Medieval Settlement Research Group

Annual Report 13, 1998

Medieval Settlement Research Group

Annual Report 13, 1998

OFFICERS FOR 1999

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL COMMENT

As those of you who attended the 1998 AGM will be aware the group is exploring a number of avenues to find a major research project and it is hoped to be able to provide further information about this in the next report.

In contrast this report testifies to the international importance of the work at Wharram Percy and the huge achievements of John Hurst and Maurice Beresford in the pursuit of medieval settlement studies.

Silk and Terry again ensured that this report was well produced and my thanks go to them and to all who have contributed to this report.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The Annual General Meeting will be held on Saturday, 4th December, 1999 at Birkbeck College, London. This will be followed by presentations, the topic of which has yet to be determined.

CONFERENCE

Information about the Spring 2000 Conference will be provided separately.

RURALIA

The third Ruralia conference took place in the Republic of Ireland in September 1999 and it is expected that the papers will be published shortly.

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, 2000 and the winning design will appear in the next Annual Report and all group literature.

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.

Leeds International Medieval Congress
13-16 July 1998

Settlement was a major theme of the Congress marking the 50th anniversary of Maurice Beresford's first visit to Wharram Percy.

To mark this anniversary the Group cooperated with other organisations and the convenors of the congress to devise a series of sessions involving 90 or so speakers on various aspects of settlement. The sessions, speakers and chairs are listed below :

How medieval people perceived settlement and landscape
(c. 500-1600).
    N. Higham, C. D. Dyer, P. Harvey, Chair: J. Blair.

Settlement formation: nucleated villages and planned towns.
    J. Blair R. Daniels, K.Lilley. Chair: G. Foard.

Seasonal settlement
    M. Gardiner, A. Winchester, J. Hooper. Chair: R. Daniels.

The great expansion of settlement in medieval Britain.
    J. Hass, R. Silvester, V. Metcalfe. Chair: S. Rippon.

Peasant houses
    S. Pearson, D. Turner, S. Wrathmell. Chair: A. Aberg

Industry and exchange in the countryside.
    C. Loveluck, D. Hurst, J. Hare. Chair: P. Harvey.

Food supply and medieval settlements.
    U. Albarella, D. Serjeantson, J. Galloway. Chair: C. Dyer.

The great replanning? The origins of field systems, villages and towns in Northamptonshire.
    D. Hall, G. Foard, A. Chapman. Chair: K. Lilley.

Settlements: the Leicester School in the south-west.
    H. Fox, C. Thornton, T. Hall. Chair: R. Higham.

The origin and development of nucleated and dispersed settlement patterns in south-west Britain.
    M. Aston, S. Rippon, R. Higham. Chair: N. Higham.

Wharram Percy revisited, I.
    S. Wrathmell, J. Richards, G. McDonnell. Chair: J. Hurst.

Wharram Percy revisited, II.
    C. Harding, S. Mays. M. Allfrey. Chair: J. Hurst

Settlements in the transition of the Merovingian to the Carolingian period.
    F. Theuws.

Medieval settlement in Slovenia, I: urban settlements and trade.
    M. Kosi, P. Mason, B. Ravnik-Toman. Chair: M. Kosi

Medieval settlement in Slovenia, II: rural settlement.
    B. Hajdinjak, A. Komac, J. Persic. Chair: P. Mason.

Settlement names in the British Isles.
    D. Parsons, T. Styles. Chair: P. Cavill.

The territorial framework of English medieval settlement: a comparative approach.
    C. Lewis, R. Kemsley, K. Jankulak. Chair: C. Lewis.

Rural history; approaches to an elusive subject, I: rural settlement history.
    C. Sonnlechner, M. Osmann, J. Tauber. Chair: D. Rippmann.

Rural history, II: rural medieval society between normative rules and social realities.
    V. Winiwarter, D. Rippmann. Chair: J. Tauber.

Settlements and society in thirteenth-century English eyre rolls.
    A. Jobson, S. Stewart, L. Boatwright. Chair: D. Carpenter.

Taxation and settlement in medieval England.
    M. Jurkowski, A. Green, D. Grummitt. Chair: P. Harvey.

Urban growth and planning.
    M. Stein-Wilkeshuis, J. Elsoe Jensen, W. Boerefijn. Chair: B. Ayers.

Forest settlements.
    O. Rackham, N. Herbert, C. Insley. Chair: J. Cooper.

Estate and settlement patterns in Oxfordshire, Staffordshire and Essex.
    N. Tringham, S. Townley, J. Cooper. Chair: J. Cooper.

Depopulation and settlement change in the later middle ages.
    M-C. Taupin, T. Barry, K. Novacek, P. Vareka.

Archaeology and settlement in Bohemia and Slovakia.
    R. Nekuda, R. Krajic, V. Hasek, M. Ruttkay, D. Caplovic.

Archaeology and urban settlement.
    J. Schofield, C. Graves, P. Andrews. Chair: M. Biddle.

Round Table on settlement conservation.
    D. Stocker, S. Wrathmell, R. Daniels. Convenor: S. Coleman.

In addition to the above, there was a key-note lecture by Maurice Beresford and John Hurst on Wharram Percy and by A. Verhulst on settlements in N. W. Europe.

All contributors to the settlement strand were invited to submit synopses of their talks to the report and those which have been received are set out below as is Adriaan Verhulst's key-note paper.

The medieval settlement strand of the Congress was undoubtedly a great success, sessions were well attended and gave rise to much discussion.

Settlement and Field Structures in continental North-West Europe from the Ninth to the Thirteenth Centuries

by Adriaan Verhulst

Since the eighties and increasingly during the nineties there has been a renewed interest on the continent in medieval rural settlement, mainly among archaeologists and geographers. This overview of research in this field in continental north-west Europe during recent decades is intended to explain this development.

From the middle of the fifties English scholars pioneered medieval field archaeology. They founded the *Deserted Medieval Villages Research Group*, later changed to *Medieval Village Research Group* and now since 1985 the *Medieval Settlement Research Group*. Their work, set up by Maurice Beresford and John Hurst[1], provoked great interest on the continent.

Although the German geographical tradition in the field of "Settlement History" *(Siedlungsgeschichte)* with illustrious names like Gradmann, Martiny, Niemeier, Müller-Wille and Mortensen, was continued after the war by Anneliese Krenzlin, Martin Born and Hans-Jürgen Nitz[2], a decisive step to a renewal of the subject on the English model were the conferences organised during the seventies by the famous archaeologist Herbert Jankuhn under the auspices of the Göttingen Academy. Several volumes on the early medieval village and on early medieval fields resulted from these meetings between archaeologists, historians, geographers and linguists[3]. The importance of the yearbook *Siedlungsforschung. Archäologie-Geschichte-Geographie*, edited since 1983 by Klaus Fehn (Bonn), testifies to the liveliness of research on rural settlements in central and continental north-west Europe.

In Holland the traditional study of the historical geography of embarking and diking of the polders in the western parts of the country and along the great rivers Rhine, Maas and Scheldt, was revived towards the end of the fifties by the work of several pedologists, led by a pioneer in this matter, the late Professor Edelman Geographers like the late Elisabeth Gottschalk and her successor at the University of Amsterdam, G. Borger, the historical geographer J. Vervloet and historians like D. P. Blok, H. Van der Linden, C. Dekker and P. Henderikx, shed new light on the Roman and early medieval phases of rural settlement in these coastal areas with the archaeological backing of the Rijksdienst voor het Oudheidkundig Bodemonderzoek at Amersfoort[4].

An analogous evolution took place in Belgium where the making of the soil map at Ghent University under the direction of the late Professor Tavernier encouraged me in the late fifties to study the making of polders in the Flemish coastal plain during the central middle ages. In the sixties I extended these landscape studies based also on documentary evidence, to the interior of Belgium. But the tentative synthesis I published as a book on the history

of the Flemish rural landscape in 1966 had no follow-up, in spite of its success which was mainly due to the lack of such studies in Belgium[5]. Neither was there any follow-up of a book on the archaeology of the medieval village, published in 1967 by the late Professor Genicot from Louvain, in which Professor Réné Noél and I wrote some chapters on medieval field archaeology[6].

After French geographers at Nancy in 1957 had summed up the development of French studies on rural landscape since the publication in 1931 of Marc Bloch's famous *Les caractères originaux de l'histoire rurale francaise*[7], they turned away from this subject-matter to the so-called "new geography". Historians like Duby and Fourquin in the sixties illustrated their work on medieval agrarian history only with examples taken from old works like Bloch's *caractères* and from English field studies.

Consequently the revival of French interest in medieval rural settlement from the beginning of the nineties onwards did not come from geographers or historians. It came from archaeologists who until then had confined themselves to the study of prehistoric and ancient landscapes in the southern half of France. With the impetus from Gérard Chouquer and his team from the University of Tours, a centre well known for its pioneer work in medieval archaeology, a big conference at Orléans in March 1996, was dedicated to the archaeology of field forms in France, mainly in antiquity, with one chapter bearing more specifically upon the middle ages. The proceedings appeared in the same year[8]. Concerning the latter period the archaeology of villages and houses had until then been more in favour[9] than the study of field structures, for which only a few articles of more than local interest can be cited[10].

Of much wider interest, both geographically as well as from the point of view of medieval rural settlement, because it covers more than only one element of the landscape, is the volume of papers on *'Rural Settlements in Medieval Europe'* for the "Medieval Europe Brugge 1997" conference on medieval archaeology[11]. Although most of the papers are by archaeologists, some of them also make use of documentary evidence. On the other hand some historians too have contributed to the volume, with papers in which archaeological evidence is prominent. This is particularly true of most of the papers by British historians. But still the use of written documents like charters from the Anglo-Saxon period, already extensively employed by Della Hooke, or the Domesday survey, notwithstanding the work of H. C. Darby, and above all the rich English archives of landowners from the central and later middle ages, can be enlarged and extended, as can be inferred from the contribution by Chris Dyer to the Bruges Conference on

'Recent developments and future prospects in research into English medieval rural settlements'.

Although written documents from the middle ages are less numerous and less explicit for the study of medieval rural settlement on the north-west European continent than in England, I would like to show that the revival of this study which can now, after some years of decline since the late seventies, be observed on the Continent. This is particularly true in France thanks to the initiative taken by archaeologists. But it can be enriched through the use of documentary evidence: written sources can indeed illuminate aspects of rural settlement which archaeology is unable to bring to light or has not yet brought to light[12].

My demonstration which is intended to be mainly methodological, is based on written documents from Belgium and northern France, including place-names and field-names, dating back to the early middle ages. I will deal with three major problems in the history of early medieval rural settlement: 1. the distribution of rural settlements, mainly hamlets and farmsteads, their abandonment and the formation of nucleated villages; 2. the field structure of their territory and its relation to a regular field system; 3. the structure of the fields themselves, their subdivision and the shape of plots.

The distribution of rural settlements
The distribution of rural settlements in the early middle ages has to be studied mainly from the evidence of place-names. Archaeological research, which is essential in this respect, is indeed very scarce and accidental in the regions under consideration. Only the distribution of Roman villas and of Merovingian cemeteries has been studied systematically over a wider area, however with limited contribution to our concerns. For one region, the so-called Kempen region in the north-eastern part of Belgium and the adjacent south-eastern part of the Netherlands, extending between the rivers Scheldt, Demer and Meuse/ Maas, a comprehensive study of archaeological evidence, particularly cemeteries, place-names and written documents has been made by Frans Theuws for the 6th, 7th and 8th centuries[13]. His main conclusion is that at the end of the 7th and beginning of the 8th century important changes in society took place in the Kempen region. The archaeological evidence shows a number of apparently connected changes: the emergence of new settlements, the emergence of separate elite burial grounds and the gradual disuse of the traditional cemeteries. Behind these changes in the archaeological record lay christianisation. An economic influence, particularly important for the evolution of rural settlement was the formation of *villae,* i.e. of estates, although these were not of the so-called classical bipartite type (consisting of demesne and tenant land) and were modest in size.

Thanks to the immense linguistic work and especially because of the well-known place-name dictionary of the late Maurits Gysseling[14], we are well informed about the sequence of place-name types in Belgium and northern France, on both sides of the language boundary, from the Germanic invasions to the 10th century. Their interpretation however from the point of view of the nature of rural settlements rather than their location is still not very clear. From the linguistic studies of

Gysseling and from my tentative historical interpretations of the latter since the late sixties[15], the following conclusions may be cited. They probably still hold good as nobody has contested them so far[16].

In the fifth and sixth centuries a mass of Romance place-names formed by combining a personal name and ending in *-iacas* characterized a large mixed Romanic-Germanic language zone in northern France and Belgium, north and south of the present-day Belgian language boundary and before its formation as a linear boundary from the tenth century onwards (Figures 1 and 2). North of this zone place-names ending in *-ingja, -ingum* were the dominant Germanic counterpart of the Romance names in *-iacas.* After the contact of the Germanic invaders with the Gallo-Roman population the suffix *-ingja, -ingum* which originally had designated the allegiance to a tribe or people, acquired a patronymic function which means that it was henceforth preceded, like its Romance counterpart, by the name of a person, ancestor or chieftain. In this way the names in *-ingja, -ingum* became place-names designating the settlement of a kin-group. Except for some regions like Limburg in the east of Belgium, where this type remained productive during the whole Merovingian period, it was replaced in Flanders and Brabant by the composite type *-inga haim.* The latter, formed by the addition of the older place-name element *-haim,* was the Germanic counterpart which probably emerged under the influence of a new Romance type that had developed from the 7th century onwards in northern France: *-iaca villa/villare and ~iaca curse,* preceded by the name of a person, probably the owner or lord of the settlement *(villa(re))* or manor *(curte).* Both related types, the Germanic *-inga haim* and the Romance *iaca villa(re)/ curte,* remained productive during the 8th-9th centuries. A link between their emergence and the introduction, from the end of the seventh century onwards, of the manorial system was presumed by Ferdinand Lot and seems not improbable[17]. However, the word *villa* not only means "estate" but also "village". The link between the appearance of the word *villa/villare* in place-names and the formation of the classical manor is therefore less sure. The same is true for its Germanic counterpart *haim.* Originally, at the beginning of the Middle ages and even before, it meant 'village". We touch here upon the relation between village and manor, a very difficult problem to which I will come in a moment.

Before that we must put the question: was the new *-inga haim* type in Germanic regions simply an imitation of a vogue which in northern France had certain roots in a social and economic reality of rural life that until then had not existed in the Germanic speaking regions of the Frankish kingdom? Or was the situation in the Germanic areas similar in this respect to those south of the language boundary? My answer would be that because the manorial regime originated in the Frankish heartlands of northern France, there is little doubt that it was introduced into the Germanic speaking regions of present-day Belgium from the south, i.e. from the Romance heartlands of the Frankish kingdom the regions between the Seine and the Meuse[18]. Although in the Germanic area of present-day Belgium the classical (so-called bipartite) manor did not develop fully[19], the efforts of the church and the aristocracy to shape their landed possessions there on this

7
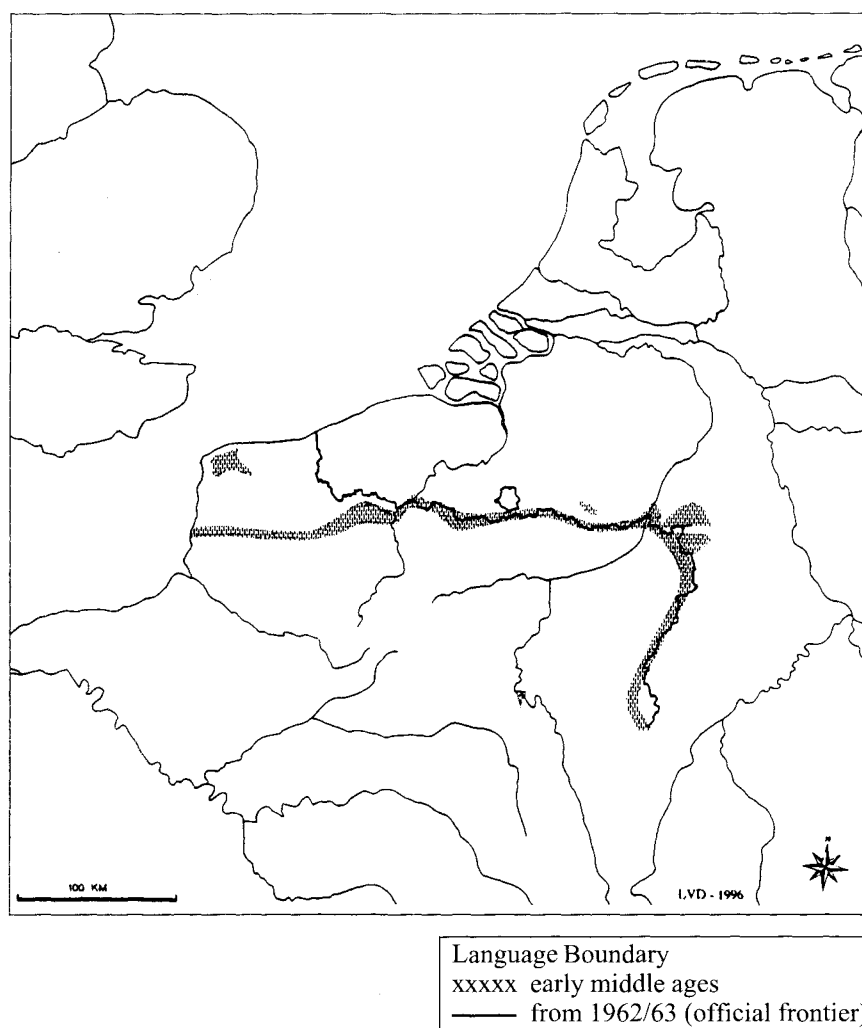
From: C. Van Durme, Galloromaniae

model in imitation of royal estates, may have been sufficient to generate the *-inga haim* names as counterpart for the Romance names ending in *villa/villare or curte*. Both place-name forms could imply that the place had developed a manorial organisation, though the names, especially the Germanic haim, could have other meanings too. According to the German linguist Ruth Schmidt-Wiegand in her study on settlement names in the Germanic *leges barbarorum*[20], the names *haim* and even *thorn* could like *villa* be used both for a farm- or court house, an exploitation centre, i.e. a manor in the restricted geographical sense (Germ. Einzelhof) and also for a village in the sense of a nucleated settlement (Germ Gruppensiedlung). The distinction between the two meanings was not decisive at that moment, because of the mobility of the population. The important material element of the rural settlement, as is apparent from the text of the *leges*, was still the single farm and its yard. The village community, i.e. the social element was, according to Schmidt-Wiegand, more important at that moment than its geographic form.

Geographically the distribution of rural settlement from the 5th well into the 9th century was characterised by a majority of dispersed settlements, mainly consisting of hamlets and isolated farmsteads. This was the case in the Germanic speaking regions of present-day Belgium as in many neighbouring regions of France, England and Germany. The evidence for it in the Germanic speaking regions of Belgium are the numerous names ending in *-inga haim* , *-haim, -sali* and even *-thorp,* that occur in written documents of the 8th, 9th and 10th century and which in later centuries cannot be identified with the name of a village, a hamlet or even a farmstead. In the rare cases where we still find them in a document of the 12th or 13th century they are often mere field names. Of the four types cited the names in *-sali* most clearly denote an isolated farmstead[21]. This interpretation results from their meaning - a house in which the livestock are sheltered under the same roof as the family - , from their location and function - they are very often situated in woodland and devoted to the breeding of cattle and sheep as is apparent in both cases from the word composed with *-sali* - and finally they are described in Latin texts as *mansioniles,* a term pointing to their status as a dependency of a manor, smaller and created at a later date. Linguistically too they are later than the names in *-inga haim,* as is also the case with the names in *-haim.* In Romanic speaking regions the *-villare* settlements may be compared to the *-sali* farmsteads both on linguistic grounds - *villare* being a diminutive of *villa-* and on the basis of manorial texts suggesting their dependence on a *villa*[22].
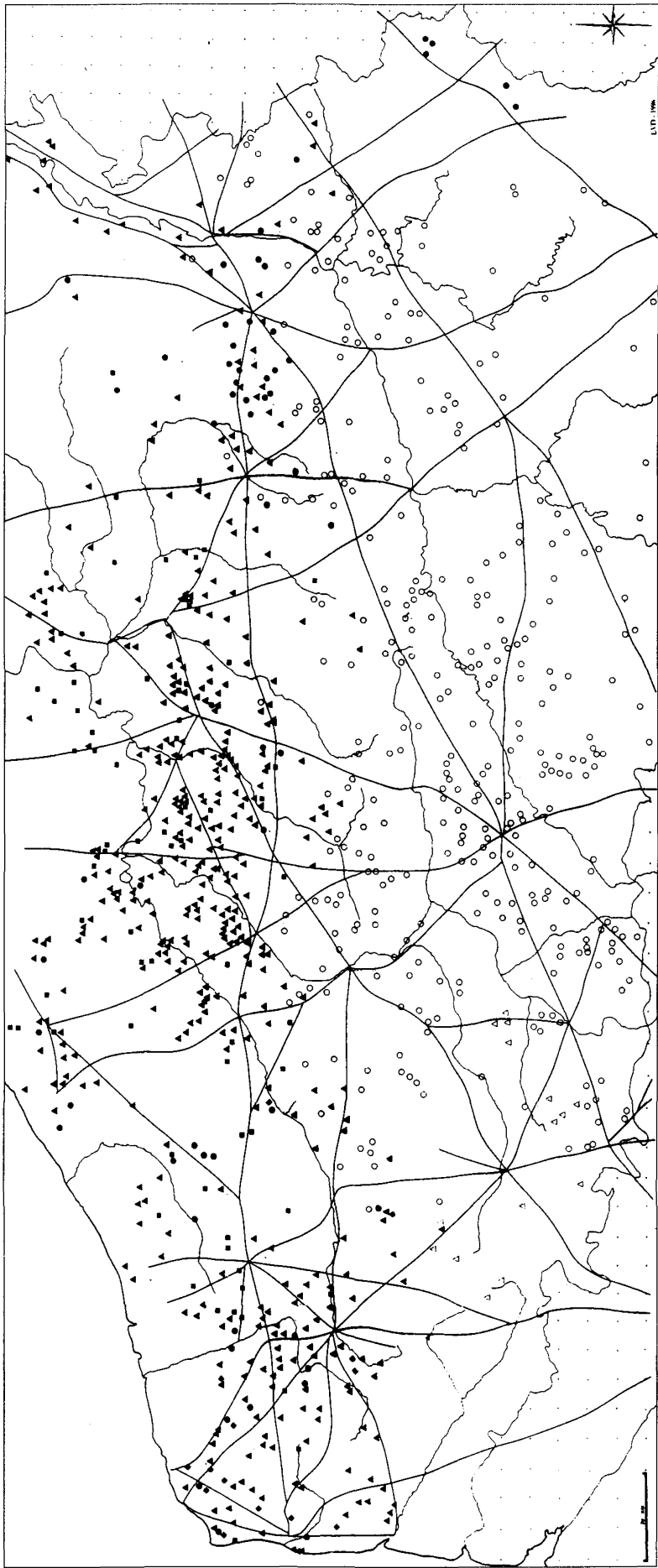
Figure 2:

Germanic types

● -ingum, -ingas
▲ -(inga) (haima)
■ -(inga) sali
♦ -inga tuna

Romance types

○ -(in) iacas
△ -(in) iaca ville/curte

From: C. Van Durme, Galloromaniae

9

The evidence about the names in -sali, and possibly this holds good for the names in -haim too, gives support to the supposition that from the 7th to the 9th century the dispersion of rural settlement increased. This does not necessarily mean that during the same period hamlets did not grow into larger groupings of farmsteads to which the term 'village" might be applied, probably and still for a certain time without its juridical connotation which is a phenomenon of the 11th-12th centuries. Schwind indeed has shown the existence among the landed possessions of the abbey of Lorsch in the middle Rhine region during the 9th century of at least two fairly big groupings of 30 to 35 farmsteads that he does not hesitate to call villages in the geographical sense[23]. They were indeed, as Schwind could prove from inventories and charters, nucleated villages, in which the farmsteads lay side by side. Consequently their lands must have been located outside the village, perhaps in an open field layout as is still the case today. It is not clear to what extent the structuring of a manor by the abbey, which is apparent from the organisation into fiscal units (hubae, mansi) of the lands acquired by gifts, has fostered this grouping. Neither do we know if this structuring led to the abandonment of isolated settlements. The field layout of the early middle ages and the formation of the open field to which I come now can perhaps throw more light upon such problems.

The fields of the early Middle ages
My starting point in tackling this subject will be an updating of the interpretation I proposed many years ago of some rare texts giving information on this element of the early medieval landscape in Flanders[24]. Most of them date from the 9th century and concern the Ghent region because they have been preserved in documents from the two big Benedictine abbeys there, more particularly in a tenth century liber traditionum of the St.Peter's Abbey[25].

A large number of gifts from the 9th century to this abbey are concentrated in the territory of the actual village of Sint-Martens-Latem, situated on the banks of the river Leie some ten kilometres south of Ghent. These gifts consist of modest to very small peasant holdings of between 2.5 and 5 hectares, the lands of which are scattered over four to five fields, each bearing a name composed with the suffix -accra: Hostaraccara (var.Ostar), Euinaccar, Hanria accara, Brainna accara, Helsaccra. Only the last of these field names can be identified with a later and still existing one (Elsakker), situated near two other akker-names of later date. All three significantly lay beside the main arable field of the village which in texts from the later ages is called Latemkouter, a name composed of the name of the village and the Flemish word kouter. I will come to the latter in a moment. Before that it is important to note that in the Ghent region the same configuration occurs regularly, although in texts from the later middle ages: names wilt -akker for small fields beside a big field called kouter, the latter bearing the name of the village or in several cases the name of a hamlet. While these still existing kouter-names cannot be found in our early medieval texts, the latter do preserve many more names composed with accra (accarom, accarum, accrum, agrum), all from the 9th century and all situated not too far (up to 25 kilometres) from Ghent. Like those from Sint-Martens-Latem cited above they are difficult to locate or to identify with a later

field name. This time however, in contrast with the names in -accra cited above, the first element of most names is the name of a kin settlement: -inga; or of a larger settlement interpreting the element inga: -inga haim; for example Ramaringahemia agrum, Culingahem accra, Eninga accra. Consequently they may be interpreted as the name of the principal field of the settlement. Besides this field these settlements had other fields, some with -accra composed with a point of the compass (Westeraccra, Sudaccra), the name of a person (Euinaccar) or otherwise (Stenaccra), some with a name pointing to the origin of the field as newly cleared land (Heninga rodha at Eninga, Rodha at Culingahem), some indicating uncleared land (Ramarigghemia mariscum).

Because the names of these settlements and their fields have nearly all disappeared in later centuries, it is very difficult to make an appeal to later sources and landscapes in order to interpret the early medieval evidence. More particularly we cannot say much about the developments between the 9th and the 13th century and hence explain the disappearance of most of these names. It is nevertheless striking that in the later middle ages, especially in the Ghent region but also more generally in the south of east Flanders, in the valleys of the rivers Scheldt and Leie and not far from the language boundary the majority of the villages and even smaller hamlets in the territory of the same village, have a principal field bearing the name of the village or the hamlet followed by the suffix -kouter. As mentioned above, most of the -akker names had disappeared by that time, except some which were not formed from a settlement name and which were situated at the edge of the main "kouter". It therefore looks as if the 9th-century -accra-names composed with a settlement name have been replaced between the 9th and the 13th century by -kouter- names. A late and unique Living example of such a change is the transformation as late as the 14th century of the name of the principal field of the hamlet Zingem some five kilometres north-east of Ghent, from Zingemakker into Zingemkouter. In most of these cases however the transformation had taken place earlier and corresponded to a change in a geographic and organisational reality to which I will turn in a moment. A place-name mode spreading the name kouter from the 12th- 13th century onwards all over Flanders and to all kinds of fields, had not yet begun. An indication for an earlier date of the transformation, perhaps as early as the 10th century and in most cases probably before the end of the 11th century, is the fact that many small kouter-fields bear the name of a small settlement or hamlet existing in the early middle ages which in the 12th-13th centuries never developed into a village in the full geographical and juridical sense.

The explanation of the success of the field name kouter must start from the fact that it was originally a generic name derived from the Latin word culture through the old French culture[26]. It was not directly borrowed from Latin although many culturae and Flemish kouters were cultivated since Roman times and even earlier. On the basis of some 9th-century polyptychs and inventories in which the word frequently occurs, cultura was used in large parts of northern France and southern Belgium as the generic name for large arable fields of several tens of hectares, being part of the so-called "réserve" (demesne),

that is the land of the classical Carolingian bipartite estate cultivated directly for the lord by the tenants of the estate[27]. It formed one block, only partly subdivided into plots and probably having an open field character. It consisted of the best soils and tended to occupy the higher ground that was well drained. The three-course rotation was practised on these *culturae,* either within each of them or between three of them, although the number of *culturae* is not always a multiple of three and very often goes up in some regions to ten or fifteen, particularly in regions with much newly reclaimed land, like the Ardennes or western France[28].

Through the agricultural services of ploughing, manuring and sowing that the peasants had to perform on the *culturae* of the lord and which were regulated according to the three-course system, the peasants must have become familiar with this regular field system. There is however no proof in the many Carolingian polyptychs and inventories that they practised it on their own holdings. The regular assignment of the same plot in the *cultura* to be cultivated by each peasant for the lord - a system known in the 9th century under the Latin name *ancinga* - must have made the peasant more familiar still with the three-course field system. When from the 10th to the 13th century large parts of the demesne ("réserve") were progressively let out as holdings to the tenants of the disintegrating estate or leased in large blocks to farmers, they continued to be cultivated under a three-course rotation and preserved their open field character. This system persisted not only as an obligation inherited from the former status of the lands but also because the former *culturae,* where peasant plots lay intermingled with large block fields still cultivated for the lord and leased out at a later date, had been transformed into what is usually known as "common fields". Several *culturae,* formerly separated by uncultivated land and fenced, had through clearing grown together into one big open field, divided into three fields[29].

It is this evolution which in my opinion is the explanation for the introduction in the southern part of Flanders, near the language boundary and particularly there, of the word and field name *kouter* at the cost of the disappearance of *akker.* In contrast with several polyptychs from the Paris region, northern France and the Belgian Ardennes, the Latin generic word *cultura* does not occur in Flemish sources before the 10th century. Even fields which had all the characteristics of a *cultura* were nevertheless in the 9th century simply designated as *sierra arabilis,* and from about 1200 appear under the name *kouter*[30]. On the other hand the disintegration of the classical bipartite estate,which had never been strongly implanted, began quite early in Flanders, in the 10th and 11th century[31]. At that moment the Carolingian *culturae* in French speaking regions south of the language boundary underwent the changes I have just described, which would eventually, during the 11th and 12th century, result in the formation of what are called "common fields". It is the latter meaning and the corresponding geographical character of the former culturae, contrasting with the mainly enclosed aspect of most newly cleared lands, that in my opinion determined in the first place the introduction of the word *kouter* into the Flemish regions close to the language boundary before the end of the 11th century and

in the second place its former manorial connotation[32]. The word was probably adopted from the French *culture* on the occasion of the introduction of the three-field system on the main arable field of the settlement, which in the ninth century had been identified by the name of the settlement followed by the suffix *-akker* and which had in several cases been organised as the demesne ("réserve") of a bipartite estate. Since then, as a result of the demographic expansion of the 11th-12th centuries, but also partly thanks to the disintegration of the manorial organisation, this settlement had developed into a real village. Through the integration of some smaller *-akker* situated around the principal field into the latter through clearing, resulting in the disappearance of their names, the henceforth nucleated village possessed a large central arable field with an open aspect, divided into three fields cultivated in a three-course rotation. These characteristics were reminiscent of the former *culturae* further south and the word was adopted in its Germanic form perhaps first through the big landowning abbeys in Flanders (in which French was often spoken, especially in Ghent, and their estate documents written in Latin. The name *kouter* did however not spread to the more northern and eastern parts of Belgium where the name *akker* remained common, nor to the northern Netherlands or western Germany where the *esch* was its counterpart. It is significant that in these regions neither the classical manorial organisation nor the three-course rotation were ever firmly established[33].

The form of fields and parcels
The evidence obtained so far from written sources concerning early medieval field structures has shown that *culturae, akkers and kouters* in north-west Europe generally consisted of large blocks of arable, seldom subdivided into smaller plots. This observation is confirmed, either by written documents or by archaeological evidence for regions as far away as Auvergne or the Bas-Languedoc[34]. In the southern half of France a link has been observed between the early medieval blocks and protohistoric fields and more frequently with a Roman *centuriatio*[35]. A similar link has been suggested with the so-called "Celtic" fields in northwest Europe[36] and even with *centuriatio-like* structures in north-eastern Belgium[37] and central and northern France[38] which are however difficult to establish as such, let alone as precursors of early medieval field forms.

The blocks composing the *culturae* of northern France and southern Belgium belonged as a whole to one owner, the lord of the manor, as part of the so-called "réserve" (demesne) in a classical bipartite estate. The same is not always sure for the 9th century fields with a settlement name followed by the suffix *-accra* in the Ghent region and in south east Flanders[39]. Only when in their totality they were integrated into a manorial structure was this the case, as some examples in and near Ghent demonstrate at a later time when the *-accra*-names had already disappeared and been replaced by -kouter-names. Elsewhere on large fields named after the settlement followed by the suffix *-accra,* peasant plots must have been lying intermingled with lands of the lord who represented the kin or family which had given its name ending in *-inga* to the settlement. The lands of the lord can in later centuries and on early modern cadastral plans

be identified as large blocks of irregular form whereas the peasant plots generally formed small strips brought together in furlongs laid out in the same direction.

These patterns and more particularly the division of block parcels or furlongs into strips can seldom be observed from contemporary early medieval written evidence. Some rare texts from the 10th- 11th centuries, giving the length or width (or both) of plots or indications of their boundaries or of their neighbouring plots have been studied in the Auvergne and Languedoc by French historians (Foumier, Bourin, Guerreau and others)[40]. Their conclusions converge in so far as an evolution away from block fields to smaller and sometimes more irregular parcels can be observed in the 10th-11th century. Only on newly cleared land do regular strips represent from the 11th century onwards the dominant field structure of the later middle ages.

Notes

1. M. Beresford and J. Hurst, *Deserted Medieval Villages: Studies,* 2d ed., Stroud, 1989; M.Aston, D.Austin and C.Dyer (eds.), *The Rural Settlements of Medieval England.. Studies dedicated to Maurice Beresford and John Hurst,* Oxford, 1989. Recent bibliography (1990- 1997) in C.Dyer.' Recent developments and future prospects in research into English medieval rural settlements', in G.De Boe and F.Verhaeghe (eds.), *Rural Settlements in Medieval Europe. Papers of the 'Medieval Europe Brugge 1997' Conference,* vol. 6. Zellik, 1997, 55-61; see also C.Gerrard,' Select Bibliography of Works on Medieval Rural Settlement 1996-97' in *Medieval Settlement Research Group. Annual report 12* (1997), 44-46.
2. H.-J. Nitz, 'La géographie historico-génétique de l'occupation des sols en Allemagne. Etat actuel et évolution scientifique et historique des recherches', *Bulletin d'information de la Mission française en Allemagne 30/31* (1995), 45-70.
3. H. Jankuhn. R. Schützeichel and F. Schwind (eds.), *Das Dorf der Eisenzeit und des frühen Mittelalters.* Göttingen, 1977 (Abhandlungen der Akademie der Wissenschaften in Göttingen. Philologisch-Historische Klasse, 3d Series, no. 101); H. Beck, D. Denecke and H. Jankuhn (eds.), *Untersuchungen zur eisenzeitlichen und frühmittelalterlichen Flur in Mittel-europa und ihrer Nutzung.* 2 vols. Göttingen, 1979/80 (ibidem, nos 115 and 116).
4. Historiography and bibliography by W. A. van Es,' Genetische Siedlungsforschung in den Niederlanden mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der ländlichen Siedlungsarchäologie im ersten Jarhtausend n. Chr.', in K. Fehn, K. Brandt, D. Denecke and F. Irsigler, *Genetische Siedlungsforschung in Mitteleuropa und seinen Nachbarräumen,* Born, 1988. 345-364, and by J.A.J. Vervloet,' Grundzüge der Entwicklung der Historischen Geographie in den Niederlanden mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der genetischen Siedlungsforschung', in *ibidem,* 365-417.
5. A. Verhulst, *Histoire du paysage rural en Flandre,* Brussels, 1966; a revised and richly illustrated Dutch version of this book was published by the Crédit Communal Bank under the title *Landschap en Landbouw in middeleeuws Vlaanderen,* Brussels, 1995.
6. *L'archéologie du village médiéval,* Leuven-Ghent, 1967 (Centre belge d'histoire rurale, Publication no. 5).
7. E. Juillard, A. Meynier and X. de Planhol (eds.), *Structures agraires et paysages ruraux. Un quart de siècle de recherches françaises,* Nancy, 1957.
8. G. Chouquer (ed.), *Les formes du paysage,* 1, *Etudes sur les parcellaires,* Paris, 1996; Idem (ed.), *Les formes du paysage,* 2, *Archéologie des parcellaires. Actes du colloque d'Orléans (mars 1996),* Paris, 1996; Idem (ed.), *Les formes du paysage,* 3, *L'analyse des systèmes spatiaux,* Paris, 1997.
9. J. Chapelot and R. Fossier, *Le village et la maison au moyen âge,* Paris, 1980.
10. A. Querrien, 'Parcellaires antiques et médiévaux du Berry', *Journal des Savants,* 1994, 235-366.
11. See above note 1.
12. The methodology of the use as a historical source of the landscape itself, more particularly of field structures has been studied in my book A. Verhulst, *Le paysage rural: les structures parcellaires de l'Europe du Nord-Ouest,* Turnhout, 1995 (Typologie des sources du moyen âge occidental, no. 73).
13. F. C. W. J. Theuws, 'Centre and periphery in Northern Austrasia (6th-8th centuries). An archaeological perspective', in J.C. Besteman, J.M. Bos and H.A. Heidinga (eds.), *Medieval Archaeology in the Netherlands. Studies presented to H.H. van Regteren Altena,* Assen-Maastricht, 1990, 41-69.
14. M. Gysseling, *Toponymisch Woordenboek van België, Nederland, Luxemburg. Noord-Frankrijk en West-Duitsland (voor 1226),* Tongeren, 1960; Idem, 'La genèse de la frontière linguistique dans le Nord de la Gaule', *Revue, du Nord* 44 (1962), 5-37; Idem and A. Verhulst, *Nederzettingsnamen en Nederzettingsgeschiedenis in de Nederlanden, Noord-Frankrijk en Noord-West-Duitsland,* Amsterdam, 1969 (Bijdragen en Mededelingen van de Commissie, voor Naamkunde en Nederzettingsgeschiedenis van de Koninklijke Nederlandse Akademie van Wetenschappen te Amsterdam, XXV); the linguistic chapter by M. Gysseling in the latter publication has been translated into German: M. Gysseling, ' Die fränkischen Siedlungsnamen', in F. Petri (ed.), *Siedlung, Sprache und Bevölkerungsstruktur im Frankenreich,* Darmstadt, 1973 (Wege der Forschung, 49). The chapter on settlement history I wrote will be used hereafter; M. Gysseling, 'Landschap en bewoning tot circa 1000. Germanisering en taalgrens', in *Algemene geschiedenis der Nederlanden,* 1, Haarlem 1981, 100-115.
15. See the preceding note and A.Verhulst and D. P. Blok, 'Landschap en bewoning tot ca. 1 000. Het natuurlandschap', in *Algemene geschiedenis der Nederlanden,* 1, Haarlem, 1981, 116-142; A. Verhulst and D.P. Blok,, 'Landschap en bewoning tot ca 1000. De agrarische nederzettingen', *ibidem,* 153-164. See also my study cited below, note 24.
16. See the most recent work on these problems: L. Van Durme, *Galloromaniae Neerlandicae submersae Fragmenta,* Ghent, 1996 (in Dutch, with summaries in English, German and French).
17. F. Lot,'De l'origine et de la signification historique et linguistique des noms de lieux en -ville et -court', *Romania* 59 (1933), 199-246.
18. A. Verhulst, 'La genèse du régime domanial classique en France au haut moyen âge', in *Agricoltura e mondo rurale in Occidente nell'alto medioevo,* Spoleto, 1966, 135-160 (Settimane di studio del Centro Italiano di studi sull'alto medioevo, 13), reprinted in A. Verhulst, *Rural and Urban Aspects oj'Early Medieval Northwest Europe,* Aldershot, 1992 (Variorum. Collected Studies Series CS 385).
19. A. Verhulst, 'La diversité du régime domanial entre Loire et Rhin à l'époque carolingienne' in W.Janssen and D.Lohrmann, *Villa-, curtis-, grangia. Landwirtschaft zwischen Loire und Rhein von der Römerzeit zum Hochmittelalter,* Munich, 1983, 133-148 (Beihefte der Francia 11), reprinted in Verhulst, *Rural and Urban Aspects.*
20. R. Schmidt-Wiegand,' Das Dorf nach den Stammesrechten des Kontinents', in Jankuhn-Schützeichel-Schwind, *Das Dorf der Eisenzeit, 408-443.*
21. Gysseling-Verhulst, *Nederzettingsnamen en nederzettings-geschiedenis,* 41.
22. F. L. Ganshof, 'Quelques aspects principaux de la vie économique dans la monarchie franque au VIIe siècle', in *Caratteri del secolo VII in Occidente,* Spoleto, 1958, 76-77 (Settimane di studio del Centro italiano di studi sull'alto medioevo, 5).
23. F. Sehwind, 'Beobachtungen zur inneren Struktur des Dorfes in karolingischer Zeit', in Jankuhn-Schützeichel-Schwind, *Das Dorf der Eisenzeit, 444-493.*
24. A. Verhulst, 'Le paysage rural en Flandre intérieure: son évolution entre le IXe et le XIIIe siècle', *Revue du Nord* 62 (1980), 11-30, reprinted in Verhulst, *Rural and Urban Aspects.*
25. Edited by M. Gysseling and A. C. F. Koch, *Diplomata belgica ante annum 1100 scripta,* Tongeren, 1950, no. 49.
26. Van Durme, *Galloromaniae fraginenta,* 109-118.
27. J. F. Niermeyer, *Mediae Latinitatis Lexicon Minus,* Leiden, 1976, 286.
28. Verhulst, *Le paysage rural: les structures parcellaires,* 61-65; Idem, 'Economic organisation'in R.McKitterick (ed.), *The New Cambridge Medieval History, 11,* 1995, 483-486.

29. Verhulst, *Le paysage rural: les structures parcellaires, 63-65.*
30. An example from the territory of the city of Ghent has been analysed by F.L. Ganshof, 'Le domaine gantois de l'abbaye de Saint-Pierre-au-Mont-Blandin à l'époque carolingienne', *Revue belge de philologie et d'histoire* 26 (1948), 1026-1028.
31. F. L. Ganshof and A. Verhulst, 'Medieval Agrarian Society in its Prime. § 1. France, The Low Countries and Western Germany', in M. Postan (ed.), *The Cambridge Economic History of Europe*, 1, *The Agrarian Life of the middle ages*, 2d. ed., Cambridge, 1966, 305-319; A.Verhulst, *Précis d'histoire rurale de la Belgique*, Brussels, 1990, 74-75.
32. See the discussion of my opinion by two linguists: L. Van Durme, *Toponymie van Velzeke-Ruddershove en Bochoute, 1,* Ghent, 1986, 258-265; Idem *Galloromaniae fragmenta,* 109-117 and M. Devos, *Bouwlandtermen in de Vlaamse dialecten,* Tongeren, 1991, 128-155.
33. Verhulst-Blok, 'De agrarische nederzettingen', 153-161.
34. G. Fournier, *Le peuplement rural en Basse Auvergne durant le haut moyen âge,* Paris, 1962, 322-325; M. Bourin, 'Délimitation des parcelles et perception de l'espace en Bas-Languedoc aux Xe et XIe siècles', in *Campagnes médiévales: l'homme et son espace. Etudes offertes à Robert Fossier,* Paris, 1995, 79.
35. G. Chouquer, 'Parcellaires et longue durée', in Chouquer (ed.), *Lesjbrmes des paysages, 2, Archéologie des parcellaires,* 213-218; J.-L. Abbé, 'Permanences et mutations des parcellaires médiévaux', *ibidem,* 223-233.
36. This opinion of the Dutch archaeologist H. T. Waterbolk, 'Patterns of the peasant landscape', in *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society* 61 (1995), 1-36, concerning the continuity of landscape and settlement from prehistoric to historic times in the Dutch province of Drenthe, is no longer accepted: T. Spek, 'Die bodenkundliche und landschaftliche Lage von Siedlungen, Äkkkem und Gräberfeldern in Drenthe (nördliche Niederiande)', *Siedlungsforschung 14* (1996), 95-193, esp. 142-156 (with an English summary).
37. J. R. Mertens,' Sporen van Rorneins kadaster in Limburg?', *Limburg 37* (1958), 1-7, reprinted in *Acta Archaeologica Lovaniensia* 25 (1986), XX; L. Melard, 'Millen. Van natuurlandschap tot cultuurlandschap', *Volkskunde 87* (1986), 262-345, esp. 282-290.
38. A. Querrien, 'Parcellaires antiques et médiévaux du Berry', 235-366, esp. 307-310; R. Agache, *La Somme pré-romaine et romaine,* Arniens, 1978, 454-456 Mémoires de la Société des Antiquaires de Picardie, in-4° series, 24).
39. Verhulst, 'Paysage rural en Flandre intérieure' (see note 24).
40. Fournier, *Peuplement rural en Basse-Auvergne;* Bourin, 'Délimitation des parcelles' (see note 34); A. Guerreau,' L'évolution du parcellaire en Mâconnais (env.900-env.1060)' in L. Feller, P. Mane, F. Piponnier (eds.), *Le village médiéval et son environnement. Etudes offertes à Jean-Marie Pesez,* Paris, 1998, 509-535.

Prof.em.dr. Adriaan Verhulst,
Mechelsesteenweg 142 627, 2018 Antwerpen.

HOW MEDIEVAL PEOPLE PERCEIVED SETTLEMENT AND LANDSCAPE
(c.500-1600)

Vills, towns and members: medieval perceptions of settlement

by Chris Dyer, (Department of Medieval History, University of Birmingham)

We regard the contrasting patterns of settlement as an important feature of the material culture of the middle ages, but did medieval people, recognise the differences? The question is not easy to answer, because the author of literary and administrative sources were not usually interested in topographical description.

Chronicles mention a hierarchy of places- in Latin, *civitas, urbs, castellum, vicus, villa* and *vicula* or *villula* - but like the tax lists (which also use terms such as tithing, hamlet and member) they are adopting a lordly or administrative perspective. A vill was the tax-paying unit, or the organisation which had legal responsibility, not a group of houses.

The word villa (in Latin), translated into English as town, was very unspecific, and could be applied to a major urban settlement or a small subsidiary rural place. In English writing the distinction between village and town was not made until modern times, though 'town' might be applied to the settlement rather than its surrounding land in such phrases as 'feld and town'. The phrase 'tower and town', to mean everybody, high and low, shows that 'town' could mean a settlement for lower class people.

Tax lists of 1334 for Devon, and to a lesser extent for Cumberland and Essex, make frequent use of the term 'hamlet' which reflects the dispersed pattern of settlements in those counties. But most counties with scattered hamlets gathered these small settlements together for official purposes into 'vills' which are recorded in just the same way as vills which were nucleated villages. More precise indications of dispersed settlements can be found in those manorial surveys, mainly of the late 12th and 13th centuries, which list tenants under the headings of 'members' and other named small places within a manor. A few more detailed surveys and rentals, for example those of the 14th and 15th centuries from the estate of Durham Priory, describe holdings 'In terms of rows, and even their precise location in rows, which demonstrates that the peasant messuages and cottages lay in nucleated vlllages.

Writers occasionally took an interest in topography, notably Gerald of Wales in his depiction of dispersed settlements in a woodland landscape in 12th century Wales, and the father of later English topographical writing, William Worcester, writing in the 1470s and 1480s, was conscious of the size and character of settlements. Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* contain some references both to nucleated villages (in Holderness) and isolated settlements (notably in Norfolk), and he associated the inhabitants with appropriate moral qualities.

Finally detailed studies of manorial court rolls in areas of dispersed settlements suggest that the peasants recognised both the umbrella organisation of their vills, and their hamlets and neighbourhoods, in their behaviour and interactions.

We can conclude that the literate elite and the ordinary inhabitants were aware of variations in the shape and size of settlements, but took for granted these matters of everyday experience. However, this aspect of their environment could still have been a powerful unconscious influence on their lives and outlook. We should value the physical evidence which allows us to appreciate an aspect of the past which would otherwise be largely hidden from us.

SETTLEMENT FORMATION:
NUCLEATED VILLAGES AND PLANNED TOWNS

Taking measures across the medieval landscape: aspects of urban design before the Renaissance

by Keith D. Lilley, (Department of Geography, The Queen's University of Belfast)

In my paper, I put forward the idea that urban design in medieval Europe relied on an understanding and use of geometry, and I suggest that certain towns were devised and laid out according to geometrical principles. Although there have been a number of studies on medieval town planning, the significance of medieval learning and techniques of surveying have largely been overlooked as potential influences on the form of medieval towns. I argue that as well as examining more closely the role of surveying in medieval town design, it is also necessary to consider the use of and importance attached to geometrical knowledge in the Middle Ages. To this end the paper is divided into three main parts. In the first a distinction is drawn between towns that have strictly orthogonal plans and those that are quasi-rectilinear in plan. In the second, this distinction is explained in terms of differences in surveying technique and expertise in the Middle Ages. In the last part it is suggested that geometry was not only of practical importance for the surveying of medieval towns but that towns with geometrical forms had a symbolic importance too. In essence, the paper thus seeks to consider the significance of geometrical knowledge and the role of surveying as influences on medieval plans in Europe. By using analyses of selected plans of medieval towns I suggest that improvements in methods of measurement made it possible for towns to be laid out with greater accuracy from the mid-twelfth century onwards, and that surveying techniques based on practical and theoretical geometry were used to produce towns with orthogonal plans. I also suggest that those towns with strictly orthogonal plans were designed to reflect divine order and therefore had particular iconographic meaning in the Middle Ages.

The paper has been published in *Urban Morphology* (1998, volume 2, number 2)

SEASONAL SETTLEMENT

Seasonal Settlement in Northern England and Southern Scotland

by Angus J. L. Winchester, (Department of History, Lancaster University)

It has long been agreed that seasonal settlement, associated with transhumance to summer pastures, was a feature of the uplands in northern England and southern Scotland. The evidence is threefold: place-names, notably the elements *shiel(d) and scale,* which are usually interpreted as referring to shieling huts on the summer pastures; the physical remains of such huts; and documentary evidence, including references to 'scalings' in medieval estate records and the more detailed accounts of the last vestiges of shieling practices along the Anglo-Scottish Border and in the North Pennines, in the 16th and early 17th centuries.

It is suggested that there has been, perhaps, an over-ready identification of seasonal settlement sites in northern England and southern Scotland. The place-name elements *shiel(d) and scale* are probably best interpreted simply as 'hut'. The terms were used of buildings other than summer-shielings, both specialised huts or sheds, (such as peat storage huts, cattle shelters and lambing sheds) and cottages or poor 'hut' settlements of labouring or non-agricultural elements of society, presumably occupied permanently rather than seasonally. By no means all shielings can be assumed to be associated with long-distance transhumance: some were used to enable milk cows to be herded and tended on pastures within a couple of miles of the home farm.

It is suggested that much greater scepticism is called for, both over the interpretation of references to shielings and over the assumption that the type of long-distance seasonal removal to summer pastures, recorded in limited areas in the 16th and early 17th centuries, was formerly more widespread.

PEASANT HOUSES

Peasant housing and holdings in a marginal area

by Dennis Turner

The peak population level in the Western Highlands of Scotland around 1840 has almost completely obliterated landscape evidence from earlier periods. The oldest rural settlement form visible in the landscape is the immediately pre-croft joint-tenancy 'ferme-toune' with its simple stone-built structures, and these strike most visitors and scholars from outside the area as a pretty primitive combination. There is thus a natural tendency to regard this arrangement as being the traditional settlement pattern and to imagine that we are looking here at something ancient.

The relict peasant buildings of the ferme-tounes can rarely be shown to date from before the late 18th century. The ferme-tounes themselves are associated with joint tenancy employing a form of open or strip-field agriculture known as runrig. The soil, which was generally poor, was usually worked using a spade or foot-plough.

The continuity of occupation and evidence of stone building found at the well-known site of Udal on North Uist has so far proved impossible to replicate in the Inner Islands or on the mainland. There is, however, much documentary evidence to suggest that the earliest surviving relict peasant housing belongs to a first phase of local agricultural improvement and that earlier housing was built largely of perishable materials. Houses built in this way were often short-lived and provided manure as a by-product of dismantling and replacement. As a result, medieval peasant houses are difficult to detect archaeologically leading to ignorance about house-types, settlement location and settlement form. The commonly held view that the pattern of ferme-tounes is of great antiquity is without foundation and the settlement pattern that proceeded the joint tenancy farms of the 18th century is, in fact, difficult to establish. Prof. Robert Dodgshon has recently drawn attention to what he sees as traces of early enclosure with a lack of nucleation underlying the 18th-century evidence on Skye.

Peasant houses in Northern England

by Stuart Wrathmell (West Yorkshire Archaeology Service)

The changing interpretation of the structural evidence for excavated medieval peasant buildings was discussed. Patterns in the distribution of surviving cruck and post-and-truss buildings in northern England seem, from documentary evidence, to extend back into the Middle Ages. Structural models have been developed on the basis of surviving vernacular buildings and documentary evidence, and these have been applied to excavated remains with promising results: the positions of timber trusses within excavated wall foundations could be inferred at sites such as West Whelpington, West Hartburn and Wharram Percy in the North-east. Though excavated evidence from the North-west is less abundant, a survey of vernacular cruck buildings on the Solway Plain of Cumbria has confirmed the significance of many of the indicators developed through structural modelling.

In terms of their formal characteristics, the earliest houses in the Cumbria survey and the excavated medieval houses in the North-east show hearth-passage plans, with a probability that the room below the passage was in many cases used for housing animals. At West Whelpington it was possible to trace the development of the hearth-passage plan from houses with hearths at the centre of the living room. There, however, each house had only one living room, whereas those at West Hartburn and Wharram may have had separate sleeping, parlours beyond the main living room.

Finally, current research on the styles of timber-framed walling in England was outlined briefly, bringing together the distributions published by J.T. Smith in 1966 and the patterns of rural settlement and agrarian exploitation mapped by Brian Roberts. On present evidence, the relative scarcity of timber in the Central Province, where open-field arable farming became most intense, may have had a significant impact on the development of Smith's eastern and western traditions of carpentry.

Wharram Percy Revisited

by Stuart Wrathmell (West Yorkshire Archaeology Service)

The first of two sessions on Wharram Percy opened with a discussion by Stuart Wrathmell of the changing interpretations of settlement at Wharram, and of the current position and plans with regard to post-excavation analysis and publication. Over the forty-year programme of excavation, perceptions of Wharram as a settlement had changed radically on several occasions, in line with current hypotheses: witness the recognition of two or more Anglo-Saxon foci in the wake of Chris Taylor's identification of 'polyfocal' settlements; or Wharram's definition as a 'planned village' after research on medieval village planning, elsewhere in eastern Yorkshire. RCHME's recent publication of crop-mark landscapes on the Wolds, and research elsewhere on Romano-British settlement patterns, are liable to produce radical reinterpretations of Wharram's occupation prior to the development or creation of the medieval village. Even within the Wharram post-excavation programme, the discovery of new, unexpected data has led to profound changes in the interpretation of the South Manor Area and the Churchyard.

In April 1997 the Wharram post-excavation programme was halted by English Heritage, who wished to see a complete review of the research potential of unpublished excavation data before making available further funds. The past twelve months have witnessed a *MAP 2 Assessment* of the records and finds from over fifty sites at Wharram - some minor trenches but others major, open-area excavations. Three excavation reports which were well-advanced towards publication, on the North Manor Area, the South Manor Area and the Churchyard, were excluded from Assessment, but could not be progressed until a further, post-Assessment programme of funding had been arranged. This was particularly unfortunate for the South Manor Area, as the draft publication report had already been submitted to English Heritage, had received scrutiny by English Heritage's readers, and awaited only minor revisions before publication.

The Assessment report and Updated Project Design were submitted to English Heritage in March 1998 after a lengthy review process which included a seminar held under the auspices of the MSRG. The proposals cover the completion of volumes on the North Manor -Area, South Manor Area and Churchyard, together with further reports covering the Plateau excavations (mainly later prehistoric, Romano-British and Anglo-Saxon occupation deposits), the Pond and Dam excavations (with a wealth of important environmental evidence) and the post-medieval farmstead and vicarage excavations (which constitute the most complete and significant investigation of a 15th to 18th-century rural settlement anywhere in the North). A final volume, synthesising data from the various 'site' reports and archives on a village-wide and thematic basis, has also been proposed. Though the Updated Project Design envisages the resumption of the post-excavation project in April 1999, any further progress is dependent upon approval of the proposals by the Ancient Monuments Advisory Committee. Their decision is expected before the end of 1998.

INDUSTRY AND EXCHANGE IN THE COUNTRYSIDE

Hanley Castle, Worcestershire: a case study of a potting village

by J. D. Hurst

The medieval parish of Hanley Castle in Worcestershire contained several settlement *foci,* and its castle served as the centre for the administration of Malvern Chase/Forest. From at least the 12th century potters were based here and continued in operation until the 17th century. Their pottery reached as far away as 100km, especially along the River Severn valley which was clearly a particularly important trade route.

The Hanley Castle potters are barely discernible in the local documentary record until the 16th century, although the trade in their products was considerable throughout the medieval period according to the archaeological record. In the later medieval period, documentary evidence indicates that at least some of the potters were farmers, and this may have been the case throughout the medieval period. The location of known clay pits suggests that their clay came from fields in the agricultural part of the parish, and a later medieval kiln has recently been discovered in this same area.

The association of medieval pottery making and woodland has been previously noted. This association may have been especially close during the initial period of expansion of settlement in about the 12th century, as this will have generated plenty of fuel from woodland clearance. The smallholders, often associated with this type of settlement, could also have been in search of an extra income from potting. Subsequently common forest rights would have continued as the means to acquire fuel at little cost.

In the early 17th century the Chase was disafforested. The potters responded by ceasing to make pots, and by specialising instead in building materials based at new production sites on the river side.

16

FOOD SUPPLY AND MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENTS

Food supply in towns and villages: a comparison based on archaeological evidence

by Umberto Albarella, (Dept. Ancient History and Archaeology, University of Birmingham)

In this paper aspects of food provision in towns and villages will be discussed. The period examined spans from the late Saxon to the early post-medieval and the food stuffs considered are the products of animal origin. The evidence discussed is mainly that of animal teeth and bones found in archaeological sites.

There are four main sources of evidence that zooarchaeology the study of faunal remains from archaeological sites – can provide to the analysis of food procurement. These are the presence/absence of remains of newborn animals, the frequency of different parts of the animal body, the age of slaughter and the sex distribution of animal populations.

This evidence will be used to address three main questions:

- how practices of food supply varied between urban and rural settlements

- how the food supply in towns and villages changed in relation to a number of important social and economic events, such as the origin of a market oriented economy, the move from a more dispersed to a more nucleated settlement, the increase in urbanization, the demographic fluctuations and the increase in meat consumption in post-medieval times

- how patterns of "production" and "consumption" can be identified in different sites.

It will be emphasized that if zooarchaeology is to provide a valuable contribution to our understanding of these questions a number of methodological problems have to be addressed. One of the main problems is the differential preservation and recovery of bones, which can affect the relative frequency of species, body parts and age groups. An equally serious problem is the fact that some animal products - such as milk, cheese, meat off the bone etc. - are "zooarchaeologically invisible" for the simple reason that they have no bones and therefore only in direct evidence can be gained of their use. Finally, a general dearth of data from rural sites makes any comparison between towns and villages far from easy to understand.

It will be concluded that the zooarchaeology evidence suggests that, perhaps unsurprisingly, there is no clear cut division between urban "consumer" and rural "producer" sites. Particularly in the early medieval period some towns were likely to be partly self-sufficient in their supply of animal products (but the same cannot be necessarily said for vegetable supply), though most of the meat was probably imported from the countryside. The beginning of an economy in the 13th century which was more oriented to the market must have had an impact in patterns of food supply, but the zooarchaeological evidence suggests that this was not a sudden change and that some villages may have still relied on local supply even in the later Middle Ages. The move from a more agrarian to a more pastoral oriented economy in late medieval times is certainly related to the increase in meat consumption that can be quite clearly seen in the archaeological evidence. However, although we have firm evidence for this change in urban consumption, the pattern is far from clear in rural areas due to the scarcity of data from late and post-medieval villages.

Finally it is argued that – as long as methodological problems are sorted out – zooarchaeology can provide a useful and original contribution to our analysis of food supply in medieval times. However, to be truly meaningful, this evidence will have to be seen in combination with the information derived from written sources.

THE ORIGIN OF THE NUCLEATED VILLAGE

Rimpton in Somerset

by Chris Thornton, (Victoria County History of Essex)

Rimpton's nucleated village and common-field system can be studied from topographical, place-name and documentary evidence. Tenth-century charters reveal a well defined estate, comprising a 5-hide core south of the stream by which the village stands, and two 'huish' or 1-hide additions to the north. Medieval furlong-names incorporating habitative elements indicate a formerly dispersed settlement pattern. The place-name 'Rimpton' (recorded 938 AD) perhaps refers to the most important of these dispersed sites, the lord's farm, on the boundary between the 5-hide core and a 'huish' holding. That site may have been accompanied at an early date by 7 adjacent curtilages (2-3 a.) lying between the High Street and Back Lane, farms later occupied by tenants who provided service as *famuli* (full-time estate workers). Their tenures may link them to former slaves who perhaps worked the lord's adjacent Wheat-Garston. The village expanded with regular plots on West Street inhabited by tenants

holding virgates, perhaps representing the gathering of previously dispersed peasant farmers into a newly enlarged nucleated settlement. Common fields may have been laid contemporaneously, each tenant holding a standardized unit for money and labour rent. Full nucleation may have occurred by 1086, for the large demesne required substantial labour, but a further phase of expansion for both village and field-system may have occurred in the 12th century with the creation of half-virgates. The initial reorganization and planning is most likely to have been carried out by the Winchester estate after *c.* 980, but the booking of the estate to an earlier lay lord could also have initiated the changes described.

Dorset minster churches in the landscape: Case studies

by Teresa Hall (Wells)

Within Dorset there are just under 40 high-status churches which display a significant number of minster church characteristics. We can be fairly confident of the minster status of fifteen of these and examination of the landscape in which these definite minsters are located shows that they possess certain distinctive features not present in the remaining high-status churches which are associated with *burhs* or with large ecclesiastical estates. Wareham, Bridport and Shaftesbury are *burhs* with high-status churches, though only Wareham appears to have had a minster predating the *burh* construction. Bridport and Shaftesbury are both sited at the interface of *parochiae / royal estates*, whilst the *parochia* of Wareham can be shown to have been substantially reorganized with the construction of the *burh* at Wareham. Churches founded on large ecclesiastical estates show some minster characteristics but lack riverine place-names and have few if any chapelries.

The primary minster churches in Dorset have left quite a distinctive pattern on the landscape. The churches themselves are large and impressive; most are sited in rectilinear graveyards, within areas of settlement where the planning is orientated north-south, east-west, possibly indicating the precinct of the minster. The churches usually sit next to streams or rivers from which the majority take their names. Virtually all possess very large parishes, and their original *parochiae,* most of which were royal or ecclesiastical estates, can be reconstructed from the chapels and detached areas of land once dependent upon them. The primary minster settlements and their *parochiae* stand in contrast to the other high-status churches present in Dorset, which are a mixture of later churches associated with Alfredian burhs, and large estates in ecclesiastical ownership.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NUCLEATED AND DISPERSED SETTLEMENT PATTERNS IN SOUTH-WEST BRITAIN

Holding back the tides: the origins of dispersed settlement in a wetland landscape

by Stephen Rippon (Dept. of History and Archaeology, University of Exeter)

In North Somerset the origins of a dispersed medieval settlement pattern is currently being investigated in the context of a wider investigation of the history of wetland reclamation. An examination of the 'historic landscape', the present patterns of settlements, roads, fields and drainage features, led to the creation of a theoretical model for the process of wetland colonisation through three stages: the simple *exploitation* of wetland resources such as seasonal grazing, *modification of* the landscape through the digging of drainage ditches and low embankments in what was still essentially an intertidal environment, and finally *transformation* of the landscape through the construction of a sea wall and the subsequent drainage of the area so protected from tidal inundation.

Field survey on both sides of the Severn Estuary had revealed the existence of oval-shaped enclosures within the historic landscape which it was hypothesised could relate to the earliest phase of settlement expansion onto the marshes, though it was not clear whether they pre- or post-dated the construction of sea walls. The current programme of survey and excavation at one such site, Puxton near Weston-super-Mare, is exploring the origins and evolution of these enclosures, with particular emphasis on palaeoenvironmental analysis. An interim note on this work appears elsewhere in this annual report.

The 'Leicester School' in the South-West

by Harold Fox, (Department of English Local History, University of Leicester)

The 'Leicester School of English Local History' (a term first used, by Asa Briggs, *New Statesman*, 15 February 1958) has always had interests in the settlement history of south-western England, partly because of the personal preferences of some of the staff members of the department, partly because research into that region, so different from the Midland counties around Leicestershire, has encouraged comparisons, to the benefit of understanding of both. The Leicester School's approach to landscape history (including settlement history), as pioneered by W.G. Hoskins and H.P.R. Finberg, and subsequently elaborated by others, is distinguished by four characteristics. 1: Landscape history is a subject in its own right and is a close relation to social and cultural history. 2: The subject is not a study of inanimate features and structures but of the two-way interaction between people and landscape. 3: All types of evidence must be examined but at root the subject is thoroughly documentary in nature. 4: The approach has always been un-selfconsciously an inter-disciplinary one, and relies not so much on examination of many types of evidence *seriatim*, as upon teasing out the insights which come from the interplay of evidence of all kinds.

Small seigneurial boroughs in Devon: terminology and reality

by Harold Fox

The research reported here is part of an on-going programme on medieval towns in Devon. To the question 'How urbanized was medieval Devon?' most historians have retorted 'not very much', and have described the many small towns which existed as 'village boroughs', 'over-optimistic speculations', glorified villages', 'still-born' (Carus-Wilson) or, still gynaecologically, 'abortive'. Some Devon towns have been described as boroughs for the purpose of royal taxation only, that is 'taxation boroughs' (slightly adapting the terminology of Willard who invented such places in a paper of 1933). All of these terms are misleading. Many Devon towns were indeed small, but this does not mean that they lacked the features - legal, topographical and occupational - which historians today expect of a town. Moreover, recent detailed research, in Devon and its adjacent counties, has shown that Willard's concept of a 'taxation borough' was ill-founded: all places taxed as boroughs were indeed boroughs. The large number of small towns in medieval Devon greatly inflated the urban population of the county; before the Black Death people living in towns accounted for almost one-quarter of the total population, at a very conservative estimate. The county was indeed highly urbanized and this was as a result of three characteristics: fragmented lordship (many opportunities for establishment of new towns); dissected and difficult terrain; and, most important, a highly commercialized economy with many exchanges in commodities other than farm products and carriage overland, to and from ports, of commodities involved in the import, export and coastal trades.

The politics of Cistercian grange foundation and endowment in south-east Wales

by Madeleine Gray

The Cistercians have always bulked large in the Welsh historical consciousness. The order had 15 permanent foundations in Wales, with a probable three failed houses. The extent of their estates is shown on figure 3, based on D H Williams (1990), with amendments to suggest more extensive grange boundaries around Mynyddislwyn and Penrhys. The problem with establishing Cistercian grange boundaries in Wales is that many are known only from seventeenth-century surveys. Such evidence as we have, however, suggests that grange and manor/lordship boundaries were stable.

The Cistercian order was primarily important in Welsh spiritual and cultural life and in its impact on the Welsh landscape. In spite of their professed desire for isolation from the world, some of the Welsh foundations became deeply involved in Welsh political life, though their support for Welsh independence under the princes of Gwynedd and Owain Glyndwr brought them nothing but grief However, there was also a political charge to the foundation and endowment of a religious house, and it is this which forms the subject of this article.

The Cistercians reached western Britain at about the same time as the Norman invaders. The traditional view has been that the Normans founded the first Cistercian houses in Wales as part of the process of conquest, to introduce reformed monasticism in the place of the lax *clays* system and to put the moral authority of the Cistercians behind the process of territorial annexation. This interpretation is borne out by some of the evidence, In 1147, for example, Robert, Earl of Gloucester, lord of Glamorgan, founded a Cistercian house at Margam, near the modern Port Talbot, endowing it with all his land between the Afan and Kenfig rivers, from the mountains to the sea. This endowment placed the Cistercians on the furthest limits of the Norman advance across the narrow coastal plain of south Wales, as effective guardians of the frontier. From the quality and quantity of early Christian carved stones in the immediate vicinity of the later monastic precinct (RCAHM 1976 *passim)*, it seems likely that Margam was an early Welsh monastic foundation and that its endowments were being expropriated for the benefit of the Cistercians.

Robert, Earl of Gloucester was of course not in control of all the land in the endowment. It was more a declaration of intent, on the same lines as the grants to the Benedictines made by his predecessors in Monmouthshire. The hills to the north of Margam were still in Welsh hands, and the Welsh lords of Afan also retained land around the mouth of the Afan river. However, they chose to mark their presence not by attacking the abbey but by making further gifts to it and even offering charters of confirmation of grants by Robert and his son William (Pryce, forthcoming). This may

provide a context for the gruesome tale of Margam's acquisition of the huge grange of Resolven, to the south of the river Neath, from Morgan ap Caradog, lord of Afan under Robert's son William (RCAHM 1982 266-7) and even for the abortive foundation at Pendar, planned as a Welsh daughter house of Margam (RCAHM 1982 295-6, Cowley 1977 23-24, 27, Prichard 1984 56) The reasons for the failure of the foundation at Pendar are difficult to establish. The known endowment was not extensive and may have been inadequate. Was this possibly because the Welsh increasingly perceived a racial element in the process of conquest, and this tension made it difficult for Norman monks to attract Welsh support? T J Prichard has pointed out the paradox of Welsh patronage of a Norman foundation; he identifies Meilyr as the hermit who was also involved with the foundation of a specifically Welsh Cistercian house in south-east Wales, the house at Llantamam which eventually acquired the granges of Pendar. This may also have given the surviving Welsh rulers in south Wales an alternative focus for their generosity and produced a change in strategies of patronage, away from trying to exercise control over the Norman foundation at Margam and towards boosting the endowment of a more emphatically Welsh house.

The same process of takeover of Norman foundations can be seen at work with more success in south-west Wales. Whitland, near Carmarthen, and its daughter house at Strata Florida, were both Anglo-Norman foundations. When this region was reconquered by the great Rhys ap Gruffydd, the Lord Rhys, in the late 12th century, he took the abbeys over, and instead of closing them, re-endowed them generously. From this date both houses started receiving numbers of Welsh postulants and were invited to found daughter houses in areas still under Welsh control. In 1179 Strata Florida sent monks to south-east Wales to found a house endowed by Hywel ab Iorwerth, Welsh lord of Caerleon, at 'Nant Teyrnon near Caerleon'. This was the house later known as Llantamam. It was an explicitly Welsh foundation, initiated during a period of Welsh revival. The house itself was in the lowlands near Caerleon but most of the granges were in the mountains to the north and west (figure 4).

A detailed look at the conjectural background to two of these granges - Abercarn and Wentsland - suggests that there were political considerations in their endowment, and that these considerations have more to do with confrontation than with co-operation. To understand the situation we need to go back in time to 1100 and the Norman advance into the coastal plain between the Ebbw and the Rhymney. Robert de la Hay took over the area around Basaleg, just west of Newport, and granted the church and its subordinate chapelries to the reformed Benedictine abbey of Glastonbury, Robert did not have
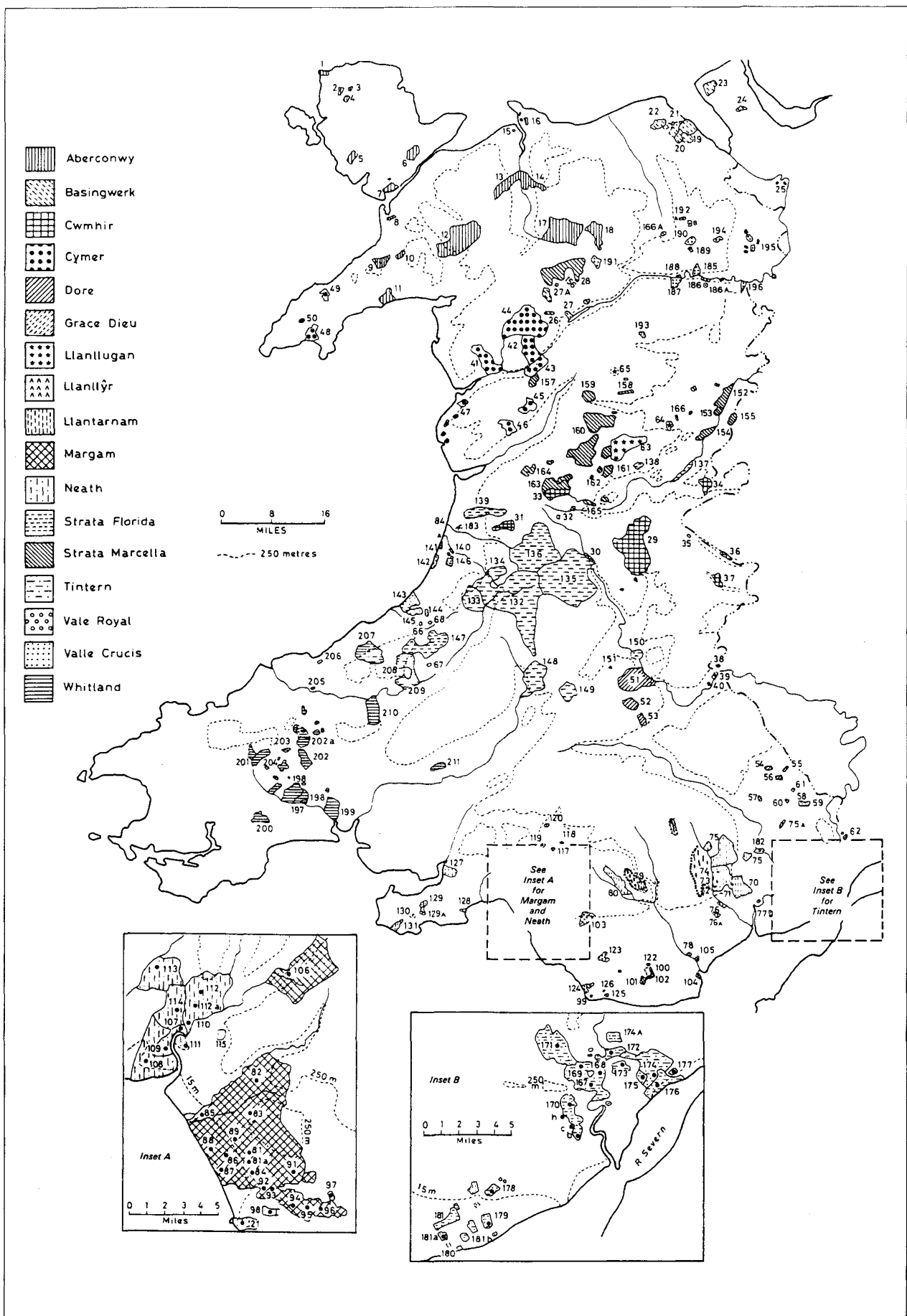
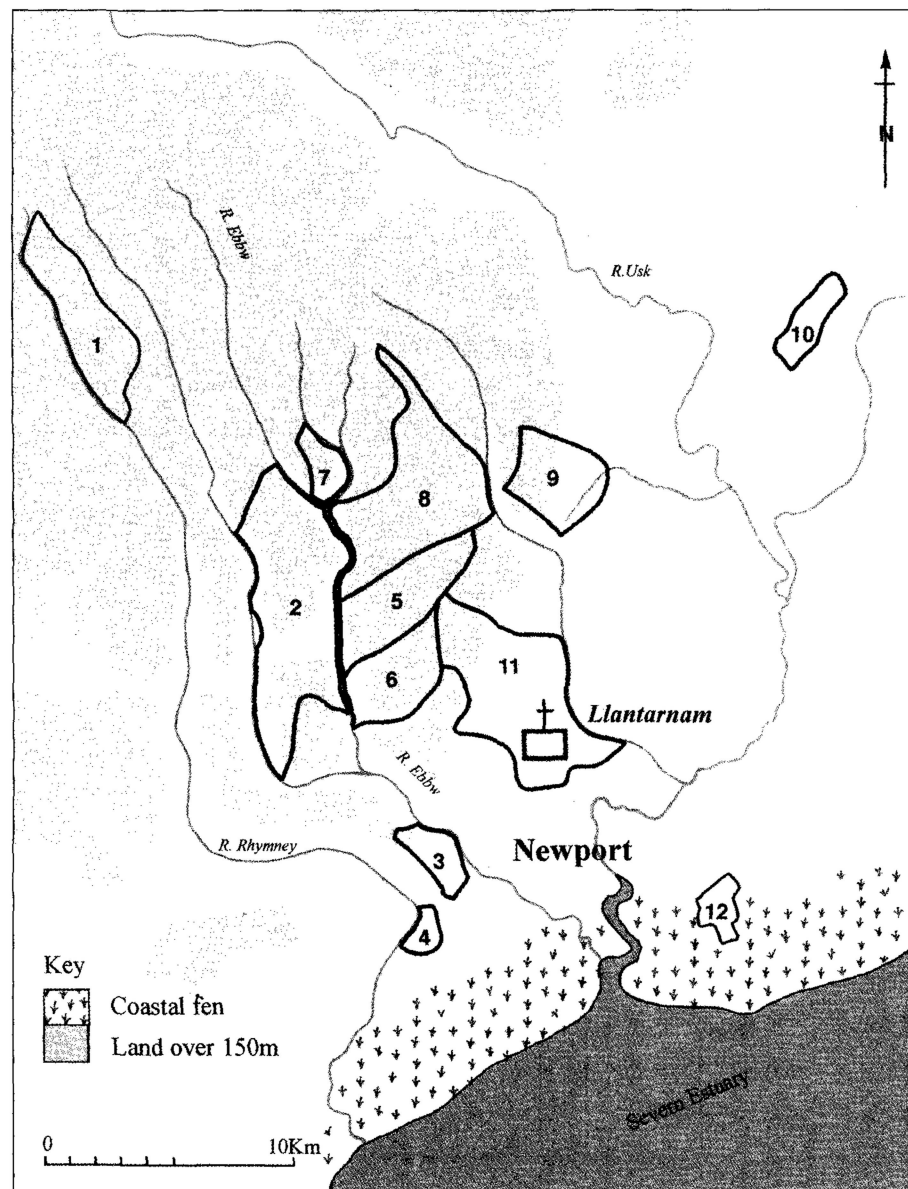*Figure 3 Cistercian lands in Wales (after Williams, 1990)*

21

Figure 4: The Gwent estates of lantarnam Abbey

Key

Coastal fen

Land over 150m

1 Blaentyswg (detached pertion of Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn)
2 Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn
3 Maes-tir (later part of Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn)
4 Land in Basaleg (later part of Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn)
5 Cil-lonydd (later part of Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn)
6 Rhyswg (later part of Abercarn/Mynyddislwyn)

7 Arael (part of Wentsland)
8 Wentsland
9 Mamhilad/Trefethin (part of Wentsland)
10 Bryngwny
11 Magna Porta
12 Pwl-pan

Figure 5: Llanhilleth,Basaleg and its subordinate churches in relation to grange boundaries

Abbey Church

Mother Church

Other churches mentioned in text

Daughter church

Coastal fen

Land over 150m

1 Manmoel
2 Bedwellty
3 Mynyddislwyn
4 Bedwas
5 Machen
6 Risca
7 Henllys
8 Cocdkernew

control of the whole area, from later documents it seems he was not even aware of all that he was giving. What he was doing was using the reformed Benedictine order as a stepping-stone into the hills.

As figure 5 demonstrates, several of these churches are in an interesting relationship with the boundaries of Llantarnam's grange of Mynyddislwyn or Abercarn. The boundary runs along the stream south of Man-moel, close to but carefully avoiding the site of the church. It then follows the river Sirhywi almost to its confluence with the Ebbw but swings away from it to exclude a segment of land around the church at Mynyddislwyn. The churches of Henllys and Risca are also close to grange boundaries, and there are small detached portions of Abercarn Grange near Machen and Basaleg itself.

The grant of Abercarn grange could date from the foundation of the abbey. The area west of the Ebbw was controlled not by Hywel ab Iorwerth but by the Lord Rhys, patron of Strata Florida, and it is possible that he may have shared in the endowment of Strata Florida's daughter house. However, a more likely context is provided by the marriage of Hywel's grand-daughter Gwerfil with Maredudd Gethin, son of the Lord Rhys and heir of the eastern part of his kingdom. Maredudd built the castle which bears his name, Castell Maredudd, very near the church at Machen. If this had always been the focal point of the kingdom, it is possible that the church at Basaleg was the mother church and the church at Machen was the church immediately associated with the *llys*, the lord's court. This makes it likely that the grant to Liantarnam was made explicitly to provide a buffer against Norman expansion, and even a possible springboard for reassertion of Welsh control over these churches.

There is a similar pattern around Llanhileth. We know less about the background here. We are in the next lordship, Abergavenny, which is assumed to have been under Norman control by the date of the foundation of Llantarnam. But here again we have the same pattern of a grange boundary running right up to the presumed focus of settlement and curving around it. Like Mynyddislwyn, Llanhileth church is adjacent to a motte, which may reflect an attempt to impose Norman control via the church, or to defend church interests.

Wentsland was one part of a double grange, the other part was at Bryngwyn, near Raglan. Here we have a possible example of hafod and hendre, summer and winter pastures. However, Bryngwyn was also founded in a disputed area. It is near Castle Arnallt, a Welsh stronghold until its lord Seisyllt ap Dyfnwallt was treacherously murdered by William de Breos in Abergavenny Castle on Xmas Day 1177. Castell Arnallt was razed and other members of the family killed, but recent research is suggesting that they may have retained some control in the area. (Jon Parker, pers. comm.) Can the grant of Bryngwyn to Llantamam be interpreted as an attempt to consolidate their position?

This may lead us to question whether these granges were (as they should have been) vacant and uncultivated ground. There was of course virtually no unused land in medieval Wales: even the bleakest mountains were someone's summer sheepwalks. If Margam was indeed an early medieval religious foundation, it would almost certainly have had one or more dependent lay settlements on the land given to the Cistercians. The boundaries of Llantarnam's Abercarn grange seem to have been drawn to exclude settled areas around Mynyddislwyn church and on the banks of the Sirhywi. The very regular field boundaries on the Crugwyllt ridge above Margam, and on Cefn Rhyswg and Pen-y-fan suggest large-scale organised clearance, possibly by the lay brothers of the order. However, this is not to say that the land was not already in use as pasture.

Llanhileth, too, was apparently a settled and farmed area. The grange boundary consists mainly of rivers, trackways and the natural line of the ridge above Llanhileth church, However, at SO 234 046, it diverges from the line of the ridge to follow a lower trackway, curving round and leaving out Twyn-du and including just a narrow tongue of land on the banks of the Ffrwd-y-wrach. This may have been designed to exclude cultivated land, but the grange here takes in the better farmland in the valley of the Ffrwd-y-wrach and leaves out the bleak mountain grazing of Twyn-du. The boundary here may in fact reflect the limits of one lord's influence.

What of the possible tenants of this land when it was given to the Cistercians? Their status was a potential political flashpoint, but there is no evidence that it ever became an explicitly racial issue. There are plenty of instances of planned depopulation, especially in the Margam charters. (RCAHM 1982 229-30, 243, 283-5, 287-9, 291) This appears to have been done by agreement with individual landowners, though we have no way of assessing the degree of moral blackmail used. However, there are also plenty of examples of coexistence (RCAHM 1982 220-1, 258-60; Williams 1984 244-5) and even of the repopulating of granges when it became difficult to recruit lay brothers (RCAHM 1982 287-9)

The status of Cistercian granges retained its political charge, in some cases to the end of the medieval period and even beyond. The cult of the shrine of the Virgin Mary at Penrhys on the former endowment of Pendar has been linked with the traumatic aftermath of the Glyndwr uprising (Gray 1996). It was certainly sufficiently popular for a settlement to develop around it, and its destruction was a national priority in 1538 (Toulmin Smith 1906 16; PRO SP I/133 f30, 136 f93). The grange farm was eventually used for the construction of one of south Wales's most disadvantaged housing estates. This has now become the home of a remarkable urban renewal project. As well as providing some of the infrastructure of community life, members of the new church at Penrhys are using the monastic connections of the area to tackle the problem of alienation and rootlessness by emphasising its long history and distinguished traditions. Current policy towards 'socially excluded' housing estates appears to be to consider demolishing them; and a decade ago Penrhys would have been considered ripe for demolition. If it survives now, it will be in no small measure because of the continuing importance of its monastic tradition.

References

Cowley, F G, 1977, *The Monastic Order in South Wales, 1066-1349.* Cardiff.

Gray, M, 1996, 'Penrhys: the archaeology of a pilgrimage', *Morgannwg* 40 10-32

Prichard, T J, 1984, 'The Church in Medieval Senghenydd', *Journal of Welsh Ecclesiastical History* 1 45-62

Pryce, H, forthcoming, 'Patrons and Patronage among the Cistercians in Wales' in P V Webster and M Gray, eds, *The Cistercians in Wales and the West*

RCAHM 1976. Royal Commission on Ancient and Historical Monuments in Wales, An *Inventory of the Ancient Monuments in Glamorgan. Volume 1. Pre-Norman. Part iii. The Early Christian Period. Cardiff*

RCAHM 1982. Royal Commission on Ancient and Historical Monuments in Wales, *An Inventory of the Ancient Monuments in Glamorgan. Volume III: Medieval Secular Monuments. Part ii: Non-defensive. Cardiff*

Toulmin Smith, Lucy, 1906, *The Itinerary in Wales of John Leland ...* London

Williams, D H, 1984, *The Welsh Cistercians.* Caldey Island

Williams, D H, 1990, *An Atlas of Cistercian Lands in Wales.* Cardiff

Medieval pottery from the Admington survey: some preliminary conclusions

by Chris Dyer, (Department of Medieval History, University of Birmingham)

The Admington survey has been the subject of regular interim reports in this journal during the 1990s. It has sought to answer a wide range of questions about the origins, functioning and decline of the three nucleated midland villages of Admington, Lark Stoke and Hidcote Bartrim through a combination of archaeological and documentary evidence. The villages lie near the northern edge of the Cotwold Hills, with Lark Stoke and Hidcote on the lower slopes of the hills, and Admington on the plain below. Admington and Lark Stoke are now in Warwickshire, but all three were once in Gloucestershire. Winchcombe Abbey was the lord of Admington and Hidcote Bartrim, while Lark Stoke belonged to various gentry lords. Admington with about 30 families at its peak in the fourteenth century was twice as big as Lark Stoke and Hidcote Bartrim, which could muster no more than a dozen households each. By the early sixteenth century Lark Stoke was largely deserted, while the other two villages were severely shrunken. Attached to Admington was a small hamlet, Newnham, located in the nearby parish of Whitchurch, which was abandoned in the later middle ages.

A generous grant from the MSRG under its scheme for funding small-scale research allowed Stephanie Ratkai to construct a database of the medieval pottery finds from the survey. The pottery, amounting in total to about 806 sherds, came mainly from field walking, and occasionally from observation of excavations for pipes and landscape gardening. This report will focus on three areas of enquiry on which the analysis of the pottery finds can throw light. These are the dating of settlements, the external contacts of the villagers, and aspects of the use of land within the village territories.

1. Dating of settlements.

As is commonly the case, the bulk of the pottery belongs to the twelfth to sixteenth centuries, and so it provides only a few clues to the nature of settlement in the period 400-1100. The abundance of Roman finds makes it unlikely that the land was uninhabited in these centuries, and indeed a surface find of a clay loom weight at Admington, a presumed Anglo-Saxon burial from Hidcote, place-name evidence (Including the survival of the British name for the Humber Brook which forms the eastern boundary of Admington), the apparently well-established population at the time of Domesday, all suggest some settlement in the area at various times within the seven centuries between the end of Roman imperial government and the Norman Conquest. The three villages probably lay in a large territory originally centred on Mickleton, which fragmented to form the separate townships in the ninth and tenth centuries. Isolated finds of pre-Conquest pottery come from fields on the edge of the later village territories, on the northern edge of Lark Stoke township and to the south of Admington, though one sherd was found in a small scale excavation on the site of Lark Stoke village. The only group of pottery of this period, four pieces of grass-tempered ware, came from a field to the south of Hidcote Bartrim. Pre-Conquest pottery finds could be manuring scatters, or they could represent the same type of dispersed settlement pattern that has been found a few miles to the east in Northamptonshire. In the west midlands such pre-Conquest sites are not usually marked by concentrations of sherds, presumably because pottery was not in such general domestic use as it was to the east.

We might expect to find that the different fortunes of the settlements in the later middle ages would be reflected in pottery finds from the villages and their fields. The main type of pottery in use, Malvernian ware from Hanley Castle in Worcestershire, changed from a predominantly reduced (grey) ware to mainly oxidised (red) ware in the later middle ages. As this transition took place in the fourteenth century we might expect to find a lower proportion of the oxidised wares at Lark Stoke village and its fields, as the village went into terminal decline soon after 1400. In fact at Lark Stoke there were three times as many oxidised as reduced Malvernian sherds, while at Admington there were twice as many. But these finds came from the fields rather than the settlement of Lark Stoke itself, where the reduced wares outnumbered the oxidised. It is possible that part of Lark Stoke's arable fields continued in cultivation after the village had been deserted, which led to later pottery being spread on the fields with manure in the fifteenth century. At Newnham

finds from the hamlet site included a high proportion of oxidised sherds, so that its desertion (which is not dated from documents) may be rather later than that of Lark Stoke.

It may be significant that all of the Cistercian ware finds of the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries came from Admington, and none from Lark Stoke, but the sample is very small.

2. External contacts.
The pottery used by the villagers at Admington, Lark Stoke and Hidcote Bartrim was manufactured at a wide range of kilns at a distance of 20-30 miles. The most remarkable feature was the predominance of 'Malvernian' products from Hanley Castle in western Worcestershire, which accounted for 64 per cent of the pottery analysed. By comparison the other sources of pottery, such as Brill (Buckinghamshire), with 8 per cent of the finds, unknown kiln sites in the south-east midlands, with another 8 percent, and kilns in north Warwickshire and the Worcester area making sandy wares (10 per cent), were minor suppliers. On an even smaller scale among the sample were sherds from Warwickshire kilns producing a distinctive grey ware, Chilvers Coton also in north Warwickshire, and potters from the Banbury area. Although our three villages are located on the edge of the Cotswolds, the characteristic oolitic tempered ware from that region account for only about 2 per cent of the finds.

The pottery is likely to have been bought by the villagers in markets or fairs held in the most accessible towns, of which five lie within a range of 5-10 miles, at Alcester, Chipping Campden, Evesham, Shipston-on-Stour and Stratford-upon-Avon. The documents show contacts between Admington people and Alcester, Shipston and Stratford, as well as villages in the neighbourhood, but the presence of so much Malvernian pottery suggest strong western connections, perhaps through Chipping Campden or Evesham. More work needs to be done on finds from other sites, but the general impression is that Admington lies on the eastern edge of the zone dominated by the Malvernian pottery, and in south Warwickshire generally it was comparatively scarce. This finding would not be expected from the documentary evidence for trading patterns in the region. The distribution of pottery must reflect the activities of middle men who brought the products of kilns some distance to markets and fairs.

Lords are sometimes thought to have influenced trading patterns, but in this case the monks of Winchcombe had little effect on the acquisition of pottery by their tenants at Admington, judging from the scarcity of pottery with a source in the Cotswolds.

3. Use of land.
Most of the finds of pottery come from manuring scatters, rather than settlement sites. We can identify the areas under cultivation in the later middle ages from documents and the distribution of ridge and furrow. High densities of finds are found in some fields, and meagre quantities in others, even though both seem to have been under cultivation at the same time. In the case of Hidcote, fields immediately to the north and south of the village were apparently manured throughout the twelfth to sixteenth centuries, which accords with an expectation that the fields nearest to the village would receive the manure and domestic rubbish, while the outlying fields were dunged by folded sheep. Even here the apparently obvious explanation does not work because fields immediately to the east of the village are virtually devoid of pottery finds. At Admington and Lark Stoke fields with high densities of pottery are found at some distance (up to a mile) from the villages while fields nearby have few xxxxx. This suggests that the villagers selected land of a particular type to receive carted manure, and it may be that these formed an infield. In theory the fields were managed on a two-course rotation, by which half of the land was fallowed each year, but selected furlongs are recorded occasionally in villages in the west midland region as being cultivated more frequently, perhaps every year, and received more intensive manuring. If this happened in our villages, the practice was consistently pursued, because the pottery from these favoured fields covers a wide date range. A similar pattern is found on the lord's demesne at Admington, which covered the south-east corner of the township. Unfortunately the sample from the demesne is not large enough to decide if the pottery differed in character from that found on the common fields cultivated by peasants.

This report has focussed on three aspects of the Admington pottery. It can also tell us about domestic, culinary and cultural aspects of peasant life, though the abraded sherds from field walking are less suitable for this type of analysis than finds from excavations. Research continues on this material, and other evidence from the Admington survey. The author is grateful to the Group for their grant and Stephanie Ratkai for her painstaking work of indentification, and for discussing the interpretation of the finds.

Village Earthwork Survey in Nottinghamshire

by Mike Bishop and Keith Challis

Background to the Survey

The Nottinghamshire Village Earthwork Survey was conceived after a series of earthworks in and adjacent to villages were noticed for the first time during site visits by Nottinghamshire County Council's archaeologists. These casual observations reinforced a long-standing concern that there were numbers of such earthworks in the County, vulnerable to damage or destruction because they were largely unrecognised and unrecorded. These observations led to the commissioning, by the County Council, of a survey of every village in Nottinghamshire. The objective of the survey was rapid inspection at a reconnaissance level, using only aerial photographs and field observation. The work was carried out by Trent & Peak Archaeological Trust in three phases over the years 1994 to 1996.

By design, the survey was restricted to examining the built-up area of each village or hamlet and its immediate hinterland. No attempt was made to examine the wider landscape within each parish for earthworks and inspection was limited to publicly accessible areas. Where buildings, hedges or walls obscured a clear view of the landscape or of suspected earthwork features the best inspection and record possible was made. In some cases this means that the record for a particular village is incomplete due to access restrictions.

Consequently this is not an exhaustive study which claims to have noted all the earthworks which exist in or adjacent to villages. Others still await recognition, indeed some have been discovered since the completion of the project. Nevertheless the results of the project have been numerically dramatic and have added considerably to knowledge in very many of Nottinghamshire's villages.

Survey Methodology

The initial stage of the survey involved the inspection of vertical aerial photographs held by Nottinghamshire County Council. Two sets of photographs were examined, the 1971 county survey (monochrome prints at a scale of 1:12000) and the 1992 county survey (colour prints at a scale of 1:10000). As far as was possible all prints covering the survey area were viewed, and earthwork features within and around villages were sketch plotted onto extracts from the 1:10000 Sites and Monuments Record (SMR) basemap.

In general the 1:12000 prints, though revealing large areas of ridge and furrow around villages, were at too small a scale to clearly show earthwork features within villages. The larger scale of the 1:10000 prints assisted in the identification of earthworks, though the colour photographs lacked the clarity and image definition of the monochrome prints.

All of the villages were visited during winter and early spring, when vegetation was low and hence earthworks at their most visible. Each individual earthwork or group of associated earthworks identified was assigned a record number. The extent, and where possible, summary details of the earthworks, were sketch plotted onto overlay sheets for the 1:10000 SMR map extracts. A record proforma was completed for each site and a colour print photograph taken, principally to record the location and state-of-preservation of the earthworks. Areas of surviving ridge and furrow not associated with other earthworks were also sketch plotted onto the 1:10000 overlay sheets. Subsequently, this information has been integrated with the Nottinghamshire SMR by the County Council's archaeological staff.

Results

In total 941 new earthworks were recorded by the survey. This figure may be compared with the 409 earthworks recorded by the SMR before the survey (Figure 6).
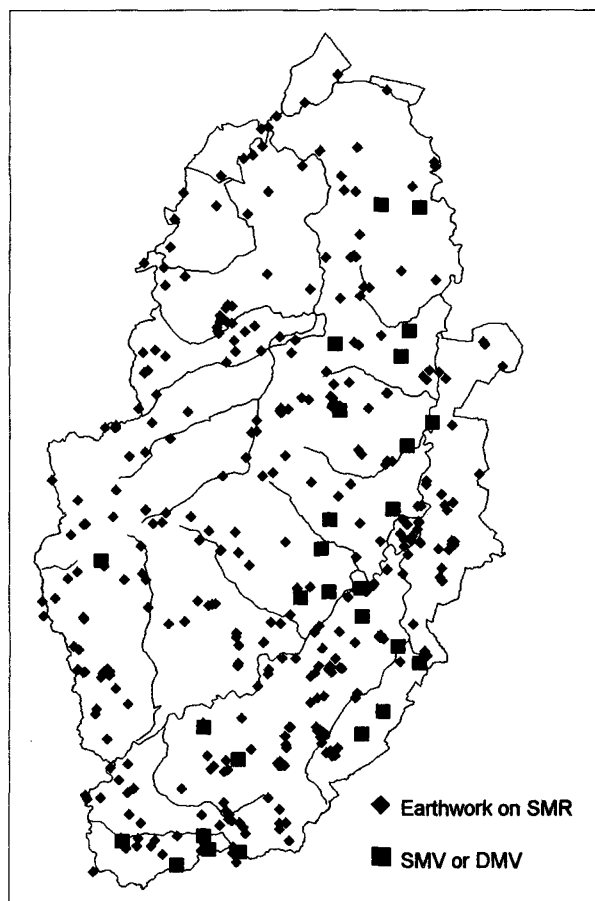

Figure 6: Nottinghamshire showing the location of earthwork sites of all types recorded by the SMR prior to the village survey and the location of shrunken and deserted settlement sites.

Approximately 36% of the newly recorded earthworks were identifiable on the aerial photographs examined prior to fieldwork, while the remaining 64% were identified by fieldwork (Figure 7).
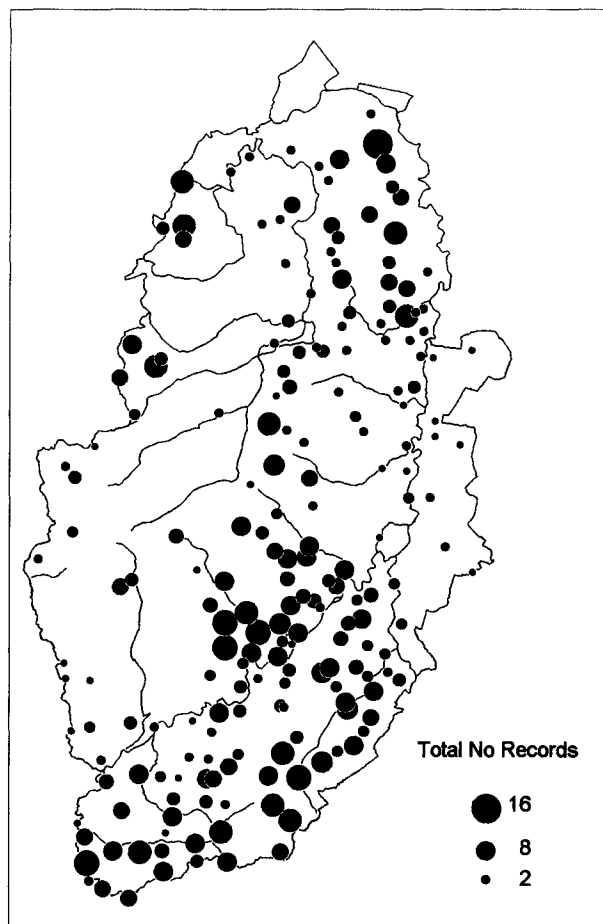

Figure 7: Nottinghamshire, proportional circles show the total number of earthworks newly recorded by the survey for each village within the county.

For the purpose of analysis newly-recorded earthwork sites were assigned to one or more of five categories, based on examination of their superficial form and character:

1. Settlement earthworks, including areas of identifiable croft and toft, house platforms, etc.
2. Agricultural earthworks, substantial areas of ridge and furrow and/or lynchets.
3. Boundary earthworks.
4. Earthworks of roads and tracks.
5. Quarries.

329 settlement-related earthworks were recorded (Figure 7) This substantial number contrasts markedly to the 27 records of shrunken or deserted settlement earthworks previously known to the SMR. The existing records are largely of the "classic" DMVs noted as long ago as the 1940s by fieldworkers such as Beresford (1954) and include substantial, fully deserted sites such as West Burton and Whimpton Moor, as well as shrunken settlements such as East Stoke. The newly-identified sites are similarly diverse, ranging

from individual house platforms to substantial areas of earthworks related to shrunken settlement, notable at Ragnall and Walkeringham in the north of the County. The addition of the new records, indicating settlement shrinkage or shift within Nottinghamshire's villages, provides further evidence of the dynamic nature of settlement change in the medieval and post-medieval period. While this is perhaps no particular surprise given changing views on medieval settlement (Astill 1988, 36) it must serve as a reminder that in most cases our understanding of settlement patterns is based on far from complete evidence.

In addition to the substantial numbers of settlement related earthworks, 354 agricultural earthworks were recorded together with 159 roads and tracks, 358 boundaries and 62 quarry earthworks. The distributions of these earthworks are shown in Figures 10 – 12. It is noticeable that the overall distributions of settlement and agricultural earthworks almost exactly coincide, together indicating fragmentary survival of relict parts of an extensive agricultural settlement pattern. The date and wider significance of these earthworks is considered below.
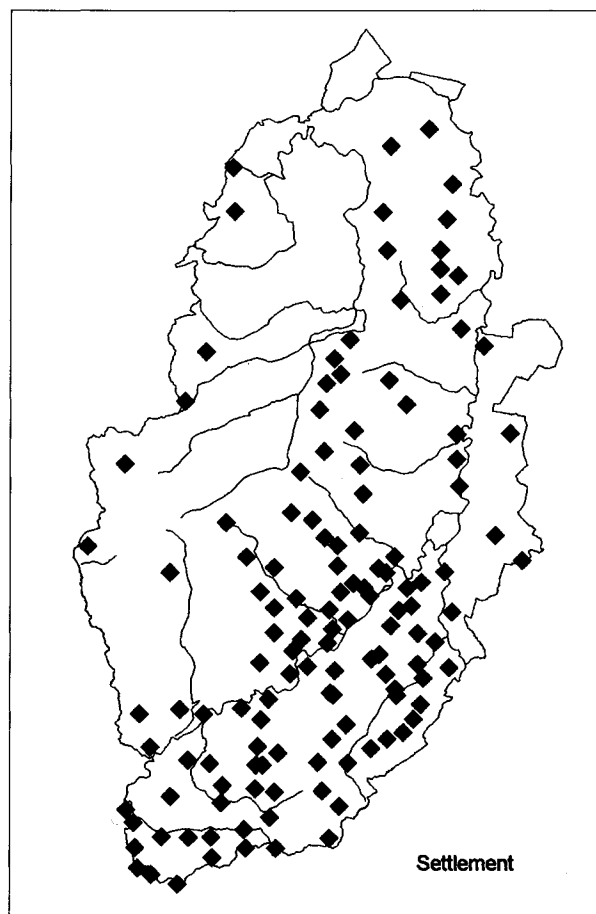

Figure 8: Nottinghamshire, distribution of settlement earthworks.

The Date and Significance of the Earthworks
It appears likely that both the considerably varied topography of the county and historic patterns of settlement and land use may have played a significant part in both the creation and survival of earthwork sites.
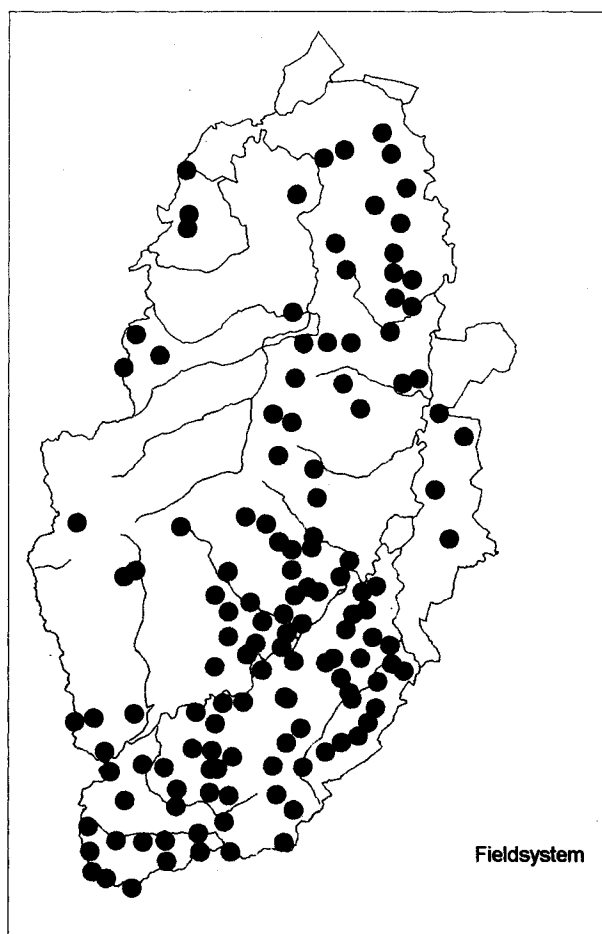
Figure 9: Nottinghamshire, distribution of earthworks of fieldsystems.

Nottinghamshire may be divided into a number of broad landscape regions with differing settlement and landscape characteristics (Figure 13; as defined by the Countryside Appraisal Project undertaken by the County Council). Examination of the distribution of earthwork sites in relation to these landscape regions reveals some potentially significant patterns.

In Figure 14 proportional circles indicate the total number of records of all types assigned to each place visited within Nottinghamshire, against a background of the landscape regions. While the absolute figures should be treated with some caution (clearly a crude measurement of the number of records in no way indicates the quality or significance of the remains recorded) the trend is significant. The majority of earthwork sites appear to be located on the Wolds, Vale of Belvoir and Farmland of south and Mid Nottinghamshire and to a lesser extent the alluvial lowlands of the Trent Washlands. Few earthworks appear to exist on the Sandlands, Idle Lowlands and in particular in Sherwood.

In part this pattern may reflect the susceptibility of the durable clay soils of the south and central areas of the County to support both the formation and survival of earthworks of all types. However, other factors are also in play. The clay soils of the south and central portions of the County supported a system of nucleated
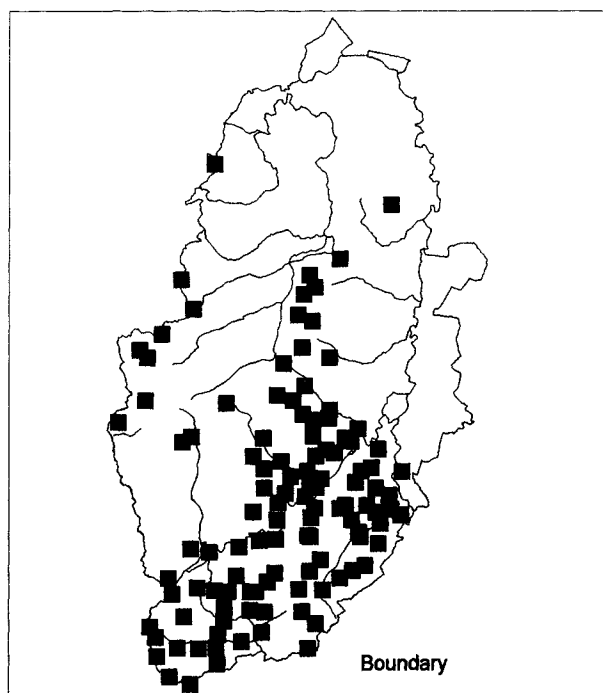

Figure 10: Nottinghamshire, distribution of boundary earthworks.

settlement and open field farming probably already well-developed by the 12th century. In contrast in the north and west of the County substantial areas of which fell within the jurisdiction of the Royal Forest of Sherwood during the Middle Ages, the historic patterns of settlement and land use were considerably more varied.

Comparison of the distribution of settlement and agricultural earthworks (Figure 15) with the landscape regions appears to reinforce the impression that the presence of earthwork sites (which, it should be stressed, are not dated) is intimately tied to landscapes with a long history of settlement and agriculture.

The large scale conversion of earlier medieval arable to later medieval pasture which affected much of the County from the mid 15th century onward (Lyth 1989, 17) was, in some places at least, associated with a decline in population which led to the abandonment of peripheral parts of even well-established settlements such as Laxton (Challis and Sheppard 1998). In many cases this process will have facilitated the survival of earthworks under long-term pasture, much of which has only begun to revert to arable use in the past 20 or so years.

Ultimately, in the absence of evidence from excavation, the date of the earthworks recorded in the Village Earthwork Survey is unknown. While some may mark late medieval or early post-medieval settlement shrinkage it is equally possible that they result from later circumstances. It should not be forgotten that one of the most impressive deserted settlements in Nottinghamshire, at West Burton, was abandoned only in the early 19th century after a decline of a mere 50 years. 18th and 19th century enclosures, the industrial revolution, agrarian change, the poor laws, and the migration from the countryside to larger centres and towns in the later 19th and early 20th centuries,
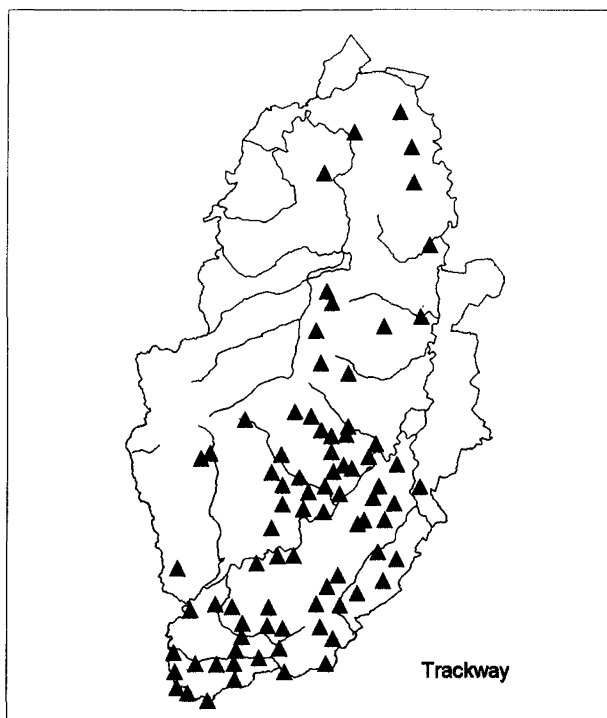
Figure 11: Nottinghamshire, distribution of earthworks of trackways.

Figure 12: Nottinghamshire, distribution of earthworks of quarries.

were amongst a number of demographic factors that affected the character of villages. Indeed, the paucity of physical evidence for medieval, let alone late Saxon, occupation from Nottinghamshire villages in general creates an impression that these settlements have been much altered by such late changes.

On the other hand, the longevity of the Plan-Forms of many villages may suggest that some, even many, of these earthworks have an antiquity that extends back well beyond any direct evidence. Nottinghamshire is not well endowed with early maps of villages, and those which do exist do not take us back in general much before 1600. Some of the maps show settlements which were affected by recent or ongoing change. The terrier which accompanies the famous 1635 map of Laxton, for example, shows that the lord of the manor's steward was taking tenancies in hand and consolidating holdings within both the open fields and the village. Further, both terrier and map imply an earlier phase of re-organisation in the 16th century or before. Plan-Forms shown on some of the early maps have been much altered since, as for example at Sibthorpe where Senior's map of 1629 is very difficult to square with 19th century and modern maps. Nevertheless, there are frequent instances where the village layouts on early maps come through to those of the 19th century with little alteration. Even today the historic cores of such villages often retain the essence and character of these early layouts, despite relatively recent infill and peripheral development. An example here is Woodborough. This is shown on the Sherwood Forest Map of 1609 as having a regulated layout on either side of a main street. Save for the church, only the plots on the north side carried buildings. This layout can be directly compared with that to be seen on Sanderson's Map of twenty Miles around Mansfield,
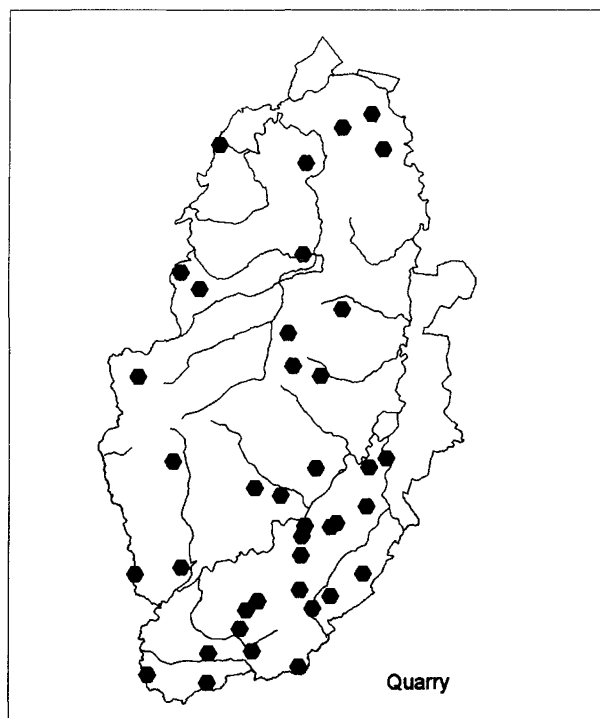
1834, and on OS 6 inch and larger scale maps up to today. Woodborough is not unique, the same can be said for Lowdham which is also shown on the Sherwood Forest Map, for Rolleston which was mapped by Senior in 1627, and numbers of other places. Thus the evidence of maps is that village layouts frequently can survive social and economic changes over a period of some 350 years or more.

In the light of this documented survival, the question arises of the undocumented antiquity of village layouts. If Plan-Forms have survived through the changes of the post medieval centuries, may they not have an equally long history before their first mapping? Of course this is the presumption which lies behind all Plan-Form analysis. While this presumption should be challenged constantly, it does appear to be vindicated by the internal "stratigraphy" in layouts and developmental histories revealed by such analysis. It is therefore possible that some of the earthworks recorded in this survey may have been both created and abandoned before the particular village was mapped for the first time.

Clearly, the history of an individual community is unique and both the Plan-Form of the village and the earthworks recorded in this survey are a product of that history. Plan-Form analysis is based on maps and frequently these maps are relatively recent. Only where there is a series of maps, allowing comparison across time, is it possible to demonstrate change and development. Otherwise, it may be possible to postulate a history of development for a particular community but the evidence remains at a temporal distance from the point of change. The existence of the earthworks recorded in this survey adds another component to be taken into account in Plan-Form analysis. This component is closer to being
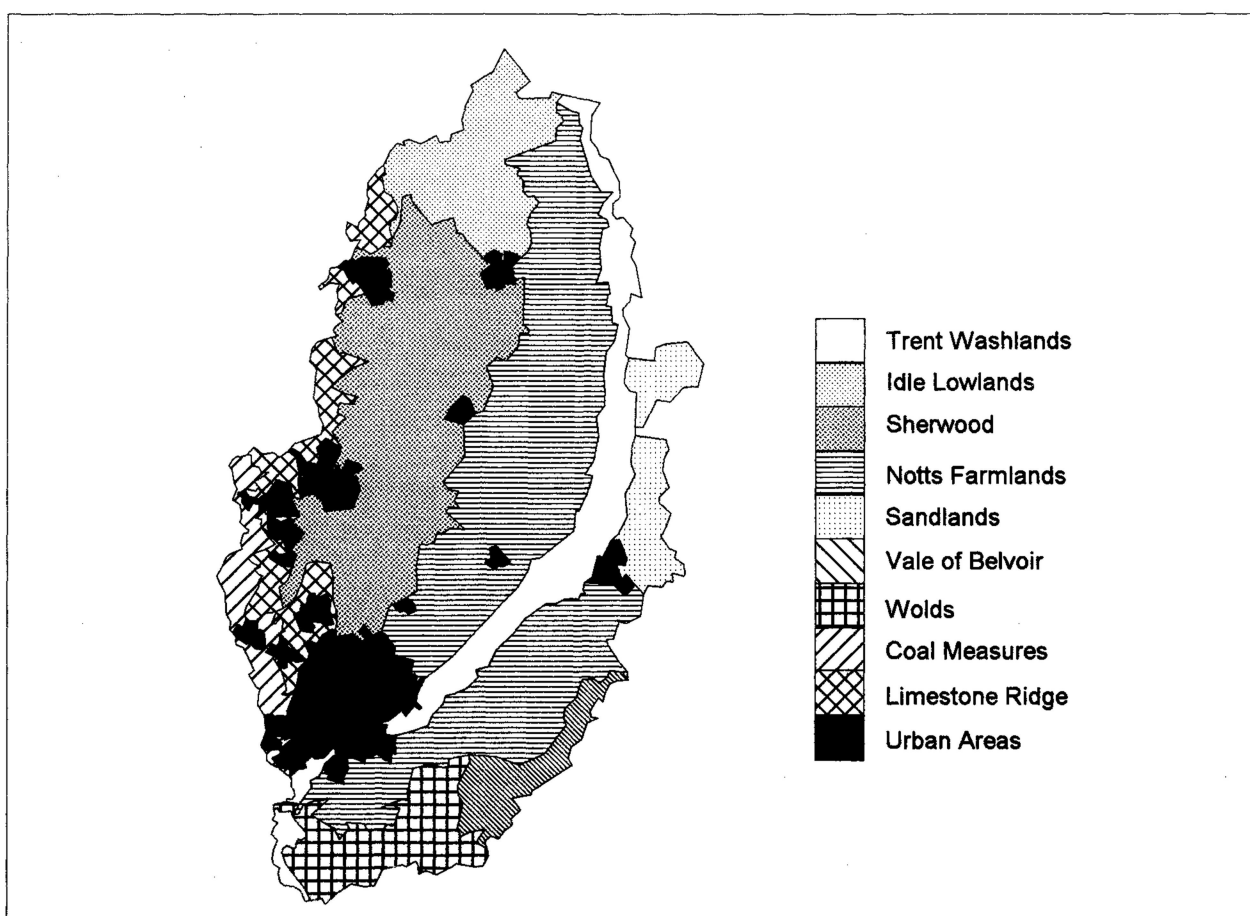
Figure 13: Nottinghamshire Regional Character Area.

Trent Washlands – *A low-lying agricultural region associated with the broad valley of Trent and Soar, characterised by productive arable farming, meadowlands, small nucleated villages, market towns and cities.*

Idle Lowlands – *A varied, low-lying region characterised by sparsely settled carrlands, levels and rolling sandlands with village settlements.*

Sherwood – *A well-wooded region characterised by semi-natural woodlands and heaths, historic country estates, mining settlements and a planned layout of roads and fields.*

Notts Farmlands – *A rural agricultural region characterised in the west by small nucleated red brick villages, narrow country lanes and ancient woodland and in the south by large arable fields, village settlements and broad alluvial levels.*

Sandlands – *A remote, low-lying agricultural region characterised by a well-ordered layout of fields and roads, small red brick villages, varied woodland cover and pockets of healthy vegetation.*

Vale of Belvoir – *A low-lying clay vale with a tradition of dairy farming and a landscape of large hedged fields and small rural villages.*

Wolds – *A sparsely settled, remote rural region characterised by rolling clay wolds, mixed farming, small red brick villages and narrow country lanes.*

Coal Measures – *A densely settled, heavily industrialised region characterised by closely spaced mining settlements, pit heaps and small pastoral farms.*

Limestone Ridge – *A gently rolling, in places urbanised, agricultural landscape with a regular pattern of large fields and distinctive stone villages.*

a contemporary witness to the changing circumstances of the individual community, for the earthworks themselves were created and preserved during those changes. Therefore, they are valuable additions to the understanding of the particular villages in which they have been found. Further, in so far as patterns in their occurence and evidence for their date permits, they are a new contribution to settlement studies in Nottinghamshire as a whole. Balanced beside the common appearance of

certain Plan-Form elements across the County, the earthwork remains of "deserted" settlements, and the economic histories of their communities, these earthworks amplify the range of evidence available. Important as they are however, their absence in some villages should not be taken to imply that these communties did not share the same general history as the rest, or that remains of earlier settlements do not exist. The reasons behind the creation of many of these
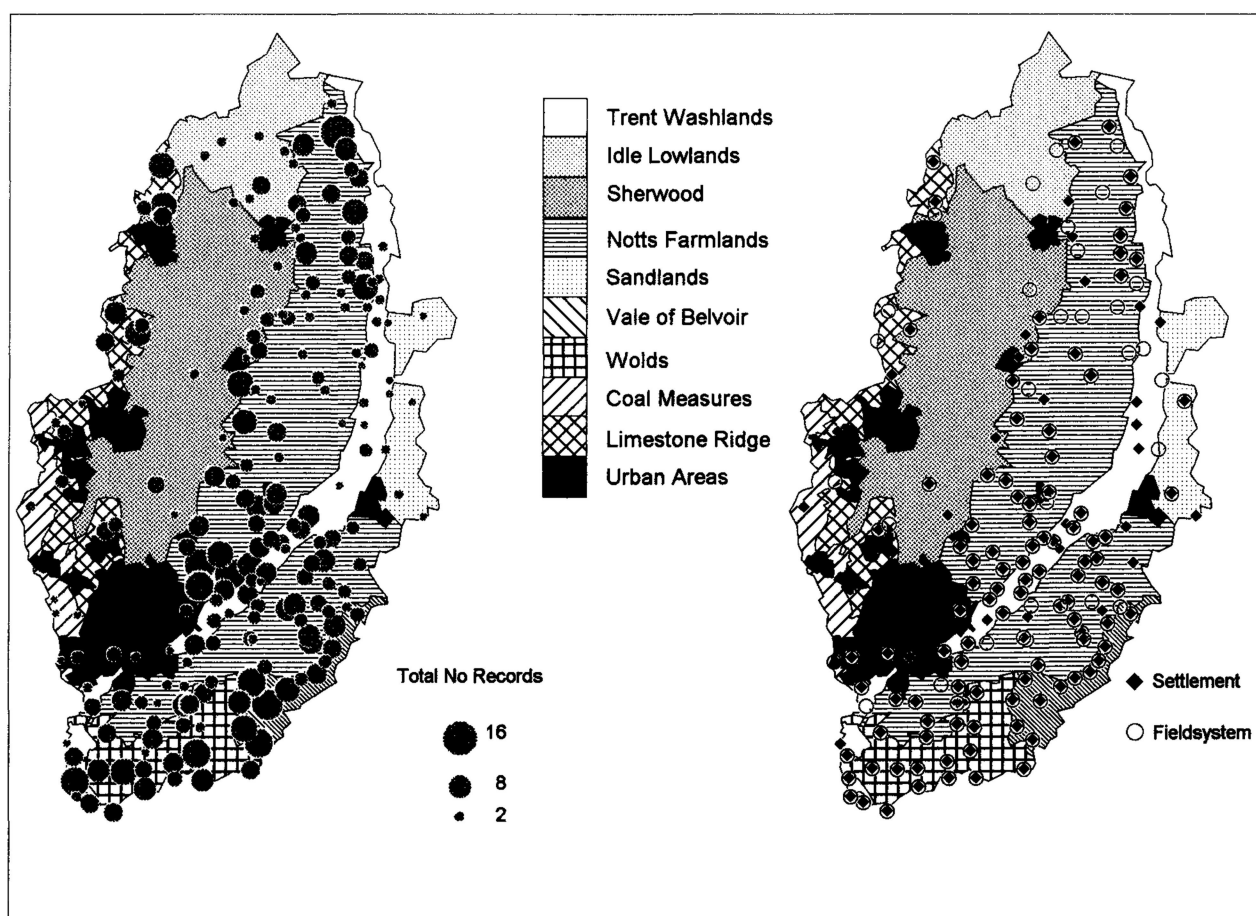
30

Figure 14: Nottinghamshire, showing the landscape regions; proportional circles indicate the total number of earthworks recorded by the village survey in each village.

Figure 15: Nottinghamshire, showing landscape regions and the distribution of earthworks of settlements and fieldsystems.

earthworks are imperfectly understood, and, depending on type and situation, may be very local. These earthworks have survived because of the decisions made in the past about the use of the land upon which they stand. In these cases they have been left alone; in many other cases comparable earthworks may have been levelled or ploughed down, or redeveloped. The survival of earthworks is in itself a factor of the history of the individual community.

Curatorial Implications

One of the reasons for commissioning the survey was a strong suspicion, founded in observed evidence, that unrecorded earthworks were likely to exist in many villages. The results have justified both the suspicion and the undertaking of the survey. In doing so the lie has been given to any assumption that the archaeological resource is well known or documented. We are accustomed to the discovery of new upstanding monuments in upland areas, which are sparsely populated and difficult to reach. That earthworks may exist unrecorded in the lowlands, which are well populated, relatively easy of access, must give pause for thought. Despite a generation and more of intense and expanding interest in medieval settlements, in the history of villages and the countryside, and in conservation, it is still possible to find

such remains, not tucked away in the forgotten, perhaps wooded, corners of parishes, but in or adjacent to villages, within yards of where people live and work. If such earthworks are to be found in villages, what then may lie in those forgotten corners? To those archaeologists who work at the local level this is perhaps no revelation, but to others it may be a salutary reminder about the limitations of our knowledge of archaeological remains. It is all too easy to forget, in this age of sites and monument records and resource management strategies, that the recognition of archaeological remains has been, and is, subject to human vagaries. Consequently, there are many areas in which basic survey and study are wanting. Clearly there is still a need for basic field reconnaissance and record.

Lack of survey and study affects the means by which the protection and investigation of the earthworks can be secured. A very few may be considered for Scheduling, on the basis of their strength, definition, and typological context. The remainder will depend upon the planning process if development affecting them is proposed. Here, the acid test is the importance of the remains. While the survey itself provides some quantification to assist in this assessment, the significance of these earthworks is difficult to establish without

detailed study of their contexts at both local and regional levels. This is particularly true for the majority of the earthworks which are not habitation sites, but were boundaries, tracks, and other elements of a working landscape. Further, these earthworks remain vulnerable to activities which do not require planning permission, particularly agriculture. Indeed, one of the concerns which underlay the commissioning of the survey originated from just such destruction of known but unrecorded earthworks, in two villages some distance apart.

There is of course, no ready solution to these problems. The need is for village studies which draw together Plan-Form analysis, field survey, archaeological discoveries, and documented history, to provide coherent statements about villages. These statements then need to be taken into account in the framing of planning policies, conservation strategies and the like, not least as they provide the depth and context to the modern characters of villages. The local communities need to be involved in all of this, so that their knowledge may be brought in and the results of studies be passed on. After all, the history of a village is very much the history of a particular community, and that community is ultimately responsible for the maintenance of its history. To achieve these studies requires resources and the focus and will to provide and use them. The Village Earthworks Survey is but a beginning.

References

Astill, G. 1988. "Rural Settlement: the Toft and the Croft." in Astill, G. & Grant, A. Eds. *The Countryside of Medieval England.* Blackwell Oxford.

Beresford, M. 1954. *The Lost Villages of England.* London, Lutterworth Press.

Challis, K. and Sheppard, R. 1998. *Laxton Village Survey.* Trent & Peak Archaeological Trust. Nottingham.

Lyth, P. 1989. *A History of Nottinghamshire Farming.* Newark, Cromwell Press.

Nottinghamshire County Council. 1997. *Countryside Appraisal. Nottinghamshire Landscape Guidelines.*

Mike Bishop
Nottinghamshire County Council
Trent Bridge House
Fox Road
West Bridgford
Nottingham

Keith Challis
Trent & Peak Archaeological Trust
University Park
Nottingham NG7 2RD

Hides and Hyde Farms in Central and Southern England: A Preliminary Report

by Rosamond Faith, Wolfson College, Oxford

Twenty-one settlements of various sizes in Somerset with names including the element 'Huish' have taken their name from *hiwisc.* They were large farms of up to 586 hectares according to the type of land 'agricultural unit(s) ... self-contained if not self-sufficient.' The larger hides were in the west of the county and included large tracts of rough grazing. M. Costen takes some of them to be the oldest type of independent Anglo-Saxon farm, pre-dating the open field system (Costen 1992 a 93-5; b).

Was there an equivalent of these huish farms outside Somerset? OE words are involved. Their common root is *hiwan,* 'a household, a family'. From this came *hiwisc,* 'a household, a family' and later. 'the measure of land that would support a family'. This became ME Hewish, Huish and is found in place names only in the south west. Elswhere it gave rise to *hid* (earlier *higid*), with the same meanings as *huish. Hid* was Latinized from the eleventh century as *hida* and became ME 'hide', but by far the most common form in modern place names is 'Hyde' (Smith 1956, 246-8). I have discussed elswhere the wider question of the role of the hide as a unit for the calculation of public service and rent (Faith 1997 89-125). My general line of argument is that before the Conquest hidated land was held on much freer terms, approximating to allod, than the often unhidated land of peasants who were closely integrated into the manorial economy and whose holdings were often close to the manorial curia.

As Hyde Farm, is a fairly common name , it seemed worthwhile to follow up Costen's findings for areas outside Somerset. A study was begun in 1994 with the help of a grant from the group. A brief notice about this appeared in *MSRG Report* 10 (1995), and as a result of this and of appeals at meetings of the group and elsewhere several examples of Hyde Farms were sent to me by people who had come across them in the course of their own work on local topics. They have very generously allowed me to reproduce summaries of their work, which is acknowledged individually below. I am very grateful to them for allowing me to present their work in this way, and of course do not implicate them in my interpretations. It is to early to attempt an analysis , and I hope to collect many more examples, but it seemed useful to bring these together, and to provide linking comments of my own, for the attention of readers of *MSRG Report* in the hope of comments and further contributions. No conclusions can be drawn from the distribution of these examples across the country: that depends solely on the contributions I have received. That is not to say that their environment does not matter, and in the second part of this paper I try to describe a likely combination of environment and farming systems that might have favoured the survival of hide farms in the Chilterns.

The modern place and farm name Hyde, Hyde Farm, (the spelling Hide is rare) and related names (Hyde Lane,

Wood etc) are very common, and for some counties even a brief glance at the map will reveal one or two. As an indication of this, an analysis of the 1994 Post Office Address file shows that they have survived in central and southern England (excluding Kent, where the hide was hardly used as a measurement) and do not appear at all in the eastern counties, where sulung and carucate were used, or the north except for Cumberland.[1]

This preliminary survey of this randomly selected Group of hides and hide farms may help to isolate some common, and therefore perhaps important, characteristics, but it is necessary to bear in mind that the hides that have survived can be studied because they are survivals, not because they are typical. Only hides which are named as such, which retained an individual identity, and can be located, are considered here.

If Hyde Farms represent, as Costen's Huish farms do, the oldest type of independent Anglo-Saxon farm, pre-dating the open field system, they would have had very varying chances of survival into the period of the written and cartographic record, let alone as modern names. Maitland traced the tendency of the hide to disintegrate into smaller units in the middle ages, and of course this process can have taken place at any period, including recent times (Maitland 1960). Many discrete hides must have 'disappeared' through being transmogrified into small *gentry farms or manors* and adopting more prestigious names. Hyde or 'at Hide ' is not uncommon as a medieval surname at of the upper peasantry but also at a more elevated level. Two examples of hide farms with fine houses that retained their name are set out below.

Kingston, Sussex[2]
The lands of the manor of Hide maintained their identity until enclosure. The present Hyde Manor house replaced an older building, still standing, on a different site in the sixteenth century.

Marcham, Oxfordshire (Berkshire) (SU 459968)
Hyde Farm, a single hide in *DB,* became the property of the sacrist of Abingdon Abbey and later of a succession of prosperous yeoman farmers. It has a fine thirteenth century hall house, and retained until recently a contiguous block of land on the edge of the parish (Faith 1997, 139-40).

Hides in common field systems
Central and southern England includes areas which underwent some profound agrarian changes which the Somerset of Costen's farms did not. Many farmers adopted some form of common field system which amalgamated all or some of their arable. This entailed nucleation at least some regrouping of settlement, so that farms were no longer standing among their own fields. At various times from the fifteenth century on many of these common field systems were themselves dislocated by
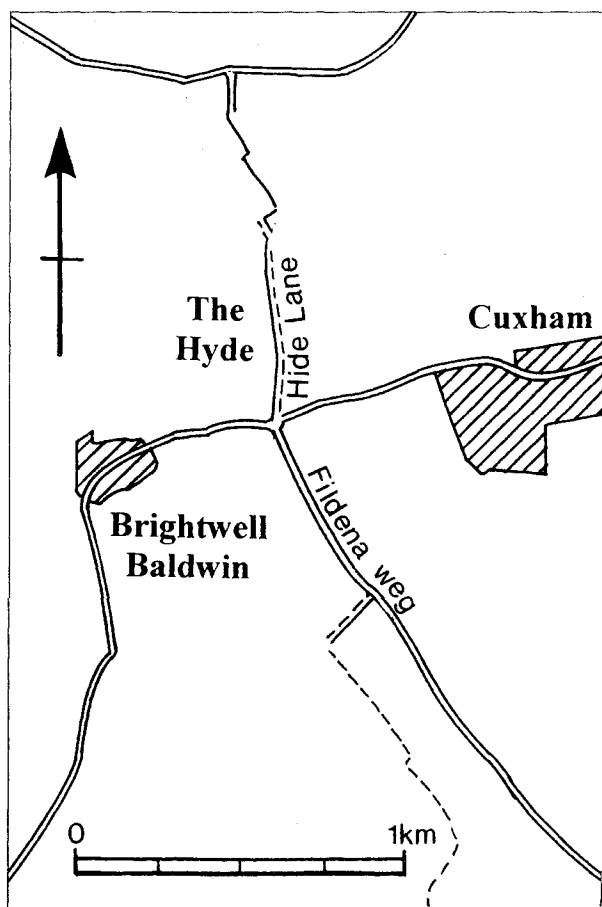
Figure 16: Brightwell Baldwin, Oxfordshire

enclosure, giving the current participants in the system, discrete and enclosed fields and again shifting farmhouses from a village street or other nucleus to outlying sites. What chance would a hide farm have had of surviving these upheavals as a recognisable entity? A surprising number do and very many more may come to light.

The most extreme case for the survival of the hide as a farming unit into the era of common field agriculture has been made by David Hall (Hall, 1987). He has argued that the arable holdings in Northamptonshire common field systems were tied to the hidage the number of hides of the manor. These yardland holdings, or their divisions, represented equal fractions of the overall hidage of the manor. He takes the field systems to have originated in the ninth or tenth century, and to have been laid out to give each participant an equal share of the hidage. (There seems to be no unhidated land in the systems Hall describes and he assumes that the hidage of a manor remained constant over time.) In the present examples hides which are detectable as holdings in common field arable – or former common field arable – did so as blocks or furlongs rather than as scattered strips.

Brightwell Baldwin, Oxfordshire (SU 658954) (Fig.16)
The Hyde and Hyde Lane appear on the 6" OS. The Hyde forms the eastern part of Brightwell Park, now down to grass but showing patches of ridge and furrow in air photographs.[3] Hyde Lane, which runs along the east side of the park, forms part of the parish boundary between Brightwell Baldwin and Cuxham. In the ninth and tenth century their boundary consisted at this point of a lane

called *fildena weg*.[4] It is now Turners Green Lane. This way cuts across the ends of furlongs which form the modern parish boundary just north of Hyde Lane so it must be later than the furlongs themselves. The field systems of which they formed a part are thus late ninth century at the latest. The area of ridge and furrow in the area of The Hyde may have been part of this system, later taken into the park. It looks as if the way from Cuxham to Brightwell Baldwin formed its southern boundary, as the, *fildena weg* from there south is no longer called Hyde Lane.

Ecchinswell, Hampshire[5]
Hyde Farm in the eighteenth century had holdings in the open fields amounting to 56 acres, some of its 40 strips being in 4 and 6 acres blocks, which is unusual here.

East Lockinge, Berkshire[6]
Hide piece, containing '24 lands' is one of five named furlongs in the common fields of East Lockinge shown on a plan of 1781.

Shaw Cum Donnington, Berkshire
The Hyde is an enclosed field of 33.5 acres on a tithe map of 1842, the parish boundary, which elsewhere runs mostly along natural features, forming an anomalous detour to include it in the neighbouring parish.[7]

Tilsworth, Bedfordshire[8]
'atte Hyde' occurs as a surname in 1309, Hyde furlong in 1531. On a map of 1804 The Hides is an enclosed block among other enclosures, near the village to the east.

South Newington, Oxfordshire (Fig. 17)
'la Hida' is mentioned in Bracton's Note Book, La Hyde in the Hundred Rolls of 1279, Hide in the Eynsham Cartulary. (Gelling 1953, i. 277). Hyde Farm is on the north eastern part of the parish where the boundary seems to follow furlong ends, so possibly the bounds of the hide did likewise. It is one of three isolated farms in the parish which is otherwise nucleated.
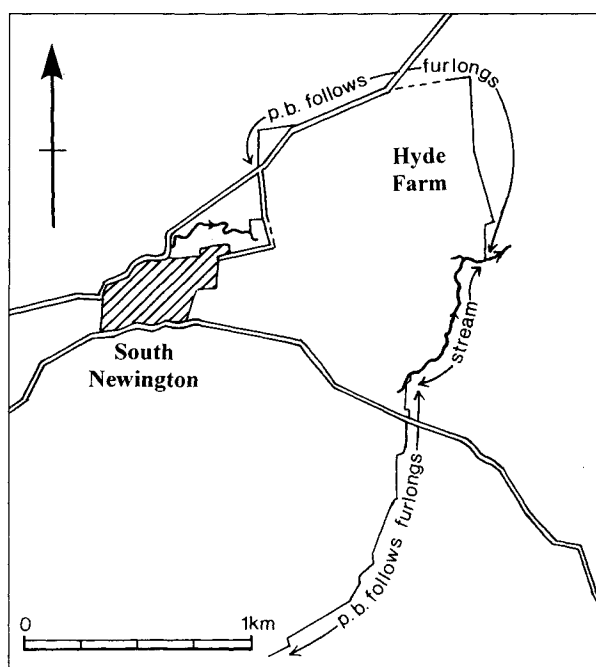

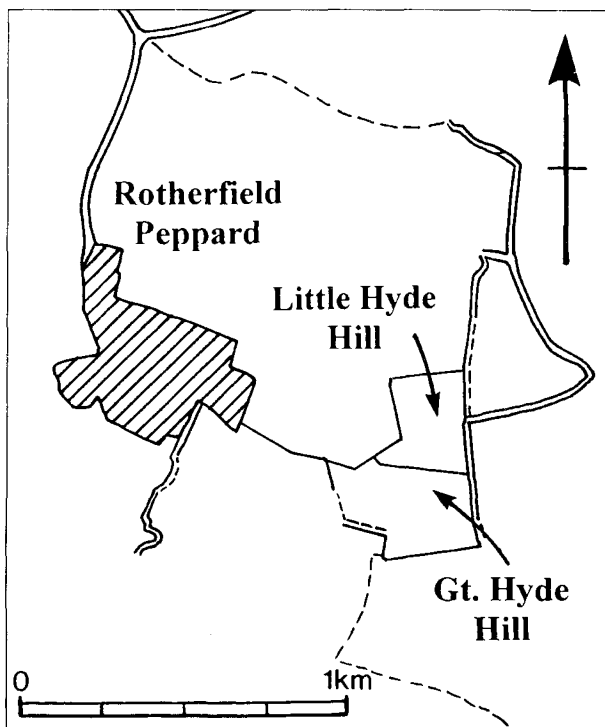*Figure 17: South Newington, Oxfordshire*

Figure 18: Rotherfield Peppard, Oxfordshire

Hides, meadow and woodland

Perhaps related to hides as open field holdings is the practice of using them as the basis of alloting common meadow, as was done in Churchill, Oxon, in the nineteenth century. The meadows were divided into sets, and each set subdivided into ten named hides. The hide seems to have been represented by some object with its characteristic mark. The order of the hides within each set was determined each year by lot, and shares within each hide were redistributed every twelve years among the tenants and freeholders (Rose 1934, 54). The system appears in the lease of a hide by Oswald, bishop of Worcester in Himbleton, Worcestershire in the tenth century: the lessee was entitled to 'the fifth acre of the lot meadow'(Robertson 1956, 116-7). Permanent 'Hyde meadow' was found to be a common term in a recent, survey of east midland parishes (P Mitchell-Fox, personal communication) Hydes Pastures, Nuneaton, Warwickshire,[9] and Hyde Meadow Whitchurch, Oxfordshire are other examples. There are Hyde Mills at Netherswell, Stow on the Wold, Gloucestershire and Brewood, Staffordshire.

Like manorial landholdings, some hides had detached woodland, as did the Himbleton hide. Hyde Shaw in Ewelme, Oxfordshire, may have belonged to The Hyde in Brightwell Baldwin. Hide Manor, Kingston Sussex had Wealden holdings.

Hydeland Grove, Hideland, Hide Beche are found in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries at Kidmore End, Oxfordshire (Gelling 1953, 76).

Hides on parish edges

It seems less common for identifiable hides to survive as common field holdings than as separate entities on the edge of the parish, in areas which were not involved in its

main field system. Occasionally their general whereabouts and characteristics can be found from Anglo-Saxon charter bounds (although 'hide' itself very seldom appears as a landmark in bounds). Several of these parish-edge hides look as if they comprised blocks of land that had never been included in the common field system that formed around the village core. Hide End appears as an outlying area of more than one parish.

Heythrop, Oxfordshire (SP 347284)
Hide Wood, Lower Hide Ground on W boundary. The parish boundary for half a mile forms the boundary of Lower Hide Ground.

Nuffield, Oxfordshire
Hyde End Farm, on the north east edge of the parish appears on a map of 1824.[10]

Rotherfield Peppard, Oxfordshire (SU 721815) (Fig.18)
The sides of Great and Little Hyde Hill, are still definable by parish and field boundaries on the eastern edge of the parish.[11]

Shiplake, Oxfordshire (SU 736788)[12]
Saddlers Hyde and Cobb's Hyde were on the west boundary in the upland and wooded part of Shiplake parish, which stretched down to the Thames.

Cheriton, Hampshire[13]
Hollow Hide, Holly Hide in c.1840, is a pointed protuberance at the eastern side of the parish described in a perambulation of 1389 as 'the pasture called La Hyde' In a tenth century charter it is between *ac lea* and *wynes heafod* and the bounds show ways, *leagas* and a *wyrtwala* in this stretch (Sawyer 1968, 385) This suggests managed woodland, with clearings for cultivation and access roads. The area was woodland in the sixteenth century. The bishop of Winchester's demesne land was in the valley and had two big enclosed arable fields, Harts and Godwins. These were later divided to form two sub manors. Hollow Hide looks as if it lay right outside this field system.

Prestbury, Cheltenham, Gloucestershire (SO 947256) (Fig. 19)[14]
Hyde Farm is bounded on the north by a stream, here called Hyde Brook and forming part of the parish boundary. It is approached from Swindon by Hyde Road and Hyde Lane and although now part of Prestbury, It looks much more related to Swindon than to anywhere else. Its western boundary follows furlong ends but its fields don't look as if they had been part of the Swindon common field system, as those west of the village do.
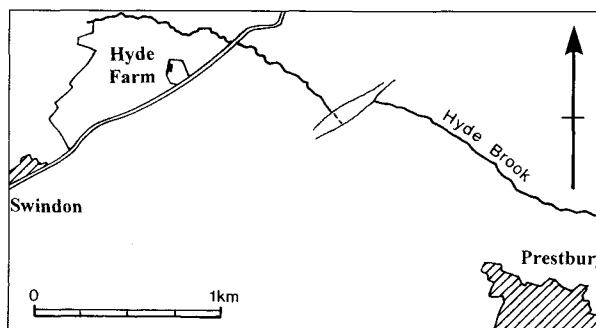

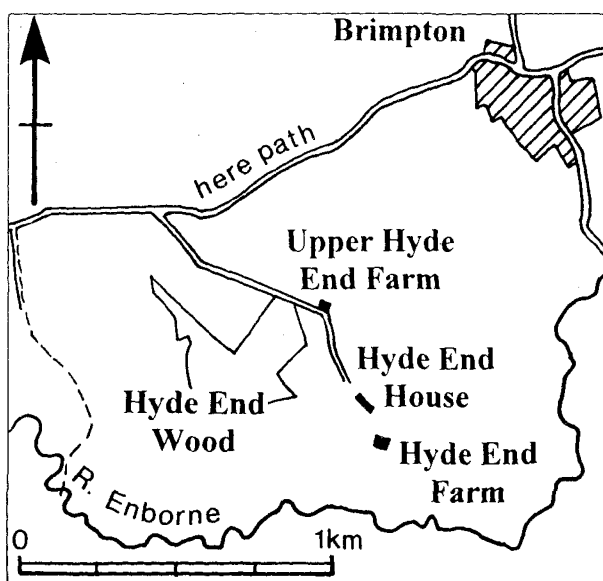*Figure 19: Prestbury, Cheltenham, Gloucestershire*

Figure 20: Brimpton, Berkshire

Brimpton, Berkshire (SU 555641) (Fig. 20)[15]
Hyde End, Hyde End Farm, Upper Hyde End Farm, Hyde End Mill, Wood, and Gully together form a substantial block of land at the SW end of the parish and look to be about a quarter of its total area. Its late tenth century boundary was a stream on the east and south sides (the other side of which is Inwood Copse), on the west side simply 'and so north to ... ' on the north side the *herepath*.[16] Its assets were a stretch of river and river meadow, liable in the nineteenth century to flooding, and probably woodland. Being marked on two sides by natural features makes it look a long established entity and it is interesting that the *herepath* skirts but does not cross it.

On the western edge of the parish there may have been another hide, lost to Crookham Manor, Thatcham by the tenth century, by which time the parish boundary probably went down Manor Lane, an ancient way. There is an odd gouged out bit on this side of the parish.

Shaw, Berkshire[17]
The Hyde on 1848 Tithe Map is c 33a on the extreme west of the neighbouring parish, bounded by an odd quirk of parish bounds at this point. The bounds of Shaw here lacking any obvious natural features, may reflect land ownership.

Ecchinswell, Hampshire (SU 510615)[18]
Hyde Farm, Hyde Down. A charter of 931 shows that Hyde Farm was at the edge of woodlands, and the edge of meadow, just above flood level, near the edge of the tithing/parish.(Sawyer 1968, 412) it is a long way from the open fields but for open field holdings associated with a hide in Ecchinswell, see above. It is on a trackway- 'Blind Track' – used by stock going down to river meadows. Eechinswell is a long north-south parish with land in Ecclesbourne valley and on the. downs. Hyde Down may represent the upland graziyng belonging to this hide.

Hides as hamlets:
Types of countryside in which hides seem to have a better than average chance of survival as entities include those which today have scattered small settlements. Some
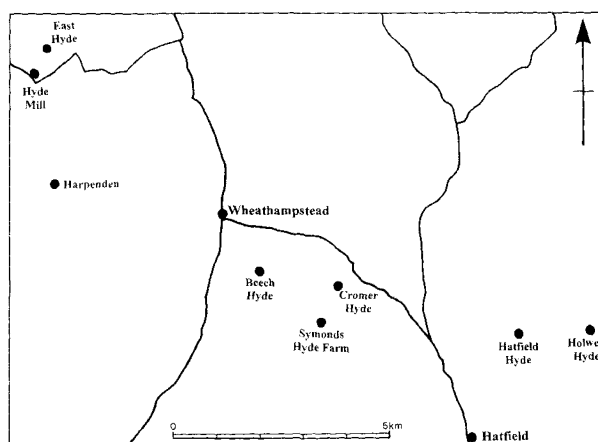

Figure 21: Wheathampstead and Sandridge, Hertfordshire

Herefordshire examples show hides which comprised several holdings in the middle ages. These formed small nucleated settlements with their own small common field systems.

Woolhope, Herefordshire (SO 635355)[19]
Old Hide has 'excellent earthworks showing about eight tofts and crofts on each side of a holloway.'

Peterchurch, Herefordshire (SO 320387)
Cae Hyde. Field name in Dore Valley. 'The field contained slight earthworks of about two house platforms in a pasture field on one side of a trackway.'[20]

Pencombe, Herefordshire (S0571539)
Wootonhide, Hyde Ash and Maidenhide in the fifteenth century may each have had its own common field system and a small nucleated settlement. RS argues this on the basis of the small size of their individual holdings. There are other examples locally of this pattern.

Hyde Heath, Buckinghamshire
There was a settlement at Hyde Farm, Hyde, in the early nineteenth century, but this is now rduced to Hyde Farm and it is Hyde Heath which has expanded into a hamlet with two chapels and a primary school.

Hyde Minchinhampton, Gloucestershire
(Faith 1997, 238-40 and Fig. 30) was part of the large manor of Minchinhampton and is now a separate village.

Single farms
it is also common to find several hide farms together without there having formed a nucleated settlement, or at least one that is now discernible.

Colchester, Essex[21]
In an area of enclosed small fields and crofts near Walschelond and Greenstead were compact hides, identifiable by acreage of 120 a, (Maitland 1897, 480-2) which kept their identity and family names in the fifteenth century. They had their own woodlands, were bounded by hedges and ditches and their owners claimed to hold them freely from the king. A (?half) hide in Lexden of 65.5a was the largest unit of arable in the demesne.

King's Langley, Hertfordshire[22]
Hyde Farm, Hyde Lane, Hyde Lane Farm, Hyde Meadow Farm probably represent a hide broken up to form at least three farms on the north east side of the parish.

Wheathampstead and Sandridge, Hertfordshire (Fig.21)
Lower and Upper Beech Hyde Farm, Lane, Upper Cromer Hyde Farm, Symondshyde Farm, Great Wood, Lane, Sleapshyde.

Harpenden and Luton, Hertfordshire
East and West Hyde, East Hyde Park, Hyde Mill Farm, Flint Hyde.

Hatfield
Hatfield Hyde, Holwell Hyde.

II Hide Farms in the Chilterns
The fact that several examples of hide farms are from those parts of Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire and Oxfordshire which fall within the Chiltern hills and their environs suggests that the physical environment, and the farming and settlement systems which were best suited to it are worth examining as a possible factor in the survival of the hide farm. The Chilterns are a chalk ridge which slopes down to the Thames gravels on the south and south west, to clay Vales of Aylesbury and St Albans on the north and east. The Chilterns region as a whole – containing both the hills and the associated vales offered opportunities for several distinct forms of settlement and economy. The most easily worked soils are along the lower valley slopes of the major streams such as the Hamble. These deep valleys supported major places like Wendover, Missenden, Chesham. Under the scarp slopes of the chalk ridge nucleated settlements and large common field systems developed near the spring line.

Apart from the major streams, the Chiltern chalk hills themselves are cut by 'a network of deep, steep sided and mostly dry valleys' (Roden 1973, 325).The chalk is in most places capped with clay-with-flints and some brickearth and with scattered deposits of Eocene sands and gravels. These are well-drained and dry: the water supply came from (tiny) pools revealed by *mere* and 'pool' in minor place-names.

While like the Weald in being a large stretch of broken and hilly woodland, the Chilterns differs from it in containing soils more easily worked. Small scale mixed husbandry supported permanent settlement there at a time when it is generally supposed that there were only seasonal settlements, associated with transhumance, in the Weald. The exploitation of its woodland resources for timber and grazing could be combined with cultivation of small fields cleared for tillage. Such husbandry supported Iron Age farmers and possibly a considerable Romano-British population into the seventh Century. Although there is almost no archaeological evidence, Anglo-Saxon settlement of the southern Chilterns is thought to be only slightly later in origin than that of the valleys and gravel terraces. It took the form of small nucleations with their own areas of subdivided arable on the valley slopes, possibly survivals from Romano-British farms and a 'mosaic of hamlets' and loosely knit and dispersed farmhouses on the drift covered ridges and plateaus of the chalk hills and clay. There was possibly secondary colonisation taking place in the eighth to the tenth century. This brought about an extension of the ploughland around individual settlements, or small common fields and furlongs produced by piecemeal

clearance, rather than from any central nucleus (Roden, 1973).

This very long drawn out process, which continued into the thirteenth century, produced a distinctive type of agrarian arrangement which from that date can be studied from manorial records. Enclosed arable fields were combined into small scale common field systems worked by a group of neighbours, not by an entire village community. There were many common fields in one parish, mixed with holdings in severalty. The holdings of one farm were confined to one group of fields, subject to common rotations, which probaby 'replaced earlier hamlet areas', (Roden 1973, 329) . There was common grazing on demesnes, on the stubbles of even the small common fields and in closes, but it was of poor quality.

That similar individual dispersed upland farms were also a feature of the Anglo-Saxon landscape is suggested by the fact that the placenames of the southern Chiltern uplands show a strong association of Old English (OE) monothematic personal names with particular physical features that are all likely to have been components of such farms as indeed they are today. These are hills *(dun, hulle)*, valleys *(denu cumb)* and water supplies *(mere, wielle)*, giving rise to names such as 'Ecc's *dun*' in Pishill, 'Ecgi's *slaed*', Exlade, 'Cola's *mere* in Rotherfield Peppard and 'Acwulf's *denu*'in Benson (Gelling 1956)[23] Names of this type, which form the majority, suggest extensive rather than intensive exploitation of the land. To farm here would need a considerable amount of land. Viable agriculture depended on a collection of resources: small arable and pasture fields, woodland and woodpasture, a water supply, access roads. To own a *denu* might amount to owning a stretch of valley bottom unusable for anything but an access route and for underwood\timber, with small cleared fields on the wooded valley sides for grazing and arable, and for the farmstead site. Woodland might itself be enclosed: the right angles in the woodland sections of parish and hundred boundaries may represent the edges of enclosed woodland. As a food source, private woodland may have been used only for pigs: other stock would have damaged trees (and unfenced pigs would have been very destructive of valuable grazing and arable.) To own a *wielle* or a *mere* might amount to no more than having access to a tiny spring or pond: there are (nowadays at least) no significant areas of water. To own a *dun* or *hull* would give either grazing land or hardly-worked arable on its steeply sloping sides ('strip lynchets' marked on the OS at Itchen Wood, Ipsden, cling to a precipitous slope, but we do not know their date.)

Cleared woodland *(leah)* although it gave rise to very many place names and field names, seems to have been less likely to have been associated with individuals and may always have been common. Closes and woods owned by the monks of Thame at Wyfold were 'grazed in common by more than thirty farmers until 1230, (Roden 1973, 324, As characteristic of the region as units of cleared woodland are large open spaces of heath or grassland. *Feld,* open land, appears in two contexts. The first, in the form *fildena,* 'people of the open land', seems by the tenth century, to refer to the farmers on the lower slopes and clay vale, whose arables became incorporated

into large common field systems. (Tengstrand 1940, 101-3; Ann Cole, personal. communication.) The other use of *feld* was for the large open spaces which still appear as features of the Chiltern uplands, the *feld* of Rotherfield Peppard, for instance. Each of the upland parishes had its own common or heath. In the north east Chilterns settlements were 'grouped around greens or patches of common wood that later degenerated to open spaces, while in the south west 'great common wastes were major foci for settlement agglomerations', (Roden 1973, 328). This pasture wasn't of good enough quality for specialised pastoralism and mixed farming was practised throughout. Pigs would have helped sustain cottagers on common edges and heaths. Small clearances were made for tillage.

Common grazing was the element that linked the arable farmers of the vales and dip slopes with the upland economy. The *fildena weg* at Brightwell Baldwin and the nearby *fildena wudu weg* at Benson are just two examples of the many roads that gave the *fildena* access to the woodlands and pastures of the hills. Whether the whole Chiltern region originally contained a central portion of grazing open to all the surrounding region, of both upland and the vales which had broken down into use-rights enjoyed by particular communities, is an open question but it seems very likely. Parish topography displays this well. Several if not all of the vale parishes had extensions into the upland woods. Thus Newnham Murren parish stretches for five miles from the site of the original settlement to Newnham Hill, and the farend of Pyrton's woodland, described in a charter of 887 (the bounds are later: Gelling 1953, 87-9) is nearly seven miles from the present day village and was registered by the nineteenth century as a detached portion of the parish.[24] Sonning, on the Berkshire bank of the Thames, had a common in the Oxfordshire Chilterns. Some of these commons had become detached by the end of the Anglo-Saxon period, but maintained their link through grazing rights.

Common grazing on the uplands must have been organised. *Feld*, open space, appears associated not with personal names but with physical characteristics: Binfield, *feld* with bent grass, perhaps significantly a hundred meeting-place, Nuffield, *feld* by spur of hill or, as in Rotherfield Peppard, cattle feld, with its function. 'Calf *leah*', 'swine *cumb*', and many drove roads (Swans' Way) also all point to pastures to which no one individual had established ownership and which was regulated for common use.

The dispersed upland farms of the Chilterns, with their access to plentiful grazing, could have maintained a viable though not very profitable rudimentary sheep-corn husbandry. The fact that farms in the area could be, if not particularly prosperous at least self-sufficient, provides a credible context for the survival of discrete upland hide farms, with their own fields valleys and woods, standing apart from the nucleated settlements which began to develop.

When the parish boundary comes to be established it runs along their outer boundary in order to incorporate their arable and woodland within the parish.

Grid references are to the H in Hyde if it appears on the OS 1:25,000 or 1:50,000 maps.

Notes

1   Information from Brian Lickman.
2   Information from Margaret Thorburn.
3   Oxfordshire County Council SMR air photo 41\69 NE.
4   S 217, 1379. Field system: estate map of the eighteenth century as in Harvey 1965, Map II and Appendix I.
5   Information from Ro Learning.
6   Havinden 1966, Map 2.
7   Tithe Map of Thatcham, 1842. Information from. Ro Leamon.
8   Information from Barbara Tearle.
9   Information from S. C. Clarke.
10   Oxford, Bodleian Library ***.
11   Oxfordshire County Council Sites and Monuments Record, SU 78 (SW) 721810-820 (Survey of field names); air photograph 41/78 SW (RAF 1949).
12   Oxfordshire County Council SMR field names survey SU 77 (NW) 735786-735790.
13   Information from Edward Roberts.
14   Information from Brian Lickman.
15   Information from Ro Leamon.
16   S 500.
17   Information from Ro Leamon.
18   Information from Ro Leamon.
19   Air photograph in MSRG DMV archive. Information on all Herefordshire examples from Rosamund Skelton.
20   Surveyed and recorded for Hereford and Worcester County Archaeological Department 1982.
21   Information from Richard Britnell.
22   Hertfordshire examples from Barbara Tearle.
23   Some of the personal names postulated for the early volumes of the *Place-Name Society*, which are marked with an asterisk denoting that there is no independent testimony, may in fact have been nouns (Gelling 1988 162ff). The social status of individuals, and their possible relationship to owners of the small Anglo-Saxon estates which were undoubtedly in place by the ninth or tenth century in this region, are questions not considered here. However, it is worth noting that the majority of the personal names involved are monothematic. Gelling 1988 185-6 leaves room for identifying them as 'leading settlers' as plausibly as owners of 'manors'. In Roden's schematic map of a Chiltern village and its field system, the large discrete farm on the upper slopes, with no land in a common field system, in other words the holding which most resembles a hide farm, is shown as a freehold (Roden 1973 fig 8.2).
24   Information from Madeleine and Derek Hammond, who have solved this boundary.

References

Costen, M. 1992 a *The Origins of Somerset.*
1992 b 'Huish and worth: Old English serials in a later landscape' *Anglo-Saxon Studies in Archaeology and History* 5, 65-83.
DB Domesday Book, Phillimore edn.
Faith, R. 1997 *The English Peasantry and the Growth of Lordship* (London).
Gelling, M. 1953 *The Place-Names of Oxfordshire, English Place-Names Society* xxiii.
1988 *Signposts to the Past: place-names and the history of England* 2nd edn (Chichester).
Hall, D. 1987 'An introduction to Northamptonshire Domesday' in *The Northamptonshire and Rutland Domesday* (1987), 1.17 (London).
Harvey, P. D. A. 1965 *A Medieval Oxfordshire Village: Cuxham 1240 to 1400* (Oxford).
Havinden, M. A. 1966 *Estate Villages: a study of the Berkshire villages of Ardington and Lockinge* (Reading).
Maitland, F. W. 1960 *Domesday Book and Beyond: three essays in the early history of England* Fontana edn (London).
Robertson, A. J. 1956 *Anglo-Saxon Charters* (Cambridge).
Roden, D. 1973 'Field systems of the Chiltern Hills and their environs' in Baker A. R. H. and Butlin, R. A., *Studies of Field Systems in the British Isles* (Cambridge), 325-76.
Rose, L. E. 1934 *The History of Churchill* (Brackley).
Sawyer, P. H. 1968 *Anglo-Saxon Charters: an annotated list and bibliography* (London).
Smith, A. H. 1956 *English Place-Name Elements* (2 vols Cambridge).
Tengstrand, E. 1940 *A Contribution to the Study of Genitival Composition in Old English Place-Names* (Uppsala).
Vollans, E. C. 1959 'The evolution of farmlands in the central Chilterns in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries', *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers* xxvi.

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 seine of these and be able to tell you where others can be found.

At a national level English Heritage hold 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 English Heritage and if you wish to use these as well as any other 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)
ENGLAND

Fieldwork and Excavation in 1998

ENGLAND

CAMBRIDGESHIRE

Old Fletton, High Street (TL196970)
Peterborough District

Excavations, supervised by P. Cope-Faulkner, were undertaken by Archaeological Project Services on behalf of BM Design Consultancy and Axiom Housing Association Ltd, in the centre of Old Fletton and close to the mid-12th century parish church of St. Margaret. Previous evaluation of the site had revealed 11th-13th century remains close to the road frontage, with post-medieval structures to the rear. Medieval habitation debris recovered during the excavation was not particularly abundant, suggesting that the investigation area was not an occupation site at that period. Further, it is likely that the medieval gullies and ditches revealed at the site served a drainage/boundary function and a number of pits may have been for clay extraction or possible stock watering holes. The site was apparently abandoned in the 14th-16th century, perhaps serving as a paddock or garden, and was not re-occupied until the 17th century when a timber building was erected in the area. This wooden structure was replaced by a masonry building, perhaps a barn or store, later in the 17th century. Disturbance due to Victorian and later construction was extensive.

Paul Cope-Faulkner

GLOUCESTERSHIRE

Hazleton (SP 090180)

D. Aldred and C. Dyer have continued with fieldwork and documentary research on this Cotswold parish. Earthwork survey suggests that the village suffered severe shrinkage to the east and south, one outlying building to the east (near the modern Lower Barn) was a water mill, fed by leats (Fig. 22). The plan shows earthworks in a field immediately to the east of the modern village. At its southern end are toft boundaries and house sites, together with three occupied houses, one of which is medieval in date. There was apparently once a cluster of houses, perhaps as many as six, in an area little more than 100m by 100m, The complexity of the earthworks suggests a number of phases of settlement. In the northern part of the field there is a single abandoned house site (to the west) and a series of linear earthworks and rectangular enclosures which probably represent stock enclosures attached to the adjacent rectory, or they may possibly have belonged to the manor house which lay to the north-west.

Documentary research, and preliminary examination of the houses in the modern village, suggests that Hazleton shrank from 40 households in c. 1300 to 20 after the Black Death, but then much more drastically, so that by 1540 the tenant land had been accumulated into the hands of only 4 tenants, together with the two manors and the rectory. The modern village grew from an accumulation of cottages for farm workers. This story of near desertion at
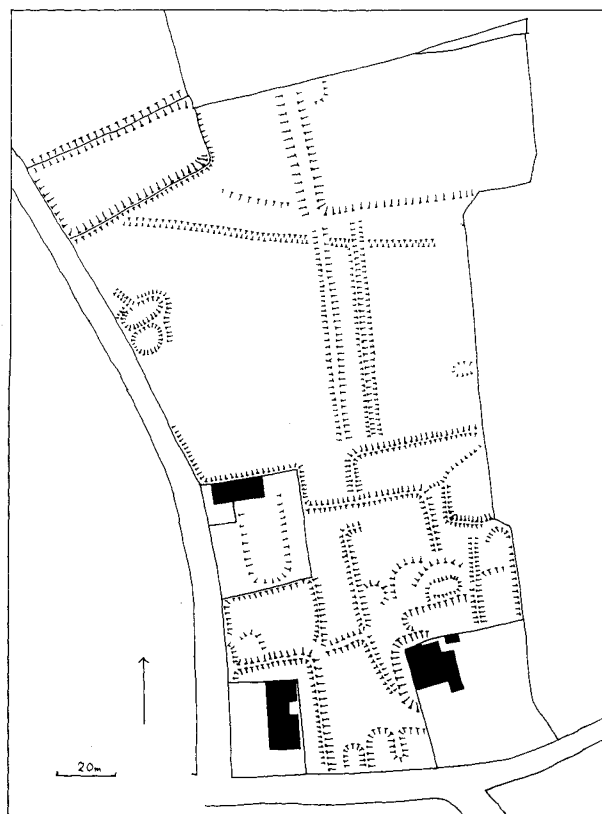

Figure 22

the end of the middle ages was probably not uncommon in the region.

LEICESTERSHIRE

Foston (SP60509530)

The deserted village of Foston was fieldwalked by students of Leicester University's Department of Adult Education.

The site of the village is now almost entirely under the plough. Fig. 23 represents an interpretation of an earthwork plan prepared by Leicestershire County Council Museums Service (and used here with acknowledgements), with some additions from aerial photography and the fieldwalking itself. The site falls into four portions: A: a regularly arranged set of village earthworks contained within a sub-rectangular envelope; B: a series of squarish enclosures, subdivided into smaller units and probably overlying ridge and furrow; C: the earthworks of a post-medieval formal garden; D: a large fishpond with dam and island.

Areas B and C were walked (A was at the time unploughed). The medieval pottery consisted of shelly and sandy wares, including Midland Purple, with nothing before the 12th century (Fig. 24). This confirms the notion that area B was an addition to the village of Foston. Within Area A, at point X the excavation of foundations for a barn produced a quantity of medieval pottery including Saxo-Norman shelly ware and Stamford ware, so this area might well be the Foston of Domesday.

40

Much of the post-medieval pottery (Midland yellow and black) would be consistent with the depopulation of the village some time before 1622 by Sir William Faunt, but an area of stone scatter and bricks produced a great deal of sandy bright reddish brown earthenware with a brown and black glaze which could be later than this (Fig. 25). This coincided with what had been the earthwork remains of a small building (Y) which appears on air photographs, perhaps a cottage representing continued occupation north of the road to Countesthorpe.
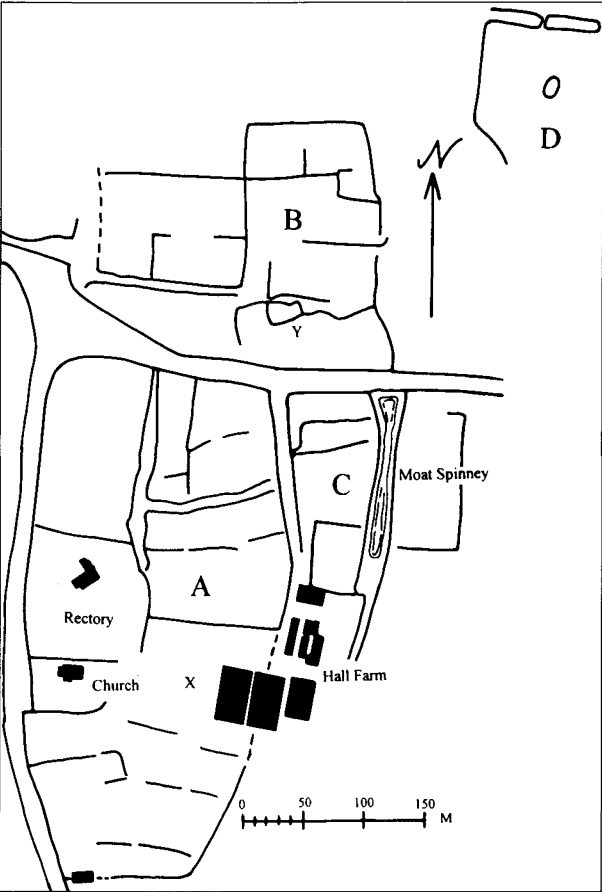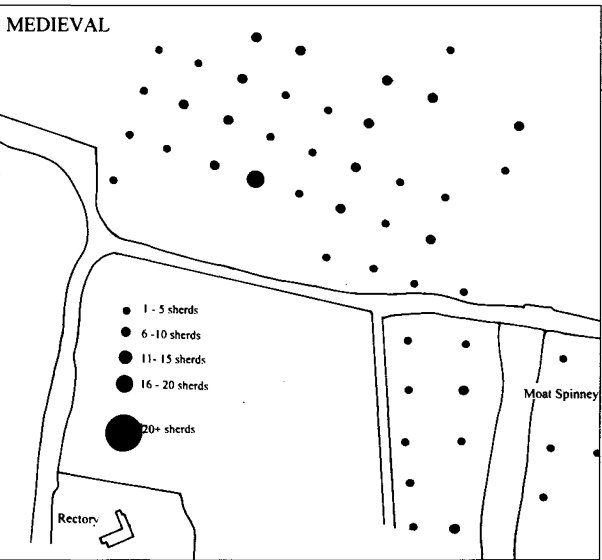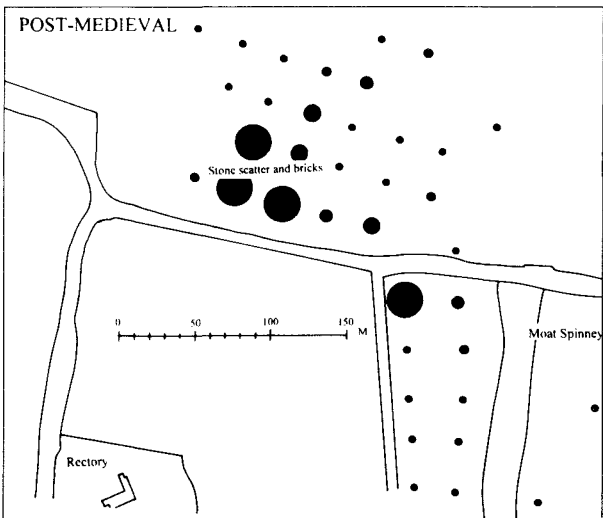
A E Brown

Figure 23

Figure 24

Figure 25

LINCOLNSHIRE

Covenham St. Bartholomew, Birkett Lane (TF339946) East Lindsey District, Lincolnshire

Investigations were undertaken by staff of Archaeological Project Services in respect of development adjacent to the 13th century parish church of St. Bartholomew at Covenham. Covenham is first referred to in a charter of 855AD and earthworks thought to represent the shrunken medieval settlement were located on and in immediate proximity to the site. Evaluation identified several linear and curvilinear ditches or gullies in the northern part of the site and established that construction of a farmyard on the south side of the site in the 18th century had removed any earlier archaeological deposits in that area. Several of the linear ditches were of the 15th to 17th century though the curvilinear feature was undated. Subsequent excavation revealed that the curvilinear gully was of 10th-12th century date and had replaced an earlier ring ditched feature also of Saxo-Norman date. The function of these features was not definitively established but they contained grain and amphibian and rodent bones and are thought possibly to have encircled hayricks. Hammerscale was also recovered from the gullies, indicating iron smithing in the vicinity.

Gary Taylor

Potterhanworth, Barff Road (TFO57662) North Kesteven District, Lincolnshire

Development in Potterhanworth, near to previous discoveries of medieval ceramics in the pottery producing village, was monitored by G. Taylor of Archaeological Project Services.

A large stone wall, of uncertain function but apparently medieval date, was revealed beneath extensive dumps of kiln waste that contained abundant fragments of the local pottery of 13th-14th century date. Most of the pottery was from cooking vessels though there was also a handle from a curfew, a rare Potterhanworth form. In addition, a kiln stand in the local fabric was also recovered. The evidence clearly indicates medieval pottery making on, or in the immediate vicinity of the site. However, after the

41

ceramic production finished in the 14th century the site was essentially abandoned, being subsequently used for agricultural purposes', and not reoccupied until the 18th or 19th century.

Neil Herbert

Spalding, Holbeach Road (TF266239) South Holland District, Lincolnshire

A programme of archaeological investigation was undertaken by staff of Archaeological Project Services to assess the implications of development on the outskirts of Spalding. Desk-based research indicated the site was probably located in, or very close to, the medieval hamlet of Fulney, first recorded in 1189, about 400m from Fulney Hall. Additionally, large quantities of Late Saxon and medieval pottery had previously been recovered on the land immediately to the west and southwest of the site. Fieldwalking on the site recorded a similarly dense concentration of predominantly medieval ceramics, with a small but discrete cluster of Late Saxon pottery in the western part of the investigation area, close to the previous discoveries. However, later trial excavation of the site did not reveal any archaeological remains of the Late Saxon-medieval period, perhaps indicating that, if ever present, they have been entirely ploughed out, though an unsuspected early Roman site was found at depth.

Paul Cope-Faulkner

Spridlington, Old Glebe Farm (TF006845) West Lindsey District, Lincolnshire

To assess the implications of proposed development near to earthworks in the shrunken medieval village of Spridlington, an evaluation was supervised by F. Walker of Archaeological Project Services. Established directly on to natural sands was a medieval soil layer containing pottery of 14th-15th century date, in quantities indicating occupation in the immediate vicinity. Smithing slag and moderately abundant hammerscale was also recovered from this soil layer and signifies the presence of an iron smithy at the site. Stone walls, probably representing a building, were subsequently erected in the area. The construction date of this building was not established though the walls were being robbed by the 18th century. Elsewhere on the site there was evidence of ploughing in the area in the 17th-18th century.

Neil Herbert

Toynton All Saints, Main Street (TF395635) East Lindsey District, Lincolnshire

Watching briefs were carried out by staff of Archaeological Project Services during development and cable laying at three adjacent sites near to known medieval pottery kilns. These investigations identified waste dumps from the kilns, some containing very large quantities of pottery wasters, though no remains of any kilns were revealed. The previously known kiln site in the vicinity dates from the late 13th-early 14th century and produced jugs bearing characteristic decoration (Healey 1984, 75). Numerous fragments of further jug wasters with comparable decoration were found in the present investigations and probably derive from the same, or

related, kiln. However, abundant pancheon wasters were also found and were clearly also made at the site, but probably are a little later, dating into the 15th century.

Reference

Healey, R. H., 1984 'Toynton All Saints: Decorated Jugs from the Roses Kiln', in F. N. Field and A. White (eds), *A Prospect of Lincolnshire*

Gary Taylor

NORFOLK

The following sites have been surveyed by Brian Cushion of the Field Archaeology Division of Norfolk Museums Service.

Brinton: Site 29585, (TG 035 352).

A small moated platform cut by the present stream has an outer enclosure linked to a former watercourse. Further features to the south include a hollow way crossing the valley floor, shown as a road on Fadens Map. It has an abutting enclosure to the south, and there is a more isolated enclosure which is probably the site of a building also shown on Fadens Map. To the north, a terraced and subdivided enclosure has a small brick and flint building, the remnant of a messuage and buildings shown on various 19th century maps. Many ditched features show evidence of infill.

Deopham: Site 2960, (TG 040 005).

A series of ditched enclosures in partly ploughed and re-seeded grassland to the west of Crown Farm, represent in part an area of medieval settlement overlooking Deopham Low Common to the north. A few sherds of medieval and 15th/16th century pottery have been found indicating some activity into the early post-medieval period, whilst some features continued as field boundaries into the 1960s.

Dunton: (Shereford) **Site 17447,** (TF 886 295)

A sub-rectangular moated enclosure south-west of the church has an entrance causeway on its east arm whilst its western arm appears to be a former course of the River Wensum.

Gillingham: Site 30504, (TM 413 920).

Earthworks in the park were mapped to the south and east of the recently enlarged lake, south of the hall. They comprise a hollow way which formed part of the park boundary on Fadens Map of 1797, but now also interpreted as a former medieval roadway, with enclosures and linear features mostly to the north. These may be partly medieval, but some are in alignment with the hall and may represent 17th century landscaping. A former drive to the hall is recorded in woodland to the west.

Three other points are of note as a result of the inspection of the park. A former roadway shown on Faden and various 19th century maps is visible as a ridge to the north of the present drive. A few fragments of medieval and early post-medieval pottery were found to the north of the ruinous All Saints Church, whilst one sherd of probable Bronze Age date was found nearer the hall. In

arable land to the south-east of the earthworks a considerable concentration of medieval pottery was found,(Site 33411) thinning to the south and east, indicating either a former manorial site or village shrinkage.

Gunthorpe: Site 3195, (TG 010 354).

A moated enclosure and at least two ponds separately linked to it straddle a valley floor. They are all linked to a former watercourse channel which has been superseded by the present stream which cuts through one of the ponds. There is a probably contemporary outer enclosure to the east but straighter features to the south-east are considered later. This is a likely medieval manorial site.

Hingham: Site 33856, (TG 002 017)

A series of incomplete ditched enclosures are situated on the north side of the former High Moor Common, to the east of a barn which is the last remnant of a farmstead shown on early 19th century maps. They probably represent medieval closes or tofts.

Kimberley: Sites 8918 & 30466, (TG 076 040).

Site 8918 to the south of Park Farm, is the moated remains of the late-medieval hall, a U-shaped brick structure originally entered directly by a bridge central to the southern moat arm, and includes those earthworks to the east and south. To the south, terraced enclosures are associated with the hall, with a roadway approaching from the west. To the south-east, another roadway with enclosures to its east of differing alignment has been diverted into a channel which leads into a series of water features which are a likely combination of water gardens and fish ponds. One further medieval roadway and a former 18/19th century drive to the present hall are recorded, making this one of the most complex and interesting sites of the whole project. Site 30466 is the whole of Kimberley Park, but for this project the features surveyed are those earthworks in grassland between the Old Hall and the village, where a ridge forms a part of a former road linking hall and church. To the north of the church another fragment of hollow way indicates a former medieval roadway leading onto the green near the church, with part of an enclosure boundary to its north.

Mattishall: Site 3081, (TG 048 113)

A very subdued sub-rectangular moated enclosure with a better preserved outer enclosure and possible fishponds.

Mattishall: Site 29473, (TG 034 110)

A series of incomplete ditched enclosures, partly infilled, are located north of Old Hall Farm. Small enclosures and probable building platforms near to a barn may represent features shown on early 19th century maps close to a common edge. Features in the west represent tofts and/or closes associated with the nearby farmstead.

Mattishall: Site 33882, (TG 042 110)

A series of ditched enclosures to the north-west of Ivy House Farm represent probable medieval common-edge tofts and/or closes.

Shelton: Sites 10175 & 10182, (TM 228 904)

Two adjoining earthwork areas in grassland surrounding the hall include the double moated site(10175) of a late-

Tudor mansion demolished in 1790, with enclosures to the north on two different alignments, those nearest the moat of likely contemporary date (Fig. 26). Site 10182 to the consists of a roughly D-shaped moated enclosure with internal variation in level and some linking ditches which are probably not all contemporary. A straight southern arm is the most prominent feature. Medieval pottery has been found on the edge of this enclosure and also to the north of the moated enclosures.

Tittleshall, (Godwick) **Sites 1103 & 1104,** (TF 903 220)

A new survey of this well known DMV and hall has extended the identified earthworks to north and south. To the north further enclosure boundaries may well be of post-medieval date whilst to the south, hollow ways have been continued to the field boundary. Within the main earthwork area, platforms and depressions to the south-east of the remains of the hall represent buildings and ponds shown on a 1596 map. To the north of the hall, a former drive has been identified, crossing the hollow way of the former village street by a causeway. To the west of the hall, depressions and mounds east of a N-S road line represent the position of buildings also on the 1596 map.

Thursford: Site 32228, (TF 989 335)

A series of ditched enclosures straddle a valley floor with indications of an earlier watercourse channel and small closes extending northwards. Brickwork recorded within one enclosure represents part of a building shown on early 19th century maps.

Holme Hale, (Holm DMV): **Site 33817** (TF 910 070)

Inspection of RAF APs has located enclosures, including tofts, surrounding the site of St Andrews Church (Site 8713) and denoting part of the medieval village, probably deserted in the 14th century. Those enclosures in the west survived as earthworks in 1946, those in the east show as soil marks, but most is now under arable with some woodland and re-seeded grassland. Pottery finds on the surviving arable land around the church site confirm medieval settlement but with some later material from a nearby demolished farm building.

The following work was carried out by the Norfolk Archaeological and Historical Research Group.

Caistor St. Edmund (TG 230035)

The Norfolk Archaeological and Historical Research Group has been fieldwalking the vicinity of the Roman town of Venta Icenorum. In the course of this a considerable concentration of Middle Saxon Ipswich-type Ware was recovered immediately north of the walled area.

Ness (TG 485109)

Barbara Cornford, working on East and West Flegg, has suggested a new location for the lost Domesday vill of Ness (Cornford 1998). Charles Green placed it, in 1966, on the coast north of Yarmouth, a site lost to the sea. Barbara has shown that it lay in the parish of Mautby.

Cornford, B. 1998, *'The Lost Domesday Vill of Ness'* Norfolk Archaeology XLIII, 168-172

Green, C. 1966, *'The Lost Vill of Ness'* Norfolk Archaeology XXXIV

SHELTON
SMR 10175 & 10182
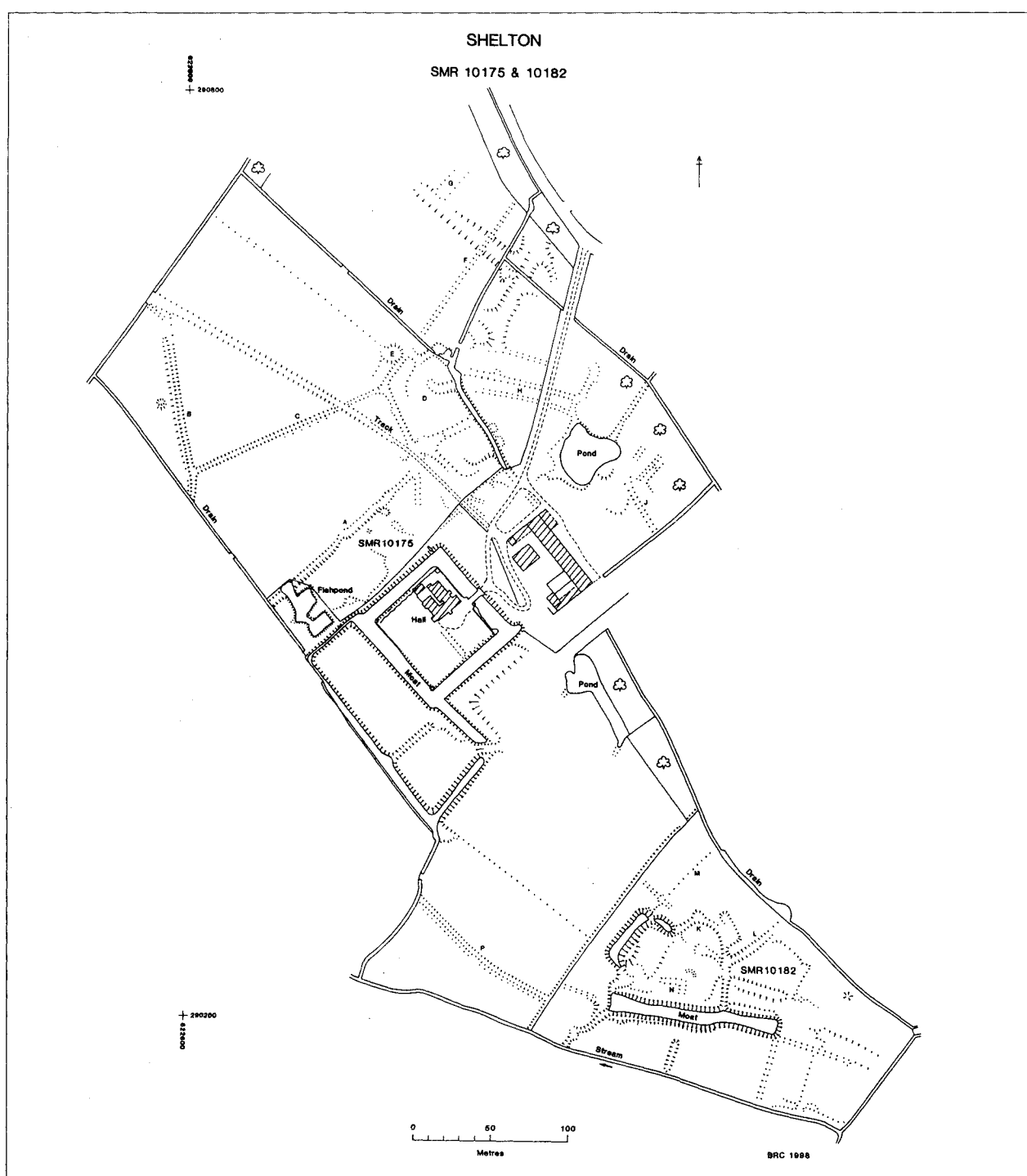
Figure 26

Otringhithe (TF 802877)

David Dymond (1998) has recently shown that this place, mentioned first in Domesday Book, lay in the parish of Weeting with Bromehill and was a river port with a church and a Fairstead on the little Ouse. Since the 18th century it had been equated with Methwold Hythe, a fen-edge settlement in Methwold parish at TF 713 949.

Dymond, D. 1998 *'A misplaced Domesday Vill: Otringhithe and Bromehill'* Norfolk Archaeology XLIII, 161-168.

Sculthorpe TF 909302

A detached site has been tentatively suggested as manorial. Examined by Alan Davison, it proved to be too irregular for a moat, with pits and ridges thickly covered with scrub. The tithe map showed a gravel pit of the Surveyors of the Highways on the site. This gives the real origin of the feature.

West Acre TF 780153

Fieldwalking has been continued by Alan Davison; a further 36 fields have been examined. Most are peripheral and yielded manure scatters of varied and sometimes puzzling density. Two Romano-British concentrations
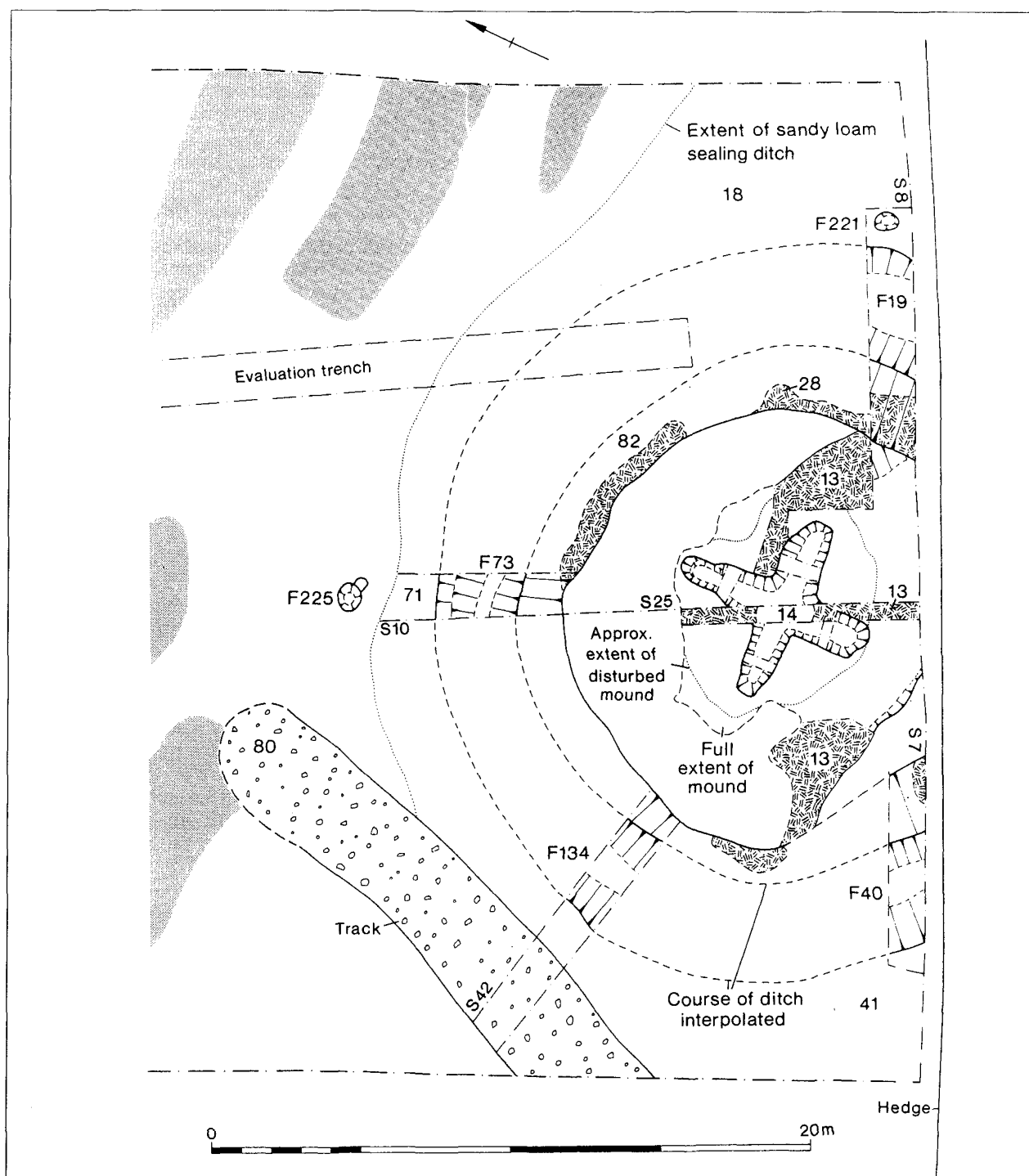
Figure 27: Tansor Crossroads, Northants.

were noted: one in the extreme north-east already known (SMR 3879) was marked by pottery and tiles and a coin of Allectus. The other was probably a continuation of a site reported in 1996. Virtually no medieval pottery has been found north of High House apart from one tiny concentration; 18th-century field names suggest an earlier park in the vicinity and this may have been a park-keeper's dwelling.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE

Tansor Crossroads (TL 057901)

Andy Chapman reports that two mounds set on a spur of high ground overlooking the river Nene were partially excavated by Northamptonshire Archaeology in 1995 prior to the Warmington bypass road improvement scheme (see MSRG 8 (1993), 41-47, Shaw, M, *A Changing Settlement Pattern at Warmington, Northants*). The larger mound was a Neolithic mortuary enclosure/early Bronze Age round barrow, although two surviving early Saxon burials show a later reuse. The smaller mound was a medieval windmill mound, with the 6.0m long cross-tree slots of a post mill set at the centre of a low clay mound encircled by a broad ditch (Cover Photograph and Fig 27) Primary pottery groups from the ditch indicate that it was probably in use for no more than a few decades around the middle of the thirteenth century. The absence of any timber remains suggested that the windmill had been

45

systematically dismantled. The report on this excavation has now been published: Chapman, A, 1997 *The Excavation of Neolithic and Medieval Mounds at Tansor Crossroads, Northamptonshire,* 1995, Northamptonshire Archaeol., 27, 3-50

Warmington, Manor House (TL 078914)

Ian Meadows and Michael Webster report that Northamptonshire Archaeology carried out open area excavation in advance of housing development at a deserted medieval settlement at the northern end of the present village. The site comprised two or more phases of rectilinear ditched enclosures, and to the west several timber buildings were defined by both post-pits and wall slots. The pottery assemblage is dominated by Stamford wares and St.Neots type wares and it appears to have been a short-lived settlement of late Saxon origin, with an abandonment no later than AD1150. An adjacent, small moated site survives as an earthwork.

NORTH YORKSHIRE

Eggborough-Chapel Haddesley (SE 584264 - SE 570239), Research was undertaken by G. Taylor of Archaeological Project Services to assess the implications of proposed pipeline construction near Eggborough Power Station. This investigation indicated that there had been a major medieval moated site, Hall Garth near Chapel Haddlesey, and a probable deserted medieval settlement at Roall, both close to the pipeline route. Two post-medieval halls were also located nearby and minor place-names in the vicinity, a cluster of fields called 'Potterleys', recorded on the 1802 Enclosure map, suggested the possibility of pottery production, perhaps of medieval date. However the research also indicated that the proposed pipeline route would avoid all these sites. Paul Cope-Faulkner.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE

Newark, Newark Castle (SK 795540) Newark and Sherwood District, Nottinghamshire

In respect of proposals, by Newark and Sherwood District Council, to improve facilities at the 12th century and later castle, a Scheduled Ancient Monument, investigations were undertaken by staff of Archaeological Project Services. Previous work at the castle had identified remains predating the military work, including a Saxon cemetery. Adjacent to the gatehouse the present investigations identified remnants of a rampart. On the basis of previous discoveries, this may be material from an earlier, Norman bank disturbed by the construction of the castle in the 12th century. However, cutting into this bank were several graves, of both children and adults, together with other disturbed human remains. These burials are almost certainly an extension of the Saxon cemetery previously identified, which would, in turn, suggest that the rampart is earlier than thought and pre-dates the Norman period. A compacted mortar floor of a previously unknown medieval building was also revealed close to the gatehouse. This building had apparently had leaded windows as fragments of window cames were recovered from the demolition deposits overlying the floor. Pottery recovered from this demolition debris indicated a 13th century date for the demise of the structure and the mortar floor was subsequently cut

through by a masonry wall or foundation, apparently also of medieval date. The stairs leading down into the undercroft adjacent to the gatehouse were also revealed.

David Fell

Newark, Market Place (SK 800539) Newark and Sherwood District, Nottinghamshire

An evaluation was undertaken by staff of Archaeological Project Services, on behalf of Newark and Sherwood District Council, in the ancient market place in the centre of Newark, an area where Saxon and later remains had previously been found. Beneath recent concrete rafts, earlier market surfaces of stone and gravel were revealed. Incorporated in the stone surface was a fragment of roughly dressed masonry, probably derived from an earlier structure in the area, perhaps the Market Cross. This stone market surface was undated but had been cut through by gullies, perhaps robbed foundation or service trenches, in the 18th century.

Neil Herbert

RUTLAND

Ketton Quarry (NGR SK 969056)

Ian Meadows reports that Northamptonshire Archaeology, working on behalf of Castle Cement, have carried out an extensive programme of field walking, geophysical survey and open area excavation on fields adjacent to the present quarry. Two major phases of occupation have been investigated: a late Iron Age and Romano British farmstead; and the timber buildings, timber church and graveyard of a previously unknown late Saxon settlement (Fig. 28). The settlement is dated by the pottery assemblage, which is dominated by Stamford wares, to between AD900 and 1100AD. It was then evidently abandoned.

The church had a simple rectangular plan, 7.0m long by 5.0m wide, defined by continuous foundation slots. The north and south walls had been stave built, with the upright timbers set close together, while in the east and west walls there had been horizontal beams, with the uprights presumably slotted into them. The doorway may have been in the western wall, where there was a gap in burials.

Around the church there were 70 inhumation burials of men, women and children, arranged in rows with their heads to the south-west. They had been laid in shallow graves, and few appear to have been in coffins. To the north of the church the graves lay around the root hole of a large tree, perhaps an ancient Yew. At least one grave was probably an earlier, non-Christian, burial, either later Roman or pagan Saxon. Although it lay with its feet to the north-east, the head had been cut off and placed by the feet.

To the south of the church, and without any evident boundary between them, there were at least three timber buildings. Immediately beyond the graveyard there was an aisled hall, 12.0m long by 8.0m wide, defined by 6 pairs of aisle posts and a continuous outer wall slot. A scatter of post holes to the south-east may define a further building. To the south there were the foundation slots of a further hall, 14.0m long by 5.0m wide, and a small building
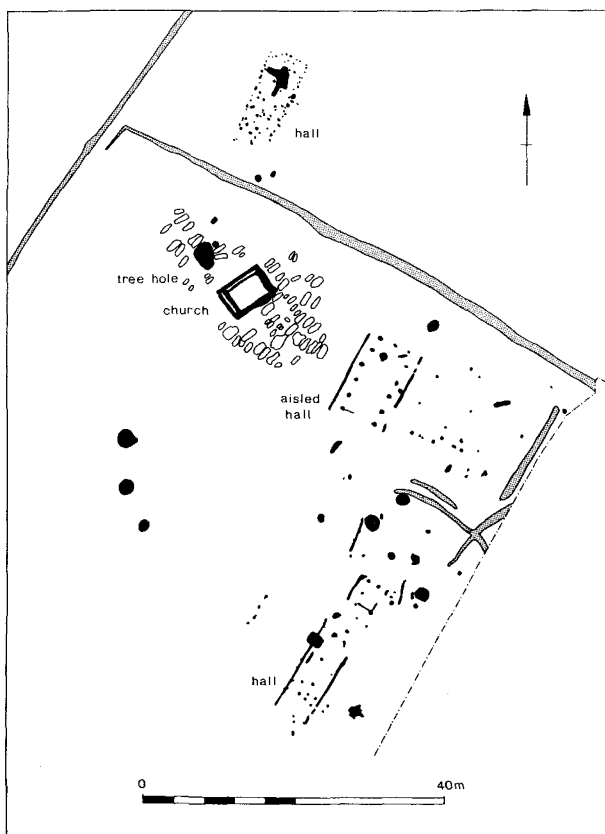
Figure 28: The Late Saxon settlement at Ketton Quarry, Rutland

only 4.0m square. In all of these buildings the slots and post pits had been heavily truncated by ploughing, reducing some to a depth of only 40mm. Around these buildings shallow ditches defined a series of separate plots, and these continued beyond the present limit of excavation.

A linear ditch separated the churchyard and the southern halls from a single post-built hall. This was 12.0m long by 5.0m wide. There was an irregular hearth pit to the north, and a post-built cross wall formed a separate chamber at the southern end.

Fieldwork and excavation will continue through 1999.

WARWICKSHIRE

Compton Verney (SP 316529)

This well-known deserted village has attracted attention because of a failed scheme in the early 1990s to build an opera house in the park which now occupies the site of the village. The country house which stood empty for many years is now being restored and converted into an art gallery, without threatening the historic landscape. The management of the art gallery sponsored a conference in June 1998 on the house and its surroundings, and as part of his contribution on that occasion C.Dyer, who had researched the documents for the planning enquiry in 1994, also investigated the landscape of the parish. Although the ridge and furrow system (which survived almost intact in the 1940s) has been largely ploughed away, the air photographs have recorded its former extent, and field work revealed other evidence for early farming, such as marl pits, and the

enclosure hedges, some of which date from the fifteenth century when the village is known to have decayed. Pottery recovered in field-walking helped to pin point more precisely the location of the village (the earthworks were largely removed in the landscaping of the park in the eighteenth century). It was also possible to reconstruct manuring patterns, which suggested that household/ farmyard waste was carried 1000 metres from the village to favoured fields, while fields much closer to the settlement were manured by other means. It was also possible to show that the parish's settlements had prehistoric and Roman antecedents, though there is little trace of occupation between 400 and 1000, in spite of the documentary evidence for a substantial population at the end of that period.

Rugby, Coton Park (SP 517788)

Anthony Maull reports that Northamptonshire Archaeology has carried out a large scale open area excavation, in advance of housing and industrial development, at the deserted medieval village of Coton, to the north of Rugby. A total area of 3ha was stripped to natural, with full planning and selective sampling of the features exposed. The village had been preceded by some Bronze Age pits and several Iron Age and Roman enclosures.

The medieval village layout comprised a series of rectangular ditched plots set either side of a broad central "green" or road aligned west-east. To the east this appeared to join a north-south road, so that the settlement straddled a "T"-junction. It stood within a ploughed out ridge and furrow field system, which had encroached on the outer margins of the settlement, presumably after abandonment.

The site is on heavy clay soils and consequently there had been much recutting and realignment of the boundary ditches, leaving a complex palimpsest of features which are still to be fully interpreted. However, a series of small timber houses had fronted onto the green, but only vestigial remains of postholes, wall slots and gravel yard surfaces had survived. At the east the road runs south toward a large earthwork mound which has been variously interpreted as a castle mound, mill mound or tumulus. The mound has been much altered by later reuse for a water tower. It will be preserved and was therefore excluded from investigation, leaving its nature uncertain.

Preliminary assessment of the pottery assemblage indicates that the settlement is late Saxon in origin, although late Saxon and Saxo-Norman wares dated AD900-1150 are present in relatively small quantities and often as residual finds in later features. The bulk of the assemblage is dated 1150-1250, and most of the excavated structures appear to date to this period. There is no later pottery, indicating that the total abandonment of the village by the middle of the thirteenth century.

Bidford-on-Avon, The Anglo Saxon, High Street (SP 099518)

An evaluation involving three trial trenches was carried out by Christopher Jones of Warwickshire Museum in February 1998 to the rear of the public house on behalf of Trent Taverns Ltd. The work recorded no evidence for a continuation of the Anglo-Saxon cemetery known to exist

immediately to the north and east of the site. A number of postholes, pits and ditches provided evidence of occupation dating from the 13th century onwards, presumably belonging to a medieval property or properties fronting the High Street.

Brandon and Bretford, Hill Farm, Brandon (SP 4085 7625)

An evaluation involving four trial trenches was carried out in May 1998 by Christopher Jones of Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Barrett South Midlands on a site within the medieval village of Brandon. The work revealed evidence for 13th century activity in the form of pits and a ditch and gully; this concentrated to the north west and on the south west frontage of the site. Subsequent observation during topsoil stripping by Cathy Coutts collected a large amount of 12th-13th century pottery and some post medieval pottery and metalwork. A small amount of worked flint, including a possible Neolithic end-scraper was also recovered.

Burton Dassett, Country Park (SP 3983 5163)

Observation of water mains renewal by Stuart Palmer of Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Severn Trent Water in March-May 1998 revealed a series of buildings with stone foundations, extending over c.25m of the pipeline easement and dating from the 13th-15th centuries, on the northern fringe of the medieval settlement of Burton along the south edge of the Country Park.

Loxley, land south of Loxley House, High Street (SP 256527)

An evaluation involving seven trial trenches on land within the medieval village on the main street frontage, carried out by Christopher Jones of Warwickshire Museum on behalf of Linfoot Country Properties in May 1998, revealed evidence for medieval occupation of 12th to 14th century date, including stone building foundations and a medieval pond. Subsequent excavation by Stuart Palmer of an area 20m x 6-11m on the street frontage in September-October 1998 revealed parts of two plots separated by a boundary gully each containing a frontage building parallel to the street. The buildings which dated to the 13th'-14th centuries were probably timber framed on stone foundations and surrounded by patchy rubble surfaces cut by drains.

Wolvey, Church of St John the Baptist (SP 4305 8797)

An archaeological evaluation by Christopher Jones of Warwickshire Museum in the south east corner of the churchyard involving two trial trenches in April 1998 followed by a third in September 1998 on behalf of Wolvey PCC Millennium Committee revealed a mass of intercutting graves at a depth of 0.8-0.95m. About 165 sherds of residual 12th/13th century pottery testified to earlier activity on the site.

WALES

Caerphilly County Borough (ST 228972)
Cillonydd Grange Landscape Study.

A programme of Documentary research and fieldwork was undertaken at the site of the former twelfth century Cistercian grange of Cillonydd, an upland site on the Mynydd Maen ridge. This short report will review the landscape study which paid particular attention to a network of roads and tracks on and around the grange land. The buildings at Cillonydd have only recently been abandoned but a site was established here in the twelfth century and seems to have been subject to almost continuous use by subsequent generations. A small group of ramshackle buildings is surrounded by fields containing various indentations but no clearly identifiable earthworks which suggests that earlier structures did not take up any more space away from the current group of buildings. One of the first tasks was to define the extent of land associated with the medieval grange. In essence a grange was not unlike a manor in that it was a unit of exploitation, albeit one that was much more self contained. Working on the basis that lands worked by the Cistercians themselves were not subject to tithes, it was possible to define an area that was described as being 'tithe free' at the time of the tithe survey which surrounds the main group of buildings (Figure 29). It encompasses a varied parcel of land of 210 acres in total, running as far north as the Nant Gawni stream. 60 acres are made up of forestry, and 150 of farmland. The woodland is divided into two principal areas, 'Coppice wood' and 'Coed Cillonydd', the latter being the largest area. Today the vegetation at Coed Cillonydd consists of largely non-indigenous tree species of the type found widely on Forestry Commission managed land in the area, a situation that came about as a result of industrialisation when many hillsides were stripped of their natural vegetation as wood was needed in the mining industry. Coppice wood has not been affected in this way and evidence of coppicing can be seen within this small area. It is likely that these areas of woodland provided the grange with fuel for domestic and small scale industrial needs. The field pattern reflects the preference of modern agricultural technology for fewer larger fields, the number of changes that have taken place over the last 200 years being evident from the map analysis. The current field pattern at Cillonydd seems likely to have formed as a result of enclosure during the seventeenth century, there is documentary evidence to support this and the fields themselves seem to be laid out in deference to earlier features. An analysis of the buildings revealed that the fabric of one of the main current standing structures dates from the early seventeenth century which ties in well with the creation of the field pattern. Indeed four distinct phases of construction can be identified within the present group of buildings, from stonework foundations of original grange buildings through to a relatively recent domestic dwelling. Sheep farming was likely to have been the main activity of the medieval grange and so there would have been less need for internal boundaries. Built embankments border some of the fields and may reflect an earlier form of land division, or could simply have been constructed at the time of enclosure. However, a more beneficial climate during the thirteenth century could have allowed for a greater range of agricultural practices than would be apparent, or possible, today. Four principal trackways pass through Cillonydd which are today linked by a modern road running beyond Cillonydd land to the east (figure 30) Track 'A' is the most substantial and can be traced the furthest, a local farmer refers to it as the 'Roman road' which may be because it can be linked to Caerleon. To the west the track cannot be traced beyond
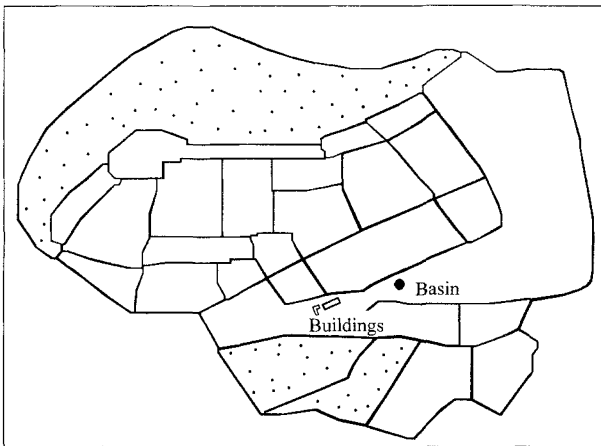
Figure 29: Cillonydd 1850 Field Pattern

Newbridge, whilst to the east it was possible to trace a route to Llantarnam abbey which would have been approximately a days walk away. After negotiating Mynydd Maen ridge the track descends towards Cwmbran passing almost alongside Llanderfel farm which was a parochial chapel, pilgrimage cell and tavern at the time there was a grange at Cillonydd. A tavern would no doubt have been much appreciated by a traveller coming from Llantarnam and heading to Cillonydd. Llantarnam being at 30 m and Llanderfel at 268 m with Cillonydd at 330 m above sea level. The track is partially lost in modern Cwmbran but can be picked up as heading towards Llantarnam passing through Abbey farm and south of the ruins along Dowlais brook towards Caerleon. It seems likely that this was an established route in the Middle Ages due to the places that it links, an earlier date of origin cannot be proven although if it is a Roman route it could be speculated that it was a more direct upland route linking Caerleon with the fort at Gelligaer. The only way to ascertain its origin would be the placing of test trenches along its path in order to try to find evidence of construction. Track 'B' is less obvious on the ground as in its first section a modem landrover track runs alongside it. As it reaches the buildings it passes behind them and across the fields to link up with track 'A', Track 'B' splits into two and the section that runs in front of the buildings has been labelled 'C'. This track seems to have been formed by the use of landrover vehicles and there is no evidence of its existence on maps prior to 1960 despite it seemingly being an obvious place for a trackway. The presence of 'B' as the principal track going behind the
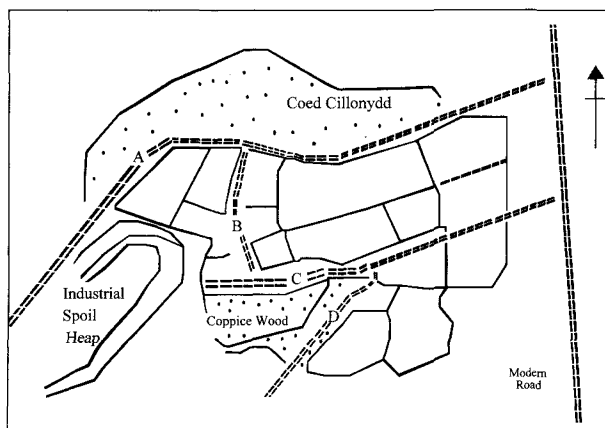

Figure 30: Cillonydd 1998

buildings adds weight to the theory that the area of land in 'front' of the buildings, where track 'C' can now be found, has been built up and levelled out in recent times and that originally a steeper incline would have existed. Effectively it seems that a detour would have been made from track 'A' along 'B' towards the grange buildings before cutting across the fields to link up with 'A' once again. The remains of a suspected medieval well is featured close to the main building and it is likely that to approach the Well a traveller would first have been required to pass through a building. Track 'D' appears to be a modern construct and features stonework in its bank, it is featured on the earliest maps and led to a nearby farmstead at Hafod Fach before quarrying interrupted its path. It is likely that this is an old trackway that was 'upgraded' in the early modern period.

A stream that runs through part of Cillonydd land travels in a series of channels that appear to have been created to carry a lot more water than they do at the moment. The basin that it leads into is also capable of holding much more water than it does at present. This raises several questions such as where did the water go? and is it a medieval construct? The field pattern seems to work around these channels with no section being incorporated within a field, suggesting that at the time of enclosure the stream had priority. The basin may have been used as a fishpond or for small scale industrial use, although at present it is unclear whether the gradient would have been sufficient enough to support a mill. Two potential points of origin for the water that once fed the water channel at Cillonydd were identified, both approximately 1 km away uphill; firstly Pen-y-Caeau literally 'Head of the Field' to the North, which appears to supply water to the Nant Gawni stream as well as a nearby farmhouse. Most of the modern farmhouses on the hillside have private sources of water and the rerouting of a water course to supply such a farm may have deprived Cillonydd of its water supply. Alternatively a second feature to the North East acts as a basin and appears to be man made but serves no obvious purpose, it may have once had some connection with the grange at Cillonydd or could simply be a product of industrial activity in the area. Any channels linking this basin to the water channels at Cillonydd would have been disrupted by the construction of an upland road which links the farmhouses and is used by lorries working at a nearby quarry. The site is potentially under threat from nearby mineral extraction and the buildings are in a hazardous state of disrepair.

Robert Weeks SCARAB Research Centre University of Wales College, Newport

City and County of Swansea (SN 608040). West Glamorgan (Glamorgan)

The Cefn Drum Research Project: Medieval Settlement and Subsistence in the Uplands.

A further house platform was excavated on Cefn Drum. With the excavation of a nearby platform in 1996 *(Annual Report of the Medieval Settlement Research Group, 11, 1196, page 53)* two of the platforms that appear to have comprised one farm complex have now been examined. A third platform has been severely damaged and excavation on this site is not planned.

The house platform and an adjacent flat area, thought to have been a yard were excavated (Figure 31). The house platform was 19m long and 9m wide, and had been constructed in the usual pattern of cutting into the hillslope and throwing material forward to construct a level area on which to build. In places the cut was deep enough to have revealed the bedrock. The yard, measuring 9 m long and 5 m wide, lay on the downslope side of the platform. Prior to excavation the yard appeared to have a bank around it, this was not prominent once the turf had been cleared away. It was thought that this might conceal a wall, but excavation revealed no structure here although some stone had been revealed where a path crossed the site.

The platform supported a large building: 19m long and 8m wide externally, the walls were up to 2m thick and stood on the edge of the platform. The stonework was rough and crude and sectioning of the wall revealed no foundations. A door in the western wall led out of the building on to the northern edge of the yard. This was situated at the point where the platform crosses the natural profile of the hillside. The corners of the building do not meet a right angles, instead the walls curve into one another to give the building a rounded shape. The building was divided into two compartments. A rudimentary wall divided the lower 5m of the building from the remainder. This wall was supplemented by a bank formed by cutting away some of the platform on the downslope side. A small posthole lay at the end of the wall, with a second one 1.5m further north. These may have supported a small screen or wattle panel which divided this part of the building along its long axis. These postholes were far too small to have supported a roof. A complex series of features in the upper part of the building were interpreted as having been a drain. This ran for 7m down the centre of the building. It is presumed that this acted as a soakaway as the drain does not exit from the building nor does it end in a pit or other feature.

A variety of biological and environmental analyses were incorporated into both the 1996 and 1998 excavations. The aim of this work is both to aid the interpretation of excavated structures and to further understanding of the site's economy. It is intended that particle size studies and growth experiments will take place in the coming months. During the course of the excavations analysis for residual phosphate concentrations was undertaken using soil samples taken, from selected areas within and close to the dwelling. These results showed a notable difference in the PO_4^{3-} concentrations found either side of the building's internal divide. The higher concentrations found to exist in the lower division, when compared with those in the upper division and the background levels, suggest that domestic animals may have been kept in this area of the dwelling.

It is thought that both house platforms are contemporary and both have a presumed medieval date. Radiocarbon dating of charcoal collected from under the platform excavated in 1996 was carried out with the aim of dating its construction. The result was a date of 3750 ± 50 BP (OxA-6806 δ ^{13}C = -27.7‰.) This indicates a late Neolithic antiquity for the charcoal. It is probable therefore that the sample was residual - derived from a previous land surface which the construction of the platform uncovered with

the subsequent mixing of earlier age materials. The result of the radiocarbon analysis establishes possible anthropogenic disturbance and mixing of the soil profile and supports the understanding that the vegetation in this region of southern Britain during the late Neolithic was primarily woodland dominated. Evidence of a more widespread woodland clearance with a subsequent increasing in the frequency of permanent settlements (for whatever reason) during the medieval period has yet to be established. A fuller discussion of this date can be found in 'Radiocarbon dates from the Oxford AMS system: Archaeometry datelist 27,' in *Archaeometry, 41,* 1999, page 198.

Elsewhere in south east Wales buildings such as this - that is dry built of crude rubble with rounded corners as an integral element, with a single entrance in the long wall and with no evidence for an internal hearth - have been found on a variety of twelfth and early thirteenth century sites, In upland areas, such as Cefn Drum, they may date into the fourteenth century. The excavated structure is
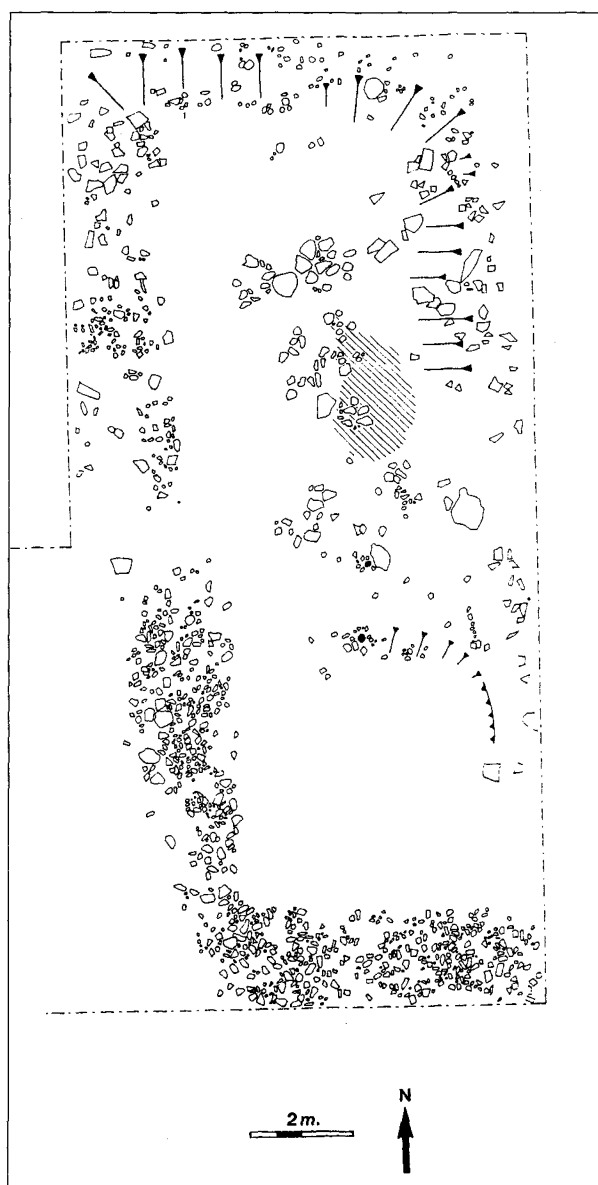

Figure 31: Cefn Drum house platform

50

clearly a long house, a type of farmhouse which gave shelter to animals and people under one roof. These were common in the upland areas of Britain from the medieval era up until the nineteenth century. It has been claimed that this type of dwelling was the result of the economic growth of the peasantry coincident with climatic deterioration, a result of which was that cattle had to be kept indoors (Wiliam, 1992, 3). The medieval time series index for climate shows a clear pattern of severe winters from c. 1240 to c. 1340 (Ogilvie and Farmer, 1997, 130). If the generally accepted date for this range of buildings, c.1100 to c. 1300 is placed alongside the onset of severe weather conditions, c. 1240, then a date for the origin of this farmstead in the second half of the thirteenth century can be tentatively advanced. This was a period of population growth, when the area of settlement expanded into higher, perhaps more "marginal" environments. Population pressure would have been alleviated by the series of famines which lasted from 1315 to 1321 and by the Black Death of 1348 - 1349. Hence the occupation of this farmstead may have been short lived.

Further excavation and survey are planned. A survey of the two large cairn fields on Cefn Drum commenced in the spring of 1999, as did geophysical prospection of the areas between and around the three platforms. It is hoped to begin the excavation of a long house complex in the summer of 1999.

Jonathan Kissock, with contributions from R.A.S. Johnston.

Centre for the Study of Culture, Archaeology, Religions and Biogeography, University of Wales College, Newport.

References
Ogilvie A. and Farmer G., 1997 'Documenting the Medieval Climate," in Hulme M. and Barrow E. (eds.) *Climates of the British Isles Past, Present and Future* (London).
Wiliam E. 1992 *Welsh Long-Houses: Four centuries of Farming at Cliewent* (Cardiff).

ITALY

Sangro Valley Research Project: Colle Sant'ianni Excavations, 1997, 1998 by Neil Christie

Introduction

The Sangro Valley Research Project is a major interdisciplinary project examining the evolution of landscape and settlement within the Abruzzo region of central east Italy. Coordinated by Dr. John Lloyd of the University of Oxford and in full collaboration with the Soprintendenza Archaeologica dell'Abruzzo, the Abruzzo National Park and the British School at Rome (and variously funded and supported by the British Academy, Oxford and Leicester Universities, and the British School at Rome), the project has run from 1994-1999 and has comprised in particular extensive fieldwalking and geomorphological study (both linked into GIS modelling); excavation work has also been undertaken to enhance and calibrate the chronologies of the fieldwalked materials and to clarify specific site sequences (for project summaries and interims see references below).

Of these excavations, one has involved a team of archaeologists from the University of Leicester working in the upper Sangro valley within the confines of the Abruzzo national Park at the hilltop site of Colle Sant'Ianni. As discussed in the MSRG Report 11, this site lies in an area rich in medieval activity: the hill itself dominates the ancient, medieval and modern valley road; visually it communicates westwards with the hilltop town of Opi and eastwards to the old centre of Villetta Barrea; to the south-west it links with the documented medieval (eleventh- to fourteenth-century) castle of Rocca Intramonti, whose lower position was dictated by the need to dominate the medieval (and earlier) transhumance route or drove road (still part extant). Fieldsurvey work in the area had also identified in the open pasture area near Rocca Intramonti traces of houses and paddocks and a possible church and inn (identifications in part offered by surviving post-medieval drove road maps). Furthermore, nearby low hilltops also revealed likely medieval houses. The Colle Sant'Ianni site therefore performed a significant military role subordinate to Rocca Intramonti in terms of controlling/overseeing traffic along the main valley road. Surface and other data furthermore indicated that in this role it repeated earlier iron age activity, with Opi a noted Samnite hillfort.

Surface indications on Colle Sant'Ianni comprised therefore both Samnite and medieval occupation, with a series of presumed house platforms (with apparent iron age houses on the lower west end of the hill, and medieval ones concentrated at the east end), plus a tower dominating the central portion of the narrow hilltop. In order to clarify the site chronology and context, a three year excavation programme was initiated in 1997, commencing with the excavation of one house platform near to the central tower, demonstrating coherent medieval activity between the later eleventh and thirteenth centuries. The 1998 season saw two further houses examined; 1999 will comprise investigation of the presumed iron age houses, as well as within Rocca Intramonti. Here a summary of the 1998 excavation results is offered.

1998 Excavation
Two house platforms were investigated at the eastern end of the hilltop, close to the presumed ancient point of access, and adjoining the line of the circuit wall. Excavation of the western sector 'House 2' and the 'corridor' between continued to bedrock; excavation of 'House 1' in the eastern half of the trench extended to the floor level with sectioning down to underlying bedrock. Wall remains for each of the two structures were fragile: two N-S oriented walls were identified, both resting on bedrock and using only patches of mortar; few stones remained in situ, however, with most stones lost to erosion down the steep southern slope - although robbing cannot be excluded. Only the W-E running south/circuit wall was well preserved, featuring upto four courses of medium to large shaped limestone, terraced into the hillslope. House 1 utilised this presumed circuit wall as its south flank; the line of the circuit wall could be traced for a short distance westwards.

No internal features were recognised within the corridor or 'House 2', bar signs of shaping of bedrock; no coherent sign of earth floor levelling was recognised. However, finds within the subsoil over bedrock were numerous and suggested the area was utilised as a rubbish dumping ground post-abandonment.
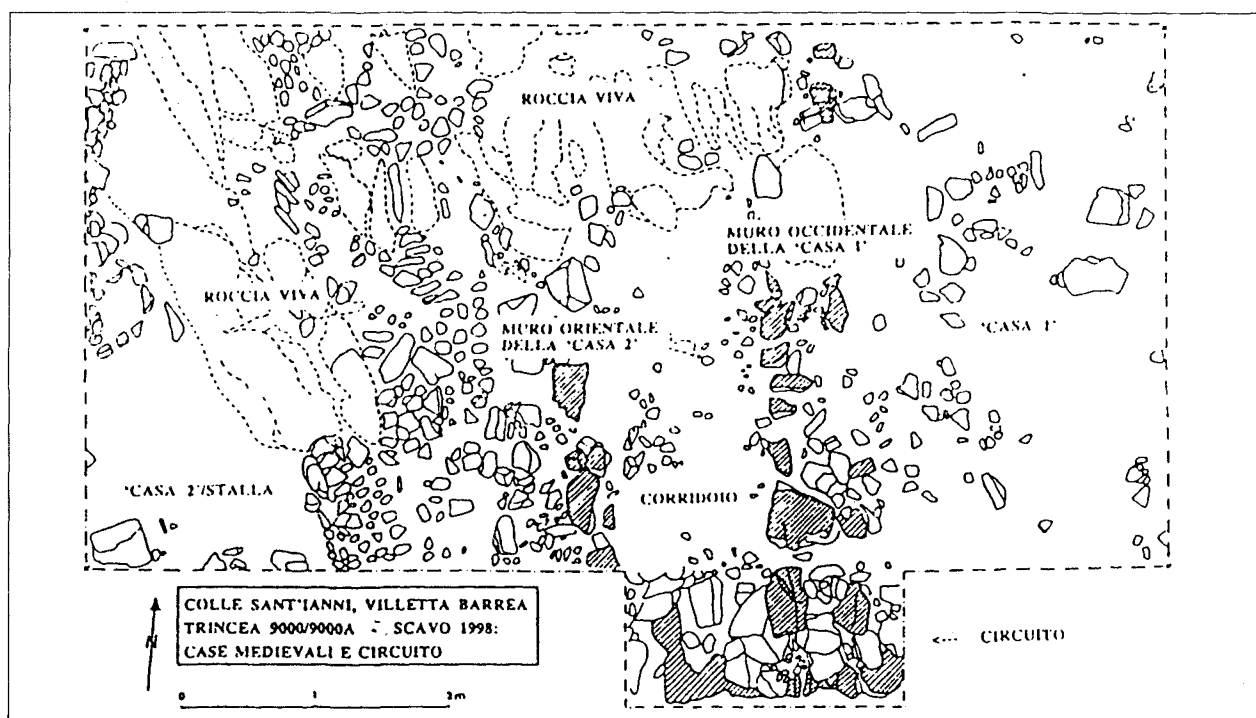
Figure 32: Plan of eastern end of Colle Sant' Ianni with House and circuit (Roccia Viva = bedrock)

House 1, however, featured two phases of mortar flooring, partly uneven due to slippage/settling over the underlying levelling: a yellow mortar floor formed Phase One; Phase Two flooring comprised white mortar repairs/relaying. Root and tree action appeared to have damaged many sections of this secondary flooring. One raised area of mortar floor with extensive clay packing beneath probably related to a hearth. Finds from the fill and levelling layer indicated a likely construction date of the late eleventh or twelfth century; there may have been only a short space in time between Phases One and Two. How long the building was in use is not clear; however, accumulation and subsoil deposits over the floor relating to rubbish dumping contained much domestic material of twelfth- to thirteenth-century date, suggesting perhaps a relatively short period of usage.

Key Finds
A full fifty small finds were recovered from the trench. These comprised not only structural materials such as nails, and expected male/military items (e.g. buckle, knife, crossbow bolt, horseshoe nails), but also varied domestic artifacts such as spindle whorls, worked bone and an earring, indicating a mixed population, not simply a small military guard. Notable also was the small collection (perhaps a purse hoard) of four coins (two fused together) of probable early thirteenth-century date.

A substantial number of potsherds was recovered, ranging from domestic cooking ware, to glazed and part-glazed vessels and jugs, plus a few more finer sherds of archaic maiolica. The quantities of material, plus the relatively high proportion of rim, handle and base sherds are taken to indicate this as a dumping area post-dating the house(s). Tile was also recovered but in quantities suggestive of reuse in walls rather than as roofing material.

Animal bone was recovered in all subsoil contexts, with notable quantities of well preserved bone from the

'corridor' zone. This may signify discarded cooking/kitchen waste from House 1, although the majority of the bone derived from what appear to the be dumping contexts assumed to post-date the abandonment of House 1.

Finally it can be noted that small quantities of slag were recovered; these finds must denote that at least some metalworking took place on the site and that the Colle Sant'Ianni settlement was not wholly dependent on Rocca Intramonti for supplies/tools.

Discussion

The extensive Material recovered from the excavation confirms important medieval occupation on Colle Sant'Ianni, covering perhaps two centuries. The finds reveal this to have been a settlement as opposed to a military post with rotations of troops. The excavations in 1998 were fortunate in recovering substantial finds: the 1997 excavations had by contrast suggested that most domestic debris was discarded over the hillside. It remains uncertain therefore why so much debris accumulated over the houses examined this year, but perhaps may have been dictated by the fact that the hill slopes to the south and east were under cultivation; not all the material can be explained as wash from higher up the hilltop. Most certainly the excavated finds provide an important new guide to understanding the material culture of the Middle Ages in the upper Sangro region - previously the medieval period has been greatly overlooked in this region (as elsewhere) given the presence of clear medieval castle remains and the evident medieval roots to most extant upland/hilltop settlement.

Investigation of the site of Rocca Intramonti in 1999 will help clarify the chronological and functional relationship between this castle and Colle Sant'Ianni; it is hoped also to examine more closely the nearby drove-road which was clearly important in dictating the organisation of settlement in this zone.

52

References

Christie, N. and Lloyd, J. 1996 The Sangro Valley Research Project, *Medieval Settlement Research Group, Annual Report* 11, 53-54.

Lloyd, J., Christie, N. and Lock, G. (eds.) 1997 From the mountain to the plain: landscape evolution in the Abruzzo. An interim report on the Sangro Valley Project 1994-5), *Papers of the British School at Rome*, lxv, 1-57.

Neil Christie *(School of Archaeological Studies, University of Leicester)*

SPAIN

ARAGON
Somontano de Moncayo, Borja

September 1998 was the first season of topographic survey, standing building recording and excavation in the foothills of the Moncayo sierra directed by C. Gerrard, A. Gutierrez and K. Wilkinson of King Alfred's College, Winchester. The broad aim of this project is to map the settlement and evolution of this arid-zone Mediterranean landscape, focusing particularly on the medieval and post-medieval periods.

Holocene landform development around Ambel is at present poorly understood, despite the fact that profound changes in geomorphology have undoubtedly taken place. Perhaps the most notable process is the infilling of stream valleys cut through Pliocene and Pleistocene deposits by fine grained material. Elsewhere in the Mediterranean region such fill events have been related to climate change in the immediate post-Roman period, although more recently it has been noted that the asynchroneity of deposition suggests the action of localised-processes, such as clearance for agriculture and the break down of agricultural terrace systems. Preliminary study of Holocene fill sequences in the area indicates that a number of high energy erosional events, presumably a result of agricultural intensification, post date Roman structures. Some of these events might be associated with terrace abandonment in the Visigothic period, although later medieval events are also indicated and the local landscape has considerable potential for addressing issues of cause and effect in relation to agricultural forest clearance, intensification and abandonment.

Topographic and standing building survey was carried out at a range of medieval and later monuments, including limekilns, brick kilns, retting pits, two watermills, medieval fortifications, a hermitage, field shrines and a number of 'parideras'. In the lower valleys these are often ruined dry stone wall corrals which house roofed sheep enclosures and a modest single storey shepherd's hut. These structures were used throughout the year by local shepherds who traversed relatively short distances around the settlements. In contrast, on the higher land there are much larger circular structures, up to 250 metres in diameter and including up to three huts. These seem to be linked to the long distance movement of much larger flocks which we associate with Mediterranean transhumance and appear to be associated with nearby cultivation terraces. Complementary documentary and ethnographic studies are underway but initial results suggest a wider range of medieval and post-medieval pastoral strategies than was expected.

Chris Gerrard, Alejandra Gutierrez and Keith Wilkinson

Book Reviews

The Landscape of Anglo-Saxon England

Della Hooke. xiii + 240 pp, 74 figs + 20 plates. London, Leicester University Press HB £49.95, PB £18.99. ISBN HB 0 7185 1727 X/PB 0 7185 0161 6.

At last, the wide range of evidence that can be called upon to reconstruct the landscape England between the 5th and the 10th centuries has been presented in a single, accessible and well illustrated volume. This book is divided into four sections. The first deals with the Anglo-Saxon view of the countryside, in terms of the natural topography, plants and animals- as reflected in place-names and literature. The second section examines the organisation of the countryside both at the national level, reflected in the boundaries of tribal groups and kingdoms, and at the local level in terms of individual estates. Not surprisingly. Hooke places much emphasis upon the wealth of evidence contained within the boundary clauses of land charters, and a series of illustrated examples show how the information that they contain can be related to physical evidence in the modern landscape. The third section examines the various uses to which different environments were put, with separate chapters on settlements and farming, woodland, and marshes and moorland. The final sections examines two key topics: urban development and trade, and the identification of distinctive landscape regions.

A number of general themes emerge from all of these chapters which future studies need to develop. This is very much an integrated study of landscape as a whole (settlements, fields, estates, communication systems and varied patterns of landuse), though one missed opportunity is the greater integration of the chapter on towns, trade and industry with the bulk of the book that deals with the rural countryside. There is also quite rightly much emphasis placed upon the fact that the English landscape had an extremely varied character in the late first millennium AD, and that nucleated villages and open fields were emerging in a very restricted area, though there is no attempt to map landscape character at the national scale (with the exception of woodland).

The study of landscape entails strongly interdisciplinary research. The early medieval landscape (the term 'Anglo-Saxon' in the book's title is perhaps a little dated") is a particularly difficult one to study, such is the scarcity of material compared to both the Roman and later medieval periods. Hooke places considerable emphasis upon documentary and place-name evidence and the integration of this material with physical evidence contained within the historic landscape itself. There is, however, a notable bias in the areas chosen for detailed example. The West Midlands and Central Southern England figure highly due to the abundance of charters,

though this could have been balanced by more substantial discussions of the contribution of fieldwalking, excavation and palaeoenvironmental in areas such as the East Midlands and East Anglia. However, the landscape of any period is an enormous topic, and this synthesis of material from historical, archaeological and environmental disciplines represents a thoroughly enjoyable journey through the countryside of early medieval England.

Stephen Rippon

Studia Archaeologica Slovaca Mediaevalia 1, 1998. Volume edited by Messrs. Dusan Caplovic and Michal Slivka. Bratislava: Academic Electronic Press 1998. ISBN 80-88880-27-0, 190pp., 50 black-and-white drawings and photographs in text, price not indicated.

This new periodical, launched jointly by the Slovak Academy of Sciences and the Faculty of Arts of the Comenius University at Bratislava, Slovakia, represents a welcome addition to a host of periodical publications making accessible the results of specialized investigations in medieval archaeology of East-Central Europe. Given the importance of the Slovak region, comprising the middle Danubian plains of what is now Hungary, the ridges of the Carpathian mountains, the passes which give access to the Baltic but also Pontic areas in the north and east, and the undulating landscapes of eastern-Austria Alpine piedmont to the west, it taps archaeological resources of a region potentially very rich in historical information of the first magnitude.

The editors seem to be well aware of this hopeful position of their essential orientation. They profess as their strategic initiative the presentation of full-scale and multidisciplinary research, focusing on the past of the lands between the middle Danube and the Tatra mountains and aiming at the securing of as complete information on the historical processes which had taken part on this territory throughout the Middle Ages, as may be recoverable by methods of modern research. A lower-order, or tactical perspective which they voice in their introductory text, is to provide a common platform for the hitherto dispersed research initiatives focusing on medieval developments on the territory of modern Slovakia. In this they are well-placed, as they have access to the results gathered both by the basic-research institutions of the Slovak Academy of Sciences and by the university centres at Bratislava and Nitra.

The temporal perspective in which the editors of the new periodical view the Middle Ages approaches closely to the Western vision, tending to understand under this heading the period comprised, by and large, between the years 500 and 1500. In choosing this procedure, somewhat unorthodox in East-Central Europe, they deliberately emphasize that it is their intention not to be limited by any considerations of unhistoric, let alone political or nationalist visions of the ancient past of their country, avoiding even the once traditional label of "Slavic archaeology" for local research on the early Middle Ages., Instead, they opt for an unbiased investigation of evidence for the entire population which once inhabited the lands in question, regardless of their nationality,

language or religious affiliation. Any reader witnessing the present events in Southeastern Europe will realize the weight of such a statement and undoubtedly wish the editorial board the best.

The range of contributions to the first volume of SASM clearly shows that the implementation of the goals outlined above will greatly depend on the viewpoints of the individual authors. Passing through the contents, we encounter purely traditionalist texts, but also valuable material publications and interpretative attempts interesting from the methodical point of view. The first number of SASM includes texts taking up issues concerning not only pure archaeology, but art history and cultural anthropology as well. A variety of research targets illustrated by them includes investigations of-village and municipal sites, monastic complexes and castle architecture.

There are rubrics dedicated to the debate of research topics, to documents and materials and to current events. Authors' addresses are provided and the contents of the volume are practically trilingual, adding title translations into in German and English. The texts themselves usually display summaries in either German or English.

The first number of SASM raises great expectations. We all wish its editorial board the best of success in keeping up to the high standard they have set.

Petr Charvat, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic Charles University, Prague

Central Europe in 8th -10th Centuries AD
ed Dusan Caplovic. Proceedings of an International Scientific Conference, Bratislava, October 2-4 1995, Published by Ministry of Culture of the Slovak Republic and Slovak Academy of Sciences. ISBN 80-88758-05-X

This is a well produced series of papers fulfilling the intentions of its title with contributions from all of the Central European countries. As a result papers are in a mixture of languages with a pre-dominance of German but there is a succinct English summary of the conference at the beginning of the volume. This volume is produced by the same institution as the journal reviewed above and is similarly notable for its movement beyond the previous 'nation archaeologies' of the region.

Robin Daniels

Landscapes
ed Richard Muir

We have been informed of the expected arrival of a new 'journal for landscape researchers' which is due to be produced in April 2000. The intention is to produce two issues a year and the first issue will contain articles by Richard Muir, Chris Taylor, Noel James Menuge, Tom Williamson and Steve Mills. For further information contact Windgather Press, 31 Shrigley Road, Bollington, Macclesfield, Cheshire SK10 5RD.

Robin Daniels

Select Bibliography of Works on Medieval Rural Settlement 1998

Compiled by Christopher Gerrard and Richard McConnell

This list includes both books and articles published between March 1998 and March 1999 and anything which seems to have been omitted from previous bibliographies. If your article or your favourite read are left out then please write and tell me so that I can include them next year. My address is Dr C. M. Gerrard, Dept. of Archaeology, King Alfred's College, Winchester, Hants S022 4NR, or you can email me at GerrardC@wkac.ac.uk

Books

Andersson, H., Carelli, P. and Ersgard, L., *Visions of the Past: Trend and Traditions in Swedish Medieval Archaeology,* (Lund Studies in Medieval Archaeology 19, 1997).

Astill, G. and Langdon, J. (eds.), *Medieval Farming and Technology,* (Brill, 1997).

Aston, M. A., Hall, T. A. and Gerrard, C. M. (eds.), *The Shapwick Project. An Archaeological, Historical and Topographical Study. The Eighth Report* (University of Bristol 1998).

Barker, K. and Darvill, T. (eds.), *Making English Landscapes,* (Oxbow Monograph 93, 1997).

Berryman, R. D., *Use of the Woodlands in the Late Anglo-Saxon Period,* (BAR British Series 271, 1998).

Boismier, W. A., *Modelling the Effects of Tillage Processes on Artefact Distributions in the Ploughzone. A simulation study of tillage-induced pattern formation,* (BAR British Series 259, 1997).

Bradley, R. and Williams, H. (eds.), *The Past in the Past: the Re-use of Ancient Monuments,* World Archaeology Volume 30, Issue 1, 1998.

Buteux, S., *Settlements at Skail, Derrness, Orkney: Excavations by Peter Gellings of the Prehistoric, Pictish, Viking and Later Periods, 1963-1981,* (BAR British Series 260, 1 997).

Daniell, C., *Death and Burial in Medieval England 1066-1550,* (Routledge, 1997).

Edwards, N. (ed.), *Landscape and Settlement in Medieval Wales,* (Oxbow Monograph 81, 1997).

Edwards, N. (ed.), *Landscape and Settlement in Medieval Wales,* (Oxbow Monograph 81, 1997).

Everson, P. and Williamson, T. (eds), *The Archaeology of Landscape* (Manchester UP, 1998)

French, K. L., Gibbs, G. G. and Kumin, B. A., *The Parish in English Life 1400-1600,* (Manchester UP, 1997).

Funari, P. P. A., Hall, M. and Jones, S. (eds.), *Historical Archaeology. Back from the Edge,* (Routledge, 1998).

Gelichi, S. (ed.), *I Congresso Nazionale di Archeologia Medievale,* (Edizioni all'Insegna del Gigiio, 1997).

Grandchamp, P. G. et al. (eds.), *La Ville de Cluny et ses Maisons XL-XV Siecles,* (Picard, 1997).

Gransden, A. (ed.), *Bury St. Edmunds: Medieval Art, Architecture, Archaeology and Economy,* (British Archaeological Association Conference Transactions 20, 1998).

Griffiths, D., *The Archaeology of Dartmoor,* (Devon Arch, Soc., 1996).

Hawkes, J. and Fasham, P. J. (eds.) with contributions from W. J. Carruthers et al, *Excavations on Reading Waterfront Sites 1979-1988,* (Wessex Archaeology Report 5, 1997).

MacKay, A. and Ditchburn, D. (eds.), *Atlas of Medieval Europe,* (Routledge, 1997).

Mackreth, D., *Orton Hall Farm: A Roman and Early Saxon Farmstead,* (East Anglian Archaeology No. 76, 1996).

Mew, K. A., *'Thro'a Glass Darkly'. The Biography of a Domesday Landscape: The Nova Foresta,* (Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Reading, 1997).

Mitchell, F. and Ryan, M., *Reading the Irish Landscape* (Town House, 1997).

O'Conor, K., *The Archaeology of Medieval Rural Settlement in Ireland,* (Discovery Programme Monographs 3, The Royal Irish Academy, 1998).

O'Conor, K. D., *The Archaeology of Medieval Rural Settlement in Ireland,* (Discovery Programme Monographs 3, The Royal Irish Academy, 1998).

Rackham, O. and Mood-V, J., *The Making of the Cretan Landscape,* (Manchester University Press, 1997).

Roberts, B. K., *Landscapes of Settlement,* (Routledge, 1997).

Rogerson, A., Davison, A., Pritchard, D. and Silvester, R., *Barton Bendish and Caldecote, Fieldwork in South-west Norfolk,* (East Anglian Archaeology No. 80, 1997).

Rowley, T., *Norman England. An Archaeological Perspective on the Norman Conquest,* (Batsford for English Heritage, 1997).

Sawyer, P. H., *From Roman Britain to Norman England,* (Routledge, 1998).

Stenning, D. F. and Andrews, D.D. (eds.), *Regional Variation in Timber-Framed Buildings in England and Wales Down to 1550,* (Essex County Council, 1998).

Tolan-Smith, C., *Landscape Archaeology in Tyndale,* (Tyne-Solway Ancient and Historic Landscapes Research Programme, 1 997).

Vyner, B. (ed.), *Moorland Monuments: the Archaeology of North-East Yorkshire,* (CBA Research Report 101, 1995).

Wager, S. J., *Woods, Wolds and Graves: The Woodland of Medieval Warwickshire,* (BAR British Series 269, 1 998).

Williams, S. E., *Taynton Parva Deserted Medieval Village: Its History and Archaeology,* (Dean Archaeol. Grp. Occas. Publ., 2 1996).

Yates, M. H., *Continuity and Change in Rural Society c 1400-1600: West Hanney and Shaw (Berkshire) and their Region,* (Unpublished DPhil Thesis, University of Oxford, 1997).

Articles

Abernethy, D., 'Wardlaw Old Churchyard, Kirkhill, by Inverness [Highland]', *Guard,* 432 (1997).

Alexander, D., 'Feudal Renfrewshire and the Stewards: history and archaeology', *Glasgow Archaeol Soc. Bull.,* 40 (199 8), 4-9.

Andrews, D. D. (ed.), 'Historic buildings, notes and surveys 1996', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.* 28, (1997), 228-248.

Aston, M. A., Martin, M. H. and Jackson, A. W., 'The potential for heavy metal soil analysis on low status archaeological sites at Shapwick, Somerset', *Antiquity,* 72 (1998), 838-847.

Atkinson, J. A. et al., 'Ben Lawers historic landscape project: The pilot season 1996 [Perth and Kinross]', *Guard,* 290.2 (1997).

Barber, A. and Walker, G., '127-129 Westward Road, Ebley, excavation', *Glevensis,* 30 (1997), 21-2.

Bray, E., 'Court Farm, Wookey, Somerset. Report on geophysical survey, May 1998', *Ancient Monuments Lab. Report,* 51/98 (1998).

Chapman, S. and Scott, V., 'Excavations at Houchins Farm, Coggeshall, 1996 [medieval finds from a later moated site]', *Essex Archaeol Hist.,* 28 (1997), 292-3.

Coleman, R. and Perry, D., 'Moated sites in Tayside and Fife', *Tayside Fife Archaeol. J.,* 3 (1997), 176-187.

Creighton, O., 'Early Leicestershire castles: archaeology and landscape history', *Leicestershire Archaeol Hist Soc Trans,* 71 (1997), 21-36.

Cushion, B. and Davison, A., 'A group of earthworks in the Tat Valley', *Norfolk Archaeol.,* 42 4 (1997), 492-505.

Davis, T., 'The lost village of Bossington', *Hants. Fld. Clb. Newsl.,* 29 (1998) 95-110.

Eddison, J. and Draper, G., 'A landscape of medieval reclamation: Walland Marsh, Kent', *Landscape Hist.,* 19 (1997), 75-88.

Emery, M. et al., 'Poulton chapel, Cheshire, 1995-6: Mesolithic to medieval occupation in the upper Dee valley', *Archaeol. North West,* 11 (1997), 120-126.

Entwistle, J. *et al,* 'Multi-element analysis of soils from Scottish historical sites. Interpreting land-use history through the physical and geochemical analysis of soil', *J Archaeol Sci,* 25(1) (1998), 53-68.

Fleming, A., 'Towards a history of wood pasture in Swaledale (North Yorkshire)', *Landscape Hist.,* 19 (1997), 57-74.

Foreman, S., 'Medieval Boreham: Excavations at the former Buxted Chicken Factory, Boreham 1992-93', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.*, 28 (1997), 103-112.

Gardiner, M., 'The characterization of medieval Wealden settlements: excavations at Ivenden, Coombe Farm, Mayfield, East Sussex', *Sussex Archaeol. Coll.*, 136 (1998), 95-110.

Geary, B. R., West, S. and Charman, D. J., 'The landscape context of medieval settlement on the south-western moors of England. Recent palaeoenvironmental evidence from Bodmin Moor and Dartmoor', *Med. Archaeol.*, 41 (1997), 195-210.

Godbold, S., 'Medieval remains at The Gardens, Pleshey', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.*, 28 (1997), 282-290.

Hart, C. R., 'Excavations in Tynemouth, 1995', *Archaeol Aeliana*, 25 (1997), 87-108.

Hasek, V. and Unger, J., 'Geophysical and archaeological research of medieval architecture of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries in Moravia' *Archaeological Prospection*, 5 1 (March 1998), 1-28.

Hesse, M., 'The early parish and estate of Ickworth, West Suffolk', *Proc. Suffolk Inst. Archaeol. Hist.*, 39 1 (1997), 6-27.

Hewitt, J., 'Hart and east Hampshire settlement survey', *Hants. Fld. Clb. Newsl.*, 30 (1998) 27-28.

Hinton, D., 'The Scole-Dickleburgh field system examined', *Landscape Hist.*, 19 (1997), 5-12.

Hunter, J., 'The age of Cressing field boundaries', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.*, 28 (1997), 151 155.

Impey, E. and Lorans, E., 'Langeais, Indre-et-Loire. An archaeological and historical study of the early Donjon and its environs', *Journal of the British Archaeological Association*, 151 (1998), 43-106.

Johnson, M., 'The medieval and post-medieval port of Filey', *Yorkshire Archaeol. J.*, 70 (1998), 73-84.

Karkov, C. E. and Ruffing. J., 'The southern Uí Néill and the political landscape of Lough Ennell', *Peritia*, 11 (1997), 336-358.

Leah, M. et al., 'A survey of the earthworks at Hills and Holes Plantation, Marham, Norfolk', *Norfolk Archaeol.*, 42 4 (1997). 506-511.

Locock, M., 'Rockingham Farm, Avonmouth, 1993-1997: moated enclosure on the North Avon Levels', in S. Rippon (ed.), *Archaeology in the Severn Estuary, 1997 (Volume 8)*, (Annual Report of the Severn Estuary Levels Research Committee, 1998), 83-88.

Loveluck, C. P., 'A high-status Anglo-Saxon settlement at Flixborough, Lincolnshire', *Antiquity*, 72 (1998), 146-161.

MacGregor, G., 'Cragganester, Loch Tayside [Perth & Kinross]', *Guard*, 381 (1997).

Musgrove, D., 'The medieval exploitation and reclamation of the inland peat moors in the Somerset Levels', in S. Rippon (ed.), *Archaeology in the Severn Estuary, 1997 (Volume 8)*, (Annual Report of the Severn Estuary Levels Research Committee, 1998), 83-88.

Passmore, S., 'Excavation at Burderop Park in 1995', *Wiltshire Archaeol. Natur. Hist. Mag.*, 91 (1998), 57-64.

Perros, H., 'Anglo-Norman settlement in Connacht in the thirteenth century', *Grp. Stud. Ir. Hist. Settl. Newsl*, 7 (1996-97), 1-6.

Proudfoot, E. and Aliaga-Kelly, C., 'Aspects of settlement and territorial arrangement in South-east Scotland in the Late Prehistoric and Early Medieval Periods', *Medieval Archaeology*, XLI (1997), 33-50.

Oosthuizen, S., 'Medieval settlement relocation in West Cambridgeshire: Three case-studies', *Landscape Hist.*, 19 (1997), 43-55.

Rippon, S., 'Roman and medieval settlement on the North Somerset Levels: the second season of survey and excavation at Banwell and Puxton, 1997', in S. Rippon (ed.), *Archaeology in the Severn Estuary, 1997 (Volume 8)*, (Annual Report of the Severn Estuary Levels Research Committee, 1998), 41-54.

Rowley, T., 'All change after the Norman conquest', *Brit. Archaeol.*, 35 (1998), 8-9.

Ryan, D., 'Medieval settlement and land use in Redbridge Hundred', *Hant., Fld. Clb. News.*, 29 (1998) 28-33.

Ryan, P. M. et al., 'New House Farm and Hungry Hall, Cressing. The disintegration of the Cressing Templar estate or the Great Rebuilding', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.*, 28 (1997), 1 56-64.

Speller, K. and Banks, I., 'William Grant & Sons Distillery, Girvan: Area C Ladywell Farm Evaluation [S Ayrshire]', *Guard*, 396C (1997).

Stamper, P., 'Landscapes of the Middle Ages: rural settlement and manors', in J. Hunter and I. B. M. Ralston (eds.), *The Archaeology of Britain*, (Routledge, 1998).

Stenning, D. F., 'Medieval kitchens in Essex', *Essex Archaeol. Hist.*, 28 (1997), 113-116.

Williams, S. E., 'Taynton Parva', *Glevensis*, 30 (1997), 27-32.

Books

Bassett, S., *The Origins of the Parishes of the Deerhurst Area*, (Deerhurst Lecture, 1998).

Beresford, M., *History on the Ground*, (revised edition, Sutton 1998).

Beresford, M., *The Lost Villages of England*, (1954, re-issued Sutton 1998).

Finberg, J., *Exploring Villages*, (1958, Sutton re-issue 1998).

Fowler, P. J. and Blackwell, I., *The Land of Lettice Sweetapple: An English Countryside Explored*, (Tempus, 1998).

Wallis, S. and Waughman, M., *Archaeology and Landscape in the Lower Blackwater Valley*, (East Anglian Archaeology 82, 1998).

Williamson, T., *The Norfolk Broads: A Landscape History*, (Manchester UP, 1997).

Articles

Barber, L., 'Medieval rural settlement and economy at Lydd', in J. Eddison, M. Gardiner and A. Long (eds.), *Environmental Change and Human Occupation in a Coastal Wetland*, (Oxford University Committee for Archaeology 46, 1998).

Gardiner, M., 'Settlement change on Walland and Denge marshes', in J. Eddison, M. Gardiner and A. Long (eds.), *Environmental Change and Human Occupation in a Coastal Wetland*, (Oxford University Committee for Archaeology 46, 1998).

Bibliography of Works on Medieval Rural Settlement in Norfolk

By A. Davidson

Books

Davidson, A., 'Deserted Villages in Norfolk', Norfolk Origins Series No. 5, Poppyland Press, 1996.

Margeson, S., 'The Vikings in Norfolk' Norfolk Museums Service 1997.

Williamson, T., 'The Norfolk Broads, A Landscape History' Manchester U.P. 1997.

Williamson, T., 'The Archaeology of the Landscape Park, Garden Design in Norfolk, England C. 1680 - 1840. B.A.R. British Series 268. 1998.

Articles

Cornford, B., 'The Lost Domesday Vill of Ness' Norfolk Archaeology XLIII, 1998, 168-172.

Dollin, B. W. & Carruthers, B., 'Excavations at Kelling Old Hall' Norfolk Archeology XLII, 1997, 453-467.

Dymond, D., 'A misplaced Domesday Vill: Otringhithe and Bromehill' Norfolk Archaeology XLIII, 1998, 161-168.

Hesse, M., 'Medieval Field Systems and Land Tenure in South Creake, Norfolk' Norfolk Archcology XLIII, 1998, 79-97.

Medieval Settlement Research Group

Constitution (as amended, December 1988 and December 1997)

1.The society shall be called the Medieval Settlement Research Group.

2. The objects of the Group will be the advancement of public education by promoting interdisciplinary involvement in the collection, analysis and dissemination of data relating to the history, geography and archaeology of medieval rural settlement. In furtherance of the above objects but not further or otherwise the Group shall have the following powers:

a) To promote and carry out or assist in promoting and carrying out research, surveys and investigations and publish the useful results thereof.

b) To cause to be written and printed or otherwise reproduced and circulated, gratuitously or otherwise, such papers, books, periodicals, pamphlets or other documents or films or recorded tapes (whether audio or visual or both) as shall further the said objects.

c) To hold conferences, seminars and field meetings.

d) To collect and disseminate information on all matters affecting the said objects and exchange such information with other bodies having similar objects whether in this country or overseas.

e) To do all such other lawful things as shall further the said objects.

3. Membership of the Group shall be by subscription, the amount of which, payable on 1 February annually, may be varied by resolution passed at the Annual General Meeting. On failure to pay their subscriptions, members will be expelled by decision of the committee after two calendar years have elapsed following the date on which the subscription fell due and after a written warning has been sent to this effect. Members whose subscriptions are in arrears shall not receive the Group's publications.

4. The Committee shall have the power to fix the amount of any fees that it may be desirable for members of guests to be charged for attendance at conferences or other functions of the Group.

5. The affairs of the Group will be managed by a Committee consisting of the officers and nine ordinary members. Ordinary committee members shall hold office for a term of three years and may not be re-elected until after a year has elapsed since their previous term of office. The Committee shall have the power to co-opt as it deems necessary.

6. The officers of the Group shall be the President, Secretary, Editor, Treasurer and any such other officers as the Annual General Meeting may from time to time deem necessary. The President shall be elected annually and may hold office consecutively for not more than three years. There will be four honorary Vice Presidents, who will be non-voting, elected for life. Other officers shall be re-elected annually. At least 21 days notice shall be given to members of the Group of such vacancies as will be occurring on the committee at the time of election. All nominations for election to the Committee shall be received in writing by the Secretary together with the names of the proposer and seconder, and must have the prior consent of the nominee.

7. Decisions of the Committee shall be a simple majority, the chairman holding the casting vote.

8. An Annual General Meeting shall take place at which elections will be held, accounts proved, and other business transacted. Notice of every Annual General Meeting shall be circulated to members at least 21 days before the date of the meeting. Accidental failure to receive notice of such a meeting shall not be deemed to have invalidated that meeting.

9. The subscription and all other property acquired for the purposes of the Group shall be deemed to be vested in the Officers of the group as trustees for the members. The Accounts of the Group shall be circulated to members annually and will be subject to scrutiny by an Independent Examiner.

10. Institutional members may nominate a representative to attend the Annual General Meeting or any other meeting organised by the Group, such representative enjoying the same privileges as individual members.

11. Alteration to this Constitution shall receive the assent of two-thirds of the members present and voting at an Annual General Meeting or a Special General Meeting. A resolution for the alteration of the constitution must be received by the Secretary of the Group at least 21 days before the meeting at which the resolution is to be brought forward. At least 14 days' notice of such a meeting must be given by the Secretary to the membership and must include notice of the alteration proposed. Provided that no alteration made to clause 2 (objects), clause 13 (dissolution) or this clause, shall take effect until the approval in writing of the Charity Commissioners or other authority having charitable jurisdiction shall have been obtained; and no alteration shall be made which would have the effect of causing the Association to cease to be a charity in law.

12. The Committee shall have the power to appoint from the membership of the Group any subcommittee which it may from time to time deem necessary, provided all acts and proceedings of any such sub-committee shall be reported back as soon as possible.

13. In the case of the Group's dissolution, after the satisfaction of all its debts and liabilities, if there remains any property whatsoever the same shall not be paid to or distributed among the members of the Group but shall be given to or transferred to some other charitable institution or institutions having objectives similar to those of the Group, and if and insofar as effect cannot be given to this provision then to some other charitable purpose.

Membership Changes 1998

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. This year an updated list of members is issued (confidential to members of the Group) and this is enclosed with Report no. 13.

New members 1998

Dr U. ALBARELLA

K. ALTENBURG

P. ARTHUR

C. A. BALL

K. BROWN

S. COOK

T. DRIES

M. R. EDDY

Dr N. FAULKNER

Dr H. FORBES

Dr R. HOWELL

N. JAMES

Dr L. R. LAING

M. LAZZARI

Dr C. P. LOVELUCK

Dr K. A. MEW

S. OOSTHUIZEN

A. PANTOS

E. PRIDGEON

V. SHEARMAN

C. TRAVERS

Prof. A VERHULST

M. WILLIAMS

Deceased

W. H. Newnham (Loughborough)
E. S. Heydon (Wilmington, Devon)

N. A. Lewis (West Ealing, W13)
E. Sammes (Maidenhead)

Resignations

K. Biddick (Notre Dame, USA)
A. Boddington (Milton Keynes)
W. R. Burton (York)
J. Croome (Swindon)

B. Lamb (Holton Le Clay)
M. E. Mallett (Coventry)
W. P. Williams (Stafford)

Information wanted

M. W. Atkin (was in Huntley, Glos.)
D. J. Griffiths (was in Grimsby)
D. C. Law (was in Great Yeldham, Essex)

R. Longden (was in Stourbridge)
D. J. Smith (was in Norwich)

Changes of Address

See separate list for all current addresses held by the Group.

Research Grants 1998

Karin Altenburg (Reading) £200 towards comparative research on the spatial arrangements of buildings within medieval rural settlements in sample areas of south-west England and southern Sweden.
Dr Lloyd Laing (Nottingham) £300 towards research on the settlement history and medieval landscape at Long Clawson, Vale of Belvoir, Leicestershire.
Aliki Pantos (Oxford) £150 towards research on assembly sites in Anglo-Saxon England.
Martin Wilson (Coventry) £250 towards the production of graphics in connection with work on the medieval settlement and landscape at Chilvers Coton, Warwickshire.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE TRUSTEES

MEDIEVAL 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 13) covering the year 1998-9.

Result for the year
The surplus of receipts over payments amounted to £656.84 (1997 £11,906.25) and is carried forward.

Trustees
The Trustees who served during the year are:

Professor C. C. Dyer (President)
Mr S. Coleman (Secretary)
Dr R. E. 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 MEDIEVAL SETTLEMENT RESEARCH GROUP

I report on the accounts for the year ended 31 January 1999 which are set out on the following page.

Respective responsiblities 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 Act

have 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 1999

RECEIPTS	1998-9 £	1997-8 £	PAYMENTS	1998-9 £	1997-8 £
Voluntary Sources			**Direct Charitable expenditure**		
Subscriptions	4,028.50	4,124.05	Research grants	900.00	430.00
Donations	10.00	12,989.02	Whitwood project		
Grant	1,750.00	—	research worker	2,012.73	—
			working party visit	101.16	—
			Other Expenditure		
Trading Activities			Annual Report printing costs	2,810.00	3,580.00
Publication sales	265.07	219.55	Index printing costs	—	275.00
Conference receipts	1,105.05	713.00	Policy document printing costs	—	735.00
			CBA affiliation fee	64.00	64.00
			Conference expenses – 1998	946.06	373.05
			Prepaid 1999 conference expenses	100.00	904.16
Income from Assets			Room booking	55.00	—
Current account interest	64.16	19.09	Seminar expenses	45.00	—
Deposit account interest	1,216.97	1,059.13	Bank charges	—	—
			Secretarial & committee expenses	314.59	133.70
			Postage and stationery	434.37	722.68
	8,439.75	19,123.84		7,782.91	7,217.59
			Statement of Assets and Liabilities		
Balance of receipts over payments	656.84	11,906.25	Bank Current Account	2,230.04	2,967.19
Balance brought forward	30,811.05	18,904.80	National Savings Deposit Account	29,237.85	27,843.86
Balance carried forward	31,467.89	30,811.05	**Net Assets**	31,467.89	30,811.05

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.