Review of the Stanford in the Vale Conservation Area consultation

APPENDICES FOR THE CONSULTATION REPORT

This report provides a copy of the supporting documents submitted by respondents: 211368413, 212228614 and 212372817 to the Stanford in the Vale Conservation Area consultation.

APRIL 2023

APPENDIX A – RESPONSE NUMBER: 211368413

UNIVERSITY OF WINCHESTER

Stanford in the Vale in Context:

A Multi-Disciplinary Approach to Rural Settlement Development in Oxfordshire.

Volume 1 of 1

David Richard Ashby

ORCID Number: 0000-0002-6858-5485

Doctor of Philosophy

September 2022

This Thesis has been completed as a requirement for
a postgraduate research degree of the University of Winchester.

MPhil/PhD THESES

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Supervisors:	**Dr Simon Roffey & Dr Phil Marter**
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Key words *(up to 10 keywords – ask your supervisory team for advice):*

Stanford in the Vale, Charney Bassett, Archaeology, Test Pitting, Multi-Disciplinary, Medieval, Market Charter, Community Archaeology, Oxfordshire.

Abstract:

This PhD Thesis discusses the multi-disciplinary approaches, including archaeological fieldwork undertaken, to examine the formation of the settlement of Stanford in the Vale, Oxfordshire (previously Berkshire), as well as the adjacent settlement of Charney Bassett, which forms a comparison, from its earliest origins to the present day. Furthermore, as shown by this thesis the changing nature of Stanford in the Vale is important in understanding one aspect and group of rural settlements in modern Oxfordshire, as it is one of 20 settlements which were granted a medieval market charter. Therefore, this Thesis not only puts Stanford in the Vale in to its wider context by examining these types of settlement but also demonstrates a range of multidisciplinary techniques used to examine villages granted medieval market charters, including the use of geophysics, test pitting, excavation, standing building recording, as well as human geographical theory. Through the use of these techniques it is possible to demonstrate that Stanford in the Vale was a town during the medieval period which subsequently collapsed into a village, and there after the reasons for this collapse. From this study, a characterisation of the 20 villages granted market charters is formed, into four distinct categories, which thereafter can be used to categorise other settlements of this type within England. Within the conclusions the importance of joint academic and community archaeology is examined, as untallied during this Thesis, and therefore its importance in use when examining the development of rural settlements over time such as that of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. Lastly a number of recommendations have been made at the end of this thesis discussing work which could be further undertaken to increase our knowledge of the areas in which this Thesis studies.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the following people and organisations which have helped me during the research for this thesis. The first and most important are all the villagers and landowners of both the villages of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, as without their permission to undertake geophysics, test pitting and excavation on their land, I would have been unable to carry out my research.

I would also like to thank the following organisations, who have helped me with my work: Stanford in the Vale and District Local History Society; Charney Bassett History Group; St Denys Parochial Church Council (PCC); Stanford in the Vale Parish Council (PC); Charney Bassett Parish Council (PC); Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record (HER); Oxfordshire and Berkshire Record Offices; and the National Monuments Records (NMR). Furthermore, I would particularly like to thank the following people for supporting me in my work: Paul Smith (retired, Oxfordshire County Archaeologist); Dr. Jane Harrison and Sheila Raven (Institute of Archaeology, Oxford University); Dave Grant; Briony Lalor; Dom McAtomany; Nick Watson and Giles Cary.

I would also like to thank those students who helped undertake test pitting works and the academic staff from the Department of Archaeology, University of Winchester including: Dr. Simon Roffey (Director of Studies); Dr. Phil Marter (Second Supervisor); Dr. Paul Everill; Prof. Keith Wilkinson; Dr. Nick Thorpe; Dr. Katie Tucker; Nathalie Barrett; and also Patricia Duckworth for support with my dyslexia. Finally, I would like to thank my parents, Ian and Caroline Ashby, for supporting me in my work.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this thesis in honour of Mike Whay, 1st Stanford in the Vale Scout Leader, who passed away in 2017 after losing his battle with cancer, who without his help I would not have commenced my investigations and fieldwork at Stanford in the Vale.

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ABSTRACT

Stanford in the Vale in Context:

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This PhD Thesis discusses the multi-disciplinary approaches, including archaeological fieldwork undertaken, to examine the formation of the settlement of Stanford in the Vale, Oxfordshire (previously Berkshire), as well as the adjacent settlement of Charney Bassett, which forms a comparison, from its earliest origins to the present day. Furthermore, as shown by this thesis the changing nature of Stanford in the Vale is important in understanding one aspect and group of rural settlements in modern Oxfordshire, as it is one of 20 settlements which were granted a medieval market charter. Therefore, this Thesis not only puts Stanford in the Vale into its wider context by examining these types of settlement but also demonstrates a range of multidisciplinary techniques used to examine villages granted medieval market charters, including the use of geophysics, test pitting, excavation, standing building recording, as well as human geographical theory. Through the use of these techniques, it is possible to demonstrate that Stanford in the Vale was a town or urban centre during the medieval period which subsequently collapsed into a village, and there after the reasons for this collapse. From this study, a characterisation of the 20 villages granted market charters is formed, into four distinct categories, which thereafter can be used to categorise other settlements of this type within England. Within the conclusions the importance of joint academic and community archaeology is examined, as untallied during this thesis, and therefore its importance in use when examining the development of rural settlements over time such as that of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. Lastly a number of recommendations have been made at

the end of this thesis discussing work which could be further undertaken to increase our knowledge of the areas in which this Thesis studies.

Keywords: Stanford in the Vale, Charney Bassett, Archaeology, Test Pitting, Multi-Disciplinary, Medieval, Market Charter, Community Archaeology, Oxfordshire.

LIST OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

The study of settlements: of all types from the smallest hamlet to the largest city, locally, nationally and globally, their growth and decline and changing nature, have been studied over many decades within numerous disciplines, including archaeology. The development of either a single or multiple settlement within a single geographical area, whether a country, county or parish, is important to the community living there. Therefore, it is important to study these settlements to understand how they have changed and developed over time to form the modern community seen today. This PhD will examine the development of rural settlements; the main primary settlement studied is Stanford in the Vale, Oxfordshire, with this compared to the secondary settlement of Charney Bassett, also in Oxfordshire. However, studying the development of a single settlement in isolation to its surrounding landscape is difficult as settlements react variably in different areas and are influenced by the region surrounding them. Consequently, this PhD also studied comparable village settlements to better understand the development of rural settlements in Oxfordshire.

The methods employed to examine these settlements is also important to understanding their development, from a small study which may only examine the available literature to a more major thesis using common archaeological techniques; this often occurs within a single discipline. In this study, a multidisciplinary approach has been undertaken in examining the development of the primary settlement, bringing together traditional archaeological techniques, such as trenching and test pitting, with the most up-to-date processes, for example, Ground Penetrating Radar and 3D laser scanning. Furthermore, methodologies from other disciplines, apart from archaeology, will be utilized; these comprise techniques used when studying human geography by applying geographical theories. Lastly, the dissemination of information produced from the study of rural settlements into the surrounding communities is important. This enables modern communities to better understand the changing nature of their own local area and history, be that the settlement or just the area within their own garden. Archaeologists have disseminated their works, during or after their studies, in many different forms: from thick and detailed monographs and reports to more accessible local leaflets and booklets, for non-specialists. Therefore, the use of local dissemination of the works undertaken within these settlements and, in turn, the community involvement will also be examined. It is important to acknowledge that without the help and willingness of each local community this type of rural settlement PhD study would not be fully achievable.

The work embarked on during this study has been undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a PhD Archaeology thesis at the University of Winchester. Within this thesis the series of rural

settlements which have been studied are within the modern county of Oxfordshire. However, it should be noted that 'Modern Oxfordshire' makes reference to the County area post 1974 to present date; predating this, Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett as well as other settlements within the study, were within the County of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013).

The research undertaken within the primary settlement has been carried out in conjunction with the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project; set up in 2008 to examine the archaeology and heritage of the settlement of Stanford, from the Mesolithic period to the end of the Second World War (Ashby, 2014, 81). Prior to 2010, the project focused on a single area of the settlement, Priors Farm, but since 2011, the project has expanded to examine the whole of the area which the modern settlement covers (D Ashby, 2012, 71). The work undertaken at the comparison settlement, Charney Bassett, has been carried out in conjunction with their local History Society, since they have also shown an interest in understanding their buried past, within this rural settlement.

One significant aspect of the research undertaken within this PhD is the local community support and ongoing engagement. This includes continued access to areas within both these inhabited settlements, including private gardens and houses, in order to conduct archaeological fieldwork. Continued dissemination of the results from the research further supports this collaboration, through talks, lectures, reports and displays. Without the continued support of both these villages, the research underpinning this PhD would not have been carried out, and the current findings on the changing nature of the settlements would be unknown. Further information about the present findings from the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project are seen in the Literature Review, Chapter 2 of this thesis.

Geographical Location

During this study, two main settlements are examined: the primary settlement of Stanford in the Vale and the secondary, and comparable, settlement of Charney Bassett. Understanding the location within the local geographical landscape of both these settlements is relevant, as this provides a grounding for understanding the way in which these settlements developed and changed, within both a natural and man-made environment and landscape over time. Within the following chapters of this thesis, this study will also examine the wider context of similar settlements of this type, found within Oxfordshire, through the literature available. For both the primary and secondary settlements are examined in modern and historical terms, with topographical changes also discussed. The location of these settlements is also examined in relation to both the topographical

and urban landscapes surrounding the current settlements. Lastly, the underlying geology is also discussed since this may have affected the changing nature and development of these settlements over time.

Stanford in the Vale

Stanford is located in the modern county of Oxfordshire, about equi-distance from the historic Ridgeway and the River Thames (4.5 miles in each direction), as seen in Figure 1. It should be noted that the county location of Stanford changed post 1974, due to an alteration in the national county borders, hence, prior to this date the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The settlement is located close to the modern towns of Wantage to the south (4.8 miles), Faringdon to the north (3.5 miles) and Abingdon to the north east (9.8 miles), which are the three major historic towns surrounding this rural settlement. Due to the geographical location of these towns in relation to the settlement in question, it is highly likely that they could have impacted on the changing nature of Stanford during the periods of growth, decline and development over the settlement's lifetime. Stanford is also located close to a series of major village settlements which are seen through medieval market charters and which still exist as villages today. For example, Baulking to the south west (2.2 miles), Hinton Waldrist to the north east (4.1 miles) and Shrivenham to the west (6.8 miles) (Letters, 2006). As a consequence of the location of these settlements, it is likely that they too had an impact on Stanford's development over time.

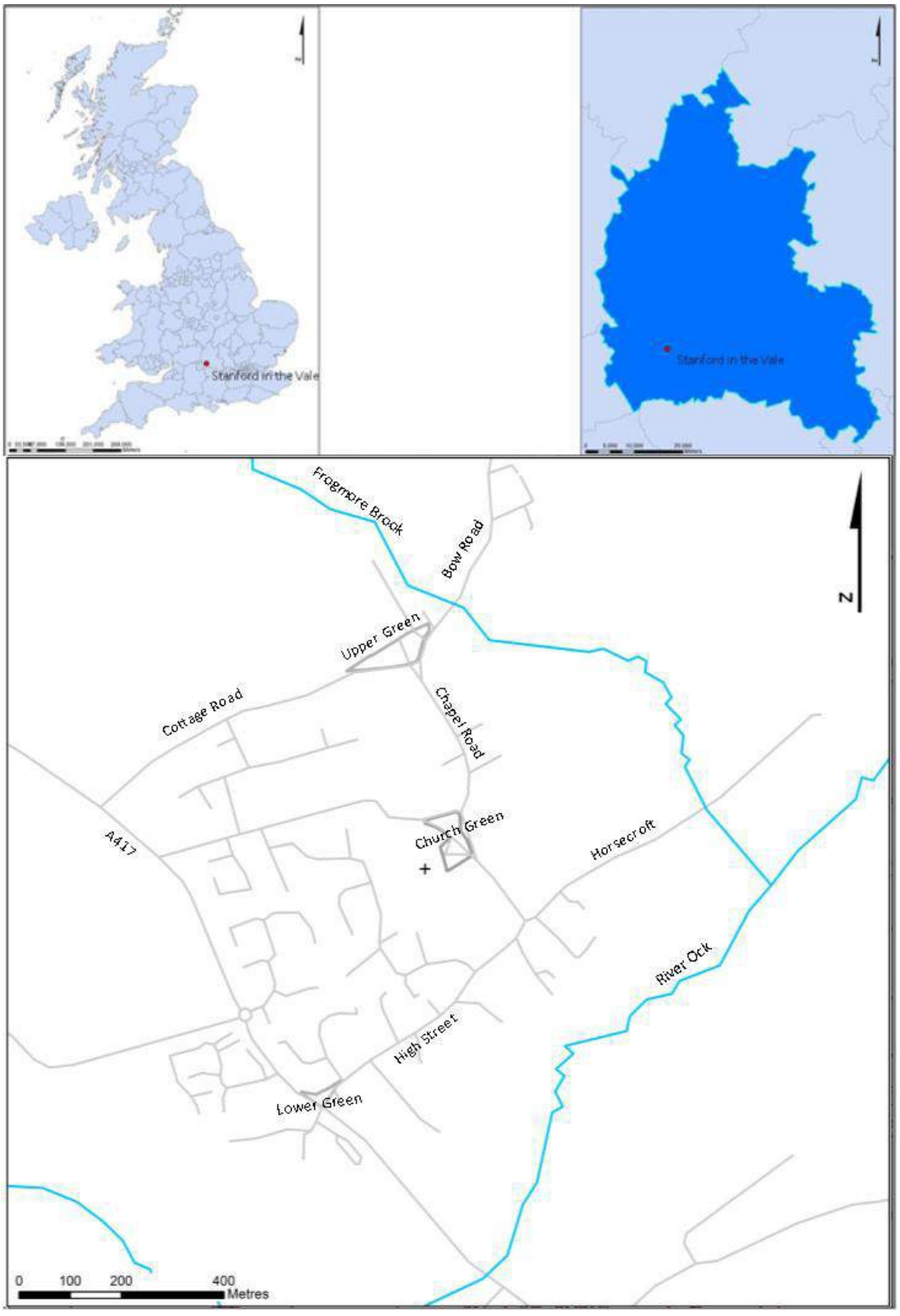

Figure 1. Map showing the location of the settlement of Stanford in the Vale in both national and regional terms.

The topographical environment of Stanford is also important. There are two local water courses at Stanford; Frogmore Brook to its east, which then flows into the River Ock to its south (see

Figure 1). The River Ock then flows into the Thames at Abingdon. It should be noted by modern standards the navigational classification for the River Ock up to Stanford is non-navigational, apart from low draught boats or during periods of high water; meaning that it is unlikely that boats were able to navigate this section of water to access the settlement (Maritime and Coastguard Agency, 2013). Stanford is also located adjacent to the main road running from the historic towns of Faringdon and Wantage (B417), running NW – SE. Therefore, this road is seen as a key trade route in the area connecting two of the major towns in both the modern and the historical environment. The other two major roads which feed into the settlement are Bow Road, running NE –SW (B4508) and Horsecroft, now extant (a Bridleway) running E-W. These two roads link Stanford to the neighbouring settlements and towns to the east and to the surrounding rural economy. Unusually, Stanford also contains three village greens: Upper Green to the north, (at the junction of Bow Road, Cottage Road and Chapel Road), Church Green in the centre (adjacent to the Church and the junction of Chapel Road, Joyce's Road and the High Street) and Lower Green in the south (at the junction of the High Street and the B417). The locations of these are seen in Figure 1 and Appendix 1.

The underlying geology of Stanford is seen in Figure 2, and is principally formed of Stanford Formation Limestone, of the late Jurassic epoch (University of Edinburgh, 2012). However, to the southern and eastern edges of the settlement, the underlying geology changes to Ampthill Clay Formation and Kimmeridge Clay Formation Mudstone, of the late Jurassic epoch, along the edges of the fault interface (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Also, overlying the solid bedrock, surrounding the area of Frogmore Brook and the River Ock, is a superficial deposit of alluvial clay, silts, sands and gravels of the Holocene epoch (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Lastly, it is noted there are two adjacent areas within the village (either side of the B417) of worked/artificial ground (University of Edinburgh, 2012). These areas were part of gravel and sand extraction works during both the 19th and 20th centuries, prior to the construction of the overlying modern housing estates (Cuff & Brooks, 2010). Due to these areas being totally re-worked, no archaeological works will occur within these areas, as they will only contain deep deposits of modern spoil and backfill material.

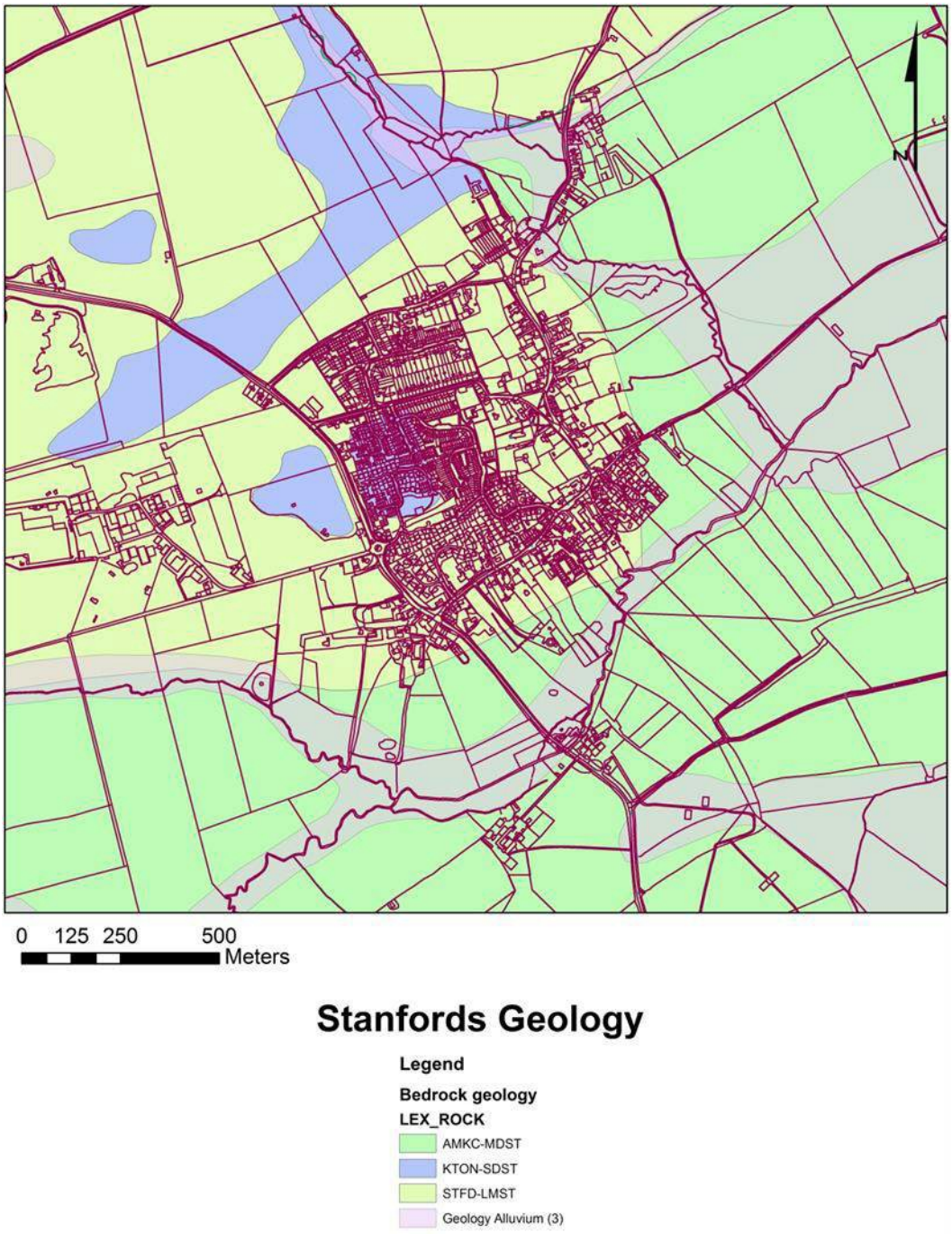

Figure 2. Map shows both the underlying bedrock and superficial deposits at Stanford in the Vale. It also shows the areas of worked/artificial ground (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

Charney Bassett

Like that of Stanford, Charney Bassett is located in the modern county of Oxfordshire, about equidistance from the historic Ridgeway, and the River Thames (4.5 miles in each direction), as seen in Figure 3, and additionally was located within the county of Berkshire prior to 1974 (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The settlement is located 2 miles to the east of Stanford in the Vale, with the two settlements connected by a bridleway, previously a road. Like Stanford the location of

surrounding towns in the landscape are highly likely to have impacted on the changing nature of the village during its periods of growth, decline and development over the settlement's lifetime. Like Stanford, Charney Bassett is also located close to a series of major village settlements which can be seen through medieval market charters and which still exist as villages today; for example, Hinton Waldrist to the north (2.8 miles) and Stanford in the Vale to the west (2.4 miles) (Letters, 2006). Due to the location of these surrounding settlements, as well as the adjacent village of Stanford in the Vale, it is likely that they had an impact on Charney's development, over time.

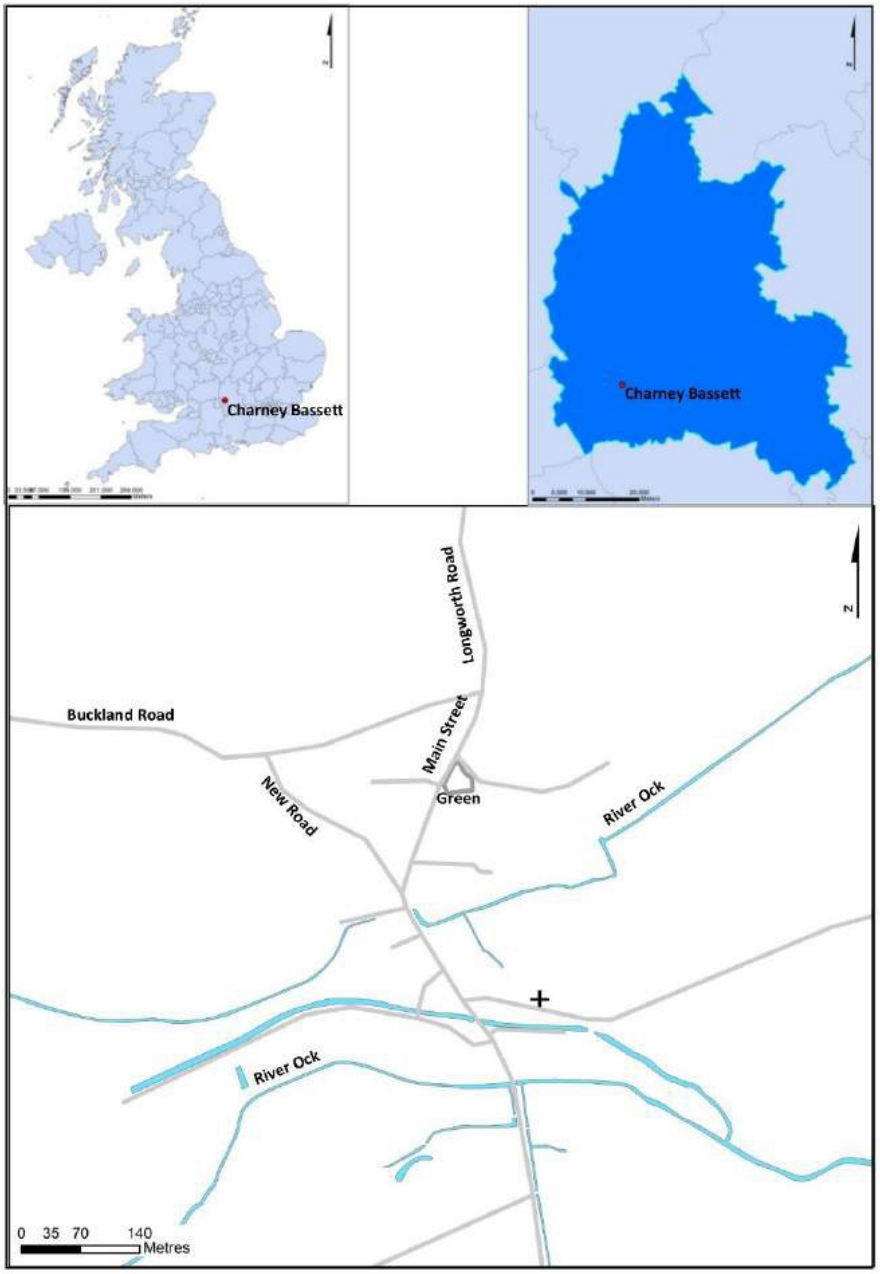

Figure 3. The map showing the location of the settlement of Charney Bassett in both national and regional terms.

Like Stanford, the topographical environment of Charney Bassett is important. The River Ock flows along the southern side of Charney Bassett and flows north-south through the village (see Figure 3). The River Ock also flows through Stanford in the Vale and likewise then flows into the Thames at Abingdon. Charney Bassett is located at the junction of three rural local roads, with the village green at its centre. These roads run to Southmoor, Buckland and Denchworth. The location of the village at the convergence of these three rural roads is important, as they would have connected the settlement with the other surrounding rural villages, but also brought trade and goods into Charney Bassett. The layout of the village, as well as its location, is seen in Figure 3 and Appendix 2.

The underlying geology of the settlement is seen in Figure 4. The main underlying bedrock is formed of Stanford Formation Limestone, of the late Jurassic epoch, with Ampthill Clay Formation and Kimmeridge Clay Formation, underlying the southern area of the village (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Overlying the solid geology, surrounding the area of the River Ock, are two superficial deposits. The first, an alluvial deposit is formed of clay, silts, sands and gravels, dating to the Holocene epoch, which coincides with the course of the River Ock (University of Edinburgh, 2012). The second, is the Northmoor Sand and Gravel Member located at the interface between the Stanford Formation geology and the alluvial superficial geology, along its northern edge (University of Edinburgh, 2012). This deposit dates to the Pleistocene (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

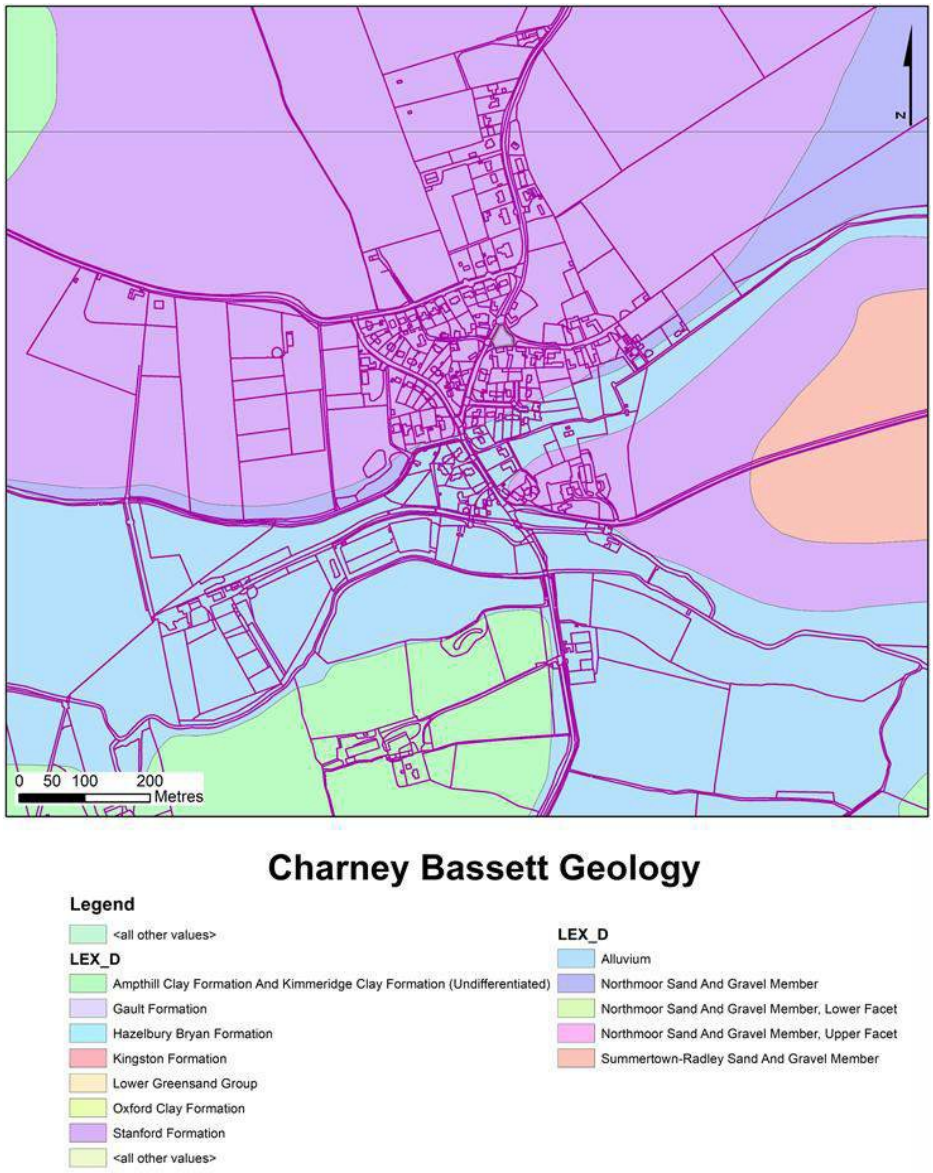

Figure 4. Map showing both the underlying bedrock and superficial deposits at Charney Bassett. (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

Scope of Research

The research undertaken for this PhD thesis, integrates with a larger area of research; locally, regionally and nationally. Locally, the research links into initial works which were carried out for the award of BA (Hons) Archaeological Practices, examining one field within the settlement of Stanford: 'The Archaeology of a Field at Priors Farm, Stanford in the Vale, Oxfordshire' (Ashby, 2011). Further expansion of this initial research was undertaken as part of the MRes Archaeology Award, which examined the medieval settlement of Stanford in the Vale through archaeological techniques and geographical theory (Ashby, 2013a). The MRes research was incorporated into the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project, as previously discussed, which expanded the

earlier research in both breadth and depth to examine the modern urbanised settlement of Stanford overall (Ashby, 2013a). This PhD thesis also forms part of the Stanford Project; however, it also examines the secondary settlement, Charney Bassett, in Oxfordshire. This forms a comparison to the work carried out as part of the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project and therefore help to enhance the interpretation and understanding of the archaeological evidence for the formation of a rural village settlement during the historical periods.

Regionally, for each of the settlements studied, the research examines their surrounding landscape, in terms of historical, economical and geographical locations, utilising both historical and modern data as well as modern human geographical theories. This research also relates to work carried out in the 'new' period of archaeology, when examining regional trends using geographical theory (Johnson, 1999, 26). Like the MRes thesis previously undertaken, geographical theory is to be re-utilised in the examination of archaeological sites in their landscape, especially where outside economic pressures on these settlements are also studied. This may elucidate a better understanding of how settlements change over time in both a regional and national aspect and in turn how they relate to both one another and their surrounding landscapes. The research required for this thesis was extensive and time consuming, it took place over many years, involving numerous people and other organisation. The thesis examines the use of multiple techniques and community archaeology, when undertaking rural settlement research within this field. This includes the utilisation of local historical societies and other community organisations where the research was undertaken within their local village settlement. Contact with the local societies consisted of collaboration, involving correspondence, meetings with the committee members and various events as part of the wider programme. Additionally, this thesis examines the way in which the data produced from the research is disseminated back to the local communities through talks and displays as part of the extensive project. Examples of such research projects previously undertaken nationally to examine local settlement change through community activities are the 'Shapwick' or 'East Oxford Project'(Gerrard & Aston, 2007; Harrison & Griffiths, 2012). These projects were stand-alone, mainly based on traditional archaeological techniques and did not utilise either other subject areas (such as geographical theory) or new archaeological techniques. These were embarked on as a single projects, using the same or similar archaeological techniques, with little comparison with other settlements of their type. The research forming this PhD also brings together a collaboration of community outreach and dissemination, as well as academic and professional archaeological skills and resources. This was mainly undertaken by a single researcher, David Ashby, with the help of volunteer colleagues, rather than one or more large academic institution operating and undertaking the project work.

Prior to the start of the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project, little research, including archaeological works, had been published about Stanford. This is like many rural settlements in Oxfordshire as little archaeological work had been undertaken. Therefore, there are many settlements which can be utilised within the rural landscape of Oxfordshire as a good comparison to Stanford, using the methodological approaches employed at Stanford in the Vale. Furthermore, within rural Oxfordshire, of all the settlements which could be examined, a single group of villages are identified, which can be compared to Stanford in the Vale. This group of 20 settlements were all granted market charters during the medieval period, of which Stanford in the Vale is one (Letters, 2005, 2006). Therefore, this group of settlements were utilised during the research when examining and identifying comparable settlements to this study. Crucially, as part of the research, a new typology has been devised for villages granted medieval market charters. This typology is indicated by the settlement size, its geographical location, historical features located within it (for example castles), and where applicable, any external influences which have impacted on the settlement.

On a national scale, the research undertaken for this thesis could be utilised as an important dataset to further and better understand the development and growth of settlements within a rural environment. The investigation differs to previous settlement studies within an archaeological context, as it employs both traditional archaeological theories alongside modern techniques; for example, Ground Penetrating Radar and 3-D laser scanning. Therefore, these techniques combined with traditional archaeological fieldwork gives a better understanding of the changing nature of a settlement's development over time. Also, these settlements were not examined in isolation, unlike previous settlement studies, but instead, use geographical theory to examine the settlements within a wider economical context. Furthermore, the methodological techniques utilised during the thesis may help guide future advanced research in this area of settlement archaeology and in turn, these results may give a better and more concise understanding of settlements of this type on a national basis.

Layout of Thesis

The layout of this PhD thesis follows current academic standard practices, enabling it to be used within future archaeological research projects. Also, this means that the examination of these sites may be used as a model for future investigations for rural settlements of this type.

The layout and order of this PhD thesis is detailed below, with the contents of each chapter within the following document in turn explained.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

The second chapter comprises a detailed and substantial literature review. The literature review firstly evaluates the general and current literature available in three areas: firstly, settlement archaeology in Britain; secondly the development of settlements in medieval England, specifically examining the formation of rural towns and settlements with markets. Thirdly, the general literature examines available studies previously undertaken to investigate the development of settlements within a rural environment and within an archaeological research framework. The final section of the literature review details the historical and archaeological background of the settlement of Stanford in the Vale, the primary research settlement studied during this PhD thesis as well as the secondary, comparison settlement studied, Charney Bassett.

Chapter 3 – Aims and Methodology

The third chapter comprises the aims and methodologies used as part of this PhD thesis.
From the information utilized in the literature review, a series of aims for the study were produced, which this research has examined and the conclusions from these aims are discussed in Chapter 6.

A key contribution of this PhD is the application of a wide range of archaeological techniques and other multi-disciplinary approaches. Consequently, this research is methodologically driven and utilise an array of archaeological survey techniques as well as excavation methodologies. Thereafter, this chapter firstly explores the background to the methodologies utilised and the reasons for undertaking these. Thereafter, the methodology is subdivided into each technique employed, examining their use within the thesis, as well as stating technical details, the equipment used, and any post excavation or post processing applied. These methodologies include both fieldwork and off-site techniques utilised, including documentary research and analytical work, once fieldwork was completed. The methodological techniques discussed are: documentary research; geophysical survey including resistivity and ground penetrating radar (GPR); historic building recording, including manual building recording and 3-D laser scanning; excavation and test pitting; post excavation; and analytical techniques including the use of Arc GIS and human geographical theories, for example Nearest Neighbour Analysis and Riley's Law of Retail Gravity.

Chapter 4 – Results

The fourth chapter comprises the results from the fieldwork undertaken on the sites in question: the primary research settlement, Stanford in the Vale and the secondary research site Charney Bassett. Within this chapter, the results from the fieldwork including both features identified within each type of investigation undertaken, as well as interpretation and phasing of the

data presented. Appendices are used, where appropriate, to illustrate finds material, detailed context information and test pit descriptions in illustrating the works undertaken and the results produced within this thesis.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

The fifth chapter comprises the current interpretation for the changing nature of each of the primary and secondary settlements studied in turn, taking into account the data presented in both the literature review (Chapter 2) and results (Chapter 4). This chapter is split into three distinct sections, the first indicating the current interpretation of the size, location and status of each settlement in which fieldwork was undertaken, examining each historical period in turn, from the Roman to post medieval and early modern periods (with evidence for the prehistoric periods discussed in the Appendices). The second section examines possible evidence for shrinkage of the settlement size, where fieldwork was undertaken. The third section examines the literature and previous works undertaken within the distinct group of 19 other rural settlements in Oxfordshire, which were granted market charters during the medieval period, with Stanford forming the twentieth (as discussed in the introduction). During this section, for each of these settlements a résumé of the current historical and archaeological background was analysed, indicating their significance within rural Oxfordshire. Thereafter, considering the comparative data obtained from both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, a new classification these comparable settlements in Oxfordshire, will be discussed. This section will also include a general discussion on the growth development and decline of these comparable types of settlements in Oxfordshire.

Chapter 6 – Conclusion and Recommendations

The sixth and final chapter will comprise of the conclusions and recommendations from the studies and research undertaken during the thesis. This includes the examination of all evidence presented for the development of rural settlements within Oxfordshire studied during this thesis, including the primary case study, Stanford in the Vale. The conclusions also examine the results from this PhD research in terms of the aims stated, examining if these were fulfilled during the thesis period. Lastly, within this chapter recommendations will also be stated for further work that could be undertaken in subsequent studies, expanding the analysis further within the research parameters.

Bibliography and Appendices

Finally, at the end of the thesis document a detailed bibliography is given, as well as a series of appendices comprising supplementary information and data to the evidence discussed within the chapters. The appendices all appear in a digital format.

Periodization

Throughout this Thesis the specific terms will be used when discussing established periods of historical time. The table below (Table 1), should be used for reference in relation to the meaning of these time periods, as set out by the Author for this Thesis.

Palaeolithic	Pre-8,000 BC
Mesolithic	8,000 BC to 4,000 BC
Neolithic	4,000 BC to 2,200 BC
Bronze Age	2,200 BC to 800 BC
Iron Age	800 BC to 43 AD
Roman	43 AD to 410 AD
Anglo Saxon/Saxon	410 AD to 1066 AD: Post Roman = 410AD to 600 AD
Medieval	1066 AD to 1532 AD: Early medieval = 1066 AD to 1350 AD Late medieval = 1350 AD to 1532 AD
Post medieval	1532 AD to 1900 AD
Modern	1900 AD to Present

Table 1. Periodization for PhD thesis.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is separated into a number of sections examining different areas of the literature supporting this study. The first section, which reviews the general literature forming a basis for this research, is divided into three parts. The first reviews general literature on settlement archaeology in Britain. The second reviews literature on medieval market settlements, including their formation and decline; the third reviews literature on previous archaeological research and community projects, which have examined the formation of settlements from their earliest beginnings to the present day. This chapter then examines the historical and archaeological background of Stanford in the Vale, which was granted medieval market charter, and forms the primary research settlement. The final part of this literature review will examine the literature for Charney Bassett, the settlement on which comparable fieldwork was undertaken.

Settlement Archaeology in Britain

Within the discipline of archaeology, as well as other related subjects such as history and geography, the changing nature of settlements including their formation, growth and development over time from their earliest origins to the present day within Britain, has been studied for many years. Prior to examining the general literature on settlement archaeology in Britain, it is important to first define a number of set areas, such as the period of time in Britain from when settlements were present and the definition of different types of settlements. The first of these definitions is when settlements first present within Britain and therefore seen within the archaeological record. For this the current literature mostly has a consensus, that the first rural settlements are seen in Britain during the Neolithic 4,000 BC to 2,200 BC (Adkins & Adkins, 2008, 37). This was first theorised in the 1920s to 1930s by Gordon Childe under his Neolithic revolutionary views, and later further developed by other archaeologists such as Professor Stuart Piggott in the 1950s (Trigger, 1997, 253) (Adkins & Adkins, 2008, 37). Settlements in Britain then expanded during the Bronze and Iron Ages, with the earliest possible evidence for urban settlements in Britain seen during the late Iron Age period formed of oppida, as discussed by Barry Cunliffe (Cunliffe, 1991, 368). During the later Roman, Saxon and medieval periods, a growth in urban sites can be seen within the archaeological record, with further growth seen in the post medieval and modern periods, including the formation of larger urbanised areas, cities (Adkins & Adkins, 2008).

For the second of these areas of definition, taking into account geographical held views, are the different types of settlement found in Britain and how they are classified. As seen in Figure 5, settlements can first be split into two main categories, rural (settlements located within the

countryside) and urban (settlements which undertake a role as a central place within a tributary area which provides a number of goods and services) types, which are then further split into six sub categories: Isolated, Hamlet, Village, Small Market Town, Large Town and City (Mayhew, 2004, 431 & 510) (Waugh, 2002, 393). As seen by Table 2, each of these six sub-categories of settlement types also has its own general definition within the geographical and archaeological literature. However, it should be noted that these definitions should not be taken as being fixed for all periods of history, as most are produced by geographers when examining modern settlement patterns, therefore are not taking into account data from earlier historic or prehistoric periods. Therefore, as shown by the following section of this literature review, examining medieval settlements with markets, a more refined definition for the medieval period is required.

Figure 5. Diagram showing the division of rural and urban settlement types found in Britain, as set out by geographers (Waugh, 2002, 393, Fig. 14.11).

Settlement Main Category	**Settlement Subcategory Type**	**Definition**
Rural	Isolated	A settlement formed of a few single farms or house dispersed over an area, with no other amenities.
	Hamlet	A small settlement without service or shops, and usually without a church.
	Village	A small settlement usually found in a rural area where habitation is clustered around a central point, most often a church or green if a nucleated type, or a river or road if a linear type. The inhabitants undertake primary activities such as farming, fishing, mining, etc.
	Small Market Town	A larger rural settlement with habitation but also provides services, industries and goods through a

		market and other facilities (i.e. shops). These settlements help provide for the needs of the surrounding rural villages, hamlets and isolated settlements.
Urban	Large Town	An urban settlement which is larger than a small market town and therefore serves a larger proportion of the surrounding area. These towns are more likely to have greater self-governance and develop around a specialist economy such as mining, trading, wool industry, etc. They will also have similar characteristics to a small town but on a much larger scale.
	City	Historically a town which was the centre of a bishop's diocese and therefore had a cathedral. The modern definition is a large urban centre functioning as a central place providing very specialist goods and services.

Table 2. Definition of the six main settlement types found within Britain, as stated in Figure 5 (Mayhew, 2004, 86, 242) (National Geographic, 2020b) (Powe & Hart, 2008, 347) (National Geographic, 2020a).

Therefore, taking into account the definitions stated above, settlement archaeology can generally be split into two main categories: firstly, rural settlements and secondly, urban settlements, with the general literature for each of these discussed in turn. The first area, rural settlements, have been shown to have been present since the Neolithic nearly 6000 years ago, as discussed above, and then continued to grow and change over time to those seen in the modern landscape today (Adkins & Adkins, 2008, 37). These early rural settlements have formed into over 6,116 villages and hamlets and 674 small market towns in the modern period, in Britain (House of Commons Library, 2020). As demonstrated by the literature, the large majority of these rural settlements would have had some sort of archaeological investigations undertaken and therefore indicating some evidence for the development of these settlements over time. Most of these archaeological investigations would have occurred due to pre-planning requirements by commercial archaeology companies, with a few settlements investigated systematically through larger research projects examining the changing nature of the rural settlement in question (Rippon, Dixon, & Silvester, 2018, 3). However, through either of these types of investigations, the literature demonstrates the changing nature of the underlying archaeology of rural settlements can be

assessed, including the way in which they have developed from their earliest beginnings to the present day. However, as seen by the literature where these rural settlements have been examined through the use of archaeological techniques, many of the early research projects focused mainly on a single type of archaeological work, trenching, in conjunction with documentary sources, to investigate the origins of the settlement (Audouy & Chapman, 2009). An example of this is the Raunds project in Northamptonshire which examined the settlement from 1977-1987 (Audouy & Chapman, 2009, 1). This early research project can be seen to be important when examining the development of settlement archaeology as it demonstrates what was possible within an inhabited settlement, when studying its archaeology. Unlike later projects, such as Shapwick in Somerset and Sedgeford in Norfolk (discussed in the section below) which used a wider multidisciplinary approach (Faulkner, Robinson, & Rossin, 2014; Gerrard & Aston, 2007), the Raunds project mainly examined the formation of the settlement from 450 AD to the end of the medieval period at 1500, rather than also examining the earlier Roman and prehistoric periods (Audouy & Chapman, 2009). It can be surmised that little explanation is given for these early periods of the settlement's development due to a considerable proportion of their work examining the documentary evidence (Audouy & Chapman, 2009) in relation to the findings within their trenching, rather than examining them separately to each other.

Further early projects such as the Weld historical landscape project, Dorset, undertaken in the 1970s, are seen to have also focused their research on using mainly historical sources to examine the historical landscape of an area, however also using some archaeological techniques such as the mapping of earthworks and the examination of aerial photography (Keen & Carreck, 1987). However, as demonstrated by the literature, at Weld, the documentary sources are seen to have taken a larger precedent, and therefore less emphasis was put on the evidence found through archaeological techniques, apart from where there was no documentary evidence (i.e. the prehistoric periods) (Keen & Carreck, 1987, 8-9). It is possible that historically held views played a large part in interpreting these early investigations into rural settlements rather than the findings from the archaeology of these sites. Thereby, it is likely that either misinterpretation or disregarded information may mean that the early examination of these sites has caused misinterpretation of this type of rural site. As stated by Gardiner and Rippon, with the later examination of still occupied sites such as Shapwick, Whittlewood and the North Somerset Levels, using wider archaeological approaches, and less historical methods, evidence from these projects are also able to help date further features found within settlements, as well as their surrounding landscape (M. Gardiner & Rippon, 2007, 231; Gerrard & Aston, 2007; R. Jones & Page, 2004). This is as the modern settlement evaluation and examination focuses more of its attention on a wider range of sources, from

documentary evidence to aerial photography and from earthwork survey and geophysics to test pitting and full excavation (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 288-305). As demonstrated by the literature, discussed later in this literature review, the use of these multi-technique ways of examining a modern inhabited settlement give a much fuller picture of the changing nature of a historical settlement.

Apart from the examination of the settlements themselves, the literature also discusses the evidence for different typologies relating to the formation of rural settlements; in particular, hamlets, villages and small market towns. The literature states that most of these types of settlement form a distinct pattern and morphology, either linear, nucleated, loose knit, ring or planned (Waugh, 2002, 394-395), with the description of each of these seen in Table 3. These morphological features are not just seen within modern settlements but also may give evidence to their earlier origins, specifically during the medieval period where their formation may have been due to the surrounding landscape, geology, agriculture or industries, rather than a planned formation of the settlement (Rippon et al., 2018, 4-5). The literature also discusses the reasons for the formation of these settlements, and therefore their typology, mainly within the medieval period. As stated by Rippon, Dixon and Silvester, rural settlements of this date can be split into five main typologies (Rippon et al., 2018, 10-16). The first, are planned villages, which are either set out as pre-conquest or otherwise post conquest settlements (Rippon et al., 2018, 10). Pre-conquest villages are usually associated with open field systems beyond the village, with some evidence of planning of these settlements occurring, including the association of tenants constructing their houses within pre-defined strip field plots (Williamson, Liddiard, & Parida, 2013). In contrast, post-conquest villages, which are mainly found in Wales and Scotland, are most often seen to have a planned layout and are formed of either a feudal landlords or burghs, associated with a trading economy (Duncan, 1975; Kissock, 1997). The second type is Specialist grazing settlements, mainly formed in upland areas, but in areas such as Kent, Surrey and Sussex, these are also found in the lowlands. These settlements supported the breeding and shepherding of large flocks of sheep, and of other animals such as cattle and pigs (Everitt, 1986). Likewise, the third type is industrial settlements, with related specialist areas connected to the extraction of raw materials, or the production of secondary products related to raw materials available in the local area, for example pottery or salt production (Rippon et al., 2018, 10). However, unlike other settlement types those of industrial practices have specific typologies for the location and processes which are occurring, for example salt production centres are only found close to the sea or coastal estuary (Rippon et al., 2018). As indicated by the literature, both the specialist grazing and industrial settlement types had strong monastic connections, with the latter, on some occasions, also having royal connections (Duncan, 1975;

Rippon, Claughton, & Smart, 2009; Rippon et al., 2018, 11, 14). The fourth typology of settlements are of a high status typology, containing castles and large manor houses, used for a centre of administration for the surrounding countryside, but with only other basic rural activities (Rippon et al., 2018, 14). A number of these high status sites are also associated with other rural landscape features, including royal hunting forests and parks with their associated lodges, or moated sites and their associated earthworks (Hall, Oram, & Malloy, 2011; P. Rahtz, 1969). The fifth and final type are costal settlements, relating to coastal industries such as fishing (Rippon et al., 2018, 12); however, as this thesis is examining inland sites, it is likely that this type of rural settlement would have little comparison to those found in landlocked Oxfordshire. However, other authors such as Christie and Stamper propose a sixth type of rural settlement should also be added, that of a village with some urban characteristics with a market, a continuous row of houses, crafts industries and shops (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 82-83). Though, as stated by these authors, it can in some instances be difficult to determine when a village becomes an urban centre and thereafter a small market town. This is because mainly historical sources and data such as population and habitation size are examined to determine the settlement's status during its earlier historical periods (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 82-83). Therefore, as examined by this PhD a multidisciplinary approach, including archaeological evidence must be taken into account when distinguishing the classification of a settlement during the historical periods.

Rural Settlement Morphology Type	**Description**
Linear	Buildings are situated along a main line of communication, be that a river or road.
Nucleated	Buildings closely grouped together, possible surrounding a cross-roads or T-junction. These settlements are surrounded by farmland for animals and crops.
Loose Knit	Similar to nucleated villages, however the buildings are more spread out with space for individual farmsteads.
Ring	Settlement built around a central village green.
Planned	Buildings are specifically laid out in areas, such as a grid pattern with roads in between, or particular areas of the settlement are used for specialised activities, as seen in large towns and cities.

Table 3. Description of rural settlement patterns and morphology as seen within Britain (Waugh, 2002, 394-395)

When studying rural settlements within Britain a further large group of settlements should also be examined within the archaeological literature, Deserted Medieval Villages (DMV). These

villages, in most cases do not exist to this day as inhabited settlements but instead earthworks within the rural landscape, however they were thriving settlements during these historical periods, prior to their demise. Within England there are over 2,813 DMV sites recorded to date, with a large proportion identified by archaeological investigation work undertaken by 'The Deserted Medieval Village Research Group' in the 1950s and 1960s, with the distribution seen in Figure 6 (Aston, 2001, 53). As demonstrated by the literature, few of the DMV sites identified have had intensive archaeological fieldwork undertaken on them, apart from where they were to be destroyed by modern activity (Rippon et al., 2018, 3). However, one of the earliest examples of DMVs being examined and identified using a new series of research techniques, was set out by Beresford, in his book 'The Lost Villages of England' (Beresford, 1954). Beresford sets out to examine this settlement type (DMVs) in depth for the first time, so revealing previously unknown DMVs within England (Beresford, 1954). His work is important when examining the changing nature of settlement archaeology in Britain, as he was one of the first to use multidisciplinary approaches to examine settlement archaeology. He utilised both documentary sources as well as aerial photography, the examination of earthworks and any remaining standing buildings, mainly churches (Beresford, 1954). However, as stated by Dyer, Beresford's early work in 1954 was difficult to accept by some scholars due to his new investigative ways (Beresford, 1998; Gerrard & Aston, 2007, 4), even though it is seen to have paved the way for later archaeological and historical settlement research.

Figure 6. Map showing the distribution of the 2,813 DMV settlements in England (Aston, 2001, 55, Fig. 22).

One of the main DMV settlements to be investigated through research archaeology rather than rescue archaeology is Wharram Percy in Yorkshire, with fieldwork undertaken from the 1950s and thereafter over the next 50 year period (Croft, 2011, 233). From the archaeological investigations undertaken at Wharram Percy, the abundance of archaeological remains and artefacts uncovered have given a greater understanding of the changing nature of these types of settlements (Aston, 2001, 67-69). Importantly, this project at Wharram Percy has also had a significant influence over a much larger area of settlement archaeology in the UK, relating to how settlements should be investigated (Aston, 2001, 70). As stated by Croft, nine key achievements within the discipline of both the investigation of medieval DMV's as well as the wider examination of medieval settlements was achieved (Croft, 2011, 233). These include a number of methodological approaches which were first used on this site. These included excavation and research strategies for excavating sites with little stratigraphy; multidisciplinary approaches to investigate a settlement and the wider landscape within the parish, as well as being one of the first projects to undertake these works mainly utilising volunteers (Croft, 2011, 235). The project also had a number of analytical firsts including the first

project to fully excavate a peasant's house, a parish church and its associated cemetery and other features of the medieval village settlement (Croft, 2011, 235). As seen from the literature, the information gathered and methodologies developed at Wharram Percy and those previously developed by Beresford (Beresford, 1954), helped to create methods used in other projects, including those examining still-inhabited settlements. Therefore, the investigation of these DMVs in England are seen to have changed the way in which rural settlements are investigated in Britain and therefore set a benchmark for this type of work. The reasons why these medieval village settlements were deserted are similar to the reasons why medieval settlements with markets collapsed, and therefore these reasons are discussed in the next section of this literature review.

The second category of settlement, urban settlements, are shown to have been present in Britain since possibly the late Iron Age, however more prevalent during the later Roman, Saxon and medieval periods, as discussed above. Like that of rural settlements, a large proportion of these early historical urban centres have grown into the large towns and cities seen today in Britain; formed of 389 medium to large towns and 36 cities (House of Commons Library, 2020). Like rural settlements, as seen from the literature, the majority of large towns and cities have had archaeological investigations undertaken within them. However, the majority of these investigations are formed of pre-planning investigation carried out by commercial units. Far fewer large towns and cities have been investigated through the use of archaeological research projects than undertaken within rural settlements, with those embarked on mainly focusing on a specific phase of an urban settlement's development. An example of these are the excavations undertaken by Biddle in the 1960s and 1970s which examined areas of Winchester, such as Cathedral Green, the Nunnaminster, and Lower Brooks Street, as well as many other sites (Ottaway, 2017, 12). Biddle's excavations at Winchester, not only brought in a new era of examining the development of large towns, rather than just the remains found in towns (Ottaway, 2017, 15). These excavations also laid the groundwork for the modern archaeological methods used to examine urban archaeological sites from their earliest beginnings to modern times, which are still used today throughout the UK and Europe (Ottaway, 2017, 15). As stated by Gerrard, Biddle's excavations in the 1960s demonstrated that urban archaeology was not just 'rescue' but was also 'research' (Gerrard, 2003a, 98-99). Biddle's work established robust strategies to examine both the archaeological evidence as well as documentary sources, not prioritising one period over another and therefore exploring the whole of the changing nature of a city over time (Gerrard, 2003a, 98-99). As a result of Biddle's work, a further sixty English large towns had set out their own archaeological research strategies by the end of the 1960s (Gerrard, 2003a, 99). This demonstrates an important turning point in the examination of urban

settlement archaeology in Britain. More urban sites were being examined on an archaeological basis, not just a historical one, like the majority of rural settlements during this period.

During the 1980s, 1990s, 2000s and up until the present day, substantial archaeological investigations including excavations, in conjunction with historical research, have continued to be undertaken, building on the work commenced at Winchester by Biddle in many large towns and cities throughout the UK. This illustrates continual improvement on the understanding and development of these urban sites. As seen from the literature, monograph publications, utilising both research and commercial archaeological investigations, with the historical evidence available at the time of publication, have been produced for many large towns and cities throughout the UK, demonstrating the changing nature of these settlements over time. Examples of where a detailed assessment of urban wide settlements changing nature and development (from their earliest origins to the early post medieval period) has been published, are cities such as Oxford and Carlisle (Dodd, 2003; Howard-Davis, 2009) as well as large towns such as Hartlepool and Staines (Daniels, 2010; P. Jones, 2010). However, in comparison to rural settlements, in most cases a detailed and systematic assessment and publication of the archaeological and historical evidence for the changing nature of these types of settlement is not seen so widely within the literature, with the exception of settlements such as Shapwick. Therefore, the archaeological record, used to examine the changing nature of settlement development in Britain may be seen as skewed. This is because a higher proportion of urban settlements have been systematically investigated and published compared to rural ones; meaning that more inferences may be made on fewer examples when interpreting the typology and changing nature of rural settlement development in Britain.

Medieval Market Settlements: Formation and Decline

In medieval England (1066 to 1532 AD) the type of settlements located within the landscape were different to those seen today, with towns and urban centres more commonly seen during this period than during the modern times. However, before examining the literature on medieval towns, urban centres and markets and the formation of these settlements and their decline, it is important to define a town, village and hamlet of the medieval period. During this period a hamlet is defined as a cluster of houses and other buildings, which in their layout, is smaller than a village (Darvill, 2008, 182). A village is then defined as a small cluster of farmhouses and cottages with the settlement sometimes including a church and other communal buildings and facilities (Darvill, 2008, 489). This is unlike a town which is defined as a small urban area, with a central place providing goods and services to the surrounding villages and hamlets but without the degree of economic stability found

in cities (Mayhew, 2004, 498). Therefore, hamlets were likely to be small and compressed in size during the medieval period, with villages being slightly larger and towns much larger in size, likely to contain markets providing goods and services to the surrounding areas.

From the literature, the characteristics of towns and likewise urban centres of this period, therefore large settlements with markets can be examined, as well as their formation within England's medieval landscape. The formation of these types of settlement can be split into two main types: a planned town, an example seen in Figure 7; and a non-planned town which develops from an original and earlier village settlement, with an example seen in Figure 8 (Platt, 1976, 27 & 30). Both these types of settlement have one main characteristic in common, their marketplace. The market place is typically located within the centre of the settlement adjacent or close to the main church, it is usually large in size with other main streets leading off it (Slater, 2007b, 21). Also, as stated by Dyer in Table 4, these settlements have a series of further characteristics which separate them from either large villages or village settlements with markets.

Characteristics	**Documentary evidence**	**Material evidence (all towns)**	**Material evidence (smaller towns)**
Population size	Number of houses, burgesses, burgage plots, number of taxpayers, tax assessment.	Size of built up area, suburbs, planned units, number of streets.	Larger than most villages, 1 to 4 planned units, occasional suburbs.
Social structure, e.g. merchants, gentry, artisans, servants	Tax records, deeds and surveys, wills.	Houses of varying sizes and quality, artefacts indicative of varied wealth and status including elite.	A few houses and artefacts of high status.
Occupations	Pre-1350 surnames, 1381 poll tax and 1522 military survey, Borough Court records, Guild registers, Freemans registers.	Crafts and trades indicated by structures, implements, and debris, luxury goods made and traded.	Limited variety of low status crafts, some agriculture, specialisation is possible, inns.

Markets, outlets, customers	Royal charters, court roles, household accounts.	Marketplaces, subdivided, shops and selds.	Marketplace, sometimes with specialist areas, some shops.
Hinterlands	Debts in court records, bounds etc., migration patterns from 1350 surnames, purchases in town and country.	Distribution of pottery, building materials etc.	A range of contacts of limited scope e.g. fewer overseas imports.
Central place functions, government, religious institutions	Royal and church records.	Castles, cathedrals, monasteries, churches, schools, hospitals, friaries.	Parish Church or a chapel, charities, hospital or almshouses.
Self-government, civic consciousness.	Borough and fraternity archives, churchwardens accounts.	Public buildings, fraternity buildings, water supply, bridges, rubbish disposal.	Guildhall, paved streets, bridges, rubbish disposal.

Table 4. Table showing the characteristics of both major towns and small towns within medieval England, from both documentary and material evidence (Dyer, 2003, 102, Tab. 1).

The first type of large medieval settlement which can be examined within the literature, which comprise a market, are planned towns usually identified by their layout (Figure 7). One example of this type of settlement is Winchelsea, a royal town, laid out in a grid system, with the market square in its centre and streets leading off it (Platt, 1976, 33). This type of street layout is seen in both new towns, which sprung up in the medieval period, as well as towns constructed within Saxon burhs and areas of previous Roman and earlier settlements (Platt, 1976, 33). In most cases these towns were usually constructed surrounding either a church or in close vicinity to a castle, such as Oversley in Warwickshire (Dyer, 2003, 91). However, other settlements such as Stratford-Upon-Avon were not laid out in this way but in a grid system with a major church on its outskirts (Dyer, 2003, 94). This may be a result of medieval architects taking into consideration environmental factors, such as areas of marshland or other topographical features. Within these planned towns, plots (Burgages) were usually set out, offset to the roads, with a dwelling or town house fronting them, giving easy access for the sale of goods (Platt, 1976,30). The layout of these planned towns could easily grow in size, with further streets being added onto the grid system over time, as the settlement prospered (Dyer, 2003, 95). This meant that the growth of the settlement

could easily be controlled by the lords of the settlement (Dyer, 2003, 95) and could, therefore, not extend beyond their means.

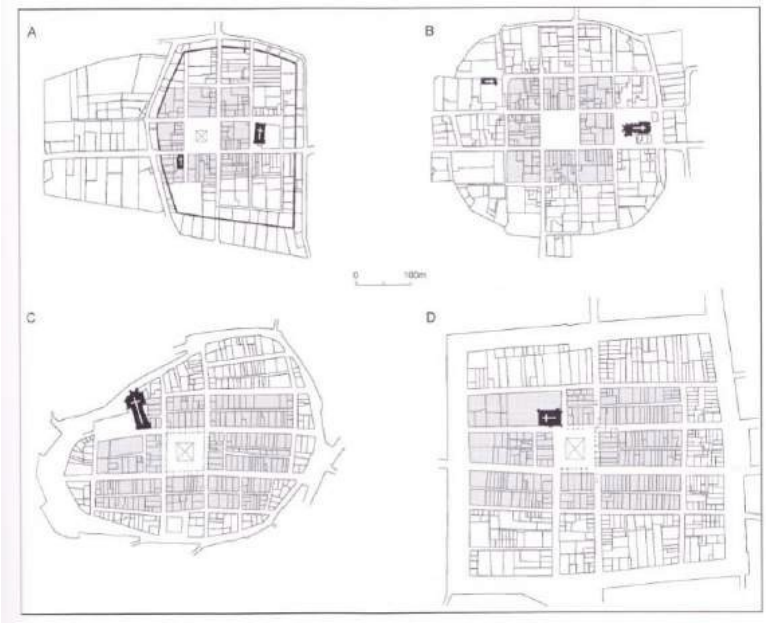

Figure 7. Four diagrams indicating the location of the marketplace in close relation to the church within four types of medieval town (Slater, 2007b, 21, fig. 4).

However, this type of planed settlement did not always prosper into the later medieval period. One of the examples of a planned medieval settlement with a market, indicated as a town or urban centres, which failed by end of the 13th C was Oversley in Warwickshire (Dyer, 2003, 91). This market was formed adjacent to a castle, by the lord of the manor along two adjacent roads with associated plots (Dyer, 2003, 91). Archaeological evidence indicates that some of these plots were inhabited with both occupancy and industrial activities, but to a lesser extent than required to sustain this substantial settlement, so it came to its demise by the end of the 13th C (Dyer, 2003, 91- 92). This is likely due to its location close to the settlement of Alcester (within 1.5km) (Dyer, 2003, 92), which prospered and devolved into a substantial market town, which continues to this day.

Unlike planned medieval towns and settlements with markets, non-planned towns and urban centres developed in most cases from Saxon and older villages, with an example seen in Figure 8. These settlements include highway towns, which are linear in plan and may have only grown due to trade (Platt, 1976, 30). Studies within Northamptonshire have indicated that these markets were also set up at a distance in which different traders could travel to different markets or each day of the week (Unwin, 1981, 231). This meant that more markets were spread evenly through the county with an average distance between a neighboring markets of 5.2 km (Steane,

1985, 126). During the medieval period, it was understood by lawyers that market should be at least 10.8 km apart to reduce the harm of competition between these marketplaces (Steane, 1985, 126). However, within the study undertaken within Northamptonshire, a decline of markets by the 1600s could also be demonstrated from 1300 to just 30, why this post medieval period, with the latter developing into towns links by effective communication networks (Steane, 1985, 126). These medieval rural settlements, like planned towns, are laid out with the market place adjacent to the church and/or Manor House in the centre of the settlement (Dyer, 2003, 89). However, as these are much smaller establishments, some authors state that the church was used to attract travelers and traders to the area, and is therefore why the market is located adjacent (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 114). This may be an important aspect in the development of settlements of this type, as where the church is large in size, it can be observed across the landscape from some distance away and may have guided traders from one small market to the next. Apart from the layout of the market area the rest of these settlements are largely irregular, as they have usually formed over a longer period of time, with plots laid out alongside roads leading into the settlement, such as the High Street (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 115, fig. 7.8) (Figure 8). An example of this type of settlement is Stow-on-the-Wold, Gloucestershire, which at the time of the Domesday Book was a hamlet, but by 1107 had been granted a market charter (Masschaele, 2002, 388), with streets laid out and other facilities built. Furthermore, the literature also indicates this type of settlement, even from its small beginnings, attracted a wealth of trades into it, including weaving, dying, brewing and shoe making (Masschaele, 2002, 388). However, due to its small size, in its early period, it also continued to undertake agricultural activities, like the rest of the rural economy (Masschaele, 2002, 388). This evidence shows that it was not only planned towns and settlements with markets that economically prospered during this period, with some cases having royal backing, but also small market towns which grew up from humbler beginnings.

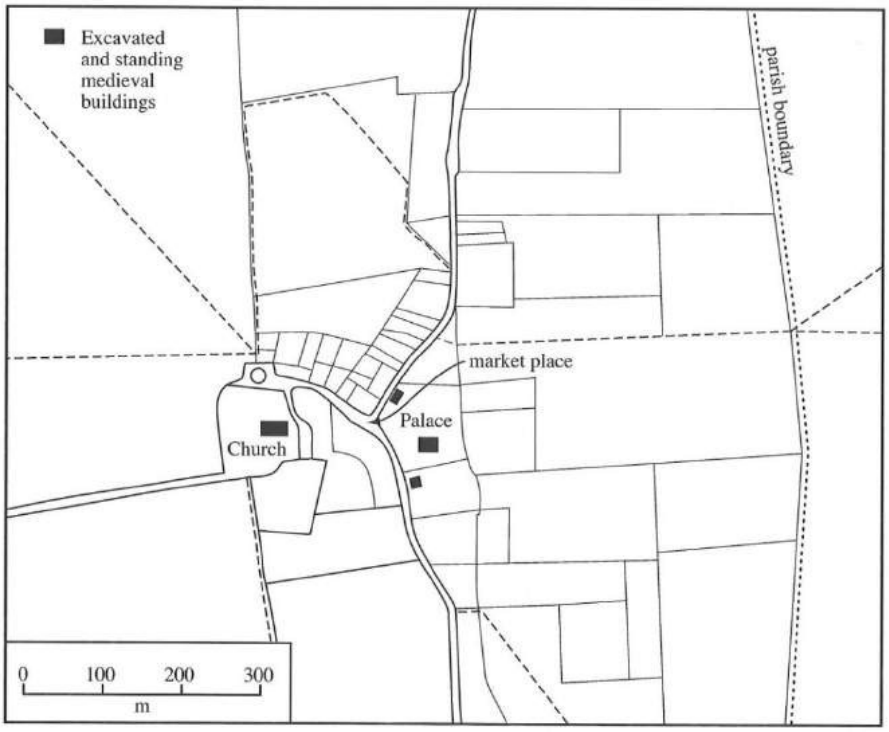

Figure 8. Diagram showing a non-medieval planned town, which would have grown up from a pre-conquest village (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 115, fig. 7.8).

The literature indicates the characteristics for medieval settlements with markets, where these have later formed into towns, though also designating possible reasons for their decline and shrinkage during the later medieval period. One of the main reasons stated in a large proportion of the literature is the Black Death and plague, which swept the country between 1348 to 49 (Lewis, Mitchell-Fox, & Dyer, 2001, 164). This led to a rapid decline in the rising population of the early 14th C, with the rural population halving during this period (Gottfried, 1983, Xiii). This sudden drop in population is suggested as one of the reasons for towns, villages and hamlets declining during this period. However, some authors, such as Theilmann and Cate, do not agree that the Black Death caused this sudden drop in population over a short period of time and therefore these authors surmise this did not cause the collapse of settlements during this period. Theilmann and Cate state that the plague itself did not cause the massive mortality rate seen in the 14th C, as one single disease such as plague, could not cause so many deaths over such a short period (Theilmann & Cate, 2007, 376). They also state that the plague is more seasonal and not as virulent as the accounts show, as it only has about a 14% death rate within a single population (Theilmann & Cate, 2007, 376). Instead, they propose that other diseases such as anthrax and typhus were more likely to have produced a rapid and high death rate over a longer period of time (Theilmann & Cate, 2007, 378). This data would correlate better with the drop in population and in turn the drop in the number of rural settlements, as diseases such as anthrax are spread by sheep, of which there was a high

population in the 14th C (Benedictow, 2011, 579). Therefore, the disease would have been able to sweep through the country more rapidly through livestock trade, causing the dramatic drop in population and settlement activities, thus affecting the market area more particularly than other areas surrounding them.

The second area which the literature discusses for the probable decline of settlements in the 14th C is a change in environmental conditions. This theory was first proposed by Postan's hypothesis of population growth, which was then followed by crises and depopulation (Postan, 1972, 115-116). Evidence for this theory, where climatic factors are taken into consideration, are a series of settlements in the areas of Romney Marshes, Sussex and Kent, which from 1287 to the early 1400s suffered major flooding (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 111). It is documented that these floods mainly occurred in low lying areas of the country (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 111). The literature also refers to a possible reason for the flooding; a change in weather conditions, with an increase in storms (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 111). These episodes changed the country and contributed to the population decline. Within the Romney Marsh area the flooding caused a shift in sheep grazing areas and houses were deserted due to this movement (M. Gardiner, Eddison, & Long, 1998, 130-141). However, his theory of climate affecting depopulation is not favoured by historians, even with the backing of archaeological evidence (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 19). These climatic episodes also affected the wool trade, discussed below, with colder winters increasing the mortality rate of sheep (Stone, 2003, 20). As fleece weights collapsed (Stone, 2003, 20), it increased the decline of settlements and economic activities, therefore decreased areas of settlement population.

The last area which the literature indicates as a possible reason for the settlement and population decline at this period is the drop in the wool trade. During the medieval period the wool trade formed a significant part of the economy, with most flocks averaging about 20,000 sheep, and on average 3.5 million fleeces were produced annually in England (Stephenson, 1988, 370). This meant that the rural economy was mainly underpinned by the wool trade in medieval England, and a change in this had devastating effects. The literature indicates that by the end of the 14th C, there was a significant drop in the primary wool trade to the continent from England, with quantities dropping from 45,000 sacks in 1359-60, to less than 15,000 sacks by the end of the 14th C (Platt, 1976, 87), which is a drop of 67%. With this dramatic drop, settlements such as Lincoln and Winchester found their economy significantly weakened and areas such as Oxford and Leicester suffered permanent damage to their wool industry (Platt, 1976, 87). Within the latter areas, permanent damage was therefore caused to their rural economy and the decline and shrinkage of

settlements ensued. Furthermore, during this period the wool and sheep trade was also hit by a disease known as 'Red Death'; in one part of Wiltshire, 29 wethers and 210 lambs died in 1353. This devastating effect also occurred within the population of lambs across the country (Stone, 2003, 20). It is thought this disease was caused by the poor management of sheep stocks and spread rapidly through the country (Stone, 2003, 20). In addition, the collapse of the primary wool trade to the continent, led to a failure of the wool trade in rural economies; this had a devastating effect on rural areas, including population, settlement type and size, and therefore the economy.

As discussed above, the literature demonstrates that authors have discussed how towns and other types of settlements, with associated markets, have formed over time, with the majority of growth of these types of settlements occurring during the medieval period (both planned and unplanned towns). This includes work undertaken by Dyer who has indicated the possible evidential requirements needed for a settlement to be classified as a town during the medieval period. This literature, however, also demonstrates the likelihood of collapsed towns occurring within the English archaeological landscape, including sites such as Oversely in Warwickshire which had a thriving market but with the settlement subsequently collapsing into a DMV (Dyer, 2003, 91). Furthermore, as demonstrated by the literature, evidence has been suggested for the collapse and shrinkage of settlements during this period, including the black death, climate change and economic pressures. These are important external pressure which should be examined when looking at the decline of a settlement, in order to understand why this decline may have occurred within this period of time (in this case during the late medieval period).

Medieval Settlements: Theory and Archaeological Landscape

Within the discipline of archaeology, and therefore the study of medieval settlements within the area of this discipline, archaeological theory, in relation to this study area, should be examined within the literature. The main area of archaeological theory which this subject area is covered is the area of 'New Archaeology', which was first introduced in the late 1960s to early 1970s and coincided with the increase of other disciplines including 'New Geography', within geographical studies (Johnson, 1999, 20). The study of new archaeological theory took advantage of the growing aspects of archaeology as a science within the late 20th century rather than the previous traditions of archaeology as a cultural history (Johnson, 1999, 20-21). This growth in archaeological science continued into the 21st century with new techniques of analysing and investigating sites being undertaken. Early investigation using the theory of archaeological science, and therefore the theory

of new archaeology, includes the work undertaken by David Clark in the late 1970s, his book 'Analytical Archaeology'. This examines the traditional concepts of archaeology including pottery assemblages and cultural elements but openly discusses at length how it is applied (D. Clarke, 1978). Clark clearly demonstrates the representation of interpretive thinking in archaeology (i.e. examining how people may have thought) but also indicates that archaeology should also fit within the scientific approach of new archaeological theory (D. Clarke, 1978).

Within this scientific study of archaeology, not only were new techniques to be included, but also the growing thought of including multidisciplinary techniques and other subject areas within the historically cultural areas, archaeological site and its associated landscape. An example of this is shown in Figure 9, where Clark uses an interconnecting diagram to demonstrate that a single culture, landscape, or settlement has interconnections between different areas of archaeological studies, interdisciplinary areas, and areas of archaeological science which have an effect on each other. This means that, as demonstrated by new archaeology theory, a multidisciplinary focus on a study area should be undertaken as no single area has a single defined scientific understanding (for example, geology, climates or religion) which impacts the growth and development of that area overtime. This is why it is important to understand the impact of new archaeological theory when undertaking archaeological interpretation of a settlement and its surrounding landscapes.

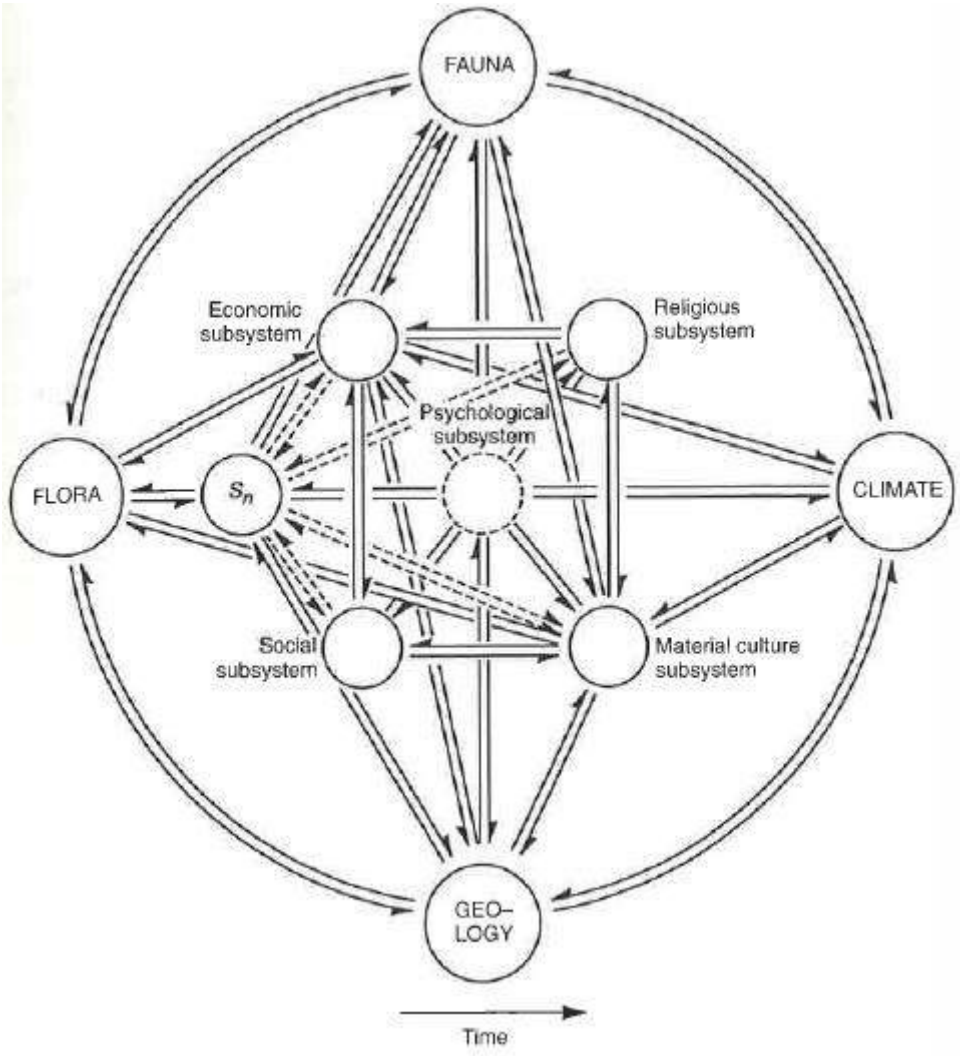

Figure 9. Diagram indicating the connection between different interdisciplinary approaches combined through the new archaeology theoretical approach (Johnson, 1999, 23, Fig 2.4).

The literature relating to new archaeology indicates the importance of utilising these archaeological scientific techniques when investigating both settlement archaeology and the surrounding landscape. The changes within the study of archaeology also impacted on other areas of study which also examine settlements and their landscapes including anthropology and geography, which also moved towards a more scientific approach for analysing these areas of interest (McGlade, 1999, 458). Taking into account these multidisciplinary approaches to examining archaeological sites, some authors shifted their multidisciplinary theoretical direction when analysing these areas. Splits into other areas, away from more scientific approach, occurred including structural, symbolic and phenomenological theories as well as areas relating to the management of historical assets and the related issues (Bender, 1993; Thomas, 1993; Tilley, 1994). However, McGlade emphasised the need to undertake the scientific multidisciplinary techniques, within a landscape environment when undertaking archaeological research. These include research projects which engage with bigscience,

multidisciplinary areas and large scale projects which include scientific techniques such as the use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) and remote sensing as well as soil science and documentary research (McGlade, 1999, 467-469). The use of these multidisciplinary techniques have been utilised on such sites as the Emporda project which integrated remote sensing, GIS, environmental information (including ecology hydrology and sales) and historical geographical information (including historical land use) to examine a settlement and its surrounding landscape (McGlade, 1999, 470-471). Combining these techniques when examining a landscape, within this project, helped to demonstrate, and prove, a unique insight into the structure of the society and settlement within this area (McGlade, 1999, 478). Without the use of these multidisciplinary techniques, as indicated by new archaeological theory, with the combination of scientific archaeological techniques, it can be shown that a wider understanding of post-formation and integration into the wider landscape can be understood through their use in these research areas. However, some archaeologists argue that the impact of 'new archaeology' as a theoretical technique has more impact when examining Roman, prehistoric, and Saxon settlement than it has on examining those within the medieval landscape. These authors argue that the social and post professional approaches may have a greater impact on the examination of the medieval settlements within a landscape (Austin & Thomas, 1990; Johnson, 1996; P. Rahtz, 1983). However, the use of scientific and multidisciplinary techniques, have been shown to form an important part understanding the growth, development, and influence of assessment on its surrounding landscape, as demonstrated in new archaeology.

The change of the archaeological discipline, when examining settlements, from looking at single sites to examining the surrounding landscape and how they interact with other surrounding areas, has also been discussed by Rippen, where he states that during the 1960s most archaeological journal papers examine either artefactual material or single high status sites, whereas papers written more recently (the late 90s to early 2000) examine fewer of these areas, and focused more on broader landscape features and how settlements fit within their wider context (Rippon, 2009b, 228). This increased focused in examining settlements within their wider landscape has also been suggested by Gerrard, who indicates that early papers written in the 1960s, rarely focus on interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary research techniques (Gerrard, 2003b, Fig 4.3). Some exceptions to these are the work undertaken by Linehan (1966) during their examination of deserted medieval villages and rabbit warrens in Dartmoor, which used a combination of documentary sources as well as in the round survey, earthwork mapping and aerial photography to analyse and record 126 sites of this type (Linehan, 1966). Linehan demonstrated the importance of using these multidisciplinary techniques when analysing large-scale settlement distributions within landscapes and, therefore,

further researchers followed soon after e,g Austin at Okehampton Park and Fleming and Ralph at Holne Moor in the 1970s and 1980s (Austin, 1978) (Fleming & Ralph, 1982). As stated by Rippon, the use of these combined multidisciplinary techniques soon developed into the discipline that is now known as landscape archaeology (Rippon, 2009b, 230), and influenced the way in which settlements was studied within archaeology, and in turn our understanding of the formation over time.

From the 1960s on words the multidisciplinary approach to analysing landscapes and their associated settlements can be seen to grow, as indicated by the literature. This included the increased use of field surveys including traditional techniques including earthworks surveys, as developed by the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England (RCHME), and the excavation trenches to examine this type of site (Rippon, 2009b, 232). Examples of this expanding use of multidisciplinary techniques to examine archaeological settlement sites were first undertaken include Tailor's work of changing settlement patterns and the associated field systems at Whiteparish in Wiltshire which use these techniques to reconstruct the landscape surrounding the settlement (Taylor, 1967). Projects also combine the use of aerial photography when analysing medieval settlement sites, including the extent of crop marks and complex earthworks sites in pastoral areas (Rippon, 2009b, 232). Further developments in medieval settlement archaeology resulted during the expansion of predevelopment archaeological investigations associated with the expansion of road networks such as motorways and other related civil engineering activities including sand and gravel extraction within sites in the UK (Fowler, 1979). These archaeological works undertaken at both pre-and post-planning stage were required under the 1990 planning regulations, PPG16. However, it is possible that a large number of these type of sites may have been missed pre these planning requirements, as over 80,000 sites have been investigated within England as part of the planning process up to 2010 (Darvill, Barrass, Constant, Milner, & Russell, 2019, 1), a large number of which may never have otherwise been investigated. With the growth and understanding of the importance and changing nature of modern settlements, as well as the surrounding landscape, the importance of landscape and related settlement archaeology may be seen to influence the changing way in which rural settlements, including those of medieval dates, have been investigated during the planning process. Some authors, such as Belford, indicate the problems relating to the analysis of settlement activity through the archaeological investigations required by the planning process, as only a small sample of both sites and areas within them have been excavated through this process (Belford, 2021, 36). Secondly Belford also suggests the nature of this type of archaeological work, mainly comprising watching briefs or evaluation trenching, with some open area excavations, mainly focus on planning requirements rather than that of settlement developmental research questions (Belford, 2021, 36). Therefore, the quality of the data produced

from this type of archaeological method may not be of such a high standard as those multidisciplinary research project which also takes into account the surrounding landscape and context (Belford, 2021, 36-37). As discussed by Rippon and Morton, this type of commercial based archaeology also runs the risk of archaeological investigations and fieldwork only being undertaken where previously unknown archaeological deposits exist on site (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). For example, where previous archaeological works have been has been undertaken, or where crop marks or other non-invasive survey techniques have been undertaken on large area sites as part of the preplanning process (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). This means that smaller sites in unknown, less archaeologically abundant areas, including small settlements, may be less investigated through the planning process. These types of investigations within these rural settlement sites run the risk of the loss of archaeological materials and knowledge, as they are not investigated as part of the preplanning process due to little previous findings having been made within these settlements. However, as indicated by the literature, and discussed above, this growing understanding that settlements (including those of the medieval period) do not stand alone but are contained within a surrounding landscape is also taken into account when investigating large-scale rule settlement sites through archaeological fieldwork of this nature.

With the growing influence of landscape archaeology within the study of medieval settlements, the investigation of these types of sites have also grown to include multidisciplinary research programs and new archaeological techniques and directions, demonstrated by the use of multidisciplinary research projects to examine medieval settlements, including their growth and decline over time. These include work undertaken by the Cambridge Higher Education Field Academy accessing Cambridge archaeology, which as well as examining these types of settlements through investigations such as test pitting, also utilise the growing aspects of community archaeology (Lewis, 2011, 48). This is demonstrated by the growing use of test pitting to understanding the changing landscape of medieval settlements, which are still inhabited to this day (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). As stated by Rippon and Morton the use of this important archaeological technique within this type of settlement has a proven track record of understanding these types of settlements, particularly where other archaeological examinations may not be undertaken, or are limited to small investigations through the planning process (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). The use of test pitting has also been undertaken in settlement sites within the UK, where the excavation of large numbers of this type of intervention has been undertaken providing a greater understanding of the growth and decline of these village types. (Gerrard & Aston, 2007; Lewis, 2007; M. Page & Jones, 2007; Rippon, 2006).

Within the multidisciplinary for analysing medieval settlements, including those which are continually occupied, the literature also discusses further types of archaeological techniques which are also undertaken when investigating this type of site. These include the use of geophysical survey, aerial photography, LiDAR (remote sensing), with data then being brought together within GIS to help with interpretation (Rippon, 2009b, 238; Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7-8). The use of these large-scale landscape techniques, including the use of GIS, have provided some studies which examine large-scale landscapes rather than single parishes. Examples of these include the Clwydian Hills, Wales (I. Brown, 2004), Swaledale, Yorkshire (Fleming, 1998), and work undertaken by Foard. and Hall across Northamptonshire (Foard, Hall, & Partida, 2005). Furthermore, work has been undertaken by Historic England (formerly English Heritage) to map countywide gazetteers of archaeological sites within an ancient landscape setting (Rippon, 2009a, 238). The use of these techniques can also be used to look at wider landscapes, beyond that of the County, including those used to map Roman-Greco hydrology evidence within historic landscape (McGlade, 1999, 470). As demonstrated by the literature, the use of GIS as a technique to map the wider landscape, has been shown to help researchers understand how a settlement interaction within its direct surroundings, but also within their wider and more extensive landscape. The use of GIS is also demonstrated within the above projects has been utilised to compare, contrast and interpret data from muti techniques employed (many of which are discussed below) within these projects.

The literature demonstrates that researchers have utilised the examination of aerial photography, earthworks surveys and LiDAR when analysing the development of settlements as well as their surrounding landscapes, with the latter of these only being available to the archaeological community within more recent years. The first two of these techniques (aerial photography and earthwork surveys) have been highly respected as landscape techniques within the archaeological community for long periods of time. As the literature demonstrates large scale landscape surveys have been undertaken using this techniques as early as 1908 by the Royal Commission of Historical Monuments (RCHM) and subsequently by the Ordnance Survey (OS) and Historic England (Bowden, 2006, 21 ; Fradley, 2020, 23). With these survey methods having a long history of use within the analysis of the historical landscape, some authors such as Taylor, suggest these techniques form one of the main traditions of British medieval archaeology (Taylor, 1974). The use of earthwork surveys in understanding the changing medieval landscape has been utilised on many sites, including those undertaken at Bodiam Castle in West Sussex, dispersed medieval sites in Shropshire and Wharram Percy, to name just a few (Everson & Stamper, 1987; Oswald, 2004; Taylor, Everson, & Wilson-North, 1990). Furthermore, with the utilisation of aerial photography, as seen in the literature, an abundance of previously unknown archaeological sites, including of medieval date, have been able

to be recorded. This includes the analysis of large scale aerial photographic collections (for example those taken by the RAF, Environment agency or as part of the Centre for Aerial Photography at Cambridge University, to name just a few (Fradley, 2020, 25)) which have revealed such medieval sites as Newhall Tower in Cheshire (Fradley, 2005).

With the advances in technology, the utilisation of LiDAR within archaeology has also been developed. This aerial technique, as shown in the literature has had advantages over that of earthwork survey or traditional aerial photography, with the first of these (namely earthwork surveys) fulling much more out of use, in favour of these more modern techniques (Fradley, 2020, 24). This is as techniques such as LiDAR have the advantage of being able to penetrate dense woodland, or through the use of algorithms, remove modern urbanisation (Historic England, 2018, 4). As shown by the literature this technique has been greatly utilised in areas such as the Savernake Forest, to reveal medieval activities not previously identified dure to the dense vegetation and trees (Crutchley, Small, & Bowden, 2009,29-36). However, it should be noted that as Fradley states the use of LiDAR to identify less rural and more urban late medieval sites has had less identifiable results, thought to be down to the covering of these types of sites with dense modern urbanisation and related populations (Fradley, 2020, 27). Furthermore, Fradley suggests, LiDAR has been of an invaluable use for identification of related features, such as field systems, surrounding these other densely populated urban environments, for example at Walburn in North Yorkshire (Fradley, 2020, 27). Additionally, in regard to the use of the techniques of aerial photography, earthworks surveys and LiDAR, the literature, and subsequently a number of authors do suggest caution should be used when utilising these techniques to analysing archaeological sites. The main difficulty, as is discussed within the literature, can arise in relation to the interpretation of these types of data sets. Due to the data being of a single plane, it can be difficult to determine the stratigraphic nature of observed sets of features, with some authors, such as Clarke, stating that these types of survey can only revel the final phase of a site's occupation or use (H. Clarke, 1984, 27). In contrast, authors such as Bower state that it is possible to distinguish the stratigraphic nature of features seen within these data sets, with a probable date being determined. Bower's, however, also indicates problems with these techniques, including the impact of modern instructions and the 'picture framing' of data sets (Bowden, 2006, 80-86). Also, as interpreting data of this type comes with experience, it should be noted that as Fradley, Bowden and McOmish have stated there has been a large reduction in the use of traditional earthwork surveys being undertaken, with the growth of high-quality data sets such as LiDAR (Bowden & McOmish, 2012; Fradley, 2020, 24). As a result, much of these previously taught and learnt interpretive skills for this type of data is being lost to the mists of time. Furthermore, with aerial photography (but also other data collection techniques), authors such as Wilson suggest that

aspects such as crop type, local climate/ weather conditions, underlying/subsurface geology or ploughing regimes can impact the quality of data capture, thereby reducing its interpretive value (Wilson, 2000, 84-86). This indicates that the data quality of some areas is likely to be much reduced, especially where sites are close to a historical and still inhabited, settlement. The continued use of these areas, including during the modern periods, is likely to reduce data quality and therefore data value, when analysing the changing nature of medieval settlements within their wider landscape. For all these three techniques this indicates the possible limitations of these types of datasets when analysing archaeological sites and their surrounding landscapes. However, by integrating other techniques in a multidisciplinary setting, such as excavation, GIS and geophysics (as also discussed in the literature review) these can increase the value and viability of the data sets, thereby reducing the negativity which can occur when utilising these data sets on their own.

The use of geophysical techniques, in conjunction with other landscape archaeology techniques such as the examination of crop marks, earthworks or LiDAR data, is more commonly used now than previously to examine settlement sites and their surrounding landscape. As stated by Rippon and Morton a large majority of these geophysical surveys are undertaken through the use of magnetometry to identify large buried features as part of prework for commercially developed sites (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). This does pose risk that some archaeological sites may be missed, such as those with little structural remains or ditch features, which may not show up on geophysical survey data (Rippon & Morton, 2020, 7). However, many research projects have proven the use of geophysical surveys, including magnetometry, resistivity, and GPR as useful techniques to analyse and examine underlying archaeological deposits. As Bowden states, the use of these newer geophysical techniques are important to understand, in order to locate and identify archaeological remains which have been levelled and, therefore, difficult to identify through other landscape techniques (Bowden, 2006). The literature demonstrates that the use of magnetic survey is undertaken more widely when analysing archaeological sites of this nature, with the identification of features including pits, ditches, hearths and kilns, which are usually associated with areas of habitation (Armstrong & Kalayci, 2015, 1, 11). The use of resistivity is also used widely within the evaluation of settlements which continue to be inhabited but have areas within them which are not able to be surveyed. As the literature demonstrates these areas are more easily surveyed using resistivity than other techniques as it is more simple to use and it is not greatly affected by the surrounding urban environment. It can reveal a wide range of archaeological features, including pits and ditches, stone walls, structures and trackways (C. Gaffney & Gater, 2010). The use of GPR within the archaeological domain has also shown to be extremely useful in identifying a wider array of archaeological subsurface features including buried structures and other archaeological features

(Manataki, Sarris, Donati, Garcia, & Kalayci, 2015, 23). However, the use of Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) is more complex to both undertake and interpret the resulting data, and so is used less for examining archaeological sites of this nature, compared to the use of resistivity and magnetometry. As discussed within the literature, a number of archaeological settlement sites, within a landscape, have been surveyed using geophysical techniques. Examples of sites in which geophysical data has been used to map settlement sites of the early medieval period, as well as their surrounding landscape, include that of the valley of Pickering in Yorkshire. Within this area, geophysical survey combined with aerial photography and Geographical Information Systems (GIS), was used to map an area of landscape which included an early medieval settlement as well as a number of earlier features dating to both the Saxon and Roman periods (Powlesland, 2014, 114-115). Without the utilisation of these combined techniques, it can be surmised that it is unlikely that the volume of archaeological data about the settlement types would have been identified across this valley landscape. Also, large scale geophysical surveys of landscape environments have been undertaken as part of the Stonehenge hidden landscapes project (V. Gaffney et al., 2012). These may not have been specifically used to identify medieval settlements but demonstrated the importance of using geophysical techniques to map areas of landscapes surrounding an archaeological site and, therefore, identifying previously unknown archaeological deposits and features. Other examples include the work undertaken in West Jutland, Denmark, which utilised both magnetometry and ground penetrating radar to map large-scale areas of conflict and medieval period sites, previously identified through aerial photography (Filzwieser et al., 2017). The combination of these three techniques, like that of other sites where multiple techniques have been utilised, identified a large number of previously unknown archaeological features, as well as phasing data for these types of settlement sites within the survey areas (Filzwieser et al., 2017). The use of this wide array of modern techniques, with the combination of GIS (as discussed above) means that a greater number of sites within a landscape setting can be studied over a short timeframe and to a greater level of detail, than previously achieved within the study area of medieval landscape archaeology which has generally focused on a historical geographical agenda.

The use of standard archaeological investigation methods in the examination of these settlements, however, is also shown to be highly important, when utilised to investigate the landscape of medieval village settlements, including those which are still inhabited today. An example of this is the work undertaken by Thomas, who has undertaken investigations using evaluation trenching within rural medieval settlements of Lincolnshire and Rutland (Thomas, 2008). As Thomas concludes from his investigations, which discovered a large number of well-preserved early medieval archaeological remains within current village settlements, the use of controlled

excavation under strict archaeological conditions within evaluation trenching is a high quality and informative methodological approach to take when investigating this type of settlement (Thomas, 2008, 50). Compared to test pitting, this type of rigorous evaluation trenching, undertaken in a scientific way, gives a wider understanding of the underlying archaeology. Test pitting does, however, continues to have its advantages, as discussed above, as a smaller keyhole technique utilised within inhabited settlements with only small areas available to investigate. As Thomas surmises this is unlike the use of commercial techniques such as watching briefs which may have a less rigorous use of archaeological investigation due to their commercialisation as part of the planning process and therefore may have a lower comparable qualitative conclusion compared to other archaeological techniques undertaken on medieval settlement sites (Thomas, 2008, 50).

The use of computer-based techniques, however, combined with historical documentary studies and more standard archaeological techniques (such as excavation), have developed the technique of historical landscape characterisation (HLC) (Rippon, 2009a), which is utilised when studying settlement growth, development, and changes, within historical landscapes. The use of this theoretical based technique, combining archaeological survey, excavation, historical documentation, mapping and GIS has been utilised by researchers including Kain and Oliver to undertake mapping of historical parish boundaries as indicated on tithe maps and online resources, as well as within the historic environment record (Kain & Oliver, 2001). The use of HLC as a multidisciplinary approach to understanding historical (medieval) landscapes can be seen as an advance in the wider understanding of these previously or historically understood and examined environments. The use of HLC, however, can be seen by some authors to move away from the more traditional landscape archaeological approach of historical geography and local history with a more theoretical bases within these traditional approaches, while other authors conceding that it is more likely that fieldwork base studies of research, are moving away from the theoretical landscape theory approach (Johnson, 2007, 1-2). Instead, as demonstrated by literature discussed above, the use of a wider multidisciplinary approach utilising modern archaeological techniques when studying medieval settlement archaeology (including the wider landscape) is already widely used within the archaeological community, and therefore with the growth of high-tech archaeological solutions is more likely standing the test of time, than that of its more theoretical and historical counterpart. Some authors, however, also indicate that the use of HLC can be used to characterise typologies of settlements within a wider landscape setting. The use of this characterisation technique, when analysing settlements across a whole landscape setting, has been used by Conzen within Northumberland in the 1960s (Conzen, 1960). However, later use of similar characterisation techniques as part of studies in the urban environments Gloucester and Worcester have found to be

flawed (Baker & Holt, 2004). This is in contrast to more successful studies within rural landscapes, such as those undertake by Roberts, mapping villages in northern England (Roberts, 2008). The success use of these characterisation techniques within rural landscapes rather than urban ones, has led some authors to argue that this has been caused by modern urbanisation masking this earlier activity, hence, this technique is little used within the wider archaeological community today (Fradley, 2020, 31-32).

As demonstrated by the literature, the nature in which medieval settlements are investigated has changed over time. This has changed from small defined investigations undertaken on single sites during the 1960s and 70s, mostly through the use of traditional techniques, to those undertaken in the 21st century which used a wider multidisciplinary approach which both looks at the settlement itself as well as how it interacts with its surrounding landscape. As Bowden states this wider holistic approach, for examining settlements and their associated landscapes, using relevant methodologies, gives a more truthful and better understanding of the area (Bowden, 2006, 26). However, as seen by the literature, the changing nature of the examination of these sites still falls within the 'new archaeological' theoretical approach, while the multidisciplinary investigation of these sites, including the use of modern data heavy techniques including integrating data into GIS, demonstrates that it still falls within a scientific approach, rather than a thematic or cultural understanding, investigation and interpretation of these types of settlement sites.

Archaeological Settlement Research

Many scholars have undertaken research investigating settlements within an archaeological context, but many of these only examine a single aspect of these settlements, be that a specific time period (Neolithic, Roman, Saxon etc.), a specific feature (i.e., hill fort) or specific part (i.e., abbey complex). However, the literature indicates a group of settlements and research projects, in England, where research has been undertaken to examine a rural settlement as a whole, both geographically and by time period, within an archaeological context. Because of this, these types of settlements, where research has been embarked on, can form a background to the work undertaken as part of this study.

In recent years many projects have been used to study settlements within rural landscapes, but in many cases with reduced resources, and only through the utilisation of certain techniques. Examples of these types of projects, used to analyse rural settlements are those run by Access Cambridge Archaeology (ACA) (Cambridgeshire), the Digging Sedgeford Project (Norfolk) and the Whittlewood Project (Buckinghamshire and Northamptonshire) (Faulkner et al., 2014; R. Jones, Dyer,

& Page, 2006; University of Cambridge, 2015). All these projects have used a combination of specific archaeological techniques and community archaeology to examine the long-term formation of a series of settlements. One main aspect which all these projects have in common, are test pitting surveys which were embarked on to examine the changing nature of the settlement, as well as undertaking community archaeology (Faulkner et al., 2014; R. Jones et al., 2006; University of Cambridge, 2015). These test pits were excavated where previous archaeology was unlikely to have occurred and therefore were used to map the underlying archaeology within previously undisturbed areas of the settlement. An example of this is the work undertaken at Sedgeford, where 49 test pits were dug within the gardens and open areas in the village (Faulkner et al., 2014, 215). The importance of this technique is indicated through this literature with settlements such as Sedgeford; by mapping the finds and pottery that were identified and an interpretation for the way that the settlement formed and developed over time can be made (Faulkner et al., 2014, 225). Therefore, this is a crucial area of these projects' fieldwork.

In addition, the importance of community archaeology can also be seen within these projects, examples are work carried out by the Access Cambridge Archaeology Project, which utilises community involvement to better understand a settlement's past (University of Cambridge, 2015). To date the ACA project has examined more than 10 different villages through community archaeology (University of Cambridge, 2015), within a community basis, including involvement of local people and schools (Department of Archaeology, 2011). The projects undertaken by the ACA may be observed as being much smaller than discussed above, but their importance in mapping archaeological remains can still be understood. An example of the small-scale nature of one of these projects, is the fieldwork undertaken at Houghyon and Whyton in 2005-6, where only 19 test pits were excavated, but the findings from these meant that the settlement's development was reinterpreted (Lewis, 2007, 141-146). Through, the use of projects such as this, not only is the development of the rural settlement mapped, but also with the involvement of the community, the information is disseminated back to the local residents and therefore they are more interactive with their local heritage. This is important as without community archaeology, this information would not have otherwise identified the development and growth within these rural settlements.

Further projects which have utilised community archaeology as well as test pitting and other more conventional archaeological techniques, such as geophysics and full excavation, but in a more urban environment, are the East Oxford Project run by Oxford University, and the Wallingford project (Oxfordshire) run by the University of Leicester (Christie & Creighton, 2013; Harrison & Griffiths, 2012). These projects are similar to those discussed above, utilising test pitting on a

community basis, but have also used other techniques such as geophysics and full excavation, as well as, in some cases, building recording to understand the formation of the settlements (Christie & Creighton, 2013, 15; Harrison & Griffiths, 2012). These techniques were also used at the Whittlewood project; however, like that of the Wallingford site, were partially undertaken by the community but also by academic researchers and students working on the excavation (R. Jones et al., 2006; University of Leicester, 2012). However, both the East Oxford Project and Sedgeford project differ to the others discussed, as a significant quantity of the work undertaken was by community groups rather than academic researchers (Faulkner et al., 2014; Harrison & Griffiths, 2012, XV-XX). In the case of the Sedgeford project, the analysis and write up was also undertaken by community volunteers, rather than on an academic basis (Faulkner et al., 2014, VI). Therefore, these projects are more based on heritage community projects, than understanding the growth of rural settlements within these areas. This may, in the long term, mean that the results from these projects differ from the more academic and scholarly projects, as they rely more on the aspects of community archaeology, rather than academic structured research. Hence, there may be differences in the understanding and interpreting of the settlements' growth and development over time. The data from heritage community projects, therefore, are more likely to be incomplete due to a focus on a specific area of the settlement, period of time, or community collaboration, rather than specific research questions or a more widely comprehensive approach utilised more in academia.

These more community-based projects also have a positive influence on the local community as they engage the residents in investigating their heritage and in turn, they learn valuable skills in undertaking these types of archaeological assessment. The community can also feed their local knowledge into the project. However, due to the nature of community versus academic archaeology, fewer specialist techniques can be undertaken on purely community archaeological projects. This is due to the specialist equipment, knowledge base, and possible cost implications, which can be required and therefore, these techniques and analytical processes may not be utilised. In this respect, the research differs from previous studies of this nature as it brings together, on a low-cost basis, both community-based partners and specialist academic knowledge and equipment.

One of the main comparable projects which has been undertaken in the recent past, and where a major project has been used to investigate and examine the growth and development of a single settlement, is the Shapwick Project (Somerset). The project was undertaken within the settlement of Shapwick, Somerset, between 1989 and 1999, jointly by the University of Winchester and University of Bristol (Gerrard & Aston, 2007, XVII, XXIII). The project used a multi-disciplinary

approach to analyse the growth and development of the settlement, examining it from its earliest beginnings to its modern state. The approaches utilised included a preliminary desk based assessment and thereafter, archaeological fieldwork, including: earthworks survey; field walking; aerial photography; soil geochemistry; geophysical survey, including resistivity and magnetometry; shovel pit testing; full excavation and standing building recording (Gerrard & Aston, 2007, 25). The project also utilised test pitting, with a total of 81 pits being excavated across the settlement; these were then used to map the underlying archaeology within this urban environment, in a small rural settlement (Gerrard & Aston, 2007, 244). Furthermore, non-archaeological disciplines were also undertaken, including a large scale ecological survey of ancient hedgerows (Gerrard & Aston, 2007, 323). Apart from these archaeological aspects used to examine the settlement itself, the wider geography and landscape in which the settlement is located, was also examined; thereby putting the data into a wider context and fitting it into the historical landscape surrounding it (Gerrard & Aston, 2007). This is an important comparison to the work being undertaken within this thesis, as the fieldwork developed in the Shapwick Project, as well as post excavation and desk based research, was undertaken in such a way that the settlement was put under 'the microscope' and intensively examined (Gerrard, 2016). Few settlements within both the UK and wider European context have previously been subject to this level of examination (Gerrard, 2016). Due to the intensive nature of the fieldwork undertaken at Shapwick, a detailed understanding of the changing nature, development and evolution of the settlement and its surrounding landscape was able to be formed, which greatly differed to the previous, presumed history of the village (Gerrard & Aston, 2007, 1010). Therefore, this indicates the importance of using a multidisciplinary approach as well as intensive use of these techniques when examining a settlement, in order to fully understand the change and development of rural settlements over time from their first formation to the modern day.

However, as indicated by the literature, these rural and semi-urban settlement projects have been undertaken by academic and community archaeologists working together. To examine the development of these settlements, from their initial formation, only a small selection of archaeological skills and techniques were utilised, with the exception of the Shapwick Project. Even taking into account the Shapwick Project, due to the time period or the largely community aspect in which most of these projects were undertaken, recent techniques were not used to analyse these settlements. This is one of the main aspects in which this study differs to previous studies of this type, where traditional archaeological techniques are utilised, modern and new techniques are also undertaken, such as ground penetrating radar and 3-D laser scanning, in addition to a

multidisciplinary approach. The combination of modern and traditional techniques should help increase our knowledge on how these rural settlements were formed and have developed over time.

Literature and Previous Work of Stanford in the Vale

A large quantity of documentary and archaeological literature on the settlement of Stanford exists. The evidence examined within the literature indicates the current thinking on how the settlement has developed and changed overtime, through both archaeological and written sources. This literature studies contemporary thoughts on the settlement from the prehistoric (Mesolithic) to the later post medieval to early modern periods; to show how the settlement developed and altered over time. Appendix 1 illustrates the location of the road names and other areas of the Stanford discussed in this section.

Prehistoric

The earliest evidence for a population within the area of Stanford in the Vale dates to the Mesolithic period, indicated by large quantities of flint scatters found in the surrounding area (Stebbing, 1977, 8). This includes both single worked flints and worked cores as well as large groups of microlith deposits such as those found within a field to the north of the current settlement, which was formed of over 40 flint objects (Stebbing, 1977,8). The location of these Mesolithic scatters, in addition to evidence from the test pitting, indicates that people were roaming the areas surrounding Upper and Church Green as well as fields on the edge of the current settlement and close to the River Ock.

Within the Neolithic, the literature indicates further flint material and scatters having been found from across the current settlement dating to this period (Ashby, 2010a,9; Stebbing, 1977,8). However, the literature also identifies a lack of evidence for the location of a settlement dating to the Neolithic. To date no form of structures, pits or ditches have been found.

Like the two previous periods the literature also points to a quantity of Bronze Age worked flint material, including thumb nail scrapers, which have been found from across the settlement (Ashby, 2014, 38). Though, unlike these earlier periods, the literature also indicates possible settlement activity dating to this time within the current settlement of Stanford. This includes features identified using GPR within a field at Priors Farm including the location of a mini-henge and also the possible location of a ditch enclosure and shaft dating to this period (Ashby, 2011a, 56).

Furthermore, two Bronze Age barrows have also been identified from aerial photography in fields to the west of the current village settlement along a natural ridge of high ground (English Heritage, 2007d). The locations of these features suggest the possible setting of a Bronze Age settlement at Stanford, probably located close to the centre of the current village and Frogmore Brook, with the area of higher ground to the west situated for burying their dead.

To date, the previous work undertaken at Stanford in the Vale implies little evidence has been identified for an Iron Age settlement in the vicinity of the current village. The only evidence which has been recognised for a settlement from this period is a possible enclosure ditch identified through the geophysical survey running E-W through Upper Green and with the continuation of this ditch enclosure seen on aerial photography of the area (D Ashby, 2012, 73). This can then be projected to indicate the possible size and location of the Iron Age settlement enclosure at Upper Green (Figure 10). The location of this earthwork is important as from its projection it is seen to influence the shape of Bow Road in this area, even into the modern period. However, it can also be seen from the literature that no excavation work has been carried out in this area and therefore no artifactual material dating to this period has been found at this enclosure, nor anywhere else during archaeological works in the village. This may raise questions as other archaeological evidence indicates the likelihood of a thriving settlement during the Bronze Age (pre-dating (see above)) and Roman (post-dating (see below)) periods, further to the centre of the current settlement, with only a small amount of evidence indicating an Iron Age settlement underlying the current village. Therefore, questions could be raised about the exact location of the Iron Age settlement at this time and if the earthwork enclosure located at Upper Green, at the northern end of the modern village (see Appendix 1), does not date to this period, why there is a loss in continuity of settlement occupation between the Bronze Age and Roman periods.

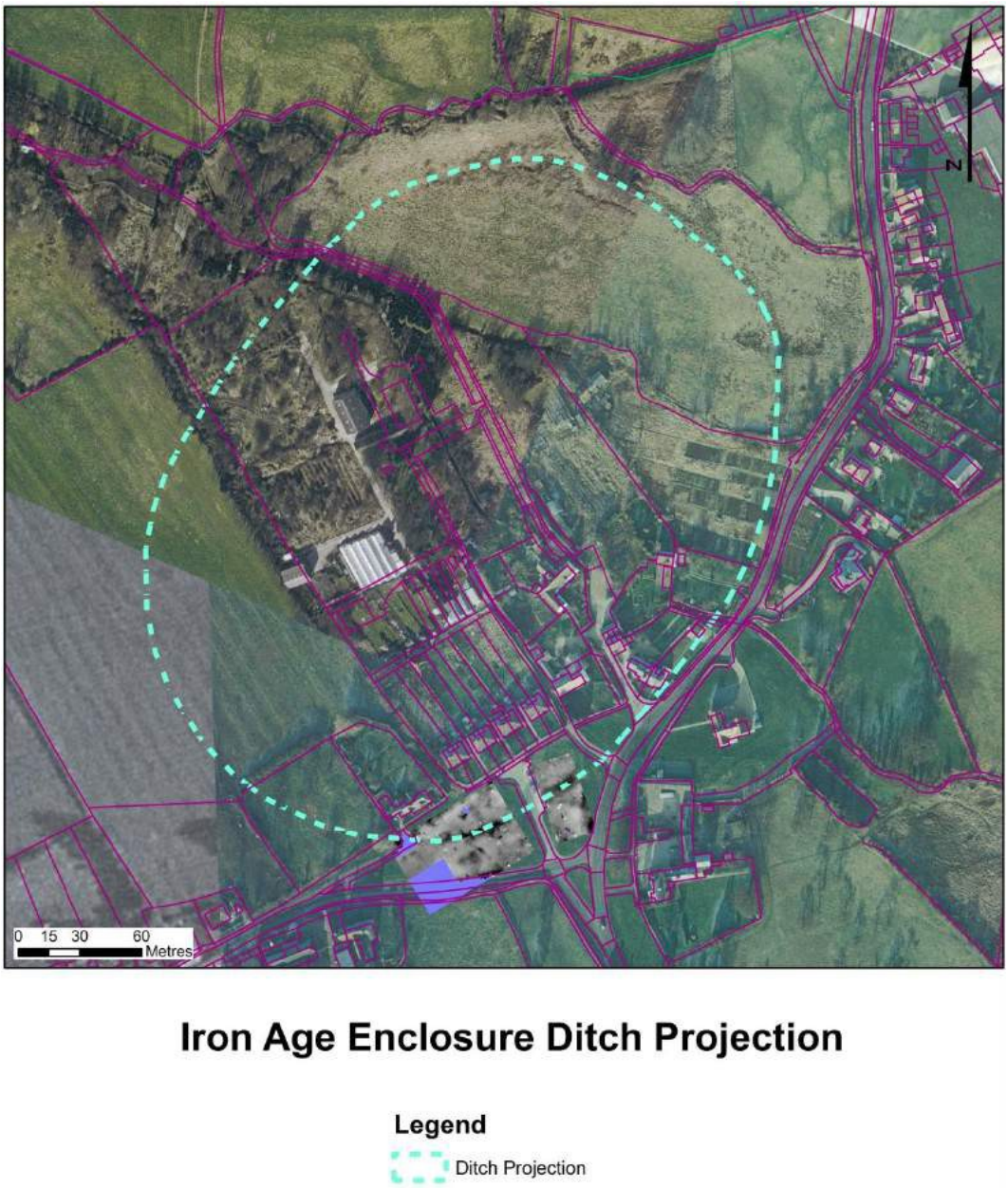

Figure 10. Map indicating the location of possible Iron Age earthwork as identified through aerial photography and a geophysical survey at Upper Green (D Ashby, 2012, 72; Environment Agency, 1992).

From the literature the evidence for prehistoric Stanford denotes hunter gatherers roaming the area during the Mesolithic period with possible settlement activity during the Neolithic and Bronze Age periods close to the centre of the current settlement and Frogmore Brook. The literature also demonstrates the location of the Iron Age settlement to the north of the current village (Upper Green); however, this is only indicated through a geophysical survey and aerial photography, so is not yet fully confirmed. This raises continuity questions for this period of the settlement's past.

Roman

A larger quantity of finds material has been found from the Roman period both through excavations and find spots. This includes pottery, coinage and a spindle whorl (English Heritage, 2007b) from across the settlement. In addition, excavations within the village have revealed: ditches, pits and gullies at Firtree Nurseries (English Heritage, 2007c); and ditches at both 27 High Street and land to the rear of Wentworth Supermarket (now the Co-op) (Bateman, 1995; Oxfordshire County Council, 2012a,12). Furthermore, three sherds of pottery were found within the grounds of the Manor House (English Heritage, 2007a). Also, during work on the construction of a new rising main in 2009, two cremation burials were found to the rear of Penstones Court, on the southern edge of the current settlement (Cotswold Archaeology, 2009, 5).

The literature indicates that up until 2013 it was thought that the Roman settlement of Stanford was extremely small (possibly a single farmstead) as shown by the evidence stated above (Ashby, 2015). Prior to this date it was thought that the main Roman settlement of Stanford was located much further north at the site of Bowling Green Farm (Ashby, 2015). However, archaeological excavations carried out in 2013, adjacent to the Manor House disproved this theory. During this excavation period, within Trench 15, the corner of a substantial Roman boundary ditch was identified (Ashby, 2014, 82). A continuation of this boundary ditch was also identified on the Penstones Court geophysical survey to the south of the village (Ashby, 2013b, 70). Contrary to previous thinking, this evidence indicates that the Roman settlement of Stanford in the Vale was much larger and more substantial than hitherto thought. Furthermore, evidence from test pitting suggests the possibility of extensive Roman structures; with a large quantity of Roman CBM being found, as well as large amounts of Roman pottery identified across the village, from both the areas surrounded by the boundary ditch and also outside it (Ashby, 2015). This may indicate the possibility of a fortified settlement surrounded by a *vicus* forming outside the ditched enclosure at this time. Also, as indicated by TP5, there is a high likelihood that the current High Street running through the centre of the settlement also dates from the Roman period (Ashby, 2013b, 71) and consequently indicates a continuity of use of both the settlement and the road from this period onwards. This is of some importance as the location of this road runs directly through the centre of the Roman settlement, as seen from Figure 11. This may then give evidence to a theory given by some scholars that the name of the settlement, Stanford, makes reference to a crossing point of a stony-ford, not over the Ock, as thought by most, but instead over Frogmore Brook (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979, 134; Cuff & Brooks, 2010). This may also indicate that the origins of the

settlement's name may date back to the Roman period, which is much earlier than previously thought. This evidence signifies that the Roman settlement of Stanford was located within the centre to southern area of the current settlement, surrounding the High Street, with a possible Roman cemetery at its eastern edge.

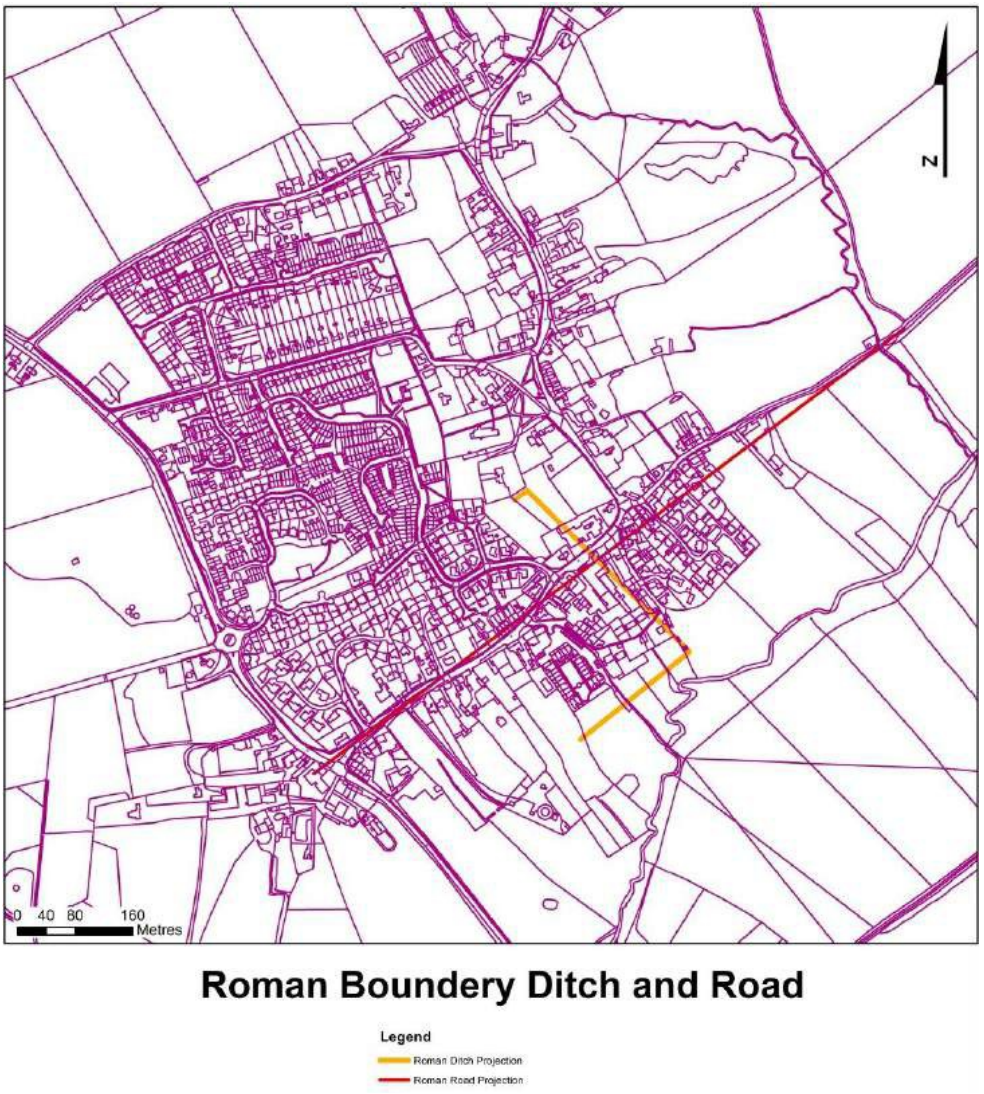

Figure 11. Map indicates the location of the Roman boundary ditch and central Roman Road.

Anglo-Saxon

The literature written prior to 2012 contains very little evidence for a settlement at Stanford during the early to middle Saxon period. The only documentary source for a settlement during this period, prior to this date, is the Domesday Book of 1086. Although this post-dates the Norman Conquest it is a reputable source for understanding the settlement in the preceding Saxon period. It states that the village had: 2 mills; 40 hides of land; land for 20 ploughs; 318 acres of meadow; and pasture costing 32d. The population of the village was: 21 villagers; 22 smallholders and 7 slaves

(Morris, 1979,21); leading to a total population estimate of between 190-200 people within the settlement, which is quite large for a rural village at this time. The Domesday Book is also important as it is one of the earliest sources which makes reference to the settlement being called Stanford (Morris, 1979,21), part of the village's current name. The only other documentary source directly relating to the settlement at this period is a reference to a church being consecrated in 939 AD (Cuff & Brooks, 2010) but this is unsubstantiated by any primary source material. Therefore, the date may be questioned unless archaeological evidence can support it.

Prior to 2012 the literature indicates that little archaeological evidence had been found to support the theory of a settlement during the Saxon period as only one amber bead (Oxfordshire County Council, 2012a); one small truncated pit and two possible field boundaries (Ashby, 2011, 65) had been found archaeologically within the current village settlement. However, the literature post 2012 shows a large quantity of Saxon material found within the current settlement from both the mid and late Saxon periods through excavation, test pitting and geophysical survey. This includes 8th century grass tempered ware pottery, recovered from test pitting and 10th century pottery recovered from both test pitting and trenching across the village (Ashby, 2013a, 116-117). Furthermore, geophysical data from both the Manor House and Church have revealed a substantial ditch surrounding both these structures; with excavation of this ditch dating it to the 10th century (Ashby, 2013b, 72). Also, it should be noted that waterlogged, carved wood remains were retrieved from this ditch indicating the level of preservation of artifactual material able to be recovered from the settlement (Ashby, 2013b, 71). From this data the literature postdating 2012 can be seen to denote a substantial Saxon settlement stretching from Upper Green in the north to the Manor House complex in the south, as seen in Figure 12.

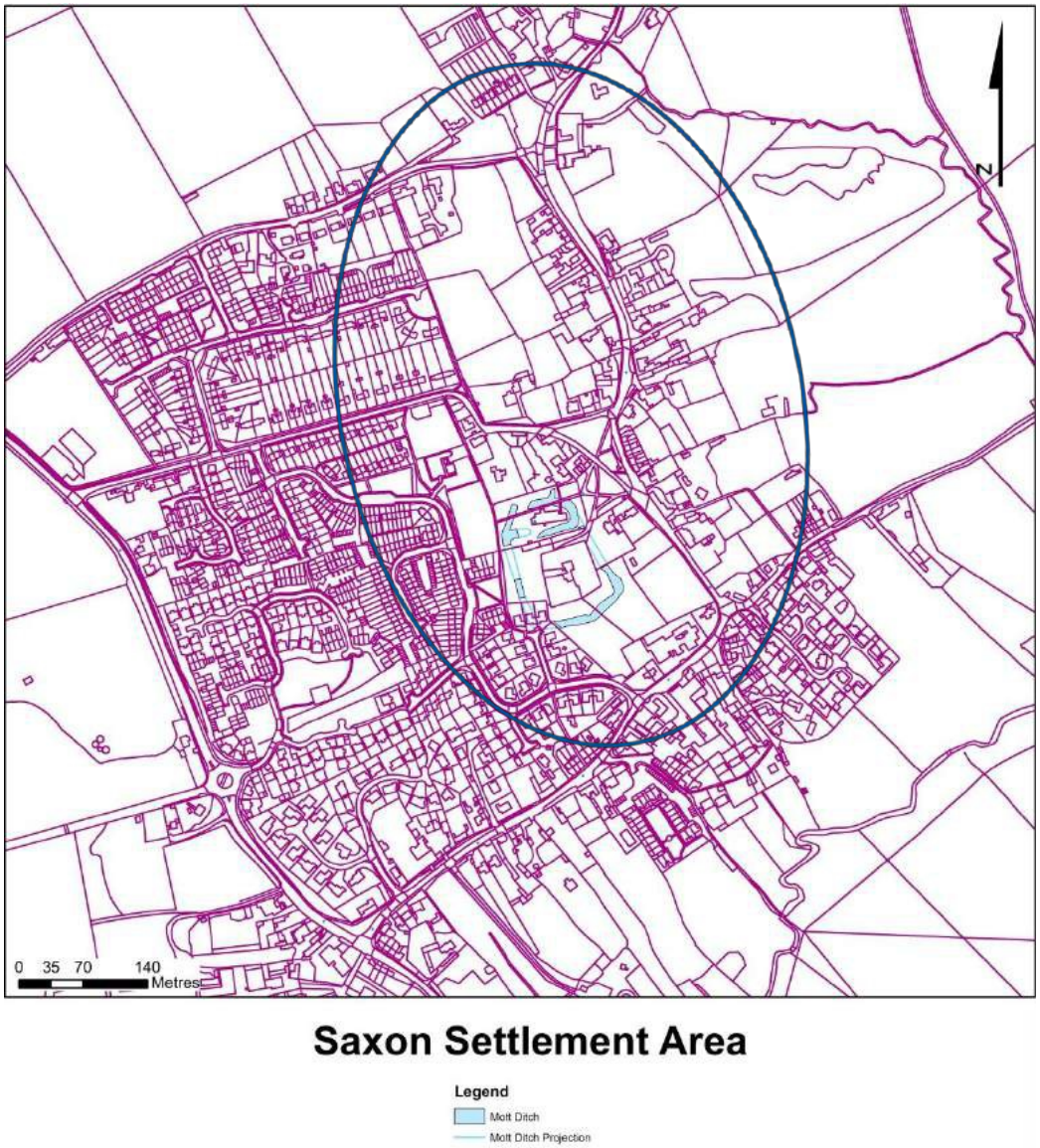

Figure 12. Map demonstrating the current location of the Saxon settlement (blue line) and both the Manor House and Church boundary ditches dating to this period.

Medieval

There are many documentary sources for the medieval settlement of Stanford. One of the most important is a charter granted to the settlement on the 19th April 1230 AD, by Henry III (Ward, 2015, 6). The Charter stated that the settlement was granted a weekly market, held on a Thursday, throughout the year and, a single yearly fair to be held on the eve, day and morrow of St Denys, the 8th to 10th of October (Ward, 2015, 5-6). It should also be noted that the Charter stated that both the weekly market and yearly fair, on the days in which they fall, should not be detrimental to the fairs and markets of the neighbouring settlements (Ward, 2015, 6), thereby possibly indicating reasons for the way the settlment changed over time. Evidence for a continuation of the yearly feast held

within the village can also be seen in Elizabethan tithe documents which state that the feast/fair was to celebrate St Denys, the patron saint to whom the local village church is dedicated (Howes, 1994b). These documents demonstrate that the settlement was considered large and important enough to have a charter granted, as they were unlikely to be granted to small village settlements in the medieval period. It also indicated that the yearly fair continued to occur during the early, post medieval period. However, this evidence also indicated that clauses were put in place to stop the market excessively increasing in size and therefore affecting the economy of surrounding settlements, which may have halted Stanford's economic growth in later years.

Further literature can also be seen to suggest other evidence for a market at Stanford during the medieval period. This literature includes a possible location, with documentary sources stating the market was perhaps on Church Green (Maine, 1866,20) and further evidence stated the location of the Pound (or pinfold), for holding livestock, stocks and Blind House (a small village lock up or prison) were also located on Church Green (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d.,137). Other literature states that these structures are known from other sites in the country to be located in the centre of the settlement or within the area of the market (Little Houghton Parish Council, 2011). The prosperity of the market can be referenced in sources, as during the 1300s a yearly taxation to the Crown (Lay Subsidy) was undertaken at each settlement. The Lay Subsidy for Stanford in 1334 was £7 19s 9 $^{1}/_{4}$ d (Glasscock, 1975,11) (current value of £3,575.84), which converted to the value of either: 399 days wages for a craftsman; or 57 stone of wool; or 21 quarter of wheat; or 21 livestock (cattle); or 11 horses (The National Archives, 2013). As the data for the year 1334 is known for most settlements in the area, including those granted market charters, they can be compared in terms of growth, as well as their possible effect on the development, size and influence on surrounding settlements (towns, villages, and hamlets).

There is also evidence for the settlement being a town during the medieval period, one source states it was a town in the 16th C church warden's accounts, with the people from outside the settlement being *'out-towners'* (Maine, 1866, 19-21). The accounts make reference to some of the settlement's residents being part of "*ye Towne of Stanf[ord]*" and the settlement was also referred to as the "*Towne of Stanford*" during this time (Howse, 1987,11 & 21). The Commissions For Assessment roll document, held at Kew Record Office, also states that Stanford was known as a 'Township' in 1322 (The National Archives, 2011), as do transcriptions by Violet Howse of the 1331-1509 title deeds of the settlement (Howes, 1994b,I), which give reference to set areas of land being to the east or southern side of the "*town of Stanford*" (Howes, 1994b,1, 2 & 7).

Documentary sources show evidence for three standing buildings within the settlement during the medieval period: the parish church of St Denys; Vine Cottage and Manor House, all of which surround or are adjacent to Church Green, which was suggested as the location of the medieval market (Maine, 1866,20).

The first building discussed in the literature is the parish church of St Denys. The current stone built church has been modified with additions since its first medieval stone construction in the 12th C, which was a small, single storey nave of which only two nave doorways still exist (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). The church was further extended and modified in the 13th C, when the lower two thirds of the tower were constructed (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). Further work was undertaken in the 14th C when the church was nearly completely rebuilt (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). The original 12th C nave was demolished and a new nave built in its place with the reinsertion of the two original 12th C doorways into this structure; the new chancel, northern aisle and porch were also added at this time, giving the impressive church structure seen today (Pevsner, 1966,226). However, a small amount of the church dates to the 15th and 16th C (Pevsner, 1966,226). Grant (2002) has argued that the arcade within the church was also constructed during this period but in a style which was previously thought to date to the late 15th C, about 175 years after its actual construction (Grant, 2002,10-11). Though some authors have considered this a later phase of remodeling within this area of the church (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). Yet, Grant (2002, 11) states this would be very unusual as the clerestory windows above the arcade date to the early period (14th C) and this work would have been extremely difficult to undertake with the area above still in situ. This would suggest that Stanford's church set a precedent in the area and may be one of the earliest churches with this style of arcade arches in England. A series of sketch drawings show how the church altered through time (Figure 13). The literature suggests that the settlement had a large and thriving economy during the early 14th C when this work was carried out. Furthermore, the large church structure and early architectural style may indicate that the settlement was larger and more important than those surrounding it. If a comparison is made between Stanford's church and Faringdon's (one of the closest medieval market towns which is still active today), it can be seen that Stanford's church is of a similar or slightly larger size. Also, when comparing Stanford's church to churches in villages in the surrounding landscape, of a comparable date, these are of a much smaller size mainly formed of only a nave and possibly a small tower. Therefore, this makes Stanford's church very large and impressive in comparison.

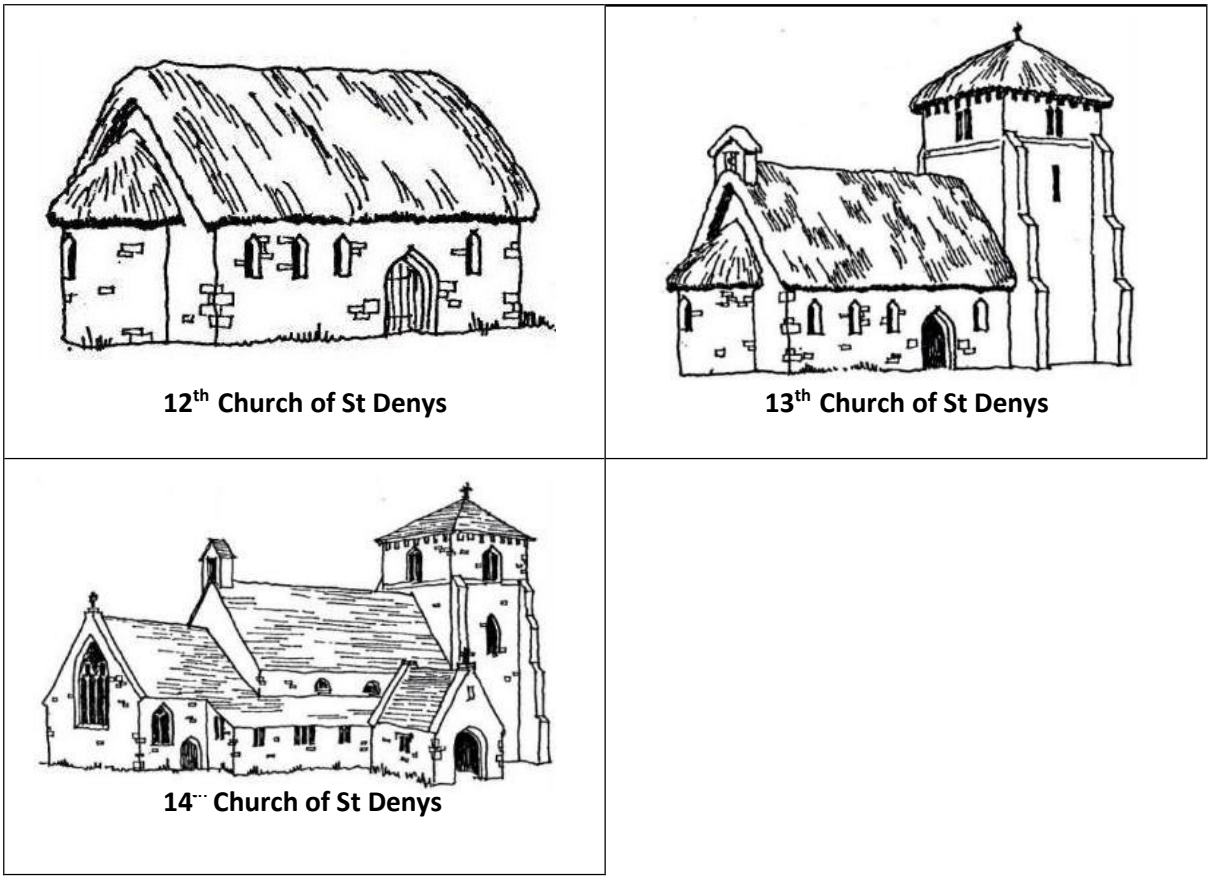

Figure 13. Drawings showing how Stanford in the Vale church changed during its different construction phases as discussed in the literature (Grant, 2002,8-11).

The second of the structures mentioned in the literature which is still extant, is Vine Cottage (Steane & Ayres, 2013, 46), located adjacent to Church Green (location 5. on map on Appendix 1). This structure has been altered since the medieval period but still contains a hall at its heart, dated to the mid to late 1400s (Mumford, Steane, & Ayres, 2002,7) and it is thought that it overlies similar structures, possibly dating back to the Saxon period (Mumford et al., 2002,1). During the medieval period, the house was formed of stone walls and a timber cruck and thatched roof (Steane & Ayres, 2013, 46). The house was split into three distinct areas: at the eastern end a parlour on the ground floor with a 'solar' on the first floor above, connected by stairs; in the centre a large open hall with a central open fire, the smoke from which would dissipate out through the thatched roof; at the west end a cross passage also open to the roof (Steane & Ayres, 2013, 46-49). The house was then added to and altered during the later periods, developing it into a modern house as seen today (Steane & Ayres, 2013, 46-49). However, the house in its medieval form was thought to be of high status, most likely the house of a Yeoman or Priest.

The third building in the village with its origins in the medieval period is Stanford's Manor House, although the present one does not date to this period, but to 1618 (Berkshire Federation of

Women's Institutes, 1979,135). However, documentary evidence indicates the likelihood of a Manor House on this site as far back as the Norman Conquest (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979,135). Evidence for both the owner, the Manor, and its construction and modifications are shown in Table 4 (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). The evidence states that from 1230-1237 William de Ferrers, Earl of Derby, undertook extensive works on the Manor House; in 1232-3 twenty joists for buildings at the Manor and ten oaks to be used for the construction of a new kitchen, both were cut from Savernake Forest and gifted from the King (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). Furthermore, in 1237 a further thirty joists were acquired for the construction of an additional chamber in the Manor House at Stanford (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). The literature also suggests the existence of a large village pond, possibly within the grounds of the Manor House, as in 1231, William de Ferrers received a gift of six bream to stock his ponds at Stanford, also gifted from the King (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485). This shows that during the 1200s Stanford had good connections to the royal household which may have helped the settlement gain its market charter in the 1230s. However, as illustrated in Table 5, there is a large gap in the data from 1086 to 1230. Further proof is needed such as archaeological evidence to provide an indication of how the settlement grew during this period, leading to the grant of a market charter in 1230.

Name	Date	Comments
Siward Barn		King Edward the Confessor.
Henry de Ferrers	1086	Continued in the possession of Henry de Ferrers's descendants, the Earls of Derby, for many generations
William de Ferrers Earl of Derby	1230	1231 the Earl received a gift of six bream to stock his fish-pond at Stanford.
William de Ferrers Earl of Derby	1232	Twenty joists from the forest of Savernake for his buildings at the manor, following year ten oaks to be used in the making of a new kitchen there.
William de Ferrers Earl of Derby	1237	Thirty more joists for an additional chamber in his Manor House at Stanford.
Succeeded by his son and namesake	1247	Grant of free warren in the demesne lands of his Manor of Stanford.
Robert de Ferrers Earl of Derby	1253	
Robert de Ferrers Earl of Derby	1266	Forfeited his earldom and estates.

Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford	1276	
Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford	1290	Surrendered all his possessions, including the manor of Stanford, as a preliminary to his marriage with Joan, the King's daughter.
Son Gilbert, aged four	1295	But Gilbert de Clare's widow Joan held the Manor until her death in 1307.
Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford	1307	The Manor then remained in the King's hands until the coming of age of his nephew Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford.
Dower to the Earl's widow Maud	1314	
Hugh le Despencer the elder	1320	From time to time during his tenure the Manor was raided by disaffected nobles and other persons, who were jealous of the favours he enjoyed from the King.
Henry Earl of Lancaster	1326	King's kinsman.
Anthony Cyteroun and Nicholas de Salvo	1332	
Roger de Leybourne	1337	
Hugh le Despencer	1344	
Sir Guy de Brian	1349	
Edward le Despencer	1359	
Infant son Thomas	1375	Later, prisoner at Bristol and beheaded there on 17 January 1400.
Thomas's widow	1400	

Table 5. Table states the owners, dates, and associated information concerning the Manor at Stanford in the Vale during the medieval period (Victoria County History, 1924,478-485).

Furthermore, the literature refers to a fourth possible substantial standing building dating to this period, not located on Church Green and adjacent to the possible market, but instead close to Lower Green. The building was partially demolished in the early 20th C (Ashby, 2013b, 70). The structure discussed in the literature and possibly dating to this period is Cox's Hall, however the

earliest part of the house which most likely dates to the medieval period was demolished between 1890 and 1910 (western wing), with the current Grade II listed wing of the standing house being of a post medieval date (Ashby, 2013b, 70; British Listed Buildings Online, 2012). The evidence for a substantial, now demolished, possible medieval house on this site, comes from a written description of the house made by Reverend Maine, in his book on the history of Stanford in the Vale written in 1866 (Maine, 1866). His book states that the house encompassed a handsome stone hall which had been somewhat docked of its proportions to build another room (Maine, 1866, 83). This structure does not exist today, however evidence for it can be supported by both historical mapping (Figure 14) and by archaeological geophysical and excavation work undertaken on the site in 2012 (Ashby, forthcoming). This work showed evidence for a stone walled rectangular structure, with deep cellars, leaded windows, a stone tiled roof and later ornate brickwork, all buried below the current gardens (Ashby, forthcoming). Through examination of this archaeological evidence, and in conjunction with the written source by Maine (1866), it is thought this points to the original house on the site being a large medieval stone hall structure, facing the Faringdon to Wantage road (A417) and with the wing of the house seen today, being a later Georgian extension.

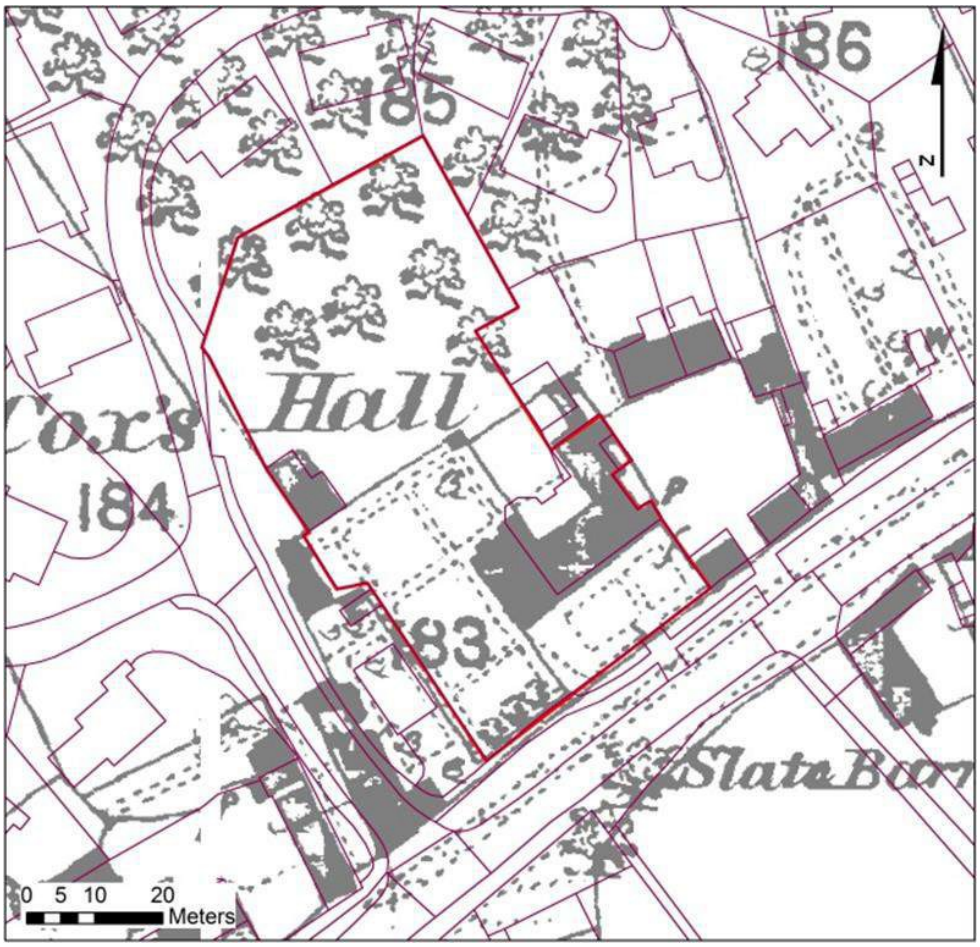

Figure 14. Map from 1890 showing Cox's Hall prior to the demolition of the early western wing between 1890 and 1910 AD (red line current property boundary) (University of Edinburgh, 2011).

Evidence can also be examined from the literature of how the settlement of Stanford, during the medieval and earlier Saxon period, fitted into its surrounding landscape. One of the main sources of evidence is the map of Saxon Hundreds (administrative area) (Figure 15), with Stanford shown within the Ganfield Hundred (Hinson, 2003). The use of these Hundreds and parishes were likely to have extended into the medieval period. This is important as Stanford (Hinson, 2003), is the most central parish within the Hundred granted a market charter during the medieval period, though other settlements within the surrounding parishes were also granted charters, such as Hinton Waldrist and Faringdon (Letters, 2006). However, the central location of the settlement may have been extremely important for trading and other economic activities within the Hundred, as well as the surrounding area. This can further be supported by evidence that the settlement was adjacent to a major droveway in the medieval period, the 'Port Way' (Millor, 1994,23) which was a road connecting two towns (Oxford University Press, 2006). These droveways began to be used in the late Saxon period with the growth of markets (Crawford & Dodd, 2007,5). The location of this droveway may have also contributed to the decline of Stanford, as it connects the market towns of Faringdon and Wantage (now the A417) (Millor, 1994,23), suggesting that trade and goods may have travelled more to these markets than the one at Stanford.

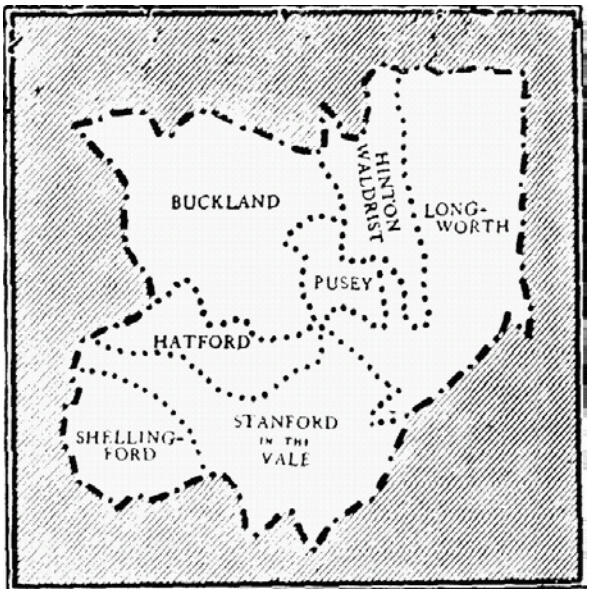

Figure 15. Map showing the relationship of the parishes in the Ganfield Hundred (W. Page & Ditchfield, 1924,452).

Archaeological Evidence (Medieval)

Evidence for medieval Stanford has been shown through archaeological excavations and find spots within the current village settlement. One of the main areas of archaeological evidence from recent research excavations is on land adjacent to Priors Farm, east of the centre of the village

(Ashby, 2011b, 11). These excavations occurred from 2008 to 2011 and have uncovered significant archaeological remains dating to this period (Ashby, 2011a,55). These remains include: a possible water mill; three substantial stone-built structures, probably two storeys in height; a large quantity of pit features; and three possible kilns (Ashby, 2011b, 69), showing that during the medieval period the settlement covered a larger area than previously thought with the settlement extending out to Frogmore Brook at that time (Figure 16). However, this is not the current location of the Brook (as illustrated in the 1810 OS map); the stream bed was previously sited about 100 m further to the west than at present. Other significant features have been found in these excavations, including a raised cobbled surface, excavated in 2009 measuring 25 m across (Ashby, 2011b, 68) and surrounded by a series of substantial post holes (Ashby, 2010b, 28). This is interpreted as being used for the keeping of livestock during periods of extreme wet weather or flooding (Ashby, 2011b, 69). This suggests that the water table may have risen during this time as a result of climatic episodes. Lastly, the artefactual evidence from this excavation shows evidence for phases of activity and inactivity during the medieval period. All excavations on the site have shown that the pottery sequences and majority of datable finds material from sealed stratigraphic contexts were found to date to the 12th -14th C (Ashby, 2010a, 28). Furthermore, most of these finds were associated with the demolition layers of the medieval structures and features (Ashby, 2010a, 28) and no other archaeological remains were found on the site postdating the 14th C (Ashby, 2009b, 32) apart from a dump of metal working waste material from the late 19th to early 20th C (Ashby, 2010a, 9). The land was constantly used for pasture after the 14th C as no evidence of arable ploughing was seen (Ashby, 2010a, 9). This indicates that a large part of the settlement went out of use by the end of the 14th C (Ashby, 2009b, 32) and was never re-inhabited.

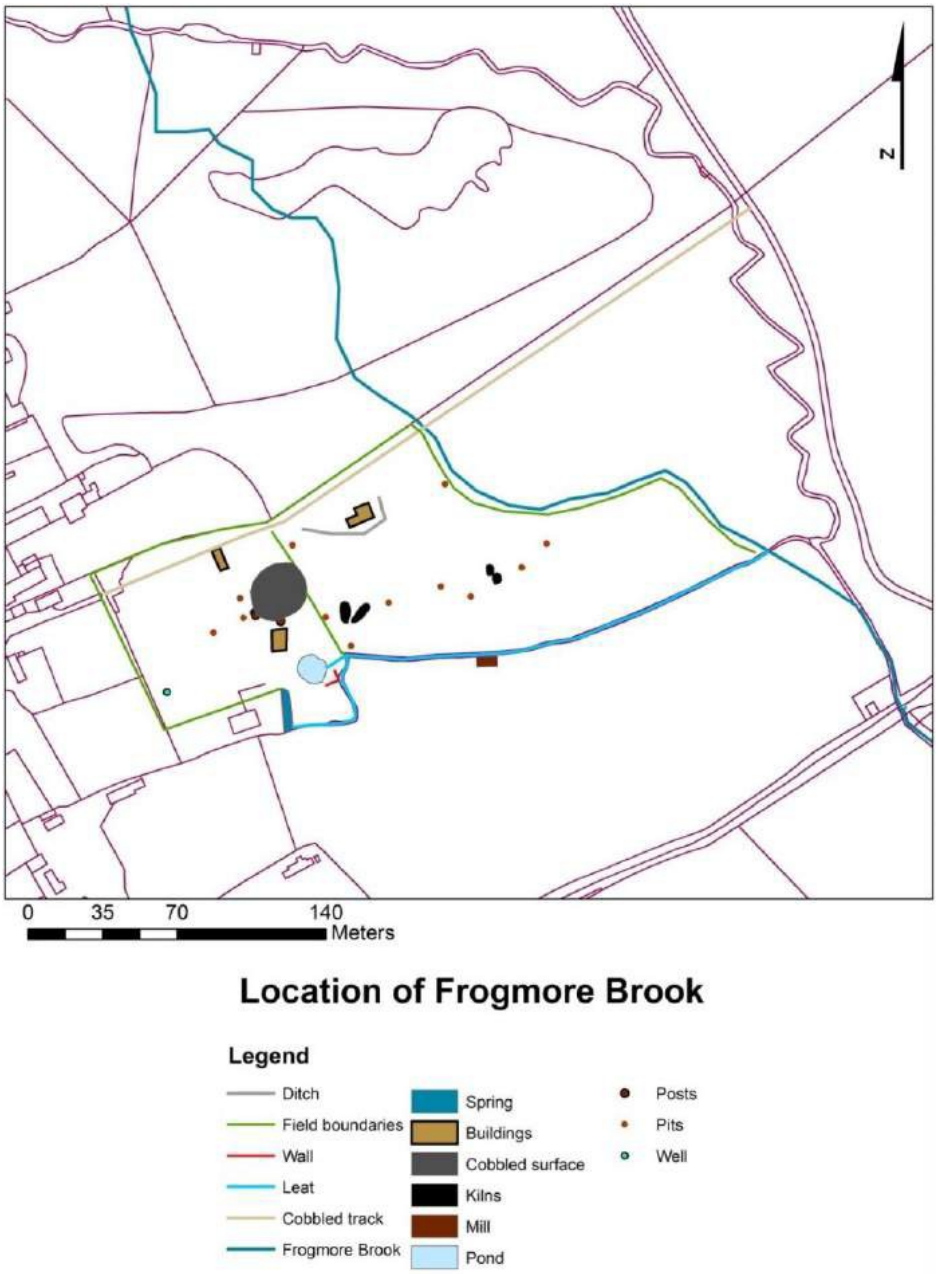

Figure 16. Map showing the location of Frogmore Brook in the medieval period and the location of the medieval features found during excavations at Priors Farm during 2008-2011(Ashby, 2011b, 70, Fig 18).

Prior to 2012, apart from Priors Farm, seven other main sites were also excavated which uncovered medieval archaeological remains (Figure 17). This includes six sites which revealed three pits; three ditches; ridge and furrow and 101 sherds of medieval pottery found within the settlement (Oxfordshire County Council, 2012a,1-15). This work has shown that other archaeological remains exist within the vicinity of the village; however, as these are pre-development archaeological findings, they are scarce and widely scattered across the present settlement. Though, a seventh site was excavated in 1977 by the local archaeology group from Faringdon (Faringdon Archaeological

Study Group, 1977,34). This work was undertaken within an area of fields known as Wick Closes (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977,35), (with Wic meaning "town" in old English (Oxford University Press, 2011)), located to the southern side of the village just beyond the River Ock. During the fieldwork a deposit of stones and a series of shallow earthworks were found, interpreted from pottery evidence as being a farmstead dating to the 12th C (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977,35). This is further supported by documentary evidence with one of the possible tenants of the land being Thomas atte Wyke, who was the freeholder tenant in 1274 AD (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977,35). This evidence suggests that there was a larger amount of activity in this area of the settlement during the medieval period than today.

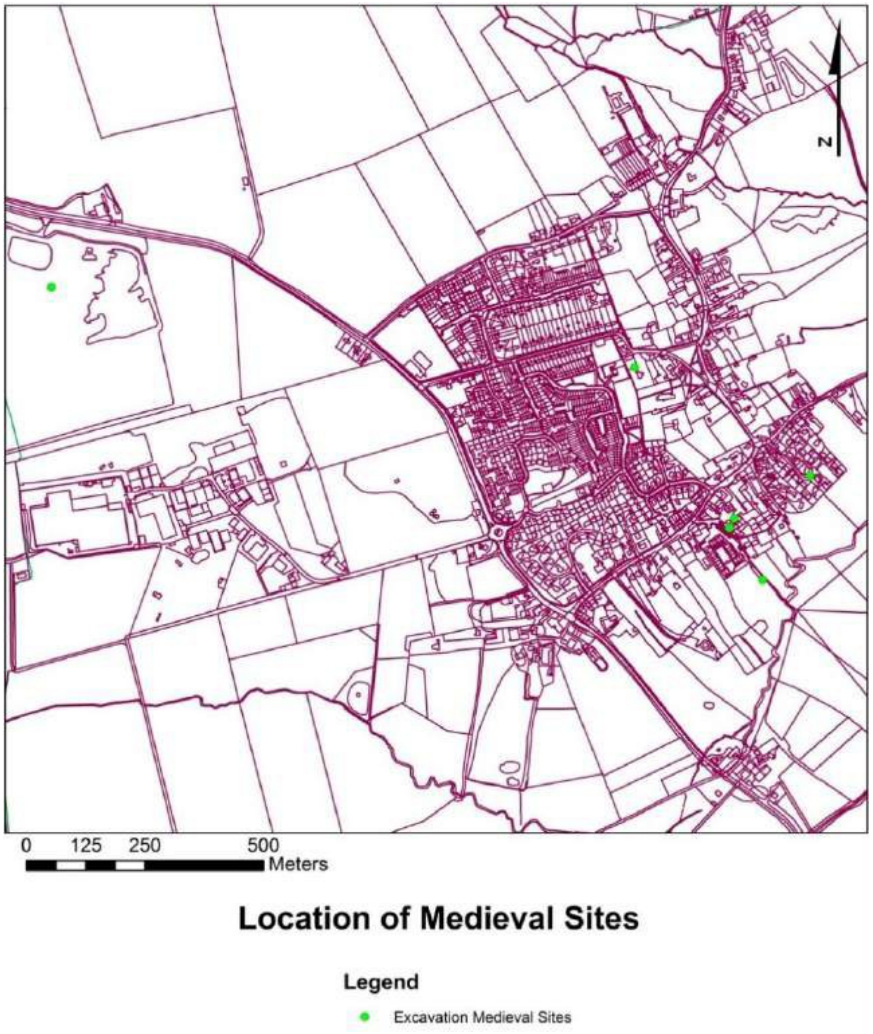

Figure 17. Map showing the location of the six sites excavated by commercial archaeological units that uncovered medieval remains (Oxfordshire County Council, 2012a).

Post 2012 a large amount of medieval archaeological evidence has been uncovered through the excavation of 11 test pits and four trenches, as well as an extensive geophysical survey throughout the village, undertaken by the author of this thesis. Through the use of these techniques a large amount of previously unknown medieval structures have been found including two phases of

medieval structure adjacent to the High Street (TP5) (Ashby, 2012, 4-5). Furthermore, excavations surrounding the Manor House have revealed remains of previous phases of Manor House activity including a number of ancillary buildings which indicate the changing wealth of the Manor (Ashby, 2013a, 92). Lastly, the fieldwork has identified possible deposits related to the shrinkage of the settlement with a "Dark Earth" deposit covering a number of medieval structures within the centre of the current village (Ashby, 2013a, 128). It is hoped that further fieldwork within these areas of the village will show additional evidence for the changes identified from the work undertaken during prior to this thesis.

Lastly, a number of find spots of archaeological material from Stanford can be identified. A map showing the location of these finds from the medieval period is seen in Figure 18, including pottery fragments, bronze sheet and a bone spindle whorl (English Heritage, 2007d). More significantly, adjacent to the centre of the settlement in the grounds of the present Manor House a unique bronze skillet was found, dating to the 14th Century (Dunning, 1962, 98 & 100). This is the only one of its type which has been found in the country to date, possibly showing that high status objects were either made and/or traded in the settlement.

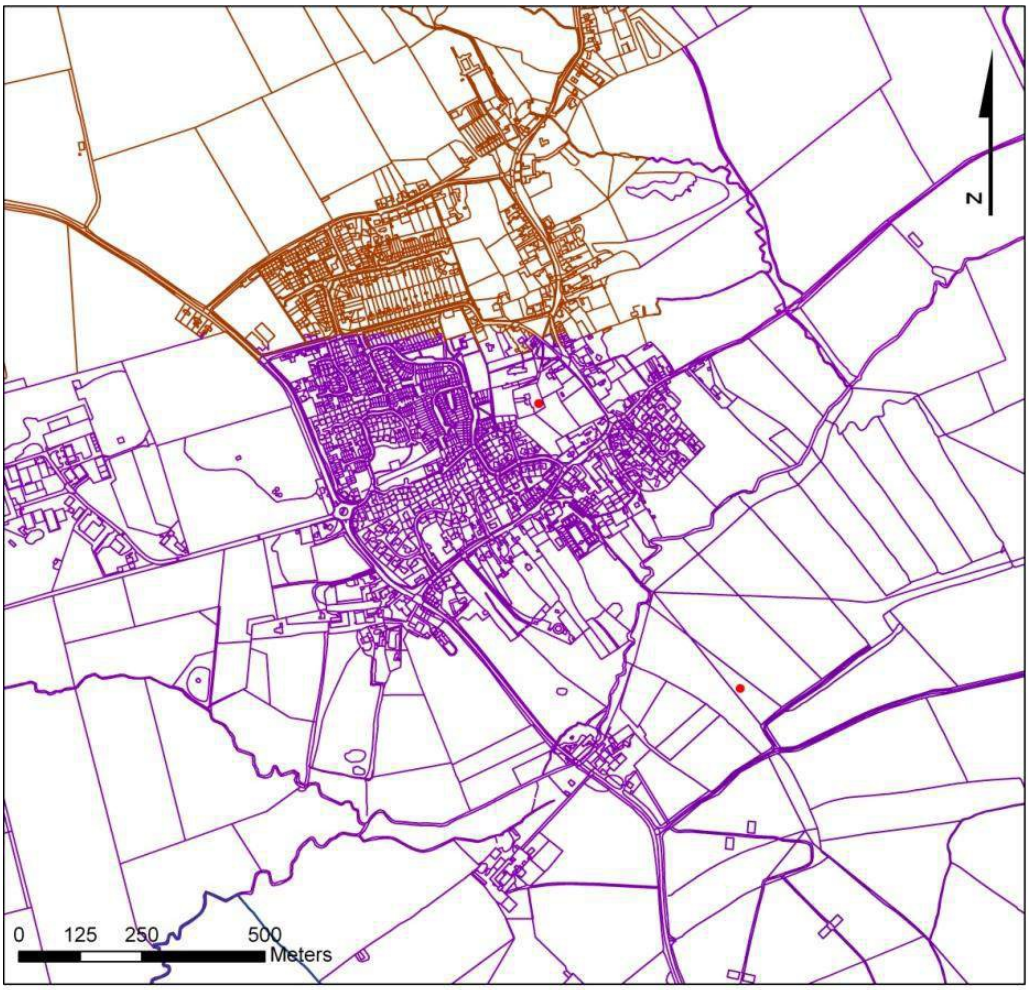

Figure 18. Map showing the distribution of current known medieval find spots in the parish of Stanford. Locations from (English Heritage, 2007d).

Post Medieval

The main documentary sources for the post medieval period are maps which can be used to study the changing settlement. The majority of maps which date from the 1760's onwards shows the settlement in great detail, as seen in Appendix 3. From these it can be seen that the settlement was mainly located along the two main roads which ran through the village. However, the 1811 map (the earliest OS map), indicate that most of the dwellings surround Church Green and the High Street, rather than extending towards Upper Green as seen on later maps. Furthermore, the 1760 map shows that the settlement was mainly contained within the area of land to the north of the River

Ock and to the west of Frogmore Brook. This may be because the settlement developed around these two water courses, as suggested by the settlement's name, Stanford, which derives from "Stony Ford"(Mill, 2003,433-434). This is thought to relate to either the river crossing over the Ock or Frogmore Brook (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d.,137). The historic mapping from 1874 indicates that some of the housing located along Chapel Road and the High Street are contained within strips of land which run perpendicular to the road, as shown in Figure 19. This may be significant as these land divisions could date from the medieval period or earlier. The location of Stanford quarry pit can also be seen on these maps. This is an important location to note, as this later activity would have destroyed any archaeological deposits within this area.

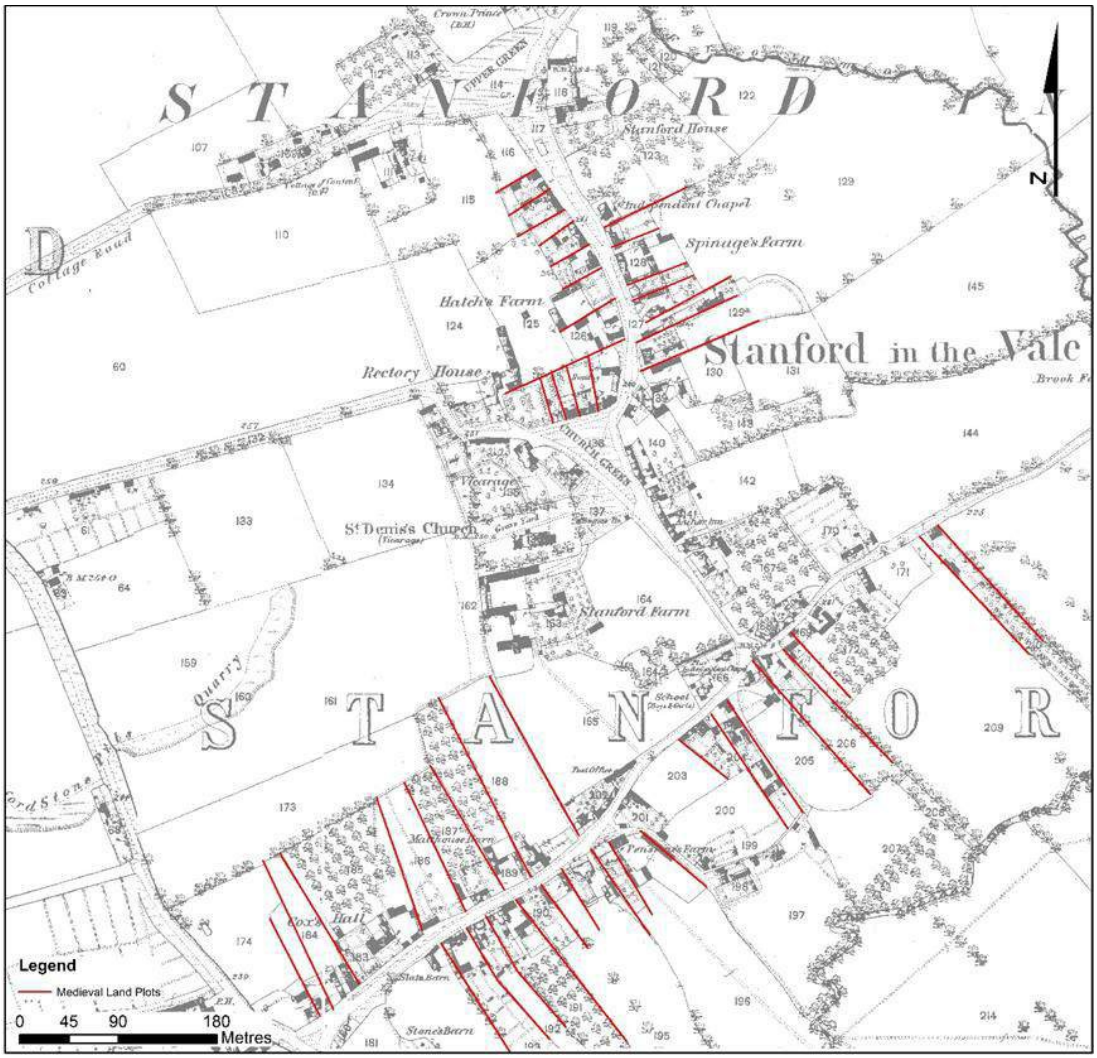

Figure 19. Map showing the possible medieval land plots located within the modern settlement (red lines) area of Stanford, as seen on the 1874 OS map (base map retrieved from (University of Edinburgh, 2011)).

Other maps have also been produced from documentary sources. One example was produced by Violet Howes in the 20th C, from documentary references to land use and tithes in the

village during the Elizabethan period, mapped against the modern OS data (Howes, 1994a, I). The documents, as well as the maps, give details of the ownership, tenants, and types of properties and uses of areas of land, as seen in Table 6. An example of the type of map from which this data was produced is shown in Appendix 3. However, errors have been found within Howes' work and in turn the maps, so it is questionable how accurate these maps are for the land use and size of the settlement during the early post medieval period.

Landowner	**Occupiers**	**Name and description of land and premises**	**State of cultivation**
John Bowles, Esq.	*Elizabeth Penstone*	*Chinham Field*	*Arable*
		The Common	*Pasture*
		The Hill	*Arable*
		Cow Drove	*Pasture*
		Belchers Close	*Pasture*
		Church's Close	*Pasture*
		Cottage and Garden	
		Pearces Close	*Pasture*
		Lower Garrett	*Pasture*
		Upper Garrett	*Pasture*

Table 6. Examples of land ownership, tenancies and land use during post medieval Stanford (Howes, 1994a,99).

A second example of maps produced from other data is the Listed Buildings records being shown against the modern OS map of the village. Most of these properties are located along the High Street and surround Church Green, with a few surrounding Upper Green (Figure 20). Furthermore, most of these properties date from the 17th – 18th C (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012), with a few being earlier in date. This data is significant, as like the historic mapping above, it shows that this is the historic part of the extant settlement mostly postdating the medieval period.

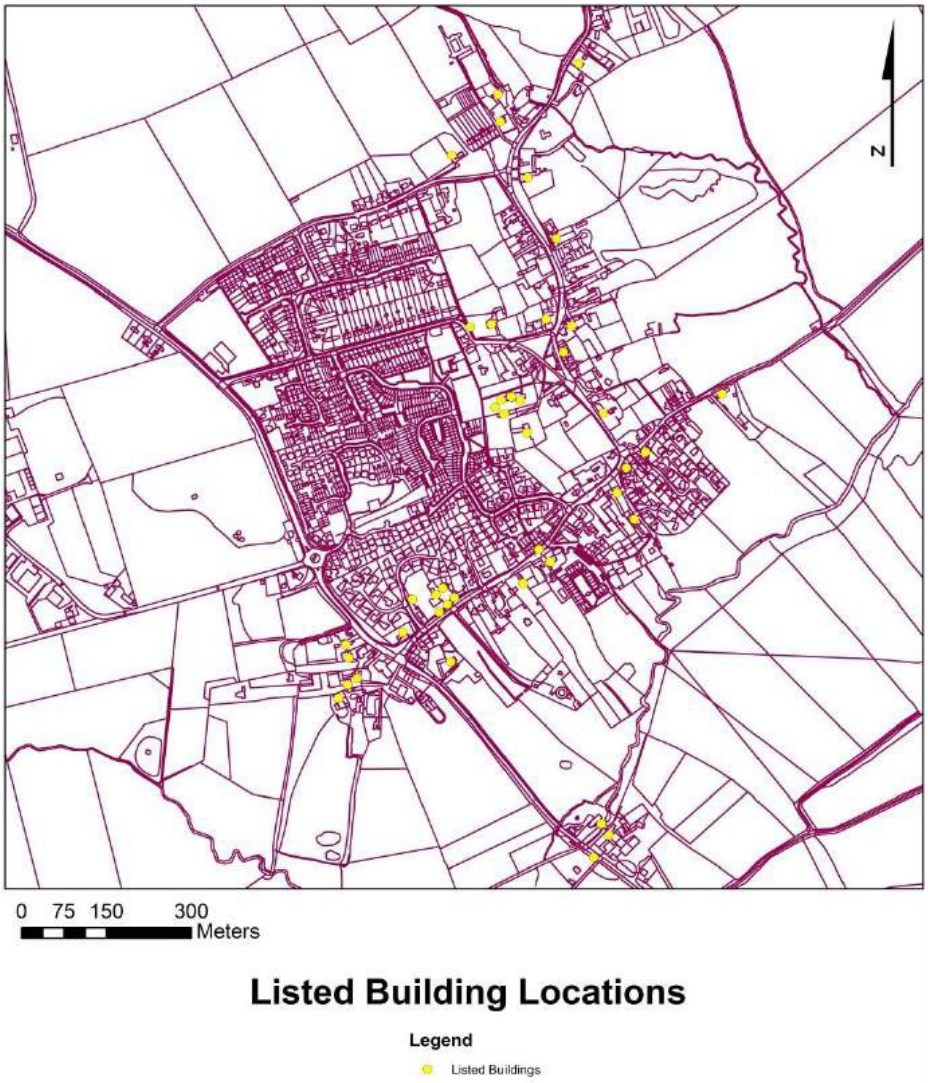

Figure 20. Map showing the location of the listed buildings, from the 18th C and earlier, within the current village settlement (data retrieved from the Listed Buildings Register) (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012).

Charney Bassett

As stated in the Introduction (Chapter 1), the village of Charney Bassett forms the comparison site for the multi-disciplinary methodologies, including archaeological fieldwork, undertaken at Stanford in the Vale. The results gathered from the data collected at Charney Bassett will also be used as a comparison for the archaeological results and interpretation for the findings from Stanford in the Vale, as detailed in Chapter 5. Therefore, like Stanford, it is also important to first examine the literature and documentary sources which are currently available for the modern settlement.

Charney Bassett is situated 3km to the east of Stanford in the Vale, with the two villages connected by a modern bridleway, which until the early 20th C was a track/roadway connecting them. Charney Bassett itself is located on the intersection of four local roads: Longworth Road to the north, Buckland Road to the west, and two further unnamed roads running to the east and south. Furthermore, the River Ock is situated on the village's southern edge with two of the Ock's minor tributaries (streams) running from the village into the river. The name Charney Bassett comes from two origins. The first, Charney which is first mentioned in the Saxon period ('*Ceornei*'), but may have earlier Celtic origins, with it meaning an 'island on a river called *Cern*', a lost Celtic river name. The second part of the village's name, Bassett, comes from the relationship to a past manorial family called Bass(es)' (Mill, 2003, 108). The underlying geology in the village has the same formation as Stanford, Stanford Formation Limestone and superficial alluvial deposits, associated with the River Ock and its tributaries. (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activities at Charney Bassett comes from the prehistoric period; in 1978 a Neolithic polished flint axe was found in the River Ock within the village, indicating the earliest evidence for human activity in the settlement (Stebbings, 1979, 92). Further prehistoric evidence comes from aerial photography of the area which indicates two Bronze Age round barrows and a series of ring ditch enclosures, possibly Iron Age in date, observed on the perimeter of the current village (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012). Furthermore, a large Iron Age enclosure is also known of, located within the parish, and is a scheduled ancient monument. This enclosure, Churbery Camp, is located one mile north of the current village and is formed of a single vallate enclosure, located adjacent to two small tributaries feeding into the River Ock. The enclosure was excavated in 1939 and an extensive geophysical survey was undertaken in 2007 (Bartington Instruments, 2008; Bradford, 1940, 13). These surveys indicate the presence of pits, trackways and possible roundhouses within the enclosure (Bartington Instruments, 2008; Bradford, 1940). Continuing into the Roman period, at present the only archaeological evidence from this date has been identified from aerial photography; on the outskirts of the present settlement a possible 4th C Roman enclosure has been seen, with scatters of pottery from this date also found within this area (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012).

Moving into the early medieval period, little archaeological remains have been found to date. The only evidence for activity at Charney for this period is a Saxon square headed brooch found at Churbery Camp in 1918 and a decorative Viking horn which is thought to have been given to the local Pusey family in the 10th C (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020c). Local legend states

that the horn was used by a local shepherd boy to warn King Canute, when he was camped out at Churbery Camp, of the approaching Danes in AD 995, and subsequently meant the king was able to win the ensuing battle (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020c). However, this account cannot be collaborated by primary source material, and therefor is a local legend. Moving into the medieval period, the earliest documentary evidence for a settlement at Charney Bassett comes from the Doomsday Book of 1086, which states the settlement was held by three main landowners in this period, first the Abbey at Abingdon, second by Warin and thirdly by Wulfwin, who both gained their shares from the Abbey (Morris, 1979, 59c). The Abbey's land at Charney was formed of 2 virgates, 13 cottages with a further 5 ploughs and 4 slaves. Furthermore, Warin held ½ a hide of land and Wulfwin held a further ½ a hide of land as well as 1 plough, 2 cottages, 1 slave and 16 acres of meadow (Morris, 1979, 59c). From these entries it can be indicated that the settlement was small in size during this time, in comparison to the adjacent, and comparable, village of Stanford, even though Charney was split between three landowners at this date. Further records also indicate a small settlement, as the 1334 Lay subsidy gave a value of £2 10s 11 ¼d (Glasscock, 1975). The settlement also comprises a possible market area, although no known market charter was granted to the settlement during this period. The market area is thought to be located in the centre of the village, where the four roads bisect, and a central village green is located. On the green is positioned a stone market cross dating to the 14th C, which is thought to have been erected by Abingdon Abbey on this site(Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012).

Further evidence for the medieval settlement at Charney Bassett can also be seen through two standing medieval buildings in the village. The first, comprises the church of St Peter's, which is thought to be a rare example of a standing Norman church, and is formed of a nave, chancel and side aisle (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 112-113). The church contains prominent fragments of carved Norman masonry, including the outer moulding of the south casing, and a tympanum located inside (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 112-113). Other authors have also surmised that the church is located on a much earlier Saxon foundation, possibly of timber construction dating to this earlier period (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979, 39). The second standing building of this date comprises of a medieval manor house, which was held by the Benedictine Abbey at Abingdon during this period and formed a Grange for the Abbey at this time (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a), with its associated lands in the parish being used for the supply of food for the Abbey (Cox, 2013, 196). It is important to note that the Manor at Charney Bassett is one of the longest continually occupied houses in the country (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a). The current Manor House comprises a central area with two projecting wings, mostly dating to the Tudor and later periods,

however the south wing has a solar and chapel dating to the late 13th C and is thought to form part a hall-house of this period (Pevsner, 1966, 112-113). Archaeological excavations undertaken in 1964 by Derek Bachanan, the warden of the property at this time, indicate that the solar extended further west, with wall foundations of a 13th C date found (Wood, 1976, 45). A copy of Bachanan's site plan showing the walls discovered during his excavations can be seen in Figure 21. However, during the excavations only a small section of this part of the medieval building was discovered and therefore it is unknown how far this wing extends to the west. It should be noted that this property is no longer the formal Manor House for Charney Bassett, but instead now forms a Quaker Meeting House and associated centre.

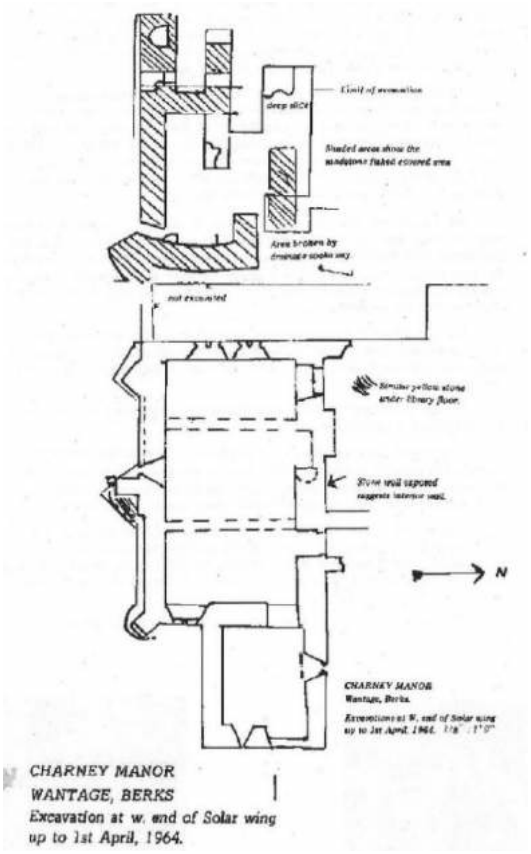

Figure 21. Plan of 13th C walls of Solar found by Bachanan during his excavation at Charney Manor in 1964, in relation to the standing structure (Wood, 1976, 44).

The third and final standing medieval building in the present village is the mill. This water mill, fed from an off shoot of the Ock, was first constructed in the 12th C, with later additions and amendments then added (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012). It should be noted that all three of these historic structures are located close to each other on the southern edge of the current village, whereas no other complete standing structures of this date can be seen elsewhere within the present settlement. The above evidence may indicate the presence of a community within this area of Charney Bassett during the medieval period. However, in comparison Charney

Bassett is likely to have been much smaller in size than Stanford during this period, but Charney was under a much greater control from Abingdon Abbey, which was a major outside influence in the area.

Moving into the post medieval and early modern periods it should be noted that the Abbey at Abingdon was no longer in control of the village, as the Abbey was dissolved and therefore lost its lands during the dissolution of the monasteries in 1538, under Henry VIII (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a). As seen from both historic mapping, with the earliest maps of the village dating to 1761, and listed buildings in Charney Bassett (of which there are 18), the village can be seen to have been historically split into two main areas. The first in the north surrounding the central green, with its market cross, forming Charney Bassett, and the second to the south, surrounding the Manor House and Church, known as Charney Wick. This can be seen in Figure 22, a copy of the 1870s OS map. This may indicate that historically the settlement was seen to be split into two separately areas of the same village (like that seen at Stanford), with the southern area known as the 'Wick'. This may also include the possible previously unidentified presence of a DMV at the southern area of the current village. The historic mapping also indicates that by the 1970s the village as a whole was known as Charney Bassett. It should be noted that in comparison between the 1970s and modern maps, the River Ock was moved further south by about 100m, during this time. Lastly, it is seen from the literature that during both the late post medieval and modern periods that the village has only grown a little in size during this time, with few modern houses being built to date (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020b). This is possibly due to the settlement's rural location and therefore it has sustained its small size as seen in much earlier historical periods.

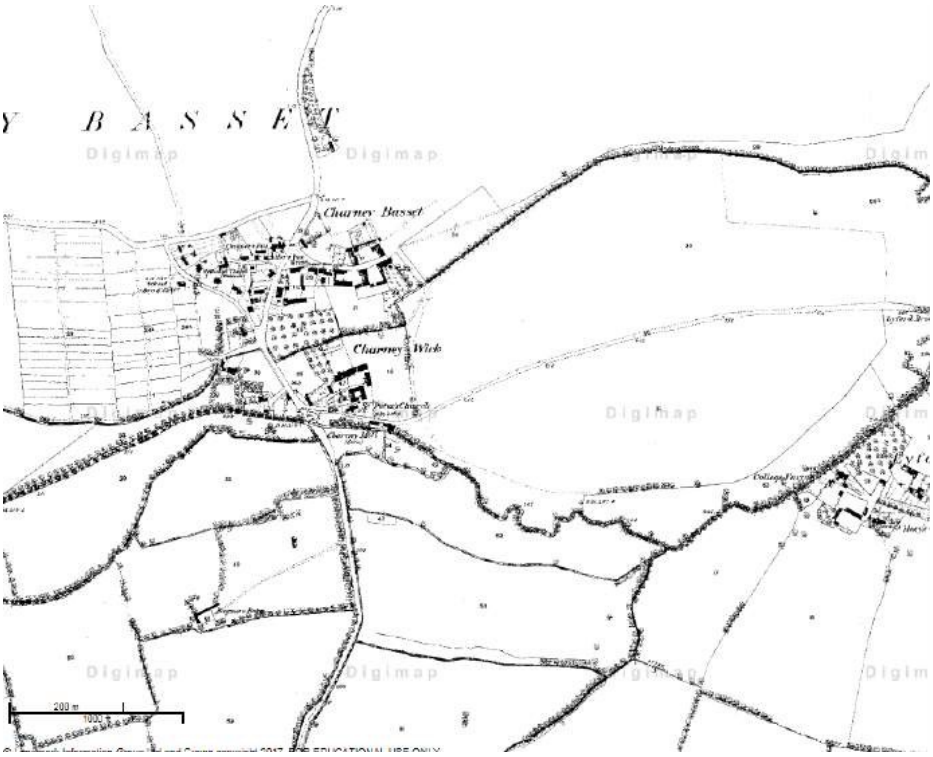

Figure 22. OS map of Charney Bassett from 1870s, showing the location of Charney Wick (University of Edinburgh, 2011).

Literature Review Conclusions

From the literature presented above, including the general literature review, the broader aspects of medieval settlement activities and medieval towns within the archaeological record, and the specific literature examining the settlements of Charney Bassett and Stanford in the Vale, the two main settlements which this PhD research focuses on, a number of conclusions can be made. These conclusions can be split into three main sections which consider the present state of knowledge within the field to be examined. These can also provide areas of proposed future research and position this PhD in relation to a number of these gaps within our understanding of medieval settlement development within the discipline of settlement archaeology.

The first of these areas, which a number of conclusions can be formed from is, what is the present state of knowledge within the field of examining both the broader aspects of medieval settlements as well as the more regional aspects of settlements being examined in Oxfordshire? In relation to the broader aspects of the literature which discuss both settlements in general, as well as specifically the development of medieval settlements, it is shown that the understanding of the developmental process of settlements has changed over time, from that undertaken by geographers examining modern settlements to those undertaken by historians or archaeologists examining

settlements of historical and prehistoric periods. The literature demonstrates that the understanding of settlement typology within defined landscapes has been researched by many authors, as well as the way in which modern settlement such as towns and villages (which are still of the same type today) have formed over time. Furthermore, the collapse of settlements during the medieval period (i.e., DMVs) has also been studied through the use of historical documents and archaeological techniques by many authors, giving a wide literature basis for the analysis and understanding of these types of settlements within the archaeological record. However, as demonstrated by the literature, little work has been undertaken to understand how settlements may have declined from one typology to another during the medieval period, where there is the collapse of a settlement with a market or town into a smaller economic typology such as a village. One of the only examples, as demonstrated by the literature, where this has occurred is that of Oversley in Warwickshire, that of an urban centre or markets town which collapsed in the 13th century and dissolved into the town version of a DMV (Dyer, 2003, 91). Therefore, it may be surmised that few historians and archaeologists have considered that settlements of the medieval and post medieval periods can both contract in size (population and area) as well as their economic status and typology, i.e. from a town into a village during these periods. This is in contrast to areas discussed in the literature review which mainly indicates must totally collapse into areas such as DMVs.

As well as that of the typology of settlements discussed within the literature work undertaken by authors such as Dyer also discuss the types of features which may be seen within both the archaeological and historical record for the classification of sizes of medieval towns, that of medieval towns and those of small economic status. This is important in the understanding of how settlements with markets (including that of economically large villages) may present within the archaeological record. Instead, other authors have discussed areas such as the development of towns (and other urban centres) in relation to the layout, for example planned and unplanned medieval towns, within the English landscape. Furthermore, in relation to medieval towns, authors also discuss how these and other settlement types within the medieval landscape are likely to have been affected by external pressures which influenced their decline during the late medieval period. These include the effects of the Black Death (plague) in AD 1348-50, climate change (Little Ice Age) commencing in AD 1300 and concluding in AD 1900, and the effects of economic changes within the wool trade during the 1300s (P. J. Brown, 2020, 154). However, most of the evidence presented within the literature review which discusses these reduction and collapse is (apart from that where it affects DMV's) is indicated through regional documentary and historical sources, rather that of historical evidence. Furthermore, in some areas such as that of climate change, historians disagree on the effects of the Little Ice Age and its climatic changes (such as flooding and increased rainfall)

impacting on the depopulation of surrounding settlements and areas, even though archaeological evidence suggests this is occurring. Further archaeological research on the effect of these processes within the wider medieval landscape, using archaeological exploration within smaller settlements which are still inhabited to this day, might well be fruitful.

Apart from that evidence for the understanding of settlements themselves, the literature presented above also discuss areas of archaeological theory and method approaches which relates to the understanding of both settlement archaeology and their surrounding landscapes. The main theoretical approach which is discussed and relates to the understanding of settlement archaeology within its surrounding landscape, is that of 'new archaeology'. This area of archaeological theory fits within this PhD research as it forms a basis for the multidisciplinary approach which is utilised within this project. However as seen by the literature many authors discuss how the approach of new archaeology, within a scientific and multidisciplinary gender fits within the understanding of landscape archaeology. Within this related literature the introduction and understanding of landscape archaeological techniques is also discussed. This includes the use of historical archaeological techniques including aerial photography, earthwork survey, and the analysis of aerial photography, as well as more modern techniques such as the use of geophysical survey and LiDAR data. The literature review above also discusses the pros and cons of these techniques to be utilised when analysing landscape archaeology surrounding modern settlements. The literature also demonstrates the value of excavation as an archaeological technique when evaluating settlement archaeology (including a settlement's growth, development and decline), including the use of test pitting and full excavation, as well as commercial archaeological techniques utilised post the introduction of PPG16 as part of the planning process. As demonstrated by the literature the use of multidisciplinary approaches, instead of using one or two approaches, when analysing settlements and their landscape can be demonstrated to harbour a large archaeological importance when analysing settlement typology. This is further supported by work undertaken as part of community archaeological projects, as discussed within the literature, where the combination academic institutions with community projects can increase the value of data recovery, feeding both into the national understanding of settlement archaeology as well as the local and community aspects of the related heritage within which the local people are living.

In contrast, however, it can be demonstrated by the literature, that where community archaeological projects have been undertaken, few have had a wide archaeological impact on the national understanding of settlements development within the UK. Instead, most community archaeology projects are mainly undertaken for the purposes of understanding their local historical and archaeological development of the settlement they live in and its surrounding landscape. As

demonstrated by the literature above, the one exception to this is the Shapwick Project which is of national archaeological importance as it utilised a multidisciplinary approach of both archaeological and modern archaeological techniques to understand the growth and development of Shapwick. The work undertaken at Shapwick can form a basis for the use of multidisciplinary techniques and community archaeology for a methodological approach when investigating rural village settlements. However, as Shapwick's archaeological investigations ceased in 1999, the use of more modern archaeological techniques such as LiDAR, GPR and 3D laser scanning were not undertaken, and therefore is an aspect in which this PhD can develop, growing on the methodological approaches previously undertaken as part of the Shapwick Project.

One further area of national archaeological research into settlement archaeology and their landscapes, discussed in the literature above, is that of the use of typological approaches and the characterisation of settlement types within a medieval landscape. The main aspects the literature discusses is the use of HLC when studying the growth development and changes of the historical landscape. With the use of HLC areas of medieval landscape settlements have been placed within typology is within regional landscape settings. As demonstrated by the literature, historically these typologies have been produced through historical geographical analysis and the use of local history, rather than that of an archaeological approach, meaning that settlements are more likely to have been analysed within a historical agenda than that of an archaeological one. Nevertheless, a few archaeological landscapes have produced typologies using archaeological data including that of work undertaken in Northumberland. However, it is also discussed that some authors concede that the characterisation of landscapes through HLC has been useless in recent years due to a number of projects where the typology of settlements they have produced has later been found to be incorrect. This has mainly been due to the use of the technique within urban landscapes rather than that of rural once, of a type which is to be utilised within this PhD research.

Lastly, the literature discussed above also demonstrates the lack of archaeological work which has been undertaken within certain rural settlements in Oxfordshire. This emphasises the importance of the research being undertaken as part of this PhD. As shown at Stanford in the Vale, previous work undertaken as part of an MRes by the author has indicated the range of evidence which can be found when undertaking research into settlement archaeology within a rural setting, using a multitude of techniques. The literature shows there is strong evidence dating from the Mesolithic, through to the Roman period and beyond into the medieval and post medieval periods within Stanford's archaeological landscape. This includes, from both archaeological and documentary evidence, the possibility of urbanisation and strong economic processes occurring at Stanford during the medieval period that seem to have reduced in the post medieval period,

impacting the settlement's economic value and forming it into the village seen today. Therefore, the aspect of Stanford's growth development and decline is one aspect analysed by this PhD research, as well as examining it within an understanding of a regional and national archaeological research framework. Furthermore, with the use of Charney Bassett as a comparable settlement, where little previous archaeological works have been undertaken within this rural settlement, it can be demonstrated that the use of multidisciplinary techniques to examine a similar local settlement to that of Stanford is also an important aspect to undertake as part of this PhD research.

Taking into account the first area examined above, in relation to the literature, a number of key research areas can be observed where future research can be undertaken, both within a national or local research framework as well as more general thermotical and methodological areas. A number of these aspects will also be examined during this PhD research, demonstrating how this PhD falls within the wider research framework.

Within the national research framework, one of the areas in which further research should be undertaken is that of the growth and decline of rural settlements within the archaeological landscape, where a settlement still exists to this day. This, as discussed above is because most settlements which have been analysed through archaeological assessments are those which have either continued to be of a similar economic typology from the historical periods to the current date (i.e., a village was a village during the medieval period and is a village now) or where a settlement has totally declined from an inhabited settlement into an abandoned settlement such as a DMV. This means that little archaeological work has been undertaken to analyse inhabited settlements which may have changed their economic status during the medieval and post medieval periods for example where this status may have changed from a strong economic one such as a large village or town with a market which then subsequently collapsed and declined into a village as seen today. This is further supported by evidence in the literature where little work has been undertaken to analyse town settlements which have totally collapsed from an urban environment to a town version of a DMV during the medieval period. Therefore, this is one of the aspects which this PhD will examine, as most archaeologists have relied on previous historically held views and definitions of how a settlement may change over time within its historical landscape, from one settlement type to another. As seen in the literature, these historical held views also include reasons why these types of settlements may have collapsed and declined during the medieval period (i.e., medieval settlements with markets), and therefore this PhD will also discuss and examine archaeological data to understand why the external processes that affected these settlements during the period of decline. This is in contrast to previously held historical views in which, such as climate change during the little

Ice Age, have previously been thought not effects the collapse and decline of rural settlements during the medieval period, in contrast to what is seen within the archaeological record.

Taking into account the historical held views of settlement typology discussed above, the literature also discusses areas in which the typology and characterisation of settlements within a regional or national understanding has been undertaken with little consideration of the archaeological setting. Therefore, one aspect this PhD will analyse is the characterisation of village settlements with markets which are located within the modern settlements of Oxfordshire, in order to understand their economic and typological defined characteristics during the medieval period. Furthermore, from this research a typology of these types of settlements will be produced to feed into this national understanding of settlement types within their landscape during the medieval period. As a result, settlements of this type can be better understood within other counties in the UK, without a historical bias defining the understanding of the growth and decline of these settlements but with the typology being based on an archaeological viewpoint through the use of multidisciplinary archaeological techniques.

Moving on to more regional and local areas of research, the literature presented above can be seen to convey a number of aspect where future research should be undertaken. One of the main aspects of this is the archaeological analysis using multidisciplinary approaches, to understand the changing nature of rural settlements within Oxfordshire, including the surrounding landscape. As demonstrated by the literature above the two settlements in which archaeological investigations are to be undertaken and, the data to be analysed are comparable sources, that of the villages of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. The literature shows previous archaeological work undertaken by the author at Stanford in the Vale demonstrates the well preserved and important archaeological deposits located within Stanford, as well as other evidence for historical and prehistoric activities occurring within the landscape surrounding the settlement which are likely to have affected its growth, development and decline over time. This is in contrast to Charney Bassett, where unlike Stanford little previous archaeological work has been undertaken but similarly has a vibrant historical landscape surrounding it. The literature demonstrates that these are two settlements in close proximity and comparable in nature which can be used as part of this research. This will assist in the understanding of both the archaeological deposits which may arise from different typologies of archaeological settlements in rural areas as well as the use of multidisciplinary techniques which may be used within the analysis and investigation of rural settlements within their surrounding landscape.

Furthermore, the literature also presents areas of further research within both thematic and methodological approaches which are undertaken when examining rural and medieval settlement activities using archaeological approaches. One of these aspects is the use of multidisciplinary approaches, both with the use of methodologies from different disciplines but also through the use of both more modern and traditional archaeological approaches. As presented in the above literature, it can be seen that archaeological projects, especially where they have examined rural settlements using community archaeology, have mainly focused on the use of a small number of archaeological methodologies such as test pitting and geophysical surveys. However, where projects, such as Shapwick, have utilised a wider range of methodological approaches undertake between 1989-1999, more modern archaeological techniques were not utilised within these projects. The literature also shows the use of multidisciplinary techniques, with the combination of methodologies from other disciplines such as human geography, has been much reduced over recent years, due to the changing aspects of archaeological theory moving towards a scientific approach. Taking this into account, a further area which this PhD research will investigate when examining rural settlements is the use of a wide array of both traditional and modern archaeological techniques, including test pitting and excavation as well as GPR and 3D laser scanning, yet still within the domain of community-based archaeology. Within the data analyse of this PhD, the use of historically used human geographical theory techniques will also be utilised as part of the methodological human geographical approaches, so that geographical landscape data can be better analysed and interpreted by using these older theoretical techniques, within modern archaeological analysis. The combination of multidisciplinary techniques, including the use of areas outside of standard archaeology, such as human geographical theory, will also be used to produce a new archaeological framework which may then be used in national archaeological landscape when analysing these types of rural medieval settlements.

Furthermore, like that of the Shapwick Project and East Oxford Project, the literature review presents above indicates the importance of community based archaeological projects when examining settlement archaeology, especially where the earlier settlement is still inhabited to this day. As previously shown, the use of community archaeology, through the use of test pitting, geophysical survey, and other archaeological techniques has been shown not just to increase the knowledge of local people heritage but also their understanding and willingness to take part in these types of projects. Therefore, this PhD will build on previous projects, like that of those discussed above, which have utilised community archaeology. It will further examine such issues as the impact of resources available through academia, including equipment and knowledge, and how these can help improve our understanding of the development of these types of settlement within the areas

investigated within Oxfordshire. However, the aspects of this research related to community archaeology may, in due course, be able to be fed into a national framework as the methodological approaches used as part of this PhD may be able to further combine with other, community archaeology projects, such the work undertaken by Cambridge University, to further engage the local community within their local heritage. This includes the dissemination of this information from an academic perspective to the local community, so they are able to understand the importance of the archaeology within the current village settlement.

Taking into account these areas, including how this PhD research falls within the wide literature and the related research framework, a number of aims of this thesis research, as well as related methodological approaches to explore them, are presented in the following chapter of this PhD (Chapter 3).

CHAPTER 3 – AIMS AND METHODOLOGY

From both the introduction (Chapter 1) and literature and documentary survey (Chapter 2) of this thesis, a series of aims have been produced. These aims have been generated from the issues identified from the data presented in these chapters, and therefore form the bases for the research which has been undertaken as part of this PhD thesis.

Aims

1. To apply multi-disciplinary approaches to the examination of rural settlement development within modern Oxfordshire, through the study of Stanford in the Vale, and comparison with Charney Bassett.

2. To further understand the growth and change of rural settlements, from the Mesolithic to modern periods and in turn how these settlements interacted with surrounding towns and villages within the wider landscape.

3. To generate an archaeological understanding of rural settlement development in Oxfordshire, independent of previously held historically defined views and in turn produce a new archaeological framework, through a multi-disciplinary approach.

4. To critique and explore the archaeological techniques utilised when examining rural settlements in Oxfordshire and to conduct a series of small-scale excavations on a comparison site (Charney Bassett) to characterise deposits and outline methodologies for future archaeological research. These methodological considerations may then in turn be used on further possible settlements of this type within Britain.

5. To examine the effectiveness of the use of community groups and individuals, when undertaking the examination of the development of their rural settlement through research undertaken as part of an archaeological academic framework. This will include assessing the value of combining local community knowledge with large scale resources provided by an academic institution. Lastly, it will examine the use of dissemination techniques, of results from archaeological fieldwork, to the community through local engagement, to further enhance the on-going research undertaken.

Methodological Introduction

The data for the thesis was mainly collected through documentary research and on-site fieldwork. Documentary research was utilized, to compile known historical and archaeological information on each of the settlements in turn, but also to build a better picture of both the regional and national economic and historical landscapes in which the settlements are situated. The information obtained from the documentary sources was further utilized to determine the likelihood of the settlement type during historical periods and the quantity of previous archaeological work undertaken within these settlements. Therefore, a desk-based assessment was undertaken for each of the settlements in turn. The fieldwork techniques employed included: geophysics, historic building recording, excavation and test pitting. These works were undertaken to construct a greater picture of development of the settlements over time and provide further evidence for their size, shape, wealth and secondary industries that were not stated within written sources. Similarly, due to the likelihood and nature of the buried archaeological remains within these settlements, obtained from previous archaeological works undertaken (see Chapter 2, Literature Review), it was hoped that geophysical survey work and excavations would uncover further evidence within the modern settlement. However, unlike previous works carried out in these settlements, in this case test pitting was also undertaken in small and poorly accessible areas to gain archaeological data, where other techniques were impossible to undertake within the current village settlement. However, to analyse the data collected, a mixture of archaeological and human geographical theories was utilized to help further understand the changing nature (growth and decline) of these settlements over time.

The techniques utilized for this thesis have previously been undertaken and tested on other archaeological projects to examine both the growth and change of settlements over time, including the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project, of which this PhD research forms part. Comparative projects which have used a selection of these techniques, to examine settlement archaeology include: The Shapwick Project, which used archaeological techniques, such as geophysical survey, building recording and open area excavation to show how a village settlement changed through time (Gerrard & Aston, 2007). As well as documentary research, such as maps, illustrations and written sources, which showed the ways in which both the population, industries and land use changed over time (Gerrard & Aston, 2007). Other projects in more urban environments The East Oxford Project (Harrison & Griffiths, 2012); Access Cambridge Archaeology (Department of Archaeology, 2011); and the Wallingford Burh to Borough Research Project (Christie & Creighton, 2013; University of Leicester, 2012) have utilized test pitting. These projects all

returned significant results using this keyhole technique, indicating how the settlements changed over time. Furthermore, due to the small size of some areas where work took place, it is unlikely these results would have otherwise been collected, apart from through pre-development work. As the settlements, on which fieldwork is to be undertaken for this thesis have both sparsely and densely populated areas, all four fieldwork techniques were needed to create the most accurate and complete picture of the changing settlement pattern.

During the current research undertaken, geophysical and excavation works were only carried out on land surrounding the historic areas of the settlements examined through fieldwork, as identified within documentary research. Test pitting was used in all parts of the modern settlement, including the housing estates, as a much smaller ground area was available in which to undertake the work, and historic building recording were undertaken on specific historical buildings within the current village settlement. Landowners throughout each of the settlements were contacted, so that as many open areas as possible, including fields and gardens, could be surveyed. No archaeological work was carried out without landowner's permission being granted and a signed permission form completed.

Documentary Research

Within thesis, documentary evidence including written material, maps, photographs and images for the thesis were obtained through the sources, seen in Table 7. These sources were used to gather previously collected data on the villages discussed within this thesis, including Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, and which are mainly formed of primary sources data material. The data collected from these sources was also used to calculate the statistics, as discussed in the human geographical theory methodologies.

Source Type	Institution where source was gained	Location of Institution
Aerial Photographs	NMR office	Swindon
LiDAR	Geomatics Group	The Environment Agency, Bath
Historic Mapping	Edina Digimap / Oxfordshire County Record Office / Berkshire County Record Office	Edina (University of Edinburgh) / Oxford / Reading

Previous Excavation Works	HER/ South Midlands Archaeological Journal/ ADS	Oxford County Council/ Edlesborough / York
Previous Archaeological Finds	HER/ Pastscape/ South Midlands Archaeological Journal/ ADS	Oxford County Council/ Swindon/ Edlesborough/ York
Historical Documents	Local History Societies/ National Records Office	Local Villages / Kew
Victoria County History	Institution of Historical Research	London
Local History Information	Village Local History Societies *(where possible)*	Stanford in the Vale / Charney Bassett

Table 7. Table showing the main sources where information was obtained for the documentary research on the medieval settlements, studied within this thesis.

The data collected was inputted into Arc GIS mapping software. The historic mapping, LiDAR and aerial photographs were geo-referenced onto an OS 1:10,000 base map giving an orientation and scale and then overdrawn, where possible archaeological remains were observed. The data from previous archaeological works and find spots were entered into a database and also overlaid within Arc GIS. This allowed the data collected from the documentary evidence to be compared to the data amassed through the geophysical and excavation work, to build up a full picture of the medieval settlements.

Geophysical Survey

Within the settlements studied, geophysical survey work was undertaken in fields, parish land or large private gardens. Two distinct geophysical survey techniques were undertaken, resistivity and Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR). Firstly, resistivity was used as it is more likely to detect buried archaeological remains in an urban environment; because there is a higher chance of structures underlying each of the present villages being of stone construction. Also, resistivity can easily be used within the modern built environment as it is not affected by modern services, structures or vehicles within a settlement area. Secondly, GPR was used as it is more likely to detect multi-phase and deep stratigraphic archaeological remains. GPR was also utilized as it is able to be easily used within the modern built environment; it can penetrate through solid surfaces such as concrete and tarmac and can be used internally within buildings such as churches, to indicate earlier structures. Within the Stanford in the Vale large areas of resistivity survey data have previously been

collected prior to this PhD thesis, by the author (with about 75km being walked). Therefore, geophysical survey through the use of GPR was mainly utilised within Stanford in the Vale, to support the survey data previously collected. This is in contrast to Charney Bassett where no previous geophysical survey work has been undertaken and therefore resistivity surveys were undertaken. The areas surveyed during this thesis, using geophysics for both these village settlements, can be seen in Figures 38 and 68 respectively. Other geophysical survey techniques such as magnetometry were not utilized due to most survey areas being located close to modern installations, such as buildings, metal fences and buried services, which would affect the quality of the data collected. The methodology of these techniques is explained below.

Resistivity Survey

Twenty by twenty metre resistivity grids were laid out using tapes, with the NGRs for the four corners of the survey area recorded using a Smartnet GPS. Grids were surveyed as fully as possible, with dummy readings being inserted where it was not possible to survey a full grid square due to geographical, topographical or other circumstances.

The resistivity survey was carried out using a Geoscan RM 15 with twin electrode configuration (Geoscan Research, 2005, 2). Each grid was surveyed using a series of zigzag traverses spaced at 1m intervals. Mobile probes spaced at 0.5 m gave an effective sub-surface penetration of between 0.5 m and 1 m, with larger features showing at a greater depth. The readings were automatically logged at 1m intervals giving a resolution of 400 readings per 20 m x 20 m square.

Upon completion of the survey, the geophysical data was transferred from a portable computer to a desktop PC for processing and interpretation using a combination of Geoplot 3.0 (Geoscan Research, 2010) and Arc GIS 9.3.1 (ESRI, 2009). The survey was then georeferenced onto an Ordnance Survey (OS) 1:10,000 base map, providing an orientation and scale.

Ground Penetrating Radar

The GPR grid was laid out using tapes, in the usual method, giving two base lines between which the survey was carried out. The NGRs for both the four corners of the area surveyed and the start position for the beginning of each line were recorded using either a Lieca SmartNet GPS or Builder R100M total station, dependent on whether satellite signals could be gained. This area was

then surveyed, using the GPR equipment as fully as possible, with dummy readings being inserted where it was not possible to survey a full line due to geographical, topographical or other circumstances.

The GPR survey was carried out using a pulse EKKO PRO 250 MHz transducer connected to a Digital Video Logger (DVL) to control and record the data from the unit (Sensors & Software Inc., 2010b). The area was surveyed using a series of linear traverses spaced at either 0.5 m or 1.0 m intervals with readings being taken to a depth of 4 m (Sensors & Software Inc., 2005). The readings were automatically logged at 2.5 cm intervals, giving a resolution of 1,200 readings per 30 m linear traverse.

Upon completion of the survey the geophysical data was transferred from the DVL to a desktop PC for processing and plotting using EKKO Mapping software (Sensors & Software Inc., 2005, 51). The results were displayed as a block shaded image using a colour ramp scale. Images were produced both in multiple depth slices, in increments of 10 cm in depth, and also in cross-section form through interesting areas of data (Sensors & Software Inc., 2010a). The multiple depth slices of data were then transferred to Arc GIS 9.3.1 (ESRI, 2009) for geo-referencing onto an Ordnance Survey 1:10,000 base map layer to provide orientation and scaling and to help with interpretation.

Historic Building Recording

Historic building recording was only undertaken within the primary research settlement to examine a selection of current standing buildings within the settlement of Stanford in the Vale. The historic buildings which were surveyed were undertaken where landowner's permission could be gained and where none or little historic building recording had previously been undertaken. Two different types of building recording techniques were undertaken: 1. manual building recording; 2. 3D laser scanning. Each technique's specific methodology is explained below.

Manual Building Recording

Manual building recording was undertaken on a selection of historic buildings within the primary research settlement where none or little previous building recording had previously been undertaken and where landowner's access could be gained. This work was undertaken to better understand these historical structures, including their dating and phasing, and in some cases to recalculate the changing phases of these structures. This technique was undertaken within both the exterior and interior of these structures.

Manual building recording was undertaken through the production of hand drawn plans of the structure's internal floor plan as well as sketch drawings of important external and internal features. A written description of the building's features through both planned notations and other notes were also made. Lastly, photography of internal and external features was produced using a digital SLR camera. This was undertaken in line with Level I building recording as stated under Historic England guidelines (Historic England, 2016m).

On completion of the manual building recording, plans were digitised using AutoCAD 2016 (AUTODESK, 2016) and photographs were transferred to a desktop PC. Through the information collected from the three data sources listed above digital plans were then produced indicating the phasing of the structures in question.

3D Laser Scanning

The collection of 3D laser scan data was only undertaken on the most important of the standing structures within the primary research settlement, such as the parish church, due to the cost of undertaking this technique. This technique was undertaken instead of manual building recording due to the complexity of the structure to be recorded which therefore meant that this was a more accurate and time saving technique to utilise on these types of structures. Where the technique was undertaken a minimum of the exterior of the structure was scanned, with the data also being collected for the interior of the structure where access could be gained.

The 3D Laser scan data was collected using a Lieca ScanStation P30 instrument accurate to 3 mm and taking points at up to 1 million points per second (Leica Geosystems, 2016b, 2). The instrument was used over a series of base stations with back site points being used to locate the instrument over known stations, located using a Leica SmartNet GPS. 360° colour images were also taken using a mixture of the internal camera of the Leica P30 unit and through the use of high-definition photography using an iStar 360° rapid imaging unit. A series of scans and photographs were taken at each base station location to give a full 3-D point cloud and colourised image of the structure in question.

On completion of the survey the data was downloaded onto a desktop PC for processing and interpretation using Leica Cyclone software (Leica Geosystems, 2016a). The data was then transferred to a mixture of true view imaging software and 3-D AutoCAD 2016 software for further interpretation (AUTODESK, 2016). The results were displayed as a mixture of greyscale and colour shaded images.

Excavation and Test Pitting

The excavation fieldwork undertaken was split into two main areas: 1. Excavation; 2. Test pitting. Full excavation was only undertaken within the primary research settlement (Stanford in the Vale) due to its time-consuming nature, with test pitting being undertaken within areas of both the primary and secondary research settlements. For each of these techniques different methodologies were used, explained below, with test pitting being undertaken within both settlements and excavation only being undertaken within the first.

Excavation

Once geophysical work was completed and possible archaeological anomalies identified, where practical and on receiving landowners' further permission, excavation work was undertaken, over significant anomalies indicated on the plots, to confirm their use, type and date. These trenches were excavated at set sizes, dependent on the size of the anomaly and the surrounding terrain.

The methodology used for all excavation work was: some sites had poor accessibility and were inaccessible to mechanical machinery. Therefore, the turf and topsoil were removed from the excavation area by hand, ensuring little damage to the archaeological deposits or features and the surrounding vegetation/turf. For health and safety requirements, each trench and its spoil heap were fully fenced off at all times. Additionally, any trench deeper than 1.5 m was shored, to lessen the chance of collapse, and archaeologists were required to wear suitable PPE.

All archaeological artifacts recovered were related to their contexts from which they originated and bagged as bulk finds, unless deemed to be a 'small find'. Furthermore, where artifacts were discovered, that were covered under the legislation provided by the Treasures Act 1996, they were reported to the appropriate authorities and dealt with in accordance with the Act (HM Government, 1996). Also, in the event that human remains were discovered, appropriate action was taken in accordance with the exhumation licence and English Heritage guidance (English Heritage & The Church of England, 2005). Lastly, where suitable archaeological deposits were found, environmental bulk samples were taken in accordance with English Heritage guidelines (English Heritage, 2011).

For the recording of all archaeological features or remains the single context recording system was used. These features were recorded under the guidelines in the Oxford University

Institute of Archaeology site recording manual (Oxford University Department of Continuing Education, 2002). All archaeological features were also drawn in both plan and section to a scale of 1:20 or 1:10. In addition all archaeological features were recorded using photography in digital SLR camera format. Each photograph included a photographic scale and information board. The photographic archive included a record of all the excavation work carried out. Also, all contexts, small finds and site drawings were located using either a combination of a Leica Total Station and optical level, or Smartnet GPS, providing 3-D coordinates for their location. Prior to excavation commencing, a Temporary Bench Mark (TBM) was established from the nearest known OS Bench Mark (BM).

Once the trench had been fully excavated and recorded it was backfilled and the turf reinstated, so returning the area to its previous state.

Test Pitting

Test Pits (TPs) were dug in gardens where geophysical survey work was impossible due to the size of the survey area. The location of the 46 TPs excavated at Stanford in the Vale are shown in Figure 23 and the nine TPs excavated in Charney Bassett shown in Figure 24. The TPs were supervised by professional archaeologists and excavated by undergraduate students and volunteers.

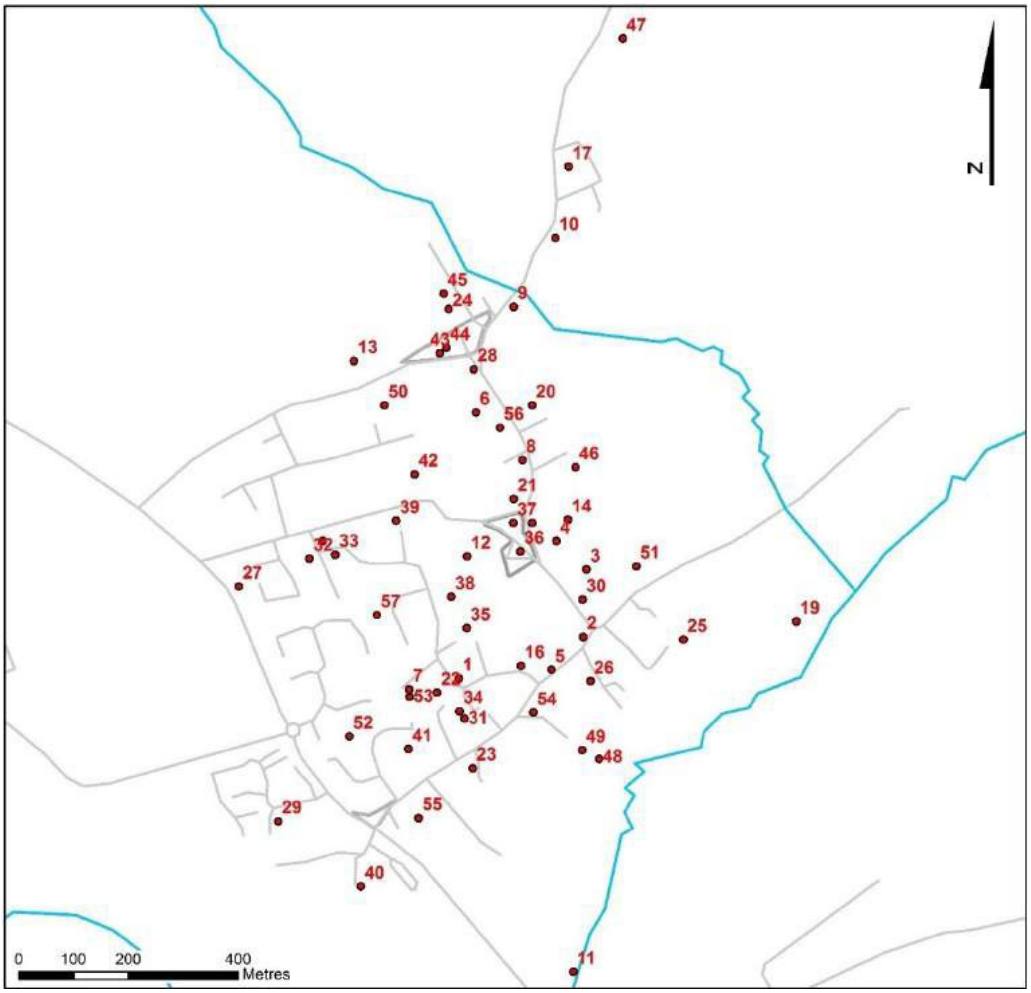

Figure 23. Location for the all 57 Test Pits excavated within the primary research settlement, Stanford in the Vale (including the 11 dug by the Author prior to this PhD research).

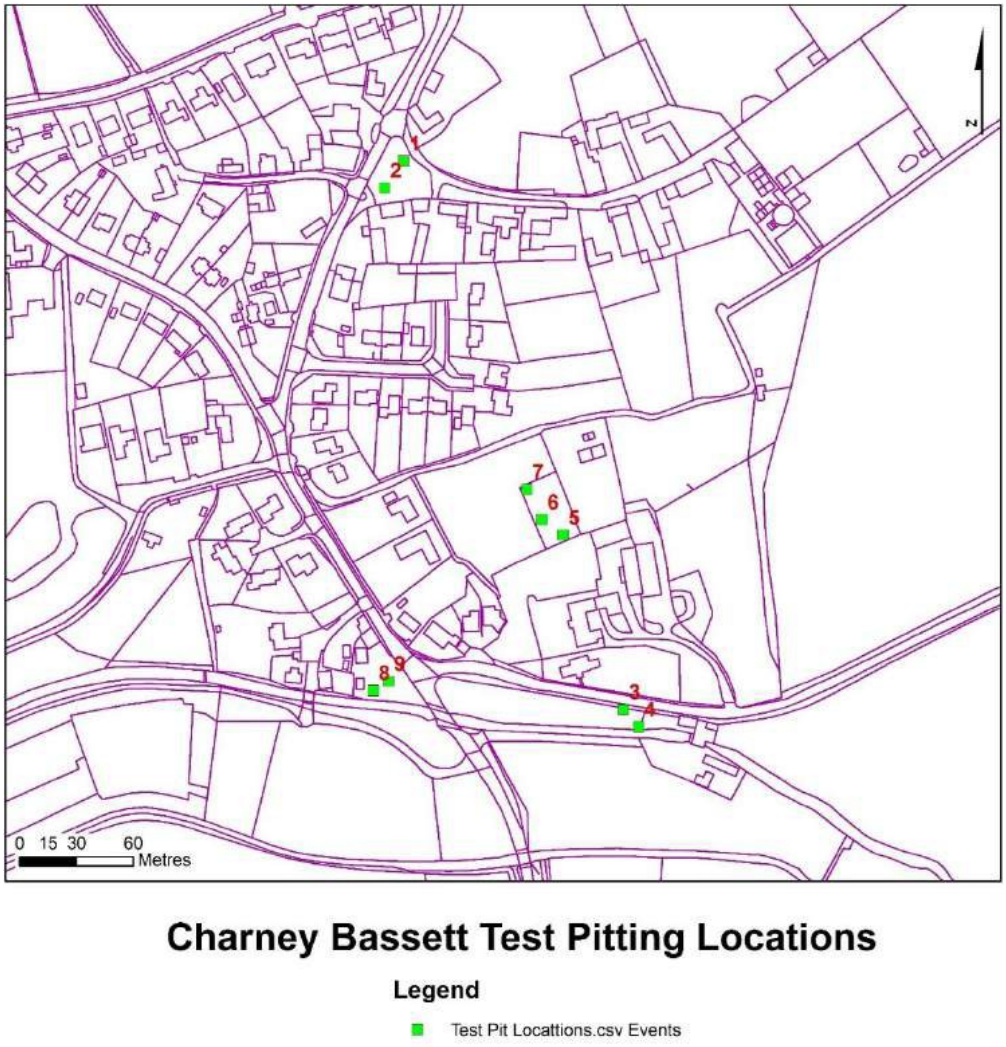

Figure 24. Location of the 9 Test Pits excavated at the comparison research settlement, Charney Bassett.

Each TP was 1 m² and excavated in 0.10 m spits to a maximum depth of either 1 m or to the depth of the natural geology, dependent on which was reached first. Each spit was recorded as a separate context, with the exception of masonry and cut features which were also given separate context numbers. On each context sheet (example Appendix 5) a written description and sketch drawing was produced.

All soil from each spit was sieved using a 1cm mesh and all finds were bagged as bulk finds marked with TP and spit number. Exceptions were artefacts covered under the Treasures Act and human remains. Finds material covered by the Treasures Act 1996, were reported to the appropriate authorities and dealt with in accordance with the Act (HM Government, 1996). This material was recorded within the test pit by: 3-D coordinates; plan drawn at 1:10 scale; and photography, explained below. Where articulated human remains were uncovered, excavation of the test pit

ceased. The remains were then recorded as follows: drawn in plan, either 1:10 or 1:5 scale; photographed, explained below; recorded on a skeleton recording sheet (Appendix 5); and 3-D coordinates taken. The test pit was then backfilled. This allowed for the human remains to be preserved *in situ* but with a paper record of their location and nature included within the site archive. Furthermore, where spits containing suitable material were found, bulk environmental samples were taken and a unique sample number allocated to each separate sample, which was recorded on a sample sheet (Appendix 5).

The location of the TPs was recorded using a handheld GPS to the accuracy of 1m, unless significant remains were identified and then a Leica Builder total station was used to ascertain the NGR.

Substantial features, finds and sections were recorded through photography using a digital SLR camera. Each photograph contained a photographic scale and an information board, and each photograph was recorded on a site photographic record sheet (Appendix 5). Prior to each TP being backfilled, a minimum of one section and one plan was drawn at a scale of 1:10, so that an accurate record of the archaeological stratigraphy was recorded. Each drawing was given a unique number which was recorded on a drawing record sheet (Appendix 5).

Where the natural geology was not reached at 1 m and the archaeology was of sufficient interest, an Edelmann augur was used to drill a single hole in the base of the TP (ARCA, 2009), to determine the depth of the archaeology and its characteristics, which were then recorded on a soil auger sheet (Appendix 5). Once the base of the TP was reached and fully recorded, it was backfilled, and the turf replaced.

Post Excavation

All artifacts were cleaned and labelled using an accession number and stored in optimum conditions until deposited with the Oxfordshire Museum Services (OMS). Any fragile or degradable artifacts or ecofacts had appropriate action taken to prevent further degradation. The site drawings were reproduced digitally in Arc GIS 9.3.1 (ESRI, 2009) or AutoCAD software (AUTODESK, 2016) and the photographic archive downloaded onto a PC. The paper archive was stored appropriately, prior to deposition with the OMS. Further details of how the post excavation occurred are found in: "Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project, Post Excavation" document (Ashby, 2011c).

Interpretation Methodology

Once the data was collected, two main methodological approaches were applied to analysis the data, Arc GIS and human geographical theory. Both techniques were used, as one shows the way in which each settlement has changed over time and the other shows how each settlement interacted with the rural and urban settlements surrounding them, during their historical periods and how these interactions affected, changed and developed the settlements over time.

Arc GIS

Arc GIS was used to process the collected data, as explained above and to study the data-set as a whole and examine it using spatial distribution mapping (Fotheringham & Rogerson, 1994,1). This was undertaken using the data collected from the TPs and previous archaeological works carried out in each village. This was used to map the concentration of different types of finds materials from different periods, identified during the research. The material was mapped using dot density models with a larger size sphere indicating a greater amount of material. The material was mapped by the number of fragments using appropriate divisions. All data was mapped on a 1:10,000 OS base map giving orientation and scale. In certain cases, the data was mapped against geophysical or historical mapping, to relate the finds to other archaeological features identified in the area.

Human Geographical Theory

Two main geographical theories were utilized to analyse the data collected and in turn consider how the surrounding landscape and geography affected the formation of the settlements examine in this thesis and their changes nature over time: Nearest Neighbour analysis and Interaction or gravity models. These theories have been used to examine how each rural settlement interacts with their surrounding landscape and therefore, how this may have affected their growth and development over time. Due to the nature of human geographical theory; mainly utilized within modern developed settlements this is not typically employed within an archaeological context at present, within modern archeological research. Therefore, the theory supporting each of these methodologies to be used, will be discussed in succession.

Nearest Neighbour Analysis

The first of these theories is the Nearest Neighbour analysis. The theory states that the distribution of settlements can be seen over a set area; either nucleated or uniformed (Waugh, 2002, 402). The distance between the locations of these settlements can be measured and calculated, giving an *Rn* value for a set study area. This in turn shows whether the settlements in the set study area have a greater tendency to be clustered or regularly laid out (Waugh, 2002, 402). The theory itself is simple, as its methodology is to measure the smallest distance between a minimum of thirty settlements in a set geographical area and then to calculate the value; but as Waugh (p. 404) states, this theory is seen to have some issues relating to it, as the theory does not take into account the following circumstances:

1. The distance between each settlement is measured as the crow flies, therefore does not take into account if a longer distance is travelled between two settlements due to a landscape issue, for example around a steep escarpment or body of water.

2. Like many theories in human geography this does not take into account the surrounding topography and assumes that the landscape is flat with no vegetation or other natural or man-made obstructions.

3. If a large area, such as the Yorkshire Moors is chosen, due to there being a sparse amount of settlements this will in turn lower the *Rn* value. This also occurs where too small an area is chosen, so increasing the *Rn* value.

4. The theory does not state the type of settlement to be used or to be left out; for example, would hamlets be included in the survey and, if not, when does a farmstead become a hamlet and a hamlet become a village? This is also important when looking at past settlement patterns; should know DMVs be included in this calculation?

5. The centre of the settlement may be hard to determine. For example, if you choose to always use the church as the centre of the settlement, it may be located on the edge of a linear settlement, so giving an inaccurate distance measurement between the settlements. Conversely, where a church is located outside the settlement, or where there is no church, where then is the central location of the settlement?

6. In most cases the outer limit to the survey area is created as an arbitrary location, meaning that the Nearest Neighbour to the outer limit of the survey area may be located beyond, this therefore would be discounted, which may then alter the *Rn* value. (Waugh, 2002, 404).

However, some specialists in geographical theory have examined the Nearest Neighbour theory and proposed mathematical formulas to better express the *Rn* value (2.14914), especially to demonstrate its maximum, and in turn regular, pattern in the landscape (Haworth & Vincent, 1976, 300). An example of this is the work carried out by Haworth and Vincent in 1976, which examined a way of calculating the maximum Nearest Neighbour value using a pattern of hexagons and equilateral triangles within a set area (Haworth & Vincent, 1976, 300), which is seen in Appendix 4, with the mathematical formula that they used to calculate this also shown (Haworth & Vincent, 1976, 300-302).

Within the literature most examples seen for the use of the Nearest Neighbour analysis theory are within either biological or geographical data, but some papers can be found where this statistical analysis has been used with archaeological data and these examine the use of the theory using an archaeological approach. One example where this approach was used to examine archaeological sites was the distribution of Roman towns in south and central Britain. Within this work, the Nearest Neighbour theory was used in conjunction with Christaller's Model of Central Places (Hodder & Hassall, 1971, 393). The Nearest Neighbour theory was used to examine the location and spread of the Roman settlements in the area and in turn to produce the *Rn* value (Hodder & Hassall, 1971, 393). The value produced from the data was that of *Rn* = 1.351, which showed that the observed mean distance differed by a greater amount than that of the expected random distribution of the same density (Hodder & Hassall, 1971, 393). In simple terms, this means that the settlements were more randomly distributed than expected.

A second example where the Nearest Neighbour theory was utilised to examine an archaeological landscape, and in turn the distribution of settlements within it, was that of the work carried out by Ian Hodder who examined the distribution of hill forts in the Wiltshire area (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 44). The area chosen for study was determined by the distance of the nearest forts to the coastline being of an equal or lesser distance to their nearest neighbour, so meaning that the uneven shape of the coastline did not affect the resulting *Rn* value (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 44-45). Furthermore, the types of hill forts were split so that a different *Rn* value was produced for different types of forts, as shown in Table 8. From the analysis of this data it is seen that most hill forts were constructed on a random basis, apart from that of multivallate forts above 12 acres in size, which are

shown by the *Rn* value 1.257, so tending towards a regular distribution (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 46). Furthermore, from this work it is shown that a regular or uniformed pattern may exist in an area of settlement distribution, which was previously thought to be a random distribution, as seen by the naked eye.

	A	*n*	*p*	$\bar{r}_e$	$\bar{r}_o$	*Rn*
All hill forts	266	148	0.556	0.672	0.683	1.017
All hill forts ≥ 13 acres	266	49	0.180	1.177	1.140	0.986
All univallate forts	266	97	0.361	0.833	0.751	0.903
Univallate ≥ 12 acres	266	31	0.113	1.488	1.329	0.893
Univallate ≥ 8 acres	266	48	0.177	1.189	1.248	1.050
All multivallate forts	266	51	0.188	1.153	1.341	1.162
Multivallate ≥ 12 acres	266	24	0.086	1.7	2.138	1.257

Table 8. This table states the data used and subsequent Rn value produced using the analysis technique of Nearest Neighbour theory of hill fort sites in Wiltshire (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 46, Table 3.1).

As supported by the literature presented above, Nearest Neighbour theory is used within this study to examine the nature of the formation and separation of the settlements studied within this research. This then gives a better understanding in which of these settlements may have interacted with each other, and historically the way in which they were formed within the landscape. For example, if they are located in a uniformed and regular pattern they may be set out by an estate or Manor, or if they are in more of a clustered pattern, it may indicate that during their formation they took into account topographical features such as steep slopes or water courses.

Within this thesis Nearest Neighbour analysis uses geographical data collected from modern and historical mapping to show the spread and clustering of the settlements surrounding each of the other villages being studied, within modern Oxfordshire (Waugh, 2002,402). A minimum of 30 settlements are needed for this analysis to work successfully. The distance, in kilometers (km), between each settlement and the total area, in km^2, from which the data was collected was identified, with the data imported into the following formula (Waugh, 2002,402):

$$Rn = 2\ d\sqrt{\frac{\overline{n}}{A}}$$

Where:

Rn = the description of the distribution

$\bar{d}$ = the mean distance between the nearest neighbours (km)

n = the number of settlements in the study area

A = the area under study (km^2).

The *Rn* value calculated was then plotted against the chart seen in Figure 25, which indicated how clustered or regular the settlement pattern was. This may show how each settlement formed and changed over time, as a regular (uniform) or random settlement pattern might indicate that the settlements/towns in the area had to be self-supporting or have external influences during poor or changing economic periods for them to survive.

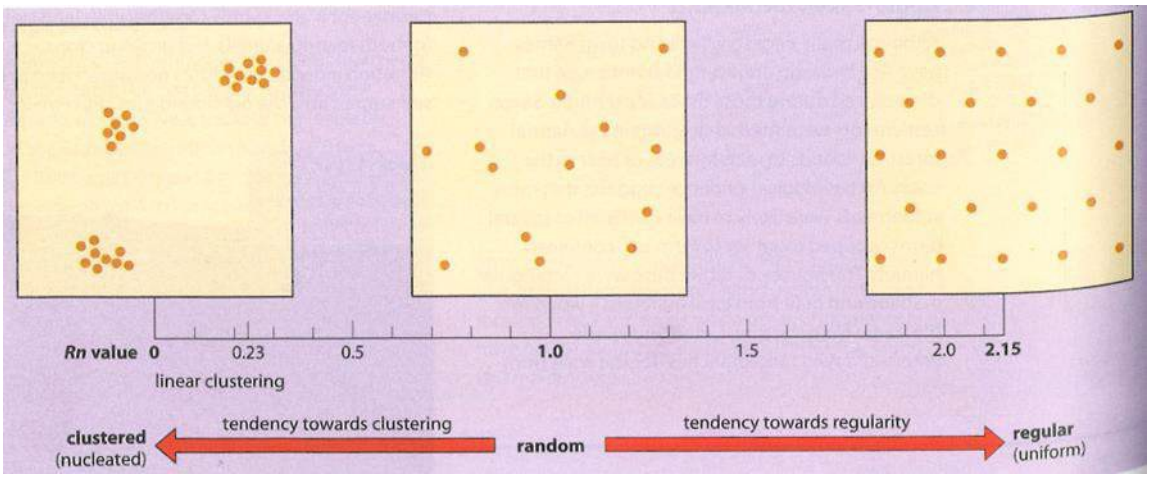

Figure 25. The data calculated (Rn Value) will be plotted against the chart above (Waugh, 2002, 402, Fig. 14.26).

Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity

The second geographical theory utilized is that of Interaction or Gravity Models and in turn, that of Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity. This theory was produced by Reilly in 1931 when he stated: two large settlements or towns close to one another will have a gravitational pull on the population surrounding them (Waugh, 2002, 410). The larger the town, the further a population will travel and the greater the likelihood of a population travelling to it, therefore, the greater influence that this town has over the surrounding population (Waugh, 2002, 410). Another way this can be specified is by looking at Newton's Law which states: *Any two bodies attract one another with a force that is*

proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them (Waugh, 2002, 410). Because of this each market place has a measurable amount of pull compared to those surrounding it, so producing a breakpoint, where a person in one village settlement is more likely to travel to one market than the other (Nagle, 2000, 253). Furthermore, these calculations can be used to determine the rate of migration between the two settlements and also the number of people likely to travel to that settlement from the surrounding area, so in turn showing the settlement's sphere of influence on the surrounding populations (Nagle, 2000, 253).

From Reilly's theory there are two ways in which to calculate the breakpoint between two market settlements. Both calculations use numeric values of the same type and can be compared at each town settlement, i.e. population or taxation value, and also the distance between the two settlements (Waugh, 2002, 410). The first calculation can be used to produce a breakpoint, as explained above, giving the furthest distance that a person will travel to either market (Nagle, 2000, 253). This should demonstrate that the larger the population the further away the breakpoint is from the larger of the two markets, as seen in Figure 26. The second calculation which can be undertaken using this theory, is used to estimate the percentage of trade that two market settlements will gain from a set village located between them, village *k* (Nagle, 2000, 253). This calculation should then show the percentage of trade that will migrate to the larger market from village *k*, compared to that of the smaller market (Nagle, 2000, 253). A demonstration of this can be seen in Figure 27.

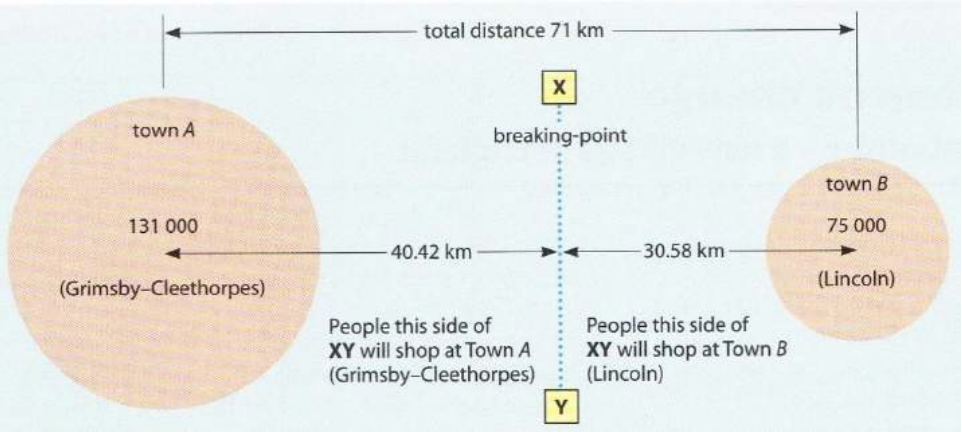

Figure 26. This diagram shows the breakpoint between two markets and the way in which it influences the population surrounding the markets (Waugh, 2002, 411, Fig. 14.40).

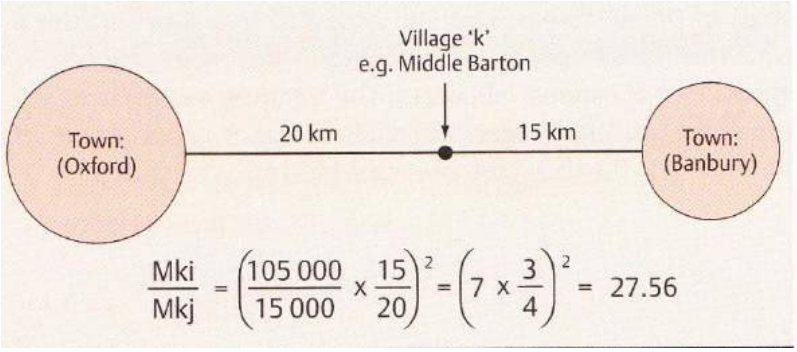

Figure 27. This diagram shows that of the two towns, the percentage of village k's trade, will go to the larger of the two markets, Oxford, in terms of its distance from the larger one (Nagle, 2000, 253, Fig. 12.12).

Like the model discussed, Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity also has limitations and assumptions, though there are fewer of these than in the other two theories used. Some of the limitations to this theory do not occur when studying archaeological or historical sites as they are based on modern factors, such as the amount of parking spaces, cleanliness of the shopping area and issues with traffic congestion in the local area (Waugh, 2002, 411). The two limitations and assumptions, that will affect archaeological data when using this model, and interpretation of the data that it produces, are as follows:

1. The larger the town the stronger the attraction, so more people are likely to travel to it from further afield.

2. People will shop and travel in a logical way; for example, they will travel to the market centre which is closest to them in both time and distance. (Waugh, 2002, 411)

Like the other geographical theory, the literature discusses ways in which Reilly's original theory, and in turn calculation, has been amended. Though, unlike the other theory, these amendments cannot be utilized, to further help with the understanding of the movement of populations, to markets in the medieval period. Reilly's theory was written (1931) to look at the movement and influences of towns on their surrounding population and village settlements in rural environments (Waugh, 2002, 411), as found in medieval England. The changes that have been proposed by geographers are intended so that the theory can be utilized in contemporary, closely packed, dense, urban settlements (Waugh, 2002, 411). These amendments are used to look at other modern variations which may attract shoppers, such as the floor space of shops or number of shops

within a town (Waugh, 2002, 411). These factors though are unlikely to have influenced the medieval population in the area surrounding their market settlements.

Within the archaeological literature, examples can be found which have utilized Reilly's theory to examine archaeological sites within their landscape. One example is the work of Hodder, who studied the Roman market settlement of Chichester and its influence on the surrounding markets, through the distribution of pottery types produced from its kilns during this period (Hodder, 1974, 343). This study demonstrates, as seen in Figure 28, that the movement of goods from the kiln sites, and in turn market, was greater than previously thought, and was likely to have been due to the movement of goods along major roads in the area (Hodder, 1974, 346). Hodder has further used Reilly's theory to examine the relationship between the kiln sites of Oxford and the New Forest (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 192). From his work, it was calculated that the breakpoint between the two sites is that of 61.2 km from Oxford (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 192). This was proven to be correct through archaeological finds materials recovered 62.8 km from the site of the Oxford kilns, which is a 1.6 km difference between the calculated breakpoint and actual distance (Hodder & Orton, 1976, 192-193). Hodder and Orton's work validates that Reilly's theory has been proven to work within an archaeological context and that the data which is calculated is likely to be correct within a small percentile.

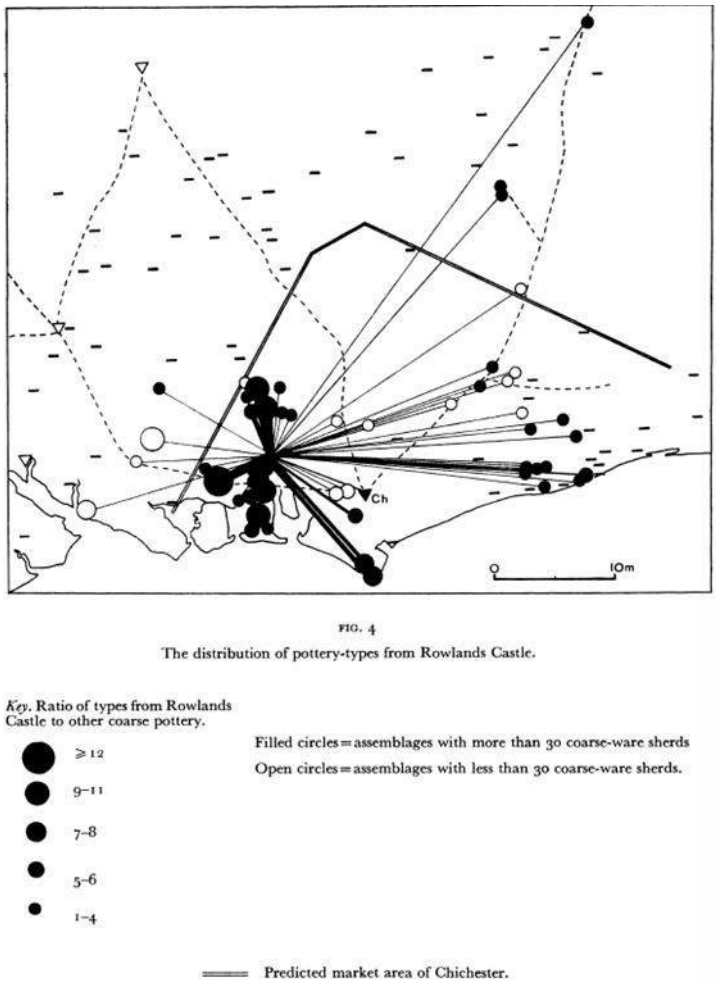

Figure 28. This map shows the distribution and influence of the market town of Chichester on the surrounding towns in the area during the Romano British periods, through the use of Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity (Hodder, 1974, 345, Fig. 4).

As supported by the literature presented above, Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity is used within this study to show whether the population of the surrounding rural areas are more likely to interact with Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett than the surrounding other major towns and settlements with markets. The distance, in kilometers, between each settlement was calculated through historical and modern mapping. The gravity or influence of a settlement on the surrounding area was mapped through the use of the 1334 Lay Subsidy (Glasscock, 1975; Waugh, 2002,410). Data was collected for each of the two villages examined in this study, which included all the existing major settlements within the vicinity of each study area. The data collected was then imported into the following formula, showing the *break point* (Waugh, 2002,410):

$$Db = \frac{Dab}{1 + \sqrt{\frac{Pa}{Pb}}}$$

Where:

Db = the break-point between towns A and B
Dab = the distance between towns A and B
Pa = the population or influence, as a number, of town A (largest town)
Pb = the population or influence, as a number, of town B (smallest town).

The Db value shows the distance people in rural areas surrounding each settlement were likely to travel to, indicating the town they would probably gravitate to for a market and to trade goods. This may then indicate the reasons for the growth and decline of each settlement, dependent on the economic influences which surround it, in terms of other trading settlements and the quantity of smaller village settlements which traded with them within the area of influence.

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS

Within this chapter each set of results for both the primary research settlement (Stanford in the Vale) and, where applicable, the comparison research settlement (Charney Bassett) will be discussed in turn as per the methodological approach undertaken: historic building recording, geophysics, excavation and test pitting. The section will discuss the features identified and in turn interpret them by both date and type, indicating the way these settlements changed over time. A detailed map showing the location of these sites can be seen in Appendix 1, for Stanford in the Vale, and Appendix 2 for Charney Basset.

Stanford in the Vale

Historic Building Recording

COX'S HALL

During the period of this thesis, manual building recording was undertaken on the house of Cox's Hall, High Street (see location at 16. in Appendix 1 map), recording both its interior and exterior features. Cox's Hall is a Grade II* listed building (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012), with a photograph of the current façade seen in Figure 28. From this work, and with information taken from historic written sources describing the house, it has been possible to re-date the phases of construction of the historic property in question and push back the earliest phase of construction by more than 300 years. Pictorial drawings of each of these phases can be seen in Figure 30.

The earliest phase of the Hall's construction was formed of Phase 1, a large stone hall, possibly of two storeys, including cellars, facing Faringdon Road and therefore on a 90° orientation to the present house. Archaeological evidence for this can be seen below (see Cox's Hall GPR data), however, a written description for this early structure exists, written by Rev Maine, L.G in 1866, stating '*Built like a French chateau, the bedrooms open off of a long galley. There is a handsome stone hall, docked of its proportions to build another room. There is some handsome panelled sitting rooms'* (Maine, 1866, 83). This is the only description of this part of the Hall at present and due to it stating it is a large stone hall with long gallery, it can be surmised that this phase of construction could be medieval in date.

The second phase of construction, Phase 2, as stated on the rainwater header on the front of the current house was thought to have occurred in 1738. During this phase of construction, the house was extended to the east, with a large two storey extension fronting the High Street and turning the house round to its current orientation. The extension was formed of two upper rooms and two lower rooms split by a central corridor. This extension was built in the Georgian style (see Figure 29).

Figure 29. Photograph of current façade of Cox's Hall, mostly Georgian in date (Phase 2).

The third phase of construction, Phase 3, occurred between 1760 and 1800. During this phase the rear corridor was inserted and therefore the previous rear windows of the Georgian extension blocked up and formed into niches for shelving and cupboards. A small two storey extension was built on the eastern end of the property which, on its ground floor, included a scullery. Lastly, the right-hand room of the two ground floor rooms of the Georgian house was converted into a kitchen with the insertion of a large fireplace. During the fourth phase of construction (Phase 4), between 1800 and 1890, the rear corridor was extended into the original stone hall (constructed in Phase 1) and therefore, subdivided it into rooms.

The final phase of construction, Phase 5, occurred between 1890 and 1910. During this final phase, the old stone hall (Phase 1) was demolished, possible due to a fire, and a new brick western gable-end wall constructed onto the Georgian house. A large extension was also added to the rear of the property which included new bedrooms, drawing room, kitchen and small cellar. The kitchen

constructed at the rear of the property replaced the kitchen in the front of the Georgian house with this room being transformed into a living room. The gardens were also re-landscaped at this time due to the demolition of the western wing of the house (old stone hall).

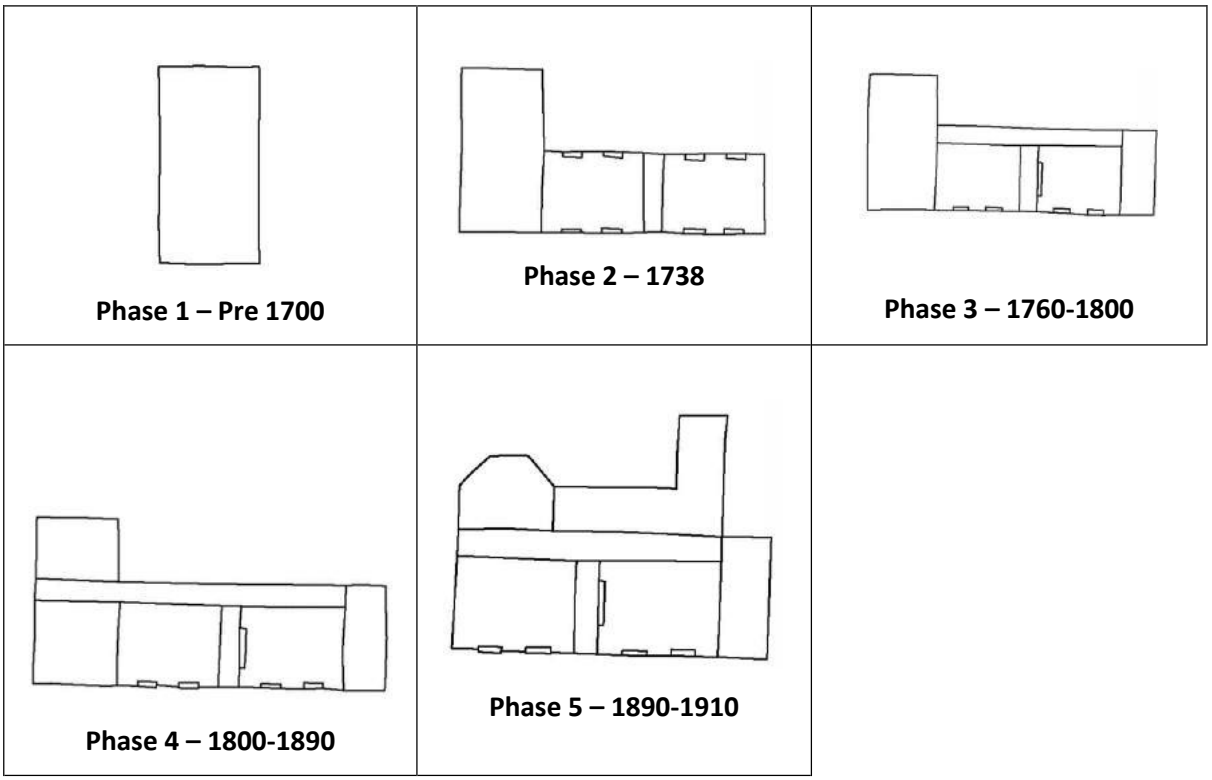

Figure 30. Construction phases of Cox's Hall.

ST DENYS CHURCH

During the period of this thesis, a 3D laser scan survey was undertaken on St Denys Church, Church Green (see Appendix 1), recording both its interior and exterior features. St Denys Church is a Grade I listed building (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012), with a photograph of the current building seen in Figure 31. From this work, as well as with observations made of the current church structure and documentary sources, it has been possible to re-date the phases of construction of the church and push back the earliest phase of construction of the current building by more than 200 years.

Figure 31. Photograph of the current St Denys Church, Stanford in the Vale when undertaking 3D laser scanning.

The earliest phase of the current Church's construction was formed of Phase 1, which took place in the late 12th C, when an earlier Saxon stone nave was demolished (see GPR data) and the associated ditch infilled. A new, much larger nave and chancel were constructed in its place. This included an external staircase and doorway to the rood screen loft, which was accessed from the exterior; an ornate carved south doorway; large stone quoin blocks and a steep pitch roof. A reconstruction drawing can be seen in Figure 32. This 12th C structure still forms a major part of the nave and chancel as seen within the church today.

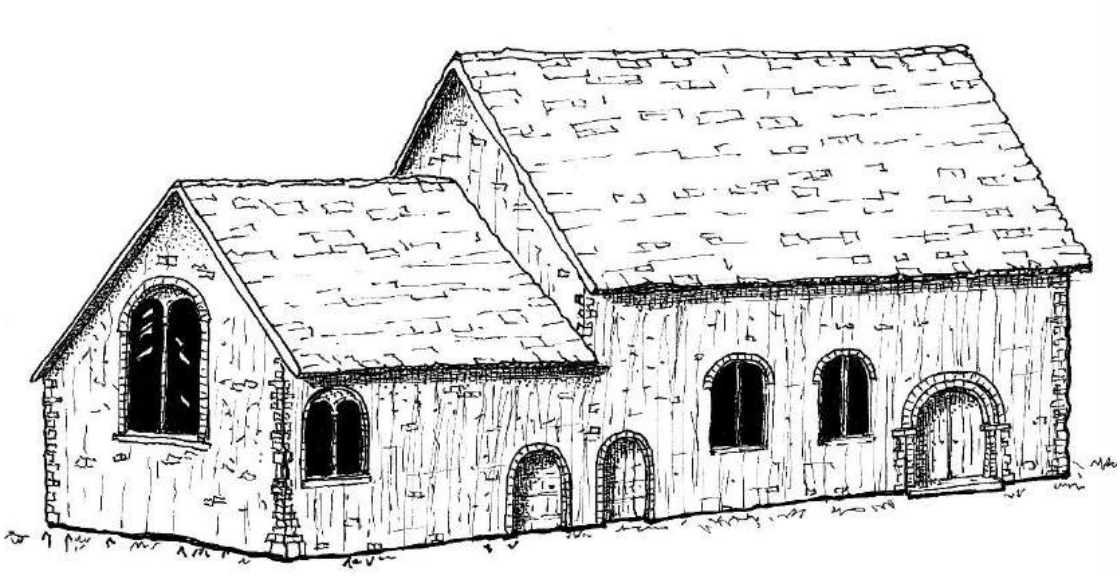

Figure 32. Reconstruction drawing of the later 12th C Church at Stanford in the Vale (Drawing by Mike Brace for this thesis).

During Phase 2 of construction, in the early 13th C, three small window lights were inserted into the top of the north nave wall, giving more light into the nave. These were long narrow windows, the tops of which can still be seen just above the arches which split the aisle and nave.

Phase 3 of construction occurred in the late 13th C, when the next phase of major construction was undertaken. At this date the bottom two thirds of the tower were added, which include a series of single light windows, up to the corbels and corbel table, with access given through the insertion of the triple arch into the nave. Also, at this time, the northern aisle with its stepped windows at each end and doorway with pointed arch and stiff leaf capitals was constructed. The window at the eastern end of the aisle is now blocked. The construction of an aisle at this date (13th C) is important, as it is an early date and is only seen within significant churches of this period; in turn this may indicate the significance of Stanford in the Vale at this time. Further features built into the church during Phase 3 of construction, include: the squint, used as a corridor to give access to the staircase and therefore access to the rood screen loft, from the chancel; the addition of the chancel arch and arcade, and with this a reduction in height of the windows added in the early 13th C, leaving them one-third of their original size; two small windows added at the top of the south wall of the nave and the addition of the reliquary to the chancel. It should also be noted the chancel windows contain fragments of 13th C stained glass; however, the apertures in which they are fitted do not date to this period. The addition of these features would have indicated the church's wealth and prosperity within the settlement. The church would have been seen by local people as being significantly sized and an important structure, as well as by traders and others moving into the settlement at this time. A reconstruction drawing of the church at this period can be seen in Figure 33.

Figure 33. Reconstruction drawing of the later 13th C church at Stanford in the Vale (Drawing by Mike Brace for this thesis).

Phase 4 of construction occurred in the early 14th C. During this phase, the third storey of the tower was added, plus the addition of a spire at its top; this spire no longer exists as it blew down in a storm in 1631 (Howse, 1987). However, the spire is seen on a tapestry map, housed in the Ashmolean Museum, showing Stanford in the 1500's. Also, during this period the vestry was added to the east end of the aisle and the window blocked. The new vestry re-uses an earlier exterior door into the chancel, with a new exterior door inserted into the chancel adjacent to it, to the east. Within the chancel the old 12th C windows were removed and replaced by a series of new windows, with the 13th C stained glass then re-used. At this time the chancel was also rendered on its exterior, and most likely whitewashed, making it stand out as a prominent feature. Lastly, during this phase, the north porch was added; two new windows were inserted into the nave and three new windows were inserted into the aisle, with the outer wall also being replaced at this time. A reconstruction drawing of the church by the mid-14th C can be seen in Figure 34. With the addition of the upper part of the tower and spire, this made the church an impressive and easily seen feature within the surrounding landscape. It would have made it a large navigational marker within the area, drawing people from far and wide into the settlement.

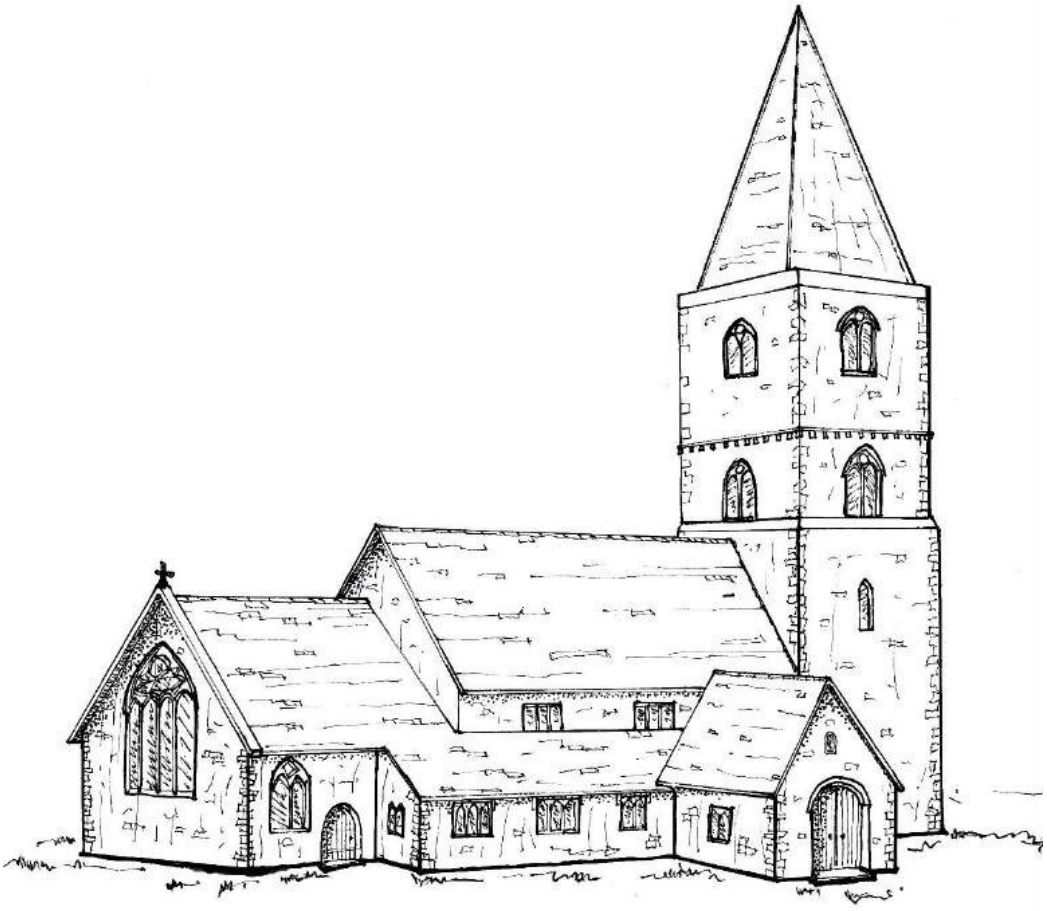

Figure 34. Reconstruction drawing of the impressive scale of the church at Stanford in the Vale by the mid-14th C (Drawing by Mike Brace for this thesis).

Phase 5 of construction occurred in the 15th C with both the chancel and nave being reroofed, lowering their pitch. At the same time a new top section of wall was also added to the nave and a new ceiling added in the chancel. New windows were also added into the nave, including three new clerestory windows above the arcade in the north wall and a large new window in the south wall, above the south doorway. A new south porch was also built at this time; built to celebrate the wedding of Richard, Duke of Gloucester (later Richard III, King of England), to Anne Neville in 1472 (St Denys Church PCC, n.d,). Their family crests can be seen either side of the exterior part of the doorway. This porch would have given a more formal entrance for the Lord and Lady of the Manor to enter the church direct from the Manor House. The crenulations were also added to the top of the nave, tower and south porch. Structural problems are also seen to have started in the Church at this time, as through 3D laser scanning data, it is possible to observe that the south wall of the chancel started to lean outwards at its top by 5º (Figure 35). It may be surmised that this structural problem was caused by the location of this wall as it is close to the edge of the backfilled Saxon ditch (Ashby, 2013b, 71), which surrounds the church and, therefore, the base of

the chancel wall had started to sink into this feature. To counteract this problem, a series of buttresses were added, during this period, along the south wall of both the chancel and nave, as well as to the base of the tower. A reconstruction drawing showing the church at this date can be seen in Figure 36.

Figure 35. Cross section of the Laser Scan Data, showing the leaning Chancel Wall.

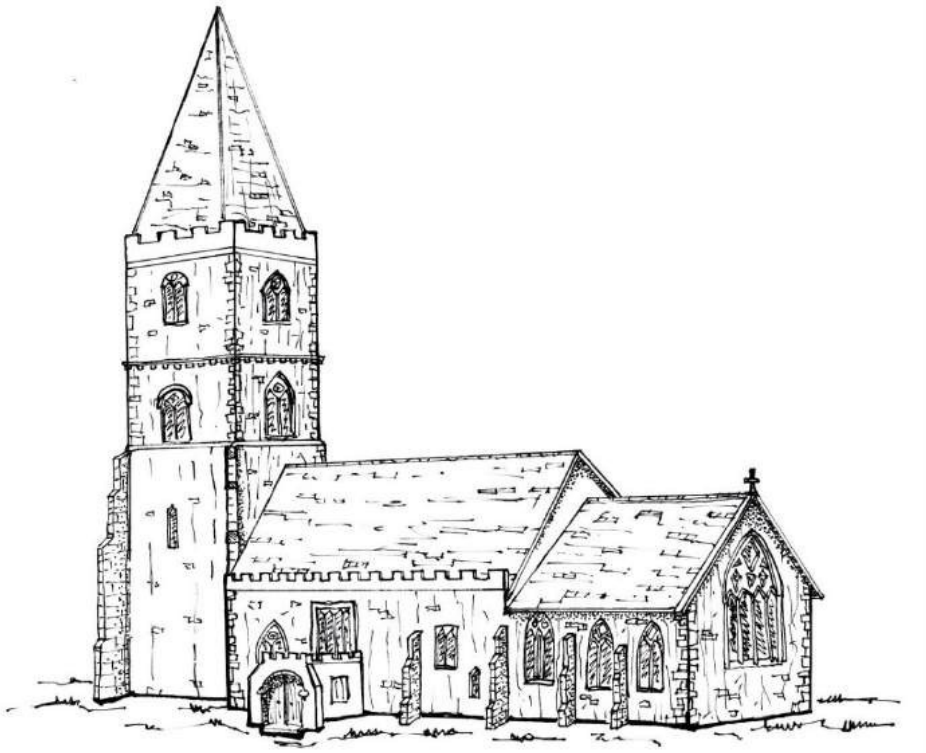

Figure 36. Reconstruction drawing of the south elevation 15th C Church at Stanford in the Vale (Drawing by Mike Brace for this thesis).

Phase 6 of construction occurred in the 16th C where few changes were made to the church, however, during the Reformation, the roodscreen and its associated loft were removed, which separated the chancel and the nave. In turn the top of the rood screen stairwell was also blocked, and the organ was relocated into the chancel, with the bellows for the organ located in one half of the room, now taken up fully by the vestry. The exterior section of the chancel roof was also re-roofed at this time.

Phase 7 occurred in the 17th C when a new ceiling was added to the nave roof using a selection of existing ornately carved corbels, as well as a series of new carved corbels. Large horizontal tie beams were also added into the nave roof at this time to further combat the possible subsidence first seen 200 years previously, in the 15th C. The north side aisle was also re-roofed at this time, with a steeper pitch. Apart from these additions one other major alteration was made to the church. Up until this time the church had a spire located on top of the tower, however, as documented in the Church Wardens Accounts, in 1631 the spire blew down in a storm and its remnants were removed (Howse, 1987). The spire was not replaced, and so the tower is all that survives to this day. A reconstruction drawing of St Denys Church in the 17th C can be seen in Figure 37.

Figure 37. Reconstruction drawing of the north elevation of the 17th C Church at Stanford in the Vale (Drawing by Mike Brace for this thesis).

Phase 8 of the works undertaken on the church were to a much lesser extent than seen in previous periods, with little work being undertaken on the structure itself and more work begun on

its permanent fittings. In the 18th C a set of eight church bells were added to the tower and also a new clock and associated mechanism. The clock face and mechanism were built and fitted by G.Nethercott of Wantage in 1768 (St Denys Church PCC, n.d, 5). The clock was then renovated and restored in 1887 to mark Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee (St Denys Church PCC, n.d, 5). Other additions were also made to the church in the 19th C. These included the installation of a new organ, with the removal of the old bellows room and blocking of the associated door into the bellows room/vestry. The render was also removed from the exterior walls of the chancel, revealing the bare stonework seen today. Lastly, new vibrantly coloured stained glass was added into most of the windows in the church as seen to this day. In 1885 the graveyard was also extended to the west to give room for further burials.

Phase 9 forms the final phase of construction at St Denys Church, with few further amendments being made during the 20th C. Within the tower the kitchen was added into its base and in 1963, when cracks appeared in the walls of the tower, the bells were replaced by eight lighter ones (Cuff & Brooks, 2013). In the nave the old box pews were removed and replaced with wooden pews. A new oil-fired central heating system was fitted, with the boiler located under the south porch. In the chancel, in 1983 the organ was replaced by an electric one (Cuff & Brooks, 2013). Restoration work was also undertaken on the church in two phases, firstly in 1983 and secondly in the early 2000's when the outer walls of the church and windows at the east end were consolidated.

Geophysical Surveys

During the period of this thesis, six fields and gardens were surveyed using Ground Penetrating Radar survey equipment, as discussed in the methodology. Within these areas both archaeological and modern features were identified dating to multi-periods. The data from each site surveyed will be explained; firstly, a copy of the results will be shown, followed by a discussion on their interpretation. A map of the surveyed areas undertaken using this technique is seen in Figure 38.

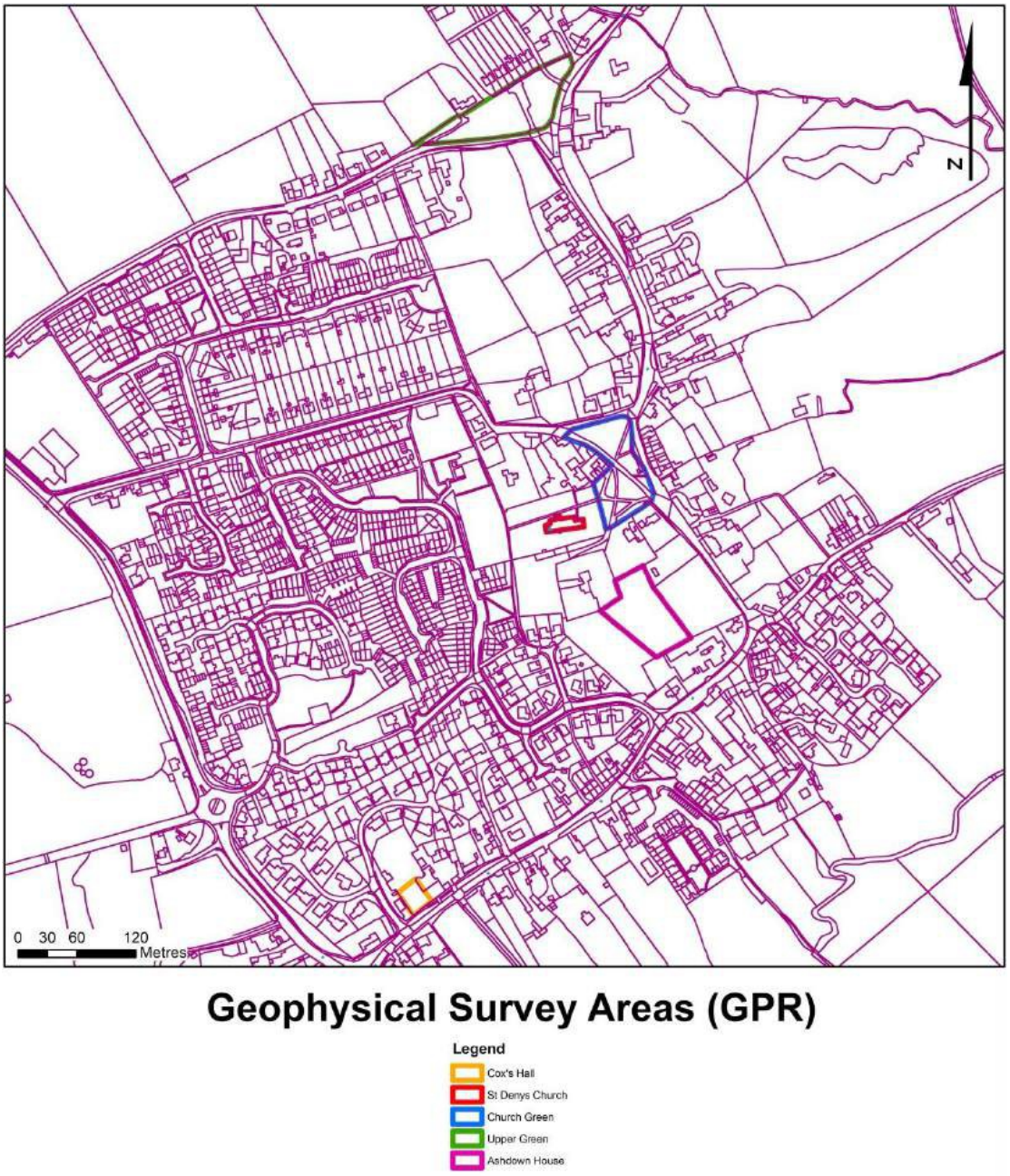

Figure 38. Map showing the location of the areas where geophysical data has been collected during the thesis period, within the village of Stanford.

COX'S HALL

Within the survey area of Cox's Hall garden (SU 340 931) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 39. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 6 and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 7.

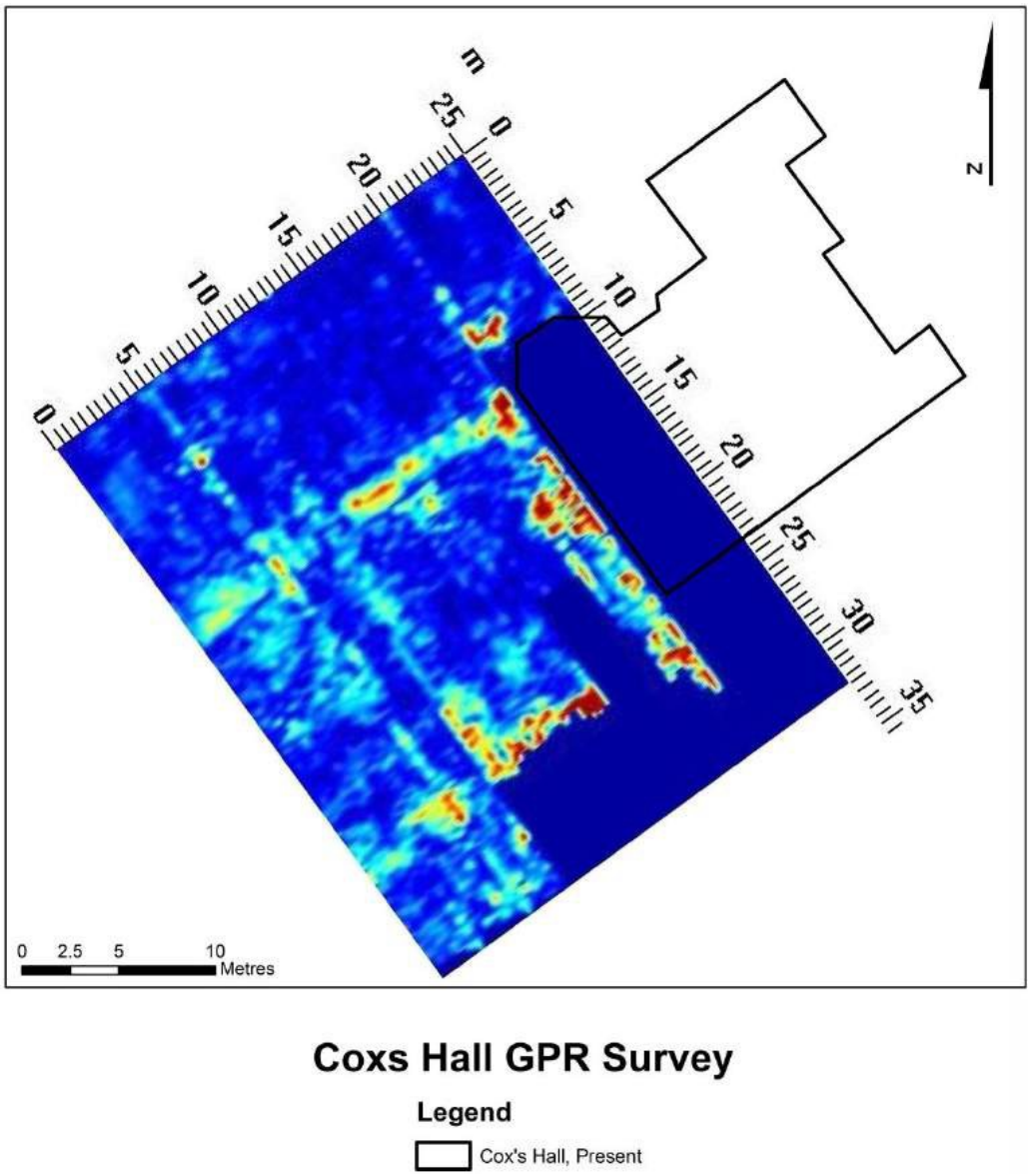

Figure 39. A time slice 0.90 m to 1.00m from the GPR data collected from Cox's Hall garden, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red and yellow).

The GPR survey was undertaken within the gardens of Cox's Hall to the west of the current house. The main feature identified from the survey data was the foundations of the demolished western wing of the Hall (Figure 38). From this data the size of the structure can be identified, measuring 16m long by 14m wide, with 2m thick walls. However, the data also indicates the likelihood that the western wall of the structure was nearly fully robbed out during the demolition. The data plot also indicates that this wing contained deep internal cellars, also identified through excavation in 2012 (Ashby, 2013b, 70), which may help to explain why there is only one small internal cellar under the present house.

This evidence, along with that obtained through excavations undertaken in 2012 suggests that the western wing of Cox's Hall is medieval to early post medieval in date. This is supported by historical data that indicates that the western wing was formed of a large stone hall, subdivided into rooms at a later period (Maine, 1866, 83). The archaeological evidence also indicates that the Hall at this date would have faced Farringdon Road, rather than the High Street and that the present Cox's Hall building is a later extension to the earlier house. This evidence is important as it indicates a large impressive building at this early date within the southern part of the village.

ASHDOWN HOUSE

Within the survey area of Ashdown House field (SU 342 934) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 40. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 8, and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 9.

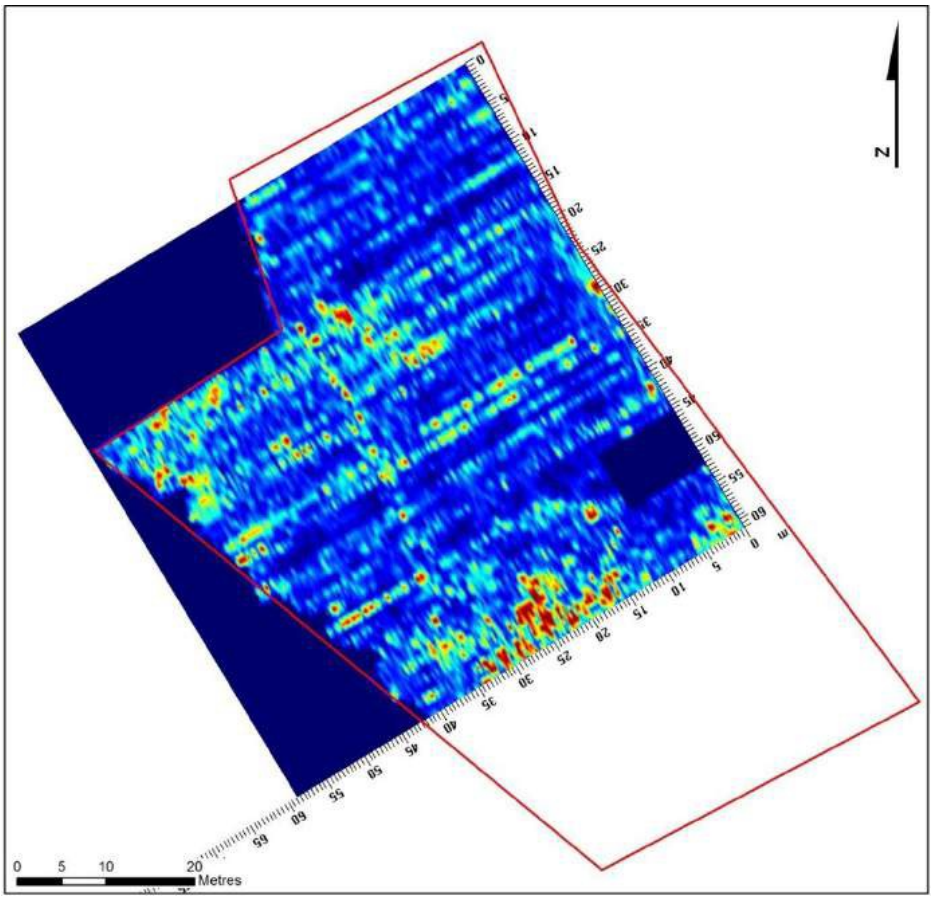

Figure 40. A time slice 1.60m to 1.70m from the GPR data collected from Ashdown House field, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red) with the red line indicating field boundary.

The GPR survey was undertaken within the field of Ashdown House, adjacent to the Millennium Green and School playing field. The survey data indicated many features within this area

including: the back filled village pond; the remains of a possible structure adjacent to the Millennium Green, possibly relating to Manor House activities and a possible continuation of the Roman boundary ditch, the corner of which was excavated in Trench 15 in 2013 (Ashby, 2014, 82). However, this survey does not indicate the presence or extent of the structures seen at the top of Trench 15 so, to date, their extent is unknown. It should also be noted that the survey indicates that the features such as the village pond and Roman ditch were excavated through the underlying solid geology.

ST DENYS CHURCH

Within the survey area of the interior of St Denys Church (SU 341 935) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 41. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 10 and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 11.

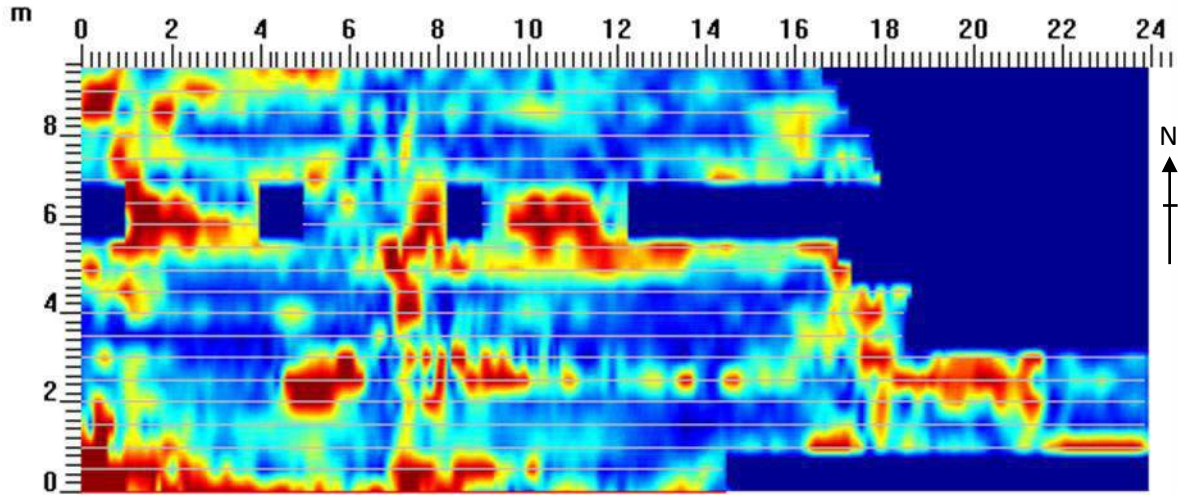

Figure 41. A time slice 1.30m to 1.40m from the GPR data collected from the interior of St Denys Church, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red/yellow).

The GPR survey was undertaken over the internal floors of the church within the nave, chancel and aisle. From the survey data four main groups of features were identified. Firstly, the modern heating pipes, just underlying the floors and secondly the underlying geology, Stanford Formation Limestone, seen at 2m below the current floor surface. The third group of features is a series of three vaulted graves, including a possible charnel deposit, measuring up to 2m in depth. These are thought to relate to grave slabs overlaying these features on the church floor.

The final and most significant feature, identified from the data plots and in turn the most important, is the possible foundations of the two phases of earlier church construction. The first, a

possible Saxon church and secondly, sections of wall relating to the 12th C nave, which were removed when the 13th C arcade was constructed. As seen in the time slice (see Figure 42), a series of possible wall features, forming a rectilinear shape, were identified on the plot from 0.5 m to 2m below the current ground surface. Of the first feature, the plot indicates the walls of a possible small, stone, rectangular nave underlaying the eastern area of the current nave. Due to its size and shape this is thought to be Saxon in date. The second of these features is seen on the plot by a series of wall features, indicating the footings for the nave of the 12th C church, with the radar reflections showing that the walls are over 1m thick and built onto the solid underlying geology. Figure 42 shows the location of both these features on the plot. These anomalies are significant as they indicate well preserved archaeology underlying the current church and also demonstrate constant use of the site as an important religious complex since the Saxon period.

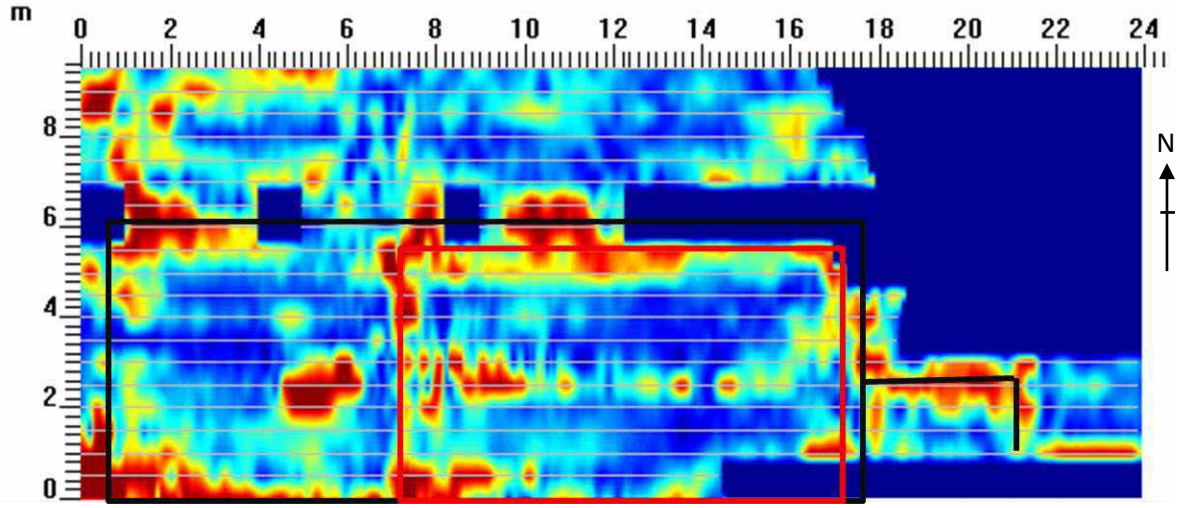

Figure 42. A time slice 1.30m to 1.40m from the GPR data collected from the interior of St Denys Church, indicating the location of the foundations of both the possible Saxon nave (red square) and 12th century nave (black square).

CHURCH GREEN

Within the survey area of Church Green (SU 3424, 9354) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 43. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 12 and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 13.

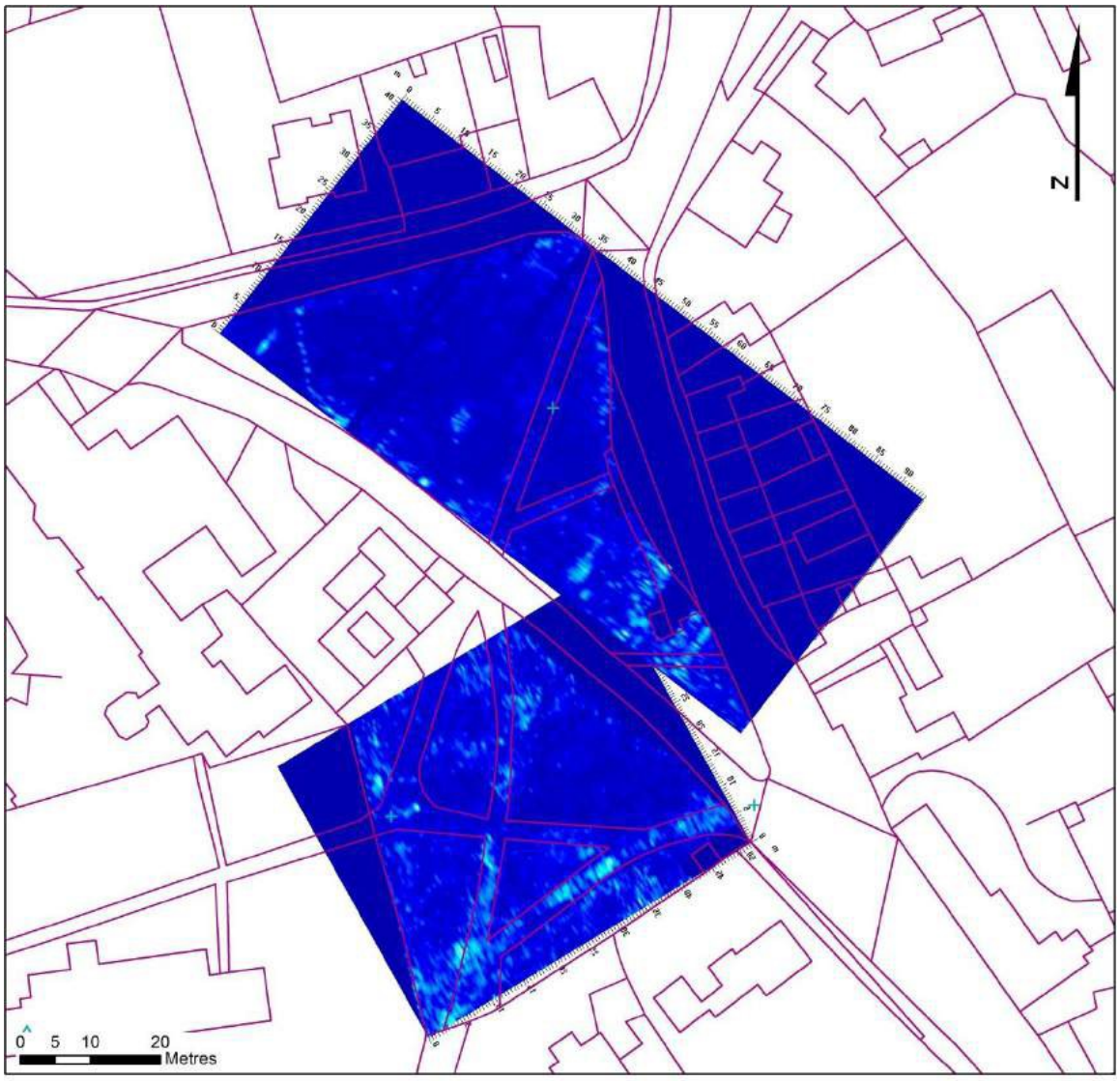

Figure 43. A time slice 0.50m to 0.60m from the GPR data collected from Church Green, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red/yellow).

The GPR survey was undertaken in the area of Church Green, adjacent to the Church and Manor House. The survey data indicated many features within this area, however, none of these identified are thought to be of archaeological interest. Instead they are thought to either be associated with modern paths, as seen on the surface, or underlying modern electrical service cables. The reason why no archaeological features are shown on the survey data may be due to the reflective nature of the sediments compared to the surrounding archaeology and geology. Where an archaeological feature has the same reflective nature as the sediments surrounding it, it will not be indicated through a ground penetrating radar survey. The only other information which can be specified through this survey data is the top of the underlying Stanford Formation Limestone geology at 1.10 m below current ground surface.

UPPER GREEN

Within the survey area of Upper Green (SU 3415, 9389) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 44. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 14 and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 15.

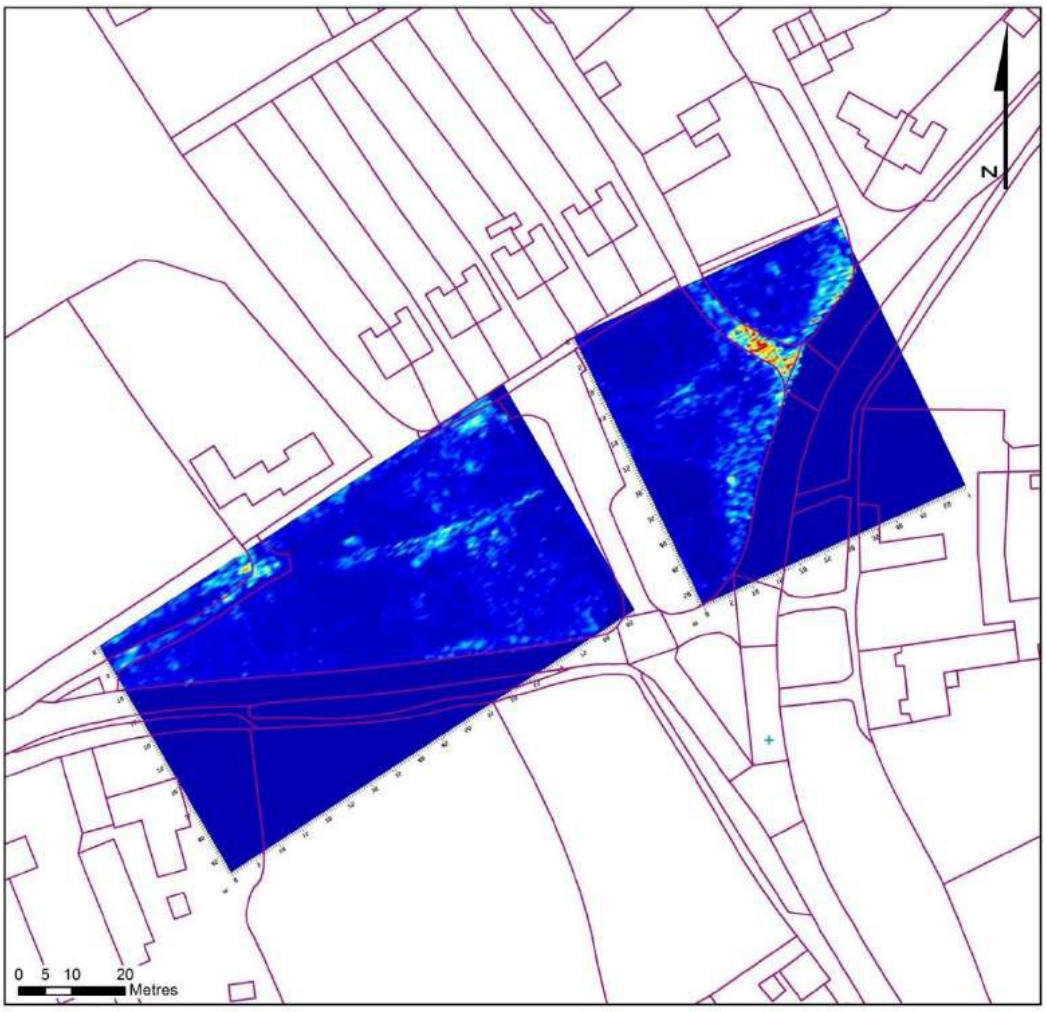

Figure 44. A time slice 0.60m to 0.70m from the GPR data collected from Upper Green, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red/yellow).

The GPR survey was undertaken in the area of Upper Green, adjacent to Cottage Road and Bow Road. Like that of the Church Green survey a series of modern features were identified, including a tarmac trackway which can be seen on the current ground surface, as well as modern buried services. However, unlike Church Green, an archaeological feature was also identified; a single curvilinear feature, which crosses both areas of the survey data (see Figure 45). This feature can be seen to correlate with the features identified on the Upper Green resistivity survey data undertaken in 2012 (D Ashby, 2012, 73). Because of this, the feature is thought to be the possible

Iron Age ditch enclosure at Upper Green. However, unlike the resistivity data further information can be gained about this feature from the GPR data, including (see Figure 46): a V-shaped cut; the depth of the feature, 1.70 m from top to base and that the feature is cut into the top of the solid Limestone geology. This gives further evidence that the feature is likely to be a substantial enclosure ditch, possibly enclosing an Iron Age fortified settlement. Lastly, the GPR data also indicates that the underlying geology, Stanford Formation Limestone, occurs from a depth of about 1.2 m below current ground level.

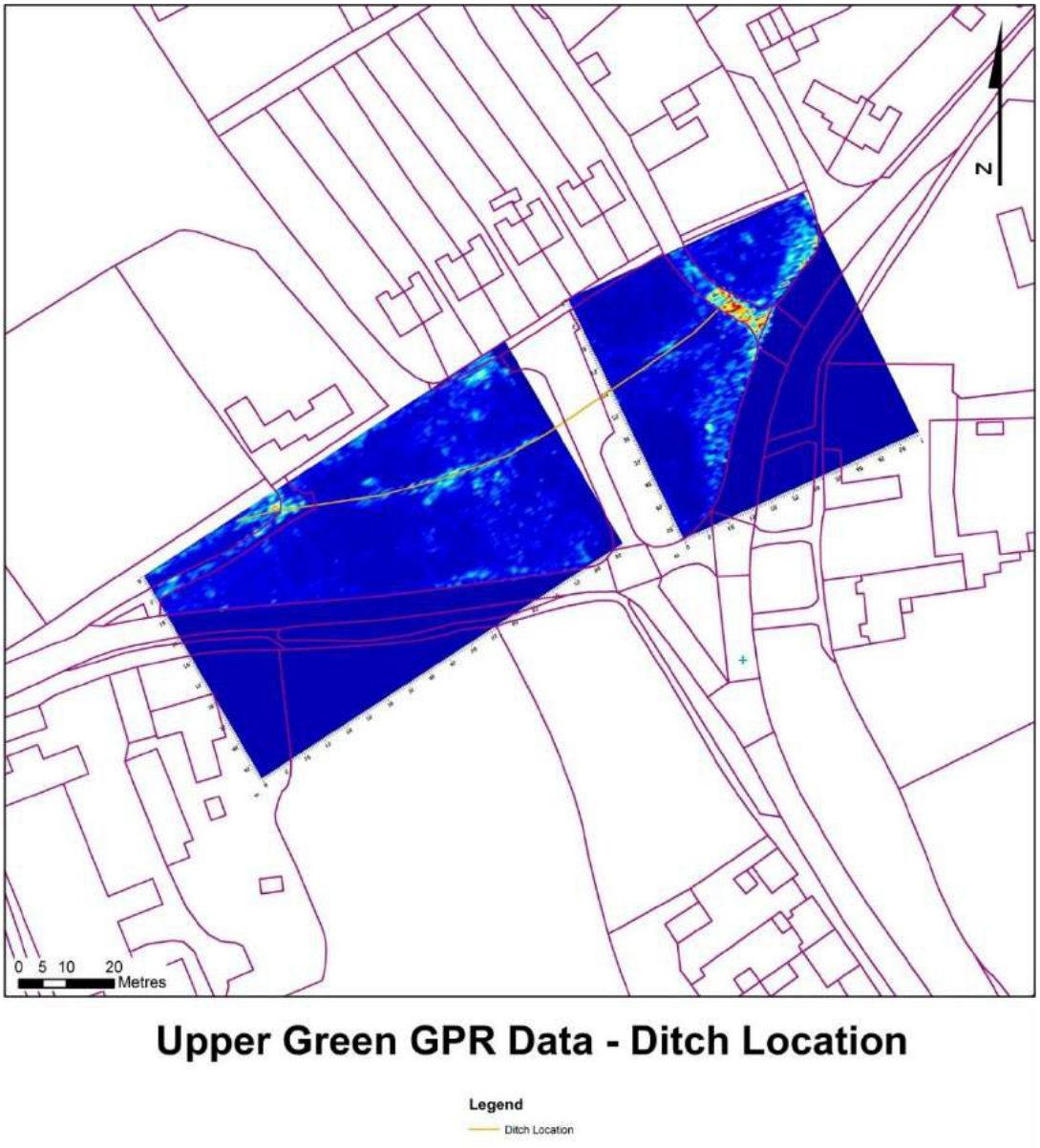

Figure 45. Location of curvilinear ditch crossing Upper Green as seen on GPR data plot (orange line).

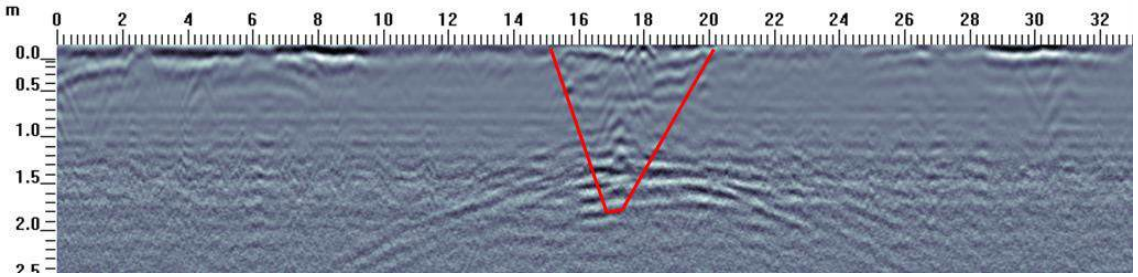

Figure 46. A pseudo-section from the GPR data collected from Upper Green, showing the cut and fill of the possible Iron Age ditch enclosure (red line).

3 COTTAGE ROAD

Within the survey area of 3 Cottage Road (SU 34011, 93774) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 47. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 16 and a full set of the time slices can be seen in Appendix 17.

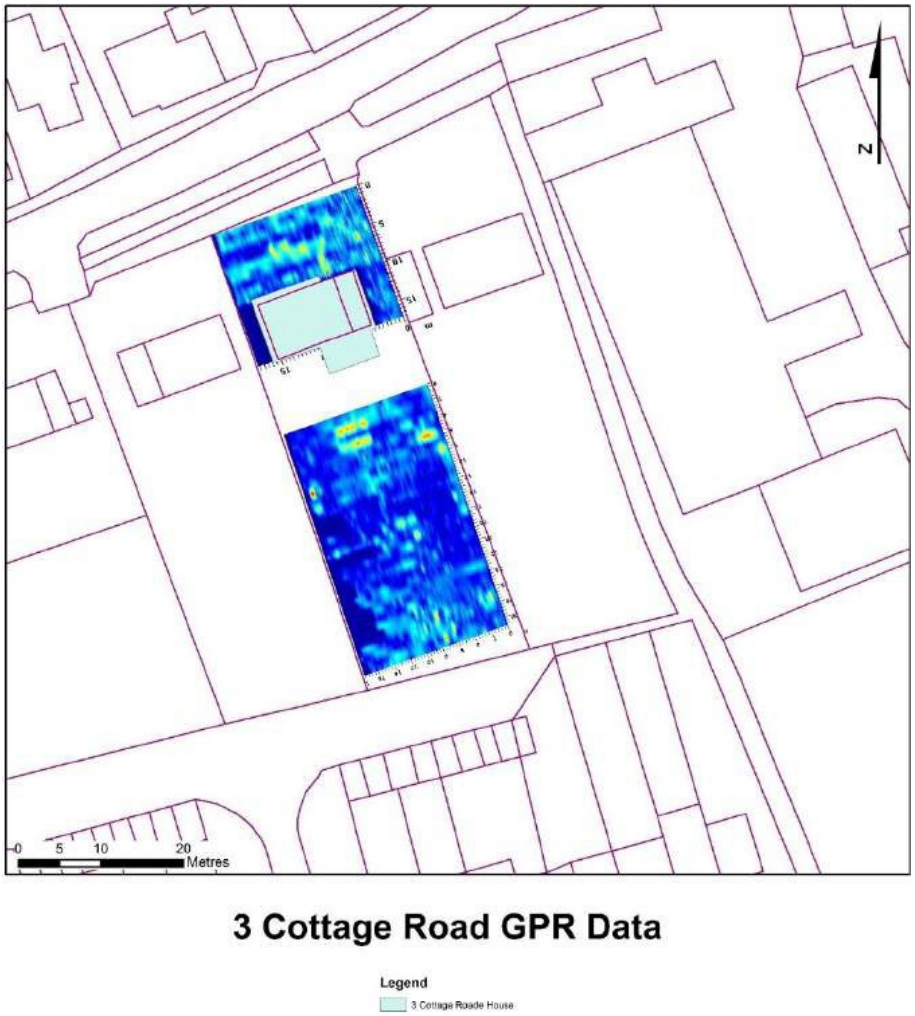

Figure 47. A time slice 0.90m to 1.10m from the GPR data collected from 3 Cottage Road, indicating the location of a series of features (areas in red/yellow).

The GPR survey was undertaken in both the front and rear gardens of 3 Cottage Road. The survey data indicated many features within this area, however, none identified are thought to be of archaeological interest. All the features are thought to either be associated with modern buried services known to be located in the area or the underlying geology. The reason why no archaeological features are shown on the survey data may be due to the high geology seen in this area, as indicated by TP50, excavated in the same garden, where the geology was found to be 0.23m below current ground surface.

Excavations

During the period of the thesis four trenches were excavated across the village, two in a field adjacent to Horsecroft (Tr17 and 18) and two in the field of Ashdown House (Tr16 and 19), with the locations of these seen in Figure 48. The archaeological evidence from each trench will be examined in turn. When describing each trench, first its location and layout will be stated and then the phasing discussed, from the newest to oldest, indicated by specific features and artifacts/ecofacts recovered from the contexts. It should be noted that for every trench context (Tr no.) '000' was comprised of the modern topsoil and turf and because of this will not be further discussed in these sections. Also, a detailed breakdown of the composition and interpretation of each context from each trench can be seen in Appendix 18 and a detailed breakdown of the finds recovered from each trench in Appendix 19.

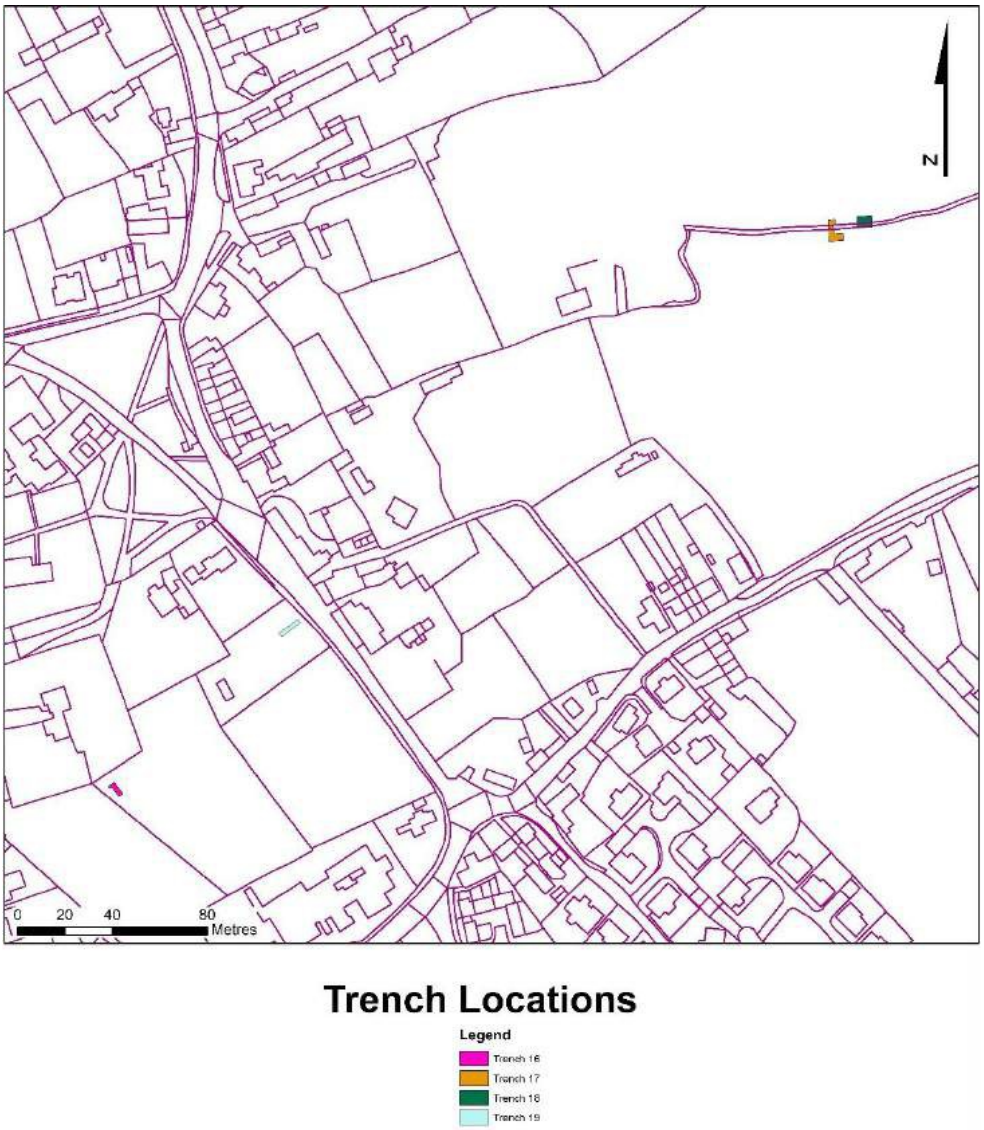

Figure 48. This map shows the locations of the trenching dug within the village of Stanford during the thesis period.

TRENCH 16

Trench 16 was excavated to further examine the Roman boundary ditch identified during the excavation of the adjacent Trench 15 and also to examine the construction of the platform on which the Manor House has been built. Furthermore, the trench was excavated to identify any earlier activities underlaying this area of the field. The trench was 5 m long by 2 m wide. Twenty-four contexts were identified, which are split into eight distinct phases. A copy of the post excavation plan is seen in Figure 49. Phase 8 was the modern topsoil and turf. Below this, Phase 7 was formed of a single midden deposit layer dating to the post medieval period and comprising of (16001). Finds material within this deposit included: nearly 4kg of animal bone; a large quantity of CBM, including

one medieval and one Roman fragment; vessel and window glass; iron objects and nails; and a large quantity of oyster shell. Ceramics were also recovered including fragments of clay pipes with one decorated bowl and also pottery dating from the Roman to modern periods.

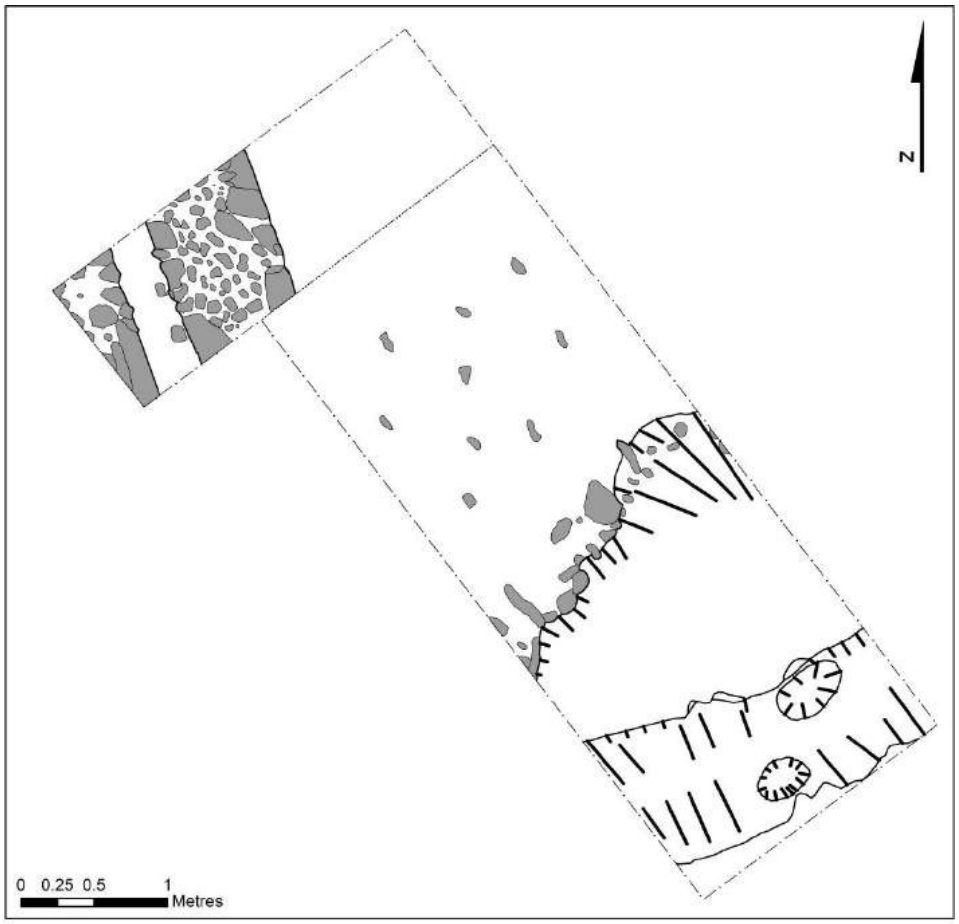

Figure 49. Post excavation plan of Tr16.

Phase 6 was formed of a series of rubble and demolition deposits, possibly related to adjacent structures of the post medieval to modern Manor House. These demolition and rubble deposits are formed of contexts (16002), (16003), (16004), (16005) and (16006). Finds material recovered from these demolition deposits included: a large quantity of animal bone (including cattle, sheep, pig, bird, horse and rabbit); clay pipe; vessel glass, post medieval in date; iron objects, nails and slag; oyster shell; and a small quantity of charcoal. Ceramics were also recovered, including: medieval louvres (roof tile) (Figure 50), indicating a high status building of this date; and pottery dating to the Roman, Saxon, medieval and post medieval periods, as well as a small amount from the modern period (possibly residual). Flint material was also recovered from these deposits including debitage and one Bronze Age scraper and a single fragment of basalt (non-local) shaped stone, of which others have previously been found during excavations in the settlement. Lastly, a single small find was also recovered, a single Cu alloy aglet. From this evidence these deposits are likely to relate

to the demolition of previous structures (early post medieval to medieval) and thereafter the construction of the fourth phase of Manor House structures, as observed on the site.

Figure 50. Ceramic medieval louvre recovered from (16006).

Phase 5 was formed of a series of deposits relating to the post medieval Manor House platform and associated ditch. The platform (16007) was formed of a sandy silt, limestone rubble, construction, overlaying earlier phases of Manor House deposits. The finds material recovered from the platform deposit, included: animal bone (sheep, cattle, bird); a small quantity of CBM and burnt daub; vessel glass and a small quantity of oyster shell and charcoal. Pottery was also recovered dating to the Saxon and medieval periods. An associated ditch enclosure [16010] of the same date was also found at the SE end of the trench. The ditch was filled by a single deposit (16011), containing extremely sparse finds materials; with those recovered mainly comprised of bird bone as well as Saxon and medieval pottery and a small amount of cess. This ditch is thought to surround the post medieval Manor House and has either an ornamental or defensive purpose. These deposits (platform and ditch) are likely to relate to the third phase of Manor House construction activities observed on the site.

Phase 4 was formed of a single limestone construction stone wall and its associated cut, located in the south west corner of the trench. The wall (16014) was constructed of limestone blocks, partly faced with no bond and no coursing observed and was built within a foundation cut [16015]; a linear cut running NW-SE, with vertical sides (90°) and a sharp break at top and base (base not seen). The remains of the wall were found to be 0.40m high, of which 15cm was contained within the cut. No finds materials were recovered from this structure, however, through its stratigraphic relationship with adjacent contexts it is thought to postdate the construction ofwall

[16009] (Phase 3) and predate deposition of the post medieval Manor House platform discussed in Phase 5. From this it can be surmised that the structure most likely dates to the end of the medieval or very early post medieval period.

Phase 3 was formed of a series of deposits relating to the medieval Manor House platform, associated ditch and structure. The platform (16012) and (16016) were formed of a sandy silt, limestone rubble, construction. The finds material recovered from the platform deposit, include 1.5kg of animal bone (cattle, sheep, pig, horse, deer and bird) and a small quantity of burnt daub, iron slag and charcoal. A large quantity (81 sherds) of medieval pottery was recovered as well as a few Saxon and Roman sherds. The medieval pottery recovered included fragments of cooking vessels as well as high status fine and decorated wares, as seen in Figure 51, of which some fragments can be dated to the 12th to 13th century. The rubble platform then formed the foundation of a large stone structure (16009), with associated cut [16017]. The walls of the structure were constructed of limestone blocks, very well faced on both N and S sides with some mortar bonding and four courses in depth (Figure 52). The dimensions of the wall were 1m long (within the excavation area (see Figure 49)) by 0.76m wide by 0.25m high and, to date, is one of the best constructed and most substantial medieval structures found within the village. Abutting the wall to both its east and west two further deposits were found, (16008) possibly on the exterior of the structure and (16013) on its interior. The finds material recovered from these deposits included: burnt daub, fragments of kiln lining and pottery dating to the medieval period (30 sherds). Lastly, like that of Phase 5, an associated ditch enclosure [16019] of the same date was also found at the SE end of the trench. The cut for this enclosure ditch was formed of a linear cut running WNW-ESE, with a rounded base and sides vertical 80-90° at north and sloping 20-30° south, with a sharp break at the top and rounded break at the base (see Figure 53). The ditch was found to be up to 0.75m in depth and filled by a single deposit (16018) with associated finds material including: animal bone (cattle, sheep, pig and bird); burnt daub, a single iron object and two fragments of worked flint (a microlith and thumbnail scraper) dating to the Mesolithic and Bronze Age periods. Pottery was also recovered from this ditch fill dated to the Roman, Saxon and medieval periods. Two small finds were also recovered from this deposit: a single worked bone bead and an oblong shaped whetstone. From the archaeological evidence, as well as comparable sources, this suggests that this phase of activity on the site is likely to relate to the rebuilding and remodelling of the Manor House by William de Frarries, Earl of Derby in the 1230's AD (Victoria County History, 1924).

Figure 51. Examples of medieval pottery recovered from (16016), Manor House platform.

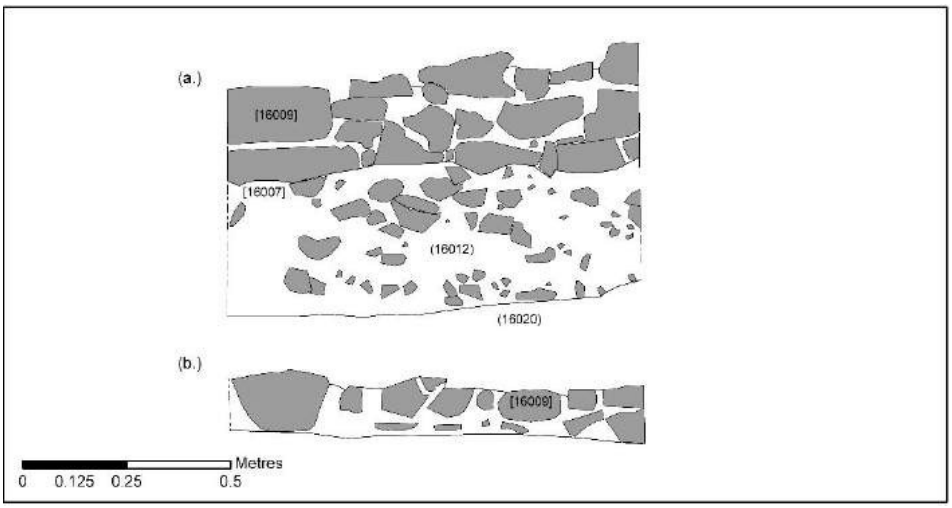

Figure 52. East (a.) and West (b.) elevations of wall (16009).

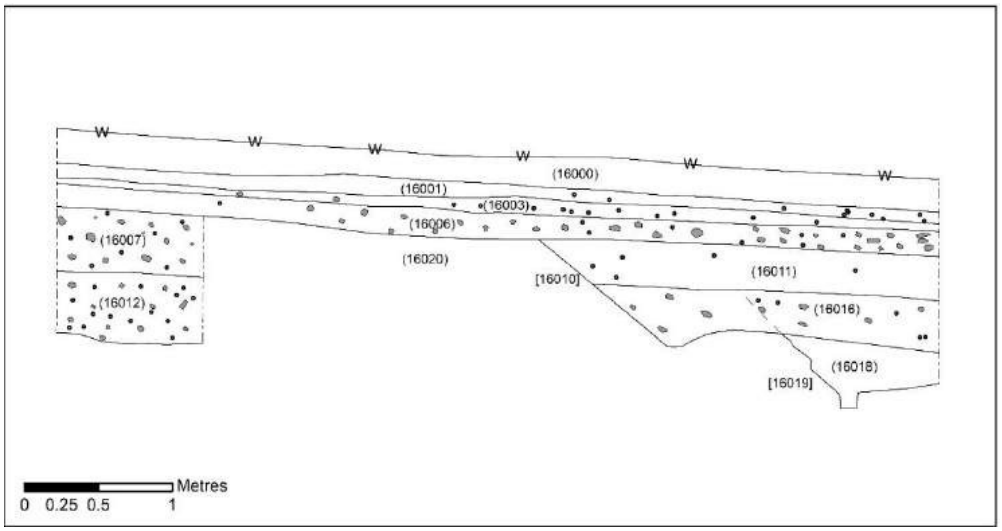

Figure 53. Section drawing Phase 3 ditch surrounding Manor House, section facing SSW.

Phase 2 was formed of two truncated post holes [16022] and [16024] and their associated fills (16021) and (16023). Little finds material was recovered from either of these fills, with only a small quantity of charcoal being found, making it hard to date their construction. However, it is currently thought that both of these features had been cut by the 13th C ditch [16019]. Both of these post holes were cut into the underlying geology, Stanford Formation Limestone, which forms Phase 1 of the trench. Currently from the stratigraphic evidence it is thought that these post holes are likely to either relate to an early phase of Manor House construction (possible a timber phase) and thereby date to the Saxon period or related to Roman activity on the site. This trench demonstrates multi-phases of Manor House construction with associated platforms and ditches dating from the modern to Saxon periods.

TRENCHES 17 AND 18

Trenches 17 and 18 were excavated within the field adjacent and to the north of Horsecroft lane. These trenches were excavated to examine the possibility of a medieval mill within this area, adjacent to the watercourse and where a long stone wall is seen within the current hedge line. Previously in 2009 Trench 11, a small trench, was excavated to examine this feature, however, due to its size it was hard to indicate exact phasing of activities and so a larger excavation was undertaken within this area (Ashby, 2010b, 29). Trenches 17 and 18 were excavated to the size and shape of: Tr17 was rectangular in shape and measured 6 m wide by 9 m long and was excavated at the western end of the feature; Tr18 was rectangular in shape and measured 3 m wide by 4 m long and was excavated at the eastern end of the feature. The two trenches were excavated to examine the same structure and due to their comparative vicinity, are phased and described in unison.

The excavations of Trenches 17 and 18 have indicated the phasing of the possible mill structure within this area. A copy of the post excavation plan is seen in Figure 54. Phase 5 comprised a medieval field system, including medieval ploughing, adjacent to the stone remains of the mill. This indicates that once the structure was demolished most of it was removed and the area it covered reverted back into agricultural use. This phase also included later post medieval dumping of material onto and adjacent to the wall remains within the hedge line.

Figure 54. Post excavation plan of Tr17 and Tr18.

Phases 4 and 3 comprised the construction of the stone mill structure itself; the wall length within the hedge line is the only part remaining. Of these two phases, phase 3 comprises of the primary stone construction of a 10m long, 1m wide, double stepped substantial foundation and excavation of the adjacent mill leat. Phase 4 is comprised of a later, poorly built, 2m long stone extension at the eastern end of the mill structure. These two phases form the main wall of the mill structure, which are likely to have supported an undershot mill wheel located within the adjacent stream bed, both of a medieval date. An elevation drawing of this wall can be seen in Figure 55. It is important to note that this is the only part of the structure remaining with the rest removed during the late medieval period and therefore it has been preserved due to its location within the hedge line (see Figure 56).

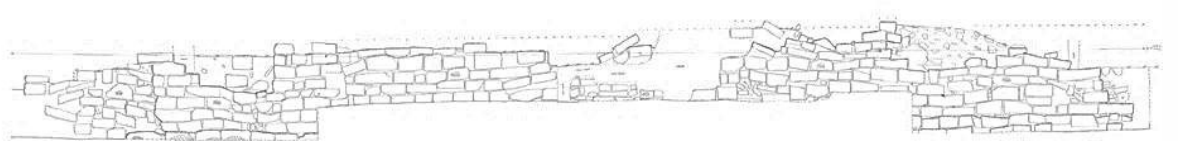

Figure 55. Elevation drawing of northern face of stone mill structure.

Figure 56. Site photograph of wall located in hedge line.

Phase 2 is formed of two post holes which were found to underlie the medieval plough soil indicated by Phase 5. These post holes are thought to either demonstrate the presence of an earlier timber mill on the site or a separate earlier timber structure prior to the mill's construction. However, the date of this earlier timber structure is currently unknown, though it may be an earlier mill structure dating to the Saxon period and therefore relate to a reference in the Domesday Book of one of two mills in the village (Morris, 1979, 60d). These two post holes were excavated into the

underlying geology which formed Phase 1 of the activity on the site. Lastly, it is important to note that within the find's material recovered from deposits on site a large quantity of worked flint was also found. This comprises of flint scrapers, blades and a flint core as well as a large quantity of debitage. This flint material has been dated to the Neolithic period and indicates a possible flint working area adjacent to the stream. Also, one abraded fragment of Roman pottery was recovered from these deposits which may indicate activity of this period within the vicinity.

The archaeology within this trench demonstrates significant evidence for a large undershot medieval two-phase mill within this area of the settlement. The archaeology identified within the two trenches also correlates with earthworks seen within both Priors Farm and Horsecroft fields, which are thought to relate to mill workings, such as a mill pond and diversion leat (Ashby, 2011a, 56-57). This also corresponds to the ditch, adjacent to the wall structure, being extremely deeply cut compared to the low velocity stream that is currently located within it. The archaeology, as well as that found within Trench 11 in 2009, also indicates the structure went out of use and was dismantled before the end of the medieval period, as the adjacent field was then used for medieval ploughing at this later time. The removal and demolition of this mill is thought to therefore coincide with the collapse of the town or urban centre into a village at the end of the 14th century, as well as a reduction in the settlement size during this time.

TRENCH 19

Trench 19 was excavated within the paddock of Ashdown House, adjacent to the High Street and close to Church Green. The trench was excavated to examine two main areas: firstly, a series of anomalies identified on the resistivity survey undertaken in 2012 and secondly, the reason for the height difference between the field and adjacent road. Trench 19 was 10 m long by 2 m wide and at right angles to the adjacent wall and road.

The excavation of Trench 19 has indicated a series of medieval and possible earlier structures located in this area and facing the road. However, these were overlaid by later phases of activity. Phase 12 formed the modern topsoil and turf, with Phase 11 formed of a modern cut and fill feature related to a steel and timber ground anchor, thought to relate to a removed telegraph pole. This overlaid Phase 10, formed of a post medieval soil deposit, possibly related to the field of the Manor House farmland during this period. Two significant finds were recovered from this layer: 1. a fragment of chainmail which may relate to civil war or earlier post medieval activities on the site; 2. a fragment of a stone casting mould, thought to be medieval in date. This overlaid Phase 9, a linear

cut and fill ditch feature running parallel with the adjacent boundary wall which may relate to its construction. Finds material recovered from this feature included a cat skeleton.

Phase 9 was found to cut through a limestone cobbled surface which formed Phase 8 of the activity on the site. From pottery recovered, it indicates the surface dates to the later medieval period. This limestone surface was found to overlay a series of four phases of cut features, possibly related to structures fronting the adjacent road (Figure 57). The first, Phase 7, was a large cut linear feature containing two fills 0.60m in depth. A large quantity (2.8kg) of burnt daub was recovered from these fills as well as a quantity of medieval pottery. Taking this into account, as well as its location, this feature is thought to relate to a possible medieval building fronting the road and terraced into the adjacent slope. This was found to cut through Phase 6 (the second cut feature) an earlier medieval cut and fill feature also fronting the road. It was formed of a large cut and fill, 0.23m deep, dated to the medieval period through pottery remains and predating the feature identified in Phase 6. Due to this feature's location and the finds material recovered from it, as well as its depth, it is thought to form a medieval roadside ditch.

Figure 57. Site photograph showing a series of cut features fronting the road within Trench 19, Ashdown House paddock (Phases 7, 5 and 4). Plan shot.

Phase 5 formed the third cut feature facing the road, a large cut 0.30m deep, also dated to the medieval period through finds material recovered, however predating the feature seen in Phase 6. The finds material included a large fragment of iron slag (1.5kg), indicating significant iron working

in the area. This feature is interpreted as either relating to an earlier construction phase of the road or the base of a roadside building, terraced into the adjacent geology. Phase 4 forms the fourth, and earliest of the four phases of linear cut feature facing the road and was found to be 0.48m in depth and contained two fills. Pottery recovered from the feature dates to the medieval period and due to its location adjacent to the present road, and its depth, it is interpreted as a possible early phase medieval roadside ditch, which forms the earliest phase of these intercutting features close to and fronting the road.

Phases 3 and 2 form two timber framed post hole structures found to cut into the underlying geology, located in the main area of the trench (Figure 58). The later of these two structures (Phase 3) was formed of five post holes within the trench, suggesting the gable end of a large timber framed building running parallel to the adjacent road and 4.6m in width. The length of the building was unable to be determined as it extended outside the trench. The earlier of these two structures (Phase 2) was also found to be formed of five post holes within the trench. Unlike the later structure, this was found to be aligned at a 45° angle to the adjacent road. The structure is estimated to be at least 4.80m by 4.20m in size. No datable finds material was recovered from any of the post holes, from either the Phase 3 or 2 structures, and therefore it is difficult to determine a date for their construction. However, due to their form, construction and location, they are thought to be either Saxon or possibly Roman in date. These features, as well as most of those fronting the road were found to cut into Phase 1 of the site, formed of the underlying geology, Stanford Formation Limestone. The formation of the geology is also important in understanding the site's development, as within the majority of the trench the top of the underlying geology was 0.40m below current ground surface. This is significantly higher than the areas surrounding it, where the underlying geology is reached at between 1m to 2m below this height.

Figure 58. Site photograph showing a series of post holes forming two timber structures within Trench 19, Ashdown House paddock (Phases 3 and 2). Plan shot.

From the archaeology within this trench in the present Ashdown House paddock, it can be demonstrated that there is significant evidence for a number of features and structures located within this area of the village. This includes four phases of overlaying structures and ditches fronting the current adjacent road and dating to the medieval period, including at least one major medieval structure, likely to be a shop or craft building, which is terraced into the adjacent underlying geology. Furthermore, evidence has also been presented indicating the presence of two timber framed post hole structures, likely to be Saxon or possibly Roman in date. These structures indicate that historically this was an urbanised part of the settlement during both the Saxon and medieval periods, in comparison to its current use as a pasture field. However, further work is needed to better understand the structures within this area of the settlement. Lastly, it is important to note the

high area of solid geology in this field, with the adjacent road possibly following a natural terrace, which has later been enhanced during the construction of the road and other related structures as indicated within this trench.

Test Pitting (TP)

During the period of the thesis a further 46 test pits were excavated across the area of the village, adding to the 11 TPs previously excavated, giving a current total of 57 test pits; for locations see Figure 23. The archaeological evidence from each TP will be examined in turn, including important features and artifacts/ecofacts, with detailed phasing for each TP seen in Appendix 20. Furthermore, within the description of each TP its location will be discussed. It should be noted that for every TP excavated spit 001 comprised of the modern topsoil and turf and because of this will not be further discussed in these sections. Also, a detailed breakdown of the composition and interpretation of each spit, cut and fill from each TP in turn, can be seen in Appendix 21 and a detailed breakdown of the finds recovered from each TP in Appendix 22. As seen from Table 9 a significant amount of archaeology was found within the 46 test pits excavated at Stanford in the Vale.

TEST PITS 12 TO 23

Test pits 12 to 23 contained large quantities of pottery remains which enable a large amount of information to be gained about the changing nature of the settlement over time. All of the test pits contained post medieval pottery apart from TP 16, TP 17 and TP 19 which mainly contained quantities of modern pottery. This is largely due to TP 17 being located within the vicinity of the brickworks and brick kilns (and due to the complex nature of the remains, the natural geology was not reached) and TP19 being located within agricultural field systems on the outskirts of the village settlement. The pottery evidence also suggests the location of medieval activity within the settlement, with medieval pottery being recovered from TP 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, and 23, which are located within the vicinity of Church Green, the High Street and close to Upper Green, so indicating a spread of medieval settlement activity close to the historic roads running through the village. The most significant of these is TP 12, located close to the Church and containing 46 sherds of medieval pottery. Saxon pottery was also recovered, from TP 12, 14, 16, 22 and 23, indicating Saxon settlement activity within the vicinity of the High Street and area surrounding Church Green. TP 14 at Priors Close also containing two postholes thought to possibly relate to a Saxon timber framed hall of this date (Figure 59). Small quantities of Roman pottery were also recovered from TPs 19, 12, 13, 14, 16, and six sherds from TP 23. Fourteen fragments of Roman CBM were also recovered from

TP23 and fragments of *opus signinum* were found in TP 12. Due to the quantity of pottery and CBM dating to the Roman period recovered from test pit 23, and due to its location within the boundaries of the Roman settlement enclosure, this data may indicate the location of a possible Roman building within this location close to the High Street (53 High Street).

Figure 59. Plan photograph of TP 14, showing Saxon post holes forming part of a large timber framed building.

A large quantity of flint material, both worked and debitage, was also recovered from these test pits. This material dates from the Mesolithic period, including a worked flint core from TP 19, and Bronze Age period, including a large quantity of flint scrapers found within test pits across the village. It should also be noted that a large quantity (18 artefacts) of Neolithic worked flint material and a quantity of burnt flint were recovered from a gully feature at the base of TP 20 (24 Chapel Road) (Figure 60). This is important as it indicates the possible location of the earliest settlement activity at Stanford in the Vale, within the area of Chapel Road and Upper Green.

Figure 60. Section photograph of deposits within TP 20, showing Neolithic linear gully.

Other finds material recovered from the test pits included a large quantity of animal bone mainly composed of sheep and bird but also including cattle, pig, rabbit, fish, dog, rodent and deer. Complete animal skeletons were also recovered from TP 20 (Mallard duck) and from TP 21 (a cat skeleton with severe osteoarthritis). A quantity of both iron and glass slag was also recovered from TPs 17, 18, 19 and 22, dating to the post medieval to modern periods, and metal artefacts have also been recovered from all test pits dating to this period. However, one Roman hobnail was also recovered from TP 19, indicating possible Roman activity within this area. A large quantity of clay pipe fragments, including three fragments of decorated bowl, and dating from the 17th to 19th centuries, were recovered from TP18 and 20 to 22. Small finds were also recovered from these test pits including: a single Second World War ammunition casing from TP 15, a Roman coin of Valens, dated to 367 to 375 A.D. from TP 18; a post medieval copper alloy button recovered from TP 20 and a modern iron knife and copper alloy buckle dated to the 18th century from TP 21. Of the small finds, the Roman coin recovered from TP 18 is the most significant, as it is the first Roman coin to be found in test pitting or trenching within the village. Because of this evidence, the test pit's location close to Church Green and the current absence of further Roman coinage within the village, it may indicate that the area of Church Green was used as a market area for trading not only during the medieval period but also during the Roman period of the settlement.

Lastly, a series of features and structures were also identified within the eleven test pits. This includes a medieval stone wall at the base of TP 12, thought to be the foundation of a timber building, adjacent to the church; two large post holes at the base of TP 14, dated to the Saxon period, and thought to be part of a Saxon structure/building (discussed above); and World War II features identified in test pits 21, which formed the foundations of a possible reinforced concrete air raid shelter, and the foundations of a Nissen hut identified in test pit 22. Furthermore, post medieval features were identified in test pit 23, a hard standing cobbled surface likely to relate to the adjacent 19th-century house, and features relating to the brickworks, including a water pipe and foundation for the brick kiln, identified in TP 17. A further modern pit containing modern building rubble deposits was also found in TP 15. Lastly, and most importantly, as discussed above, a Neolithic gully (Figure 60) was found at the base of TP 20, 0.67 m below ground surface, dug into the natural underlying Stanford formation limestone geology.

TEST PITS 24 TO 35

Like the previous 12 test pits discussed, test pits 24 to 35 also contained large quantities of pottery remains which enable a large amount of information to be gained about the changing nature of the settlement over time. Post medieval pottery was recovered from all of the test pits apart from TP 32 which contained very little finds material, due to it only being 0.20m in depth. The pottery evidence also suggests the location of medieval activity within the settlement, with medieval pottery being recovered from all test pits apart from that of TP 27, TP 32, and TP 33. It should also be noted that a large capacity of medieval pottery was recovered from TP 28 (91 sherds), which was excavated adjacent to Upper Green. The large quantity of medieval pottery recovered from this area, as well as the deep medieval stratigraphy in this test pit (Figure 61), is thought to relate to a possible Burgess/housing plot with associated structures likely fronting Cottage Road or otherwise correlate to a medieval 'dark earth' deposit, similar to that seen within test pit 5 (ref), overlaying earlier medieval structures. However, this deposit also indicates a continual and high-level use of the northern area settlement during this period therefore further demonstrates the medieval settlement spreading this far north (Upper Green).

Figure 61. Section photograph of deposits within TP 28, including medieval 'dark earth' deposit.

Saxon pottery was also recovered, from test pits 24, 26, 28, 29, 34, and 35 indicating Saxon settlement activity within the vicinity of the High Street, Upper Green, and as far west as the Horse and Jockey pub. Roman pottery was recovered from all test pits apart from that of TP 27, TP 32, and TP 33. However, it should be noted that a large quantity (44 sherds) was recovered from test pit 26, which is adjacent to the High Street (19 High Street). This is significant as, to date, this is the largest quantity of Roman pottery recovered from a single test pit. As the base of the test pit was not reached, it is thought that this may relate to the location of the Roman boundary ditch, as previously excavated in Trench 15, Ashdown House (Ashby, 2013a). CBM dating to the Roman period has also been recovered from three test pits within the village. This includes a single tessera which was recovered from TP 34, which is important as this is the first tessera found within the village and may indicate the presence of a mosaic floor within the vicinity.

A large quantity of flint material, both worked and debitage, was also recovered from these test pits. This material dates from the Mesolithic period with a large quantity of microliths being recovered, as well as a large quantity of Neolithic flint material also being recovered from test pits across the village. This includes a single Neolithic leaf-shaped arrowhead which was recovered from TP 34 and also a possible Neolithic pit found in the base of TP 25 (18 Ock Meadow), containing Neolithic worked flint. This is important as it indicates a possible split Neolithic settlement during this period, with one possibly located at the north of Chapel Road (TP 20) and a second at TP 34 close to the River Ock.

Other finds material recovered from the test pits included a large quantity of animal bone mainly composed of sheep and bird but also including cattle, pig, rabbit, fish, dog, rodent and deer.

A single fragment of basalt rock was recovered from TP 28, thought to be a fragment of imported quern stone, possibly indicating high quality flour being produced in the settlement. A quantity of both iron and glass slag was also recovered mostly dating to the post medieval to modern periods, however a small fragment of glass slag was recovered from TP28 thought to date to the medieval period. Two fragments of kiln lining recovered from TP 34 and thought to be Roman in date, may indicate industrial activities being undertaken within these areas of the settlement during this period. Metal artefacts have also been recovered from all test pits, dating to the medieval to modern periods. A large quantity of clay pipe fragments, including three fragments of decorated bowl, dating from the 17th to 19th centuries, were recovered from TP26, 28 to 31 and 35. Small finds were also recovered from these test pits including: copper alloy objects, such as buttons and an aglet; iron objects such as a knife; worked bone including a fragment of medieval bone comb recovered from TP 34 and worked stone including a possible stone bead and wet stone recovered from TP 26, both Roman in date.

Lastly, a series of features and structures were also identified within the twelve test pits. This includes a series of post medieval features, including a small pit found at the base of TP 27, garden paths and adjacent flowerbeds found in TP 30 and a post hole found at the base of TP 31, possibly related to the structure within this area. In addition, two post medieval stone cobbled surfaces were also identified, one at the base of TP 31 and a second in TP 35. Within TP 24 a stone wall footing for a probable timber frame building, thought to date to the medieval period, indicates structures within the northern part of the settlement (Upper Green) during this period. Most importantly, as discussed above, a Neolithic pit (Figure 62) was found at the base of TP 25, 0.55 m below ground surface, dug into the natural weathered underlying Stanford formation limestone geology. Lastly, within TP 34 a rapid change in underlying geology from that seen in TP 31 (the adjacent garden) was observed, which indicates the change from solid Limestone to underlaying alluvial geology. This demonstrates the possible presence of a prehistoric paleo channel located within this area of the settlement.

Figure 62. Section photograph of deposits within TP 25, showing Neolithic pit.

TEST PIT 36 TO 50

Like the previous test pits discussed, pottery remains from the test pits 36 to 50 enabled a large amount of information to be gained about the changing nature of the settlement over time. As previous test pits, all contained post medieval and modern pottery, apart from test pit 50. The pottery evidence also suggests the location of medieval activity within the settlement, with medieval pottery being recovered from all test pits (apart from TP50). It should also be noted that a large quantity of medieval pottery was recovered from TP 37 (35 sherds), TP 46 (76 sherds) and TP 49 (39 sherds). These test pits were excavated in: the northern area of Church Green, possible indicating the location of the medieval market area (TP 37); and possible medieval settlement activity at the rear of burgess/housing plots adjacent to Frogmore Lane, and Marlborough Lane. It should also be noted that TP 36, excavated on the western area of Church Green, had little medieval pottery, possibly due to later disturbance, as TP 36 indicted a large post medieval limestone surface within this area of the Green. Saxon pottery was also recovered from test pits 37, 38, 41 and 46 to 49, indicating Saxon settlement activity within the vicinity of Church Green, the Manor House (Manor Green), Upper Green and the High Street, close to Cox's Hall. This included 8th C grass tempered ware. Roman pottery was recovered from all test pits, apart from TP 36, 42, 45 and 50, with the largest quantities recovered from test pits adjacent to Marlborough Lane. It should be noted that the Roman pottery recovered from TP 37 may indicate continued use of Church Green, possibly as a market area, during this earlier period.

A large quantity of flint material, both worked and debitage, was also recovered from these test pits. This material dates from the Mesolithic period, with a large quantity of microliths, as well as a large quantity of Neolithic flint material. This includes a series of Neolithic blades and scrapers recovered from TP 36, 37 and 41, indicating the presence of Neolithic activity within the areas of Church Green and Cox's Hall. Furthermore, a large quantity of debitage and Neolithic worked flint was found at the base of TP43 (Upper Green) which is interpreted as a flint working area. A single barbed and tanged, beaker period, flint arrowhead was found within TP48, adjacent to Marlborough Lane (Figure 63). Significantly, three sherds of Bronze Age pottery were also found in an adjacent test pit (TP 49) which is the only one of two areas of Bronze Age pottery found in the village to date. Bronze Age worked flint material was also recovered from TP 37, 38 and 40 (Church Green, Manor Green and Manor Farm) indicating activity of this period occurring within the area. Lastly, four sherds of late Iron Age pottery was found in TP 43 at Upper Green, which is the only Iron Age pottery found at Stanford to date, and therefore may indicate Iron Age activity in this area of the modern village.

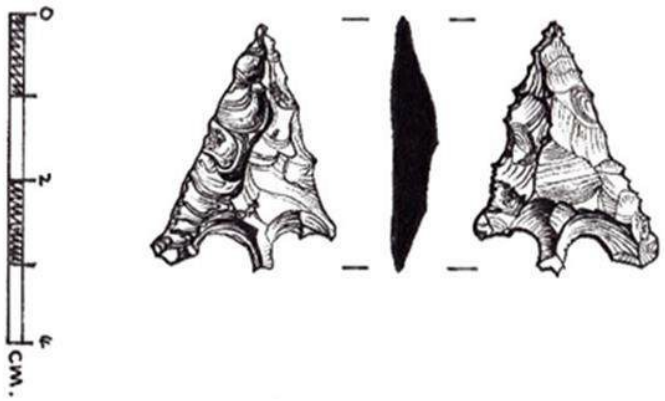

Figure 63. Archaeological illustration of Beaker period barbed and tanged flint arrowhead. (Drawing by Mike Brace)

Other finds material recovered from the test pits included a large quantity of animal bone mainly composed of sheep and cattle but also including pig, bird, and deer. A quantity of both iron and glass slag was also recovered, mostly dating to the post medieval to modern periods. However, a small quantity of both iron and glass slag was recovered from TP 37 and 41 thought to date to the medieval period, which may indicate industrial activities being undertaken within these areas of the settlement (Church Green and Cox's Hall) during this period. Further artefacts have also been recovered from all test pits, including metal finds dating to the post medieval to modern periods, as well as clay pipe fragments from the 17th to 19th centuries. Small finds were also recovered from these test pits dug on Church Green including: an 1861 Cu alloy coin and Cu alloy furniture handle

fitting recovered from TP 36 and a lead object (possibly medieval in date) an iron knife, bone button and stone marble from TP 37. The end of an iron, medieval, stone working chisel was fund within TP 46.

Lastly, a series of features and structures were also identified within the 15 test pits excavated. This includes: a post hole and ditch feature or structure related cut feature, both post medieval in date, found within TP 37 on Church Green; a modern soak-away in TP 38; a limestone surface possibly related to WW2 or post medieval activity in the area of TP 39 (Joyces Road); two intercutting gullies, with the later one dating to the medieval period, found at the base of TP 41 (Figure 64) and a post medieval land drain in the base of TP44. A medieval inner ditch in the base of TP46, and a rear ditch possibly indicate a medieval burgess or house/shop plot, which fronted Chapel Road, and coincide with the burgess plot/housing plot boundaries seen in the historic mapping seen in Figure 18 (red lines). A modern path was found in TP49 while TP 43 a stone wall revetment, holding up a soil bank (at least at its base), with a packed limestone surface on its exterior, possibly forms a path or hard standing area adjacent to the enclosure. This is thought to form a medieval pound which correlates with a rectangular earthwork on Upper Green (Figure 65).

Figure 64. Section photograph of deposits within TP 41, showing two intercutting gullies.

Figure 65. Plan photograph of pound structure within TP 43, showing stone wall revetment holding up a soil bank and packed limestone surface on its exterior.

Also, in TP36 a, rammed, compact limestone and sand surface, thought to date to either the post medieval or pre-post medieval periods was identified. It should be noted that this feature was difficult to date as no finds material was recovered. As it was found to overlay the solid Limestone geology it was not able to be dated through earlier deposits. This surface is thought to possibly relate to hard standing or a possible enclosure related to the market (Figure 66), as it may relate to an earthwork located within this area of the site. Alternatively, this feature may be interpreted as relating to the pound, as stated in documentary material, located on Church Green (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 137). However, finds material from the overlaying deposits indicated both medieval and prehistoric activity through the recovery of pottery and worked flint material (Neolithic).

Figure 66. Section photograph of deposits within TP 36, showing limestone surface

At the base of TP 40 the most significant cut feature was identified, a curvilinear gully dating to the Roman period. This feature is significant as it indicates early Roman settlement activity, close to Manor Farm, on the outskirts of the current village. where habitation of this date has previously been unknown. TP 40 also suggests that by the end of the Roman period and into the later periods, this area went out of use as it is likely to form marshland, with alluvial deposits (also seen in TP 29, Horse and Jockey Pub), causing the early Roman settlement to be abandoned.

TEST PIT 51 TO 57

Lastly, within test pits 51 to 57 pottery remains from the test pits enabled a large amount of information to be gained about the changing nature of the settlement over time. As indicated all the test pits contained post medieval and modern pottery. The pottery evidence also suggests the location of medieval activity within the settlement, with medieval pottery being recovered from all test pits. It should also be noted that a large quantity of medieval pottery was recovered from TP 52 (18 sherds) and TP 54 (23 sherds). These test pits were excavated in Spencers Close and the High Street and were both found with thick deposits of homogenise plough or garden soils dating to this period. Saxon pottery was also recovered, from test pits 52, 54 and 57, with the largest quantity found in TP 53, (Neville Way). This is the most significant amount of Saxon pottery found in a single test pit to date (20 sherds) and includes 8th C grass tempered ware and Anglo-Norman pottery and therefore indicates Saxon activity in the vicinity of this test pit. Roman pottery was recovered from all test pits, with the largest quantities recovered from TP 52. Here six cut Roman stake holes and a

small pit were also found (Figure 67) as well as a Roman coin dating to the mid-4th C AD. These features were found underlying a thick deposit of plough soil (discussed above) and therefore indicate that the area was inhabited, with the presence of structures during the Roman period but during later periods was mainly used for agricultural use. It should also be noted these features were found close to TP 41, also dug in Spencers Close, where a Roman gully was found. These features indicated significant Roman activity underlying this area of Stanford, which was previously unknown.

Figure 67. Plan photograph of six stake holes and a section of small pit feature found at the base of TP 52, all Roman in date.

A large quantity of flint material, both worked and debitage, was also recovered from these test pits during this season of work across the village. This material dates from the Mesolithic period with a microliths, as well Neolithic flint material also being recovered. Apart from flint material one sherd of Bronze Age pottery was also found in test pit 54 (37 High Street), which is the only fourth sherd of Bronze Age pottery found in the village to date. This is significant as this test pit is close to 11 Marlborough Lane where three further sherds were found. This gives further weight to the theory that the early settlement at Stanford formed in this area of the current village and then spread north. However, further work is needed in this area to confirm this theory.

Other finds material recovered from the test pits included a large quantity of animal bone mainly composed of sheep and cattle but also including pig, bird, and house. A quantity of both iron and glass slag was also recovered, mostly dating to the post medieval to modern periods. However, a small quantity of both iron and glass slag was recovered from TP 52 and 53 which is thought to

date to the Roman and Saxon periods. This may indicate industrial activities being undertaken within these areas of the settlement (Spencers Close and Neville Way). Further artefacts have also been recovered from all test pits including metal finds mostly dating to the post medieval to modern periods, however, some dated to the Roman period were found in TP 52 and 53. Saxon and Roman daub was also recovered from TP 52. One possible Roman tesserae found in TP 57 (Manor Crescent), indicates the possibility of a high status building of this period within the vicinity. Fragments clay pipe, dating to the 17th to 19th centuries were found in the majority of test pits.

Small finds were also recovered from the test pits including: Cu alloy buttons from TP 51 and TP 56 and a Cu alloy pin and a whetstone, either Roman or medieval in date, from TP 53. The most significant small find recovered was from TP 57 (Manor Crescent) and comprised a worked bone tuning peg with hole at one end which dates to the medieval period and would have been used to tune a stinging musical of this period, such as a rebec (the predecessor of the modern violin). This is significant in two ways: firstly, as very few musical instruments were present during the medieval period bone tuning pegs are a rare find on archaeological sites of this period (in comparison, an excavation in Carlisle found one during a major open area excavation (Howard-Davis, 2009, 864, Fig.527)). Secondly, the presents of a rebec at Stanford indicates high statues activities, as these were high class, expensive instruments. This suggests they are more likely to be associated with urban areas such as towns, rather than small rural villages. This, therefore, further indicates that Stanford was a town during the medieval period.

Lastly, a series of features and structures were also identified within the seven test pits excavated. This includes: a post medieval linear ditch and underlying undated stake hole in TP 51 (Horsecroft), the latter which correlates to a land boundary seen on the 1874 OS map; a concrete footing for a timber WWII 'Officers/Sergeants Latrines' building found within TP 52, as well as the seven Roman stake holes discussed above; evidence for a paleochannel at the base of TP53 (Neville Way), which correlates with surrounding test pits in the area; a modern pit in TP 54 as well as a layer of dumped slag material thought to related to the construction of the adjacent Methodist Chapel in 1888; the corner of a limestone wall, and associated footing cut for a medieval timber building fronting a burgess/housing plot on the High Street found in TP 55 (Stones Farmhouse) as well as a linear cut gully thought to be either Saxon or Roman in date; a large square post hole, 0.50m^2 by 0.50m deep, cut into the underlying limestone geology dating to the medieval period found at the base of TP 56, and thought to form part of a substantial high statues timber hall building fronting the Chapel Road during this period and a Roman or prehistoric post pit found at the base of TP 57 (Manor Crescent).

TP no.	Location	NGR	Underlying Geology	Total depth of Test pit	Prehistoric Finds		Roman Finds		Saxon Finds		Medieval Finds		Post medieval Finds		Modern Finds		Features
					P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	
12	The Vicarage	434162, 193498	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0	BA WF	4	Opiase Signinam	6		46		8		39		Stone wall (building) medieval
13	6 Cottage Road	433955, 193855	Alluvium	0.50m	0		2		0		0		2		10		
14	Priors Close, Chapel Road	434346, 193565	Alluvium	0.40m	0	M/N WF	2		15		17		2		15		2 post holes (structure) Saxon
15	49 Joyces Road	433898, 193526	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.36m	0		0		0		0		1		5	WW2 ammunition casing	Pit modern
16	2 Huntersfield	434260, 193298	Alluvium	0.57m	0	M/N WF	2		2		2		0		6		
17	3 Bow Brick Kilns, Bow Road	434347, 194210	Alluvium	0.50m	0	BA WF	0		0		0	Floor tile	0		2		Water pipe modern Brick kiln (foundations) 19th C Pit pre 19th C
18	5 Church Green	434281, 193559	Alluvium	0.38m	0	M/N WF	0	Cu alloy coin 367-375 AD	0		3		32		8		
19	Long Acer House, Horsecroft	434763, 193379	Alluvium	0.50m	0	M/BA WF (M core)	1	Hobnail	0		0		0		0		
20	24 Chapel Road	434281, 193774	Alluvium	0.67m	0	BA WF N WF (18) & debitage	0		0		1		81	Mallard duck skeleton	94		Linear gully Neolithic
21	12 Church Green	434247, 193603	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.70m	0		0		0		0		74		126	Cat skeleton	Concrete air raid shelter WW2
22	4 St Denys Close	434107, 193249	Unknown	1.00m	0		0		2		0		4		7		Brick wall (Nissan hut/air raid bunker) WW2
23	53 High Street	434172, 193111	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.37m	0		6	CBM	2		2		5		61		Yard surface with post hole 19th C
24	12 Upper Green	434128, 193950	Alluvium	0.75m	0	BA WF	1		3		17		4		12		Stone wall (timber framed building) medieval
25	18 Ock Meadow	434557, 193346	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.55m	0	N WF	1		0		4		4		0		Pit Neolithic
26	19 High Street	434387, 193270	Unknown	0.65m	0	M/BA WF	44	Stone bead Whetstone	4		27		15		99	Clay pipe	Ditch fill Roman
27	60 Faringdon Road	433745, 193443	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.59m	0		0		0		0	Iron slag Kiln lining Burnt daub	13	Iron slag Kiln lining	25		Post pit post medieval

TP no.	Location	NGR	Underlying Geology	Total depth of Test pit	Prehistoric Finds		Roman Finds		Saxon Finds		Medieval Finds		Post medieval Finds		Modern Finds		Features
					P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	
28	Stanford House (Paddock), Chapel Road	434174, 193840	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.86m	0	M/N WF	15		1		91	Basalt quern stone Burnt Daub Glass Slag	9		30		Timber slot medieval Medieval 'dark earth' deposit
29	Horse and Jockey Pub (Paddock)	433817, 193014	Alluvium	0.80m	0	M/N WF	6		1		12		23		21		
30	Orchard House, High Street	434373, 193419	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.65m	0		3		0		3		14		31		2 phases garden path post medieval Flowerbed post medieval
31	4 Warwich Close	434157, 193202	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0	N WF (Leaf-shaped arrowhead)	2		0		3		19	Iron slag	11		Surface with post hole 19th C
32	6 Glebe Road	433874, 193494	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.40m	0		0		0		0		0		4		
33	1 Glebe Road	433921, 193501	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.20m	0		0		0		0		3		5		
34	3 Warwich Close	434148, 193215	Alluvium	0.90m	0	N/BA WF	33	Tesserae	2		21	Iron slag Kiln lining Burnt daub Bone comb	4		4		
35	7 Church Path	434161, 193367	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.70m	0	M WF	5	CBM	1		16	Burnt Duab	8		11		Yard surface 19th – 20th C
36	Church Green	434259, 193507	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0	N WF	0		0		2		24		65		Rammed limestone surface medieval
37	Church Green	434246, 193559	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.96m	0	N/BA WF	11		1		35	Iron Slag Glass slag Burnt daub Folded lead	60		51		Post hole post medieval Ditch post medieval
38	7 Manor Green	434133, 193424	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.80m	0		4		3		13		2		4		Soakaway modern
39	17 Joyces Road	434032, 193563	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.50m	0		1		0		1		9		35		Yard surface modern to post medieval
40	Manor Farm Cottage	433968, 192895	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0		9		0		2		8		12		Curvilinear gully Roman
41	24 Spencers Close	434055, 193146	Alluvium	0.50m	0	M/N WF	2		2		11		3		21		Sub-base of tennis court modern

TP no.	Location	NGR	Underlying Geology	Total depth of Test pit	Prehistoric Finds		Roman Finds		Saxon Finds		Medieval Finds		Post medieval Finds		Modern Finds		Features
					P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	
																	2 gullies (intercutting): 1 curvilinear medieval; 1 linear Saxon/Roman
42	4 Joyces Road	434066, 193648	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.30m	0	M/N WF	0		0		1	Glass slag	1		0		
43	Upper Green	434112, 193869	Alluvium	0.80m	4 IA	N WF (large quantity) M/BA WF	11		0		0		4		16		Wall, back and surface (pound) medieval Flint working area Neolithic
44	Upper Green	434124, 193879	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.70m	0	N WF	1		0		3		30		23		Land drain modern Cobbled surface post medieval
45	11 Upper Green	434119, 193978	Alluvium	0.60m	0	M/N/BA WF	0		0		10		2		18		
46	6 Frogmore Lane	434360, 193661	Alluvium	0.63m	0	M/N/BA WF	7	CBM	2		76	Iron chisel (stone working)	10		38		Linear ditch medieval
47	Ock Meadow, Bow Road	434446, 194444	Alluvium	0.40m	0	M WF	3		2		0		4		0		
48	13 Marlborough Lane	434403, 193128	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.50m	0	M/N/BA WF N/BA barbed & tanged arrowhead	26		2		25		8		14		
49	11 Marlborough Lane	434372, 193144	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.70m	3 BA	M/N/BA WF	25		2		39		8		56		Garden path modern
50	3 Cottage Road	434011, 193774	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.23m	0	M/N WF	0		0		0		0		1		
51	19 Horsecroft	434471, 193480	Alluvium	0.68m	0	M/N/BA WF	3		0		1		8		55		Linear ditch post medieval Stake hole pre post medieval
52	9 Spencers Close	433947, 193169	Alluvium	0.90m	0	M/N WF	30	Cu alloy coin 306-337 AD Glass slag	5		18	Iron slag	3		19		Concrete footing latrines WW2 6 stake hole & 1 pit Roman
53	11 Neville Way	434057, 193241	Alluvium	0.90m	0	M/N WF	15	Whetstone	20		9	Basalt quern stone	3		7		
54	37 High Street (The Old Chapel)	434283, 193213	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.58m	1 BA	N WF	15		1		23		35	Iron slag	165		Hardstanding post medieval
55	Stones Farmhouse, Faringdon Road	434073, 193020	Kimmeridge Formation	0.42m	0	N WF	1		0		5		4		22		Stone foundation (timber framed building) medieval Linear gully Saxon/Roman

TP no.	Location	NGR	Underlying Geology	Total depth of Test pit	Prehistoric Finds		Roman Finds		Saxon Finds		Medieval Finds		Post medieval Finds		Modern Finds		Features
					P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	
56	17 Chapel Road	434222, 193733	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0	N WF	3		0		6		23	Cu ally & bone buttons	277		Large post hole (timber framed building) medieval
57	34 Manor Crescent	433997, 193391	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.60m	0	N WF	4	Tessera	1		2	Bone tuning peg	8		2		Pit Roman/prehistoric

Key: P = Pottery (number of shurds); O = Other significant finds materials; M = Mesolithic; N = Neolithic; BA = Bronze Age; IA = Iron Age; WF = Worked Flint

Table 9. Evidence uncovered from test pits 12 to 57 excavated at Stanford in the Vale during the PhD thesis period.

Charney Bassett

Geophysical Survey

During the period of this thesis, two areas were surveyed using resistivity survey equipment, as discussed in the methodology. Within these areas both archaeological and modern features were identified dating to multi-periods. The data from these sites surveyed will be explained, a copy of the results will be shown, followed by a discussion on its interpretation. A map indicating the survey areas undertaken using this technique is seen in Figure 68.

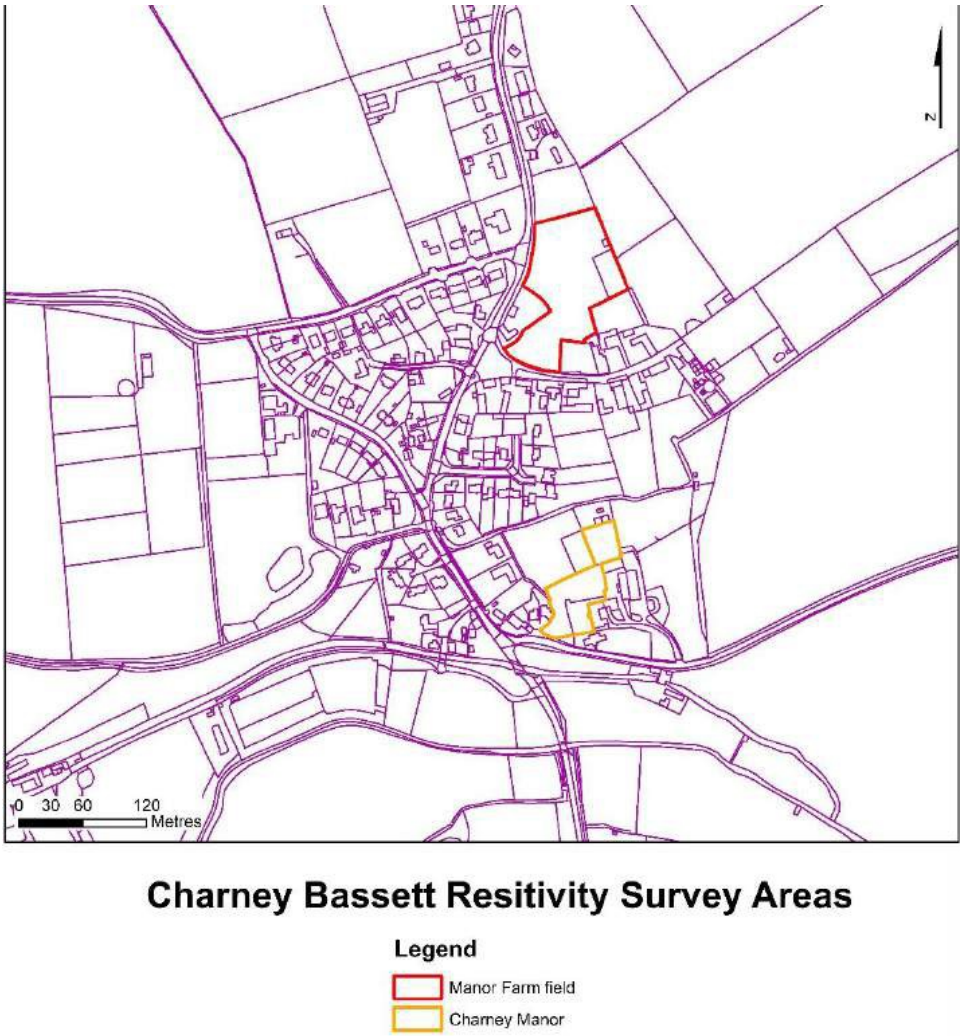

Figure 68. Map showing the location of the areas where geophysical data has been collected during the thesis period, within the village of Charney Bassett.

CHARNEY MANOR

Within the grounds of Charney Manor and the associated area surveyed (SU 3808, 9444) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 69. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 23. As discussed in Chapter 2, Charney Manor dates back to the 12th C, with a photograph of the current manor house seen in Figure 70.

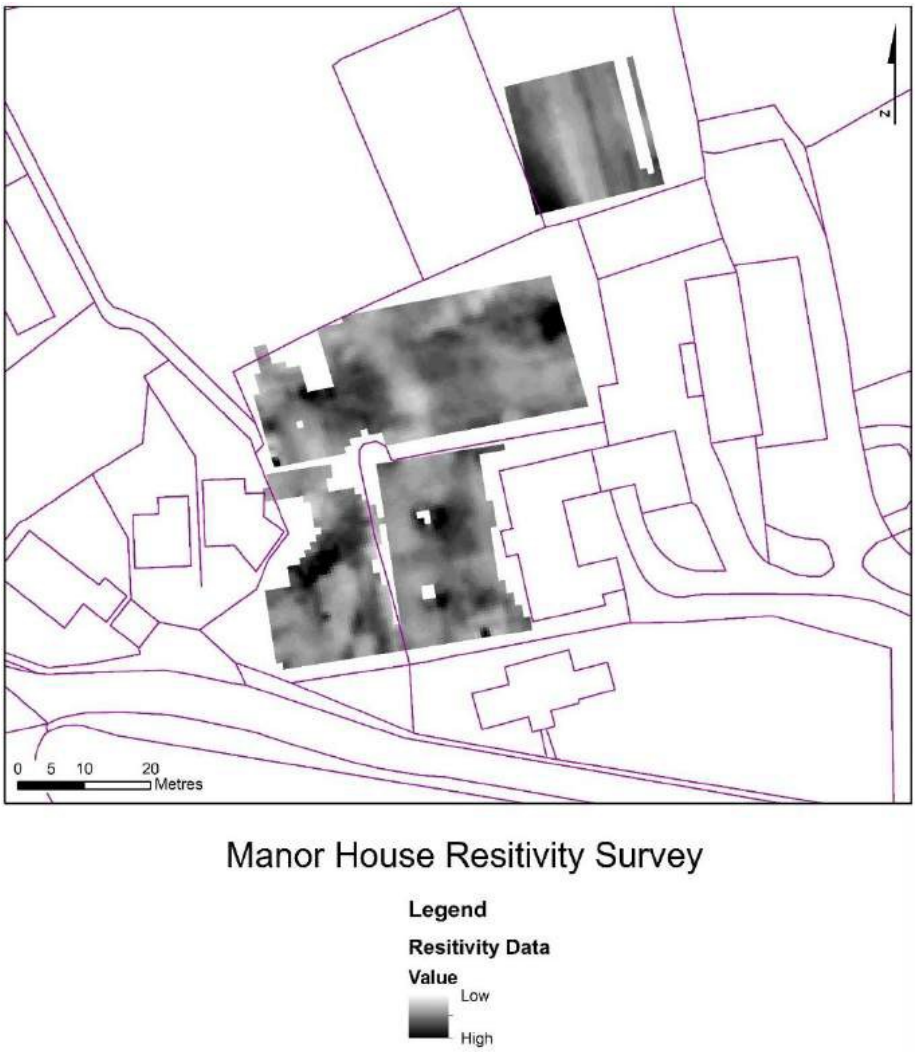

Figure 69. Resistivity data collected from Charney Manor house grounds, Charney Bassett.

Figure 70. Photography of the current manor at Charney Bassett (Charney Manor, 2020).

The resistivity survey was undertaken within the gardens of the Charney Manor to the east of the current house. The main group of features identified from the survey data are the foundations of a demolished section of the medieval hall as highlighted in Figure 72 in green. As seen on the data plot, both the external walls as well as a number of internal walls, forming rooms can be seen. This includes, close to the current standing structure, a number of wall features which correlate with those found during the 1964 excavations carried out in the grounds of the Manor and demonstrates a continuation of the solar wing further to the west than is seen today (Wood, 1976, 45). However, as seen on the resistivity data, this wing of buildings extends much further than seen during the excavation, forming two further rooms to the west which were previously unknown. The survey data also demonstrates a wall running north-south, possibly indicating a second medieval wing of the house, at 90° to the solar and possibly forming a medieval hall. This structure is likely to continue under the current 17th century house. Of the two rooms previously unknown, the one of these furthest west, contains a circular feature in the corner of the room. This feature, with its associated adjacent thick wall has been interpreted as the base of a possible spiral staircase. This is significant as it indicates this part of the building was at least two storeys in height. It may be surmised that this staircase gave access to the solar and other adjacent rooms on the 1st floor.

Evidence for this demolished wing extending out from the existing medieval wing of the hall can also be seen in the current standing structure of the building. As shown in Figure 71, a section of

blocked window mullion can be seen with the southern external wall of the building on the first floor. This window has been chopped off by the later gable end wall of the wing, and therefore further indicated this wing extended further west, as shown on the resistivity data discussed above, making this wing more than three times its current length.

Figure 71. Photograph of the inside of the Charney Manor house, in the southern wing on the 1st floor showing a blocked in and vertically truncated medieval window mullion.

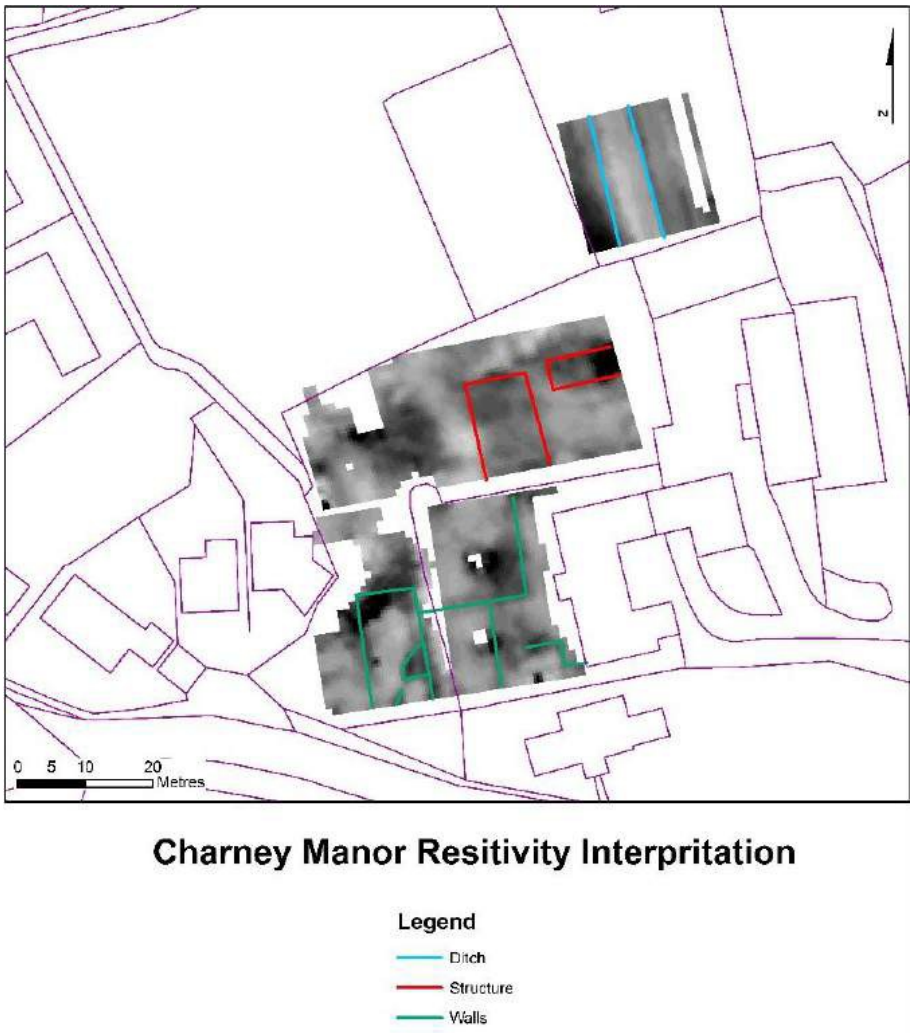

Figure 72. Interpretation of resistivity data collected from Charney Manor house gardens, indicating possible archaeological features.

The survey data also indicates three further features. This includes two possible structures to the north of the current house, which may form further buildings associated with the medieval manor house complex. It may be surmised that these structures may form a continuation of those seen in the structures to the south, with a possible adjacent and separate kitchen structure. No wall lines can be seen within these possible structures, which may be due to large volume of demolition rubble within these buildings. However, the latter of these two structures (furthest east) has a high resistance anomaly at its eastern end, which may represent a fireplace or other large high resistance feature. Excavation in this part of the site would be required to confirm the exact date and function of these structures. The final feature identified is a possible linear ditch feature running north-south on the survey, to the north east of the current Manor house. This ditch feature may either be medieval or Saxon in date, and represents the eastern boundary of the medieval complex during this date. However, due to only a small section of this anomaly being identified, it is difficult to

determine the exact extent of this possible ditch feature and therefore further work would be required within this area to determine this.

MANOR FARM FIELD

Within the survey area of Manor Farm Field (SU 3807, 9474) a series of anomalies were identified on the plot, Figure 73. Each feature is described and discussed in Appendix 24.

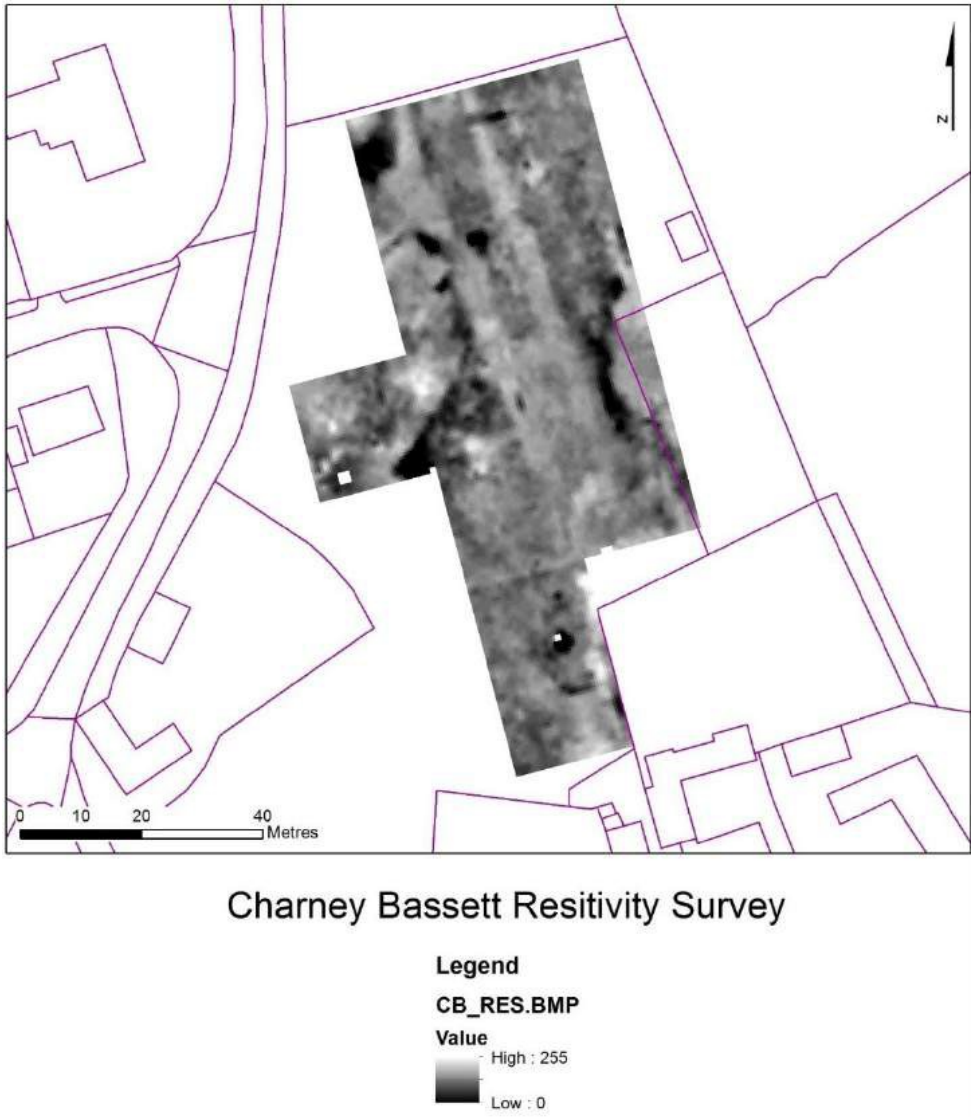

Figure 73. Resistivity data collected from Manor Farm Field, Charney Bassett.

The resistivity survey was undertaken within the field of the Manor Farm to the south west of the current house and adjacent to the Green Road and Longworth Road. Four possible archaeological features have been identified on the plot, as indicated in Figure 74. The first of these

features aligns with a linear earthwork bank which runs through the centre of the field on a north south alignment. As indicted by the geophysical data, this feature has been interpreted as a raised trackway with metaled surface and two linear parallel diches, one running down either side of the track. This trackway is thought to be medieval in date as it coincides and respects the housing plots discussed below. It can also be seen to have connected the Green Road and the northern section of Longworth Road, possibly indicating it predates the adjacent Manor Farm buildings and gardens.

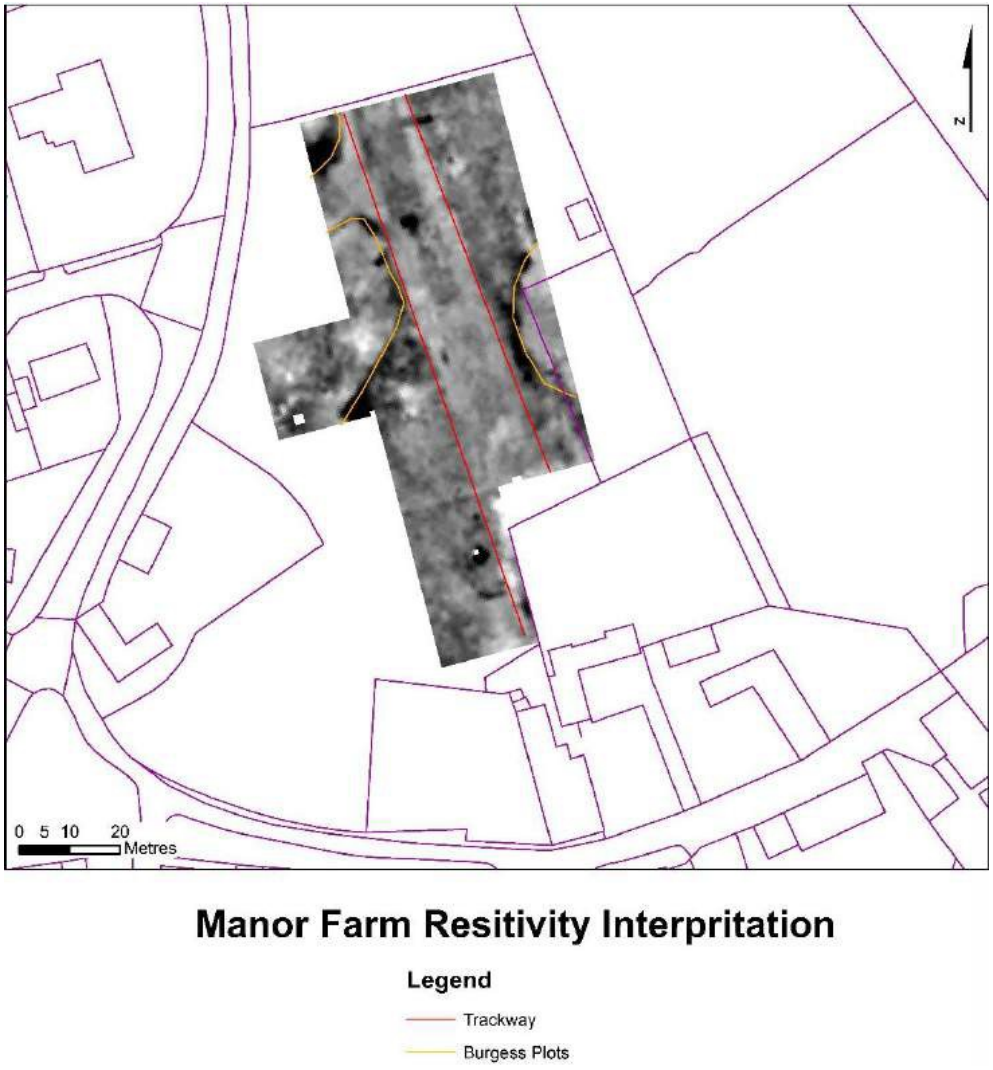

Figure 74. Interpretation of resistivity data collected from Charney Manor Farm field, indicating possible archaeological features.

The other three features identified on the plot are interpreted as the rear boundary of three possible medieval housing plots, two of which would have fronted Longworth Road with the third fronting the trackway which runs through this field (discussed above) and indicated on the geophysical plot. All three of these housing plots are important as they do not relate to any modern or post medieval housing on the site and, therefore, indicate a possible abandonment of this central

area of the village during the later medieval to early post medieval periods. However, to confirm the date of this possible abandonment archaeological excavations would be required to be undertaken.

Test Pitting

During the period of the thesis nine test pits were excavated across the area of the village with their locations seen in Figure 24. The archaeological evidence from the TPs is examined, including important features and artifacts/ecofacts and their dating discussed. Detailed phasing for each TP is seen in Appendix 25. It should be noted that for every TP excavated spit 001 comprised the modern topsoil and turf (unless otherwise stated) and because of this will not be discussed further in these sections. A detailed breakdown of the composition and interpretation of each spit, cut and fill from each TP in can be seen in Appendix 26 and a detailed breakdown of the finds recovered from each TP in Appendix 27. As seen from Table 10 a significant amount of archaeology was found within the nine test pits excavated within four distanced areas of Charny Basset village.

TEST PITS 1 TO 9

The first two test pits which were excavated (TP 1 and 2) where excavated in the area of the village which now forms Church green. Significantly, a rammed limestone surface was found at the base of TP 1, however, this contained little finds material to date it. This feature has significance as it is comparable to a surface found in Stanford in the Vale within TP 36 (discussed above) which was excavated on Church Green. This is thought to be medieval to early post medieval in date and therefore relate to the market of this period. Also, within these two test pits, a small volume of Saxon pottery was found possibly indicating activity of this period within the area. The second area excavated was two test pits (TP 3 and 4) within the rear garden of Mill Cottage. These two test pits revealed little evidence pre-dating the late medieval to post medieval periods (demolition rubble and the mill channel and retaining wall (see Figure 75) and therefore relate to the adjacent historic mill and house. The only finds material recovered pre-dating this was prehistoric worked flint material dating to the Neolithic period possibly indicating activity of this period on this site.

Figure 75. Section photograph of deposits within TP 4, Mill Cottage, showing the stone revetment wall of a leat associated with the adjacent water mill.

The third area excavated was within the old tennis court in the grounds of the Manor House. Unlike the other test pits the top layers of these three test pits were all formed of tarmac and the associated made ground which formed the court surface. Below this modern material little finds material was recovered from any of these three test pits. The deposits within these three test pits were all formed of alluvium thought to relate to sustained flooding in this area. One TP also containing a post hole at its base (undatable) and a second a gravel filled paleochannel thought to relate to the post glacial activity in the area and date to the early prehistoric period.

The fourth and final area which was excavated was two test pits within the garden of Wick Cottage which is adjacent to the river Ock. Both test pits excavated presented evidence for the demolition of a post medieval property which was known to be located on the site, as seen from historic mapping. Below this an alluvial deposit containing Neolithic and Mesolithic worked flint material was found in both test pits. Within TP8 this was found to overlay the alluvial geology and differed to TP9 which overlaid a gully feature cut into the solid Stanford formation geology. This gully feature was found to contain prehistoric worked flint material of a Neolithic date Other finds material dating to the medieval Roman, Neolithic and Mesolithic, including a large quantity of Mesolithic to Neolithic work flint material and debitage, including blades and scrapers, was also found indicating activity within the area during these periods.

Due to the high volume of flint material it is interpreted that this layer may possibly indicate a flint working area within the vicinity of these test pits. It is important to note that this test pit was excavated adjacent to the River Ock. Comparable sites indicate that these types of areas are important during the early prehistoric periods, as it is common to find flint working areas adjacent to rivers and streams (Hay, Garwood, Robinson, Barclay, & Bradley, 2011, 209, Fig. 10.12). It is likely that the alluvial material has therefore arisen from flooding episodes related to the adjacent River Ock (Stebbing, 1977).

TP no.	Location	NGR	Underlying geology	Total depth of Test pit	Prehistoric Finds		Roman Finds		Saxon Finds		Medieval Finds		Post medieval Finds		Modern Finds		Features
					P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O	
1	Village Green	438006, 194692	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.40m	0		0		0		1		12		44		Rammed limestone surface medieval/post medieval
2	Village Green	437996, 194678	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.40m	0		0		2		0		5	Window leading Iron slag	43		
3	Mill Cottage	438122, 194403	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.90m	0		1		0		4		67		98		
4	Mill Cottage	438130, 194394	Stanford Formation Limestone	1.15m	0	N WF	0		0		0		1	Stone roof tiles	14		Mill channel and retaining wall late med/early post med
5	Manor House	438090, 194495	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.55m	0		0		0		0		0		0		post hole no date
6	Manor House	438079, 194503	Stanford Formation Limestone	0.55m	0		0		0		0		0		1		
7	Manor House	438071, 194519	Alluvium	0.90m	0		6		0		0		0		2		Paleochannel, Palaeolithic
8	Wick Cottage	437990, 194413	Alluvium	0.90m	0	M/N WF	3		1		19		31		88		
9	Wick Cottage	437998, 194418	Stamford Formation Limestone	0.92m	0	N WF	3		3		23		37		41		Gully Neolithic

Key: P = Pottery (number of shurds); O = Other significant finds materials; M = Mesolithic; N = Neolithic; BA = Bronze Age; IA = Iron Age; WF = Worked Flint

Table 10. Evidence uncovered from each of the nine test pits excavated at Charney Bassett during the PhD thesis period

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

Within this chapter the current interpretations and findings will be discussed from the evidence presented in the Literature Review and the Results from the fieldwork undertaken in both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. Firstly, detailing the phasing for each settlement as a whole from the prehistoric to post medieval period and secondly, the possible evidence for Stanford's size and then shrinkage during the late medieval period. This will be examined in comparison to the archaeological evidence presented from Charney Bassett. Lastly, a more general discussion on the growth, development and decline, including evidence for these types of rural settlements with markets like Stanford, will be considered in the context of rural Oxfordshire.

The Growth and Development of Stanford in the Vale

Size, Location and Status of the Settlement

From the fieldwork undertaken for this thesis in the village of Stanford in the Vale, with reference to previous works revealing archaeological remains and from documentary evidence from later periods, the phasing of the village can be split into five distinct historic periods. These periods are: prehistoric (Mesolithic to 43 AD, at the end of the Iron Age); Roman (1st to 4th C); Saxon (6th to 10th C); medieval (12th to 14th C) and post medieval (15th to 19th C). Features and finds were also found dating to the modern period (20th to 21st C), including buried services, though these will not be discussed. The evidence for the village's past and formation during the prehistoric periods is important in examining the development of the settlement. However, as this thesis mainly sets out to examine the growth and decline of this type of settlement during its urbanization phases, evidence for Prehistoric Stanford is discussed in Appendix 28.

ROMAN

During the Roman period the settlement at Stanford is seen to have expanded rapidly in size indicating it was a much larger settlement than previously thought, with evidence obtained through trenching, geophysics and test pitting. One important aspect of evidence has come from test pitting. Large quantities of Roman pottery were found from across the modern village, with up to 44 sherds recovered from a single test pit (See Figure 76). The pottery recovered from test pitting, as well as trenching, in the village dates to the whole of the period of Roman occupation and includes: Black Burnish ware, Samian ware (1st to 2nd C), Oxford colour coat (3rd to 4th C) and greyware, as well as

other fine imported wares (Figure 76). This demonstrates that pottery was being imported into Stanford from across the Empire. Test pitting as well as trenching in the village has also indicated the occurrence of craft and industrial activities within the settlement at this time, including iron working (indicated by slag material), as well as the use of whet stones for sharpening of knives and other hand tools. Also, two Roman bronze coins have been found in the village during test pitting, one in TP 18 (5 Church Green), dating to Valens AD 367-375 and a second found in TP 52 (9 Spencers Close) dating to Emperor Constantine AD 306-337. Both these coins give further evidence for trade into the settlement during this period.

Evidence for Roman structures and buildings have also been found. This includes fragments of *opus signinum* recovered from TP12, thereby indicating the possible presence of a bathhouse and fragments of flue tile and floor tile usually associated with a hypocaust system. Roman tesserae found in TP34 and TP57, possibly indicating the presence of a building with a mosaic floor within these areas. Furthermore, fragments of Roman CBM have been found across the settlement, which may provide evidence for a series of high-status Roman buildings located within the Roman settlement of Stanford in the Vale. Evidence for Roman timber structures have been found during test pitting, as at the base of TP52 (9 Spencers Close) six stake holes were revealed. These are likely to have formed part of a timber structure on this site, dating to the Roman period.

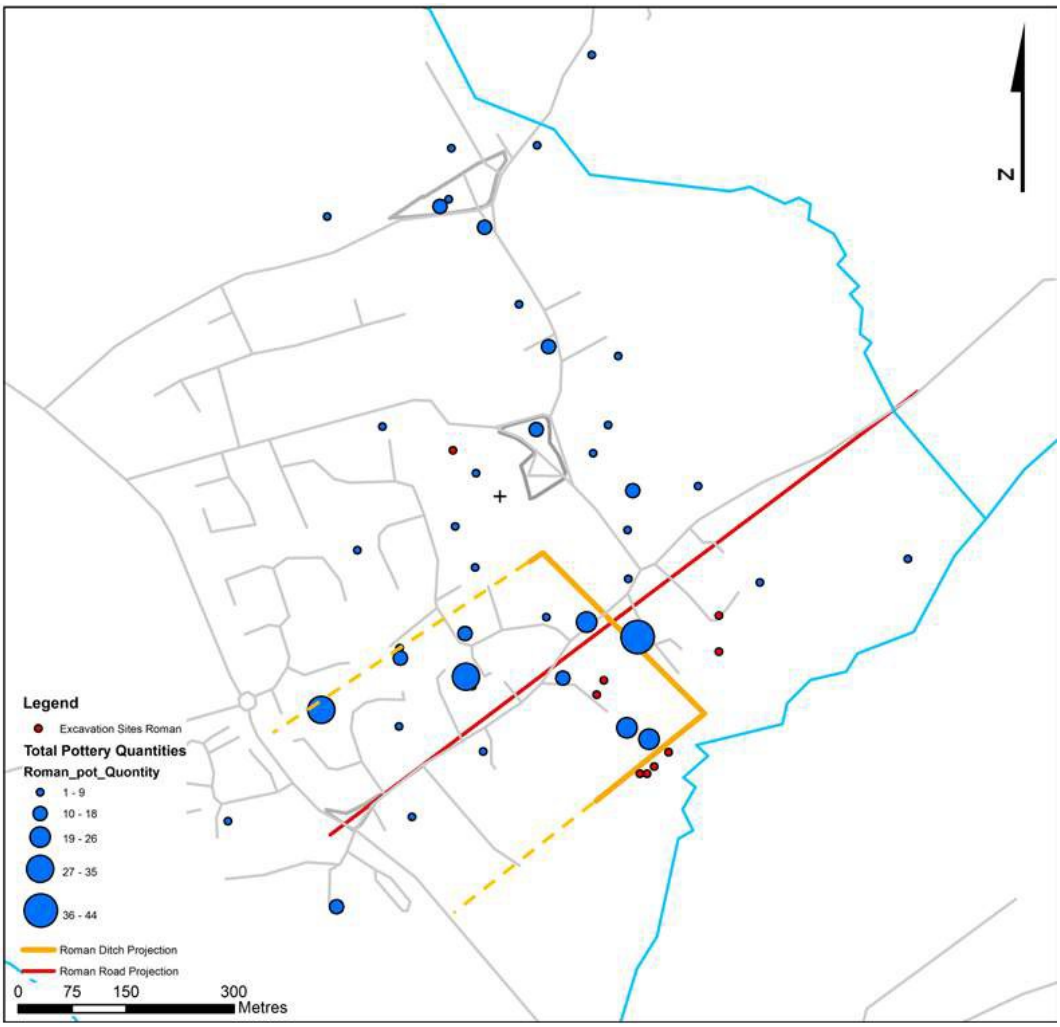

Figure 76. Map showing Roman pottery quantities from test pitting and the proposed position of the Roman settlement boundary ditch as indicated by findings from Trench 15, the Penstones Court geophysics plot, the cremation burials found in 2009 by Cotswold Archaeology and the proposed location of the Roman Road.

As seen from trench 15, the Penstones Court geophysical data (Ashby, 2013b, 70; 2014, 82-83) and TP26, Stanford's Roman settlement is shown to have been surrounded by a deep V-shaped ankle-breaker ditch, with evidence indicating it was surrounded by a bank constructed of the spoil removed from the ditch during its construction. From this, a projected location for the ditch is seen in Figure 76 although its western extent is not known at present. The location of this ditch is also supported by works carried out by Cotswold Archaeology. They uncovered two Roman cremation burials to its south in 2009 (Cotswold Archaeology, 2009, 7), just outside the location for the ditch surrounding the settlement. From the location of the ditch feature it is seen that the present current High Street running through the village may date to this period and if this is correct, it runs roughly through the centre of the Roman settlement. Finds from test pitting also indicate the presence of

Roman activity occurring within the settlement of Stanford, within both the fortified area with high quantities of Roman pottery found during test pitting, as well as outside the fortified enclosure. Therefore, this gives evidence for a *vicus* complex existing as a satellite community and growing up on the outskirts of the fortified settlement enclosure in the area surrounding Chapel Road. This also indicates that the ditched enclosure may be of military origin, which is supported by evidence from trench 15 showing that the ditch is of a military style, ankle breaker, ditch. This is further supported by evidence from LiDAR and test pitting, indicating the presence of Celtic field systems (Figure 77) surrounding the settlement to the north but not to the south of the Ock. This may also indicate the presence of low-lying marshland. It should also be noted that TP29 (Horse and Jockey Pub) and TP40 (Manor Farm Cottage) excavated to the west of the A417 support this argument, as they both demonstrate the presence of Roman alluvial deposits in this area which may suggest marshy or flooded ground during this period. However, it is also important to note that TP40 also indicates the presence of early Roman settlement activity in this area of Stanford, with a gully feature being found dating to this era. This is important as it demonstrates this area of the settlement was inhabited early in the Roman period but was abandoned, with the majority of the Roman settlement activities at Stanford. Thereafter, occupation moved to the higher land to the west, within the area of the current village settlement.

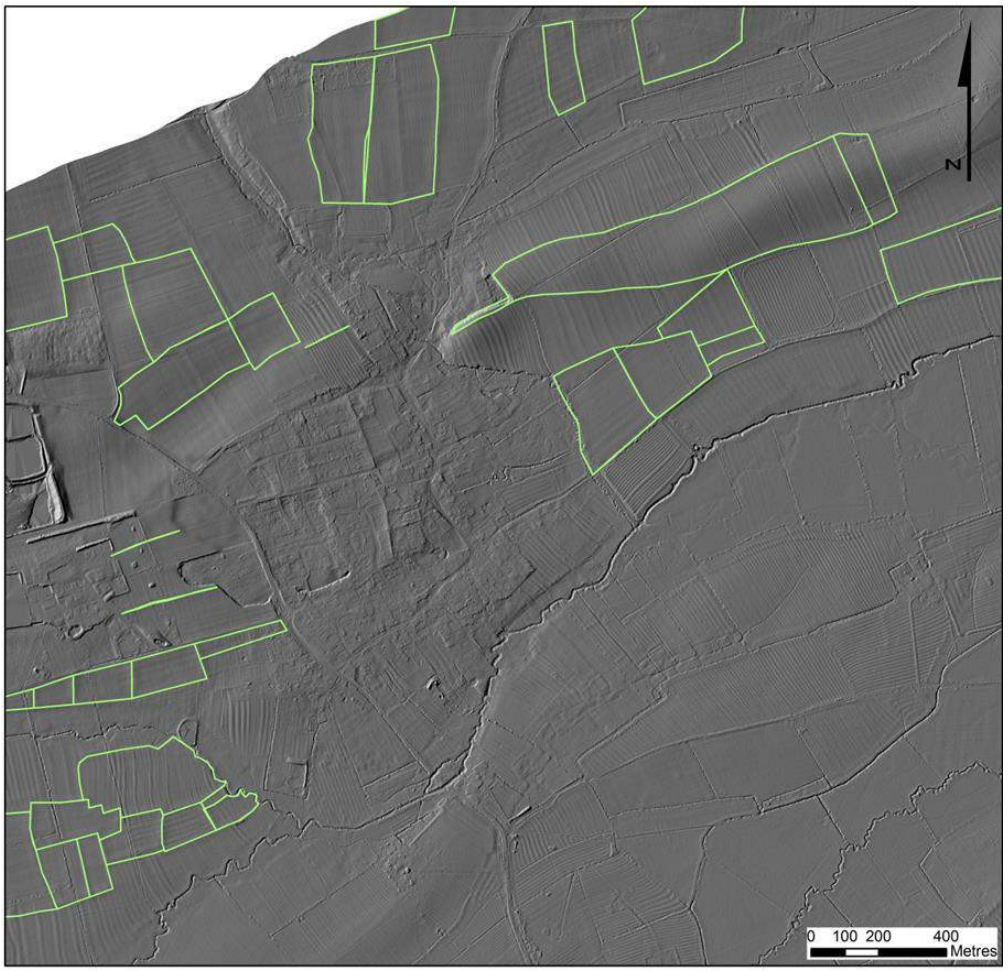

Figure 77. LiDAR image indicating Celtic field systems surrounding the current settlement of Stanford in the Vale (green lines indicating their location). Map produced from LiDAR data retrieved from (Environment Agency, 2014)).

From the evidence presented above for the Roman settlement at Stanford, two important points are indicated. Firstly, it is likely that Stanford was important, at least since the Roman period, possibly with a military origin and therefore the settlement's location may have controlled the crossing point over the marshlands to the south of the settlement and both the fording points over the River Ock and Frogmore Brook. This may also give reference to the name of the village 'Stanford' meaning stony ford (Mill, 2003, 433-434) and therefore indicates a fording point over one of these two streams and in turn demonstrates that the name Stanford is of Roman origin. Secondly, the present High Street in the village may have been in its current location since the Roman period and, therefore, forms the main road running through the settlement since this time. It is possible also that Chapel Road, running east west through the village as seen in Figure 77, dates to this period and was associated with a likely *vicus* settlement within the area. This is due to the volume of Roman pottery found surrounding this road in the village, which is located outside of the Roman rectangular enclosure. This indicates the possibility that the settlement has been in constant use sinceat least

the beginning of the Roman period and was not abandoned when the Romans left the country in 410 AD.

SAXON

From the works carried out during this thesis it has been shown that the Saxon settlement at Stanford was much larger than previously thought. Prior to 2012 only one amber bead and a single truncated pit was found within the area of the present village, dating to the Saxon period (Ashby, 2009, 12). The earliest evidence for Saxon activity at Stanford was found in trench 19, excavated in Ashdown House paddock, opposite the extant Anchor Inn and adjacent to the school playing field. This trench revealed possible evidence for Saxon activity in the village pre-dating the 8th C. Within this trench a series of post holes were revealed forming the gable ends of two substantial timber framed buildings, one overlying and therefore later than the other. No dating material was found in the post holes forming these features, however, due to their size and layout and in comparison with other examples of this type such as those found at Yarnton (Oxfordshire) and Higham Ferrers (Northamptonshire) (Booth, Dodd, Robinson, & Smith, 2007, 86-87; Hardy, Charles, & Williams, 2007), they are interpreted as two phases of post-built hall house. It should also be noted that one of these two structures is at a 45º angle to the current road and, therefore, is thought to be the earlier of the two structures. Taking these factors into account, the earlier (first) structure may date to the early Saxon period (5th to 6th C) and the second to the later Saxon period (post 7th C). This could therefore indicate the transition of Stanford from a village with no formal layout, as seen in the early Saxon period, to the more formal layout surrounding the Manor, as found in the later Saxon period.

Further evidence for the size and location of Stanford during the Saxon period is indicated through the 57 test pits excavated in the village. This includes quantities of Saxon pottery recovered from across the village dating from the 8th C (grass tempered ware) to the 10th C AD (Figure 78) and includes the largest quantity recovered from a single test pit, amounting to 20 sherds. Evidence from pottery found indicates the main Saxon settlement was located in the area surrounding the Church and Manor House, close to the historic centre of the village. This has further been supported through test pitting by the identification of two possible timber framed buildings dating to this period. The first of these was found at the base of TP1 and was formed of a series of post holes and a timber slot. This may indicate a possible timber framed building located close to the Manor House complex and High Street during this time (Ashby, 2013b, 71). The second was found at the base of TP 14 and was formed of a pair of large post holes containing Saxon material. This test pit indicates the

presence of a substantial timber framed Saxon building located within the central area of the settlement fronting Chapel Road and close to Church Green.

Finds from test pitting also show that Saxon activities occurred in the north of the settlement at Upper Green where, prior to 2012, settlement activity, dating to this period, at this end of the village had not previously been found. This suggests that the Saxon settlement may have been larger than previously thought. This is further supported by evidence from the Domesday Book; using the data in the Literature Review a Saxon population of between 190 and 200 villagers can be calculated, which is a large village settlement for this period. This may indicate the early development of the later medieval town or urban centre. The Domesday Book further states there were two mills at Stanford during this time (Morris, 1979, 21); until recently, one of these was thought to be located underlying the present Stanford Mill, adjacent to the River Ock (TP 11) (Ashby, 2014, 83). However, TP11 dug in the grounds of the present mill showed there was not a mill on the site predating the present one, therefore this previous assumption is demonstrated to be incorrect (Ashby, 2014, 83). Conversely, from excavations undertaken within trenches 17 and 18, evidence indicates that a possible early timber framed mill may have been built on this site prior to the construction of a later medieval stone mill (as discussed below). Therefore, this provides evidence for the location of one of the two Saxon mills stated in the Domesday Book. Furthermore, further industrial activities can be demonstrated to have occurred during the Saxon period through both test pitting and trenching at Stanford. These include iron and glass working, as well as brewing and leather working taking place in the settlement, shown through slag, a rubbing stone and barley seed remains.

Through both the excavation of trench 13 and geophysical evidence it is shown that a large ditch surrounded both the Church and Manor House (Figure 78) dating to the Saxon period, which also contained waterlogged carved wood remains as well as 10th C pottery (Ashby, 2013b, 71). From LiDAR data, both these structures are also seen to have been built on a raised natural platform which, as seen in trench 16, was subsequently enhanced over subsequent periods in the centre of the village. This evidence, as well as a large quantity of Saxon pottery, found in the top fills in the corner of the Roman ditch in trench 15 (Ashby, 2014, 83), indicate that the ditch may have surrounded a motte where the current Manor House is located as well as an early church underlying the present one. This is further supported by the GPR survey undertaken within the present church structure (see Figure 42), which demonstrates the high likelihood that the remains of a small stone Saxon nave underlie the present medieval stone church. The presence of this stone nave is important as stone churches of this date are unusual and are only constructed of stone where a

large, wealthy settlement is found. Where a settlement was of a lower order, churches are usually constructed of timber. This gives further evidence that Stanford had a greater impact on the area during this period than previously thought and, therefore, may indicate the beginnings of a town or urban centre as seen in the medieval period, discussed below.

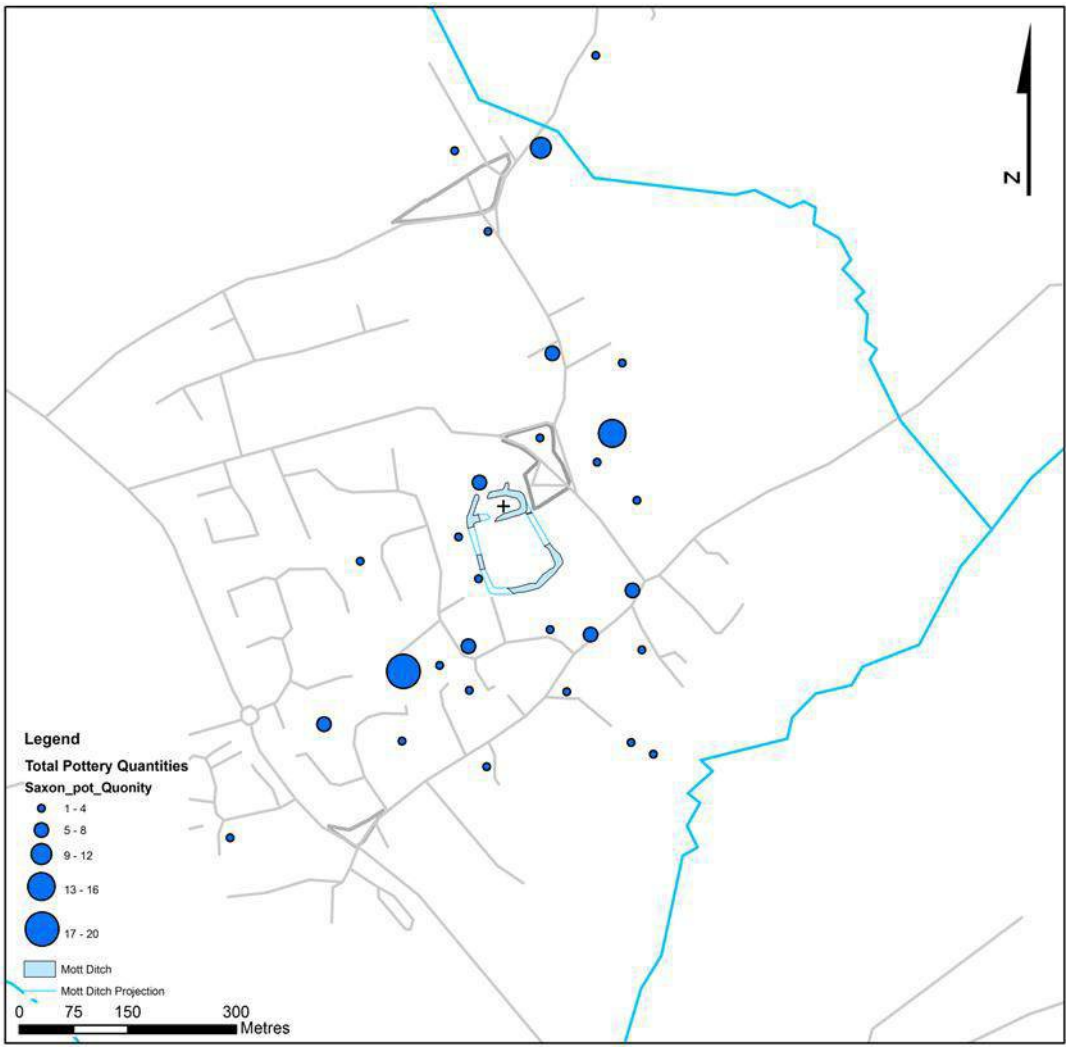

Figure 78. Map showing Saxon pottery quantities from test pitting and the Saxon ditch surrounding both the Manor House and Church.

MEDIEVAL

As seen from the archaeological evidence the settlement during the medieval period expanded rapidly to a larger size than is seen today. This can be comprehended from both previous and present archaeological fieldwork undertaken in the village as well as documentary sources from the time. From both the test pitting and trenching a large quantity of medieval pottery dating to the

12th to 14th C (Figure 79) has been found, with all bar 15 test pits recovering medieval pottery. The largest quantity recovered from a single 1m^2 test pit was 101 sherds. This is a significant quantity of pottery found across Stanford dating to this period. Several other important finds, dating to the medieval period, have been recovered which include small finds as well as material relating to industrial activities found across Stanford. The finds materials recovered demonstrate: weaving, through loom weights, a spindle whorl, bone comb and bone needles; iron, copper and glass working, through slag material, fragments of kiln lining and a single stone casting mould; bone and antler working; brewing, from charred barley remains; leather working from rubbing stones; the use of musical instruments, from a bone tuning peg, stone working and limestone quarrying from a fragment of iron stone working chisel and butchery from the large quantity of butchered animal material recovered from the site. This evidence indicates that the settlement was economically thriving during the medieval period.

Further evidence is also seen for either the manufacturing and or trading of high status goods within Stanford during the medieval period as in 1962 a unique decorated bronze skillet was found within the grounds of the Manor House (Dunning, 1962, 98). As evidence has been found within the medieval settlement for copper working it can be surmised that bronze working was also taking place, with the possible production of the bronze skillet. This, however, would be impossible to prove without detailed scientific analysis of both the metal compounds within the slag material and the bronze skillet. Evidence for the settlement having long distance trade links can also be seen from the archaeological remains. For example, several fragments of non-local basalt have been found within both test pitting and trenching at Stanford, indicating trade from outside the area, possibly as far afield as Scotland, Wales or the Rhineland. This material would have been imported, into the settlement at this period, in the form of high-quality quern stones (Cambridge Archaeology Field Group, 2014, 8). Also, the import of raw materials for metal and glass working would have occurred through long distance trade; with the possibility that iron ore imported from the Cotswolds (Tonks, 1988, 7), and copper and tin from Wales and Cornwall (Rainbow, 2018). Also, food materials such as oysters are present within the faunal remains, with these being imported from the coast over 60 miles away (Aston, 1988, 79). Furthermore, long distance trade can also be seen by the variety of medieval pottery recovered throughout Stanford from both test pitting and trenching. To date over 1000 fragments of medieval pottery have been found within the village dating from the 12th to 14th C. No pottery production is known at Stanford, therefore, it is thought to have all been bought in and traded into the settlement during this period. An example of this trade is the import of West Berkshire comb patterned ware into Stanford, which was made near Newbury (Millor, 1994). The evidence indicated by the finds material recovered from the settlement shows that

Stanford was economically thriving during the medieval period, including long distance trade, industrial activities, as well as craft production.

However, unlike the industrial and pottery remains which were recovered from the settlement, the faunal material from this period may indicate possible problems starting to occur in Stanford. Systemic disease can be observed to have affected a large percentage of the animal population as seen in their skeletal remains, with new bone growth being observed across all species (an example is seen in Figure 79). This may indicate the start of the downturn of the settlement as diseased animals may have been kept for longer if less money and trade was being brought into the settlement.

Figure 79. Photograph of sheep mandible from Stanford showing a large quantity of new bone growth due to systemic disease compared to a normal healthy sheep mandible.

Apart from the finds material recovered, a large number of buildings dating to this period have also been identified through excavation, test pitting and geophysical techniques, as well as documentary research. As seen from Figure 81 a large percentage of these are in areas of the village where only pasture exists today. This includes Church Green, where it is thought that the medieval market was held (both a fair and market charter were granted to the settlement in 1230 (Maine, 1866, 19; Victoria County History, 1924, 478-485)). Until the early 1800s Church Green was also the location of a blind house and stocks and a stone built pound for holding livestock was located on Upper Green, as demonstrated by TP 43 (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 137). Through the geophysical survey undertaken on Church Green and test pitting (TP 36 and 37) further possible structures are observed which are likely to have been part of the market activities

undertaken on the site. The location of a market on this site has further significance and indicates the settlement possibly being a town or urban centre, due to its location adjacent to both the Manor House and church. This significant location is discussed in the literature as in most cases the market area of a town was located adjacent to these two major structures (Slater, 2007a, 21). Due to the significance of its location within the proposed town or urban centre the structural changes to the church are seen to be important during the medieval period. As seen from the literature, building recording and GPR survey undertaken within the church, they indicate that the church rapidly expanded in size during the medieval period. As observed, during the early 12th C a single stone nave and chancel were constructed, replacing the Saxon nave (discussed above). Thereafter, in the 13th C, the tower and north aisle were added, and subsequently a porch, the top section of the tower and steeple, were built in the early 14th C. It should be noted that the steeple does not exist today, as it blew down in a storm in the early 17th C (Howse, 1987). With the addition of the upper part of the tower and spire, this made the church an impressive and easily seen feature within the surrounding landscape. It would have, therefore, made it a large navigational marker within the area, drawing people from far and wide into Stanford and its market.

As discussed, the evidence from the church structure indicates that there was a strong economy within the settlement at this period, as a large amount of money and manpower was invested to undertake these works. The structure of the church can also be compared to other town churches in the area, such as Wantage, which was of a similar size to Stanford during this period (Pevsner, 1966, 252). Also, the literature and excavations carried out in trench 16, indicates the importance of the adjacent Manor House. During the period between 1230 and 1237 the Manor received a gift, from the Crown, of six bream and timber from the Savernake Forest to form sixty oak joists. (Victoria County History, 1924, 478-485). The timber was used to undertake works at the Manor House including the construction of the new kitchen and chamber (Victoria County History, 1924, 478-485). This is further supported by archaeological evidence from trench 16 which indicates the presence of multi-phases of Manor House platform construction and an associated ditch. The trench also indicates the presence of a substantial and well faced structure, dated to the 12th C from pottery remains. This wall may be related to the construction of the new kitchen and chamber at this date, as discussed in the literature. The association with the Savernake Forest is also important in understanding the royal connections which the Manor House had during this time, as the Savernake Forest was a royal forest throughout this period (Young, 2015). This indicates that at this time the Manor was in the King's favour and in turn the King's influence on the settlement may be seen, through Stanford being granted its market charter in 1230 (Maine, 1866, 19).

Apart from the church, Manor House and the structures underlying Church Green, the location of further medieval structures have been identified through test pitting, trenching and geophysics. An example of this is the group of five stone structures found within Priors Farm field to the east of the present village and in most cases were found to only just underlie the modern turf (Ashby, 2010a, 9). These structures include a stone undershot mill, leat and mill pond (Ashby, 2010, 70). The location of the mill was supported by excavation work carried out in trenches 17 and 18, which indicate the presence of a two-phase stone medieval undershot mill, possibly of two-storey construction, within the area of Horsecroft. This evidence indicates that the settlement extended further to the east than at present, with the possibility of high-status stone buildings, rather than those of a simple timber construction in this area. Furthermore, through the excavation of Trench 19 in Ashdown House paddock, in the open fields in the centre of the current village, it can be shown there were a series of timber wattle and daubed buildings terraced into the slope, fronting the High Street in this location. These buildings are thought to be either shops, craft or industrial structures, of at least five phases, overlying each other and dating to the medieval period. This shows that, like that of Prior Farm, this area of the village, now devoid of buildings, was also once inhabited with urban buildings during this period.

Further structures dating to the medieval period have also been found during test pitting throughout the modern village e.g., TP 5 which demonstrates evidence for multiple phases of medieval timber buildings overlying one another (Figure 80) (Ashby, 2012, 4-5). Further structures of both stone and timber construction dating to this period have also been found within TP 2, TP 12, TP 24, TP 28, TP 46, TP 55 and TP 56. These structures are thought to have formed shops or possible industrial areas fronting the High Street, Chapel Road and Upper Green. However, as seen from TP 5 some of these medieval structures and related deposits were observed at a higher level than the current, adjacent road surface. This indicates that the adjacent road, in this case the High Street, had been in use for a long period of time and in turn eroded down to its current level. It should also be noted that to the rear of a number of the structures fronting the High Street the village pond was located, as illustrated through the Ashdown House geophysical survey. This pond was likely to be within the grounds of the Manor House as documentary sources indicate that the Lord of the Manor was keeping fish in the pond during this period (Victoria County History, 1924b, 478-485).

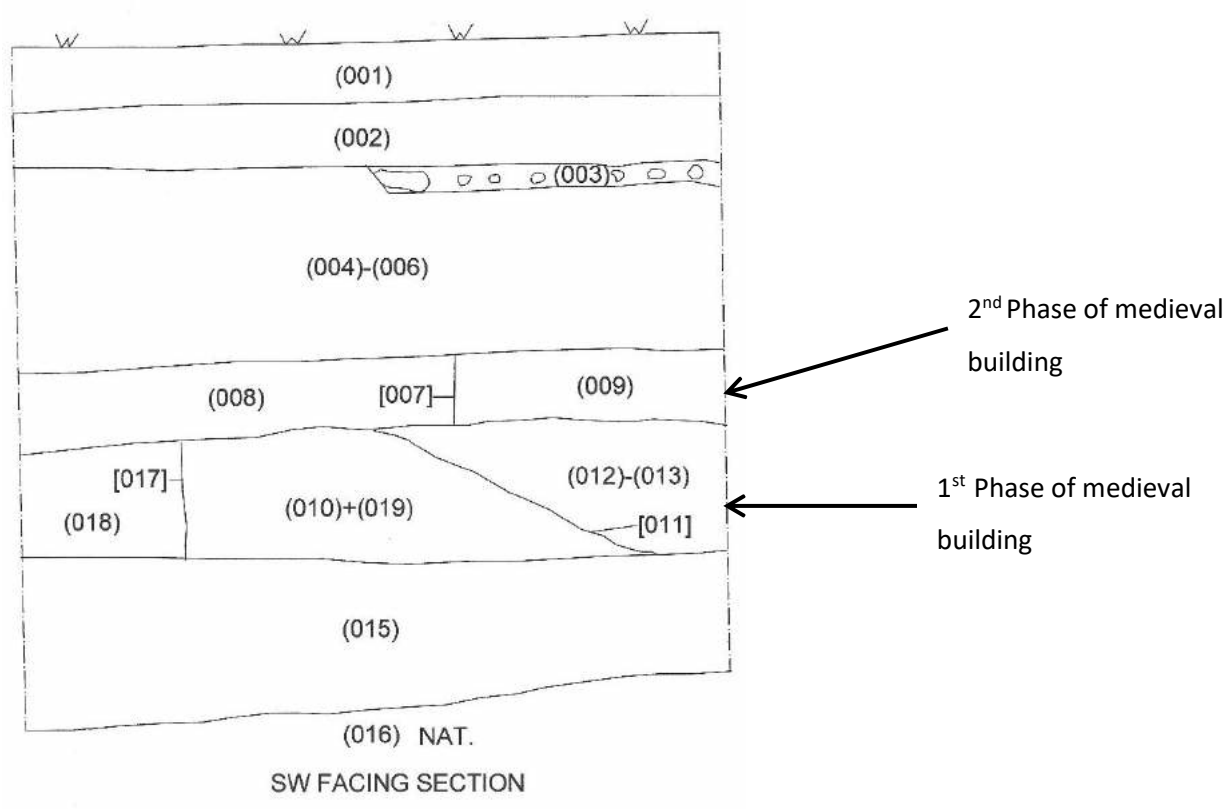

Figure 80. Section showing two phases of medieval structures in TP5, fronting the medieval High Street.

Lastly, two further major medieval structures are also present within medieval Stanford. The first of these is Vine Cottage located adjacent to Church Green and the associated market place, further discussed in the literature review, likely dating to the mid to late 1400s. The house is thought to have been occupied by either a Yeoman or Priest during this period (Mumford et al., 2002, 7). The second of these structures is the early phase of Cox's Hall construction, indicated through geophysical survey, historic building recording, excavation and literature, located close to Lower Green. Through the examination of all these techniques it can be surmised that Cox's Hall was once formed of a large and impressive single stone hall, most likely dating to the medieval period and fronting Faringdon Road. This was then expanded during the post medieval period (discussed below). The location of this large medieval hall is important, as it indicates the presence of two large and important medieval structures within the area of Stanford during this period; firstly, the Manor House at Church Green and secondly, Cox's Hall at Lower Green. This indicates further possible high-status dwellings within the settlement during the medieval period and influential families (such as the Cox's family who held posts in later periods in the area such as the High Sheriff of Berkshire, and a Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford (Maine, 1866, 84))

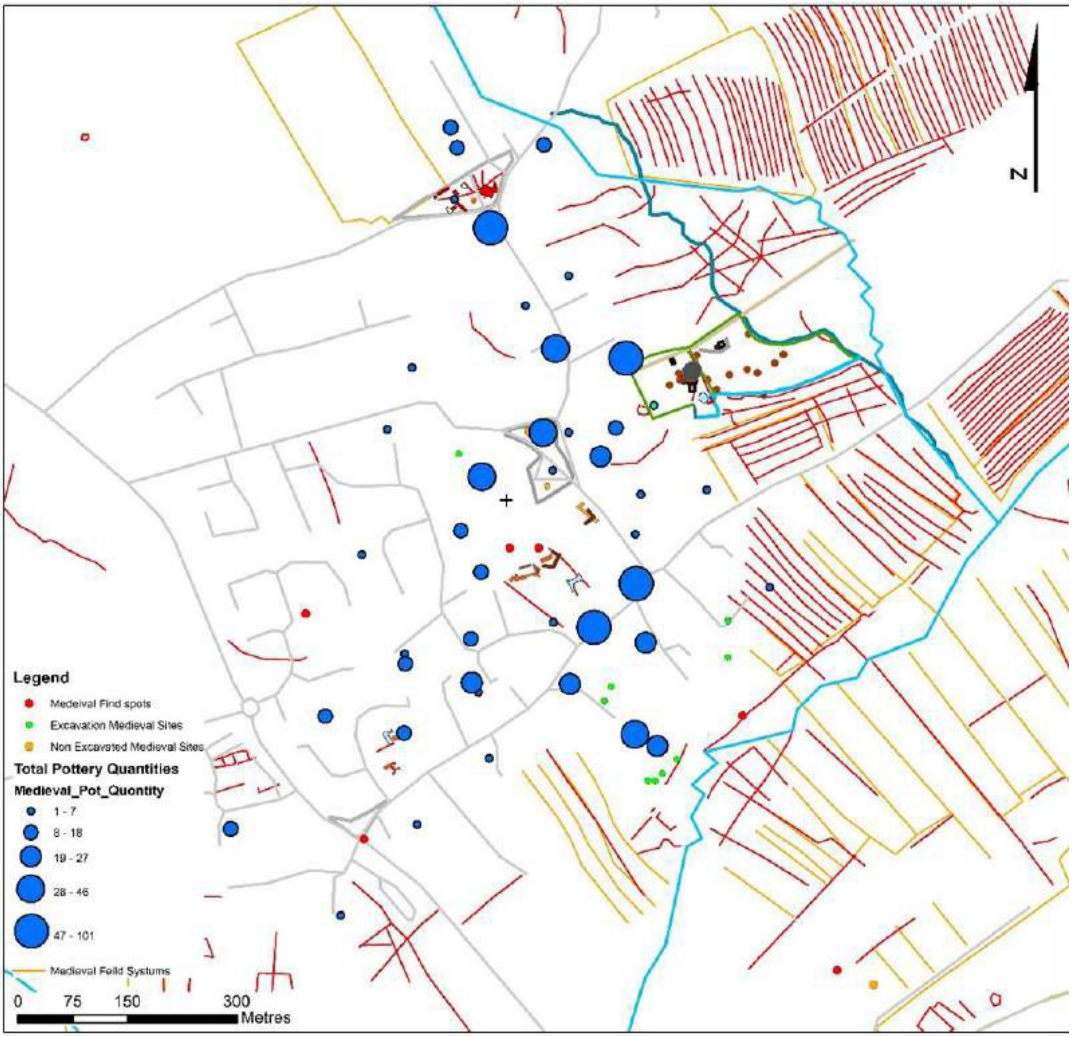

Figure 81. Map showing medieval pottery quantities from test pitting as well as the possible structures and other medieval activities in the settlement as shown through both geophysical surveys and excavation works.

Apart from the trenching, geophysics and test pitting, evidence is also seen from aerial photographs and LiDAR data for the size, wealth and location of a medieval settlement at Stanford. One aspect these techniques indicate is the location of Stanford Wick (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977, 34) to the south of the present village, represented by strip fields observed on the APs and a series of earthwork platforms and an associated roadway also observed on the LiDAR data. Furthermore, both these techniques also indicate areas of medieval ridge and furrow and field systems located surrounding the perimeter of the settlement as well as within the surrounding rural landscape, indicating the extent of Stanford during this time (Figure 82).

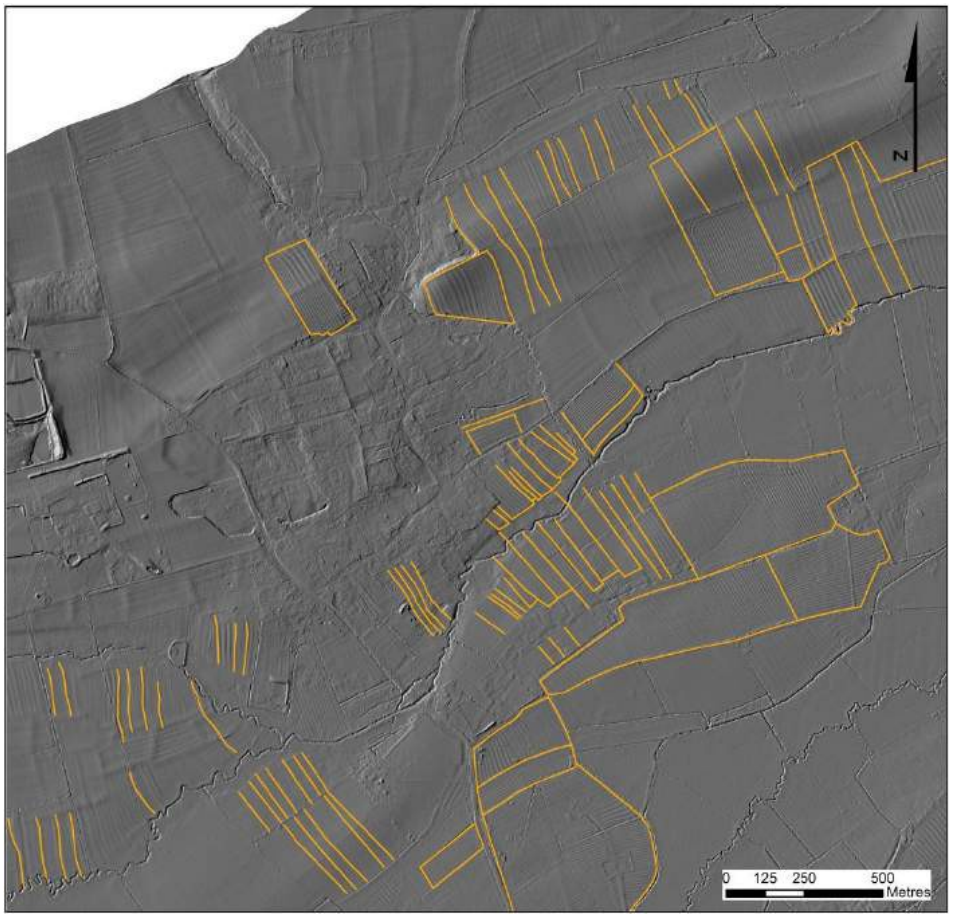

Figure 82. Map showing the location of medieval field systems (orange lines) as mapped through LiDAR data (Map produced from LiDAR data retrieved from (Environment Agency, 2014)).

However, the most important evidence observed as illustrated in Figure 83, demonstrates the River Ock was straightened during the medieval period. This is due to the strip fields observed on aerial photographs, as these fields only extend for a short distance past the present location of the River Ock. The size of these fields would make them unviable to cultivate. The possible reasoning for the straightening of this river during this period may be seen through the LiDAR data, as this indicates a possible small platform (located on the Horsecroft side of the earthwork) associated with this feature. This group of features may indicate the location of the second medieval mill site as stated in the Domesday Book. This is important as it would have also meant the two mills referred to during this period would have been within close vicinity of each other in the western area of the village and associated with the Horsecroft roadway. The possible straightening of the river further indicates that Stanford was likely to have been wealthy at this time as a large quantity of money and manpower, like that required for the Church (as discussed above), would have been needed to both undertake these works in the first place and then maintain it over time. A comparison can also be made between this feature, as seen at Stanford, and the City of Winchester (once a medieval and Roman town). At Winchester the course of the River Itchen through the edge of the city was first

moved eastwards by the Romans and thereafter straightened and channeled during the 9th to 10th C, then maintained in this location during the medieval period, to better utilize it within the settlement (James, 2007, 33). The undertaking of these substantial works during the medieval period at Stanford, further indicate that the settlement was likely to have been wealthy during this time.

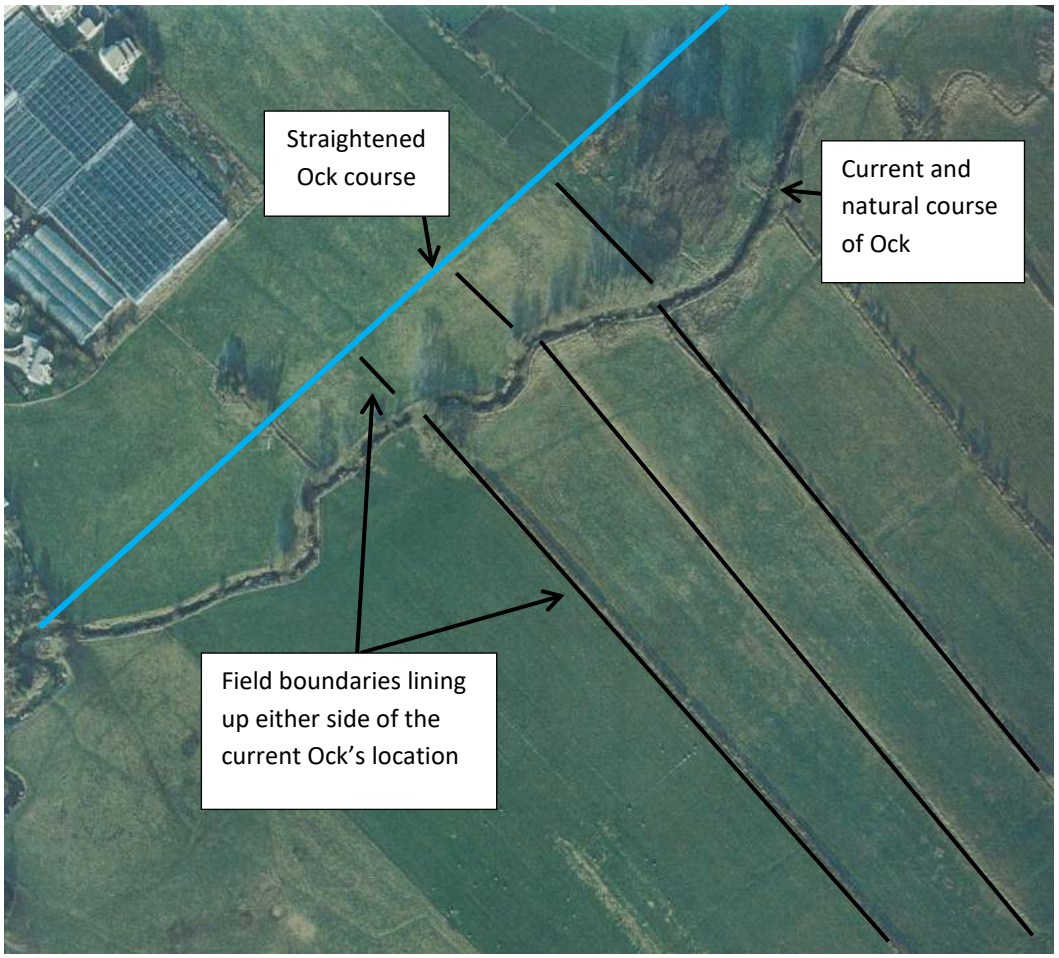

Figure 83. This AP shows the way in which the current River Ock subdivides some of the medieval strip fields and how the location of the river lines up with the boundaries of these fields (Environment Agency, 1992).

From the archaeological and documentary evidence presented above it is shown that Stanford would have been an urban centre during the medieval period with trading, crafts and industries, and therefore it is highly likely to have been considered a small town or urban centre at this time. Further evidence can be seen for this in comparisons made in Table 11, which shows the requirements needed, as stated by Dyer (in Table 4 in Chapter 2) for the classification of a settlement as a town during the medieval period.

Characteristics	Documentary evidence	Material evidence (all towns)	Material evidence (smaller towns)	Evidence found in Stanford
Population size	Number of houses, Burgagees, burgage plots, number of taxpayers, tax assessment	Size of built up area, suburbs, planned units, number of streets	Larger than most villages, 1 to 4 planned units, occasional suburbs	Nearly 1 km long, stretching from Upper Green in the north to Stanford Wick in the south. Larger than most villages of this period.
Social structure, e.g. merchants, gentry, artisans, servants	Tax records, deeds and surveys, Wills	Houses of varying sizes and quality, artefacts indicative of varied wealth and status including elite	A few houses and artefacts of high status	Houses of both timber and stone construction, some of high status: The Manor House, Cox's Hall, Vine Cottage and possibly other buildings. Some high-status artefacts.
Occupations	Pre-1350 surnames, 1381 poll tax and 1522 military survey, Borough Court records, Guild registers, Freemans registers	Crafts and trades indicated by structures, implements, and debris, luxury goods made and traded	Limited variety of low status crafts, some agriculture, specialisation is possible, inns	Artefactual evidence: metal and glass working debris; weaving and leather working; brewing; bone/antler working; stone working and quarrying; milling. Luxury goods, such as the bronze skillet and musical instrument, shown to be both made and

				traded within the settlement.
Markets, outlets, customers	Royal charters, court roles, household accounts	Market places, subdivided, shops and selds	Market place, sometimes with specialist areas, some shops	Market place at Church Green. Shops fronting the High Street.
Hinterlands	Debts in court records, bounds etc., migration patterns from 1350 surnames, purchases in town and country	Distribution of pottery, building materials etc.	A range of contacts of limited scope e.g. fewer overseas imports	Basalt rock: possibly fragments of high-quality quern stone indicating trading occurred far afield, possibly the Rhineland. Iron, copper and tin brought in for metalworking. Import of large quantities of pottery for households within the settlement.
Central place functions, government, religious institutions	Royal and church records	Castles, cathedrals, monasteries, churches, schools, hospitals, friaries	Parish Church or a chapel, charities, hospital or almshouses	Large and significant parish church still located adjacent to Church Green and Manor House. Connections to the Crown during the medieval period. The possible presence of more than one upper class family in the village.

Self-government, civic consciousness	Borough and fraternity archives, churchwardens accounts	Public buildings, fraternity buildings, water supply, bridges, rubbish disposal	Guildhall, paved streets, bridges, rubbish disposal	Straightening of the River Ock. Construction of a substantial stone church.

Table 11. Table showing the characteristics of both major towns and small towns within medieval England, from both documentary and material evidence, in comparison to the evidence found at Stanford in the Vale (Dyer, 2003, 102, Tab. 1).

From these aspects shown in Table 11 it is seen there is a high likelihood that Stanford was classed as a small town or urban centre during the medieval period, with some aspects such as occupations falling into the class of a larger town or or urban centre. This may indicate that the settlement was rapidly growing in size prior to the shrinkage which occurred later during the medieval period. Evidence of this discussed in the section below.

POST MEDIEVAL AND EARLY MODERN

Through the fieldwork undertaken at Stanford including excavation, test pitting and geophysics, as well as documentary evidence, from the post medieval period, it is indicated that the settlement rapidly shrank in size from the medieval period; with areas previously inhabited being turned over to pasture and arable land. Furthermore, with the addition of the listed building data (Figure 131), it is seen that the village was mostly located around Chapel Road and the High Street during the post medieval period but also expanded out further towards Bow Road. This expansion up Bow Road was due to the development of the Stanford brick works in this area, as seen on both historic mapping and through TP 10 and TP 17, which show the presence of both the brick clay quarry site as well as the location of a linear Scotch brick kiln. This brick works, one of the main industrial sites at Stanford in the post medieval period, produced high quality ceramic building material (CBM) for the construction of houses both in Stanford as well as other surrounding rural villages. As demonstrated through historic mapping as well as test pitting, this was not the only industrial and craft activities which occurred within Stanford. Some of these were a continuation from the medieval period, but to a much lesser extent. One example of this is Stanford Mill which, as indicated by TP 11, was built during the post medieval period (Ashby, 2014, 83) replacing one of the two medieval mills in the village which went out of use in their original location when the town or urban centre shrank in size. The second mill was located just off Upper Green. TP 46 also

demonstrates further craft activities with the location of one of the three village blacksmiths and wheelwright in this area, with associated metal working debris and other metal artefacts of this period having been found.

Pottery material recovered from the test pitting further supports the argument for the shrinkage of Stanford surrounding the two main roads in the village. As seen in Figure 84, the largest quantities of pottery, up to 89 sherds from a single test pit, dating to the post medieval period have been found surrounding these roads. It is also important to note, the quantity of post medieval pottery recovered through test pitting at Stanford is of a much lesser extent than the volume recovered from test pitting where medieval pottery was present. This gives further weight to the argument that Stanford was a larger urban centre during the medieval period (a small town, as discussed above) which then shrank into a village, in size as well as economic influence, as it moved into the post medieval period.

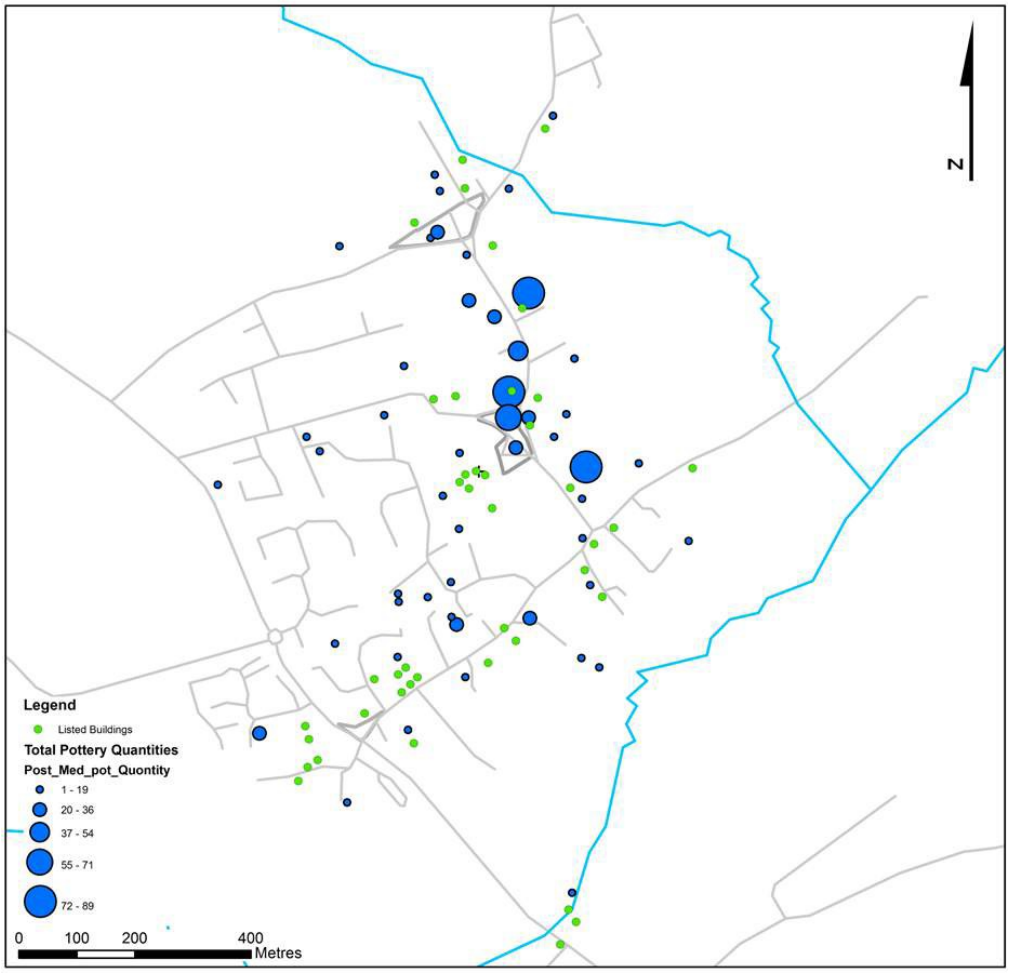

Figure 84. Map showing post medieval pottery quantities from test pitting and the location of listed buildings in the village.

Archaeological trenching as well as test pitting at Stanford also indicates the addition of further important structures during this period. The first of these relates to the Manor House, with the old house demolished in the 16th C and a new one built on the same site (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012). Evidence from trench 16 demonstrates that the material from this demolition was used to increase the height of the Manor House platform, as well as infilling the old ditch fortification, so forming a new much shallower ornamental ditch feature to surround the new Manor House. The house was then further extended and modified in the 18th and 19th Cs (British Listed Buildings Online, 2012). Excavations have also demonstrated the construction of a two phase Elizabethan kitchen, as seen in Trench 15 (Ashby, 2014, 82) and other associated buildings built as part of the Manor Hose complex, such as a large stone barn, with remains found in test pit 38 (7 Church Path).

Evidence for the changing nature of the adjacent St Denys Church in the village during this period has also been seen. A number of additions to the church structure were made in the post medieval period, but to a lesser extent than during the previous medieval period. Apart from the addition of a southern porch and decorative castellations in the 15th C, all other changes made to the church during this time, as discussed in Chapter 4, were due to structural reasons, with the addition of four buttresses along the external southern wall of the nave and chancel, as well as one on each corner of the tower. Also, as demonstrated by the structure and discussed in Chapter 4, in the 17th C the church was reroofed with a lower pitch and tie beams added. All these works were undertaken, not for aesthetic reasons but instead for structural reasons as areas such as the chancel wall were slumping into the soft ground of the much earlier back filled Saxon ditch. Assuming these major works can be seen to be undertaken for structural rather than aesthetic reasons, this further indicates a downturn in Stanford's economic forces since the medieval period. This is further supported by the spire not being replaced on the top of the tower after it blew down in a storm in 1631. The replacement of this would have been more expensive and aesthetic to the church's nature, however, due to the lower economic status of Stanford during this later period, the replacement of the spire was not undertaken. This left Stanford with the church structure as seen today.

Further evidence, through archaeological work has also been found for existing structures in the village, dating to this period. This includes Cox's Hall with phase 1 constructed during the medieval period (discussed above) and later phases added during the Georgian and Victorian periods, as indicated through historic building recording, giving an L-shaped house. However, as

demonstrated through both the excavation of trench 12, the GPR survey undertaken within the grounds and historic mapping, it is shown that the western wing (possible a medieval stone hall, constructed during phase 1 of the house) was demolished between 1890 and 1910, possibly due to fire in the structure. With the demolition of this wing of the house, most of the oldest part, as well as most of the house cellars, were lost. This left the Georgian, with later Victorian and Edwardian Cox's Hall house, as seen today. It should be noted the demolished wing was replaced by formal gardens for the remaining house (Ashby, 2013b, 70). Test pitting in the village has found further garden features relating to post medieval houses dating to this period, which include a number of stone foot paths and associated flowerbeds found in TP 30, 44 and 49. These features demonstrated that some of the inhabitants of Stanford still had disposable income during this period, so augmenting their gardens even though the economy of Stanford had decreased to a much lesser extent than seen during the medieval period.

Lastly, moving into the early modern period, a major change is seen to have occurred within Stanford's village settlement with the growth of the adjacent Shellingford airfield and associated structures (Figure 85) which formed rapidly during the Second World War (1939-1945). This growth included the construction of auxiliary structures at the edge of the existing village, formed during the post medieval period, extending the village further west than previously seen. Evidence for the changing aspects of the village during this time can also be seen within the test pitting undertaken in Stanford. Examples of this are structural remains of a possible air raid shelter found in TP 21, the foundations of a Nissan hut with a possible associated bunker underlying it in TP22 and the corner foundation of the timber-built Officers/Sergeants Latrines in TP 52, Evidence can also be seen within the finds material, including a bullet casing from this period found in TP 15 and a number of buttons of military origin also found within test pitting in the village. Once the war ended, most of these temporary structures were removed, with only more substantial structures remaining, such as the runway and other associated earthworks. These areas, as well as the changes seen during the post medieval period and earlier times, form a basis for the size and location of the modern settlement seen today, with modern housing in filling, in and around these areas, since the end of the Second World War to the present day.

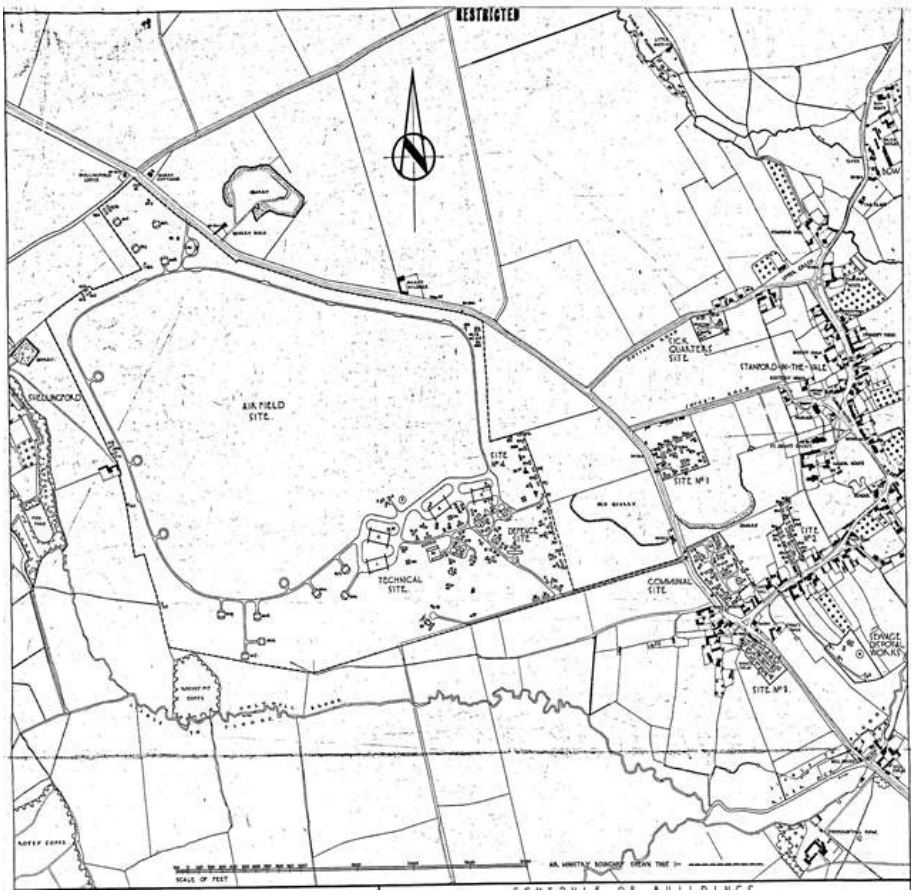

Figure 85. Map of Shellingford airfield during WWII, map produced in 1945 (MOD, 1945).

The Growth and Development of Charney Bassett.

From the fieldwork undertaken in the village of Charney Bassett for this thesis and previous works revealing archaeological remains and from documentary evidence from later periods, the phasing of the village can be split into five distinct historic periods. These periods are: prehistoric (Mesolithic to 43 AD, at the end of the Iron Age); Roman (1st to 4th C); Saxon (8th to 10th C); medieval (12th to 14th C) and post medieval (15th to 19th C). Features and finds were also found dating to the modern period (20th to 21st C), including buried services but these will not be further discussed. Like that of Stanford in the Vale, evidence for the development of Charny Bassett during the prehistoric periods can be seen in Appendix 28.

ROMAN

With the invasion of the Romans in 43 AD, the settlement at Charney Bassett is seen to have relocated back to the site of the current village, from its Iron Age location in the fortified settlement at Churbery Camp. This relocation of the settlement back to its location adjacent to the River Ock is supported by three main sources of evidence. The first, from test pitting data in the village which, as

shown in Figure 86, demonstrates a volume (up to 6 sherds in a single test pit) of Roman pottery. This pottery has included fragments of grey ware, Oxford colour coat (3rd – 4th C), a flagon for wine, and high-status import wares such as Samian ware (1st – 2nd C). Further Roman pottery has also been found within the fields surrounding the current village during field walking (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012). Lastly, aerial photography of the surrounding fields on the outskirts of the current village has also identified an enclosure, thought to date to the 4th C (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012). Taking all this evidence into account, it can be speculated that the Roman settlement of Charney Bassett at this date is likely to have been formed of one or two Roman farmsteads, which formed part of a Roman farming estate. Also, considering the abundance of Roman pottery, it can be surmised that at least one of these farmsteads was locate in the vicinity of the present Charney Wick, close to the River Ock and the later Manor and Church.

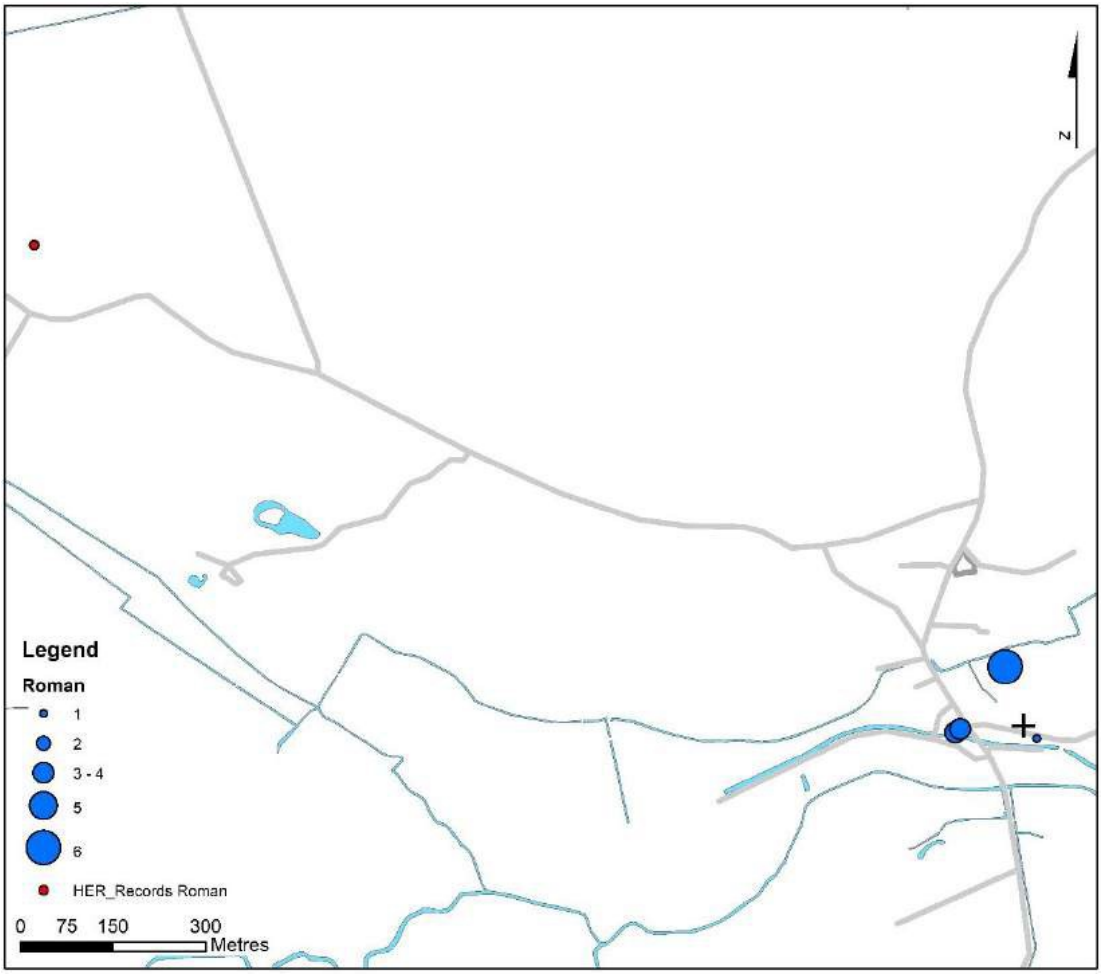

Figure 86. Map evidence for Roman Charney Bassett, including pottery quantities from test pitting as well as other available data from the HER.

SAXON

As the Romans left in 410 AD, the settlement at Charney Bassett moved into the Saxon period. Currently there is little archaeological evidence for an early Saxon settlement at Charney Bassett; though it is highly likely that some form of settlement, however minor, continued from the previous Roman period. However, taking into account evidence, documentary sources, test pitting data as well as local findspots surrounding the current village it can be demonstrated that there was a village at Charney Bassett by the late Saxon period. Pottery from test pitting, as shown in Figure 87, indicates there was settlement activity in the area of the current village, mainly dating to the 10th C onwards. Taking into account the location of these pottery finds it can be surmised, that like the Roman settlement, the late Saxon settlement was also located in the area of Charney Wick, and had not spread further north to the area where the main village of Charney Bassett now inhabits. In addition, taking into account the slightly later Doomsday Book reference from 1086 (see literature review Chapter 2), it can be estimated that the population of Charney Bassett during the late Saxon period amounted to between 73 to 77 people. In comparison with other villages of this date, this is the average population size of a Saxon village. It can also be surmised that as there was a village at Charney Bassett during this period that a small timber church may have also been present. It is likely this was located in the same location of the current stone church, first built in the Norman period, discussed below. However, it would be difficult to prove this.

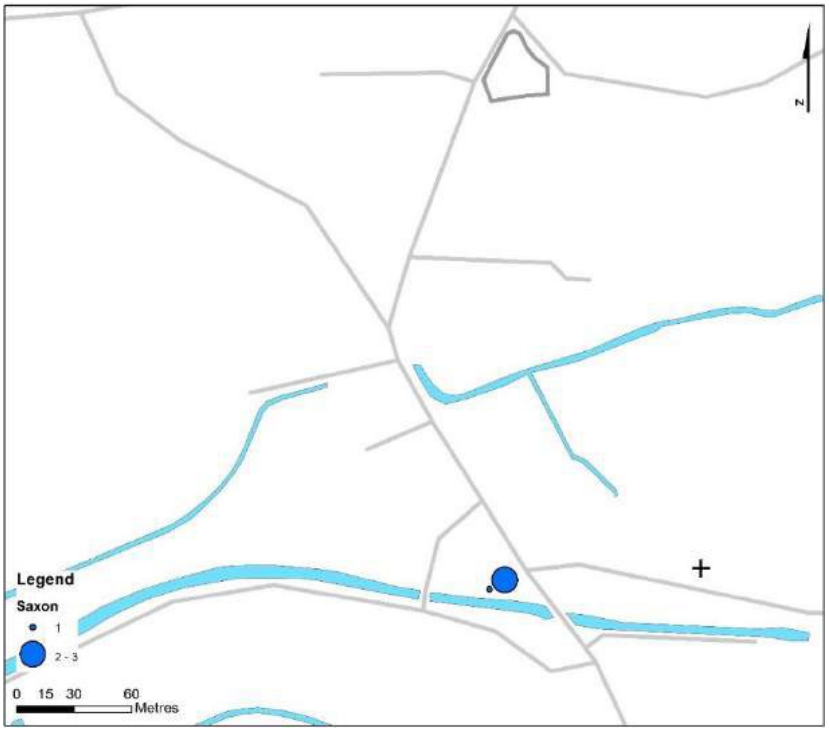

Figure 87. Map showing the volume and location of Saxon pottery recovered from test pitting at Charney Bassett.

Two further important finds found at Charney Bassett, dating to the Saxon period should also be noted. The first is a square headed brooch, found at Churbery Camp (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020e), and likely demonstrates high status activity in the area. Itis not thought to be related to a burial of this date and, therefore, is likely to represent a lost item by a local high-status individual. The second is the Pusey Horn; a Viking horn dating to 995 AD, and associated the failed attack by the Danes on King Canute as he was camped at Churbury Camp and thereafter gifted to the local Lord William (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020c). These two artefacts are significant, as they both reflect high status activities, including royal connections, within the area of Charney Bassett during the late Saxon period which, may have then, in turn, influenced the adjacent village settlement.

MEDIEVAL

With the invasion of the Normans, the Saxon village of Charney Bassett moves into the medieval period. Through archaeological evidence, documentary sources and standing buildings, the village of Charney Bassett can be seen to have changed further during this period, however to a much lesser extent than at Stanford in the Vale, as discussed above. Data from both test pitting, from pottery quantities, as well as geophysical surveys undertaken in the village (see Figure 88) demonstrate the changing nature of the village during this period. Geophysical survey data demonstrates the presence of medieval housing plots fronting both current, as well as extant, roadways in the location of the main village. These plots, likely with a house at their front, fronting the roads, indicates a possible shift of the main settlement from the area of the original settlement formed around Charney Wick. Thereafter, the majority of the village (Charney Bassett) shifted north to its current location, surrounding the central green. However, as demonstrated from pottery evidence from test pitting (TP 8 and 9) some domestic habitation continued in the area of Charney Wick, close to the River Ock and to the west of the Denchworth road.

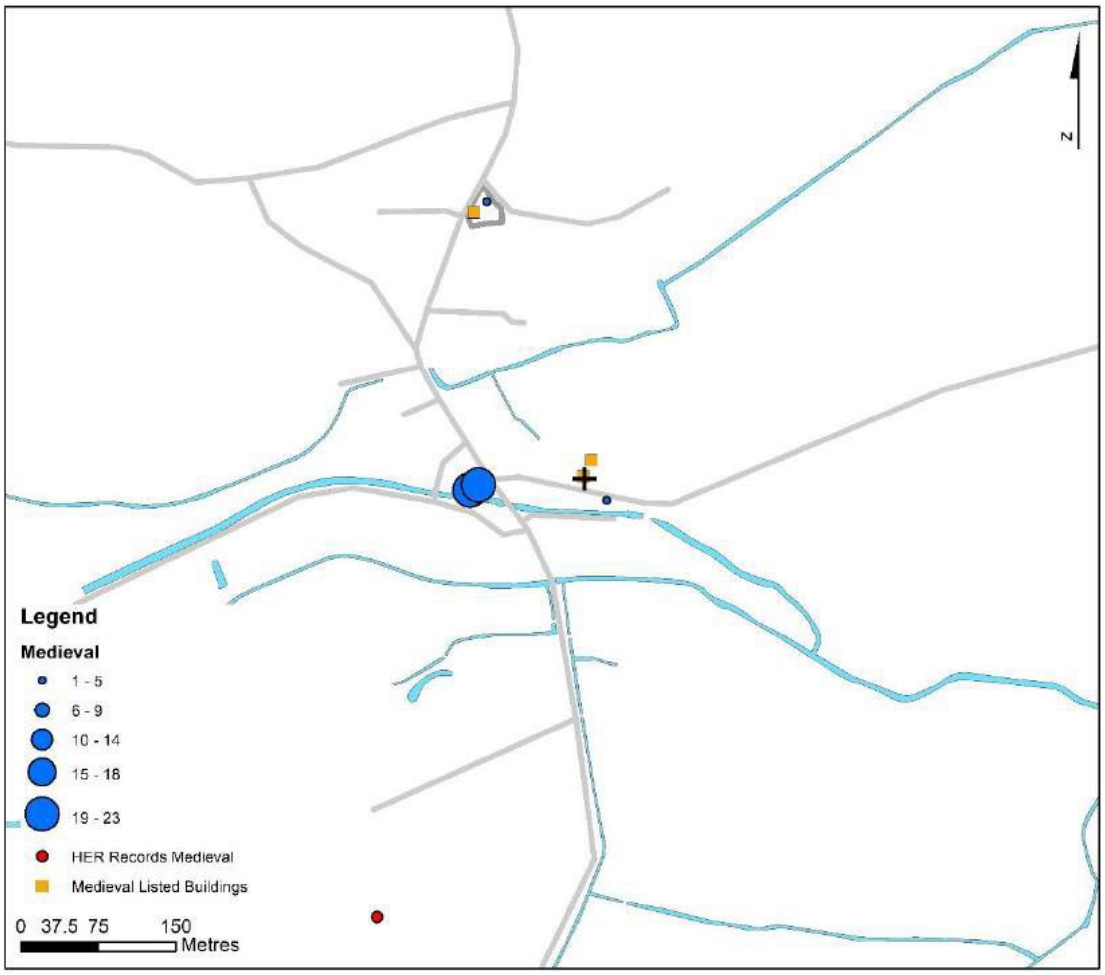

Figure 88. Map showing the volume of medieval pottery recovered from test pitting, as well as the location of other medieval features within the village of Charney Bassett.

Further evidence for the changing nature of medieval Charney Bassett can be seen from three of the standing buildings in the village, with their origins in this period. The first of these, and most important, is Charney Grange with the original building built and owned by Abingdon Abbey during the 13th C but may have had earlier origins (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a). Archaeological evidence from both the excavation carried out in 1964 (Wood, 1976) and geophysical survey undertaken as part of this thesis, have demonstrated the size, shape and location of this early substantial Grange structure. As seen in Figure 89, this would have been a substantial building on the outskirts of the village. Taking into account documentary sources as well as standing remains dating to this period, this structure would have included a central large hall, with at least one wing housing a minimum of a private chapel and solar. The second of the standing buildings of this date in the village and located opposite the Grange is the village water mill. This mill, first built in the 12th C with later additions (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012), is of an undershot type, with test pitting demonstrating the location of the adjacent stone lined leat (TP 4). This mill, during the medieval period, would have been used to grind grain for the local villagers, however due to its

proximity to the Grange owned by Abingdon Abbey, it can also be surmised that the mill was also used to produce flour from grain from the Abbey lands and from tithes collected from the surrounding area. Taking into account the location of these two structures, and the evidence discussed above that the village of Charney Bassett is thought to have shifted during the medieval period from the area of Charney Wick to its current location, it can be surmised that this movement of the settlement did not just happen by chance, but instead by force. With comparison with other similar sites of this period, there is a high likelihood that the early medieval village at Charney Wick was shifted northwards through the construction of the Grange and associated buildings such as the mill, by the monks of Abingdon Abbey (See Appendix 2 point 3. for location of Charney Wick at the southern end of the current village). This would not have just paved the way for the construction of these buildings, but also 'hidden' Charney Bassett village behind the Grange, opening up the views across the downs and Abbey estate to its front (south).

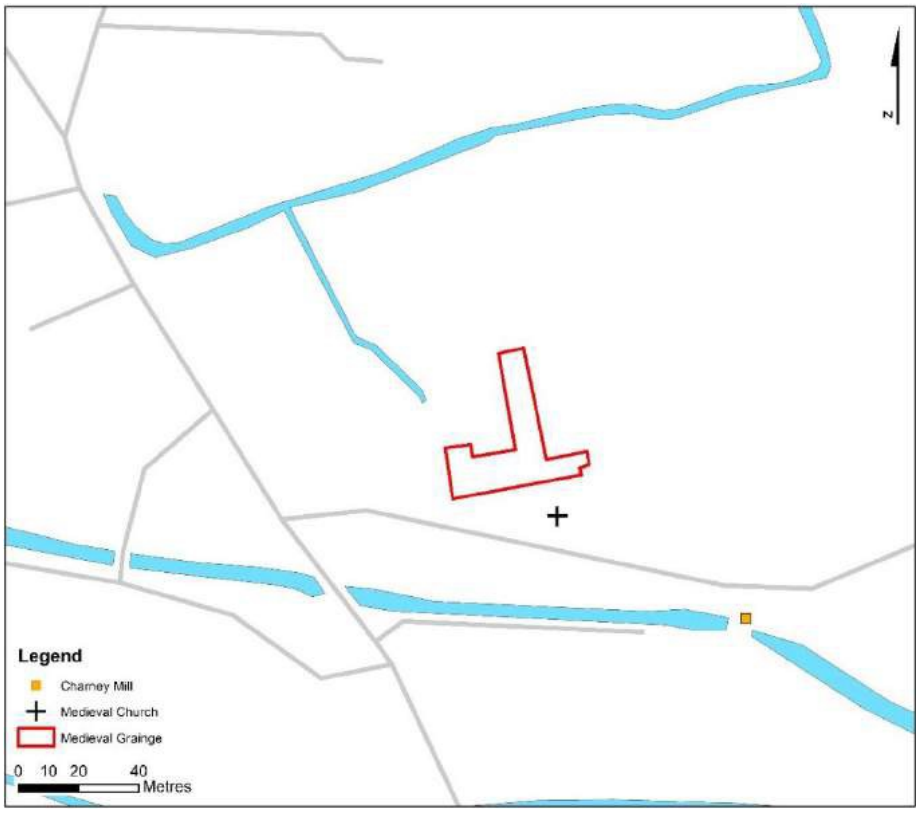

Figure 89. Map demonstrating the location and size of both the medieval Grange and water mill at Charney Bassett.

The third standing structure in the village which dates to the medieval period is the village church of St Peter's, located adjacent to the Grange in Charney Wick. Due to the religious importance of this building, it can be surmised that its importance in the local community is the reason why it was not relocated with the rest of the village. As seen from documentary evidence as well as the standing structure itself, a substantial part of the current church dates to the Norman

period, including the nave, chancel and side aisle (Pevsner, 1966, 112). Furthermore, the internal architecture which also dates to this period includes the outer moulding of the south doorway and an ornately carved tympanum located on the inside of the church aisle (Pevsner, 1966, 112). These features, as well as its Norman stone construction date, demonstrate that Charney Bassett church was likely of a higher status than the surrounding settlement it was constructed in. It can therefore be surmised that the church's construction was undertaken as part of the Abingdon Abbey estate, rather than through economic influence from the adjacent village settlement at this time. This can be further supported by evidence that little further additions or alterations were made to the church post its first phase of construction, with the only small additions made in the 14th and 15th C with the addition of two square headed windows, a side porch, castellations added to the nave and a small bellcote (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020d). In comparison with other rural churches in the area, these very minimal changes, demonstrate the low economic viability and influential nature of Charney Bassett during the medieval period.

Further evidence for the influence of Abingdon Abbey on the medieval settlement of Charney Bassett can be seen on the current village green, located in the centre of the medieval village at the convergence of four local roads. Located on the green is a single stone market cross dating to the 14th C (Oxfordshire Historic Environment Record, 2012). This cross is thought to have first been erected by Abingdon Abbey on the green and delineates the location for a market in the area. The location of the market in this position is further supported by test pitting on the green, where in TP 1 an area of rammed limestone surface was found which may represent an area of hard standing on the green, where the market took place. The influence of the Abbey on the village is also important to note, in relation to the market, as a medieval Market Charter is not known for the village. Therefore, the market likely formed due to the influence of the Abbey and its associated Grange on the village at this time rather than owing to other external economic or aristocratic pressures. Due to these reasons, as well as the 1334 Lay Subsidy, it can be surmised that the market was likely small in size, compared to those located within the surrounding towns and settlements which were granted medieval Market Charters, such as Stanford in the Vale, Hinton Waldrist and Farringdon. However, it is also likely that a large proportion of the income from the market at Charney Bassett, did not go to the villagers and the village's local economy, but instead to the monks at Abingdon Abbey, until the reformation and dissolution of the Abbey at the end of the medieval period.

POST MEDIEVAL AND EARLY MODERN

With the reformation in 1532 and the dissolution of Abingdon Abbey and thereafter the selling off of its lands and estates (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a), like that of Charney Bassett. Archaeological and documentary evidence indicate that the settlement did not grow further but instead stagnated until the modern period with the construction of new housing in the village. This stagnation is demonstrated by buildings such as the village church which had no further additions and was instead left to decay due to long periods of neglect until its reopening and restoration 1887 (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020d). However, in contrast to the neglect of the church, the Grange was sold and formed into Charney Manor. At this point a large proportion of the old medieval house was demolished and a new house built in the Tudor style but smaller in size than the medieval house (Pevsner, 1966, 112). Several further later amendments were also made to the Manor and its grounds during the later parts of the post medieval to early modern periods, including the addition of a new tennis court as demonstrated by TP 5, 6 and 7.

Archaeological fieldwork in the village, including the volume of post medieval pottery recovered from test pitting, (see Figure 138) also demonstrate a continuation of the village of Charney Bassett during this period. Furthermore, taking into account the location of the listed buildings in the village, also seen in Figure 90, which mostly date to this period, it can be shown that the village of Charney Bassett continued to mainly surround the historic green, as it did in the medieval period. However, geophysical data from this central area of the historic village indicates that a number of medieval plots as well as their adjacent trackway went out of use within these areas, subsequently not re-inhabited during the later post medieval period. Therefore, these areas close to the green are formed of open pasture fields to this modern day.

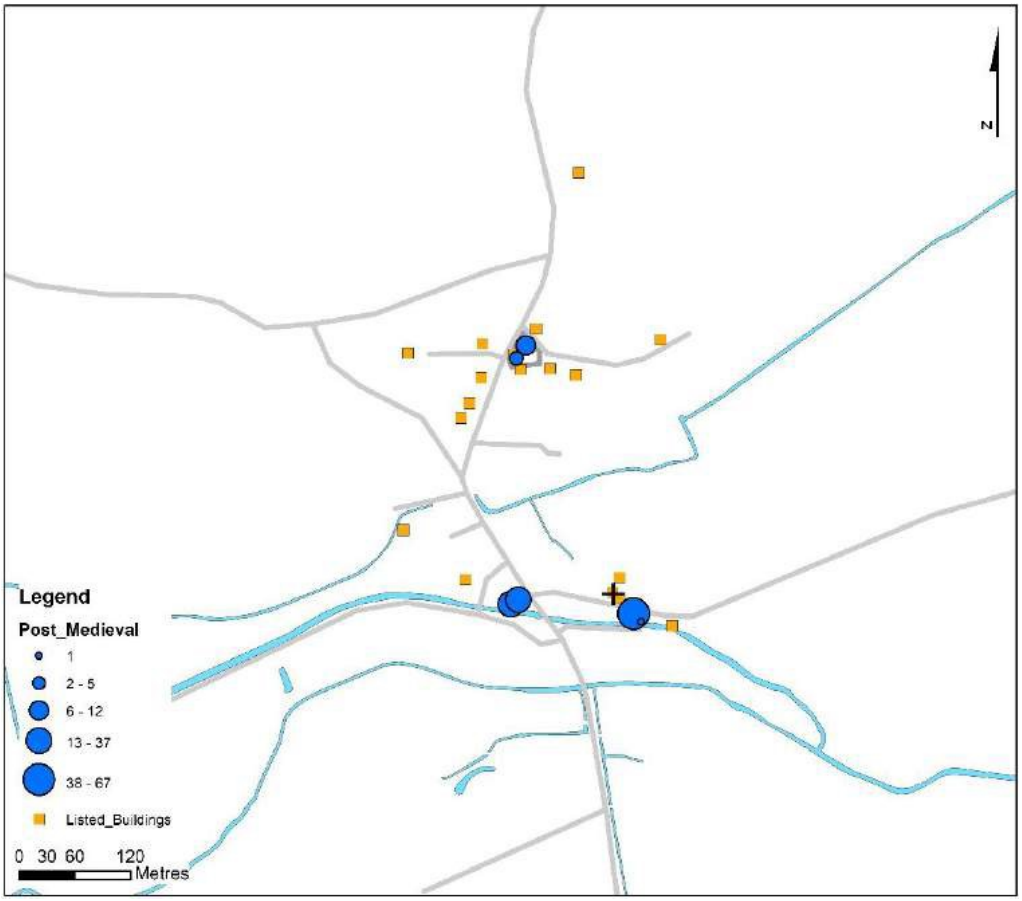

Figure 90. Map showing the volume of post medieval pottery recovered from test pitting in Charney Bassett as well as the location of the listed buildings in the village, mostly post medieval in date.

The one exception to the shift and downturn of the village is the mill, which continued in its current form from that seen in the medieval period, adjacent to the River Ock. During the post medieval period the mill had several major amendments, as demonstrated by the finds material recovered from TP 3 and 4 excavated in the mill's garden. These works included the movement of the main channel of the Ock and construction of a new leat in the 1970s. These changes during the post medieval and early modern period to Charney Bassett form the heart of the modern rural village seen today.

Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett: A Comparative Analysis

From the evidence presented above for both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett a number of comparisons can be made between their formation and changing nature. With the Romans settlement of Britain after 43AD, the changing nature of both villages begins to become more apparent, and this continued until the modern period. For both settlements the previous Iron Age populations, during the Roman period, are seen to move back to the areas of their former and

earlier settlements. As demonstrated by archaeological evidence for both villages, Charney Bassett is most likely formed of one or two small Roman farmsteads with associated farmland, close to the River Ock. This is in contrast to Stanford in the Vale, which formed into a fortified Roman settlement, surrounded by deep bank and ditch, and included at its heart the High Street flanked by possible high-status buildings with mosaics and hypocaust systems, including a possible bath house. Outside of this fortified enclosure were both a small Roman cemetery as well as a *vicus* settlement, undertaking crafts, industries and trade, and which extended up the present Chapel Road. The substantial settlement at Stanford is thought to have been built to protect the strategic road crossing points over both Frogmoor Brook to the east and the Ock to the south, and the low-lying marshlands thereafter. This is also were the name of 'Stanford' meaning 'stony ford' (Mill, 2003, 433-434) may have derived from. Due to the significant nature of Stanford it is highly likely that the inhabitants of Charney Bassett, at this time, would have used Stanford as a trading place for goods and agricultural surpluses within the local Roman environment.

As the Romans leave in 410 AD and the Vale moves into the Saxon period the changing nature of both settlements continue, as demonstrated by archaeological evidence as well as later documentary sources. At Charney Bassett there is little evidence for an early Saxon settlement, although it is highly likely that one was present, however small. But, as seen from pottery in the village, settlement activity was occurring in the area of Charney Wick in the 10th C. It is highly likely that this was a small village, formed of a small timber church at its centre surrounded by a number of timber houses and a population in the region of c.74 people. It is also known that by the end of the Saxon period the majority of Charney Bassett and its lands were owned by the Order at Abingdon Abbey (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a). This is in contrast to Stanford which, through archaeological evidence, is seen to have had a continual Saxon settlement, in the location of the current village, from the 6th C to the end of the Saxon period in the 10th-11th C. By the late Saxon period, Stanford was nearly three times the size of Charney Bassett, with a population of 190-200 people and included a fortified Manor as well as stone church at its centre. The settlement also comprised many large timber houses as well as other small dwellings, and was undertaking crafts and industries, including the operation of two water mills for the grinding of corn. In comparison with Charney Bassett, Stanford was a much larger settlement with a much stronger economy, ruled over by an independent Lord of the Manor, rather than within a large monastic estate such as Abingdon Abbey. This early expansion at Stanford, set it onto its course of becoming a prosperous market town during the subsequent medieval period.

By the Normans conquest, both settlements continued to change and evolve during the medieval period. With Charney Bassett this was to a much lesser extent than Stanford. As seen through archaeological evidence and documentary sources, Abingdon Abbey took a greater control of the changing nature of the settlement, with the relocation of the earlier Saxon village from Charney Wick to its new location at Charney Bassett. Subsequently, after this the Grange was built, with it associated water mill. Archaeological evidence suggests that the village continued to be small in size during this period with a number of burgess/housing plots with associated habitation structures fronting the roads in the village. This is in contrast to Stanford which, during this time, continued to grow in size both with an increase in population and the area covered by the settlement, extending from Stanford Wick in the south to Upper Green in the north as well as Lower Green in the west and Frogmore Brook in the east. However, similarly to Charney Bassett, the Manor was also improved and rebuilt in the 12th C under the local Lord of the Manor. Furthermore, the two settlements are similar as in the 12th C both village churches had a major rebuild with the demolition of the old Saxon church and replacement at Stanford with a new substantial nave and chancel and at Charney Bassett with a new nave, chancel and side aisle. However, in contrast with Charney Bassett the church at Stanford was further extended in the 13th and 14th C with the addition of a tower with spire at its top, side aisle and porch as well as other internal fixtures. This demonstrates Stanford's growing economy during the medieval period, unlike Charney Bassett which is seen as being of a much lower order. This is the result of the patronage at Stanford in the Vale, as those with a disposable income such as the Lord of the Manor, other high-status individuals, traders and producers, were likely to give money to the church due to the importance of religion during this period. Also, at this time, as Stanford's formation as a town or urban centre with its associated market, these patronages would have been higher at Stanford than Charney Bassett, due to its stronger economy and as its standing as an independent parish. This is in contrast to Charney Bassett where any patronage given to the village church would have mostly gone to Abingdon Abbey.

One further similarity between the two settlements is the presence of a market. At Charney Bassett this is likely to be a more ramshackle affair, without an official market charter, located on the green in the centre of the newly relocated village and supported by Abingdon Abbey, bringing a small amount of money into the local economy. This is in contrast to Stanford which, like Charney Bassett, also had a market located on its central village green, Church Green, but was more of a formal affair with a Market Charter granted in 1230 AD. As this market was more formalised it likely brought more trade into Stanford, and so increased its economic value, in contrast to that of

Charney Bassett. However, it is important to note that test pitting on both greens (marketplaces) revealed one similar feature. Within TP 1 at Charney Bassett and TP 36 at Stanford a similar rammed limestone surface was found. Both of these surfaces, independent of each other were interpreted as surfaces relating to market activity on the greens. Therefore, this type of feature may be seen as important when investigating this type of site, where a medieval market is thought to have been present. This surface may indicate an area of hardstanding for the market to take places on during all weathers so not to cause erosion to these areas of the green during inclement weather.

To support the medieval market at Stanford, archaeological evidence suggests the presence of many crafts and industries occurring in the settlement during this period including iron, bronze and glass working, bone and antler working, the quarrying of stone and thereafter working, brewing of beer and the production of cloth through weaving, as well as the production of other goods. In addition, the archaeological evidence at Stanford indicates the import of goods into the settlement, for example high quality quern stones, possibly from the Rhineland, used to grind high quality corn in the two water mills in Stanford. In contrast, the archaeology at Charney Bassett does not, to date, indicate any of these activities occurring, with the exception of the grinding of lower quality corn in the village water mill. Taking these notes of comparison into account, it can be suggested that Stanford was a small town or urban centre during the medieval period with a strong independent economy, unlike Charney Bassett formed of a small village settlement and dependent on the local landowner, Abingdon Abbey.

However, as shown by both the archaeological and documentary record, the prosperity of both settlements, Charney Bassett and Stanford in the Vale, diminished in the late medieval to post medieval periods. The first to decline was Stanford, with a collapse of the market and shrinkage of the settlement by the end of the 14th C (further discussed in the next section of this chapter). With this the town or urban centre shrank into a village with a major reduction in settlement size and economic industries. A similar collapse occurred at Charney Bassett, however, to a much lesser extent as it was already of a much lower economic order. With the dissolution of the monasteries in 1532, the lands of Abingdon Abbey were sold off, including those in Charney Bassett. This meant that the market declined and economy slowed, as demonstrated by the village church which was thereafter neglected until the mid-1800's, when it was renovated (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020d). Both these events had an effect on these settlements' economy and prosperity, however, at Stanford a number of craft activities continued such as blacksmithing, milling and brewing which are likely to have helped stabilise the village's economy. Also, new economic activities occurred at

Stanford, for example the Brickworks on Bow Road, in the 1800's and later the Shellingford Airfield in WW2 (Cuff & Brooks, 2010) which would have helped to reinforce the late post medieval to early modern economy of the village. This meant that the Church at Stanford was able to be better maintained than that at Charney Bassett, if only to the extent to stop it falling down or to undertake small remedial works. This is in contrast to Charney Bassett where no new economic activities are seen. Only the village water mill continued to operate, doing so until the early modern period, and, therefore, this had an impact on other buildings such as the church as discussed above.

Lastly, the manors of both villages during this period can be seen to have gone through a revival, even though the settlements they were contained within were not as economically strong as during the medieval period. The Manor Houses of both villages were drastically rebuilt during the early post medieval period, with this work occurring at Charney Bassett during the Tudor period and at Stanford during the 16th C (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a) (Victoria County History, 1924), with a number of further later additions also made to both properties during later periods. It should also be noted that at Stanford, these renovation and rebuilding works also occurred at the second large house in the village, Cox's Hall, which had a Georgian extension added as well as other later works during the post medieval period. These works demonstrate that both settlements were seen to be prosperous by their local landlords, as otherwise it is unlikely that they would have maintained the manor at both villages, as they continue too, to the present day. As both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett move into the later modern period, they are both seen to start growing again in size with the building of new housing in both villages, but still to a much lesser extent in Charney Bassett compared to Stanford in the Vale.

Medieval Stanford in the Vale: Evidence for its Size and the Reasons it Shrank

Through both the archaeological and documentary data gathered, the evidence for the shrinkage of the settlement of Stanford in the Vale can be determined and in turn used to show how quickly the settlement shrank in size. As discussed, Stanford was a thriving market town or urban centre until at least the mid-14th C. From both the archaeological and documentary evidence a map can be produced showing the area that the medieval settlement shrank from (being a town or urban centre) to a village at the end of the medieval period (Figure 91). From this, it can then be questioned: when exactly did Stanford shrink from a town or urban centre into a village and was it in one phase or more slowly over a longer period of time?

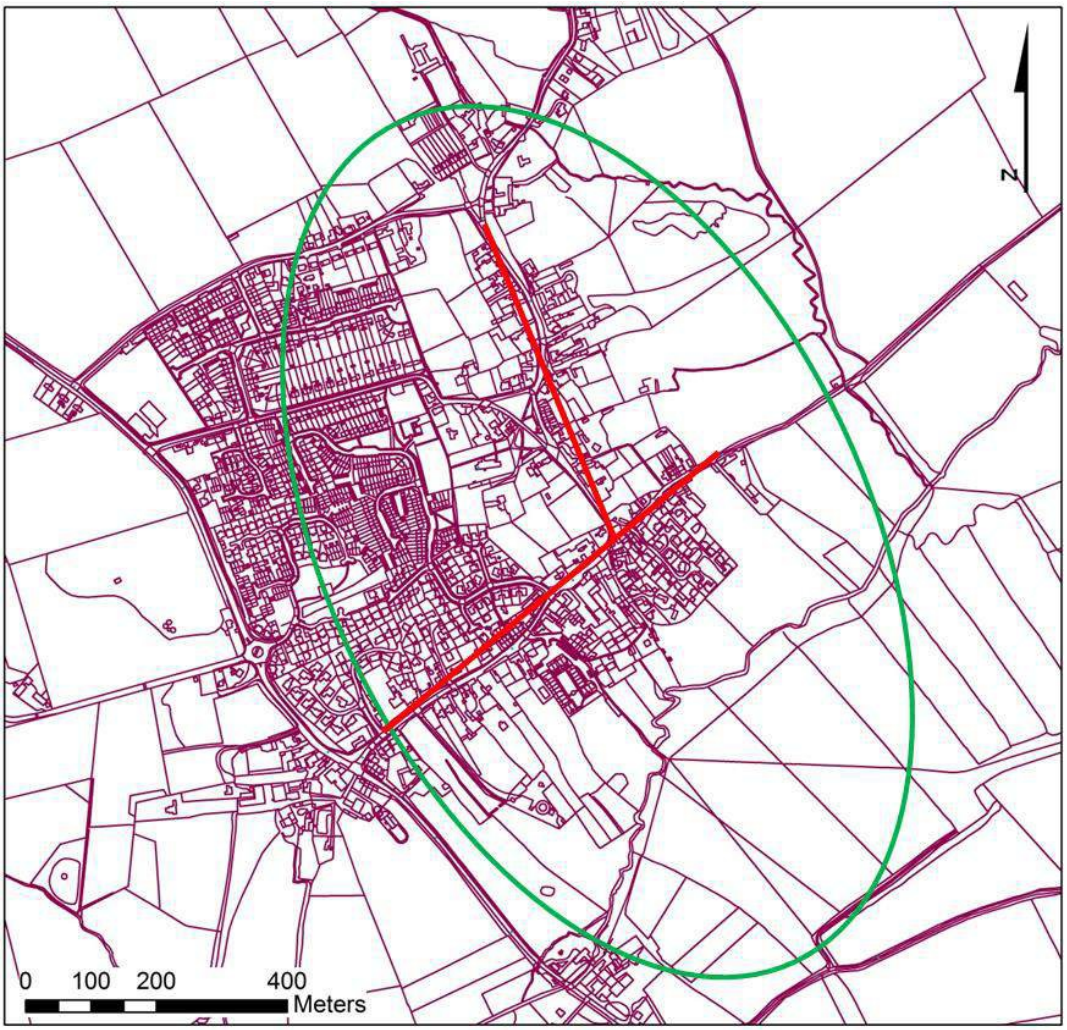

Figure 91. Map indicating shrinkage of medieval Stanford from a town or urban centre into a village. The green circle indicates medieval settlement size compared to red lines showing post medieval settlement size.

This question can be answered on two fronts; firstly, it is currently thought, from the archaeological evidence, that the settlement shrank rapidly. This can be seen from the Priors Farm excavations as the medieval structures identified through both trenching and survey work were found to be located, in most cases, just below the underlying topsoil and in turn, with most of the stone structures still in situ below the surface (Ashby, 2010b, 28). This is also seen when examining the archaeology of trenches 17 and 18 (the mill site). These trenches indicate that most of the mill was fully removed, apart from the length of wall situated in the hedge line, and the adjacent field is then seen to have reverted to agricultural use, with ridge and furrow ploughing observed. This evidence indicates that these buildings were rapidly dismantled as hardly any demolition rubble was identified. This suggests that the stone was quickly carted away for either sale or reuse, as opposed to letting the structures tumbledown on their own, as seen when a site has slowly been abandoned.

Furthermore, these structures were just covered with a thin layer of topsoil and in turn, in the case of Priors Farm, pastureland. Also, with the inclusion of areas surrounding TP 24 Upper Green, TP 55 (Stonehouse Farm) Lower Green and the area of Stanford Wick, it is observed that no attempt was made to either re-inhabit these areas of the settlement or reuse them for any other purpose, until the 18th to 20th Cs. However, evidence for thin topsoil deposits overlying medieval structures is primarily seen on the extremities of the medieval settlement, with differences seen within the centre of the settlement, close to the Church and Manor House.

Within most of the trenches excavated within Ashdown House field and the adjacent gardens in which TPs 2, 5, 12 and 35 were dug, as well as TP 28 close to Upper Green, a second deposit of organic material was found covering the early medieval structures. An example of this deposit is seen in Figure 92. This deposit also contains a large amount of bone and medieval pottery, as well as other types of domestic waste. This material is important in understanding the shrinkage of medieval Stanford, as a comparison can be made between this thick layer of organic material and 'dark earth' which is found at abandoned late Roman towns (Howard-Davis, 2009, 528). This 'dark earth' from towns, such as London, which either shrank or were abandoned at the end of the Roman period contain large quantities of household waste and organic material which overlay Roman structures (Perring, 1991, 80). This material can then be compared to the thick organic deposits found at Stanford within the test pits and trenches discussed above, which may have been laid down in the central areas of the settlement as it declined, and subsequently as the medieval buildings went into disuse. In comparison, in Charney Bassett, test pitting does not indicate any of these thick organic deposits overlying earlier archaeology within the settlement. These, thinner soil deposits indicate constant habitation of these areas of the village settlement. In contrast, in many parts of the central areas of medieval Stanford, the thick organic deposit is observed suggesting that this is a medieval version of 'dark earth', indicating that the settlement did not totally go out of use at the end of this period. Instead, the areas surrounding the centre of Stanford, which were still inhabited, were used for agricultural or garden purposes as an organic soil was able to build up over a long period of time, overlying the previous medieval structures. This is an important aspect of the changing nature of this type of rural settlement; if found within other e medieval settlements of a similar type it could be a significant characteristic in understanding their growth and decline. However, further work is needed on comparable village settlements to fully understand this formation process when examining this type of medieval settlement.

Figure 92. TP 28, section photograph showing possible medieval 'dark earth' deposit overlying the remains of a possible earlier medieval building (timber slot).

Other areas of the settlement, such as Stanford Wick, south of the River Ock may indicate that the shrinkage of Stanford occurred in more than one phase, as demonstrated from the 1977 excavation at Stanford Wick (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977, 34). Through the excavation undertaken a series of features were identified just below the surface, including a small farmstead and associated 12th C pottery remains (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977, 34). From this it may be surmised that this part of medieval Stanford collapsed much earlier than the rest of the settlement closer to the historic part of the village. However, this data should be taken with some caution, as only one small trench was excavated over a single feature in 1977, with (to date) no further work being undertaken in this area. Although, the evidence may show this one structure went out of use in the 12th C and it could be surmised that the rest of Stanford Wick may have gone out of use in the 14th C, along with other areas of the settlement. This, however, is difficult to prove at present. Further work is needed in this part of medieval Stanford to better understand the shrinkage of the area of Stanford Wick in relation to the principal areas of medieval Stanford.

The second part of the question to be answered is, when exactly did the settlement shrink? As shown from documentary evidence and standing building recording, Stanford's church continued to be significantly remodelled and additions made into the early 14th century, indicating that the economy continued to thrive at this time. However, current evidence from both trenching and test pitting at Stanford indicate that the settlement shrank during the later 14th century. Furthermore, documentary evidence indicates that Stanford was still known as a town into the early 15th century, with the people outside the settlement known as the '*out-towners'* (Maine, 1866, 19-20) and with

Stanford also sometimes referred to as "*Towne of Stanford*" (Howse, 1987, 11 & 12; 21). This would indicate that the people living in the settlement at this period still thought that Stanford was a town, even though it is likely that within a few prior generations the shrinkage of the town or urban centre into a village had occurred. This evidence suggests that the settlement must have shrunk close to the end of the 14th century and in turn the question can be considered: how fast did the settlement shrink? Evidence indicates that Stanford was thriving at the beginning of the 14th century, as there was enough money in the area at the beginning of this century to undertake significant works on the church as well as to maintain two water mills and their associated complex system of leats and other infrastructure. It can be surmised, therefore, that the settlement shrank rapidly, possibly within less than 50 years. However, from documentary sources it can be shown that Stanford was still locally known as a town into the 15th century; but from the archaeological evidence it is unlikely that Stanford had either the industrial or internal economy of a town or urban centre, nor was it anywhere near the size of one, in comparison to that seen earlier in the medieval period.

As discussed above, it can now be determined how quickly Stanford shrank and the possible period when this occurred. It can also be concluded that this decline had a major impact on Stanford's economy as well as its associated industries and crafts. This is indicated from two main sources. The first, from both test pitting and trenching, as little evidence for industrial activities can be seen within the artefactual remains, indicating most did not continue into the early post medieval period. During the time when Stanford was a town or urban centre, evidence indicates that there was iron, copper, and glass working occurring within the settlement (slag material, kiln lining and a casting mould recovered). Once the town or urban centre shrank further, industrial processes such as these are not seen in the archaeological record until the 19th century through the introduction into the village of both blacksmithing and the brickworks. Furthermore, the archaeological evidence also indicates weaving occurred within the settlement, however, no archaeological evidence has been found to indicate this continuing on into the post medieval period within the village. The second source of evidence can be seen through the trading of sheep which is known to have continued within the village, most likely to a lesser extent into the post medieval period, as discussed by Maine in his book on the village (Maine, 1866) written in 1866. A pound for keeping stock in is known to have been located on Upper Green until the 18th to 19th centuries (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 137), seen to have been located in this area through the identification of this feature within TP 43. Lastly, this shrinkage is also seen to have affected Stanford in the Vale economy. This is demonstrated by the evidence for the straightening of the River Ock, discussed above, which thereafter, went into disuse, as seen by the river reverting to its natural meandering course at the end of the medieval period. This further supports the evidence that the

economy declined, as to sustain the straight course of the river a large amount of manpower, effort and money would have been needed to prevent it returning to its natural course. This economic effect can also be seen when examining the structure of St Denys church, as from the 15th C onwards few additions and alterations were made to the structure of the church compared to earlier periods. This can further indicate an economic downturn as with less money available in Stanford's economy there was less money to spend on public buildings, such as the church.

Outside Influence and Pressures Affecting the Decline of Stanford During the Late Medieval Period

As discussed above, archaeological and documentary evidence indicates Stanford shrunk from a town or urban centre into a village at the end of the 14th C. It is highly likely that a number of different factors affected Stanford, causing the downturn of its economy and market at the end of the 14th C resulting in a shrinkage of the settlement. Three main areas of influence are likely to have impacted on Stanford at this time, causing a shrinkage of both its economy as well as the settlement's size. These are: 1. The climatic episode of the Little Ice Age (Fagan, 2019); 2. the plague and Black Death epidemic (Benedictow, 2006); 3. The decline in primary wool exports to mainland Europe and other factors affecting the sheep industry (Platt, 1976).

Before these three areas which impacted on Stanford can be discussed, the data from geographical theory should be considered when studying the reasons why Stanford collapsed from a town or urban centre into a village; in contrast to other towns surrounding it, such as Wantage, Faringdon and Abingdon which still survive as urban centres to this day. The first set of data to be consider derives from Reillys Law of Retail Gravity which shows the area in which Stanford's market would have influenced, compared to those which surrounded it. As seen in Table 12 and Figure 93 Stanford's market has a large area of gravitational pull of up to 6km in distance, as the crow flies, from its central marketplace. This area of pull includes ten surrounding village settlements as well as a number of further other remote farmsteads which would have relied on the market at Stanford for the trading of goods such as livestock and agricultural materials. This is in comparison to the market at Charney Bassett which had a much smaller gravitational pull, as seen in Table 13 and Figure 94. The gravitational pull of Charney's market averages between 2-3km and includes only four other small village settlements and a handful of farmsteads. However, one anomaly should also be taken into account when looking at the gravitational pull of Charney Bassett's market, which is the large area of 'pull' to the west caused by the low value of Shrivenham. This is an anomaly in the data set

and, therefore, causes this pull out to the west, with the people of Shrivenham more likely to have attended the market of Stanford than Charney due to its larger market and larger gravitational pull factor. Furthermore, when comparing the pull of Stanford's market to Charney Bassett's, Stanford can be seen to have had a much larger economic gravitational pull, in most cases, (nearly twice that of Charney Bassett's market) than those in the surrounding villages where a market was present. This is also demonstrated by villages such as Baulking which is situated on the periphery of the area of gravitational pull created by Stanford's market, even though Baulking had a market charter of its own. This suggests that the market in Baulking was also small in scale and was likely over shadowed by the economic pull which Stanford's market had, prior to its demise.

The close proximity of Stanford, however. to a number of much larger towns with larger markets with stronger gravitational pulls towards them at times of decline would have accelerated the demise of Stanford's economic output. Towns such as Abingdon and Faringdon, with their monastic connections, and Wantage with its royal connection, would have seen an increased economic and gravitational pull and likely growth as those in surrounding settlements declined during a period of economic downturn. These surrounding larger towns had other external resources not just their markets which kept them economically viable. This is in contrast to Stanford, where the market is likely to have formed the main economic link to the crafts and industries situated in the urban centre in the earlier medieval period. During a period of downturn, where less people are likely to purchase products, would have had a greater impact on Stanford as the main economic factor of the settlement was the market, with few other ways to bring in additional finance and goods into the settlement. This would then cause a spiral effect on Stanford's economy, instigating its shrinkage and decline from a town or urban centre into a village.

Settlement	**Value of settlement in 1334 Lay Subsidy**	**Modern conversion of settlements 1334 Lay Subsidy value**	**Distance from settlement by road to SITV (km)**	**Break point from smallest settlement (km)**	**Break point from SITV (km)**
SITV	£7 19s 9¼d	£4,898.91	-	-	-
Faringdon	£15 11s 11¼d	£9,565.26	5.90	2.46	2.46
Abingdon	£17 18s 7½d	£10,996.35	17.90	7.16	7.16
Wantage	£7 11s 3d	£4,638.24	9.30	4.58	4.72
Baulking	£4 11s 7d	£2,808.50	5.50	2.37	3.13

Hinton Waldrist	£4 13s 8¾d	£2,874.95	6.90	2.99	3.91
Standlake	£10 15s 6d	£6,608.54	14.80	6.85	6.85
Kingston Isle	£3 12s 3½d	£2,215.62	6.60	2.65	3.95
Shrivenham	£1 14s 4d	£1,052.87	11.90	3.77	8.13

Table 12. Results of the Retail Gravity analysis in the landscape surrounding modern settlement of Stanford in the Vale.

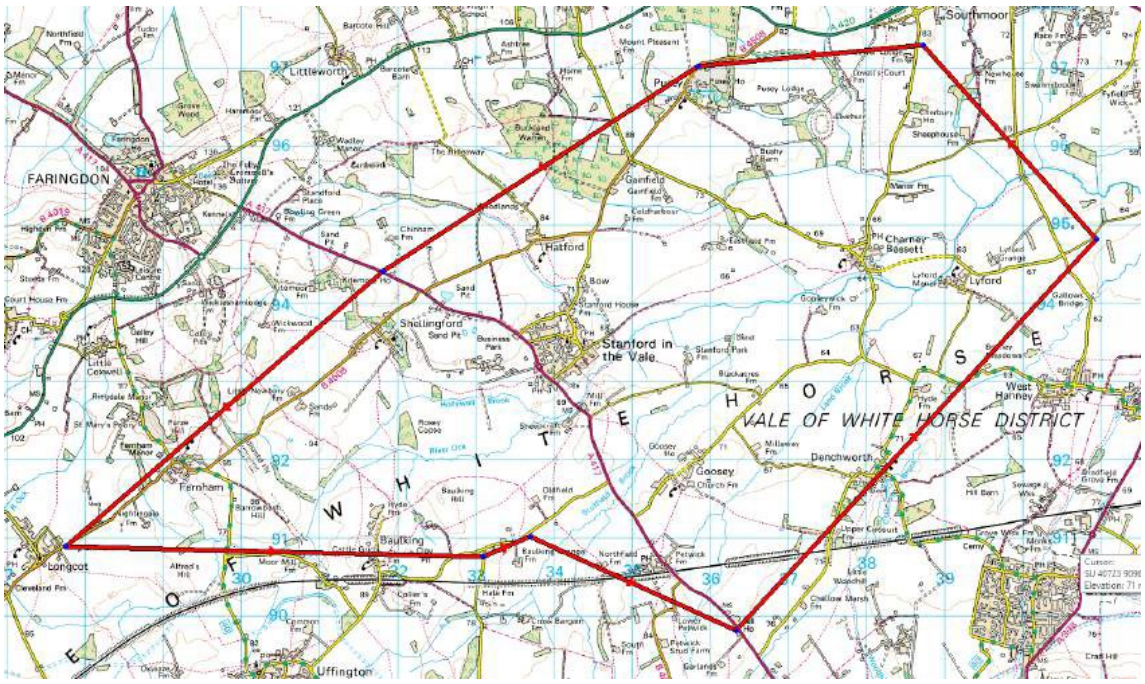

Figure 93. Map showing the area of coverage from the Retail Gravity analysis, with Stanford at its centre (red line indicating maximum distance of break point).

Settlement	**Value of settlement in 1334 Lay Subsidy**	**Value of settlement in 1334 (modern conversion)**	**Distance from settlement by road to Charney Bassett (km)**	**Break point from smallest settlement (km)**	**Break point from Charney Bassett (km)**
Charney Bassett	£2 10s 11¼d	£1,561.41	-	-	-
Stanford in the Vale	£7 19s 9¼d	£4,898.91	4.10	1.48	1.48
Faringdon	£15 11s 11¼d	£9,565.26	10.60	3.05	3.05

Abingdon	£17 18s 7½d	£10,996.35	13.20	3.61	3.61
Wantage	£7 11s 3d	£4,638.24	8.60	3.16	3.16
Baulking	£4 11s 7d	£2,808.50	9.50	4.03	4.03
Hinton Waldrist	£4 13s 8¾d	£2,874.95	5.60	2.38	2.38
Standlake	£10 15s 6d	£6,608.54	11.80	3.86	3.86
Kingston Isle	£3 12s 3½d	£2,215.62	10.70	4.88	4.88
Shrivenham	£1 14s 4d	£1,052.87	16.80	7.71	9.09

Table 13. Results of the Retail Gravity analysis in the landscape surrounding the modern settlement of Charney Bassett.

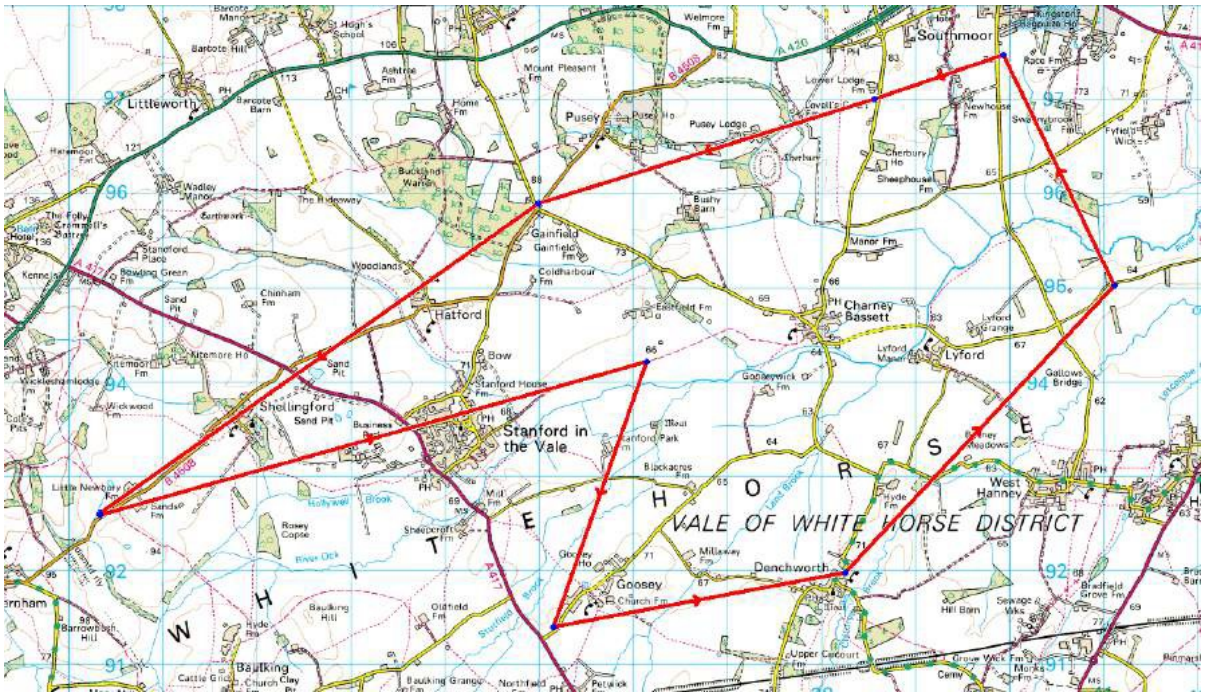

Figure 94. Map showing the area of coverage from the Retail Gravity analysis, with Charney Bassett at its centre (red line indicating maximum distance of break point).

Further geographical theory data, from nearest neighbour analysis should also be taken into account when examining the likely affect one settlement has on another, be that a town or a village. Through the analyses of data for the geographical area surrounding both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett through the use of nearest neighbour theory, as shown in Table 14, an *Rn* value of between 1.13 and 1.39 can be calculated for the area. This *Rn* value indicates a random distribution of settlements within the area, with a slight tendency towards regularity in their distribution. This indicates that the settlements in the area are not clustered around towns or settlements with markets but are more likely to be located due to geographical or topographical reasons; such as land

gradient, the location of water sources or the quality of the underlying ground (for example its likelihood of flooding). This is important when examining which market a person living in a surrounding settlement is more likely to flock towards; if their access is blocked by an immovable feature such as steeply sloping ground, low-lying marshland or other geographical features, then they may not attend the closest market to them by distance. However, they may instead travel a much further distance to a market which is easier to access or can provide better goods or services in one place. For example, the market at Stanford may be closest for a person living at Goosey, a village 2km to the south of Stanford, however due to episodes of flooding caused by a change in climate, as discussed below, the direct route is now inaccessible. Therefore, a person living at Goosey would find it easier and more rewarding to visit the larger market town of Wantage, rather than the smaller and closer market town or urban centre of Stanford, even though it is a much further travelling distance of 5km to Wantage. This would, therefore, decrease the economic prosperity of Stanford causing negative growth over time, in contrast to Wantage's economic prosperity which would see positive growth over time.

ID	Settlement name from	Settlement name to	Distance from 1-1 direct (Km)	Distance from 1-1 by road (Km)
1	Stanford in the Vale	Hatford	1.3	2
2	Stanford in the Vale	Shellingford	2.3	2.6
3	Stanford in the Vale	Goosey	2.2	3.8
4	Goosey	Denchworth	2.6	2.9
5	Charney Bassett	Lyford	1.2	1.6
6	Pusey	Buckland	2	3.2
7	Buckland	Carswell Marsh	2.1	3.4
8	Carswell Marsh	Littleworth	2	3.1
9	Faringdon	Great Coxwell	2.3	2.6
10	Great Coxwell	Little Coxwell	1.4	1.6
11	Fernham	Longcot	2.1	2.1
12	Baulking	Uffington	1.9	1.9
13	Compton Beauchamp	Woolstone	1.5	2
14	Kingston Lisle	Sparsholt	2	2.9
15	Sparsholt	Childrey	1.5	1.5
16	Childrey	West Challow	1.1	2.2

17	West Challow	East Challow	1.3	1.8
18	East Challow	Wantage	1.9	2
19	Wantage	Grove	2.1	2.1
20	West Hanney	East Hanney	1.3	0.7
21	Frilford	Marcham	1.3	1.4
22	Abingdon	Shippen	2.2	1.9
23	Cothill	Dry Sandford	1	1
24	Dry Sandford	Bessels Leigh	1.3	2.2
25	Appleton	Eaton	1.8	1.9
26	Tubny	Fyfield	1.4	1.4
27	Fyfield	Kingston Bagpuize	1.7	1.7
28	Kingston Bagpuize	Longworth	1.3	2.5
29	Longworth	Hinton Waldrist	1.2	1.7
30	Lockings	Ardington	1.1	1.4
31	Steventon	Drayton	2.6	2
	Total Mean		1.709677419	2.1
	Total Survey Area (km²)		282.8	
	Rn value (direct)		1.13	
	Rn value (by road)		1.39	

Table 14. Table showing data used to calculate Rn value for nearest neighbourr theory.

Taking into account the data produced using both these geographical theories, this information may suggest why Stanford shrank in size and its economy collapsed, whereas the surrounding towns of Wantage, Faringdon and Abingdon prospered. It can be surmised, that during periods of economic and environmental hardship (discussed below), people are more likely to gravitate towards larger and more prosperous markets and towns. This population movement, as well as royal and monastic patronages as found within these larger town settlements, means they are less likely to be affected so severely by economic downturn during harder times. In contrast they are likely to grow much more rapidly and takeover areas surrounding them through economic influences, whereas smaller towns or urban centres such as Stanford, shrink and collapse much more rapidly due to these contributing factors.

Factors Attributing to Stanford Shrinkage

The first of the three factors which likely accounted towards the shrinkage of Stanford from a town or urban centre into a village is the climatic epoch known as the Little Ice Age. This climate epoch occurred during two periods in Britain, firstly from 1150 to 1460 and secondly from 1560 to 1850 AD (Mandia, 2009). However, it should be noted that some climatologists do not agree there was a Little Ice Age from 1150 to 1460 and, instead, view the period of 1030 to 1240 AD as the medieval warming period (Liu et al., 2009,2356). The climate epoch of the Little Ice Age affected weather patterns in England, with an increase in storms, increasing river and stream levels and therefore raised the underlying water table (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 111). This had a subsequent effect on the local environment by causing a rise in long term flooding episodes on areas of low-lying land. This effect is likely to have hugely influenced the low-lying lands around the Thames and its tributaries such as the River Ock and Frogmoor Brook and, so in turn, affected settlements in the area such as Stanford. This effect of flooding on Stanford can be seen in the modern record, as a large proportion of the village flooded in the summer of 2007, as well as the surrounding low-lying farmland (Jeremy Benn Associates Limited, 2013, 72). The possibility of a high-water table and episodes of subsequent flooding affecting Stanford during the late medieval period can be seen within the test pits excavated in the village. One example of this is seen within TP 6, where the archaeological deposits were observed to contain iron pan, possibly caused by water movement through the sediments (D. Ashby, 2012). A further 18 test pits throughout Stanford demonstrate the presence of depositional alluvial flood plain material over a long period of time, suggesting both a high-water table and sustained periods of flooding in these areas. Furthermore, two test pits TP 13 and 45 on Cottage Road and Upper Green were not able to be excavated to their full depth due to an increased height in the water table. This further supports the argument that, modern data on the severity of Stanford's flooding can be used to indicate the likely effect these types of episodes had in the past.

The secondary effects of this changing climate can also be seen within Stanford's archaeological record in two main ways. The first is at Priors Farm field, where excavations have revealed a large raised cobbled surface, over 25m across and surrounded by post holes, which was dated to the late medieval period and was thought to have been constructed to keep cattle and sheep on during periods of flooding (Ashby, 2010a, 9). Secondly archaeological investigations in the village have demonstrated the abandonment of the buildings in the areas of the settlement which are low-lying and therefore much more prone to longer periods or more regular flooding episodes.

This is seen in a number of different areas at Stanford, including at Priors Farm where up to five stone buildings were abandoned at the end of the 14th C (Ashby, 2011b, 70). This is also seen to have occurred at the two medieval mill sites in the village, on the low-lying land adjacent to the River Ock and close to Frogmore Brook, where these mills were abandoned at the end of the 14th C and subsequently moved to higher land in the early post medieval period, where the threat of flooding was reduced. Lastly, the abandonment can also be seen at Stanford Wick, situated on low-lying land to the south of the current village close to the river Ock, which is also very prone to flooding. As seen through the archaeological record all these areas were not replaced with new buildings after this period of abandonment but instead turned over to agriculture, mainly pasture, until the modern day. In comparison to other settlements where this abandonment of low-lying areas is known to have occurred in the medieval period it is also known to be due to the relocation of sheep grazing areas which were also affected by these flooding episodes. In response houses were deserted and the population of these low-lying areas moved to higher ground. In turn the abandoned dwellings were never reoccupied, and the areas returned to pasture. These factors would in turn also have had an effect on the local economy such as that at Stanford, as with a large population migration from one area to another, trade and industry would have likely moved with them too, so causing an economic crash in the area of origin. This would have meant that settlements such as Stanford would have had less resilience to withstand further problems from outside pressures, so leading to a greater chance of their shrinkage or demise.

The second of the three factors which are thought to have accounted for the collapse of medieval Stanford is the plague which occurred at the end of the 14th C. However, taking into account later records of plague in Stanford in 1646, where only 33 people died (Prentice, 1989, 1-2), it is thought that the disease which more likely struck Stanford as a urban centre was not Black Death or the plague, but instead anthrax or typhus. There is a high likelihood that anthrax affected the population of Stanford, as it was carried and spread by sheep, of which there was a high population compared to people in the area. Also, due to Stanford's location as a rural market town surrounded by many farms and much smaller local villages, it is likely that a large volume of sheep, possibly carrying the disease would have been brought into the settlement to either be traded on Church Green or held in the pound on Upper Green. Adding this factor with the likelihood of the movement of a high footfall of people traveling into and out of Stanford for the market as well as for other goods and services, this would have meant the transmission of disease such as anthrax from sheep to humans was quite high. However, it should be noted that anthrax itself is virtually impossible to see within the archaeological record, as it usually kills sheep within 1 to 2 hours after

infection, and people within 6 days (Government of Western Australia, 2013). Though it may be possible for the effects of the disease to be seen in the archaeological record through areas of rapid depopulation. This effect can be seen in two main areas of Stanford. The first is at Stanford Wick which, as discussed above, is likely to have been affected by flooding due to its low-lying nature, but is also likely to have been heavily affected by the transmission of disease from sheep, as it is surround on three sides by sheep pastures. Archaeological evidence and documentary records indicated Stanford Wick was in use until at least the 13th C (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977,35). However, it was then rapidly abandoned, and turned into pasture, with shallow archaeological remains and earthworks still existing to this day (Faringdon Archaeological Study Group, 1977,35). The second is the abandonment of settlement activity including stone and timber buildings close to the centre of Stanford, which is now formed of a series of open pasture fields. These areas may not have been directly surrounded by open pasture for sheep but instead been highly populated and close to the market and pound therefore increasing the rate of transmission firstly from sheep to humans and then between humans themselves. Therefore, these central areas of the settlement were also abandoned as the householders died. These two areas may therefore demonstrate a rapid depopulation of these areas of Stanford in the late 14th C due to the death of a large proportion of the town's population.

If it is assumed that this evidence indicates that 'plague' (anthrax) is one of the factors which reduced the population of Stanford, and also affected other settlements in the area greatly affecting the economic prospects of the Vale (Miles, 2019, 217). This effect would have been compounded by population migration, as it is known that survivors from villages which were affected by the plague fled to larger towns and cities (Schofield, 2013). This would have further contributed to the collapse of Stanford as less crops and food would have been produced in the surrounding area (Schofield, 2013), with produce mainly going to heavily populated areas where they were more greatly needed and would raise a better price. This would have then increased the economic prosperity of these areas due to mass migration, with towns such as Wantage, Faringdon and Abingdon increasing their economic wealth. Smaller towns or urban centres such as Stanford would therefore have been adversely affected, as seen from Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity; the larger towns would have a greater gravitational pull on the surrounding area as their population and economic wealth grew, so absorbing the trade links of smaller towns and their associated villages. This would have further decreased the economic prosperity of small markets such as Stanford, causing a rapid collapse and shrinkage of these settlements. This would have meant that further outside economic influence would have increased the pressure on these smaller markets, such as Stanford's, whereas the larger

markets in areas where both goods and people were migrating to would have been affected to a lesser extent when a period of national economic downturn also occurred.

The third and final factor which is thought to have contributed to the decline of Stanford from an urban centre into a village is the drop in the primary wool (raw wool) exports to mainland Europe at the end of the 14th C, as well as other contributing factors within the wool and sheep industries at this time. Within the Vale of the White Horse, in which Stanford is situated, during the medieval period most of the rural economy was formed of wool and sheep industries. The ratio of sheep per acre in the early medieval period, was between two and ten sheep per acre of arable land (Stephenson, 1988, 388); with each sheep producing 1.35 lbs of fleece, with 15 million sheep in the country this amounted to over 20,250 tons (imperial) of fleeces produced per year (Stephenson, 1988, 389).

However, this prosperity in the rural economy did not last. One of the main sources which illustrates this, is the drop in primary exports to mainland Europe at the end of the 14th C, as seen in Figure 95. With the drop in exports from about 1370 onwards, as well as a dramatic drop in the price paid for wool, came an increase in the secondary wool export (cloth) to the mainland (Platt, 1976 ,87). However, this did not increase as rapidly as the decline in primary wool exports and therefore the effect of the drop was not cancelled out. This sudden decline in exports, as well as price rises in other areas of the wool trade, was caused by three main factors. Firstly, high export duties on raw wool products out of England; secondly the increase in home consumption of wool and thirdly the continuous out-pricing of raw wool by the Flemish in Belgium (Platt, 1976 ,88). These three factors had a devastating effect on the economy and therefore greatly affected rural sheep farming areas, such as those seen at Stanford and the surrounding area. Further evidence, as seen in the graph in Figure 96, demonstrates a large drop in the price of primary wool products, likely due to the increased cost factors discussed above. These factors would have affected Stanford as well as other small market towns, as the wool trade would have formed one of its main economic staples, with other associated crafts and industries also relying on this incoming product into the settlement. One example of this is weaving which, due to less wool being brought into a small market such as Stanford's, would have meant that tradespeople like these would have migrated out of the settlement to larger surrounding towns, such as Abingdon, Farringdon or Wantage. Also due to the drop in wool price, traders of sheep and wool products would have flocked towards towns with larger markets as their product would have likely gained a better price than those at smaller ones. This would have had an adverse effect on small market towns or urban centre such as Stanford,

causing a domino effect with less and less people attending their market with goods, as they travelled to markets in larger towns instead.

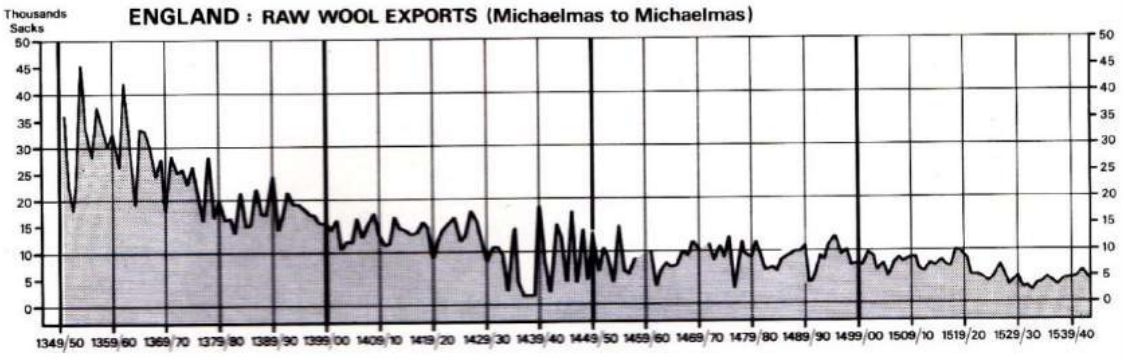

Figure 95. Graph showing the quantity of wool being exported to mainland Europe in the medieval period (Platt, 1976, 87, Fig. 68).

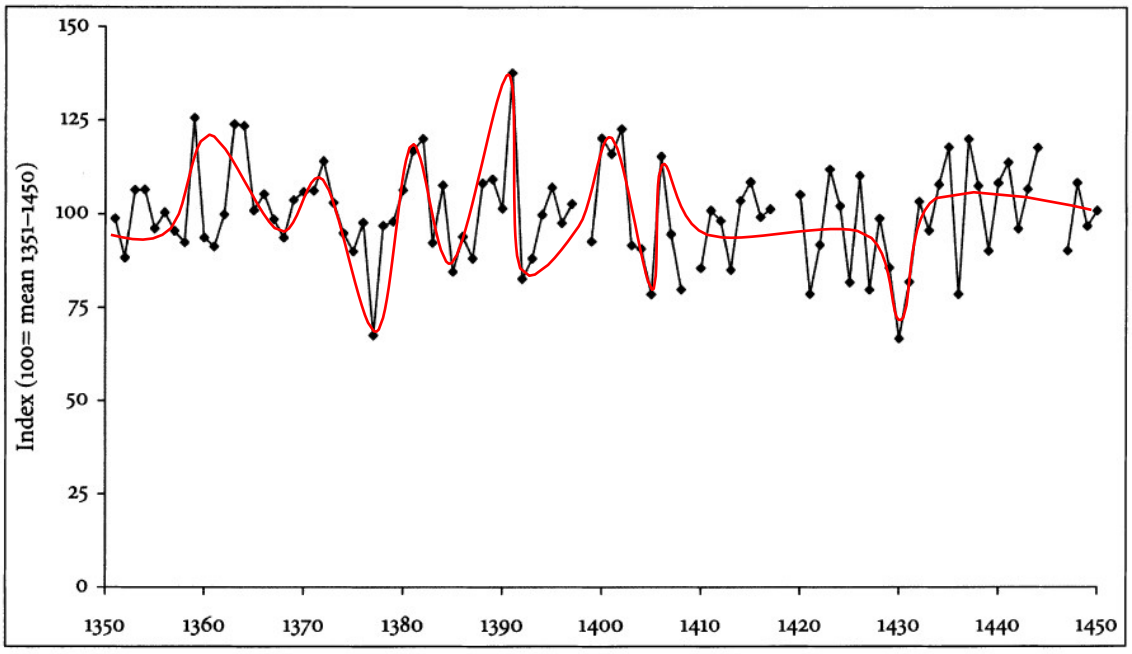

Figure 96. Graph showing the wool price index relative to the price of wethers from 1351 to 1450 AD. The red line indicates the mean data (Stone, 2003,22, Fig. 9).

As well as the drop in the trade of wool products at this time, the sheep populations themselves were also being hit by a period of disease. Apart from anthrax discussed above, which is likely to have also affected the human population, sheep populations were also being effected by a disease called 'Red Death'(Stone, 2003, 20). As seen in Figure 97 and the literature, with lambing percentages dropping by up to 50% over a 30 year period (Stone, 2003,5, Fig.3), new, younger sheep were harder to obtain and therefore older sheep would have been kept for longer. It may be possible to see this effect in the animal bone remains found within medieval archaeological deposits

at Stanford, as the presence of new 'grey' bone growth indicates the existence of disease within the local animal population, such as sheep, at this time. As animals with systemic disease were being kept for longer periods of time, possibly as a result of the reduction in economic trade and poor sheep management and inbreeding, it is likely that long term disease would have been more virulent in the animal population. However, this would have eventually meant a reduction in the size of sheep herds and, therefore, wool products as the older sheep also died off. Markets such as Stanford's would have also suffered as there was both less sheep to trade as well as less product which they produced. Like the price of wool and the volume traded overseas, as discussed above, this would have further increased the likelihood of traders and secondary services, such as related trades, moving to bigger market settlements, thereby increasing the downturn in smaller markets.

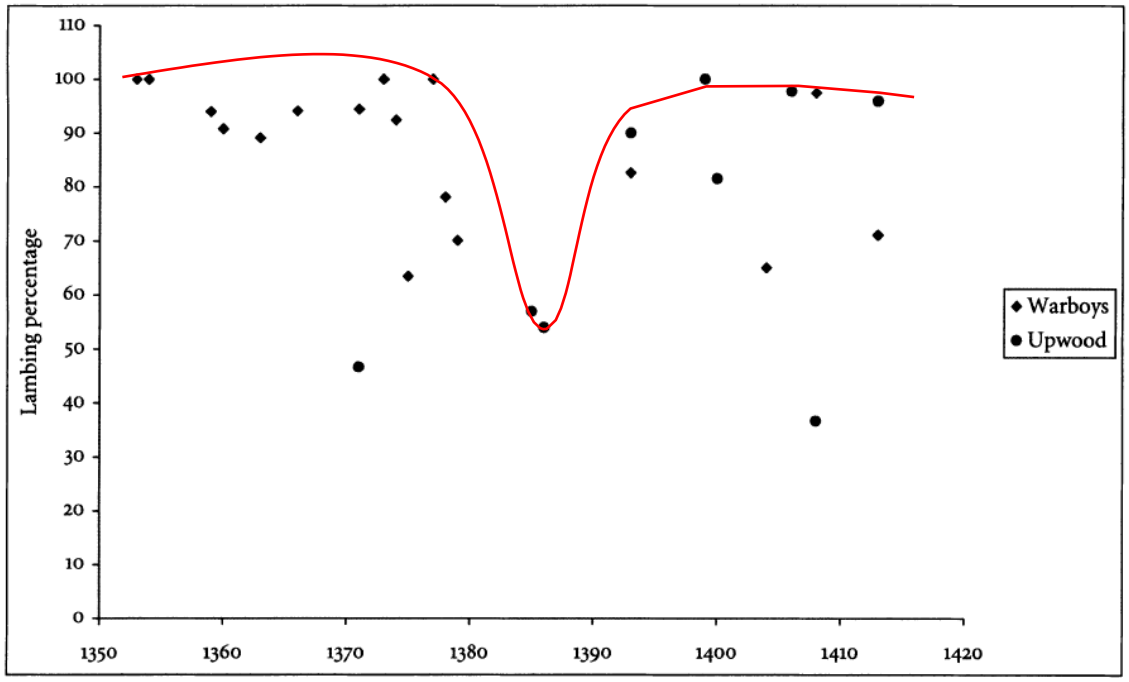

Figure 97. Graph showing the percentages of lambs being born at Warboys and Upwood (Hants), between 1353 to 1413AD. The red line indicates the mean data (Stone, 2003,5, Fig.3).

With the economic effect of the wool trade decreasing and taking into account the movement of sheep flocks away from the area due to climate change, as also discussed, less sheep, fleeces, wool and secondary wool products would have been traded in smaller markets such as Stanford's. Documentary evidence from a Will dated 1540 indicates that a 'Merchant of the Staple of Calais', Thomas Snoddenham, was living in Stanford; his post included the control of the export of wool to mainland Europe, during the Tudor period (Ward, 2015). However, this does not indicate that large scale wool trading was still occurring at Stanford itself during this time. It is more likely to suggest wool trading was continuing to an extent in the surrounding landscape, possibly as an

increase of secondary wool products such as cloth being traded. Therefore, trading of these products would have more likely occurred within larger, and more prosperous, markets in the area, for example Wantage, Faringdon and Abingdon. With larger amounts being traded in these areas, a better price would have been obtained. This, as well as the effects caused by climate change from the effects of the Little Ice Age causing sustained flooding and the effects of anthrax killing off a proportion of the population, would have caused a depopulation of small rural markets, such as Stanford's, as people moved to larger towns for safety and economic reasons. This would then create a continuing downturn and spiral effect on Stanford's economy, causing it to shrink from a once thriving and prosperous small market town into a much smaller rural village.

Comparative Village Settlements in Oxfordshire with Medieval Market Charters

When studying rural settlement development in Oxfordshire, Stanford in the Vale is seen as one of 20 comparable villages within the Oxfordshire countryside. The location of these settlements is seen in Figure 98. The main factor which makes each of these settlements equivalent, when studying this type of settlement, is, that Like Stanford in the Vale, they were all granted market charters during the medieval period but are still villages today. For each of these settlements, a brief *résumé* of the current documentary and archaeological evidence, representing their growth, is to be discussed. This *résumé* therefore puts Stanford in the Vale, as well as the other archaeological comparable settlement (Charney Bassett) into their wider context and, therefore, helps to give a better understanding of the development of rural settlements in Oxfordshire. Also, from this evidence, a classification for the different types of village settlement in Oxfordshire, where a medieval market charter was granted, can also be formed, as discussed below.

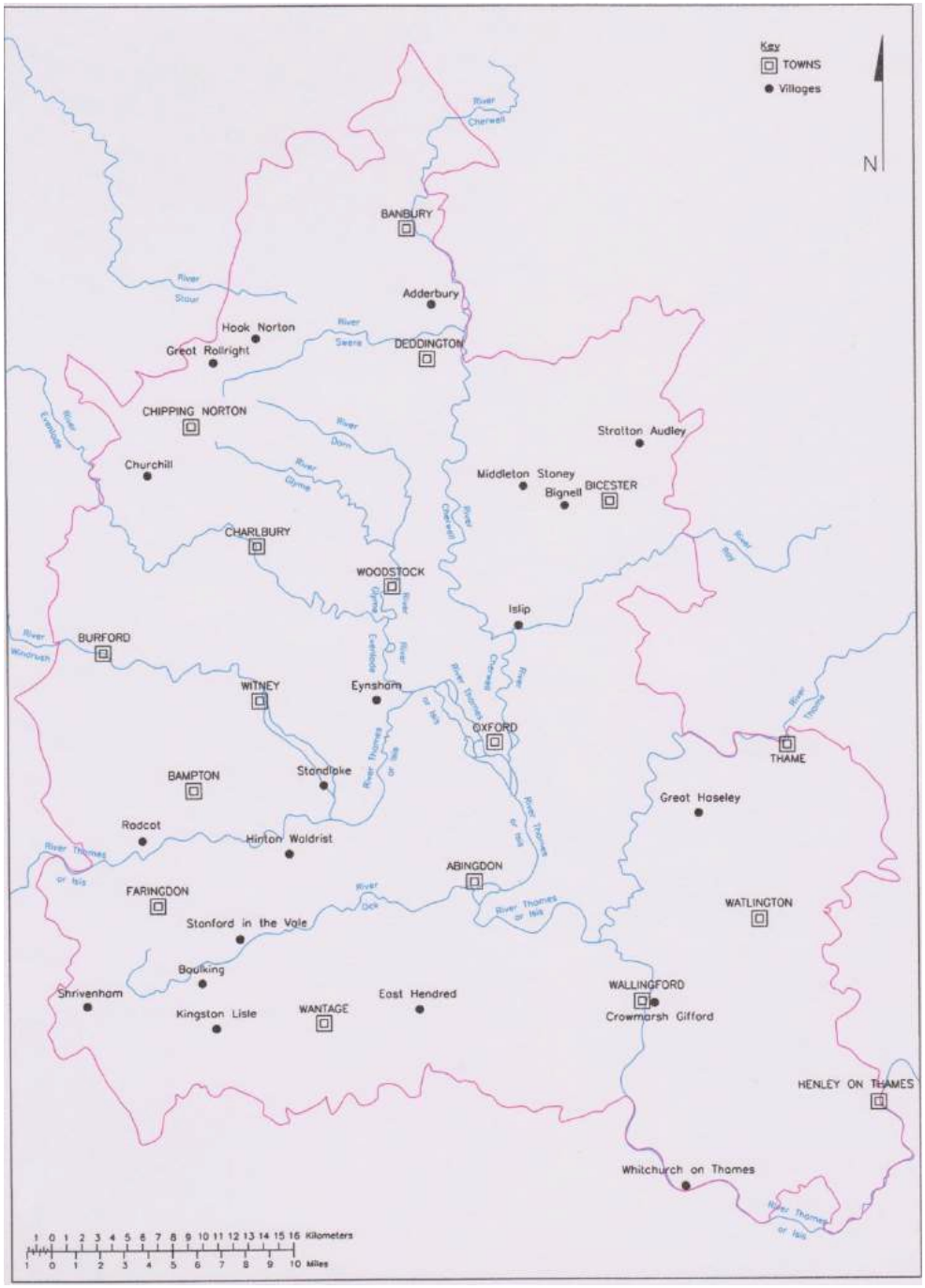

Figure 98. Map indicating the location of the 20 rural village settlements of Oxfordshire granted medieval market charters, discussed within this literature review.

Adderbury

The village of Adderbury is situated on the main trunk road (A4260) between Banbury and Oxford and with Sor Brook running through its centre, splitting the village into East Adderbury and West Adderbury. The name Adderbury comes from the Saxon, meaning ‘stronghold of a woman

called Eadburh' (Mill, 2003, 4). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Marlston Rock Formation and superficial alluvial deposits associated with the Brook (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activities at Adderbury comes from the prehistoric period, with small quantities of both Bronze Age and Iron Age pottery found, as well as a series of possible crop marks thought to date to this period (Historic England, 2016a). However, the earliest evidence for a settlement at Adderbury comes from the Roman period with a large amount of archaeological evidence identified. This includes a large quantity of pottery and coinage found within the current village, as well as crop marks within the area surrounding the settlement (Historic England, 2016a). The most important find, however, from this date was found in the settlement in 1853 and was a Roman bronze bust of Diana (Historic England, 2016a). This find is significant; to have a bronze statue of a god indicates a highly important settlement during this period and may demonstrate the presence of a Roman temple within the region.

From the Saxon period to date few archaeological remains have been found, with the only possible find being a single Saxon glass roundel (Historic England, 2016a). However, moving into the medieval period, the earliest documentary evidence for a settlement at Adderbury comes from the Domesday Book of 1086, which states the settlement was formed of: 107.5 households, 72 villagers, 16 smallholders and 27 slaves, land for 48 ploughs, 2 acres of meadow, 9 furlongs, 2 pasture, 13.5 woodland and six mills (Morris, 1979, 155a). This entry indicates that the settlement was extremely large for a village of this period, during both the Saxon and early medieval epochs. Further records of this date indicate a large settlement, with the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicating a value of £10 12s 2d (Glasscock, 1975, 242), with the settlement also granted a market Charter in 1218 A.D. by Henry III, for a weekly market on a Monday (Letters, 2005). Furthermore, structures from this date within the village settlement indicate an early substantial medieval settlement. These comprise: the church, constructed between the 13th and 14th centuries, which Pevsner states is one of the largest and most important churches in the county; a tithe barn constructed in the 14th century and the Manor House, currently post medieval in date, constructed on the site of an earlier house with connections to the Bishop of Winchester (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 413-419). Extrapolating this information paints an impressive picture of a large and important settlement during the medieval period. However, in recent times little archaeological work has been undertaken, with few finds identified, to better understand this period of Adderbury's past.

Moving into the post medieval and early modern periods, the settlement can still be seen to be of a large size compared to other villages within the area. As both historic mapping and listed buildings indicate, the village is split into two areas during this period. The first on the west side of

the river, mainly surrounding Crosshill Road and Horne Hill Road and the second on the east side of the river surrounding Mill Lane and the High Street (British listed buildings online, 2016a; University of Edinburgh, 2011). This split may be caused by the Sor Brook running through the centre of the settlement. This is significant as it indicates Adderbury may have been large, important and in continual use during the early post medieval period, with a slower decline in its fortunes compared to other settlements in this study, which may have had a much faster decline. Also, during the post medieval period the settlement was influenced by the nearby railway, with a station being located at Adderbury until 1963, thereby maintaining trade with both local and national areas (Historic England, 2016a). This is important as it may have influenced the continual growth of the settlement during the post medieval period, after an earlier decline in its growth and, therefore, sustained a larger community over a longer period of time, than other surrounding settlements.

Baulking

The village of Baulking is situated to the south of Faringdon and close to the River Ock. The underlying geology in the village is formed of Gault Formation and the Lower Greensand Group (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Prior to 1974 the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The current rural community of Baulking is formed of an extremely small rural settlement, which is nearer in its formation to a hamlet than a village. Because of this factor little is known about the history and archaeology of the parish; however, what is known is presented below.

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the Roman period, with a small quantity of Roman pottery found (Historic England, 2016b). However, there is no indication of a settlement at the site in the Roman or Saxon periods, with no Domesday record found. The earliest evidence for a settlement at Baulking dates to the medieval period, from two main sources. The first is a market Charter granted in 1219 by Henry III for a weekly market on Thursdays and the second, the construction of the church in the mid-13th C, a Grade I listed building (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016b; Letters, 2006). The church is significant, as a series of 14th C wall paintings are preserved on its interior (Pevsner, 1966, 79). Later medieval sources also give evidence of the settlement's significance, as the Lay Subsidy of 1334, states the village was worth £4 11s 7d, a significant amount during this period, compared to the size of the settlement seen today (Glasscock, 1975, 10). This is important, as the literature indicates that the settlement shrank during the late medieval to early post medieval period, with a series of mapped earthworks indicating that the settlement was previously of a much larger size (Historic England, 2016b). This would also correlate

with the post medieval evidence for the settlement, as seen from both the historic mapping and the listed buildings; there is a large open space between the current historic buildings which form the village today and the 13th C historic church (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016b). This is significant, as it gives evidence for the location of the missing area of the medieval settlement, and as under pasture, is likely to indicate well preserved medieval remains.

Bignell

The village of Bignell is situated to the south west of the town of Bicester and close to Gagle Brook. The underlying geology in the village is formed of Cornbrash Formation (limestone) and the Forest Marble Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Like that of Baulking, the current settlement of Bignell is an extremely small rural settlement, which is closer to a hamlet than a village.

Due to the size of the settlement, the literature indicates little about the history and archaeology of the village, with no reference to its early history, including no Domesday Book record. The only archaeological evidence for a village on the site during the medieval period, is a DMV adjacent to the current settlement, thought to have been abandoned during the Black Death in 1695 (Historic England, 2016c), with only a stately house existing to this day. As well as little archaeological evidence, there is also little historical evidence; two of the main sources are the market Charter granted in 1377 by Richard III for a weekly market on Mondays (Letters, 2005), and the 1334 Lay Subsidy, stating that the settlement was worth £2 3s 11d (Glasscock, 1975, 238). These sources indicate there was a settlement at the site during the medieval period, with a market, but little indication of its wealth and formation is available. Moving into the post medieval period limited information can be found about the history of the settlement as there are no listed buildings and little is shown on the historic mapping. This indicates that, post 1695 when the settlement was abandoned, scant human occupation occurred at Bignell and, unlike most of the other settlements discussed in this study, did not progress into a modern thriving rural village.

Churchill

The village of Churchill is situated in the Cotswolds, south of the town of Chipping Norton. The name Churchill comes from the Celtic or Saxon, meaning ‘hill’ (Mill, 2003, 116). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Clypeus Grit Member and Whitby Mudstone Member (University

of Edinburgh, 2012). Much is known about the history and changing nature of the settlement, with a book being written about it by Ralph Mann in 2013 (Mann, 2013).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period, with both a series of Bronze Age barrows and Iron Age finds material being identified, as well as a possible settlement also indicated through findings in the early 20th century (Historic England, 2016d). Moving into the Roman period, further evidence can be seen for settlement activity. This includes evidence for a possible villa and burial site (including stone coffin) as well as Roman settlement activity indicated through both aerial photography and pottery remains (Historic England, 2016d). However, for the Saxon period, there is currently no archaeological evidence for the continuation of the settlement.

The next main source of evidence for a settlement at Churchill comes from the Domesday Book in 1086, which states that it had: 24 villagers, 14 small holders, 20 hides of land for 20 ploughs, 170 acres of meadow, 120 acres of pasture and 2 mills (Morris, 1979, 157b). As Mann states, this is a significant settlement during this time, equating to a population of over 200 people (Mann, 2013, 6). The Lay Subsidy of 1334 further indicates an important community, with £10 13s 5d being owed (Glasscock, 1975, 236). Both these factors give good evidence for a thriving settlement during the medieval period, with further indication of trade bring shown by the market Charter granted in 1327 by Edward III, for a weekly market on Fridays (Letters, 2005). This is also further supported by standing remains in the settlement; the old parish church which was constructed in the 12th and 14th C and included a chancel, central tower, nave, south aisle and south porch, however, of this early church, only the chancel remains today with the rest being demolished in the 1800s (Mann, 2013, 10).

Archaeological evidence suggests that the prosperity of the settlement did not continue into the post medieval period, with a series of earthwork features, including house platforms being observed in the fields adjacent to the old church, which forms a Scheduled Ancient Monument today (Historic England, 2016d). Furthermore, from both historic mapping and listed buildings the settlement can be seen to have shifted further south than its current post medieval and modern location, with a new 1826 church constructed at its centre (British listed Buildings Online, 2016c; Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 544; University of Edinburgh, 2011). In addition, other industrial processes from this post medieval period are also seen, including limestone quarry pits and the site of a railway-halt on the outskirts of the settlement (Historic England, 2016d). This evidence suggests that the settlement was still trading during the post medieval to industrial periods but to a much lesser extent than seen during medieval times.

From the evidence presented for Churchill, it can be observed that the current modern village may have little of the earlier medieval settlement underlying it. Furthermore, the location of the medieval part of the settlement, beneath pasture fields, maybe well preserved but due to its Scheduled status, would be problematic to investigate when attempting to understand the changing nature of the settlement as a whole.

Crowmarsh Giffard

The village of Crowmarsh Giffard is situated adjacent to the town of Wallingford and the River Thames. The name Crowmarsh Giffard comes from the Saxon, meaning 'a marsh frequented by crows' (Mill, 2003, 142). The underlying geology in the village is formed of West Melbury Marly Chalk Formation and superficial Northmoor Sand and Gravel Member deposits (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the Stone Age with both Palaeolithic and Mesolithic flint material found, as well as indications of both Neolithic flint material and pottery (Historic England, 2016e). Furthermore, a series of Neolithic features have also been identified through crop marks, including a mortuary enclosure and barrow dating to this period (Historic England, 2016e). Further evidence is shown for the later prehistoric periods, with Bronze Age barrows and Iron Age inhumations also found within the area (Historic England, 2016e). Evidence can further indicate an early settlement in this area, dating to the Roman period, with pottery and coinage, including a coin hoard, as well as associated Roman features (Historic England, 2016e). This includes a quantity of Roman slag found during excavations, with this evidence signifying a possible Roman settlement with industrial activities occurring (Historic England, 2016e).

Archaeological evidence demonstrates a continuation of the settlement into the Saxon period, with the finds material recovered including an iron spearhead and scramasax dating to this period (Historic England, 2016e). Furthermore, documentary evidence from the Domesday Book (1086) indicates a settlement within the area at the time, formed of: 27 householders, 12 villagers, 11 smallholders and four slaves, land for 12 ploughs, 60 acres of meadow, one of woodland, 2 furlongs and two mills (Morris, 1979, 157c). Compared to other settlements within this study this is small in size for this period, where a market was later granted. Continuing into the medieval period archaeological evidence indicates the presence of a castle being located at Crowmarsh Gifford, built by the early 1100s (Christie & Creighton, 2013, 207), with documentary sources specifying the granting of a market Charter at the settlement in 1155 by Henry II, for a weekly market (Letters, 2005). This is significant as the granting of a market, and the location of a castle, is important and

comparable to other medieval settlements within this study. However, unlike the other settlements, documentary evidence indicates the castle was demolished by 1140, which was 15 years prior to the granting of the Charter (Christie & Creighton, 2013, 207). Even though the castle had been demolished by this time it may still have had an influence on the settlement which surrounded it. Later medieval sources also show the reduction of economic activities within the settlement, with the Lay Subsidy of 1334 valuing the settlement at £1 11s 6d, which is significantly less than most other settlements within this study (Glasscock, 1975, 243). This, as well as further evidence indicated by a DMV which had been depopulated by the early 14th century and evidence that the church was mainly built during the 1100s to 1200s, with further additions not made until the 19th century (Historic England, 2016e; Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 561), indicates an early demise in the economic activities within this settlement and in turn shrinkage, which may demonstrate that the market was not in use by the time of the Lay Subsidy.

The settlement continued into the post medieval period, as seen from the historic mapping and listed buildings; it is observed to be smaller in size mainly surrounding the central road running through the settlement, The Street (British listed Buildings Online, 2016d; University of Edinburgh, 2011). This indicates that it formed as a small linear settlement, prior to modern housing being constructed. Little evidence is indicated for post medieval industrial and economic activities within the settlement, possibly due to the location of Wallingford (town) just beyond the River Thames. Consequently, this drew out the economic influences from this settlement and into the adjacent one; meaning that the settlement could not grow or increase any further in size, until the modern housing was built within the recent periods. The effect of Wallingford on the settlement may also be the reason why the settlement did not further expand during the medieval period.

East Hendred

The village of East Hendred is situated between the towns of Wantage and Didcot, with Ginge Brook running through its centre. Prior to 1974, the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The name East Hendred comes from the Saxon, meaning ‘stream frequented by hens’ (Mill, 2003, 238). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Upper Greensand Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period, mainly formed of a series of Bronze Age barrow sites surrounding the modern settlement, identified through aerial photography (Historic England, 2016f). A small amount of both earlier and later prehistoric material has also been found within the settlement, including Neolithic pottery and a

possible Iron Age village, identified through aerial photography transcription (Historic England, 2016f). However, moving into both the Roman and Saxon periods, little evidence has currently been identified for activity during these periods within the area. The only evidence available for a settlement related to the latter of these two periods is a single source, a series of local field names including a mound called Scotchmerknob, which makes reference to a corruption or grave of Cuichelm' Hlaw, who dates to 636 AD (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 61). However, this is significant as it does not directly indicate a settlement during the Saxon period, with further evidence indicating that the settlement did not form until the later period, as there is no Domesday reference for the village. Furthermore, the market Charter which was granted for East Hendred, during the medieval period, was one of the last of the 20 examined, to be granted in 1415 by Henry V (Letters, 2006). This may indicate that the settlement was not of a substantial enough size prior to this date for a market Charter to have been granted and therefore indicates East Hendred formed later than the other settlements examined within this study. Evidence from structures within the village, however, indicate the presence of a settlement during the earlier medieval period. The main evidence for the medieval settlement is the parish church, which includes the 14th century chancel, and Hundred House, which has a 13th century chapel attached to it (Pevsner, 1966, 133-134). Also a single documentary source of this period, the 1334 Lay Subsidy, values the settlement at £4 0s 8d (Glasscock, 1975, 8). This is comparable to other settlements, within rural Oxfordshire which have earlier market Charters, which are discussed within this study.

Moving into the post medieval period the literature indicates that the settlement may have expanded, but still retained its small size. This is due to the quantity of listed buildings in the settlement, as well as historic mapping, which indicate East Hendred continued to grow surrounding the High Street and the main roads running off it, during the post medieval period (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016e; University of Edinburgh, 2011). One of the contributing factors is that East Hendred has over 58 post medieval listed buildings within a small area, which is notable compared to other villages of its size studied within this research, where comparable size villages have less than 20 listed buildings dating to the same period (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016e). These listed buildings are important as they show a continual growth within the settlement and therefore, a possible continual importance into the later post medieval period. This suggests that East Hendred may not have significantly formed during the medieval period but instead grew substantially during later periods of development.

Eynsham

The village of Eynsham is situated between the town of Witney and the city of Oxford, along the A40, with the River Thames situated to the south of the settlement. The name Eynsham comes from the Saxon, meaning 'enclosure or river meadow of a man called Aegen' (Mill, 2003, 183). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Oxford Clay and West Walton Formation, overlaid by superficial Sumertown deposits (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Much is known about the archaeology and history of the village of Eynsham due to a major series of excavations undertaken within the settlement by Oxford Archaeology Unit between 1989 and 1992 (Hardy, Dodd, & Keevill, 2003, 17).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period, Neolithic, with a large quantity of finds material identified through excavations and recovered from this period (Historic England, 2016e). Furthermore, a Neolithic causewayed enclosure has also been identified on the outskirts of the settlement through aerial photography transcription (Historic England, 2016e). Later prehistoric features have also been identified in the area, including a large quantity of Bronze Age barrows and also prehistoric settlement activities (Historic England, 2016e). A continuation of the settlement activity can also be seen archaeologically moving into the Roman period. Excavations have indicated both Roman features and finds material within the current settlement, as well as further activity being identified through aerial photography transcription (Historic England, 2016e). This indicates the likelihood of a Roman settlement underlying the present village.

The formation of this early settlement is seen to continue into the Saxon period, with excavations in the 1950s revealing evidence for a Saxon cemetery, with further archaeological, documentary and standing buildings also showing the presence of the Benedictine Abbey site, which is known to have been founded during this period, in 1005 AD (Hardy et al., 2003, 7). Earlier sources also indicate an important settlement and church, as stated in Water Eaton's Charter of 864 AD (Hardy et al., 2003, 7). Later documentary sources also give evidence to the size of the settlement during this period, with the Domesday Book of 1086 stating that the settlement was formed of: 17 households, 34 villagers, 33 smallholders and three men at arms, land for 18 ploughs, 255 acres of meadow, a hundred acres of pasture, 1.5 of Woodland, 2 furlongs and one mill (Morris, 1979, 155b). This is a significant area of land held by the settlement at this time and is likely to relate to the manorial buildings associated with it

Moving into the medieval period the settlement is seen to continue to expand, with the Abbey being re-founded after the Norman conquest and continuing to grow and influence the settlement until its dissolution in the 1500s (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 603). At this time the large manorial church reverted to the parish church, which was constructed in the late 13th and early 14th centuries (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 600-601). Further documentary sources are also seen to indicate the continual economic upturn of the settlement, with a market Charter being granted in 1140 A.D. by King Stephen, for a weekly market on a Sunday (Letters, 2006). However, unusually, the value of the settlement in the 1334 Lay Subsidy is low compared to other settlements of a smaller size, with it only worth £3 9s 4d (Glasscock, 1975, 242). This is uncommon as in comparison to other major Abbey sites in the area, such as Abingdon Abbey, this is an extremely low value for the settlement. Furthermore, documentary sources demonstrate that of demesne lands outside of was divided into acre plots in 1250 A.D (Beresford, 1967, 476). By 1366 thirty-one houses were located in this area, with a further 300 houses located in the town are part of ancient (Beresford, 1967, 476). This demonstrates that the settlement was in a growth phase at this time. Within the settlement itself archaeological evidence also indicates its location, with both medieval features and finds material being recovered during archaeological works within the current village (Historic England, 2016e).

Continuing into the post medieval period, unlike most settlements within this study, the market is seen to continue until the late 17th century, at which point the settlement had formed into a town, as a town hall was built at this time adjacent to the marketplace, within its centre (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 601). Furthermore, the listed buildings and historic mapping also indicate a continuous large settlement into the post medieval period, with a large quantity of listed buildings contained within the current settlement (British listed Buildings Online, 2016d; University of Edinburgh, 2011). However, Eynsham is not a town today, and is seen and referenced as a village, and therefore forms part of this study. This is unusual compared to the other settlements within this study, as it must have shrunk and collapsed from a town into a village during the late post medieval period, post the 17th century, indicating that the market continued on into this period. Later references also indicate that subsequent industrial processes further continued, with kiln sites being identified (Historic England, 2016e), which would have sustained the economic growth and security within the settlement. Due to the late period in which the market was abandoned and, as it was still seen as a town into the post medieval period, Eynsham will not be further examined within this study, as some scholars may consider it as ‘urban’, until its post medieval or early modern periods, rather than a ‘rural’ settlement``.

Great Haseley

The village of Great Haseley is situated to the south of Oxford, adjacent to the A329. The name Great Haseley comes from the Saxon, meaning 'hazel wood or clearing' (Mill, 2003, 230). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Whitchurch Sand Formation and the Portland Group (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period, with a series of Bronze Age round barrows and one possible Neolithic mound identified within the landscape directly surrounding the current village settlement (Historic England, 2016g). However, in the area of Great Haseley there is currently no indication of an early settlement dating to the prehistoric periods. The earliest evidence for settlement activity dates to the Roman period with significant quantities of Roman pottery found (Historic England, 2016g). However, in the Saxon era there is little archaeological evidence to indicate a settlement underlying the current village.

The earliest source available for understanding the Saxon settlement, is the Domesday book of 1086, which states that the settlement was formed of: 33 households, 15 villagers 13 smallholders and five slaves, land for 18 ploughs, 60 acres of meadow, two woodland, and 2 furlongs (Morris, 1979, 159b). This evidence indicates a significant sized settlement, with later sources also demonstrating its importance, with a market Charter granted in 1282 by Henry III, for a weekly market on Mondays (Letters, 2005). However, further source material such as the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicate that the settlement was smaller in size compared to others, as the settlement was only worth £2 11s 0d, which is significantly less than most others being discussed within this literature review (Glasscock, 1975, 240). This may indicate a downturn within the settlement and show that the market was not a success during the earlier medieval period. This is difficult to determine, however, as no archaeological works have been undertaken within the village, where medieval remains have been found to date. The only indication of archaeological remains is from listed buildings, with three standing buildings in the village dating to this period. As stated by Pevsner these are: the church dating to the 11th to 13th centuries (with later renovations undertaken during the Victorian period), the tithe barn dated to the 14th century, and the Old Rectory which was first built in the 14th to 15th centuries (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 619-620). These listed buildings indicate some wealth within the settlement, however as shown, these are all religious buildings, connected to the church, which may suggest wealth being brought into the settlement through these sources rather than the market.

Moving into the post medieval period the literature indicates that the settlement, although growing, stayed small in size. As seen from the listed buildings register and historic mapping, most of the historic buildings within the village were built during the post medieval period, either along the main road running through the village (Rectory Road) or surrounding the church (British listed Buildings Online, 2016f; University of Edinburgh, 2011). This indicates that the village formed along a linear pattern during the post medieval period. However, unlike other villages discussed in this literature review, the literature does not indicate further economic or industrial activities undertaken within the settlement during the post medieval or early modern periods. This indicates that trade and the economy of Great Haseley would have reduced during this time and prevented the settlement from expanding further.

Great Rollright

The village of Great Rollright is situated in the Cotswolds close to the town of Chipping Norton. The name Great Rollright comes from the Saxon, probably meaning 'groove or gorge at Rodland', a reference made to the Rollright Stones situated close by (Mill, 2003, 394). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Chipping Norton Limestone Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

Great Rollright is located within a major prehistoric landscape, indicating its earliest human activities within the area relating to this period. The most major of the local monuments which relate to this early period are the Rollright Stones, dating to the Neolithic to Bronze Age periods and located 1 ½ miles from the modern village settlement (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 624). Within the landscape surrounding Great Rollright there are many further monuments dating to this period, including a series of round barrows dating to the Bronze Age, as well as a possible Iron Age settlement enclosure, all of which have been identified through aerial photography transcription (Historic England, 2016e). This evidence may indicate the earliest settlement activity within the area of Great Rollright. Further activity may also be shown during the Roman period, with major findings including coinage and many other features also identified through aerial photography, including possible settlement activity (Historic England, 2016e).

However, like many settlements within this study there is little evidence for a Saxon settlement within the area of Great Rollright, with the only archaeological evidence found at the Rollright Stones, with an Anglo-Saxon cemetery discovered near the site in 1836 (Historic England, 2016e). However, this site is more than one and a half miles from the current settlement of Great Rollright and therefore does not indicate a Saxon settlement within the area of the current village.

The earliest evidence available for a Saxon settlement in the vicinity comes from the Domesday Book of 1086 which states the settlement was formed of: 37 households, nine villagers, one smallholder and five slaves, land for six ploughs, 50 acres of meadow and 50 acres of pasture (Morris, 1979, 158a). Compared to the other settlements examined within this literature review, the area which this Domesday reference covers is much smaller than other settlements of a similar size during the modern period. Moving into the medieval period, the literature indicates that the settlement was granted a market Charter in 1253 A.D. by Henry III, for a weekly market on Fridays (Letters, 2005), with the later Lay Subsidy of this period (1334) indicating the settlement was worth £7 10s 5d (Glasscock, 1975, 236), which was a large sum at this time.

Furthermore, Pevsner states the parish church may also date to this period which is indicated by finely carved Norman doorways, yet he also indicates that the church is of a small size (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 623). Within the churchyard two medieval stone crosses have been found, giving further evidence that the church dates to this period (Historic England, 2016e). When examining a settlement of this size the church is significant. In comparison to the other settlements discussed, Great Rollright's church is much smaller in size and therefore may indicate that the continued economy of the settlement in which it is located was not very substantial. Little money was spent on increasing the size of the church which may further indicate that the economic activities which supported the market were only operating for a short period of time. Therefore, this did not have a major and long-term economic effect on the settlement, with the Lay Subsidy taken in less than one hundred years postdating the market Charter. Furthermore, where archaeological works have been undertaken within the settlement, no archaeological remains have been identified.

Continuing into the post medieval period, the historic mapping and the listed buildings register both indicate that Great Rollright reduced in size and spread during this period. As seen from the listed buildings, mostly post medieval in date; these are located mainly surrounding the church on Hook Norton Road, with a few others within the area of the High Street and Old Forge Road (British listed Buildings Online, 2016d). Furthermore, through the historic mapping, the settlement is seen to have split into two halves (in which the listed buildings are located) with large open fields located between them (University of Edinburgh, 2011). This may indicate that either the settlement shrank in size, with habitation lost where these pasture fields are now situated, or that the settlement was built in a way in which there was space for it to expand within its heart, if the market had flourished. Further archaeological work would be required to better understand this central large set of fields within the village.

Hinton Waldrist

The village of Hinton Waldrist is situated between the towns of Faringdon and Abingdon, on an area of high ground, with the River Thames located to its north. Prior to 1974, the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The name Hinton Waldrist comes from the Saxon, meaning 'high or chiefs farmstead' (Mill, 2003, 243). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Kingston Formation and Hazelbury Bryan Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric and Roman periods, with most evidence indicated from aerial photography in the areas directly surrounding the settlement (Historic England, 2016h). Also, during these periods, a small quantity of finds material was recovered, including a Bronze Age sword and Iron Age and Roman pottery (Historic England, 2016h). Moving into the Saxon period, no archaeological evidence is seen, however, the Domesday Book from the early medieval period (1086) states that the settlement was formed of: 32 households, 13 villagers, 8 smallholders, 8 slaves, land for 8 ploughs, 40 acres of meadow, 2 fisheries, and 1 church (Morris, 1979, 36b,c). This indicates a large settlement during this period. Furthermore, archaeological evidence designates the location of a mott and bailey in the grounds of Hinton Manor constructed by the 12th century, however these investigations do not suggest a date when this feature went out of use (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 82; H. Gardiner & Jope, 1940, 54). The current church in the village also dates to this period, constructed in the 13th C, including nave, chancel and tower with some remodelling in the 14th C (Pevsner, 1966, 155). Further documentary evidence also indicates a thriving settlement during the medieval period. This includes the granting of a market Charter in 1218 by Henry III, for a weekly market on Wednesdays (Letters, 2006), as well as the 1334 Lay Subsidy which stated the settlement was worth £4 13s 8 ¾d (Glasscock, 1975, 12), which is of a similar amount to other settlements examined within this study. However, the area of Hinton Waldrist during this period and continuing on into the post medieval period, discussed below, is seen to be extremely small and therefore the granting of the market may have been connected to the castle rather than economic activities within the settlement. This is comparable to other sites in this study, as discussed in the literature review.

Proceeding into the post medieval and early modern periods, both historic mapping and listed buildings indicate that the settlement continued to be smaller in size, with its historic centre mainly surrounding the area of the church and Manor House with some housing spreading down both Church Road and the High Street (British listed Buildings Online, 2016g; University of

Edinburgh, 2011). This is important as it indicates that the settlement is likely to have formed as a nucleated type surrounding the major structures within the village and did not expand far during its early periods. Current archaeological evidence does not suggest the existence of a DMV in the area and therefore imply that the settlement has always been small in size from its early beginnings to the modern day.

Hook Norton

The village of Hook Norton is situated in the Cotswolds close to the towns of Chipping Norton and Banbury, with the River Swere running through its centre. The name Hook Norton comes from the Saxon, probably meaning ' farmstead of a tribe called Hoccanere'(Mill, 2003, 248). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Marlstone Rock Formation and Whitby Mudstone Formation, with superficial deposits of alluvium overlaying it (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric periods, with a series of possible features identified through aerial photography transcription, including a series of possible settlement sites and Bronze Age round barrows seen within the fields surrounding the current settlement (Historic England, 2016i). However, most significantly, is the location of a possible Iron Age settlement underlying the current settlement of Hook Norton within the area of Scotland End (Historic England, 2016i). This indicates the earliest settlement activity within the current village of Hook Norton.

Continuing into the Roman period further evidence denotes the possible location of a Roman settlement underlying the current village. This is indicated by a series of significant finds including Roman coinage and pottery (Historic England, 2016i). Furthermore, human skeletal remains, including two cist lined decapitation burials have been found in the area of the current village, suggesting the location of an execution cemetery, and associated settlement during this period (Simmonsd, 2019, 116-117). This suggests a continuation of the settlement's use into the Roman period. Comparable to the previous period discussed, aerial photography transcription has also indicated Roman features, including enclosures within the fields surrounding the current settlement (Historic England, 2016i).

Progressing into the Saxon period, further evidence is seen to indicate a settlement within this area. The earliest source from this period dates to 931 AD; the Saxon Chronicles of this date discuss the Battle of Hook Norton and suggest that the settlement of Hook Norton may have moved post this Battle, to its current location (Dickins, 1928, 4). Taking into account the Roman evidence,

this may indicate a possibility of two separate settlements with them combining in this later Saxon period. Furthermore, archaeological evidence also indicates Saxon activity within the area of the current settlement. This is mainly suggested by excavation work undertaken within the area of the current church during both 1987 and 2012 which indicate the foundations of a Saxon stone church underlying the present one (John Moore Heritage Services, 2012; (Oxford Archaeology Unit, 1987, 90). Furthermore, later documentary evidence also gives substantiation for the size of the settlement during this period, with the Domesday reference from 1086, indicating that the settlement was formed of the following: 84 households, 76 villagers, three smallholders and five slaves, land for 30 ploughs, 140 acres of meadow, 5 pastures, 2 woodlands, 2 furlongs, 5 acres of Lords lands and two mills (Morris, 1979, 158a,b). This is a significant sized settlement during this time with a large population compared to other settlements within this study, so may indicate early economic activities being undertaken within Hook Norton to sustain this population.

Moving into the medieval period further documentary evidence also indicates a substantial sized settlement, with the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicating the cost of £14 14s 4d (Glasscock, 1975, 236), and then later a market Charter granted in 1438 by King Henry VI (Letters, 2005). This is an important indication as the market Charter was granted in a much later period (over a hundred years later) than most of the other settlements within this study. Further documentary sources also indicate that the settlement had strong relations with both the Royal household and Abbeys at Osney and Abingdon, revealing a large amount of funds may have been brought into the settlement to increase its economic status (Dickins, 1928, 21). Lastly, the one major piece of archaeological evidence that indicates a significant medieval settlement is the standing church within the village. The church dates from the Norman period, with later extensions and alterations added during both the 13th and 14th centuries, including a set of impressive 14th and 15th century wall paintings on the inside of the church (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 651). As seen from the standing remains this is a significant building within the landscape and indicates wealth and economic status during its construction. However, little archaeological works have been undertaken within the settlement to date, so little further evidence can be seen to indicate the size, extent, industrial and economic processes undertaken during this period to sustain its wealth.

As the settlement continues into the post medieval and early modern periods, the historic mapping and listed buildings database suggest that Hook Norton formed a linear shape, with most of its historic area surrounding the main road running through the village, formed of Netting Street, the High Street and Down End (British listed Buildings Online, 2016h; University of Edinburgh, 2011). During the post medieval period there is also an indication that the economic status of the

settlement may have increased again during the 19th century, with the introduction of three major industrial activities. The first, the brewery established in 1856 (Hook Norton Brewery, 2016), secondly, ironstone extraction and workings located on the outskirts of the settlement and thirdly, the introduction of the railways with a major station and goods yard located on the eastern edge of the settlement (Tonks, 1988, 72). These would have brought goods, services and a strong economy back into Hook Norton, as well as connecting it to both the local and national landscape during this period, which would have stabilised and increased its economic aspects during the later periods. This may indicate why Hook Norton village is of such a large size today, even though there was a possible decrease in its economic activities during the early post medieval period.

Islip

The village of Islip is situated to the north of Oxford and adjacent to the River Ray. The name Islip comes from the Saxon, meaning 'slipper place by the River Ight (an old name for the River Ray)' (Mill, 2003, 263). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Cornbrash Formation and the Peterborough Member (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the Mesolithic period, with large quantities of worked flint material found throughout the settlement, as well as a stone mace head also found (Historic England, 2016i). The earliest evidence for a settlement at Islip dates to the Roman period with a large quantity of Roman coinage found, as well as a Roman temple (Historic England, 2016i). This indicated that Islip was important during the Roman period. Moving into the Saxon period the important status of the settlement continues, with the possible location of a Saxon Palace of King Ethelred located below the current Red Lion Inn (Historic England, 2016i). This further indicates the continual high status of the settlement.

As Islip moved into the medieval period, the earliest documentary source for the village dates to 1086 from the Domesday Book, which states the settlement was formed of: 17 households, 10 villagers, 5 smallholders, 2 slaves, land for 15 ploughs, 30 acres of meadow, 3 pastures, 2 furlongs, 1 area of woodland, 0.5 leagues and 1 mill (Morris, 1979, 159c-160b). Later evidence indicates that the settlement was still important continuing into the later medieval period, with the granting of a market Charter in 1245 by Henry III, for a weekly market on Thursdays (Letters, 2005). Further evidence is also seen from the 1334 Lay Subsidy which suggests the settlement was worth £6 2s 8d (Glasscock, 1975, 238), and in relation to the church, with the earliest parts dating to the 1200's, it had connections to Westminster Abbey (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 664). From this

evidence presented for medieval Islip, it is indicated that the settlement had continual prosperity and high importance within the local landscape from Roman through to the medieval periods.

As seen from the literature, the prosperity of the settlement did not continue, as Islip does not have a market today. In the post medieval period evidence indicates that the importance of the settlement reduced. However, as seen from the listed buildings and historic mapping, it is indicated that the historic settlement reduced in size, mainly surrounding the High Street, located in the centre of Islip (British listed Buildings Online, 2016h; University of Edinburgh, 2011). Some industrial activities continued at the settlement; for example in the 19th C a railway station was built in the village, connecting it to the rural and urban areas surrounding it (Historic England, 2016i). The modern settlement of Islip is a small and constricted village, however, as seen from the literature, it was important during its early history, until the end of the medieval period.

Kingston Lisle

The village of Kingston Lisle is situated on the historic Ridgway close to the town of Faringdon. The name Kingston Lisle comes from the Saxon, meaning 'Kings Manor or estate' (Mill, 2003, 279-280). Prior to 1974, the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Upper Greensand Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The settlement of Kingston Lisle is located within a major prehistoric landscape, with the historic Ridgway located close to its south. Because of this there are many major prehistoric landmarks within the local environment, including many Bronze Age round barrows, as well as a possible Bronze Age and Iron Age enclosure located at Rams Hill (Historic England, 2016j; Miles, Palmer, Lock, & Cromarty, 2003, 255). The importance of this area is further seen within the Roman environment, with sites of this period identified, including a possible Roman Barrow and villa site as well as Romano Celtic field systems, within close vicinity of the current village settlement (Historic England, 2016j). Furthermore, archaeological finds material has been recovered from gardens within the village, including Roman coins and indications of a possible Roman bathhouse (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 94). This information indicates the possibility of a major Roman settlement located below or within the location of the current village of Kingston Lisle.

The literature also demonstrates a continuation of the settlement into the Saxon period, with evidence indicating the place name is Saxon in date, as well as evidence within the church showing a possible late Saxon construction (Historic England, 2016j). Furthermore, it can be

surmised that King Alfred fought a battle on the hills surrounding Kingston Lisle, with the local blowing stone used to summon the troops during this altercation (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 93-94). Further documentary evidence from the early Norman period also indicates a settlement on the site, with evidence gained from the Domesday Book of 1086. The book states that the village was formed of: 31 households, 25 villagers, 3 smallholders and 3 slaves, land for 13 ploughs, and 200 acres of meadow (Morris, 1979, 57c). As seen from this source, the settlement is of a significant size compared to most other settlements examined during this study, with the Manor containing substantial lands. This may indicate an important and wealthy early economy within Kingston Lisle at this time. Through documentary evidence, the settlement is seen to continue to grow, as in 1217 it was granted a weekly market by Henry III, to be held on Fridays (Letters, 2006). Furthermore, later sources such as the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicate that the settlement was worth £3 12s 3 ½d in taxation during this period (Glasscock, 1975, 10). Additional evidence is shown to indicate that the settlement may have been influenced by the Crown during this period, as in 1336 a licence was granted for a medieval deer park at Kingston Lisle (Historic England, 2016j). Lastly, standing structures dating to this period, within the current village, also indicate a continual growth during the medieval period, with the church being further renovated during both the 11th and 14th centuries (Pevsner, 1966, 161). However, the church itself is smaller in size compared to others in this study area. The sources discussed above indicate a substantial and growing settlement during the medieval period, including prosperity through royal links and therefore a probable strong and expanding economy. However, it also indicates the possibility that the economy did not grow to its full potential, as shown by the church of a small size.

As the settlement moves into the post medieval period, the historic mapping and listed buildings indicate that the settlement is of a linear type and formed around the main road running through the centre of the village, Fawler Road (British listed Buildings Online, 2016h; University of Edinburgh, 2011). Furthermore, aerial photography transcription from the areas surrounding the settlement indicate the location of late medieval to early post medieval ridge and furrow (Historic England, 2016j). This demonstrates the settlement did not expand beyond the limits of the modern village, or that these areas were inhabited earlier in date and then later used for arable farming. Further indicated from the literature, is the absence of industrial processes being undertaken within the settlement during the post medieval period, apart from a sawmill located at the site during the 19th century (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, n.d., 94). This indicates some possible industrial and economic processes continuing in Kingston Lisle, however, not to the large extent in which they were undertaken during the medieval period. This may be a reason why the market did not continue, though the settlement expanded during these later times.

Middleton Stoney

The village of Middleton Stoney is situated close to the town of Bicester. The name Middleton Stoney comes from the Saxon, meaning 'middle farmstead or estate' (Mill, 2003, 327). The underlying geology in the village is formed of White Limestone Formation and Cornbrash Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012). Much is known about the history and underlying archaeology of the village as between 1970 and 1982 a major research project was undertaken by Oxford University examining the parish (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984).

The earliest evidence for human activity at the settlement dates to the Bronze Age, with the identification of a suspected banjo enclosure, seen on aerial photography, as well as worked flint material and a possible barrow identified during excavations in 1972 (Historic England, 2016j; S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 34). Further early archaeological evidence also indicates a substantial Roman settlement located in the area of the current settlement from the 2nd century AD with the identification of a series of both timber framed and stone structures found dating to this period (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 49). The excavation also gives evidence of a continuation of the settlement into the Saxon period, with a large Saxon enclosure identified (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 53). Early documentary evidence from the Domesday Book 1086, also gives an indication for the size of the settlement during the late Saxon to early medieval period, stating the settlement was formed of: 37 households, 25 villagers, 7 smallholders, 5 slaves, land for 16 ploughs, 8 woodlands and 8 furlongs (Morris, 1979, 159a). This is a significant source as it indicates a settlement with a large population for this period but with little associated land in comparison with the other settlements discussed in this study.

Moving into the medieval period, documentary evidence indicates the settlement was granted a market Charter in 1201 by King John, for a weekly market (Letters, 2005), with a further second weekly market granted in 1294 (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 13). Later sources such as the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicate that the settlement was worth £4 15s 8d (Glasscock, 1975, 238), which is a similar amount to other settlements within the study. Archaeological evidence suggests the presence of a substantial Norman to medieval castle adjacent to the settlement of the same date, including a substantial stone keep and associated earthworks, with a bailey (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 6, 35, 61). Furthermore, as stated by Rahtz and Rowley, further documentary sources, indicates the presence of villeins and freemen within the settlement, so that it was not a village at this time but instead a town, with the market located close to the castle (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 13). The location of the church is also significant, close to the castle site, it is of a significant size and

mostly constructed firstly during the Norman period, and then extended during the 12th to 14th century (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 701-703). This is also located adjacent to a known DMV site, the location of the medieval settlement, adjacent to the castle and church, indicating continued occupation of the site from the prehistoric period onwards. The location of the market is also significant, as a direct comparison can be made with further settlements of this type within this study and therefore may better aid the understanding of the changing nature and formation of this settlement type.

However, moving into the late medieval to post medieval periods, the fortunes of the settlement are seen to have declined. Documentary evidence indicates that the settlement shrank from a town into a village in 1394, coinciding with the Black Death (S. Rahtz & Rowley, 1984, 13). Furthermore, continuing into the post medieval period, both historic mapping and listed buildings indicate that once the castle went out of use and was removed, Middleton Stoney shifted further north to its current location, leaving the church in an isolated spot, separated by fields on the outskirts of the village (British listed Buildings Online, 2016i; University of Edinburgh, 2011). Furthermore, it is shown that this is an extremely small village in the modern day and like Stratton Audley, discussed below, without its modern housing would be seen as a hamlet rather than a village in modern terms.

Radcot

The village of Radcot is situated close to the town of Faringdon, and adjacent to the River Thames. The name Radcot comes from the medieval, meaning 'red or reed cottage' (Mill, 2003, 382). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Oxford Clay and superficial Alluvium deposits (University of Edinburgh, 2012). The settlement of Radcot is today formed of a single farm and a pub, therefore seen as a hamlet rather than a village. However, the location of the settlement is important as it controls a major crossing point over the Thames.

Until recently little was known about the historical settlement of Radcot, however, in 2008 a major excavation was undertaken by Time Team and Wessex Archaeology, examining the underlying archaeology of the settlement (Wessex Archaeology, 2008). The earliest evidence for human activity in the settlement dates to the Neolithic, with a flint axe head found adjacent to the Thames (Historic England, 2016k). However, this does not indicate a settlement and there is no further evidence for a settlement at Radcot until the Norman/early medieval period. This includes no Domesday record for the settlement. The earliest evidence for settlement activity at the site dates to post conquest with the construction of a major mott and bailey with associated stone keep, and auxiliary buildings,

including a chapel (Wessex Archaeology, 2008, 24-25). One standing structure still existing from this period, constructed in the 13th to 14th centuries, the stone bridge crossing the Thames (Historic England, 2016k), which it is likely the castle was protecting. Documentary evidence dating to this period also indicates the presence of a Charter, granted in 1272 by Henry III, for a weekly market on a Friday (Letters, 2006). In addition, the 1334 Lay Subsidy indicates that the settlement was taxed at the cost of £4 16s 4d (Glasscock, 1975, 237), which is of a comparable amount to the settlements of this type examined within this study. It should be noted, however, neither the castle nor a village settlement exists to the present day at Radcot.

As seen from the archaeological excavations the castle complex was demolished between the late 13th and 16th centuries (Wessex Archaeology, 2008, 26). This further indicates that the prosperity of the market also discontinued by this period. The modern settlement, as seen from both historic and modern mapping is seen as a hamlet, formed of a farm and a pub. However, the archaeological evidence uncovered at this site is important as it is one of a similar set of settlements within the study where a castle is seen to support the market and in turn the settlement.

Shrivenham

The village of Shrivenham is situated near the town of Faringdon, with Bower Brook running to the east of it. Prior to 1974, the village was located in the county of Berkshire (Berkshire Family History Society, 2013). The name Shrivenham comes from the Saxon, meaning 'river meadow allotted by decree (to the church)' (Mill, 2003, 420). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Red Down Sand Member and Ampthill Clay Formation (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the Roman period with a possible Roman settlement identified during excavation works prior to the construction of the Shrivenham bypass in 1983, as well as a large quantity of Roman coinage found within a well in the settlement, dated to 293-296 A.D. (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979, 123; Historic England, 2016j). Currently, little archaeological evidence is seen for the settlement continuing into the Saxon period, however, two sources of evidence do exist for this. Firstly, the church, which is thought to possibly be first built in the late 9th to early 10th centuries as a Minster, with later documentary sources, such as the Domesday Book supporting this theory, stating that the settlement had 5 acres of lands associated with the church (Historic England, 2016j; Morris, 1979, 57d). Further evidence can also be given from the Domesday Book referencing the type and size of settlement during this period, which indicates it was formed of the following in 1086: 106 households, 84 villagers and 22 smallholders, land for 33 ploughs, 240 acres of meadow, woodland,

two mills and one church (Morris, 1979, 57d). This indicates a significantly sized settlement during this period and is the second largest in size (second to Adderbury) of those researched within this study.

Continuing into the later medieval period the significant size of this settlement is further indicated by the church granted to the Abbey of Cirencester by Henry I, and then later a market Charter granted to the settlement in 1257 by Henry III, for a weekly market on a Thursday (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979, 123; Letters, 2006). Other standing buildings indicate a significant settlement at this time, with the church being of a large size, mainly built during the 13th century (Pevsner, 1966, 217). However, the continual success of the settlement did not last, this is most noticeable from the 1334 Lay Subsidy, which indicates that the settlement was worth in taxation terms £1 14s 4d, which is an extremely low amount for the size of the settlement (Glasscock, 1975, 10). This amount is less than some of the much smaller settlements within the study area, such as Radcot, which at this time was worth nearly four times as much. This is significant as it indicates an early shrinkage to the settlement with reduced economic activities and in turn its likely reduced growth and development.

Moving into the post medieval period, the settlement is seen as a linear type, with most listed buildings surrounding the main road running through the centre of the settlement, the High Street, and surrounding the historic church (British listed Buildings Online, 2016i). This is also supported by historic mapping, as the spread of the settlement away from this linear pattern mainly occurred due to modern housing being inserted (University of Edinburgh, 2011). Post the collapse of the medieval market and in turn the economy, new industrial activities were brought in during the post medieval period, which may have resulted in the regrowth of the settlement during this later period. This is due to two major trade routes being constructed within the local area; firstly, the railway with a local station opening in 1840 and secondly, a wharf connected to the Wilts and Berks Canal, opening in 1810 (Historic England, 2016j). Both of these industrial activities would have brought trade and increased economy into the settlement during the Victorian period. The important aspect of this can further be seen with the construction of the military college within the adjacent area in 1864 and 1885 which is still in use to this day (Pevsner, 1966, 218). This literature indicates that the settlement at Shrivenham was important during the medieval period, however, quickly shrank economically by the end of this period but then had a regrowth during the later post medieval periods due to new economic influences.

Standlake

The village of Standlake is situated close to the town of Witney and adjacent to the River Windrush. The name Standlake comes from the medieval, meaning 'stony stream or channel' (Mill, 2003, 433). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Northmoor Sand and Gravel Member (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period with many features from this era identified through aerial photography transcription. These include a series of possible prehistoric settlements as well as Bronze Age barrows and a Neolithic long barrow surrounding the current settlement (Historic England, 2016k). Furthermore, a small quantity of finds material has also been found within the settlement dating to this period; one example is a Bronze Age spear found in 1911 (Historic England, 2016k). Evidence for settlement activity continues into the Roman period, identified through aerial photography as well as finds material including quantities of pottery, coinage and features found during excavations (Historic England, 2016k). This indicates continuity in settlement activity from the early periods. This stability continues into the Saxon period with archaeological evidence indicating Saxon burials found to the north of the current settlement during excavations in 1817 (Historic England, 2016k). However, this does not directly indicate a Saxon settlement in the area, as significantly there is no Domesday record for the village within the literature. This may indicate a break in settlement activity between the Roman and later medieval periods.

Evidence for a medieval settlement at Standlake can be seen through archaeological evidence as well as written historical sources. The earliest historical source for a settlement at Standlake is indicated by the market Charter granted in 1230 by Henry III, for a weekly market on a Friday (Letters, 2005). This indicates a possible substantial settlement, supporting a market, during this time. This is further supported by the 1334 Lay Subsidy which values the settlement at a taxation cost of £10 15s 6d (Glasscock, 1975, 237). This value is significant, as within the study area apart from two other settlements of this type, this is the highest value for the series of village settlements which are being studied. This indicates possible thriving occupation during this period with strong economic activities occurring within the area. This is also supported by standing buildings within the settlement, namely the church, constructed between the 11th to 14th centuries which is a substantial size and includes a large nave, chancel, two side aisles, porch and tower (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 776-777). However, the location of the church is unusual as it is situated on one of the far edges of the settlement. This location may be due to the shrinkage of the

settlement during the later medieval period, as a probable DMV has been identified through aerial photography and earthworks, located at the edge of the modern village (Historic England, 2016k). This may indicate shrinkage of the settlement, reducing economic activity, and therefore may indicate why the market went out of use.

Progressing into the post medieval period, as seen from the listed buildings and historic mapping of the village, the settlement is formed of a linear type, however instead of being a straight formation it is U-shaped in its layout (University of Edinburgh, 2011). These structures are mainly located along Church Road, the High Street and Abingdon Road (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016j). Thereby indicating that the settlement is very spread-out in its layout from one end to the other, with a series of large pasture fields in its centre. These may be significant as they front Harris Way and may indicate areas where the settlement once existed but shrank as the settlement declined. Further archaeological work would be needed within these areas to better understand this as the village settlement is still quite large as it moves into the post medieval and modern periods, compared with its possible size during the medieval periods.

Stratton Audley

The village of Stratton Audley is situated close to the town of Bicester. The name Stratton Audley comes from the Saxon meaning 'farmstead or village on a Roman road' (Mill, 2003, 442). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Cornbrash Formation and Kellaways Clay Member (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

The earliest evidence for human activity in the area dates to the prehistoric period, indicated through a series of circular ring ditches identified through aerial photography transcription within fields surrounding the settlement (Historic England, 2016l). Moving into the Roman period there is even less evidence for a settlement within the area of Stratton Audley with only a handful of Roman coins being found to date (Historic England, 2016l). Because of this little evidence can be seen to indicate an early settlement within this area.

Furthermore, during the Saxon period no archaeological findings have been identified to date, with the only reference indicating a settlement during this period, in the later Domesday Book of 1086. This reference indicates the settlement was formed of: 11 households, eight villagers, two smallholders and one slave, land for six ploughs and 25 acres of meadow (Morris, 1979, 158b,c). Therefore, this forms the smallest settlement, of the 20 in this study, during the early medieval period. The small size of the settlement may also be indicated by the 1334 Lay Subsidy, as unlike all

the other settlements studied, there is no reference for this taxation within the settlement at this date. However, like the other settlements within this study, Stratton Audley was granted a market Charter in 1318, by King Edward II, for a weekly market on a Thursday (Letters, 2005). This may indicate some economic growth within the settlement, and it may be surmised that this is growth of the Manor rather than the settlement itself, with a market granted to such a small and insignificant village during this period. However, one anomaly is indicated when studying this medieval settlement, as the church is of a significant size compared to the settlement in which it is located. This is significant as the church was mainly built in its entirety during the 14th and 15th centuries, indicating a late medieval construction date (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 794). A church of this size would indicate a strong economy; however, this is not supported by the documentary sources indicated above and therefore may raise questions of where the finances for the construction of this church came from. One answer may be the location of a now demolished, 14th century castle, built in the adjacent area to the village by the Audley family (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 795). As both this structure and the church were built during a similar date this may indicate that the finances for the large and impressive church came from the Manor rather than local economic activities. This has previously been indicated in other similar settlements of this period.

Advancing into the post medieval period the continuous small size of the settlement is further indicated through historic mapping and listed buildings. Both of these sources indicate that historically the settlement was extremely small in size with the village mainly surrounding the church on Castle Street and Mill Road (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016k; University of Edinburgh, 2011). Furthermore, as indicated through the historic mapping, without the addition of the modern housing the settlement could be seen as a hamlet rather than a village during the post medieval periods, with only more modern estates being added to increase the size of the settlement (Historic England, 2016l). This evidence gives further indication that the settlement is likely to have been of a continual small size from the Saxon period onwards, with the market being more likely related to activities undertaken as part of the Manor rather than as part of the settlement itself. Comparisons with this settlement can also be made with Radcot, Hinton Waldrist, Crowmarsh Giffard and Middleton Stoney, all of which without the addition of modern housing are formed of hamlets with an adjacent castle, indicating the reasons for a market being located within these settlements.

Whitchurch on Thames

The village of Whitchurch on Thames is situated close to the town of Reading, and adjacent to the River Thames. The name Whitchurch on Thames comes from the Saxon, meaning ‘white

church', probably a stone built church (Mill, 2003, 495). The underlying geology in the village is formed of Lewes Nodular Chalk Formation and superficial Alluvial deposits (University of Edinburgh, 2012).

As seen from the literature, little is known about the archaeology of Whitchurch on Thames, with only a few historical sources available. The earliest evidence for human activity in the area is the Iron Age camp at Bozedown and later Roman finds material (Hawley, 2016). Moving into the Saxon period, more is known about the settlement, with the construction of the church in the 9th C by Hwicrke; this church gives its name to the settlement (Langtree Team Ministry, 2016). Furthermore, a charter was granted to the settlement in 844AD declaring sovereignty over land on both sides of the Thames (Hawley, 2016). Continuing into the Norman period, the Domesday Book gives reference to the settlement, stating it had: 32 households, 10 geld units, 20 villagers, 7 smallholders, 5 slaves, 15 plough lands, 12 acres of meadow, 2 of woodland, 1 furlong and 1 mill, with the total value of the settlement being £20 (Morris, 1979, 159b,c). At this time the Lord of the Manor was Miles Crispin (Morris, 1979, 159b,c). From this evidence it is seen that Whitchurch was an important Manor, suggesting it was larger than the adjacent settlement of Pangbourne (Berkshire). Further into the medieval period the literature states that the settlement grew in popularity with the crown; gaining it both a royal manor and inland port during this period (Hawley, 2016). Then in 1245 A.D. the settlement was granted a market Charter by Henry III, for a weekly market on a Monday (Letters, 2006). This is significant, as with both the growth of the market and inland port, this would have made it a thriving trading centre during this time. Furthermore, in 1334 the Lay Subsidy states that the settlement was worth £3 13s 9 ¼ d (Glasscock, 1975, 243), which is a significant amount during this period.

The literature indicates, however, that the fortunes of the settlement did not continue, with a royal inquisition banning the settlement being crossed by wheeled vehicles in 1479AD (Hawley, 2016). With this ban enforced it would have had a major detrimental effect on both the settlement's market and status as an inland port and subsequently would have affected its ability to trade. Moving into the post medieval period, the settlement is seen to have a series of 23 listed buildings, mainly situated on the High Street, including the church which was nearly totally rebuilt in 1859 (British Listed Buildings Online, 2016l). However, as Pevsner noted, few of the houses/buildings in the village are of special mention (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 840). Lastly, the historic mapping from the 1870s onwards, gives evidence to the layout of the settlement, indicating it is of a linear formation, with the High Street running through its centre (University of Edinburgh, 2011). From the evidence presented above for Whitchurch on Thames, it can be indicated that little is known about

the settlement, apart from that stated in documentary sources, as little archaeological work has been undertaken to date within the village.

Classification of Modern Oxfordshire villages with Medieval Market Charters

As seen from the evidence presented above and as discussed in areas of this chapter (Chapter 5) in relation to Stanford in the Vale, Stanford is one of 20 villages in modern Oxfordshire which were grated a medieval market Charter. Taking into account the evidence presented by the fieldwork undertaken in both Stanford in the Vale as well as the comparison village of Charney Bassett, where no formal market Charter was granted, a classification and HLC of modern village settlements, where a market Charter was granted can be formed, as seen from Table 15.

	1. Medieval village with castle but did not form into a town or urban centre	**2. Medieval village with a strong monastic or royal connection, but did not form into a town or urban centre**	**3. Medieval village with no castle or monastic connection, with a small market only**	**4. Saxon village which formed into a town or urban centre in the medieval period and subsequently collapsed into a village**	**5. Medieval village with a market but no charter granted**
Name of village granted medieval Market Charter	Middleton Stoney	Hook Norton?	Bignell	Stanford in the Vale	Charney Bassett
	Hinton Waldrist	Islip	Baulking	Eynsham	
	Crowmarsh Gifford	Kingston Lisle	East Hendred	Whitchurch on Thames?	
	Stratton Audley	Shrivenham	Great Haseley	Churchill?	
	Radcot		Great Rollright	Standlake?	
				Adderbury?	

Table 15. Table forming a classification for the 20 settlements granted medieval market Charters, located in modern Oxfordshire.

As seen these 20 villages can be split into four distinct groups of settlements, plus a fifth group of settlements is also added demonstrating villages with a market, however these villages

were never granted a market charter. As seen in Table 15 the first group of five settlements are categorised as villages with a castle and were subsequently granted a medieval market Charter. However, it is thought these villages did not form into towns. It is therefore likely that a market Charter was granted to this group of settlements for status purposes rather than for economic reasons. A comparison for these types of settlements, as discussed in the Literature Review is at Oversley in Warwickshire which had a castle and was subsequently granted a market Charter (Dyer, 2003, 91). Archaeological and documentary evidence indicates that, like the five villages in Oxfordshire, the market at Oversley was also unsuccessful and therefore declined (Dyer, 2003, 91). It is also likely, settlements such as Radcot and Crowmash Gifford were thought to be in a good location for a market, on a road crossing over the River Thames, but due to their locations close to other major market towns (Faringdon and Wallingford respectively) they were unable to succeed and grow economically in comparison to the stronger settlements with markets surrounding them.

The second group of distinct settlements is formed of four villages which are categorised as having either a strong monastic or royal connection and subsequently were granted a market Charter. However, like the previous category it is thought that these villages also did not form into towns. Instead, like that of the previous category the market Charter was granted more for status reasons than for economic ones. One of this group of villages, Kingston Lisle, had a strong royal connection as it was granted a licence for a medieval deer park in 1336 (Historic England, 2016j). This was nearly 100 years later than the granting of the market Charter (in 1217) (Letters, 2006), but indicates that the village may also been in the royal favour at this earlier time. Therefore, it is likely the market Charter was granted even though Kingston Lise did not have the economic influence to form into a town or urban centre and, therefore, continued as a village. The other three villages in this category had monastic connections; Hook Norton with Osney Abbey (Dickins, 1928), Islip with Westminster Abbey (Sherwood & Pevsner, 1974, 664) and Shrivenham with Cirencester Abbey (Berkshire Federation of Women's Institutes, 1979, 123). It can therefore be surmised that the market, and its related Charter, was formed to both trade goods, which were produced on the related Abbey lands in the area, as well as to bring in money and economic wealth through the market, in each of these villages. However, the wealth was not going to the settlements where the market was located, but instead the monastic centres. Therefore, a growth in these settlements is not seen, so forming a village rather than growing and forming into a town or major urban centre. The only possible exception to this, with its monastic ties, is the village of Hook Norton. This is due to the size of the settlement during the medieval period, as well as its likely economic wealth, seen in the 1334 Lay Subsidy. There is a possibility, therefore, that the settlement formed into a town or urban centre but subsequently collapsed into a village. However, as there has been little

archaeological works undertaken in the modern village to date this is difficult to determine. Further work is need in Hook Norton to confirm if it is suited to category 4. rather than category 2.

The third group of distinct settlements is formed of five villages granted a market Charter which are categorised as having neither a castle, monastic nor royal connection. Due to their small size during the medieval period these villages are not thought to have formed into towns but instead stayed as small villages with a market bringing some economic stability to the settlement. It is possible that all five of these settlements were granted their market Charter due to the local manor and subsequently the local landlord having good connections to the Crown. Consequently, it is likely that the market in these settlements brought in some economic wealth to their villages to sustain small cottage industries and crafters, but not to the extent seen in the category 4 villages. It is also likely that the markets in these settlements were overshadowed by larger markets and towns in their close vicinity; for example in the case of Baulking, the market at Stanford in the Vale. Therefore, it is likely these five villages did not grow in either economic or size (area) and thus stayed as villages with small markets during the medieval period.

The fourth group of distinct settlements is formed of six villages, all of which are categorised as having been granted a market Charter. These six settlements are thought to have formed into towns during the medieval period due to their size but subsequently collapsed into villages. However, as seen from Table 11, these six villages can be further spilt into two subcategories, as follows. The first is formed of the two modern villages of Stanford in the Vale and Eynsham. Both these modern villages have been confirmed, as far as practical, to have formed into towns in the medieval period, which subsequently collapsed into villages. For Stanford in the Vale, this is shown by the work undertaken and discussed in this thesis, and for Eynsham is due to the evidence that the settlement had built a town hall adjacent to the market by the 17th C (British listed Buildings Online, 2016d), therefore demonstrating that it shrank, post this date, into the modern village seen today. The second subcategory is formed of the remaining four settlements, Whitchurch on Thames, Churchill, Standlake and Adderbury. Taking into account documentary evidence, discussed in the Literature Review, the size of the modern-day settlement and significant medieval standing buildings in these villages, such as the church, it can be surmised that all four of these settlements were also likely towns in the medieval period, which subsequently collapsed into the villages seen today. However, in most cases due to a lack of current archaeological evidence from these settlements it is difficult to determine, with reasonable certainty, that these four villages definitely fall into the first subcategory. At present the only way to determine this would be to undertake archaeological fieldwork in these villages, and thus compare the findings to those identified at Stanford in the Vale.

The fifth and final group of distinct settlements is not formed of villages which were granted market Charters, but on the other hand is formed of villages which are known to have had a market during the medieval period but were not granted a Charter. As shown in this thesis Charney Bassett is one example of this type of settlement in Oxfordshire, however there are likely to be many more. It is likely, as previously discussed, that Charney Bassett had a market due to its connections to the Abingdon Abbey estate and related Grange in the village (Charney Bassett History Group, 2020a). Thus, the market was a way for the Abbey estate to trade goods and bring in money to the Abbey, as also seen in the group of settlements discussed in category 2. Therefore, it is highly likely that Charney Bassett is not the only exception located in Oxfordshire, where a market was present, but no charter was granted. Therefore, further villages of this type may be identified in future and placed into this fifth category.

CHAPTER 6 – CONCLUSION

Conclusion: Thesis Aims

Through the fieldwork undertaken in conjunction with the communities of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett and, subsequently, the research and discussions which form this thesis, a number of conclusions can be made, taking into account the aims outlined in Chapter 3 of this document.

The first two aims of this PhD research set out to examine and understand the changing nature of both Stanford in the Vale as well as a comparison settlement, Charney Bassett. The work utilised multi-disciplinary approaches, both to examine these villages local nature, as well as how they interacted with the surrounding landscape in Oxfordshire (prior to 1974 Berkshire). As seen by both the Results (Chapter 4) and Discussion (Chapter 5) sections of this PhD thesis, it can be demonstrated that both these aims have been fulfilled. As demonstrated by this research, a multi-disciplinary approach has been used to examine both the settlements of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, enabling a comparison of these settlements to be made, as well as the way in which these settlements interacted with their wider area and thereby their surrounding landscape. These two settlements, and the archaeological fieldwork undertaken within them, has not just helped give a better understanding of their growth, development and decline from the Mesolithic to modern day, as rural villages, but in the case of Stanford has demonstrated its growth overtime into a small town or urban centre by the late medieval period, which subsequently collapsed and shrank into the village seen today. Without this research being undertaken, Stanford as a collapsed medieval urban centre would not have been known about and therefore the wider impact of this research not known, when examining other settlements of this type in Oxfordshire.

This research, using multi-disciplinary techniques, has also been able to examine both of these rural settlements (Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett) and has the effects of the wider surrounding landscape. This has been demonstrated through the use of two areas. Firstly, the artifactual material, such as pottery, non-local stone and evidence for industrial processes such as metal and glass working, as well as bone and stone working, recovered from both test pitting and trenching in both settlements is seen to demonstrate the difference in trade within these rural villages throughout time. This is significantly demonstrated when comparing the data from the medieval remains. At Stanford the import of raw materials and goods both into and out of the settlement is seen to be much higher than at Charney Bassett, throughout the same period. Likewise, when taking into account further techniques such as examining the impact of the

surrounding settlements using human geographical theory techniques, the influence the surrounding landscape and other markets had on these two settlements, can also be observed. The use of these techniques is also able to give a better understanding of the likely changing nature of both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett over time, not only during the medieval period but also during the periods preceding and post this time. This research has demonstrated a better understanding of the development of this type of rural settlement in Oxfordshire than had previously been observed.; villages with a market and small medieval market towns which subsequently collapsed and shrank into villages, this then greatly impacts on the fulfilment of the third aim, as discussed below.

The third aim of this PhD thesis sought to generate an independent understanding of settlement development in Oxfordshire, outside of historically defined views, and thereafter to produce a new multidisciplinary archaeological framework to investigate these types of settlement, can be seen to have been partially fulfilled. The first part of this aim will require further and wider research in the study area in Oxfordshire for it to be entirely fulfilled. This research has demonstrated, through its multidisciplinary approaches, that it is possible to produce a new classification characterising a specific group of settlements in Oxfordshire; those granted medieval Market Charters. As discussed in Chapter 5 (Discussion) this group of settlements can be split into five distinct subgroups, with the fifth formed of villages which were not granted market charters, but had a market, of which Charney Bassett is one. However, this new classification of medieval settlements has been produced taking into account archaeological evidence and historical documentary sources, rather than examining these settlements on a purely historical basis. This is important, as some historians, as seen by the work undertaken at Weld by Keen and Carreck, for example, (Keen & Carreck, 1987) do not take into account the archaeological evidence when studying the changing nature of a settlement, but instead adhere to their historically held beliefs. It can be surmised, therefore, that this has also occurred when studying the classification of 'collapsed towns', which have now formed into villages. These are rarely discussed in the available literature. Instead, where they are discussed, they have totally collapsed as seen at Oversley which is now only formed of a series of earthworks (Dyer, 2003, 91). Furthermore, it can be surmised that some historians also consider where a modern settlement is now a village, it can only have been a village during the historical periods too, even if it had a market during the medieval period. However, as demonstrated by this PhD thesis this historically held concept is incorrect and, therefore, these types of market settlements can be reclassified into five distinct groups, including ones with a much more substantial urban classification, a medieval town or urban centre which subsequently collapsed into

a village (see Table 12). These classifications reject the historical belief of urban rural market settlement typology during the medieval period.

Further work is needed, however, to fully fulfil this part of the third aim, firstly to prove, using the multidisciplinary methods developed in this thesis, that these 20 modern villages with medieval market charters have been placed within the correct typology categories of the four set out in Chapter 5, Table 12. Secondly, village settlements like Charney Bassett, which had a market but no charter, therefore can be classified into the fifth typology should also be examined and investigated to see if they fall within category. However, this would be an exceptional and major undertaking as within Oxfordshire there are currently over 300 villages (Oxfordshire County Council, 2012b). These would require examination and, in some cases, archaeological fieldwork or human geographical theory investigations to understand if they fall within this fifth category, or one of the other new categories of settlements, with medieval markets in rural Oxfordshire. This categorisation could also be used for classifying medieval settlements with either a market charter, or other market type, found and investigated in other counties of the Britain, and therefore used within research undertaken by others within this field.

The second part of this third aim can, however, be seen to have been fulfilled; a new multidisciplinary archaeological framework has been developed to investigate this type of settlement, within the research undertaken for this PhD thesis. As seen through the examination and comparison of both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett's underlying archaeology, historical documentary sources and human geographical theories, a number of specific classification features of these types of settlement can be made, where a market charter is present, and thereafter the settlement formed into a town or urban centre but subsequently shrank or collapsed into a village. This new framework can be split into seven distinct categories, which include evidence for the growth and development of a settlement into a medieval town over time, possibly from its earliest phase of formation to the settlements full formation into an urban site with a market charter and subsequent characteristics of a small town of this period, as set out by Dyer (Dyer, 2003, 102). However, as seen by this research, the archaeological investigation framework which classifies this type of settlement, a medieval town or similar sized urban centre which subsequently shank into a village, also needs to demonstrate the evidence for shrinkage of the settlement instead of its total collapse, thereafter, forming a deserted medieval village (DMV). Therefore, a continuing inhabited settlement must be demonstrated; however, this is much smaller in size, continuing as a village into the post medieval and modern periods. This new archaeological framework for the investigation of this type of settlement, using multi-disciplinary techniques, can be seen in Table 16 below.

No.	Category	Source of Evidence	Data Observed
1.	Documentary Sources	• HER/NMR Data • Primary and secondary source historical documents • Historic mapping • Aerial Photography • LiDAR Data	• Doomsday Book reference demonstrates large possible settlement population during the late Saxon/early medieval period. • Market Charter granted, sometimes a Fair Charter also granted. • High value 1334 Lay Subsidy compared to surrounding villages. • Little documentary evidence for settlement to have had major monastic or royal connections during medieval period. • Historical documents referring to 'Town'. • Later mapping, Aerial photography, etc: demonstrating the presence of a large number of burgess/housing plots within the historic settlement or wider medieval settlement.
2.	Historic Buildings	• Listed buildings register • Documentary sources • Standing building recording • 3D laser scan data • Geophysical data (GPR etc).	• The presence of medieval stone buildings. • Large church mainly constructed during the medieval period. • Substantial medieval Manor House and related buildings. • Other substantial medieval high-status buildings.
3.	Archaeological evidence of settlement development	• Geophysics • Test Pitting • Excavation • Aerial Photography / LiDAR • Previous Archaeological investigations • Artifactual / ecofactual material	• Archaeological evidence for an early (prehistoric) settlement. • Archaeological evidence for the presence of a Roman settlement, of a substantial nature, either a large village, military with *vicus* or town. • Archaeological evidence for the continual growth into the Saxon period, to a substantial sized Saxon settlement including many timber framed buildings. • Evidence for a Saxon Church and Manor House (possibly of stone construction). • Evidence for industrial processes taking place in the Saxon settlement.
4.	Archaeological evidence for medieval town or urban centre	• Geophysics • Test Pitting • Excavation • Aerial Photography / LiDAR • Previous Archaeological investigations • Artifactual / ecofactual material	• Location of the marketplace, possibly close to the church. • Presence of a 'High Street'. • Large medieval settlement area/size, which extends beyond the post medieval/modern village. • Large number of both timber and stone buildings. • One or more mills and their associated infrastructure, including the straightening of rivers. • Evidence for trade, into and out of the settlement, possibly from a long distance.

			• Substantial, multi-phase medieval manor. • Many different types of industrial and craft activities. • Large quantities (over 40 sherds) of medieval pottery recovered from single test pits. • Multiple phases of medieval construction, possibly on the same site. • Can be classified as a small town or urban centre, when compared to Dyers classification (Dyer, 2003, 102, Tab. 1).
5.	Human geographical theory	• Historical data, i.e. 1334 Lay Subsidy • Landscape Data • Human geographical theories	• Large area of 'gravitational pull' during medieval period through the use of Reilly's Law of Retail Gravity. • This area to include a number of other village settlements. • May also include other small settlements granted a market charter. • Use of Nearest Neighbour theory to look at theory to examine how clustered settlements are in the area.
6.	Archaeological evidence for the shrinkage / collapse of the medieval town or similar sized or urban centre	• Geophysics • Test Pitting • Excavation • Aerial Photography / LiDAR • Previous Archaeological investigations • Artifactual / ecofactual material	• Areas of abandonment of the settlement on its outskirts, with little or no reuse of these areas for habitation. • Abandonment of central areas of the settlement, turned into fields. • Little further growth or development of the church in later periods. • Reduction of trade / industries / crafts in the settlement. • Reduction of settlement population. • Large reduction of artifactual material from later period within test pitting / trenching. • Presence of medieval 'dark earth' deposits. • Systemic diseases within the animal skeletal remains (shown through new bone growth) and possible human skeletal remains. • Abandonment / not maintaining other infrastructures such as mills and their associated features, buildings etc.
7.	Formation of a post medieval / modern village	• Geophysics • Test Pitting • Excavation • Aerial Photography / LiDAR • Previous Archaeological investigations • Historic / Listed Buildings • Documentary sources • Historic mapping	• Smaller settlement, possibly only formed round a central green or main roads running through the village, excluding post war housing / industry. • Most / all post medieval listed buildings clustered round main roads in village. • Little to no later major expansion of the church. • Few industrial activities with most not occurring until the late post medieval / modern period.

		• Artifactual / ecofactual material	• No re-habitation of abandoned areas until the modern period. • Little trade with the settlement until the late post medieval / modern periods. • Large reduction of artefacts recovered from test pitting / trenching compared to previous periods. • Little expansion or construction of substantial / high status buildings.

Table 16. Table showing the new archaeological framework using a multidisciplinary approach, developed to investigate settlements with Market Charters which formed into towns or urban centre and subsequently collapsed and shrank into villages during the late medieval period.

The fourth aim of this PhD thesis, explores and critiques the archaeological techniques undertaken at both Stanford in the Vale, as well as the comparison settlement of Charney Bassett. Furthermore, the underlying archaeological deposits in these types of rural settlements have also been characterised, therefore this aim has also been fulfilled. As seen within this thesis, multiple archaeological techniques were undertaken during fieldwork, examining the archaeological deposits at both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. The techniques used encompassed both traditional and modern archaeological methods, including: geophysical survey, resistivity and Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR); standing building recording, using a mixture of standard techniques as well as 3D laser scanning; test pitting in gardens and other areas of the modern villages; excavation of evaluation trenches, mainly as a result of geophysical surveys and post excavation analysis. Lastly, community engagement, as without this most of these techniques utilised would not have been undertaken. Through the use of these techniques, during this research at both Stanford and Charney Bassett, over 100km of geophysics was walked, millions of points of 3D laser scan data collected, over 140m^3 of soil excavated, thousands of finds processed and recorded, and hundreds of man hours undertaken to collect all the primary data which forms this thesis. The use of this large variety of archaeological techniques, as well as both standard and new methods has meant that a fuller picture of the changing nature of these types of settlements have been able to be formed.

This research has demonstrated the importance of using a mixture of archaeological techniques when examining the changing nature of a settlement over time. Standard archaeological techniques such as excavation of evaluation trenching and geophysical surveys have demonstrated the presence of complex multi-phase archaeological deposits, within fields and areas of land both in the centre and outskirts of these village settlements, where most of these areas have had little investigation. The use of combining these techniques also with historic building recording has further demonstrated the importance of the use of more than one method in a single area to

understand its changing nature. Two examples, both at Stanford, can be illustrated, where the combination of these techniques during this thesis has revealed previously unknown archaeological remains. The first site is Cox's Hall, and the second is St Denys Church and the adjacent Manor House complex. At both these sites the use of multiple archaeological techniques has revealed previously earlier unknown phases of these structures. It can be surmised that the use of only one of these techniques; for example, geophysics, excavation or standing building recording, would have meant that a skewed picture of the site would have been produced. Meaning, therefore, that the phasing and characterising of these important areas would have been incorrect. However, with the multiple use of these methods at the same site, this did not occur.

Furthermore, techniques such as test pitting also form an important part of assessing and characterising the underlying archaeological deposits on these types of inhabited village sites. This is unlike geophysics and evaluation trenching, in the most part, as test pitting can be undertaken in small gardens of modern properties, where more invasive techniques are unable to be undertaken. With the number of test pits being dug at both villages in gardens and other areas across both villages (totalling 57 at Stanford in the Vale and nine at Charney Bassett), the changing nature and characteristics of the underlying archaeological deposits were able to be more fully mapped. Within these test pits a large quantity of previously unknown evidence for the changing nature of both these settlements has been mapped, indicating evidence for the development of these settlements from their earliest origins to the present day. It is highly likely that, without undertaking test pitting as part of this research in these modern village settlements, these deposits would not have been mapped as little commercial archaeology in Stanford and Charney Bassett has been embarked on and reported prior to this PhD research. Therefore, this indicates that without undertaking test pitting, in rural villages of this type it is likely that the archaeological record for these areas would be skewed and otherwise missing. Instead, a vast amount of information about the underlying archaeological deposits has been obtained. Furthermore, at Stanford due to the findings from the test pitting, this has increased pre-construction archaeological work now being undertaken in the village, additionally increasing the knowledge of the archaeology of the settlement. Therefore, it can be demonstrated that test pitting is one of the most important techniques to undertake when evaluating the changing historical nature of any modern settlement, be that a rural village, urban town, or in the case of this Thesis a mixture of both.

In comparison with earlier archaeological projects such as the Shapwick and Whittlewood projects (Gerrard & Aston, 2007; R. Jones & Page, 2004) which utilised the techniques discussed above; for example test pitting, excavation, standard building recording and standard geophysics, the use of new and modern techniques utilised within this PhD thesis should also be assessed. GPR,

as part of geophysical survey, and 3D laser scanning, as part of building recording are being used more often within archaeological investigations, however to a much lesser extent than traditional archaeological techniques. As demonstrated by this PhD, the use of both these techniques, when examining the changing nature of a modern village settlements, is both highly recommended, and in the case of GPR, imperative. In this Thesis GPR survey technique has revealed archaeological evidence within areas of the village settlement which would have previously been inaccessible, for example examining the deposit underlying the current floor of St Denys Church, Stanford in the Vale. GPR also has the advantage of being able to examine deep into the archaeological strata of an area without being required to undertake extensive open area excavations. Therefore, within areas such as the village greens where evaluation trenching would have been difficult to undertake, the use of GPR has meant that the depth and characteristics of the underlying deposits were able to be mapped. Likewise, the use of 3D laser scanning when undertaking complex building recording has also been shown to be invaluable when examining historical buildings within multi-phase village settings. This technique both reduces time in the collection of data (about half a day rather than weeks) as well as a higher quality of data collection. This means that previously unseen evidence of a historic building can be seen when the 3D scan data is sliced in multiple directions when examining the structure. An example of this is the leaning chancel wall of St Denys Church, not previously observed. This data also produced a detailed record of the structure and building, in case of future disaster and, therefore, would give preservation by record for future generations. However, it should be noted that it is unlikely that all research projects examining rural village settlements of this type are able to use these techniques, due to either restraints related to experience or cost, as they require technical knowledge to undertake and are costly to purchase or hire. Where possible one or more of these modern techniques should be used when examining these types of rural village settlements, however, due to likely project constraints a minimum of the traditional techniques discussed above should be used to characterise and evaluate the archaeological deposits and structures of rural villages, like those seen at Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett.

Through the use of the techniques discussed above, it has been possible to characterise a number of important types of deposits from the examination of the archaeological remains studied at both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett. The earliest deposit which has been mapped through the work carried out within this thesis is not archaeological, but instead geological. Through the use of mass test pitting at both sites, as well as trenching at Stanford, the use of these techniques has demonstrated the inaccuracy of the geological mapping in these areas. Therefore, the data recovered of these underlying geological deposits should not be ignored, but instead fed into the data held by the British Geological Survey (BGS), as seen in Figure 99. It is also important to

note a number of areas where alluvium was found, previously thought to be superficial geology, was subsequently found to cover either Roman and or prehistoric deposits, therefore demonstrating these deposits are not geological alluvial in nature. This demonstrates that excavations which have stopped at this deposit, believing it to be of a geological nature, may have missed important underlying archaeological deposits.

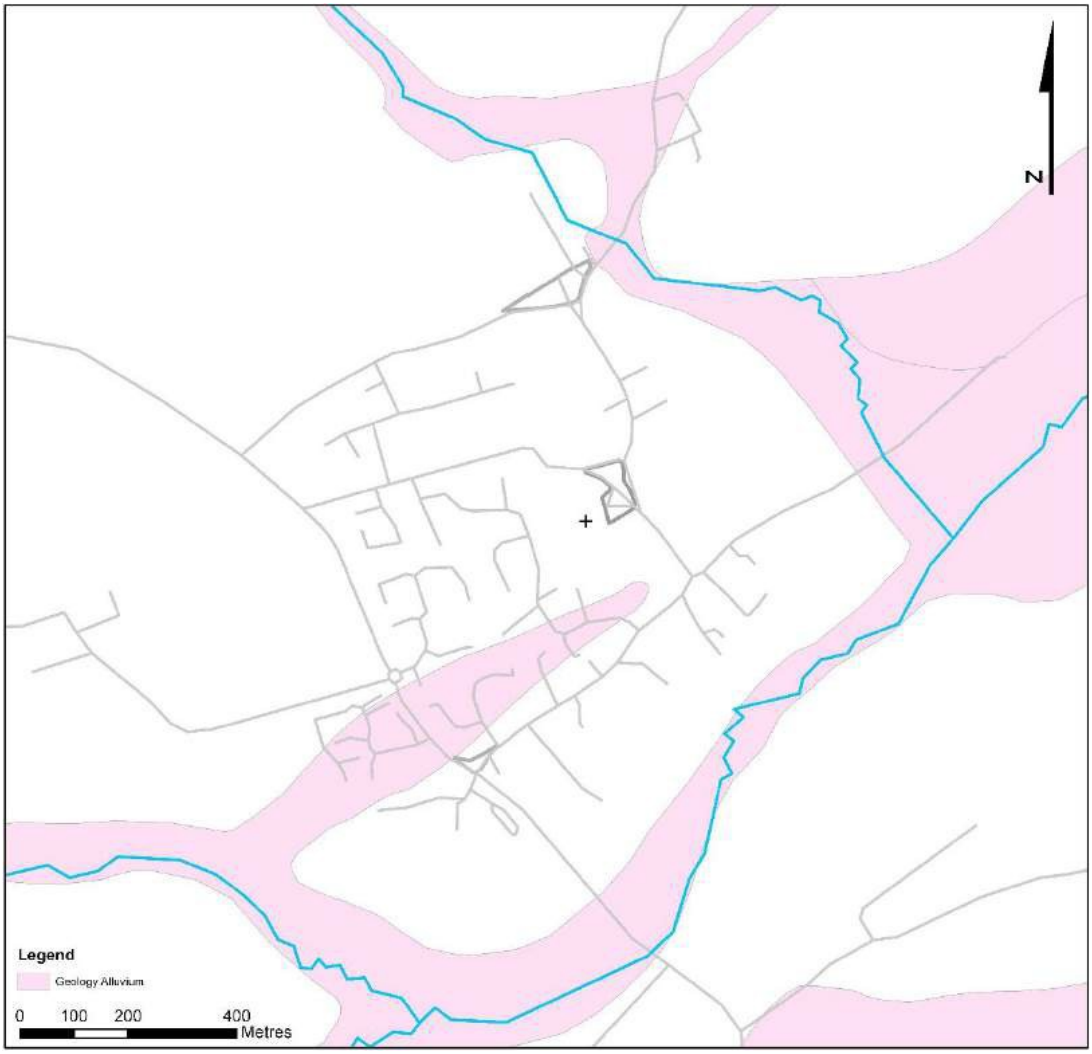

Figure 99. Map demonstrating the underlying geology newly mapped through archaeological fieldwork at Stanford in the Vale.

Further important characteristics of the underlying archaeological deposits were also mapped. One example of this, is a number of specific medieval deposits, demonstrating the presence and subsequent shrinkage of the medieval urban centre at Stanford. As seen within the archaeological deposits at Stanford, on a number of sites, multiphases of medieval structures overlying one and other are demonstrated, which was not seen at Charney Bassett. These deposits can be seen to demonstrate reuse of areas for urban purposes with multiple phases of buildings of

this period fronting areas such as the High Street. This may demonstrate important areas of this urban centre during this period. Further deposits such as the hard standing seen on both the Greens at Stanford and Charney Bassett, are interpreted as hard standing for the market of this period and, therefore, important in understanding the characteristics of villages with markets. It can be surmised that where this type of deposit, an area of rammed near sterile local stone surface is found on a Green, this may demonstrate the location of the marketplace. However, further work would need to be undertaken on other settlements of this type, to fully prove this theory. Lastly of this period, the presence of a thick layer of medieval 'dark earth' in the centre and a thin topsoil layer on the outskirts overlying medieval structures of a collapsed and shrunken medieval town or urban centre, which thereafter formed into a village during the late medieval period, have also been characterised. Both of these types of deposits are not seen at Charney Bassett, a rural village of the same period, but are seen within the archaeological deposits observed at Stanford. These deposits are important, as it should be possible to identify their characteristics within the archaeological record when examining and identifying other potential collapsed and shrunken medieval towns of this type. It is important to note that medieval 'dark earth' has not previously been seen within deposits of this period and has previously only been seen as a Roman phenomenon, demonstrating the abandonment of settlements at the end of the Roman period. If, like at Stanford, this type of deposit can also be seen within medieval deposits, demonstrating urban abandonment during this period of British history in rural areas, this is an important discovery as it can be used as a major factor when characterising and identifying collapsed medieval towns.

The last important deposit which has been categorised by this thesis is not so much a single deposit, but instead a mixture of deposits of different periods. As seen at both Stanford and Charney Bassett, the high nature of the underlying solid geology has meant that many of the areas have been reused repeatedly from the earliest periods in the Mesolithic to modern day. Therefore, it has been demonstrated, that at both these rural sites, where a feature predates the Saxon or medieval period, unless it is cut into the solid geology or covered by alluvial deposits, as discussed above, these features are unlikely to survive as the ground is reworked, removing these earlier features, by either medieval or later activities. In many but not all cases, especially within test pitting, it is only possible to map earlier activities through mapping of artifactual remains such as worked flint, pottery, CBM or small finds materials. However, this material, is seen not to have travelled far, which is an important aspect in mapping the changing nature and aspects of the early phases of these rural settlements' development. Without this material, in some cases, it would otherwise be impossible to map these early phases of activity in these modern village settlements.

Lastly, taking into account the fifth aim of this thesis, the effectiveness of the interaction between community groups and individuals with academic research and resources, as undertaken as part of this PhD, can be examined. Also, the importance of disseminating the ongoing results of the research to the local community can be analysed. As demonstrated by this PhD, when examining the development of rural settlements, it is extremely important to involve the local community, as without their ongoing support, in this case at both Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, most of the work carried out would have been impossible to undertake, and therefore this would have had a major detrimental effect on the results of the research undertaken. In the case of both these villages, our major understanding of the way in which both of these settlements developed over time, is mainly due to the community support this research had. Without this support, access to gardens to undertake test pitting and fields to undertake geophysics and evaluation trenching, would not have been possible. At both Stanford and Charney Bassett, land access was given by a mixture of both local groups such as the Parish Council (PC) giving access to parish land, the Parochial Church Council (PCC) giving access to the church and its' land, as well as other local community groups. Also, individual landowners and householders gave access to their land, gardens and houses. Through this PhD a total of over 100 individual landowners and larger organisations at both Stanford and Charney Bassett have given access to their land for this research to be undertaken. Also, the importance of the Local History Society, in both of these villages should also be noted. Their members not only give support to this type of research with community interaction and support the nature of this historical research work, but also their knowledge of the history of the village is also invaluable when examining rural settlements of this type. Local History Societies can be seen as the unsung heroes of historical and archaeological research of rural settlements all over the UK.

This type of interaction between academia and community archaeology is also shown to be important through this PhD research. Due to the cost implications, when undertaking most community projects through examining a rural settlement or landscape, it is likely that only one or two techniques are implemented such as test pitting or geophysics. However, as demonstrated by this PhD, when a local community archaeology project is combined with the resources and expertise of a university academic and access to the equipment much more work can be undertaken, and larger amounts of important information can be gathered. An example of this importance can be seen though the work undertaken at Stanford in the Vale, as without the university's support for the project, it is likely only small-scale test pitting could have been undertaken, and therefore only a small amount of information gathered. However, with the resource and knowledge of an academic department more complex and costly techniques were undertaken. For example, large scale

geophysical survey using different sensor techniques, excavation of large-scale evaluation trenches, and the use of new data collection techniques such as GPR and 3D laser scanning. With the use of these techniques, as well as the wider knowledge base which is supplied by a joint community and academic project of this type, a much wider understanding of the changing nature and development of a rural settlement can be gained and therefore a much better and concise understanding of a village's past specified. This wealth of new information is important, for the local community as it gives them a better understanding of their past. It also fills in the gaps where historical documentary evidence, gathered by the local history societies, has provided information about the village. This also has wider academic importance as the results gathered may influence the understanding of other settlements of their type (i.e. in this case collapsed medieval towns or similarly sized urban centre) found elsewhere in the UK. If this project was undertaken solely as a community project, without academic assistance, the importance of this data may never have been understood or disseminated to a much wider academic audience and therefore its wider implication on the understanding of rural settlements may not have been known.

The importance of undertaking a joint community and academic archaeological community project can also be seen, not just on the quality and importance of the data collected, as discussed above, but also on the much wider social and community aspects of this type of project. At the heart of any archaeology community project, is the local community as seen at both Stanford and Charney Bassett, as well as projects such as Shapwick and Sedgeford (Faulkner et al., 2014; Gerrard & Aston, 2007). Additionally, the historically important information this type of project gathers can also bring a community together through understanding the past of the settlement they live in. This may be through simply giving access to their land, as discussed above, but also through the interaction with the local history society to hand over or discuss their knowledge of the more recent past, therefore documenting previously unknown data. The local population interacting in community archaeology may also include both the young and old getting involved with the work themselves, as seen in Figure 100, where the direct community help to reveal their past. At Charney Bassett, for example, there were 60 volunteers over three weekends undertaking test pitting and geophysics in the village. This gives people not only hands on experience and enjoyment of revealing their past but also may spark a lifelong enjoyment of studying the past, therefore joining the local history society or further study through continuing education, including undergraduate or master's programmes. Therefore, these types of joint community and academic projects do not just have a significance in understanding historical information, but also have a wider importance in a village and its' inhabitant's social aspects and interactions.

Figure 100. Photographs of community involvement of test pitting undertaken at both Stanford in the Vale (Top) and Charney Bassett (Bottom).

Apart from undertaking the archaeological work as part of this PhD with the help and support of the local communities involved, the importance of disseminating the findings of the work undertaken, back to the local villages, also forms an important part of a joint community and

academic archaeological project, of which the results of this thesis form a major part. From the fieldwork undertaken, the results have been constantly disseminated back to the local communities involved, utilising a number of different techniques. One of the main techniques utilised for test pitting was the production of an individual test pit report, for each one excavated, detailing the preliminary findings of the work. A copy of the report was given to the landowner. These reports were important, as they not only explained to the landowners what had been found and what was buried beneath their feet, but also meant that the locals could 'show off' to their neighbours and friends what was found in their garden. Therefore, as demonstrated in other community projects, this causes a snowball effect with more people having test pits dug and reports sent out; consequently, more people are willing to volunteer their garden to have a test pit dug as they can see what was found in their neighbour's garden as well as understanding the importance of the work undertaken. This significantly increases the knowledge gained through the archaeological work undertaken in the village.

Further public engagement techniques were utilised to disseminate the ongoing research undertaken as part of this PhD; the first was public lectures on the current findings. During the PhD research period 24 public talks, with between 10 to 100+ people attending each one, were given on the Archaeology of Stanford in the Vale, not only to the local villagers themselves but also to other groups in the surrounding villages, with each talk updated with the current information and findings as the research progressed. This dissemination technique of public talks, to a mixture of small groups to large open village events, has meant that the local population have been kept up to date with the findings and the growing understanding of their village's past. Also, public engagement was undertaken by displays at the local village summer festival with the help of the local history society. During this annual event, the village was updated with the current findings of the research and a small quantity of finds were displayed. This interaction with the public, not only indicated the importance of combining both academic archaeological research with that undertaken by the local history society, it also meant that the villagers were more willing to directly interact with the project by giving access to their land to carry out archaeological works and thereby helping to grow the project over time.

Lastly, the most major public engagement activities which occurred as part of the on-going PhD research at Stanford in the Vale occurred in 2015 and 2016, with two 'pop-up' museum events forming part of the national CBA Festival of British Archaeology. Both these events were held over a whole weekend, the first was held in the village church (2015) and the second in the local village hall (2016). Both these events were very successful in the village with a photograph of the 2016 event seen in Figure 101. The 2016 event had over 250 visitors, who were able to view both research

findings and artefactual material from the archaeological project and also research which was undertaken by the local history society. This major event meant that all members of the local community, both young and old, were able to interact with the current findings of the project, as well as giving consent for further work to be undertaken on land in the village. This type of event is important as it engages with the surrounding communities, and therefore sparks an interest in these areas to find out about the archaeology in their village and undertake their own project work. As demonstrated, when undertaking community archaeology jointly with academic research, it is important to use a mixture of dissemination techniques to help the local people understand the findings from the project. This means the project both increases support within the local community, so access to sites can be granted, and so the local community can get involved and understand the changing nature and growth of their rural village settlement. Lastly, it is important to note, this PhD research would not have been undertaken to the extent it was, without the support of both local communities and, therefore, it is important to disseminate the results back to the villagers, so they are able see the importance of the work they helped to undertake.

Figure 101. Photograph of the 2016 Stanford in the Vale 'pop-up' museum event.

Conclusion: Wider Literature

Taking into account the conclusions detailed above regarding the aims presented in this thesis, a number of further conclusions can also be drawn in relation to the data presented within

this PhD, compared to that stated in the concluding section of the literature review (Chapter 2). The first of these aspects discussed within the literature review is that of the growth and decline of all settlements within the archaeological landscape. As shown within this PhD research it can be concluded that the previous views held by historians may have greatly influenced the interpretation of settlement archaeology within the British landscape, in terms of previous interpretations of settlement types, of growth, development and decline during the historic periods. This includes the views previously held by historians including those discussed by Keen & Carreck in 1987 and Christie & Stamper in 2012 which, as both discussed in the literature review, demonstrated that previously historically held views and data are seen to have greatly influenced the understanding of rural settlements including villages and urban centres, over that of the evidence demonstrated through the archaeological record (Christie & Stamper, 2012, 82-83; Keen & Carreck, 1987). In contrast, it can be demonstrated through the archaeological investigations, and in turn interpretations, undertaken as part of this PhD that towns and urban centres are likely to have formed a larger proportion of settlements during the medieval period than seen today. A proportion of these can be demonstrated to have declined during the late medieval period in a similar way to that of DMVs, where external pressures such as climate change and economic aspects played a part in the decline, but not to the same full extent as seen in villages with a total collapse. Instead, as seen by this research, it can be interpreted that these economic centres instead declined into villages during this period. Therefore, it can be surmised that, like Oversley, a town which collapsed fully into a DMV (Dyer, 2003, 91) and the other villages seen within modern Oxfordshire which have likely shrunk from strong economic centres during the medieval period to the villages seen today, there are likely be further settlements of this type within the wider national archaeological landscape. Settlements of this typology, therefore, should be re-evaluated to fully understand their economic processes within the medieval period, to the criteria as seen within Table 16 and discussed above. Furthermore, the effects of external pressures on the collapse of these types of settlements, as discussed in the literature (pg 53-55), can also be shown not to just be of a historical typology in regards to climatic events, the drop in the medieval wool trade, and the effects of disease because as shown by this research these effects can also be seen within the archaeological landscape. As discussed within this PhD, this decline can also be seen within the archaeological deposits of this type of settlements, including systemic disease demonstrated by new bone growth within the animal population, the effects of flooding and climate change demonstrated through low lying areas being abandoned, and the effect of economic changes on the settlement through the reduction of crafts and industries being undertaken. This demonstrates that the decline of the settlement can also be demonstrated through archaeological investigations, and therefore historically held views related to the decline of

settlements within the medieval period can also be demonstrated to be possibly incorrect when compared to those seen within the archaeological landscape. It is proposed, therefore, that further investigations, using archaeological techniques, might be undertaken on settlements within a national landscape that have been urban centres rather than villages during the medieval period, in order to study how and why these settlements may have declined over time.

Furthermore, these historically held views, and the effect on typological evaluation of settlements, can also demonstrate the importance of the use of historical landscape characterisation (HLC) as an archaeological technique for evaluating landscape archaeology (Rippon, 2009a), including that of the typological assessment of settlement types. As discussed within the literature review, the use of HLC within an archaeological context has been varied, with some authors possibly indicating this as a poor technique to utilise when analysing urban centres. However, as indicated by this research, the use of HLC to categorise and produce a typology of villages within modern Oxfordshire which were granted medieval market charters, can be seen to be a valid use when assessing urban centres within a rural landscape. Furthermore, the use of multidisciplinary techniques, including high-tech archaeological solutions, can be seen to further influence the understanding of HLC's within an archaeological landscape and therefore help to utilise this technique analysing settlements of an urban type within the historic landscape., The use of HLC, therefore, can be seen as being an important technique when analysing villages which may have previously been an urban centre, and therefore works undertaken by Roberts and other authors can be seen to be highly important when understanding landscapes using the HLC technique (Roberts, 2008). It may be surmised, therefore, that the use of HLCs should be more greatly used when analysing and comparing settlements within a rural landscape than is currently undertaken within the current national research framework.

Compared to the literature review, this PhD research, has also demonstrated the importance of using a multidisciplinary technique, including standard archaeological techniques, modern archaeological techniques and the use of geographical theory when analysing all settlements within a historic and modern landscape. This research shows, that the use of these techniques ties into the approaches set out within 'New Archaeology' which, like that of the historians' viewpoints discussed above, aligns with the use of these techniques within an archaeological science basis rather than that of a historical viewpoint (D. Clarke, 1978; Johnson, 1999, 20). This PhD research has also shown that the use of these scientific, multidisciplinary, approaches to analysing settlement activities and their surrounding landscapes can be seen as being extremely important when assessing the changing nature of these types of rural settlements over time. For example, the use of a single techniques such as test pitting can be seen to provide evidence for the changing nature of the settlement in

relation to the modern settlement today, while geophysical surveys, the use of aerial photography or LiDAR can be used to analyse the surrounding open areas of land both within the main settlement and surrounding field systems, giving a greater picture of the likely nature of the underlying deposits and historical environment within the settlement. Additionally, the use of human geographical theory to analyse how a settlement such as Stanford in the Vale, interacts with its surrounding landscape can also be seen as being important as a settlement of any type (rural or urban) is not an island in its landscape and therefore the interaction of the settlement to those which surrounded it must also be studied. These interactions demonstrate how a settlement may have changed over time in relation to its surrounding settlements and therefore the use of these multidisciplinary approaches have been shown to demonstrate the importance and understanding the growth development and decline of types of rural settlements discussed within this PhD.

Furthermore, the use of a multidisciplinary archaeological approach, as demonstrated by this PhD research, has also been able to uncover the changing nature of the villages of Stanford in the Vale and Charney Bassett, beyond that previously known about the settlements. As discussed within the literature review little archaeological remains have previously been found within the village of Charney Bassett, due to little previous archaeological works being undertaken within the settlement and its surrounding landscape. This is also similar to that of Stanford in the Vale, where a large proportion of the archaeological work previously undertaken in this village related to work undertaken by the author as part of their undergraduate and postgraduate dissertation research (BA (Hons), MRes). It can therefore be demonstrated that the assumption surmised by Darvill, Constant, Milner and Russell in the literature review is correct, that the majority of underlying archaeological deposits are likely to have been missed within rural settlements as little commercial archaeological works are undertaken prior to 1990 within these areas as part of the preplanning process (Darvill et al., 2019, 1). Furthermore, it can be demonstrated that this supposition by Belford that the nature of these preplanning process works, namely that of watching briefs or evaluation trenches (Belford, 2021, 36-37), greatly reduces our understanding of settlement development as only the results of these archaeological processes are interpreted when evaluating the archaeological importance of rural settlement in Britain. In contrast this PhD research has demonstrated that the use of multidisciplinary archaeological techniques can give a wider and greater breadth and depth to the nature of archaeological stratigraphy within a settlement than just relying on the work undertaken, and data recovered, through commercial preplanning means. For example, the work undertaken through test pitting in both villages as demonstrated the abundance of archaeological deposits within both settlements, the majority of which were excavated within areas where no previous archaeological works have been undertaken including through preplanning process. Therefore, these

deposits, and their significance, were previously unknown, and demonstrate the importance of undertaking archaeological research when analysing settlements of this nature and their surrounding landscape. Furthermore, the use of more expensive techniques such as ground penetrating radar and 3-D laser scanning, which are utilised less in the preplanning process, can also be seen to disclose archaeological data which may not have been otherwise discovered. This emphasises the importance of using a wide multidisciplinary approach when analysing these rural settlements to understand their changing nature, and as discussed above, should be utilised within the national framework when undertaking archaeological research of these types of settlements.

The final aspect of this PhD which should also be discussed in relation to the data presented in the literature review is that of the importance of community archaeology when analysing the development of historical rural settlements which are still inhabited to this day. The literature shows that many projects, both past and present, utilise the local community to help undertake or allow archaeological works and related archaeological techniques to be undertaken within their current village settlement. As demonstrated above, this PhD thesis draws on the works discussed within the literature review of these previous research projects through the use of simple low-cost archaeological techniques such as test pitting, geophysics (resistivity and magnetometry) and excavation, however, builds on these with further techniques utilised which would otherwise be out of the cost range of most community led archaeological research projects such as GPR and 3D laser scanning. This clearly demonstrates the importance of combining both community led archaeological research projects with the academic and university institutions which have access to a wider range of equipment and techniques which may otherwise not be available to purely community-based projects. Accordingly, this demonstrates that these joint academic and community projects should be utilised further within the research landscape archaeology. The wider array of techniques available within academia can be utilised to support a wider array of research aims, including the changing nature of the settlement, which can then be investigated through the use of archaeological techniques, whereas these previously may have only been able to be assessed through a historical viewpoint. This further demonstrates the importance of the use of multidisciplinary techniques when analysing historical settlements of this type to gain a clearer picture, and more concise data, compared to the utilisation of a restricted range of archaeological techniques.

Recommendations

From this thesis and the conclusions discussed above, a number of recommendations can be made for further work to be undertaken in accordance with this research. This would further extend

our archaeological knowledge of settlements, like Stanford which formed into a town or urban centre in the medieval period and then subsequently collapsed into a village. Furthermore, the use of multi-disciplinary approaches when examining the changing nature of village settlements in the UK can also be discussed. Taking this into account the first recommendation made is to examine the four other village settlements in Oxfordshire: Whitchurch on Thames, Churchill, Standlake and Adderbury, which were granted market charters, and as discussed in Chapter 5, are thought to also have formed into towns which then failed. This would mean undertaking a similar multi-disciplinary approach, using both archaeological as well as geographical techniques to examine these settlements. During this work the presence of similar archaeological deposits and remains would be ascertained, such as the presence of long-distance trade of goods, large settlement areas of both timber and stone buildings, a selection of major crafts and industries being undertaken as well as the presence of other indicators. Also, evidence for the presence of medieval 'dark earth' would be examined, as found at Stanford, indicating a decline and shrinkage of the settlement in the medieval period as it subsequently declines from a town into a village.

A wider group of settlements could also be examined using these techniques, where similar types of settlements, with a market charter, are also thought to be located in the surrounding highly rural counties, such as Berkshire, Wiltshire, Gloucestershire, Buckinghamshire, Northamptonshire and Warwickshire. This would confirm if this type of settlement, a collapsed or shrunken medieval town which then formed into a village, is seen more widely spread across the region or country or if it is much more of a regional settlement type, mainly seen within Oxfordshire and the old county of Berkshire.

The second recommendation which can be made is to continue the archaeological fieldwork and research at both Stanford in the Vale, under the Stanford in the Vale Archaeological Research Project, and at Charney Bassett in conjunction with the Local History Group. The continuation of this fieldwork is important as it not only increases the public engagement of archaeology, but also may help to answer some of the still unanswered questions on the development of these two settlements. These questions include, why did both settlements shift in the Iron Age to a fortified enclosure, and in the case of Stanford what systemic diseases affected the animal population in the medieval period. These questions, as well as others raised about these villages may only be answered by the continuation of the fieldwork and research in the future.

The third recommendation which can be made is for the wider use of multi-disciplinary techniques and in turn joint academic and community archaeology projects when examining the formation, development and changing nature of rural settlements where they are still active villages

today. As demonstrated by this thesis, through the use of multi techniques, both as standard methodologies in archaeology such as test pitting, geophysics and excavation, as well as the use of newer techniques such as Ground Penetrating Radar and 3D laser scanning plus the use of other disciplinary subjects such as human geography, a wealth of new and previously unknown evidence can be gained. The combined use of these techniques in further rural settlement studies would give a better result and therefore a better understanding of the changing nature of these settlements' growth or decline over time. Furthermore, the use of joint academic and community archaeology projects, when examining rural settlements would also increase the likely outcome of projects of this type, as academics can bring the equipment and technical knowledge, while the community can bring their local knowledge, enthusiasm and access to local land. This would mean that not only would the local community gain information on the settlement's archaeology and therefore knowledge on how to protect and further examine it over time, but academics would also prosper through joint community projects, not just for land access, but also as the community aspect of a joint project would have a greater impact within the academic Knowledge Exchange Framework (KEF).

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LIST OF APPENDIXES

APPENDIX B – RESPONSE NUMBER: 212228614

RDNANCE SURVEY LAN REFERENCE	SU 3493	SECTION C	Scale 1/1250 Enlarged from 1/2500
OUNTY OXFORDSHIRE	DISTRICT VALE OF WHITE HORSE		© Crown copyright 1978

APPENDIX C – RESPONSE NUMBER: 212372817

Chair: Kevin Middleton
21 Church Green
Stanford in the Vale, SN7 8HU
Tel: (01367) 718395
kevinfmiddleton@gmail.com

Clerk: Claire Lewis
12 Mawkes Close
Stanford in the Vale, SN7 8FB
Tel: 07710 760894
clerk@stanfordinthevalepc.co.uk

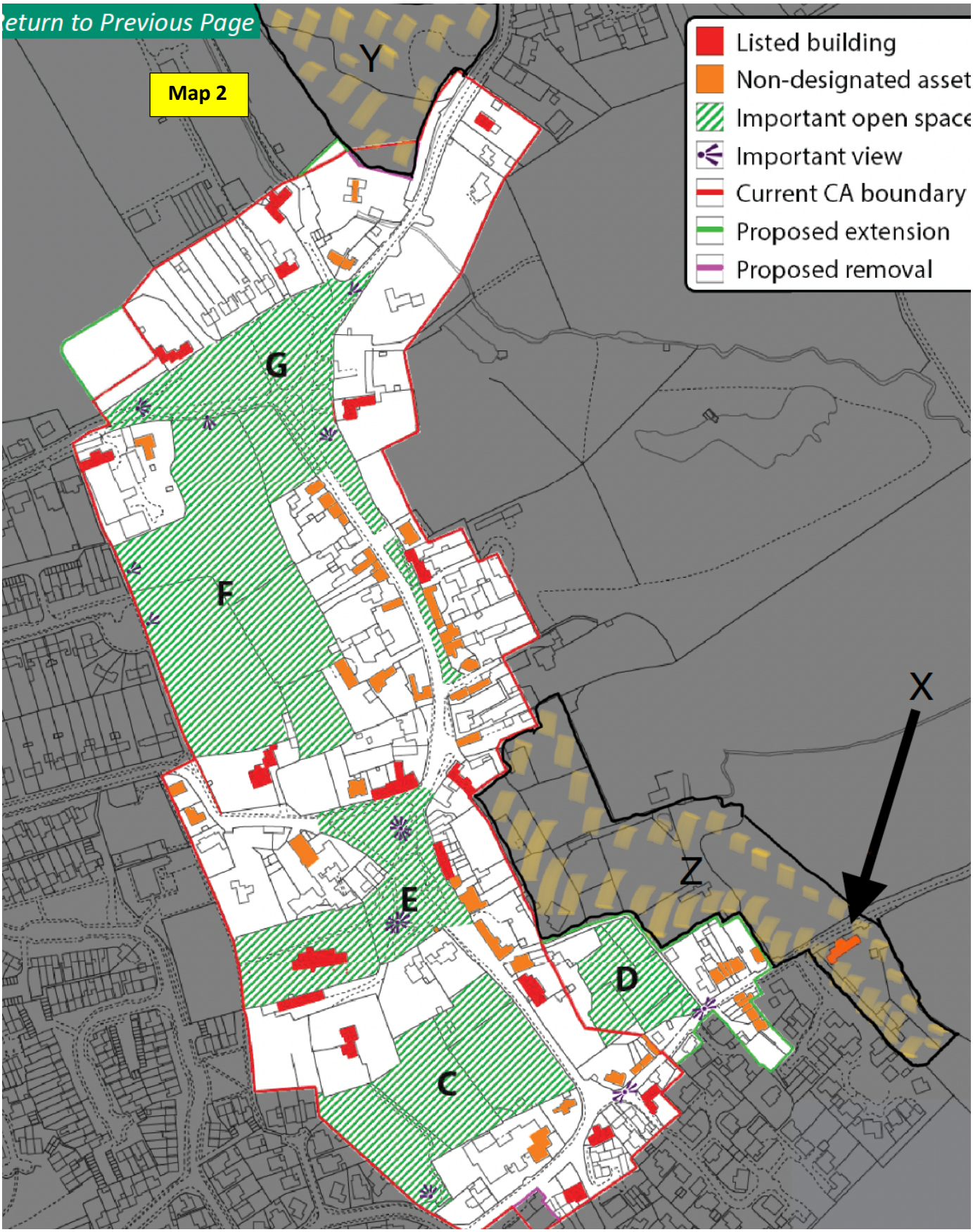
STANFORD IN THE VALE PARISH COUNCIL

Response to Vale of the White Horse District Council Conservation Appraisal

1. Introduction:
    a. Stanford in the Vale Parish Council (SITVPC) would like to congratulate Vale of the White Horse District Council (VoWHDC) for its February 2023 Conservation appraisal of our village.
    b. We find the recent appraisal most comprehensive and well considered.
    c. We agree with all the proposed minor deletions to the existing Conservation Area
    d. We also agree with all the proposed additions to the existing Conservation Area but would like a few more areas to be added as set out below.

2. Background:
    a. Stanford in the Vale (SITV) as a village has grown enormously over the last 25 years. Almost 400 new homes will have been added by 2025 almost doubling the size of the community.
    b. The Conservation area has traditionally reflected what has been the centre of the village but with expansion in the north-east, & south-east and the huge 'Strategic site to the west, we believe that the Conservation Area needs to protect some of the other areas of the village reflecting the village growth.
    c. The black areas below show the developments being undertaken in the years 2010 to 2025 only

d. The Parish Council believes that it is important to add to the Conservation Area some new areas as the village expands.
e. Whilst the Parish Council does not have the expert resources of VoWHDC to set out in the enormous detail of the existing proposal it is hoped that VoWHDC will be able to interpret the desires of the community we are listing to protect some of our other valuable areas and add to the proposed Conservation area to more fully reflect our greatly expanded village.
f. The areas that we would like to add to the Conservation Area are shown below, each designated by a letter X through to Z.



g. In the paragraphs below are areas that we would like to add

3. **Long Acre old Farm Building marked as X on Map 2:**
    a. An old Farmhouse known as Long Acre (shown on the 1876 map) which we believe should be a ‘non-designated asset’. It sits in an area of what was open countryside but which is now immediately adjacent to new housing within the village, making this building part of the village built environment rather than an outlying building. The old farm has many of the traditional characteristics of SITV existing ‘listed’ and ‘non-designated asset’ buildings

View looking east from Horsecroft

View looking west from Horsecroft

View East from Footpath South of Horsecroft

b. The building is also situated on the ancient highway ‘Horsecroft’ which connects SITV by what is now a bridleway to Charney Bassett. This route is heavily walked daily and this building adds significantly to any approach to the village from the East. And views from the south & south-east and the walks along the footpath by the River Ock & its water-meadows.

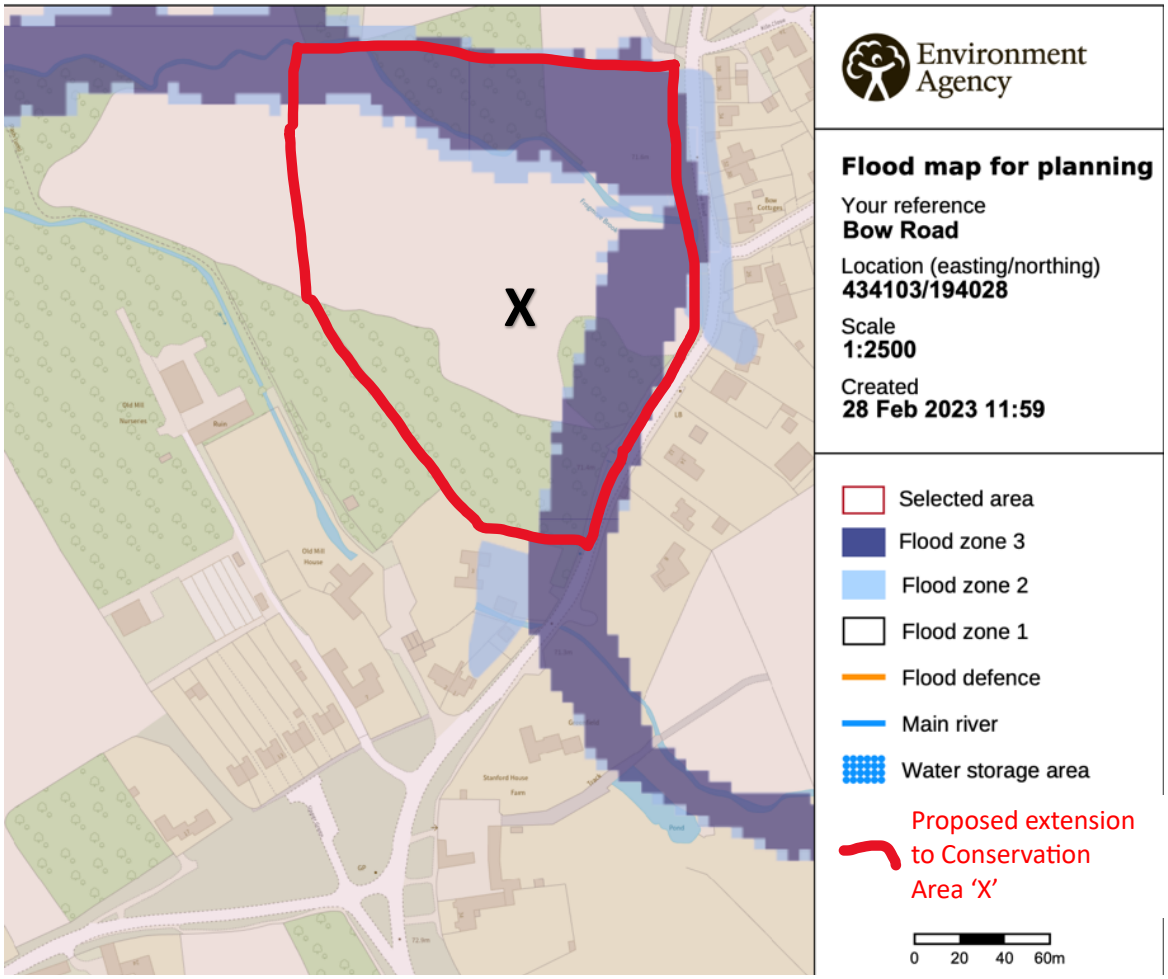
4. **Area Z on Map 2 above:**
    a. Linked to the Building above and as part of a necessary additional protection to the eastern edge of the village this area is made up primarily of gardens and fields with views from the Horsecroft & the footpath 'Green Lane' which runs to the north & east edge of the area marked 'D' in green on the above map. Additionally the area has some significant trees which would be afforded a little more protection by Conservation Area status

View North from Horsecroft

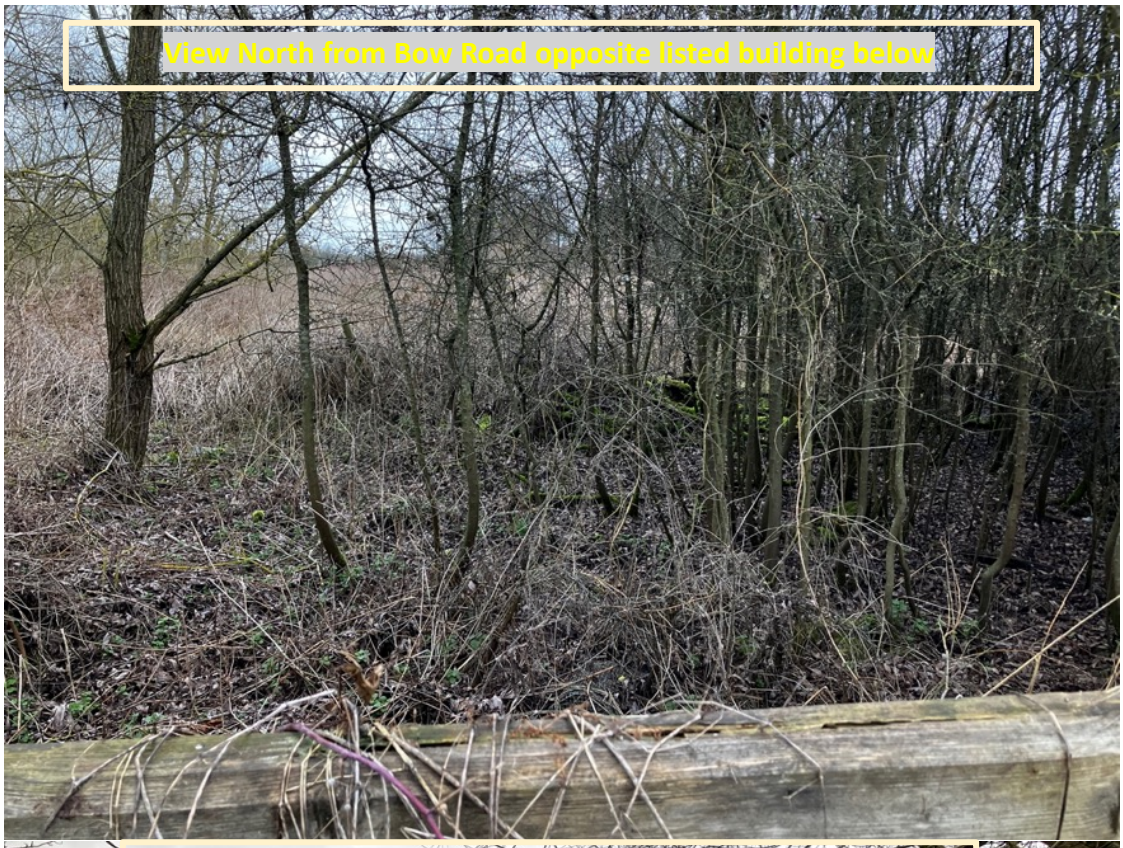
View North from Green Lane

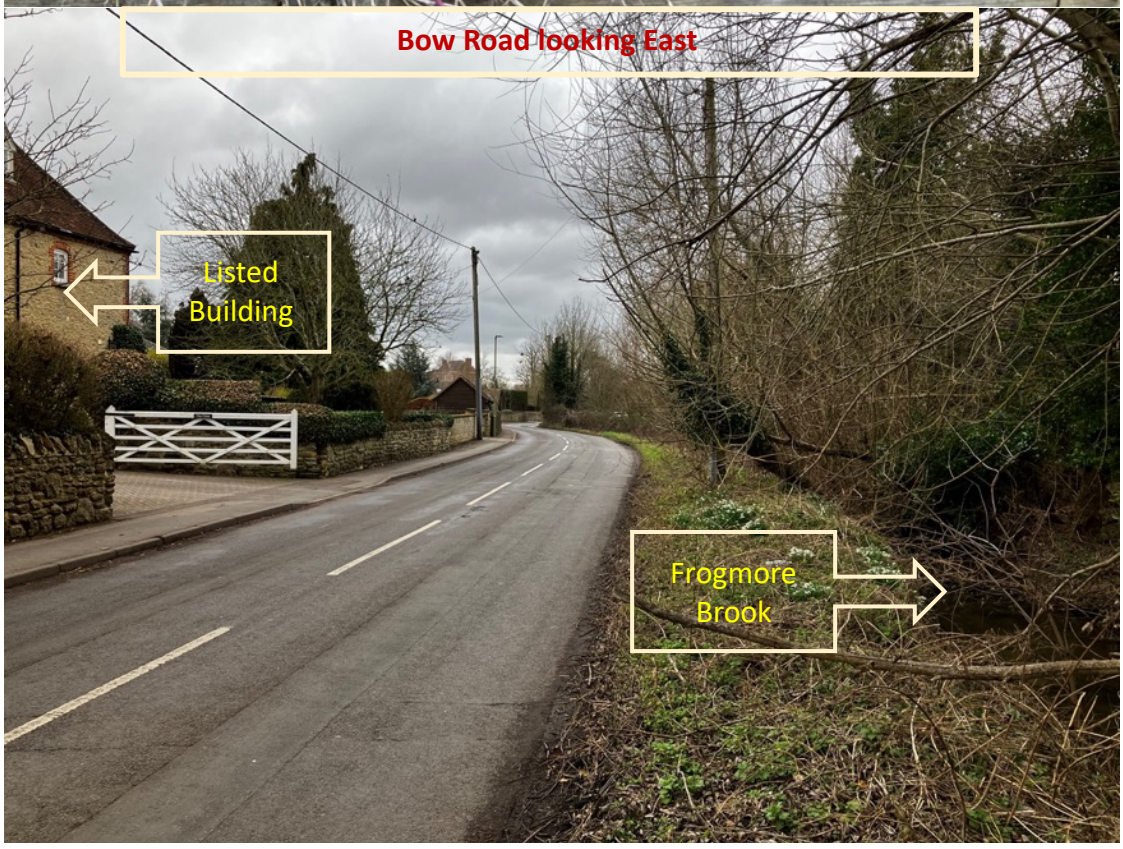
View East from rear gardens of houses to East of High Street opposite Church Green

5. **Area X on Map 2 above:**
    a. The importance of protecting this area comes with the expansion of the village north-eastwards with the new Bow Farm Estate (Top Right of Map 1)
    b. This area borders the Bow Road entrance to the village and is opposite an important listed building
    c. Additionally the Frogmore Brook that runs to the north, east and south of this area is a wonderful natural habitat and currently has a reasonable population of Water Voles which are a UK Government designated 'rare and most threatened species' (see: https://www.gov.uk/guidance/water-voles-advice-for-making-planning-decisions#:~:text=Water%20voles%20are%20protected%20under,control%20them%20(alive%20or%20dead))
    d. The actual area is partly flood plain (Zone 3 - This means it has a high probability of flooding) and is regularly inundated see Environment Agency map below



e. This wildlife haven should be protected particularly now that it is more central to our village:





6. Conclusion:
    a. Whilst we welcome the revisions to the Conservation Area put forward by VoWHDC the Parish Council strongly feels that with the growth of the village other areas are becoming increasingly important.
    b. We hope that the VoWHDC will see fit to add those areas that we have identified above to our village Conservation Area.

END.