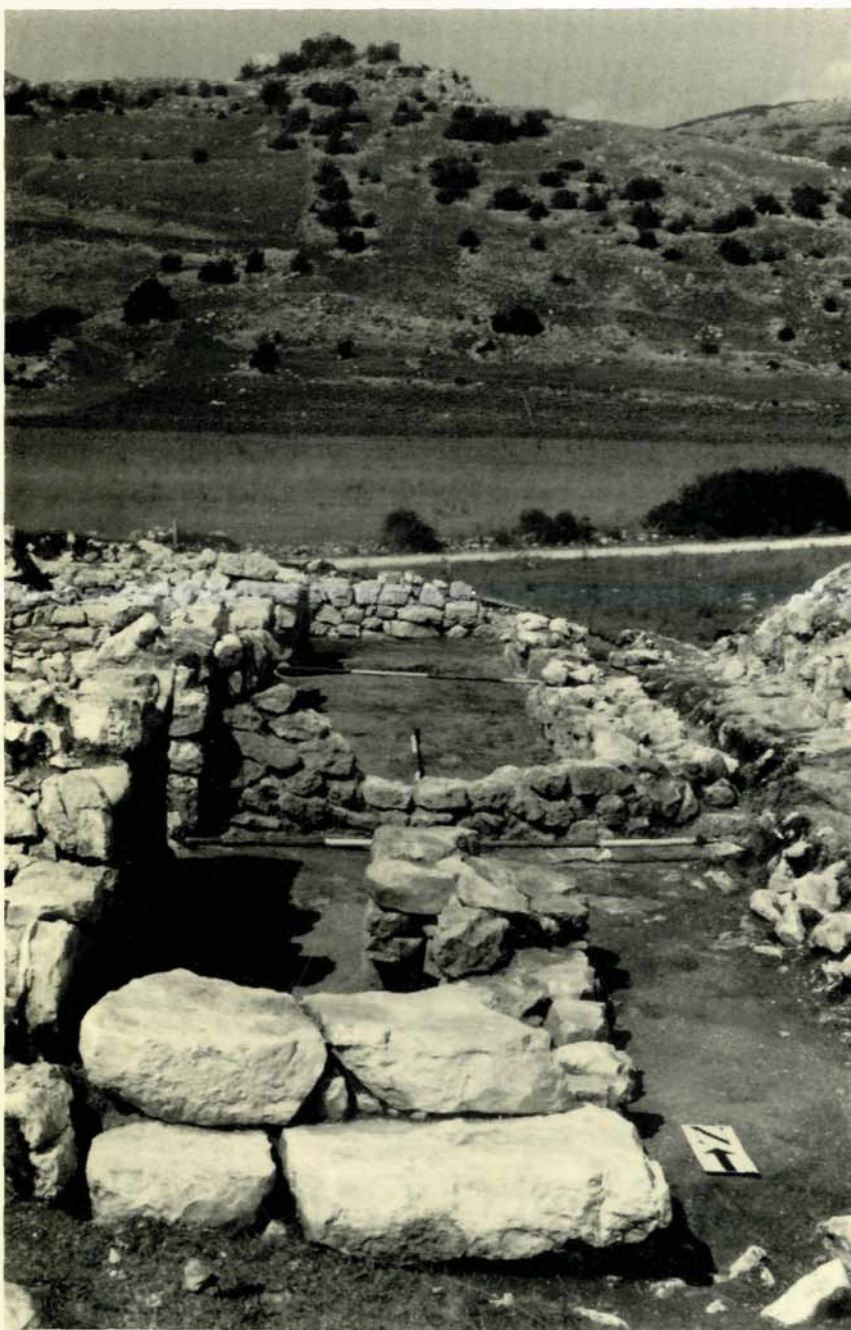


Medieval Settlement Research Group



Annual
Report
8
1993

Medieval Settlement Research Group

Annual Report 8 1993

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AN EDITORIAL COMMENT

I am pleased to be able to present the eighth Annual Report of the M.S.R.G. for 1993 to the members of the Group. This volume is rather longer than the seventh report and includes a summary of the Spring 1994 conference at Oxford, as well as the normal mixture of notices concerning work recently undertaken, short articles and reviews.

Like Reports Nos. 3,4,5,6 and 7, this volume has been printed by Silk & Terry Ltd. of Birmingham. My grateful thanks to Michael Silk for his professional advice and all the work undertaken by himself and his colleagues.

The Annual Report is the mouthpiece of the Group. It exists to foster the areas of research which are of central interest to its members, to facilitate the exchange of views and to disseminate information. Its contents are limited to what the editor receives. I would like to take this opportunity to urge members (and non-members) to send in their contributions for Volume 9. In particular, the Annual Report requires short reports on work undertaken in 1994 (or even earlier if unreported to date) and brief articles or comments on any aspect of medieval settlement which you would like to share with other members. Let us try to keep the Annual Report as relevant, up-to-date, inclusive and stimulating as possible.

I shall be resigning as Editor of the Annual Report at the end of 1994: although I have much enjoyed producing the last six volumes and initiating various new developments in its design and contents I feel that I am now getting a little stale and so the time has come to take a back seat and hand over to a fresh editor. I would also like to take this opportunity to thank all the many contributors to those volumes and the officers and committee members of the Group for their unstinting and friendly support.

Pending the appointment of a new editor, I shall be quite happy to continue to accept correspondence and contributions for the 9th Annual Report, for which contributions please by the end of April, 1995.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The Annual General Meeting will be held on Saturday, 10 December, at Dept of Geography, Birkbeck College, London. The theme of the Seminar will be Rural Medieval Buildings.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE:1995

There will be a one day seminar on 25th March, 1995 at the British Museum held jointly with the Society for Medieval Archaeology on "Current Priorities for the Archaeology of Medieval Rural Settlement"

GENERAL NOTICES

RESEARCH GRANTS

The Group has some limited resources for the support of research by members of the Group within its field of interest. Small grants are available annually up to a maximum of £500 for projects relating to medieval settlement. Preference will normally be given to field survey, documentary research and the preparation of graphics rather than to excavation and the preparation of reports for publication. A summary report of the work will be required within a year and, subject to editorial consideration, may be published in the *Annual Report*.

APPLICATIONS

There is no special form. Applicants should apply by letter (4 copies) summarising the proposed research and the costs involved. Mention should be made of other applications for funding. The names of two referees should be included. Letters should be addressed to the Treasurer (Dr.R.E.Glasscock, Department of Geography, Downing Place, Cambridge, CB2 3EN) to reach him by 1st August in the year preceding that in which work will be carried out. Applicants will normally be notified of the outcome in December.

CONFERENCE: PRAGUE 1995.

In 1992 the Medieval Europe conference at York included one section for Medieval Rural Settlement, and at the closing session participants voiced the feeling that an international forum was needed for the subject. National meetings it was agreed rarely include a large number of foreign speakers because of the cost, but the York meeting demonstrated the strength of research on medieval rural settlement in many countries. The hope was expressed that the section might hold a meeting before, but independent of, the next Medieval Europe conference.

A meeting of 10 members of the York section was held in Luxembourg on June 16th, 1994 and it was agreed to accept an offer from the Archaeological Academy, Prague, to host a meeting from August 11th-15th 1995. The conference would be concerned with and request papers on the theme of 'The European Village between the Early and High Middle Ages'. Anyone wishing to contribute a paper, or participate, is requested to write to Alan Aberg, 29 Pine Walk, Liss GU33 7AT, Hampshire, England, with title and abstract.

CORRIGENDA

On page 51 of Annual Report 7 (1992), line 25 of the second column should read: '... the English landscape as I had begun to know it from the ...' My apologies to both Robin Glasscock and Maurice Beresford for the unintentional but quite incongruous substitution of 'Language' for 'landscape'. My apologies to Robin also for the inadvertent assumption that this short article should be entitled an obituary, which was not his intention.

The Leicester AGM and Conference on Seasonal Settlement

by H.S.A. Fox and Jonathan Kissock

On the afternoon of Saturday 4 December, 1993, the Group's members gathered in the seminar room of Marc Fitch House, home of the University of Leicester's Department of English Local History for a mini-conference on the theme of seasonal settlement. The morning had been devoted to the Group's annual general meeting, the two business and academic discussions being separated by an excellent lunch.

The first paper was given by Peter Herring, of the Cornwall Archaeological Unit, who took transhumance in medieval Cornwall as his theme. He proposed that transhumance led to the fracturing of communities and/or families (so dividing friends, kin and lovers) and was therefore something that was not undertaken lightly. It was argued that transhumance had taken place on Bodmin Moor in the pre-Conquest period and perhaps in Roman and prehistoric times too. The distances between the seasonal and permanent settlements were small: a maximum of ten miles was conjectured. The place-name evidence of *havos* and *hendre* was reviewed along with the archaeological material. Small sub-rectangular buildings, suitable for one or two people, were thought to be characteristic of transhumance settlements. These buildings formed loose groups and sometimes stood alongside stock pens. It was argued that transhumance had two functions. First, it took livestock away from the unenclosed open fields when crops were standing unprotected and, second, it ensured that all resources, including upland grass, were fully utilised. Herring concluded with an examination of the social structures which organised the process by managing landscape, determining stocking limits and ensuring that each of the eastern hundreds of Cornwall retained some land on the Moor and some on the coast. It was argued that various levels of society were involved, such as household, hamlet and hundred.

Christopher Dyer, of the School of History, University of Birmingham, examined seigneurial sheepcotes in the Cotswolds. These structures, used by both people and animals, are a frequently found form of dispersed settlement in what is, in the main, a region where nucleations predominate. These buildings were "cigar shaped" and exceeded forty metres in length. Examples are known from DMV sites where they post-date the village and when excavated provide thirteenth- and fourteenth-century material. It appears from documentary sources that sheep were housed in these *bercaria* from mid-November to Easter and that the number of sheep in each cote might have been as high as three hundred. Shepherds lived with their flocks, perhaps in the lofts above the cotes. The cotes stood amidst the upland pastures, whereas the principal settlements, the churches and the arable fields occupied the valley bottoms and sides. The sheepcotes were presented as winter shelters in these areas; pens and paddocks here suggest the use of the upland in summer too. Hence there must have been

complex movements of sheep, shepherds and stores from place to place in the Cotswold pastures.

Mary Higham, very kindly standing in at short notice, reconsidered the *-aergi* names of the North West and was concerned to determine whether or not they were sheilings. The place-name probably had a Norse origin, but is likely to have been introduced from Ireland. Many of the names are found on what are, in local terms, good soils and are usually below 200'. It was argued that these places were established before the Norse settlement and that names indicate "take-over" rather than origin. The notion of diurnal movement was introduced with the idea that plough-beasts were moved daily; movement out to pasture lands took place when the arable was under cultivation, the cattle returning at night.

Harold Fox, from the host institution, spoke on the fishing settlements of Devon. He took a retrogressive approach and began with an examination of fully-fledged fishing settlements as described in trade directories. Many of the settlements which he described were not parish or manorial centres nor did they have "old" names; it was proposed that they originated as permanently settled sites in the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries and had humble origins as seasonally used collections of huts on the beach. These coastal, seasonal sites had a characteristic morphology and nature; they seem to have been used for the storage of fishing equipment belonging to inland communities. In the fourteenth century the shore was being exploited for sand, sea birds, fish and shell-fish, yet there was no regular settlement there. Gradually these sites became permanently occupied, transition taking place at a range of dates from the late fifteenth century to the late sixteenth. Various reasons for this change were proposed, including climatic alteration, changes in fishing technology, an increased demand for fish and growing population leading to a more sophisticated division of labour.

Among matters raised in the general discussion following the papers were issues of the definition of transhumance, the archaeological evidence for it and the sexual division of labour which was sometimes involved. The term "transhumance" often conjures up images of European (especially Alpine) movements of communities and animals over great distances and altitudes. Does distance, therefore, define transhumance? Some members of the audience argued that it does not; that what is diagnostic is the removal of some members of a community, along with some animals to a new summer site, so that the relative proximity of parent and daughter settlements, as in some of Peter Herring's examples, does not rule out use of the term. Does the nature of occupation define transhumance? Almost certainly it does, so that diurnal (or even nocturnal) movement to the *-aergi* settlements discussed by Mary Higham, or to Harold Fox's coastal settlements in their uninhabited phase cannot strictly be classified as

transhumance. Clearly, then, some distinction needs to be made between seasonally *used* settlements on the one hand and, on the other, seasonally *inhabited* settlements.

As for evidence, place-names seem almost certainly to point to transhumance in parts of England at an early period, while for some regions of Great Britain there is excellent documentary and anecdotal evidence for survival of the practice into the nineteenth century. The archaeological evidence is more problematic and members of the audience rightly raised the question: what assemblages of artefacts can be taken to define a seasonally used site? Finally, the personnel involved in transhumance aroused much interest in the discussion. In the case of Christopher Dyer's shepherds guarding their (sometimes remote) sheepcotes, transhumance was in the male domain, but Peter Herring liked to think that his seasonally used settlements on Bodmin Moor were looked after by young milkmaids, as evidenced in other parts of Britain in the nineteenth century. The question needs more research, and will probably be resolved by the suggestion that the composition of the personnel involved in these movements varied according to the types of animal which were being moved to the seasonal settlement.

MSRG: Annual Conference at Oxford 11th-13th February 1994: MEDIEVAL RURAL SETTLEMENT AND TOWNS

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

M. W. Beresford: *New Towns* (1967): an inquest

The new towns and bastides of England, Wales and Gascony had been visited by Professor Beresford in the years 1954-62, with the aid of a succession of drivers and companions, some of whom were present at the conference. They had had various colourful encounters with French farmers, Austrian policeman etc. in the course of tracking down continental bastides. This desire to inspect the sites represented one difference between English and French scholars' approach to new towns, as at that time the French historians had adopted a more theoretical and document-based line of research. Recent publications on bastides show that now French architectural historians at least are now increasingly becoming interested in the physical evidence of the bastides.

The title page of the book that resulted from these expeditions, *New Towns of the Middle Ages*, published in 1967, contained a quotation from Maitland about the 'darkness' of the history of boroughs. Urban history had not been part of the curriculum at Cambridge in the author's undergraduate days, so he had taught himself, and was able to convey in his writings of the *New Towns* the freshness of his own discoveries. His main concern had been to show that new towns were indeed very numerous, and to establish the deliberate nature of their foundation. Others had subsequently developed studies which he had not emphasised, such as the relationship between town and country, and the microtopography of the lay out of streets and plots. Researchers had extended the discovery of new towns into Ireland and Scotland.

Beresford had visited sites in Switzerland and Germany, but had not included them in the book. An especially wide distribution of new towns has now been revealed in eastern Germany and Poland, where they formed part of the eastern colonization of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

Christopher Dyer: Towns and villages in the middle ages: how do you tell the difference?

This paper dealt with the definition and classification of settlements of debatable status in the period 1100-1400, and offered a conclusion also for the period before 1100.

Definition receives little help from contemporary terminology, as medieval people used the words 'vill' and 'town' without differentiating between urban and rural settlements. In our attempts to distinguish between towns and villages we can use three approaches:

1. Institutional. Towns were often accorded a distinctive legal status as boroughs, meaning that burgesses held land by burgage tenure, the main characteristics of which were a standard money rent (often 12d.) and free disposal of the burgage plot. Beresford and Finberg have listed 640 boroughs, and these provide a starting point for identifying towns.

2. Social and economic. With unusual unanimity historians are agreed that a town could be identified as a relatively large, dense and permanent settlement, the inhabitants of which pursued a variety of non-agricultural occupations.

Populations and numbers of occupations help to define an urban hierarchy, from a metropolis such as London with 80,000 people before the Black Death and more than 200 occupations, through regional capitals and provincial towns to market towns, which could have a population as small as 300, with only around 15 different occupations. The hinterlands and functions varied with the ranking of towns in the hierarchy.

3. Physical. Towns tended to have more closely packed houses, which were more likely (at least in the western part of the country) to include buildings of two or more storeys. Archaeologists regarded deep and stratified deposits and a large number of rubbish pits as characteristic features of urban sites.

Many places, according to these approaches, can be easily classified as towns or rural settlements. At least 100 of the 640 boroughs never achieved urbanization, or became towns only temporarily. More than 100 places were clearly towns, but were not given borough status. Some places look like towns in their plan, but are not known to have met the institutional or economic characteristics.

Many hundreds of places, however, can clearly be regarded as towns according to all three tests. They would include not just the larger provincial towns, but also many lesser market towns – places (to take Oxfordshire examples) such as Woodstock, Witney, Thame and Henley-on-Thames. Similarly there are thousands of rural settlements with no ambiguity of status. Lists of occupations (found in the surnames of the thirteenth century) and the occupational descriptions in the 1379 and 1380 poll taxes and the 1522 musters show many villages to have had an entirely agricultural population, or no more than a single smith.

There is a grey area between these two groups of readily identified settlements, which can be sorted into 10 types:

1. Boroughs which failed. A borough which did not succeed, in its decline took on more village-like characteristics. At what point did it cease to be a town? An example is Stogursey in Somerset, with 60 burgages in 1301, but no market by 1559.

2. Boroughs and towns with important land holdings. We do not need to worry about large places such as Cambridge where the town had fields, but the main living of the inhabitants came from trade and crafts. In smaller places, though, such as Shipston-on-Stour (Warwickshire), Chipping Barnet (Hertfordshire) and Lutterworth (Leicestershire) the size of the holdings of many inhabitants leads us to doubt the 'non-agricultural' nature of their occupations.

3. Groups of burgage tenements, or town-like communities embedded in large villages. At places like Dasset Southend, also known as Chipping Dasset (Warwickshire) and Mildenhall (Suffolk), tenements held by craftsmen and traders next to market places were located in large peasant communities. Although these enclaves resemble small towns, the whole settlement had a predominant peasant character.
4. Towns which were not boroughs. There were many towns which lacked borough institutions. They are not very numerous in the west – although Rugby is an example in Warwickshire – but are common in Norfolk and Suffolk, and generally in the eastern part of the country. In the case of such towns as Westminster or Wymondham there is no doubt as to their urban character but we cannot be sure in the case of small settlements like Saxmundham (Suffolk).
5. Suburban villages. Many towns had satellite villages, for example on the ends of bridges like Bridgetown at Stratford-upon-Avon, or on the outskirts, like Stepney in London, where there were often concentrations of cottagers living on wages earned in the town, pursuing some craft or trade, or practising horticulture.
6. Villages with chartered markets. Well over a thousand market charters were granted in the thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries to places which appear to have been villages. Some (e.g. Napton-on-the-Hill, Warwickshire) had resident traders and craftsmen, though in too small a number to regard the village as urbanized.
7. Villages with unchartered markets. Some villages, like Chaddesley Corbett in Worcestershire, are known from documents to have had concentrations of sellers of ale and other goods and services, and indeed to have an apparent market place incorporated into their plan.
8. Open villages. Modern social historians identify open villages – those with shops and a range of occupations, not under the control of a resident squire. Analysis of occupations reveals similar settlements in the medieval period, like Sible Hedingham in Essex.
9. Industrial villages. Some villages involved in some single industry were clearly non-agricultural in their economy, but as the inhabitants were employed as weavers or miners or fisherman they cannot be described as pursuing a *variety* of occupations. However, sometimes the presence of the industrial activity attracted traders and the settlement began to take on a more urban character. Examples of industrial villages include Castle Combe in Wiltshire and Little Waldingfield in Suffolk.
10. Small commercial centres in areas of dispersed settlements. In areas of dispersed settlement, such as the Chilterns or north Worcestershire, the only nucleated settlements were the market villages or market towns. Sometimes a small settlement took on a commercial role, often by providing food and drink and other services to travellers on main roads. Examples are Knowle in Hampton-in-Arden in Warwickshire (described in the early sixteenth

century as a hamlet and a market town), and Redditch in Worcestershire.

On the coast there were many small ports where there were similar informal trading activities.

Only types 2 and 4 are likely to include many places that can be called towns. The rest are species of village, and demonstrate the extent to which in the thirteenth century and after commercial influences had penetrated into the countryside.

In earlier periods we lack much evidence for occupations. Domesday records more than 100 *burhs*, most of which are good candidates for towns, but the survey omitted some large towns like Bristol, let alone the smaller places. It seems inconceivable that counties such as Warwickshire and Derbyshire were served by only one marketing centre as Domesday seems to imply – in each case the shire town. Many places of administrative and ecclesiastical importance – estate centres, royal tuns, minster churches etc., which attracted people to pay rents, or attend courts or religious services, also provided centres of exchange and sometimes specialized industries. Some of these places were given an official market grant or borough status in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, formalizing and stimulating an existing function.

Towns and villages grew up together in the period 850-1200. The towns were not grafted on to an existing pattern of village settlements. The formation of nucleated villages and smaller towns came from the same stimuli of growing markets, and an increase in administrative and social complexity.

David Palliser: Towns and Villages in Yorkshire: a Sharp Divide or a Continuum?

The title of this paper was borrowed from E. A. Wrigley's stimulating paper given to the Anglo-American Conference of Historians in 1990 (and published in *Historical Research* in June 1991); the subject-matter derives from current research by the speaker into the medieval towns of Yorkshire, and from some broader thoughts on English medieval settlement which he aired in a preliminary form at the *Medieval Europe 1992* Conference in York. The planting and planning of rural and urban settlements in medieval England are usually studied separately, but it may be more fruitful to study both together.

C. C. Taylor and B. K. Roberts have both suggested that many villages and towns share the same period of creation and/or planning, and the same planning principles; this paper was a progress report on an attempt to apply these insights at a county level. In any case it is much too simplified to divide settlements into 'villages' and 'towns'; not only are there problems of definition (legal status, economic definitions, etc.) and of a grey area at any level of definition, but also places could be 'urban' in one sense but not in another (e.g. having a market and/or burgage tenure but no self-government and little non-agriculture economic specialisation), or could move into or out of any 'urban' category, however defined, over a longer period.

Pre-1974 Yorkshire, more than twice the size of any other historic county, was much more populous even in the middle ages than used to be thought, and generated a large

number of towns. Many admittedly were small, but 5 of the 37 wealthiest English towns in 1334 were in Yorkshire – York, Beverley, Hull, Scarborough and, more surprisingly, Cottingham. Most seem to have become urban in the period between The Conquest and Black Death in the pattern made familiar by Beresford in his *New Towns*, though Domesday Book is a very inadequate record of urbanisation in the county, omitting any urban characteristics from some important places which were probably already towns, including Beverley, Ripon, and perhaps Leeds. Following Beresford's pioneering discussion of the New Towns of the Humber estuary and its tributaries, Palliser discussed towns sponsored by two of the great Yorkshire landholders with interests in waterborne trade. Foundations of boroughs and market towns by the archbishops of York included Beverley, Brough-upon-Humber, Patrington, Sherburn-in-Elmet and Cawood; those of the Counts of Aumale, lords of Holderness, were at Skipsea, Hedon and Ravenserodd. These and other examples were drawn on to indicate a wide range of Yorkshire 'towns', some more unquestionably urban than others, and many of them planned rather than 'organic'.

Yorkshire is a county where many rural settlements were clearly planned. A classic example is the Pickering area, where Allerston identified 18 out of 29 adjacent villages as planned, a figure revised upwards by Taylor to 23 or perhaps 25. The planned villages of Yorkshire, as of County Durham, are often attributed to a single historical event, the Harrying of the North in 1069-70, but there is now good reason to doubt this, and instead to see the nucleation and planning of most Yorkshire villages, as in other areas, as a broader process over a longer period of time (D. M. Palliser, 'Domesday Book and the Harrying of the North', *Northern History* 29, (1993), 1-23). Furthermore, many of these planned Yorkshire villages have layouts little different from the smaller towns of the county, and it is likely that we should envisage a common period (of say the 9th to 13th centuries) of the creation and planning of nucleated settlements, both 'towns' and 'villages'. The small towns are often exactly the same in plan as the planned villages, frequently either a single street with parallel back lanes, a cross-roads settlement, or a street or streets surrounding a green/market-place.

The larger towns naturally have more complex plans, but these can usually be broken down into plan-units which can be compared to simple village plans. Even the apparently straightforward grid plan of Hedon has been shown by T. R. Slater to have been a composite plan developed over more than one period, and thus parallels the better-studied Ludlow. The much larger city of York has such a complex plan that it is still not fully understood, but there it is now possible to distinguish at least three major plan-units within the walls: (a) the legionary fortress, with a high degree of survival of the Roman street-pattern; (b) the commercial Viking area of Coppergate/Ousegate/Pavement, apparently laid out in very regular form c 910; and (c) the former Roman *colonia*, possibly also replanned in grid form in the 10th century. There is some evidence that York was polyfocal rather than composite – an accretion of several separate communities – which would make a parallel with some of the larger Yorkshire villages of polyfocal form.

Finally, towns and villages have planning similarities at the level of individual properties (tofts, burgages) as well as of overall street plan. In both, there seems often to have been careful laying out of regular property boundaries, usually in multiples or fractions of a perch. However, the detailed analysis of Sheppard (*Agric. Hist. Rev.* 22, (1974), 118-35) suggests that the usual module in villages was a customary perch, usually of 18 or sometimes 20 feet; whereas the so far limited work on the larger towns agrees with Slater's observation that the nationwide statute perch of 16'6" was the standard, at least after the Norman Conquest; the evidence for modules in Viking York is less clear-cut, and it may be one more scrap of evidence for a situation before 1066 of carefully planned West Saxon towns and more loosely-planned towns in the Danelaw..

Glenn Foard: Small Towns or Large Villages? Urban Development in Northamptonshire

This paper compared urban and rural settlement in Northamptonshire, starting from the simple proposition that 'all towns were villages but only a few villages were towns'. Towns, even the most major, were seen to retain an agricultural element to their economy, and the further one moved down the scale of urban development the greater the proportion of agricultural to non-agricultural tenements. This is why the distinction between small town and large village is so difficult to draw. Various markers used in the past to distinguish towns were examined. Some, such as mints, parliamentary representation and multiple parishes, although relevant at the higher levels of urbanisation, were seen to have limited value in distinguishing small town from village. Regular plan form, for example, was seen in many if not most Medieval villages as well as in the towns of Northamptonshire, and so was not a useful guide. The presence of a market place was a key marker of urban function, but plan form alone was not sufficient to indicate the presence of a market place. Some attributes, such as the presence of a castle or of monastic foundations, simply reflected the power and wealth of the lord of the manor and of other residents in a settlement – hence they were also found in wholly rural settlements.

Major towns could be clearly distinguished by their population and wealth, as recorded for example in national taxation documents. However, at the lower end of the urban scale, rural settlements on the best agricultural land could be much larger and wealthier than small towns. The division between those employed in agriculture and those making their living from other means must be a key issue in distinguishing town and village. However, in almost every settlement there were specialists providing goods and services who were not involved in agriculture. At important estate centres there might be a significant number of these, supported on the surpluses generated from the various manors in the estate. Moreover, as the market economy penetrated the rural economy there were increasing numbers involved in rurally based industrial production, including in Northamptonshire pottery, iron, charcoal and cloth production. Commercial activity, another important urban activity, might also be found in a rural context, most notably with rural fairs.

The one thing that a rural settlement could not provide was regular, daily or weekly commercial exchange. Even where a merchant conducted his trade outside the formal marketing network of fairs and markets, he would typically be found to reside at a marketing centre and the wealth thus generated by his trade would return, in part, to the town. The economic imperatives were, of course, reinforced during the Medieval period by the strict regulation of trade to bring it within the market framework, where the market owners could tax that trade. Hence the one attribute which provided a consistent indicator in the analysis of urbanisation was the absence of a market. It was not the presence of a market which identified a town, but rather the absence of a market which proved a village was not a town.

The regulation of markets by the high Medieval period meant that most if not all market centres could be identified from documentary sources – in Northamptonshire on current estimates 44 places were recognised as market settlements. Some market settlements failed to develop into towns, or were killed off fairly quickly by the intensive competition of the high Medieval period. Success in urbanisation was indicated, to a degree, by the number of tradesmen resident in a settlement, but the documentary evidence was not adequate in most cases to enable such analysis. The only effective and widely available data was that from the national taxations. Particularly useful for Northamptonshire were the 1301, 1334 and 1377 taxations. To correct for the underlying agricultural element of wealth and population, account had to be taken of the acreage of the land unit being taxed. When this was done the successful towns were clearly distinguished from all other settlements. It was where the market settlement depended purely upon very local exchange that the greatest problems arose, because that proportion of its wealth that was derived from urban activities was relatively small and so difficult to distinguish from that derived from agriculture. Many of the market settlements were seen to vary little, in this analysis, from the mainstream of agricultural settlements. The addition of other variables to correct for the quality of agricultural land in a township, as recognised by geological or soil surveys, might assist in further distinguishing the urban from the non-urban. Even without this further analysis it seemed very likely that many of the market settlements did not develop into urban settlements and retained an almost purely agricultural economic basis. The economic shake-out caused by the famines and then the plagues of the 14th century led to just a handful of the market settlements surviving into the post Medieval period, and these were seen to be those which had stood out in the 14th century taxation analysis.

A brief examination was then made of the character and layout of several of the successful small towns in Northamptonshire compared to several agricultural settlements. This was achieved by using the exceptionally detailed documentary information available for the Peterborough Abbey estates, which allowed reconstruction of town and village plans and tenurial patterns, at the end of the 14th century.

Finally, it was argued that the preceding documentary analysis should be used, together with evidence on likely

archaeological potential, to select a representative sample of the market settlements, large and small, for long term management and study. The paper ended with a brief consideration of the way in which long term management priorities for the archaeology of those settlements might be determined, because it was argued that only through archaeological study could the true degree and character of urbanisation be determined.

John Blair: Field Trip to Bampton and Witney

The visit to Bampton and Witney on the Saturday afternoon was designed to illustrate contrasting types of small town. Bampton was an Anglo-Saxon minster, whose large oval enclosure and complex ecclesiastical topography were a major influence on the town plan. The triangular market-place is clearly an addition to the nucleus around the church, which had developed by the early fourteenth century as a cluster of cottage tenements. In the later middle ages Bampton was a primarily agrarian settlement, its distinctive local status based mainly on an hierarchical importance inherited from the past. Witney was by contrast a new planned town of c. 1150-1200, built on the fringe of the Bampton territory and destined, with Burford, to assume much of Bampton's early economic role. The northwards expansion of Witney in the early thirteenth century can be traced in the Winchester Pipe Rolls. Across the Windrush in the neighbouring lordship of Cogges, a small planned town ('Newland') was laid out in 1212/13, stimulated by the development of Witney and the expansion of the cloth industry in the lower Windrush valley.

T. R. Slater: Town Plans and Village Plans: How Different?

There are few comprehensive settlement plan studies even for a single English county and it is therefore not easy to answer the question posed in the paper's title. My own feeling, based on two decades of research on mostly urban settlement plans, is that there are distinctive differences in the plans of rural and urban settlements in the medieval period and that these are still distinguishable today, even when small towns have reverted to village status and large villages have become urbanized.



Figure 1: Madeley – a failed new town of the 14th Century

This paper took the county of Staffordshire as its main focus and used my previous work on the medieval urban hierarchy in that county¹ as the basis for an examination of the settlement plans of that group of places. There are distinctive groups of plans. At the bottom of the hierarchy is Madeley (Fig. 1). For Brian Roberts this would be a regular one-row village with a relict triangular green at the south end. It is an unusual and distinctive plan for a Staffordshire village and the reason is that its form reflects its origins as a late-founded, new-planned town which totally failed to succeed economically. It was founded by Ralph de Stafford in 1341 as a market.² There has, quite rightly, been a tendency in the past twenty years to play down the legal status of borough charters and market charters as measures of urbanism in favour of socio-economic measures. But when the plans of settlements are examined, there are almost always distinctive differences between those places where lords aspired to establish a new town in the twelfth or thirteenth century through the due legal process of obtaining market and borough charters, and those places without such charters, whether or not the town-founding was ultimately successful or not.

The key characteristic of the borough charter was that it established burgage tenure of land and it was this that helped attract migrants to the new town. Burgage tenure could be granted to existing plot holders in an existing settlement but, more usually, it resulted in the laying out of new plots. These could either be at a place where previously there had been no settlement at all, as the medieval new towns studied by Maurice Beresford,³ or they could form a new plan unit of a settlement where the socio-economic characteristics of incipient urbanism had already encouraged the lord in what was always a speculative venture.

A common preliminary to the borough charter was often to obtain a market charter. In most counties in the western half of England there are usually as many medieval settlements which have market charters only, as have market and borough charters. However, an examination of the plans of all these so-called "market villages" in Staffordshire⁴ shows that only Madeley has any evidence for regularly laid-out tenement plots. Indeed, in most it is difficult to suggest even a location for the market. Certainly, there are no spacious market places of the kind that characterise successful towns.

By contrast, even the tiniest boroughs have urban plan characteristics, though they may never have become properly urban in the socio-economic sense. Thus, the regular row of tenements at Madeley is in fact, a relict burgage series and the triangular green a relict market place, though at Madeley the lord never went on to get a borough charter, since the Black Death intervened. A similar place at the bottom of the hierarchy of Staffordshire boroughs is Church Eaton. This is a regular, two-row street village of picturesque timber-framed houses today but it, too, was a new-founded borough in 1251 and the present village houses occupy the planned burgage tenements.⁵ It is interesting to note that, even in the late nineteenth century, Church Eaton was no ordinary small village since it had four inns and a grammar school, a post office and a police station. In other words it was

still a "central place" of some substance for the surrounding rural area though it was certainly not urban.

There are, inevitably, exceptions to this pattern of distinctive medieval borough plans. In Staffordshire, the most notable exception is Newborough. This new borough of Earl Ferrers was founded in the woodlands of Needwood Forest.⁶ The plan shows no evidence of regular tenements and Newborough, today, is an irregular jumble of cottages around a crossroads. However, Newborough is quite well documented and Beresford's researches showed that there were scores of burgages at Newborough in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. I would suggest that these never consisted of a nucleated, proto-urban borough, however. Rather, Earl Ferrers seems to have been using the attractions of burgage tenure to encourage new migrant settlers into his thinly-populated forest estates to raise his rent roll so that these burgages were scattered throughout the township.

Further up the borough hierarchy the settlements are more recognisably urban and their plan characteristics are more diverse. This group shows what happened when a new borough did become a proper small town. Abbots Bromley, for example, has three distinct plan units: an irregular group of tenements to the east, a very regular group of tenements to the west and, between them, a triangular space with, again, irregular tenements around it. Here, the working out on the ground of the three legal stages: rural settlement, market village and borough is especially clear. The position of the market place linking the older farming community with the new tenements held in burgage tenure is also characteristic.

Abbots Bromley was in a wood-pasture area of the shire and the early, farming element of the plan is therefore rather smaller than the later urban part. At Alrewas, on the gravel terraces of the Trent valley, it was the other way round. There was already a substantial farming village around a small green when a borough charter was obtained in 1290 and a new street of regularly-planned burgage tenements laid out. Recent work on the vernacular architecture of Alrewas has demonstrated that many of the surviving timber-framed cottages along this street date from the late-fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.⁷

The lord of Abbots Bromley, the rich Benedictine Abbey at Burton, was also engaged in urban speculation at Burton-on-Trent, at the gates of the abbey building. This place demonstrates clearly what happened if a new-founded borough was successful and became properly urban. Normally, the lord would lay out further new blocks of tenements to increase his rent roll. At Burton, four such extensions are actually documented, all within a thirty-year period after the founding of the borough in 1187. The four areas can still be distinguished as distinctive plan-units in the town plan today. Such documentation is unusual, but the distinctive plan-units are not and, for many medium-sized towns, the settlement plan provides the only record of the developmental history of the place in medieval times. It is the discernment and interpretation of the plan-units of settlement that is the distinctive contribution of town-plan analysis. As in most things to do with medieval settlement history though, town-plan analysis is most useful when it is undertaken as part of an interdisciplinary investigation,

so that the broadest possible range of evidence can be brought to bear, and when it is set in a comparative framework such as this analysis of all the villis of Staffordshire with medieval market and borough charters.

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Jim Galloway & Margaret Murphy: Metropolitan Impact on the Rural Economy: London and its Hinterland Before and After the Black Death

London, England's largest town since at least as early as the tenth century, had by 1300 emerged as one of the great cities of northern Europe, with a population of perhaps 80-100,000. This degree of population concentration placed considerable demands upon the productive capacity of a pre-industrial economy; human and animal foodstuffs, fuel and building materials were required in large quantities and efficient forms of marketing and distribution were necessary to link producer and consumer. The 'Feeding the City' project has been examining the impact of metropolitan demand upon its agrarian hinterland at the period of peak medieval population *c.* 1300, and the restructuring which took place after the demographic collapse of the mid-fourteenth century.¹

Although it is not possible to reconstruct the diet of the average medieval Londoner with any degree of precision, it seems certain that grain provided the great bulk of human calorific intake. In addition to wheat, the premiere bread grain, large quantities of cheaper bread grains – principally rye and its admixtures – were required to feed the poorer sections of urban society. Barley was used to make good quality ale, but large quantities of oats were also malted; oats, the bulkiest and cheapest of the grains, were also required to feed the city's substantial horse population. In total, somewhere between 107,000 and 222,000 quarters of grain may have been required to feed London each year.²

The impact of this concentrated and complex pattern of demand can be detected in the geography of grain production in the counties surrounding London, as revealed by manorial demesne accounts. Strikingly large areas were devoted to the production of oats in Middlesex and Surrey *c.* 1300, reflecting its low price and relatively high transport costs. Rye and rye mixtures were a specialism of the middle and lower Thames Valley,

accessible to the city by water, while barley was found in particular concentrations adjoining the Thames estuary. Wheat, by contrast, predominated at a slightly greater distance from the capital, and regional entrepôts, most notably Henley-on-Thames, served to link producing areas with the metropolitan market.

The rising living standards of the post-Black Death period seem to have seen a decline in demand for the cheaper grains, reflected in a marked decrease in the cultivation of rye and some decline in oats, but an expansion in demand for the higher quality brewing grains, notably barley, which increased its share of the area under the grain from 13% *c.* 1300 to 23% in the last quarter of the fourteenth century. Work in progress suggests that the increase was particularly marked in the area immediately to the north of the Chilterns, where much barley and dredge was malted on-manor for sale.

Notable concentrations in the production of other bulky or perishable commodities can be detected in areas adjacent or with easy access to the capital. Firewood and other products of intensively managed woodland were marketed in substantial quantities in parts of Middlesex, south-western Essex, southern Hertfordshire and north-western Kent, while large dairy herds were characteristic of southern Essex and parts of the Thames valley.

Much of London's influence upon its hinterland was channelled through the complex network of local markets and fairs which had developed during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Only a small proportion of London's supplies seem to have been brought directly to the city for sale by the producers; more characteristic of the economic activity of manorial demesnes were sales to merchants in the countryside, or in town and village market-places.

Londoners were frequent visitors to the major grain markets, including Henley, Faversham, Ware and St. Albans, where the surplus production of considerable areas might be handled. Fairs remained important for the livestock trade and may have become more so after 1350; Kingston and Uxbridge fairs emerge as places where manorial livestock was frequently bought and sold, and may have played an important role in supplying the capital. Thus, the Middlesex manor of Hyde (in the vicinity of modern Hyde Park), which sold animals to London butchers, is known to have bought sheep at Kingston in the 1380s.

The London market was capable of influencing price levels for agricultural produce within the city's hinterland and hence of moulding the economic environment within which agricultural producers operated. This is most evident in the case of grain, where much of the middle Thames valley fell within London's sphere of influence *c.* 1300. By contrast, northern Oxfordshire, north Buckinghamshire and much of Northamptonshire displayed price levels considerably lower than London, even allowing for the cost of transporting grain to the capital, and thus appear to have lain beyond the city's normal supply zone. This is confirmed by the documented activities of London commongers, whose regular sphere of operations seems to have been confined to areas within some 20 miles of navigable stretches of the rivers Thames, Lea and Medway, or the Kent and Essex coasts. Years of

abnormally high prices saw an extension of coastal contacts with Suffolk, Norfolk and beyond, rather than a penetration further into the land-locked area to the north and west of Oxford.

Although small by the standards of later periods, major medieval cities such as London exerted a powerful influence upon their agricultural hinterlands. Their growth depended upon the emergence of at least some degree of regional specialization in land-use, and on the development of extensive and efficient networks of markets. Location relative to a major city influenced the economic life of the countryside in many ways, and should thus be accorded a place among the constellation of forces influencing the growth and decline of medieval rural settlements.

- 1 The Feeding the City project, funded in its successive stages by the Leverhulme Trust and the Economic and Social Research Council (Award No R000233157), has been based at the Centre for Metropolitan History, Institute of Historical Research, London, since 1988. D. Keene and B. M. S. Campbell directed the first phase of work, and co-directed the second phase together with J. A. Galloway and M. Murphy.
- 2 See Campbell, B. M. S., Galloway, J. A., Keene, D. & Murphy, M., *A Medieval Capital & its Grain Supply: Agrarian Production and Distribution in the London Region c. 1300*, Historical Geography Research Series, No. 30 (1993).

John Schofield: Going to town: urban themes

From the vast haul of information now at our disposal after thirty years of data gathering we can begin to ask questions of many kinds. What went on in medieval towns? How did the rich and poor live, what nourished them, what did they die of? What was the weather like, the quality of life, the restrictions or special pleasure of living in towns?

Archaeologists have put a lot of effort into the study of the development of individual towns. It now appears that many town plans were composed of a series of units of different periods. The apparent homogeneity of planted towns should be regarded with caution. New towns might be laid out systematically at first, but soon spilled over and developed their own idiosyncrasies.

Besides expanding along approach roads, the town often spread into the adjacent river or sea. Waterfront archaeology has been one of the most significant developments of the last two decades within European urban archaeology. The remarkable survival of archaeological strata and especially finds in a waterfront zone gives the area a general importance for greater understanding of a town's history in a number of ways, based on the wealth of finds (especially of organic materials such as wood, leather and bone), which is often accurately dated by a combination of dendrochronology and coins.

Urbanisation was perhaps the greatest social transition suffered by man since remotest antiquity, and some changes in man's health may well have followed from it. There might be alterations in nutrition, changes in the pattern and ferocity of diseases, differences in height, age

at death, or changes due to the nature of urban living and work. Of vitamin deficiency diseases, only scurvy and rickets are detectable in skeletons but both might be more prevalent in crowded parts of towns.

It does appear to be the case that the environment of towns had an effect on people's state of health and perhaps exposed them to a wider range of conditions and possibly fatal diseases than living in the countryside. Some other broad changes can be seen, for instance in the consumption of varieties of meat, but we cannot yet say much about how, or whether, environmental factors actually contributed to change.

Between 1150 and 1340 a new urban society came into being in Europe. Archaeology has an important role to play here in describing the extent and character of the material lifestyle of the various groups. Further, archaeology should not be solely a matter of fine workmanship and high status sites. We should investigate the mass market, where the majority of people operated; here new studies are showing the popularity of shoddy, mass-produced items in base metals. We must establish the baseline of the archaeology of the ordinary.

There is a need for more study of marginal groups and outcasts of medieval urban society. First, the poor, because they formed an important and numerous part of the urban population. Other specifically outcast groups include lepers, Jews, and, in a more subtle way, partially-acceptable foreigners (Lombards) and women. Study of these groups will complement and correct the bias of currently published work.

In most of Britain the period falls into three parts: (i) the apogee of towns in 1100-1350; (ii) crises and consolidations in 1350-1500 (or to some scholars, 1530); and (iii) the period 1500-1750. Of these parts, the first is easiest to study, as is its equivalent in the first two centuries of Roman occupation of Britain. Urban consumption, urban markets, new standards in housing, and waves of religious orders are all clearly perceptible in the archaeological record.

The interaction of each town with its environs and with other settlements needs to be explored further. Current opinion favours the idea that the proliferation of markets in the twelfth and especially in the thirteenth centuries was for the disposal of rural supplies; and although the buoyant economy of the time prompted demand for manufactured goods and services by the local population, there was little stimulus for industry in the small towns. Only in larger market centres could money be spent on luxuries such as wine, spices, armour and quality textiles. These centres were provincial capitals, big fairs, and ports.

Some cultural innovations may only have been possible in such larger places. French historians suggest that Gothic architecture was based in and only possible because of towns; cathedrals and other urban churches were a result of urban financing. In Britain the 'invention' of Perpendicular architecture took place just before the Black Death, in all likelihood, in the capital. Thus the fourteenth century is one of severe contrasts.

Whereas the period up to 1350 had been one of urban industrial production and the growth of guild or craft

power, this later period is one of decline in urban industry and the subsequent waning of the power of the guilds. Much industry migrated to the countryside, but towns retained a major share of the finishing trades. At the same time London rose as the principal distributor of luxury goods. The main regional trading networks, for instance those in food, can be monitored and the role of London demonstrated; the increasing centralisation of government in Westminster created extra needs. So London merchants moved out into the areas of supply and came to control them.

In large and small centres, the strata of this later period are thin; the waterfront zones are decreasingly helpful, as stone walls take over from timber revetments and the dated groups of artefacts become far less frequent. Shops disappeared from central streets; some houses became larger, while the unwanted margins of settlement crumbled, decayed and were covered with their own version of dark earth, the deposit normally associated with the Saxon centuries. Within towns, we can expect that the poor and disadvantaged areas suffered disproportionately from the main urban plagues. From England to Italy, the Black Death was without doubt a proletarian epidemic; the rich escaped when they could, or lived in parts of town where the quality of life, and sanitation, gave them some protection. Thus the marginal areas will show more radical evidence of change to the archaeologist.

In this period there are several fundamental questions for archaeology to tackle. The most important, and apparently at present quite difficult, concerns how to identify urban decay by archaeological means. But as with late Roman towns, the evidence may not point to decay at all, but to changes in functions for the place.

During the fifteenth century some towns recovered. They tended to be the larger centres (and above all, London), or those which could depend upon a rich hinterland for their industrial wealth (e.g. cloth towns in Yorkshire and the West Country). Others, like Winchester, went into a gentle decline. At first, there were less people around, and therefore less need for towns. After a period of stagnation and desolation, sixteenth-century towns found themselves looking for their future prosperity to a new network of connections, beyond Britain to Europe, Asia and the New World.

MEDIEVAL RURAL SETTLEMENTS IN THE MONUMENTS PROTECTION PROGRAMME: A PROGRESS REPORT by David Stocker, Brian Roberts and Stuart Wrathmell

Last year's *Annual Report* (pp 13-14) contained a summary of the new approach being taken by English Heritage's Monuments Protection Programme (MPP) towards the statutory protection of medieval settlement sites. The approach is one which emerged after lengthy consultation with the Group's committee; it lays much greater emphasis on regional diversity in rural settlement, and on the need to ensure that such diversity is represented in the selection of sites to be recommended for the field evaluation stage of MPP.

In November 1993 English Heritage set up a project to implement the new approach. The work falls into two parts. In the first place, Stuart Wrathmell is reviewing the existing MPP scores for deserted medieval villages and shrunken/shifted villages in every Sites and Monuments Record in England. The primary aim is to produce a single list of nucleated settlement sites in which the criterion of 'Survival' – the extent to which the original area of the medieval settlement is available for protection – plays a greater role. Any small hamlet or isolated farmstead sites worthy of field evaluation are scored and added to the list; the SMR records of such sites are usually sparse, but can occasionally be augmented from other sources. Finally, 'professional judgement' is exercised to vary the listings where appropriate, in order to ensure that recommendations reflect, as far as possible, the regional diversity of settlement forms.

A prerequisite for selection according to regional diversity is the definition and characterisation of settlement zones; this second thread of the project is being carried out by Brian Roberts. Using the earliest available national data – the Ordnance Survey One Inch maps of the first half of the 19th century – it involves the identification of regions underlying the main settlement provinces delineated in the last *Annual Report* (fig.3.). These are defined primarily by the presence or absence of nucleation and by the size variations seen within the pattern; by the presence or absence of dispersion, and by variations in the quantity of dispersed elements. The sub-provinces and local regions thus identified are then further characterised by associated features, for example terrain characteristics, road networks, field systems and other land usage; in effect, they become class descriptions of particular landscapes and can be expanded, qualified and refined. Both parts of the project are timetabled to continue until April 1995.

Though the mapping project is required in the first instance to inform the process of selecting sites for designation, it obviously has a much wider value. It will result in eight maps showing terrain and, plotted against these, eight maps showing the distribution of settlement zones in England. Some regional boundaries will coincide with marked changes in terrain; others will be wholly cultural. Many of the zones will have remained stable since medieval times; others will reflect post-medieval processes. Overall, the maps and the accompanying 'characterisation' reports on each zone will provide a national framework for more intensive regional and local research projects: they can be used to identify critical

points for further investigation, and to enable detailed studies to be evaluated in the broader context of national variation.

The mapping project will, in addition, inform other English Heritage initiatives. One of these, involving the characterisation of historic landscapes, is being developed in association with the Countryside Commission. The relevance here of Brian Roberts' maps and regional characterisations is obvious. Another concerns the development of strategies within the MPP for the protection of medieval field systems: the characterisation of regional variation in field systems, within the context of the settlement regions, is seen as a key to their effective management.

REPORT ON THE SHAPWICK PROJECT 1993 by Mick Aston

The multi-disciplinary project based on the parish of Shapwick which began in 1988 was continued in 1993. It is envisaged that the project will last for ten years, finishing in 1998 so this report represents the half way stage.

FIELDWORK

A long and intensive campaign of fieldwork was undertaken both in the spring on fields prepared for maize and from September to December. Some eighteen fields were fieldwalked with sampling taking place altogether over more than 78 hectares. Within these fields 1082 sampling lines of 25 metres in length spaced at 25 metre intervals were examined and 295 ten by ten metre squares. This was slightly less in terms of numbers of fields walked and hectares examined than 1991, the most intensive year so far, but more lines were walked and more squares examined in 1993 so the work was more intensive. A method has been devised to measure the intensity of fieldwalking in any area. Considerable attention was again paid to the skill of the fieldworkers, the weather and light conditions, the condition of the soil and so on; this aspect will be studied in more detail in 1994.

Christopher Gerrard and Alejandra Gutierrez are examining the finds from this fieldwork along with 1991 and 1992 and so it is premature to anticipate the distribution patterns of material of different periods in the parish.

SUMMARY OF FIELDWORK RESULTS 1988 to 1993

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
No of Fields	51	7	6	21	7	18
(some more than once)						
Hectares		30.806	31.66	100.18	33.525	78.623
						274.794
Lines at 25m			247	1062	423	1082
						2814
Grids						
10 x 10		184	30	102		295
				18 (25x25)		
72350 sq m	18400	3000	21450			29500

(M. Aston, S. Everden, H. Jelley, D. Hill-Cottingham and many others)

SURVEY

In advance of ploughing of the field with the site of the earlier church, a further survey was carried out of the earthworks by J. Bond.

Geophysical surveys were carried out at a number of locations around the parish. Around the former manor house, now Shapwick House Hotel, several areas were investigated to locate the suspected medieval moat. Although this was not clearly defined, other features were located including the probable large barn and a ? dovecote in the former monastic curia to the south of the manor. To the north in the area of the probable medieval and post-medieval garden curvilinear features were observed which turned out to be of Iron Age date. Elsewhere in the parish the fields called Henry (a corruption of enworthy and therefore a probable Saxon settlement site) and the field called Grasshay (which has produced tenth century pottery) both failed to produce any signals indicative of occupation.

(C. Gaffney, J. Gater and others)

EXCAVATION

Excavations were carried out in two areas in September 1993 by students from King Alfred's College, Winchester under the direction of C. Gerrard and J. Crichton. In the field with the site of the earlier church six trenches were opened at the junctions of banks and ditches and across the church site. These produced considerable evidence of the church building at the junction of the chancel and a central tower, probably from the Anglo-Saxon period, together with numerous burials, at least one of which was covered with a medieval grave slab. Other trenches produced walls of various uncertain dates and tantalising glimpses of possible Roman occupation. The field was subsequently ploughed and fieldwalking produced an abundance of Roman material together with late Saxon and early medieval pottery. The Roman material suggests a high status building, probably a villa, under the Saxon and medieval church.

Two trenches were opened to the north of the medieval manor house, now Shapwick House Hotel. The most northerly of these lay in the area of the banqueting house shown on eighteenth century maps and a watercolour; stone foundations were located. The second was laid across the area of the probable medieval garden in the area of curvilinear features on the geophysical survey. Little was found of garden features but the lines were shown clearly to relate to a previously unknown major Iron Age settlement consisting of circular houses, postholes and large quantities of pottery and other objects.

(C. Gerrard, J. Crichton and many others)

GEOLOGY AND BOTANY

Little further geological survey was carried out although the marl deposits which were thought perhaps to relate to former marsh or lake deposits now seem to be tufa deposits from former springs.

All of the hedges have now been examined (by M Williams) and the data have been processed using the Twinspan programme for multivariate analysis and the information is now beginning to be processed. Initial examination suggests that the different types of hedges

do not seem to relate either to the enclosure history of the parish as far as it is known, or to such factors as soil type.

(P. Hardy, D. Hill, M. Williams, M. Martin)

TOPOGRAPHICAL ANALYSIS

Considerable progress has been made on regressive map analysis both of the village and of the parish. A succession of maps at 1:2500 have now been compiled of the village from the present day back to 1750. Research on the buildings enables at least outline maps to be compiled for the seventeenth century, for which there is good corroborative documentary evidence, and the sixteenth century, which is more tentative but gets us close to the great 1515 survey of the manor (Fig. 2).

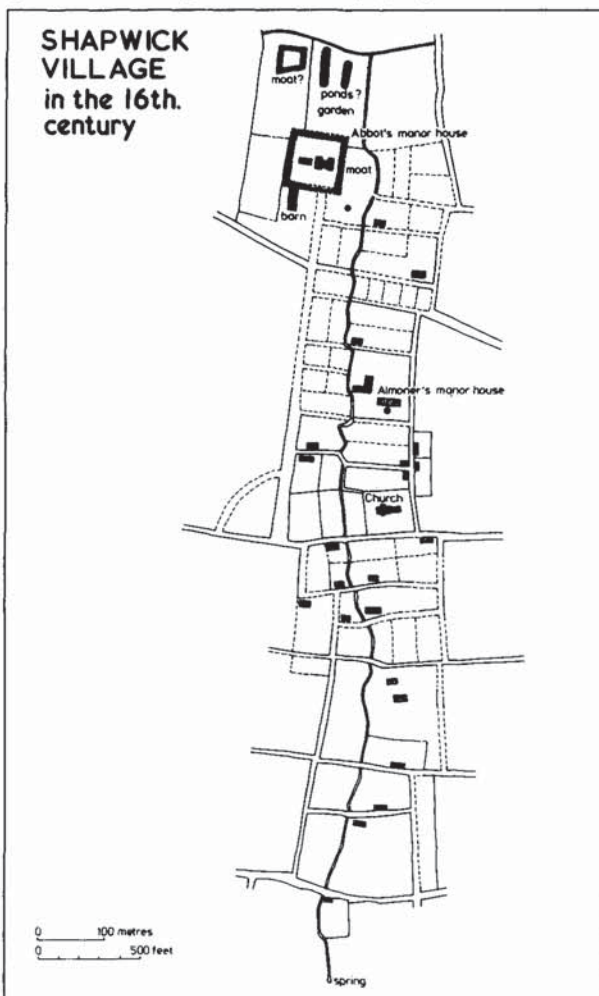


Figure 2: Shapwick Village in the 16th Century. A reconstruction of the possible village layout, based on regressive map analysis, detailed research on the buildings, plots on the mid 18th century maps and detailed examination of the area around the Abbot's manor house.

Maps of the parish at 1:10000 have now been compiled from the present day back to the mid-eighteenth century, including detailed maps of the last areas of the common fields in the 1750s. Some of the holdings and their lands at that time can also be traced back to the seventeenth century. It is hoped that the eighteenth century maps will provide the means of reconstructing the field and furlong pattern of the late medieval landscape (Fig.3).

(M. Aston)

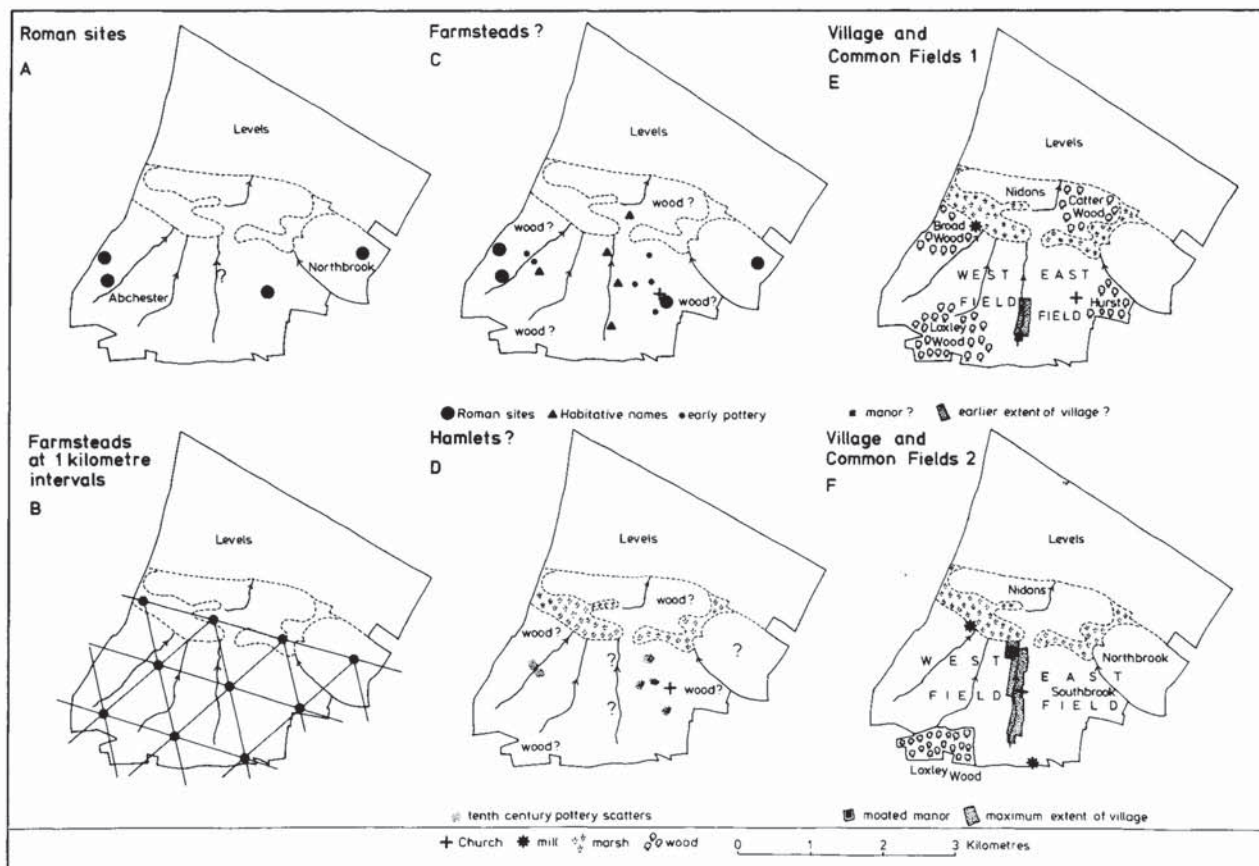


Figure 3: Maps of Shapwick Parish – These maps show the possible phases of development of settlement in the parish from the Roman period to the middle ages. They are based on fieldwork, documentary and placename research and later maps. They should be regarded as tentative models to be revised as research proceeds.

BUILDINGS

The survey of the buildings in the village and at the farmsteads is now virtually complete, with only a single refusal to enter and survey for one building. The background research into the farmsteads is being continued while distributions of cottages at different dates is already proving invaluable in sorting out the village plan. It is intended to publish the full survey of the buildings in advance of the other final report(s).

(J. Dallimore, J. and J. Penoyre)

FUTURE

In 1994 further fieldwork will be carried out with reworking of some fields and greater attention to the factors affecting rates of recovery. A garden survey will be undertaken to record finds from flower beds and to dig test pits within the village. Further geophysical surveying will be carried out as opportunities arise especially on the Iron Age site and it is hoped to begin soil sampling across the parish to locate concentrations of elements associated with earlier occupation (see Aston 1992). Further work will be continued on the geology and other aspects of the vegetation of the parish. A further season of excavations will be undertaken in September 1994 concentrating on the manor house area and sampling the fields which have produced pre-conquest pottery. Models of current ideas about the succession of settlement patterns in the parish and the way the village might have developed have been drawn up. A fourth report was also published in 1993 (Aston and Costen).

However the project will only make major progress if more resources are made available. What has been so far a very intermittent project with individuals putting in what time they can needs the resources for full time involvement of at least one permanent fieldworker on the ground.

M. Aston 1992 'The Shapwick Project, Somerset: A study in need of remote sensing' in P Sperry *Geoprospection in the Archaeological Landscape* Oxbow Monograph 18, Oxford pp 141-154.

M. Aston and M. Costen (eds) 1993 *The Shapwick Project: A Topographical and Historical Study: The Fourth Report* Department for Continuing Education, University of Bristol.

(M Aston)

ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS INTO THE "LOST" VILLAGE OF ECCLES-NEXT-THE-SEA, NORFOLK by Tim Pestall

Introduction

Much has been written about deserted medieval settlements but, with the exception of Dunwich, there has been little study of the many sites lost through coastal erosion. The village of Eccles, traditionally destroyed by inundation in 1604, therefore stands out, being one of the few to have received any modern archaeological investigation. Its remains now stand on the foreshore of the north-east Norfolk coast at TG 414288, some 25km

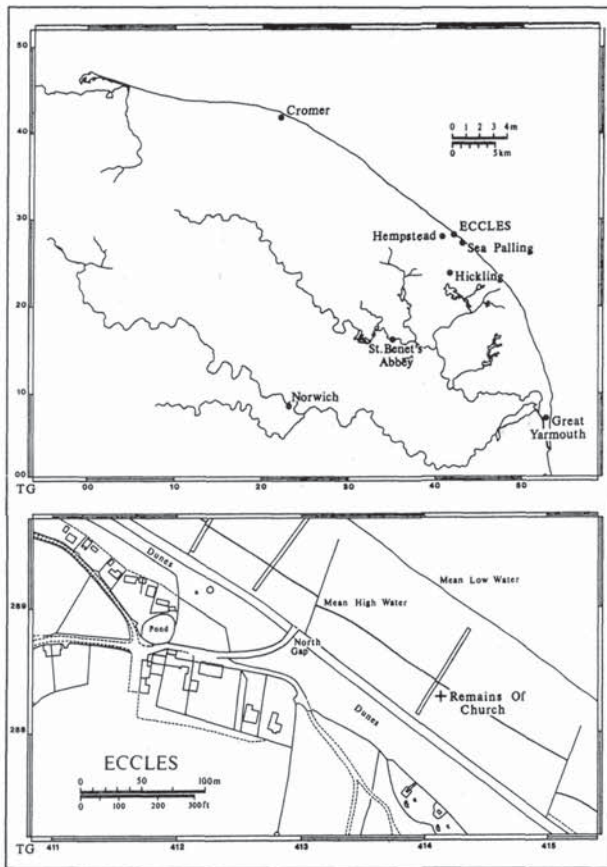


Figure 4: The location and topography of Eccles, Norfolk.

north-east of Norwich and 30km equidistant between Great Yarmouth to the southeast and Cromer to the northwest (Fig. 4). Its site is today marked by a few rubble fragments of the church tower. More fragmentary archaeological remains lie hidden in the clay topsoil of the former land surface, beneath a veneer of beach sand.

In recent years the covering sand has been removed with increasing frequency in a process called 'scouring' exposing the clay and subjecting it to erosion. Since 1986, when archaeological remains were first recognised, a group of local residents has maintained a voluntary watching brief of the foreshore and excavated and recorded those features exposed as time and tide have allowed. This short report is intended as an interim statement of findings prior to final publication.

Site History

Whilst some have claimed that the *Eccles* placename may suggest an early, possible Romano-British origin (Reaney 1964, 81) the first mention of the village is in the Domesday survey. The first explicit mention of danger from the sea at Eccles comes in the *Calendar of Patent Rolls* of 1338 in which "the parish church of St Mary Eccles ... threatens to become a ruin on account of the destruction of the area of the churchyard by the sea". This is discussed further in relation to the archaeological evidence below. Certainly, inundation seems to have been a feature of the area at this time. Documentary sources mention flooded land and John de Oxenedes, a monk of St Benet's Abbey, records 180 people being drowned at nearby Hickling in 1287 (*Oxenedes*, 270). The conditions prevailing in Eccles are perhaps further intimated by four villagers' wills noted in a manuscript by Norfolk

antiquary Anthony Norris, of c. 1780; the testators in wills of 1559 and 1566 direct their bodies to be buried in Eccles church whilst those of 1597 and 1603 ask for burial at neighbouring Hempstead. Additionally, whilst Eccles features in the 1552 Inventory of Church Goods, it was ignored in the 1597 Visitation of Bishop Redman (Williams 1946).

Blomefield (1808) is the principal published source of information on the village and he notes the more important documents witnessing its demise. The first, from 1605, is a petition presented by the villagers of 'ye Ruynated Estate of the Town of Eccles' to the Norwich Quarter Sessions for a reduction in their taxes, claiming that there were then only 14 households and 300 acres of land compared to formerly 80 households and 1,300 acres. In 1643 the villagers again petitioned the Sessions in Norwich claiming that 'there had formerly been 2,000 acres, and 100 only were left, and they daily wasting' (Blomefield 1808, 296). Thereafter the villagers used Hempstead church for ecclesiastical purposes and the village's abandonment seems complete.

Antiquarian interest in the site was aroused through the sea continuing to push back the sand dunes, leaving the church tower standing on the beach. Thus placed it became a celebrated local landmark and a demonstration of coastal erosion mentioned in for example, Hewitt's *Essay on the Encroachments of the German Ocean* (1844). Attendant scours of the beach were noted by many and accounts talk of houses, wells and roadways all being visible. However, interest in Eccles declined following

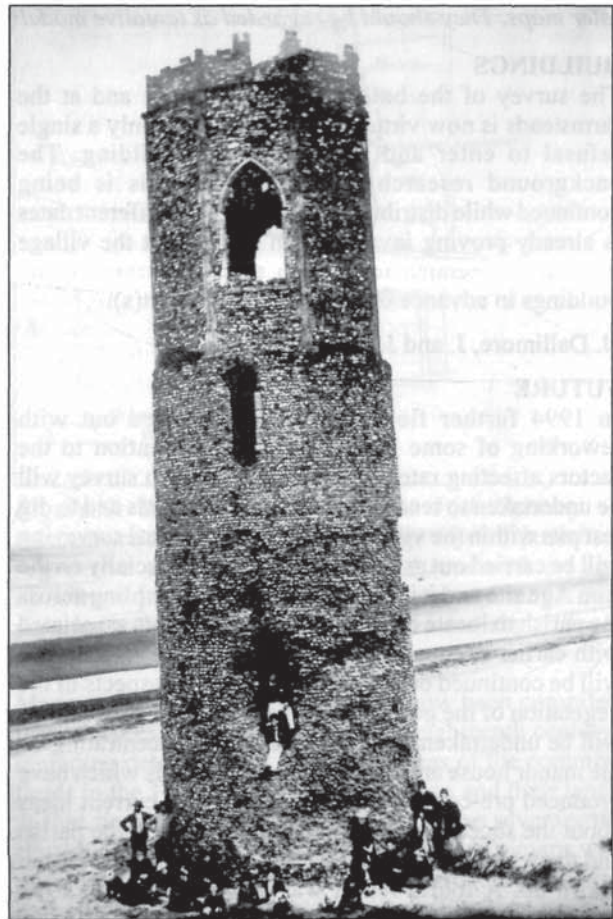


Plate I: Nineteenth-century photograph of the now collapsed church tower of Eccles.

the collapse of the church tower in a fierce gale in 1895. Although subsequent scours occasionally uncovered large amounts of the fallen tower and very rarely skeletons within the churchyard (as in 1947 and 1953) the twentieth century has generally seen the beach very well built up and popular with holidaymakers, leaving the tower ruins barely visible. This all changed following large-scale scouring in 1986 since when beach levels have been unable to maintain a stable, high profile, leading to regular scouring.

Archaeological Method

The main restriction on work is that of time, as any features exposed have to be cleaned, planned and excavated within the space of a single tide. Working conditions can frequently be uncomfortable as they normally take place in the extreme weather needed to uncover the site. Exposures of clay are often in restricted areas, some of which are more at risk of total destruction or which are very rarely uncovered; these take priority in examination.

Recording is necessarily brief and consists principally of heavily annotated scale plans. All plans and features are plotted by triangulation into fixed points along the concrete sea wall as the establishment of a site grid is impractical. All context, sample and small find numbers, as well as detailed notes on work undertaken are written later. The use of surveying equipment has enabled detailed measurement of the site including original ground surface heights where exposed. Features excavated are usually those fully exposed by the sea; the alternative of digging through beach sand to reach the underlying clay is impossible as water contained in the sand rapidly drains into and floods such *sondages*.

Results

The fragmentary nature of the archaeological deposits and opportunities for their study often makes for difficult interpretation and much work remains to be done. Nevertheless, it is now possible to speak with a measure of confidence about the archaeology of the village. To this, information from various accounts by antiquarian writers can be added.

Roads

The roadways are one of the most important features as their presence helps to establish an approximation of the village topography. The metalling of the roadways also gives a definite medieval ground surface which can be measured relative to ordnance datum. Whilst some areas were possibly metalled hollow-ways, the presence of other features nearby suggest that they were not substantially deeper than the surrounding ground surface. One stretch of roadway can be seen as the likely continuation of a road seen on the landward side of the dunes. Other patchy stretches can be seen to have bounded the churchyard and these corroborate antiquarian accounts. As a result of this confirmation, the approximate layout can be tightly tied in geographically.

It has been difficult to date the road surfaces although a silver penny of the type minted by Edwards I-III (1278-1377) suggests a broad *terminus post quem* for the mid roadway levels. An area of cobble metalling east of the churchyard wall contained the very fragmentary remains of a pilgrim badge of the fourteenth or fifteenth century,

possibly depicting Henry VI in a ship (S Margeson pers. comm.). Dating the establishment of the layout relies on (often residual) pottery of twelfth century date or later which is incorporated in the make-up.

Church and Churchyard

Surprisingly, there had been little study of the church prior to the present investigations despite a good antiquarian record; This includes a number of early photographs of the tower and a plan made in 1893 by Yarmouth architect James Teasdel. Together with observations of the surviving fragments they allow a basic phasing and dating of the church (Fig. 5).

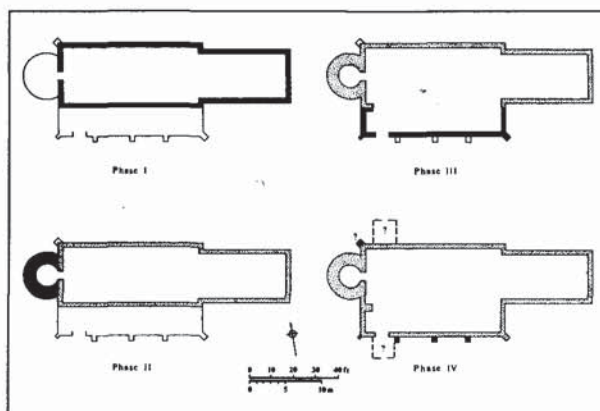


Figure 5: Architectural development of Eccles church.

The church had a round west tower, nave with south aisle and a chancel. The nave and chancel form the first phase and appear to be contemporary on the basis of the southeast angle of the nave and chancel foundations, briefly exposed in March 1993. To this was added the west tower as shown by the flat eastern side on the base fragment, in situ until February 1993. By analogy with the many other round towers of Norfolk and Suffolk, this is of eleventh or early twelfth century date; this supposition is strengthened by a photograph taken from the east showing a tall blocked-in tower arch similar to those at nearby Horsey and Beeston St Lawrence. That the south aisle was an addition to the groundplan is suggested by Teasdel's 1893 plan showing a sinuous line dividing the nave and aisle. This is almost certainly the footing of the original nave south wall; the date of this addition is unclear. Finally, fragments of the surviving walling now strewn across the beach show the addition of buttresses. Their date is unclear although a limestone dressing ripped from one by the sea, displayed claw-type chiselmarks comparable to those found on C14-15 stonework for example at St Helen-on-the-Walls, York (Magilton 1980, 36). At about this time, an octagonal belfry was added to the tower, judging from a few fragments of tracery in the belfry windows seen on early photographs. It was possibly at this time that the original tower arch was blocked to form a lower Gothic arch. These various phases in the church's construction therefore contradict the 1338 Patent Roll entry mentioned above and suggest that in the event a new Church was never actually built.

Two fragments of different tomb covers have been found loose on the beach. Both are of Purbeck marble with double hollow-chamfered edges and date from the

thirteenth or fourteenth centuries. More general exposure of graves in the surrounding churchyard has occurred over the years. Investigation has been restricted to plotting the grave locations and is complicated by the patchy nature of scours. These make it difficult to be certain that a grave newly uncovered has not already been planned. Several confined graves have been noticed, the wood often being partly preserved as a peaty stain in the clay soil. There is an apparent concentration of children's graves in the immediate area of the nave south aisle, an observation complicated by problems of bias in the sample observed. However, it is clear from both exposed skeletal material and grave-cut lengths that juvenile and infant graves are in a majority adjacent to the church and few have been noted outside this area. Such a policy of 'zoning' has been suggested in other Norfolk cemeteries, for instance the Anglia TV and Magdalen St sites in Norwich (B Ayers pers. comm.). Eccles is quite possibly another example of this tradition.

Wells

As the erosion of the foreshore is most severe nearest to the sea, only the deep features of wells survive. They provide complementary evidence to the roadways in marking out the general topography. Six of the ten so far located occur as pairs and would seem to indicate the position of tofts, new wells being constructed when earlier ones fell into disrepair; this can be seen stratigraphically in the case of one pair. Their fills are waterlogged and finds include shoe leather, grass, wood (including two timbers possibly once structural), animal bone and pottery (ranging from tiny sherds to almost intact vessels).

The wells' construction is similar but has many variations on a theme, with walling constructed of flint cobbles, wood, unfired clay lump or even heavily beaten clay layers. The wells do not seem to have drawn on freshwater streams but were possibly tidal, "fresh water rising with the tide and falling with the ebb" (Larwood 1951, 231). The use in some of clay bricks is of great interest given Atkin's recent claim 'that the continuing medieval tradition of the use of clay lump ... would now seem to be a fallacy' (1991, 174). The use of such blocks can be clearly seen in several examples at Eccles and this implies that such bricks could be used routinely for other structures.

General Comments

There are many other minor features that have been observed across the foreshore. These are often difficult to interpret as they are seen in isolation or have been partially eroded. Over 800 sherds have been recovered, many of which are residual and contained within the homogenous topsoil remains in the area surrounding the church. These all appear to date from the twelfth century onwards. There is a complete absence of the common, earlier, Thetford-type ware. Thereafter, the main local pottery types are represented, the sequence finishing with imported German stoneware. Very little of the latter has been found as residual material, instead being mostly stratified in the fills of wells. Small finds include lead ampullae, an inscribed bronze finger ring and a lead bale seal. A handful of Roman greyware sherds may possibly point to an earlier settlement but the evidence is at present too thin for any case to be sustained. Settlement seems to have centred around the church as no archaeological

material has been found further east or west. Its absence elsewhere may be due to more extreme erosion but the complete lack of any deep features, not least wells, makes this unlikely.

Conclusions

The most interesting aspects to emerge from the present work relate to the process of coastal erosion. Although this phenomenon was principally responsible for the destruction of the village, its effect may well have been heightened through isostatic change and the relative rise in sea level. Levels taken on the surfaces exposed have varied, with road surfaces recorded between 1.41-1.54mOD. The bottom of the foundation trench for the nave was 0.19mOD. Even without sea level rise, it is clear that the land upon which the village was based was extremely low-lying. This suggests that the village was protected not just by defences such as sand dunes but by higher ground to the north (seaward). This land must have finally eroded to the point beyond which defences were insufficient protection, leaving the village open to regular inundation. Thus, whilst the land was not instantly eroded away, the threat of damage and the effect of salt water on the land must have meant that continued life in the village became untenable.

The wider implications of this study are clear; it was originally thought that the ruins at Eccles were a curiosity, and as recently as 1989 a commentator wrote that artefacts recovered from the beach "are all findspots where chance discoveries have been made". In fact, the careful recording of such finds has given them a context and enabled a wider picture to emerge. This model is applicable elsewhere. Observations of scours at nearby Sea Palling has shown that the exposed clay of the foreshore also contains medieval pottery (over 80 sherds were found in two afternoons) and that peat beds bury a prehistoric land surface. Identified so far in the latter is a potboiler spread and two ditches, one containing fragments of Neolithic pottery.

The lost villages of the East Anglian coast have long been overlooked and seen as leaving nothing to investigate. On the contrary, in those low-lying areas that suffered a process of erosion-induced inundation, there is every prospect of archaeology being able to elucidate details of sites' use and their destruction. In this respect we have just as much to learn about coastal erosion from small villages, as from the celebrated example of Dunwich.

Acknowledgements

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MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENTS IN BUCKINGHAMSHIRE AND LEICESTERSHIRE - AN INTERIM REPORT by Carenza Lewis and Patrick Mitchell Fox

This paper presents a statement for 1993 on research into Settlements and Landscapes funded by the Leverhulme Trust undertaken at the University of Birmingham, under the direction of Christopher Dyer, being the second interim statement, following the publication in this report last year of the results for 1992 (Lewis and Mitchell Fox, *Report 7* 1992, 15-20). Work followed the same methodology (*ibid*, 15), and this paper summarises the reports for Buckinghamshire and Leicestershire in 1993.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE

Buckinghamshire was the third county to be covered by the project. The stark contrasts in natural topography provide a good opportunity to examine the relationship between settlement and landscape, but past archaeological work in the county has been very unevenly spread which has made consistent treatment difficult.

Buckinghamshire is a long thin county, which extends from the River Ouse in the north to the Thames in the south, and is divided into two halves by its natural topography. In the south the high chalk plateau of the Chiltern Hills is drained by several rivers which flow south into the Thames. The Chiltern soils are predominately thin, free-draining and easily cultivated; the area has been in recent times one of arable farming, although where the Chalk is capped with deposits of Clay-with-Flints it remains extensively wooded.

North of the Chilterns the gently undulating contours of the clayland hills and valleys provide a striking contrast to the steep wooded slopes of the Chilterns, and this distinction is reflected in almost every aspect of the historic landscape. These heavy soils have, in the modern period, favoured a predominately pastoral economy, and the region was renowned for its livestock in the nineteenth century. In the larger river valleys, particularly that of the Ouse in the far north of the county, the heavy clay soils are intersected by wide gravel terraces formed by the meandering path of the river, which rises in this county before flowing sedately north-east through Bedfordshire, ultimately to the North Sea. The resulting soils are of varying quality, but often poorly drained. Buckingham, the county town, lies in this part of the county, but is now overshadowed by the modern conurbations of Milton Keynes to the east, Aylesbury to the south and the London satellite sprawls of the Chilterns.

Pre-medieval settlement evidence is variable in both its quality and distribution, reflecting the pattern of previous archaeological activity at least as much as variations in settlement activity. The Chilterns were an area of considerable strategic importance in the later Iron Age. A number of hillforts are known in the area, mostly occupying sites overlooking the major valleys of the Wye and the Thames, and the Icknield Way traverses the county along the northern edge of the Chiltern scarp. Several stretches of linear bank and ditch (known collectively as 'Grim's Ditch') extend intermittently across the Chilterns. Their straight courses suggest that the countryside must have been reasonably clear of trees at the time of their construction: no date has been established for this, although they are clearly pre-medieval. They are not followed by parish boundaries. Hillforts are not found elsewhere in Buckinghamshire, but smaller settlements are most commonly found in the river valleys, which appear likely to have been densely settled, certainly by the end of the Iron Age. Several settlement sites include pits for grain storage, and traces of possible fields have been recorded at Pitstone on the northern fringes of the Chilterns.

Most of the county was certainly densely settled in the Roman period, judging from the numerous villas, settlements and roads. The southern slopes of the Chilterns are particularly prominent for the quantity of evidence in the Roman period, with a number of villas (including that at Latimer) forming part of the dense concentration around Verulamium. These are interspersed with other Romano-British settlements along the river valleys. Some continuity of site occupation from the Iron Age is suggested, even at villa sites such as Latimer, and those areas which were prominent and densely settled in the Iron Age, particularly the Chilterns and the Ouse Valley, continued to be so in the Roman period. A possible exception to this is the northern plateau of the Chilterns, which has several hillforts and Grim's Ditch, but has so far produced very little evidence for Roman activity. Further north, the relative lack of Roman evidence from the centre of the county may merely reflect the smaller amount of fieldwork.

Evidence for settlement in Buckinghamshire in the centuries spanning the fifth to eleventh centuries is very sparse. Of a total of 952 recorded sites with evidence for occupation of some sort dating between 500 and 1500, only 97 had evidence, either archaeological or documentary, predating 1086. The archaeological evidence clusters around Milton Keynes and the Vale of Aylesbury, reflecting the distribution of fieldwork programmes. The rest of the county is virtually devoid of archaeological evidence for the pre-Conquest period. Place names evidence is more widespread, but, ironically, tends to cluster in the parts of the county where the archaeological evidence is thinnest. The Chilterns is notable as a region which has virtually no evidence of either sort for settlement of this period.

Sites which have produced pottery of both early/middle and late pre-conquest date are known in both the Vale of Aylesbury and the Milton Keynes/Ouse Valley area, but are outnumbered by those which produced pottery of only one phase of pre-Conquest occupation. These sites are

both heavily outnumbered by those where pre-conquest evidence is recorded with no precise indication of date. It is thus difficult to use the archaeological evidence directly to assess the nature of the relationship between pre- and post-Conquest settlement. It is, however, perhaps notable that of only 21 recorded finds of early Saxon domestic pottery, 12 (57%) are from sites which were also occupied in the post-Conquest period, and also that very few finds of pre-Conquest material derive from deserted or very shrunken medieval settlements.

In the 11th century and later the contrast between the settlement pattern on the Chilterns and in the rest of the county is very distinct. The Chiltern settlement pattern is highly dispersed, with long attenuated settlements strung out along winding lanes or along the edges of commons. These settlements, which appear initially to be irregular and unplanned, are in fact quite standardised in their organisation and layout, and may be subject to more control in their planning than is initially apparent. The names of many of these villages and farmsteads do not appear in documents until the 12th century or later, and many have two or more different names referring to parts of the same settlement. In a number of cases the same part of a settlement has more than one name, and place names certainly often change, sometimes more than once, in the post-medieval period. This produces a high density of recorded medieval place names and further research on these names would be rewarding.

These settlements mostly lie along north-south oriented lanes which may reflect earlier roads or tracks (one is reminded of the Warwickshire Arden and the Weald of Kent). Large areas of unenclosed common land fringed by settlement are characteristic of the northern Chilterns, typically divided between several parishes. It is clear that at the time of the making of the 1826 map (from which the evidence for settlement form is derived), a number of enclosed farmsteads had encroached onto and effectively privatised the common land. We do not know how long this process had been going on, and whether a similar process had previously taken place to the south, where the settlement pattern is similarly dispersed in long interrupted rows, arranged along winding lanes rather than commons.

More than half the recorded medieval place names in the Chilterns are now represented by a single farm or house with no further evidence of medieval occupation. The most likely explanation for these is that they were single farmsteads or smallholdings, perhaps originating as assarts and living by small-scale farming and/or industrial activities such as potting or charcoal burning. A more difficult problem is to identify the origins of this pattern. The lack of documentary evidence for these settlements before the 12th or 13th century has been taken to suggest that they may have first appeared at that time, as part of a renewed expansion and intensification of settlement in the Chilterns. It is likely, however, that the appearance of place names in medieval documents merely reflects the increasing sophistication of the taxation and administrative systems, causing places long in existence to be used to identify individuals. The fact that most of these places are still occupied makes it difficult to carry out archaeological investigations which could produce a

clearer indication of the span of occupation.

Settlement in the Vale of Aylesbury is predominately nucleated, in the form of regular rows or streets, although there are some more clustered settlements. Some look as if they must originally have been arranged around *commons or irregular greens which had vanished by the time of the earlier maps*. Many of these settlements are now considerably more shrunken and irregular than in 1826, and it is of course possible that their form even at that date could be due to post-medieval development. Some settlements are less nucleated, and there are several interrupted/irregular rows and farmstead clusters. The pattern of mixed settlement is present across much of the rest of the county, with some subtle variation. In Bernwood the settlement pattern is again exclusively dispersed, with a localised scatter of rather more regular green edge settlements around the pottery producing centre of Brill. In contrast, the area between Buckingham, Bletchley and Stewkley is notable for the almost complete absence of dispersed settlement forms – the only part of the county where this is the case. It is particularly striking that the Oxford Clay vale does not display the dispersed settlement so marked on the same soils in neighbouring Bedfordshire.

The most striking contrast in the evidence for desertion and shrinkage occurs between the Chilterns and the rest of the county. Only a handful of settlements in the Chilterns have any recorded evidence of shrinkage. The few that there are cluster on the northern edges, the area east of Bledlow Ridge and around Missenden Abbey. It is possible that their absence elsewhere is due to a lack of research: if however it reflects a real absence on the ground then the area differs markedly from the Vale of Aylesbury to the north, where there are a great number of deserted medieval settlements. The implication would appear to be that areas of dispersed settlement are considerably less prone to desertion, as has been noted in other parts of the country.

Further north the density of deserted and shrunken settlements is lower in the hills of central northern Buckinghamshire and in the upper reaches of the Ouse Valley. As in Bedfordshire, they tend to be located away from the river gravels and some are peripherally sited within their parishes. Some areas show a distinct clustering of desertions, such as those around Dadford and Fullbrook on the claylands either side of the Great Ouse. Others, such as at Hardmead, lie on the more elevated Lias formations close to the Northampton border. Clustering of shrunken sites around Milton Keynes where detailed fieldwork has been carried out suggests that the number of shrunken sites may be generally underestimated.

A total of 209 moated sites were identified from records in Buckinghamshire. The overall distribution shows a preference for the gault clay soils of the north Chiltern fringe and the low-lying clay vales around the Thames and the Ouse. In a number of nucleated settlements the moat is sited immediately adjacent to the church, suggesting a church-manor complex as the settlement nucleus; this contrasts with other settlements which have a moat sited at some distance from the church.

Moated sites are rare in the Chilterns. With the exception of some sites in the Thames and Colne valleys, all are sited at some considerable distance from the parish church and appear to be outlying farmsteads, some perhaps grange farms, rather than manor houses. Very few of them have names which can be identified in historical documents and even fewer have any dating evidence. Further north, the most dense distribution of moated sites occurs along the northern edge of the Chilterns. Very few of these lie close to the parish church and a significant number lie in the north of their parishes as if deliberately sited to occupy the greensand and gault clay margins of the territories.

Domesday Book shows Buckinghamshire to be one of the least densely populated midland counties. Though the county does have some areas where population density was high by any standards (most notably in the Vale of Aylesbury), they are relatively few and far between, and the county does have far larger tracts of lower densities, most notably the Chilterns.

Subsequent to Domesday Book, Buckinghamshire is not well served by sources for population levels and wealth. While, of course, the 1334 Lay Subsidy is available to us, there is no complete, or even near complete medieval subsidy list which gives the number of tax payers rather than just the assessment of villis. But in addition to the early 14th century tax lists we have the advantage of some records of the 1377 Poll Tax, though only for the Chiltern Hundreds in the far south of the county.

The picture deriving from these later medieval taxation records is one that shows a pattern similar in many respects to that given by Domesday. Despite population growth Buckinghamshire still seems to have been one of the least populated and least wealthy midland counties. The patterns of variation in higher and lower population density within the county also are broadly the same as those found in 1086, with the Chilterns standing out as sparsely peopled, and only the Vale of Aylesbury and the lower Ouse valley comparable to the highest levels of the counties around. But while general patterns seem to have remained unchanged there were individual places that stand out for their marked change in the ranking of relative population levels.

Levels of population generally correlate with the extent of land under the plough. Certainly the areas with less population in Domesday Book are generally those with greater recorded amounts of woodland, which in this county is measured by the number of pigs it could support. The scale of pastoralism in areas like Bernwood and Whittlewood/Salcey and above all the Chilterns must have been significant to judge by the number of pigs able to be supported there. Significant areas available for pasturing survived throughout the middle ages both in the forested areas of the west and north of the county and also in the Chilterns.

Published records of the 12th to 14th centuries provide 58 examples of two and three field common field systems of the apparently regular "Midland" variety in Buckinghamshire, with two fields in a considerable majority. The evidence for the existence of "Midland" field systems is all found north of the Chilterns. Common fields were not absent from the Chiltern Hills, but the systems of

which they were part were less extensive and less regular, and often it is hard to define their extent as they seem to have lacked the level of integration of the "Midland" systems further north. The area always had more extensive areas of enclosed land but also had a great deal of land as commons, in the form of extensive uncultivated wastes.

The Hundred Rolls of 1279 for Buckinghamshire reveal a manorial structure in which villeinage and villein tenants generally predominated over freedom and free tenants. However, as in other regions, charter evidence shows that at some places (such as Thornborough) freedom was growing at the expense of villeinage in the course of the 13th century. The surviving Hundred Rolls only cover the northernmost parts of the county, and David Roden's work shows that further south, and above all in the Chilterns, populations included greater levels of freedom and that in some places villeinage may even have been completely absent.

Any such contrasts in the social structure of the county are hardly apparent in the evidence of Domesday Book. Though there are differences in the exact proportions of the varying grades of peasantry present in, say, the Chilterns, they are but minimal. This suggests that the distinctions between this area and that further north in the 13th and 14th centuries may have been a particular development of the period after 1086, perhaps associated with the extensive but late process of clearance of the waste.

In Domesday Book the lords of the county are found to be predominantly lay, and the amount of land held by the church was notably limited. Indeed other than the few (though large) manors held by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of Winchester and the Abbey of St Albans most of the lands held by churchmen in 1086 appear to have been personal possessions and not long term institutional holdings. The dearth of significant ecclesiastical holdings in the county no doubt reflects the absence of any significant religious houses situated in the county. In the period after 1086 the number of religious houses increased markedly, leading to a marked increase in the amount of land in the hands of the church, though these new houses were but small, and even collectively the scale of their estates was limited. Amongst the lay estates the largest in 1086 was that of Walter Giffard, later formalised as the barony of Long Crendon, whose lands concentrated in the centre and west of the county. The king's lands were modest by comparison, comprising a handful of manors scattered in the north and central parts. The extent of the fragmentation of lordship in 1086 varied widely even on a local scale, but was notably limited above all in the Chilterns, a situation that was to change markedly in the subsequent centuries.

Buckinghamshire had developed an extensive network of markets by the end of the 13th century as was generally the case across the country. The density of markets, particularly in the centre of the county, was notably less than in most other parts of the study area, but the distribution of markets in the Chilterns is distinctively dense, with a market in more or less every parish (though the parishes are often very large ones). In view of the low levels of population this does seem to suggest a high level of market orientation among the inhabitants. perhaps as

well as servicing a local economy the Chiltern markets may have had a more specialised role in longer distance trade, particularly linking them to London.

As far as can be told most of the markets only came into existence in the course of the 13th century, but in a few cases, particularly in the north, the origins of markets and market activity can be traced as far back as the Anglo-Saxon period. There were already two boroughs in the north of the county by 1066, at Buckingham and Newport Pagnell. Moreover Langport, though it apparently had no status or function as a market in the post-Conquest period, may well have done at some stage before 1066, judging from the *port* element in its place-name.

LEICESTERSHIRE

Extensive field work by a number of researchers, notably those working for Leicestershire Museum, has recorded many medieval settlement remains across the county. This county now includes Rutland, once separate and the smallest shire in the country.

Leicestershire is a predominantly pastoral county of undulating lowland punctuated by the wooded hills of Charnwood Forest. The centre of the county is dominated by the Soar Valley, and indeed the old county (excluding Rutland) comprised essentially the catchment area and surrounding watersheds of the upper reaches of this river, which flows north into the Trent and thence the Humber. Much of this is underlain by Lias Clays, and characterised by poorly drained clay soils best suited to pasture. To the west Charnwood, a region of wood pasture intersected by sharply defined erratic streams, has long been recognised as a distinct historical region. Bardon Hill in the centre of the Forest rises to a height of 278m OD, the highest point in the county and forms part of an outcrop of older, harder rock formations which gives the landscape an even more distinct appearance. West of Charnwood extensive coalfields have been exploited since at least the fifteenth century. This area has predominantly poor quality soils best suited to pasture. The landscape today is dominated by the sprawl of 19th and 20th century industrial settlement.

In the centre and north of the county the hilly plateau of the region historically known as the Wolds occupies the area between the Wreake valley and the Vale of Belvoir. Much of this area is covered with extensive and unrelieved tracts of boulder clay and has long been regarded as barren and difficult to exploit. The eastern part, although part of the same block of elevated land, is less extensively covered with boulder clay and has some better quality soils. Cereal crops can be grown in parts of the Wolds, but it requires careful management. The Vale of Belvoir, which forms the northernmost protrusion of the county, is an area of limestone outcrops notably free of boulder clay and with a good deal of dairy farming.

Leicestershire was extensively occupied in the Iron Age and Roman periods. There are few hillforts known in the county, but those that are recorded lie on the Leicestershire Heights and Breedon Hill in the north. Elsewhere, enclosed Iron Age sites are few in number, but include one at Bardon Hill in Charnwood, demonstrating that this inaccessible part of the county which generally yields little archaeological evidence at any period was not devoid of settlement. In fact, although much of the direct

settlement evidence for the period comes from the east and north of the county the distribution of recorded artifacts suggests that there were few areas that were not settled by the late Iron Age.

Roman settlement sites are particularly densely distributed in the valleys of the Soar and the Sence. This reflects the situation in the preceding Iron Age. With the notable exception of the eastern Wolds, the densest recorded distribution of settlement occurs in the areas traversed by the roads linking the larger settlements (though sites are rarely immediately adjacent to such roads) and it is notable that several of these follow the same or similar line as earlier trackways. Leicester, probably a high status site in the Iron Age, became in the Roman period the *civitas* capital of the Coritani and was a focus for numerous smaller settlements and villas. By contrast, much of the Leicestershire Heights, the Lutterworth plateau and the Charnwood area have little recorded evidence for settlement. This is unlikely to reflect the true picture, as both fieldwork and air photography are still turning up large numbers of previously unknown settlements and villas in most parts of the county. Where detailed fieldwork has been carried out, such as in the Welland Valley and along the road linking Medbourne and Leicester, it is apparent that small Roman settlements are commonly found in less favoured sites on the edges of the boulder clay, with medieval settlements occupying nearby prime sites on gravel islands. The implication may be that these later settlements also overlie so far undiscovered Roman sites. (This is a pattern which was also noted in Bedfordshire, where in the outlying parts of the territories later associated with medieval settlements Roman sites have been recorded.)

Although the main economic activity is presumed to have been agricultural, the evidence for this is confined to a few corn driers and traces of field systems on air photographs, such as at Ravenstone in Charnwood – an area notable for its absence of known villas.

The Roman period was one of continuing intensive exploitation of the Soar Valley and its environs, in the archaeologically visible form of roads, towns and villas. Very little is known about the lowest strata of rural settlement, farmsteads and hamlets, which must have been associated with the villa estates across much of the centre, south and east of the country. Although evidence from the rest of the country is harder to come by, the fragments that are available suggest that those more elevated areas traditionally regarded as marginal (Charnwood, the Wolds, High Leicestershire) are likely to have been exploited for agriculture with perhaps a stronger emphasis on industrial production, including pottery manufacture.

Evidence for settlement in Leicestershire in the 5th to 11th centuries is very sparse. Only 125 sites have produced material of this date and of these only 65 have any indication whether they date to the early, middle or late part of this period. Recorded material occurs most commonly in the main valleys of the Soar, the Wreake and the Welland, with a thin scattering across western Leicestershire and eastern High Leicestershire. It is notable that there is no marked avoidance of the Boulder Clay, with c. 38% of settlements or finds associated with it. Areas which have produced little or no material, including Charnwood and much of the Wolds, are those

where less opportunity has arisen for recovering archaeological evidence and should not thus be assumed to have been devoid of settlement. A concentration of material around Medbourne in the south of the county is the result of a detailed field-walking programme and serves to demonstrate that the present picture is dependent on the amount of research that has been carried out.

Only 23 sites are recorded which indicate settlement specifically in the 5th to 8th centuries. Inevitably, the distribution of these is very localised and heavily biased by detailed fieldwork in the south-east of the county. 69% were sites which were abandoned by the Norman Conquest, with 52% abandoned before the mid 9th century. By contrast, most (77%) settlements with evidence of occupation in the 9th or 10th centuries continued to be occupied in the post Conquest era. (It is notable that most of the early sites which are not occupied in any later period were discovered during field walking. This is in contrast to Buckinghamshire where most 5th to 8th century evidence has been recovered from within existing settlements, but where little fieldwalking has been carried out to date.)

More than 80% of settlements with recorded occupation of the 9th and 10th centuries are now nucleated medieval villages. This partly reflects the distribution of the archaeological evidence, which mostly derives from areas of nucleated settlement, but it may nonetheless be significant for the dating of nucleation; particularly in the south of the country, where the settlement pattern is generally more mixed. Archaeological evidence for pre-Conquest occupation in areas of dispersed settlement is significantly under-represented in the record.

It is also notable that *c.* 80% of settlements with evidence of pre-Conquest occupation survived the late medieval period with little shrinkage or desertion, perhaps indicating that early occupation was one factor in later settlement stability.

The form of medieval settlement in Leicestershire shows distinct regional variations. Much of the east of the country has a highly nucleated settlement pattern, with tightly clustered agglomerations, often of a considerable size, appearing as the commonest form of settlement. Parishes are generally of fairly regular size and settlements are typically located centrally within them. There is very little evidence for subsidiary settlements within these units. Some limited areas, such as that around Tilton on the Hill, perhaps display a less fully nucleated pattern with settlements arranged as small regular streets or rows interspersed with isolated farmsteads and irregular rows. Underlining the contrast with the surrounding nucleated areas is the fact that many more of the isolated farmsteads in this area are recorded in the later medieval period.

In contrast, settlement in the main river valleys is most commonly in the form of regular streets or rows, generally regularly spaced along either side of the valley bottoms. Some of the rows are very long and extend for as much as a kilometre. These are particularly common between Leicester and Loughborough (eg Mountsorrel, Swithland, Newton Linford, Woodhouse Eaves). Parishes here accord to the classic riverine pattern, being aligned along river valleys and arranged to include land extending away

from the valley floor.

Further west, the pattern is more variable, with a mixture of irregular rows and small regular rows, interspersed with linked farmstead clusters, occasional small clustered nucleations and isolated farmsteads. Immediately south of Ashby de la Zouch is a well defined area where moderate and larger nucleations predominate. Settlement here is very different, however, to the regular pattern in the east. Many of the nucleations display irregular appendant elements which have a distinctly dispersed character, and there are intermittent concentrations of isolated unnamed units, commonly at points where several parish boundaries meet, most of which have vanished from modern OS maps. This area coincides with the coal measures, and reflects the post-medieval exploitation of this resource.

This pattern contrasts strongly with that in Charnwood. In the most elevated area around Bardon Hill settlement is limited to isolated farmsteads which are mainly the result of post medieval colonisation. Fringing this area, an outer ring of settlement is composed of a more dense distribution of farmsteads, several of which carry names recorded in medieval sources. Still further away from the centre of historic Charnwood settlement takes the form of complex interlocking chains comprising combinations of irregular rows, farmsteads, and tiny regular streets and clusters. The complexity of these settlements is underlined by their large number of named parts. This is illustrated by Newbold, Outwood, Coleorton, Coleorton Moor, Limby, Swannington Moor, Peggs Green, Gelsmoor and Griffydam, which are all very difficult to identify as separate units within a straggle of settlement extending across more than six square kilometres around a point where five parishes meet. Much of this is clearly post-medieval development and we cannot be sure whether the earlier pattern was solely one of farmstead clusters or whether some more coherent irregular rows were also then present.

Settlement shrinkage and desertion is visible across the whole county but is considerably more widespread in the east and the south. Deserted and shrunken settlements are least common around Charnwood and in the valleys of the Soar and its tributaries. By contrast, across much of Rutland and the Welland Valley there are few settlements which are not significantly shrunken or deserted.

Deserted and shrunken settlements occur on all types of parent geology. 15% are associated with Alluvium, 47% with Boulder Clay, 30% with Keuper Marls and Sandstones and 32% with Oolitic and Lias formations. This compares very closely with the figures of 15%, 48%, 26% and 27% respectively for all medieval villages (ie settlements larger than farmsteads) in Leicestershire. Sites with combinations of soil types were more commonly selected for settlement and a similar pattern is evident in deserted settlements, suggesting that settlement in Leicestershire did not become deserted because they were on less favoured sites.

A number of deserted settlements lie close to parish or manorial boundaries, and as in Bedfordshire a distinct pattern of farmsteads documented in the 12th to 13th centuries lay close to parish boundaries. Indeed, all the settlements which survive as isolated farms whose names

are recorded in the medieval period in eastern Leicestershire lie within a few hundred metres of parish boundaries. This pattern, with its possible implications for hierarchical settlement structures and agricultural management, merits further study.

A total of 138 moated sites are recorded in Leicestershire, of which 72 are now abandoned, 29 are occupied by isolated farms and 37 lie within present villages or hamlets. Their distribution shows distinct regional patterning. The densest distribution is to be found in the area of dispersed settlement in the west of the county. More than half the moated sites in this area are still occupied, considerably more than in the county overall, and in all but a couple of cases this occupation is in the form of isolated farms. There is no pattern of moats sited in close association with parish churches. Rather, moats in this area appear to be created not as manor houses but, as in the Chilterns, as sites for exploiting the more remote parts of the territory. It is notable that their distribution and siting here is similar to that of other (non-moated) isolated farmsteads recorded in the Middle Ages, and we need to know more about the status and occupants of both types of settlement in the 12th to 14th centuries.

This pattern is all the more noticeable because it is in such stark contrast to that of the immediately adjacent valleys of the Soar and the western Sence. Here, moats are far fewer in number, and are much more commonly deserted. They are often sited very close to churches, suggesting that in these valleys they do represent manor houses.

A thin scatter of moated sites extends across most of the county east of the Soar. A high percentage (more than 95%) are abandoned, in stark contrast to the rest of the county. This part of the county is notable for its high proportion of deserted and shrunken settlements and this failure or contraction of settlement appears to be mirrored in that of moated sites – indeed, even more catastrophically so. While the abandonment of moated sites within deserted or very shrunken villages is clearly likely to be linked with the decline of the settlement and subsequent reorganisation, it is less clear whether isolated moated sites were abandoned as part of the same cycle or for different reasons.

Domesday Book indicates that in the late 11th century Leicestershire was as a whole the most densely populated of all the four counties studied. However, the west of the county was only thinly populated in 1086, containing Charnwood, the second largest area of very low population (after the Chilterns) in the entire study area. Moreover, even outside Charnwood, the west of the country was generally of less than average population density. The east of the county was very densely populated and this seems to have increased the further east one goes, culminating in the most thickly peopled area of Rutland. The patterns of higher and lower population density follow the lines of the major river valleys and vales.

After Domesday there is a subsidy roll for 1327, covering the whole of historic Leicestershire (but not Rutland), with full lists of tax payers, as well as extensive records from the Poll Tax of 1377, which cover two thirds of historic Leicestershire and all of Rutland.

These documents provide a picture which is surprisingly similar to that deriving from Domesday. The west is more thinly populated and poorer, the east is far more densely populated and richer. Overall Leicestershire had slipped in the ranking of counties by 1377 and was less densely populated than both Bedfordshire and Northamptonshire, though on the national scale it was still among the most populous. The most striking instances of population growth were actually in the Charnwood area, despite which it was still the most thinly populated area in the county, emphasising the extent to which it seems to have been empty of people in 1086.

Patterns of land-use also show a distinct contrast between the west and the east of the county. In Domesday Book the only extensive areas of woodland are found in the west, in the areas of Leicester Forest and Charnwood Forest. There is a small concentration of woodland in the east of the county, on and around the border between historic Leicestershire and Rutland, which is the area of the later forest of Leicester and Rutland (otherwise known as Leighfield).

Little evidence has been found in the limited body of printed medieval sources for the nature of Leicestershire field systems. However in the post-medieval period the county was dominated by regular “Midland” type field systems, with a preponderance of the three field variety. Such medieval evidence as is known indicates the presence of regular field systems in a number of parts of the county and it is likely that the later domination of this mode of organisation was already a feature of the earlier period. At this date however, there appear to have been a larger proportion of two field systems.

Leicestershire stands out in Domesday Book as being a county with an extensive body of identifiable free peasantry – the sokemen – who made up some of its recorded population, making them the second most numerous class of people after the *villani*. Sokemen existed in a distinctly larger proportion in the north-east of the county, where they constituted the majority group at 50%, while in the east of the county as a whole they only made up 20%.

The Hundred Rolls of 1279 survive for the hundred of Guthlaxton and part of Gartree, in all including about 130 places in the south and west of the county. Villein tenants predominated over free tenants, however the exact balance between free and unfree tenants varied quite widely, and in a significant minority of places (c.30%), freedom predominated. The lack of coincidence between places with a high proportion of sokemen in 1086 and free tenants in 1279 suggests that these free tenants did not generally derive from the old class of sokemen.

With its widespread predominance of villeinage over freedom Leicestershire might appear as a bastion of the classic manorial regime. However this is not the whole story for Leicestershire demesnes were in fact notably smaller than in many other counties and moreover rents and services were markedly less onerous than in many places. Thus though more peasants might have been personally unfree, in fact the demands made on them by lords were lighter than elsewhere.

As in Buckinghamshire, Leicestershire lacked major ecclesiastical lords in 1086, again a situation that was not substantially altered by the increase in the number of religious houses in the following century, most of which were on a decidedly modest scale. This was very much a county dominated by lay lords. By far the largest fief in 1086 was that of Hugh de Grandmaison, which, further enlarged by the addition of the fief of the Count of Meulan, later went to make up the honour held by the Earls of Leicester. However, much of the honour was not held directly and the demesne interests were quite limited. Though the King's holdings were relatively few in comparison to the fiefs of the greater nobles, like Hugh de Grandmaison, amongst them were several manors with extensive networks of lands linked to them, covering substantial areas. These are identifiable as "sokes", collections of sokemen and their lands owing quasi public service and suit to royal manors. The royal manors as a whole are scattered quite widely, though there is a distinct concentration of some within Rutland, while on the other hand they are largely absent from the west of the county.

By the 14th century there was an extensive network of some 40 markets, distributed quite evenly across the county, though there do appear to have been marginally fewer in the west and south. A number of these market sites were boroughs, indicating places that either had evolved, or been founded, as specialised trading centres. The distribution of these is distinct from that of markets as a whole, being more numerous in the west than east, perhaps reflecting some difference in the nature of the trading economies of the two halves of the county. Markets and boroughs proliferated in the 12th and 13th century. The only two that are known to have existed at the time of the Domesday survey are Leicester itself, no doubt already a town of some size with origins stretching back into the 10th century, and Melton Mowbray.

THE LEVERHULME MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENTS AND LANDSCAPES PROJECT: REPORT ON SITE SELECTION FOR FUTURE FIELDWORK IN THE EAST MIDLANDS by **Carenza Lewis and Patrick Mitchell-Fox**

This paper was presented to a seminar held at the University of Birmingham by the Leverhulme Trust funded research project into medieval settlement and landscapes in the East Midlands, under the direction of Christopher Dyer.

Readers of this Annual Report will be aware of the Leverhulme Trust research project into medieval settlements in the East Midlands (see C Dyer *MSRGAR* 6 1991, 23-4; Lewis and Mitchell-Fox *MSRGAR* 7 1992, 15-20; Lewis and Mitchell-Fox this report 27-35). Much effort has focused on analysing and interpreting the historical, archaeological and geographical data that has been assembled in the course of the project. One of the aims of the project was to identify a site or area which would have maximal potential as a future intensive, long-term research project. A new research project is needed as a focus for further advances in work on settlement now that excavation and fieldwork at Wharram Percy have effectively come to an end. The East Midlands (namely the four modern counties of Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Northamptonshire and Leicestershire), was

selected initially as the starting point for this search, as the region contains a range of archaeological remains, including good pre-Conquest pottery sequences, useful documentary sources from both pre- and post-conquest centuries, and encompasses a range of landscapes and settlement types.

This paper presents our proposals for areas within the study region which might particularly repay more detailed investigation. Clearly, any future project which might result from the Leverhulme Trust research will only be able to tackle one of these suggestions, and it is our hope that by publishing this list and discussion, that others may in the future be able to investigate some of the others. A total of fourteen areas were identified, which ranged considerably in size, terrain and the nature of the historical and archaeological evidence available for study. Some basic assumptions about the direction and priorities for future research in medieval settlement studies influenced our decisions and should be explicitly stated.

Firstly, we consider that the area selected should be one where nucleated villages are not the only form of medieval settlement, that is, that it should be an area with dispersed settlement. Ideally it should be an area where both nucleated and dispersed settlements are present. A considerable amount of time and energy has already been expended on research into nucleated villages and we feel that any long-term project should have the potential to move away from this and consider other forms of settlement which are less fully understood at present.

Secondly, we feel that research should be focused from the outset on the wider landscape, not being restricted to a single site or settlement. We feel that the smallest scale at which a future project should operate is that of a single parish, but many of the areas we have identified are much larger. It is accepted that such a project may well need to redefine its area of enquiry as it progresses and as understanding advances. New questions are bound to arise during the course of research, and these may require contractions or extensions of the area under study which cannot now be predicted; thus the precise boundaries we have suggested must be regarded as flexible guidelines.

Thirdly, we feel that a future project should seek to encompass a range of settlements, including those which are deserted or very shrunken as well as those which are still occupied. Useful as deserted sites are for providing an opportunity for detailed investigation, including excavation, our understanding of the evolution of settlement in the medieval period is inevitably biased if research focuses exclusively on such sites, which can be regarded as unusual or untypical.

Fourthly, we regard it as important that any future research area should have the potential for a wide-ranging chronological span, which would enable the evolution of settlement in the medieval period to be studied within the wider perspective of earlier and later periods. In particular, we feel it is important that there is potential for relating settlement development in the medieval period to that of the later prehistoric and the Roman period.

These predispositions have inevitably influenced the choice of the fourteen areas which were subsequently

'scored' in the style of the Monuments Protection Programme according to a number of categories which are explained below. It was fundamentally impractical to score all of the data assembled in the course of the Leverhulme project in this way. This is not because of the time which would be involved, but reflects rather the need to find an *area* (which may be best understood as comprising a *group* of settlements including their surrounding geographical or tenorial landscape) for investigation, rather than a single settlement. These areas suggest themselves from the combination of settlements and landscapes they encompass; clearly, there are an infinite number of variations on these areas and it would be impossible to score them all. Scoring all recorded settlements individually (the only way to score all of the recorded data), and then assessing each area on the basis of its combined or averaged settlement scores, would have ignored the value the settlements have in relation to one another within the area or group. This is not to suggest that some of the data gathered during the course of the project has been ignored because it has not been scored. On the contrary, the examination of all the data together has been a major part of the project, which will be published in detail in a future monograph. It has enabled us to identify the potential and priorities for research in the region, and perhaps more widely in the discipline, and to select from the whole body of the data the groups or areas discussed below.

The areas or groups of settlement were scored according to nine criteria as follows:

1. Topography – High scores are given for those locations where topography, soil types, geology etc. are well recorded and likely to enhance the potential for research into the relationship between settlement form/development and environment. Low scores for areas with little or no variety of terrain unless they constitute a specifically interesting area. Low scores are also given for areas with little variety.
2. Archaeology – High scores for those areas where there is potential for retrieving archaeological evidence of varying types, including earthworks, pottery scatters and soilmarks. Low marks for areas likely to produce only one form of archaeological evidence. Very low marks for areas with little or no recorded (or potential) archaeological evidence at all.
3. Pottery – High scores are given for areas in the vicinity of sites that have produced good dateable sequences of medieval pottery. Very high scores where these cover both pre- and post-Conquest centuries. Roman pottery recorded in area merits an extra point.
4. Early documentation – High scores for those areas which include a large number of places in pre-Conquest charters. Very high scores if these include boundary clauses which could facilitate the study of early organisation and landscape.
5. Medieval documentation – High scores for those areas for which good post-Conquest documentary evidence is known. Very high scores for those which have extensive court rolls. Low scores for those with little more than Domesday Book and lay subsidy evidence.
6. Maps – High scores for areas which have pre-19th century maps. Very high scores for 17th century maps or larger areas covered by a number of early maps. Very low scores for areas which have no tithe or enclosure maps, i.e. nothing pre-dating 1st edition OS maps.
7. Palaeobotanical – High scores are awarded for those locations which encompass areas which may yield palaeobotanical evidence. Very high scores for any which already have. Moderately high scores for those near to such areas.
8. Location – High scores are awarded for those locations with potential for a wider landscape study, including aspects such as typicality within a wider region, relationship to other areas, interaction of town and country etc.
9. Accessibility – High scores for areas where it is likely to be easy to carry out fieldwork. Low scores for areas which are heavily built up or in difficult ownership. Low scores also for areas which are very extensively ploughed or densely wooded.

A maximum of ten points was awarded in each category, giving a maximum score of ninety. The areas are now summarised individually, in alphabetical order (Fig.6).

1. Badby Area

This comprises nine parishes in Northamptonshire, namely Badby, Newnham, Dodford, Everdon, Weedon Bec, Norton, Daventry, Staverton and Catesby in western Northamptonshire. The area is mostly under pasture and has a gently undulating terrain of mixed boulder clay and lias formations. The settlement pattern is strongly nucleated but many villages are shrunken and a large minority are deserted. Earthwork sites and some pottery scatters have been found in the region, and ridge and furrow is well-preserved. It is well-known archaeologically, having been surveyed by the Royal Commission, and, more recently, by David Hall. The market town of Daventry has also been the subject of recent study by Tony Brown.

Evidence for the history of the pre-Conquest period in this area is perhaps more notable than for any of the other areas reviewed. There are a number of Anglo-Saxon charters dealing with parts of this area, which include four boundary clauses, three dealing with overlapping areas around Badby itself and the fourth dealing with Stowe. Many of the townships of the area are known to have existed before the end of the 10th century. Apocryphal stories from the Life of St Werburg identify Stowe as a possible cult site for a minor saint called Alnoth (Stowe church has Anglo-Saxon fabric), while nearby Weedon Bec is identified as the site of a royal palace of the Mercian king Wulfhere. Both Weedon and Stowe have place-names which suggest possible early religious significance. Parts of the area are associated by churchscot payments in the post-Conquest period with the church of Fawsley, which is taken as an example of a pre-Conquest minster. This offers good opportunities for the investigation of settlement in relation to administrative structures in the early Middle Ages.

There is also some notable documentation from the later

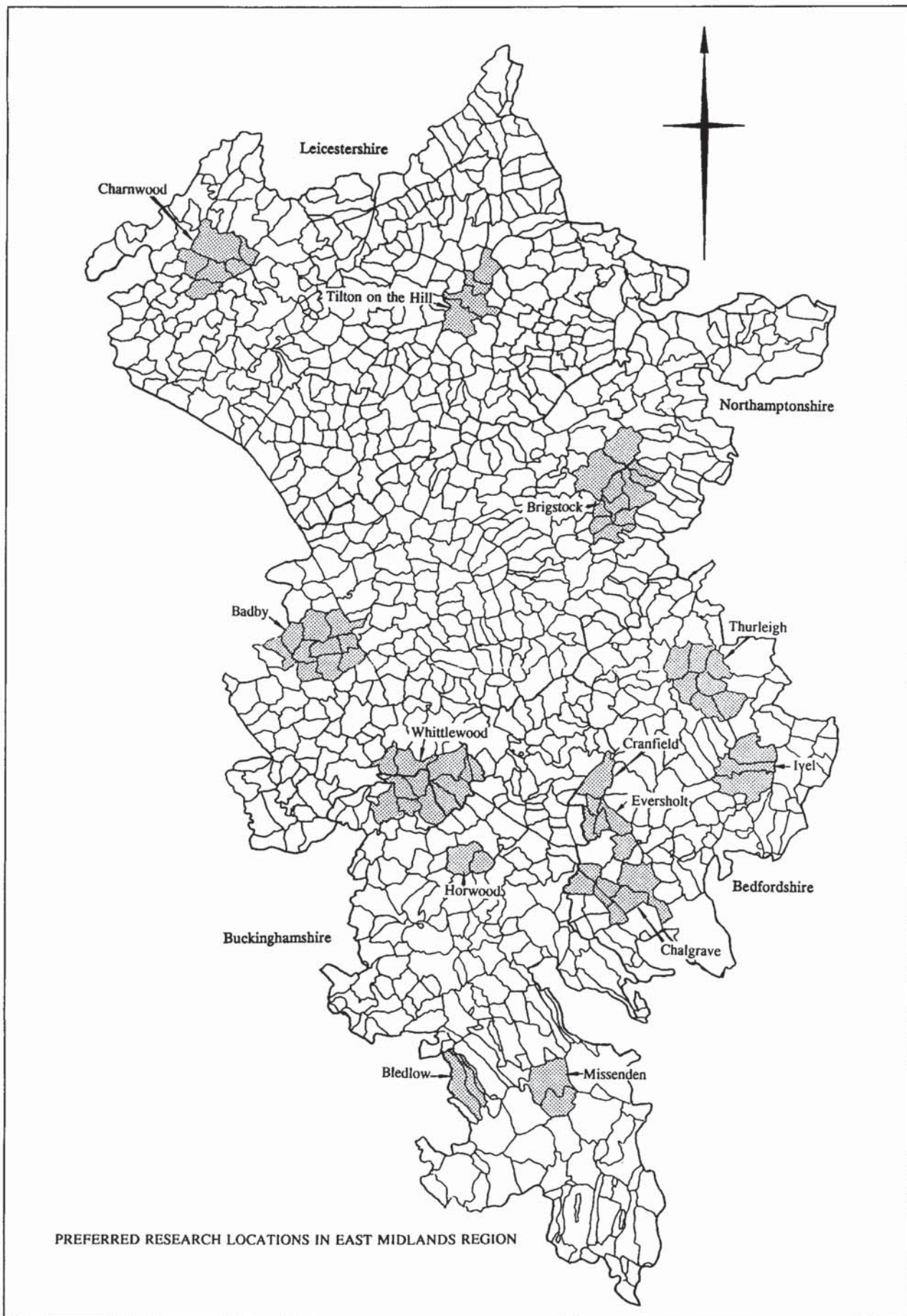


Figure 6: Preferred Research locations in the East Midlands Region.

Middle Ages for places within the study area. There are good runs of manor court rolls for both Weedon Bec and Catesby beginning in the early 14th century, and there are also a notable range of other types of estate documents available for Weedon dating back to the 13th century. There is also some 15th century material (including court rolls) for both Dodford and Everdon. The Evesham Abbey manors of Badby and Newnham are represented in the estate records of that house, above all in a number of surveys. There are also several cartularies of monasteries which contain deeds, particularly those of Daventry and Luffield. However parts of the area lack early maps.

The advantages of this area are particularly the evidence from the pre-Conquest period and good archaeological and later historical evidence. The disadvantage is that it is almost entirely nucleated.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
4	7	2	10	7	2	0	6	6
TOTAL = 44/90								

2. Bledlow Parish

This includes the ancient parishes of Bledlow, Saunderton and Horsenden, now all within Bledlow in south Buckinghamshire. The parish lies on the edge of the Chiltern escarpment, and includes steeply rising land which is fairly well wooded, with more open level land to the south. Settlement is in the form of 'villages' which straggle as long attenuated strings, and was anciently even more dispersed, as modern infill gives settlements today a more regular appearance. The south of the parish is traversed by the Icknield Way, and there is Roman roof tile in the church walls. Some shrinkage in the form of slight earthworks is recorded around existing settlements, and there are several moated sites. Saunderton had two medieval churches (a rare feature in this part of the world), one of which is now lost.

Though mentioned in a 10th century charter, there is no associated boundary clause. The area's historical documents relate to the manor of Bledlow itself, which like Weedon in the Badby area belonged to the French Abbey of Bec, and which in the 15th century came, along with its records, into the hands of Eton College. There are good runs of court rolls (starting in the 14th century and continuing on through much of the 15th), as well as rentals, accounts, custumals and deeds. There are also a number of 13th and 14th century surveys of the manor. Bledlow is no doubt also represented in the deeds in the cartularies of the Priory of Ogbourne, which was the administrative centre of Bec's lands in England. There are more limited materials for the manor of Horsenden that begin in the late 14th century, including some court rolls.

The early local mapping of the area is not exceptional, though all parts do have 18th or 19th century enclosure or tithe maps.

This area recommends itself by the strength of its medieval documentation and its strongly contrasting topography. Detailed research would be able to focus initially on the development of settlement in this distinctive Chiltern edge region, the relationship between settlement and topography, and to search for more

evidence for earlier occupation which might throw light on the origins of the settlement pattern. Its disadvantages are that it might be difficult to find much archaeological evidence and that it is not particularly strong on pre-Conquest documentation.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
5	6	5	5	8	2	0	4	5
TOTAL = 40/90								



Plate II: Bledlow

3. Brigstock area

This area comprises the parishes of Brigstock, Benefield, the Aldwinkles, Sudborough, Slipton, Twywell, Woodford, Pilton, Wadenhoe and Lowick in eastern Northamptonshire. It extends down from the boulder clay maasif of central Northamptonshire south to the Nene Valley, and includes part of the royal forest of Rockingham in its northern limits. Much of the high, exposed, slightly rolling boulder clay area is presently ploughed, in large prairie-like fields with most hedges and boundaries removed, although some parkland is preserved intact. A cluster of abandoned late medieval farmsteads and moated sites lies on the edge of Benefield and is associated with the Lyveden pottery industry. Otherwise settlement is exclusively nucleated, perhaps unexpectedly so in an area of former royal forest. Work by Foster has shown that there may be considerable potential for recovering evidence for previously unrecorded settlement on the boulder clay, which is poorly understood. This area drops sharply into the Nene Valley, which is broad and level. Here settlement, which appears to very nucleated and in many cases shrunken although rarely deserted, tends to favour the slopes of the valley edge.

There is a considerable block of adjacent, or near adjacent parishes for all of which there are notable quantities and variety of later medieval documents. These come mostly from the collections of the Duke of Buccleuch, at Boughton house, with substantial collections of manorial archives, including many 14th century court rolls, for Brigstock, Geddington and Weekley, as well as much documentation for Warkton; and from Drayton House there is similar material for Lowick, Drayton itself, Sudborough, Slipton and Islip. There is a further collection, including many 14th century court rolls, for Woodford. Evidence for the history of Rockingham forest is found in the Buccleuch collection, as well as in the royal forest records. Rockingham Forest was also an area in which land was held by several churches for which

there are good surviving cartularies and other records, in particular Peterborough Abbey and the Cistercian house of Pipewell.

For the pre-Conquest period there are a number of charters (not all authentic) dealing with several parts of the area, at least two including relevant boundary clauses.

There are a number of useful early 18th century estate maps, though most parishes have no earlier maps than enclosure or tithe maps of the late 18th or early 19th century. A number of forest maps of the 17th and 18th century also cover the various bailiwicks and parks.

Brigstock recommends itself on the grounds of its excellent medieval documentation and its potential for research into the evolution of settlement on the boulder clay, and the relationship of this to various well documented local features including the small town of Oundle, the pottery industry, and the royal forest. It is disadvantaged by being rather too dominated by nucleated settlements, and that it may be rather *too* close to Raunds!

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
4	6	8	3	8	2	0	6	5
TOTAL = 42/90								



Plate III: Brigstock

4. Chalgrave area

This includes the parishes of Chalgrave, Tilsworth Hockliffe, Battlesden, Heath and Reach and (possibly) Toddington in Bedfordshire. It lies on mixed gault clay and upper greensand, and has a distinctly undulating and quite varied topography – land-use includes a mixture of arable, pasture and woodland. Settlement form is similarly varied, with a mixture of dispersed and nucleated forms. It is crossed by the Roman road Watling Street, (now the A5) which provides interesting potential for any attempt to identify and date earlier field and road patterns. Several shrunken settlements include Hockliffe, which had shifted in the late medieval or early modern period towards the main road from its original site on an elevated spur. Ridge and furrow, although generally rare in this part of Bedfordshire, is present in much of the area. A pre-Conquest settlement has been excavated at Charity Farm in the village of Eggington. Toddington provides an example of settlement continuity from at least the Roman period, on a gravel island in surrounding boulder clay.

There is an Anglo-Saxon charter with boundary clause which deals with Chalgrave itself. Later medieval documentation is good in parts, there is a good run of court rolls for the manor of Chalgrave beginning in the late 13th century and continuing intermittently down to the 17th. Eggington also has some less interesting manor court rolls beginning in the late 13th century. Chalgrave itself is also covered by a number of useful Inquisitions Post Mortem surveys.

The early local mapping largely consists of late 18th century enclosure and 19th century tithe maps, though there is one outstanding early map from the vicinity for Toddington, dating to 1581. Toddington does not appear to be otherwise well documented, although there are some court rolls from the 15th century and it is also of some interest as a small borough and market town.

Chalgrave recommends itself for further detailed study because it has such a variety of good archaeological and historical evidence surviving in a region of mixed settlement which has not been investigated in detail before, but about which enough is known to reinforce its apparent high potential. Detailed research in this area would be able to investigate broad issues concerning the origins and evolution of settlements of both dispersed and nucleated type, and their related field systems, with a particularly good opportunity to study also the contribution of both the Roman and 5th to 11th century occupation to this pattern. Furthermore, its varied character is similar to many regions of lowland England, and results from more detailed work might provide useful comparisons for other regions.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
8	8	6	6	5	5	00	8	7
TOTAL = 53/90								



Plate IV: Hockliffe

5. Charnwood area

This comprises the modern parishes of Whitwick, Ravenstone, Ibstock, Bardon, Charley and Coalville in western Leicestershire. It is an area of highly dispersed settlement on the edge of generally nucleated Leicestershire, a region of great topographical contrasts, with the igneous outcrops of and around Bardon Hill providing an island of upland landscape. It is historically a mining area, with extensive coalfields in the west, and was for a long while an area of restricted settlement within extensive waste land. Settlement, historically so sparse and dispersed, has expanded greatly in the last century or

so. It is now heavily built up in the west, although less so to the east, and is being extensively quarried for roadstone.

Unfortunately the area lacks much in the way of detailed documentation. Charnwood recommends itself as an interestingly distinct historic and settlement region, where a research project might seek to examine the relationship between settlement, society and economy, expanding into the post-medieval, and particularly focusing on the nature of dispersed settlements. Its disadvantages lie in its poor surviving evidence for such processes, as both documents and archaeology are scarce. Furthermore, the extensive sprawl of modern settlement and extraction activity would make it very difficult to carry out fieldwork.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
7	3	0	0	3	2	0	3	2

TOTAL = 20/90

6. Cranfield/Shillington parishes

These two parishes lie some distance apart, either side of the county of Bedfordshire. They both have a dispersed settlement pattern, though they are in fact very different. Cranfield, in the wooded claylands of the west, has a large number of moated sites (13 at last count), and a historically disparate core settlement comprising a number of separate '-end' places. Shillington, in the arable area south of the Ivel Valley, has by contrast only one moated site with a long straggling focal settlement.

Though a reference to Cranfield in the boundary clause of the Anglo-Saxon charter for neighbouring Aspley Guise is the only documentary evidence of that period, the cartulary of Ramsey Abbey does contain some information about the Abbey's acquisition of these manors. The cartulary also contains useful surveys of each of these places in both the 12th and 13th centuries (12th century surveys are quite rare). Both places are well represented in the estate archives of Ramsey Abbey, and in the manor court rolls in particular, which begin in the late 13th century and run through much of the 14th. Neither place has a map of particularly early date: for Cranfield there is a map from the first decade of the 19th century, while there are a number of maps dealing with Shillington both from the late 18th century and from the 19th.

Cranfield/Shillington recommend themselves for further study, despite their lack of geographical unity, because it is one of the few areas where dispersed settlements have good manorial records, lying as they do within a powerful ecclesiastical estate, and because the settlement in the two manors is so different. A detailed research project would be ideally placed to investigate the influence of lordship on the evolution of settlement. The disadvantages are likely to lie mainly in Cranfield, which is very built up and inaccessible to fieldwork, and also in the problem of maintaining coherence (both intellectual and practical) between work in the two parishes.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
6	4	3	4	9	4	0	3	1

TOTAL = 34/90

7. Eversholt area

This includes the parishes of Eversholt, Ridgmont, Husborne Crawley, Aspley Guise, Woburn and

Steppingley in western Bedfordshire. It is an area of historic woodland, with a predominantly dispersed settlement pattern, particularly in Eversholt which has at least 14 farmstead clusters carrying '-end' names. Nearby lie a number of small medieval market settlements. The landscape still contains extensive tracts of woodland, particularly around Woburn and Eversholt itself. In other parishes land use is more varied with pasture and arable present. No earthwork sites are presently recorded, although the isolated and abandoned church of Segenhoe, less than a mile from that at Ridgmont, attests to some settlement desertion or shift.

There is an Anglo-Saxon charter for Aspley Guise within this area, which has an informative boundary clause recording the existence already in the 10th century of a number of the townships bordering the estate.

The post Conquest documentation for this area is not outstanding. Although Woburn Abbey held land here there seem to be little of this house's records surviving. Dunstable Priory also had land here and records of a number of the places are represented in the cartulary of that house, which also includes the famous document relating to the reorganisation of land in Segenhoe and Ridgmont in the 12th century. There are some surveys for some of the places in the Inquisitions Post Mortem.

The local mapping of the area is good, all the constituent parts have maps from the 18th century or before.

Eversholt recommends itself for further work because it is an area of varied, mainly dispersed settlement which has some good historical documentation for both the pre- and post-Conquest periods, in a geographical region which has some coherence, lying across the upper greensand ridge of south Bedfordshire. The evolution of dispersed settlement could be examined from a historical and geographical perspective. It seems to lack archaeological potential. Little in the way of earthworks, pottery or crop/soil marks are known, and its wooded terrain and sandy soils are likely to make fieldwork and air photography difficult.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
7	4	0	7	5	4	0	4	6

TOTAL = 37/90

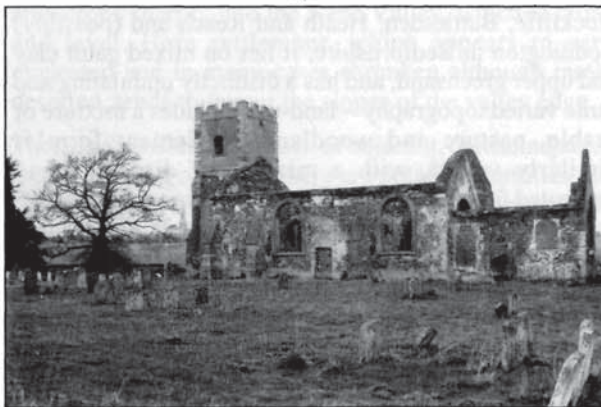


Plate V: Segenhoe (Ridgmont)

8. Horwood parishes

This area includes the parishes of Great and Little Horwood in north Buckinghamshire, and could be extended to include neighbouring Winslow with its

medieval borough. The area lies on gently undulating claylands, with a mixture of arable and pasture land. Though wooded in the past (note the place-names both of the parishes themselves and, for example 'Woodend' in Little Horwood) and close to the Forest of Whittlewood, it now has little woodland. Now an area of essentially agglomerated settlement, the very irregular and varied plan of settlements here and in the wider region of north Buckinghamshire, suggests perhaps a different developmental process to that of the highly regular agglomerations of much of Northamptonshire and Leicestershire: suggestion of a more distinct dispersed pattern underlying the later nucleation is suggested both by this irregularity and by several 'end' place-names. The two parishes form a regularly shaped estate unit. Roman and pre-Conquest settlement is recorded within the area, which contains earthworks, including the shrunken settlement of Singleborough, pottery scatters and also moated sites.

An Anglo-Saxon charter with a boundary clause poses problems of interpretation, and may be of less use than might appear at first. The principal interest of this area for historical research lies in the later medieval manorial documents. Great Horwood has a very impressive collection of court rolls that start at the very beginning of the 14th century. There is also a collection of court rolls for nearby Winslow for the whole of the reign of Edward III. Winslow was a manor of the Abbey of St Albans and so was Little Horwood (the above Anglo-Saxon charter is a St Albans document). The area is also fully covered by the surviving returns of the Buckinghamshire Hundred Rolls of 1279. Unfortunately there are no particularly early maps, the earliest local mapping being early 19th century.

Winslow was the site of a small borough by the 13th century, probably a foundation of the Abbey of St Albans, providing opportunities for the study of the association between towns and rural settlements.

Horwood recommends itself for further study as a compact pre-Conquest tenurial unit with good medieval documentation, and good potential for archaeological research. Any detailed research project would be able to investigate estate boundaries, and the evolution of settlement from the Roman period onwards.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
6	6	5	4	8	4	0	5	7
TOTAL = 45/90								



Plate VI: Little Horwood

9. Ivel

This area includes the parishes of Northill, Old Warden and Southill, which form a compact unit west of the river Ivel in Bedfordshire. The region is hilly, reflecting the underlying upper greensand, and has a mixed agricultural economy of woodland, pasture and arable, mostly still in fairly small fields. The mainly dispersed settlement lies mostly around the edge of very large irregular greens. There are also several isolated farmsteads. The area may have a single large entity in the early middle ages, from which was carved out the land given to the Cistercian Abbey of Warden. Several deserted sites, some of them surviving as earthworks, are recorded in the area, all of them in Old Warden, the Abbey land. Otherwise the area has no deserted settlements presently recorded. Some Roman settlement has been identified in the area and evidence for Roman centuriation has been claimed on the Ivel floodplain in Northill (and a possible road); it is close to the Roman small town of Sandy, and also near to the recently excavated moated site and settlement at Stratton.

Warden Abbey was a Cistercian house known as "St Mary in the Assarts" holding areas of land in at least two of the parishes, which are well represented in the deeds in its cartulary. The nearby Gilbertine Priory of Chicksands also had lands here. There are some late 14th century court rolls for one of the manors in Northill. There are also a variety of surveys and other documents relating to the lands of a collegiate foundation that lay in the same parish though this was not established until 1404.



Plate VII: Old Warden Abbey

There are no early estate maps though each of the parishes in the group is covered either by an enclosure or tithe map of the 18th or 19th centuries.

Pre-Conquest documentation is almost wholly absent, though the area does have some particular interest because of the possible identification of the Ivel Valley as the location of *the Gifla*, one of the smaller groups mentioned in the Tribal Hidage.

Ivel recommends itself because of the striking nature of the land division between lay and ecclesiastical lords, and the settlement history of this division. Further research would thus be well placed to investigate the relationship between lordship and settlement in an area of dispersed settlement. It is disadvantaged, at present, by a lack of evidence for the 5th to 11th century and no great abundance of archaeological evidence except for the Abbey site and several deserted hamlets in Old Warden.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
7	7	6	2	5	2	0	7	8

TOTAL = 44/90

10. Missenden

This includes the parishes of Great and Little Missenden, an area of medieval dispersed settlement in the middle of the Buckinghamshire Chilterns. Once heavily wooded, it is today surprisingly open, but is very built up, particularly around Great Missenden. Although Little Missenden still retains a village character, it in no way resembles the straggling common edge settlement of only 150 years ago. It stands out within the Chilterns as exceptional in containing recorded evidence for several deserted medieval settlements, surviving as pottery scatters but not earthworks. Missenden Abbey, a house of Arrouaisian Canons who, like the Cistercians, favoured seclusion may have been responsible for removing settlements.

The documentary profile of the area is fairly undistinguished. The cartulary of Missenden Abbey provides an extensive collection of deeds beginning in the 12th century, dealing with various parts (especially the outlying ones) of Great Missenden itself. There are some court rolls, beginning in the 14th century, that derive from the small manor of Beamond in Little Missenden, that belonged to Bicester Priory.

There are a number of 18th and 19th century maps dealing with parts of both Great and Little Missenden, though none deals with either parish in its entirety, and even together the maps that do exist are unlikely to provide full coverage.

Missenden recommends itself because it is an area of highly dispersed settlement in the Chilterns with potential for studying settlement desertion. There is an interesting contrast in the area between the abundance of Roman evidence and the very thin settlement of the early middle ages. It is disadvantaged by modern development in and around Great Missenden, and the lack of any apparent evidence for the 5th to 11th centuries.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
4	6	5	0	4	2	0	6	1

TOTAL = 28/90

11. Thurleigh

Thurleigh includes the parishes of Thurleigh, Bolnhurst, Colmworth, Ravensden, Renhold, Great Barford and Roxton in north Bedfordshire. It extends from the strongly undulating boulder clay south-east into the broad level valley of the Great Ouse. Settlement on the boulder clay is highly dispersed in interrupted rows extending for as much as a kilometre, with a preponderance of '-end' and woodland place names – these are now extensively infilled by modern development. A number of isolated farms are also present, lying away from the parish centres. The area was once heavily wooded, but is today largely open, dominated by arable mono-culture in large prairie-like fields, lacking fences or hedges even along the roadside. Shrinkage within some of these settlements has been identified by Brown and Taylor through earthworks and pottery scatters, and several Roman settlements have been recorded during fieldwalking by Hall. Most settlement in the Ouse valley is, by contrast, nucleated in the

form of regular rows. The valley contains fertile alluvial soils, and is characterised now by extensive market gardening. There is little recorded evidence for settlement shrinkage in this area of dense medieval occupation.

This area suffers from a relative dearth of documentary sources, no pre-Conquest material and little from the post-Conquest period. The area fringes that covered by the surviving Hundred Roll returns, and only Thurleigh itself is included. Thurleigh also has a few 15th century court rolls, and Roxton has 14th and 15th century court rolls. Some parts of this area are also covered by Inquisition Post Mortem surveys. Most of the area is covered by 18th or 19th century enclosure or tithe maps.

Thurleigh recommends itself because it includes distinct areas of nucleated and dispersed settlement, divided by a sharply defined change in the settlement pattern. A detailed research project would be able to examine the nature and evolution of both patterns of settlement, and attempt to explain the difference. The disadvantages of Thurleigh lies in its lack of historical sources.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
9	7	5	0	3	2	0	8	4

TOTAL = 38/90

12. Tilton on the Hill area

This includes the parishes of Tilton, Pickwell, Somerby and Owston in Leicestershire. It lies on the hilly limestone plateau of eastern Leicestershire, and is today remarkably devoid of settlement. The area is largely pasture; though there is much ploughing for reseeded. Settlement is mainly in the form of nucleated villages, but a number of these are rather attenuated in structure, and the presence of some small clusters of farmsteads with irregular or non-existent earthworks suggest that the settlement pattern here may be more dispersed than elsewhere in Leicestershire. Large numbers of earthwork sites including shrunken settlements and moated sites have been recorded by Hartley, but there is less opportunity for recovering pottery.

Owston stands out for its documents. The site of a small Augustinian Abbey (founded in 1161), both Owston and the hamlet of Newbold belonged to it in their entirety, forming the principal demesne manor of the house. As a result these places are well represented in extensive surviving manorial records including surveys, accounts and court rolls. The series begins in the second half of the 14th century. Owston and Newbold are also included in the digest of Hundred Rolls of 1279. Land at several places lay within the soke of Rothley, for which there are records including a 13th century customary. There is no pre-Conquest documentation at all for this area. The presence of Scandinavian place-names and the associations with the soke of Rothley provide some possibilities for research into the origins and context of settlement in the pre-Conquest period.

This is an area notable for the conspicuous extent of its late medieval and early modern enclosure for pasture. This enclosure helped to preserve medieval earthworks, but make it difficult to identify and reconstruct the medieval arable field pattern. Even at the date of the earliest maps some of these townships were already entirely enclosed, as Pickwell was by 1616 (though the

map of this date does include some details of the former open fields).

Tilton recommends itself because its more dispersed settlement pattern compares with the strongly nucleated settlement all around. Any detailed research might be able to investigate why this is so, and throw more light on the processes behind nucleation. It is disadvantaged by the late nature of the evidence and by the fact that such a project would be likely to focus on nucleation rather than dispersed settlement.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
4	5	4	0	4	3	0	4	8
TOTAL = 32/90								

13. Turvey parish

This includes the parish of Turvey in north-west Bedfordshire. It extends out from the broad Ouse valley up onto the more hilly Oxford Clay of the Vale of Bedford. Land-use here is varied and there are two parks around the main valley settlement of Turvey itself, and another at nearby Pictshill; historically, it is a heavily wooded area. Settlement is mixed, with Turvey forming a regular row, but others surviving as isolated farmsteads.

Though this parish has neither Anglo-Saxon documents nor extensive manorial records, there are however more than 1,200 medieval deeds relating to lands in the parish ultimately acquired by the Mordaunt family in the 16th century. These deeds are unlikely to cover all of the parish and the collection is in some disarray, the original order of the documents having been lost. A number of Inquisition Post Mortem surveys are available. There are also some medieval records of the Priory of St Neots and the Hotot family for the parish. There is a pre-enclosure map of the parish dating from 1782.

Turvey recommends itself above all for its substantial collection of medieval deeds, a source of proven use in the study of settlement and landscape. Its disadvantage is a shortage of other varieties of sources.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
5	5	6	0	7	6	0	4	7
TOTAL = 40/90								

14. Whittlewood

This includes the parishes of Cosgrove, Potterspury, Silverstone, Whittlebury, and Wicken in Northamptonshire and Akeley, Leckhampstead, the Lillingstones and Stowe in Buckinghamshire. It forms part of the royal forest of Whittlewood, and lies across the watershed between the Great Ouse and the Nene. The landscape is undulating and contains a mixture of arable, pasture and woodland. Settlement is mixed, with a slight predominance of dispersal. Both earthwork sites and pottery scatters have been recorded in the area and some field system remains have also been recorded in Northamptonshire. Medieval kiln sites and moats are also recorded. Several Roman villas are also known, and the area is crossed by Watling Street.

The documents include some 15th century manor court rolls from Silverstone. The places in this area in Buckinghamshire (and Lillingstone Lovell in Oxfordshire) are included in the surviving returns of the Hundred Rolls of 1279. Some evidence can be found in the royal forest

records, and Silverstone/ Whittlebury was long the site of a royal residence. Ecclesiastical holdings in the Buckinghamshire parishes are represented in the cartularies of various houses. The constituent parts are all mapped individually on maps of the 18th or 19th century, and a number are also included on a notably early map, that of Whittlewood Forest dating to 1600.

Whittlewood recommends itself because of its variety of archaeological evidence, medieval and earlier, in a region of dispersed settlement, in which the presence of the forest provides a historical context. A detailed project would be able to examine the nature and development of this pattern, particularly in relation to earlier occupation and the presence of the forest. It is disadvantaged by its less abundant historical evidence.

TOPO	ARCH	POTT	EDOC	MDOC	MAPS	PBOT	LOCA	ACCE
7	7	7	2	4	2	0	8	8
TOTAL = 45/90								

WOOD HALL MOATED MANOR PROJECT by Vivienne Metcalfe

SE 536 206. Selby District of North Yorkshire (formerly West Riding of Yorkshire).

EXCAVATIONS 1992/93

The Wood Hall Moated Manor project, sponsored by National Power and undertaken by North Yorkshire County Council, is now (1993) in its sixth year. The Project aims to complete the total excavation of the moated site known as Wood Hall, Womersley, in advance of its destruction by the Gale Common Ash Disposal Facility; to survey and study in detail the landscape immediately surrounding it; and to put it into its national and regional context by a study of its hinterland, focused on the parish of Womersley.

Excavations in 1992 and 1993 have concentrated, in Area 20, on the completion of the excavation of the Georgian farm complex and the investigation of the features that pre-date it; the detailed examination of the entrance to the moated site; and on completing the excavation of the pre-moat features on Area 21. A third Area, 26, was opened in 1993 in the north central area of the moated platform, where it is expected that the main manorial complex is situated, as part of the Education Programme at the beginning of the excavation season. Only nineteenth century features have been revealed on Area 26 to date.

Area 20

It now appears that the core of the final farm at Wood Hall, the stone-built house and barns that were demolished in 1982, was typical of a 'model farm' design that was repeated at several farms within the parish, all belonging to the Womersley estate, in the last years of the eighteenth century. The buildings are grouped around a central square farmyard, with the house facing away from the working buildings at the rear. The foundations for the barns were cut into a brown soil that appears to have been part of formal gardens during the late Medieval-Tudor period. These soils had actually been removed for the insertion of the farmyard, so the true extent southwards of the gardens may never be known. They do not appear to have extended as far south as the later farmhouse.

Several fragments of stonework from earlier building(s)

were recovered from the walls of the farmhouse and barns. Among these were two joining halves of a medieval fireplace architrave. All these fragments, together with the broken fifteenth century chimney-cap recovered in 1991, indicate the presence of an important medieval building or buildings at Wood Hall.

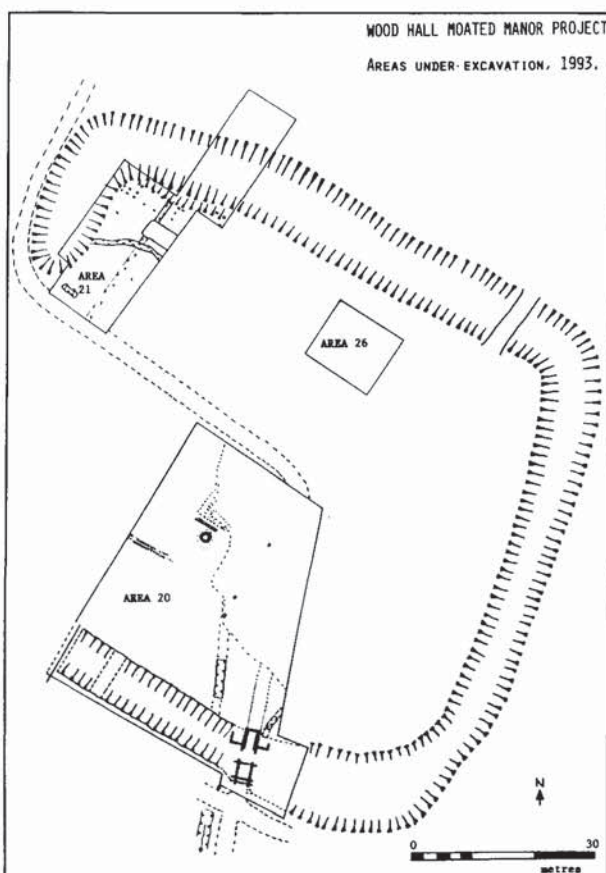


Figure 7: Wood Hall Moated Manor Project

The area where the Georgian farm buildings were later situated contained few structures in the late medieval/early post-medieval period. A large portion of it appears to have been laid down as a garden, with dark humic soils which also contained domestic rubbish (e.g. pottery, animal bone, shell) and coal ash. Sherds from a number of fifteenth century planting pots indicate an ornamental as well as practical use for the garden. A number of rectangular planting beds have been identified, and it is hoped that pollens and seeds will be recovered which will enable the identification of the plants which were grown in the garden.

Other features identified from this period include a stone-lined well, drains, and a number of pits. One pit complex in particular, situated almost on the edge of the moat to the west of the site entrance, might well have contained the remains of a single large meal. Finds include animal bone, oyster and whelk shells, a number of complete but broken pottery vessels, some clay tobacco pipes and a bone-handled knife, all dating to the end of the sixteenth century.

The Moat

At the south of the site, excavation of the moat concentrated on completing the 30m length opened in

1991. As expected, a large quantity of high-quality finds was once again recovered, dating from three main periods of deposition: early sixteenth century; mid seventeenth century; and late eighteenth century. In contrast, a section across the moat at the north-west of the site, where the moat had remained open throughout its life, contained almost no finds except twentieth century scrap.

The southern section of the moat under investigation lies adjacent to the site entrance, and has been affected by the various phases of activity associated with this (see below). When the moat was first dug in the late twelfth century (see below Area 21), its clean, gently flowing waters were crossed at the south of the site by a timber bridge. The moat itself was maintained in a clean condition. In the late fifteenth century, perhaps motivated by a change in status brought about by marriage or advancement, the owners of Wood Hall, the Gascoignes, decided to upgrade the entrances to their property. Two stone bases or plinths were built out into the moat, forming the foundations for a substantial stone-built gatehouse which was fronted by a drawbridge. The stone plinths formed an impediment to the free flow of the moat, causing silts and sands to be deposited upstream to the west of the gatehouse, and the eventual formation of peat. These peats were colonised and consolidated by bulrushes. A fishing platform was constructed through the peats, where some luckless fisherman lost his eel-fork in the early sixteenth century. Other finds accumulated within the peats at this period, including pottery, leather, glass and a large quantity of deer bones.

The footings of the gatehouse, though massive, were constructed actually within the moat and appear eventually to have become unstable. The building shifted, causing collapse/demolition. Some materials were undoubtedly saved for re-use, but massive quantities of rubble and debris were pushed forward into the moat, forming a solid causeway which preserved, almost intact, the late medieval bridge which had preceded it.

The causeway completely blocked the flow of the moat, which must as a consequence have silted up very quickly. One 're-cut' or vigorous cleaning appears to have taken place, possibly in the early-mid eighteenth century, leaving the channel half its original width. After this the moat was again allowed to silt up, and rushes to grow, until at the beginning of the nineteenth century a final tipping of refuse took place before soil was imported to level up for the new farmhouse garden.

Finds from the moat have been of consistently high quality and great variety, and have included leather (shoes, part of a fine decorated glove, and an arrow spacer similar to those recovered from the 'Mary Rose') and wood, including fragments from a number of lathe-turned bowls. Lathe cores have also been recovered from the moat, indicating that at least some of the bowls were made at Wood Hall. Other finds include vessel and window glass, and quantities of pottery including a complete Cistercian ware bung-hole vessel.

The Entrance

The entrance to the moated site has proved to be more complex than expected, with four phases of bridge on two crossing alignments, the gatehouse being added relatively late in the sequence.

Phase 1. Three fragmentary timbers in line across the moat at 90° are believed to represent the earliest bridge, dating from c. 1180/1200 when the moat first dug.

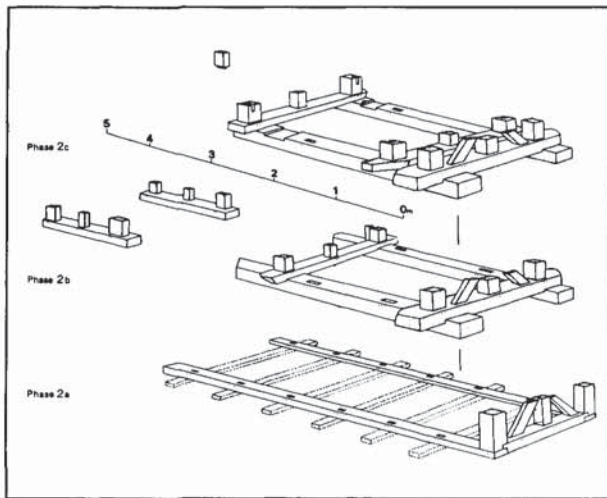


Figure 8: Schematic illustration of the Phase 2 bridges

Phase 2. The second bridge alignment crosses the moat at an obtuse angle of approx. 110°. This orientation gives an unimpeded view south down Cow Lane, then as now the only approach to Wood Hall from the village of Womersley. The phase 2 moat crossing itself contained 3 sub-phases, as the bridge and gateway were remodelled over time.

Phase 2a. For the first phase 2 crossing both banks of the moat were revetted. The north bank was supported by a short length of masonry wall; the south bank was revetted with vertical and cross-braced posts, jointed into a transverse base-plate. This in turn was jointed into two longitudinal base-plates, 7.5m long (min), which supported seven vertical trestles held in place by mortise and tenon joints. These trestles would have supported the bridge decking. The longitudinal base-plates had both been shortened to make way for the gatehouse foundations of the next crossing phase; there is as yet no evidence to show whether the phase 2a bridge crossed the moat from bank to bank, or whether there was a drawbridge at the north end.

The excavation of phases 1 and 2a will be completed in 1994.

Phase 2b. The phase 2a bridge structure was stripped down to the longitudinal base-plates, leaving only these and the bank revetments in place. The base-plates were shortened to make room for two square stone towers which were constructed forward into the moat from the north, butted against the phase 2a revetment wall. These were clad in large limestone ashlar blocks at the base, forming plinths as the bases for a fine stone-built gatehouse with a room above the arch. The structure appears to have had at least one chimney.

The phase 2b bridge structure was placed directly on the shortened longitudinal base-plates remaining from phase 2a. It was of box-frame construction with longitudinal and transverse base plates connected by halving joints. The longitudinal base plates were approx. 5m long by 30cm square. Mortised corner posts supported the bridge superstructure, forming two transverse trestles, and

longitudinal reinforcement was provided by 45° crossbracings mortised into the base plates and the uprights. The timber revetment against the south bank was reinforced by an identical structure placed immediately in front of it.

An unbraced timber box-frame supported the bridge decking between the gatehouse towers. It is assumed at present that the gap between the two (approx. 3.85m) was crossed by a drawbridge pivoted on two stone piers which project from the towers.

Phase 2c. The phase 2c bridge consisted of a number of modifications to the structure of the phase 2b main box-frame, including the insertion of a third timber trestle at the south revetment end, and the moving of the northern transverse base-plate out of its halving joint, thus shortening the 'draw-bridge' gap by some 50cms. New cross-bracings springing upwards out of the uprights supported the decking.

The construction of the phase 2b bridge, and by association the gatehouse, has been dated by dendrochronology to a felling-date for the timber of AD1493.¹ The timber for the alterations to the drawbridge which became 2c has a felling-date of AD1561/2. This work has been undertaken for the Project by the Sheffield Environmental Facility by courtesy of a British Academy grant.

Findings associated with phase 2b (e.g. pottery recovered from the earliest silts accumulating against the western gatehouse tower), plus an ornamental limestone chimney cap recovered from the demolition rubble, confirm that the gatehouse was constructed in the late fifteenth century. Documentary research has shown that the Gascoigne family owned Wood Hall at this time; a study of the family papers may yield some relevant evidence.

The gatehouse structure eventually became unstable, and was partially demolished c.1625, though the bridge remained in use. The final demolition of the gatehouse, and the replacement of the bridge with a causeway, took place c.1680. The bridge decking was removed and the upright timbers knocked sideways; a raft of silver birch branches was laid down to support the weight of demolition rubble used to form the new entrance to Wood Hall.

The excavation, recording and conservation of the bridge timbers is being assisted by the generous sponsorship of Hickson Timber Products Ltd of Castleford. A grant towards the cost of an experienced professional draughtsman has been received from the Medieval Settlement Research Group.

Findings recovered from the entrance area include food debris, table knives, pottery, wooden bowls and glass drinking vessels – prompting the suggestion that the room above the gateway was used at least once as a banqueting hall, with a rowdy end to the festivities!

A pre-moat medieval ditch has been identified running north-south on Area 20. The ditch appears to be precisely aligned on the "modern" drainage dyke flanking Cow Lane (the access track) on its western side. If this is confirmed by excavation in 1994, it will indicate that the Wood Hall moat was superimposed on a pre-existing drainage system dating to the twelfth century or earlier.

Area 21

The earliest feature on Area 21 is a small north-south ditch, the fills of which contained eight sherds from two vessels of Iron Age pottery, dating to the first century BC/AD. A small fragment of glass, possibly of Romano-British date, some pot-boilers and some fragments of badly decayed animal bone were also recovered. This ditch could possibly represent a very early land clearance or land division.

The north-south ditch was sealed by a pre-moat soil which was itself cut by an east-west ditch. This later ditch contained sherds of medieval pottery including part of the base of a large vessel in a white fabric which can be paralleled from the pre-timber castle levels at Sandal Castle, Wakefield, implying an early twelfth century date.

To the north of the ditch a number of post-holes represented a small pre-moat building complex. The main structure was made up of twelve post-holes forming a building c.9.8 x 4.4ms, and was bow-sided in plan, aligned east-west. Adjacent to this structure to the west was a small, six-post structure which may have been a porch a raised-floored storage area, or even a tower. Both structures were very clean internally, but to the south of them was a linear spread of charcoal, crushed burnt bone and fragments of pottery. Two pits to the south-east contained similar material.

To the east of the main structure a further twelve post-holes have been revealed, very close to the edge of the excavation. These cannot be interpreted at present.

Pottery associated both with these structures and with the construction of the moat appears to form a single group, mainly Doncaster Hallgate and Yorkshire Gritty wares dated to the late twelfth/early thirteenth century.² This may appear to conflict with the presence of a bow-sided building, generally considered to be a Saxon tradition. At Wood Hall this may represent the persistence of earlier traditions among a rural population.

The pre-moat ground surface was sealed by the material displaced by the digging of the moat, which appears to have been used as a levée along the edge of the platform, and also spread over the moated platform to level the area. Its removal revealed a brown soil layer apparently overlying the buried ground surface. This layer, which contained large quantities of pottery, animal bone and limestone blocks and fragments as well as the remains of a hearth, appears to have been associated with a building or shelter used during the construction of the moat. Such a temporary building would have been ephemeral in nature and left little trace in the archaeological record.

A 7m wide section was excavated northwards across the moat into the pasture annexe in order to establish a link between this annexe and the moated platform. Though the old ground surface was preserved under a bank probably formed by periodic cleanings of the moat, no trace of pre-moat human activity was identified in this section.

The only feature on Area 21 which can be positively assigned to the medieval period is a large pit (1.4m deep by 3m wide by 7m minimum long) which continues eastward under the edge of the excavation. This pit stood

open, with an original rich peaty lower fill, and was re-cut twice and each time allowed to silt up. No clear indication of its function can be suggested. Finds recovered include a number of animal burials, and abraded sherds of pottery including some of Romano-British date. A date in the 14th/15th centuries seems most likely.

Following the final silting up of the large pit, Area 21 appears to have had little use apart from the burials of three horses and a cow, until an intensive pig-rearing unit was built in 1935. A large number of pig burials then occurred in the area.

One further unusual feature was excavated at the south of Area 21. This was a roughly oval feature, c. 4m long x 1.4m wide x 0.4 deep, which contained 5 post-holes set close against its edges and leaning at an angle of 60° into the interior. The feature had straight sides and was cut into soft sands; the absence of erosion indicates that the feature was roofed or covered in some way, though there is no firm evidence for a superstructure. The feature contained no finds that could indicate either a date or a function, and can be dated stratigraphically to a period between the periglacial sands it cuts, and the 20th century pig burials it is cut by.

The excavation of Area 21 has contributed greatly to our understanding of the site at Wood Hall, giving indications of earlier prehistoric activity as well as potential Iron Age/Romano-British usage. The discovery of the pre-moat ground surface and associated structures, together with the relatively early date obtained for the construction of the moat, has been a major addition to the understanding of the development of settlement in this region.

Excavations in 1994 will concentrate on the completion of the excavations and recording at the entrance to the site; the completion of Area 20; and the extension of the new Area 26 at the north of the moated platform, where the main manorial complex is believed to be situated.

1. Boswijk, Gretel, *Tree-ring Analysis of Oak Timbers from Wood Hall Moated Manor, Womersley, North Yorkshire: Interim Report*. Further information from Jennifer Hillam, pers. comm.
2. The Project is indebted to Stephen Moorhouse for his assistance with the identification of the medieval pottery.

TACITUS, THE GERMANIA, CAP 16:

AN INTERPRETATION by Philip H. Dixon.

Nick Higham's article (p. 17 *et seq.* of Volume 5 of this journal) in which he proposed that *Grubenhäuser* were for storage purposes caused something of a stir. *Vulgo*, he put the cat among the pigeons. For many years his quoted passage in Tacitus *Germania* (the last complete sentence in Cap.16) has been referred to as the earliest literary reference to pit-based structures such as (by implication) *Grubenhäuser*. This view has been reinforced by the translation of the Latin in the Loeb volumes. These contain a single tiny flaw, as indicated below, which enables him to accept quite logically that the passage relates to *Grubenhäuser* and that these were primarily for storage.

The text of the Loeb *Germania* (Hutton 1914) is based on the Hersfeld MS as published by Ferneaux in 1894. (Hersfeld is a Benedictine Abbey near Fulda, Germany. The MS is believed to be 9th century and was brought to Rome in 1451). Here is the passage, identical in Furneaux (1894), Hutton (1914) and Warmington (1970):

solen et subterraneos specus aperire eosque multo insuper fimo onerant suffugium hiemis et receptaculum frugibus quia rigorem frigorum eius modi loci molliunt et si quando hostis advenit aperta populatur abdita autem et defossa aut ignorantur aut eo ipso fallunt quod quaerenda sunt.

And here is Hutton's (1914) translation:

They are in the habit also of opening pits in the earth and piling dung in quantities on the roof, as a refuge from the winter or a root house, because such places mitigate the rigour of frost, and if an enemy come, he lays waste the open; but the hidden and buried houses are either missed outright or escape detection just because they require a search.

et Hutton's translation as *or* alters the sense entirely. It was probably an attempt to make good English and remained uncorrected by Warmington, (see also Note 1).

loci this is the only word of the original text which requires alteration. Using verbal acrobatics, it can be made to mean 'pit', which is what it must mean. Bährens (1880) considers that it ought to be *lacus*, on stylistic grounds alone Robinson (1935) adopts this form, pointing out that:

a) 'the reading (of the word *loci* or *locis* in some MSS) should be rejected on stylistic grounds ... Bährens; *lacus* is sound palaeographically and gives a satisfactory meaning. The misreading of the *-us* ligature as *-is* and the writing of *o* for *a* are both errors which we know to have occurred in the copying of the MS.' (A quick trawl reveals *-is* for *-us* four times, and *o* for *a* six times).

We add:

b) *lacus* is used to designate the bins of a granary (Columella 1,6) thus:

sed et lacubus distinguuntur granaria ut separatim quaeque legumina ponantur

furthermore, a granary may be divided into pits so that different sorts of beans may be kept apart.

Before attempting an acceptable translation based on the MS revised as above, we note that it was H. Furneaux (1894, 68) who first started the *Grubenhäuser* hare. He writes in a note:

specus Pliny speaks of such, not as dwellings but spinning places – in *Germania defossi atque sub terra id opus agunt*, (in Germany, this work is done in dugouts below ground), and old laws, etc., as well as storehouses. Subterranean dwellings for shelter in winter are described among other northern nations (cf. Vergil *Georgics* 3, 376), similar to the pit dwellings of which remains are found in England and elsewhere, or to those of

the present Esquimaux.

Anderson (1938 104) creates even further confusion:

subterraneos specus These were of two kinds, underground chambers for use in winter and pits for storing produce. Some think that Tacitus confused the two but he plainly had in mind only the former: there was room in them to store some provisions.

He then continues with Vergil, Xenophon, Pliny, plus bottle-shaped storage pits in Hungary and Rumania, cellars in Germany and even Skara Brae, (reported 1938).

The following is now advanced as an amended text and translation of the passage in Tacitus, *Germania*, Cap.16.

solent et subterraneos specus aperire eosque multo insuper
they are accustomed also to dig holes below ground and over them

fimo onerant suffugium hiemis
to pile much dung as protection in winter

et receptaculum frugibus quia rigorem
and (as) a cache for fruits of the earth because such

frigorum eius modi lacus molliunt et
pits ameliorate the rigor of the frosts and

si quando hostis advenit aperta populatur
whenever an enemy comes he ravages things in open view

abdita autem et defossa
but things hidden and buried are

aut ignorantur aut eo ipso fallunt
either unrecognised or he fails to detect them

quod quaerenda sunt
because they must be searched for

subterraneos specus, specus is from the Greek *speos* = cave or cavity (cf. Note 2)

suffugium, always translated as 'refuge', but surely Tacitus would have used *refugium* had he meant it so (cf. Notes 1 and 3).

et receptaculum, should not be 'or' (as in Hutton and Warmington).

frux, can mean either grain or roots, hence 'fruits of the earth' and 'cache' for

receptaculum, especially in view of *abdita* later.

lacus, as above (and Note 2)

advenit, Anderson considers the perfect tense is right (as against a copyist's error for the subjunctive *adveniat* = 'if and when an enemy should come'). The present seems all right.

See Note 3 for Townsend's (1894) very similar translation.

Hutton wrote in the 1914 Loeb edition:

'Tacitus condenses to a degree so great that a literal English translation in the same number of words is almost unintelligible; and his condensations not merely obscure but sometimes distort his meaning'.

The essence of this passage is that it describes *storage pits*, not *Grubenhäuser*. There is no way in which any structure (especially one with gable posts) can be built over a hut pit and remain unobservable. Below, is a drawing of an actual grain or root pit from eastern Europe as recorded by the Ethnographic museum of Budapest pre-1914 and reproduced in Buttler (1934). The covering is a dung/clay mixture which gives a watertight seal.

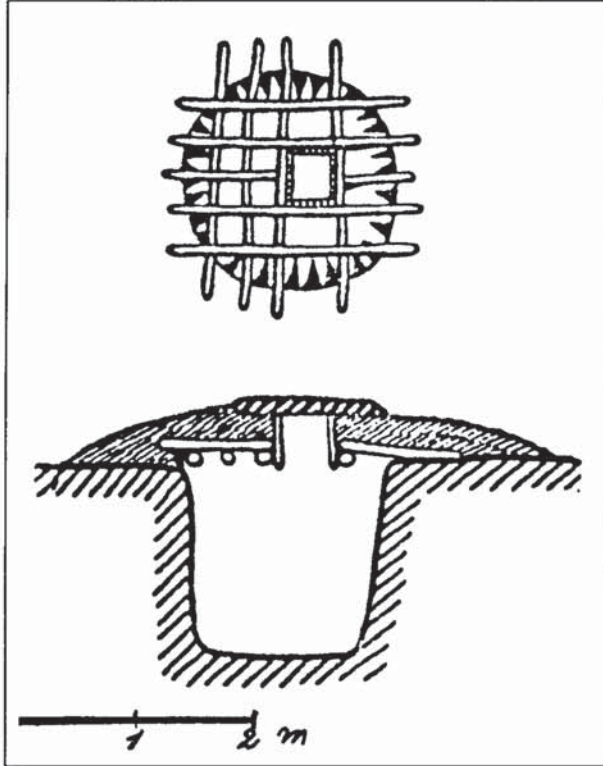


Figure 9: Grain pit from Kotaj, pre-1914. The seal is a clay/dung mixture.

The *hostis* of Tacitus must have meant tribal raiders who would have lacked time to search before resistance was mounted. A grain pit seal would soon sprout grass and weeds. Roman soldiers would have found such pits nonetheless or Tacitus would not have had his information. This is the only sort of structure which would have escaped the notice of marauders, keen to get away with what they could grab.

NOTES

1. The two works marked (N) in the references are translations of the freer sort and so read clearly in excellent English (particularly the oldest, the unnamed translator of 1854). However they, together with Townsend and Anderson in a note, and of course Hutton and Warmington all insist that *suffugium hiemis* means 'a refuge from the winter' instead of 'protection from the winter' as proposed here. It was probably this which caused Hutton to put *or* for *et*, to try, as he thought, to make better sense of the passage. Smith (1851), as also Lewis and Short (1879), has:

refugium a place of refuge, as in:

Livy, 9.37: *silvae tutius dedere refugium*
the woods afforded a safer refuge

suffugium a shelter, covert, and quotes the passage above as also:

Seneca, *De Ira*, 1.11.3: *suffugium adversus perpetuum calli rigorem* shelter from/protection against, the continuing severity of the weather

Tacitus, *Germania*, Cap. 46, describing the Fenni (supposedly dwelling on the Baltic shore, east of Danzig in present Lithuania), has:

aliud infantibus ferarum imbriumque suffugium quam ut in aliquo ramorum nexu contegantur

nor have their infants any protection against wild beasts and rain other than the covering afforded by a few intertwined branches.

In English, any Thesaurus has shelter, protection and refuge as synonyms, but they are not completely interchangeable. Eg. vegetables are given shelter or protection, but never a refuge.

2. There is a possibility (Robinson, 1935,203) that Tacitus was excerpting this passage (and, indeed, others in the *Germania*) from a Greek account, now lost, rather than, as elsewhere, obtaining his information from his military friends and those of Agricola. If so, this would reinforce the substitution of *lacus* (*lakkos* in the Greek) for the different *locis* of the various MSS, as proposed here (following Bährens and Anderson).
3. Because it parallels so closely, albeit in freestyle, the attempted near-literal translation above, that of Townsend (1894) is added.

They likewise make a practice of digging cellars, which they cover with a heap of manure, as winter refuges and as storehouses for their crops, for two reasons: firstly, the frost does not penetrate into such places, and secondly, if any enemy happens to invade the country, he plunders everything above ground, but these hidden and buried stores escape, because he either does not know of their existence or has no time to hunt for them.

If the more accurate 'shelter' or 'protection' is substituted for 'refuges', this translation agrees with that proposed here. (*cf.* end of Note 1).

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SOME NOTES ON SCREONAE by P. H. Dixon

In her Mucking 2 (1993, 17,21), Dr Hamerow expresses some dubiety as to the etymology of this word as used in the Salic Laws and translated as 'sunken-floored weaving huts' by Dolling (*Haus und Hof*, 12, 1958).

The Law referred to reads:

Si quis screona sine clavem effrigerit DC dinarios qui faciunt solidos XV culpabilis iudicetur. Si quis screona qui clavem habet effrigerit MDCCC dinarios qui faciunt solidos XLV culpabilis iudicetur.

(Lex Salica, Ch. XXVII, 21)

(Whoever breaks into an unlocked *screona* and is convicted is to be fined 600 dinars which makes 15 *solidi*. Whoever breaks into a locked *screona* and is convicted is to be fined 1800 dinars which makes 45 *solidi*).

See note at foot for these monetary units

Now Lewis and Short (1879) have:

Screo = hawk, hem, and *exscreo* = spit

Screator = one who hawks

From the reference given (Terence, *Curtius Rufus*), 'hawking' means throat clearing prior to spitting. *Screona* must therefore mean a spittoon (US cuspidor). These would not have been the cast-iron affairs, filled with sawdust, to be found in Victorian times in most bars, and in many well into the twenties of this century, but simply hollows in the floors of wineshops, (doubtless cleaned out at intervals by a slave).

When Latin-speakers encountered the *Grubenhäus* (an essentially barbarian structure), a suitably contemptuous term for it evidently became 'spittoon'. Someone in Gildas's time might have written:

Domini villarum saxonis summoti iam in screonas habitant

The owners of villas displaced by the Saxons, now live in sunken-floored hovels.

That such a descent for a word is not beyond belief may be illustrated by the modern English word 'hearse'. This derives ultimately from the Latin,

(*h*)*irpex* a harrow.

We have little archaeological or iconographic evidence for these, but they were perhaps of triangular form, drawn from the apex by the usual yoke of oxen. This type would have been self-guiding and have required only one ox boy.

When a triangular form of candelabrum was used ecclesiastically it was called a *hirpex*. This device (apex vertical, candles at top and down the two edges) came into use as part of the office of *Tenebrae*, and so remains until this day. (One candle is extinguished after every Psalm and the service ends with the last one out and the church dark). *Tenebrae* belongs specifically to Holy Week, hence the funerary associations. Later, in the early middle Ages, this *hirpex* was used to accompany a coffin left 'in state' in a church. Hence, by association, a bier which was not carried but drawn became a *hirpex*, or 'hearse'. (One assumes that this originally denoted a better class of funeral).

It does seem, therefore, that we can accept Dolling's equation of *screona* being a weaving hut; there is a wealth of evidence from Pliny's time onwards that such buildings had sunken floors. To say the least, the derivation is somewhat less tortuous than the quoted parallel.

Note on coins.

Solidus was a gold coin. *Dinarius* was effectively the Roman *denarius* which was always of silver. It should not be confused with the dinar of Serbia and the Middle East in modern times. These are descended from the *denarius auri*, a Byzantine coin first minted by Constantine in the early 4th century, a gold coin. For the coins themselves, see P. Grierson, *Coins of Medieval Europe*, Seaby, 1991, particularly pp. 219 and 226.

A CHANGING SETTLEMENT PATTERN AT WARMINGTON, NORTHANTS by Mike Shaw

INTRODUCTION

Warmington lies in the north-east corner of Northamptonshire, close to the border of present-day Cambridgeshire and 8 miles south-west of Peterborough. The manor of Warmington was one of the early possessions of Peterborough Abbey and remained in the hands of the abbey until the Dissolution.

An archaeological survey was carried out between 1991 and 1993 as part of an Environmental Assessment of the impact of a proposed Warmington Bypass.¹ The work has now been completed and recommendations have been made for archaeological recording ahead of the construction of the bypass. As any further work is likely to be some time in the future the present paper is designed to make available the results of the initial survey. It replaces previous summaries in the Medieval Settlement Research Group *Annual Reports* (VI, 40-41; VII, 40).

The fieldwork was largely restricted to a corridor either side of the proposed route and hence does not constitute a full survey of the parish. It was, however, comprehensive in its coverage, comprising surveys of current land use, topography, geology, known archaeological sites, cropmarks, historic maps and field names, documentary evidence, earthworks, fieldwalking, geophysics, metal

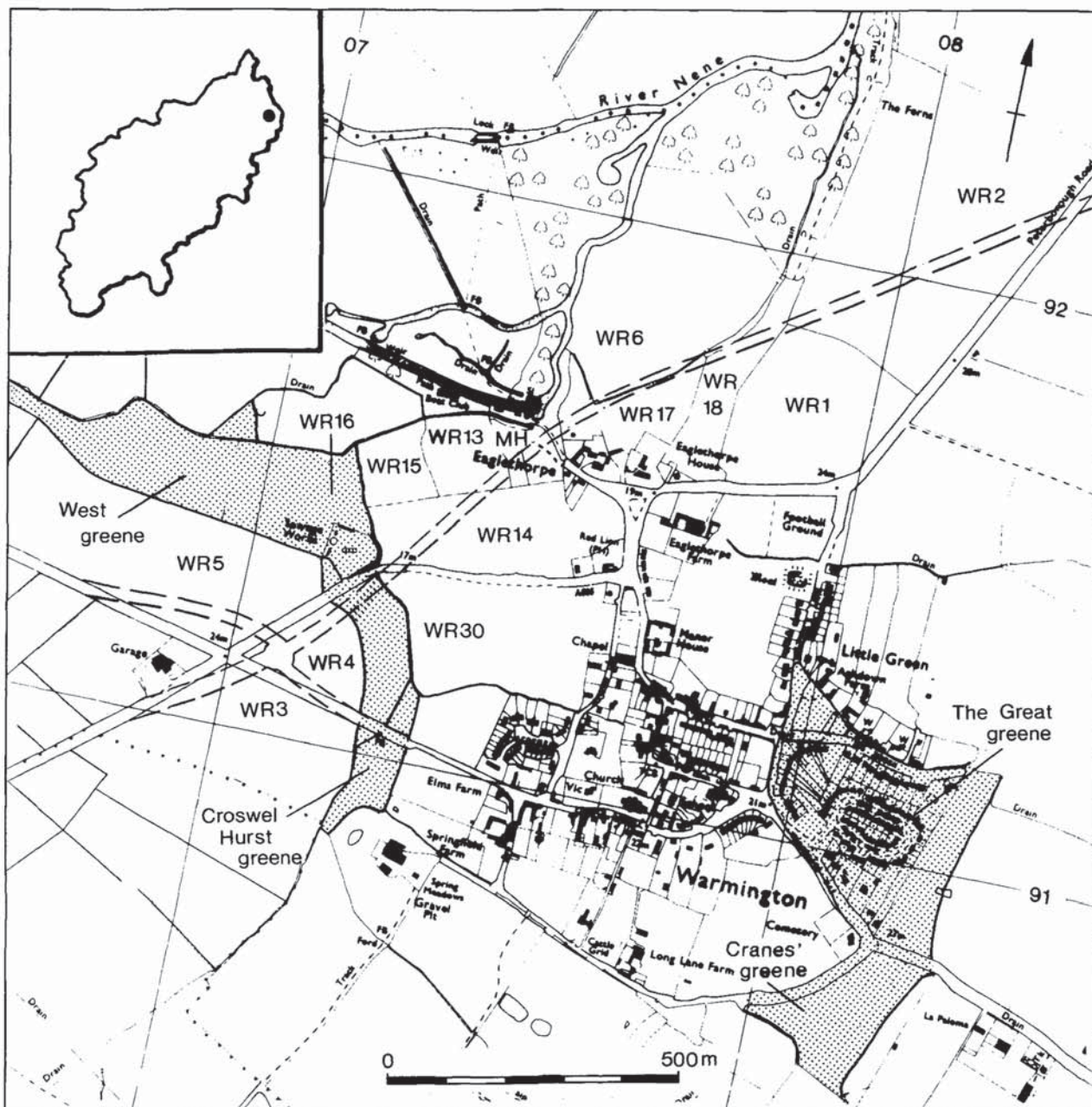


Figure 10: Warmington. Proposed bypass route showing field numbers, position of Mill House, and location of greens around the village. INSET Position of Warmington within Northamptonshire.

detecting, observation of trial pits excavated for soils analysis and trial trenching. The present article concentrates on the three most productive aspects of the work: the analysis of plans in a survey book of 1621, fieldwalking and trial trenching.²

The proposed bypass is basically a straightening of the A605, the main road along the south-east side of the Nene Valley from Higham Ferrers and Oundle to Peterborough. It runs for a distance of 3.8km immediately north-east of Eaglethorpe, the former Mill End,³ which nowadays forms an outlier of the village of Warmington. The proposed route traverses low-lying ground, largely between 15m and 30m above Ordnance Datum, immediately south-east of the floodplain of the River Nene and lies for the most part on river gravel. It crosses eleven fields, eight of which are arable (Fig. 10: WR1-6, 13,30) and three pastures (Fig. 10: WR14, 17,18), and

also bisects the garden of Mill House (Fig 10: MH).

THE PARISH SURVEY BOOK OF 1621

The parish survey book⁴ contains a number of plans, drawn at a scale of 1 inch to 40 poles (1:3960). These have been transcribed and those parts of the maps which cover the bypass route have been combined and are presented in this report at a scale of approximately 1:8000 (Fig 11). The survey numbers which are detailed on the original plans have been omitted for the sake of clarity but all field and other names are included.

Considering the date of the plan the surveying is remarkably accurate and there is a good degree of correspondence where features still survive today. The road from Oundle (a) is on the same line as the present day road but as it approaches Warmington it enters the west side of a large green, named as "Croswel Hurst

Green" (b). After crossing the green the road runs off its east side where it is continued by the line of the present day road (c). A lane (d) leads from the north-east side of the green to a group of buildings (e), named in the survey book as the "Berrysteed or Mannour House". This can be identified as the site of the main manor of Warmington, that of Peterborough Abbey. The Berrysteed complex is described as comprising a dwelling house, two barns, stable, dovehouse, other outhouses, a yard and orchard; to its north-west is a mill (f). Immediately south-east is a field named "St Andrews Close alias Chappel Close" (g). The county historian, John Bridges, writing in the 18th century, referred to a chapel of St Andrew but there is no other documentation of its existence. Possibly it was a chapel lying within the manorial enclosure. A building (h) is shown at the northern end of St Andrew's Close by the buildings of the manor house, though whether it is the remains of the chapel is uncertain.

FIELDWALKING

All eight of the arable fields on the line of the proposed bypass were walked at 30m intervals (transects), except for Field WR13 which was walked at 15m intervals since the Berrysteed Manor lay within it and it was therefore considered to be of especial interest. The finds were plotted at 20m intervals ("stints") within the transects. Separate plots were compiled for each category of find and period of pottery. The distributions of greatest significance were those for pottery of the Romano-British, Early/Middle Saxon, Late Saxon and Late Saxon/Medieval, and Medieval periods and plots of these are included in the present report.

Field WR6 was covered by alluvium and no artefacts were recovered from it. Elsewhere in the Nene Valley the alluvial cover appears to date largely from late in the medieval period and hence any artefacts of earlier than post-medieval date are likely to lie below the alluvium. Originally only those parts of Fields 3 and 5 which lay directly on the road line were walked but the results were of sufficient interest for the whole of the fields to be rewalked in subsequent seasons and it is the results of the later walking which are shown on the plots in the present report.⁵

The results

The walking was on a sufficiently large-scale⁶ to allow some interesting distribution patterns to be observed despite its linear nature. The earliest concentration sufficient to suggest the presence of a settlement was for the Romano-British period (Fig 12). A total of 171 sherds was recovered from an area of 1.5ha at the north-west side of Field WR4 and the north-east corner of Field WR5. Subsequent to the fieldwalking a metal detecting survey recovered a small number of Roman coins, while the observation of trial pits excavated for soil analysis revealed ditches of Roman date.

For the early/middle Saxon period four separate concentrations can be recognised (Fig 13):

1. a scatter of 77 sherds recovered from an area of 3.8ha on the east side of Field WR3.
2. a scatter of 104 sherds recovered from an area of 2.1ha on the western side of Field WR5.
3. a scatter of 26 sherds recovered from an area of 1ha in

Field WR13.⁷

4. a scatter of 194 sherds recovered from an area of 6.6ha in Field WR30.

In no cases can we be certain that the limits of the concentrations have been recognised for there is an area of unwalked land adjacent to each concentration and in fact the trial trenching revealed that the smallest scatter (3) was only the western portion of a larger area of Saxon activity.

The paucity of late Saxon material – even though pottery types spanning the late Saxon and early medieval periods are included – stands in marked contrast to the early/middle Saxon distribution (Fig 14). No concentrations sufficient to suggest a settlement were present, nor was sufficient recovered to suggest manuring activity. By contrast for the medieval period small amounts of pottery were recovered across the whole of the survey and these can be confidently identified as manuring scatters (Fig 15). A large scatter of 269 sherds of medieval pottery was recovered from an area of 4.2ha at the northern end of Field WR30. In this case the concentration is sufficient to suggest settlement, possibly properties fronting on to the Oundle Road.

TRIAL TRENCHES

A total of fifteen evaluation trenches were excavated: fourteen were located in non-arable areas to examine areas which could not be fieldwalked, while the remaining trench was intended to examine the manor house site and its accompanying early/middle Saxon pottery concentration in Field WR13.

The trenches were located in three areas (Fig. 16): Area 1 (trenches A-D) in Field WR17 to the north-east of the lane leading to the mill; Area 2 (Trenches E-G) on the east side of Field WR14; and Area 3 around Mill House on the south-west side of the lane leading to the mill (Trenches I-M). It should be emphasised that the trenches were intended for evaluation purposes. Hence where a stratigraphic sequence was present only the latest features were revealed and only a selection of the features uncovered was sampled.

Nevertheless the evidence from the evaluation trenches makes a useful supplement to the fieldwalking evidence. Even where the earliest levels were not revealed the presence of early sherds as a residual element in later features can be used to suggest the presence of earlier occupation.⁸ Hence the total number of sherds of each period from the three areas is shown on the same plans as the fieldwalking distributions (Figs 12-15).

The results

Area 1. This area is currently under pasture. On the plans of 1621 it is shown as divided into a series of closes and the line of some of these survive either as present day boundaries or as earthworks, while a further probable boundary ditch was located by magnetometer survey. Evidence of late Saxon and medieval occupation was revealed by the trenching and a medieval period stone-founded building was located in Trench D fronting on to a holloway which lies immediately outside the western field boundary.

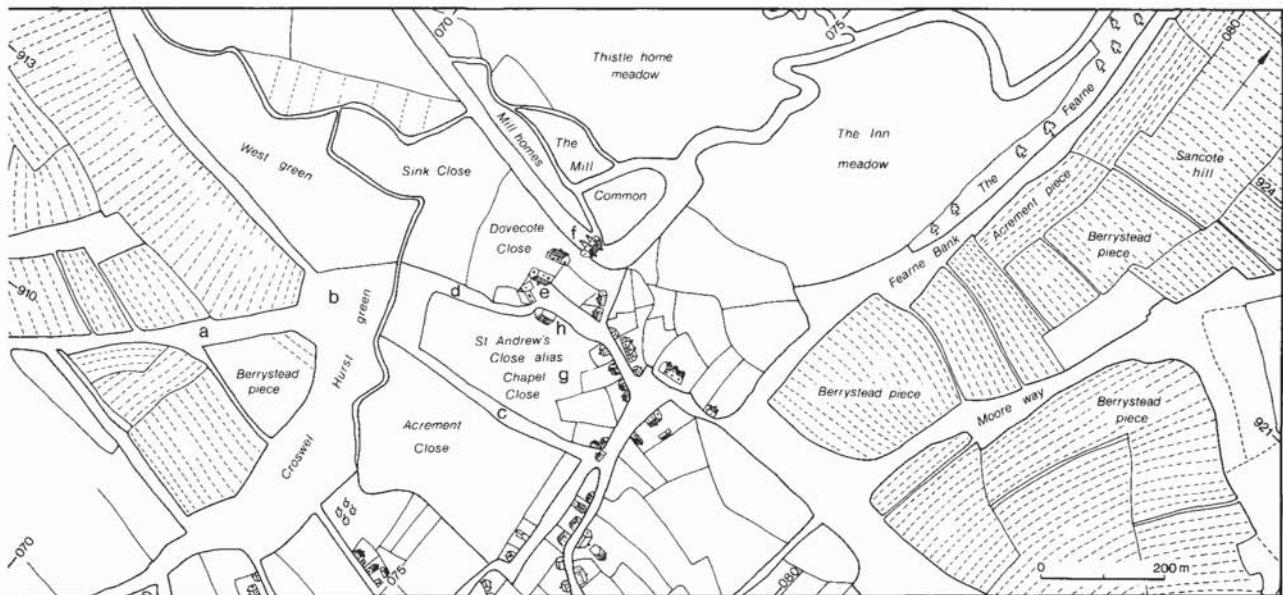


Figure 11: Warmington. Transcription of parish survey of 1621.



Figure 12: Warmington. Romano-British pottery recovered from fieldwalking and trial trenching.

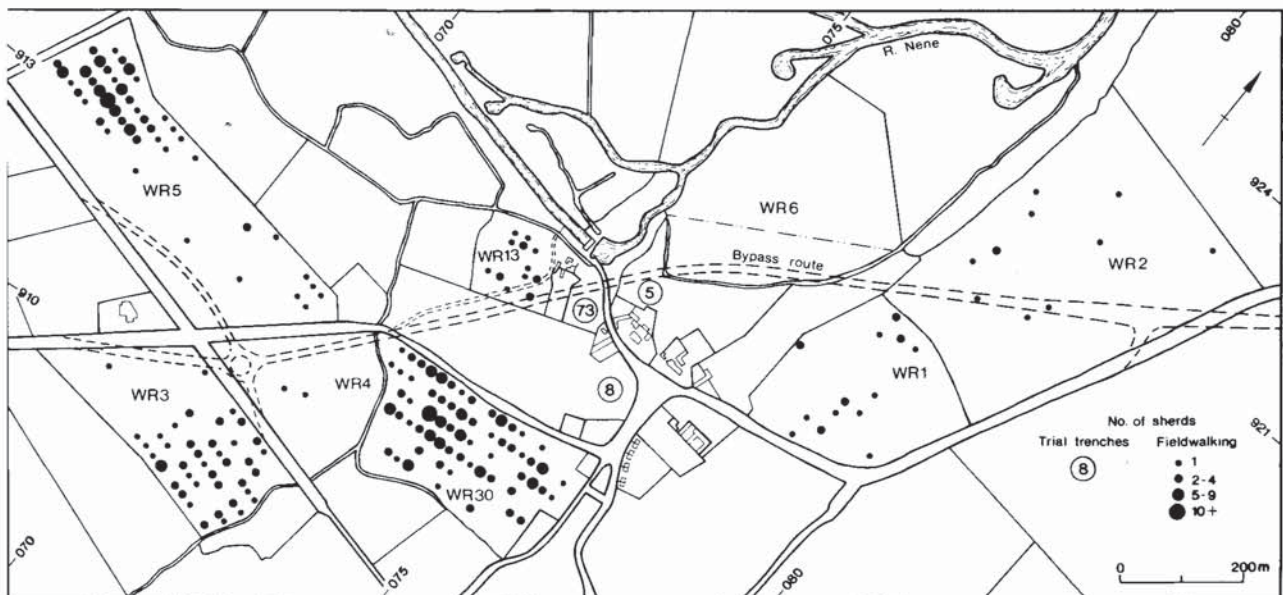


Figure 13: Warmington. Early/Middle Saxon pottery recovered from fieldwalking and trial trenching.



Figure 14: Warmington. Late Saxon and Late Saxon/Early Medieval pottery recovered from fieldwalking and trial trenching.

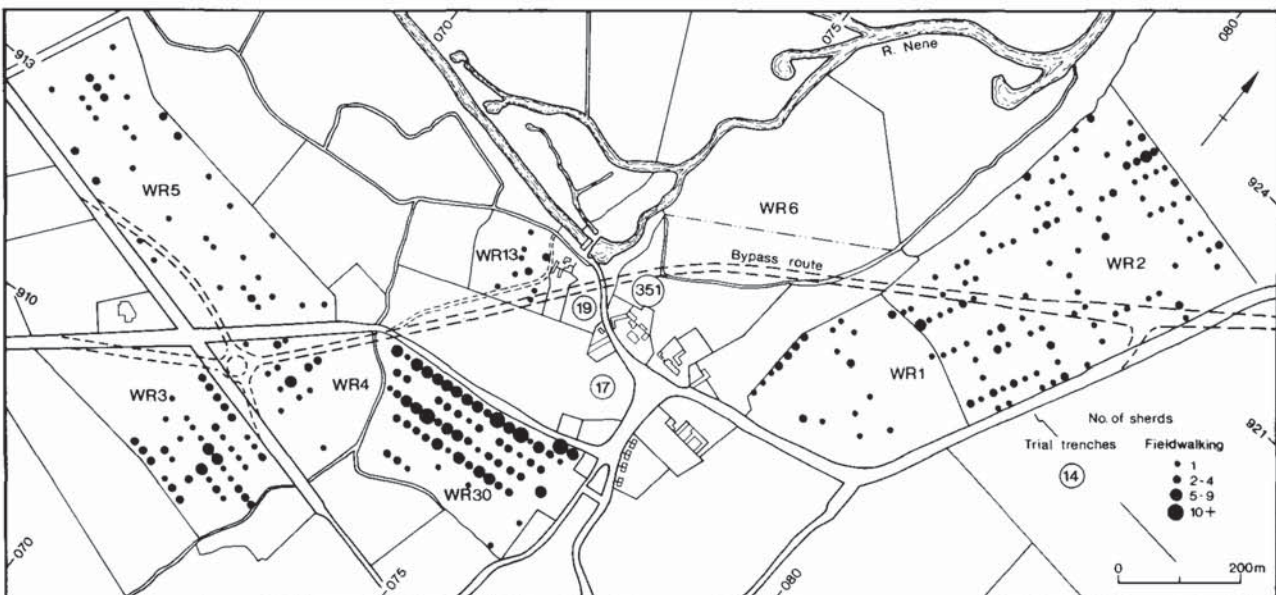


Figure 15: Warmington. Medieval pottery recovered from fieldwalking and trial trenching.

Area 2. This area is currently pasture. On the plan of 1621 it is divided into a series of closes with houses fronting on to the road. The trenches confirmed the presence of a building of post-medieval date fronting on to the road and suggested occupation of late Saxon and medieval date.

Area 3. This area comprises the location of the manor house site, including arable field WR13 in which an early/middle Saxon pottery scatter was located, the gardens of Mill House to its north-east and the western end of pasture field WR14 to its south-west. Resistivity survey at the south-east end of Field WR13 suggested the presence of stone buildings. Trench H was excavated to examine this area and revealed poorly preserved walls, robber trenches and surfaces of medieval date which are likely to be part of the manor house complex, and also a large amount of residual pottery of early/middle Saxon date, along with postholes which may belong to the same period. Trench I to the north-west of Trench H located good evidence of

early/middle Saxon and late Saxon occupation, but trenches J and K suggested that the intervening area had been extensively quarried. Trenches L – N to the south-west of Trench H revealed few features and little pottery suggesting that on this side the limits of early/middle Saxon occupation had been reached.

DISCUSSION

The interim results of this work will cause little surprise to those familiar with the results of David Hall's extensive fieldwalking in Northamptonshire and the intensive walking by the Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit in the Raunds Area. Their importance stems from the presence of a manor site within the study area and from the likelihood of an early opportunity to test the findings of the evaluation when the bypass is constructed.

The Romano-British site appears to span the Roman period but the dearth of early/middle Saxon pottery from its area suggests that there was little continuity into the succeeding period. None of the material recovered from



Figure 16: Warmington. Location of trial trenches. Trial pits and coins found by metal detection in area of Romano-British scatter are shown and areas surveyed by geophysics are stippled.

it so far suggests that it is other than a minor rural settlement. The small amount of Roman pottery recovered from the remainder of the fieldwalking and from the trial trenching is noticeable. It suggests little manuring activity at this period. Possibly the area was under pasture.

Finds of early/middle Saxon pottery from fieldwalking are common in Northamptonshire. Hall and Martin located no less than fifteen scatters in Brixworth parish.⁹ Nevertheless the Warmington scatters are in unusually close proximity, being only 200m – 400m apart. Until recently opportunities to examine what lies below such concentrations were rare and it has been suggested from evidence at Wharram Percy that such scatters are unlikely to mark settlement sites.¹⁰ Recent work, however, has demonstrated the presence of settlement features below Saxon fieldwalking scatters. Hence in Northamptonshire traces of posthole buildings were uncovered beneath one of Hall and Martin's scatters during the building of the Brixworth bypass,¹¹ while a sunken-featured building and other features were uncovered below a scatter discovered

by the Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit at Upton.¹² Thus, all of the Warmington fieldwalking concentrations are likely to represent settlements and indeed, taking into account the limited nature of the trial trenches, it can be suggested that the small amount of residual early/middle Saxon pottery from Areas 1 and 2 may indicate further early/middle Saxon occupation there. Given the long time span for the use of the early/middle Saxon pottery, however, all of the settlements are unlikely to have been contemporary and we are presumably seeing a picture of shifting settlement as at Mucking.¹³ In view of the ample evidence for settlement it is worth noting that there is no evidence for cemeteries either from recognisably funerary pottery or from metalwork finds.

The late Saxon settlement pattern stands in complete contrast to that of the preceding period. The dearth of late Saxon settlements away from areas occupied in the medieval period and later has been previously noted by Hall.¹⁴ The trial trenching at Warmington testifies to the nucleation of late Saxon occupation around the area of

the later manor and associated peasant settlement at Mill End and demonstrates continuing occupation into the medieval period.

A number of potential research objectives can be outlined for the future work: the characterisation of the Romano-British and early/middle Saxon settlements and a more precise dating for the nucleation of settlement around the former Mill End are obvious priorities. Unfortunately these objectives are hampered by the imprecision of the dating of the Saxon pottery in the region. The early/middle Saxon hand-made wares apparently changed little over time and attempts to refine their dating by attributing chronological significance to difference in fabric and form have so far been unconvincing. Only three sherds of middle Saxon Ipswich Ware, one from the fieldwalking and two from the trial trenching, offer any refinement of dating for the Warmington assemblage. The late Saxon period is marked by the introduction of the predominantly wheel-made St Neots-type-Ware, likely to be around the end of the 9th century but again the dating is imprecise.

For the medieval period there is the potential to investigate at least a portion of the Berrysteed manor house, although it would appear to be poorly preserved, and to attempt to establish whether it had a late Saxon – or even an early/middle Saxon – antecedent. There is also the possibility of examining contemporary, presumably peasant, settlement on the opposite side of Mill Lane and comparing the economic evidence from the two areas.

Further interest is provided by the opportunity to date the laying out of Crosswell Hurst Green. The survey plans show a number of greens surrounding the village of Warmington.¹⁵ Thus “The Great Greene” and “Cranes Greene” lay to the east of the village, while “Crosswell Hurst green” and “The West greene” lay to the west (Fig 10). Clearly any opportunity to attempt to date the inception of this settlement form would be of interest, although we cannot assume that the dating of one element will date the whole. For the moment all that can be said is that the laying out of Crosswell Hurst green post-dates the Roman period as the Roman pottery scatter lies within it. A few sherds of early/middle Saxon pottery were recovered from fieldwalking at its north-west end but their significance is uncertain.

Further work will take place immediately prior to and during the construction of the new road. The Warmington bypass is now the subject of a “bid” by Northamptonshire County Council for a grant from the Department of Transport. It is a sign of the times for archaeology that the gathering of further evidence awaits decisions on issues of transport policy.

References

1. The survey was undertaken on behalf of Northamptonshire County Council Planning and Transportation Department. It was carried out under the overall direction of the author who is grateful to the many members of the Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit who assisted in the work, particularly Ian Meadows and Michael Webster who supervised the trial trenching, Tim Sharman and Peter Masters who supervised the fieldwalking, Steve Morris who transcribed the 1621 survey plans, Lesley Collett who

drew the illustrations and Paul Blinkhorn who identified the pottery.

2. The results of the survey as a whole are presented in Shaw, M., *A605 Warmington Bypass and Tansor Improvements. Archaeological Evaluation*, Northamptonshire Archaeological Unit (1993).
3. The medieval settlement of Eaglethorpe lay elsewhere at the northern end of the parish. Robert Taylor has traced the process by which the name of the deserted settlement was transferred to the present area in “Eaglethorpe – the travels of a deserted village”, *Northamptonshire Past Present*, 7.5 (1987-8), 325-6.
4. The survey book is held by Oundle School to whom I am grateful for permission to transcribe the plans.
5. The results of the original, partial, walking, are similar to, although less comprehensive than, those of the later. They are plotted in *MSRG Annual Report*, VI (1991), Fig 20.
6. A total area of 55ha was walked from which 1372 potsherds were collected.
7. As this field was walked at 15m intervals the figures should be halved for comparison with those of the other scatters.
8. A total of 727 potsherds were recovered from the trial trenching
9. Hall, D. N., and Martin, P., “Brixworth, Northamptonshire – An Intensive Field Survey”, *J Brit Archaeol Ass*, 132 (1979), 1-6.
10. Hayfield, C., *An Archaeological Survey of the Parish of Wharram Percy, East Yorkshire*, BAR British Series 172 (1987), 181.
11. Shaw, M., *Archaeology and the Brixworth Bypass*, Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit (1990), and Shaw, M., “The discovery of Saxon sites below fieldwalking scatters: settlement evidence at Brixworth and Upton, Northants”, *Northamptonshire Archaeol*, forthcoming
12. Shaw, M., *Archaeological Evaluation at Upton, Northampton (South-West District)*, Northamptonshire Archaeology Unit (1990), and Shaw, M., forthcoming, *op. cit.* in Note 11.
13. Hamerow, H., *Excavations at Mucking. Volume 2: the Anglo-Saxon settlement*, English Heritage Archaeological Reports 21 (1993), 86-7.
14. Hall, D. N., “The Late Saxon Countryside: Villages and their Fields” in D.Hooke (ed) *Anglo-Saxon Settlements* (1988), 99-122.
15. Warmington can be identified as a village with scattered greens according to the classification system put forward by Brian Roberts in *The Making of the English Village* (1987), 158-9.

RESEARCH IN 1993:

i. FIELDWORK

BERKSHIRE

Ufton Nerevet (SU 632673)

G. R. Brown reports that the medieval and post medieval moat and fishponds at Ufton Nerevet in Berkshire were surveyed at a scale of 1:1000 by RCHME.

The earthworks lie 300m SW of the village of Ufton Nerevet at 92m OD and comprise a moat and four fish ponds set in line and orientated NW-SE. The system, apart from the pond immediately NW of the moat, contains water. An artificial stream cut along the edge of a field boundary to the SE supplies the water to the system.

The moat consists of a trapezoidal island 50x30m completely surrounded by a ditch c.2m deep and up to 10m wide. The island is c. 1m lower than the surrounding ground level and excavation demonstrated the existence of a wooden bridge, a gatehouse and the foundation walls of a house. The moat lies in the centre of the four fish ponds, each separated by a dam. Water flowed from one pond to another via a sluice in the dams and finally into a stream to the NW.

CORNWALL

Stratton Hundred

Peter Herring reports that the earthworks of abandoned or shrunken medieval hamlets were among the features most intensively sought in a Rapid Identification Survey (RIS) undertaken in the spring of 1993 by Peter Herring and Nigel Thomas of the Cornwall Archaeological Unit (CAU), Cornwall County Council. This investigation covered the eleven ancient parishes of Stratton Hundred and two parishes in Lesnewth (St Gennys and Poundstock). The survey was set up and funded by the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England and comprised documentary, place-name and cartographic research followed by fieldwork in which site confirmation or recognition was the principal aim. The detailed recording and investigation of selected sites must be a high priority for the future.

All those farming settlements with secure medieval documentation (information based on the Institute of Cornish Studies/CAU place-names index) and where permission to explore was obtained were investigated. The survey was remarkably successful: twenty-one previously unrecorded deserted hamlets and 87 shrunken hamlets, most with the earthworks of abandoned buildings and enclosures, were identified. Perhaps the most valuable deserted site discovered was the Early Medieval settlement and Domesday estate centre of Trefreock in St Gennys (SX 16829530). An irregular enclosure appears to contain a complete medieval settlement with several building platforms, enclosures and hollow-ways. There are other equally well-preserved sites with later medieval documentation at Higher Burracott, Poundstock (SS 22700073, first recorded 1202), West Witheven, Jacobstow (SX 22229233, first recorded 1284), West

Hele, Jacobstow (SX 214979, first recorded 1548) and Whitstone Churchtown (SX 26369858, first recorded 1086).

Shrunken hamlets varied considerably in extent and in some cases the earthworks recorded may prove to be post-medieval. There are, however, a number of excellent sites with well-defined building and enclosure earthworks clearly separated from post-medieval foci. The important Domesday estate centre of Week Orchard in Week St Mary (SS 23470035) is a particularly good example.

This survey provided the opportunity for the first extensive and systematic search for medieval settlements remains in lowland Cornwall, the upland regions of Bodmin Moor and West Penwith having received close attention in recent decades, and the large numbers of sites found will both inform models of rural settlement history and stimulate other similar surveys elsewhere in the county. A longer article listing sites found in both this survey and an ongoing RIS in East Wivelshire Hundred (along the mid-Tamar valley), and placing the results in their historic context will be submitted for publication in a future Annual Report. Outline information about every site discovered during this Rapid Identification Survey can be obtained from either Cornwall Sites and Monuments Register or the National Monuments Record Centre, Kemble Drive, Swindon.

NORFOLK

Didlington (TL 778970)

Documentary investigation of the site of the Hall (demolished 1950) failed to yield any firm evidence of a possible medieval forerunner. Light was thrown on the timing of the disappearance of the medieval village. Allison (1955) suggested, from map evidence, that it bore all the signs of an emparking. Investigation now shows that decline began in the 16th century at a time when evidence suggests that land was leased for large-scale sheep farming. An estimated population of about 100 in 1603 suffered further depletion through purchasing-in of tenants' lands by new lords (Sedleys from Kent). A hall was built later and a park created, this being extended during the 18th and 19th centuries.

The work was undertaken by Alan Davison and funded by the owner, Ms Fiona Dickson.

Ref: K. J. Allison, 'The Lost Villages of Norfolk', *Norfolk Archaeol.* XXXI, 1955, 116-162.

Morley (TG 059995)

The Manor Farm (Norfolk Research Centre) is being fieldwalked by Alan Davison for Norfolk Landscape Archaeology as a preliminary to further work to be undertaken by the Centre of East Anglian Studies of the University of East Anglia. Concentrations of medieval pottery have been found at a number of points on either side of a low-lying former green shown on Waterman's map of 1620, and by an existing road. A strong

concentration of Thetford-type pottery has been found; mingled with it is a much smaller but still significant quantity of Ipswich-type Ware. This concentration appears to have no relationship with the medieval landscape and is quite distant from either of the two churches. A Romano-British concentration has been found on higher boulder clay soils.

The work is funded by English Heritage.

Hargham (TM 020913)

Alan Davison has begun a fieldwalking survey of the Hargham Estate which includes small portions of the neighbouring medieval parishes of Snetterton (TL 994910), Attleborough (TM 045952), Old Buckenham (TM 065915), and Wilby (TM 032899). Hargham and Wilby now form part of the civil parish of Quidenham (TM 028877). Hargham was deserted between 1680 and 1708. The survey has so far shown that the apparent early core of the settlement lay close to the former line of the street some 300m to the west of the church. Middle Saxon, Late Saxon and medieval pottery has been found there in quantity. In medieval times settlement extended eastwards to the edge of a low common where the church and a moated site are located. Two probable isolated medieval sites, still occupied by houses, were discovered within Attleborough, close to the line of a road said to be Roman. Despite the proximity of this Roman road (Margary 331) very little Romano-British pottery has been found within Hargham and Attleborough. However, a small site of this period has been found within Old Buckenham parish. A probable Iron Age site has been found close to the boundary between Hargham and Wilby.

Ref: A. J. Davison, 'Some Aspects of the Agrarian History of Hargham and Snetterton', *Norfolk Archaeol.* XXXV, 1972, 335-355.

Brian Cushion reports that an Earthwork Rapid Identification Survey, funded by the RCHME, was undertaken by M. Flitcroft and B. Cushion of the Landscape Archaeology Section of the Norfolk Museums Service, between November 1992 and March 1993. Methods, results and conclusions are briefly summarised below.

A countywide record of grassland survival produced by the Norfolk Naturalists Trust in the 1980s and a study of County Council air photos from the summer of 1988 provided an initial list of 179 potential new earthwork sites throughout the county. These included mounds; enclosures, including moats; building platforms; field systems; ponds and linear features, including roadways and park boundaries.

Field investigation was limited to a Trial area of 20 10x10 km NG squares, with any LAS air photos adjacent to the potential sites scrutinised before a field visit. Within this Trial area a Pilot Study also scrutinised the RAF 1946 air photos of 4 10x10 squares.

As a result of the field investigation, positive identification occurred for 49 new sites (22 in the Pilot Study area), 10 (6) non-earthwork sites, and enhancement took place for 16 (6) known earthwork sites.

Individually, the most impressive new sites were shrunken village earthworks at Wilby TM 032898, Carleton Forehoe TG 094058 and Matlaske TG 152350, a hollow

way and associated tofts at Edgefield TG 077355 and a fine D shaped moat with interior bank and house platform and exterior fish pond and enclosures at Tibenham (115894). A selection of other Medieval and post Medieval sites were identified, predominantly in valley floor locations or nearby and in parkland, in the type range noted above, but with little positive confirmation of any sites originally noted as mounds.

Three of the major conclusions of the project are of more general interest. Firstly, the plotting of grassland survival was time consuming but produced an invaluable base upon which to pursue the archaeological investigations. Secondly, the early 1946 RAF air photos proved a much more valuable medium for the identification of earthworks, even though some are now ploughed out, than the 1988 County Council photos taken in mid-summer. Thirdly, the importance of field verification of possible AP earthwork sites cannot be overemphasised. As a result of this intensification of study, some 20 of the 49 new sites had been recorded as a result of observation whilst travelling between potential sites, identified nearby to potential sites or noted as a result of information provided by landowners or tenants.

Several interesting and impressive sites have been identified and it is anticipated that some would be suitable for inclusion in any future extension to the County Council's Monument Management Project and for consideration under the Monument Protection Programme. It has also provided an invaluable guide to determining future practices and priorities.

SUFFOLK

Clare, Clare Camp (TL/7645; CLA010)

Edward Martin reports that, following a request from Suffolk County Council, the RCHME undertook an earthwork survey of the Lower Common at Clare in October 1993. This area includes the probable Iron Age bi-vallate enclosure known as Clare Camp, and a large number of smaller remains which testify to the complex later development of the site. The survey confirmed that the enclosure is the earliest feature on the site. Remains in the interior, first commented on by Edward Martin in 1991, were shown to represent an extensive manorial complex, with evidence for at least four structures and possible fishponds. This can be linked with a degree of certainty to the Manor of Erbury, which was probably founded in the mid-13th century. The remains of two pest houses built in 1723 were also recorded. To the south-west of the main enclosure, a pair of parallel ditches are thought to be contemporary with the manorial complex, and seem to represent a continuation of the hollow-way known as Sheepgate Lane.

The land was made Common in the early 16th century by Katherine of Aragon, and the remains of post-medieval activity on the site also survive. A full account and plan of the RCHME survey will be published in the Proceedings of the Suffolk Institute of Archaeology: copies have also been deposited in the National Monuments Record in Swindon (ref. TL 74 NE 10) and the Suffolk Sites and Monuments Record. (Alastair Oswald for the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England).

Coddenham (TM/1153; CDD039)

A metal-detector search, carried out as part of an evaluation, recovered an Anglo-Saxon coin (*sceat*, series G) of early 8th-century date.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council).

Dunwich, Grey Friars (TM/4770; DUN016)

In October 1993 archaeologists from the RCHME Cambridge Field Office carried out a preliminary survey of the Franciscan friary, concentrating on those areas most at risk from coastal erosion – the south-east corner of the precinct and adjacent features between the friary and the cliff edge.

The surviving stretch of the medieval town ditch, the Pales Dyke, was recorded south-east of Grey Friars. Only some 20m was still visible, but the course evidently continues northwards under the precinct walls. To the east of the precinct, two gravestones were noted in the remains of All Saints churchyard. One of these, dated to 1796, had been moved from its original location in order to prevent its destruction, but the other was apparently *in situ*. A low earthen bank, 0.3m high and 2.0m wide, is shown on the Ordnance Survey 1st edition map of 1884 as the western boundary of the churchyard.

The RCHME will be carrying out a detailed survey of the entire Grey Friars precinct in April 1994. A copy of the report will be deposited with the National Monuments Record at Swindon and the Suffolk Sites and Monuments Record).

(Paul Struth for the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England).

Ixworth Thorpe (TL97SW)

The name indicates that this was regarded as being a dependant settlement (*thorpe*) of Ixworth, its larger

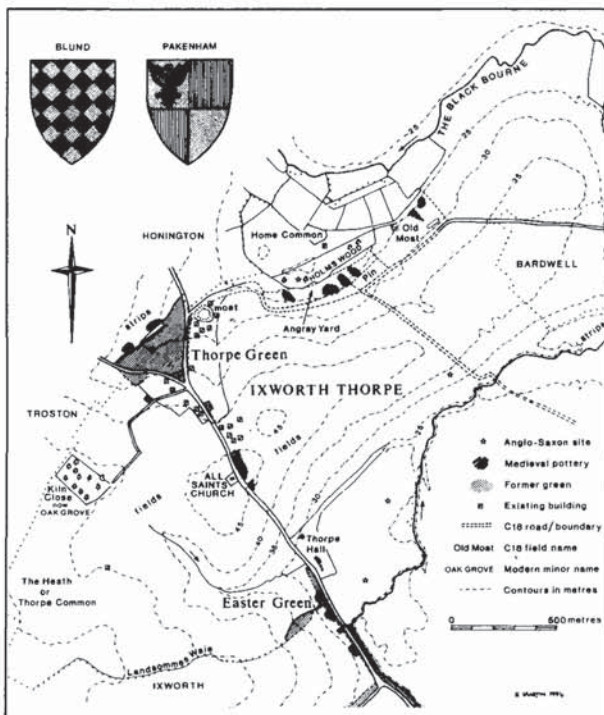


Figure 17: Ixworth Thorpe: Map of medieval settlement as revealed by recent fieldwalking.

neighbour. Old findings by Basil Brown in the 1940s and recent fieldwalking have shown that there were at least three areas of Early Saxon settlement/cemetery along The Black Bourne in the southern part of the parish, and one possible one in the north near Holms Wood, but none of these seem to have survived into the later Saxon period and, furthermore, they appear to have had no effect on the medieval settlement pattern (for similar findings in Northamptonshire, see Taylor 1992, 8).

By 1086, however, there were five separate land holdings in Thorpe. The two principal ones being held by Robert Blund (of Ixworth and Ashfield) under the Abbey of Bury St. Edmunds (presumably part of the estate that came to the abbey through the gift of Thurketil, *dreing inclitus*, in the 1040s – Hart 1961, 67) and by a man called Saisselin, about whom little is known, except that he was the successor here to a thegn called Acwulf.

No church is recorded in Domesday, but one must have been built shortly afterwards as the existing small thatched church contains a Norman doorway. This church now stands alone on a hill in the centre of the parish, but fieldwalking has shown the presence of a vanished settlement of Late Saxon-Norman date close by, on the other side of the road.

In about the 12th century the settlement seems to have moved down the hill to small greens on either side. The larger one, called Thorpe Green or Thorpe Common, was on the north side, hard against the Honington boundary. It has now been enclosed and partly infilled with housing, but much of its outline still survives. A moated site at the N.E. corner of the green survived until recently, but has now been destroyed. The moat probably surrounded the manor held in the 1280s by William de Pakenham, described as the chief lord of the vill of Thorpe and the successor to the Blund family (Powell 1910, 44). Fieldwalking along the northern side of the green (actually in Honington parish) has revealed two areas of medieval occupation, probably beginning in the 12th century and continuing into the post-medieval period. Two 18th-century maps (S.R.O. (B.) P554 & 719/4) confirm this by showing one or two houses along this edge, associated with strip fields. Another area of medieval occupation (mainly 13th-14th centuries, but including a small amount of post-medieval earthenware) was identified just off the west side of the green, adjacent to a track leading to Oak Grove.

The other green lay on the southern edge of the parish and overlapped into Ixworth. Known as Easter Green, the Thorpe part seems to have consisted of a narrow strip along the Thetford Road. A map of 1725 marks a strip of 'Inter Common' [i.e. land common to both Ixworth and Thorpe], on the west side of the road, and fieldwalking has revealed a scatter of medieval (mainly 13th-14th century) pottery on this edge, close to the one surviving house (which is just over the border in Ixworth). However fieldwalking suggests that there was a similar strip of green on the east side of the road, for a scatter of medieval pottery (again mainly 13th-14th century) has been found there as well, set back slightly from the road edge. This material lies in a field that is named as *Thorpe Hall* in 1725, and at the northern end of this field and probably at the northern end of the original green as well, is another scatter of medieval pottery (yet again mainly 13th-14th

century) in an oval patch of dark soil, together with burnt flints and lava quern fragments. In view of the field name, it is possible that this was the site of the de Pakenham manor house – both this and the moat on Thorpe Green are within the area mapped as ‘the manor of Ixworth Thorpe’ in 1725, but the moat is perhaps, on balance, more likely to be the manor site.

A third area of medieval settlement adjoins the south side of Holms Wood. In the 18th century the wood formed part of a low-lying area bordering The Black Bourne called *Home Common* (probably from O.E. *hamm*, ‘flat low-lying pasture’, though O.N. *holmr* ‘an island, a river meadow’ is also possible). Along the southern edge of the common (and just south of the present wood), where the land rises, the 18th-century maps show a linear enclosure called *Angray Yard* (1725) or *Angry Yards* (1769) (possibly from O.E. *hangra* ‘slope, wood on a slope’, though the slope here is fairly gentle), bounded on the south side by a broad driftway that formed part of the old road between Thorpe Green and Bardwell. Fieldwalking here has revealed four scatters of medieval pottery in the area of *Angray Yard*, adjoining the driftway. Again, most of the pottery dates from the 13th and 14th centuries.

To the east of Holms Wood, outside the area mapped as ‘the manor of Ixworth Thorpe’ in 1725, but shown on an estate map of 1769, is a field called *Old Moat*. The map shows a linear pond in the S.E. corner of the field, which may be the remains of a moat, but this later disappeared under a barn and yard, which have also now disappeared. Fieldwalking revealed little in the area of the pond/barn, but to the north of them, two scatters of medieval pottery were found close to each other, but divided by a modern road. Both have the usual 13th-14th century pottery, but one also has some possible 12th-century sherds and fragments of lava querns. The fact that this field was not included on the 1725 map implies that this area was not regarded as belonging to the manor of Ixworth Thorpe, even though it belonged to the same man (Thomas Crofts Reed). Reed’s estate extended into Bardwell and included the now-flattened moat of Bardwell Hall. The pottery scatter in *Old Moat* may therefore indicate a tenement belonging to the manor of Bardwell on the site of a separate small manor.

(Fieldwalking by Edward Savery and Allen Smith, historical notes by Edward Martin).

Tunstall (TM/3755, TUN009)

Survey work in an area of recently replanted forest located as a medieval pottery scatter (TUN009) of 12th-14th century date.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council).

Walberswick (TM/4974; WLB010, 012, 015-018)

In order to throw more light on the origins of Walberswick village, a relatively large area around Stocks Lane and Seven Acre Lane was fieldwalked. This work confirmed the site of Walberswick’s first church (WLB010; demolished in the late 15th century) with the location of an extensive scatter of flint rubble. A pottery scatter of Late Saxon/Early Medieval to Late Medieval date was also recorded in this area, which included sherds of Thetford-type ware (produced c. 850-1150). Over the

remainder of the area examined, four extensive scatters of medieval pottery were recorded (WLB015-18) indicating a high level of settlement activity around the southern edge of the present village in the 13th-15th century period. The fieldwalking survey also recovered a small amount of Roman pottery and a few tile fragments, indicating some activity of that date in the general area.

It is of interest to note that no evidence of Middle Saxon activity was found around the site of Walberswick’s first church, as this confirms historical sources which indicate that the nearby settlement of Blythburgh was a major centre of activity in this area in the 7th-9th centuries. Walberswick seems to have been a secondary settlement to Blythburgh, with origins in the Late Saxon period.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council).

Westleton (TM/4369; WLN021)

A fieldwalking survey over an area to the north-west of St. Peter’s Church recovered ceramic evidence indicating an area of medieval settlement. Two or three sherds of Middle-Saxon Ipswich ware were also recovered from the site.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council).

WALES

Historic Settlements in Colwyn Borough, Breconshire, and Radnorshire

In the last annual report (1992, p.7) the planning and organisational background to several historic settlement surveys in Clwyd and Powys conducted by the Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust was described. In 1993, further rapid surveys of all the settlements in the north-western part of Clwyd (Colwyn Borough) and in central Powys (Radnorshire) were instigated. Bob Sylvester reports.

The study of Colwyn Borough covered 37 settlements of which some 19 were found to be post-medieval developments, while the remaining 18 can probably be classed as early medieval or medieval foundations. Few previously unknown sites of archaeological and historic interest were recognised during the course of the survey, and settlement earthworks were noticeably absent. In contrast, 63 of the 90 settlements studied in Radnorshire can be classed as medieval or earlier, and many of them are of small size consisting of little more than the church and at most a couple of dwellings. Nineteen of these appear to have earthwork evidence of settlement contraction or shift, including Llanfaredd, Old Llandrindod, Old Radnor and Pilleth.

Radnorshire is thus directly comparable with Brecknock Borough on the opposite side of the River Wye, where settlement earthworks were encountered regularly during fieldwork in 1991-92, and this part of central Powys is markedly different from the Brecon Beacons National Park to the south and Montgomeryshire to the north, in both of which earthworks are few.

The Brecknock Borough earthwork sites were subjected to follow-up measured surveys in 1993. The programme of work funded by Cadw/Welsh Historic Monuments involved surveys of 15 sites in 12 settlements. In most cases the surviving earthworks consist of at most a few building platforms and associated field boundaries, but

several comprise substantial remains of shrunken settlement. Most notable among these are Llanfihangel Tal-y-llyn (SO 1128) and Gwenddwr (SO 0643). To the north-east of the present village of Llanfihangel lie well-preserved earthworks. The site comprises several tracks and hollow ways with at least 13 building platforms and an associated field system (Fig 18).



Figure 18: Llanfihangel Tal-y-llyn.

Gwenddwr reveals a similar level of earthwork preservation although the modern village is considerably smaller than at Llanfihangel. There are documented references to a Cistercian grange during the 14th Century, although its location is unknown. An initial evaluation of some of the earthworks in a field adjacent to the church, earmarked for a graveyard extension, proved inconclusive because adverse weather in December 1993 prevented completion of the programme. One trench investigated what appeared to be the former churchyard enclosure, together with an adjacent platform. The bank was confirmed as post-medieval but it had been constructed on the edge of an earlier terrace, and may have overlain an earlier ditch. A second trench on another platform produced little structural evidence and only post-medieval pottery.

Historic Landscapes on the Gwent Levels

Stephen Rippon of the Archaeology Dept at Reading University reports that the Gwent Levels Historic Landscape Study aims to investigate the historical processes that lead to the creation of this distinctive wetland landscape. Firstly, the project is achieving an increased understanding of how the landscape was created through reclamation, drainage, enclosure and subsequent changes in landuse. Secondly, it is hoped to increase awareness on the part of planners and those who

manage this countryside, of the need to see the Levels as a fragile, complex and diverse landscape that needs to be protected, and managed in a sympathetic way. The two-year project is jointly funded by Cadw: Welsh Historic Monuments and the Countryside Council for Wales.

The Gwent Levels are the largest area of reclaimed wetland in Wales, covering c. 10,000 ha. They can be broadly divided into the Caldicot Levels between Newport and Chepstow, and the Wentlooge Level between Cardiff and Newport. It was in the Roman period that these areas of coastal saltmarsh were first protected from marine inundation through the construction of a sea-wall. The area thus enclosed was then drained through the digging of a network of ditches, known locally as reens. Large areas appear to have been flooded in the late and post-Roman period, and only in parts of the Wentlooge Level did the Roman landscape continue in use.

The remaining areas were subsequently recolonized around the eleventh century, though who was responsible is unclear. The interpretation of numerous "ton" place-names is particularly critical. There is some evidence for an English presence in south east Gwent during the late Saxon period. The tenth and eleventh century Llandaff charters mention some fifty English names in south east Wales, including a local king Edwin who appears to have had his centre at Undy on the edge of the Caldicot Level (W. Davies 1979, 126, 145). In 1065 Harold Godwinson built a hunting lodge at Portskewtt. Davies (1987, 3) argues that this suggests that the annexation of south east Gwent was imminent, though it could also be argued that the construction of a hunting lodge would follow the conquest of an area (Davies 1987, 26).

The initial Norman advance into south east Wales took place in the 1070s, though this faltered c. 1075, until its resumption in the 1090s (Davies 1987, 24-43). The whole of south east Wales was conquered in the following fifteen years, and it may be that the "ton" names relate to the subsequent English settlement of the area. The new territory remained in royal hands until the early twelfth century, when it was divided into a series of Lordships including Strigoil/Chepstow, Caerleon and Newport. Caerleon later fell back into Welsh hands, possibly during the anarchy of Stephen's reign and only returned to English hands in 1270.

An indication of what the native landscape might have looked like can be seen in Christchurch parish, to the east of Newport. This was part of Caerleon lordship, and retained its Welsh landholding structure, a very dispersed pattern of settlement and largely enclosed field-systems. On the Levels, Nash has a similar landscape with a notably dispersed settlement pattern (see Fig. 19: compare. Whitson and Redwick to the east).

The English subjugation of south east Wales had a profound impact on the landscape. Each lordship was divided into manors, and the countryside organised into nucleated villages and common-fields, for example Redwick on the Levels. There is a slight evidence of several fen-edge villages having been planned; at Caldicot strip-tenements were laid out along a main street, while at Magor and Llanvihangel farmsteads are arranged around a rectangular green.

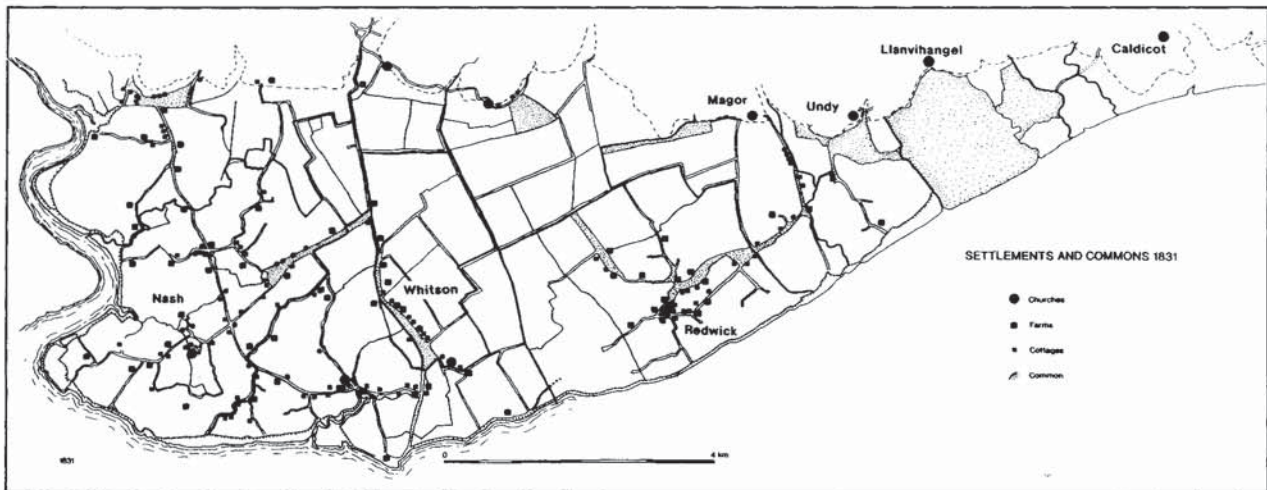


Figure 19: Settlements and commons on the Caldicot Level.

One village on the Levels was clearly planned. This is Whitson which appears to have been carved out of Goldcliff parish (see Fig. 20). Morphologically, the village is dominated by a planned block of long narrow fields, running perpendicular to a funnel shaped common. Though longitudinally these strips extend for some 1 km, they are divided laterally by two boundaries, one or both of which were formerly lanes.

The closest parallel for a settlement of Whitson's morphology is in Holland, known as the "cope" system

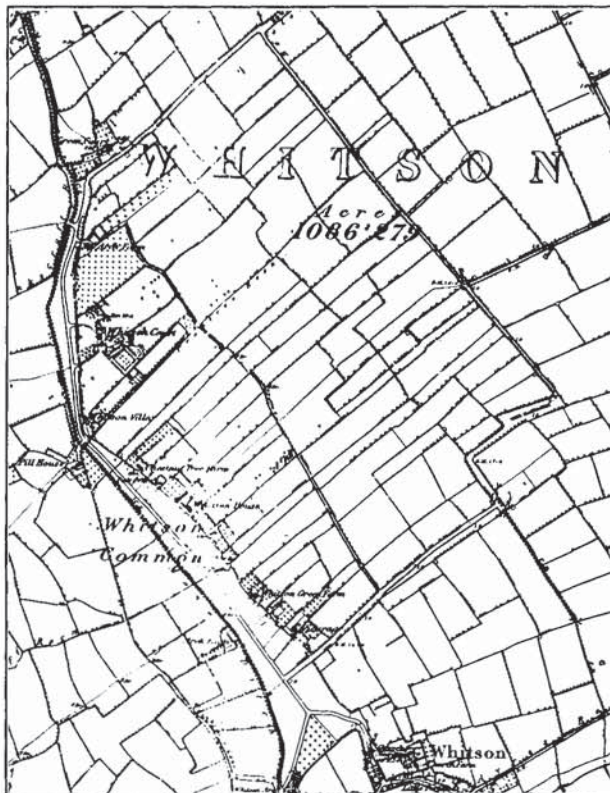


Figure 20: The planned village of Whitson.

(Besteman 1986). This occurred when a great landowner appropriated the "regality", or rights of exploitation of wilderness areas, and leased them to colonists for a minimal rent in order to have them reclaimed. Settlement was strung out along a street on the highest ground, with long narrow tenement strips laid out parallel to that street

and extending away from the highest ground. This reclaimed land was surrounded by an embankment. Over time, the area of reclaimed land needed to expand, and so the tenement strips were extended, and a new embankment constructed. This pattern is matched at Whitson.

At present, the origins of Whitson remain clouded in mystery. However, the author would be very interested to hear of any comparable planned villages in Britain.

Besteman, J. C. (1986) "The History of Medieval Settlement in North Holland and the Reclamation of the Peat Areas in Archaeological Perspective", in Murphy, P. and French, C. ed. *The Exploitation of Wetlands*. B.A.R. 186, 327-368.

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WARWICKSHIRE

Admington (SP 200460)

Work has continued by Christopher Dyer on this Warwickshire Feldon parish, which contains two townships, Admington itself and Lark Stoke.

Fieldwalking continues to produce material of all periods, including a good deal of prehistoric flints and potsherds; a third Romano-British settlement has been found, and parallel work on aerial photographs shows that the site was marked by a platform and other earthworks prior to cultivation in the 1950s and 1960s.

Documentary research shows that although the bulk of the inhabitants of the two villages lived in nucleated settlements, a single isolated farmstead, called Newnham, existed between the late 12th and mid-14th centuries. Although we think of the region as totally nucleated in its settlement pattern there were clearly some exceptions. As the name suggests, this was a post-Conquest addition to the settlements of the area.

The court rolls reveal information about the topography of the village – there are references to the mill, for example, and the manorial fishponds. Evidence for the social life of the villages includes migration patterns

outside the immediate district which point to market contacts, and references to the activities of the common herdsman and the organisation of the common pasture.

The discovery of an 18th-century estate map allows us to reconstruct the topography of Lark Stoke, a village deserted in the later Middle Ages, with more confidence. Relatively few of the field names are of Medieval origin, but from both townships there are enough names to enable some historical inferences to be drawn, for example about the survival of a British population in the area in the early Middle Ages and the consequent continued use of British names for the Humber Brook and nearby Meon Hill.

Earthworks were surveyed this year in the vicinity of the manor house and that part of Admington village known as Upper Admington. Fig.21 shows the Hall, a 17th and

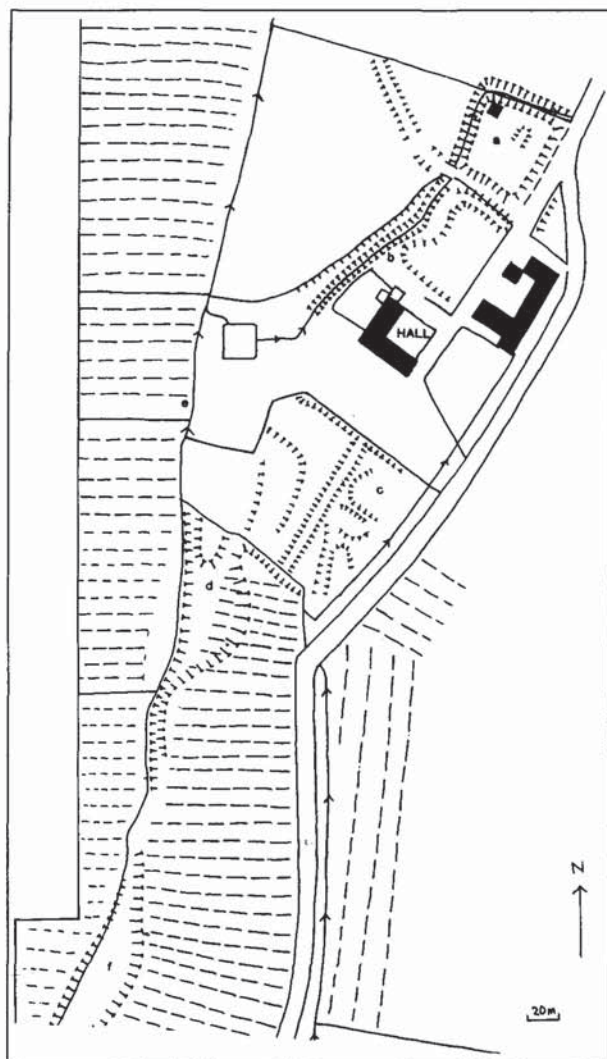


Figure 21: Upper Admington and the Manor House of Admington.

18th century mansion. Its medieval predecessor (the manor house of the Abbots of Winchcombe) stood to the north, in a well defined moated site which has a prominent rectangular platform(a). The Hall's outbuildings and gardens have removed much of the earlier evidence, but topographical observation suggests that the original north-south road ran immediately to the east of the moated site, but has subsequently been diverted around the grounds of the Hall. Earthworks to the south of the Hall

(c) may mark the site of agricultural buildings attached to the medieval manor house. A stream flowed northwards to the west of the manor house. It filled two fishponds (f and d), and a leat (b) fed the moat. The present owner of the Hall found a wooden pipe at e, near to the original dam at the head of the pond system. Ridge and furrow runs into pond d, suggesting a period of disuse and reversion to arable in the later medieval or post medieval periods.

Baginton (SP 341746)

A survey of earthworks south east of the Castle and south west of the church was carried out on behalf of English Heritage by G. Lines, P. Moore and N. Palmer of Warwickshire Museum. To the north west the site contains an area of medieval settlement earthworks in which hollow ways, boundary banks and house platforms are visible. This part of the site is a Scheduled Ancient Monument (Warwickshire no. 183). To the north there is an infilled modern gravel quarry; to the south an earlier quarry and a terraced area probably connected with the medieval settlement. A disused modern military vehicle test track with concrete and earthworks obstacles also crosses the site.

WILTSHIRE

As part of a project on the Salisbury Plain Training Area in Wiltshire, G R Brown reports that the RCHME have surveyed the sites of two shrunken medieval settlements at a scale of 1:1000.

Knighton Farm (SU 155455)

The settlement lies on the W side of the River Avon at c. 28m above OD. Knighton is a tithing of Figheldean and lies on the tithing boundary opposite the hamlet of Briggerston. This pairing of tithings is similar to other settlements along the Avon valley and has been noted elsewhere on the chalk downland of southern England.

The settlement covers an area of c. 3ha juxtaposed to the parish boundary. The earthworks lie primarily on the first river terrace and the remainder on the flood plain. Survey showed that the settlement was divided into three blocks by a hollow-way leading from the present A345 road and forking at the present farm-house. A number of property boundaries are cut into the former Celtic fields. On the flood plain, in the area of the farm-house, more properties including the probable site of a chapel recorded in the C13 and fish ponds were noted.

Middleton Farm (ST 90754456)

Unlike many chalk downland settlements Middleton is not situated close to a river but lies on the S side of Middle Hill about 1.1 Km from the River Wylye. Middleton (Midelton in 1086) is a tithing of Norton Bavant parish and lies on the parish boundary. It probably derives the name from its location between the Iron Age hillfort of Scratchbury Hill and Battlesbury Hill. The settlement today consists of Middleton farm-house with a yard and a few cottages built in the mid C19.

Survey of the earthwork complex showed that the settlement, represented by a series of sub-rectangular platforms and depressions, was set on the terraces of former Celtic field lynchets. Some of the lynchets follow

the contour around Middle Hill and were later adapted into strip lynchets, some crossing the parish boundary. In the post medieval period, possibly in the late C17 when there was only one tenant, the settlement was enclosed by a boundary bank and external ditch *c.*0.4m deep on the NW and NE sides and by a hollow-way *c.*3m wide and *c.*2m deep on the SE side. Beside the hollow-way, on a level platform, are a series of banks representing former gardens and an orchard with a substantial hollow 150m long and up to 8m wide and 3m deep. This feature does not extend beyond the boundary bank and seems likely to be associated with the post medieval garden.

RESEARCH IN 1993:

ii EXCAVATIONS

BEDFORDSHIRE

Tempsford (TL 1653)

Drew Shotliff reports that the Department of Transport's Tempsford Overbridge Scheme was designed to bring about the closure of a number of gaps on the A1 (T), by providing a system of link roads and an overbridge for local traffic. The route of the main link road affected a moated enclosure (Historic Environment Record 9726), situated in the north-west corner of Tempsford Park. As part of the preparation for the Environmental Impact Statement an archaeological evaluation of the site was carried out by Bedfordshire County Council Planning Department's Archaeology Service. The Overbridge Scheme was subsequently withdrawn by the DoT following its road programme review. As a result, no further archaeological work is anticipated on the site in the immediate future. However, the results of the evaluation work will be published more fully in a forthcoming edition of *Bedfordshire Archaeology*.

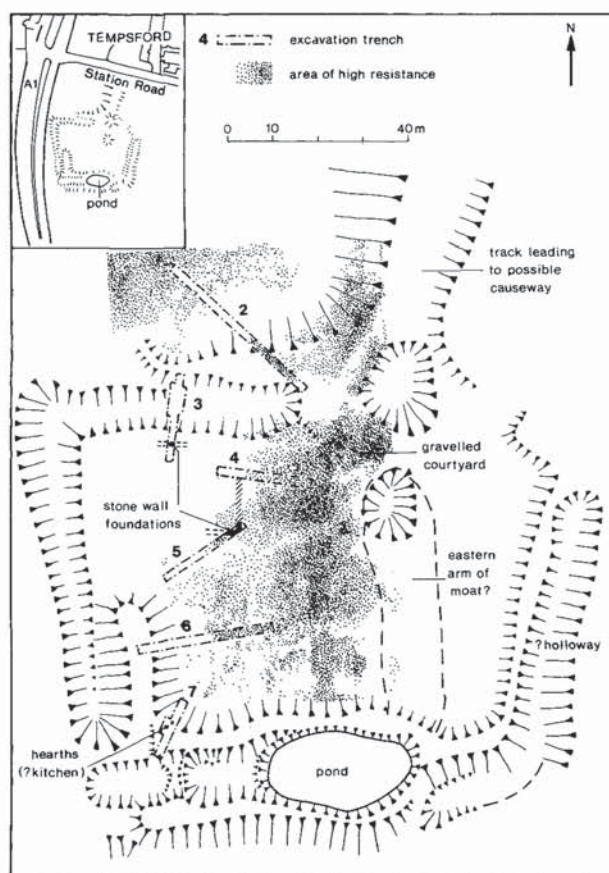


Figure 22: Moated enclosure in Tempsford Park.

The moated site lies immediately to the east of the A1 at the junction with Station Road. In the medieval period this part of Tempsford was known as Lambcourt or Lampitt End. Traces of this settlement survive as earthworks immediately to the north-east of the moat. 200m to the west is the river Great Ouse. 700m to the south is the historic core of Tempsford itself, centred on both the junction of the Great North Road and the Everton-Potton road and the confluence of the rivers Great Ouse and Ivel.

The evaluation was structured around a sequence of investigative techniques. An earthwork survey of the moated site and its immediate environs was undertaken. This provided a detailed record of the site in advance of any ground disturbance and also helped to identify the location of modern services crossing the area. Extensive magnetometry and resistivity survey was carried out both on the moat platform and on the areas outside the ditch. Finally, nine trial trenches were opened and three boreholes drilled across the site. In addition, the documentary and historic map evidence in the County Record Office was examined.

Small quantities of residual material from the prehistoric to middle Saxon periods were recovered. Similarly, there was only very limited evidence for settlement in the late Saxon period.

The first substantial domestic settlement on the site was established in the Saxon-Norman period. The survival of structural evidence for this phase was relatively poor. However, an extensive deposit of demolition debris appeared to derive from the destruction of clay and timber buildings. A rich deposit of charred grain, the animal bone assemblage and the predominance of kitchen wares in the ceramic finds are all indicative of domestic occupation. It is noteworthy that large quantities of residual 10th-11th century shell-tempered St Neots ware were recovered from later contexts. The digging of the moat clearly had a very damaging effect on the remains of the earlier Saxo-Norman settlement.

Construction and initial occupation of the moat dates to the 12th-13th century. The ditch defined an area of approximately 0.36 ha. Upcast from the excavation was used both to raise and level this platform and to construct external banks to the north and south. The moat appears to have been deliberately sited on a localised deposit of boulder clay. There was no indication of a stream feeding into the moat and waterlogged plant remains from the basal fills confirm that it did not contain moving water. Interestingly, the base of the southern arm of the moat was around 1.75m higher than the base of the northern arm, suggesting that the two parts of the ditch may not have been contiguous. The historic map evidence and the results of the earthwork and geophysical surveys seem to confirm that causeways, or at least gaps, in the ditch existed in the north-east and south-west corners.

The eastern arm of the moat appeared to have been substantially infilled and did not survive as an earthwork. However, its position was clearly defined by the geophysical survey as an area of low resistance. Further to the east a low bank and possible holloway may represent later additions to the moated site.

The remains of clay and timber buildings and a post-built structure were recorded on the platform. Two iron door keys are also indicative of the presence of dwellings. Quantities of carbonised grain, the animal bone assemblage and the utilitarian nature of the ceramic finds again stress the agricultural and domestic nature of the settlement.

Continued occupation of the moated site into the late medieval period is represented by a stone building phase. One or more buildings were sited along the northern edge of the platform and the presence of two hearths towards the south-west corner may indicate the site of a kitchen. A metallated courtyard covered much of the eastern half of the platform and linked up with a possible trackway leading from the north-east corner towards Station Road. There is evidence for re-cutting and maintenance of the ditch and a new internal bank was constructed in the south-west corner of the platform. The ceramic and animal bone assemblages are still typical for a domestic site, with the former now including regional imports as well as local wares.

The ceramic assemblage suggests that occupation of the site ceased during the 15th century. Levelling and landscaping, probably with imported ploughsoil, took place to the north and south of the moated site. This is likely to have been the work of Sir Gillies Payne, who emparked the area in the late 18th century. A fence line across the moat platform suggests it may have been used as an animal pen. There was also some evidence for the salvaging of stone from the abandoned buildings.

The work at Tempsford has substantially added to our knowledge of Bedfordshire moated sites and the medieval settlement pattern in the north of the county. It is clear from the evidence recovered during the evaluation that the moat was constructed on the site of a pre-existing Saxo-Norman settlement. This in itself is of considerable interest as it raises the possibility of the moated homestead being a replacement for an earlier Saxo-Norman establishment. The domestic and agricultural nature of the finds and environmental assemblages from both phases certainly demonstrates some continuity in the types of activity taking place on the site.

The existence of the earlier Saxo-Norman settlement is also highly significant when the historical evidence is considered. There are no direct references to the moated site in the County Record Office but a number of surviving maps and documents are of interest.

In 1769 Sir Gillies Payne bought a considerable quantity of property in the area, including the Manors of Tempsford, Brayes and Draytons, a single capital messuage (ie the old Tempsford manor house, which stood near Tempsford Lock at the confluence of the Great Ouse and Ivel) and a "close called Brayes manor pasture, meadow and arable containing 105 acres 1 rood" (CRO: WY 102-3). Tempsford was enclosed in 1778; on part of

the former common field land allotted to him, Sir Gillies, at some time before his death in 1801, laid out Tempsford Park and built a mansion house to replace the old manor house next to the river.

Unfortunately no maps, pre-dating the creation of Tempsford Park, survive to show the pre-enclosure landscape. However, the first edition O.S. 6 inch map does show properties fronting onto almost the entire length of present day Station Road and the apparent survival of former tree-lined property boundaries in Tempsford Park does suggest that former medieval closes were incorporated into at least part of the new park. Amongst these would have been the close in which the moated site stood. It is possible that this may have been the "close called Brayes manor" referred to above.

If the identification of the moated site as the capital messuage of Brayes Manor is correct, this adds a valuable historical dimension to our knowledge of the site. The existence of Brayes Manor as a separate estate has been traced back to Domesday Book (VCH 1912,251). At that time the land was held from the king of Richard Poynant and in the pre-conquest period had been held by three freemen. By contrast, Draytons (the other former manor bought by Sir Gillies in 1769) was much younger. It was only split from the main Manor of Tempsford in the late 13th century and the two were reunited in 1565-6.

If the moated site was the headquarters of Brayes manor (and the presence of the Saxo-Norman settlement supports this hypothesis), then it fits into the model of medieval landholding in northern Bedfordshire put forward by Brown and Taylor (1991). This has identified a number of moats belonging to small medieval estates, which can be traced back to the smaller holdings of land described in Domesday Book. These units were held by groups of freemen who were replaced by a single overlord following the Norman conquest (for Brayes manor, three freemen were replaced by Richard Poynant). However, although the tenurial organisation of the estates was changed, the pattern of small scale, dispersed land holding survived into the medieval period. Rather than planned, nucleated settlements, villages took the form of a series of long rows of houses, known as "ends". Tempsford is one such village and the location of the moated site within Lambcourt End places it quite neatly into this pattern of dispersed settlement.

References

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- VCH, 1912, *The Victoria County History of England: Bedfordshire*, 2, London

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE

Jonathon Parkhouse reports that the following investigations were undertaken by the Buckinghamshire County Museum Archaeological Service during 1993:

Tathall End, Hanslope (SP 822465)

Preliminary assessment undertaken for Acer Consultants and the Department of Transport in advance of proposed widening of the M1 included the survey of previously unrecorded earthworks. The features are difficult to

interpret in the absence of trial trenching; they include a distinct holloway flanked by terraces and possible house platforms, but ponds/gravel quarries are also present. Geophysical survey (undertaken for the Museum by Alistair Bartlett) was inconclusive, although results were consistent with past occupation of the site. The adjacent field (called Abbey Close in 1779, although there is no other ecclesiastical connection known) contained a dense scatter of building stone, some reddened by burning, and medieval sherds. The features as a whole may be related to Tothall Manor, which existed from the early thirteenth century.

Several other minor scatters of medieval pottery along the edges of the M1 were recorded during the survey; a further stage of investigation is anticipated during 1994.

Wing Park Earthworks, Wing (SP 885223)

An assessment of a proposed Wing Bypass route was undertaken for Bucks County Council prior to a Public Inquiry. The earthworks, most of which are scheduled, are the remains of landscape features associated with Ascott House, built by the Dormer family during the early sixteenth century. Test pits and geophysical survey (undertaken for the Museum by Oxford Archaeotechnics) demonstrated that the part of the earthwork complex nearest to Wing Village was superimposed upon an area of relict ridge and furrow, which was in turn superimposed upon medieval occupation, characterised by magnetic susceptibility enhancement and significant quantities of pottery. This activity is difficult to place within the settlement history of the immediate environs. The area concerned is located on the edge of Ascott Manor, which is not recorded until 1317, and the place-name *Estcota* a century earlier. The medieval occupation may possibly predate the establishment of the manor of Ascott and be part of Wing Manor, although the main focus of settlement may well have been further north in the area of the probable motte and the well-known Saxon church.

Parsonage Farm, Wingrave (SP 86851921)

An evaluation, by means of trial trenching, was undertaken on a possible moated site prior to housing development. Although further evidence was found for the extent of the moat, no evidence for medieval occupation was discovered and it was concluded that the moat was probably of post-medieval date.

CLEVELAND

Claxton (NZ 47752785)

Richard Annis reports that geophysical survey and trial trenching were carried out to determine the extent of a suspected medieval settlement adjacent to a scheduled moated site. It is proposed that the site should be used as an extension to the adjacent landfill waste tip. Magnetometer and resistivity survey, carried out by GeoQuest Associates, revealed a dense concentration of ditches and surfaces. Trial excavation, by Andrew Platell for Cleveland County Archaeology Section, found more ditches and gullies than were revealed by the geophysics. Despite plough damage, a good deal of archaeology remains, with well-preserved bone and environmental remains. Further work here depends on a decision about

the extension of the landfill site.

Elton (NZ 39801730)

The second and final season of excavation at this shrunken village was carried out by Richard Annis for Cleveland County Archaeology Section. It appears that one of the visible farmsteads was never occupied after the laying out of the planned settlement. A substantial enclosure ditch which predates the visible toft was uncovered: it contained large quantities of charcoal and burnt material, samples of which have produced evidence of cultivation of grains and legumes. The deserted tofts were landscaped in the post-medieval period, and byres erected on the land: in places debris from later brick production was tipped on the site. The results of both seasons of excavation will be published in the Durham Archaeological Journal.

Greatham Creek (NZ 50452585)

A topographic and geomagnetic survey and trial excavations were carried out on a saltmound on the edge of Greatham Creek, south of Seaton Carew, on behalf of the NRA. The evaluation was undertaken in advance of flood defence work: geophysical examination was by GeoQuest Associates. The magnetometer survey found a number of anomalies but no signs of intense heating of the soil. Excavation, by Richard Annis for Cleveland County Archaeology Section, uncovered the remains of three hearths, and two clay-lined hollows for steeping silt scraped from the foreshore. The lack of burning in the clay soil and the regular shape of the hearths suggests that the evaporation of the reinforced brine was carried out in metal pans. An earlier excavation on the same site, by Helen Burns (1977, unpub.), uncovered brine storage pits or tanks cut into the clay. Dating evidence is unfortunately limited to a single sherd of local 13th-century pottery. The archive and report are held at the Archaeology Section's offices.

DORSET

Sutton Poyntz (SY 703840)

Over a period of fifteen weeks, Wessex Archaeology undertook the excavation of approximately 1500m² of land immediately to the north of the former water pumping station at Sutton Poyntz, near Weymouth, Dorset. The Excavations formed the major part of a programme of archaeological work undertaken in advance of the proposed construction of a new water treatment works. Evidence for activity from the Mesolithic (8,000-4,000 BC) to the post-medieval and modern periods was revealed. The principal archaeological remains date to the early/middle Iron Age (600-200 BC), the late Iron Age/early Roman (200 BC-AD 200), and the medieval periods.

An unexpected discovery in the southern part of the excavation area was the well preserved remains of a group of stone built buildings. The construction and use of these buildings can be accurately dated to the 13th and 14th centuries and the ceramic material recovered from within them includes a considerable quantity of imported Continental material of several different wares. One of the buildings lay wholly within the excavated area and excavation resulted in the recovery of fragments of

painted wall plaster and blocks of non-domestic architectural stone including a slab of Purbeck marble. It is likely that this particular building was a chapel and that the site contains elements of a medieval manorial settlement. A document of 1329 refers to a newly finished chapel at the Manor of Sutton being inspected by the Lord, Hugh Poyntz IV.

The fieldwork was commissioned by Wessex Water; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Kit Watson and directed in the field by Mick Rawlings.

ESSEX

Clacton-on-Sea, Gutteridge Hall (TM 138212)

P. Gilman reports that archaeological work in advance of the new Little Clacton and Weeley Heath By-Pass road was directed by A. J. Wade for Essex County Council. The most important excavation was of a medieval moated site at Gutteridge Hall, known from cropmark evidence and prior fieldwalking evaluation. Up to five separate phases of moat have been identified, the earliest defining part of the original medieval complex, the perimeter of which contained evidence for medieval structures provisionally dated to the 12/13th centuries. Later phases revealed how the hall and its surroundings expanded, the moat being modified to accommodate a substantial brick building, possibly Tudor, further to the south.

Previous Summaries: Gilman (ed.) 1991, 152.

Finds: E.C.C.; to go to C.M.

Felsted, Stebbingford (TL 67452250)

The site, which was discovered by aerial photography in 1976, lies on the crest of a ridge on the east side of the Stebbing Brook Valley, 80 m to the south of the A120, which follows the line of Roman Stane Street. The photographs showed a complex of cropmarks, including field boundaries and a possible trackway. In 1990 a fieldwalking survey was undertaken in response to the proposed construction of the new A120 trunk-road, and a thin scatter of medieval pottery and tile was located within the cropmark complex.

In 1991 three trial trenches were excavated. These revealed a number of field-ditches of 12th to 13th-century date, containing domestic debris. Documentary research indicated that this site might represent the Domesday vill of Stebbingford.

Full scale excavations began in 1993, directed by M. Medlycott for Essex County Council. They revealed an early medieval farmstead, with at least two buildings, fields, trackways, a possible small copse or orchard, garden features and one large rectangular pit tentatively interpreted as a cellar/cold store. One of the buildings was a post-built structure with an internal hearth, the other was defined by shallow gullies.

Preliminary studies of the pottery indicates that the main phase of occupation was in the 12th to 13th centuries, with some 14th-century activity. A number of wood-working tools have been recovered. Environmental evidence includes bird and animal bones, and a large quantity of oyster shell. Of particular interest in this respect is the discovery of peat in the stream-bed which forms the southern border of the site; this is thought to

date to *c.* 10,000 BC.

As well as the medieval farmstead, one feature of Roman date and a number of features of possible Early Bronze Age date have been found. The finds include a barbed-and-tanged arrowhead and a flint scraper.

Previous Summaries: Gilman (ed.) 1992, 99-100.

Finds: E.C.C.; to go to S.W.M..

Boreham, Buxted Chicken Factory (TL 75300997)

Excavations by S. Foreman for Essex County Council, beside the line of the London – Colchester Roman Road in Boreham (TL 75300997), revealed evidence of activity in the area from the Early Iron Age to the 19th Century. A single phase of early medieval activity was indicated by a series of shallow ditches bounding parts of at least three rectilinear enclosures, aligned side by side along the south frontage of the main street and interpreted on the basis of pottery finds as early medieval tofts. Almost the entire area of one of the tofts was within the excavated area. It measured 7.25 m x 13.5 m internally.

Although the archaeology was truncated by later ploughing there were some surviving structural features and a hearth, indicating the presence of buildings, though not their plan. The majority of the early medieval finds, including a small iron strap fitting and sherds of shell-tempered and shell-and-sand tempered ware, derived from charcoal-rich domestic rubbish deposit contained within the terminal of one of the ditches. The pottery was consistent with a date in the period 1000-1200 AD. The scarcity of finds and single phase of activity suggest that occupation of this stretch of street frontage was relatively short-lived and may represent a temporary expansion of an earlier settlement focus at the junction of the main street and Church Road. A number of sherds of later medieval pottery were found in the soil, but there was no evidence for occupation in this period. A small late 19th or 20th century timber building was identified in the southern corner of the trench, consisting of six post-holes and a foundation beam slot. It was probably a small barn or shed.

Previous Summaries: Gilman (ed.) 1993, 197.

Finds: E.C.C.; to go to Ch.E.M.

Final report: Essex Archaeol. Hist.

Springfield/Boreham, A12 Interchange (TL 739089)

Following fieldwalking and trial trenching during 1992, two areas within the field south of the A12 interchange and north of Fordson Road were excavated by P.T. Allen and N. J. Lavender for Essex County Council. Part of a medieval settlement of the 13th-14th centuries was located within area A, in the western corner. One building comprising ten main, squarish post-holes and measuring 13 m x 6 m was aligned east-west and surrounded on at least three sides by shallow ditches. A second, slightly smaller structure was set at 90 degrees to the end of this, evidenced by construction slots and small post-holes. The presence of at least three pottery chimney pots on the site suggests that these or other nearby buildings were well-appointed. Ditches in the vicinity are probably part of stock enclosures.

The other area investigated, up against the eastern side of

the field close to the A12 revealed a Late Bronze Age site. The northern and part of the western boundary of this activity was marked by a ditch c. 1m deep. The eastern side of the site was destroyed by the A12, and there was no sign of a southern boundary marker. A large number of post-holes and small pits were examined, but apart from a possible rectangular structure of eight post-holes close to the ditch on the western side and a possible fence running north east-south west across the site, these do not form a discernible pattern.

One unburned cremation burial was located, and several of the post-holes contained structured deposits of pottery suggestive of 'rites of termination'. Sherds of bucket urn from the ditch indicate a foundation date at the end of the Middle Bronze Age, and a fairly short life is suggested for the site, just overlapping the foundation of the Springfield Lyons enclosure 0.75 km to the south-west.

Previous Summaries: Allen and Lavender 1993.

Finds: E.C.C.; to go to Ch.E.M.

Final report: Essex Archaeol.Hist.

Abbreviations

Ch.E.M. Chelmsford and Essex Museum

C.M. Colchester Museum (formerly Colchester and Essex Museum)

E.C.C. Essex County Council

S.W.M. Saffron Walden Museum

Bibliography

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HEREFORD AND WORCESTER

Pre-Conquest

Kemerton, Kemerton WRW (HWCM 20019; SO 9436)

Duncan Brown reports that archaeological evaluation led by R A Jackson of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service at the site of the proposed Kemerton Water Reclamation Works was carried out on behalf of Severn Trent Water. A range of deposits were excavated and recorded, including settlement remains of a variety of dates and ridge and furrow earthworks. The earliest phase of activity consisted of settlement remains, including post and stakeholes, structural slots, pits and part of a sunken-featured building or *grubenhäus*. Associated with these deposits was a small ecofactual assemblage that includes well preserved molluscan remains, and a small but significant artefactual assemblage that broadly dates the settlement from the 5th-8th centuries. Settlement sites of this date are rare in the county, with only two comparable sites known.

Post-Conquest

Collington (HWCM 6679; SO 6560)

A watching brief was carried out by D Wichbold of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service close to the site of the medieval parish church, which no longer survives, and in an area possibly representing the site of a deserted medieval village. No significant archaeological deposits were observed.

Flyford Flavell, AQ8 (HWCM various; SO 9855)

Archaeological recording on the route of the Flyford Flavell Water Reclamation Works pipeline was led by R A Jackson, M Napthan and L T Fagan of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service. A combination of earthwork survey and salvage recording was utilised in order to record any archaeological sites encountered, and also to allow for full reinstatement of the extensive medieval field systems around the village. No new sites were discovered, although the earthworks are being reinstated to retain the value of this important area of relict medieval landscape.

Leominster, Ivington Court (HWCM 5191; SO 4656)

Observations by D L Brown of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service at Ivington Court following the discovery of stone drains immediately in front of the house. These drains were of three phases, and dated from the medieval period to the 18th century. The site is likely to be that of the manorial court of Ivington Manor or Halimot, one of the possessions of Leominster Priory.

Redditch, St Peter's Church, Ipsley (HWCM 49; SP 0666)

A watching brief was carried out by D Wichbold of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service at St Peter's Church, Ipsley, to observe the excavation of foundations and to record their sections. Previous evaluation work at the site had identified a ditch aligned east to west, and this was observed running most of the length of the development. Pottery from the fills of this ditch dated from the 12th to the 14th century. The only other archaeological features observed were a late medieval trench and a few 19th to early 20th century inhumations that were removed for reburial.

Subsequent observations by D L Brown of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service in the church during internal alteration works revealed wall paintings previously hidden beneath post-medieval walls and arcade blockings.

Rock, Rock Farm (HWCM 3997; SO 7371)

An archaeological evaluation led by L T Fagan of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service was undertaken at Rock Farm, Rock, in an area that forms part of a Scheduled Ancient Monument (Monument Number 19131). The evaluation identified the presence of medieval deposits relating to rural settlement. These deposits were limited to the northern part of the evaluation area, in an area containing previously plotted earthworks. Despite having been truncated by ploughing before the site was scheduled, the evaluation trenches demonstrated that the deposits were well preserved, and included

evidence of stone and timber structures, building platforms, boundary and drainage ditches and a hollow-way. A significant assemblage of pottery representing domestic debris dating from the 13th to the 16th centuries AD was recovered.

Warndon, Warndon Court Farm (HWCM 389; SO 8856)

An evaluation led by L. T. Fagan of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service within this moated site revealed post-medieval deposits, although a small quantity of medieval pottery, floor tile and roof tile were also found, offering tentative evidence of medieval buildings at the site.

Worcester, Western Bypass, (HWCM various; centred on SO 8353)

A desk top assessment and evaluation of the proposed route was led by M. Napthan of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service. This involved an assessment of the impact of the proposals on the known archaeological sites in the vicinity. The most significant area to be affected lies to the south of Powick Bridge and mill. At Wick Episcopi the suspected site of a deserted medieval village was investigated, without positive results. Small quantities of Roman and medieval pottery were recovered during field walking. At Crown East a dam and fishponds of uncertain date were recorded, together with the course of the former lane. A small settlement adjacent to the former lane was identified from map evidence, but excavation along the proposed roadline produced no evidence of buildings.

LINCOLNSHIRE

Baston, Hall Farm (TF 114138)

Mike Jarvis reports that excavation, part funded by English Heritage, was undertaken by Heritage Lincolnshire in advance of development. Previous investigations had identified an apparent east-west aligned droveway and a large rectangular enclosure associated with a dense concentration of geophysical anomalies.

Preliminary dating of finds indicate the site, which appears to have been located to the rear of the main Saxon habitation areas, was occupied from around the 9th to 12th century AD, with some sparse later medieval activity evident. An area of timber structures, later replaced by stone buildings, was identified. Dressed masonry was abundant in this vicinity and subsequent monitoring of further development work recorded two substantial, east-west aligned stone foundations in the same area. Located away from the stone and timber buildings was an industrial complex with iron working identified as the main process. A sunken structure considered to represent a smithy contained a possible carburization hearth. Iron objects, tentatively identified as small ingots, were recovered from the working floor of the structure. Charred cereal was recorded in several areas and a number of pits contained waterlogged organics. A 3m long, boat-shaped feature was located between the terminal ends of an interrupted ditch. This 'boat', which resembled a log canoe, had been placed within a similar shaped pit and burnt. Close by, stakes outlined a second boat shape of comparable size and orientation (Plate IX).

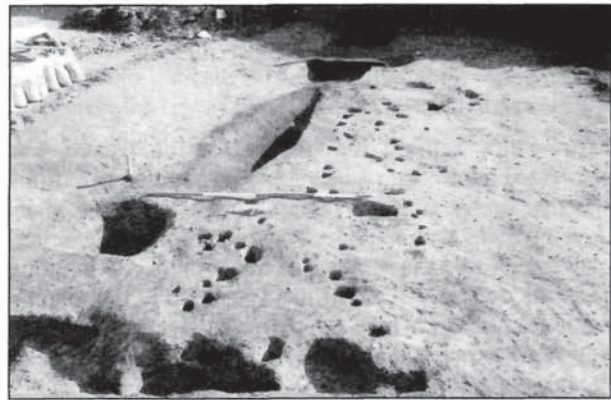


Plate IX: Excavated boat-shaped feature and adjacent stake hole arrangement at Baston Hall Farm.

Remains of two human skulls were recovered from the interrupted ditch. The facial part of one cranium had been cut to produce a mask-like object. Little evidence for the droveway and large rectangular enclosure was found. It is probable that the geophysical anomalies considered to represent the droveway were actually produced by a series of cross-cutting boundary ditches.

Frieston, 'The Lilacs', Hough Lane (SK 940476)

Gary Taylor reports that G. Trimble of Heritage Lincolnshire observed construction trenches at Frieston, a Domesday vill whose place-name means 'enclosure of the Frisians'. A deposit containing Medieval pottery sealed the butt end of a stone wall, also of probable Medieval date.

Horncastle, Conging Street (TF 259657)

Gary Taylor reports that M. Jarvis of Heritage Lincolnshire supervised an evaluation in advance of proposed development. A late Roman stone-walled military enclosure is located adjacent to the site, which is situated in the medieval core of the town. An Anglo-Saxon inhumation with grave goods had previously been discovered immediately east of the investigation area. No additional evidence for Early Saxon burials was obtained though residual finds of this date, including pottery sherds and a possible annular brooch fragment, were recovered. A boundary ditch of Late Saxon date was identified. Beam slots, defining small timber sheds or outbuildings, occupied the area in the 14th century. These were succeeded by post-built structures of unknown form and function. By the 16th century this building activity and use had ceased and the area was given over to rubbish disposal represented by numerous cess and rubbish pits. Large pieces of late medieval or early post-medieval dressed masonry may indicate that a high-status building of that date had been located in the proximity.

Quarrington, Town Road (TF 059445)

Gary Taylor reports that D. Buckley of Heritage Lincolnshire supervised an enhanced watching brief in advance of development by Chartdale Homes, who funded the archaeological investigations. Geophysical survey had registered anomalies interpreted as enclosure ditches, droveways and pits and mould and crucible fragments indicating Saxon metalworking had been found during an evaluation carried out in 1992. Several pits and ditches were recorded and decorated Early Saxon pottery

was recovered. Excavations are continuing.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE:

Stanion, Little Lane (SP 91458702)

Mike Shaw reports that an evaluation trench was excavated adjacent to Little Lane in order to determine whether archaeological remains might be affected by development. Late medieval pits containing kiln waste, clay dumps and the remains of a late medieval building were uncovered. All are probably related to the Stanion ceramics industry which flourished between the 13th and 15th centuries.

NORTH YORKSHIRE

Thirsk (SE 42908232)

Richard Annis reports that the small moated site at Millgate, Thirsk, was surveyed on behalf of Hambleton District Council, and trial excavations were opened in advance of a proposed extension to the neighbouring car park. Contour and resistivity surveys were carried out by GeoQuest Associates. Trial excavation and augering, by Pip Robinson for Cleveland County Archaeology Section, found a little thirteenth-century or later pottery mixed with modern material in the area of the proposed car park. The moat has a raised platform, and a detached mound, both of which appear to be made up of material excavated from the moat.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE

Nottingham, 5 George Street (SK 57533995)

An evaluation was carried out by Wessex Archaeology prior to the submission of a planning application to redevelop the site of 5 George Street from a garage into a car showroom. The site is on Nottingham Castle Sandstone, some 45m above sea level, just outside the boundaries of the late Saxon borough of Nottingham but within the Norman settlement, and within the north-east quarter of the area encompassed by the Norman town wall. Excavations within 200m to the east, to the north of Goose Gate, revealed the presence of buildings in the 12th and 13th centuries with an associated corn-drying kiln and two double-flue pottery kilns.

The evaluation revealed evidence of activity of 14th/15th century date, in the form of a flue for a pottery kiln, pot wasters and associated working debris within a man-made cave cut into the sandstone bedrock, and a single truncated pit filled with domestic debris and 15th century pottery. A second, undated, cave was discovered during geotechnic site investigations. No structures or associated floor levels were found above the level of the sandstone bedrock, and it is assumed that they were removed by the present building.

The project was commissioned and supervised by John Samuels Archaeological Consultants on behalf of the architects Maber Associates; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Michael Heaton and directed in the field by David Farwell.

SUFFOLK

Great Bricett Wattisham Airfield (TM/0351; BCG005)

An archaeological survey was carried out on 9 ha. of land

prior to its development for housing. The survey included trial-trenching (143.25 x 1.5m) in a grassed area (OS 3227) immediately to the south of the old Roman road, and fieldwalking in two arable fields (OS 4519 and part of 3000). Field 4519 produced significant amounts of predominantly medieval pottery, with a slightly higher concentration adjacent to the north-south running road, but Field 3000 was unproductive. The trial-trenching in Field 3227 revealed north-south running ditches of Roman date and a cobbled surface associated with medieval pottery. The features were mainly concentrated at the western end of the trench, close to the guardhouse which was built over the previously-known Roman site (BCG004). The results of the trial-trenching were significant enough to merit a follow-up excavation in the vicinity of the cobbled surface.

An area of 161 sq m was mechanically stripped and then excavated by hand. This revealed the expected Roman and medieval features, but also a totally unexpected prehistoric phase. The discovery is of great interest in that it demonstrates Neolithic and Early Bronze Age settlement on a high clay interfluvial at least 500m from the nearest watercourse, a setting which would not otherwise have been thought likely to attract settlement before the Iron Age.

The Roman features, despite the proximity to the Roman road, were limited to a ditch (2.4m wide x 0.9m deep) and slot (50cm wide x 0.1m deep), parallel to each other and at right-angles to the Roman road. Both features are dateable to the 1st or 2nd century A.D. and must relate to some land allotment laid out from the Roman road.

Although a number of medieval post-holes and small pits were identified, no structures could be deduced. The cobbled surface that partly overlay a shallow linear depression, approximately 2m wide, was probably a path or track. The pottery evidence suggests occupation from at least the 12th to the 14th centuries, with a possible piece of Thetford-type ware hinting at occupation by the 11th century. Of special interest is the presence of a number of sherds of glazed Stamford-type ware, probably of 12th-century date, as this is exceedingly rare on rural sites in Suffolk and rare even in towns like Ipswich.

(Stuart Boulter for Suffolk County Council and the Ministry of Defence Land Agent).

Gosbeck, Gosbeck Water Main (TM/1555; GOS006 & TM/1556; GOS008)

Two small-scale excavations were carried out following topsoil stripping for the water main. In one area (GOS006) evidence for medieval settlement, in the form of a pit and various scoops, was located and examined. A second medieval site (GOS008) was also located, but it proved impractical to carry out any excavation work at that point.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council and Anglian Water Services Ltd.).

Grundisburgh, The Old School (TM/2251; GRU037)

As a result of the findings from trial-trenching in 1992 (see 'Archaeology in Suffolk 1992') a larger excavation was undertaken in 1993 within the 600 sq m scheduled for housing development. A large number of post-holes,

a few pits and a ditch were revealed. The ceramic evidence recovered indicated a Middle Saxon (7th-9th century) date for the majority of the ancient features, with a small amount of residual Iron Age and Roman material, along with a few isolated medieval sherds. The outline of at least one timber building was recognised. The post-holes of this contained Middle Saxon Ipswich Ware, and two small hearths were indicated by burnt areas.

(Stuart Boulter for Suffolk County Council and the English Churches Housing Group).

Halesworth, The Angel Site (TM 3877)

An area of 19 sq m was excavated adjacent to Georgian House and south-east of the 1989 Angel Site excavation. Below the remains of post-medieval buildings, a sequence of medieval occupation was revealed, including pits, post-holes and areas of burnt sand and clay. One oval pit, interpreted by the excavator as a pottery kiln, contained the substantial remains of several later-15th-century pottery vessels, a kiln bar and kiln debris. The earliest feature was a single 12th-century pit. (Condensed from M. Fordham, *Excavations on the Angel Site, 1993*, Halesworth & District Museum, 1994).

(Michael Fordham and the Halesworth Museum Field Archaeology Unit).

Haverhill, Hazel Stubb Farm (TL/6545; HVH022)

Five weeks excavation work was undertaken in August on the route of the A604 Haverhill Bypass. Approximately 1,600 sq m were investigated, revealing two main periods of occupation, overlain and cut by modern mole drains and similarly aligned gullies.

In the medieval period there seems to have been a house beside the road, with a possible surfaced area in front of it and a roughly surfaced area, probably a yard, at the rear. Beyond the yard were several pits. The gently-sloping base of the largest pit was lined with big stones, possibly to provide a firm footing for human access to something in the pit, possibly water or perhaps for some industrial process. The pit was subsequently infilled with rubbish, including a thick layer of animal bones. A ditch which ran from east to west across the southern end of the site also contained large amount of animal bones, but its dating is unclear and it may have survived as an open feature as late as the mid-20th century. There were no obvious medieval boundaries, though two ditches, one aligned north-south and the other east-west, may belong to this phase.

Another east-west ditch and two pits were however identified as being Roman, containing pottery of the 1st century A.D. Analysis of the finds is still continuing and as yet undated are two curving gullies, three groups of post-holes and more pits.

(Joanna Caruth for Suffolk County Council).

Haverhill, Hanchett End (TL/6445: HVH023)

Following a proposal to use an area for spoil disposal, a rapid walk-over survey indicated the presence of a medieval settlement site (HVH023). Subsequent trial-trenching confirmed the presence of small ditches, post-holes and possible pits cut into the clay subsoil.

Although none of the archaeological features were excavated in this evaluation, enough pottery was recovered to indicate a 12th to 14th century date range. To protect the site from further damage, the topsoil layer was left intact during soil disposal operations in the vicinity.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council and Galliford Eastern).

Hitcham, Hitcham Water Main Renewal (TL/9853-9953, TM/0053; HTC038-042)

Works for this 3,400m pipeline in the northern part of Hitcham included the stripping of a 6m-wide band of topsoil along the margins of fields in two areas – from Cook's Green to Cross Green, and from Water Run to Loose Hall Drive. Archaeological monitoring of this work revealed a number of medieval and post-medieval sites in an area of dispersed, clayland, settlement. From west-east these were:

HTC040, Cook's Green: A small spread of charcoal, burnt clay, daub and medieval unglazed pottery. This seems to be a continuation of the linear group of cottages that make up this small strip green. Most of these belonged to the poorly-documented manor of Stanstead Hall.

HTC039, Cook's Green: A small spread of charcoal and burnt daub, together with a small amount of pottery, including sherds of a shell-tempered St. Neots-type vessel of 10th-12th century date. This came from the edge of a small copyhold tenement of the manor of Hitcham, in existence by 1618 and known as *Two acres formerly of Thomas Broke* (or Brockley). Three individuals surnamed *dil Broke* were taxed in Hitcham in 1327.

HTC038, near Luckeys Farm: A scatter of unglazed 13th/14th-century pottery together with a dense concentration of post-medieval (mainly 17th-18th century) pottery and glass, associated with burnt clay, bricks, tile, and oyster and mussel shells. This coincided with the site of a cottage and yard shown on the 1839 Tithe Map. This was a copyhold tenement of the manor of Hitcham called *Savornes* (or *Salyns* or *Savins*), in existence by 1594; the house had gone by 1905 and the yard has now also disappeared.

HTC042, near Lodge Farm: A spread of cobbles and post-medieval brick and tile. This coincided with the east end of a former yard and barn recorded on the 1839 Tithe Map, but now gone. The barn seems to have served a part of *Harding's Tenement*, divided in 1627 and referred to in 1662 as 'land with a barn thereon lately built'. Later known as *Jerry's Barn* – two 18th-century owners were called Jeremiah.

HTC041, Wattisham Road: A scatter of 13th-14th-century pottery and oyster shells, bounded on the north side by a spread of chalky cobbles. This lay at the east end of *Wattisham Meadow* (1839), which formed a part of *Henry Squirrell's Tenement*, another copyhold of the manor of Hitcham, in existence by 1593.

(Edward Martin and Stuart Boulter for Suffolk County Council and Anglian Water).

Ipswich, Crown and Anchor Hotel (TM/1644; IAS0703)

A rescue excavation was carried out in June and July in a 200 sq m area to the rear of the hotel threatened by redevelopment plans, which included the removal of outbuildings and the partial demolition of the rear of the hotel. The site lay some 50m to the south of the town's Saxon and medieval defences. The earliest features, dated to the Middle Saxon period (c.A.D. 650-850), included three pits and two post-holes. Occupation of the site continued through the Late Saxon period (c.850-1066) and nine pits and three post-holes could be attributed to that period. Included amongst these was one very large pit which contained a significant quantity of residual Roman roof-tile. During the Early Medieval period the eastern side of the site became part of a cemetery, probably located adjacent to one of the lost churches of Ipswich mentioned in Domesday Book (1086). Seven truncated burials were excavated, with dating evidence that suggested that they were no later than c.1200. The Late Medieval features on the site consisted of eight pits and a clay-lined oven of indeterminate use. Features of the Late Medieval Transitional period (c.1480-1550) and the post-Medieval period were also excavated, including footings and drains associated with the hotel.

(Stuart Boulter for Suffolk County Council and Gracemount Developments Ltd.).

Ipswich, Northgate Library (TM/1644; IAS1002)

An area of approximately 60 sq m was excavated within the area designated for a new lift-shaft and service area. The natural subsoil surface lay over 3m below the present ground surface, making this the only area under serious threat on the whole site. Rubbish pits dating from the Middle Saxon period to the 19th century were revealed across the site, along with the north-west corner of a two-phase Late Saxon building.

(Tom Loader for Suffolk County Council).

Needham Market, The Pightle (TM/0855; NDM008)

Two weeks were spent in May excavating the area of a new access road for a housing development in The Pightle (between the High Street and the River Gipping) where earlier trial-trenching had revealed an Early Saxon pit containing loomweights. Although the area excavated was comparatively small (760 sq m) and the features dispersed, some significant finds were made.

In the southern part of the site, towards the present High Street, an area of Anglo-Saxon occupation was revealed. The principal item was a sunken-featured-building or *Grubenhäus*, approximately 4.8m long x 3m wide. This had no post-holes and contained 6th-century material. This building is unlikely to have stood alone and it strongly suggests that there was a hamlet or village at Needham by the 6th century, this will mean that previous estimates of the age of Needham will have to be radically revised.

A medieval enclosure and oven were also discovered. (Joanna Caruth and David Gill for Suffolk County Council, Mid Suffolk District Council and Sanctuary Housing Association).

Pettistree, Sewerage Scheme (TM/2954; PTR018 & 019)

Two scatters of medieval pottery were located during topsoil stripping and trenching operations for this scheme. Both were close to the present village centre and probably represent 13th/14th-century settlement sites. (John Newman for Suffolk County Council and Anglian Water Services Ltd.).

Rushmere St. Andrew, Linnets Farm (TM/2044; RMA014)

A watching brief on topsoil stripping, in connection with a residential development to the north of the former site of Linnets Farm, revealed an area of probable medieval settlement. A moderate quantity of 13th/14th-century pottery was recovered from an area of small pits and ditches.

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council).

Stradbroke and Wingfield, Fressingfield Water Tower to Battlesea Hill Pipeline (TM/2375, SBK017; TM/2475, WGD015-018; TM/24575)

Monitoring of topsoil stripping and pipe-laying operations revealed various medieval pottery scatters, which probably represent cottage or farm sites that were established in the 13th/14th-century period. At Ratterlow Hill one scatter (SBK017) was found adjacent to the road between Fressingfield and Stradbroke; four more scatters were located around the northern edge of Pixey Green (WFD015-018).

(John Newman for Suffolk County Council and Suffolk Water Company).

A143 Scole-Stuston Bypass: The results obtained from fieldwalking in Spring 1992 along the route of the bypass made it possible to isolate seven areas of archaeological interest where trial-trenching was considered necessary to fully evaluate their archaeological potential. The trial-trenching was carried out in April and May 1993. Of these seven sites, three produced significant archaeological material and will be further excavated prior to the construction of the bypass. Among these:

Wortham (TM/0977; WTM020)

A total of 187 x 1.5m of trench was mechanically excavated and then hand-cleaned. Although all the features revealed were thought to be modern, the surface cleaning and a metal-detector survey of the trench surface and the up-cast spoil, produced ceramic and metal finds of Roman and Anglo-Saxon date, including a coin A.D. 330-7 and a bronze small-long brooch of 6th-century date. A Middle Saxon silver coin (*sceat*) is also reported to have been found in this area c. 1986.

(Stuart Boulter for Suffolk and Norfolk County Councils).

Sudbury, All Saints Middle School, Mill Lane (TL/8641; SUY034)

Following on from an evaluation done in 1992, an excavation was carried out in August 1993 prior to the construction of new school buildings. The aim of the excavation was to record the dimensions of the town defensive ditch, which was thought to run from east to

west down the centre of the site, and to recover dating evidence from it. The excavation was limited to deposits which occurred above the formation level of the new buildings, consequently the maximum depth excavated was 20cm at the western edge of the site. The northern edge of the ditch was recorded across the full length of the site. The southern side, however, was damaged by the foundations of the old school buildings, which were deeper than expected, reducing the size of the excavation from a projected 576 sq m to 180 sq m. The data from this excavation can now be combined with information gleaned from monitoring the contractor's footing-trenches to construct a composite section of the ditch. It appeared to be 3m deep, with a flat bottom and sloping sides, and some 21m wide. The fill consisted of sterile, homogeneous, sands and gravels. Although no dating evidence was recovered from the ditch fill, it was seen to be cut by Late Medieval features and evidence from the previous evaluation would suggest that it had been backfilled by the 12th century.

(Stuart Boulter for Suffolk County Council).

WALES

Penarth, Cosmeston Medieval Village (ST 68951775)

Cosmeston Medieval Village is a heritage project unique in Britain, involving the excavation and fullscale reconstruction of a medieval village on its original site. It is situated in the picturesque surroundings of Cosmeston Lakes Country Park, near Penarth. Wessex Archaeology was commissioned to excavate a limited area within the medieval village, prior to the reconstruction of a medieval house with attached yard.

The foundations for a single rectangular building, probably a house, and associated walled yard, exposed during previous excavations, were excavated and recorded. Beneath the southern yard and wall and the south-west corner of the house, were two small stone foundations to a structure of unknown function. Below these was a substantial ditch, which followed the same line as the later yard wall. The ditch probably served a dual function as property boundary and drain. Pottery suggests the main period of occupation dates to the late 13th and early 14th centuries, contemporary with excavated buildings elsewhere in the village. Some sherds of potentially earlier pottery were recovered from the base deposits in the ditch. Post-medieval deposits, including a late 17th century yard, had been almost totally excavated and removed during the earlier excavations. Within the house, there was some evidence remaining for early post-medieval rebuilding and occupation.

The project was commissioned by the Vale of Glamorgan Borough Council; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Caron Newman and directed in the field by David Farwell.

WARWICKSHIRE

Ryton-on-Dunsmore (SP 386745)

An assessment of land required for improvements to the A45/A445 was carried out by S. Palmer and G. C. Jones of Warwickshire Museum. Earthwork and geophysical surveys followed by trial trenching revealed evidence of 12th-17th century occupation on a plot immediately north of the parish church.

Salford Priors, Station Road (SP 077513)

An evaluation on behalf of the Elswick Group was carried out by S. Palmer of Warwickshire Museum on a site proposed for housing to the rear of Station Road. Geophysical survey failed to produce any meaningful results, but trial trenches uncovered a series of medieval linear features, possibly boundary gullies for a series of closes or paddocks north of the medieval village. Evidence for a 18th/19th century building, in the form of a wall and a cobbled surface, was uncovered at the southern end of the site near the main road.

WEST MIDLANDS

West Bromwich, Vicarage Road (SP 007929)

Mike Hodder reports that a foundation trench for a house extension revealed part of a ditch c.3m wide and c.1m deep. The ditch was cut into the natural subsoil, a pebbly sand. It butt-ended within the trench and, beyond the limit of the ditch, a brown loam at least 0.35cm thick overlay the subsoil but could not be investigated further. Excavation of the ditch showed that it had steeply-sloping sides, and had a homogeneous fill containing pottery, roof tile and coal fragments. Preliminary examination of the pottery suggests that it is of 14th and 15th century date.

The ditch is interpreted as a property boundary; the occurrence in its fill of roof tile and a range of pottery types suggests that it surrounded a relatively substantial, high status dwelling. The site is c.150m south-west of the postulated single-row planned village west of the parish church (Hodder 1990), indicating a later spread of the settlement. It is possible that the ditch surrounded the dwelling of the chaplain of the parish church, who was employed by Sandwell Priory. The chaplain's house was located in this part of West Bromwich (known as Hall End) by 1526, but a chaplain may have been living here as early as 1336 (VCH).

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Hodder, M A 'The medieval landscape of West Bromwich', *Trans South Staffs Archaeol Hist Soc* 30 (1990), 30-3.

VCH Staffordshire XVII, 52

Walsall, Bentley Mill (BCW 331; SO 9898)

An evaluation led by D. L. Brown of Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Service produced evidence for the location and fabric of this historic mill site. Little of the medieval mill complex was identified since the medieval and early post-medieval deposits were enigmatic. These included both post-hole and stone-founded structures, the plans and functions of which were not clear. Other features identified included the location of the mill race, and an internal boundary ditch, wall and subsidiary channel. Nineteenth century cartographic information indicates the location of at least one mill pond, the leat, the millrace and the overflow channel, all of which are likely to be of medieval date.

WILTSHIRE

Hanging Langford to Little Langford (SU 048366)

Wessex Archaeology was commissioned to monitor the hand excavation of a series of test pits at Little Langford, Wiltshire. An earthwork survey, undertaken in 1986 by

the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England, records the remains of a shrunken medieval village surrounding the church at Little Langford.

During the course of the excavation and watching brief, a series of well preserved medieval deposits was recorded. These included pits, ditches, floor and yard surfaces, and the remains of six possible buildings. The buildings were, in the main, simple structures made from locally available material. Some use of glazed peg and ridge tiles, limestone blocks and mortared walls were noted. The pottery assemblage contains fine glazed wares; an iron arrowhead and a silver strap end were also recovered. The excavated evidence, therefore, suggests that a flourishing settlement existed at this site from the 12th century until at least the 14th century. Documentary evidence and a few residual sherds of pottery support a pre-Norman foundation.

The project was commissioned by Wessex Water; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Roland Smith and directed in the field by Kevin Ritchie.

Bitcham Park, Westbury (ST 876518)

An evaluation of land at Bitcham Park, Westbury was carried out in response to an application for planning permission for a residential development. The site lies on the northern side of Westbury at about 57 m OD, on Kimmeridge Clay and is relatively flat. Well-defined ridge and furrow was visible on the field surface. Within the immediate vicinity of the site, a group of rounded blotches and a discrete ovoid feature (SMR ST85 SE636) had been recorded as cropmarks on aerial photographs. It was suggested that these represent large irregular pits, presumably as a result of clay-quarrying activity of unknown date. Two of the four proposed machine trenches were positioned in order to investigate two of these features. Trench 1, in the north-west of the site, contained a series of features interpreted as post-holes, gullies, and a small pit. These features were associated with medieval (13th-14th century) and post-medieval pottery.

Excavation was undertaken of an area 25 m x 30m around the features. Machine stripping of the topsoil confirmed the presence of a ridge and furrow field system across the site. The principal system was aligned north-west to south-east but a second series, oriented south-west to north-east, was present along the southern edge of the trench. Five linear ditches were recorded associated with the furrows. No stratigraphic relationships could be demonstrated between the ditches and the furrows.

Finds include 53 sherds of pottery, of which 46 are medieval. A date range of 13th-14th century is most likely. Parallels with pottery found in Trowbridge and the Bristol area can be made, similar wares are known to have been manufactured locally at Crockerton. A single sherd of 16th or 17th century imitation Tudor Green ware was also recovered, together with a selection of post-medieval and modern wares.

The work demonstrated that the site had been cultivated since medieval times; the moderate amount of medieval pottery may result from nightsoiling and manuring and suggests the close proximity of settlement. An earlier, prehistoric presence is indicated by the small quantity of struck flint and saddle quern fragment.

The project was commissioned by Wimpey Homes Limited; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Ian Barnes with fieldwork undertaken by Philip Harding.

Salisbury, Bishop Wordsworth's School (SU 145296)

An archaeological evaluation was undertaken in March 1994 prior to an application for planning permission for redevelopment of part of the Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury. The School lies within the medieval walled precinct of the Cathedral Close. The evaluation sought to establish the likely archaeological content of the site and to provide information to assess the likely impact of proposed development on buried archaeological remains.

A total of six hand dug and five machine dug trenches were excavated and a number of wall footings were identified, including the north wall and chalk floor of a building of probable medieval date. Material recovered from excavated layers was predominantly of post-medieval (1600-1900) date, although small quantities of medieval (13th-14th century) material was also present. The evaluation has demonstrated the existence within the proposed redevelopment area of well preserved structures and deposits of medieval and post-medieval date.

The project was commissioned by the Bishop Wordsworth's School on behalf of Wiltshire County Council Education Service; it was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Roland Smith and directed in the field by Mick Rawlings.

REPORTS FROM ABROAD

SCOTLAND

A FORTIFIED FARM IN ROTHIEMURCHUS, NEAR AVIEMORE

A possible defended farming settlement was noted during a survey of part of Rothiemurchus Estate, which lies on the north-west edge of Cairngorms National Nature Reserve, by Aviemore, Inverness-shire. The site may indicate protection of stock and community against raids by rival clans in an area noted for turbulence in the 14th to 16th centuries. Formerly a Royal estate, Rothiemurchus was granted to the Bishop of Moray, in 1226, and held from them by the Comyns to the early 14th century. It was occupied by the Shaw clan, a division of MacIntosh and part of Clan Chattan until 1539, being sold to the Gordons of Huntly, who in turn sold it to the Grants in 1567 in which family it has remained to the present day. The Grants of Rothiemurchus are a branch descended from Patrick Grant of Muckerach who was granted the estate by his father about 1580.

Much of the historic settlement of Rothiemurchus is along the Milton Burn which connects Loch an Eilein to the River Spey. On an island in this loch, thought to have originated as a crannog, is a 13th century castle. The Milton Burn is diverted by an area of small hills and hollows formed by glacial moraines, which sits across the mouth of the valley like a cork in a bottle, and contributes greatly to the isolation and seclusion of the loch. At Croft, on the east side of the moraines is a small area of cultivated land, on the north and west of which the defended farm remains were found. The main structures are centred at NH 90140946. This consists of a triangular enclosure with a substantial building foundation at one angle and foundations within, further enclosures adjoining. A further structure lies 150 metres east at NH 90300947. Under the Grants, Croft formed a subsidiary division of the estate. A farmhouse (ruin behind present cottage) at NH 90290933 was occupied by relatives of the laird and is described by Elizabeth Grant in *Memoirs of a Highland Lady*, 1867. It is possible that the defended structures represent a similar farm during the possession by the Shaws.

The main feature lies on the edge of the "hills and hollows" area overlooking Lochan Mor. The adjacent pastures show little evidence of recent stone clearance; a few piles overlying the ruins and the likelihood that the remains here have been quarried for stone suggest the farmland here was cleared of stones in medieval times. The triangular enclosure is formed by a ditch up to 5 metres wide and a rubble bank up to 6 metres thick, 60 metres long, with the other two sides about 50 metres each. However the enclosed space is not a promontory but one of the hollows, with the adjacent sides being dividing ridges. A deep funnel-shaped hollow to the north, an oval 50 by 30 metres, is also contained by a rubble bank from the NW and NE angles of the triangle, with an intermittent continuation of the ditch on east. Similarly, south-west of the building at the south angle of the triangle is an oval enclosure on sloping ground 50 by

20 metres with a continuation of the massive rubble bank forming the east side. The three enclosures form an arc cutting off a small low promontory on the shore of Lochan Mor. In spite of the unusual configuration the triangle is in an advantageous defensive position. The building remains at the south angle occupy a splayed level base 23 metres square, and appear to have been occupied by a building 18 x 8 metres along the west side with a courtyard, the east wall on the line of the defensive rubble bank. The structure could indicate a bastle house. Within the triangle are three foundations, a building platform and a pit with an access passage and a ledge on the margins, suggesting it was covered, perhaps beneath a wooden building. The largest foundation, on a platform 13 x 10 metres measures 11 x 7m with an over 1 metre wall and a possible hearth at the north end and a possible porch on the east side. On a spur on the north-east of the annexed hollow is an oval enclosure, up to 7 metres and within a 6 metre rubble wall with adjoining foundation.

The structure 150 metres east is a rectangular mound 45 by 20 metres, incorporating a natural outcrop at the south end, into which a hollow has been excavated 15 by 6 metres with an access passage 10 metres long. A possible hearth 1.7 metres above the floor of this at the south end suggests that this was the basement of an overlying building. The mound is surrounded on three sides by marshy ground, on south and east possibly an artificial moat up 20 metres wide, and is reached by a narrow isthmus from the north.

On the basis of a simple survey it is only possible to speculate about the explanation for these features. While defensive, they are unconventional and even unlikely as either castle or moated manor which in layout they suggest. More likely they represent defensive adaptation of the natural features on the margins of cleared land. The Rathad nam Meirleach, the Cateran's or Thieves' Road, passes close to Loch an Eilein being used for the movement of cattle raided from the adjacent lowlands. At the head of Loch an Eilein another group of massive rubble enclosures was noted at NH 89400725, but this was close to a dun, a circular fort 11 metres across within ruins of a wall up to 7 metres thick, discovered at NH 89360718, which is likely to be Iron Age. The survey also identified eight circular defended homesteads between the head of Loch an Eilein and Croft, which may be Iron Age or Dark Age. At Doune, NH 88620985, are remains of a ditch and bank enclosure around a prominent morainic hill, supposed to have been the site of the Shaw Clan's stronghold. The summit is 57 x 18 metres; the ditch up to 2.5 metres downslope, with its counterscarp bank a combined width of 7 metres. However there is no trace of stone structures. The possible defended farm or settlement at Croft may well indicate the focal point of Shaw occupation in the 14th to 16th centuries.

(The survey was carried out in July 1993 by permission of the proprietor, John Grant of Rothiemurchus)

Thomas C. Welsh

ITALY

THE CICOLANO CASTLES PROJECT, CENTRAL ITALY, 1993

A third season of survey and excavation was carried out in August 1993 in the Cicolano region of north-east Lazio, central Italy, by a team from the School of Archaeological Studies of the University of Leicester in collaboration with the Soprintendenza Archeologica per il Lazio and the Comunità Montana Salto-Cicolano. The Cicolano Castles Project overall seeks to examine the pattern of medieval settlement in the Cicolano mountains through the investigation of a series of castles and associated villages. Although the region nowadays is relatively marginal economically and politically, the Middle Ages marked an important expansion of activity, prompted mainly by the creation in this zone of the frontier line between the Papal State and the Norman Kingdom of

Sicily. To this period belongs the foundation, or rather consolidation, of a network of castles and the growth of nucleated village settlement.

The results of the first two seasons' work (1991 and 1992) have been published in the journal *Archaeologia Medievale*. The principal focus of research throughout has been the upland plateau zone of Rascino (1130m), an important through-route across the Apennines, where survey work had revealed the existence of two distinct village sites, one in immediate proximity to a castle and comprising at most 50-60 houses, and another, small village complex (c.15 houses) in the plain below. A key aim has been to clarify the relationship between these villages and the castle and to determine the sequence of settlement following the break-up of this nucleated occupation pattern. Previous seasons' study had indicated

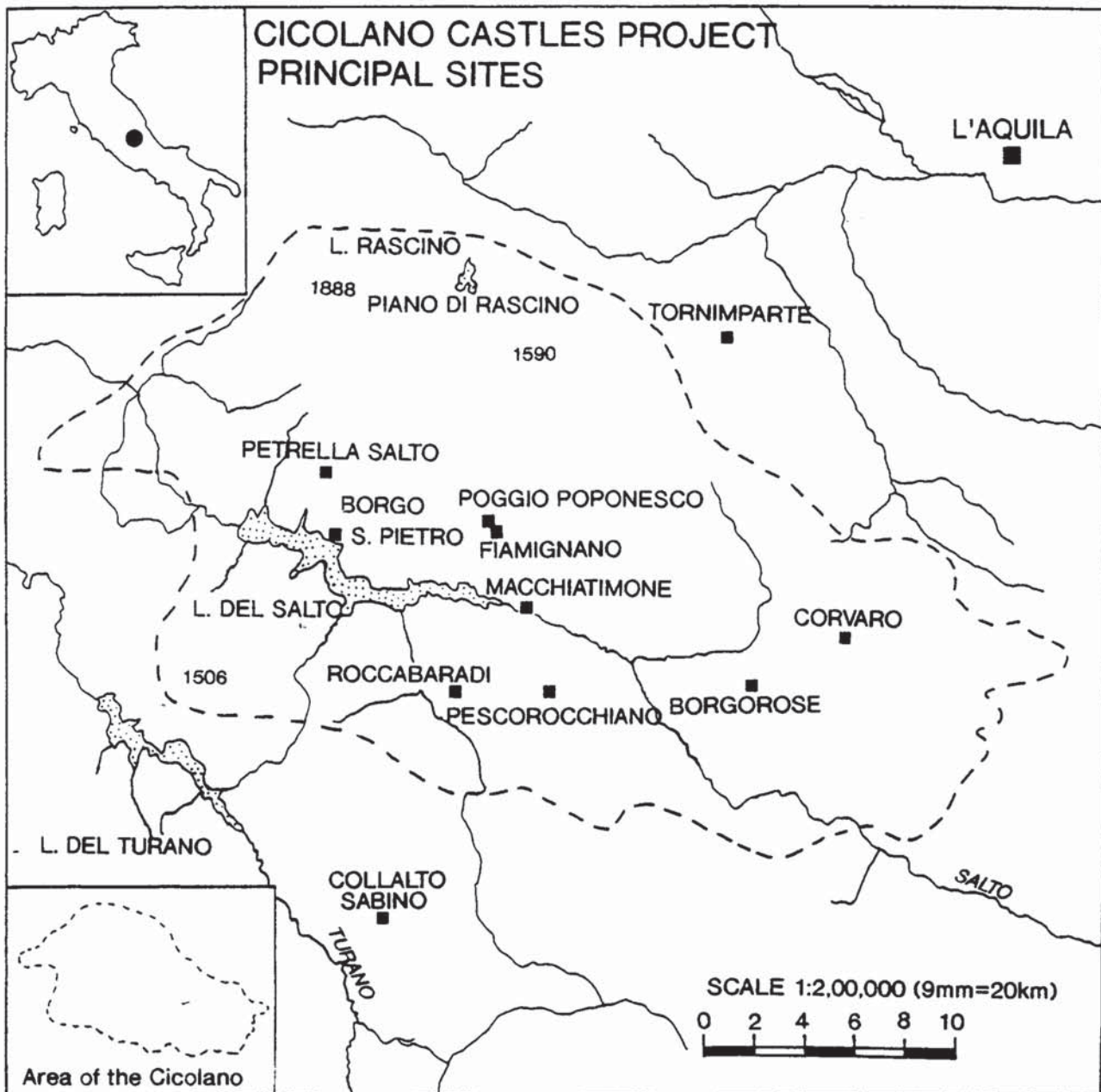


Figure 23: Map of the Cicolano.

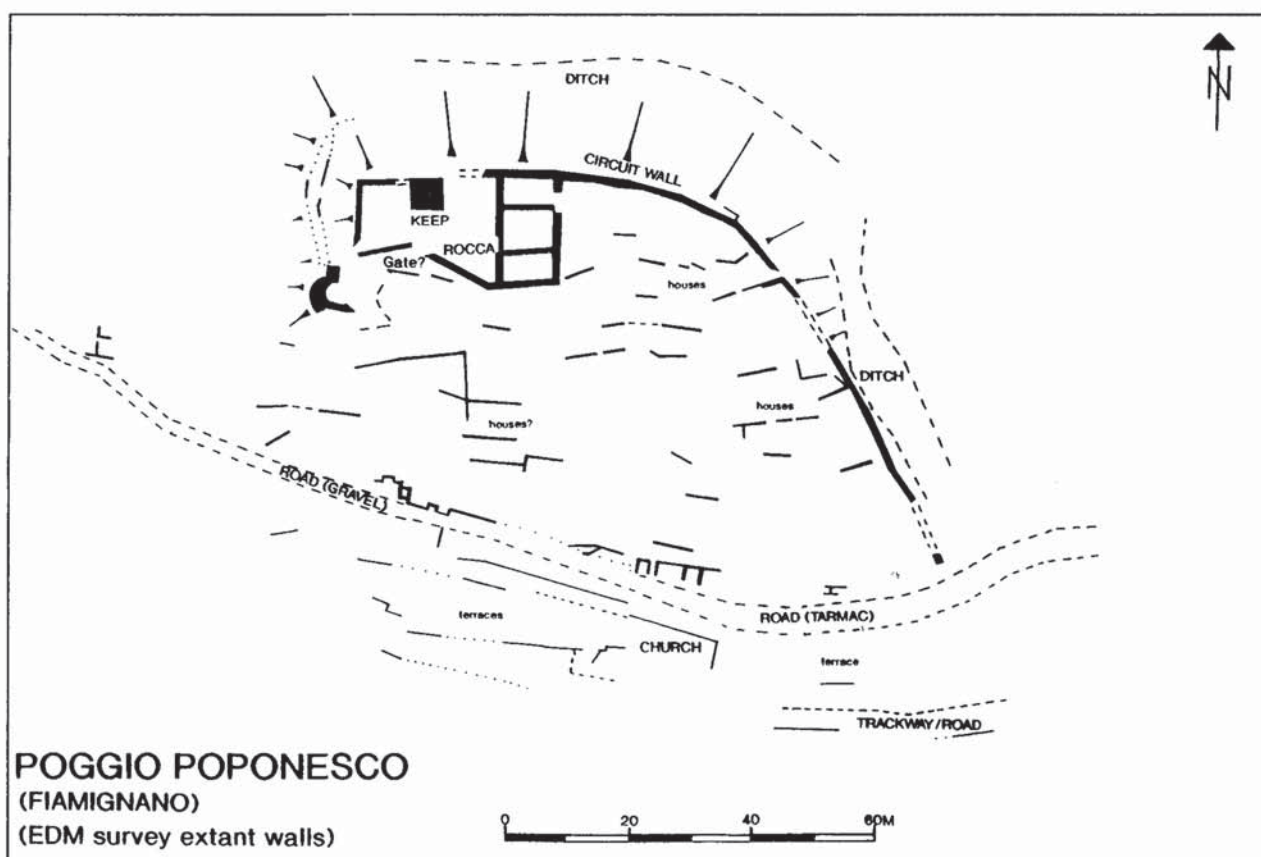


Figure 24: Poggio Poponesco.

that both villages and castle were in fact occupied virtually contemporaneously, between the 12th and 13th centuries. Whilst our excavated sample remains limited, the results are sufficient at least to suggest sizeable vitality on the plateau in this epoch.

This season, work continued primarily in House C in the Lower Village, with further clearance of the facade of the building and sampling of the interior for phosphate analysis: two phases of use at least can be determined for the three-roomed house, but room functions at present remain uncertain, although finds do signify weaving activity in the southernmost room. A nearby, single-roomed structure was fully excavated this year, revealing internal stairs, plus clear traces of a destructive fire. Although initially termed an 'annexe', it now seems likely that this forms just one room of a larger house structure, neighbouring House C (see front cover). This room was also sampled for phosphate analysis.

At the base of the castle hill but some distance from the Lower Village traces of an isolated farmstead complex have been identified and partially excavated. Work in 1992 focused on one room (Area A) of an elongated building comprising five or even six rooms; trenching here revealed a partitioned room with compact mortar floor and later blocked doorway. To the west of this building are traces of a smaller elongated structure, again perhaps featuring five rooms: Area B was opened this year to ascertain the phasing of this building. Overall, finds suggest that these two structures were contemporary, probably 14th century in date, and thus belong to a period post-dating the abandonment of the nucleated villages at Rascino. If so, we see in this an early phase to

the pattern of dispersed farmstead settlement still evident today in the array of semi-abandoned farms dating chiefly to the late 19th century (and mostly now being converted to holiday homes, with few maintained as working units).

Noticeably, finds from Areas A and B do not extend beyond the 15th century. Accordingly, as yet we know very little regarding settlement forms in the 16th-19th century timespan, but it seems unlikely that these will have differed markedly from the extant farms. An alternative hypothesis to pursue, however, is that the 16th-19th century saw minimal settlement on the plateau, with a resumption of activity coming only in the last century.

The Cicolano Castles Project also involves detailed surveying and planning of sites EDMs, both in advance of excavation and as a means of collating detailed comparative plans of sites and villages. Surveys have been carried out at Rascino, Macchiatimone, Poggio Poponesco, Corvaro, Petrella Salto and Torre di Torano. Each of these sites combines castle structures with a civilian settlement area, generally enclosed within the castle walls or otherwise fanning out on the hillslopes below the castle. For the most part, our excavation work has sought to understand primarily the houses and material culture of the civilian inhabitants of the various sites, but obviously it is essential also to view the workings of the elite structures. Hence in 1992 a trench was cut within the castle confines at Rascino, revealing an unexpected depth of stratigraphy and greatly supplementing the restricted documentary data for the site. In 1993 excavations were carried out at another castle site, Poggio Poponesco, above Fiamignano, on the mountain slopes below the Rascino plateau. Poggio

Poponesco comprises a fairly well preserved castle with watchtower and traces of houses and terraces on the southern flank of the hill. Work this season included additional surveying of this village area as well as the cutting of a small trench within the central room of a three-roomed structure set inside the castle circuit. This trench was designed to clarify the internal layout of the castle and to provide a guide to the site's settlement history. The trench revealed two phases to the room, marked by mortar floor levels; strangely the room appears to have been set at two different levels, as determined by the underlying bedrock, with an upper area reached by steps to the north. There were also clear traces of an earlier occupational phase, marked by a walling – perhaps an early defensive curtain – terraced into the bedrock. Massive infilling with soil over this wall had been required to create a floor surface for the later house, and slippage of this fill was evident in the angled nature of the later mortar floor. A number of finds came from this fill, suggesting construction of the house in the 12th century; finds associated with the occupancy of the house were in contrast limited, but were sufficient to indicate an abandonment in the 14th century. These dates conform well with the documentary data available for Poggio Poponesco, which indicates the site as semi-ruinous at the end of the 14th century, part provoked by an earthquake of 1349 which affected much of the Cicolano: the excavation work at Poggio suggested that the house at least was abandoned before this event.

It is hoped that the Cicolano Castles Project will continue in 1994 with further study of the late medieval farmstead at Rascino and with possible examination of one of the houses on the slopes of the hill at Poggio Poponesco.

Neil Christie, Paul Beavitt & Tersilio Leggio
(School of Archaeological Studies, University of
Leicester; Museo di Farfa)

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Compiled by Christopher Dyer.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Cressing Temple. A Templar and Hospitaller Manor in Essex, D. D. Andrews ed. 122pp. (Chelmsford: Essex County Council. 1993. no price given.)

In 1987 Essex County Council purchased the core of the Templar manor of Cressing Temple. Thus began not only the conservation of the magnificent barley and wheat barns that had drawn them to the site but a deep and continuing exploration of the history of the manor and of the local landscape before the manor existed. This book, handsomely illustrated with maps, plates and detailed figures is based on research papers given at a conference in 1992 and offers the reader not only a progress report on what has been found at or learned about Temple Cressing but valuable insights into topics and techniques which have a wider significance.

The papers begin with a documentary history of the site from the first grant of land to the Templars in 1137, through its transfer to the Hospitallers in 1312 and its passage into private hands after their dissolution in 1540. This gives the context for detailed and scholarly sections on the development of the landscape and the results of archaeological investigation around the farmhouse, barns and other features. The great house and chapel of the Templars were demolished in the eighteenth century and the farmhouse, walled garden, well and, above all, the great barley and wheat barns that survive have been

subjected to close scrutiny. The barns, of course, the major features, built at a time when only religious buildings and the greatest houses rose above the domestic scale of farmhouses and cottages. The Crossing barns are here reviewed and dated by dendrochronology and structure to place them in their sequence in south-east England and there is a full investigation of the woodland that was needed to provide the timber for their construction. This, like the record of brick and tile typography that follows, has relevance beyond the site itself. Finally a detailed study of the walled garden demonstrates the changing pattern of its form and use over the many centuries of its life.

In brief this is a highly detailed, often technical, exploration of an important, evocative and stimulating site. The many thousands of people who visit it will be impressed by the age, size and beauty of these great structures: those who seek to understand their place in the historical record, their use and fitness for use and the resource implications of their building and maintenance will find in this book the evidence they need.

There will, no doubt, be further discoveries on the site for there is still much to be learned. The more difficult task is to populate this landscape with the people of the past: much of this may be by inference rather than by direct evidence but such an attempt might be made. Essex County Council have shown that Crossing Temple is in safe and careful hands and that they are eager not only to conserve it but to encourage, through it, a wider understanding of how our landscape evolved and of the skills and resources that were needed. It is to be hoped that this volume is followed by others as that story unfolds.

John H. Smith

The Changing Landscape of Milton Keynes by R. A. Croft and D. C. Mynard, xii + 211 pp, 84 figs, 3 tables, 11 large format maps, 37 plates Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire Archaeological Society, (1993).

This volume is number five in the Buckinghamshire Monograph series, a series which seems presently to be devoted entirely to publishing the results of archaeological excavation, fieldwork and documentary research carried out in the Milton Keynes Development Area. This was conducted in advance of the destruction of much of the evidence by the creation of the new town of Milton Keynes. It is a pity, of course, that so much of the evidence has now been destroyed. Much of this is as a result of the urban development, to which the serried row of earthmovers on p 69 bears eloquent witness. In other cases it is, as in so much of the country, modern ploughing which has destroyed archaeological remains. We must be grateful, at least, that in the case of the Milton Keynes Development Area, the evidence has been so carefully recorded.

The Changing Landscape of Milton Keynes is the broadest-ranging of the titles in the Buckinghamshire Monography series (published or in preparation), and seeks to provide a general overview of the evidence for the occupation of the whole of the Milton Keynes Development Area from the palaeolithic to the post-medieval. A series of period chapters, together with a chapter on geology and topography and one on

placenames make up the first quarter of the volume, with a series of parish essays taking up the remainder.

The focus of the volume is primarily medieval and later. The period chapters and the parish studies expand in much greater detail on the medieval and later evidence, with only a nod to earlier periods. This doubtless reflects the nature of the archaeology of the region. As a landscape archaeologist particularly interested in the medieval period, I don't mind this bias, but would like to know more about earlier periods in order to be able to address questions of continuity in settlements, boundaries etc. Those primarily interested in other periods may find the small amount of space devoted to the prehistoric or Roman evidence compared to that for the medieval period rather more frustrating.

Although the focus is consistently on the whole area of each parish, rather than on individual monuments, the organisation and scope is highly reminiscent of Royal Commission inventories, and inevitably invites comparison. In some regards *The Changing Landscape of Milton Keynes* suffers in this. There is no index, which is very frustrating for anyone attempting to use the volume rather than simply to read it. There is little detailed analysis of the numerous earthwork plans. The editing seems to have been slack, or hurried, and a number of inconsistencies have crept in. Particularly annoying are those which refer to places discussed in the text: Caldecot(t)e (one of the most interesting case studies, for my money) is spelt with two T's in the text and only one on the back cover; the site surveyed by the Royal Commission is called Westbury-by-Shenley in the acknowledgements and Shenley Brook End in the caption to the plan. The inclusion of the wrong key to fig 19 (p 64) and the subsequent inclusion of a loose leaf addenda with the correct key is unfortunate, but it is additionally frustrating not to be told where exactly the wrong key does refer to!

These problems are a pity, because they mar an otherwise admirable publication. The inclusion of a map of each parish showing sites of all periods at A4 size is particularly useful, and echoes the landscape-based framework approach which is well in keeping with current approaches – an impressive feat considering that the work in the area began twenty-three years ago! They are complemented by earthwork plans, map and field system reconstructions, and ground and air photographs. All are well reproduced. It makes available a large amount of primary evidence, much of it new, in a form that can be assimilated, analysed and assessed by others working in the area and beyond.

Ultimately, *The Changing Landscape of Milton Keynes* is a success. The wide chronological and spatial range of the volume make it particularly useful for anyone engaged in landscape archaeology, and because of this it has a relevance both within and beyond the immediate region. I have used it extensively in current research on medieval settlements and landscapes in the area, and found it invaluable (if occasionally frustrating). It highlights the dearth of published information for the rest of Buckinghamshire, and indeed for many other parts of the county. We need much more of this sort of work.

Carenza Lewis

The Shapwick Project: A Topographical and Historical Study, The Fourth Report. Edited by M. A. Aston and M. D. Costen (University of Bristol, 131pp and 65 figs. £10 pb).

The Shapwick Project is a multi-disciplinary study of the Somerset parish of Shapwick on the north side of the Polden Hills extending into the Somerset levels. Begun in 1988 the project has set out to study the 1284 ha. parish with the aim of testing '... the hypothesis that the present village and medieval field system were planned in the late Saxon period and had replaced an earlier, Saxon, settlement pattern of scattered farmsteads with individual fields...' (p1).

This, the fourth report, is an interim review of work undertaken in 1991 and 1992 and is by no means the final report on the project. It does however convey an impression of the admirable breadth and depth of the project and gives an insight into the methodologies which are being applied.

During 1991 and 92, fieldwalking, geological, vegetation, building, earthwork and geophysical survey were carried out as well as excavation and documentary research and all are described by their respective authors. The interim nature of the report means that it is difficult to judge the effectiveness of all of these techniques in fulfilling the aims of the project. Certainly a critique of their effectiveness within the final report would prove useful to anybody intending to launch a similar, targeted, study.

The three sections on 'Regressive Map Analysis of Shapwick Parish', 'Summary of Fieldwalking Results in 1991' and 'The 'Habitative' Field Names of Shapwick' are of more than local interest. In 'Regressive Map Analysis of Shapwick Parish' (p14-23) Mick Aston has set out in some detail the technique he has been using to reconstruct the cartography of the parish at various periods. The technique is based on working backwards in time from modern maps, re-drawing these and earlier maps at a common scale overlaying each map on its immediate successor. In this way the inconsistencies of surveyor and scale can be minimised and early maps interpreted as accurately as possible. Aston publishes examples of this work for 1971, 1904, the 1880's and 1750 and hopes to extend this to produce a model of the medieval landscape based on a detailed survey of 1515.

The 'Summary of Fieldwalking Results' by C. Gerrard and A. Gutierrez (p48-71) establishes a fabric series for the Parish which will be a useful comparator for any work in adjoining parishes, although it is unfortunate that those types not cross referenced have not been illustrated, presumably this will be rectified in the final report. This is followed by distribution maps of pottery of each period based on the 1990-91 work and while there are substantial portions of the parish yet to be walked, these distributions clearly indicate areas which would repay further work in achieving the aims of the project.

In 'The Habitative' Field Names of Shapwick' Michael Costen (p 94-100) explores some ideas which will be of more than local interest. He particularly addresses the 'wic' names, working from the base of a nearest neighbour analysis for Somerset comparing the relationship of 'wic' and 'tun' names to Roman villa sites. His study

shows that 'wic' names are significantly closer to Roman villas than 'tuns' and he interprets this as indicating that 'wics' are part of an older landscape pattern than the 'tuns', a pattern which related to the landscape of the villas. By implication this suggests that 'tuns' belong to a later re-organisation of the landscape and that the view of 'wics' as subordinate settlements to 'tuns' must be discounted in this instance. In the context of Shapwick he goes on to suggest that the dismemberment of a larger estate resulted in the name of a minor settlement, 'Shapwick', being applied to the new unit. The question which remains to be answered is the physical correlation between any new 'Shapwick' and the old 'Shapwick'.

This project is unusual in the range of disciplines being brought to bear on a landscape project and its outcome promises to be of general interest for the effectiveness of its methodology as much as its results. It is perhaps surprising to see no reference to palaeobotanical studies, particularly as they may reveal key information about changes in agricultural regimes related to changes in the organisation of the landscape. The Shapwick project is now at a turning point where it is felt that more extensive resources are necessary to ensure its successful conclusion and consequently an application for funding has been made to English Heritage. This will hopefully prove successful and pave the way for more of these targeted and detailed multi-disciplinary investigations of the landscape.

Robin Daniels

The Open Fields of Northamptonshire: The Case for the Preservation of Ridge and Furrow, David Hall, Northamptonshire Heritage, Northamptonshire County Council, 1993 (ISBN 0 947590 18 8), 43 pp., 5 figs., 6 pl.

This short volume boasts a preface (by Glenn Foard), 10 brief chapters, two appendices and a short bibliography. It opens with a useful guide to the general characteristics of open fields and their terminology, followed by section 2 on their physical remains and 3 on documentary records of open fields. In section 4, Hall turns to the significance of ridge and furrow as historical evidence then discusses the present state of survival (5), the record of destruction (6), the case for preservation (7) and the selection of specific areas for preservation (8), supported by more detailed information in each instance cited, which is laid out in the appendices. The whole is written very clearly using the style borrowed from government and local government by which practically every paragraph is sub-headed and numbered. The primary audience to whom this work is addressed certainly lies in these areas.

It does, however, have a wider significance: the introductory passages provide a succinct and admirably clear guide to the terminology of open fields which could be read to great effect by many amateur archaeologists and undergraduates alike; to the extent that this volume is regional in its emphasis, it deserves to be read widely by local activists and those interested more generally in the historic landscape. More particularly, Hall makes a justifiably strong case for the international importance of English open field evidence – and more particularly of that from Northamptonshire itself and a very small group of adjacent shires. He directs attention towards the

alarming rate of destruction now underway (which he supports by carefully quantified case studies which have not hitherto been made available), and calls for action before it is too late to save even a fraction of the evidence. His justification of such intervention on academic, recreational and educational grounds will be eagerly supported by most of the readership of this volume but it remains to be seen whether he succeeds in mobilising sufficient interest at governmental level and among the several relevant quangos for the necessary financial support to be forthcoming. It could be argued that he is unnecessarily restrictive in his location of field evidence of international importance and other researchers might be inclined to direct similar attention towards areas of extensive ridges and lynchets (such as parts of the Yorkshire Dales) or specific geographical sub-sets of open field remains (such as the Dee valley in Cheshire). Even so, the critical importance of this area should not be understated and the county should be congratulated on taking the lead in attempting to tackle the thorny problem of open field preservation and the difficulties of extensive landscape management and even ossification which that would entail.

The report is generally very clear and to the point, with useful if slightly muddy photographs in support, although there are a handful of minor typological and spelling errors.

Nick Higham

Wageningen Studies in Historical Geography, 1, J. A. J. Vervloet, S. Barends, Chr. de Bont, H. H. M. Meyer, J. Renes, Th. Spek, W. H. Wimmers, Report 66, DLO Winand Staring Centre, Wageningen (The Netherlands), 1992, pp. 99, ISSN 0927-4537, paperback, no price indicated.

This represents a collection of six papers and an introduction that were originally presented at the Standing European Conference for the Study of The Rural Landscape in 1990.

Historical geography in the Netherlands has traditionally displayed applied elements, in terms of an involvement with landscape planning, and an interdisciplinary approach, whereby close links have been maintained particularly with soil science, archaeology and geomorphology. These traits are reflected in these papers. Sonja Barends, for instance, describes an attempt to create a typology of landscape utilising GIS for the purposes of assisting rural planning and landscape conservation. This methodology attempts to compare the distribution of selected historic landscape elements, such as parcellation, settlements, roads, dykes and watercourses in 1900 and in 1980. A sampling method is employed based upon blocks of 25 square kilometres in which 16 sampling points are selected using an unaligned systematic sampling technique.

An evaluation of dating methods of plaggen soils is undertaken by Theo Spek. Plaggen soils are thickened, anthropogenic soils developed widely in sandy areas of the Netherlands and North German Plain. As such they are archaeologically rich, containing evidence of the colonisation and exploitation of the rural landscape in the period before the twentieth century. Dating methods (radiocarbon, pollen analysis, archaeological) are

compared and found to be at considerable variance. It is concluded that the widespread application of plaggen manure cannot reliably be dated before the 13th century in the central areas of rural Flanders and probably much later in the peripheral areas of Northern Netherlands and Germany.

The large Merovingian cemetery of Vicq, 38 kilometres from the centre of Paris, forms the subject of another archaeologically linked study. The regional setting in terms of its archaeological record, place names and settlement system is assessed in an attempt to explain the large size of the cemetery. The prediction of possible deserted medieval village sites in the area of north Brabant is conducted by Chris de Bont. Possible settlement sites are postulated from soil, physiographic and ecclesiastical evidence. The outcome appears rather deterministic with little attention being given to the vagaries of socio-economic happenstance. The final two papers are excursion guides to landscape change in the Gooiland and Utrecht hills.

The papers are concise and provide a flavour of the research efforts of Dutch historical geographers. A welcome feature is that attention is focused on landscape change in the less studied sandy areas of the North Netherlands rather than on the more familiar areas of land reclamation.

John Hamshere

The Origins of Cheshire, N. J. Higham, Manchester University Press 1993, pp.xvi-241, Hardback £35.00, Paperback £12.99. ISBN 0-7190-3160-5.

Dr Higham's book is the fourth in the series of which he is the General Editor, a series intended not be a general history of each county, but rather a picture of territorial development, from prehistory to the Normans.

On page 97, the author writes "Cheshire's history throughout the [Dark Age] period is characterised by its very anonymity" and indeed this observation could well be extended to cover virtually the whole of Cheshire's early history. Lacking, as it does, documentary and detailed archaeological evidence, the county presents real problems to the historian, and it is to Nick Higham's credit that he has produced such a well-argued book, even though, as he would be the first to admit, uncertainties abound and hypothesis inevitably has to follow hypothesis.

The general paucity of archaeological evidence makes it very difficult to talk of territoriality and boundaries in Cheshire prehistory; indeed it is not certain which Iron Age tribal territory, if any, the county lay within, although Dr Higham quite convincingly postulates the northern reaches of that of the Cornovii. The situation barely improves for the Roman period, the only real archaeological evidence coming from Chester, a handful of roadside settlements and a single villa, with virtually no evidence from the Romano-British countryside. In Cheshire we have, as the author points out, a county remote from mainstream Roman Britain.

From the Roman period to the thirteenth century archaeological evidence remains, at its best, minimal. No pagan Saxon burials have been found in Cheshire and

only two possible Dark Age sites are known, one at Chester and the other from Nick Higham's own excavation at Tatton. Further, attempts to show the presence of pre-seventh century churches, based on place-names, churchyard shape and dedications, also prove inconclusive.

As there are problems with Cheshire's Iron Age tribal affinities so are there problems with its early Saxon affinities. Basing his argument mainly on the Tribal Hidage and place-names, Nick Higham puts forward the admittedly tentative suggestions that the seventh-century *Wrocen Sæte* might be equated with the earlier Cornovii, with Cheshire thus falling within their territory, and that the *Wrocen* element of the tribal name derives not from the Wrekin, but from Wroxeter, the tribal capital. Somewhere around the mid-seventh century this basically British tributary kingdom of the *Wrocen Sæte* was incorporated into Mercia, so providing a possible example of continuity of territorial structure from British to Saxon, with evidence also for its continuing unenviable position as something of an economic backwater during Mercian overlordship.

Dr Higham uses place-names, virtually the sole evidence available, for his discussion of the Scandinavian presence in Cheshire, almost exclusively limited to the north-west Wirral, before moving to what this reviewer considered the most important part of the book, that concerning Saxon estates. The complete lack in Cheshire of Anglo-Saxon charters means that pre-Conquest estates cannot be reconstructed with any certainty. However, examining the county hundred by hundred, Nick Higham convincingly attempts such reconstructions, basing his arguments upon the Domesday survey and back-projected later sources, and such elements as possible pre-Conquest 'superior' churches (postulated from D.B. and dedications) and their *parochiae*, and an impressive use of place-name evidence. One important conclusion from this research was that, unlike the rest of the country, most of the Cheshire Domesday hundreds had as their basis a pair of minster *parochiae*, suggesting earlier paired land units.

Against the rather daunting backdrop indicated above, Nick Higham has produced a brave, scholarly and persuasive account of the territorial organisation and development of early Cheshire, with its fluctuating Welsh border, its probably fixed and very early boundary of the Mersey, and its rather more nebulous eastern and southern boundaries. Dr Higham uses to the full those limited resources available, and although not all of his hypotheses may stand the test of time, all students of the history of the county should be grateful to him for making accessible the usually convincing and always reasoned fruits of his research.

David Wilson

MEMBERSHIP CHANGES 1993

A list of Founder Members with their addresses was published in Report no.2 (1987); subsequent changes in the membership and changes of address have been published annually since then. Listed below are changes recorded in 1993. Members are asked to send any corrections, new addresses etc. to the Hon. Treasurer, Dr R. E. Glasscock (Department of Geography, Downing Place, Cambridge CB2 3EN) who maintains the membership records.

New members 1993

MRS K. M. BARKER,
DEPARTMENT OF CONSERVATION SCIENCES,
DORSET HOUSE,
BOURNEMOUTH UNIVERSITY,
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G. R. BROWN,
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MRS B. COE,
5 THE GLEBE,
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EXETER EX5 5LS

LISA DYER,
22 PRIMROSE ROAD,
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3 DOBSON TERRACE,
REDCAR,
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MRS T. HALL,
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FORD FARM,
WILMINGTON,
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PETER HERRING,
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Resignations

Alan Hannan (Brixworth)

Dr Alan Nash (Ottawa)

V. J. A. Oswald (Chatham)

Mrs G. Rawling (Keighley)

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D. J. Griffiths (was in Grimsby)

D. C. Law (was in Great Yeldham, Ex.)

J. L. Minkin (was in London SE22)

R. Newman (was in Barry)

J. G. Perry (was in Sutton, Surrey)

Research Grant 1993

A grant of £200.00 was awarded to Vivienne Metcalf towards the cost of recording a medieval timber bridge at the Wood Hall Moated Manor Project, North Yorkshire.

**M.S.R.G. STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT,
27.11.92 — 24.12.93**

INCOME			EXPENDITURE	
Subscriptions			Printing of Report No. 6	2180.00
by cheque/cash	980.00		Postage	334.56
by bankers order	<u>2906.00</u>	3886.00	C.B.A. Affiliation Fee	58.00
Donations		24.00	Refunds	173.00
Sales		270.75	Secretarial Expenses (Fortress House)	140.60
Grant for Publication		200.00	Research Grants	450.00
			Stationery	55.74
			Conference Expenses (Leicester)	89.00
			Publicity Leaflets	161.23
From National Savings Account		2630.00	To National Savings Account	3500.00
Balance in Current Account 27.11.92		469.09	Balance in Current Account 24.12.93	337.71
		<u>£7479.84</u>		<u>£7479.84</u>

R. E. GLASSCOCK (Hon. Treasurer) 24.12.93

Audited and found correct when read in conjunction with the National Savings Account.

C. M. P. JOHNSON (Hon. Auditor) 7.6.94

National Savings Investment Account (as at 24.12.93)

Income		Expenditure	
In hand 30.11.92	11619.33	To Current Account	2380.00
From Current Account	3500.00		
Interest 1992	972.54	In hand 24.12.93	<u>13711.87</u>
	<u>£16091.87</u>		<u>£16091.87</u>

Acknowledgement

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

