

Medieval Settlement Research Group



Annual Report 11, 1996

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OFFICERS FOR 1996-97

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

This eleventh Annual Report of the Medieval Settlement Research Group contains a new policy statement by the group. Copies of this statement have already been circulated to members and it will be circulated widely among appropriate bodies. This is an important statement and it is hoped that it will inform the decision making of the national bodies such as the Dept of Culture, Media and Sport, English Heritage, Royal Commission on Historic Monuments and the C.B.A. as well as Local Government Archaeologists and Universities and all involved in research, protection and management of the surviving medieval landscapes.

The committee will be pleased to receive any comments on the policy statement, and these should be addressed to the Honorary Secretary.

Silk & Terry continue to perform an excellent task in the production of this report and my thanks go to them. Finally I would encourage all members to consider contributing to the report and to let me have their contributions by the end of April 1998.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The Annual General Meeting will be held on Saturday, 29th November 1997 at Birkbeck College, London. This will be followed by presentations on the Post-Excavation Programme for Wharram Percy.

CONFERENCE

Details of the Spring 1998 Conference will be circulated once arranged and members may contact the Hon. Secretary for further details.

RURALIA

The 29 papers from the first Ruralia Conference, held in Prague in September 1995 have now been published and are available from Dr. P. Sommer, Dept. d'Archaeologie Medievale, Letenska 4, CR - 118 01 Prague 1, Czech Republic at a cost of 70DM.

COMPETITION

The group would like to have a logo to help to clearly promote the identity of the group. We are offering the prize of a book token to the member who comes up with an idea or design for a logo which is a clear reflection of the group's interests.

Entries should be sent to the Hon. Secretary, the closing date is 30th April, 1998 and the winning design will appear in the next Annual Report and all group literature.

GENERAL NOTICES

1996 Annual General Meeting – This was held at Birbeck College, London and re-elected the principal officers of the group. Three talks on the subject of Environmental Archaeology were given following the AGM by Umberto Albarella, Vivian Metcalfe and Mike Allen. Umberto Albarella, has kindly contributed his paper to the Annual Report.

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.

Medieval Rural Settlements – A Policy on their Research, Survey, Conservation and Excavation

MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENT RESEARCH GROUP

Introduction

1. This document prepared by the MSRG sets out a research and management framework for medieval rural settlement.¹ It includes a brief **assessment** of the current state of academic knowledge and practical issues covering research, survey, conservation, and excavation and seeks to identify an **agenda** of future work which would fill gaps in our knowledge. The final section presents a **strategy** setting out priorities.² In doing so MSRG have had regard to recent policy statements on behalf of the Group³ as well as to UK and national frameworks.⁴

We intend that this statement will be made widely available and will be used in counties and regions to develop a consistent and integrated approach to medieval settlement studies. We hope that they will be used in making decisions on the management and preservation of sites and will be helpful to those making research applications. The statement will be periodically revised in the light of new information and thinking on the subject. We recognise that the present document is based mainly on experience on English settlement sites, though we hope that some of the more general ideas can be applied throughout Britain. We are aware that new initiatives are being made in settlement studies in Scotland and Wales, and hope that a future document can take these fully into account.⁵

2. Medieval rural settlements include all habitations from the 5th to the 16th century, from the temporary shielings occupied by those herding animals, to the residences of great lords. The great majority consist of farms, hamlets and villages, together with associated features such as roads, enclosures, field systems, boundary banks and ditches, ponds, parks and woods, mills, manor houses, moats and churches. A high proportion of settlements occupied by *c.* 1200 are still inhabited, but a proportion have been abandoned and their sites are visible as earthworks. A growing proportion of late medieval settlements, and almost all of those dating from the period before *c.* 1000 have no visible earthworks above the ground, but their sites can be discovered from crop marks and soil marks most clearly recognised from the air, and surface indications such as scatters of pottery and other occupation debris.
3. Medieval rural settlements have been the subject of systematic research in this country since the late 1940s, and have been located and investigated in every part of Europe. They must be regarded as sites of the greatest importance. Most medieval people lived in the countryside, and here we can investigate the material culture of the whole range of society, including those who have left the scantiest written evidence. Survey work and excavation can reveal

much about the housing, possessions, and environment of the peasants, together with evidence for production, consumption and technology, both in agriculture and in food preparation and in rural crafts and trade. The distribution and layout of the settlements gives insights into social structure and social organisation, and into medieval ideas about order and planning, and the division between public and private space.

The constant and often sudden changes affecting rural settlements – shifts of site, coalescence of small settlements into large villages, the replanning, expansion, and shrinkage which affected many villages and hamlets, changes in house form, the addition of elements such as market places, greens and churches, and sometimes their total desertion – demonstrate the dynamic forces at work during the period, not just the general expansion and contraction of population and agriculture, but many developments in lordship, politics, community organisation, commerce and household life.

Research and Survey

1. Research into medieval settlements can cover whole counties or regions, or be concentrated on a single site, but normally a study should take into account the territory attached to farms, hamlets, or villages, and the estate to which the settlements belonged, which could be large and contain many settlements. The inhabitants depended on a particular territory and its resources for their living, and their use and experience of the land should be a dimension of any study, as should their relationship with higher authority. But research should also embrace a wider region, as transhumance, trade, and contacts with centres of government and religion took people out of their immediate neighbourhood, and villages and farms will be better understood if they can be compared with the types of settlement that developed around them. Settlement forms, building techniques and farming methods all help to define the special character and culture of a region, so the study of the wider context of settlements extends understanding of regional frameworks. Recent projects which have shown the value of this broad multidisciplinary ‘landscape’ approach to the study of rural settlements include those at Wharram Percy (N. Yorks.), Raunds (Northants.) and Shapwick (Somerset). These have all used a nucleated village and its large territory as the main focus of research.
2. Although it is convenient to use a period like the middle ages to define a field of enquiry, and this allows research to achieve a depth of understanding, no period should be studied in isolation. We must be aware that the landscape of the medieval period had usually been settled and cultivated for millennia, and

that prehistoric and Roman patterns of land holding and exploitation influenced their medieval successors. There should be a similar awareness of the subsequent development of sites and their surroundings in the post medieval period. Studies of periods of transition are also important.

3. Research should embrace every type of rural settlement. The great variety of settlement forms deserves to be reflected in research, from the farm and hamlet to the large village and incipient market town. (The conventional dividing line between a village and a hamlet is based on a minimum village size of 6 households). In the same way farms, hamlets and villages which are wholly or partly inhabited should not be neglected in favour of abandoned sites. Subsequent occupation will not have always destroyed the earlier below-ground evidence, and the plan of streets and boundaries will preserve the form of much earlier settlements. Local vernacular architecture should also be studied: buildings from the medieval period should be recorded and analysed in their landscape context, as their form and layout is an important part of the medieval landscape; early post-medieval buildings can provide valuable indications of a continuing local building tradition⁶. Churches, guild halls and houses provide invaluable evidence of wealth, social structure and mentality at the community, family and household level.
4. Lists of deserted medieval villages and moated sites have been prepared by the Groups which preceded the MSRG, and much good work has been done in listing settlement sites in general in the Sites and Monuments Records (SMRs) maintained by local authorities. However, some types of site (particularly farmsteads and hamlets) are less well recorded than others, and a clear distinction is not always made between different types of site, so a long-term aim must be to enhance the data in the SMRs.
5. Survey programmes provide an important means of discovering new sites, and for increasing our understanding of known sites. Survey techniques include aerial photography, the planning of earthworks, geophysical investigation, fieldwalking, soil sampling and documentary research. Each of these methods is valuable in itself, but they produce the best results if carried out in combination, and if they are applied to the surrounding territory as well as to the settlement sites themselves. Survey is essential for the preparation of site management plans. It is also a necessary part of any excavation programme. And in the event that a threatened landscape cannot be saved by statutory protection a full survey should be made for the benefit of future research.
6. Interdisciplinary research is likely to yield the most satisfying results. The material evidence should be investigated through field survey, excavation and analysis of environmental samples. Documentary evidence should be studied alongside the material culture. Significant advances in knowledge are likely, on the basis of past experience, to proceed from dialogues between archaeologists, historians, geographers, place-name scholars, students of

vernacular architecture and those who work on bone and plant remains. New thinking will be informed by theoretical perspectives in archaeology, such as recent work on space, and on the role of exchange and social organisation in buildings and settlements.

Conservation

1. The purpose of conservation is partly to maintain the storehouse of information about the past that is contained within undisturbed settlement sites for the benefit of future generations who will wield much more sophisticated methods of research than are available to us.
2. After a long period in which many sites have been damaged or destroyed by agriculture, road building and housing development, there has been a welcome move towards the preservation of medieval settlements, in part due to changes in agricultural policy and reduced pressure for development. Also a representative sample of the most important sites has been selected under English Heritage's Monuments Protection Programme for consideration for scheduling. These have been chosen on the basis that the countryside is varied in its terrain and land use, and that settlement sites take on sufficient importance to merit preservation if they are characteristic of a defined region. The MPP programme has devised a scoring system which selects important sites by virtue of the condition of their remains, their potential and diversity, associated features, documentation and amenity value. This is to be applauded, and we will press for the speedy implementation of the MPP with the scheduling of the selected sites.
3. The selection of sites under MPP should not be regarded as a single act, but as the beginning of a series of reviews. After MPP new sites will be found and new information about known sites will enhance their importance. Advances in interpretation will lead to revisions of the assessment criteria. We expect to see scheduling as a continuous process, in which there will be a constant dialogue between those implementing it and specialist groups such as MSRG. To take one pressing example, this Group has long argued that preserving a site should not mean drawing a line round the edge of a village, and allowing the destruction of the field system on which the villagers depended for their living, and which we need to appreciate their way of life. English Heritage is now considering the problem of ridge and furrow and this should result in a programme for the preservation of areas that still survive. Medieval settlements are not 'monuments' confined within a fenced enclosure of a few acres, but were the focal points of large living landscapes, and we must grasp methods by which at least representative examples of whole townships and parishes can be saved for posterity.
4. Another extension of MPP must involve scheduling more dispersed settlements. One type of isolated settlement, moated sites, have been systematically researched and a number scheduled, but not enough other farms and hamlets have been identified and planned for them to be assessed for preservation. If we confine our attention to abandoned sites, there

must be 30,000 deserted farms and hamlets compared with the 3,000 or so deserted villages. If our conservation policy is to reflect the balance of numbers, many more must firstly be identified, and then recommended for preservation, together with such associated features as roads, field boundaries, and ponds.

5. Perhaps the most difficult problem for those seeking to preserve medieval settlements concerns policy towards existing settlements. We all know that the great majority of the settlements of c. 1300 are partly or wholly inhabited at the present time. Many of the boundaries and house sites of 20th century villages had their origins in the early middle ages. There is still a quantity of features and artefacts buried beneath modern houses and gardens, and even more in the occasional deserted house sites still visible as gaps in an inhabited settlement. Every effort should be made to retain the framework of boundaries, routeways, frontages and related features which reflect the medieval structure of a settlement.
6. Apart from scheduling much good work in conservation has been done by organisations other than the statutory heritage agencies, including local authorities, National Parks, the National Trust and the Countryside Commission. Progress has also been made by bodies such as the Forestry Authority. These initiatives deserve encouragement.
7. One important use of sites is for educational purposes, though at present these visits tend to be confined to specialist groups who can best appreciate the sites if they, are guided by an expert. It is a long term aim of the Group to make these sites more readily understood and appreciated by a wider public.

Excavation

1. The programme of excavation of c. 1952-1970 vastly extended our understanding of every aspect of the period. Before settlements were excavated we were almost entirely ignorant of such basic issues as the size and shape of peasant houses, and the chronology of village development. The few, major excavations in the last few years cannot be said to show that returns from this type of work is diminishing – such sites as West Cotton, Burton Dassett, and Wood Hall have all produced new types of evidence, such as major deposits of environmental material, and indeed new types of settlement, like the failed market village of Dassett Southend. There are still major categories of settlement sites, such as villages or hamlets of the 10th and 11th centuries, deserted dispersed settlements of the later middle ages; or sites in under researched counties such as Lancashire or Kent, which have not been excavated in adequate numbers.
2. At present only a small number of large scale field evaluations or excavations are taking place on medieval settlement sites. To some extent this is to be welcomed as it marks a move away from the destruction of sites by new developments and a greater emphasis on preservation. Large numbers of limited evaluations and small excavations are taking place under PPG 16.⁷ The results from this work can make a significant contribution to archaeological research.

They can characterise boundary types and dates, the types of structural materials and techniques used and the distribution of activities within tofts. In the case of the latter, opportunities should be taken to examine their yards and gardens about which too little is known. Small scale work can also provide an opportunity for obtaining environmental material.

3. Quite apart from these gaps in our knowledge, there is a case for research excavation, because it both adds to our knowledge, serves as a training ground for another generation of settlement archaeologists, and provides a focus for further advances in interpretation. But the research excavations must be conceived as part of a wider research programme of field work and documentary research, and treated as problem solving sorties, often focused as much on boundaries, or the peripheral areas of settlements, as on the houses.

Strategy

1. The information on settlements in Sites and Monuments Records must be improved. The work that has gone into the SMRs is of the greatest value, but there is much unevenness between counties. All of them recognise a category of “deserted medieval villages”, but many make no clear distinction between different types of site, and have not attempted a systematic listing of deserted farmsteads and hamlets, nor of shrunken villages. Each county should assemble details of all such sites, defined by agreed criteria. This programme of enhancement would require extensive survey work in many counties. But the problem of the still inhabited villages, hamlets and farms must also be addressed: those settlements with evidence (often documentary) for medieval occupation must be included in SMRs. They represent a high proportion of medieval settlements, and must be regarded as archaeological sites, as worthy of recording, survey, management, preservation or excavation as any deserted or shrunken site.
2. The still-inhabited settlements are subject to constant and repeated threats as there is often pressure for infilling, the addition of modern estates, and absorption into suburbs. We need to devise urgently, as well as the programme for identification and listing of sites (see above), a method for judging how much archaeological evidence these places contain, and a strategy for influencing planning decisions concerning new development. Input to District-wide Local Plans, which often deal with specific settlements, may be one means; another may be the use of Conservation Areas for protection. Full advantage should also be taken of PPG 16 work, including the systematic dissemination of information resulting from it, and ensuring that Sites and Monuments Records receive reports.
3. While recognising the need to extend the range of settlement sites in need of conservation and research, preserving the deserted and shrunken sites, which contain archaeological material least likely to have been disturbed by subsequent occupation, remains a priority. English Heritage must press ahead with the scheduling of the sites identified under the existing Monuments Protection Programme, and be persuaded

to maintain the MPP as a continuing process, embracing a wider range of settlement types, and including landscapes as well as settlements. Conservation measures must continue in other ways: we should look for opportunities through developments in planning and agricultural policy such as the set-aside scheme and Countryside Stewardship to make sure that medieval settlement sites can benefit. Conservation by agreement with landowners and farmers through management plans based on field survey must also be pursued: for example, farm plans prepared by Farming and Wildlife Advisory Group officers should always contain archaeological and historical information and advice. The aims of the MSRSG can often be combined with those of other groups with interests in conservation or amenity value,

4. Public awareness of medieval sites and their meaning must be extended, by improving the facilities at sites now open to the public, notably at Wharram Percy, by putting more sites on display, and by encouraging the use of imaginative methods of exposition, such as the reconstruction of houses and settlements. We are confident that the enthusiasm felt by visitors to deserted villages when the sites are explained and their past existence evoked by a skilful guide can be provided by future display techniques such as audio-visual systems and virtual reality experiences.
5. The academic research agenda combines the need to address recent preoccupations, and to take into account new questions. We need to extend our understanding of regional difference, and to assess the influence of the natural environment, and define the extent to which people moulded the landscape and settlement pattern to their own needs.⁸ The role of government, or lordship, or market relations in forming regional cultures must be considered. For the study of settlement a central question remains explaining the nucleation of settlement in the period between the ninth and the twelfth century, and the associated contrast in landscapes which has left its mark on all subsequent developments in the countryside. After that formative period, the subsequent changes in settlements, including their shrinkage and desertion, are debated but imperfectly understood. The household is a subject until recently neglected by archaeologists and there is an opportunity to examine the experiences of builders and users of medieval houses by the study of building and settlement plans, and artefacts and their distribution. This field of research has the potential to throw light on such fundamental issues as consumption and the family, including gender relationships.
6. These questions can be addressed partly by applying new approaches and theories to evidence already published, and by constructing new syntheses. There is also a need for new research, and in particular for the type of interdisciplinary, problem oriented, enquiry into a manageable but extensive sample of the countryside – a large parish or manor for example – which has yielded such fruitful results in the past. But now the example should be chosen from a region

of dispersed settlement, or one with both nucleated and scattered settlements, as previous work has tended to be based on nucleated villages and their territories. The techniques used in such research, and any site chosen for excavation, must include extensive survey, geophysical investigation, analysis of environmental remains, documentary study, work on standing buildings and the use of every possible source of relevant information.

References

- 1 Prepared in November 1996.
- 2 *Frameworks for our Past*, English Heritage, 1996.
- 3 Preservation and Excavation of Moated Sites, 1983; The Excavation of Medieval Settlement Sites, 1984; The Preservation of Deserted Medieval Village Sites, 1984; Statement of Excavation Policy, 1988
- 4 e.g. *Archaeology and the Middle Ages*, Society for Medieval Archaeology, 1987; *Exploring Our Past: Strategies for the Archaeology of England*, English Heritage, 1991.
- 5 For example, the Medieval or Later Rural Settlement in Scotland (MOLRS) project in Scotland (Hingley, R., and Foster, S., 1994 'Medieval or Later Rural Settlement in Scotland - Defining, Understanding and Conserving an Archaeological Resource', *Medieval Settlement Research Group Annual Report* 9, 7-11).
- 6 In respect of recording buildings advantage should be taken of the opportunities provided by *Planning Policy Guidance 15: Planning And The Historic Environment* (September 1994).
- 7 *Planning Policy Guidance 16: Archaeology and Planning* (November 1990).
- 8 "The whole of the landscape to varying degrees and in different ways is an archaeological and historic artefact, the product of complex historic processes and past land-use. It is also a crucial and defining aspect of biodiversity" (*PPG 15. Planning and the Historic Environment*, (September 1994)).

Villages and their Territories

by Keith D. Lilley

In September 1996, the annual MSRG conference was held at the School of Continuing Studies at the University of Birmingham and was devised as a joint meeting as part of the School's series of Saturday day-schools. The conference theme, 'Villages and their Territories', was designed to help focus attention on the difficult but important relationship between settlement formation and territorialisation. The programme started with an introductory review by Chris Dyer (President of the MSRG), who provided delegates with a series of conceptual points relating to the theme and posed the general question of 'what is territory?'. The points he included were; the methodological problems of constructing former territories, and problems relating to their size and the delimitation of boundaries; issues about the origins of territories, and the pre-medieval 'debt' owed by later territories to those that emerged during the early Middle Ages and before; broader processes of territorial formation and their links with economic and political factors; the ways in which the form and life of particular settlements was affected by their territories, not just in landscape terms but also their economic hinterland and interdependencies; changes in the connections between territories and their settlements, and the 'nesting' of territorial units within larger spatial units. Professor Dyer also pointed out that we should not underestimate the width of people's personal horizons and that we should acknowledge that rural medieval society was engaged in travel and exchange outside and beyond the immediate environs of individuals' own territories, be they at the level of a township, a manor, a parish, a hundred, or a shire.

The first paper, 'Early Settlement Studies', by Della Hooke, explored the formation of rural settlements within the context of their estate frameworks, using examples drawn from Warwickshire. The artificial nature of Warwickshire (as a territorial unit established in 914) formed the backdrop to a detailed examination of territory changes, particularly sub-divisions of estates based on earlier folk-groupings, and associated settlement changes. These were explored using work on place-names and documentary sources. Dr Hooke exemplified ideas about the break-up of larger units of land in the pre-Conquest period by looking at local estate centres along the Avon valley, such as Stratford, and the place of these on the interface between two regional economies, the Arden and Feldon. The nucleated settlement pattern of the Avon valley was strung out along river terraces, with topographical place-names indicating early estate centres and *tun* elements (compounded with personal names) indicating settlements arising from administrative fragmentation and agricultural reorganisation. Further evidence of such changes are revealed in the boundary clauses of Anglo-Saxon estate charters, such as the one for Luddington of the eleventh century. Charters reveal the closely-bonded relationship between the process of

settlement and territorial evolution, for example, in the foundation of minsters at certain foci, the way that some capital manors held distant dependent estates and how large 'manors' became broken up and leased out to individuals in the ninth and tenth centuries. The boundaries of these 'sub-manors', Dr Hooke argued, were perhaps quite fluid at first.

The second paper of the conference saw the return of Chris Dyer, who very kindly agreed to give a paper on 'Village Territories and Commercialism' to replace one withdrawn through illness. Professor Dyer started by pointing out that England by 1300 was urbanised, with approximately one-fifth of its population living in towns, and that this would have stimulated production in the countryside, partly through increasing demands on the supply of much-needed produce and partly through the commercialisation of the countryside, with new village markets being created and craftspeople operating between towns and villages. Monetary circulation reached all levels of the medieval countryside as both peasant and lords became involved with markets. A yardlander in the thirteenth century, for example, could sell corn for 30s when a gallon of ale cost *1d*. Further, non-monetary exchange also took place through barter, payment-in-kind, and the use of credit. Four phases of commercialisation were identified: 650-880, 880-1080, 1180-1280 and the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, each with differing impacts on rural settlement. Generally, with medieval rural settlement, scholars have emphasised the balance of resources and self-sufficiency, but Professor Dyer demonstrated how, through the organisation of estates, a variety of resources could be brought together under one common lordship, in his example, the Bishops of Worcester. Although village territories were designed for a balance of available resources for sustainable agriculture, interlinked manors ensured that there was wider resource provision. This was also a point made by Dr Hooke, that a village 'territory' could extend beyond the agricultural territory of its own township. In the thirteenth century there is evidence for more specialised centres of production; in Cuxham, for example, the three-field village supplied large quantities of grain for markets in London. Such exported goods were shaping village territories. The suggestion was made that these commercial pressures could have been active in the period 880-1080, and that urbanisation and village formation were both closely interlinked. Professor Dyer noted some sources of this increased 'pressure': from lords, with their need for labour and for cash, from the church, with its need for buildings, dues and tithes; from the king, for territorial expansion; and from the peasantry and their own consumption. The physical structure and organisation of a village reflects a whole series of pressures being generated from within the village as well as outside, and commercialism should be considered as an important ingredient in the formation of settlement.

A discussion followed these two papers before a break for lunch during which time delegates made use of the University gardens at Winterbourne. The first afternoon paper by Paul Bowman was from his recently-awarded doctoral thesis and entitled 'The Langton Hundred: a study in settlement territory and land-use in south-east Leicestershire'. Dr Bowman explored the evolution of settlement patterns during the pre-Conquest period by carefully considering both archaeological and documentary records. He suggested that demographic influences were less important in the process of village formation than social and institutional factors. He related the process of village formation with the organisation of land in open-fields, suggesting that intermixed lands were the product of territorial fission (thus revealing the influences of work by Harold Fox and Charles Phythian-Adams). To examine the complex interplay between community and lordship in this process, the small village territory of Hardwick was examined in detail. Hardwick was an independent township, its own three fields including permanent pasture. It was argued that manorial fission was not behind village creation but that there was, instead, an interplay between taxation and tenement structure, linked in this case to the organisation of the Danelaw monetary system. Dr Bowman's paper stimulated discussion about the nature of village origins in Midland England, and the role of townships in settlement formation. Continuing this theme, and also concentrating on the East Midlands, was the second afternoon paper by David Hall, on 'A survey of Northamptonshire villages: townships, settlement and land-use'. The complexity of township patterns in Northamptonshire was addressed first. It was noted that often there was not more than one settlement per township and that in many cases one township was coeval with one manor. Nevertheless, complex inter-relationships between village and township existed, revealed in the intermixed nature of yardlands within some townships and the intermixing of manorial demesne within open-fields. Mr Hall ended his paper by raising questions over whether estates in the pre-Conquest period were broken down into townships or whether estates were actually built-up through the aggregation of townships. He emphasised the continued importance of mapping as a tool for exploring this issue and supported the use of both local and regional studies on the inter-relationship between settlement formation and territorial organisation for periods both before and after the Norman conquest.

After tea, Stuart Wrathmell, took a step back from the previous two local and regional studies to place the debate on 'territories' in a broader, national context. His paper,

on 'The central province: variations in village form and chronology', was based on an English Heritage project on settlement diversity mapping which had been undertaken with Brian Roberts. The maps produced as part of the project revealed densities of nucleated versus dispersed settlement patterns and showed up distinct 'provinces', the north-west and south-west of the country being predominantly dispersed in nature with a large nucleated central province occupying the Midlands. Problems of this form of national mapping, such as scale, were highlighted but at the same time some of the advantages of taking a general view became clear, particularly the apparent close relationship between areas that had a high degree of manorialisation and those which had nucleated settlement patterns. Mr Wrathmell took a series of regional examples, Norfolk, West Yorkshire, Essex and North Bedfordshire, to examine some of the anomalies thrown up by taking a broad approach to settlement mapping, as well as to show that a national approach is an aid to much-needed comparative work in settlement studies. He suggested we need to look at the edge of the central province, where there exists a mixture of dispersed and nucleated settlement patterns, and understand these by mapping other aspects of the landscape, such as woodland distribution and patterns of enclosure. Mick Aston then had the difficult job of summing up the conference and reiterated the importance of taking two approaches when looking at villages and their territories, one based on the use of case studies and covering relatively small areas, and the other based on over-views and covering larger areas. Both approaches, as Professor Aston reminded us, are essential, especially those studies that attempt to combine the local with the regional and the national. Large estate areas could form important platforms for studying settlement and may help in the re-evaluation of the 'multiple-estate model'. Problems of evidence were also acknowledged, particularly the implications of trying to date boundaries and land-units. The difficulties of working in aceramic contexts, and in recognising transitions in material culture alongside fiscal and state policies, were also raised. Overall, it was felt important that empirical and substantive work on villages and territories should continue along with further development of conceptual models, both of which would help expose the complexities of medieval settlements and their territories.

The conference was well-attended and the papers all stimulated vibrant discussion. My thanks to those who presented papers on aspects of their research and to Chris Dyer and Mick Aston for agreeing to take on the difficult task of introducing and summing-up the conference.

'The times they are a changing': Medieval and post-Medieval settlement research in Scotland

John A. Atkinson, GUARD

Summary

In September 1996 a three day conference on recent research and approaches to MOLRS studies was held at Glasgow University under the auspices of Scottish Archaeological Forum and The Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology, with funding support from Historic Scotland. The conference was the first of its kind to be held in Scotland since 1977 and marks a distinct swing in interest within the period discipline, and more importantly within Scottish Archaeology.

The study of Medieval or Later Rural Settlement (MOLRS) has in recent years been regenerated as a period discipline in Scottish Archaeology (see Hingley 1995, for full discussion). In consequence the establishment of a conference on recent research was the essential, if somewhat obvious, next step for the discipline in Scotland. The Scottish experience to date has not been restricted to a purely archaeological response, consequently the conference included contributions from a number of other disciplines (notably historical geography, history, ethnography and environmental sciences) which have been at the forefront of MOLRS studies in the recent past. The conference included sessions on settlement structure and form, management of the resource, field systems and upland wastes, material culture and landscape resources and social and cultural histories, as well as a field trip to visit MOLRS sites in south-west Scotland. It is not the intention here to review every contribution to the conference, but instead to bring out in discussion the main conclusions developed from the event, and also to place in a British context the current study of historic landscapes in Scotland.

There have been a number of key factors in the resurgence of interest in rural settlement studies in Scotland. The role of Historic Scotland in this resurgence is clearly important, however the underlying change in focus needs to be seen as a product of other agencies and developments which have in effect placed the curatorial onus on Historic Scotland to take the lead. The role of the Royal Commission on Ancient and Historical Monuments for Scotland is important here. From the late 1970s onwards the identification of substantial numbers of Medieval and Later Settlements (their choice of name) was becoming evident through the RCAHMS sites and monuments series. This was further emphasised in the late 1980s and early 1990s with the publication of the first pre-afforestation surveys and the north-east Perthshire volume. In contrast to this, the proliferation of contract archaeology in Scotland during the same period required a lead in policy terms so that MOLRS sites could be protected from development threats. In 1991 Historic Scotland established a series of seminars and set-up an Advisory Group (MOLRSAG). MOLRSAG through the

offices of Historic Scotland initiated a series of fundamental research initiatives (Clapham 1994; Watson 1994; Atkinson 1995), seminars and publications (Hingley 1993; Foster & Smout 1994) which have helped re-vitalise the subject area north of the border.

In curatorial terms, although the focus of interest on MOLRS in Scotland has clearly advanced in the recent past, there is still a long way to go. Historic Scotland have indicated a willingness to deal with this category of sites and monuments (Hingley, paper). As yet they have still not produced a detailed policy statement, though plans are clearly in hand to do so (Barclay 1997, 25). In contrast, the lessons from the English experience with the MPP programme (Roberts & Wrathmell, paper) seem to stand as an encouraging lead. This has not totally been ignored north of the border, the development of the First Edition Survey Project by the RCAHMS (Kilpatrick & Iles, paper) does indicate a willingness to address the larger landscape picture, rather than focusing on site specific issues alone. The RCAHMS use of GIS systems to collate the massive amount of information on MOLRS sites from the first edition Ordnance Survey series is clearly an important advance. Having said that, it is essential that this work do more than simply collate the information: detailed analysis of the data is the crucial next step.

The role of other agencies involved with curatorial issues in Scotland has also been important in the last few years, and will be of even more importance in the future. Organisations such as the National Trust for Scotland and The Highland Council Archaeology Service (Turner; Wood, papers) have been pro-active in relation to MOLRS sites and clearly see the importance of the resource. The development of the Ben Lawers Historic Landscape Project (Turner 1995) and the Easter Raitts Project (Wood, paper) are an important advancement for the period of study. Both agencies have employed archaeological field schools as a way of curating the resource and addressing current research agendas. The ambitious Ben Lawers Historic Landscape Project in particular indicates the way ahead with a willingness to take multi-disciplinary approaches and apply them in the addressing of regional research questions. The results of the pilot season have proved an encouraging start (Atkinson, paper).

There are still many vexed questions to be answered and many problems still need to be resolved within MOLRS studies in Scotland. The age old question of the location of the medieval settlement pattern in highland and lowland contexts still needs to be addressed (Yeoman 1991; Hingley 1995). Although medieval sites have been located and excavated in the past (e.g. Dixon 1988), the majority of researchers over the last 30 years (e.g.

Fairhurst 1968; 1969; Pollock 1985) have been unable to achieve an unequivocal answer to the question. A clear methodology for identification and recognition has still to be derived, something that will clearly require the development of new innovations in techniques (Atkinson & Banks, paper). The contrast of the English experience in the past and to date (Everson; Lewis, papers) clearly show the possibilities and potential pitfalls of developing methodologies for identifying the settlement pattern of early and later medieval landscapes.

The role of landscape studies and the use of historical modelling and scientific analysis are key features of settlement studies in Scotland. Hunter's work in Fair Isle (1996) and Dodgshon's recent contributions to both field system and settlement debates (1994; 1993) have played a key role in developing clearer studies of landscape resources and strategies of use. Contributions at the conference on this theme ranged widely from discussion of field systems and grazings (Dodgshon; Tipping, papers) to social responses to resettlement of communities in the nineteenth century (Lelong, paper). A considerable body of work has been written on the field systems and the agricultural practices of communities in medieval and post medieval Scotland already. This work is still a very current topic within MOLRS studies and has for the most part relied upon an integration of historical documents with particular forms of cultivation rigs or systems. It is quite clear from recent work (Chrystal & McCullagh, paper) that this has tended to produce an apparent homogeneity which does not stand up to closer archaeological examination of field systems. The results of work in Dumfriesshire and Ross and Cromarty has tended to dispel the notion that upland field systems are simply relics of the recent agricultural past.

The development of cultural histories for MOLRS sites and landscapes is clearly another area of considerable research at the moment, including both historical and material cultural responses. In the past material culture studies of MOLRS sites have tended to be seen as somewhat peripheral elements of archaeological research in this area, though it is clear from the conference that they are central to understanding of the social and cultural past (Fenton; Hall; Emery, papers). The integration of material culture studies with cultural histories is clearly an important feature of the development of the discipline in Scotland. Historical approaches which deal with continuity and change (Hunter; Driscoll, papers) are all clearly moving towards an integrated approach to social and cultural histories, embodying archaeology over wider timespans than dealt with in the past.

The clear conclusion to be drawn from the conference was one of activity across the board, in fieldwork, analysis and pure research. The future is bright in MOLRS studies in Scotland; a future which embodies not just archaeological approaches, but a whole gamut of other disciplines operating in conjunction with each other. The late development of archaeological responses to MOLRS, in comparison to England, has in itself led to the growth of a discipline which is multi-period and multi-focused. Continuity is the key to understanding, which may in the words of David Barker "throw in question our obsession – in England, at least – with often meaningless period definitions" (1997, 4-5).

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Medieval or later Deserted Rural Settlements in Wales

Introduction

Dr Mike Yates, Cadw: Welsh Historic Monuments

For many years the study of rural settlement in medieval and post-medieval Wales has been the preserve of the documentary and architectural historian. The work of Glanville Jones on the Welsh land laws (e.g. 1973), Jones Pierce on land tenure (1972) and Gresham's study of Eifionnydd (1973) are just three well-known examples of the historian's craft, while the work of Smith (1988) has introduced the diverse architectural resource to a wider public.

However, the vast majority of settlement sites from this period survive now, not as recognisable buildings, but as field monuments reduced to low foundations. These features have attracted little attention from the historian, but they represent an important part of the overall picture of rural settlement and it is here that the expertise of the archaeologist can make its most valuable contribution. Unfortunately, each archaeological investigation has tended to highlight the difficulty in reconciling archaeological observation with the historical information. Often it seems that the typological distinctions identified by the archaeologist cannot be equated with the sort of variations in status, function and economy recognised from documentary sources.

It would, of course, be wrong to look at rural settlement in isolation. The broader cultural framework includes fortifications, estates, country houses, urban and proto-urban settlements as well as centres of secular and ecclesiastical administration, and over the years many of these aspects have been studied. In many ways the present programme of work on the rural settlements of Wales must be seen as a continuation of this broader attempt to understand and protect the monuments of this period.

Protection is, of course, the key to Cadw's involvement and until recently this has been achieved primarily through scheduling. However, out of almost 3000 scheduled monuments in Wales only 33 include deserted rural settlements of the medieval and later period, and many of these are incidental inclusions within sites which have been scheduled to protect monuments of other types

and periods. Although scheduling is clearly an important tool in the preservation of field monuments, it is not the only solution and rural settlements do pose some particular problems for management. These difficulties are not unique to Wales and have been identified in other recent publications (e.g., Hingley, 1993), but it is worth summarising them here because they provide some explanation for the approach adopted in Wales.

Firstly, the basic data are largely uncollated, and terminology is inconsistent: secondly, the resource appears to be very extensive (recent field surveys suggest that many – perhaps the majority – of these sites have yet to be recognised and are not recorded on the SMRs): thirdly, there is still considerable uncertainty about the monuments themselves – their date, their economic role, their status and their relationship with other contemporary monuments etc.: and finally, many sites seem to include a significant landscape component and the management of this raises particular problems.

The nature of threats to the resource is varied and largely unquantified: PG (Wales) with its accompanying circular (WOC60/96), offer a mechanism to protect monuments affected by developments covered by the planning process. However, most sites tend to be threatened by day to day agricultural activities and developments which fall outside the planning process, and field observations point to a gradual but steady erosion of the resource.

It is against this background that, in February 1995, Cadw offered support to a proposal from the Gwynedd Archaeological Trust to carry out a pilot study of the medieval and later rural settlements of the former county of Gwynedd. Following discussion four broad objectives were established: (1) to review the current state of knowledge; (2) to establish a methodology for recording and evaluating the monuments using a sample of monuments from different parts of the region; (3) to define criteria for the selection of sites for scheduling; and (4) to develop strategies for more widespread protection and management.

These objectives were largely achieved, but given the scale of the difficulties it is important to regard any

conclusions as provisional. However, the pilot study pointed the way for a range of projects now in progress and the brief notes which follow provide a summary of work to date.

NORTH-WEST WALES

David Thompson, Gwynedd Archaeological Trust

Unlike the settlement pattern of hamlets, villages and towns evident in much of England, north-west Wales has a tradition of scattered and dispersed settlement, with few nucleated centres of population dating from before the age of slate and copper. The remains of 'long huts' and 'platform houses', some standing in isolation, some with adjoining enclosures and others in visible relationships with relict field systems, lie scattered about the Gwynedd countryside, many unrecorded and almost all undated and unexplained despite the wealth of well-preserved remains (around a thousand potential sites are recorded on the regional sites and monuments record, and each year upland survey, pipeline assessments, aerial photography and chance fieldwork discover further examples). Their survival is concentrated on marginal, unimproved upland grasslands, a reflection of recent agricultural practices, but they also exist on cliff tops, in forestry and woodland, and as islands of undisturbed ground (perhaps covered in stone) in arable or improved pasture.

Although a number of archaeologists, including Gresham (1954), the Royal Commission Caernarfonshire Inventories (1956, 1960, 1964), Kelly (1982) and Crew (1984) have recorded and discussed some aspects of the function, date and morphology of deserted rural settlement sites, medieval or later deserted rural settlement sites are poorly understood (there is not even a consistent use of terminology) and the work currently underway represents the first systematic survey of these sites in north Wales. This lack of attention is reflected in the fact that of the approximately thousand known sites on the regional sites and monuments record, only twenty seven are scheduled and only seven have been excavated. The Trust is visiting all of the potential known sites (based on a list extracted from the SMR), and systematically recording information such as size, constructional details, and setting, and at the same time noting their condition and identifying any threats and sites at risk; and recommending appropriate management action if necessary. All the data collected is fully compatible with the SMR, and will be fed back into it at the end of the project, so that it will be available for future researchers.

Last year, following an initial pilot exercise already referred-to, the Trust visited and recorded over three hundred sites in western Caernarfonshire. It is clear that the building tradition (and the sites themselves) belong to a period of time potentially from the late Romano-British period right through to this century, and that the sites we are seeing played a number of different roles within a general agricultural and social framework (oral evidence collected during fieldwork has tended to underline the complexity of the subject). Some sites were obviously seasonal dwellings, *hafodau*, while others were probably occupied permanently within an agricultural regime which included arable cultivation: some were peasant dwellings, and some undoubtedly substantial halls of the medieval period: we are beginning to make tentative

identifications of later sites (although earlier periods of occupation may, of course, exist below the visible remains). Some preliminary analysis of data has been undertaken, and varying degrees of dispersal and nucleation can be observed, none of which seem to be directly related to altitude, or the incidence of related enclosures or evidence for agriculture. More detailed spatial analysis will follow this year's project, which it is hoped will also make use of background, non-archaeological, data.

A series of management options for the future protection and conservation of sites was examined and discussed: this included a range of options from scheduling, enhancement of the SMR, the need to include information in agri-environmental schemes and AONB management plans, to the distribution of an information leaflet and simple discussions with landowners.

This work has not been taking place in isolation: in parallel, as well as examining the locations of the medieval *llysoedd a maedrefi* (royal courts of the Welsh princes), the Trust has begun to collate information on the location and (where possible) the likely extent of medieval townships using a series of published and unpublished sources (e.g. Jones Pierce, 1938, Gresham, 1973), again incorporating this into the SMR and using it as background data against which the distribution of deserted rural settlement sites can be compared.

Work this year will examine a further three hundred sites in eastern Caernarfonshire (on the Carneddau and Conwy valley). However, it is recognised that this type of morphological analysis, based on surface remains alone, has its limitations and can lead only to very tentative interpretations, and so, in addition, we will be carrying out systematic survey of two areas based on townships, as well as trial excavation of three sites, to evaluate levels of threat posed by different processes and the survival of archaeological information, and answer specific questions.

CENTRAL WALES

Bob Silvester, Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust

The Cadw-funded programme, examining deserted rural settlements in different parts of Wales, focused in 1996/97 on the historic county of Radnorshire, now a part of Powys. A total of around one hundred and seventy sites recorded in the regional SMR was almost doubled by sampling some of the available oblique and vertical aerial photography for the region and interrogating the National Monument Record held by RCAHM(W). Well over half of the total number were visited in the field and revealed a considerable degree of uniformity in site morphology. Artificially constructed platforms, sometimes more prescriptively referred to as platform houses in the literature, were particularly common. Usually set at right-angles to the contours of the hillslope and sometimes cut so deeply that their rear scarps are 3m-4m high, they are distinctive landscape features and also survive well the destructive pressures of pasture improvement. It is not uncommon to find paired platforms, probably indicative of a main house site with an adjacent ancillary building. Less common are visible traces of a building on the platform; of those examined to date no more than 25% have such traces.

Less frequently encountered than the platforms are the stone foundations of long rectangular buildings, usually sited on reasonably level ground necessitating little if any deliberate terracing. In the records these have generally been termed 'longhouses'. Most of the known examples are found in valleys in the more mountainous and rocky parts of western Radnorshire.

A third type comprises rectangular stone structures which typically have long axes no more than 9m-10m. These are generally isolated structures, occasionally associated with small enclosures, and their generally good state of preservation is due to their location in remote areas within or above stream valleys. These are normally considered to be seasonally used dwellings, the *hafotai*, of the medieval and later centuries.

It would be unrealistic to assume that the main habitations on all these rural settlement sites can be easily accommodated within these three categories; other site types may emerge as further work is conducted and there will always be atypical forms. Yet there is in this part of central Wales a fairly predictable pattern and some sites that fall outside these groupings but previously classed as medieval or early post-medieval, are better placed in an 18th-century or even later milieu.

SOUTH-WEST WALES

Paul Sambrook, Cambria Archaeology

The project carried out by Cambria Archaeology (formerly Dyfed Archaeological Trust) was designed to study the archaeological evidence for medieval or later deserted rural settlement in the three counties of south-west Wales, namely Ceredigion, Carmarthenshire and Pembrokeshire. It began with a pilot study in six selected areas during 1996-7, and it is intended that the study is widened to further geographical areas during 1997-8. Deserted rural settlements form a major archaeological resource in west Wales, but one which has so far been under-appreciated. As elsewhere in Wales, only a very small number of these sites has been excavated, and fewer than a dozen have been scheduled.

The pilot study analysed a sample of one hundred and twenty five sites selected from some five hundred Potential sites recorded in the regional sites and monuments record, including a group of sites in the Plynlimon area of Ceredigion which are known from reliable historical sources to have been occupied as shepherding cottages, or *lluestau*, during the mid-eighteenth century. Analysis of these sites suggests that many 'long hut'-type dwellings may well have been occupied in fairly recent times, and it is therefore not safe to assume medieval dates for such sites on the basis of surface evidence alone.

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The animal economy of rural settlements: a zooarchaeological case study from Northamptonshire

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Zooarchaeology – the study of animal remains from archaeological sites – has, in the last few decades, provided a large amount of information about the past life and behaviour of the British people. However, the data which are presently available are unevenly distributed across different geographical areas, different periods and – most remarkably – different types of settlements. For the medieval, as well as the Roman period, we know much more about life in towns than in villages. This bias in our archaeological evidence is due to a complex series of factors. Of great importance is the fact that redevelopment of land, which is the most common reason for archaeological work to be carried out, actually occurs more frequently in towns and therefore the sheer quantity of archaeological work carried out in urban areas is far greater than in rural ones. What is of even more relevance to zooarchaeology is the fact that large rubbish pits and ditches – which generally contain large quantity of well preserved animal bones – are more frequently found on urban than on rural sites. Because of this problem some important questions about the rural life in the Middle Ages are still waiting to be answered, and any attempt at a synthesis of the animal economy of medieval villages must face a frustrating dearth of archaeological data.

The excavation of the deserted medieval village of West Cotton (Northamptonshire, SP976725) (Windell *et al.* 1990), carried out between 1985 and 1989 by the Northamptonshire Archaeological Unit, and the subsequent study of the material recovered from this site (Albarella and Davis 1994), has made an important contribution to the filling of this gap. West Cotton is not the only medieval rural site which has produced a large assemblage of animal bones, but previous works were either carried out a number of years ago, when many of the questions which concern us at the present had not even been asked – see for instance the site of North Elmham, Norfolk (Noddle 1980) – or only touched a limited part of the animal bone assemblage – e.g. the study of the bone assemblage from the important site of Wharram Percy, Yorkshire (Ryder 1974).

Most of the animal bones from West Cotton derive from contexts spanning from the 12th to the first half of the 15th century AD. The site changed its status during the course of its existence, starting in the earlier period as a manor house, but, by the middle of the 13th century, this had been transformed into a hamlet.

Despite the obvious change in the type of settlement and in the status of the site, no main differences were detected either in the bone or in the pottery assemblage between the two main phases. This is not due to the inadequacy of our archaeological data, because we know that in sites which are definitely of very high status – such as castles – differences in food habits can be detected through the

study of a bone assemblage (see for instance Maltby 1982, Jones *et al.* 1985 and Albarella and Davis 1996). We must therefore assume that the diet at West Cotton did not change dramatically, despite the change in the status of the site. Some of the lesser aristocracy may not have had, at least in some sites and some periods, a much more sophisticated diet than the better off peasants. Both the scarcity of wild game and freshwater fishes (see Dyer 1989a) point to a rather low status of the site throughout its sequence.

There are other indications that the site did not enjoy a particular wealth. The high frequency of “non meat” animals such as horses and dogs can be taken as evidence of a low consumption of meat – a typical luxury item – on this site. The frequency of horses increases in the late medieval period but this may have more to do with the growing importance of equids as draught animals (see Langdon 1986) than with an increase in the rate of meat consumption. This hypothesis is also supported by the fact that the horse increase is not matched by an equivalent higher proportion of the other non meat animals, such as dogs and cats, in the later period.

We know from historical sources that town dwellers were higher consumers of meat than their equivalents in the countryside (Dyer 1989b) and this trend seems to find confirmation at West Cotton, but only further studies on good bone assemblages from rural sites will be able to tell to what extent this was a countryside phenomenon.

Despite the dearth of data from rural sites, an attempt at an overview of the frequency of the main domestic species (cattle, sheep and pig) from castles, villages and towns has been made. There is a wide overlap between the different types of sites, but some interesting trends can still be detected. For instance, if we separate sites which have more than 20% pigs, these will include 58 % of the castles, 33 % of the villages and only 15 % of the towns. Pig is the most typical meat animal and its high frequency on high status sites is therefore not surprising. At the same time peasants were high consumers of bacon – a low status food and this might explain why, despite the expectation that little meat was consumed in villages, pig bones are found in a higher proportion than in towns. With its pig frequency of 20% in the “manor house” period, West Cotton is close to the average for rural sites. This frequency decreases in the later medieval period, which might hint at a decline in status, but might also be related to the ever growing importance of sheep for wool, which made this species, across the country, relatively more common in the late Middle Ages.

At West Cotton horse meat was also at least occasionally eaten. Butchery marks on horse bones are almost as common as on cattle bones and even though many may be related to the use of horse flesh for feeding dogs, evidence

of marrow extraction was also found and this is more likely to be related to human consumption. Meat was obviously not the main reason for breeding horses, and horse meat would probably be consumed only in periods of crisis, such as the well known famine of the early 14th century. It is possible that peasants, due their lower status and to their more direct dependence on the resources of the countryside, may have been more severely affected by such famines and therefore more inclined to consume horse flesh. It would be interesting to find out whether horse bones are consistently more commonly found to have been butchered on rural than on urban sites.

Although large game was scarce, noteworthy is the presence of small wild animals, such as fox, polecat, stoat and weasel, which are rarely found in urban sites. These were probably caught principally for their furs.

The West Cotton inhabitants were also heavily engaged in the production of skins and hides, as typical skinning marks – cut marks on skull, mandible and foot bones – were commonly found on the bones of cattle, sheep, pig, horse, dog and cat. This kind of activity is also well attested in town sites, but the very high frequency of skinning marks at West Common leads one to wonder whether this could have been especially important for the countryside dwellers. Once again more data from rural sites are needed.

The two broad questions of the possible existence of characters of bone assemblages which are peculiar to rural sites and their possible original contribution to our understanding of the evolution of the animal economy during the Middle Ages, are still by and large unanswered. However, the study of the animal bones from West Cotton represents a useful step towards the clarification of this problem. It seems to suggest, although in a preliminary way, that rural animal bone assemblages do have different characters from those of urban sites. Future archaeological work should try to readjust the balance between our knowledge of towns and villages. Not only should more rural sites be excavated but also a better use of their biological data should be made. A better integration of the different sources of the archaeological evidence and of these with historical information is also desirable. Finally it is to be hoped that many of the useful data which exist but are not publicly available will soon see the light of the day. Despite the fact that most of the post-excavation work at West Cotton has now been finished for a number of years, only some preliminary information has so far been published (Windell et al. 1990, Campbell 1994) and just an archive report of the animal bones is available (Albarella and Davis 1994). In view of the importance of the results it is unfortunate that the site is nowhere near to publication.

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A Seasonal Fishermen's Settlement at Dungeness, Kent

by Mark Gardiner, The Queen's University of Belfast

The subject of a meeting of the Medieval Settlement Research Group in 1993 was seasonal settlements. Papers given at that conference and others published since have brought these poorly understood sites to the fore.¹ Seasonal settlement was often associated with transhumance, but Harold Fox has drawn attention to another type of site, coastal fishing hamlets. He has described in particular the 'cellar' or hut settlements on the south Devon coast, which he argued, originated in or after the second half of the 16th century, although there may have been earlier, uninhabited buildings. Fox noted that there were many similar settlements along the English coast, including Windscale, Seascales and the lost site of *Scaddebothes* on the Cumberland coast, Winterton in Norfolk and Lydd in Kent, to which may be added Porthoustock in Cornwall.² The range of locations suitable for fishing settlements was very wide, since they, unlike ports, did not require a sheltered haven at which boats could be anchored or a quay at which they could be tied up. The fishing boats were commonly hauled on to the beach beyond the limit of high tide. The sole requirement was a gently shelving, protected beach from which boats could be launched.

The last of the fishing settlements mentioned by Fox, Lydd in Kent, is examined further here. The settlement, though in Lydd parish, lay three miles to the south-east of the town on the foreland of Dungeness. The ness is a shingle promontory which projects into the English Channel from the south-east corner of Romney Marsh. Dungeness is mentioned in 1052 as one of the places visited by earl Godwine when he was amassing ships. Although the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* does not state that he took ships from there, Hollister noted that the context of the passage makes clear that that was his purpose.³ Ship service provided by Lydd and the manor of Denge or Dengemarsch, which included Dungeness, is mentioned in a charter of Henry II. That charter was probably a confirmation of earlier arrangements. Lydd and Dungeness were both attached to New Romney as limbs of the Cinque Ports, for they formed complementary sites.⁴ Lydd, the main settlement in the area, was situated on an inland ridge of shingle at the edge of the marshland. It lay on the road close to the coast and, although it did not acquire a charter, it developed into a market town during the later medieval period.⁵ Dungeness, on the other hand, was at the extremity of a shingle wasteland, which was sparsely vegetated and entirely unsuitable for agriculture. It was evidently chosen as a base for fishing, because the lee eastern shore on the east of the ness provided a protected site for launching boats and because shoals of fish could be caught close inshore.⁶

The earliest reference to the 'cabons' or fishermen's huts at Dungeness is an account roll of 1356-7 and they are further mentioned in a rental of 1402.⁷ It is, however, very probable that there were buildings here to store the fishing equipment of the boats operating from Dungeness at an earlier date. By the 15th century the cabins also

provided accommodation, for in 1437/8 a messenger was sent from Lydd to the fishermen at Dungeness to show them a letter concerning the raising of the siege of Guisnes Castle, a journey which would have hardly been necessary had they been returning to the town each evening.⁸ Lydd was extremely vulnerable to raids by the French and the town accounts record the precautions taken during the 1450s and 1460s against landings. Beacons were established, a watch was kept at the coast and a cannon moved to the coast. In 1457/8 the town purchased a cabin by the coast, evidently to accommodate the watch and those manning the cannon. Small sums were subsequently paid for labour on the buildings and lathes, rods and reeds were bought for the roofing.⁹

Fishing was seasonal work with herring caught in the late autumn and sprats over the winter months. Trammelling for plaice and other bottom-feeders was allowed between the 15th March and 1st November, but was most common between Easter and 24 August.¹⁰ Boats from Dungeness also worked the East Coast fisheries, leaving for Scarborough in June and fishing at Yarmouth in September and October. The tradition of fishing on the East Coast dates from before the late 11th century when tolls taken from boats from Hastings are mentioned in Domesday Book under the entry for *Salfluet* in Lincolnshire. The same source also mentions that between Michaelmas (29th September) and St Andrew's day (30th November) there was the king's truce or peace in Dover, implying that boats were absent at that time at the East Coast herring fishery.¹¹ Boats from the Cinque Ports of Sussex and Kent had the privileges in Yarmouth of den and strand, the right to dry their nets on the beach. These rights and others had generated a long-standing enmity between the crews of the two areas.¹²

The accommodation at Dungeness was used not only by Lydd fishermen, but also 'westerners' so-named from their origin in the West Country. Boats from Dittisham and Sidmouth are mentioned in late 15th- and 16th-century records.¹³ These 'foreign' fishermen lived in the same huts with the local men, although an ordinance of 1571, perhaps codifying previous practice, restricted that number to one person or one crew in each hut. Nets were dried on the shingle by the cabins and rows of racks between 60 and 64 yards long were set close by with barbs for drying fish.¹⁴ Capstans were used to haul the boats on to the beach at Hythe and Brighton, and were presumably used at Dungeness too, although not mentioned in the records examined. A map made in 1599 by John Stoneham shows the cabins with a few diagonal crosses which may be representations of either of the drying racks or the capstans. The cabins are also shown on the more carefully drawn map of Poker dated to 1617.¹⁵

A company or fellowship of Lydd fishermen was established in 1571, perhaps in imitation of a similar organisation formed in nearby Rye four years earlier.¹⁶ There was also a particular need for a formal body for the fishermen at Dungeness who had been acting together,

negotiating a lease of the stade or shore from the Crown and were charged by Lydd Borough with collecting maltots or dues from the westerners. How far the fishermen also formed a social community, as distinct from a legally associated group is uncertain, though by the late 18th century they had a common dining room situated near the cabins.¹⁷

The cabins continued to be occupied by fishermen until the present century. In recent years the huts were built from driftwood and wood from wrecked boats, and the same source of building material is likely to have been used in the medieval period both because of the prevalence of wrecks along the coast and the absence of other timber in the area.¹⁸ The cabins were built in particularly exposed conditions and may not have been long-lasting. The site of the settlement is likely to have moved progressively eastwards as the shoreline moved with the successive emplacement of shingle ridges. The shingle of the ness has been moving from the south side to the east shore and unless the position of the cabins also changed, they would have become progressively further

away from the sea. It is probable that as the buildings were reconstructed, they were situated on new sites nearer to the sea, and the whole settlement has gradually shifted eastwards (Figure 1).

Poker's early 17th-century map is not sufficiently accurate to locate the precise position of the cabins and it has not been possible to locate their sites in the field. It may be that very little trace survives of what was probably an insubstantial settlement. The physical geography of Denge Beach provides some indication of the likely location. Denge Beach comprises a series of shingle ridges thrown up parallel to former shorelines. The morphology of these is closely related to periods of storms. The ridges were thrown up in quick succession during phases of more frequent storm events during which there was a pronounced sharpening of the ness formation. Very rapid change in the ness morphology could result in the creation of a pit within the shingle, as the ridges were thrown up in a more sharply arcuated form. The naturally formed Open Pits on Denge Beach have been associated with the period of storms in the late 13th century.¹⁹ If this

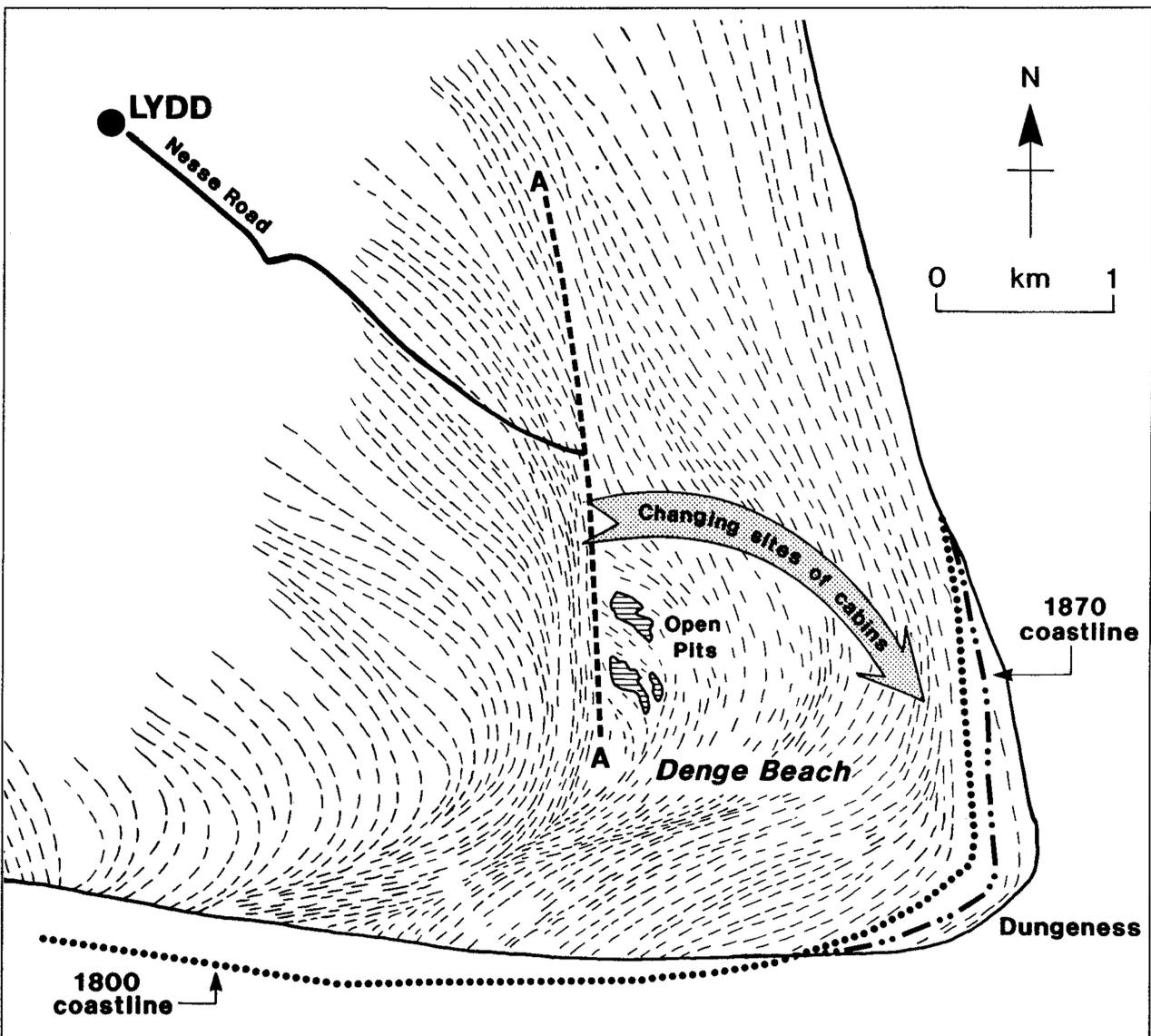


Figure 1: Dungeness showing the shingle ridges marking former shorelines and the shifting site of the fishermen's cabins which moved eastwards to follow the changing coastline

is correct, they provide an indication of the position of the coastline at that period. The cabins were presumably to the north of these pits on the sheltered eastern shore. To west of the pits is a significant north-south trending ridge (marked A-A on Figure 1) which is likely to mark a quiet climatic period when the shoreline was stable. The site of the pre-13th century cabins may probably be sought to the west of that ridge.

The Dungeness cabins are an interesting example of a settlement of considerable longevity, but one which failed to grow into more than a seasonal settlement. It is useful to contrast it with Great Yarmouth which also began in the 11th century or before as a seasonal fishing settlement of a few huts. A chapel was constructed there in the early 12th century to serve the fishermen and the town developed around it or nearby. The cabins at Dungeness did not grow in a similar way and the site remained a dependency of Lydd. The main reasons for this were, firstly its physical isolation which did not favour its development as a market centre, and secondly its position on the edge of a desert of shingle, a location which could sustain no other activity, but fishing. The cabins remained a minor settlement until the present century when they were succeeded by seaside bungalows, many of which themselves continue to be used on a seasonal basis!

The impact of the marine economy on medieval rural settlements has yet to be examined in depth, but Fox has drawn attention to the seasonally occupied fishing settlements, which deserved wider investigation. The particular interest of the cabins at Dungeness is to suggest the longevity of some such sites.

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'Morphologies of Medieval Market Settlements: some Warwickshire examples

by Keith D. Lilley

Introduction

When, in 1994, the annual conference of the MSRG discussed the blurred boundary between medieval towns and villages, one issue that attracted much attention was how far commercialisation affected rural settlement morphology. The idea was put forward, by T. R. Slater, that very distinct differences existed between 'urban' plan-forms of medieval towns and 'rural' plan-forms of villages. A year later, at the Group's annual conference held in London, I tried to explore this difference further by using case studies drawn from my recent work on urban and rural settlement form in Warwickshire (Lilley 1994; 1995). The purpose of this brief paper is to put together some of my plans of medieval market settlements for future comparative work, simply because so few morphological studies of such settlements have been undertaken, despite present certainty that the English medieval countryside was throbbing with commercial activity.

Although the morphology of market villages is rarely considered in medieval settlement studies, it is not a new subject. In 1982, C. C. Taylor used case-study examples taken from east Midland counties to show that rural commercialisation in the Middle Ages did have a

physical, as well as socioeconomic impact. He demonstrated, as Beresford (1967) had done before with urban 'plantations', that villages were often physically extended in order to accommodate a new market and, presumably, new inhabitants, probably, but not necessarily, at the same time as a local lord was granted the privilege of holding a regular market (Taylor 1982). In his paper, Taylor commented on how 'the grant of a market could, theoretically, lead either to a new addition to a village or a marked change in... existing village morphology', and he called for other example to be made known in order to further explore this issue (*ibid*, p.21). The three Warwickshire examples of medieval market settlements illustrated here are intended to support the ideas put forward by Taylor: they, too, reveal common morphological patterns, but although relatively simple in form, the morphogenesis of each of the three settlements is far from simplistic. The villages of Monks Kirby, Wolvey and Cestersover all lay within Brinklow hundred, an administrative unit that encompassed an area of Warwickshire composed predominantly of heavy-clay arable lands, interspersed with nucleated settlements, situated between the River Avon, to the south, and Watling Street, to the north (see Figure 2).

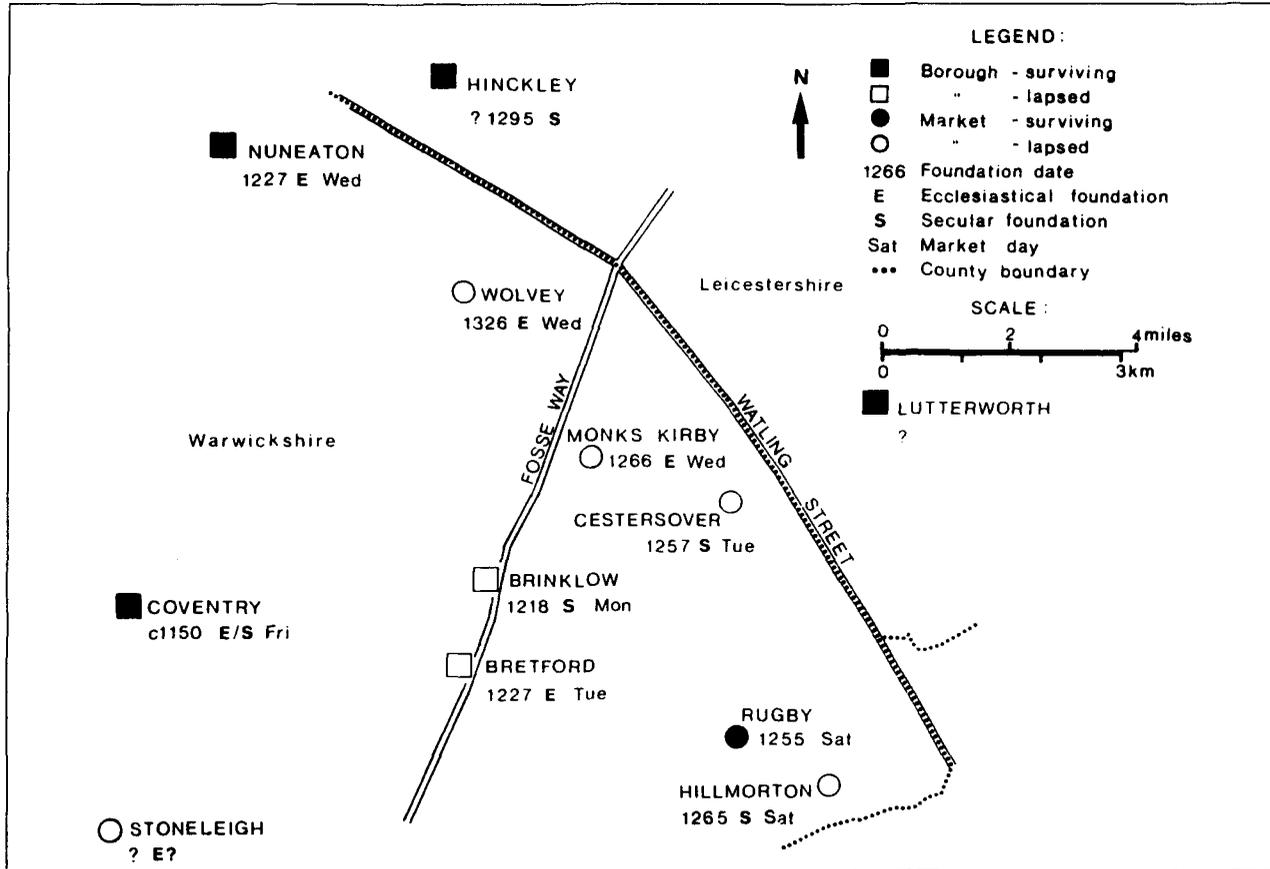


Figure 2: Medieval market settlements in north-east Warwickshire

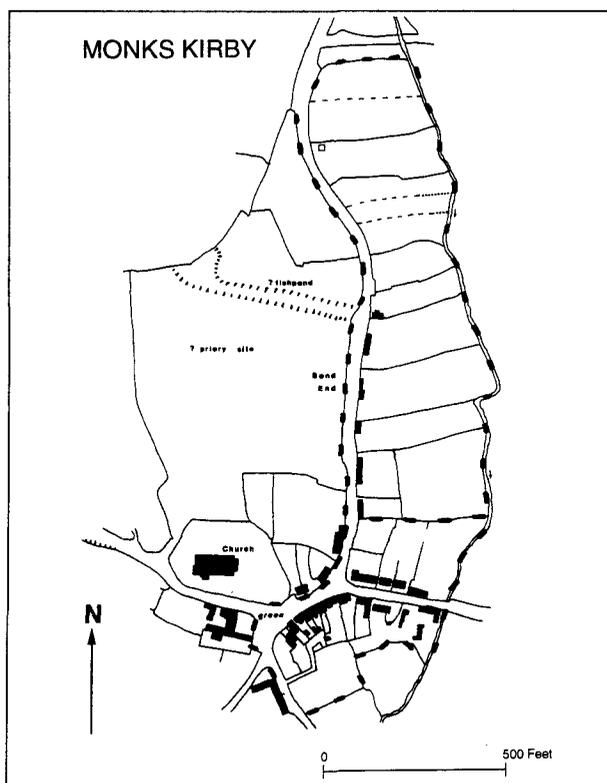


Figure 3: A plan-analysis of Monks Kirby

Interpreting the Morphologies of Three Medieval Market Settlements

In the case of Monks Kirby, the village plan is composed of two 'plan-units', or areas of morphological unity; one centered on a green at the junction of five streets, and the other formed by a single row of broad plots, called Bond End (Figure 3). Kirby, the 'church settlement', was granted to the monks of St Nicholas of Angers by Geoffrey de Wirche in 1077 (Binns 1989, p. 102). The church, dedicated to St Edith, was probably much older than this, as Wirces' foundation charter refers to its recent rebuilding (*ibid*). Also, two priests are recorded at Kirby in Domesday Book, inferring that before the Norman conquest the church had been a minster (*cf.* Blair 1988, pp.56-7). The church acted as the focus of a large estate which included the surrounding townships of Pailton, Newnham, Brockhurst, Stretton, Street Ashton and Cestersover. In this sense Kirby was a local 'central-place'. The precinct of Geoffrey's alien Norman priory is clearly revealed in the settlement's plan (which, like the other plans reproduced here, is based on the first edition Ordnance Survey 1:2500 scale plan). In 1266, the prior acquired a charter to hold a regular market at Kirby, on Wednesdays (VCH Wa VI, p. 177). It is now accepted amongst economic historians that such market (and borough) charters frequently represent only a written formalisation of already existing commercial arrangements (Britnell 1992; Dyer 1992; see also Bond 1990). It is likely, then, that long before the date of his charter, the prior and his antecessors used the minster church at Kirby as a place for organising and gathering goods produced from the surrounding estate. These goods (and services) were presumably exchanged outside the gate of the church on the adjacent green, the probable site of the prior's market place.

In view of the commercial orientation of Monks Kirby, one would expect, using Taylor's hypothesis, that the settlement plan was formally extended in order to accommodate the Tuesday market, as well as any prospective traders. Indeed, the plan of Kirby, with its two distinct plan-units, could reflect two stages of growth. In this case, though, rather curiously, the planned, formal 'extension' has no market-place and is the part of the settlement called Bond End. This place-name is one associated with demesne agricultural workers, rather than traders, and suggests that this was an area laid out to accommodate husbandmen. Had the planned area been called 'Newland', or something similar, it could have been argued that it was an extension established for new inhabitants, be they traders or artisans. As it is, Bond End reflects a social division within the layout of Monks Kirby, and the former market place, the green, lay next to the church, away from the more regular, 'planned' part of the settlement. The Lay Subsidy rolls of 1332 record four inhabitants of Kirby who each have surnames that indicate they were engaged in textile oriented activities (Carter 1926). It is likely that these people, and other similar artisans, located themselves in the commercial hub of the village, in the area of the market place, within plots surrounding the small green. If so, the plan of Kirby would appear to have been reorganised and extended to provide new accommodation for demesne tenants, rather than to provide spaces for prospective traders. Certainly, the congested pattern of narrow and irregular plots around the green suggests that properties here had once been placed under high demand. This morphological and social division of Kirby's village plan is matched by the layout of Shipston-on-Stour. At Shipston, a pre-urban settlement core, called Husband End, was distinct in its form from an adjacent area which was taken up by the Bishop of Worcester's new borough in the thirteenth century (see Slater 1996).

The second example of a market settlement to be considered here is Wolvey, a village situated on the high and bleak wold-landscape close to the Warwickshire-Leicestershire county boundary (Figure 2). Wolvey, like Monks Kirby' has a plan that is composed of two distinct plan-units (Figure 4). One plan-unit contains rather irregular plot-patterns and is focused on the church of St John the Baptist, perched above the River Anker. Between the church and The Square, to the south, is an area encompassed by an elliptical shaped boundary which is probably the fossilised remains of an enclosure. To the south of this oval feature, and east and west of The Square, is a second plan-unit made up of slightly more regular plots fronting Wolds Lane. These regular plots collectively form a large, rectilinear area of Wolvey's plan, and contrast with the irregular plots distorted by the elliptical enclosure.

According to the documentary record, the nearby Cistercian abbey of Combe gradually acquired lands in Wolvey after 1201, such that by 1316 the Abbot of Combe was the sole lord of Wolvey (VCH Wa VI, p. 282). In 1326, the abbot was granted the right to hold a market at Wolvey on Wednesdays (*ibid*). The market most likely was held in The Square (which is not actually square), although it seems unlikely that the adjacent plots, within the rectilinear area of the settlement's plan, were

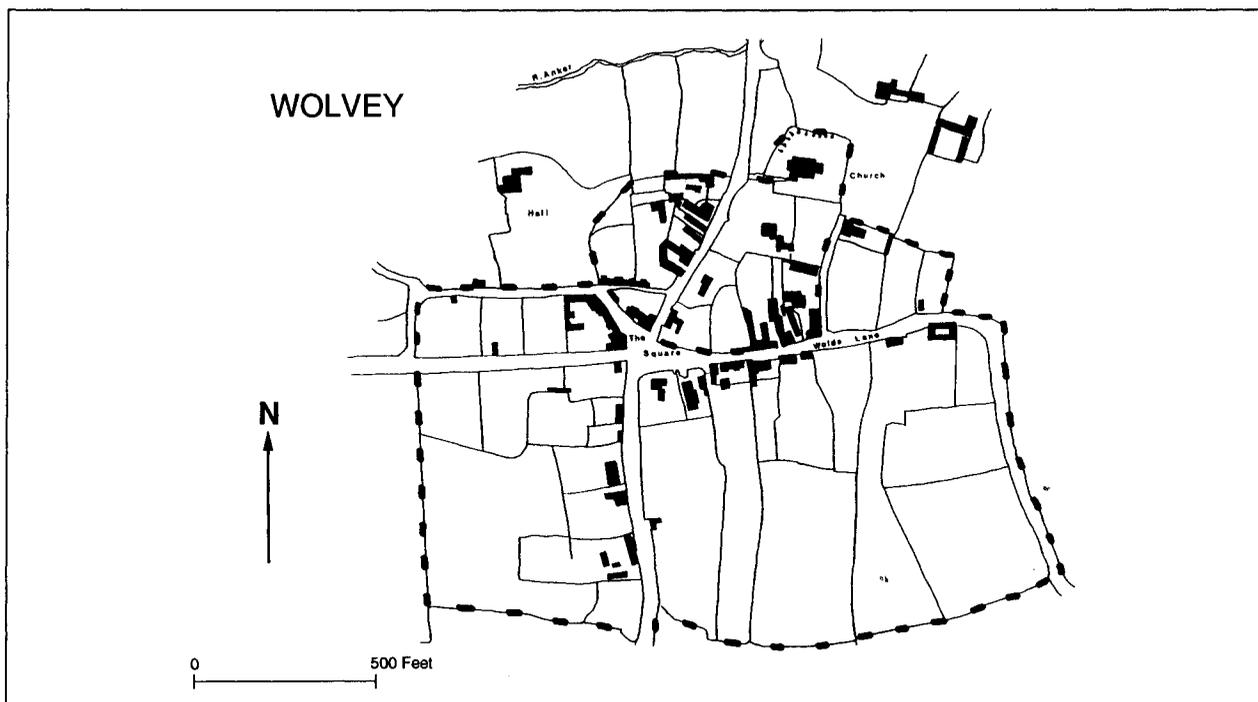


Figure 4: A plan-analysis of Wolvey

laid out at such a late date. Perhaps, once again, the abbot's charter represents only a written formalisation of an existing market. Wolvey was one of five local market centres documented within this comparatively bleak north-eastern corner of Warwickshire and in this context there is good reason to believe that by issuing a charter the abbot was trying to secure the future of his market in an increasingly difficult and competitive commercial environment. Perhaps an indication of this competition, as well as an earlier, pre-1326 origin of the Wolvey market, is the move by the prior of Kirby to change his market day from Wednesday to Tuesday in 1305 (VCH Wa VI, p. 174). This change in day was presumably intended to avoid the clash between the abbot's Wednesday market and the prior's at Kirby. Like Monks Kirby, Wolvey acted as a settlement focus for an extensive ecclesiastical estate and it should be no surprise to see the monks of Combe using Wolvey as a way of trying to generate income through commercialisation. It is often thought that the Cistercian order shied away from commerce, but a glance at some of the new towns established by Edward I in the late thirteenth century shows at least two which had been founded on sites where Cistercian abbeys had existing markets and nascent boroughs (Hull and Conwy, see Beresford 1967).

Although it has become widely accepted that medieval village layouts survived, in essence, to become mapped onto large-scale Ordnance Survey plans in the nineteenth century, such assumptions about morphological continuity still attract some scepticism. In the present study, the settlement plans were derived from first-edition 1:2500 scale Ordnance Survey plans as well as field-work, aerial photographs and unpublished manuscript plans (for this technique, see Lilley 1994 and Lilley 1995). Fortunately, it is possible to check the living plans of the above two extinct medieval market settlements against the plan of a deserted one.

Cestersover is a deserted medieval market settlement, now sadly destroyed, which lay close to Watling Street on the boundary of Warwickshire (Figure 2 'the former plan of Cestersover has been mapped from aerial

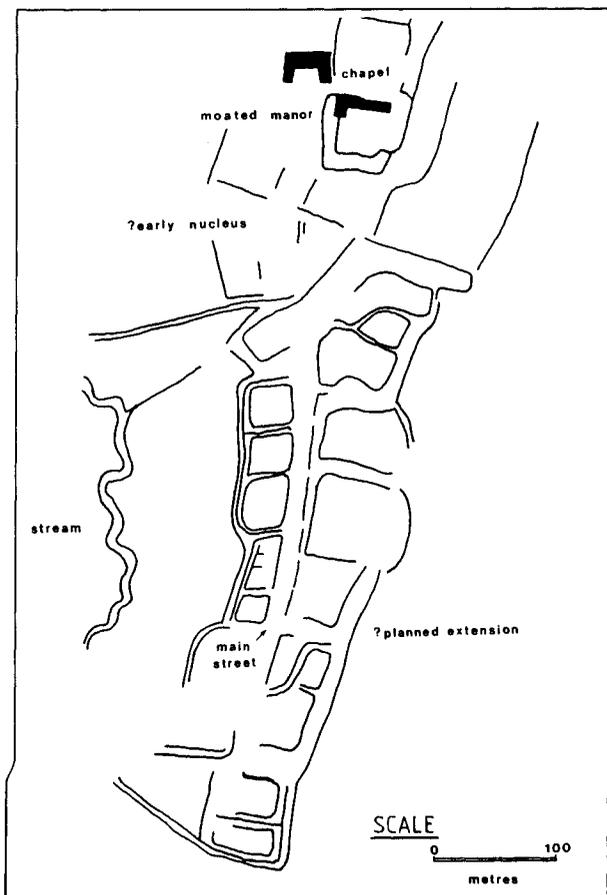


Figure 5: Plan of Cestersover DMV (based on Bond 1974)

photographs by Bond (1974). His plan is reproduced here and allows some discussion of Cestersover's morphology (Figure 5). Two distinct plan-units are visible, one centered on a chapel-manor nucleus and the other on a long single street which stretched downslope from the latter and was fronted by relatively regular plots on either side. In this case, the relict plan of Cestersover reflects two possible phases of development and thus compares, superficially at least, with the similar plans of Monks Kirby and Wolvey. Cestersover received its market charter in 1257 from William de Mowbray (VCH Wa VI, p. 177). Unlike Monks Kirby and Wolvey, however, Cestersover was not a settlement serving an ancient estate but was formerly an outlying dependency of Kirby. It therefore seems likely that the market charter was an attempt by de Mowbray to help the village to become more profitable. The rather exposed hillside position of the settlement, which was located not on Watling Street but half a mile to the west, can hardly have made Cestersover an attractive place for prospective artisans and traders. Indeed, the 1332 Lay Subsidy rolls record only one inhabitant with an occupational surname (Carter 1926). By this time the Tuesday market at Cestersover may well have been failing, since the market day at nearby Kirby was changed in 1305 from Wednesday to Tuesday (VCH Wa VI, p. 174). Thus, Cestersover was probably an early commercial failure. Rather ironically, the settlement's bipartite plan, with its regular planned extension, fits more perfectly with Taylor's ideas about the two-stage evolution of market settlements than do either the relatively more successful market villages of Monks Kirby and Wolvey.

Conclusions

What do these three specific case-studies have to say about the morphologies of medieval market settlements in general? Perhaps most importantly, whilst it is possible to identify morphological patterns common to all three settlements, it is not possible to use the plans as a basis for generalising about the formation of medieval market settlements. Indeed, each of the places has a varied history, as well as subtly different morphologies. Nevertheless, the potential for further detailed analysis of medieval settlement forms is enormous, as so little has been done to bring examples together in comparative studies.

There exists the opportunity to use settlement plans to further explore cases where villages functioned as centres for commercial exchange but received no formal market charter. Two Warwickshire examples of settlement morphologies that provide evidence for such 'hidden trade' are Kings Newnham and Walsgrave on Sowe, both on the south-western edge of Brinklow hundred. In the thirteenth-century, Kings Newnham was an outlying estate dependent on Kenilworth priory. The vill stands out amongst other local vills in the 1332 Lay Subsidy rolls both in terms of its relatively high tax assessment and the number of inhabitants with occupational surnames (Carter 1926). The plan of Newnham contains a green as well as the remains of regular plots stretching away from a church-manor nucleus (Figure 6). Could this green represent a place used for exchanging goods, and if so was the village designed to accommodate artisans and traders to help service Kenilworth priory? The second example, Walsgrave on Sowe, may also have been a medieval 'service centre' of this sort. Walsgrave was a suburban manor which in 1086 belonged to Coventry Abbey and which Dyer (1992) suggests functioned as a small but unchartered extra-urban market. The plan of the village shows an open space next to the church of St Mary as well as a series of regular plots adjoining this probable market place (see Lilley 1995).

Of course, the key to unravelling the physical impact of commercialisation on English rural settlements, as Taylor (1982) pointed out, is to match morphological evidence, based on cartographic sources and field-work, with documentary information. By doing this, and undertaking further comparative work on the morphologies of medieval market settlements, something may be learned of the intricate nature of changing rural economies and societies in the Middle Ages. One fruitful line of enquiry in this respect is to compare how certain spaces in the medieval countryside were informally appropriated for exchange, whilst others were subject to more obvious, formal mechanisms designed to promote commercial development, such as the charters granted to legitimise markets in preexisting and newly-planned settlements. The potential exists for rethinking the distinctions that are so often drawn between 'town' and 'village' in medieval settlement studies.

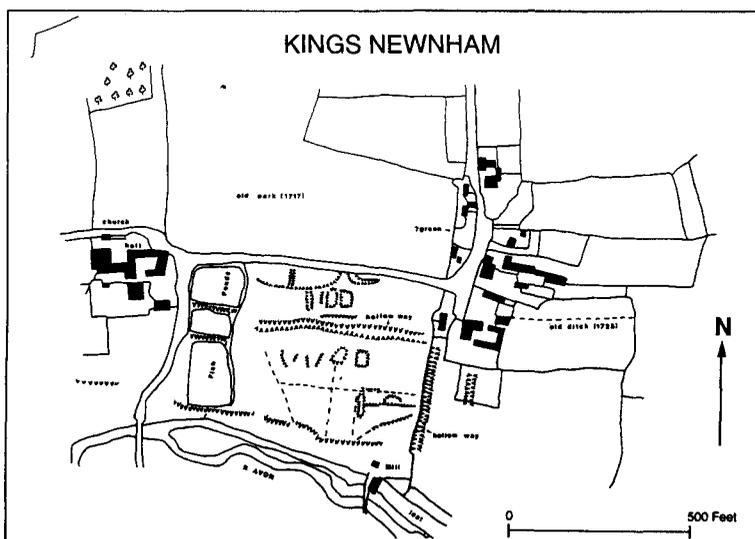


Figure 6: A plan-analysis of Kings Newnham

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The Moated Sites of County Galway, Ireland

by Patrick Holland

Physical Evidence

Between late 1981 and late 1982 the author undertook a field survey of moated sites and related forms of archaeological evidence as part of a study concerned with the Anglo-Normans in County Galway. It was hoped to create a broad understanding of the conquest and settlement of the county (Holland 1987-8 and forthcoming). The main site types surveyed were castles (including a ring-castle) (Holland 1996), mottes and baileys and moated sites (Holland 1994). Moated sites form, numerically speaking, one of the largest bodies of physical evidence for the Anglo-Norman presence in the county. A list of fifty-one sites (forty-eight extant and three reported) has been presented and compared with Glasscock's earlier map (Holland 1994). The purpose of this note is to present summary findings regarding the moated sites located.

Internal dimensions can be assessed with some degree of accuracy at forty-three sites. Three groups of moated sites can be isolated as a result of an analysis of internal area. Group I consists of three peripheral sites. Two are below 500 m² in size and the third is very much larger than all the other sites with an internal area of between 3500 m² and 3750 m². These three sites are probably an atypical element within the size range. The remaining forty sites form the two major groups. Group II consists of those twenty-nine sites with an internal area of between 500 m² and 1750 m². This group is clearly the main one, containing almost 53% of moated sites and the average internal area of c. 1400 m². Group III consists of eleven sites with internal areas between 2000 m² and 3000 m².

The majority of the sites are rectangular and often close to square (Figure 7). There is no known example of a multi-platform site. The majority of sites have wide, flat-bottomed, steep-sided moats. Two sites are scarped from natural rises and do not have a well defined moat. Other sites such as Rooanmore (79)¹ or Moat (63) have narrow v-sectioned moats having been created from scarped natural ridges where the moat is 'dug into the steep ridge side.

A large number of sites had wet moats when visited; even some on the top of hills, where the subsoil must allow the retention of water. A larger group of some 30 sites were dry when visited but could have had wet moats, being close to rivers or low-lying land. Five sites could hardly ever have had wet moats, either because they are clearly sited on a sand and gravel subsoil or because they are created from, or sited upon, a slope or natural rise. While nearly all sites with wet or potentially wet moats seem to have been filled by seepage or rainfall, a few sites were situated close to a river or stream to allow for the diversion of water. Definite leats were noted at three sites and others may have been present before drainage works.

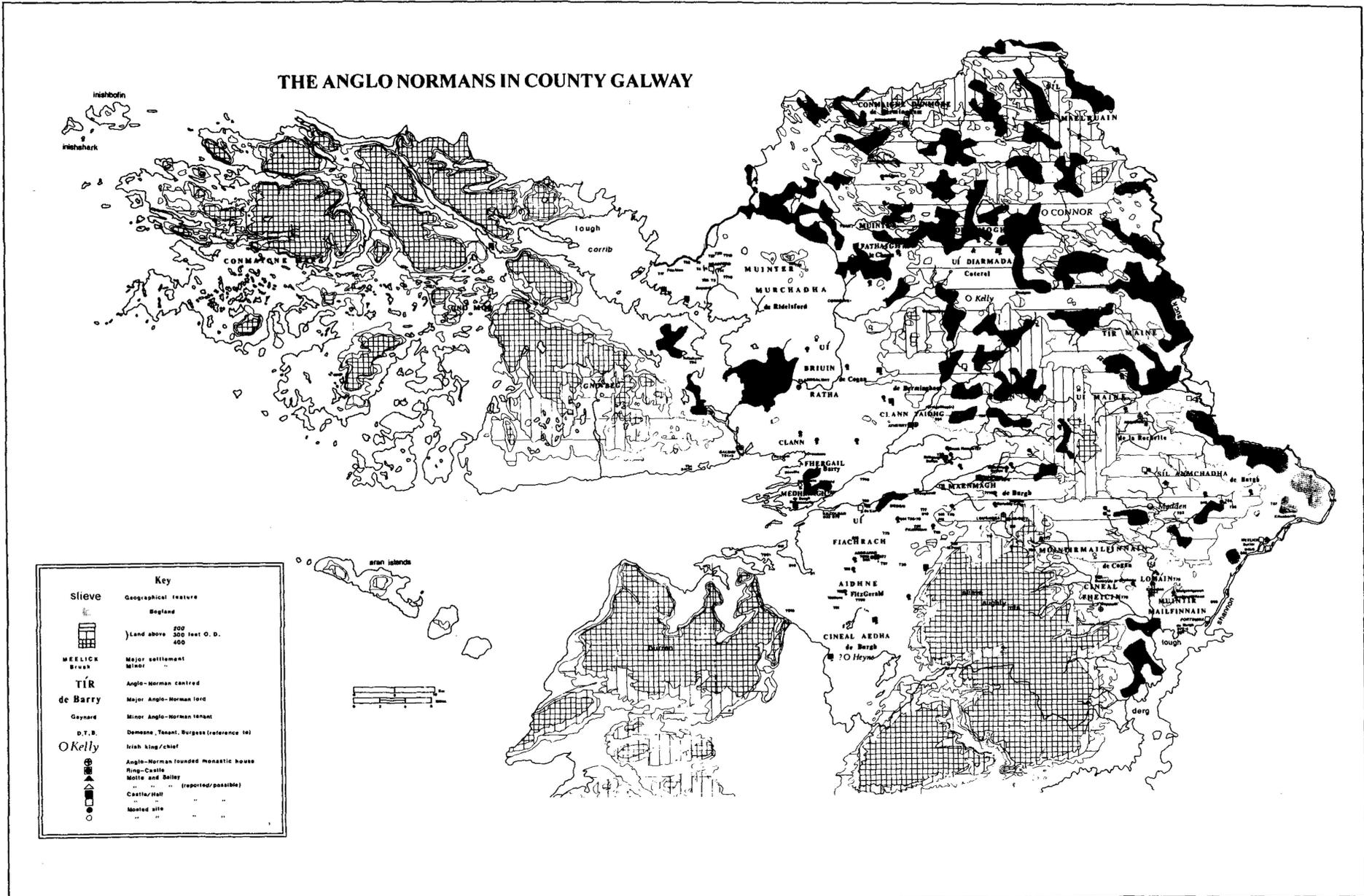
Internal and external banks are a normal feature of moated sites in the county. Forty-one sites, or some 74%, have inner banks. Nearly all are less than 1 m over the site's

interior. While most of these sites have banks which appear to be composed of mixed soil, traces of what appear to be stone constructions, whether layers, lines or facings, were noted at four sites. Some of these could, of course, belong to late medieval occupation of the sites. Two sites have very slight or no inner banks. Their main feature is not their moat, which being scraped from a ridge-side is quite shallow, but rather the height of the flat interior above the exterior.

The external bank is to be generally expected at moated sites though it is often not very noticeable. It generally appears as a low earthen bank with a flat top. Some external banks can be quite substantial. Twenty-eight sites have outer banks and 17 of these have banks which are up to 2 m in width and 2 m in height. The remaining 11 sites have banks up to 4 m in width and 2 m in height. Outer banks probably existed at another 10 sites. Very little definite evidence is available regarding entrances. Only about six sites have some remains of this feature though there are possible traces at another six sites. Gaps in the banks can only be regarded, before excavation, as possibly original if they are substantial and matched by a corresponding causeway in the moat. The most convincing piece of evidence is the large mortared stone archway which survived at Garraun North (43) until the last century.

The interior of these moated sites is nearly always level, so much so that it may be taken as a morphological trait. Some sites appear to have had part of their interiors 'levelled-up' or raised above the exterior. Some internal features of the sites are believed to be contemporary. Five sites have clear traces of masonry structures. Cooligny (26) has clear traces of both buildings and enclosures. While there are later references to the site, these features could be those of a primary hall and perhaps other buildings enclosed by walls. The lower parts of the walls of a substantial T-shaped mortared stone building, a hall and chamber block perhaps, can be seen at Carnaun (16), one of the most interesting of the moated sites in the county. A small stone structure at Galboley (41) could be interpreted as a small first floor hall similar to Kilskeagh (Holland 1996, 19, plate 1.7). Garraun North (43) not only had the remains of a stone archway noted earlier, but also traces of a rectangular building. Finally both Ardahan (4) and Park (72) have the remains of stone castles within them. Documentary evidence records other structures at Ardahan (4). Other internal features at sites include various banks and platforms but only excavation or perhaps geophysical surveying will explain them. The second group of features are secondary, intrusive and destructive. Cultivation ridges, almost certainly for the potato, are common. In some cases the foundations of rectangular structures, probably late 'cabins', were noted. A kiln was noted at Graddoge (45) and reported at Carheeny (14) but these could be late intrusions rather than early grain kilns. Childrens' burial grounds were noted at four sites and at one, Rahereen (76) the area

THE ANGLO NORMANS IN COUNTY GALWAY



Key	
Slieve	Geographical feature
	England
	Land above 200 feet O. D.
	Land above 400 feet O. D.
MEE LICKE	Major settlement
Brush	Minor
TIR de Barry	Anglo-Norman cantred
de Barry	Major Anglo-Norman lord
Gaynard	Minor Anglo-Norman tenant
D.T.B.	Demesne, Tenant, Burgess (reference to)
O'Kelly	Irish king/chieftain
	Anglo-Norman founded Monastic house
	Ring-Castle
	Motte and Bailey
	Castle/Hall
	Mooted site
	" " " "
	" " " "

Figure 7

seems to have been used as an adult burial ground as well. Burrowing animals and perhaps human action may have created the holes seen at several sites.

A few other external features remain to be noted. There are the remains of what may be an annex to the moated site at Carnaun (16) where there is a small sub-rectangular embanked enclosure beside the main enclosure but outside the moat. A circular banked earthwork associated with the moated site at Carrowmunniagh (18) is most unusual but could be much later than the moated site. There are traces of what appears to be a hollow-way leading from Ardrahan (4) to the modern village and, presumably, the site of the medieval settlement. Other external features are less convincing. There are possible house sites to the west of Lecarrow (53) and there appears to be a series of banks about Castlebin East (19). Knowledge regarding the construction methods used in the creation of the moated sites of County Galway must, at present, be presumed. No definite evidence for layering was noted in any of the banks but it must exist even if only a simple 'dump' technique was used. The layer of mortared rubble visible in an exposed section of the platform at Galboley (41) might be the remains of a destroyed curtain wall or an attempt to raise the site's height.

The distribution pattern (Holland 1994, map facing p. 206) of the moated sites shows three main concentrations: from north to south, between Dunmore and Gort, secondly from west to east between Athenry and Meelick on the Shannon, thirdly from west to east again, between Athenry and Portumna. All three size groups are spread fairly evenly throughout this distribution but there does appear to be a lack of group II sites, the smaller of the two main groups, in the extreme south-eastern part of the county. The moated sites are to be found, in general, on the lands overlying the carboniferous limestone of eastern County Galway and avoid the areas of igneous granite in the west and the Old Red Sandstone of the Sliabh Aughty mountains. They also were placed so as to avoid areas of high relief. They are generally found to the west of the Williamstown-Kilreekil ridge, the raised backbone of the limestone lowlands which runs from north to south and forms a watershed between the various drainage patterns in the county. The vast majority of sites are situated on land at between 100 and 300 feet O.D. (c. 30m - 100m). The sites are not distributed evenly however. There are large areas of land between 200 and 300 feet O.D. in height, such as in the east and north-east, which do not have moated sites. There are also areas with heights of between 0 and 200 feet O.D., such as north of Claregalway which do not have sites and it is clear that factors other than altitude influenced the location of moated sites in the landscape. While many sites were found close to rivers, there are sites in areas where there is little surface drainage.

The siting of the moated sites can be sorted into general groups which remain valid though some sites could, on re-examination, be transferred. The first and neither typical nor common type is where the site is situated on a hill slope. It would appear from the other groups that there was a constant and distinguishing concern to have a level site, both internally and externally. The three sites

in this group, Moat (61), Glennaslat (44) and Graigue (46) can therefore be regarded with some suspicion. However given the lack, to date, of excavations to provide objective data, we can only rely on surface evidence and it would be premature to completely dismiss sites.

Some eighteen sites are to be found on high ridges overlooking the surrounding area. They are placed squarely upon the high point and do not extend down the slope as in the case of ringforts. It would not explain this siting to suggest that it was merely an attempt to avoid bogland. There may have been an attempt to provide some defensive capabilities. A third group of six sites are sited upon the edge of areas of flat raised land which often overlook lower land in which there is a river or bog. The location may again have been selected to increase the defensive capabilities of the site. The fourth group, composed of eighteen sites, is made up of the sites found in low boggy land. While some of the sites which are in the third group could be included here, there is a distinct group formed by the deliberate attempt to site moated sites in an area which would keep their moats wet. The fourth and final siting group is of four sites which are situated on relatively flat land which is not noticeably boggy and where there is no river nearby. These four siting groups can be summarised by saying that both lowland and upland raised situations were used by the builders of moated sites.

The majority of moated sites are on the Shallow Brown Earth soil association with a much smaller number on the Degraded Grey Brown Podzolics. Two sites are on Grey Brown Podzolics and four on Gleys. Basin Peat is totally ignored and areas of Degraded Grey Brown Podzolics containing large areas of Basin Peat seem to be avoided. Moated sites are generally found on soils with a present slight to moderate limitation on agricultural use and it seems likely that they are located on what was then also the better land in the county. The distribution of moated sites and bogland is mutually exclusive and sites are located on glacial drift or on other subsoils.

Each of the moated sites visited was considered to see if it were capable of being defended. In practical terms this means that it could have large banks, a deep and wide moat or a siting on a high natural ridge. This attribute is, of course, very subjective and does not take account of changes to the sites since their original use. Nevertheless several sites which would appear to have definite defensive qualities were noted. While these sites do not appear to have any significant pattern within the two main size groups, it is noticeable that several are along the Williamstown-Kilreekil ridge, a result, perhaps, of their proximity to the hostile territory of the King's Cantreds (Holland forthcoming).

Historical Evidence

Manorial extents survive for the manors of Ardrahan (MacNiocaill 1964, 60, 53-8, Knox 1915-16) and Headford (Knox 1900-1). The 1333 *Inquisition Post Mortem* (IPM henceforth) taken after the murder of the Brown Earl of Ulster, records de Burgh holdings (Knox 1902). The manorial extents provide more information than the IPM since they list the financial worth and tenants of various parts of the manor unlike the IPM which only notes demesne land in detail. The manor of Ardrahan was

held by Maurice FitzGerald and in 1289 an extent of the manor was made to enable it to be split into two equal parts for two co-heiresses. The extent lists both free tenant tenements and demesne lands. Many of the areas can be identified and plotted (Holland forthcoming). There is a correlation between the free tenant areas and the distribution pattern of moated sites. Moated sites are not found in demesne areas. Two, and perhaps three, moated sites can be associated with specific tenants and tenements. One of the two largest moated sites² in the manor. Ardahan (4), was the *caput* while around it are distributed one further Group III (size) site, Killogilleen (50) and three small sites, Rooanmore (79), Drumharsna South (35) and Cuilmore (30). The moated sites can also be associated with the more important free tenants. The manor of Headford was held by Walter de Ridelsford and in 1284 an extent of the manor was taken for Christiana de Marisco, his granddaughter. Unfortunately however there are no moated sites in the manor. The 1333 *IPM* notes demesne holdings, a few small tenements held by free tenants and the rent paid by de Burgh's chief tenants. When these locations are plotted (Holland forthcoming), a correspondence between the known free tenant holdings and many of the moated sites can be seen. The historical evidence suggests that moated sites were used as manorial *caputs* or by free tenants, probably the more important ones.

Function, Status and Dating

There is general agreement that most moated sites were used for living quarters by a variety of persons ranging from the 'greater and lesser ecclesiastics, to the barons, to men with a handful of manors to the "country gentleman" who had but one' (Le Patourel 1981, 12-13). The evidence from Co. Galway agrees with this picture. The moated sites were used by the free tenants as well as the seignorial classes and, in the case of manorial *caputs*, as centres of local administration. They were not secondary elements of the subinfeudation and several, at least, were not out-farms. More specialised functions, such as a monastic grange or stock-pen cannot yet be proven. Moated sites were not the only forms of rural settlement and may not have been the only forms of free tenant settlement as houses are mentioned in the 1333 *IPM* (Knox 1902, 133, 397). Why did some free tenants enclose their houses and farmyards with a moat? Various functions and reasons have been proposed including drainage, a fire reservoir, defence, fashion and a status symbol. Some of the Galway sites do seem to have been constructed with some element of defence in mind. The use of moated sites by a particular segment of manorial society would seem to suggest that they were intended to defend (to a limited extent), demark and stress the residence of a free tenant or seignorial lord who could not afford to build a stone castle³. Empey (1982-3) proposed that moated sites could be dated to after the emergence of a parochial system (because moated sites in Knocktopher are secondary to that system) and before the general disorder of the first quarter of the fourteenth century i.e. 1225-1325. A similar close dating of the c. 1237-1333 can be proposed for the Galway sites since it is highly unlikely that they were built before 1237 or after 1333. It is likely that some, those in the King's Cantreds, were built later than the rest. Several sites also

probably continued in use after 1333. It is also likely that most sites were constructed in the early part of the 1237-1333 date range since they are part of the primary subinfeudation of the county.

Further research into the Anglo-Norman presence in Co. Galway will require archaeological investigation and excavation at a number of site types including manorial *caputs*, first floor halls and moated sites. We need to confirm the identification of a typical sample of the sites located as a result of field surveys, to attempt to date them and to investigate their function and contents. While we must now accept that the Anglo-Normans had a widespread presence within the county, we have only erected a broad framework of comprehension. Many gaps remain to be filled but the overall pattern is clear.

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- 1 The numbers in parentheses refers to the numbers used to identify sites on the map of the Anglo-Norman presence in Co. Galway (Figure 7).
- 2 This site could, given the presence of standing masonry remains, be interpreted solely as a castle. This points up the blurring of distinctions at the upper end of the moated site scale, in terms of status, function and physical size.
- 3 As Barry (1977, 102) has suggested.

Mapping the *Inquisitiones Post Mortem*

by Ken Bartley

He charged the enemy 'like a wild boar, making his sword drunk with their blood'. Thus died Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Hertford and Gloucester. Gilbert was the grandson of Edward I and a companion of Edward II, playing a major role in political affairs and in wars with the Scots. In 1308 de Clare was sent to negotiate a truce with Robert Bruce but six years later he was killed at the battle of Bannockburn, trampled by his own horse (Dictionary of National Biography 1921). Within three weeks of Gilbert's death, writs were issued to establish the extent and value of his land and property holdings across the kingdom.

Crown appointed administrators (escheators) were charged with the assembling of local juries to ascertain who the rightful heir or heirs were of the deceased and to record the nature and value of the deceased's property. The resulting *Inquisitiones Post Mortems* (IPMs) record the main land-uses on a given estate, both in terms of value and size, major assets (such as mills, gardens, castles etc.) and rents due to the lord. If an heir was under age or an unmarried female their property passed into the custody of the crown. Thus, the IPMs provided the king with information regarding the amount of money he could expect to receive from estates while they were in his holding. For the modern historian they provide a uniquely detailed insight into land and property values during a critical period in English history.

De Clare held one of the largest estates in the country on his death, with 161 separate IPMs surviving (Figure 8). The size of his holding can be gauged by the fact he owned at least 19,000 acres of arable worth over three hundred pounds which contributed to an overall annual income of over £6,000. Three escheators and the keeper of the castles of Glamorgan oversaw the compilation of the IPMs: John Abel (possibly a knight, later a baron of the exchequer) administered the South of England, John de Eure the North, John de Ufford dealt with the properties in Ireland, and Bartholomew de Badlesmere Wales. Later enquiries, mostly re-inquisitions, South of the Trent were undertaken by John Walewyn (a cleric). It has been suggested that the delay in partition of the estate among Gilbert's sisters 'continued so long that it can only have had a political motive' with the estate finally being assigned in November 1317 (Holmes 1957).

Gilbert de Clare is one amongst 1,831 tenants in chief with extant IPMs for the period 1300 to 1349, covering 9,939 individual properties. Since 1991 a team of researchers at The Queen's University of Belfast has been engaged in the compilation of a database of these IPMs. The creation of a database of historical data is a lengthy and detailed process. While the IPMs benefit from being centrally held in the Public Record Office, London, their translation and entry into a database took two historians two years to complete (Note 1). The fully compiled database was then restructured to ease the speed at which queries could be run. This was achieved by replacing a large number of data fields with short codes. This coding

procedure has the benefit of maintaining the integrity of the original document entries while allowing analysis to be carried out in a fast and repeatable fashion (Bartley *et al.* forthcoming).

The most straightforward use of the IPM database is as an 'electronic book' enabling information about specific people or places to be extracted quickly. Using a relatively simple retrieval all, or some, of the details concerning De Clare's estate may be extracted as tables, summary statistics or in the form of maps (Figure 9). While the ability to extract and map the extent of an estate is useful, estates do not operate in isolation from their neighbours. It has been suggested that 'if historians are spatially illiterate and geographically ignorant this will seriously affect their knowledge and understanding of the past' (Black 1994). A key element of the Pre-Black Death England Database project was to examine the geography of the period at a national level to move forward Campbell's goal of '[reconciling] the individual case study with the creation of a constant and systematic picture of the country as a whole' (Campbell 1988). The IPM database enables historians to examine individual locations or complete estates both in isolation and in the context of the complete national picture.

The IPMs record that Gilbert de Clare received income from markets and fairs occurring mainly in four main clusters (Figure 10). These groups in Norfolk, Sussex, Kent and Wales can be seen to fit into a national pattern of market dominance in the midlands and East coast of England (Figure 11). While a picture of regional commercialisation is emerging, this image is still fragmentary. The use of a Geographical Information System (GIS) can improve the clarity of this picture by combining separate variables, even from different sources, into a single map (Note 2).

Point distributions provide a quick way to visualise data but this form of mapping becomes limited when large numbers of locations or variables are being combined to produce a map capable of revealing regional differentiation. Boroughs owned by Gilbert de Clare are small enough in number to be suitably mapped as points (Figure 12). Mapping all boroughs recorded in the IPMs, combined with those listed by Beresford and Finberg, however, is more suitably achieved by use of a density map (Beresford and Finberg 1973, 1981). Rather than assigning a fixed geographic unit (such as counties or hundreds) a GIS was used to produce a surface map of borough density. For every point on the map the number of boroughs falling within the surrounding 1000 square miles is calculated (Figure 13). A correction factor needed to be applied during the process to ensure that coastal regions did not have their values decreased due to the fact that part of the surrounding 1000 square miles falls in the sea, leading to a 'burnt toast' edge on the uncorrected map. This map almost mirrors the national markets map with concentrations of boroughs in the midlands and South West of the country. This

combination of maps clearly raises questions concerning commercialisation, urban centres and market locations in pre-Black Death England. To further examine these issues a sensible comparison would be against a map of regional wealth.

The lay subsidy of 1334 provides information on the tax paid and tax rate on moveable goods across most of England (Glasscock 1975). Cheshire and Durham were excluded, but for the rest of the country clear regional patterns of wealth are evident (Figure 14). Using GIS this map can be directly compared to the density of boroughs to produce a single map which combines information from the IPMs, Beresford and Finberg's handlist and the lay subsidy (Figure 15). Thus GIS is providing historians with new ways to examine and combine historical sources. GIS will not, on its own, provide answers to the many questions concerning the geography of medieval England, but hopefully it will provide historians with the tools to ask new questions.

Notes

- 1 The IPMs were collected by M. Livingstone and R. Dickinson. The data inputting system was designed by J. P. Power using dBaseIV. The database is now held in FoxPro for Windows. The Escheators Database was compiled by M. Livingstone using the text based system Idealist.
- 2 All the maps on the project were created using SPANS GIS running on a 16Mb 120Mhz pentium PC.

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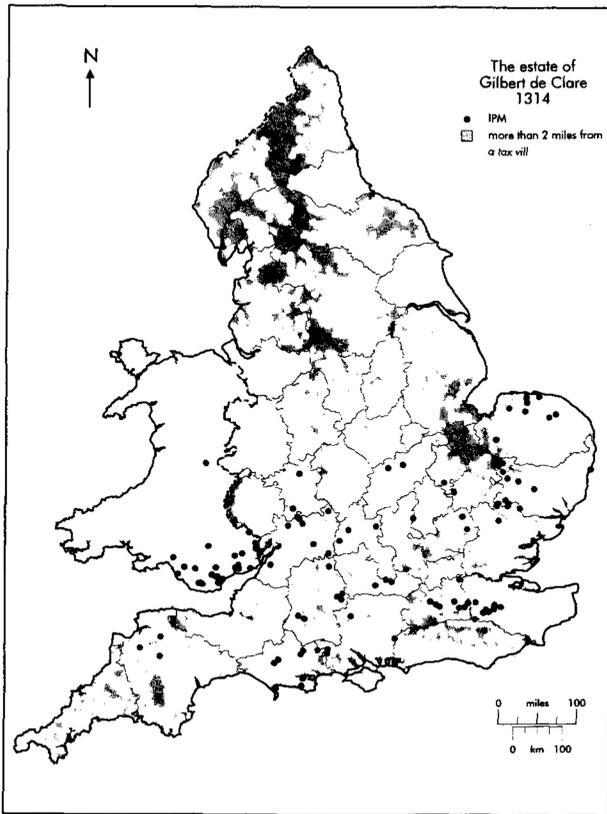


Figure 8

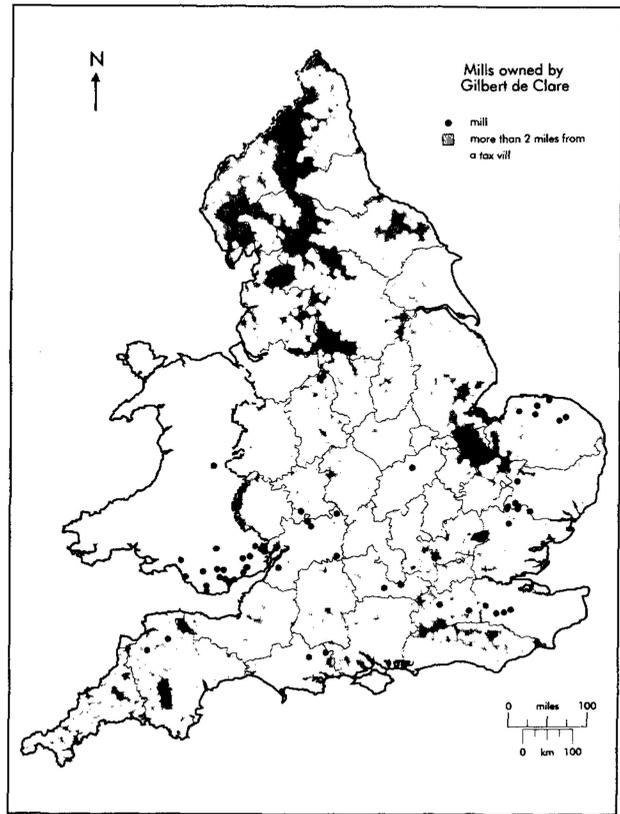


Figure 9

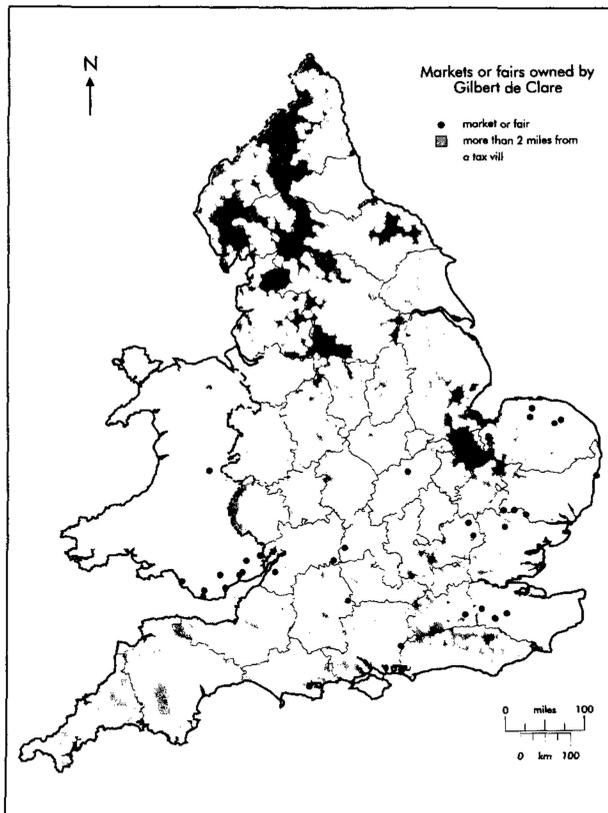


Figure 10

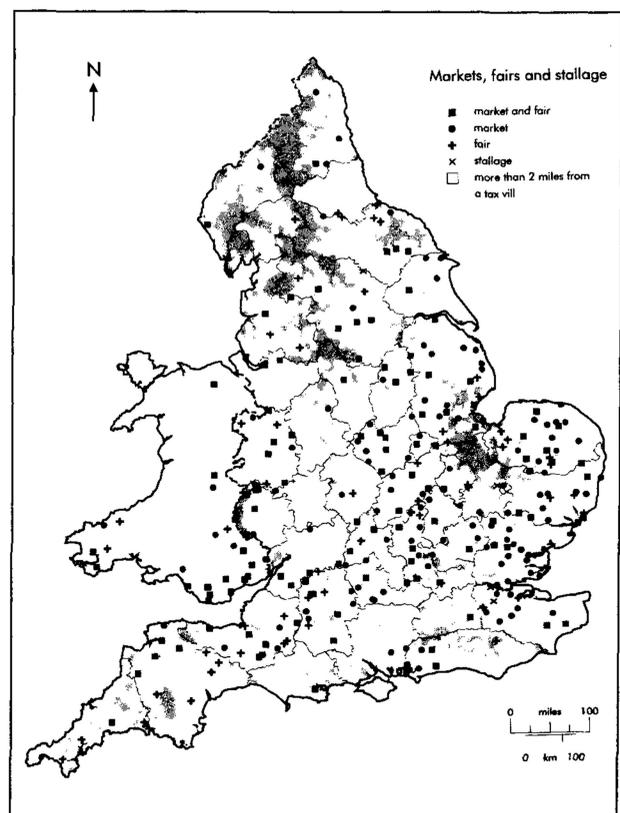


Figure 11

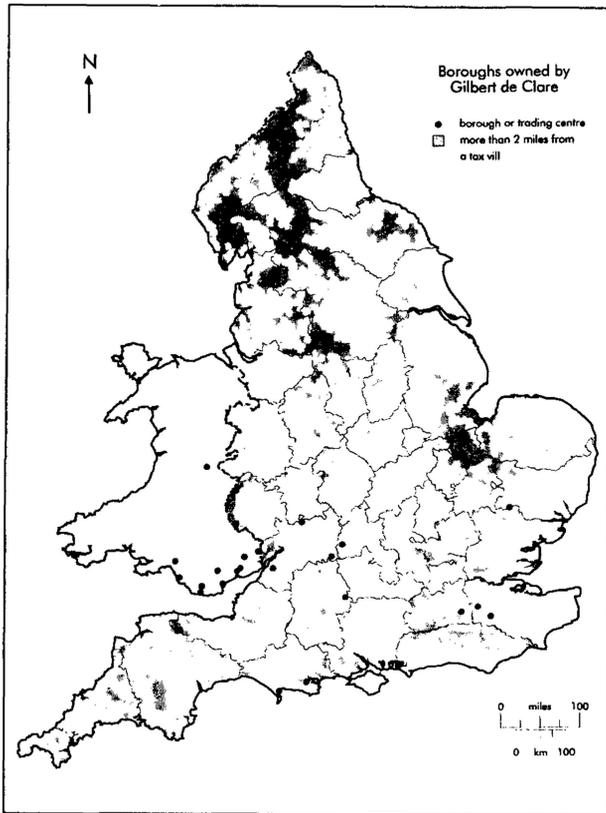


Figure 12

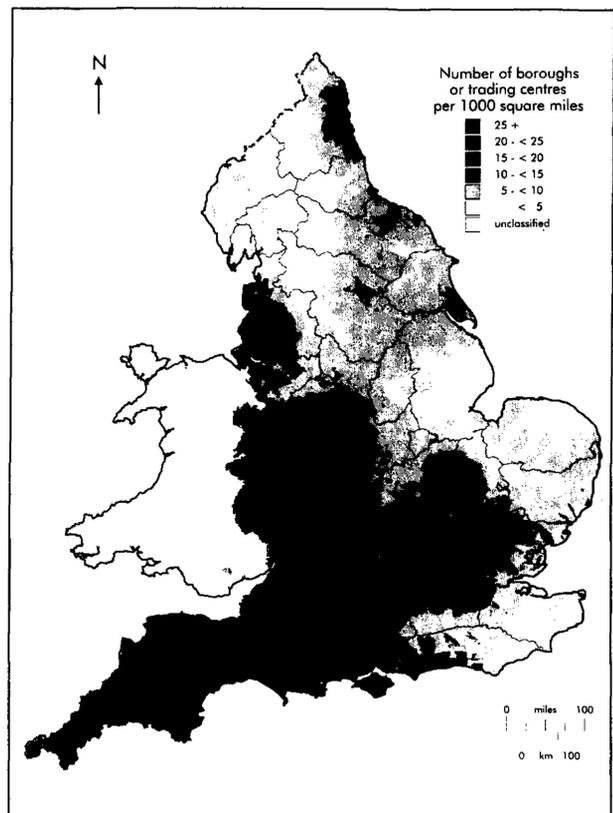


Figure 13

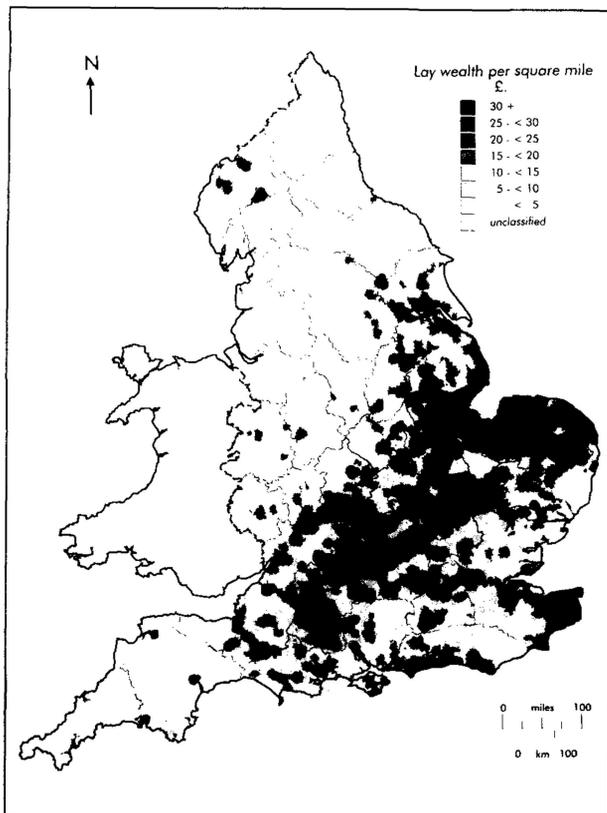


Figure 14

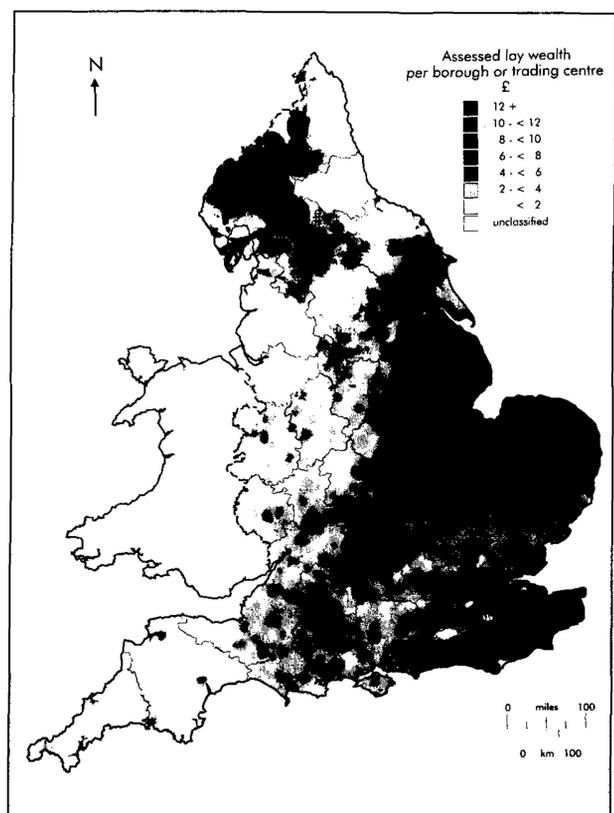


Figure 15

Providing a territorial framework for studying Medieval settlement patterns and early systems of landscape organisation

by David Harvey, Dept. of Geography, University of Exeter

Introduction

That the understanding of medieval settlement and society is greatly enhanced by the provision of a territorial framework which can be used to contextualise such studies can hardly be questioned. The use of realistic territorial schemes in actual investigations of such phenomena and processes however, still seem to be a welcome rarity rather than a regular routine. Many investigations are, of course, often hampered by the lack of useful evidence for producing a legitimate wider territorial scheme. However, where the evidence allows such territorial analysis, a fuller appreciation of wider landscape organisation is always beneficial.

Earlier studies that resorted to over-simplified and uncontextualised territorial schemes that simply surrounded point data with a neat framework of polygons have now been over-taken by a rather more rigorous and sympathetic approach. More recent investigations have seen the need to perceive such sites within their own social and physical landscape rather than relying upon such earlier 'symmetrical-mapping exercises'. More is required however, if we are to understand such earlier social systems and their relationships with their contemporary environment. For instance, Lynn Black's (1995) interesting investigation into the distribution of raths, reveals much useful insights into relationships between landscape organisation and social hierarchy. Raths are probably one of Ireland's most enigmatic and yet potentially enlightening early settlement forms, and for the purposes of statistical description, Black (1995, p. 18) utilises the townland system as a territorial framework that has reasonable claims to antiquity. However, in her analysis of rath distribution and relation to church sites, she resorts to a much more simplified territorial scheme that is reminiscent of earlier polygonal models.

The seemingly insurmountable obstacle of scarce early territorial information and a temptation to simply introduce one's own polygonal matrix has diminished the value of many analyses of early landscape arrangement. Cornwall for instance is a region which contains a large number of mysterious and yet potentially revealing sites, including the 'round' which has often been likened to the Irish rath. My initial interest in trying to uncover the form and nature of early landscape organisation in west Cornwall was attracted to the idea of simply mapping neat and regular units around known sites and in effect, to 'join up the dots'. The pitfalls and unjustified assumptions that are connected with this exercise however, reminded me of a comment by Charles Phythian-Adams (1978, p. 39) when he was examining place names in the English Midlands, that "it might be profitable to look more closely at the distributions of elements within specific territorial frameworks which have some claim to antiquity, rather

than at socially undifferentiated regional maps of drift geology". The importance of examining phenomena such as place names, settlements or other archaeological sites within the context of a socially produced and consumed landscape that was organised in a specific way, highlights both the inadequacies of using simplified territorial matrices and the potential of investigating frameworks 'which have some claim to antiquity'.

In Cornwall, one of the most interesting, potentially revealing and yet so vaguely understood forms of territorial framework is that of the tithing system. Nationally, the judicial tithing system constituted the backbone of Norman law-giving and can be seen as the mechanism through which central government held dominion over the population. In many ways it was a system of compulsory collective responsibility, through which a sort of joint bail was fixed for individuals, not after their arrest for a crime, but rather as a safeguard in anticipation of it. Importantly however, the tithing in Cornwall not only represented an income generating mechanism and form of judicial control, but was overtly territorialised. The Cornish tithing framework appears to be a uniquely systematic and universal territorial device which formed the most basic administrative unit in the medieval period, and was the primary sub-division of the Cornish hundred until the sixteenth century.

Sources from the later medieval and early modern periods confirm the territorial tithing as the vehicle through which various aspects of communal organisation, 'tribute' payment and quasi-independent judicial competence was channelled. As the primary hundredal subdivision, the tithing framework provided the territorial and institutional context which in many ways can be related to the 'vill' in other areas. In Cornwall, judicial documents from the twelfth to sixteenth century together with local estate and manorial records from as late as the mid-eighteenth century were interpreted to produce a relatively accurate map of the complex and diverse territorial divisions of this framework (see Harvey 1996). Some of the tithings appear to cover a wide area, while others cover just a few hectares and many tithings are located in a distinct and cohesive area, while others are found to occupy several detached portions of land. Crucially, this framework was systematically assessed in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, revealing some interesting relationships and opportunities for further interpretation.

The *Extenta Acrarum* documents of 1284 and 1345 assess the tithing framework in terms of 'Cornish acres' (Pool 1981). This term is insufficiently understood, though previous interpretation tends to dwell on the idea that a simple linear relationship can be found between Cornish acres and Statute English acres (see the discussion in Hull,

1971, pp. lixlii). A more socially contextualised interpretation of the Cornish acre however sees a much more fluid relationship between assessment and actual land area. Rather than trying to 'tie down' this assessment to a particular 'real acreage' it is more useful to see the Cornish acre as reflecting a certain level of status within a hierarchy of landscape organisational strategies. Aspects of status, authority and economy are seen within an assessment which alludes to far more than just actual area, while some relation can be seen with the notion of the *terrae unius familiae* that was investigated by Charles-Edwards (1972). Within the assessment scheme, a level of hierarchy can be seen with the existence of a 'three Cornish acre' unit and groups thereof. Almost every tithing assessment figure listed in the thirteenth and fourteenth century copies of the *Extenta Acrarum* documents is a function of three, which alludes to the existence of a 'three acre' unit that was not fully understood by the contemporaries of these documents and which hints at the vestiges of an earlier system of landscape organisation. This proposed system of landscape arrangement, which is outlined in Harvey (forthcoming), reflects the organised division of resources and represents the mechanism through which power was channelled in society, thereby providing an analytical framework for further explorations.

The territorial origins of the later medieval tithing system should be sought within the pre-Norman and even the pre-Saxon context of early medieval Cornwall. A meaningful framework has been provided within which various aspects of economy and society can be investigated. The interpretation of place names and the uncovering of a system of transhumance for instance can be given more meaning with relation to a realistic early system of landscape organisation. In this sense, we have

revealed a very early territorial framework that reflects the complex relationship between society and space at an early period and which can provide a meaningful context within which to place early settlement studies.

The territorial pattern that has been produced is not a 'neat', polygonal and computer generated 'best fit' scheme of units. Instead it is immersed within the evolving territoriality and developing power relationships that impinged upon the division and organisation of landscape resources. Through the acknowledgement of a realistic notion of early landscape arrangement, medieval settlement studies may be contextualised within contemporary social and cultural frameworks. The setting of such work within a territorial framework 'that has some claim to antiquity' therefore is seen as an important and necessary step in our investigations and analyses of earlier societies and their impacts on the landscape.

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Group for the Study of Irish Historic Settlement

The group was founded in 1969 to provide a focus for the different disciplines interested in the field of settlement studies/landscape history and membership is open to all who share a common interest in the history of the Irish landscape from Megalithic graves to modern towns. The activities of the group include the holding of an Annual Conference in May comprising lectures and field trips, focusing on the settlement history of a particular area.

The group also publishes a Newsletter, containing articles on archaeology, historical geography, settlement history and book reviews. This is published twice a year and that for May 1997 included articles on:

'Anglo-Norman Settlement in Connacht in the Thirteenth Century': Lordship and Landownership in two Mayo Baronies, 1550-1630; From Cromwell to William: Land Settlement in South Mayo 1649-1702.

A series of Monographs have also been published under the title of *Irish Settlement Studies* and the latest of these, No. 6 is *Interpreting the Irish Landscape, Explorations in settlement history* by J. H. Andrews.

Membership of the group costs £7 (£5 students) and further information is available from Mr Michael O'Hanrahan, Hon. Secretary, G.S.I.H.S., 12 Oak Road, Dukes Meadows, Kilkenny.

A publication which may also be of interest to members is an annual publication of summaries of excavations in Ireland. Summaries of Archaeological Excavations in Ireland is edited by Isabel Bennett on behalf of the Organisation of Irish Archaeologists and is published by Worldwell Ltd of PO Box 69, Bray, Co. Wicklow at a very reasonable price. This contains summaries of all periods of excavations with details of contributors.

Sources of Information on Medieval Settlement

Having decided to carry out research on your local village or area how do you go about locating relevant historical and archaeological information ?

There are a number of accessible sources of information available both on a local and national level which can be used to further your research.

Your local reference library should be the first stop. This should contain a good collection of books about the local area and a reasonably full set of maps starting from the 1st Edition Ordnance Survey maps of the mid-19th century. The Reference Library often holds archaeological and historical journals and publications, antiquarian books and aerial photographs. The Victoria County History series is particularly useful in gaining an insight into the documentation available for any settlement and covers most of the country.

There should also be a local or county based archaeological or historical society in your area and they may well publish a journal or monograph series containing information of interest. The Reference Library should be able to provide details.

All County Councils, National Parks and unitary authorities hold or have access to a Sites and Monuments Record (S.M.R.); this is a database of known archaeological sites within an area. The information is gathered from excavations and surveys, aerial photographs, chance finds and historical sources such as documents and maps. Information can usually be sent on request or an appointment can be made to view by contacting the relevant Local Government Archaeologist.

Some S.M.R.'s charge for this service. To find out where your local S.M.R. is located, ask at the Reference Library, telephone your local authority, contact the editor or check in Current Archaeology which prints a list of all archaeological sections or units once a year.

Archaeology and Planning departments also hold aerial photographs. These range from the 1940's R.A.F. series and Meridian series taken for census purposes to more recent coverage of individual sites. Aerial photographs are particularly useful for revealing features such as

cropmarks or soil marks which are not visible on the ground and the earlier series show the landscape prior to the large scale development which has occurred since the last war.

Your local archive service may also hold a variety of historical documents of medieval and later date including early maps and the church records of births, deaths and marriages from the area while the local museum service may also hold objects and documents of interest.

There are transcriptions and translations of a wide range of medieval documents including wills and national taxation returns available in a variety of publications and a good reference library or the local university library may hold some of these and be able to tell you where others can be found.

At a national level the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England holds the National Monuments Record (N.M.R.). This consists of three main parts:

the National Archaeological Record (N.A.R.)

the National Building Record (N.B.R.)

the National Library of Aerial Photographs (N.L.A.P.)

They can supply information on request from their catalogues and databases and provide photographic copies of material held in archives although there may be a charge for this. Photographs, drawings and field notes are held and a reference library of over 32,000 books is available.

The records of the Medieval Settlement Research Group are held in Swindon by RCHME and if you wish to use these as well as any other RCHME records then you should contact them at the address below.

NMR Customer Services
National Monuments Record Centre
Kemble Drive
Swindon
SN2 2GZ (Telephone 01793 414707)

Conference on Anglo-Norman England: Culture, Economy and Settlement

A conference organised by Oxford University Dept for Continuing Education, 27th February - 1st March 1998.

This conference will seek to combine architecture, settlement history and historical sources to examine the nature of English society in the 11th and 12th centuries

and to examine the extent of the transition instituted by the Norman Conquest. For further details of the conference contact Ms R. Cottis, OUDCE, Rewley House, 1 Wellington Square, Oxford OX1 2JA.

Fieldwork and Excavation in 1996

ENGLAND

GLOUCESTERSHIRE

Hazelton (SP 080180)

Fieldwork has continued on this Cotswold village, by D. Aldred and C. Dyer. A plan has been completed of extensive earthworks to the south of the village, which consist partly of tofts and building foundations from a shrunken section of the medieval village, and partly of building remains and large rectangular enclosures from a manorial complex. This is likely to have been the manor house of the monks of Winchcombe Abbey who were the lords of the largest manor in the later medieval period, though elsewhere in the village must lie the remains of the manor house of a gentry family, the Halls. A dominant feature of the earthworks was a prominent lynchet which served as a boundary for both the tofts of the village and the manorial site, which may be of early origin, perhaps even pre-medieval. A prehistoric or Roman origin for this earthwork would not be unlikely in view of the extensive evidence for settlements and cultivation in the parish. Fieldwork and documentary research continues.

HAMPSHIRE

Work undertaken by Hampshire Archaeology Ltd. (the trading company of Test Valley Archaeological Trust), Orchard House, Orchard Street, Romsey, Hampshire, SO51 8DP. (01794) 515775

Summary by Charlotte Matthews

Broughton (SU 352 213)

Since May 1996 a watching brief has been undertaken on the Southern Water Sewage Pipeline between the villages of Horsebridge and Broughton. Two medieval house platforms were discovered in a field to the east of Broughton. Several courses of flint wall were excavated from beneath a layer of demolition rubble and decayed chalk cob. Two areas of tile collapse on a chalk floor and internal wall divisions were also investigated. An earthwork survey has been undertaken in the surrounding fields which shows that the structure extended beyond the easement boundaries. Finds associated with the structure include C13th-C14th pottery with one Saintonge sherd, a domestic knife blade, two pieces of a nest of bronze weights, a bronze brooch and a nearly complete millstone. A piece of feramenta may be from a window mullion. The evidence suggests that the structure was originally built in chalk cob with a clay tiled roof. The other platform appeared to be an ancillary building to this structure.

HEREFORD AND WORCESTER

(further survey work on DMV churches and chapels of the South Worcestershire and North Gloucestershire area see MSRG (10) 1995, p16 for interim report on project)

Grafton (SO 986 373) is a hamlet of Beckford. Today it consists of a string of houses and cottages flanking a deeply incised lane or hollow-way, linking Upper, Middle and Lower Farms. Of these three units, Lower Farm appears to be the oldest (probably of pre-16th century

date). Grafton chapel (dedication unknown) (SO 9863 3730) was only rediscovered in 1925, it is an early Norman (c. 1100-1150) foundation and originally consisted of a nave and chancel. The chapel was described as derelict in c. 1543 and during the 16th or early 17th century it was converted into a thatched cottage and a first storey was inserted. Conversion also involved demolishing the chancel, blocking the chancel arch, rebuilding the south nave wall and adding an open-hearth fireplace (Watson 1996). The impression is that during the 15th or 16th century Grafton shrank down to one farmstead and a few cottages and since then has only expanded to three farmsteads plus associated cottages.

References

Watson, B. 1996 'Grafton chapel'. The Recorder Autumn 1996 16-17 (Worcs. Archaeol. Soc. Newsletter).

LEICESTERSHIRE

Peatling Magna, Arnesby Lane (SP594926) Harborough District

A desk-top assessment was undertaken, by G. Taylor of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire), to determine the archaeological implications of proposed development of land in the centre of Peatling Magna village.

Prehistoric artefacts have been found about 1.5km northeast of the site, in the only part of the parish where fieldwalking has previously been undertaken. Consequently, it is probable that this distribution reflects the pattern of field survey in that area, rather than any clear focus of prehistoric activity.

A probable Romano-British settlement is located 0.5km to the east of the proposed development area, on the opposite side of the stream that borders the village. However, few finds of Roman date have been made nearer to the investigation area and it seems probable that the Romano-British site did not extend westwards beyond the stream.

On the basis of place-name evidence, Peatling Magna has, in the past, been seen as a settlement of probable early Anglo-Saxon date. However, this theory is now largely discredited and, moreover, there is virtually no physical evidence for an early Anglo-Saxon presence in the parish.

Medieval pottery has previously been found just to the north of the site and a moderate quantity of artefacts of late post-medieval date (c. 1800-1950) was observed on the northern part of the area during the site visit. Settlement earthworks of probable medieval date occur extensively around the east side of the modern village. It is probable, therefore, that the site falls within an area of medieval and later settlement activity. The higher status medieval establishments represented by the church and manor house are located at the southeastern corner of the village. This may reflect a localised contraction of the settlement since the medieval period, or, perhaps, a degree of elitist separation and exclusion of general settlement activity from this area.

Gary Taylor

LINCOLNSHIRE

Barrowby, Casthorpe Pipeline (SK873358 - SK857359) South Kesteven District

A watching brief was undertaken by staff of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire) during excavation of a pipetrench through known deserted medieval settlement sites at Casthorpe, near Barrowby. The investigation revealed several stone walls and surfaces that probably constitute remains of the abandoned settlement of West Casthorpe. Pottery of 13th-14th date was also recovered during the reconnaissance.

Gary Taylor

Bicker, Donington Road (TF225373) Boston District

M. Dymond of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire) supervised an evaluation of a proposed development area in Bicker. The site was located in an area of medieval remains, including numerous salt production sites, and extant buildings of 16th and 17th century date.

Geophysical survey recorded magnetic anomalies considered to represent pits, ditches and modern land drains. Trenching revealed several ditches and gullies of medieval and later date. Additionally, a pit containing burnt soils and probably associated with salt extraction was identified.

Mark Dymond

Boston, High Street (TF327439) Boston district

An evaluation, supervised by N. Herbert of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire), was undertaken in an area of numerous finds and structures of medieval date at 17/19 High Street, Boston. Although the site was found to have cellars up to 2m deep, beneath these were well-preserved, highly organic deposits of 13th/14th century date. The corner of a medieval brick structure and wooden stakes, perhaps representing fences and also dating to the 13th/14th century, were revealed.

Neil Herbert

Bourne, Potters Close (TF103199) South Kesteven District

An evaluation was undertaken, by N. Herbert of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire) to determine the archaeological implications of proposed development on land in Bourne. Previous investigations in the immediate vicinity had produced evidence for occupation and pottery production during the medieval period.

A sequence of deposits from the 14th century onwards was revealed and two virtually complete 17th century jugs, both badly fired and likely to indicate the presence of a pottery kiln, were recovered. A stone floor surface and footings of a post-medieval barn were also identified. Abundant medieval and later pottery was retrieved, together with fragments of metalwork, worked limestone masonry and animal bone.

Neil Herbert

Kirton, High Street (TF305386) (Boston District)

An evaluation, supervised by P. Cope-Faulkner of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire) was undertaken on land at 17 High Street, Kirton. Mentioned in the Domesday survey of 1086, Kirton was an important medieval town and just west of the site is the 12th century parish church.

Natural silts, perhaps deposited in a creek or a pond, were the lowest levels encountered. This was gradually filled during the Late Saxon and early medieval period by a mixture of dumping and natural silting. A large pit of Late Saxon date and filled with animal manure and charred crop processing residues suggest that the investigation area was in or close to a farmyard.

Waste from medieval horn working was recovered, though flooding, perhaps in the 13th-14th century, markedly restricted the use of the area during the period. Renewed activity occurred in the 19th century when a number of dwellings were constructed along the High Street frontage. The garden walls and external yards of these houses were located, together with a number of refuse pits.

Paul Cope-Faulkner

Sleaford, Hoplands Bridge (TF079462) North Kesteven District

A desk-top assessment was undertaken, by G. Taylor of Archaeological Project Services (Heritage Lincolnshire) to determine the archaeological implications of proposed development of land on the east side of Sleaford.

The area lies at the core of the Late Iron Age and Roman settlement of Sleaford where a prehistoric track, later a Roman road, crossed the River Lea. This track/road forms the western boundary of the site.

A church, indirectly referred to in the Domesday Book, was located by the western edge of the site and it is likely that the cemetery associated with the church partially falls within the investigation area. Additionally, a manorhouse was constructed on land immediately west of the proposed development site during the medieval period, though it is unlikely that manorial remains extend into the area of interest. Documentary evidence suggests that a watermill was located in the proximity of the proposed development area, though the exact location of this mill is unknown. Located east of the town centre, it is probable that much of the investigation site was open agricultural land during the later medieval and post-medieval periods. In consequence, archaeological deposits present on site are likely to be in a good state of preservation. In the mid-nineteenth century, a railway track was laid across the area and now forms the eastern boundary of the proposed development site. Since the 1960s development has increasingly encroached on the southern part of the site.

Gary Taylor

Cawston (TG 136 238)

Christopher Barringer has begun work on Cawston (TG 136 238) and has identified the subsidiary settlement of Alvington. This was listed as a DMV by Allison in 1955 with a possible site at TG 140 255. The identification was

based on a comment by Rye ('Norfolk Topography'): 'A large village of this name is said to have existed in Docking Farm, Cawston'. Docking Farm is actually at TG 154 261. The evidence of 16th-century maps and documents shows that Alvington Street was also known as Eastgate and was associated with Alvington Green and Alvington Field nearby. Eastgate still exists at TG 148 230.

Westacre (TF 780 153)

Alan Davison has begun a fieldwalking and documentary survey of Westacre (TF 780 153). Four fieldbooks dating from 1432 to 1598 suggest that the village was in a loose grid pattern with four open fields. A separate 16th-century survey of Cuthorpe shows that the settlement of that name south of the River Nar had virtually disappeared. Fieldwalking seems to confirm the shape of Westacre and suggests that a northern fringe of occupation, originally Late Saxon, has been lost. Scattered pottery finds around the village point to a Middle Saxon site as yet undetected. Iron Age pottery is scattered widely over higher ground about 1km north of the village. Two Romano-British concentrations have been found, one of them in Cuthorpe.

Books

Margeson, S., Ayers, B., and Heywood, S., (eds) 'A Festival of Norfolk Archaeology', 1996. Norfolk and Norwich Archaeological Society 150th Anniversary Publication.

Articles

Barringer, C., 'Cawston in the Sixteenth Century: a Topographical Introduction', *The Annual* (Bulletin of the Norfolk Archaeological and Historical Research Group), No. 5, 1996, 37-42.

Cushion, B., 'The Norfolk Earthworks Survey', *The Annual*, No. 5, 1996, 30-36.

Davison, A., 'The Manors of West Walton', *Norfolk Archaeology*, 42, 1996, 339-343.

Hall, J. J., 'Excavations at Attlebridge 1989', *Norfolk Archaeology*, 42, 1996, 296-320.

Hammond, J., & Barnett, S., 'From Fring to Heacham: The Exploitation of a Small Medieval Water-way', *The Annual*, No. 5, 1996, 24-29.

The following sites were surveyed during 1996 by Brian Cushion, mostly at a scale of 1:1000. This continuing project seeks to record all earthwork sites of schedulable quality, plus other significant sites, either previously unrecorded or with features not on existing surveys. The surveys and full analytical descriptions have been deposited in the Sites & Monuments Record.

Binham Priory: Site 2081, (TF982399)

Features additional to those of the well known parish church and claustral range, as displayed on the information panels, have been recorded. These include further building outlines to the west of the claustral range and enclosures extending eastwards from it. Valley floor earthworks to the north include masonry fragments probably associated with a water mill as well as fragmentary and subdued channels and fish ponds.

Bixley: Site 9660, (TG260049)

Part of this DMV was being threatened with "agricultural improvements" and although partially mapped in 1966 and published in *East Anglian Archaeology* 1982, Vol 14, pp 91-94, the survey has been extended and remapped to provide consistency of approach. A series of former

roadways, enclosures and scattered groups of tofts probably indicates the final late-medieval and/or early post-medieval phase of this settlement. These are the best preserved medieval settlement earthworks in the eastern half of the county.

Bixley (Arminghall): Sites 6098 & 9877, (TG254045)

These adjacent sites are to the east of the present village. Site 6098 consists of a moat adjoining a small common and delineating the site of the former Old Hall.

Site 9877 has a roadway and enclosures adjoining Site 6098 which may well be partly related to it, although a nearby separate toft was occupied into the 18thC. Further roadways to the east include an earlier line of the Norwich to Bungay road in the then separate medieval parish of Bixley. A fragment of a probable toft is adjacent to it, with a nearby roadway formerly linking to Site 9660. Most enclosures in this eastern section of the site appear to be part of a field pattern of probable early post-medieval date.

Bylaugh: Site 21076, (TF026179)

A ditched enclosure with building platform and adjacent causeway, as well as other nearby enclosure fragments, suggests an isolated medieval farmstead.

Claxton: Site 10304, (TG335037).

Much of an oval moated enclosure surround the fragments of a fortified house adjacent to the present manor house. Further earthworks, particularly to the south are rather enigmatic, but include other enclosure boundaries.

Cranworth: Site 25910, (TF988058)

A hollow way and a series of small subrectangular enclosures straddle the former boundary with the medieval parish of Letton. Medieval pottery on adjacent arable land indicates a likely period for the features.

Crimpleham: Site 29793, (TF646023)

A roadway and ditched enclosures represent part of the site of Coldham's Manor, with a building platform probably that of a barn.

Denver: Site 2465, (TF616014)

A small moated site to the south of the present hall has been shown to have had an outer enclosure, whilst some subdivision is recorded in adjacent land to the south and west.

East Walton: Site 30996, (TF748153)

At least two medieval tofts with building platforms, as well as adjacent enclosures indicate an area of common edge settlement.

Fulmodeston (Barney): Site 12158, (TF998320)

A moat with rather degraded leats and adjacent channels, has a smaller attached enclosure.

Gateley: Site 12160, (TF959241)

This scheduled site consists of two ditched enclosures to the north of the Hall which have a common boundary on the west side, formerly thought to have been a hollow way, although now considered rather narrow for that

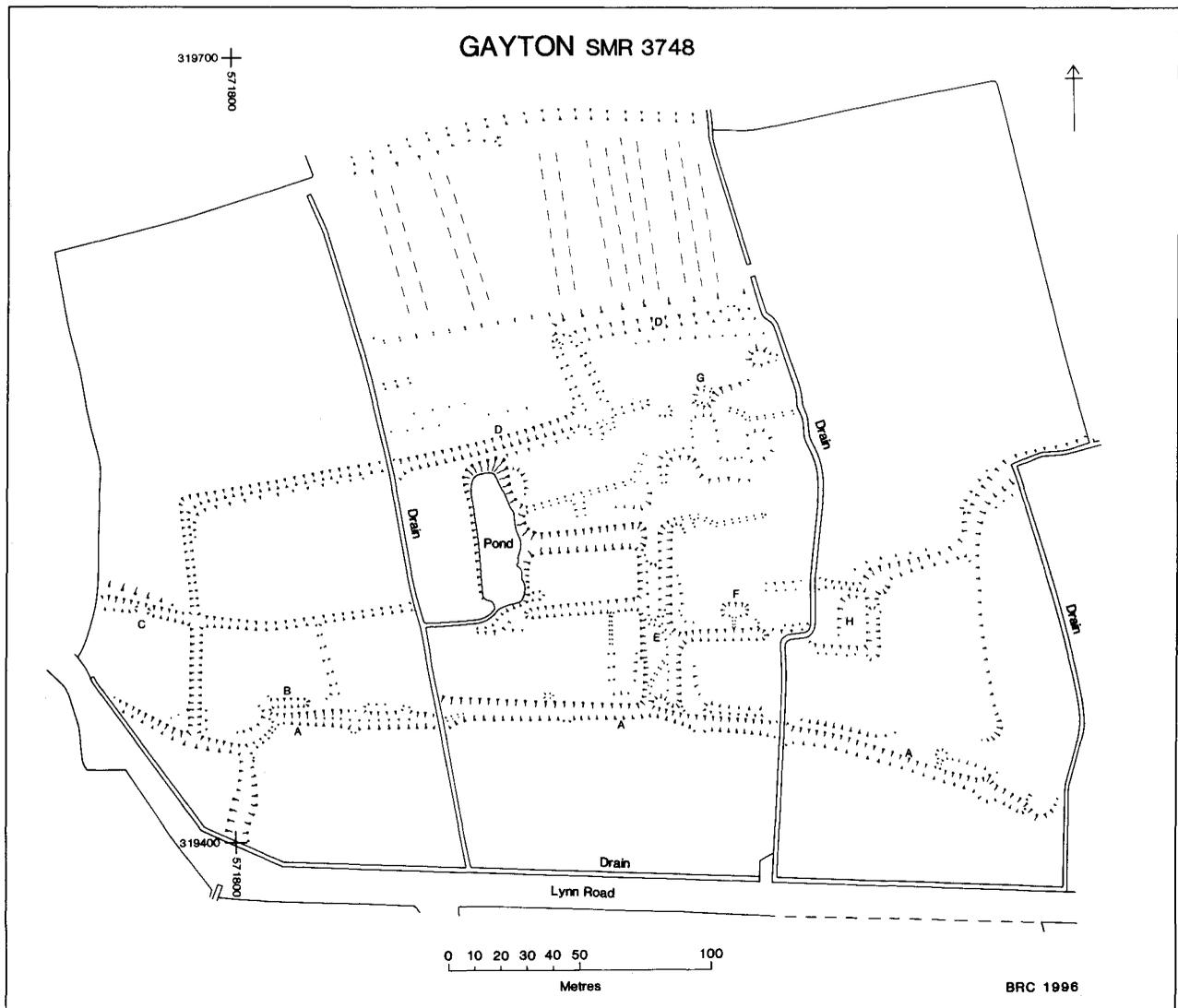


Figure 16

purpose. The enclosures are thought to represent a small area of medieval settlement. An area of probable post-medieval ridge and furrow abuts the enclosures, and a small square ditched and banked platform suggests a landscape feature within the small park.

Gayton: Site 3748, (TF719195)

This scheduled site at the west end of the village comprises subrectangular ditched enclosures, ponds, slight platforms and a probable roadway, abutting the northern boundary ditch of a former common enclosed in 1813.

The central earthworks may well represent one substantial property, possibly manorial, with adjacent enclosures including probable tofts (Figure 16). A hollow way (E) leads from the common edge boundary (A) towards an area of slight platforms (G). A N-S ditched causeway with linking E-W ditches (D) provides access to remnants of ridge and furrow to the north.

Great Cressingham: Site 31839, (TF844016)

A series of medieval tofts, some with platforms, and bounded by a hollow way to the north-west, is located on a low terrace of the River Wissey to the SW of the village.

Great Cressingham: Sites 4687, 4688 & 31848, (TF852020)

Three contiguous sites have been surveyed together, and form a 500m long series of earthworks on the south-east side of the valley of the River Wissey to the north of the village.

Site 4687 comprises the double moated site of a manor belonging to the Prior and Bishop of Norwich until the dissolution, with a fish pond within a small enclosure to the north. The northernmost of the two moated enclosures, now garden, may have been the earlier occupied area.

Site 4688 is the area to the south-west which includes, enclosures, two building outlines, further ponds and a roadway, much of which is associated with Site 4687. Further south-west from the moated site are two further ponds, lower level enclosures and rear boundaries of tofts formerly facing the present village street, all on an adjacent property, itself possibly a manorial site.

Site 31848 comprises features to the east of the moated area. These include a former line of the village street as a hollow way, with abutting enclosures, and another hollow

way leading from this towards the northernmost of the two moats of Site 4687. Medieval pottery has been noted near the most prominent of the building platforms of Site 4688, and within one enclosure of Site 31848.

Gressenhall: Site 7292, (TF949147)

This site comprises ditched enclosures, one incomplete and containing the former farmhouse, abutting a ditch which formed the boundary with Sparrow Green.

Harling (East Harling Old Hall): Site 6029, (TL991868)

There are limited remains of a late-medieval/early post-medieval building above ground. A moated site to the east, with an adjoining fishpond enclosure, suggests an earlier medieval presence, confirmed by surface medieval pottery fragments. Some evidence exists for the probable kitchen garden as well as other garden boundary features associated with the mansion which was reportedly demolished in the early 19th C.

Further earthworks to the west of the building remains include a rather enigmatic platform with a considerable amount of early post-medieval roof tile in the vicinity. Further investigation, including geophysical work funded by the owner, is under way to attempt to ascertain the relationships of the various parts of the site.

Hilgay: Site 24136, (TF617978)

This comprises one of the largest surviving areas of medieval ridge and furrow in the county, totalling 19 hectares. It is situated on the west-facing slope of the island upon which the village is located. Although some of it has been ploughed and reseeded in recent times, most of the area is clearly seen as E-W aligned strips, but at the southern end where the slope is more N-S, the strips follow this alignment and are the most prominent.

Langley with Hardley, (Langley Abbey): Site 10344, (TG363028)

A considerable complex of earthworks have been recorded within the precinct surrounding the partially excavated claustral range. An entrance roadway approaches the gatehouse of the inner court from the north, with enclosures and building outlines on either side. Further smaller enclosures are immediately to the north-east of the claustral range, with two ditches linking to those of a ditched causeway heading across marshes towards the River Yare. Two substantial building outlines are seen in the south-east of the precinct, along with ponds and rather degraded enclosure boundaries. The precinct boundary is a well defined ditch to the south and west, much of it abutting the former Langley Green.

Methwold: Site 24980, (TL728947)

Part of a complex of enclosures linking to those adjacent to a former manor of the Duchy of Lancaster were recorded, and suggest possible incomplete tofts and associated enclosures. The bulk of the site, including fishponds, is too overgrown to enable a completely consistent survey to be undertaken at present.

North Elmham: Site 1014, (TF989216)

Substantial moats enclose the remains of the medieval Bishop's Manor House, itself using the late 11thC Episcopal Chapel as a base. Some internal features are noted as well as fragments of an outer enclosure to the east.

Raynham: Site 28647, (TF872258)

A wooded moated enclosure, with a slight internal platform producing a few surface sherds of medieval pottery, is according to Alan Davison, the likely site of Havile's Manor

Ryston: Site 2453, (TF620017)

This is located adjacent to the church on the north-western edge of Ryston Park. It comprises to the north and east of the church, three adjoining areas of N-S aligned ridge and furrow on three sides of a subrectangular enclosure, probably a toft. A well defined hollow way bounds the site to the east, whilst south of the church, some rather degraded ridge and furrow is noted along with landscape ponds and a causeway denoting part of a former drive to the hall.

Seething: Sites 10442 & 10443, (TM321979)

These adjoining sites are to the east of Seething church. Site 10442 comprises four cruciform pattern ditched enclosures abutting the common edge ditch near the church. Within one enclosure is a circular ring ditch which is assumed to be a former pound, given the field name of Pound Close.

Site 10443 contains the site of the former Old Hall and has a building platform with medieval brick evident on one edge, as well as a series of incomplete enclosure boundaries which probably represent subdivision of the gardens. One pond is within this area, whilst a series of very subdued and partially infilled depressions to the south may represent ornamental or fish ponds.

Shouldham: Site 4283, (TF678089)

A series of subrectangular enclosures, some terraced into the west-facing slope to the west of the church, have a substantial rather incongruous E-W ditched causeway as one of the dividing features. These may be closes associated with one substantial property, rather than tofts. Slight ridge and furrow is noted in the south of the site, whilst a roadway leads from the church westwards towards a series of tofts facing onto Eastgate Street.

Shouldham Priory: Site 4255, (TF679094)

The earthworks of this partially ploughed site comprise a complex of subrectangular ditched enclosures in the southern part of the precinct. The southern boundary of the entrance roadway is recorded, extending from the western precinct boundary bank. Within the enclosures, one possible building platform is noted, along with various ponds and depressions some of which look likely surface quarrying.

Sloley: Site 29501, (TG294244)

This small site has boundary banks which form part of a medieval common edge settlement extending into the adjacent arable land.

Stow Bedon (Breckles): Site 11929, (TL959945)

Situated between Breckles Church and Hall, a hollow way and various enclosures, including tofts, is considered to be part of the medieval settlement of Great Breckles.

Stradsett: Site 17492, (TF662054)

This is arguably the best preserved ridge and furrow in the county, covering 10.5 hectares to the west of Stradsett Park where other much less well defined strips are noted. Various alignments are recorded, with some headlands corresponding to field boundaries shown on estate maps from the mid-17thC onwards.

Wendling Abbey: Site 7281, (TF939128)

Much of the southern half of the claustral range survives as degraded but recognisable building outlines, either parchmarks, ridges or masonry, substantially robbed prior to a survey of 1810 reproduced in *Norfolk Archaeology* 1859, Vol 5, pp 38-40. Further outlines are recorded to the east and south of those surveyed in 1810, as well as earlier watercourse channels, which connected with a now mostly ploughed out subrectangular moated enclosure to the south-east. This latter feature is a possible manorial site pre-dating the abbey foundation.

West Dereham Abbey: Site 4396, (TF662003)

The earthwork survey of the southern half of the precinct complements an air photograph plot reproduced in *East Anglian Archaeology* 1978. Vol 8, and which most importantly shows cropmarks within the northern part of the site, which has been ploughed and reseeded or is arable land. The earthworks comprise fishponds and associated channels and enclosures, within the double ditched enclosure which surrounds the whole site and which is the park boundary of the late 17thC mansion that stood on the site of the major buildings.

Whinburgh: Site 31712, (TG008093)

This small site has part of a medieval common edge ditch with adjacent ditched enclosures.

Wormegay Priory: Site 3456, (TF652126)

The two major features are a substantial trapezoidal moated enclosure within which the inner court buildings are thought to have been and in which a farmstead existed until the 1960s. and a fishpond complex to the west. Medieval brickwork is noted where the buildings existed and some degraded internal depressions, perhaps indicate ponds or garden features. The fishpond complex has a bounding bank and ditch as its southern boundary, whilst one very degraded enclosure boundary extends northwards into an obviously ploughed and reseeded area.

Yaxham: Site 22444, (TG015095)

A series of ditched enclosures, depressions and channels may represent a pre-19thC landscape after woodland clearance and resultant enclosure. The more irregular features are considered of likely natural origin, with attempts at drainage and some surface quarrying.

Yaxham: Site 31711, (TG015096)

A narrow strip of grassland has evidence of a former common edge and associated linear features which are truncated enclosure boundaries.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE

Brigstock Little Park (SP944831)

The renovation and extension of a derelict 18th century house in Brigstock little Park was watched by Burl Bellamy and Gill Johnston in 1995/6. The house stands within an area of earthworks which were surveyed in 1982 (Bellamy, Foster & Johnston 1983), these consist of banks, ditches, building platforms and rabbit warrens, but it has always been uncertain if the house stands on the same site as the park lodge shown on a map of 1602 (CPM 40 Hatfield House).

When this area of former woodland was emparked for Queen Philippa in 1348, instructions were given 'to make dykes and deer leaps and lodges'. In 1416 a commission refers to 'the new work of the king's lodge of Akwellsyk in the Little Park of Brigstock', and an extensive account roll of 1423, listing the work carried out and the materials used, also refers to the throwing down and sorting of tiles and timber on the old house, sorting the old walls and clearing the foundations. This new lodge may well be the building shown on the map of 1602.

Inspection of service trenches to the north of the present house revealed an extensive destruction layer consisting mostly of Collyweston roof slates and some fragments of green glazed ridge tile. Trenches for foundations, adjoining the north side of the house, uncovered a 1m deep layer of building rubble with a number of blocks of masonry including mullions and sections of door jambs together with painted wall plaster and a fragment of glazed floor tile decorated with a swan. To the east of the house a water service trench passed through ground made up to a depth of 1.5m, this appears to have been the upcast from a linear pond known as 'the cress bed' which is parallel to the east side of the house and could well be the remains of a moat. Pottery from the site was mostly 15th century with a few sherds of 13th/14th century green glazed Stanion type ware. A service trench, north west of the house, destroyed a small Roman urn containing cremated bones. Previous fieldwork around the lodge site discovered roman pottery in the adjoining field, in the stream bed and in the upcast from rabbit holes and mole hills. Early/ Middle Saxon pottery was also found on the higher ground above the lodge.

Bellamy, B., Foster, P., and Johnston, G. 1983. 'The Royal Deer Parks of Brigstock, an archaeological landscape survey', in *South Midlands Archaeology*, 15-19.

Southwick (TL 020 921)

Topsoil stripping of a vacant plot adjoining the vicarage in Southwick exposed the 1m wide walls of a substantial medieval building measuring 17m x 8m. This was excavated by Burl Bellamy and Gill Johnston over a period of nine months in 1996 after the developer kindly postponed building work on the site to continue on an adjoining plot.

The earliest feature on the site was a quarry pit for ironstone, this contained a roasting hearth and may have been contemporary with a 10th/11th century ironsmelting site excavated on the opposite side of the road in 1982. A second quarry pit, infilled with domestic refuse and building materials, was dated by pottery to the 12th/13th centuries. This pit was backfilled immediately prior to the construction of the first phase building, causing considerable subsidence of the floor levels and features within.

The first phase building, 1250-1275, was 12m x 6m internally and contained a large hearth 3.25m x 1.5m towards the east end, this was constructed of re-used stone roof slates set on edge. The south wall of the building had been robbed out and destroyed by later phases but a remaining fragment of a possible wall junction was found to have a stone piscina drain in situ at the base. In phase two, early 14th century, a large central post pit and an external stair turret suggest that an upper storey had been added.

Phase three, late 14th century, heralded the apparent downgrading of the building, with non ferrous metalworking taking place inside. Five small hearths along with a casting pit for copper alloy objects was found together with mould fragments and numerous copper alloy droplets scattered around the pit. A small lead furnace also survived towards the east end. Considerable alterations took place at the end of the 14th century with the conversion of the building into a kitchen and brewhouse, the south west corner was completely restructured with ovens being built into the thickness of the wall. The building appears to have been reduced in size to 8.5m x 5.5m at this time by the addition of a wall towards the east end, placed centrally along this wall was a circular oven with a flue passing through the wall. At the west end, the stair turret was blocked off by an infill wall and what appears to have been a boundary wall was added outside the same end of the building. In this same period a further building was added close to the south side but it was only possible to excavate a corner and part of the north and west walls.

By the mid 15th century, the kitchen had gone out of use and a new clay floor was laid over the ovens. A small oven was also constructed in what may have been an ancillary building at the east end. The building finally went out of use sometime after 1475, the south wall being robbed out and a large pit dug into the south east corner of the structure. It is unclear when, but at sometime, the ground on the north side of the building, which sloped down to the stream, was quarried away and a retaining wall was added to the outside of the north wall. Staffordshire slip wares, buried beneath the tumble down of the walls, suggest that this had probably taken place prior to the 17th century. A map of 1600/10 shows that all trace of the building had disappeared by this time although the line of the north wall remained as the boundary of the plot and another building stood on the south side of the plot, fronting onto the street. A later map shows that by 1794 the plot was empty and has remained so until the present.

The proximity of the building to the former vicarage together with the piscina drain and also a reused fragment

of a stone altar, built into a late 14th century wall, all suggest that the building had an ecclesiastical connection. The rectory and advowson were held by the Priory of Huntingdon from the 12th century until the dissolution and references occur to the vicar's manse in 1277 and 1427. Reference is also made to the prior's bailiff at Southwick in 1329 so we should not lose sight of the fact that other than the vicars residence and barns the medieval village would have held the bailiff's house, tithe barn and probably a whole range of rectorial buildings, perhaps not unlike a manorial complex.

Fieldwalking organised by the Department of Adult Education of the University of Leicester has shown how, at a time of rising population, planned additions were made to villages in the 12th- 13th centuries, or how, in one case, an entirely new nucleated settlement within an existing field system was brought into being. A. E. Brown

Hothorpe (SP 667852)

The village of Hothorpe lay in Northamptonshire but nevertheless formed part of the parish of Theddingworth, just across the county boundary (the river Welland) in Leicestershire. At Domesday there is one Northamptonshire reference to it, with a single sokeman with half a plough attributed to St Edmunds Abbey, but two of the Theddingworth entries could at least in part have belonged here, a single villein with half a plough belonging to Gundwin under the Countess Judith, and seven sokemen with one and a half ploughs attributed to Norman under Earl Aubrey of Northumbria. It is doubtful whether anything which could be called a manor existed there in 1086. There are references to a manor and to manorial lords in the 14th and 15th centuries, but what all this amounted to in terms of a demesne and dependant tenants is unknown; the role of lordly influence in shaping the plan of the place is therefore not clear. Fifty seven people paid the poll tax in 1377 (K. J. Allison *et al*, *The Deserted Villages of Northamptonshire*, Leicester University Press, 1966, 41).

There were nine families still living at Hothorpe in 1564. The county historian Bridges recorded twenty houses in

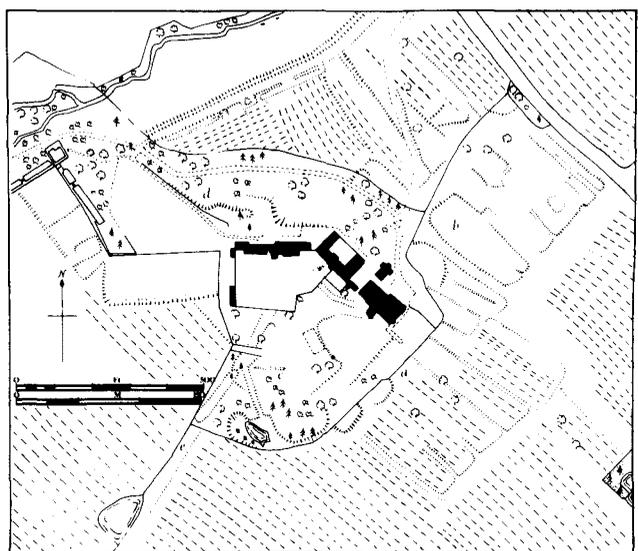


Figure 17: Hothorpe, Northamptonshire. Earthworks before destruction by ploughing

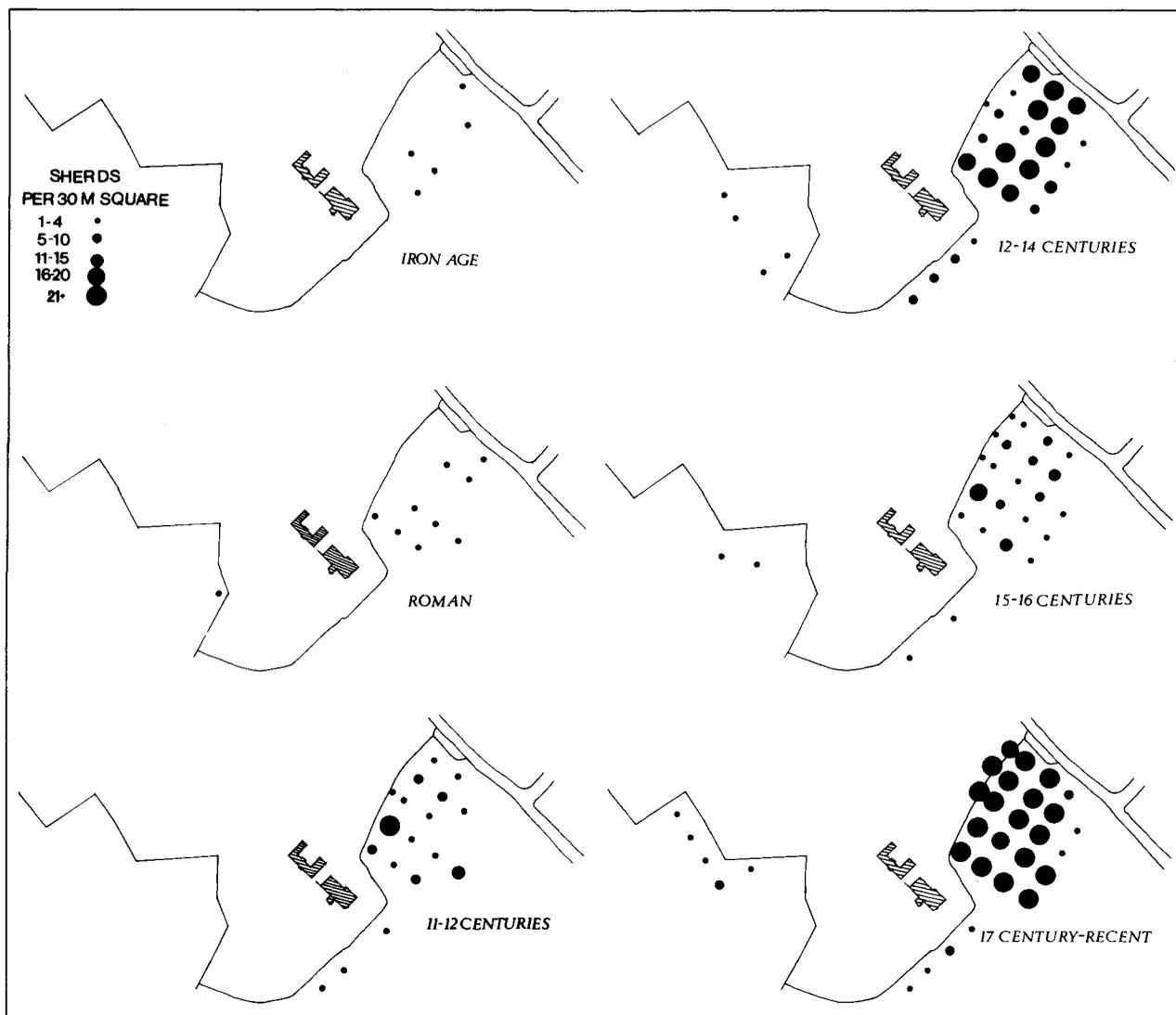


Figure 18: Hothorpe: fieldwalking results

the early 18th century. In 1788 Hothorpe was bought by William Cook. His son John demolished the existing manor house, which lay nearer the river, c1801, and built the present Hall. In 1830-1 John Cook diverted the original road from Sibbertoft, so that it ran to the east of the new house, and started to clear the remaining cottages to make a park, but on a map of 1832 four houses were still there. A map of 1882 shows that the process of emparkment was complete (*The Victoria History of the Counties of England. A History of the County of Leicester, Vol 4, Gartree Hundred*, London, 1964, 313-4).

Until recently, the land to the south and east of the Hall was grass, with the rather battered earthworks of part of the village visible (Figure 17); the house sites at (a) had clearly been set on earlier ridge and furrow, those at (b) possibly so. This land has now been ploughed over and the opportunity was taken to systematically walk it, with the following results (Figure 18);

(a) The group of crofts at (a) sat on an occupation site of Iron Age (shelly scored pottery) and Roman date (one Samian fragment, abraded grey wares and a piece of Derbyshire Ware).

(b) Both sets of earthworks produced shelly wares and a piece of Stamford ware of the 11th - 12th centuries, with the bulk of the pieces of 12th century date.

(c) There were many fragments of shelly and sandy wares of the 12th-13th centuries and a smaller number of late medieval grey and buff wares.

(d) There was a considerable quantity of late pottery, salt glazed stonewares, various black, brown and yellow glazed wares, trailed slipware, porcelain, pearl ware, and Staffordshire earthenwares, some of which could be attributed to the surviving cottages of the early 19th century and their predecessors, but some of which would seem to represent rubbish from the Hall.

The main point of significance to arise from this fieldwalking is the demonstration that the two blocks of ploughed crofts concerned represent well-ordered additions to the plan of Hothorpe of (probable) 12th century date, and that the original settlement, of whatever form, lies below the Hall with its former stables, dog kennels and gardens.

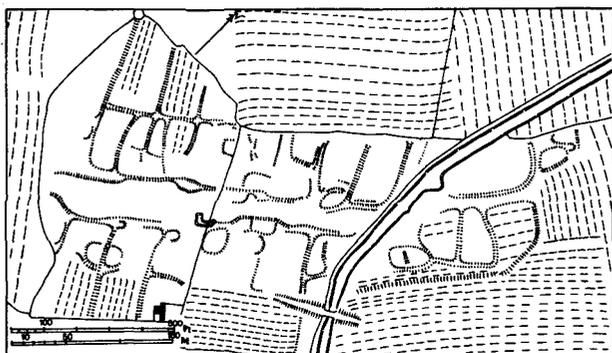


Figure 19: Down, Stanford on Avon parish, Northamptonshire. Sketch of earthworks before destruction by ploughing

Down (SP 615801)

The destruction by ploughing of this deserted settlement in 1963-5 was recorded by Professor St Joseph (Air reconnaissance: recent results 26, *Antiquity*, 45, 1971, 298-9). It lies within the parish of Stanford on Avon, owned by Selby Abbey in the Middle Ages, and was certainly there in 1229, when it was referred to in the abbey's Coucher Book (J. T. Fowler (ed), *The Coucher Book of Selby* Yorkshire Archaeological and Topographical Association, Vol 2, 1892, 338). People living there are said to have held virgates and bovates of land (*ibid.* 261), but there is no hint in the documents that Down had a separate field system from that of Stanford on Avon.

The earthwork plan (Figure 19) represents a sketch worked up from aerial photographs. The village shows every sign of having been placed on earlier ridge and furrow.

Systematic fieldwalking produced shelly pottery and a piece of developed Stamford ware of 12th century date, nothing earlier, and some quantity of medieval shelly and sandy wares. There were pieces of hard 15th century quartz tempered ware and of Midland Purple, with more

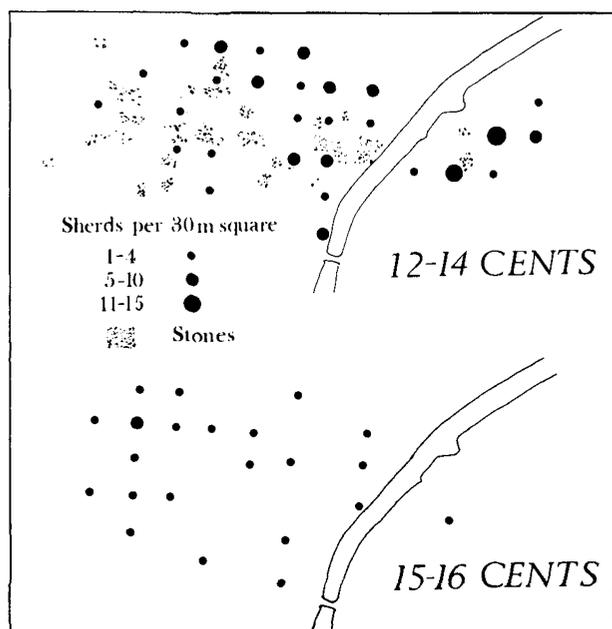


Figure 20: Down: fieldwalking results

of this later pottery from the western part of the site, on this evidence suggesting that the eastern part fell into disuse earlier than the western (Figure 20).

Sulby (SP 653816)

The one portion of this generally well preserved DMV which is ploughed is a thin strip of land lying to the west of the trackway to Welford, on the southwestern periphery of the village (RCHM(E), *Inventory of Historical Monuments in the County of Northampton*, Vol 3, *Archaeological Sites in NW Northamptonshire*, London, HMSO, 1981, 185). There are traces of rectangular earthwork enclosures, with parallel sides, in the ploughed land, part of a series which stretches along the whole length of this street, as well as a scatter of stone within them.

The pottery found consisted of shelly wares of Lyveden type of 13th and 14th century date, sandy buff wares of the same period, and hard buff and grey wares of 15th century date, nothing later. Thanks are due to Debbie Sawday of ULAS for help with the pottery analysis.

REDCAR AND CLEVELAND

Guisborough

A medieval agricultural site at Mill Farm, Guisborough, Borough of Redcar and Cleveland (GMF 96)

The Mill Farm (NZ56001635) Site is on the southern edge of the Eston Hills, which lie between the north edge of the North Yorkshire moors and the conurbation of Teesside. It was discovered by air reconnaissance in 1995 in a steeply-sloping field just above a row of quarries in the hillside. The site was excavated by Tees Archaeology in the late summer of 1996, as part of the Guisborough Valley Research Project. The site archive is held by Tees Archaeology, and the finds will be deposited at Kirkleatham Museum at the end of post-excavation work. (SMR3430).

The site lies at 200m OD, and has a southerly aspect and wide views over the Guisborough valley over 100m below. The cropmark recorded in the air photographs was a neat rectangle, flanked by a faint linear feature passing its north-west corner; it appeared to be a possible Roman military installation. Nothing was visible on the ground at the site of the cropmark. Until the early 1960s this area was moorland, and the present owner's father levelled the ground with a land plough before taking it into arable cultivation. The soil is light, sandy in places, and quite shallow; the subsoil is boulder clay. A one-hectare geomagnetic survey by GeoQuest Associates revealed a precisely rectangular ditched enclosure measuring 27 by 30m, and, to the north-west, a linear ditch running diagonally across the whole of the survey area. Between these was a large disturbed area and some fainter indications of a smaller enclosure. There were no signs of subdivisions or structures within the large rectangle. The results of the survey and excavation are summarised in Figure 21.

Two trenches (C and E) cut across the main enclosure ditch showed that this feature had been recut on at least two occasions, and that there was evidence of an upcast bank inside it. No significant features were found inside

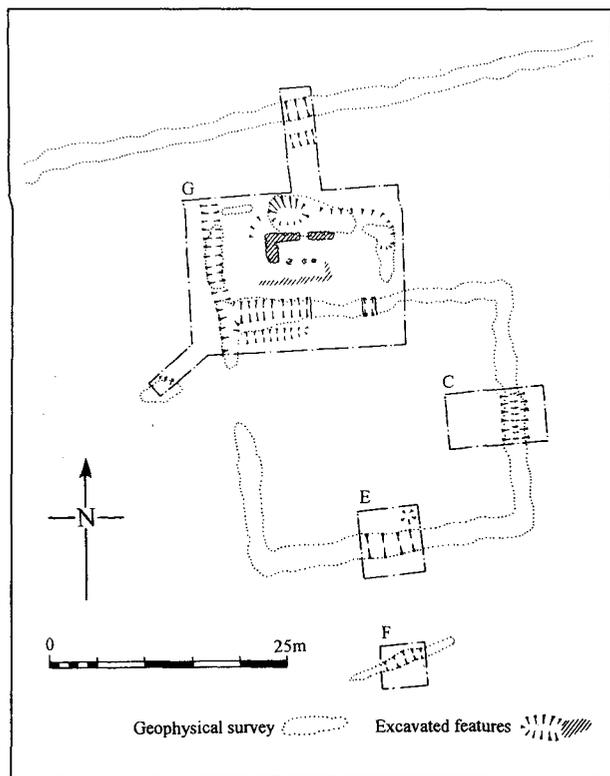


Figure 21

the enclosure, but there was evidence of a fire and a shallow hollow next to the remains of the south bank in trench E. A small and faint geophysical feature to the south, sampled in trench F, produced a few waste flakes of flint.

Excavation in trench G revealed that a rectangular annexe had been added to the north side of the existing enclosure. The ditch had been filled in and the levelled area this produced was lightly metalled. Inside the annexe a small stone and timber building was erected: this was 6m wide and at least 7m long. The lightly-built structure had lost the stones of its south and east wall to the plough; the southern wall was marked only by a line of clay subsoil which had been protected from erosion by the stone of the wall. The north and west walls were built of substantial posts set in rectangular stone-packed pits, with a small stone wall between and around them, and there were indications of a row of post-pads running along the building's central axis. There was a door in the north wall facing away from the large enclosure. Outside, a level path had been cut into the slope along the north wall and around the northern angles, and a large pit had been cut into the slope beyond this; a small drainage gully joined these two features. Because of the steepness of the slope this pit was little more than 0.2m deep on its south side, while the north was over a metre high. The bottom of the pit held a thin deposit of purple-stained silt, the residue of an as yet unidentified process.

At the centre of the west wall was a burnt sandstone hearth which contained part of a large-linked chain for the suspension of a pot over the fire. Other than this hearth there was little evidence of occupation. There were no rubbish or cess pits, and little sign of wear, trample, or accumulation of rubbish on the surfaces. The ditches and

the pit near the building produced some pottery: a few sherds were sooted, and about half of a large good-quality 14th century pot with thumb decoration under its rim was found near the door of the building. This is a surprisingly small assemblage given the long life of the neighbouring enclosure indicated by the ditch recuts. Along the uphill side of the presumed south wall there was an accumulation of a purplish charcoal-rich material, which might be the debris of a fire at the end of the building's life; there was no sign of stone-robbing from the walls.

The paucity of occupation evidence and the sheer inconvenience of the building as living quarters suggest that the site was only used intermittently, but that the periods of use were longer than a single day: the size of the large enclosure and its position next to a boundary ditch implies a pastoral function for the site. The aspect and the slope makes it reasonably sheltered, and so a lambing pen for sheep grazed on the surrounding moor, with an attached building for temporary accommodation and storage is a possibility. If so, it was intended for a large flock, as the enclosure could comfortably accommodate several hundred sheep, and the building is a good deal more substantial than the average shieling. Interestingly, the present farmer says that a natural mineral imbalance in the soil hereabouts means that sheep do not thrive on this land. While the reasons would have been obscure, this would certainly not have escaped the notice of medieval shepherds, yet the enclosure was in use for a long period of time. The size of the structures, the unexpectedly high quality of the pottery found near the building's door, and the indications of large-scale land divisions, (together, perhaps, with the evidence of continued use despite contrary indications) might suggest that this site was operated by a large and distant landowner. The obvious candidate is Guisborough Priory, the surviving east window of which is still clearly visible 6km to the east of the Mill Farm site.

Richard Annis, Projects Officer, Tees Archaeology, Sir William Gray House, Clarence Road, Hartlepool, TS24 8BT.

SOMERSET

Shapwick

The multi-disciplinary project based on the parish of Shapwick in Somerset, which began in 1988 and which is envisaged to run until 1998 or 1999, was continued in 1996.

Fieldwork

Fieldwalking continued with a further eighteen fields being walked and another five being reworked. Work took place in the autumn as before but also in the spring with land prepared for maize sowing.

A further programme of sampling in gardens in the village was undertaken. This work which seemed inconsequential initially has proved to be very useful with analysis of the finds by Chris Gerrard suggesting scatters of tenth century pottery all over the village area but with early medieval (twelfth-thirteenth century) only found in the centre of the village. Very little late medieval pottery is represented suggesting a change in rubbish disposal methods.

Geophysical Survey and Soil Survey

Extensive areas of the former village and around the manor house of the abbots of Glastonbury were subject to resistivity survey in July 1996. This revealed in great detail former streets crofts and houses together with carriageways in the post-medieval park and the outline of the great medieval barn shown on the print by Bonner of 1791 but demolished by 1839 – even the buttresses of its walls were clear! Other work was carried out at the site of Sladwick a field north of the village.

Much time was spent in taking and analysing soil samples for phosphates and their heavy metal content (Andrew Jackson and Mike Martin). The results from the field with the site of the church demonstrate clearly that known archaeological features are reflected in concentrations of phosphates and certain heavy metals particularly lead, zinc and cadmium. Elsewhere over the Roman site at Abchester for example similar results have been obtained from heavy metals. This gives us the confidence to expect that other concentrations of heavy metals in the soil may indicate sites which are not clearly represented by archaeological material. This is the case with the field called Sladwick where concentrations of heavy metals can be shown to correlate with geophysical anomalies and where previously unsuspected archaeology has now been demonstrated (see below)

Excavation

Excavations were carried out in July 1996 at a number of locations in and around the village of Shapwick with students from King Alfreds College, Winchester, the

University of Bristol, and a local community archaeology group, all under the overall direction of Chris Gerrard.

Within the village near the church further work adjacent to the 1995 excavation produced evidence of a post hole building of the tenth century aligned on the present street pattern. Near the manor house excavations in the area where tenth century features had been noted alongside the Wessex Water pipeline failed to locate early buildings but did demonstrate that again boundaries were early in that area.

Chris Gerrard, Phil Marter and Richard McConnell

An excavation over the geophysical and soil anomalies at Sladwick located two walls constructed in Romano-British fashion together with a hearth and a limited collection of Roman pottery sherds. It may be that this a Romano-British site but the relatively few finds might indicate that it could be either late or post-Roman in date. Are we in fact here looking at a post Roman farmstead indicated by the placename element 'wick'?

Chris Webster

Post-Excavation

All of the processing of finds from the field walking and from the excavations since 1993 takes place at King Alfreds College Winchester under the direction of Chris Gerrard. After a great deal of analysis very interesting results are now emerging about the finds from the field walking; these are reported in Report 6. Most of the material on the excavations from 1993 to 1995 will be in Report 7.

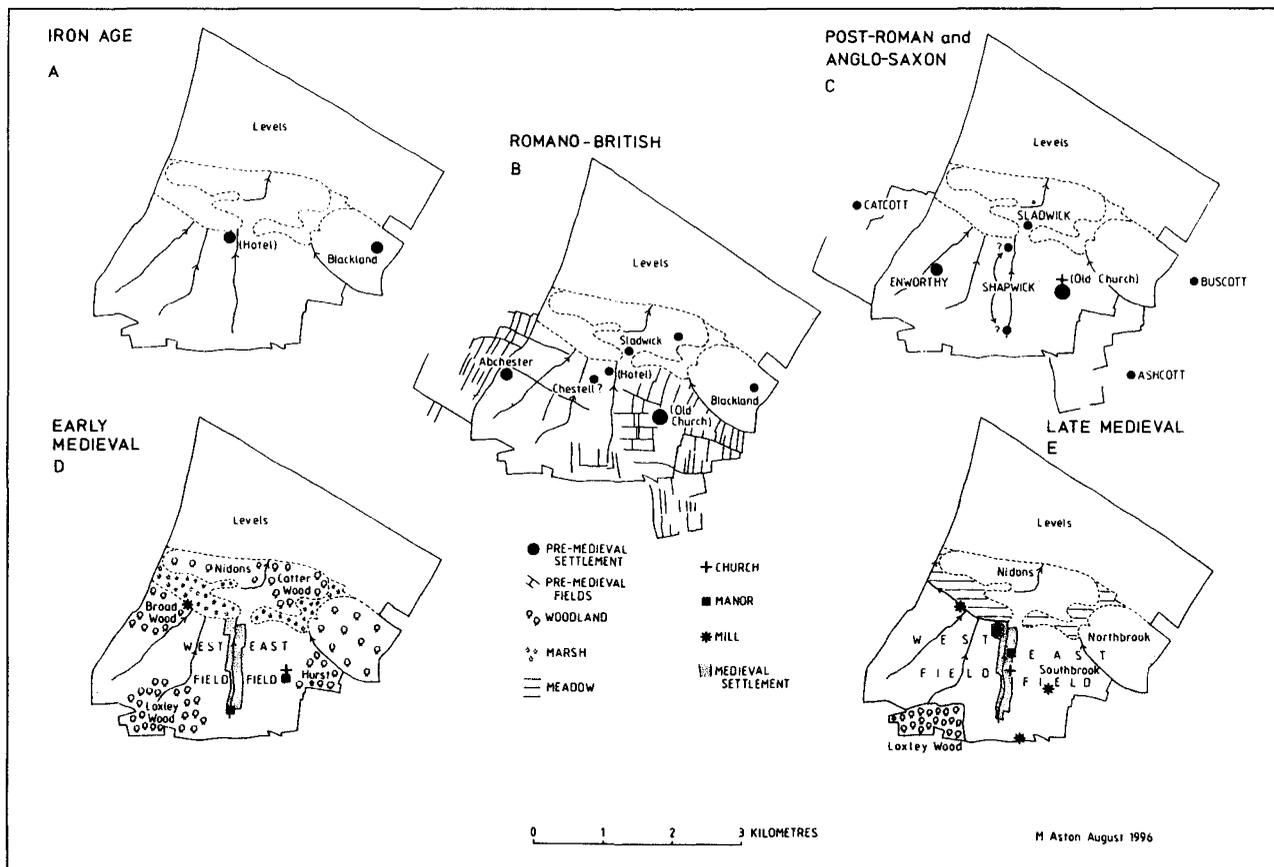


Figure 22

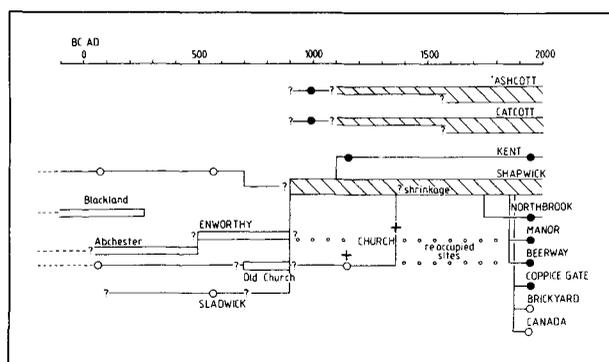


Figure 23

Future Work

Further field walking will be carried out as fields are ploughed especially for spring sown maize. Soil sampling, shovell-pitting and test pitting in the village will continue to be carried out as opportunities arise in order to characterise any evidence for pre-Conquest settlements.

Further research will be concentrated on soil sampling and geophysical survey over likely sites especially the site at Henry – enworthy in the west of the parish. Further selective excavation will take place over these areas together with other work in the fields, which may prove to be based on a Romano-British system, and around the former church site, as a result of the geophysical survey carried out in early 1995 by English Heritage.

Figures 22, 23 and 24 show the postulated changes in the settlement pattern at Shapwick from the Iron age through to the Late Medieval period.

Much more research is needed on aspects of the post-medieval documentation for the parish particularly for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to help explain the rich archaeology of the manor area and the demise of the medieval field system

J. Bettey

Plans are now in hand for the writing up and publication of the ten years work in the parish. At present several volumes are envisaged including the data, the methodology, the full account of how we think people have lived and worked in the parish over ten millennia and a popular booklet.

M. Aston and C.-Gerrard

Meanwhile Shapwick Reports 3, 5 and 6 are available at £10 each plus postage, 7 is in press and 8 is in active preparation. The full report of the buildings in the parish by members of the Somerset Vernacular Buildings Research Group, is also now available at £7.50 plus postage. If you would like to receive any of these or to be put on the mailing list please send your cheque and your name and address to Professor Mick Aston, Department for Continuing Education, University of Bristol, 8-10 Berkeley Square, Clifton, Bristol, BS8 1HH

Puxton, North Somerset

As part of the continuing investigation of Roman and medieval landscape exploitation and management on the North Somerset Levels, work has begun at Puxton, near

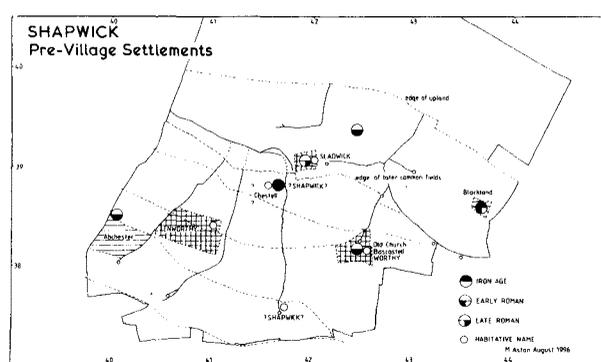


Figure 24

Weston-super-Mare (ST 407 633). It is known that the North Somerset Levels were reclaimed from a coastal saltmarsh during the Roman period, and that there was subsequently a period of post-Roman flooding. The recolonization of the area was certainly underway by Domesday, when several settlements and numerous ploughteams are recorded, presumably indicating that the Levels had been re-reclaimed (an example of a 'push into the margins'?). Key questions are the date of this recolonization, whether these early settlements were on a seasonally exploited saltmarsh or in an already reclaimed environment, and the extent to which they were agriculturally based as opposed to exploiting the rich natural wetland resources.

The church at Puxton lies on the northern edge of a large oval enclosure (c. 200 m by 100 m), marked by stretches of road, field boundary and earthworks. Earthwork, resistivity and soil chemistry surveys were carried out, along with trial excavations in an area of possibly settlement-related earthworks immediately south of the church. Several boundary ditches were sectioned which contained dumps of midden debris, dating from the late Saxon period to the mid 13th century. The preservation of charcoal, pottery, bone and shell, was found to be good, though not for iron. A deeper ditch, presumably for drainage, had waterlogged conditions at the bottom, and though no organic artefacts were recovered (from the single 1m wide trench), the potential is certainly there. The possible footings of a building were also located, which appears to have been abandoned at approximately the same time as the present church was constructed. A wide range of palaeoenvironmental samples were taken to determine whether the settlement was founded before or after the reclamation of this area of former saltmarsh.

Stephen Rippon, University of Exeter.

West Bower

Introduction

West Bower Manor is located to the west of Bridgwater in north Somerset, between the Quantock Hills and the low lying lands which feed into Sedgemoor and the Somerset Levels (Figure 25). Following two seasons of preliminary fieldwork and documentary research, it is apparent that the site was an important settlement, and is worthy of further detailed study. This project intends to progress at two levels. Initially on a macro scale, involving a detailed analysis of the structural development of the surviving standing structures, and the extent of the moated platform, and secondly to consider

the role of the manor, within the regional settlement pattern of north Somerset, in the medieval and post-medieval periods.

Documentary information and site description

Little survives of the medieval manor of West Bower, although incorporated into an 'L-shaped' farmhouse are the remains of a 14th century gatehouse, which has two polygonal turrets that contain carved heraldic panels and stained glass. Documentary records suggests that the property was in a ruinous condition by the mid 16th century and extensive remodelling and restoration took place. The majority of the surviving buildings were constructed at this time and during this process it numerous fragments of architectural stone and pieces of timber were reused from the earlier buildings. It is located about 2 miles west of the town of Bridgwater and was once included in the Bridgwater parish, although is now part of Durleigh village. The Somerset VCH (Dunning 1992, 211) identifies the property as having been called Bower Delamere or Delameres Bower, and only in recent years has the name West Bower Farm and West Bower Manor been adopted.

During the 14th-16th centuries the manor belonged to a succession of wealthy Somerset families, Coker, Hody, Stourton and Seymour. The Cartographic evidence in the Somerset Record Office, suggests that the manor extended eastwards into Sedgemoor, and that an agricultural focus was maintained until the 1930's, when Durleigh reservoir was built, and the southern part of the farmyard was flooded (Dunning 1992, 211). Following a period of decay during the 1950's, the surviving farm buildings have been restored and are now a private house.

The main complex of medieval buildings consisted of a gatehouse, an accommodation block, a chapel, a series of barns, and a dovecote, which were all surrounded by a defensive moat. To the north-west was a corn mill, and to the south-east a group of long rectilinear fishponds. Evidence for these features is limited, and future survey will endeavour to uncover more details. Aerial photographs stored at the NMRC in Swindon have proved useful; the submerged fishponds and mill race are clearly visible, although the only traces of the moat are to the north of the main house. A geophysical survey (Jessop 1995) has provided important evidence within the central area of the moated platform; identifying the position of

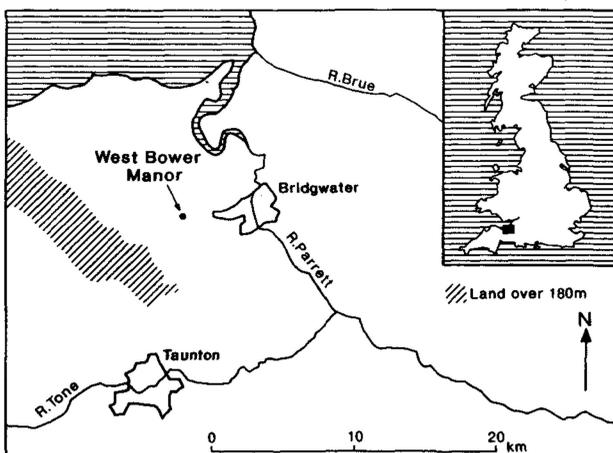


Figure 25

the demolished clay and cob dovecote (Taylor, 1968, 101) along with a long rectangular structure located to the south-west of the gatehouse.

Fieldwork in 1995

The initial season of work began the collection of any relevant documentary, cartographic and epigraphic evidence relating to all aspects of the manor. This desk based research was enhanced by an archaeological geophysical survey using an rm15 resistivity instrument. Although only 0.3ha were available for examination, the results were encouraging.

Fieldwork in 1996

Work in 1995 had identified that the remains of the gatehouse were an important survival, and it was decided to establish a relative sequence of structural phases, which could then form the basis for future survey and analysis. This took the form of a non-destructive evaluation exercise, focusing on the northern wing which incorporates the gatehouse structure, and five phases of constructional activity have been identified (Jessop 1996). A measured survey of the ground plan of this part of the house was completed and was accompanied by written descriptions, photography and video images. A fabric analysis of each exposed wall elevation was begun, along with close examination of ceiling beams, roof trusses and floorboards, which is ongoing. Moulding profiles, recorded at 1:1, were taken from a selection of the decorative architectural features all carved from Ham Hill limestone. The profiles have been examined by Richard Morris at the University of Warwick, who suggests that elements of the gate-passage can be paralleled to Dartington Hall in Devon, and may date to c. 1330-80.

Future work and conclusion

As a result of the survey work to date, it is now possible to plan for a more intense architectural survey of all the surviving buildings and walls; along with selective excavation to establish the depth of archaeological deposits and the line of the moat. The site is an important survival and will add to our understanding of rural and moated settlement in north Somerset, providing an insight into a relatively high status site that has been continually developing for over 700 years.

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WARWICKSHIRE

Kenilworth, 15 Clinton Lane, Castle Green (SP 278 724)

An evaluation in December 1996 by G. C. Jones of the Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Crosby Homes (Midlands) on a site on the west side of Castle Green, just north of Kenilworth Castle involved five trial trenches.

These revealed scattered medieval occupation, dating probably to the 12th/13th-early 14th century, including remains of a timber building fronting Clinton Lane. The occupation had probably ceased by the mid-14th century, after which the site remained an open space until the building of the present house in the 1930s.

Pillerton Priors, Sandpit Farm (SP 2935 4755)

An evaluation involving three trial trenches on land north west of Sandpit Farm within the medieval village in May/June 1996 was carried out by G. C. Jones of the Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Westinghouse Investments Ltd. The work revealed evidence for 10th-12th century occupation in the form of boundaries across the area and a timber structure to the west. A few later medieval and post-medieval boundary features dating to the 13th, 14th/15th and 17th/18th centuries were also recorded.

Wolfhamcote, Hunter's Moon, Flecknoe (SP 515 634)

An evaluation of a site in the centre of the medieval village involving four trial trenches was carried out in February 1996 by G. C. Jones of the Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Mr J. Pearse. The trenching revealed Romano-British pottery, a possible Romano-British gully, and medieval boundary gullies dating from the 11th to the 15th centuries in the north east part of the site. There was no evidence for structures of either period and trenches to the south and west found only traces of 18th / 19th century activity.

Hillborough in Temple Grafton (SP 128519)

C. Dyer visited this well-known deserted medieval site after aerial observation by Warwickshire Museum showed in drought conditions parch marks of building foundations. The foundations of two quite large buildings are visible at the southern end of the village street, with prominent earthworks accentuated by parch marks. Parch marks without any earthworks reveal the foundations of a long narrow building, perhaps a sheepcote. All of these structures may relate to a late phase in the history of the village. The scale of other earthworks – street and toft boundaries, do not seem to be on a sufficient scale to match the original size of the village indicated by documentary evidence. The site has been damaged by recent tree planting.

Admington (SP 200450)

C. Dyer continued field work and documentary research on this parish which includes the townships of Admington and Lark Stoke.

Landscape gardening at Lower Lark Stoke Manor, almost certainly the medieval manor house, has produced a range of pottery datable to the twelfth to fifteenth centuries, and including at least one sherd that could be pre-Conquest. A group of burials near the modern house are probably from the graveyard of a medieval chapel which has escaped any mention in documents. Survey work at Lark Stoke has involved replanning the deserted village, which is now known to have extended on both sides of the stream that flows northwards past the manor and chapel sites. There can now be some confidence that the main features of the medieval settlement have been identified and planned.

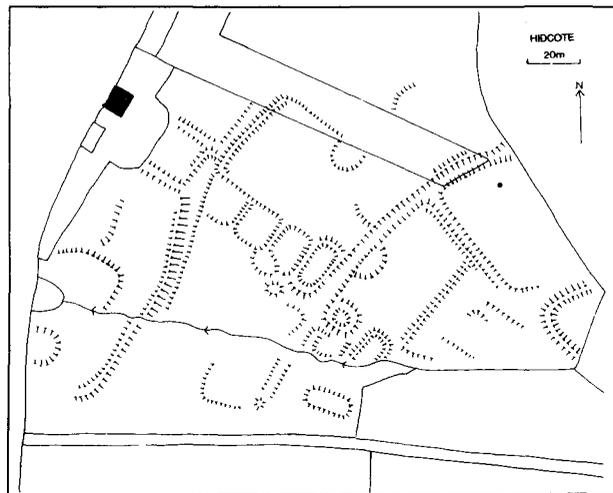


Figure 26

The main work of the year has been to survey the territory of Hidcote Bartrim, a township which belonged to Admington manor, under the overlordship of Winchcombe Abbey. Unlike Admington, this village still lies in Gloucestershire. This was a small settlement, with only a plough and a slave recorded in Domesday, and a dozen households in the fourteenth century. Like Lark Stoke most of its territory lay on the northern escarpment of the Cotswolds. There is plenty of evidence of prehistoric and Roman settlement in the form of scatters of flints, iron-age and Roman pottery, and a group of lynchets belonging to a pre-medieval field system. The shrinkage of the village has left well-preserved settlement earthworks, but the field systems are only patchily preserved, with little ridge and furrow to see on the higher ground (Figure 26). Concentrations of medieval pottery in fields immediately to the north and south of Hidcote village suggest intense manuring on selected parts of the arable. Topographical evidence, unsupported by any documents, could mean that Admington people had access to pasture in the steep-sided valley called Hidcote Combe which lies to the north-west of Hidcote village. The survey of Hidcote continues.

SCOTLAND

Highland

Easter Raitts, Badenoch (NH 776 022)

Easter Raitts is a deserted settlement on a southeast facing hillside near Lynchat, north of Kingussie in Badenoch, Highland, Scotland. The site includes features ranging from a magnificent souterrain to the earthwork remains of 18th and 19th century houses, barns and kilns. It lies in grassland on a gently south-facing slope with superb views to Ruthven Barracks and the surrounding mountains.

An excavation and survey programme is being carried out on behalf of the Highland Council, the Highland Vernacular Buildings Trust and the University of Aberdeen with four complementary objectives: to research the medieval and later rural settlement of the highlands, about which little is currently known; to provide information on which to base experimental reconstructions of buildings and other features; to assist

in developing conservation strategies for medieval and later rural settlement remains; and to provide training in field techniques by means of a Field School.

Because Easter Raitts is fairly typical of many similar sites, and because of its topography, it was chosen to be the model for an experimental reconstruction of a pre-crofting township at the Highland Folk Park at Newtonmore by the Highland Vernacular Buildings Trust. The excavations will provide essential information for the reconstruction programme, while the reconstructions are already helping to inform the excavation strategy by posing questions for the excavators to consider in examining the evidence.

An initial site survey was carried out in May 1995 by Magnar Dalland and Andrea Smith of AOC (Scotland). The work included checking the First Edition Ordnance Survey 1:10560 scale map (1869). Of 44 archaeological features surveyed by AOC, only eight were shown on the First Edition Ordnance Survey map. All are however apparently earlier than the date of the map. Trial excavation carried out by Edinburgh University's Centre for Field Archaeology the following month demonstrated the potential of the site by revealing well-built structures of faced stone with squared corners and paved byres. There was no sign of internal divisions within the buildings. Two of them however had beaten earth floors, and a cobbled yard area was apparent adjoining one.

The first Field School took place in July-August 1996 and provided training for 27 students over two weeks. The walls of the buildings represented by visible earthworks were found to be irregular in thickness, with varying quantities of tumble and some signs of robbing, especially of corner stones.

A variety of construction methods seems to be present. Some of the wall footings were built of drystone rounded boulders, apparently collected from the fields or from nearby glacial moraines. One structure appeared to have an external revetment, probably of turf, bounded by large boulders on the outside. Other footings are of well-heated drystone construction with facing stones on both sides and a core of angular stone fragments. A large stone in the corner of one building was however found to have dry bore holes in it, similar to others in a nearby quarried outcrop. Some at least of the stone used in the latest buildings on the site was therefore quarried.

No conclusive evidence of turf walling was found, although roof turves were noted – some of them blackened, presumably from smoke. The turf was mixed with stone rubble, suggesting deliberate demolition of the building, perhaps to recover the roof timbers. The positions of cruck bases could not be directly identified, although piles of tumble may indicate their locations. Evidence of paving or cobbling was found within all the buildings examined, but as yet its extent is unclear.

Excavated artefacts have all so far apparently dated to the 18th or 19th centuries. These included a fine earthenware inkwell, as well as many small fragments of porcelain and earthenware pottery, iron nails, fine glass possibly from a picture frame, and a pair of iron shears, half of which lay

on the floor of a building and the other outside its wall.

Further excavation will take place in 1997.

John Wood

WALES

MONMOUTHSHIRE

The Royal Commission on the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Wales conducted a programme of field investigation and survey work at five earthwork sites of medieval date in Monmouthshire during January 1996. Plans and full reports of all the sites are available for examination in the National Monuments Record.

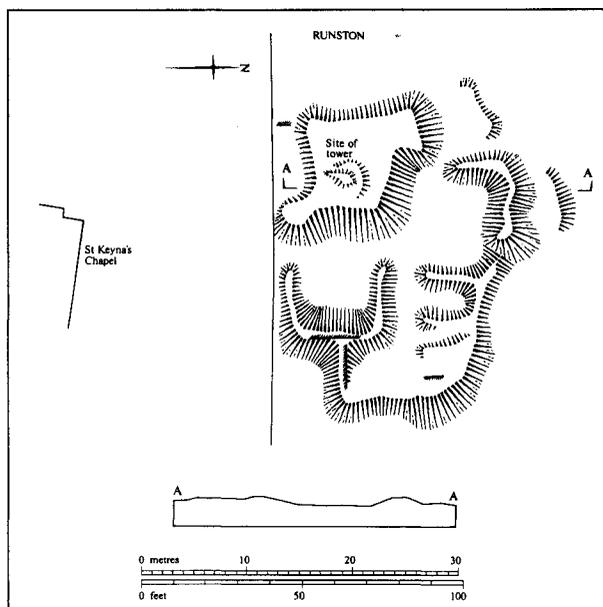


Figure 27

Runston (ST 49529163)

What appears to have been a defended building lies on a hilltop to the immediate north of the village earthworks of Runston from which it is separated by the ruins of St Keyna's Chapel (Figure 27). The structure is reduced entirely to earthworks which on plan take the form of a sub-divided rectangular enclosure with overall dimensions of some 33m (E-W) by 29m. Four, possibly five, individual compartments can be identified, with a likely entrance on the south. The south-west corner compartment contains a possible tower base, about 4m in overall diameter. This, and the quantity of rubble, grassed-over mounds of which rise to 2.4m high on the east, point to its defensive character.

The building has been identified as the site of the manor house on the edge of Runston village, first referred to in 1262 and deliberately depopulated in the 18th century (Bradney, 1929, 93-6; Caple *et al.*, 1978). No indication of its allegedly moated character was detected (OS Record ST49SE15).

St Arvans, Penterry (ST 519 987)

Earthworks are located on the immediate south side of St Mary's church, about 1 km south-south-west of Penterry

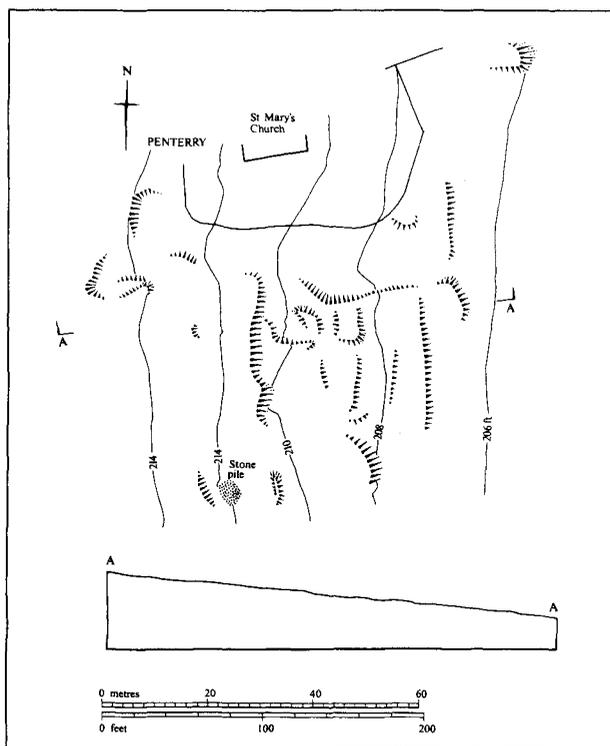


Figure 28

Farm. Identified as the possible site of the deserted medieval village of Pentirih (Bradney, 1929, 47), the remains lie within an area measuring 100m (E-W) by 60m (Figure 28). The ground on which they lie slopes gently eastwards and is crossed by a series of roughly parallel, mainly north-south, linear scarps amongst which are less regular curvilinear features. The scarps rise to between 0.2m and 0.9m high and suggest sub-division into terraces or small plots. Close to the most prominent scarps is a platform, at ST 51979872. It measures 15m (E-W) by about 6m and supports the remains of a building of indeterminate shape and dimensions. The smaller curvilinear features identified across the site may well be spread expanses of rubble formed over a long history of cultivation following abandonment and enclosure.

A field system which allegedly lay in the field to the immediate east of the remains (OS Record ST59NW26) was not seen during survey, though hollowed trails flanking modern boundaries to the north are still evident.

Magor, Wilcrick (ST 409 879)

Wilcrick Hill rises to the south of Wilcrick village. On its north-facing slopes lie earthwork remains related to the former extent of the medieval village. First surveyed, and partially excavated, in the early 1970s (Parkes and Webster, 1974) the site is now a Scheduled Ancient Monument (MM202).

Within an area measuring about 130m (NE-SW) by 40m are three croft-enclosures, in a downhill linear arrangement, with traces of a fourth enclosure on the east. The northernmost one was apparently subdivided by a cross bank which is not now visible. The central enclosure contains the foundations of an excavated building. Both occupy a natural platform on the hillslope. The building was apparently approached by a causeway which, along

with the nearby adjoining enclosure, has been truncated by the road which passes by the site on the east. Of the second, unexcavated, building in the northern enclosure there are no visible traces.

Ploughing since the early 1970s has probably denuded the earthworks. The enclosure banks are now represented by outward facing scarps up to 0.6m high on the steeper parts of the site, but elsewhere they are generally slighter; the southernmost enclosure bank rises to no more than 0.1m. None of the ridge-and-furrow previously noted to the immediate west of the enclosures was seen.

Redwick (Newport), Grangefield (ST 38988495)

A plan was produced of this well-known moated site (SAM MM205) (Williams, 1990) which is located in the Gwent Levels. The site consists of two moats. An inner enclosure measuring about 27m by 20m is surrounded by an outer enclosure of more than twice those dimensions. Large-scale survey confirmed the slight difference in orientation between the two moats reflecting local landscape changes which had occurred in the period between their construction (Rippon, 1995, 80-1).

The W side of the site has been damaged by the construction of farm buildings in current use, and by the transport of slurry to a storage pit in the field on which the site lies.

Dingestow, Coed-y-fedw (SO 446 088)

Detailed survey of a moated site (SAM MM213) extended not only to nearby 'homestead enclosures, (*Archaeology in Wales* 29, 1989, 62) but also included earthwork features surrounding them. The field in which the remains lie is under pasture. Level on the south, it falls away steeply into a stream valley on the north.

The moated site, at SO 44560881, consists of a mound measuring overall 32m (NE-SW) by 30m and 1m high, surrounded by a discontinuous ditch little more than 0.2m deep. On the north-east, however, the ditch, curves inwards onto the mound giving the impression of an access trackway. To the immediate south-east, cultivation ridges are visible under suitable light conditions.

Slighter earthworks lie to the west and north-west. Of note is a terraced trackway ascending the hill from the valley below. Some 70m-100m to the north-east of the mound are the remains of three building platforms and associated banks; at SO 44630886, at SO 44620887 and at SO 44640889. The site of a fourth building lies in a natural gully to the north-east of the moated site, at SO 44560887, represented only by a faint rectangular outline. As well as additional faint curvilinear banks which were recorded, indeterminate undulations were also noted across the site. These, together with plough ridges and banks visible on surrounding hillsides, indicate the complexity of the local archaeological landscape, most of which probably predates the enclosures in contemporary use.

D. K. Leighton, RCAHM (Wales)

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City and County of Swansea (SN 608040)

The Cefn Drum Research Project: medieval settlement in the uplands.

Following two years of extensive survey work on Cefn Drum, the first excavations were conducted in the Spring of 1996. This work was carried out by students from UWCN and members of local history societies and was funded by the Cambrian Archaeological Association and the Royal Archaeological Institute. The site selected for excavation was a well-preserved, typical example of one of the nineteen house platforms on the hillside. These platforms are usually assigned a medieval date and are thought to be linked to the seasonal exploitation of the area as pasture.

The platform was 12 m. wide (east-west) and 13.5 m. deep (north-south); the rear bank rose to a height of 0.6 m., whilst the front was higher at 0.8 m. Platforms of this nature are generally constructed by cutting into the hill slope and throwing the debris forwards so as to construct a level surface on which to build. The principal discovery consisted of a small (externally 3.7 m. by 6 m.), crudely-built house with rubble walls. This was located in a central position on the northern half of the platform. The walls were of an ephemeral nature, consisting of small, fist-sized, stone set into banks made up largely of the natural clay. There was some trace of a clay bonding within the wall. Traces of tumble from the walls were limited. A floor of beaten red earth was found in parts of the structure. The door, in the eastern corner of the south wall, was flanked by two small postholes which probably supported the roof either side of the doorway. Two post holes of different nature were found cut into the floor of the building. The northernmost of the pair was packed by two large, square slabs. A few small stones had been packed in amongst these larger stones and a pad stone utilised to support the post from below. The second posthole had been packed with numerous small stones. A group of features in the south west corner of the building are tentatively interpreted as a hearth. The shape and position of this set of features all argue for the interpretation, yet the absence of any signs of even limited burning on the sides and base of the construction or the walls of the building would seem to argue against the likelihood of a hearth. Most of the platform surface was featureless.

An extensive programme of environmental sample collection was integrated into the excavation. Numerous samples were gathered from the platform surface and from the original land surface buried as the front half of the platform was constructed. These await future examination. No dateable material was found – indeed the only find was of a whetstone – however sufficient material is available for a radiocarbon determination of

the likely date of the site. Further survey work and excavation of an adjacent site is planned.

Jonathan Kissock, SCARAB, Faculty of Education, Humanities and Science, University of Wales College, Newport.

ITALY

Sangro Valley Research Project

The Sangro Valley Research Project is jointly organised between the Institute of Archaeology, University of Oxford, and the School of Archaeological Studies, University of Leicester, in collaboration with the Soprintendenza Archeologica dell'Abruzzo, and with funding from both Universities and in addition from the British Academy, the British School at Rome, the Society of Antiquaries and the Roman Society. The Sangro Valley lies in eastern central Italy extending from the mountains of the Abruzzo National Park to the Adriatic Sea south of Pescara. The Project, which commenced in 1994, is a long-term survey covering zones of both the Upper and Middle valley and combining archaeological fieldwalking and ethnographic survey, with detailed architectural and documentary studies and geomorphological analysis. An interim on the results of the first two seasons of survey (1994-95) will shortly appear in the *Papers of the British School at Rome*. A full Geographical Information Systems (GIS) plot will be created for the surveyed zones which will enhance our ability to frame and understand the various sequences of human exploitation and settlement within the valley. Whilst the overall scope of the survey is multi-period, particular interest is focussed on phases of transition, notably from Iron Age to Rome, from Roman to early medieval, and, ethnographically, the transition in farming and transhumance to modern systems. The starting points for both surveyed zones are late Iron Age settlements: in the lower valley the extensive fortified centre of Monte Pallano, with well-preserved stretches of its massive polygonal walls; and in the upper valley the rich cemetery of Val Fondillo (6th-4th cents. BC) near Opi, a medieval/modern hilltop town whose name probably derives from the Latin *oppidum*. As elsewhere in Italy, Iron Age settlement centred chiefly upon defensive heights with villages and scattered lowlying farms, some of which have been identified through the survey; the Roman period (3rd century BC - 5th century AD) by contrast witnessed the full occupation and cultivation of the valley plains and the bulk of our surface finds indeed concentrate on this epoch. There is, however, a notable diminishment in the level and distribution of finds after the 2nd century AD, suggestive either of a concentration of agricultural activity in fewer landholders' hands or of a progressive abandonment/depopulation of the soil. Problematic, however, in Italy, is recognition of post-Roman activity up until the 11th century on the basis of surface finds given the virtual disappearance of coherent ceramic guides. When pottery and documents resume properly from the 9th and 10th centuries the settlement pattern has largely turned back to pre-Roman forms, notably in terms of the reoccupation of heights, giving rise to the hilltop townships so common a feature of the Italian landscape. Such continuous occupation since medieval times of course restricts archaeological scrutiny and our project seeks chiefly to

try and fill in gaps in the post-Roman sequence and settlement record: how far can late Roman sites be identified? Where were the early medieval sites located? What was the Germanic (Longobard, Carolingian) impact? What level of dispersed (i.e. non-nucleated) settlement existed after Rome and in the medieval period?

For the lower/middle valley and indeed for all of the Abruzzo a striking survival is the presence or record of various Germanic/Longobard placenames, which allow for some assessment of patterns of settlement/colonisation on the part of the Longobards after the later 6th century: of particular note are toponyms derived from *fara*, which indicate a kin group or military unit and are thereby suggestive of Germanic colony settlements. Specific attention is therefore being paid to the good agricultural lands around the medieval and modern hilltop town of Archi, first recorded in 1137: here extant placenames include the modern hamlets of Fara and Guardia (where Guardia should denote a watchpost). Preliminary reconnaissance of the hilltop overlooking Fara – a position more in keeping with the likely location of a post-Roman settlement, offering some defensive capabilities – recognised a wide range of ceramics from Iron Age and Republican through the medieval and with some late Roman materials. A first phase of systematic fieldwalking commenced in 1995, reinforcing this picture but without pinpointing clear sites on the ground; whilst fieldwalking will continue in more depth in 1996 and 1997 the possibility exists that modern Fara overlies and thus obscures a likely Roman-late Roman and perhaps Longobard site/farm or villa. Such continuity and reuse from Roman into post-Roman times is becoming gradually more attested in Italy and matches a sequence recognised elsewhere in Europe, as in Britain and Gaul.

For the post-Roman and medieval period in the Upper Sangro valley a series of place and fieldnames again appear relevant and provide scope for detailed archaeological scrutiny. In the specific study zone of the Abruzzo National Park (where bears provide an unusual, though seldom seen, obstacle to systematic fieldwalking procedures), the toponyms Piana della Corte and Monte delta Corte are suggestive of a *curtis* or early medieval farm/estate – indeed, there is reference to a local *curtis* here in the ninth century A.D. The placenames significantly coincide with a rectilinear patterning of walls on the Scerto plain and slopes, postulated, on the basis of air photographic images, as a zone of Roman land improvement. Although data are as yet scarce, potentially this presumed Roman-period land organisation could have been adopted wholesale in the Early Middle Ages with the creation of the *curtis*. A *curtis* could comprise an estate centre with stores, mills, workshops, weaving sheds and servants' quarters, plus dependant farms or houses for workers and artisans; the lands could comprise vineyards, ploughland and pasture.

The form and growth of such *curtes* are barely studied archaeologically – due, as noted above, to the poverty of the archaeology of the period – and thus the location of the Scerto estate cannot be immediately pinpointed. However, reconnaissance of the zone identified, besides the noted walls relating to field systems, roadways, a mill and a possible church, the remains of a relatively complex medieval fortified site (of c.50 x 85m) on the levelled

summit of the Rocca ai Tre Monti, located c. 40m above the level of the Piana. Observation of the Piana from this location is excellent and one cannot exclude that the castle/rocca coincides with or overlies the early medieval *curtis*. The fabric of the rocca, much mutilated and destroyed through the imposition, incomplete, of a rifugio or hotel within the enclosed zone and employing much of the castle's stonework, suggests a twelfth- or thirteenth-century date, with some signs of later (post-castle) building. Clear traces of the medieval circuit wall exist on both the north and east flanks of the summit; the northern wall preserves two projecting rectangular towers, one containing a cross-form arrowslit, and traces of a possible semi-circular tower are located at the north-west corner. The towers on the north reflect the fact that this is the most accessible flank, the three other sides being generally very steep to sheer, running down to a torrent.

Excavation is required in order to assess whether the castle – whose military rôle needs to be analysed in relation to other castle sites in the upper Sangro – can indeed be related to the documented early medieval *curtis*. Analysis of eighteenth-century and later maps nonetheless allow us to recognise that the Rocca overlooked a *tratturo*, or transhumance route, utilised by shepherds bringing sheep to and from summer pasture in the mountains; potentially overseeing such traffic and obtaining suitable tolls were key roles for the castle. Documents record transhumant pastoralism certainly from the sixteenth century; the castle's presence implies a much older origin and such practice is in fact elsewhere viewed as active from Roman times.

Rocca ai Tre Monti in effect did not overlook the main (Roman-built) road flanking the course of the Sangro itself. Our archaeological reconnoissances identified that control over this route was instead achieved by the presence of a tower on the steep hill of S. Ianni, in full visual communication with the Rocca but also with the forts/towns of Opi upstream) and Villetta Barrea (downstream). Noticeably the medieval tower appears imposed on a Samnite/Iron Age site, probably itself a military observation post.

The medieval epoch is thus relatively well attested physically for the upper valley. The early medieval phase archaeologically remains elusive; it is fortunate in this regard that in addition to the placenames some documentation is available due to the presence of the eighth century monastery of S. Angelo in Barregio, attesting monastic cells and farms in the region,

The Sangro Valley Project thus promises to extend greatly our understanding of patterns of land use in this region of central Italy; already it has presented a high level of Samnite/Iron Age data and fascinating new information on medieval control; potentially it may also offer invaluable data on the otherwise obscure post-Roman period. The Project is programmed to continue until 1998/99 and it is hoped to supplement and enhance the intensive fieldwalking results through selective excavation of sites of all periods.

Dr. Neil Christie (Leicester) & Dr. John Lloyd (Oxford)

Membership Changes 1996

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 1996. 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.

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Mr R. E. Chambers (Paulerspury, Towcester)
Mrs A. M. Day (Houghton Conquest, Beds.)

Deceased

Professor G. R. J. Jones (Leeds)
Mr E. S. Wood (Selborne)

Resignations

D. H. Bartlett (Warminster)
W. Burman (London, N22)
P. Dorling (Clyro, Herefordshire)
R. M. Friendship-Taylor (Hackleton, Northants.)

S. A. Robbins (Tonbridge)
S. Stockton-Link (Bewdley)
T. R. Turbin (Kelvedon Hatch, Essex)

Lapsed (and therefore reluctantly struck off)

R. C. Allen (Vancouver)
K. M. Barker (Poole)
J. Barrett (Bristol)
D. Beard (Oxford)
J. Bourn (Leicester)
P. A. Cockerill (Market Harborough)

S. M. Cowan (Bridgnorth)
P. Griffiths (Cold Ashby)
C. Leigh (Walsall)
J. H. Stewart (Newcastle)
K. E. Van der Wielen (Holland)

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**ANNUAL REPORT OF THE TRUSTEES
MIEVEAL SETTLEMENT RESEARCH GROUP**

Registered Charity No 801634

Objectives

The objective of the group is the advancement of public education through the promotion of interdisciplinary involvement in the collection, analysis and dissemination of data relating to the history, geography and archaeology of medieval rural settlements.

Review of activity during the year

The group's activities (policy making, conferences and publication) have continued as before. The range of interests and issues is reflected in the content of the accompanying Report (No 11) covering the year 1996.

Result for the year

The surplus of receipts over payments amounted to £2,170.81 (1996 £1,074.84) and is carried forward.

Trustees

The Trustees who served during the year are:

Professor C. C. Dyer (President)
Mr S. Coleman (Secretary)
Dr R. I. Glasscock (Treasurer)
Mr R. Daniels (Editor)

Address

c/o Dr R. E. Glasscock
Department of Geography
University of Cambridge
Downing Place
Cambridge CB2 3EN



R. E. Glasscock
Treasurer

**INDEPENDENT EXAMINER'S REPORT TO
THE TRUSTEES OF MIEVEAL SETTLEMENT RESEARCH GROUP**

I report on the accounts for the year ended 31 January 1997 which are set out on the following page.

Respective responsibilities of trustees and examiner

As the charity's trustees you are responsible for the preparation of the accounts; you consider that the audit requirement of section 43(2) of the Charities Act 1993 (the Act) does not apply. It is my responsibility to state, on the basis of procedures specified in the General Directions given by the Charity Commissioners under section 43 (7)(b) of the Act, whether particular matters have come to my attention.

Basis of independent examiner's report

My examination was carried out in accordance with the General Directions given by the Charity Commissioners. An examination includes a review of the accounting records kept by the charity and a comparison of the accounts presented with those records. It also includes consideration of any unusual items or disclosures in the accounts, and seeking explanations from you as trustees concerning any such matters. The procedures undertaken do not provide all the evidence that would be required in an audit, and consequently I do not express an audit opinion on the view given by the accounts.

Independent examiner's statement

In connection with my examination, no matter has come to my attention:

- (1) which gives me reasonable cause to believe that in any material respect the requirements
 - to keep accounting records in accordance with section 41 of the Act; and
 - to prepare accounts which accord with the accounting records and to comply with the accounting requirements of the Acthave not been met; or
- (2) to which, in my opinion, attention should be drawn in order to enable a proper understanding of the accounts to be reached.

S. Gerrish
Chartered Accountant
2 Spencer Drive
St Ives, Cambs.

MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENT RESEARCH GROUP

Registered Charity No 801634

GENERAL FUNDS – RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS ACCOUNT

Financial Year ended 31 January 1997

RECEIPTS	1997	1996	PAYMENTS	1997	1996
	£	£		£	£
Voluntary Sources			Direct Charitable expenditure		
Subscriptions	4,105.00	3,494.00	Grant to Editor (Prague Congress)	—	150.00
Donation	2.00	—	Research grant	—	250.00
			Other Expenditure		
Trading Activities			Annual Report printing costs	2,620.00	2,620.00
Publication sales	148.75	96.60	CBA affiliation fee	62.00	62.00
			Seminar expenses	45.00	67.00
Income from Assets			Aerial photograph	—	6.23
Deposit interest	1,045.63	971.36	Bank charges	20.00	—
			Secretarial expenses	45.05	—
			Postage and stationery	338.52	331.89
	<u>5,301.38</u>	<u>4,561.96</u>		<u>3,130.57</u>	<u>3,487.12</u>
			Statement of Assets and Liabilities		
Balance of receipts over payments	2,170.81	1,074.84	Bank Current Account	1,610.07	854.26
Balance brought forward	16,733.99	15,659.15	National Savings Deposit Account	17,294.73	15,879.73
Balance carried forward	<u>18,904.80</u>	<u>16,733.99</u>	Net Assets	<u>18,904.80</u>	<u>16,733.99</u>

Accounting Policies

Historical Cost Convention

The Receipts and Payments account and Statement of Assets and Liabilities are prepared under the Historical Cost Convention.

Stocks of Publications

Stocks of Publications are not valued or included in the Statement of Assets and Liabilities.

