estate maps together with the pictorial, mainly photographic, collections held there. An attempt has also been made to assess the relevance of some Public Record Office holdings such as the Department of Trade records[10] which include useful information for maritime archaeology in the area.

For the medieval period sources become far less abundant and although sixteenth and seventeenth-century documents and particularly estate maps point the way for the layout and usage of an essentially agrarian landscape, emphasis has been placed on the calendared series of Close, Patent, Fine and Inquisitions Post Mortem rolls in the Public Record Office which fortunately contain useful manorial extents. Wider topographical analysis, supplemented by local medieval records, has enabled a picture to emerge of the medieval landscape. Otherwise there is the evidence of place-names and the general form and location of the settlement pattern which blends with the material archaeological evidence. Compilation of a fully descriptive and analytic sites and monuments record for Folkestone and the surrounding civil parishes of Newington, Paddlesworth, Hawkinge and Capel has highlighted the local trends of settlement history from the Bronze Age through to the Roman periods and on into the early medieval ('Jutish') re-colonization. Indeed, much of this evidence has been derived from the Eurotunnel excavations and has a more than local significance in permitting a framework for settlement history to be constructed. For both the pre-conquest and medieval periods the impact of extensive ecclesiastical estates has been assessed; so too has the degree of influence exerted by such fortifications as Castle Hill.

In summary, progress to date has involved data collection on the basis of property ownership followed by preliminary mapping of the development of particular farms and village growth. A certain degree of experimentation has been accepted during the course of the work: this arises from the fact that a project involving total landscape history in an area of such magnitude has not been undertaken before in conjunction with archaeological excavation.

1. Brockman estate: KAO U36 and U47/1-48 including about 500 deeds for the whole estate, 1529-1858 and also U1402, 1461-1870.
2. British Museum: Add. M. 42586-42710: Add. CHS. 68070-70686 and 70731-35; including about 1,000 deeds for Newington, 1293-1817.
3. Radnor: KAO U270; De Bouverie from 1697 and Earl Radnor from 1765. Title deeds alone number approximately 2,300; deeds to 1553 have been calendared by the National Register of Archives.
4. Some in Essex Record Office; little relating to the study area has so far been traced.
5. KAO: U1115 about 300 deeds, 1470-1633 mainly Newington with a proportion of these relating to areas immediately outside the present Eurotunnel developments.
6. KAO: U1015; a small collection but which includes some for Newington, 1595-1780.
7. KAO: U1311, U1118 and U47/45.
8. KAO: FO/CC2/1.
9. Cherry Garden waterworks: KAO/FO: F1965/2, 1850-1972 (87 docs).
10. Public Record Office. Search room calendars published by the List and Index Society 216 (1985).

'OF COWS AND CHURCHES': REFLECTIONS ON THE ORIGINS OF DERBY[1]

by **Margery Tranter**

The chronological and physical relationships between the pre-Conquest settlements of Derventio, Northworthy and Derby provide an intriguing, albeit difficult, medieval conundrum. The incomplete state of present archaeological knowledge, the tantalizing but sparse early historical record and the destruction of many of the borough records by fire and flood in the course of the 19th and 20th centuries have accentuated the problems inherent in reading the past of any early medieval town. It is not surprising therefore, that the article on Derby in the Annual Report for 1988 should prompt additional and alternative suggestions for the town's development.[2]

The current archaeological evidence for the origins of Derby has recently been reviewed in the light of the limited historical record by R.A. Hall.[3] He points out that, as yet, no evidence for continuity of occupation into the 5thC has been found on the Roman site of Derventio (Little Chester), although an inhumation cemetery attributed to the 6thC has been excavated within it.[4] It is thus possible that an early Saxon settlement lay to the south of Derventio. By the 9thC when Ealhmund/ Alkmund of Northumbria, (murdered c.802) was venerated in the church bearing his name and the body of Athelwulf of Mercia was brought there after the battle against the Danes at Reading in 871, the settlement would seem to have acquired some significance, though whether as an urban centre or as the centre of a royal or aristocratic estate is not clear.

The Saxon *Northworthy*, (the 'north enclosure') and Danish *Deoraby* ('by of the deer or animals') are puzzling

names and, in Hall's judgement, there is as yet no wholly satisfactory explanation for *Northworthy*; on the basis of archaeological evidence he suggests that *Derby* may have been applied to a defensive settlement within the earlier refurbished fortifications at Derventio.[5] If this were indeed the case and the two settlements of Northworthy and Derby were initially contiguous but not identical, an attractive answer to the puzzling change of name, unique among the Five Boroughs, can be postulated; but the topographical implications and exact significance of the names themselves, of the specific *-djur* and the 'north enclosure', remain open to question.

With this in mind it may be apposite to reconsider two aspects of Jane Steer's article; first, the arguments based on her analysis of the name *Wardwick*, and secondly, the ecclesiastical topography of the town and its rural attachments. Steer has suggested that the references to *vici* describing the Derby holdings of Burton Abbey indicate rural settlements hitherto unknown, while the -wic suffix of Waldewyke (the modern street name Wardwick) has been taken to imply a trading settlement.[6] These identifications, however, take no cognizance first, of studies of the semantic development of the common Germanic element *-wik*; secondly, of the possible variant meanings of *vicus* when used in contemporary and later documents; or thirdly, of the alternative and more common uses of the O.E. element *-wic*, accepted by place-name scholars.[7]

Smith, for example, notes that in some Germanic languages the initial root meaning of *vicus* as 'a collection of dwellings, a city district' was attached to *-wik*, while in others, O. Saxon and O. Frisian the element denoted a single building. Old High German has *-wich* 'a town' and *-wik* 'a building'. He further points out that in the OE Bede *-wic* is used to translate *mansio*. As a suffix in English place-names Smith identified the element as occurring in the names a) of coastal trading settlements such as Harwich, Ipswich, b) of inland trading settlements such as Droitwich, c) of specialised single settlement units — Bathwick, Colwick and d) in the plural, being used for villages, for example, Smethwick.

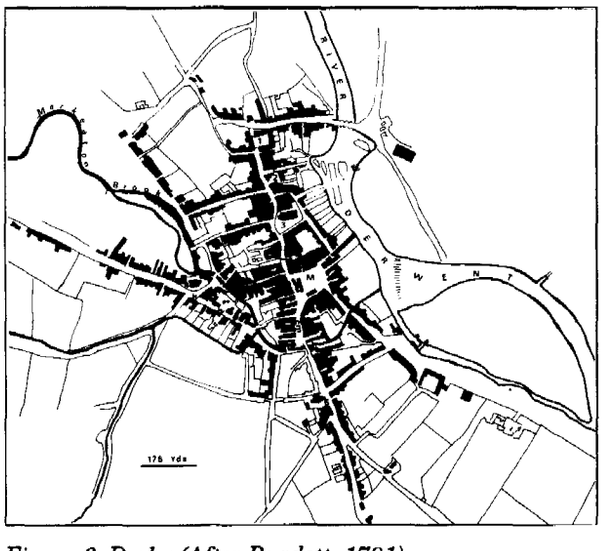


Figure 6: Derby (After Burdett, 1791)

1	*S. Alkmund*	*c*	*The Causey*
2	*S. Michael*	*i*	*Irongate*
3	*All Saints*	*M*	*Market Place*
4	*S. Werburg*	*cm*	*Cornmarket*
5	*S. Peter*	*ww*	*Wardwick*

Ekwall distinguished six meanings in use in literary texts and four in place-names.[9] The latter are those most relevant for the present purpose and possible meanings which Ekwall defines are, first, 'port, town or harbour' which he considered was applied to large and important coastal places as in *Lundenwic*, *Hamwic*, and Fordwich. Moreover, Sawyer has drawn attention to the importance of these places as trading centres during the period of comparative security in the 8thC. under Carolingian and Mercian rule.[10] The second group, also characterized by the palatalized ending *-wich*, as in Nantwich, Middlewich, Ekwall considered bore the meaning 'saltworks'.[11] When the element occurs in the names of minor places Ekwall, like Smith, sees it as having the sense of 'a building, dwelling or dwellings' and from this developed the specialised meaning 'dairy farm' as in Hardwick, Butterwick, Chiswick. He differs from Smith in maintaining that there is no evidence in O.E. for the use of the element to denote an O.E. village, except in the palatalized form.[12]

Köbler, using both continental and OE legal, literary and biblical sources argues, *inter alia*, that in West Saxon both *-tun* and *-wic* were used with equal frequency to translate *vicus*. Further since Bede uses both *vicus* and *villa* to describe the same place and *vilicus* is rendered *tun-gerefa / wic-gerefa* in Alfred's translation of Bede, he, like Smith and Ekwall, concludes that in OE, as in OHG, *-wic* could denote a single dwelling. On the basis of continental evidence he suggests that settlements containing the element *-wik* attracted merchants if their opportunities for trade were worthwhile, rather than *-wik* being a suffix added to established trading centres.[13]

Although the more generally accepted view has been that *-wik* is a loan word from Latin, Schütte has suggested that the common Germanic *-wik* and Latin *vicus* are separate developments from a related Indo-European root. He also emphasizes that in England the element developed specialized meanings early.[14]

The complexity thus revealed of the origins and semantic development of both *vicus* and *-wic* warns against the simple application of particular meanings to settlements;

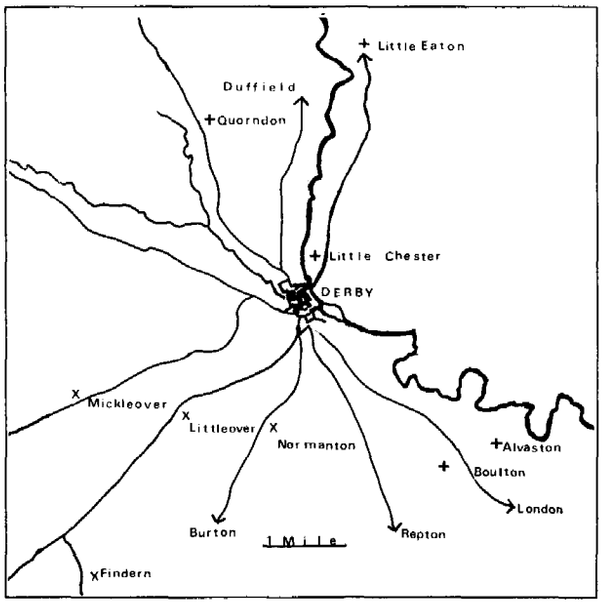


Figure 7: Derby, its dependencies and associated manors.

one must ask, for example, in what sense the word *vicus / vici* was being used in the 12thC: i.e. what semantic changes there had been since the 8thC, and whether other evidence adduced provides a strong enough case for 'unknown rural settlements' to be postulated. Secondly, the conclusions of the linguistic scholars referred to would suggest that exceptionally strong contrary evidence is required before Cameron's etymology of Wardwick could be discarded.[15] He gives the derivation as 'Walda's *-wic*', or 'Walda's dairy farm', the common later spelling substituting 'r' for the vocalized 'l' and resulting in the modern Wardwick. Indeed the local topography, low-lying and surrounded on three sides by the Markeaton and Bramble Brooks, supports this identification. Markeaton Brook is now culverted but, nevertheless, on more than one occasion in the 1950s and 60s the level of water has risen to flood properties in that part of the town. An area liable to flooding would be a surprising choice for a trading settlement when higher land was available nearby; the centre of commerce in the medieval town is indicated by names such as Sadlergate, Irongate, Cornmarket, Breadleaps (destroyed) which surround the Old Market Place. (See figure 6) Furthermore, examples of dairy farms close to and presumably supplying the needs of a town are known from other parts of the country: Bathwick is close to the ford over the river at Bathford a short distance from the centre of Bath; Exwick and Cowick near Exeter, Painswick and Rushwick in the suburbs of Worcester are among examples which can be quoted.[16]

The fascinating but confusing ecclesiastical topography of Derby may also be commented upon. Four of the six ancient churches, S. Alkmund, S. Michael, All Saints and possibly the lost S. Mary lie within a quarter mile of each other in the northern part of the town. In this area, as Steer has noted, the later medieval parishes are dissected and interlocking with detached parcels.[17] The two remaining churches, S. Peter and S. Werburg lie further to the south and west and apparently on the periphery of the medieval town. Hall has suggested that 'only the identification of S. Alkmund's and All Saints are of use in locating the area of the *burh* as it was in 1066' and in support stresses their relatively elevated sites near a crossing point of the Derwent.[18] But it should be noted that S. Michael's church not only lies between All Saints and S. Alkmund but is also immediately west of the Causey leading to the ford.

In analyzing the Domesday evidence for Derby David Roffe has suggested that a large pre-Viking estate, Northworthy, was centred on Derby and included the chapelries of Quorndon, Little Eaton, Little Chester, Alvaston and Boulton, as well as the manor of Mickleover and its dependencies - Littleover, Findern, Potlock.[19] In 1086 five of the six churches were linked with outlying settlements, the 'royal' churches with lands to the north of the town, All Saints with Quorndon, S. Alkmund with Little Chester and Little Eaton; S. Mary appears to have been attached to Mickleover and the chapelries of Alvaston and Boulton to the south were linked with S. Michael and S. Peter respectively. (See Figure 7) Only the church of S. Werburg appears to have no such connections. Furthermore, Roffe, in an analysis of the two sections which comprise the Domesday entry for Derby, has drawn a distinction between the 'borough proper' which rendered its custom to the king and the lands from which the dues were retained by the lords. These lands were, in his words, 'effectively held by book' and included the remaining churches and their lands to the south and south-west.[20] Thus there appears to be a tenurial and an ecclesiastical distinction both within the area of the town proper and in the outlying dependencies. The King's ecclesiastical possessions lay to the north and included the cult centre of S. Alkmund - a Northumbrian royal martyr. The rural lands of the separate fees were south and west of the borough and west of the Derwent. Among the four churches held by the 'independent' lords was that dedicated to S. Werburg - a Mercian royal saint.

A number of questions come to mind. the possibility that S. Michael's church with its early dedication, strategic site and possession of lands in Alvaston and Boulton (still intricately intermingled in the late 19thC) represents a very early Christian site, perhaps even originally predating the Anglian settlement, is worthy of consideration. S. Peter may then have been a daughter church founded on the hill one mile to the south but within the 'parochia' of S. Michael. This parochia may also have originally included the sites of S. Alkmund and All Saints and have been co-terminous, or partially so, with Roffe's pre-Viking estate.

If it were possible to locate and plot the tenurial divisions within the town, i.e. the King's holdings and those of the tenants-in-chief at Domesday, it might be possible to establish more precisely the significance of the two sections. Is it possible that there was in Derby something akin to the Earl's half and Prior's half in Coventry, or the Bishop's fee and King's fee in Hereford? The division is further accentuated by the location of opposing spheres of religious influence within the town, the Northumbrian cult centre in the north contrasted with the Mercian royal dedication in the south. Does this reflect the uneasy relations between Northumbria and Mercia in the 9thC? If this were so one would then have to ask what relationship this might bear to the early Mercian boundary which, on linguistic grounds, Cameron detected in the vicinity of the Derwent.[21]

These are, perhaps, unanswerable questions, and since much of the evidence, necessarily archaeological, either lies below the buildings of the present town centre or has already been destroyed in Victorian and later reconstructions they must remain so for the foreseeable future. Nevertheless the formulation of problems can help to clarify the issues and at the same time emphasize the complexity - and the fascination - of Derby's early history.

Footnotes

1. With apologies to Lewis Carroll — ""The time has come", the Walrus said, "to talk of many things..."".
2. Steer, Jane, 'The Medieval Holdings of Burton Abbey in Derby and the Origins of Derby', *Medieval Settlement Research Group Annual Report*, 3, 1988, 12-13.
3. Hall, R.A., 'The Five Boroughs of the Danelaw: a review of present knowledge', *Anglo-Saxon England*, 18, 1989, 149-206.
4. Ibid., 155.
5. Ibid., 155, 161.
6. Steer, Jane, 'Medieval Holdings of Burton Abbey in Derby', *Derbyshire Miscellany*, Autumn 1988, 119, 132, 133.
7. For example:
   Dornier, A. 'Place Names in *-wich*: A Preliminary Linguistic Survey', *Nomina*, XI, 1987, 87-98.
   Ekwall, E., *Old English WIC in Place-names*, Nomina Germanica, Lund, 13, 1964.

Köbler, G., 'Civitas und vicus, burg, stat, dorf und wik', *Vor- und Frühformen der europäischer Stadt im Mittelalter*, Göttingen, 1973, 61-76.
Schütte, L. *Wik, Eine Siedlungsbezeichnung in historischen und sprachlichen Bezügen*, Köln, Wien, 1976.
Smith, A.H., *English Place-name Elements*, Part II, C.U.P. for The English Place-name Society, 1956.
8. Smith, *op.cit.*, 257-263.
9. Ekwall, *op.cit.*, 10-11.
10. Sawyer, P. 'Wics, Kings and Vikings', *The Vikings*, Uppsala, 1978, 23-31.
11. Ekwall, *op cit.*, 45.
12. Ibid., 45.
13. Köbler, *op. cit.*, 73-4.
14. Schütte, *op. cit.*, 196-7.
15. Cameron, K., *The Place-Names of Derbyshire*, 1959, Vol. II, 450.
16. I am grateful to Dr. H.S.A. Fox for drawing my attention to the Exeter and Worcester examples, and for his helpful comments on the first draft of this paper.
17. Steer, *Miscellany*, Autumn 1988, 133, Spring 1989, 4.
18. Hall, *op.cit.*, 159.
19. Roffe, D. *The Derbyshire Domesday*, Derbyshire Museum Service, 1986, 23-5.
20. Ibid., 23.
21. Cameron, K. 'An Early Mercian Boundary in Derbyshire', Clemoes, P. ed., *The Anglo-Saxons*, 1959.

FOREST, WOODLAND AND SETTLEMENT IN MEDIEVAL CHESHIRE: A NOTE
by **Nick Higham**

There were four chases, (later to be royal forests) in Norman Cheshire. All were developed by the earls and later exploited by the crown.[1] These were Wirral, the contiguous Mara (or Delamere) and Mondrum, and Macclesfield. They were not contemporary in origin — woodland in central Cheshire was already afforested by 1086[2], along with a further comital forest in *Atiscros* Hundred (now in Clwyd) which the first earl had created to the detriment of the manors within it.[3] Tradition has it that the Wirral forest, which encompassed the entire Hundred of Wirral, was created in the early twelfth century. The inception of Macclesfield is unrecorded but the large comital manors based at Macclesfield and Adlington both had extensive woodland in 1086 which probably developed *ab initio* as demesne woodlands.[4]

The density of settlement when afforestation occurred clearly varied from one area to another. Wirral was the most densely populated part of the shire in 1086 — albeit with a comparatively modest density by national standards.[5] Woodland was only recorded for a single manor in the Hundred in 1086, at Prenton,[6] and there is a noticeable lack of woodland place-names, suggesting that the area was not characterised by a wooded landscape during the period in which the late-Saxon tier of English place-names was formed. In contrast, central and eastern Cheshire were accorded significantly lower levels of population in 1086 and, even with a probable incidence of under-recording of Domesday woodland[7], woods seem to have been common.

In central and eastern Cheshire, place-names derived from woodland elements are numerous, frequently occurring in belts of low-lying and poorly drained clayland. Such belts of woodland names coincide with major boundaries, such as those between multi-township parishes and between hundreds, implying that they were perceived as marginal and peripheral areas when these were coming into existence — the hundreds in their current form were probably formed early in the tenth century, but reflect in part pre-existing divisions. A good example is the belt of flattish clayland through which now runs the M6, which lay along the periphery of the large parishes of Great Budworth and Rostherne, and the Domesday Hundreds of *Tunendune* and Bucklow.

Such belts of woodland place-names are distinct from the medieval forests. As already noted, the Forest of Wirral had little early Norman woodland and a dearth of place-name evidence for Saxon woodland. In central Cheshire, several townships with woodland place-names — Kingsley, Manley, Norley, Tarporley, Calveley and the lost Domesday manors of *Kenardeslie* and *Aldredelie* — were incorporated in the medieval forest, but townships with names derived from topographical features or habitative elements are at least as common. The forest approximated to the two Domesday hundreds of *Roelau* and *Riseton*, rather than to any belt of pre-existing woodland. However, at the centre was an area of rough upland of Triassic sandstone which was unsuitable for medieval cultivation and may, in the past, have been intercommoned. The bulk of the remainder was, in 1086, split amongst a patchwork of manors large and small, each of which (including the manors lost through afforestation) had ploughland in quantities which were significant by local standards. The upland core need not have been wooded — although the woodland associated with the manors of Helsby, *Kenardeslie* and Dunham probably covered the steeper slopes and stream valleys at the northern end of the ridge. Weaverham was the principal comital centre, both before and after the Conquest but it is worth noting that Kingsley — later the residence of the hereditary chief foresters — was held by a certain Dunning both before and after the conquest. The woodland of his manor had been afforested by the Earls by 1086, along presumably with his 4 roe-deer parks (*haiae capreol(is)*).[8] It seems likely that Dunning was already a forester in 1066 and the place-name implies a royal interest in these hunting grounds at some date prior to their alienation to the late Saxon earls — perhaps in the tenth century, when several West

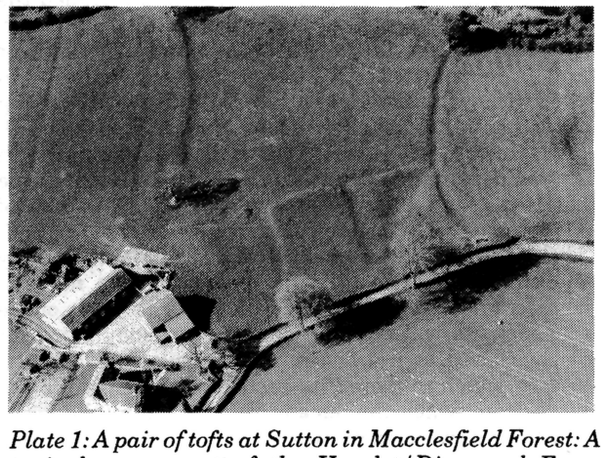


Plate 1: A pair of tofts at Sutton in Macclesfield Forest: A typical component of the Hamlet / Dispersed Farm Settlement Pattern of the region before industrialization.

Saxon kings were active in the area. It is possible to postulate a royal residence at Farndon and another at what was later to be a comital manor at Frodsham, where kings may have relaxed by hunting in Kingsley, on the northern end of the central ridge.

The relationship between settlement and woodland in the developing Macclesfield forest was rather different. Woodland place-names and extensive mosses occur as a belt along the frontier between the hundreds of Macclesfield, Bucklow and Middlewich, suggesting that tenth century administrative boundaries had again been attracted to marginal lowland areas. A group of manors within the western edge of the Forest have names which contain habitative or topographical elements — Poynton, Torkington, Worth, Prestbury, Upton, Sutton, etc. — but woodland place-names are common on the hilly country — Disley, Bosley, Wybersley, Werneth etc. — and the eastern uplands are dominated by topographical place-names and were probably open country in the eleventh century.

The principal difference between this and the other medieval forests lies in the antiquity of its medieval woodland. Macclesfield Forest is the central part of the Lyme (or Lyne), named in all probability in the period before the inception of English place-naming (in the seventh or eighth centuries). The name probably denotes woodland[9] and its survival over a wide area — Ashton-under-Lyne, Lyme Hall, Newcastle-under-Lyme — implies that the name was associated with a substantial belt of broken hill country along the wet, western edge of the southern Pennines which was characterised by extensive woodland. The name of the principal manor and the later medieval hundred (the DB *Hamestan* was lost by the 13th century) is a *feld* name, probably associated with an Old English personal name. In Germany, similar names in *feld* were coming into being late in the first millennium A.D. to denote hunting preserves.[10] It is possible that this example is similar, and such a view suits the topography of the township rather better than the notion of an extensive area of early clearance. If this were the case, Macclesfield may have been the focus of a hunting territory even before the Conquest. That medieval assarting of local woodland was widespread in Macclesfield Hundred is well-known, but much ancient woodland seems to have survived the later prehistoric, Roman and Saxon periods relatively intact in this area despite the agricultural pressures exerted by high population levels and intensification of landuse on a national scale.

The settlement pattern which emerged in Macclesfield Forest during the medieval period was one of dispersed farms and small hamlets. Where deserted settlement can be identified by field work or aerial photography, it is of isolated earthworks or collapsed stone buildings — the date of many of which could be anything from the medieval period to the early twentieth century. Only in the case of embanked or moated sites — such as that on Toot Hill, high above the Forest — can we be sure of a medieval date, but lynchet systems and deserted fields imply a long history of agricultural land-use and settlement in several lowland and hill-edge areas.

Extensive woodland remains a feature of the Macclesfield area, today, but these woods are coniferous plantations owned and managed for timber. Most current stands of deciduous woodland are comparatively recent plantations. However, ancient woodland has survived, but is now largely restricted to the steep gorges of the fast-running and deeply erosive streams. Many of these have been utilised as boundaries for parishes, townships and manors, so that their survival has been assisted by their distribution on the periphery of land-management systems. Some of these woods have been exploited. For example, Poynton Coppice follows the stream which acts as the boundary between the modern townships of Adlington and Poynton. The wood was coppiced during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century to provide pit-props for Poynton's coal-mining industries, and is now, perhaps as a result, dominated by birch, alongside oaks and alders. Whether such management is any older is unclear, but the poliflorous ground cover contains species which imply that the wood is ancient.[11] If so, it may be a remnant of more extensive stands throughout the Lyme, the bulk of which fell to peasant assarting during the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

Despite their proprietorial uniformity, the settlement patterns and vegetational histories of these several forests were very different. They had been created over diverse physical and human landscapes, and that diversity survived the imposition of forest law without any apparent difficulty, to become a characteristic of the later medieval period.

Footnotes

1. See the summary in the V.C.H. for Cheshire, II, 167-187.
2. Domesday Book, 263c, 267d.
3. Domesday Book 268d.
4. Domesday Book 263d.
5. H.C. Darby and I.S. Maxwell, *Domesday Geography of Northern England,* C.U.P., 1962.
6. Domesday Book 265b.
7. N.J. Higham, "Bucklow Hundred: The Domesday Survey and the Rural Community", *Cheshire Archaeological Bulletin,* 8, 1982, 17.
8. Domesday Book 267d.
9. The derivation is problematic but may be from the British *lemo* — elm. J. McN. Dodgson, *The Place-names of Cheshire,* I, C.U.P., 1970, 2-6.
10. P. Hofer, "Die Frankenherrschaft in den Harzlanden", *Zeitschrift des Harzvereins,* 40, 1907, 115-179.
11. My thanks to Penny Anderson, consultant ecologist, for her opinion on this flora.

MOATS IN BEDFORDSHIRE AND THE MONUMENTS PROTECTION PROGRAMME
by **Stephen Coleman**

As part of the national programme by English Heritage to enhance the schedule of ancient monuments, Bedfordshire County Council's Conservation and Archaeology Section has carried out evaluation work on a wide range of prehistoric, Roman and medieval monuments in the county, including moats. Based on a scoring system and financed by English Heritage the evaluation has resulted in a list for each monument type, ranking the monuments in order of importance; examples have then been selected from each list for consideration by English Heritage for scheduling.

Moats are one of the most numerous of medieval monuments in Bedfordshire. The broad overview provided by the MPP evaluation together with some

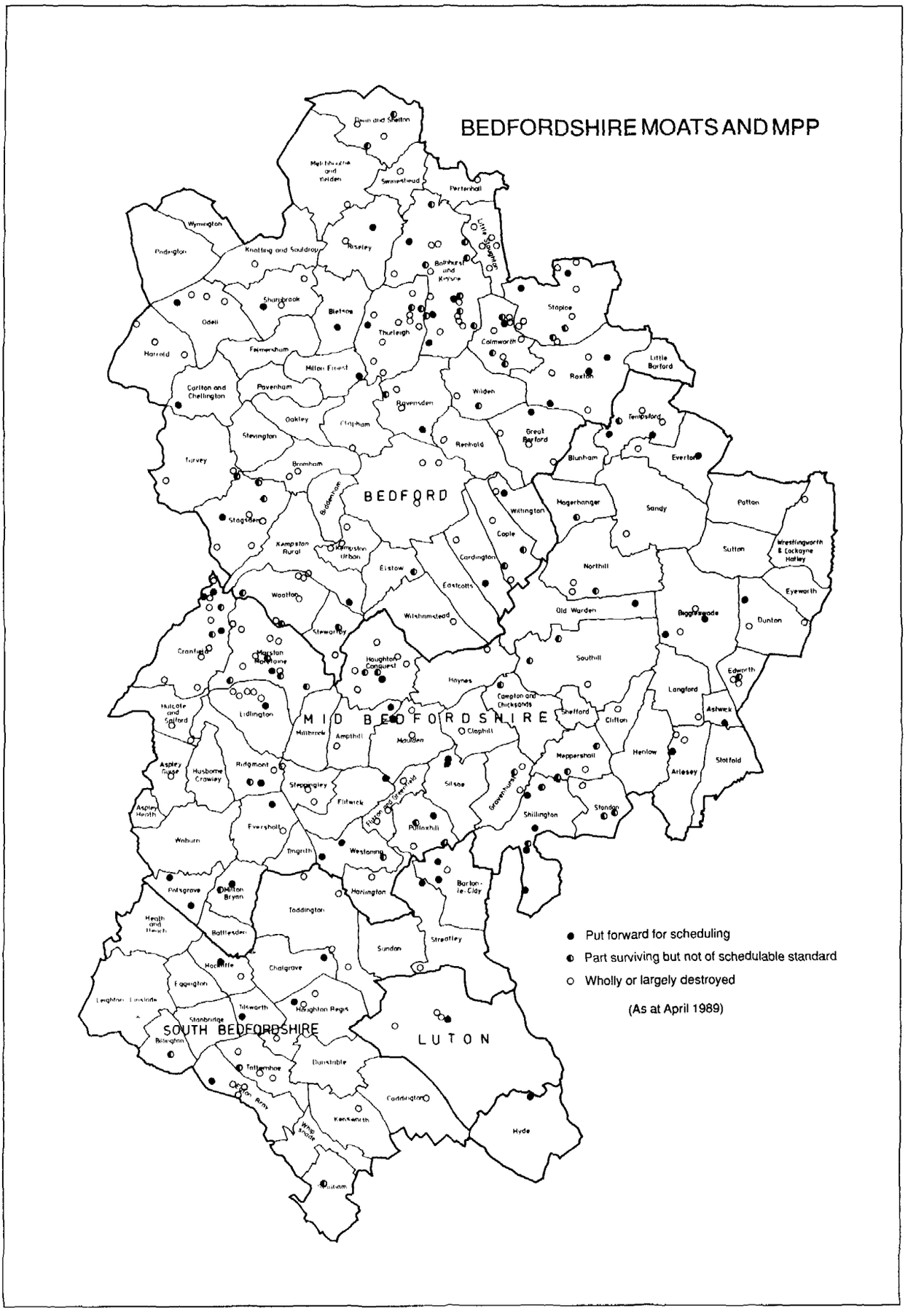


Figure 8: Moats in Bedfordshire.

statistical analysis has enabled the following summary of moats in Bedfordshire to be prepared.

Moats were present across most of the county with all but about 20 parishes having at least one moat, many possessing at least two or thee and some 10 parishes having between eight and twelve each (See figure 8). The main concentrations seem to have been broadly associated with the distribution of clay soils in the county (boulder, gault and Oxford) though within this framework particular concentrations with large numbers of moats can be noted in the north east of the county (Bolnhurst and Keysoe, Thurleigh, Colmworth, Staploe, Roxton and area) and in the mid west (Cranfield, Marston Moretaine, Houghton Conquest, Lidlington, Stagsden and Wootton). In contrast few moats were dug in the far south of the county where chalk predominates, in the east on the sandy soils and along the Ivel valley, and in parts of the north west. There would also seem to be a correlation between areas of predominantly dispersed settlement and large numbers of moats and also between areas of fewer, nucleated settlements and limited numbers of moats. Several of the moats had manorial connections but many more were not associated with manors. Moats seem to have been a status symbol or merely fashionable amongst well-to-do medieval farmers. Moat origins were very varied, but in some parishes, eg Cranfield, their creation can be shown to have been directly associated with assarting around the parish perimeter during the 12th and 13th centuries: new enclosed agricultural land was created from woodland and often accompanied by new moated farmsteads.

Moats occur in a wide range of topographical locations in Bedfordshire. Most are in low lying or level situations but they also occur on hilltops (eg Mowsbury Hill, Ravensden (TL 066 532); Astwood Road, Bourne End, Cranfield (SP 963 453) and cut into hill slopes (eg Ivy Hall, Bourne End, Cranfield (SP 958 451); Bolebec Farm, Maulden (TL 053 389).

Of the 297 moats evaluated in Bedfordshire, 174 have been largely destroyed. 65 have been selected for inspection as possible candidates for scheduling (including the 19 already scheduled) and 58 are in various states of preservation in between. The 123 surviving examples can be divided into 6 types: 76 have a rectangular single island (A), 4 a circular single island (B), 5 a double island (C), 10 a single island together with extra ponds and ditches (D) and 24 consist of 2 or 3 arms only (E). The remaining 4 are too damaged to assign to a particular type.

Of these, virtually all the more unusual and larger forms (B, C and D) have been put forward for scheduling. These probably represent a very high percentage of the original number of these types. Because they tend to be larger and more complex sites they are more difficult to destroy and have survived rather better than the smaller, simpler and more easily destroyed forms A and E. The latter pair make up the majority of the 174 already destroyed. 45 of type A (59% of the total surviving) have been put forward for scheduling but only 2 of type E (8% of the total surviving). Type E are not easy to identify with certainty and are the most susceptible to destruction or infilling. Although they are clearly the less common and less typical forms of moats in Bedfordshire some 17 examples of types B, C and D make up just over a quarter of the 65 moats put forward as candidates for scheduling. It is hoped, therefore, that a reasonable number of the originally more typical, but latterly more vulnerable form of Bedfordshire moat — the small, simple rectangular form — will be scheduled, to provide a proper balance among the protected sample.

THE HBMC MONUMENTS PROTECTION PROGRAMME IN WILTSHIRE

by **R.A. Canham**

Wiltshire County Council, Library & Museum Archaeology Section

The Wiltshire Archaeology Section was commissioned by HBMC (English Heritage) to provide information for their Monuments Protection Programme, including recording all Deserted Medieval Villages, Shrunken or Shifted villages, moats, and farmsteads, also Castles, Ringworks, Mottes and baileys etc.

Each site was given scores ranging between one (low) and three (high) for eight discrimination criteria:-

> Survival, Group value (association), Documentation (archaeology), Documentation (historical), Group value (clustering), Potential, Amenity value and Professional judgement.

This information is stored on a computer database, which re-organises sites with a high score at the top, descending down the scale to those in poor condition at the bottom. English Heritage staff will visit those sites in the top half of the list, as well as all of those which were formerly scheduled as Ancient Monuments. Four management assessment criteria will be applied to the sites as well. These are Condition, Fragility, Vulnerability and Conservation value.

Hopefully, at the end of this exercise, Wiltshire will have a set of Scheduled Medieval sites which are assessed within a National context and these will be afforded better protection against agricultural changes and development pressures.

RESEARCH IN 1989
i. FIELDWORK

BEDFORDSHIRE

Stephen Coleman reports on work at **Zouches Farm, Caddington (TL 039 214)**

Earthworks in Grove Close at Zouches Farm, Caddington, have been surveyed by Bedfordshire County Council's Conservation and Archaeology section (Figure 9). Immediately to the north is a north facing chalk scarp but the earthworks lie on the south facing dipslope just north west of the present farm buildings at Zouches Farm.

A major holloway runs east-west towards Dunstable with associated north-south holloways at the eastern end of the complex and from the centre southwards. North of the main holloway is a group of slightly irregular but essentially rectilinear enclosures defined by ditches but sometimes also by banks. Cut through the enclosures in the north eastern corner are the prominent remains of post-medieval quarry pits, possibly 19th century brickearth pits, and tree holes. Some of the features in the large westernmost enclosure are also intrusive. South of the main holloway to the west, faint surface traces suggest that some linear north-south features once existed here but have been levelled. The south eastern corner is less well drained than the rest of the complex and seems to have been truly devoid of earthworks apart from the farm access holloway; the adjacent features along the southern boundary are chiefly spoil tips and infilling of relatively recent date.

Zouches Farm was the manor house for the manor of Zouches, a sub-manor held of the main manor of Caddington. This sub-manor was created at the beginning of the 14th century and soon passed through marriage in 1322 to the la Zouche family. They retained the property until the 1540's; long association has provided the sub-manor's name which continued to be used into the present century. It is not known when the Zouches Farm site was first occupied but a farmhouse was there by 1420 isolated from the other settlements in the parish. The earliest part of the present buildings dates from the 17th century.[1]

The earthworks in Grove Close do not include any obvious building platforms, although finds of building stone and roofing tiles have been reported from the large western enclosure. The site is not the remains of a deserted medieval village, for which there is also no documentary evidence. The predominant features of medieval date are the holloways and enclosures; the latter are probably of manorial origin but of unknown purpose. The site is a Scheduled Ancient Monument.

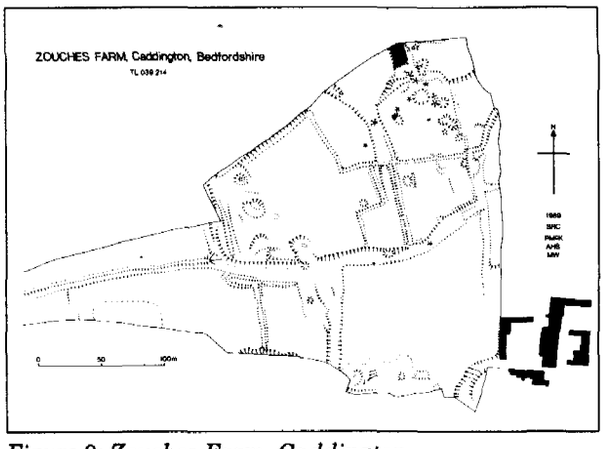


Figure 9: Zouches Farm, Caddington

1. S.R. Coleman, *Caddington and Kensworth—Historic Landscape and Archaeology (Bedfordshire Parish Surveys No 4))*, 1985, pp 48-9.

CLEVELAND (formerly N. Yorkshire)

Robin Daniels reports on survey work at **Kilton** (NZ 695 180), and **Pinchinthorpe Hall** (NZ 577 140)

A programme of field survey at Kilton, funded by English Heritage and undertaken by Cleveland County Archaeology Section, has been completed and reported on. The earthworks of a number of medieval farmsteads and one nucleated settlement were surveyed and an assessment made of the medieval and post-medieval settlement patterns. The report of the survey will appear in *Medieval Rural Settlement in North East England* to be published in 1990 as a monograph by the Architectural and Archaeological Society of Durham and Northumberland.

Pinchinthorpe Moat, Pinchinthorpe Hall, Cleveland (North Yorkshire) NZ 577 140

A measured survey was made of Pinchinthorpe Moat by R. Isles, of the North York Moors National Park, and R. Daniels of Cleveland County Archaeology Section. Only the north east and south east arms of the moat survive, both in woodland. However parts of the west corner are still visible and its circuit is reasonably clear. Water is fed to the moat by a small stream at the south corner. There is a modern sluice just north of the east corner; the tithe map (1839) calls the area beyond this sluice a fish pond. Examination of the tithe and 6" (1857) map seems

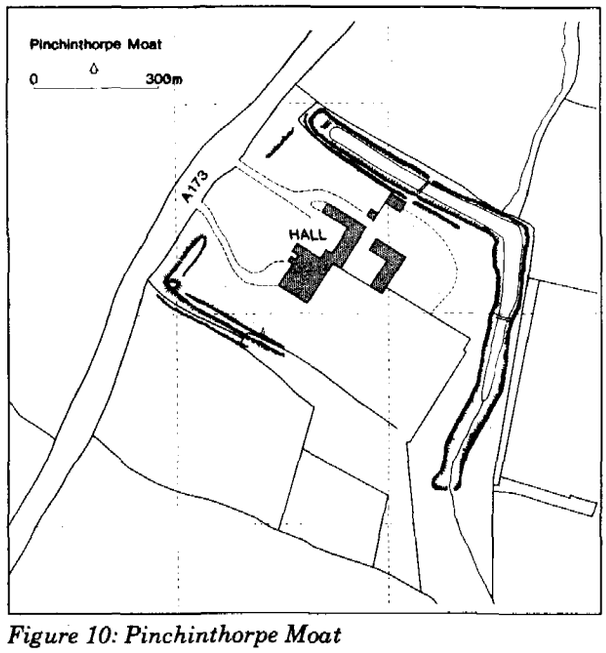


Figure 10: Pinchinthorpe Moat

to show the grounds were landscaped in the mid 19th century with an extra long pond inside and parallel to the lower part of the south east arm.

ESSEX

RCHME Fieldwork

W.D. Cocroft reports that, as part of routine fieldwork from RCHME Keele Office, the recording and depiction of antiquities within Ordnance Survey sheets TL 53 NW and NE centred on Saffron Walden have been revised for OS mapping at 1:2500. In this area the sites of three alleged DMVs or shrunken settlements were investigated at Wendons Ambo (TL 53 NW 51), Thunderley Hall (TL 53 NE 12) and Wimbish (TL 53 NE 7). Only at Wimbish were earthworks found. These comprised a single hollow-way and amorphous earthworks to the NW of the church centred at TL 5893 3695 but no settlement remains were evident.

In addition 15 known moated sites were examined and their mapping revised as necessary. In **Ashdon parish** at TL 5775 3957 an unnamed and previously unsurveyed moat (TL 53 NE 3) was investigated and found to survive as an earthwork in arable cultivation. It lies about 1 mile S of the church at above 110m OD in an arable field and is subject to continuous plough erosion. The moat was first recognised by RCHM when still an earthwork and simply described as a homstead moat.[1] Latterly the moat has appeared as a five-sided cropmark on aerial photographs.[2] Its extent was subsequently depicted as a pecked line in OS archaeological records. The moat now survives as a five-sided earthwork dug in below the crestline of a NE-facing slope (Figure 11). The S arm is deepest at 1.2m: the other arms average 0.7m and the N arm of the moat projects for some 30.0m to the NW. The platform is sub-rectangular, 38.0m x 30.0m; its N third is raised and may indicate the position of a former building. The moat is known locally as 'The Table'.

The full recording and survey diagrams for these sites and others recorded in this area have been deposited with the NAR at Southampton.

1. RCHM, *Essex* (1916), 7.
2. Cambridge University AP Collection, AZ 48.

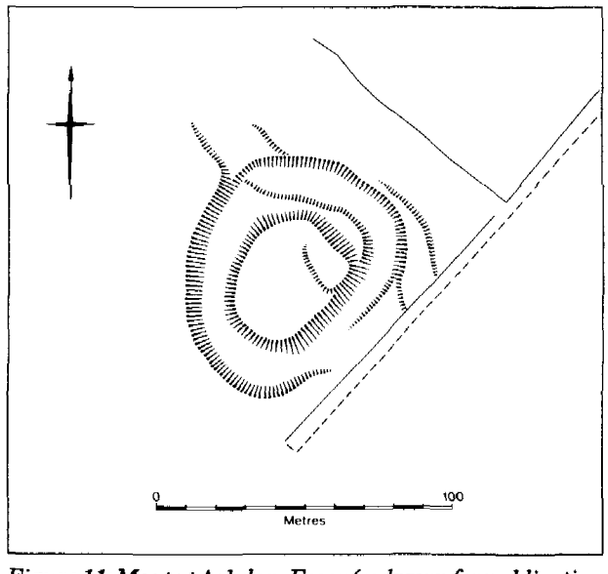


Figure 11: Moat at Ashdon, Essex (redrawn for publication by P.M. Sinton)

HEREFORD AND WORCESTER

RCHME Fieldwork

W.D. Cocroft for RCHME Keele Office reports that the recording and portrayal of antiquities within Ordnance Survey 1:10000 sheets numbers SO 94 NW, NE, SW and SE centred on **Pershore** have been revised for OS 1:2500 mapping. In this area 7 moats were examined and a previously unrecognised moat at Caddicroft Farm, Wychavon (SO 9220 4739) was added to the record. The sites of 15 DMVs or shrunken settlements were visited; earthwork remains were found at 7 of these sites and 1:2500 surveys were carried out for the production of OS antiquity models.

The earthworks surviving at **Hill** (SO 988 480; Figure 12) in Wychavon are typical of the settlement remains encountered in this area. Hill is situated at about 50m above OD on top of the N escarpment of the River Avon with commanding views over the Avon valley and Bredon Hill. It now forms a minor element of the civil parish of Hill and Moor, whose principal settlement lies in the valley bottom. The earthworks were first brought to the Group's attention by Dr. C.C. Dyer and a survey was deposited with the local S.M.R.[1]

The earthworks lie in a triangular-shaped field to the E of Hill Court Farm (SO 94 NE 5), a 17th-century half-timbered farmhouse. The bank surrounding this triangular area has previously been interpreted as a prehistoric fortification.[2] By reference to the 1st edition OS 1 inch mapping,[3] the bank may be seen as a continuation of the former lane approaching the settlement from the N from Throckmorton, which then turns sharply back on itself westwards in the direction of Pinvin. In its present form it may be acting as a village bank pushing the lanes around the old settlement core. The principal settlement remains lie within a well-defined rectangular hollow 90m x 60m and appear to represent a group of cottages or a single farm complex. Further scarping along the frontage of the lane returning W may represent other properties.

To the N of Hill Court Farm the apparently three-sided enclosure has been interpreted as a moat.[4] In fact, the N side is the lane boundary discussed above: the E and S sides are simply field boundaries. In addition, the interior

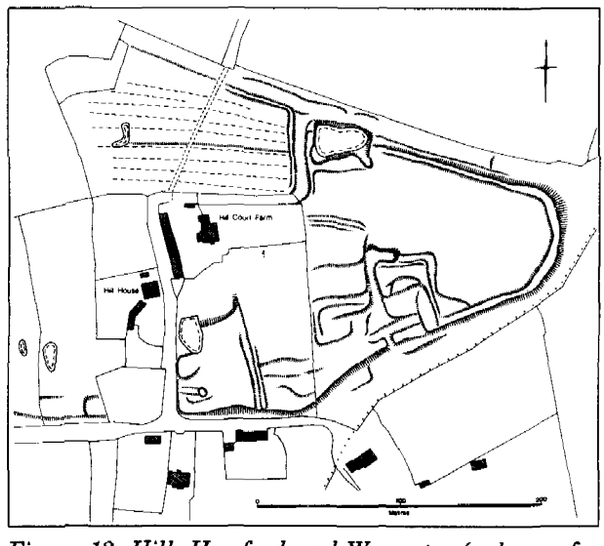


Figure 12: Hill, Hereford and Worcester (redrawn for publication by P.M. Sinton)

slopes to the W so that none of the arms would have been able to retain water. The interior is covered with ridge-and-furrow which may be traced for over 60m.

Ridge-and-furrow survives extensively to the W of Hill House: its pattern is picked up by the sinuous lines of the enclosure hedges. Sections of the ridging may also have been created for the orchards latterly typical of the area.

The full recording and survey diagrams for these and other sites recorded in this task have been deposited with the NAR at Southampton.

1. Dyer, C.C. 'DMVs in Worcestershire', MVRG *Annual Report* no. 19, 1971, 5-6; Hereford and Worcester County Council SMR, no. 3083.
2. Jones, A.E. & Small, J., *Trans. Worcs. Nat. Club*, 9, 1932-9, 56, 97.
3. Ordnance Survey, Worcestershire sheet LIV SW, 1831.
4. Hereford and Worcester County Council SMR, no. 3084.

HUMBERSIDE (formerly Lincolnshire)

East Halton (TA188142)

Ed Dennison reports that a large moated site at Baysgarth Farm, East Halton, was surveyed by staff of the Humberside Archaeology Unit (see figure 13).

The main enclosure measures 150m by 80m, although there appears to be a secondary smaller area defined in the south-eastern corner. Within this smaller enclosure are the denuded earthworks of several platforms; on the southern side of the largest platform there is a ramped entrance leading from the moat. Two ponds with well preserved entrances extend from the moat, the larger having two internal levels. A right-angled bank in the south-western corner of the site may mark the position of another enclosure but the earthworks here are disturbed. To the north of the moat are the earthworks of several house platforms aligned along Scrub Lane. There are also areas of ridge and furrow on the eastern and western sides of the moat, the latter having a small building platform positioned on the top.

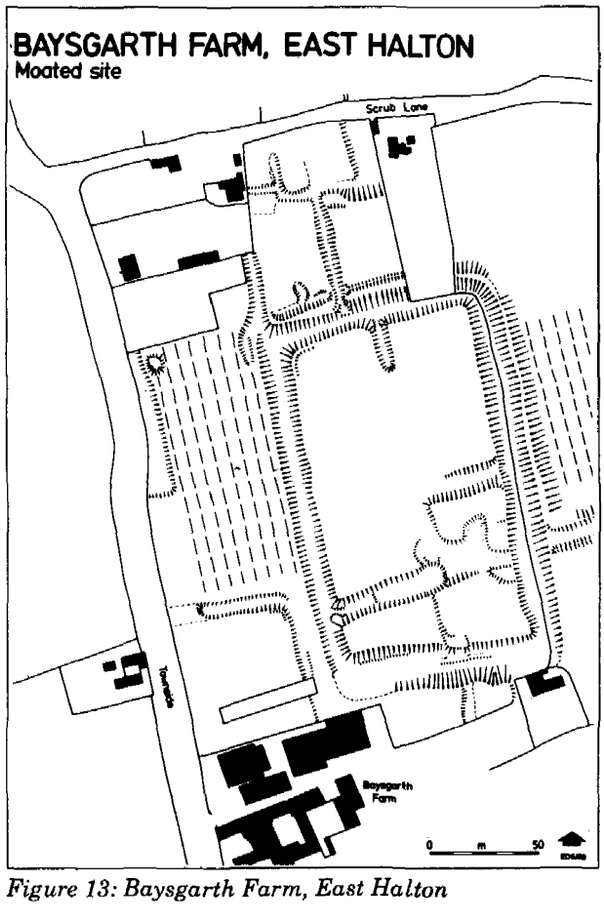


Figure 13: Baysgarth Farm, East Halton

Great Coates (TA234102)

Ed Dennison reports that the earthworks of part of the shrunken medieval village of Great Coates near Grimsby were surveyed by the Humberside Archaeology Unit in advance of residential development (see figure 14).

A number of platforms were situated along an abandoned road (a-b). One of the most prominent (c) measured 20m by 15m and was separated from a second platform and ridge and furrow by ditches. To the north were two other platforms and a large recent bonfire mound. Further east, another field contained several shallow ditches running southwards from the road; these were probably property boundaries. In the centre of the field there was a large rectangular platform 20m by 15m (d) with ditches defining a toft or garden area behind. Any evidence for other platforms along the road had been removed by later quarrying.

A number of buildings, no longer surviving, are shown on the 1930's Ordnance Survey maps. The earthworks of an enclosure attached to a barn overlie the earlier property boundaries. The other buildings comprised Ivy House Farm, the walls of which were revealed as parch marks during the hot weather experienced during the survey.

Some geophysical work was also carried out by the dry conditions meant that, on the whole, the results were disappointing. Some documentary research will be carried out to provide information on the development and desertion of this part of the village and a report will be produced in due course.

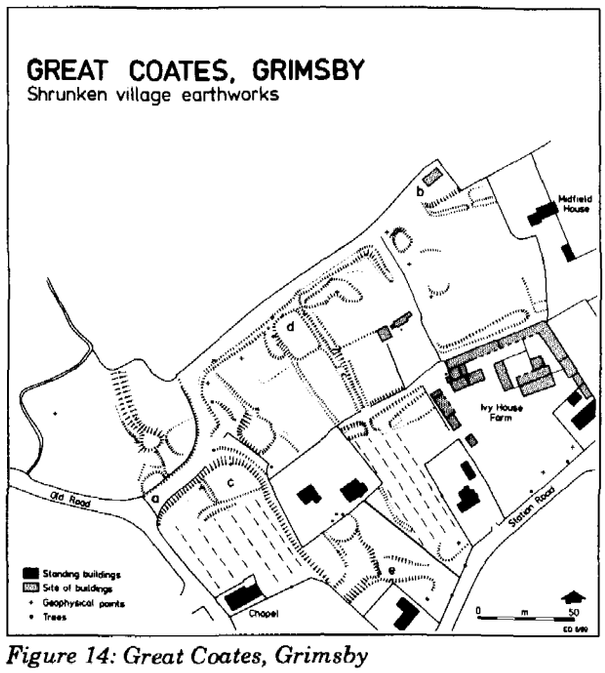


Figure 14: Great Coates, Grimsby

HUMBERSIDE (formerly East Riding of Yorkshire)

Low Caythorpe (TA120678)

Ed Dennison reports that the earthworks of the deserted village at Low Caythorpe were surveyed by members of the Humberside Archaeology Unit as part of an HBMC(E) Farm Presentation Grant. The farm survey also included documentary research, an architectural survey, analysis of aerial photographs and an environmental survey. A full report is in preparation but the following is a summary of the medieval section.

The deserted village comprises two areas of earthworks which lie on either side of the present farm. To the west, a straight hollow-way with a number of well preserved crofts and tofts on either side runs in an approximately E-W direction. On the eastern side of the farm is the manor site and associated farm complex. The manor is surrounded by a double-banked enclosure and the ancillary buildings are arranged on three sides of a courtyard. One of these buildings, which was excavated between 1963 and 1966, had Saxon origins and was abandoned in the early 16th century.[1] To the south of this area is a set of formal ponds and a garden.

The documentary research shows that the Caythorpe family emerged as the major landowners during the 11th and 12th centuries. The village appears to have been deserted between the mid 15th and 16th centuries when the land was given over to sheep farming by the Fairfax family. In 1513 the estate passed to the Constables who built a substantial house and probably constructed the formal ponds. They also appear to have created a carriage drive out the main E-W hollow-way, sweeping aside some of the by now abandoned house platforms in the process. Most of the surviving farm buildings, which include a farmhouse, manager's house, stables, and forge and carriage ranges, were built in the 19th century.

1. Coppack, G., 1974, "Low Caythorpe, East Yorkshire — the manor site". *Yorkshire Archaeological Journal*, 46, 34-41.

LEICESTERSHIRE

Fred Hartley reports that the programme of earthwork surveys has continued, with village earthworks at the following sites being recorded:-

Harborough

Lowesby (Village and formal garden earthworks) SK724076
Baggrare SK697087

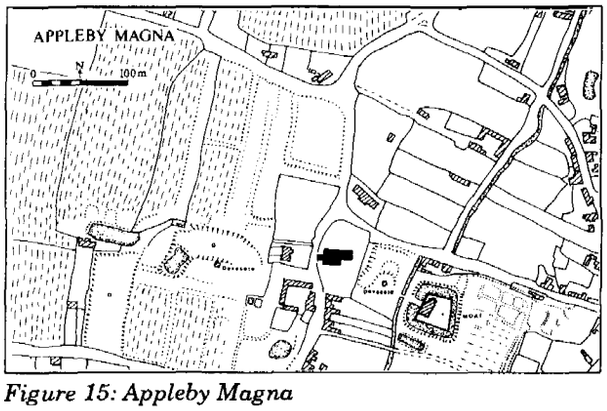


Figure 15: Appleby Magna

Hinckley and Bosworth

Twycross SK337052
Orton on the Hill SK303037
Sheepy Magna SK326012
Sheepy Parva SK332014
Ratcliffe Culey SP327994
Higham on the Hill SP382955
Kirkby Mallory SK454003
Bagworth SK452080
Burbage (earthworks of water mill) SP461903
Lea Grange (Grange farm of Merevale Abbey) SK322054

North-West Leicestershire

Appleby Magna SK313097 (figure 15)
Normanton le Heath SK378127 (figure 16)
Swepstone SK369104 (figure 17)

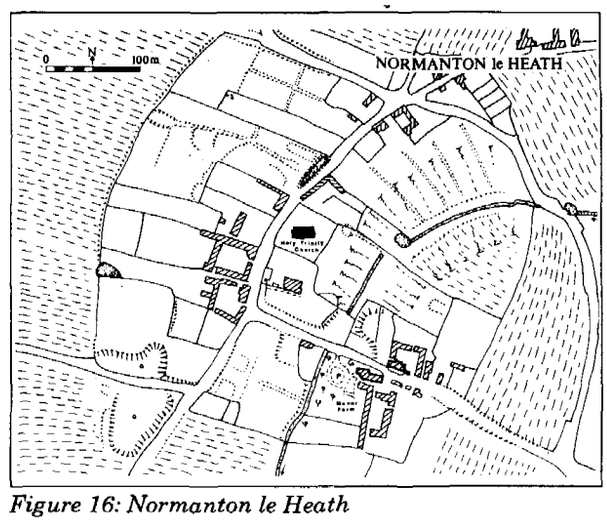


Figure 16: Normanton le Heath

In addition, the grange farm site of Holywell Hall near Loughborough (Charnwood) was surveyed in advance of development. Trial excavations were also carried out. The moated farm itself (with its Medieval buildings) is not threatened, but associated enclosures and a fish pond will be levelled (SK507180).

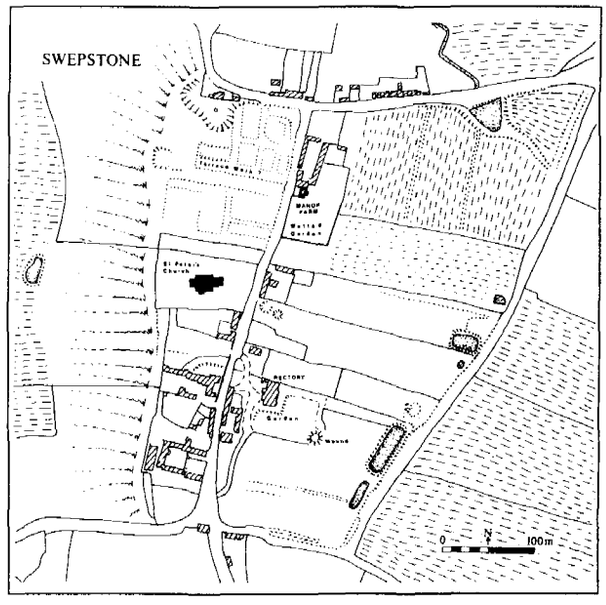


Figure 17: Swepstone

In connection with a proposal for open-cast mining, Peter Liddle has carried out a detailed programme of fieldwalking in the parishes of Normanton le Heath and Heather (North-West Leicestershire). Evidence of medieval pottery scatters was almost non-existent, suggesting that the area was indeed heathland in the medieval period.

Earthwork survey of sites in Charnwood, Blaby, Oadby and Wigston, and Leicester have been published in a new report *The Medieval Earthworks of Central Leicestershire* by R.F. Hartley (available from Leicestershire Museums, price £4.95).

The next report in the series will cover Hinckley and Bosworth (South-West Leicestershire) and work on this is soon to be completed.

NORFOLK

Alan Davison reports that he has completed fieldwalking and documentary investigation of **Illington** (TL 947 900). It seems that the detached medieval settlement north-east of the church previously reported (MSRG, 2, 1987, 17) was known as 'Methelond (or Molland) in Illington'.

Finds suggest partial post-medieval occupation here and a documentary source shows that at least one house was in existence in 1599. Another linear medieval common-edge settlement was discovered on either side of Old Farm, to the west of the church. What appear to be the remains of a second medieval moated site lie to the north-west of Old Farm; they are superimposed on a second Romano-British site where pottery and building materials have been found. A few sherds of Ipswich-type Ware were found in a field a short distance to the west of the church; it is possible that a site is concealed by farm buildings.

Evidence of earlier occupation includes scatters of worked flints (including possible Upper Palaeolithic finds near Old Farm) and three small concentrations of Iron Age pottery. A full report is being prepared and it is hoped to publish this.

In 1987-88 Alan Davison, on behalf of the Norfolk Archaeological Unit and the Property Services Agency, fieldwalked a large, irregularly-shaped area in northern Breckland, destined to become an extension of the Stanford Military Training Area. Documentary research and compilation of a report followed in 1988-89. The area consists of portions of five medieval parishes — **Bodney** (TL 987 830), **Hilborough** (TF 826 005), **Great Cressingham** (TF 853 018), **Little Cressingham** (TF 874 000) and **Threxton** (TF 885 001). Bodney and Threxton are deserted; the centres of all five lie outside the area. Within it is a group of barrows at Little Cressingham. Subsequently, in 1989, part of the site of Bodney village, outside the designated extension, was walked.

The chief findings are presented on a parish basis (Figure 18):

Bodney

Site 1. Middle Saxon pottery occurs at the core of a substantial concentration of Late Saxon and medieval finds which included fired clay daub, some with withy impressions. A notable find, immediately north-east of the church, was a rim of Neolithic Fengate Ware. Bodney church stands within a circular churchyard on a mound;

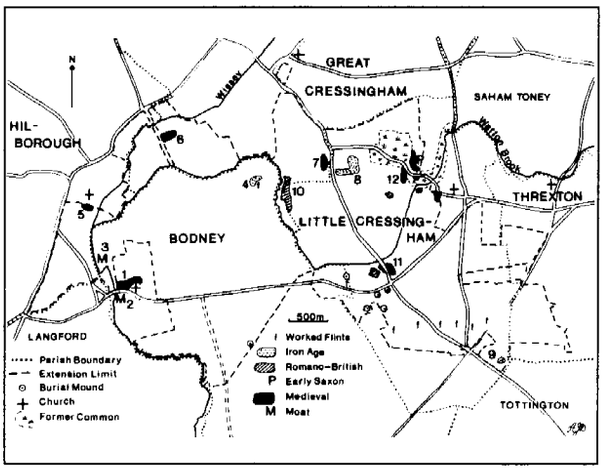


Figure 18: Bodney and the Stanta Extension

the building includes a small fragment with interlaced carving.

Site 2. A probable moat and the nearby foundations of the post-medieval Bodney Hall and Hall Farm have been mapped by Brian Cushion. Surface finds made on this grass-covered site included Ipswich-type, Thetford-type and St. Neots-type sherds as well as medieval and post-medieval pottery. A scattering of Late Saxon and medieval pottery occurs on grassland to the south and south-east. This may have been the site of the capital manor. Three well-preserved rectangular fishponds lie close to the river to the south.

Site 3. A fine moated platform with some associated earthworks; its identity is unknown but it may be the site of a manor held by the Holdiches in the fourteenth century. A plan of the whole site has been made by B. and B.W. Dollin.

Site 4. An area where a concentration of worked flints, a Bronze Age sherd and Iron Age pottery have been found.

Hilborough

Site 5. Late Saxon and medieval pottery occurs in modest quantities to the south of the church.

Great Cressingham

Site 6. Documentary evidence shows that this medieval concentration is associated with Glosbridge manor.

Site 7. Medieval and post-medieval pottery occurs close to the site of St. George's Chapel and Hermitage and a medieval fairstead. The chapel may be a second church referred to in Domesday.

Little Cressingham

Site 8. A large Iron Age site lies at c.50m OD; among the many finds was a portion of a spindle whorl.

Site 9. A small isolated Iron Age site, with a single Bronze Age sherd.

Site 10. A linear Romano-British site with building materials, partly in Great Cressingham.

Site 11. The site of the medieval Hopton House manor with a small Romano-British concentration.

Site 12. Medieval to post-medieval settlements around the edges of a former common; farm buildings survived until modern times at two points. An Early Saxon site (P) lies very close to the edge of the common.

It seems likely that the desertion of Bodney occurred in the fifteenth century or soon after. In the early part of the century the manors were united under single lordship before being granted to the Cluniac Priory of Thetford. The Priory had flocks of sheep on some of its other possessions in south-west Norfolk; in Bodney it held an extensive warren as well as the sheep kept there.

B. and B.W. Dollin continue their work at **Kelling,** North Norfolk (TG 093 417) where the existence of a medieval manor-house site was confirmed in the course of moated sites research in 1986. Medieval and post-medieval pottery finds indicate a continuing occupation of the site from the thirteenth to the eighteenth centuries, while significant numbers of Ipswich-type and Thetford-type sherds point towards the site possibly being one of the pre-Conquest manors reported by the Domesday surveyors.

Brian Cushion has surveyed the earthworks at **Harling Thorpe** (TL 946 841), a manorial hamlet within **West Harling**. They lie in two meadows on either side of Thorpe Farm. To the east of the farm there is an east-to-west hollow way, interrupted by the gardens of Thorpe Cottages. To the east of the cottages are four probable tofts separated by ditches; two of them have platforms. To the west, a broad depression extends northwards from the hollow way towards the flood plain of the Thet. Further west there is a portion of another hollow way, joining the first from the south. A short length of masonry, previously said to be the remains of a church, lies close to the edge of the flood plain to the west of the cottages. Its position suggests a water-mill for which there is documentary evidence dating from 1400.

To the west of the farm the earthworks consist of a series of straight parallel ridges and depressions. It has been suggested that these are remnants of ridge and furrow but, as the most easterly furrow opens into the flood plain, and as the features are both straight and narrow, some system of water meadows seems a more likely explanation.

The documentary background is being investigated by Alan Davison. Featuring as one of five 'Harling' entries in 1086, the site became the manor of the Hackfords and, later, the Seckfords. There are records of Thorpe Street in the late seventeenth century and it appears to have been deserted early in the next century. It is hoped that a full report can be completed for publication.

SOMERSET

Compton Dundon Parish Survey ST4832

Bob Croft reports that the Compton Dundon parish survey project initiated by Strode College and led by C. and N. Hollindrake continues. The survey of Dundon Manor has been completed and the manorial boundary between Dundon and the Manors of Littleton and Compton traced and recorded. A small research excavation took place in Dundon village and the church and graveyard have been totally recorded. Documentary research into the parish continues and a sizeable archive is being established. The students will be giving public lectures on their work in the parish in 1990.

The Shapwick Project

Mick Aston reports that the multi-disciplinary project based on the parish of Shapwick begun in October 1988 was continued in 1989. Several new aspects were begun; the following is a very brief report of these.

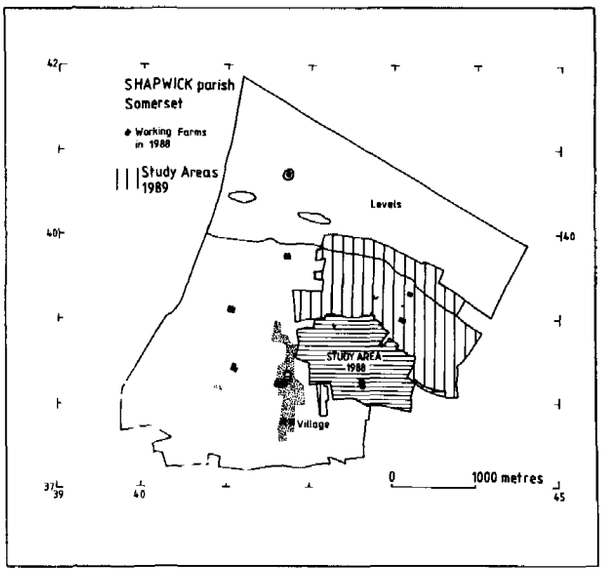


Figure 19 Shapwick: Areas of Project 1988-9.

1. Fieldwork was extended to the areas attached to Coppice Gate Farm and Northbrook Farm in the north east of the parish (Figure 19). Much of the land is pasture and very rarely ploughed. Earthworks of probable lynchets and vague ridge and furrow were noted at ST42983922 and other vague indeterminate earthworks at ST43153935. Retrogressive map analysis based on the fine series of maps for the parish was carried out, as for Beerway and Church Farms in 1988, on the land attached to Coppice Gate and Northbrook Farms. This involves 1:50000 maps for 1989, 1971, 1904, the 1880s, the 1839 tithe map and the enclosure map of c. 1750. (M. Aston).

2. Fieldwalking was begun, mainly on the land attached to Beerway Farm (Figure 20). Because of restrictions on time, labour, weather and farming

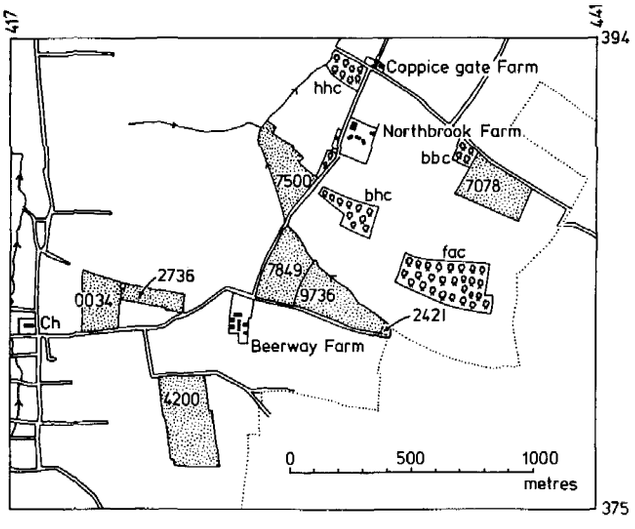


Figure 20 Shapwick: Location of fieldwalking areas 1989 — stippled areas with O.S. field numbers.

operations a rather pragmatic approach has had to be developed. This involves laying out 10 x 10 metre grid squares related to modern field boundaries and employing collecting times of 20 minutes in each. The areas examined have been limited by the time and number of helpers available at any one time. Everything is being collected and analysed at this stage taking into consideration weather, field conditions and expertise of the fieldwalkers. Preliminary analysis suggests very variable amounts of post-medieval and modern debris in the fields examined so far; in some there is a lot of Welsh slate, in others a lot of clay pipe fragments while the quantity, quality and types of post-medieval ceramic seems to vary enormously. There seems to be a general 'background noise' of one medieval sherd and one piece of flint to each grid square on average. The most notable find has been a Romano-British site at ST43753867 which produced a coin, Samian pottery and a lot of coarse ware sherds. A broken Bronze Age flint arrowhead was found at ST42823880. (M. Aston, C. Gerrard, M. Costen, W. Horner and many others).

3. A start has been made on the botanical aspects of the parish. The post-medieval woodlands in the east of the parish were examined briefly and found to be very different. Fifteen Acre Copse has woodbanks, Beggars Bush Copse has ridge and furrow, and is the only area so far noted in the parish which is ovelain with oak standards and hazel coppice, while Henhills Copse has a large rectangular fishpond, mainly dry, with several large terraces (gardens?) in it. (D. Hill).

4. A geological survey has begun with all surface scatters of rock in ploughed fields being examined, as well as exposures in trenches and cuttings. Far from being simple 'lias' as shown on the geology maps the parish has a complex of limestone and clay bands of rock, intricately faulted and with a rich variety of fossils. In the area between the Nidons, the low hills on the edge of the Levels, and the Poldens, marl deposits suggest a former lake or marsh. (P. Hardy and C. Harris).

5. Aerial reconnaissance was carried out in June to see if cropmarks had been produced by the exceedingly dry weather. The best results obtained were geological, parchmarks in grass showing the underlying geological strata particularly clearly. The best archaeological results came from the field known to contain the earlier church site near Beerway Farm. Here not only were the churchyard boundary (?) and many other linear boundaries revealed but also parchmarks of the church and at least one other rectangular building. This is the first time anything has been known of the form of this church, which was abandoned in the 1330s and which may have been the minster for the estate in pre-conquest times. (M. Aston).

6. Documentary research has concentrated on Abbot Sodbury's survey of 1327 (British Library Egerton manuscript 3321) and elucidating the origin and development of the two manors in the parish. The former has been transcribed and translated — detailed analysis will follow later. (M. Costen).

7. A detailed survey of the buildings in the parish was started by members of the Somerset and South Avon Vernacular Buildings Research Group. The farmsteads at Beerway, Church Farm, Northbrook and the now defunct Home Farm were examined as well as one of the manors — Shapwick House Hotel. This was shown to have a late 15th century roof and therefore to be definitely the house of the abbots of Glastonbury. Shapwick Manor (school) had already been surveyed prior to the beginning of the Shapwick Project. A full survey of the dovecote at Shapwick Manor School was carried out before repair works were begun. (J. Dallimore, J. and J. Penoyre and C.J. Bond).

In future work will begin on more detailed botanical analysis including a survey of the hedges to be compared with the known enclosure history. A lot more fieldwalking will be carried out in ploughed fields in the autumn for which volunteers will be required. It is however, already apparent that to fully understand the earlier settlement history of the parish a number of remote sensing geophysical exercises will need to be carried out using such equipment as ground radar, scanners and magnetometers. It remains to be seen whether the financial and technical resources for this can be made available.

WARWICKSHIRE

Chadshunt (SP 349 530)

Christopher Dyer reports that he has planned the earthworks at this site, which must often have been considered for lists of DMVs, but lies on the dividing line between 'deserted' and 'shrunken' villages. It now has a church and half-a-dozen modern houses, including the modern Chadshunt Hall. The earthworks are most coherent in the fields to the south-west of the church, and consist of a series of rectangular enclosures and platforms, divided by ditches and holloways. Originally the village must have extended to the east, but the earthworks have been removed by ploughing. The earthworks immediately to the north-east of the Hall are probably modern garden features. There is much ridge and furrow to the north and west. In its heyday there were 22 or 23 households (according to the Hundred Rolls of 1279/80); the late fourteenth century court rolls show that it experienced a considerable decline, but its most severe shrinkage must have occurred in modern times as it still retained a population in the early sixteenth century. It was a typical champion village of

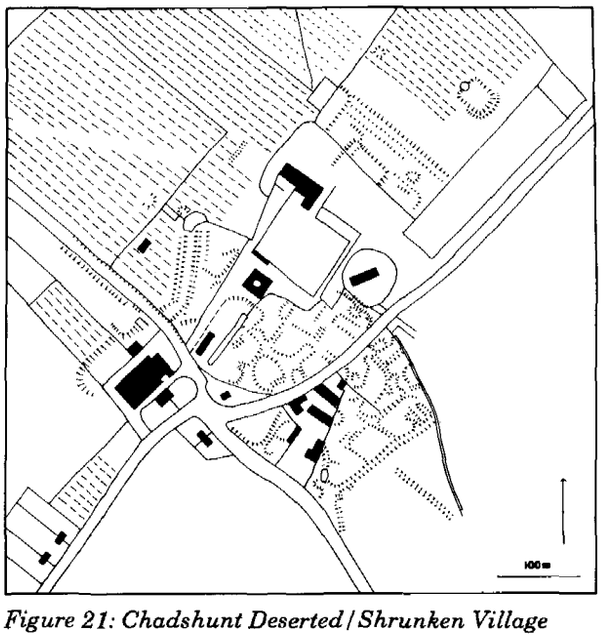


Figure 21: Chadshunt Deserted / Shrunken Village

the Warwickshire Feldon, with a two-field system. The ridge and furrow, which has been plotted from air photographs (under a scheme organised by Warwickshire Museum with financial help from the Royal Commission on Historical Monuments (England)), covered a high proportion of the parish.

Study of the village's archaeology and history has produced two points of interest deserving further investigation. Firstly the place-name incorporates a Latin loan word, *funta*, meaning a well. The well that this name commemorates is still visible on the edge of a rectangular pond earthwork surrounded by ridge and furrow to the north-east of the Hall. A piece of Roman pottery was found during the survey of the earthworks near to the Hall. A piece of Roman pottery was found during the survey of the earthworks near to the Hall. Clearly there is a strong likelihood on such a site that some form of occupation continued through the post-Roman and early medieval periods.

Secondly, Chadshunt is typical of a number of south Warwickshire villages in that it was paired with another village, Gaydon. Both belonged to the same lord, the bishop of Coventry and Lichfield, and lay in the same parish. They may have shared the same field system. They were similar in their social structure in that both contained a majority of customary tenants with standard holdings of 16-20 acres, but Gaydon had free tenants and a few cottagers. These twin or double villages, not always under the same lord, are found in the region, notably in the neighbouring parish of Burton Dassett. Their organisation has implications for the origin of nucleated villages, and will be the subject of future research.

WEST MIDLANDS (Staffordshire)

Pleck Park, Walsall, (SO 998 967) SMR 2641

Fieldwork at Bescot Hall Moat

Neil Lang reports that the moated site of the original Bescot Hall now stands in open parkland, close to Junction 9 of the M6 motorway. The site was first occupied by the Hillary family, and by the mid-fourteenth century, had become fortified. The moat was still open in the early part of this century, and is still partially visible as a shallow depression around the site.

In association with staff and pupils of Joseph Lecki school, a geophysical survey of the moat platform was undertaken over two days in October, 1989 to attempt to identify the boundaries of the moat, to identify any structures within the moat platform, and to take augured profiles for soil and chemical analysis.

The moat measures 300' by 250' (91 x 76m), and approximately half of this area was surveyed. It is hoped to complete the geophysical survey by the Summer of 1990. Auguring across the line of the ditch enabled reconstructions of ditch profiles, while the soil columns retrieved from the ditch and interior will be analysed to identify soil types and to assess soil phosphate content. Phosphate analysis has proved useful in a variety of applications for identifying intensity of occupation and inferring site use.

During an air photographic survey of the area, the moat showed up as a parch mark in early Summer, but had disappeared by September. Although parching over a ditch is the reverse of what one would normally expect, augured transects across the moat indicated that it had been backfilled with very loose fly ash. This form of backfill explains both the appearance of the parchmark, and subsidence along the line of the ditch.

The archaeological investigations at Bescot Hall are part of a longer term, multi-disciplinary and multi-ethnic project, originally initiated by Graham Sturt of Hillary Junior School, and supervised by the Sites and Monuments Record. In addition to the survey of the moat, pupils of the school have been researching the ancestors of the first occupants of Bescot, and historical associations of the two Halls.

Calderfields Moat, Walsall (SP 035 990), SMR 2686

The well preserved moat near Calderfield's Farm is attested in the Charter Rolls for 1320 - 1321, which refer to the Boweles family having "...bilte and repaired a mansion at Caldewalle and made a moot about the seyd mansion, and there dwellide the seyd William and his wyf the meny yeeris. And there deyde Sire Hugh de Boweles..."

Aerial photographic survey in 1989 revealed that the moat is surrounded by a much larger sub-rectangular earthwork, consisting of a simple bank and ditch, of which two sides remain. This is overlain by narrow ridge and furrow. There is no clear relationship between the moat and sub-rectangular enclosure; it is possible the latter may be a prehistoric earthwork. It is hoped to conduct a resistivity survey over the moat platform later this year, and to sample the bank and ditch of the outer enclosure.

WEST MIDLANDS (Worcestershire)

Wychbury Hill, Dudley (SO 921 820), SMR 1786

Neil Lang reports that aerial photographic reconnaissance of the Iron Age hillfort at Wychbury Hill, Pedmore, revealed a series of probable medieval earthworks preserved between two field boundaries on the northern slopes approaching the fort. To the south, various stretches of broad ridge and furrow surround the lower slopes of the hill with some terracing and a large, square enclosure has been charted in previous years.

The earthworks comprise a substantial lynchet to the west of the site, with a series of broad rigs running east-west. A right-angled trackway runs from the western edge of the site turning north. Two possible hut platforms lie beyond. Without further field investigation, this interpretation must remain tentative.

WILTSHIRE

RCHME fieldwork: Medieval Rural Settlement in South Wiltshire

Carenza Lewis reports that, as one of its preferred projects, the RCHME in Salisbury has been engaged in recording a selection of the earthworks of south Wiltshire, including those of the medieval period. The medieval rural settlement of this area, as with much of Wessex, has, with a few notable exceptions, been the subject of little detailed research in the past. There is no scarcity of material relevant to the medieval period and south Wiltshire is an area potentially of much value to the study of medieval rural settlement patterns. Sharp contrasts in geology, topography and rural economy are reflected in the medieval settlement pattern, which is

characterised by regular, often apparently planned, nucleated villages in the chalk valleys of the south and east and by a dispersed pattern of small farmsteads and hamlets on the more varied geology to the west.

In order to study further the character of these patterns and to throw some light on the factors affecting their origins and development, extensive fieldwork has been carried out by the RCHME to establish the location and extent of surviving medieval earthworks. Sites which have been visited, recorded and analysed include settlement remains, gardens, moats, mottes, lynchets, rabbit warrens and sheep pennings, in addition to a number of settlements whose existence was documented in the medieval period but which displayed no earthworks when visited. Using the information recorded during this fieldwork, a number of sites were selected for detailed survey in order to examine further the nature of medieval settlement in this area. In order to achieve this, special emphasis was laid upon surveying the earthwork remains of partially or totally abandoned medieval settlements.

The fieldwork and survey programme has revealed much new evidence relevant to the evolution of the medieval rural settlement pattern. Variations and similarities in settlement type, morphology and patterning can be seen both within and across the contrasting areas of south Wiltshire. While this research has been on a local scale, the way in which these patterns can be demonstrated to either relate to, or transcend, the contrasting physical and economic zones has wider implications for the study of medieval settlement. Various aspects of this study will be examined in detail in articles which will be published in appropriate local and national journals. The reports and plans produced during the fieldwork programme will be deposited in the National Archaeological Record held by the RCHME in Southampton and will be available for public consultation.

Sixty-six medieval and post-medieval sites have been surveyed by the RCHME in south Wiltshire, of which forty-five represent shrinkage or desertion of former medieval settlements. They are listed below, in alphabetical order of parish.

SETTLEMENT SITES

Parish	Site	NGR
Alvediston	Norrington deserted settlement & gardens	ST967238
Amesbury	West Amesbury shrunken settlement & gardens	SU412415
Berwick St James	Asserton deserted settlement & lynchets	SU076394
Berwick St James	Berwick St James shrunken settlement	SU170391
Bishopstone	Bishopstone shrunken settlement	SU084266
Bishopstone	Faulston shrunken settlement	SU075255
Bowerchalke	Woodminton shrunken settlement	SU008233
Broadchalke	Knighton shrunken settlement	SU052253
Burcombe	North Burcombe deserted settlement	SU073311
Burcombe	South Burcombe deserted settlement	SU070309
Burcombe	Ugford shrunken settlement	SU084312
Chicklade	Chicklade shrunken settlement	ST910345
Dinton	Bavelstock deserted settlement	SU028316
Ebbesbourne Wake	Fifield Bavant shrunken settlement & fields	SU017249
Heytesbury	Tytherington shrunken settlement	ST915411
Idmiston	Gomeldon deserted settlement	SU183357
Knook	Knook shrunken settlement	ST939418
Longbridge Deverill	Hill Deverill shrunken settlement & water channelling	ST866402
Maiden Bradley	Perry Farm shrunken settlement & fields	ST806392
Maiden Bradley	Yarnfield Gate deserted settlement & fields	ST779384
Salisbury	Stratford sub Castle shrunken settlement	SU130326
Shrewton	Addestone shrunken settlement	SU066433
Shrewton	Bourton shrunken settlement & ponds	SU067436
Shrewton	Elston shrunken settlement	SU070447
Shrewton	Homanton shrunken settlement	SU068431
Shrewton	Maddington shrunken settlement	SU066440

Shrewton	Rollestone shrunken settlement	SU072431
South Newton	Stoford shrunken settlement	SU083355
South Newton	Little Wishford shrunken settlement	SU076361
South Newton	Chilhampton deserted settlement	SU094330
Stapleford	Uppington shrunken settlement	SU073364
Steeple Langford	Hanging Langford shrunken settlement	SU030370
Steeple Langford	Little Langford shrunken settlement & moat	SU048364
Swallowcliffe	Swallowcliffe shrunken settlement	ST965273
Tisbury	East Hatch shrunken settlement	ST925282
Tisbury	Lawn shrunken settlement	ST925301
West Knoyle	West Knoyle shrunken settlement & ponds	ST856321
Whiteparish	Whelpley deserted settlement	SU231240
Whiteparish	Moore deserted settlement	SU227222
Wilsford	Lake deserted settlement & fields	SU131388
Winterbourne Gunner	Winterbourne Gunner shrunken settlement	SU180353
Winterbourne Stoke	Winterbourne Stoke shrunken settlement	SU077406
Winterslow	Winterslow shrunken settlement	SU230323
Wylye	Fisherton De La Mere shrunken settlement	SU001385
Zeals	Zeals Row deserted settlement & quarrying	ST773319

OTHER SITES

Allington	Boscombe House gardens	SU201385
Amesbury	South Mill Hill strip lynchets	SU159408
Britford	Britford moat	SU161283
Broadchalke	Knighton Hill enclosure	SU058238
Clarendon Park	Clarendon park pale	SU187302
Compton Chamberlayne	Compton park pale	SU030302
Coombe Bissett	Morris' Bottom lynchets	SU110252
Downton	Downton motte & gardens	SU181213
Downton	Barford House gardens	SU182227
Laverstock	Burroughs Hill pillow mounds	SU165303
Maiden Bradley	Priory Farm leper hospital	ST800403
Orcheston	Orcheston Down sheep penning	SU072475
Stapleford	Stapleford motte	SU068378
Tisbury	Wick garden enclosure	SU942286
West Dean	West Dean motte	SU357254
West Dean	West Dean gardens	SU254274
West Knoyle	West Knoyle rabbit warren	ST866327
West Knoyle	Windmill mound	ST843321
Whiteparish	Windmill mound	SU266234
Winterbourne Stoke	The Coniger rabbit warren	SU076420
Winterbourne Stoke	Sheep penning	SU089424

RESEARCH IN 1989: ii. EXCAVATIONS

AVON (Somerset)

Cleeve (ST 451 650)

Mike Ponsford reports that what will, for the time being, be the last season's excavation, was spent on completing the excavation of an east (not west as previously published) extension to the main building 1 (cf MSRG Report 3 1988, 19). The corners were composed of posts set in shallow pits and part of the end wall was composed of wattles. The extension was on a slightly different orientation from the main building and was likely to have been a store since little attempt had been made to level the floor. Of most interest among the finds was an iron stirrup, an unusual find from a peasant cot. This was a training excavation carried out by the City of Bristol Museum and Art Gallery in conjunction with Bristol and Avon Archaeological Society. It is hoped to continue with on-site post-excavation work involving those who have taken part in the excavation.

Eckweek Deserted Settlement (Avon 2296)

Andrew Young reports that excavation of the deserted medieval settlement at Eckweek (ST 711576) was completed in July 1989 by Avon County Council Planning Department prior to development of the site. Work concentrated on the detailed investigation of a well preserved farmstead complex. Other areas were evaluated using limited area excavation, machine trenching, and geophysical survey.

Detailed excavation of the northerly farmstead earthworks revealed a well preserved and stratified sequence of occupation that indicated continuity of settlement from the eleventh to the early fifteenth century. The structural record indicates a transition from timber to stone building traditions, probably during the twelfth century.

The earliest structures recognised include a sub-rectangular timber building (13m x 8m) associated with a complex of postholes, ditches, and pits. It is possible that a number of the pits, linked by shallow channels,

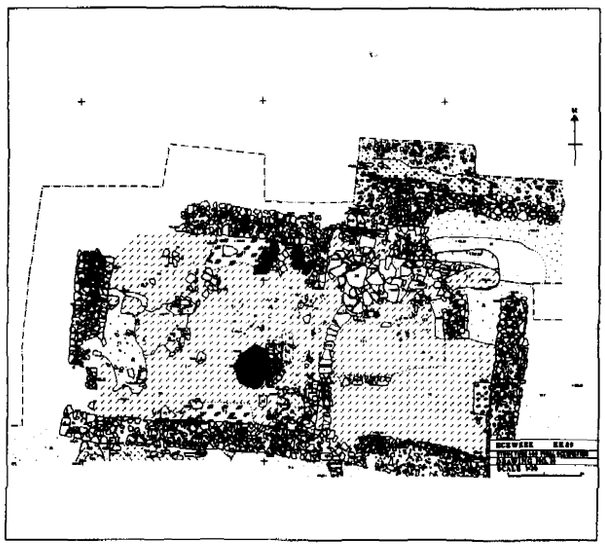


Figure 22: Eckweek: Later medieval farmstead

are associated with textile processing, possibly fulling. The timber building was constructed using substantial gable posts and levelled along the north side with a shallow curving ditch, possibly for a timber sleeper. The building appears to have contained at least one internal division in conjunction with two large sunken floor or storage areas. Pottery from gable postholes and other structural elements is provisionally recognised as similar to pre-conquest material from Bristol Castle and Cheddar. Cereal grains from the secondary fill of the internal division have provided a radiocarbon date of 1222± 36 (UB 3206). Radiocarbon samples from pits outside the building have been dated to the later eleventh century.

It appears that the farmhouse was reconstructed during the earlier medieval period in local limestone. The building was smaller (10m x 5m) than the timber structure and constructed over the partially filled or backfilled sunken floors. This second building has undergone considerable disturbance by later farmstead construction but fragments of associated flooring containing ceramics were preserved.

During the later medieval period the farmstead was substantially rebuilt (Figure 22) and extended. A third farmhouse (12.5 x 6.5m) was constructed, interestingly with a similar layout to that of the first timber building. An adjacent byre was later added though this appears to have fallen into disrepair during the latest occupation when a corndryer or kilnhouse was constructed. Functional division within the later building is indicated, given the distribution of artifacts and structural elements. A central, probably domestic, area contained two low ovens and a ground hearth plus a dense concentration of ceramics that included fine glazed jugs, dripping plates, and a cistern. The west end of the building, beyond an internal partition, yielded a large quantity of metal objects, including a number of copper alloy (?) ingots. These, in conjunction with a probable anvil base, hammerstones, and large quantities of slag outside the building, suggest a work area or smithy. The east end of the building contained a well-constructed drain and small quantities of pottery but no clear indication as to function.

A thorough programme of post excavation analyses will assess the rich artefactual and ecofactual assemblage from Eckweek during 1990. The excavation report is scheduled for publication during 1991.

BERKSHIRE

Charnham Lane, Hungerford (SU 335692)

Steve Ford reports that evaluation in 1988 in advance of a proposed business development identified the foci of two Medieval settlements, a *Grubenhaus* and an isolated Saxon pit.

Follow up excavation for Thames Valley Archaeological Service examined the two Medieval foci and the vicinity of the *Grubenhaus*.

One trench (B) located two, possibly three, rectangular structures one of which had an adjoining flint lined oven (?). Several pits, postholes and gullies along with a yard

surface were also found. This focus may have been bounded to the north by a flint nodule wall.

30m north of trench B was trench C which located only a single rectangular structure but again with pits, postholes, ditches and a yard surface. Rather more unusual was a circular pit 80cm deep and 3.6m in diameter which had a ledge around its lip. On this ledge lay a course of flint nodules which may have originally been the foundations of a superstructure. Surrounding the pit were two concentric ditches/gullies which had been deliberately backfilled.

The Saxon *grubenhaus* appears to have existed in isolation with no record of other Saxon features in the immediate vicinity.

KENT

The Scadbury Excavations and their Background

Alan Hart reports that the excavation site is a moated platform near Chislehurst, Kent (TQ 459701), just within the parish of Chislehurst. The moated ara is some 46m x 36m in size and contains the brick foundations of a manor house and its ancillary buildings, including cellars (one still roofed) and wells. The buildings were pulled down in the early to mid 18th century. The west frontage of the island is faced with a substantial brick wall with internal buttresses. Outside the moat there are the remains of a walled garden, other brickwork, and a system of ponds, in addition to modern buildings. The moat lies in about 300 acres of grassland and woods comprising Scadbury Park, which is part of the manors of Scadbury and Chislehurst previously held by the owners of the moated residence. Scadbury Park, which is a Nature Reserve, is owned by the London Borough of Bromley.

The moat is situated within a nearly level 130m by 200m area on a promontory of clay of the Woodwich Beds, about 1000m long and 300m wide. The promontory projects from a ridge of the same clay which is, however, capped by a layer of Blackheath Beds (rounded flint pebbles and sand). At its sides and at its end, the promontory slopes down to Thanet Sand, which underlies the whole area and itself lies over the Upper Chalk, which is not exposed in this district.

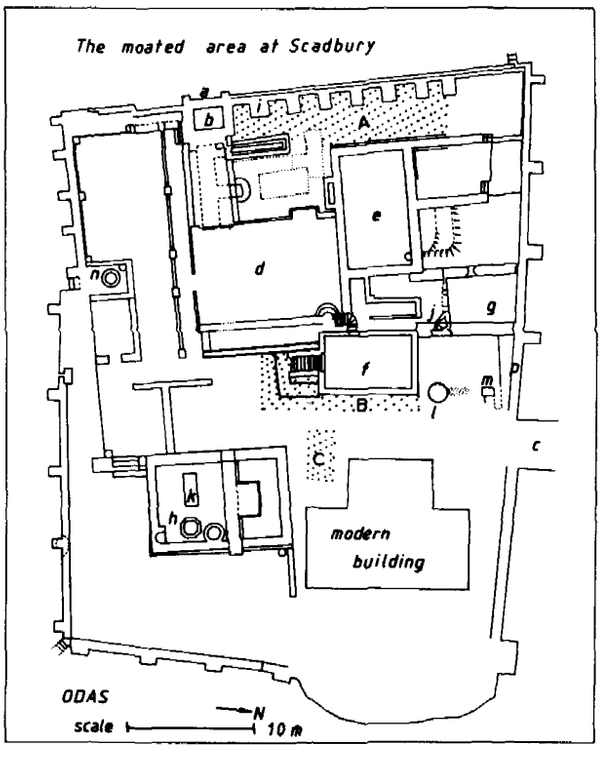
There is no documentary evidence for the date of construction of the moat or of the buildings inside it. However, there is written mention of a John de Scathebury in 1257 and the names of most of the subsequent holders of the manor of Scadbury are known, including the prominent Walsingham family from 1424 to 1657, which included Sir Edmund Walsingham who was Lieutenant of the Tower under Henry VIII, and Sir Thomas Walsingham during whose ownership Christopher Marlowe is believed to have been a frequent visitor.

In the years up to 1936 the then owner, Hugh Marsham-Townshend, excavated some of the site, built low walls on top of the visible brick foundations, and erected a hall using timbers from a medieval house nearby which he thought had originally formed the hall on the island. Unfortunately, he did not publish any account of his excavations, but did leave a plan of the foundations which were uncovered. The remains of his hall, which had been largely destroyed by vandalism, were recently removed to the Weald and Downland Museum, Singleton.

The excavation has involved the clearance of thick undergrowth and bushes from the whole area, removal of the accumulation of modern topsoil, and the identification and removal of ground make-up deposited by Marsham-Townshend around 1930. The ancient brickwork has been identified, as opposed to the 1930s work, which used recovered ancient bricks together with new bricks which resemble the originals. Marsham-Townshend's excavations were extensive and, coupled with the fact that they are unrecorded, have greatly diminished the archaeological potential of the site. Despite this, our excavation policy has been to proceed with full care and caution, as the site is not at present further threatened.

Three trenches are currently being excavated. These are (A on plan) along the length of the moat wall, (B) around the south and east walls of the large open cellar, and (C) by the modern apple store.

The moat wall must have had little defensive value as it is quite short, and was perhaps erected mainly to form an impressive entrance aspect. The excavation appears to show that the wall was built along the edge of the island, standing in the empty moat, with the buttresses



Key to Figure 23

a	position of drawbridge
b	foundations of small gatehouse?
c	causeway
d	hall
e	room adjacent to hall
f	cellar
g	roofed small cellar
h	kitchen foundations
j	stairs
i	moat wall with buttresses
k	hearth floor
l	well
m	drain
n	well
p	brick facing to side of moat
ABC	position of ODAS excavations

Figure 23: The moated area at Scadbury

directly touching the island edge. The gap between the wall and the island was then filled, mainly with clay together with broken roof-tiles mixed with some broken bricks. This fill material contains many animal bones, which seem to be meal residues and should give a good insight into the meat diet at this fairly affluent establishment. Also present are large numbers of oyster shells, with mussels, and a little cockle and crab. The pottery (subject to refinement by a full analysis including any future finds) would at present indicate a mid to late 15th century date for the wall construction. a cross-and-pellets lead token dated in the range 1425-1490 was also found.

The trenches by the cellar have revealed wide brick foundations which had been exposed in the 1930s but had become reburied. These foundations are fairly shallow and as yet their interpretation in terms of buildings is not clear. Taking all the evidence (including the 1930s plan), it is possible that formerly there was a barrel-roofed cellar with a building over it, the wide brick area being part of a stair. In this area, skewed with respect to the cellar, and immediately under a modern intrusion, is what appears to be the shadow of a sill-beam with hand-made shelly sherds embedded. This could well indicate a pre-15th century wooden building but needs further work.

The trench by the modern apple store was opened in that position to obtain information about the construction of the platform, whose level here seems to be slightly higher than the natural contours, and to investigate any possibility (arising from the shape and levels of the moated area) that the east part of the island is a later extension. The made surface here is a layer of Blackheath Beds pebbles and under this the made ground contains much pottery, mostly abraded sherds, perhaps 13th century or a little earlier.

Week-end excavations will resume in May this year for a fifth season.

HEREFORD AND WORCESTER

Madley, Moated Site (Centred on NGR. SO 416388)

Alex Jones reports that, in January 1989, Birmingham University Field Archaeology Unit was commissioned to provide an evaluation of a probable moated site off Rosemary Lane, to determine the nature, extent and depth of archaeological deposits, in advance of a proposed development.[1]

The site contains a raised, roughly circular moat platform surrounded by an irregular depression, interpreted as a moat. An interrupted narrow bank to the south and west of the platform is the only other recognisable topographic feature. The site has not been hitherto examined by survey or excavation.

The evaluation defined the moat, over 1.5 deep, roughly revetted to the north, and surrounding a platform *c.* 20m across, which contained irregular cobbled yard surfaces and a stone drain sealed by demolition material containing 12th to 14th-century pottery.

Outside the moat, a re-surfaced yard was identified to the south, cut by stake-holes, but no dating evidence was recovered. To the west, a medieval hearth associated with sandstone wall footings was exposed under a bank of modern construction.

Despite the absence of major structures from the selective areas sampled and the limits set on the excavation of the deposits encountered, the evaluation does suggest settled occupation here between the 12th and 15th centuries. The chronological relationship between occupation of the platform and the areas outside the moat remains to be established by further, more extensive excavation.

1. E.A. Jones, *Madley, Hereford and Worcester: an archaeological evaluation.* B.U.F.A.U., 1989.

HEREFORD AND WORCESTER (Herefordshire)

Kilpeck Excavation 1988-89 (SO 444 305)

Alan Thomas reports that, between November 1988 and May 1989, the City of Hereford Archaeology Unit conducted an excavation to the north of Kilpeck church in advance of a graveyard extension. An alternative location for the graveyard in the castle bailey had been ruled out after a trial excavation in 1982 directed by J. Sawle for the Hereford and Worcester Archaeological Unit demonstrated the survival of well stratified deposits. The area to the north of the church was chosen instead as it was thought to contain deposits of lesser archaeological potential.

Traversing the site in a NW-SE direction was a ditch, forming a hollow way onto which a 13th century trackway had been laid, which incorporated a great deal of smithy and smelting slag. A concentration of larger stones overlying the trackway may be associated with the demolition of a building outside the excavated area. Overlying the trackway and almost totally filling the ditch was a soil deposit probably derived from the ploughing of the area to the west. Running parallel with the ditch for a length of 5m was a shallow, late 13th to early 14th century linear feature, which may have served as a fence line separating the ditch from the land adjacent to the castle bailey moat.

To the west of the ditch was a rectangular pit with a sinuous gully running eastwards into it. Just south of the gully was a stone spread assumed to be the remains of a structure of which no other trace survived. The function of this mid-13th century complex is unclear.

The site had been subject to ploughing and was in places very heavily disturbed by tree roots. Nevertheless the excavation demonstrated the minimal historical use of an area between the well preserved remains of the DMV and the castle bailey moat.

The excavation was funded by English Heritage and both the 1982 and the 1988-89 excavations are being prepared for publication in the Transactions of the Woolhope Club.

LEICESTER

Trial Excavations at Holywell Hall (SK 507 180)

Fred Hartley reports that Holywell Hall, on the outskirts of Loughborough is one of the oldest working farms in Leicestershire. The enclosure and wood of "Haliwellehage" were given to nearby Garendon Abbey during the 12th century. In the medieval period the site is referred to as a hermitage ("heremitorium"). The surviving farm building has good stonework and a doorway usually ascribed to the 15th century. There is also a cruck-framed cowshed in the farmyard, though this is not necessarily of medieval date.

Plate 2 Holywell Hall: Aerial photograph

The buildings and moat are not threatened by the proposed new development, but earthworks of a pond and enclosures north of the farm will be levelled to make a car park. Trial excavations have been carried out by a team from the Leicestershire Archaeological Unit, supervised by Josephine Sharman. The results will be published in due course.

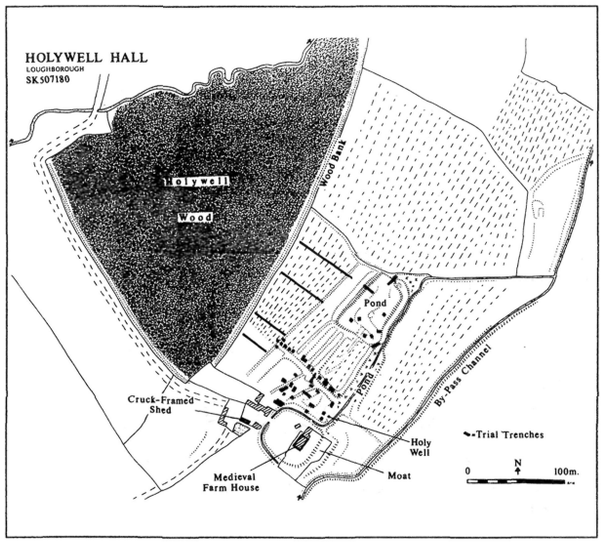


Figure 24: Holywell Hall, Trial Trenches on Earthwork Features.

MERSEYSIDE

Ron Cowell reports that work on medieval settlements in the county has been largely in response to development threats. Work undertaken in 1988 but not previously reported included the site of a 10th century enclosure and beam-slot building which lay just outside the nucleated village of **Moreton,** Wirral. The site also provided traces of a late medieval building associated with an oven and a large amount of burnt grain and other seeds lying in a hollow at one end of the building, as well as several phases of enclosure/drainage ditches. A watching brief in the medieval town of **Prescot,** Knowsley District, produced a small stratified pit-group of late medieval pottery which is probably the best of its type for understanding the chronology of pottery production in the area at this time.

In 1989 the main site was that next to the destroyed site of **West Derby** Castle on the eastern edge of Liverpool. the castle was the head of the royal hundredal manor of West Derby. A large ditch was located which probably related to the castle earthworks and lying over this was a small late medieval cottage, the main traces of which consisted of a clay floor, a later stone internal partition and an external chimney. All three reports will be included in a forthcoming Liverpool Museum Occasional Paper written by R.A. Philpott.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE

West Cotton, Raunds (SP 976 725)

Brian Dix and David Windell report that further excavation in 1989 revealed minor Early Saxon occupation and a Late Saxon building complex with water-mills.

Early Saxon

One further structure of early Saxon date, a sunken-featured building, was revealed. Though truncated by a later ditch, the form of the structure was clear and the fills contained early Saxon pottery with one spindle whorl and a loom-weight fragment.

Late Saxon and Saxo-Norman *c.* 850 AD - 1150 AD

The appearance of regular, planned plots of 4 rods width has already been noted (M.S.R.G. Ann. Rep. 2 (1987) 23). The northernmost plots were grouped together to form

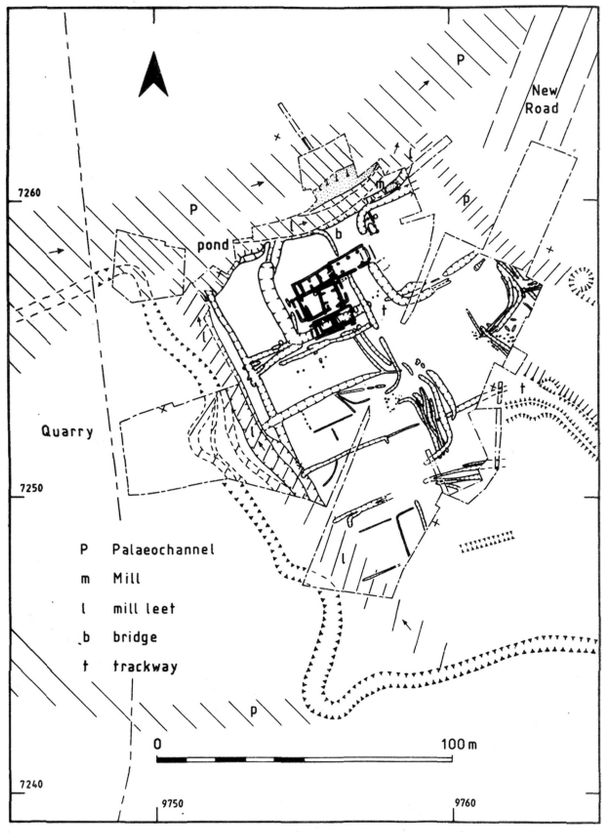


Figure 25: West Cotton, Northants. Late Saxon layout.

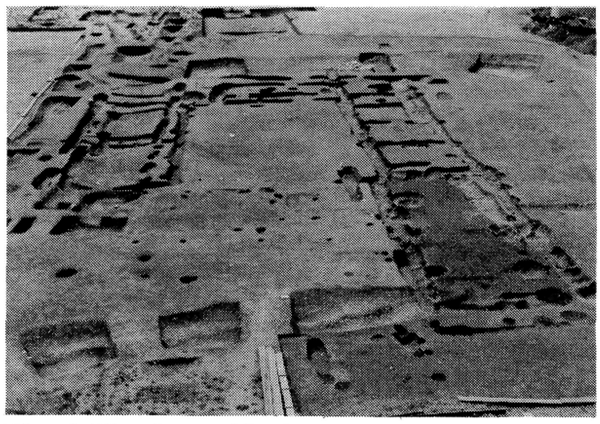


Plate 3: West Cotton, Northants. The timber slots of the Saxo-Norman courtyard, "manorial", complex from the east.

larger enclosures around the main complex of timber buildings (Figure 25). All these buildings were characterised by continuous timber-slots of *c.* 0.8m width and from 0.25m to 0.4m in depth. Some trenches had indications of post-settings while some buildings had additional separate post-holes. From the palimpsest of superimposed buildings (Figure 26) a broad sequence can be advanced (Figure 27). The earlier phases, were enclosed within a substantial ditch and the later phases formed a courtyard arrangement.

Within the enclosure was erected a building measuring *c.* 7m x 8m but of slightly trapezoidal plan (1 on figure 26). The internal space was sub-divided by partial cross-division slots. It is perhaps conceivable that the plan represents a raised structure.

Set astride the roadway stood a large building of *c.* 14.3m x 5m (2 on figure 26). The long walls were represented by substantial slots with settings for upright posts but the short walls were of much lighter construction. It had internal large post-settings of *c.* 0.5m depth which may be interpreted as defining 2 end bays with a central open area. It can be interpreted as the hall of the Late Saxon/ Saxo-Norman period.

Abutting the "hall" was a further range totalling 11m x 4m (Figure 27), which was sub-divided into smaller chambers by cross-division slots. It seems that there were initially three chambers with a later extension to the west (3a).

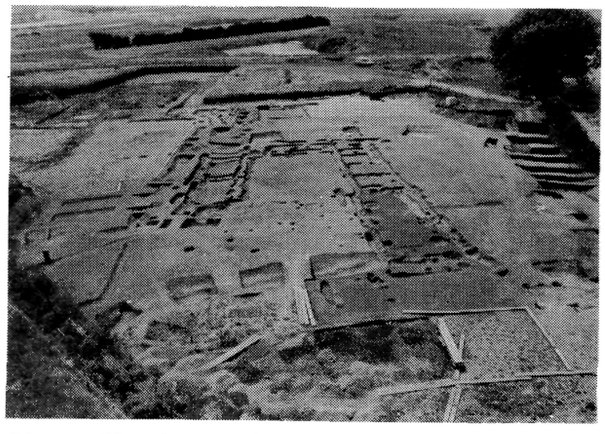


Plate 4: West Cotton, Northants. The timber slots of the Saxo-Norman courtyard-complex, from the east. To the right, leets feed the watermill.

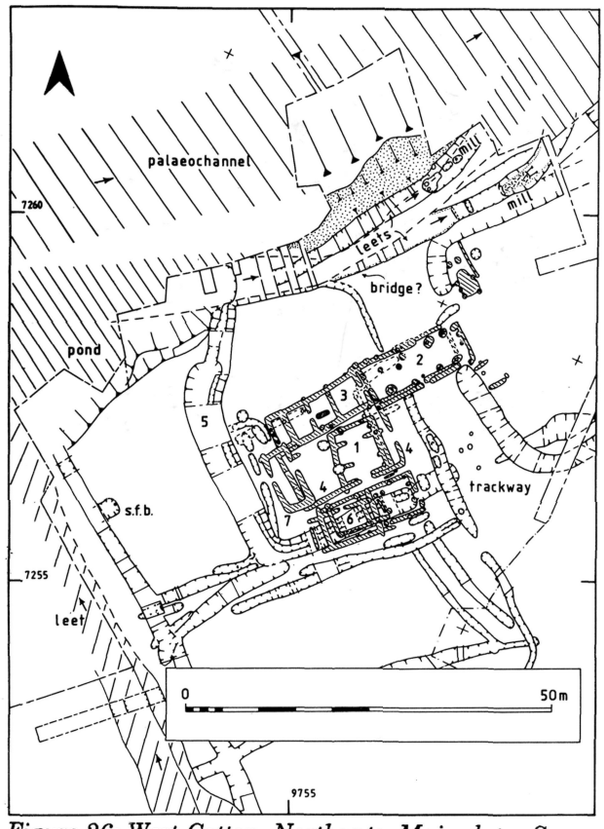


Figure 26: West Cotton, Northants. Major later Saxon and Saxo-Norman building ranges.

Associated with the earliest phases was another timber-slot (4 on figure 26) which abutted the north-range (3) and the trapezoidal-plan building (1), with extensions to the east, forming an enclosed space of *c.* 14.5m x 7.5m. Most likely, it formed an palisaded or timber-walled enclosure encompassing building (1). Around the building complex was an enclosure, initially of relatively small ditches perhaps with the palisade or timber-walled enclosure standing inside. During the life of the buildings a much more substantial ditch was created, *c.* 2m wide and 1.1m deep enclosing the buildings to the south and west (5).

The plan would suggest that the up-cast formed an internal bank, the whole giving defensive pretensions. This V-shaped ditch was later modified to a far broader ditch of up to 4.5m width.

From this plan-form there was an evolution to a later arrangement of buildings forming a courtyard. The "hall" (2) and north-range (3) appear to have remained standing but the large enclosing ditch was filled and ranges (6) were built over the back-fill of its southern arm. The initial construction involved two chambers. The western was 4.2m x 3.8m, supported by four massive corner posts, evidenced by post-pits connected by substantial timber slots, perhaps indicative of a raised structure. Connected to the east was a structure of 7m x 3.8m partially supported by internal posts with, initially, an open side to the south. Later the whole range was modified; the western chamber was enlarged to 7m x 4m with a further extension of 1.8m length and the eastern chamber was closed off to the south. Eventually, in the (?) 12th century AD the eastern end was replaced by a stone-founded building.

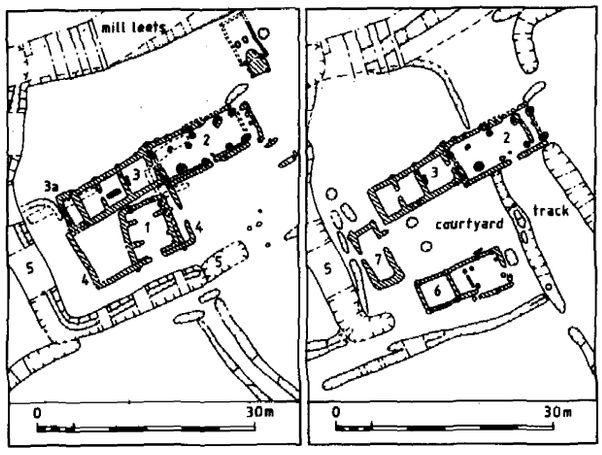


Figure 27: West Cotton, Northants. tentative phase-development: (a) "late Saxon"; (b) "Saxo-Norman".

A further rectangular structure of 7m x 2.9m was built (7 on figure 26) at the west. By this stage, the palisaded enclosure (4) and the extension to the north range (3a on figure 27) had been removed along with the trapezoidal-plan building (1) to leave a clear courtyard between the building ranges.

This courtyard arrangement of timber buildings evolved with the insertion of a stone range to the eastern, open, side and then by the replacement of the timber ranges in stone to form the complex of the 12th and early 13th centuries.

Across the roadway lay another enclosure which had access from the west and south. Partially cut away by the ditch of this enclosure was a timber building originally of at least 8m x 4m. The southern end was defined by post-holes forming a square and the northern end by a shallow timber slot, with further post-settings inside the building. It seems probable that both this building and the later enclosure were related to the mills.

The latest phase of the mill was excavated in 1988 but in 1989 two earlier mill structures were revealed.

There were three phases of leets which served to divert a stream to a pond and then continued some 30m eastward to feed a mill. Extensive excavation of the leets

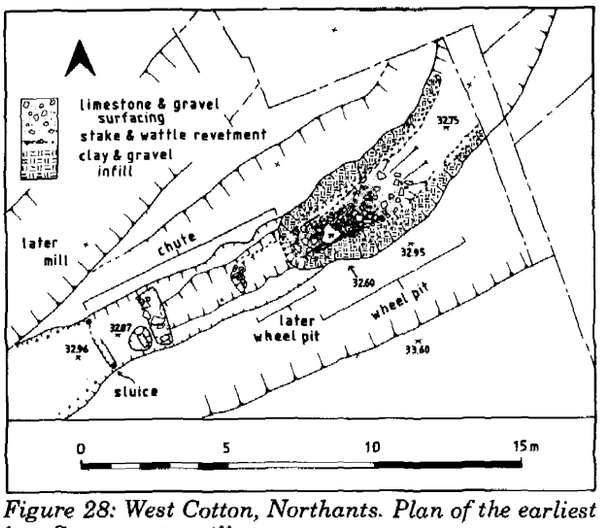


Figure 28: West Cotton, Northants. Plan of the earliest late-Saxon watermill.

and pond failed to reveal the sluices expected to lie at their junction.

Between the pond and mills, evidence has been found suggestive of a foot-bridge allowing access across the leet to the riverside.

The earliest leet was funnelled in from *c.* 3.5m to 2.0m width to a sluice gate marked by two post-holes and a transverse timber-slot. From the sluice a narrower chute seems to have been laid within the leet to a deeper pit some 7m to the east. The deeper pit was *c.* 4.3m long. Its sides were revetted with stakes and wattlework partly preserved in-situ. This is interpreted as a wheel-pit. Later it was deliberately filled and a new 'wheel-pit' cut some 2m further west. Though there was no direct evidence of the wheel or mill-house it is suggested that it was a mill of vertical-wheel type and it is dated to the Late Saxon period (Figure 28).

The early mill was replaced and a new leet was cut to feed a new mill. The structural elements of this second phase were poorly preserved but it was similar in form to that later, horizontally-wheeled type (M.S.R.G. Ann. Rep. 3, 1988).

Later Occupation

Occupation of the hamlet from the 12th to 15th centuries has been summarised in M.S.R.G. Ann. Rep. 2, 23-4 and Ann. Rep. 3, 22-3.

OXFORDSHIRE

North Stoke (SU 607858)

Steve Ford and Annette Hazel report that wide spaced fieldwalking in 1983 located a small scatter of early Saxon pottery. Subsequently, total collection fieldwalking in 1987 produced 796 Saxon sherds from an area of 1.5ha, occurring in two ill defined clusters. Three trial trenches (*c.* 2 x 10m) across one of the foci located several shallow Saxon pits and post holes.

SOMERSET

Bob Croft has forwarded two reports by C and N Hollinrake:

Glastonbury, Higher Wick Farm (ST 518394)

On being informed in 1988 that pasture land containing earthworks was to be ploughed on land belonging to Maidencroft Farm, previously known as Higher Wick Farm, a survey of the earthworks was initiated prior to a small rescue excavation. The earthworks comprised a holloway, a prominent house platform and a series of enclosure banks and ditches plus an area of ridge and furrow. The earliest map of the area, the Glastonbury rates map of 1821, showed a farmhouse occupying the platform and the building was still extant on the tithe map of 1844 but had disappeared by the time the Ordnance Survey map of 1885 was published. Two separate excavation areas were opened, a small keyhole over the house platform and a larger trench over a prominent enclosure bank. The excavation proved the house to have been built in the late C16 or C17, probably after the dissolution of Glastonbury Abbey, for this was once demesne land. The bank and ditch had been recut many times from that period onwards, the silts contained not only post-medieval finds but medieval sherds and a

group of pottery from the Romano-British period. A number of flint flakes and implements were also recovered, including a Neolithic arrow head. The writers would like to thank Paddington Farm Trust who run Maidencroft Farm for their help and cooperation during the excavation and survey.

Compton Dundon, Court Orchard (ST 479323)

A research and training excavation was undertaken by C. & N. Hollinrake in conjunction with Strode College at Court Orchard, Compton Dundon. A 6m x 2m trench was cut across a boundary bank and a large number (600+) of pottery sherds were recovered. The pottery ranged in date from the late C10 - early C11, through to the C20. No prehistoric or Roman sherds were identified; 21 flints were recovered of which 5 were worked tools. The majority of the pottery dated from the late C12 to C14. The excavated evidence suggests that there was a substantial medieval site, perhaps manorial, in close proximity to Court Orchard.

Thanks are due to Mr. F. Vining, Mr. D. Taylor, Mr. T. Longman, Mr. P. Smith and the students of the Strode College course. The excavation archive has been deposited in the County SMR and a full report will be forthcoming.

SURREY

Rob Poulton reports on 4 excavations on behalf of the County Council:

Ashtead, City of London Freemen's School (TQ 193 581)

Excavation of 3 trial trenches following a geophysical (resistivity) survey, directed by R. Poulton for Countryside & Heritage Section, Planning Department, Surrey county Council and funded by the City of London. Plans to construct a sports complex prompted excavation as the area lay near to a Scheduled Ancient Monument (probably part of a 12th century ditch), and the site of the Manor House of Ashtead from the 12th century down to its 18th century demolition. One of the ditches revealed by the resistivity survey **could** link up with the 12th century ditch scheduled as an ancient monument, and in one of the trenches topsoil sealed a very productive occupation spread of 12th - early 13th century date which presumably relates to the beginning of the Manor on the site.

Bletchingley, Little Pickle/North Park Farm (TQ 334 520)

A major excavation directed by R. Poulton for Countryside & Heritage Section, Planning Department, Surrey County Council, in advance of mineral extraction. The work was jointly funded by Hepworth Minerals & Chemicals and English Heritage, with a contribution by Surrey County Council.

The excavations started in 1988 were completed in 1989. The earliest building found was a hall-house of early 13th century date, with a circular tile-on-edge hearth and associated buildings. The site eventually developed into an early Tudor country house, with a winged hall-house, Outer and Privy Courts, a piped water supply and a Water Tower, a large fish pond and an attached deer pound. It was eventually demolished in the period 1550-9.

Documentary research has established that the house belonged to a family whose name was rendered *Venator* (the huntsman) in Latin. This suggests that their occupation was to control the hunting in the north and south deer parks of Bletchingley. In the 16th century it came into the same ownership as nearby Place Farm, which no doubt explains its eventual demolition.

Laleham, Matthew Arnold School (TQ 053 706)

Excavation and geophysical (resistivity) survey directed by P. Jones & G. Hayman for Countryside and Heritage Section, Planning Department, Surrey County Council and funded by Surrey County Council, County Valuer's Department.

The possible development of the area made investigation necessary since a large double-ditched enclosure, scheduled as an ancient monument, lies beneath the playing-field. It was first described by Stukeley and claimed as Caesar's Camp in 1723.

The resistivity survey showed a large trapezoid enclosure with no apparent entrance way, and excavation proved it to be of medieval date, though its function remains uncertain.

WEST YORKSHIRE (West Riding of Yorkshire)

Harewood Castle (SE 321 457)

John Hedges and Stuart Wrathmell report that initial earthwork survey around this substantially complete tower house-type castle was carried out by S. Moorhouse as part of a long-term landscape project of the manor of Harewood for the Harewood Landscape Project and West Yorkshire Archaeology Service. Quarries associated with the construction of Harewood House from the 1750s (Figure 29, r) and an early 19th century pleasure garden complex (Figure 29, h, u-x) overlie the medieval earthworks. Following the survey, limited trial excavation was carried out to determine the nature and date of the features beneath the earthworks, with a view to extending the existing scheduled area of the site. Four trenches were excavated by J. and B. Telford for West Yorkshire Archaeology Service and HBMC (A-D). Trench

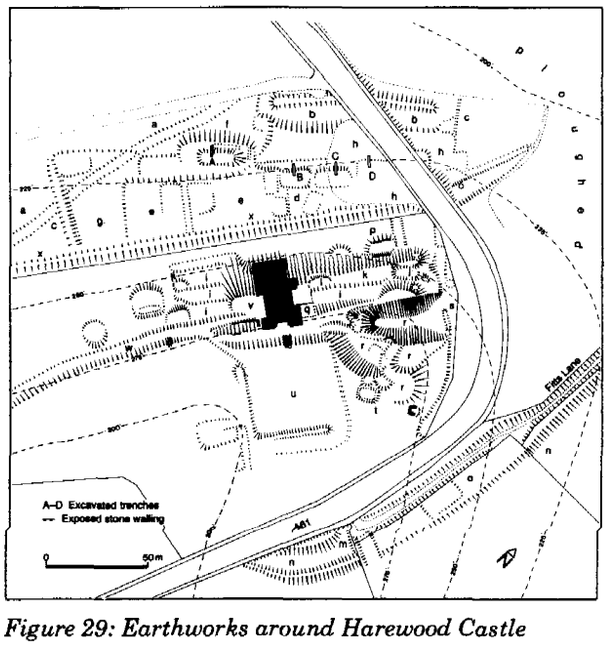


Figure 29: Earthworks around Harewood Castle

A confirmed that the feature was a pond, with a substantial stone rubble bank on the north, a stone lining and a clay base. Trenches B and C confirmed that the terraces represented buildings, which had well-preserved narrow stone sill walls for timber superstructures, and which had been covered with stone slates. The building in Trench B had a flagged floor and that in Trench C had at least two main phases, with successive structures having different wall lines. Trench D probably lay in the garden areas, for a series of mostly sterile humic deposits were found.

The excavations revealed that the structures forming the precinct did not outlive the castle, which was abandoned during the period 1630-1656. Pottery from the excavations and from tree disturbances over the precinct indicates that the site was occupied before the licence to crenallate of 1367 (the traditional *terminus post quem* for the construction of the castle and occupation of the site). It suggests that the castle may be the site of a manor complex documented in late 13th century accounts. A detailed interim report has appeared in *CBA Forum 1989 [Group 4]* (1990), pp. 4-7, and a full report on the documentary evidence, a structural survey of the building and a discussion of the earthworks and excavations is in preparation.

Temple Thorpe Farm, Skelton, Near Leeds (SE 309 353)

John Hedges and Stuart Wrathmell report that, in advance of opencast mining, a preceptory of the Knights Templar is being excavated by the West Yorkshire Archaeology Service, with funding from British Coal Opencast Executive and with the co-operation of Fairclough-Parkinson Mining Ltd. Earthwork and resistivity surveys had proved inconclusive, but exploratory machine-stripping of 0.7ha located a complex of structures. The remains, in the form of sandstone foundations, have been considerably depleted by stone-robbing, and later agricultural working has removed occupation deposits and floor levels. On the evidence of destruction debris, roofs were covered with sandstone slabs secured by iron nails, and had green-glazed crested ceramic ridge tiles.

The ground plans of the buildings suggest that they represent the agricultural functions of the preceptory, an interpretation supported by the paucity of contemporary pottery and other material. The domestic buildings may be located beneath a pulverised fuel ash tip to the S, which now overlies the site of a medieval chapel, discovered by chance in 1903.[1]

The main structure so far discovered is a rectangular barn of eight bays with side and end aisles. It measures externally *c.* 50.5 x *c.* 13.0m and is aligned E-W. The wall foundations, 1.1m in breadth, are indicated only by isolated fragments; but at least fourteen of an anticipated eighteen original aisle post positions have survived robbing, ploughing and mutilation by farm drains. Opposed doorways in the N and S walls occupy the fifth bay from the E end, they are 4.7m wide, with projecting porches flanked by stub walls. Immediately E of the S porch a possible grain-drying oven, 3.3m wide and with a narrow flue, had been built of rubble against the outer face of the S wall. It is unclear whether it was contemporary or a later insertion.

The E gable wall of the aisled building is linked to the S wall of a second building, a rectilinear structure lying approximately SE-NW and externally *c.* 32.5 x *c.* 11.9m. Much of the S wall foundation has survived (up to 1.5m wide); the interior has still to be investigated. To the E and possibly linked to this second building, a further structure awaits definition. Other fragmentary remains to the S have been too heavily robbed for effective interpretation.

The preceptory, founded between 1128 and 1154, had fallen into ruin by 1347, and the course of Colton Beck had been altered to flow through the remains of the second building. The stream could have been diverted to power a mill or to feed a moat: a farm with a mill nearby is attested in the area in 1554, and a moated farmhouse and mill in the 17th century. A moat was still visible in 1903 (though it has since vanished), E of Temple Thorpe farmhouse.

The farmhouse superstructure was entirely of 18th-century brick, but upon demolition it was found to rest on a pre-existing stone foundation. Some robbed preceptory stone had been incorporated, and this may have been the farm recorded in 1554. The wide date range of pottery retrieved suggested the likelihood of continued occupation in the vicinity from the late medieval period to the present day.

1. W. Braithwaite, 'Discovery of Ancient Foundations and Human Remains at Temple Newsam', *Publications of the Thoresby Society*, 15, 1909, 174-82.

WILTSHIRE

Excavations at the site of Wick Farm, Swindon

Paul Jeffery reports that the rapid expansion of Swindon in the last decade and a half has led to a large area of previously rural landscape being lost. The western expansion in particular has resulted in the loss of much archaeological material, including nearly all of the Roman kiln sites concentrated in the area. Less well known are the loss of well preserved farming landscapes which had, until recently, changed little since the Middle Ages. A heavier reliance on pastoral farming in the last three centuries had inevitably aided the preservation of these medieval features.

Wick Farm, located in the Wiltshire parish of Lydiard Tregoze and the modern Borough of Thamesdown (N.G.R. SU110 858), has a well documented history which establishes its existence as early as 1235. The Farm was associated with the Manor of Lydiard Tregoze for a long period, being tenanted out to a long line of farmers before being sold from the Estate early this century by Lady Bolingbroke.

The farm sits on the geological boundary between coral Ragstone and Kimmeridge clay and the fault along which these meet runs roughly east - west across the site. The Ragstone provides the well drained high ground on which the farmhouse is situated, above the gently sloping, but badly drained, clay where the earthworks under investigation were located.

Excavations

During the four months of excavations, twenty trenches were opened and excavated. These were located so as to sample the eight main platforms and their ditches outside the present complex. A watching brief is currently (April

1990) being undertaken during development of the former Farm complex itself. It is hoped that a combined study of the documentary sources and excavated evidence will increase our understanding of the former landscape history which can then be made available to the new urban residents of the area.

Despite its close proximity to known Roman Kilns, the Farm seems to have been on a site little affected by the pottery industry although there is a possibility that at least one of the farm ponds was originally a clay pit. Roman pottery was recovered from the excavations but its residual context strongly suggests that it relates to a phase of medieval platform building, soil being brought down slope from the nearby field known as Blacklands where some of the kilns are believed to have been situated.

The first phase of activity seems to have been in the mid-thirteenth century. Minety ware mixed with residual Roman sherds appears in reasonably large quantities associated with the first of the platform phases. Earlier 12th-13th century sherds were also recovered but could not be tied to definite phases of the construction activity. the impression given is that the main phase of platform construction took place in the early-fourteenth century. The lack of farm buildings suggests that this was an expansion from a central farm complex on the site now occupied by the eighteenth century buildings. One of the outer platforms did support a structure with a dry stone base, four metres square, but it could not have been more than a work area and no evidence of other structures from the thirteenth or fourteenth centuries were found. Stake holes and material from the ditches, which appear to have needed regular recutting, suggest that the majority of the platforms were for grazing and corralling cattle. Down slope from one of the platforms, evidence of cross slope ridge and furrow ploughing was located. This appeared to have been contemporary with the main phase of platforms suggesting a mixed economy. Further work on the site and research into the available documentary sources is beginning to show a farm of mixed economy expanding its pastoral activity at the same time as a change in its tenant. It is possible that the terms of the tenancy also changed and this is something which will be discussed in full in the final report.

The site is perhaps not of unique or of national importance, but in its local setting it will hopefully be crucial in helping to educate the new occupants of West Swindon, showing that the area had a very active past, long before the arrival of the Railway.

Acknowledgements

This contribution is based on the Interim Report of Excavations carried out at Wick Farm and I am indebted to all those involved in the Project, particularly to C.A. Dyer for her research into the Farm's documentary history, and the drawings. I am also grateful to R. King for dating the pottery from the site.

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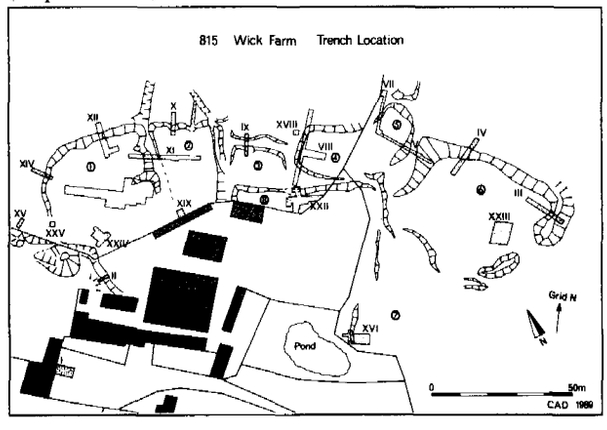

Figure 30: Wick Farm, Swindon

WEST HESLERTON: THE ANGLIAN SETTLEMENT. Interim Report on Excavations in 1989.

Excavations of the northern half of the Anglian settlement at West Heslerton (SE 91 75,, North Yorkshire (East Riding)) is nearing completion. This is one of the largest excavations ever conducted in Britain and is funded by English Heritage through North Yorkshire C.C., by industrial sponsors and by Earthwatch. Excavation has centred on a settlement and its cemetery of the period c.AD450-650. Large scale work on this site has considerable implications for the interpretation of smaller scale excavations elsewhere, and the profusion of finds — particularly of skeletal material — provides an opportunity to establish a key data base for the study of Dark Age economics.

To the east of the stream, more than 50 post-built timber-framed structures included both large c.11 x 5m "Halls" and smaller buildings, constructed within a limited range of styles and sizes, probably with supported floors. These were generally aligned east-west with doorways on the longer sides and more than a dozen were probably residential, perhaps with upper storeys. The remainder were probably ancillary buildings, like the *grubenhauser*, concentrated on areas of light soil on the foot of the knoll, associated with small rubbish pits and hearths. Although internal divisions are generally absent, a high degree of planning is implied by the layout, and, unlike other sites of this period in Britain, this site warrants the use of the term village.

West of the stream, an industrial quarter comprised over 40 *grubenhauser*, arranged in groups and associated with the debris from various craft activities, but entirely without post constructed buildings. Also present were 2 metalworking furnaces, a malt kiln, extensive deposits of butchery waste and large numbers of weaving tools and loom weights. Textiles were the major industrial product from the site, although the *grubenhauser* need not have been weaving sheds. Some may have served as granaries. Much of the wide range of ceramics was probably also of local manufacture.

Large-scale excavations continue on the site in 1990 from June to September.

Dominic Powlesland

(Summarised from the 1989 interim site report by the editor.)

INTERIM REPORT ON THE FORTIETH SEASON OF THE WHARRAM RESEARCH PROJECT, NORTH YORKSHIRE

The publication programme moves on apace: 1989 saw the appearance of *Wharram Percy: The Church of St. Martin,* by R.D. Bell, M.W. Beresford and others (Society for Medieval Archaeology Monograph Series 11), and *Domestic Settlement 2: The Medieval Peasant Farmsteads,* by S.W. Wrathmell (University of York Archaeological Publication 8). The first of a projected series of educational leaflets was also published, on the church. 1989 also saw the publication of a *Festschrift* to M.W. Beresford and J.G. Hurst, *The Rural Settlements of Medieval England,* edited by M. Aston, D. Austin and C. Dyer, which was presented to them on a memorable day during the main excavation season. That, from 30 June to 29 July was as usual under the direction of J.G. Hurst.

1. **Parish Survey.** Work under the guidance of C. Hayfield included morphological studies of Settrington, Fimber, Fridaythorpe and Kirby Underdale, computer-assisted survey of possible earthworks at Wharram Grange and of farm buildings at Red House Farm, and (in collaboration with Dr. Paul Buckland) investigation of comparative stone sizes in local Saxon and early Norman churches. Further documentary work was done on local field systems, and progress was made on the medieval volume of the parish survey.

2. **Sites 82K, 89 and 94 — North Manor.** These three sites were excavated by past and present students of the Department of Archaeology, University of York, under the general supervision of J. Richards. Site 82K provided further evidence that Toft 17's long-house was abandoned in the 14th century, and revealed several earlier phases of activity. In Site 89 Saxon sherds were found in the upper levels of a major Iron age ditch, as too in Site 94. The latter site also produced unexpected evidence of 8th-century metalworking: casting debris including slag, crucible fragments, and several clay mould fragments, some with interlace ornament.

3. **Site 91 — North Manor.** Excavations began under the supervision of P. Herbert on the edge of what earlier work has indicated is a defended farm of the 1st century A.D. Traces of ridge and furrow were found, and also of a linear bank, perhaps the early medieval village boundary.

4. **Sites 85 and 93 — Toft 10.** P.A. Stamper and R.A. Croft continued work on the mid Saxon and early medieval site within the *curia* of the South Manor. More of the post-built mid Saxon building was excavated, and the upper levels of a grain dryer of as yet uncertain date. Preliminary analysis suggests the presence of carbonised peas, beans and wheat grains.

5. **Glebe West — Site 77.** J. Wood continued work on the late medieval vicarage complex. As work proceeds the function and identity of the various structural elements and buildings present can be advanced with increasing certainty, the main elements being a series of kitchens (one perhaps with bakehouse) and a barn. Sieving of debris within the barn from the documented fire of 1553 which destroyed it revealed bread wheat, oats and peas, oak timber and ash poles.

Paul Stamper

REPORTS FROM ABROAD

REPUBLIC OF IRELAND: Research on Medieval Settlement in 1989

A one day conference was held by the Group for the Study of Irish Historic Settlement on 30th September 1989 to celebrate twenty years of the Group's existence. Dr. Chris Lynn talked about the early medieval period while Dr. Terry Barry dealt with the high medieval period. The Conference was opened by the founder of the Group, Dr. R.E. Glasscock and there was a summation of the papers by Dr. Anngret Simms. A book containing all the papers, edited by Dr. Terry Barry, is planned to be published in the near future. Over fifty people attended this very successful event. the Annual Conference this year of the Group will be in Ballyvaughan, Co. Clare from 4th-6th May 1990.

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Terry Barry

THE CURRENT STATE AND FUTURE DIRECTION OF EARLY MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENT STUDIES IN BOHEMIA

When investigating the early medieval (old-Slavonic) settlement process of the 6th - 11th centuries AD in Bohemia, we meet two basic types of settlement units: rural open habitation sites, and fortified settlements — mostly in strategic locations on hilltops, necks of land, moorlands, etc. Apart from these, there existed several settlement sub-types the forms of which may be derived from those cited above (e.g. rural sites and hamlets that were simply fortified; open settlement units set in those places which, in later periods, were walled and thus became hillforts).

The post-war period has seen early medieval archaeology focused on hillforts. It should be stressed that such a strategy started from the widely accepted outlook that this settlement type had been at the centre of territorial (tribal) units, and, in later times, of state formation, when they played a principal role in administrative organisation as centres for economic, political, ideological and cultural life in early medieval Czech society. Such a site can, through stratified finds, give abundant information about the development of its fortifications, spatial divisions and extensions, internal arrangements, standard of living of people residing there, sacred architecture and ritual, etc. Archaeological excavations have been carried out at about three dozen of this category of site, which is about one quarter of all known hillforts, or castles known through written sources. Their results, together with critical evaluation of relevant documentary sources, enabled scholars to analyse the data on the old-Slavonic hillforts and submit general conclusions on their evolution in space/time dimensions (e.g. Stepánek 1965, Solle 1984, Sláma 1986; a short outline in English cf. Gojda - in print 1989-90).

As regards the other basic type — common rural open settlement — the investigation of this category has made little headway, although its importance for the economy of medieval society has been often stressed. The philosophy of historical-dialectical materialism — which was the official ideology underlying post-war historiography — characterises the Middle Ages an an epoch when villagers worked the principal source of production — the land. Investigation of early medieval (8-11th centuries AD) rural settlements has not yet started to provide meaningful results. The only exception is the study of the earliest communities, which were built by the first Slav settlers who penetrated into Bohemia in the 6th century. Since 1970, extensive investigation of their settlement units has provided plenty of important information, especially concerning the type of residential structure, namely the sunken-floored building, which was the earliest form of medieval house in the Czech countryside (Pleinerová 1975; Gojda 1988, 52-56; Gojda-Kuna 1986).

During wide discussions on the future programme of the Prague Institute of Archaeology — discussions which have been accelerated by recent political changes in Czechoslovakia — a consensus has emerged in support of establishing a project which would join the study of the lower category of the settlement system (rural habitation site) with the higher one (settlement pattern on the micro-regional level and its relation to nodal points — hillforts). For this purpose it will be useful to choose a territory in which there are one or more documented, early medieval hillforts which have been subjected to long-term excavation in the post-war period. Stratified find assemblages from hillforts may serve as a basis for dating the adjacent rural settlements. Most probably, it will be Central Bohemia in which a micro-regional project will be established, since it best meets the demands of such a study, and, moreover, that territory used to be the heartland of the country in which the state-forming process began. In addition, it will be necessary to focus such projects as this on environmental reconstruction and change in the landscape and, for this purpose, environmental data will have a high priority. In this respect, large scale cooperation between archaeologists and natural scientists will be necessary.

In these projects, primary attention will be given to field survey, especially field walking after ploughing, followed by systematically organised rescue excavations throughout the micro-regions investigated. By means of random sampling and transects we shall try to find the extent of sampled sites, of which at least one should be excavated so that the spatial arrangement of its features (and their variety as well) can be determined. We shall also try to reveal whether the settlement activity in

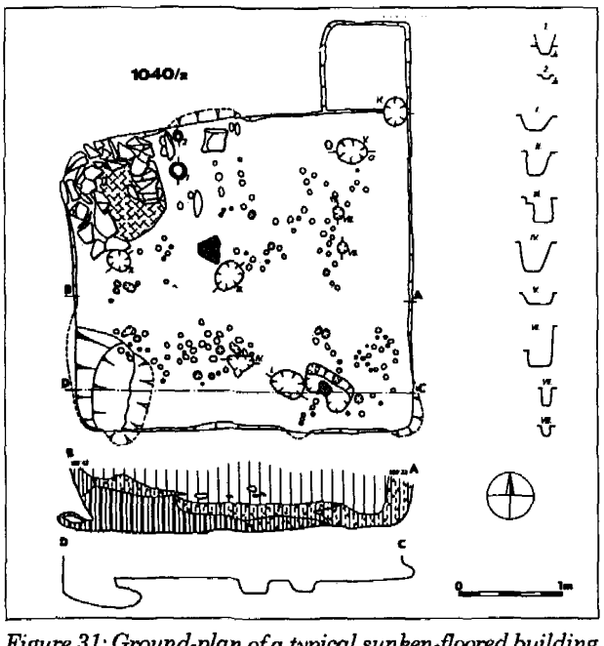

Figure 31: Ground-plan of a typical sunken-floored building of the early Slavs in Bohemia. Note the stone oven in NW corner, pottery (1,2) and clusters of post and pegholes spread over the floor. Roztoky, distr. Prague-West, 6th century AD.

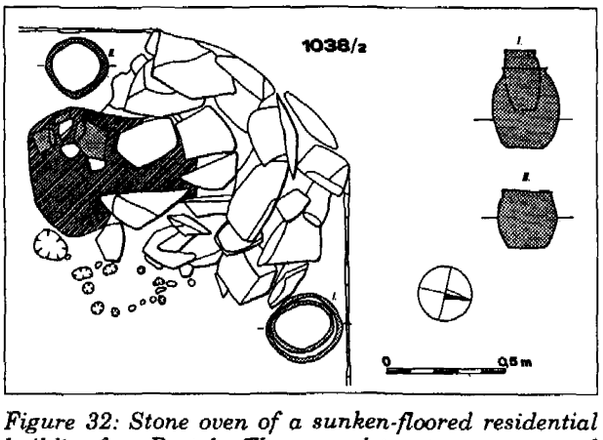

*Figure 32: Stone oven of a sunken-floored residential building from Roztoky. Three complete pots were preserved **in situ** close to the oven. 6th century AD.*

these communities was continuous or merely spasmodic. The main purpose of this approach is to identify the structure of settlement systems and to create a generalised model. Thereafter, such a model could serve as an indicator of the relationship between environmental and other factors and the settlers' decisions on where and how to establish a new settlement network.

I believe that the approach that integrates settlement units into the whole process of landscape occupation may offer a better understanding of the operation of economic, social and cultural factors in early medieval society and the genesis of new, state-like forms in its organisation.

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Martin Gojda

FIELDWORK AND SURVEY IN LIGURIA, NORTH-WEST ITALY

Medieval archaeology in Liguria grew out of the work of the Istituto Internazionale di Studi Liguri in the late 1950's. The last three decades have seen a programme of systematic watching briefs and area excavation in the city of Genoa, integrated with research on settlement history in the city's hinterland and territory, backed up by the development and adoption of a full range of scientific techniques and the publication of finds and pottery typologies. The group of primarily Genoese researchers who have participated in these studies have gone under a variety of names, but since 1981 they have been known as the Instituto di Storia della Cultura Materiale (ISCUM). Whereas the development of the new discipline of medieval archaeology was in the 1970's one of their main concerns, it should be pointed out that their work does not prefer any particular period over another, their objective being the study of all aspects of the archaeology of their region. In the rural and mountainous areas, their research has been concentrated on four main localities, reports on two of which are presented below.

David Andrews

Filattiera (Massa, Tuscany)

Research begun by ISCUM at Filattiera in 1980 has already seen the investigation of four different and chronologically consecutive settlement areas, and identified other abandoned sites yet to be studied. The earliest settlement in the area is in the vicinity of the parish church of St. Stefano (1, figure 33), directly below the hill of Castelvecchio where pre-Roman burials have been found. An area has been excavated in annual seasons from 1986-89, but the depth of the stratigraphy and the high water table has slowed down progress and made it impossible so far to understand the full layout of the settlement. Below the topsoil there are more than 4m of alluvial deposits valuable for understanding the recent geomorphology of the basin of the river Magra. At a depth of 2m were encountered the remains of a house datable to the 1st-3rd centuries AD. This had its foundations and the base of its walls of dry stone construction. Above this level, it was build of materials that had perished without trace. The floor was of earth. The building had possibly been enlarged at some stage. In front of the house, there was a small cobbled area with traces of a shed, whilst to the rear, the house butted up against the revetment wall of a terrace. It has yet to be seen whether the settlement was built on a series of terraces to protect it from flooding by the river. At the end of the Roman period, the collapsed building was partially levelled to create a cobbled area on which was built a hut with walls of branches plastered with clay. This was destroyed by fire, large portions of its burnt walls and other materials being found in the excavation. The remains of the hut were found within a thick black silty clay deposit resembling the early medieval dark earth of North Italian cities, in which specific occupation levels could not be distinguished and which seem to have been formed through the deposition of alluvial layers rich in domestic waste.

At the beginning of the early Middle Ages, the site was abandoned, and it was perhaps only at this time that there appeared on the hill of Castelvecchio (2, figure 33) a small settlement enclosed by a palisade and, on the side of the spur which lacks natural defences, two

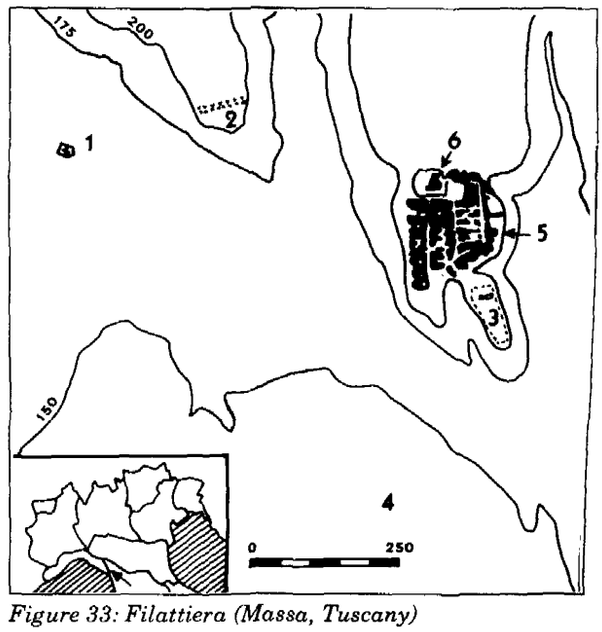

Figure 33: Filattiera (Massa, Tuscany)

ditches with a bank. However, in the absence of datable finds, the attribution of the site at Castelvecchio to the 5th-8th centuries AD must remain uncertain, and the possibility cannot be excluded that it was a temporary refuge for the inhabitants of the village below.

By the 11th century, the settlement had shifted to the hill of S. Giorgio (3) where there was a small *castello* with walls and a central tower which still survive. To one side of the tower, the romanesque church of S. Giorgio abuts the curtain wall. The settlement area proper may have been at Borgovecchio (4) where field survey has not yet, however, produced any evidence to support this theory. In the 13th century there grew up the existing village (5) which preserves its original layout, with the castle in the north-west corner (6) and the internal division into three main groups of houses enclosed by walls. At the same time, the promontory with the church of S. Giorgio became abandoned and was used in part as a cemetery.

Continuing research will be concentrated upon enlarging the excavation at the parish church of S. Stefano and investigating the other abandoned sites which have been identified.

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For summary reports, see also *Notiziario di Archeologia Medievale,* nos. 36, 40, 42, 44, 47, 49, 52.

Enrico Giannichedda

Zignago (La Spezia, Liguria)

As well as numerous discoveries ranging in date from the pre-Roman to post-medieval periods, the research and survey carried out by ISCUM at Zignago has identified two abandoned medieval settlements which are cited in documents of 1276 as *Zignaculum* and *Serra Maior*. Of these two perched sites, the first has been extensively excavated after a programme of geophysical survey. The results of the work have been especially interesting because the village was destroyed by a fire towards the mid-14th century, the partially collapsed buildings never being re-occupied apart from temporary visits by shepherds and wayfarers. Consequently the archaeological deposits are undisturbed. The cause of the fire is unknown, but it would seem to have been quite unexpected, given that the inhabitants did not succeed in removing their possessions to safety. The collapse of the heavy stone roof slates partially choked the flames so that the roof timbers were preserved and the carpentry techniques can be studied. Inexplicable though it may seem that no one returned to salvage at least the metal objects left in the houses, this was possibly due to Genoa's policy of eliminating the fortified settlements within its territory.

All the houses within the village, which at the time of its destruction numbered between ten and fifteen, were built directly on to the levelled rock, with their long axes aligned parallel to the contours. The walls were of dry stone construction, with a little mortar used at the corners. The roughly dressed stones, which were laid in courses, were obtained from small quarries on the north slope of the hill (Q, figure 34). The floors either consisted of the surface of the rock itself, or sometimes of clay.

One of the buildings (G) has been identified as a granary. It had a raised boarded floor, and the roof was single pitch, supported on chestnut beams. In fact, only one of the buildings (F) has been identified as having a two-pitched roof, the ridge beam being supported on the partition wall between the two internal rooms. This

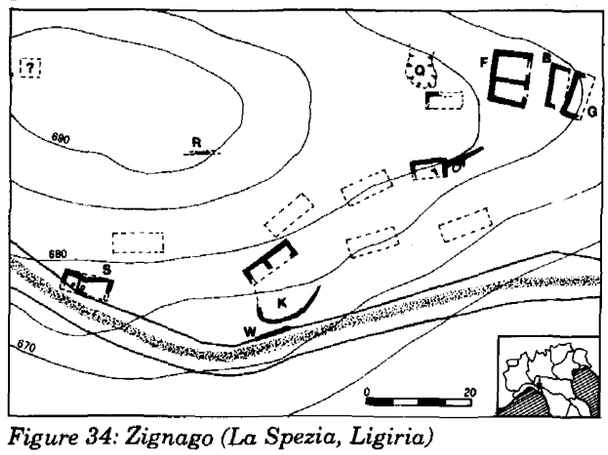

Figure 34: Zignago (La Spezia, Ligiria)

building is the only one which comprised two independent dwellings. It seems to have been in the same ownership as the granary (G) and the store-room adjacent (B), in which were found various items of agricultural equipment, forming a property unit larger than the others. A byre (S) facing on to the road differed from the houses only in having a central drain and stone seats which could have served for milking. Along the road (which led from the port of Levanto over the Apennine passes towards Parma) were open spaces with a threshing floor and a garden (K) and revetment wall (W). On the artificially levelled hill top are the remains of a curtain wall. There may also have been a tower.

The objects abandoned at the moment of the fire make it possible to reconstruct at least in part the household belongings of the family groups. To small wooden chests can be attributed locks, keys, and hinges, but of greater interest for the information shed on the activities of the inhabitants of the site are the numerous metal objects, especially the shoes for donkeys and mules, the weapons, and the agricultural and carpentry tools.

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RESEARCH INTO MEDIEVAL RURAL SETTLEMENT IN THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

Medieval settlement in the territory of the G.D.R. is derived from two traditions: on the one hand the development in the Germanic regions and on the other the Slavonic background. After the 6th century, Slavonic settlers extended their territory up to the rivers Elbe and Saale and remained there as an independent population until they were subjugated by the German feudal state. Within that framework they played an important part in the genesis of the German people. Up to that time Germanic and Slavonic settlement areas had largely developed separately within their own independent traditions, in which the development of the means of production and the pattern of property ownership had been of fundamental importance to the formation of the respective settlement structures. It was the conquest and penetration — via settlement of mainly German peasants — which transmitted the more effective feudal structures (developed within the German feudal state) to the east of the rivers Elbe and Saale. Thereafter, change and gradual assimilation of development took place.

Research carried out since the Second World War in both areas has produced a large amount of new information relating to the development of settlement.[1] In this respect close proximity has produced a remarkable degree of convergence.[2] In the following survey only the results of research over the last ten to fifteen years in the region of the German eastward expansion will be considered. Apart from numerous individual observations, which are scattered through local history publications[3], individual excavations have been targeted with the object of recovering settlements in their entirety in order to be able to answer questions posed by settlement genesis and structure and by the history of building. In other cases not so much the village but the manor was the centre of interest. To illustrate this ten exemplary excavations from recent years will be briefly presented in the following catalogue (Figure 35)[4].

1 Bösleben, District Arnstadt, DMV Gommerstedt (figure 36)

Excavations by the Mus. Weimar (1964/72) led to the complete recovery of the settlement and castle and allowed us to follow their development through four major settlement phases. The settlement is mentioned several times in documents from the 8th to the 9th century. During this period the settlement contained post built houses of varying construction and size (56 and 36m²) equipped with hearths, ancillary buildings constructed at ground level, and wells. At the beginning of the 11th century a motte (Flachmotte) was erected adjacent to the village and a post building (6.2 x 3.6m) was constructed on top of it. A wooden church (6 x 4.6m) stood next to it. A ditch linked settlement and church to the castle. After the middle of the 11th century small one-roomed houses (4.5 x 3.5m) on stone foundations and with daub walls appeared in the settlement replacing the post built houses. Towards the end of the 12th century the building on top of the motte was replaced by a tower with stone foundations, annex and underfloor heating. The edge of the motte was fortified by a stone curtain wall against which were built small houses and ancillary buildings. The entrance to the castle was protected by wall walk and gatehouse. A cobbled pathway connected the castle to the settlement, which had now

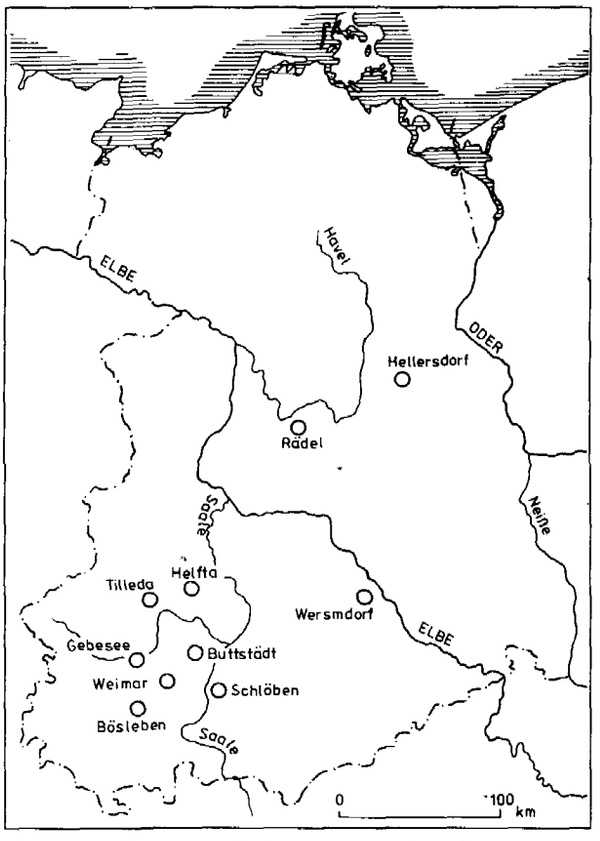

Figure 35: Location of sites mentioned in the text.

been given a bank and ditch. During the 13th century and until the end of the 14th century the settlement contained four farmsteads, each consisting of houses with one or more rooms and ancillary buildings. The construction was of uprights on stone foundations. Alongside the castle a tithe barn (17.5 x 9m) was built. The wooden church was replaced by a stone building with a slightly narrower apse. Burials took place inside and alongside the church. There had also been alterations to the castle.

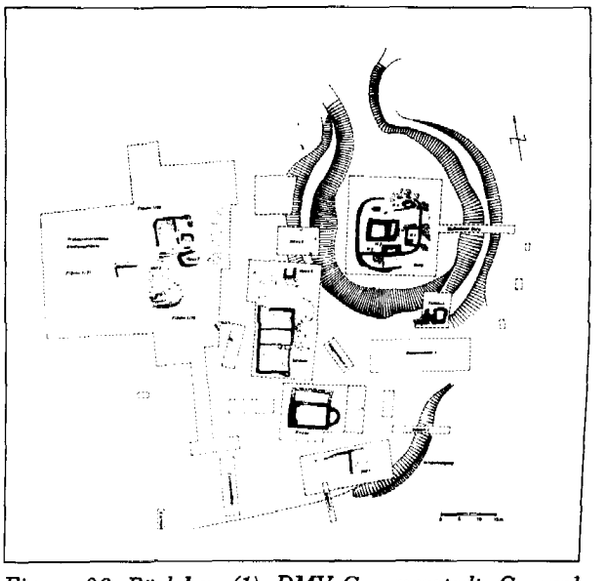

Figure 36: Bösleben (1). DMV Gommerstedt, General layout with excavated settlement complexes (after Timpel 1982).

Reference: W. Timpel, *Gommerstedt — ein mittelalterlicher Herrensitz in Thüringen,* Weimar 1982.

2 Buttstädt, District Sömmerda, DMV Emsen

The DMV Emsen consists of two settlements of the same name and is repeatedly documented between the 9th and the 14th centuries. Excavations carried out by the ZI AGA and the Mus. Weimar in 1972/73 have led to the recovery in Kleinemsen of five stone ovens, possibly the remains of sunken houses. From the distribution of the finds it is possible to assume a small hamlet-type settlement close to a spring. In the settlement of Großemsen investigations yielded four square Grubenhäuser, with corner posts and/or ridge posts and heating in the NW-corner, several post buildings on either side of a roadway, and the remains of two fenced farmsteads, plus a rectangular building of late medieval date with uprights on stone foundations, a round threshing floor and a walled cemetery. Four post houses could clearly be identified. It could, however, not be resolved whether they were contemporary with the Grubenhäuser. Notably Slavonic pottery dominates in the area of these Grubenhäuser, while by contrast, in the area of the post buildings, the German globular pot prevails. Amongst the other small finds a hoard of 33

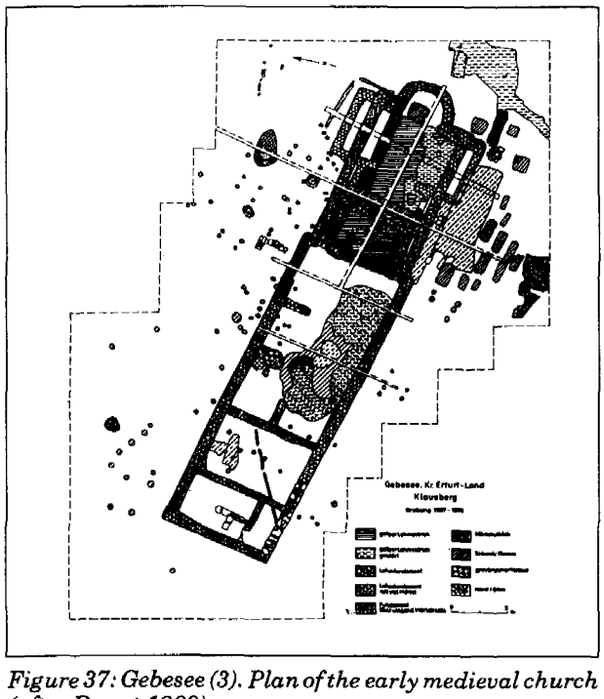

Figure 37: Gebesee (3). Plan of the early medieval church (after Donat 1989).

coins dating to the 14th century, a small lead crucifix and a pilgrimage token are worth mentioning.

Reference: P. Donat, W. Timpel, "die Ausgrabungen auf der Wüstung Emsen bei Buttstädt, kr. Sömmerda", *Alt-Thüringen,* 19, Weimar 1983, 99-156.

3 Gebesee, District Erfurt, Klausberg (figure 37)

Excavations carried out by the ZI AGA in 1985 were concentrated on a spur with an overall scatter of occupation. V-shaped ditches (5-6m deep, 10m wide) divide the area into three sections. The central part, an area of 1 ha, was flanked in the north and south by a bailey each with, together, an area of 4 ha. The northern bailey contained post built houses and Grubenhäuser of the ridge post type (no heating or loom weights). In the central section stood houses with uprights possibly half-timbered and a single-aisled hall church of 45.7m in total length and 10.6m width with a narrowed chancel and a semicircular apse and a gallery at the west end. This has been preceded by a small cruciform hall church (5.5 x 7.5m), with a building (4.5 x 10.8m) connected it to the east. The excavators assume the site to be an Ottonean royal manor.

Reference: P. Donat, "Eine frühmittelalterliche Kirche bei Gebesee, Kr. Erfurt", *Ausgrabungen und Funde,* 34, Berlin 1989, 241-248.

4 Helfta, District Eisleben

Excavations by the ZI AGA (1977/81) were directed towards locating the settlement of *Helphideburc,* documented from the beginning of the 9th century, and the royal manor documented for the 10th century. The excavated area (6500m²) contained traces of early to late medieval occupation. Of early medieval date are 18 Grubenhäuser with rectangular plan (2.8 x 3.8m to 3.7 x 4.6m), ridge posts and (as far as they could be identified) rectangular domed ovens in the NW-corner of the sunken area. Traces of footings for looms and loom weights, a pottery kiln, traces of iron and bronze working as well as indications for the production of gold leaf and tin foil (and, therefore, illuminations for manuscripts) are evidence for industrial activity. The pottery shows Germanic and Slavonic characteristics and can be dated to the 9th/10th centuries and 10th/11th centuries. The precise use of the 59 pits could not be ascertained. The settlement was bounded towards the high plateau by a ditch of varying width and depth.

In the 11th century the occupation changed in character. The eight Grubenhäuser of this phase are ancillary buildings alongside ridge post constructions. Half-timbering appears. There are no ovens or hearths. Three houses on ground level (33.4 and 32.6m²), one containing an oven, could be identified as having had half-timbering. Other buildings had sunken or stone lined cellars. Farmsteads with houses, cellars and pits replace the earlier linear pattern of the Grubenhäuser. To this phase belong two horizontal pottery kilns and, again, numerous pits. Finally, to the 13th century may date the foundations of a single-aisled hall church (19.5 x 9.1m) with a rectangular narrowed chancel and a rectangular west tower.

Reference: P. Donat, "Der Königshof Helfta", *Zeitschrift für Archäologie,* 22, Berlin 1988, 103-125 and 225-259.

5 Hellersdorf — Berlin

The village of Alt-Hellersdorf, first documented in 1375, was investigated in 1983/86 by the Arbeitsstelle für Bodendenkmalspflege Berlin. During this work it was possible to locate the site and extent of the village on either bank of a small river, for a distance of 1 km. Dating to around 1300, four buildings of varying shape, one Grubenhaus with four posts (2.7 x 2.6m) and a bread oven were uncovered. Three buildings had at least partial cellars. The church was a small rectangular hall with about 200 associated graves. Worth mentioning among the finds from the site is a pair of scales with two weights.

Reference: H. Seyer, "Hellersdorf (Berlin)", in *Archäologie in der DDR,* Leipzig-Jena-Berlin 1989, 796-798; ditto, *Berlin im Mittelalter,* Berlin 1987, 106-109.

6 Rädel, District Brandenburg, DMV Göritz

Excavations by the Mus. Brandenburg and the universities Berlin and Greifswald have resulted in the investigation of an area of 1300m². They uncovered four loghouses, of which some had heating and stone or clay floors, and a post building. All belonged to the village of Göritz which was documented for the first time about 1200 and which had been occupied between the end of the 12th century and the middle of the 13th century. The buildings were aligned in a row and 6-12m long. The village possessed a wood-lined well and on its edge a pottery kiln. Only a short distance away lay a cemetery with 144 graves, all of which were excavated. There was no evidence of a church.

Reference: G. Mangelsdorf, "Rädel, Kr. Brandenburg (Bez. Potsdam)", in *Archäologie in der DDR,* Leipzig-Jena-Berlin 1989, 804-806.

7 Schlöben, District Stadtroda, DMV Lodenschitz (figure 38)

Motte and settlement were mentioned for the first time in 1216 and had been deserted by 1500. The excavations by the Mus. Weimar (1978/81, 1983) have established that the occupation of the site was begun by Slavs in the 10th century. Towards the end of the 12th century a motte, nearly rectangular in shape (Flachmotte 8 x 12m, 0.5m height) was erected alongside the settlement. It carried a wooden tower with an attached log building. These buildings were repeatedly altered during the 13th century, till finally the motte was enlarged in the north and east to cover an area of 22 x 24m. In the course of this work the castle and the bailey were separated by a ditch. While the bailey contained stables and granaries, a possible multi-storied wooden tower was constructed on the motte itself. By the end of the 13th century the ditch was again being infilled and the whole complex turned into a moat. On the motte stood a solid house, which was protected by a wall, palisade, banks and ditches. A drawbridge gave access. During the 14th century the fortifications were removed and a typical manor house was built. The associated domestic buildings were possibly moved to the neighbouring settlement. Here excavation revealed an approximately square (4.4 x 4.6m) possibly two-storied and half-timbered building with oven and tiled roof, set on strong stone foundations.

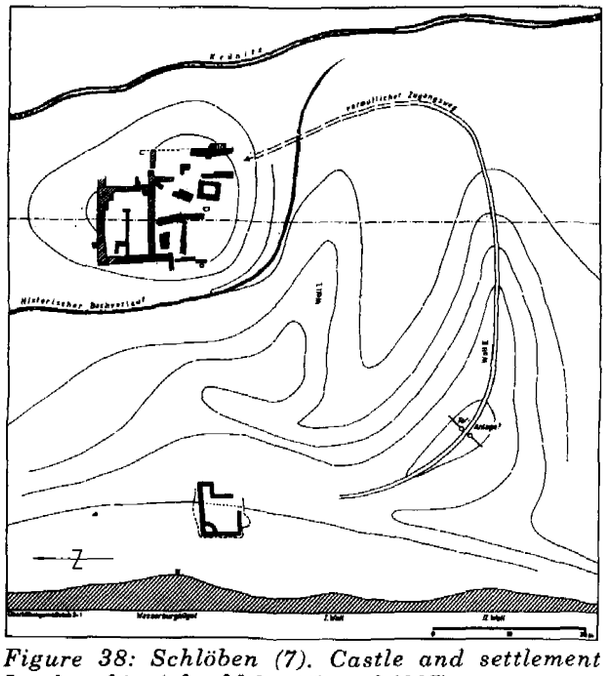

Figure 38: Schlöben (7). Castle and settlement Londenschitz (after Möbes / Timpel 1987).

Reference: G. Möbes, W. Timpel, "Die Burg Lodenschitz in der Gemarkung Schlöben bei Stadtroda", *Alt-Thüringen,* 22/23, Weimar 1987, 297-367.

8 Tilleda, District Sangerhausen, DMV Stedten

The excavations by the ZI AGA (1979/81) were closely linked to the investigation of the well-known royal palace of Tilleda. Of the settlement (which is still shown on old maps) were excavated the following: the church of 11th century foundation, parts of the cemetery, and two late medieval cellars (4.55 x 3.2m and 4.42 x 4.18m). The church was a rectangular hall (20.9 x 8m) with narrowed rectangular chancel and rectangular western cross tower (7.2 x 9m, with 2m wall thickness). This building overlies a cemetery. Of the 25 graves investigated, ten contained items of Slavonic costume dating from the 11th to early 12th centuries. Ploughmarks belonging to the heavy ard date from the 13th to 15th centuries. The pottery is dated to the beginning of the 9th century. On this evidence it is possible to identify the DMV as Dullide, documented in the 9th century, the precursor of the settlement of Tilleda, which was founded in the 12th century adjacent to the royal palace. These finds also confirm new evidence for a Carolingian manor at this site, as the documentary source is linked to a gift by Charlesmagne.

Reference: E. Gringmuth-Dallmer, "Die Wüstung Stedten bei Tilleda, Kr. Sangerhausen", *Jahresschrift für mitteldeutsche Vorgeschichse,* 71, Berlin 1988, 153-209.

9 Weimar — Stadt

Rescue excavations carried out by the Mus. Weimar (1977/78) uncovered a settlement of 9th to 10th century date. At least eight houses of differing size and construction and 25 pits were investigated. This occupation was grouped on an area of 50 x 90m in a semicircle around a spring. It was possible to identify clearly: three small square Grubenhäuser (7-10.5m) with a ridge post each, heating in the NW-corner and wattle walls set on the outer edge of the sunken area; one Grubenhaus with six posts, heating in the centre of the house and wattle walls, and an irregularly shaped Grubenhaus. Traces of post holes, substructure and hearths at ground level point to the existence of post built houses and loghouses. Two larger pits with traces of superstructure may have been workshops while others were storage or refuse pits. There is evidence for bronzeworking and iron smelting and working.

Reference: W. Timpel, "Eine slawisch-deutsche Siedlung im Stadtgebiet von Weimar", *Alt-Thüringen,* 18, Weimar 1983, 139-175.

10 Wermsdorf, District Oschatz, DMV Nennewitz

The castle and settlement complex has its origins in the deliberate foundation of a pitch-makers' settlement during the 11th to 12th centuries. At the turn of the 12th/13th centuries, a rural settlement, a church with cemetery and a motte with tower and with accompanying home

farm had already developed at this location. Excavations by the Mus. Dresden (1963) and (since 1968) the Pädagogische Hochschule Dresden (Teacher Training College) were directed especially at the pitch-making workshop, the tower and the home farm. The tower had been set on a boulder raft into the natural and was then constructed simultaneously with the mount. At the southeast corner of the palisaded platform stood a recangular building (8 x 9.5m). In the home farm several settlement horizons and post buildings were identified. Of the village itself, situated at the edge of the so-called Kirchteich (church pond) seven farmsteads could be traced and of two of them, the foundations of the granaries were uncovered amongst the reeds. Up-slope lay the bread ovens of individual farms. So far the church and the cemetery have not been excavated. The settlement existed until the middle of the 14th century.

Reference: G. Billig, "Wermsdorf, Kr. Oschatz (Bez. Leipzig)", *Archäologie in der DDR,* Leipzig-Jena-Berlin 1989, 822f.

The evidence presented above belongs to different periods and functional spheres. On the one hand it stems from the area of primary Germanic-German settlement (1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9)[5] and on the other from the area of medieval German expansion east of the river Saale (5, 6, 7, 10). The evidence represents the spheres of village settlement (2, 5, 6, 8, 9) and that of the minor aristocracy (1, 7, 10), and it appears in context with royal feudal power (3, 4). What conclusions of general value can be drawn from this evidence?

The primary evidence from these excavations concerned the layout of the settlements themselves. At the DMV Gommerstedt (1), the origin of the later manor possibly lay in a single farmstead, provided no other such occupation had existed in the neighbourhood. Pronounced hamlet-type grouping in the vicinity of springs is, however, evident for other early medieval settlements (2, 8, 9). Here the contemporary existence of Groß- and Kleinemsen — which is not evident in the written sources — points to smallscale filiation, which in this border area of Germanic-German and Slavonic settlement may have had its origin in the ethnic make-up. By contrast, the medieval settlement of the mature feudal system displays clearer structural patterns through its linear plan (5, 6). It is difficult to decide whether such a linear plan was the reason for the layout of the DMVs Lodenschitz (7) and Nennewitz (10), which follow the line of the slope.

The development in the method of house construction can be traced with greater certainty. Early medieval settlement in the area is largely characterized by the co-existence of post built house and Grubenhaus. Remarkable insights have been gained into the construction and the use of the Grubenhaus. Slavonic settlers are specifically mentioned for DMV Emsen (2) during the 9th century; the picture provided by the material culture (especially the pottery), and structural evidence supports the thesis that, in this border region of Germanic-German and Slavonic settlement, predictable, mutual cross-cultural influences on the construction of houses occurred. While the Grubenhaus in the Germanic context was always an ancillary building and, as such, had no heating and was further characterized by its rectangular plan with four or more posts mostly in corner settings, the square Grubenhaus, with its ridge posts and a hearth usually in the northwest corner of the sunken area, formed the characteristic dwelling of contemporary Slavonic settlement. The excavations at Emsen (2) show such Slavonic Grubenhäuser, while in other instances both types co-existed. Heating and ridge posts are now found in the context of rectangular Grubenhäuser, while wattle walls may replace the typically Slavonic logwalls (4, 9). At the same time, the majority of the Grubenhäuser with heating were used for industrial activities, as the frequent evidence for weaving demonstrates. This type of use is characteristic, especially for sites which show manorial structures such as the royal manors (3, 4), and also at the royal palaces of Tilleda and Magdeburg.[6] This, no doubt, reflects the general absorption of the Slavonic element into the German feudal system. The continuing contemporary presence of free Slavs seems, however, to be proved by grave goods recovered from the DMV Stedten (8).

In contrast with the majority of excavated sites, no Grubenhäuser were found in the extensively investigated settlement of Gommerstedt (1). Here, post construction dominated house-styles and ancillary buildings, displaying, however, no uniformity of plan. This was also true for the other sites, where it has not been possible to determine more closely the dominant plan of the post built houses. It has become evident that, during the 11th and 12th centuries, this method of construction lost its importance in favour of building with uprights (1, 2, 4)[7]. The contemporary use of post buildings and upright construction in the bailey and the main castle at Gebesee (3) demonstrates that social factors had a modifying influence on this process. The framework of uprights was generally set on stone foundations — a method which gives greater durability to the building. The manner of construction may have been similar to that of the familiar timber framed buildings. The medieval foundations east of the river Saale are already largely characterized by this building method (6, 10), but without it being generally dominant on a particular site.

Contemporary with this development is a change in the function of the Grubenhaus. From the 10th century it seems to have largely lost its use as an industrial and ancillary building[8] and it slowly disappeared from the settlements. It was replaced, from the 12th century, by the house with a partial or complete cellar, and, from the 13th century, by the stonelined cellar (4, 5).

Changes in the settlement structure and the construction of houses which occurred during the 11th century were, no doubt, closely linked to the social changes which accompanied the triumph of the feudal system. It was possible for our research project to demonstrate this process for the first time, most convincingly in the case of the DMV Gommerstedt (1). Here the development of a small fortified manor from a small rural settlement could be established in this period. The process was repeated many times, as is shown by the examples of the DMVs Lodenschitz (7) and Nennewitz (10). Perhaps it is also in this context that the fortified tower of the church at the DMV Stedten (8) belongs. The close association of church foundation with the manorial structure cannot be ignored (1, 3, 4, 10).

Despite their differing social structure, the economic basis of these settlements was clearly agricultural. However, proof of this is mainly negative in nature, in that it rests on the lack of evidence for major industrial production, apart from the workshops which were associated with the larger manors (4, 10). As positive evidence may be counted the presence of ancillary

buildings (which may be interpreted as granaries and barns (1), of agricultural work areas, such as the threshing floor at the DMV Emsen (2), and of relevant implements. At the same time it is possible to find evidence for industrial and trade activities in these agrarian settlements. On the one hand this is undoubtedly an expression of continuing if partial self-sufficiency in these communities. On the other hand this indicates the opening-up of new forms of production. Amongst the rural, industrial activities which facilitated self-sufficiency may be listed the pottery kilns (6), iron smelting and iron working (9) and perhaps baking (5, 10), where this was not carried out as a purely domestic task. Further specialisation, however, was tied to the manor (4, 10). Interest in trade is reflected by the attitude of the settlers towards inter-regional roads and was especially active in the neighbourhood of larger and prosperous towns (e.g. the DMV Gommerstedt (1) close to Erfurt) or in the vicinity of naturally important routes (e.g. DMV Lodenschitz (7) in relation to the nearby Saale crossing). This interest in trade manifests itself through the presence of scales, weights (5, 8) and coins (2). Pilgrimage tokens (2) may also demonstrate mobility amongst the rural population.

Such observations are however, not yet sufficient to allow a more thoroughgoing differentiation within, and social evaluation of, the rural population. The tentative picture which emerges tends to strengthen the case at the manorial sites for the social interdependence of lords and serfs, as already assumed, with heightened awareness of the ethnic complexity of the villagers. This state of affairs applies equally to royal (3, 4) and to rural-minor aristocratic centres (1, 7). The only difference is in the quantity of the evidence. Social differentiation was heightened by the spatial segregation of the ruling element into the developing fortified castles, and of the dependent element into bailey-type enclosures.

The results are not too abundant, but they correlate with observations and hypotheses which were the product of research carried out on a larger scale than that discussed above. In this sense, the excavations reflect and tend to confirm the main features of medieval rural settlement.

Footnotes

1. As a summary of medieval settlement: P. Donat, "Haus, Hof und Dorf" in *Mitteleuropa* vom 7.-12. Jahrhundert. Berlin 1980. The most recent research mainly in: J. Herrmann (ed.), *Die Slawen in Deutschland.* Berlin 1985 (revised edition), also J. Herrmann (ed.) *Archäologie in der Deutschen Demokratische Republik,* Leipzig-Jena-Berlin 1989 (2 vol.) See also H. Brachmann, "Research into the early History of the Slav Populations in the Territory of the German Democratic Republic." In: *Med. Arch.* 27, London 1983, 89-106.

2. As a summary: H. Brachmann, "Slawen an der östlichen Peripherie des fränkischen Reiches. Beobachtungen zum sozialen und ethnischen Ausgleich im Feudalisierungsprozess," In: *Festschrift für B. Babic,* Prilep 1986, 59-65.

3. These investigations are closely connected with the attempt to locate and date documented settlements. They have largely been undertaken by unpaid volunteers and amateurs, who are interested in pre- and protohistory. So far there has not been a summarising acknowledgement of their achievements. Only since the eighties are increased efforts being made to systemise and concentrate research into DMVs more effectively. An inaugural Conference of interested parties was held in Weimar in 1985. The conclusions of this conference have been published in 1986 by the Museum für Urund Frühgeschichte Weimar in Nr. 23 of *Urgeschichte und Heimatforschung* and thus in a place not easily accessible for international research. Research is further impeded by the methodological uncertainties about the definition of the term DMV. While the majority of those interested still only consider those settlements to be DMVs which have documentary evidence attached to them, E. Gringmuth-Dallmer especially has repeatedly argued for a wider interpretation of the term DMV by including under it all deserted settlement during a specific period, e.g. in: "Zum Gegenstand und der Methode der Wüstungsforschung". In: *Urgeschichte und Heimatforschung,* 23, Weimar 1986, 4-15).

4. The institutions mentioned in abbreviated form in the catalogue are: Zentralinstitut für Alte Geschichte und Archäologie der Akademie der Wissenschaften der DDR (ZI AGA) in Berlin; Museum für Ur- und Frühgeschichte Thüringens, Weimar; Landesmuseum für Vorgeschichte, Dresden; Department for Ur- und Frühgeschichte der Ernst-Moritz Arndt-Universität Griefswald; Anthropology Department of the Charité der Humboldt-Universität; Berlin Kreisheimatmuseum Brandenburg.

5. The numbers refer to the sequence in the short catalogue.

6. P. Grimm, *Tilleda, Eine Königspfalz am Kyffhäuser.* Teil I: Die Hauptburg, Berlin 1968, and Teil II: Die Vorburg und Zusammenfassung, Berlin 1990; E. Nickel, "Vorottonische Befestigungen und Siedlungsspuren auf dem Domplatz in Magdeburg," In: *Praehistorische Zeitschrift* 43/44, Berlin (West 1965/66, 237-278).

7. P. Donat (as note 1), 31 ff.

8. P. Donat (as note 1), 83 ff.

Hansjürgen Brachmann (Berlin)
translated by
Katrin Aberg

THE CASTLE OF RIVRAY, CONDE-SUR-HUISNE (ORNE, FRANCE)

(Map I.G.N. 1/25000e 1917, Ouest, Nogent-le -Rotrou, Coord. Lambert I: 491,390 x 1078, 260).

The motte of Rivray à Condé-sur-Huisne is located 2km. north of the village of the same name and 10km. north of the town of Nogent-le-Rotrou (Eure-et-Loire). The site dominates the valley of the Corbionne not far from its junction with that of the Huisne. The fortification is of the "motte and bailey" type, but there may, perhaps, be two baileys. At the foot of the motte, to the north-west, there is an enclosure in the form of an irregular quadrilateral in which there survives a romanesque chapel (12th century). The examination of aerial photographs and the *cadastre ancien* implies the presence to the south east of the motte of a larger bailey at the square, where some surface irregularities suggest probable occupation. This may be a village, perhaps predating the castle motte but then attached to it and dating from the 11th - 15th century, most of which disappeared at the end of the Middle Ages. The current hamlet would, then, be its successor.

The creation of the county of Mortain (called thereafter Perche) in the 12th century provides the historical context. The lords of Nogent — probably descended from the vicomtes of Chateaudun — succeeded in establishing themselves securely on the left bank of the Huisne beyond Nogent (Today Nogent-le-Rotrou) up to Mortain and even a little beyond. Vassals of the counts of Blois and Chartres, they created a lordship which formed a wedge between Normandy and the lordship of Bellême, playing an important political role between these powers. The castle of Rivray shared the fortunes of that of Nogent. In the 11th century, the seigneurs of Rivray accompanied the lords of Nogent on the conquest of England in 1066, and on the first crusade (1095-1099). At the end of the Hundred Years War, the two fortresses were both destroyed during an English offensive (1428). The development of the site seems to have been arrested by this occurrence, and the village of Condé, better sited at the crossroads of the main roads and at the confluence of the two rivers, profited from its difficulties and emerged as locally preeminent.

The excavation at Rivray has the aim of studying the castle as a seigneurial residence and centre of authority, but also as a residential site and village, whose chronology and final demise must be instructive.

The first season, in 1989, had two objectives: to begin the archaeological examination of the site through the summit of the motte, which was immediately accessible, and to study the local microtopography including the architecture of the chapel of St. John the Baptist, with a view to future research. The platform of the motte, today covered with vegetation, had been ploughed at the end of the 19th century, but there is an abundance of medieval material. Beneath the topsoil, a thick layer of demolition material shrouded the remains of a structure, including tiles and carpentry nails. A stone building had existed on the top of the motte, probably a tower of square or rectangular plan, but was, after abandonment, quarried for stone. A wooden structure had preceded construction in stone: some pot sherds and slight traces of wood were recorded but insufficient to establish a plan or propose a date. The motte itself seemed to have a profile in two stages corresponding to the two kinds of building revealed by the dig; it had been reinforced and enlarged when the stone tower was constructed. To judge by the number and variety of artifacts recovered, occupation was long and intense: it could be dated provisionally from the 12th to the 15th centuries. The traditional date of its destruction (1428) was confirmed by coins. Some gaming pieces suggest a travelling set with aristocratic pretensions.

An architectural study of the chapel of St. John the Baptist is in hand. It is a building of the Romanesque period, rectangular in plan, on two levels: a lower chapel, part underground, comprises 4 pointed vaults supported by plain semi-circular arches; 8 arches engage with the walls and 4 also rest on a central pillar of cruciform plan. The higher chapel is entirely wooden. Despite several archaic features (a stone statue, jointing, walls thicker in the higher chapel than in the crypt, numerous graffiti, marks of stains, etc.), it seems that this chapel can not be dated earlier than the 12th century, but only an excavation will provide a more precise chronology. The dedication to St. John the Baptist poses problems concerning the origins and dependence of this place of worship.

The next season will continue excavation on the top of the motte and begin research in the small bailey near to the chapel.

Joseph Decaens
(Paraphrased and précised by the editor)

RESEARCH ON THE MEDIEVAL POTTERY INDUSTRY: HAUTE-CHAPELLE (La) (Orne)

Commercial digging in the commune of la Haute-Chapelle, around some ditches, for potting clay, have caused several production sites of *grès* and/or *protogrès* to be uncovered. Two among them, sited in the hamlets of la Picaudière (where documentary evidence notes potting activity in the middle of the 14th century) and of la Goulande, were the subjects of excavations undertaken late in May and in mid August, 1989, under the direction of **Bruno Fajal.** Anyone wishing to have sight of his interim reports should contact the editor. M. Fajal's excavations have done much to shed light on a neglected area of ceramic production, which has been overshadowed by better known production centred on Germany.

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Compiled by **Christopher Dyer**

This is compiled according to principles set out in previous reports. The compiler is still pleased to receive news of items omitted for future issues. The date of publication is 1989, but works dated earlier are included, either because they were not actually published until 1989, or because they escaped the compiler's notice.

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BOOK REVIEW

The Deserted Medieval Village of Thrislington, County Durham Excavations 1973-1974 David Austin (The Society of Medieval Archaeology Monograph Series: No. 12, 1989, xi + 211 pp, £20.00).

This is the report of an excavation undertaken in 1973-74 in advance of limestone quarrying. The structures excavated were, in brief: a chapel, probably Norman in origin, modified in the thirteenth/early fourteenth century and falling into disuse in the late fourteenth or early fifteenth century; a cellared barn, possibly late twelfth/early thirteenth century and lasting until the later thirteenth/early fourteenth century; a manor house, possibly having a Saxo-Norman precursor but with the earliest recognisable structures dating from the twelfth century, and alterations and extensions down to the first half of the fourteenth century, after which it was abandoned and two lime kilns were inserted into it; three toft buildings, all showing an origin in the thirteenth century but two having a desertion date in the early fifteenth century and the third probably in the sixteenth century. In addition, a number of boundaries within the village were examined.

Perhaps the most significant part of this report is the conclusions where David Austin uses the excavation at Thrislington as a basis for the discussion of wider issues of medieval villages such as population, the complexity of kin-relationships within the village and under each roof, and the economic and social environments of the inhabitants.

The excavation was very much a child of its time, when so much rescue excavation was taking place at very short notice and being hurriedly executed. Interpretation and dating of the very limited excavation at Thrislington are often as tentative as one would expect of a site with little vertical stratigraphy, with no known kiln site for its medieval wares or safely-dated comparable material in the area, and where, with hindsight, different strategies might have been employed. Consequently, there is a deal of bet-hedging throughout the report but the evidence, or lack of it, is always presented honestly with clear statements of all errors and omissions. There is, however, the attendant danger than interpretations which are given in the text as tentative can appear much more definitive in plan (for example the sequence of development of the manor house shown in Fig. 14) and are likely to become part of the received wisdom.

Although the report is exemplary, as also was the conduct of the excavation itself, the very limited nature of both excavation and interpretation might make one wonder whether the work really justified publication in a national monograph series.

There are few typographical errors in the text, but the caption to D on Plate iv is incorrect, and one context is unnumbered in Fig. 7.

David Wilson

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A list of Founder Members, with their addresses, was published in **Report** No. 2 (1987) and subsequent changes in the membership in **Report** No. 3 (1988). Listed below are changes recorded in 1989. Members are asked to send any corrections, further changes etc., to the Hon. Treasurer, Dr. R.E. Glasscock (Department of Geography, Downing Place, Cambridge CB2 3EN) who maintains the membership records.

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R.L. WEEDON,
C/O DEPT. OF ENGLISH LOCAL HISTORY,
5 SALISBURY ROAD,
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Deceased

A. Hilditch (Ashby de la Launde)
E.W. Holden (Steyning) Honorary Member
D.J.C. King (Clevedon)

Resignations

Prof. A.G. Crocker (Guildford)
Mrs. S.A. Harrop (Southport)
Ms. M. Kennedy (Dublin)
Dr. E. Talbot (Brecon)
A.M.A. Woods (Welford-on-Avon)

Changes of address

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C.A.D.W.,
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Cardiff CF2 1UY.

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M.J. Stone,
4 Howard Drive, Letchworth, Herts. SG6 2BW.

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Historic Resources Centre,
75 Hyde Street,
Winchester SO23 7DW.

M.S.R.G. STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT, 1.1.1989 — 22.12.1989

INCOME			EXPENDITURE		
Subscriptions			**Report**		
by cheque/cash	967.00		No. 2 (2nd payment)	768.00	
	1362.00	2329.00	No. 3	1480.00	2248.00
Donations		112.00	**C.B.A. Affiliation Fee**		40.00
Grant			**Postage/Stationery**		496.97
British Academy		1000.00			
Sales		425.10	**Secretarial Expenses**		18.27
Transfer from M.V.R.G.		484.54	**Secretarial help**		182.00
Fees		15.00	**Birkbeck College** (fee for room)		11.00
			Refunds of Subs. paid in error		59.25
			Aerial Photograph		5.40
			Seminar Expenses		27.00
			Unpaid Cheque		5.00
			To National Savings Investment Account		2500.00
In Bank 1.1.89		1718.15	**In Bank** 22.12.89		490.90
HBMC Grants for Excavation (Wharram Percy)		53892.00	**Excavation and Post-Excavation** (Wharram Percy)		53892.00
		£59975.79			£59975.79

R.E. GLASSCOCK (Hon. Treasurer)

Audited and found correct when read in conjunction with the National Savings Account.
C.M.P. JOHNSON (Hon. Auditor) 25.3.1990

National Savings Investment Account (as at 16.1.1990)

As at 31.12.1988	6414.92
Transferred from M.S.R.G. Account	2500.00
Interest 1989	914.76
	£9829.68

Acknowledgement

The Group is again grateful to Dr. C.M.P. Johnson, Senior Bursar, St. John's College, Cambridge, for auditing the annual statement.