THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOME ASPECTS OF SETTLEMENT AND LAND USE IN SUTTON CHASE

by

MICHAEL ANTHONY HODDER

A thesis submitted to the
Faculty of Arts
of the
University of Birmingham
for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Ancient
History and Archaeology
University of Birmingham
P O Box 363
Birmingham
B15 2TT
England

March 1988

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SYNOPSIS

The development of unenclosed common waste, parks, hamlets, moated sites and isolated individual settlements in Sutton Chase is traced, using archaeological, documentary and environmental evidence. The value of employing a combination of different methods and sources in the study of landscape development is shown, provided their potential and limitations are critically assessed.

The largest waste areas were probably heathland by Roman times, and they were conserved through the Middle Ages as part of the hunting reserve of Sutton Chase, but following the demise of the Chase in 1528, settlement and cultivation of waste areas was encouraged. Deer parks were created in parts of the study area between the 12th and 14th centuries. In the later Middle Ages some of these were extended, and new parks were created. Most of the hamlets and individual settlements were shown to have been in existence by the Middle Ages, but few of them were on the same sites as Roman settlements.

The relative influence of the physical environment, population fluctuations and human policy in the development of the landscape is discussed, and possible future work suggested by the results of the study is outlined.

This thesis contains approximately 90,000 words.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to the following individuals and institutions for their assistance and encouragement in the compilation of this thesis:

Birmingham University: L. Barfield, M. Carver, S. Limbrey and undergraduate students (Department of Ancient History and Archaeology), S. Colledge (Plant Biology), C. Dyer (History), K. Edwards (Geography).

Birmingham City Museum: J. Peirson Jones, S. Price, D. Symons, R. Taylor

Wendy Burnett

Coventry and District Archaeological Society

Middleton Hall Trust: L. Cave, P. Thomas

Christine Smith

Staffordshire County Council: R. Meeson, K. Sheridan

Sutton Coldfield Archaeological Society

Sutton Coldfield Local History Research Group: N. Evans, R. Lea

Warwickshire County Museum: H. Maclagan

West Midlands County Council: J. Tomkins, S. Whitehouse

I would also like to thank numerous owners and tenants for allowing me access to lands and properties, my academic supervisor, Dr. Susan Limbrey, and my family and friends, for their support, and especially my mother, Mrs B. Hodder, for typing the manuscript.

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PART ONE

Introduction and sources of evidence

CHAPTER ONE - Introduction

INTRODUCTION

The aims of the study

The area considered in this thesis can be defined as a physical region, and, during the Middle Ages, as the political unit of Sutton Chase. The study was initially stimulated by the lack of previous work on the history of the landscape of the study area, particularly from archaeological sources (see below, p.19). Map and other sources indicated that the most prominent features of the medieval and post-medieval landscapes of Sutton Chase were areas of land which were unenclosed common waste and parks, and settlement in the form of hamlets and isolated individual settlements, some of them moated. This thesis aims to trace the development of each of these features, and to attempt to explain this development by comparison with that observed in the surrounding region and elsewhere in the country. Archaeological, documentary and environmental evidence has been employed, and the relative value of each source in such a study is assessed. Possible future work on the specific features studied and on the history of the landscape of the whole of Sutton Chase is proposed.

Definition of the study area

The study area is centred on the town of Sutton Coldfield (NGR SP 1396) (fig.1). It is bounded on the south and east by the River Tame, on the north by the Bourne Brook, and on the west by the Footherley Brook, Barr Beacon ridge (along National Grid Easting 406), and Barr Brook. The total area of the region thus defined is about 173 square kilometres.

The study area includes parts of the pre-1974 counties of Warwickshire and Staffordshire. It includes the whole of the Warwickshire parishes of Sutton Coldfield, Curdworth, Lea Marston, Wishaw and Middleton, parts of the Warwickshire parishes of Aston (Erdington and Witton townships) and Kingsbury, the whole of the Staffordshire parish of Drayton Bassett and parts of the Staffordshire parishes of Handsworth (Perry Barr township), Great Barr, Hints, Shenstone and Weeford (fig.2). These are now included in the post-1974 counties of

Staffordshire (Lichfield District), Warwickshire (North Warwickshire District) and West Midlands (Birmingham and Walsall Districts) (fig.3).

The study area corresponds to the former Sutton Chase, a hunting reserve of the Earls of Warwick (fig.4) as defined by Midgley (map in Midgley 1904). In 1126-27 the Chase extended from Tame to Bourne (Dugdale 1730, 909-10). The only known perambulation of the bounds was in 1309-10 (Dugdale 1730, 910), and this was used by Midgley for his map, but a detailed consideration of the boundary points suggests that the Chase extended further west, beyond Barr Beacon. The perambulation lists points anticlockwise around the boundary, but not all of these can now be identified. The boundary started at the source of the Bourne Brook (Bourne Vale, SP 067995) in the north-west. It then went via Boltestile (Bosty Lane, SP 054995, Duignan 1902, 22) and the unlocated *Tindithoc* and *Mosewall* to the Holebrook. From here the boundary followed the River Tame east to Wolford brugge, probably Holford (SP 071919), then to Schrafford brugge (Salford Bridge, SP 095901) and went via Wyford, possibly Weeford, to the Bourne source. A perambulation of the bounds of the adjoining Cannock Forest in 1286 (Pleas of the Forest, 166) indicates the northern and western limits of Sutton Chase. The relevant part of the boundary of Cannock Forest ran north along the Holebrook from its confluence with the River Tame to the vill of Waleshale (Walsall) then to le Boltestile and to the source of the Bourne Brook. It then followed the Bourne to 'the high road near Drayton Park' (the present A453 at SK 175017) and followed the northern boundary of Drayton Park, near *Watlingstrete* (Watling Street, the present A5) to the River Tame.

The boundaries of Sutton Chase are further confirmed by consideration of the places in which Chase law was enforced in the 13th and early 14th centuries. The Chase included Shenstone Park (Shaw 1798, II, 43), Little Aston (Shenstone Charters, 254), Weeford Park (Shaw 1798, II, 23), Hints (Ass.R.St. 1291; Harwood 1844, 565), Drayton Park (FFW, 1203), Middleton (IPM 1292; P.R.St. 1248), Little Barr (Dugdale 1730, 911), Peddimore (Dugdale 1730, 924) and Dunton (Dugdale 1730, 933).

Definition of study period

The period under review extends from the mesolithic to c.1790 AD. The terminal date has been chosen for two reasons. First, the landscape of this period is depicted in some detail on the maps of Staffordshire (published 1798) and Warwickshire (published 1793) by William Yates and son. These maps were compiled from surveys of 1769-75 and 1787-89 respectively, and are at a scale of one inch to one mile. Additional details are obtainable from the 1817 Ordnance Survey map at a scale of two inches to one mile and the Greenwood's map of Warwickshire of 1820 (one inch to one mile) (table 6). Second, land enclosure by Act of Parliament occurred in much of the study area in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, resulting in a major change in the landscape. Enclosure Acts were passed for Dunton and Lea Marston in 1775, Great Barr in 1795, and for Shenstone, Perry Barr, Erdington, Curdworth and Sutton Coldfield in the early 19th century (Tate 1942; 1949).

Organisation of this thesis

This thesis is divided into three parts; Part One discusses the physical background of the area and the methods and sources used, Part Two deals with the features of the landscape under consideration parish by parish, and in Part Three methods are assessed, the results from the study area are considered in their wider context, factors influencing the development of the study area are discussed, and possible future work is proposed.

All of the figures are at the back of the thesis and are numbered but not paginated.

THE PHYSICAL BACKGROUND AND DEFINITION OF PHYSICAL REGIONS

Warwick (1950) used relief and structure to define physiographic regions in the Birmingham area. In the present study area he used the 400ft (122m) contour, the Birmingham-Hints fault, and the Barr Beacon fault, to define four regions. The Sutton Plateau, region Ia 3, is in the west, bounded by the 400ft contour on the north, east and south, and on the west by the Barr Beacon ridge. Region IIc 3 is the Shenstone Basin in the north, bounded by the 400ft contour, and the Tame Valley is divided into IIc 2, the mid-Tame, in the south of the study area, and IIc 2, the lower Tame, in the east.

Relief, drainage, climate, geology and soils are described here. Warwick's divisions have been refined by the definition of smaller physical regions in the study area (fig. 12).

The altitude of the study area (fig.5) rises from 200ft (6lm) OD at the confluence of the Bourne Brook and the River Tame in the north-east to 744ft (227m) OD at Barr Beacon on its western edge. The following relief divisions are based on the Ordnance Survey contours and field observation during this study.

South and East: Height range 200-400ft (61-122m). Undulating, gently sloping to River Tame.

North-West: Height range 300-400ft (91-122m). Slopes to Bourne Brook and contains isolated rise to over 400ft in centre. Warwick's 'Shenstone Basin'.

Centre: Height range 400-500ft (122-152m). Strip north-east to south-west, steeper slopes with deeply incised valleys.

North (Weeford Hills): Height range 300-500ft (91-152m). Undulating, with steep slopes.

West (Barr Beacon ridge): Height range 500-744ft (152-227m). North-south ridge, with steep slopes to north-east, east and south-east, broken by steep-sided dry valleys.

All drainage in the study area (fig.5) is into the River Tame. There are two main watersheds, the Barr Beacon ridge in the west and the north-south ridge across the centre of the area. The contrast between the amount of surface water in the south and east and that in the north and west is particularly noticeable and is a result of geological factors (see below).

The River Tame flows in a broad assymetrical valley with gentle slopes on the left side (north and west) and steeper on the right (south and east). Similarly, the Bourne Valley is assymetrical, with steep slopes on its right (south) side. The other streams in the study area are often misfit streams occupying a narrow channel in broad gravel-filled floors of deeply-incised valleys, such as Plants Brook and Langley Brook.

Some of the details of the natural drainage pattern are difficult to reconstruct because of human interference, particularly during this century. Railway construction and culverting have resulted in stream diversion, and some streams have been shortened by canal construction. Former courses of the River Tame are indicated by cut-offs and by parish boundaries which were clearly laid out in relation to an earlier course. The drainage pattern on the map (fig.5) was derived initially from recent Ordnance Survey maps and shows the straightened course of the River Tame in the south. Pools and lakes in the study area have been omitted since they are all artificial. Where streams have been shortened, their original course has been derived from the First Edition one inch to one mile Ordnance Survey map.

There are slight climatic differences across the study area as a result of relief. Average annual rainfall on Barr Beacon in the west is 28 to 29 inches, while the Tame Valley in the east and south receives less than 25 inches (Saward 1950, fig.13 p.49).

In considering the geology of the study area (Fig.6) in the context of human activity the chemical and physical properties of the surface deposits, *i.e.* their influence on soil formation and their potential for exploitation, are more important than details of stratigraphy and

structure, which are not discussed here. The following description is based on the account of Hains and Horton (1969) with additional material from field observation, so references are given only where other sources have been consulted. The names of formations are those used by Hains and Horton and on the Institute of Geological Sciences One-Inch maps sheets 154 and 168. A revised nomenclature has been proposed, for the Triassic formations, to replace the terms 'Bunter' and 'Keuper' (Warrington *et al.* 1980). The former 'Bunter Pebble Beds' and 'Keuper Sandstone' now belong to the Sherwood Sandstone Group, and 'Keuper Marl' and 'Arden Sandstone' to the Mercia Mudstone Group. In the study area, the 'Bunter Pebble Beds' are now part of the Cannock Chase Formation, and 'Keuper Sandstone' is part of the Bromsgrove Sandstone Formation. The Arden Sandstone Member is the only distinctive unit so far recognised in the Mercia Mudstone Group.

Red Marl (Enville Beds, Carboniferous): There are only small outcrops, in Weeford in the north (SK 1401) and in the northern part of Sutton Park, around the upper reaches of Plants Brook (SP 0998).

Hopwas Breccia (probably Permian): A conglomerate of angular pebbles. The main outcrop is in the northern part of the study area, north of Sutton Park (SP 1199).

Bunter Pebble Beds (Triassic): A conglomerate consisting of coarse-grained red-brown sandstone with well-rounded pebbles, 0.7 to 23cm in diameter, scattered or in layers or lenses. The main outcrops are in the north and west (areas SK 1202 and SP 0795).

Keuper Sandstone (**Triassic**): A medium to fine-grained red, buff or brown sandstone. The main outcrops are in the centre of the study area, underlying and to the north of the town of Sutton Coldfield (SP 1296) and in the Shenstone Basin in the north (SK 1003).

Keuper Marl (Triassic): Brown mudstones and silty mudstones, with bands of sandstone and siltstone. Keuper Marl crops out over most of the eastern part of the study area, but some of the deposits marked as Keuper Marl on the Geological Survey Map have been shown to be clayey drift with pebbles (Shotton 1956); Keuper Marl is stone-free. The chemical and physical properties of this drift are however identical to those of Keuper Marl in situ (F.W.Shotton, pers. comm.).

Arden Sandstone (Triassic): This is contained within the upper part of the Keuper Marl, and consists of thin grey sandstones and blue-grey shales. There are two outcrops, at Grove End (SP 1695) and around Wiggins Hill (SP 1693), both in the south-east.

Drift deposits: Much of the study area is covered by glacial drift deposits of varying thickness which have had an important influence on relief and soils. The drifts in the study area are not yet wholly understood (F.W.Shotton, pers. comm.), but are predominantly boulder clay (Shotton 1938, 185). The Geological Survey divides the drifts into 'boulder clay', or unstratified, and 'sands and gravels', or stratified. Mackney and Burnham (1964) distinguish coarse-textured drifts in the north and east, and fine-textured in the south and west. Much of the drift is derived from the deposits it overlies, and has the same properties. In Sutton Park, for instance, pebbly drift overlies Bunter Pebble Beds, and the two are virtually indistinguishable in a section near Keeper's Pool (SP 107965). The Keuper Marl drifts, mentioned above, are frequently thin, pebbly and sandy, as at New Hall (SP 132948), and drift of this type occurs over much of the study area. In several places flint is included in the drift; it has been recorded in drift elsewhere in the Birmingham region (Auden 1913, 10; Curtis et al. 1976, 130).

River Terraces: The Geological Survey recognised a single terrace in each of the valleys of the River Tame, Bourne Brook and Longmoor Brook. A second, upper, terrace of the Tame was found by Shotton (1956) in Lea Marston parish in the south-eastern corner of the study area, and termed the Hams Hall Terrace (SP 2092). Both upper and lower terraces extend along much of the Tame Valley, but the Bourne Brook and Longmoor Brook each possess only a single terrace. In each case the terrace is above the floodplain in the upper reaches of the stream only.

Peat: The only peat deposits marked on the Geological Survey Map are those around the Aston Brook, a tributary of the Bourne, in the north-west, but there is also peat in the valley of the Footherly Brook, in Sutton Park, and around New Hall (below, p.91).

Three broad geological divisions of the study area may thus be defined:

Pebbles and Sands: Hopwas Breccia, Bunter Pebble Beds, Keuper Sandstone, river

terraces. West, centre and Tame Valley.

Clays: Keuper Marl and its derived drifts. South-east.

Undefined drifts: North-east

Soil types in the study area and their agricultural potential have been described by observers from the 16th to 19th centuries and more recently in the Soil Survey of England and Wales and the Agricultural Land Classification. In addition, I recorded soil textures during my fieldwalking.

The comments of early writers are particularly valuable in this study because they record perceptions of the agricultural value of the land in a period before mechanised farming, and provide assessments of the soil in those parts of the study area which are now built-up and therefore not included in recent surveys (fig.7). The 16th and 17th century writers Leland (V, 98) Camden (I, 609) and Dugdale (II, 909) all note that the town of Sutton Coldfield stands in a 'barren soil'. Leland's journeys took him along the present A5127 across the centre of the study area, from Salford Bridge on the Tame in the south to Shenstone on the Bourne in the north, and along the present A4091 and A446 in the east, past Middleton. On the first of these routes he described the soil as dry and sandy and more suited to woodland and pasture than wheat (Leland, V, 97,99). 'Agricola' (1762) noted the contrast between soils in different parts of Sutton Coldfield parish. In the north and west the soils were partly sandy and partly gravelly, but in the south they were 'tolerably rich and loamy, inclining to marl'. The soil map of Pitt (1794) classified all of that part of the study area in Staffordshire as 'light soil'. He described the area as one of light soil or sandy and gravelly loam (1817, 34). Wedge (1794, 38) says that the soils of the greater part of the wastes to the west and east of the town of Sutton Coldfield were a 'hungry sand and gravel'. Murray (1813, 18) defined three soil zones for the Warwickshire part of the study area. The soil of the extreme east, extending along and up to 2km away from the River Tame, was described as a 'dry sharp gravel' which was 'white, sandy and moorish', clearly a podzol. In the southernmost part, alongside and to the north of the Tame, the soil was a 'good red clay loam'. He described the soil of the remainder of the study area as 'very poor and moorish'. The soils of the Great Barr and Erdington areas, in the west and south-west of the study area, were under cultivation in 1913, but they were considered poor soils (Humphreys *et al.* 1913, 456).

At fieldwalking sites, the soils were recorded as 'sandy' or 'clayey' (fig.8). The sites in the western part of the study area are mainly sandy soils, and those in the east are mainly clayey soils. The extreme east has sandy soils, and in the centre of the eastern part is an area of mixed soils.

In the Soil Survey of England and Wales a reconnaisance survey of the soils of the whole of the study area has been completed with the exception of the built-up areas of the south, southwest and centre (Soil Survey 1983; fig.9). Detailed survey of the study area has so far been completed only for the part north of National Grid Northing 300, and for Sutton Park. Soil textures have been recorded at sample sites in the Curdworth, Wishaw and Middleton areas (fig. 8).

The soils of the west and north of the study area are predominantly brown soils. These are well-drained sandy and coarse loamy soils, mainly on permeable materials. They have reddish or brownish subsurface horizons with no prominent gleying.

- 541 Typical brown earths
 - 541b (Bromsgrove series) well-drained coarse loamy.
 - 541r (Wick series) well-drained sandy and coarse loamy.
- 543 gleyic brown earths
 - 543 (Arrow series)
- Typical brown sands non-calcareous sandy soils with risk of wind erosion.
 551a (Bridgnorth series) well-drained sandy and coarse loamy.

- 551g (Newport series) well-drained sandy soils, including some very acid soils with bleached subsurface horizons.
- 572 Stagnogleyic argillic brown earths subsurface horizon shows significant clay enrichment.

572f (Whimple 3 series) slowly permeable subsoils and slight seasonal waterlogging.

In the east, the soils are mainly stagnogleys (surface-water gleys). These are seasonally-waterlogged, slowly permeable soils which are prominently mottled above a depth of 40cm.

711 - typical stagnogleys

711b (Brockhurst 1 series) fine loamy over clay

711c (Brockhurst 2 series) fine loamy or clayey over clay

711n (Clifton series) fine and coarse loamy.

The valley floors of the Tame and its tributaries contain ground-water gleys. These are normally within or over permeable materials, and have prominently mottled or uniformly grey subsoils resulting from periodic waterlogging by a fluctuating groundwater table.

- Pelo-alluvial gley soils developed in loamy or clayey alluvium.
 813e (Compton series) stoneless reddish clayey.
- 831 Cambic gley soils loamy or clayey
 831c (Wigton Moor series) permeable fine and coarse loamy.
- 861 Humic-sandy gleys Sandy gleys with humose or peaty topsoil. Occupy lowlying sites or depressions and are intermediate between cambic and argillic gley soils and peats.
 - 861b (Isleham 2 series) deep permeable sandy and peaty soils affected by groundwater. Hummock and hollow microrelief.

Podzolic soils are recorded in parts of the north and west of the study area.

631 - Humo-ferric podzols - well-drained soils with black or dark brown compact subsurface horizon enriched in humus and normally overlain by a 'bleached' layer,

but with no greyish or mottled (gleyed) horizon immediately below.

631e (Goldstone series) very acid, very stony sandy soils over conglomerate and sandstone.

The parts of the detailed survey (Soil Survey unpub.) considered in this study are Hillwood Common, Weeford Hill, Little Aston Park, Weeford Park, Canwell, Little Aston, Footherley, Woodend, Little Hay, Bangley Park, Drayton Park, and Shirral Park (fig. 8). Details of the soils of these areas are included in the relevant chapters below. A clear division is apparent between the soils of the north-west and north-east, running through Canwell. In the north-west the soils are moderately stony sandy loams and loamy sands developed on drift over Hopwas Breccia, Bunter Pebble Beds and Keuper Sandstone. They are predominantly brown soils, including brown sands which are reclaimed podzols, *i.e.* they have bleached sand grains in the Ap horizon. There are some brown podzolic and humo-ferric podzols in well-drained locations and sandy ground-water gleys in valley bottoms. In the north-east the soils are clay loams developed on clayey and loamy drift over Keuper Marl. They are predominantly stagnogleys. The sample sites surveyed in the east of the study area revealed sandy loams in the south-east, clay loams and sandy loams in the centre, and sandy clay loams in the north. In Sutton Park (Mackney 1971) the soils are mainly brown sands, podzolised brown sands, and humus-iron podzols. There are peaty gleys in lower lying areas.

In summary, the western part of the study area has sandy soils, generally brown soils but podzolised where they are freely drained. In the east, there are both sandy and clayey soils, all generally stagnogleys due to the slow permeability of Keuper Marl and clayey drifts derived from it.

The Agricultural Land Classification considers soil, climate and relief. In the Agricultural Land Classification maps covering the study area (sheets 120 and 131) and their accompanying reports (MAFF 1969; 1972) there are five grades of descending agricultural potential, of

which grade 5 is not represented in the study area. Large parts of the study area are not graded because they are built-up or not under agricultural use; the latter category includes the large area of Sutton Park. The classification can however be extended to these areas on the basis of their surface geology and relief.

Grade 1 land has few or no limitations to agricultural use, and a wide range of crops can be grown on it, with high yields. Grade 2 land has minor physical limitations to agricultural use, connected with soil texture, depth or drainage, climate, or slopes, which hinder cultivation or harvesting and result in lower yields or restrict the range of crops grown. Grade 3 land has moderate limitations due to soil, relief or climate. The range of crops is restricted, and the principal crops are grass and cereals. Grade 4 land has severe physical limitations. A high proportion is under grass, and there are occasional fields of oats, barley or forage crops.

In the study area (fig. 10) there are small patches of grade 1 land in an area mapped as grade 2 land south of Shenstone, in the north (SK 1003). The grade 2 land here is on Keuper Sandstone, and covers an area of $c.4 \text{ km}^2$. It is only excluded from grade 1 because of a slight variability in the available water capacity. Grade 2 land is also found on limited outcrops of Upper Coal Measures, such as those east of Weeford Park (SK 1401) (MAFF 1972, 13). The grade 2 land in the eastern part of the study area is on sandy, pebbly glacial drift over Keuper Marl. It covers an area of $c.4 \text{ km}^2$ around Wishaw church (SP 1894) in the southeast, an area of $c.2 \text{ km}^2$ north of Middleton village (SP 1798) and an area of $c.1 \text{ km}^2$ west and north-west of Drayton Bassett village (SP 1800), both in the north-east of the study area (MAFF 1969, 11; 1972, 14).

Most of the study area is classified as grade 3 land. This grade was divided into upper, middle and lower divisions in the MAFF reports. Land high in grade 3 occurs on water-retentive Keuper Marl in the east of the study area, for example north of Curdworth (MAFF 1969, 14). On Bunter Pebble Beds, where slopes are moderately steep or the topography is broken, as

around Weeford in the north of the study area and Barr Beacon in the west, soils are sandy, pebbly and free-draining, and readily dry out where they are shallow. This land is in the middle and lower parts of grade 3, according to soil depth (MAFF 1972, 16). The land classified as grade 4 is poorly drained and seasonally waterlogged. It includes alluvium, peat and river terraces.

The Land Use Capability Classification of the Soil Survey (Bibby and Mackney 1969) grades land into seven classes according to its potentialities and the severity of its limitations for crop growth. Classes 1 to 4 correspond to grades 1 to 4 respectively of the Agricultural Land Classification. Subclasses identify the limiting factor or factors determining the classification of a particular piece of land. These are wetness (w), soil limitations (s), gradient (g), climate (c) and erosion (e). Wetness may be due to slowly permeable fine-textured soils, impermeable layers, a high water-table, or flooding. Soil limitations include stoniness, shallowness and poor soil structure or texture which result in a variability in the available water capacity. Gradient limitations are mainly associated with mechanised farming. Erosion can be by water or wind; it is particularly marked on soils loosened by cultivation or trampling animals on slopes.

The dominant limiting factors under the Land Use Capability Classification may be deduced from relief, drainage, climate, geology and field observation. The grade 2 land, in the north and south-east of the study area is mostly 2s, since the soils are sandy and sometimes stony. The grade 3 land in the west has soil, gradient and climatic limitations. The soils are sandy and stony. There are some steep slopes (above p.8) and because of its location and greater altitude this region receives slightly more rainfall than the rest of the study area. The grade 3 land in the east of the study area may be defined as 3w, because of seasonal waterlogging. The grade 4 land is 4w because it is low lying land adjacent to streams which is subject to seasonal waterlogging.

The present land use (fig.11) is considered here because it is a factor which influences the type of evidence available for the study of past human activity. Broad divisions can again be made. The main built-up part is the centre and south, occupying about 40% of the study area. Agricultural land is concentrated in the east and north but there are also small areas of agricultural land within the built-up area, together with public open spaces such as Sutton Park and Barr Beacon. The agricultural part of the study area also contains sand and gravel pits exploiting drift deposits at Weeford in the north, and gravel pits along the Tame terrace in the east.

The physical regions defined here (fig.12) are subdivisions of those defined by Warwick, and consider relief, topography, geology, soils and present land use. They can be grouped into a lowland (regions 1 to 4) and an upland (regions 5 to 7), divided by the 400ft (122m) contour, on the line of the Birmingham-Hints Fault.

- Region 1: East and south, floor and terraces of Tame Valley. Flat or gently sloping.

 Low annual rainfall. Terrace gravels, alluvium and peat. Ground-water gleys.

 Grades 3w and 4w land. Eastern part agricultural, southern part built-up.
- Region 2: South and east. Undulating, gentle slopes. Keuper Marl and derived fine-textured drifts. Sandy loam and clayey loam; gleyic brown earths and stagnogleys. Grade 3w, some grade 2 land. Western part built-up, eastern agricultural.
- Region 3: North-east. Undulating. Extensive drift cover, of coarse-textured drift. Sandy and clayey loams; stagnogleys. Grade 3w and 2 land. Mainly agricultural.
- Region 4: Shenstone Basin. Keuper Sandstone. Sandy loam; brown sands and humoferric podzols. Mainly grade 2s land, mainly agricultural.
- Region 5: Sutton Ridge. Steeper slopes, Keuper Sandstone, Bunter Pebble Beds and Hopwas Breccia. Sandy and pebbly free-draining soils; brown sands and podzols. Grade 3s land. Mainly built-up, except for Sutton Park.
- Region 6: Barr Beacon Ridge. Steep slopes, high rainfall, little surface water. Bunter Pebble Beds. Sandy and pebbly soils, humo-ferric podzols. Grade 3s land.

Region 7: Weeford and Hints hills: Irregular, hilly. Red Marl, Hopwas Breccia and Bunter Pebble Beds. Sandy loam, brown sands. Grades 2s and 3s land, mainly agricultural.

CHAPTER TWO: Methodology

METHODOLOGY - Introduction

Similar work to the present study has been done in several places elsewhere in Britain, but there has been much variation in the size and reasons for selection of the areas covered, the timespan covered, and the methods used. Eight published such studies are those of Launditch Hundred in Norfolk (Wade-Martins 1971; 1975; 1980b), the Nene-Ouse valleys (Hall and Hutchings 1972), the Vale of Belvoir (Hills and Liddon 1982), Chalton in Hampshire (Cunliffe 1973a), Wharram Percy in East Yorkshire (Hurst 1981), Whiteparish in Wiltshire (Taylor 1967), Great Doddington in Northamptonshire (Foard 1976), and waste land in Sussex (Brandon 1963).

The Nene-Ouse survey included several parishes, while the Wharram Percy project, in addition to excavation and survey at the deserted village site of Wharram itself, includes a study of the landscape of the parishes of Wharram Percy and Wharram le Street. At each of Whiteparish and Great Doddington a single parish only was considered, and at Chalton the parish was rationalised to a rectangular area. In the Vale of Belvoir, nine parishes which formed a transect across the Vale were selected for study (Hills and Liddon 1982, 13). In the Norfolk and Sussex projects, although the study areas included several parishes, particular features of the landscape were studied, settlements in the former and wastes in the latter. The Chalton, Wharram Percy, Great Doddington, Vale of Belvoir and Nene-Ouse studies were not chronologically restricted, but the remainder were concerned with particular periods only. In Norfolk the chronological range was late Roman to late medieval, in Sussex medieval only, and at Whiteparish late Saxon to the present. Both field archaeology and documentary research were used in Norfolk, the Vale of Belvoir, the Nene-Ouse valleys and Chalton, but the Sussex study used documentary evidence alone, and field archaeology was the main method employed At Wharram Percy air photography, geophysical survey and at Great Doddington. fieldwalking were used.

Work of a similar character in the vicinity of Sutton Chase is also diverse in its scope. The most comprehensive studies are the intensive surveys of the parish of Hanbury, Worcestershire, using documents and field archaeology (Bassett and Dyer 1980; 1981), of part of the Tame valley north of Sutton Chase, using archaeological, documentary, cartographic and botanical evidence, but excluding standing buildings (Smith 1977a; 1980), and of the Arrow Valley in Warwickshire, again using documentary and archaeological evidence (e.g. Hooke 1981). None of these studies was chronologically restricted, but other studies of this type in the area have been restricted to particular periods or have used either documentary or archaeological evidence only. Ford (1973) for example, used both types of evidence in his study of the central Avon valley in Warwickshire, but he was concerned mainly with the medieval period, and Roberts (1965) based his study of medieval settlement around Tanworth-in-Arden on a group of documents.

Three previous studies have included parts of the present study area. Hebden's (1963) study of Aldridge, Shenstone and Great Barr was largely historical, and Gould (1980) similarly traced the development of settlement and land-use in Aldridge and Great Barr from a mainly historical viewpoint, but included a brief review of the existing archaeological evidence and undertook some counting of species in hedges. I have summarised the existing archaeological evidence for Sutton Coldfield parish (Hodder 1977). Previous archaeological work is summarised below (table 1 and fig. 13); it is predominantly fieldwork rather than excavation, and has been concerned with individual sites or types of site rather than with areas.

A number of different methods and sources have been employed to varying degrees in this study. This chapter examines the principles and applications of the methods and sources used.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN SUTTON CHASE BEFORE OCTOBER 1979

Table 1:

Publication or other source	Whiston 1959	Hodder 1977	Hodder 1977; 1978	Hodder 1980	Hodder 1977	Hodder 1977	Hodder 1977	Unpub; pers. comm. C. J. Bond	Unpub.	Hodder 1977	Spolton 1977
Brief description	Line of Roman Road from Streetly to Wall traced	Detailed recording of Roman Road in Sutton Park	Plan and profiles of earthworks	Earthwork boundaries traced and recorded	Line of Roman Road traced	Survey of site	Survey of moated site	Survey of earthworks	Earthwork recorded	Survey of moated site	Survey of moated site and
Person and year of work	J. Whiston 1957	M. Hodder 1977	M. Hodder 1977	M. Hodder 1977-79	M. Hodder 1977	M. Hodder 1977	M. Hodder 1977	C. J. Bond 1969	M. Hodder 1979	M. Hodder 1977	D. Spolton 1977
Site name	Ryknild Street	Ryknild Street	Ancient Encampment, Sutton Park	Earthwork enclosures, Sutton Park	Ryknild Street, Banners Gate	Sutton Coldfield Manor House	Langley Hall	Wishaw Hall Farm	Gibbet Hill Wood	The Hermitage	Peddimore Hall
No. on Map	1	2	m	. 4	5.	.9	7.	∞	.6	10.	11.

No. on Map	Site name	Person and year of work	Brief description	Publication or other source
12.	Wiggins Hill	C.J. Bond 1969	Survey of earthworks	Unpub.; pers. comm. C. J. Bond
13.	Sutton Coldfield Eastern Bypass	Sutton Coldfield Archaeol. Soc. 1972	Earthworks recorded	Unpub.; pers. comm. A. Saville
14.	Newhouse Farm	Birmingham Univ. Archaeol. Soc.1976-77	Fieldwalking produced Mesolithic flints from gravel terrace	Sheen n.d.
15.	Canwell Park	J. Gould 1972	Fieldwalking produced flint scraper and Roman pottery	Gould 1974
16.	Bullocks End Farm	J. Gould 1972	Fieldwalking produced Roman pottery	Unpub.; pers. comm. J. Gould
17.	Alder Wood	J. Gould 1972	Fieldwalking produced iron slag	Unpub.; pers. comm. J. Gould
18.	Sutton Coldfield Eastern Bypass	Sutton Coldfield Archaeol. Soc. 1972	Fieldwalking produced post-medieval pottery	Unpub.; pers. comm. A. Saville, J. Harrison
19.	Ryknild Street	D. Symons 1979	Observation of drain trench through Roman Road in Sutton Park	Symons 1980
20.	Holy Trinity Church Sutton Coldfield	A.Round 1976	Observation of earthmoving operations on edge of graveyard	BMR

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Publication or other source	BMR	Gould 1959	Bullows 1930	(i) Bracken 1860, 5 (ii) Walker 1940, 53	Bracken 1860, 118	Unpub.; pers. comm. G. Semmens and BMR	Unpub.; pers. comm. D. Lewis	Unpub.; pers. comm. A. Sheen	Lamb 1976	BMR	Unpub.; pers. comm. J. Harrison	Taylor 1973	
Brief description	Observation of earthmoving operations on site of chance find of Roman coins	Cropmark trenched	Partial excavation of burnt mounds	Trenches across Roman Road in Sutton Park	Trenches across mound	Excavation of site of demolished farmhouse	Excavation of site of deserted settlement	Trial excavation of flint scatter	Excavation of site of 17th century cottage	Trench across cropmark site	Salvage recording after demolition of house	Excavation of timber hut	
Person and year of work	A. Round 1972	J. Gould 1959	W. Bullows 1926	(i) Anon., pre-1860 (ii) B. Walker 1936	Anon, 1959	G. Semmens 1975	Deeley 1974	Birmingham Univ. Archaeol. Soc. 1977	R. Lamb 1975	1972	Sutton Coldfield Civic Soc. 1958	G. Taylor 1960	
Site name	Romans Field	Loaches Banks	Burnt mounds, Sutton Park	Ryknild Street	Barrow, Sutton Park	Booth's Farm	Littleworth End	Newhouse Farm	Leaford Cottage	Walmley Ash	Vesey cottage, Little Sutton Road	Greenside Road	
No. on Map	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	32.	

ARCHAEOLOGICAL METHODS: Fieldwalking

Fieldwalking may be defined as the systematic collection of artifacts from the surface of disturbed ground, usually a ploughed field. Fieldwalking was the main archaeological method I used in this study, because there is much arable land in the study area, and also because the method allows rapid coverage of a large area with low manpower requirements and can be done by one person. The usefulness of fieldwalking in the survey of a large area was tested, and the results were compared with those obtained from other archaeological and documentary sources. I spent a total of 119 days fieldwalking between March 1980 and November 1981. In addition I tried collection of artifacts from cultivated garden surfaces (below, p.44). In Somerset, Burrow (1981, 140) collected pottery from areas trampled by cattle in present pasture outside Cannington hillfort, but I did not attempt collection from pasture in Sutton Chase.

The type, quantity and condition of material recovered in fieldwalking is determined by what is present on the site, soil type, physical, chemical and biological weathering, weather and cultivation conditions at the time of fieldwalking, and the fieldwalking methods employed. Coles' expression of the survival of material and its recovery by excavation (Coles 1972, 235) can be modified to apply to fieldwalking as follows:

Total evidence > evidence incorporated into ploughsoil > surviving evidence in ploughsoil > observed and collected evidence > understood evidence.

The proportions of different material present affect what is observed and recovered. Rarer material may be less easily seen, but some rare objects may be particularly conspicuous. Hurst (1981, 246) mentions the difficulty experienced in detecting Saxon pottery on a site with plentiful Roman pottery, and in the present study many sites had surface scatters of post-

medieval pottery in such quantities that medieval and earlier material was not easily noticed. The condition and size of artifacts in the ploughsoil is partly the result of the condition in which they were initially deposited on the site, and partly the result of weathering of various forms after deposition.

The incorporation of material into the ploughsoil is dependent on the archaeological characteristics of the site, the topography of the site, and the depth of plough penetration. Artifacts may have been originally deposited on the surface, or below the surface in negative features of varying depth. Only the upper parts of the fills of deeper features, and only the upper layers of a stratified accumulation, may be reached by the plough, and the artifacts incorporated into the ploughsoil may be mainly from the later phases of the site's history, with some residual material from earlier periods.

The effect of ploughing on a slope is to move soil, and any artifacts contained it it, down the slope. A colluvial deposit is formed at the slope base or in hollows, and a lynchet is formed if there is a barrier against which loosened soil can accumulate. Where archaeological features are on a slope, initial ploughing incorporates artifacts from all features into the ploughsoil, but after continued ploughing features at the base of the slope will be protected from further plough penetration while features in the upper part of the slope will be penetrated more deeply and artifacts from progressively lower in their fills will be incorporated into the ploughsoil (fig.14).

The usually well-aerated condition of a ploughsoil means that, other than bone and charred material, it contains only inorganic material, objects of fired clay, stone, or metal, but these are not equally well preserved. Metal objects may be corroded to the extent that only an undateable amorphous mass remains. The preservation of pottery is dependent on the quality of its manufacture. Whereas sherds of well-fired pottery of Roman, medieval or post-medieval date may be slightly more fragmented by post-depositional weathering processes, more poorly-fired prehistoric and early Saxon wares may be broken down by weathering into a powder

representing the clay, and lumps of filler. Bowen (1980b) has noted that continual ploughing seems to destroy most prehistoric pottery incorporated into the ploughsoil. In fieldwalking in the Tame Valley, Smith (1977a, 165; 1977b, 55) found only a few sherds of prehistoric pottery. He attributed this to manufacturing methods, age and rarity. The pottery is handmade and, because it was fired at a low temperature, soft and friable. It has been exposed to weathering longer than the pottery of later dates, and pottery was relatively rare in prehistory compared with its abundance in later periods. In east Hampshire, only one field of those walked produced more than one or two sherds of prehistoric pottery, and this was a field covered more intensively than the others as part of a fieldwalking experiment (Shennan 1985, Shennan considered (ibid., 76) that since the prehistoric pot he recovered by 75). fieldwalking was so friable, its survival in the ploughsoil for over 2000 years was unlikely, and those sherds recovered were probably derived from the fills of negative features disturbed by ploughing relatively recently. Reynolds (1978, 148-150) showed by experiment that Bronze Age sherds decreased in size by an average of 60% after 10 years under modern cultivation. In the Arrow Valley, Hooke (1981, 27-28) found little prehistoric or Roman material, and attributed this to masking by alluvial and colluvial deposits, as discussed above (p.25). Taylor (1983b, 117) reports that Saxon pottery was only found by fieldwalking in Essex when the worker 'walked' on his knees.

The observation and collection of material is determined by soil type, weather and cultivation conditions, and by methods of collection. The texture, structure and colour of the soil influence the quantity and type of material observed. A sandy soil is well broken up by a single ploughing, and subsequent rain will wash it from artifacts, whereas a clay remains in clods even after drilling and still clings to objects after rain. Clods may however be broken up by frost weathering. Stones cause glare in relatively little sunshine and may distract the eye from artifacts. The problems of a stony soil have been noted by Foard (1976, 10). However the extent to which stones have been washed clean of soil is a useful indication of how well artifacts will be observed. The soil structure may also be important. A well-structured sandy

soil may conceal artifacts more than a poorly-structured one, and a well-structured clay may render artifacts more easily visible than a poorly-structured one. The soil colour is the background against which material is observed, and will vary with moisture content. A dark, damp soil probably provides the best background for most material. Woodward (1978, 39) suggests that, in dry conditions, pottery may be seen more easily than flint. The colours of the sherds of pottery observed depend on the colour of the soil background. In general, lighter colours, particularly white and cream, contrast most with the colour of the soil and are more readily seen than browns and greys, hence in Sutton Chase the most common Romano-British pottery type recovered was mortarium and the most common medieval fabric was white or buff ware (below, pp.73, 75). In the eastern part of the study area, the soils are derived from reddish-brown parent materials, thus orange and brown pottery is not easily seen.

The soil surface must be disturbed to bring artifacts to the surface, and the degree of cultivation affects observation and recovery. Ploughing alone, except in very sandy soils, breaks the soil into clods. Artifacts may be concealed inside the clods or may fall into crevices between them. The surface is still partially obscured by stubble and weeds at this stage. In subsequent harrowing the soil is broken up into smaller lumps, and the crop is then drilled. By this time soil has been washed off artifacts by rain. According to Smith (1977a, 150) the most suitable period for fieldwalking is when the crop is just beginning to sprout, since then the ploughsoil has received the maximum amount of weathering and the crop is not too high either to obscure the surface or to be damaged by trampling. However in Sutton Chase I found that permission for fieldwalking was not normally granted once the crop had started to sprout, and the best conditions that could be obtained were after drilling or after harrowing. Ridges for potatoes could however be walked after the crop had been planted and was growing. The ridges provided an increased surface area but were difficult to walk if furrows were narrow. In addition the fieldwalking season was considerably lengthened, since potato ridges could be walked when cereals were growing.

Smith (1977a, 150) says that the worst time for fieldwalking is immediately after ploughing or

in stubble, but in Sutton Chase I walked stubble at Langley Hall (below, p.255) and Weeford Stockfields (below, p.176) and found that the soil could be well-weathered in such conditions and the surface not very much obscured. A problem that does not seem to have been considered previously is the obscuring of the surface by fallen leaves if the field is surrounded by trees. This is obviously particularly apparent when fieldwalking is done in autumn after cultivation in preparation for winter cereals.

Soil moisture and illumination of the surface are determined by weather conditions before and during fieldwalking. Rain washes soil off artifacts, and darkens the colour of the soil surface. I found that dull conditions are the most suitable for observation of pottery, and hazy, diffuse sunshine for observation of flint. However Shennan (1985, 39) from a statistical analysis of potential distorting factors in material recovered by fieldwalking in east Hampshire, suggests that Roman pottery is more likely to be recovered in sunlight or shadows than in even light. A brighter sun produces a glare off soil surfaces, particularly if the soil is stony, and shadows in furrows. The latter effect is particularly marked by the low angle of sunlight in autumn to spring, the main fieldwalking season. Short days during this period reduce the hours of adequate light for fieldwalking.

In Sutton Chase the soil type, and the weather conditions and cultivation conditions at the time of, and immediately preceding, fieldwalking were recorded by a written description. The conditions for each site walked are described in the catalogues at the ends of chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6. The problems of quantification of the material collected are discussed below (pp.34-39). It is difficult to assess the effect of different conditions on different sites because the proportion of material contained in the ploughsoil which is actually observed is unknown. An analysis was however made of the recovery of flint in different conditions in the present study (fig.15).

The cultivation conditions probably reflect those under which permission was granted for

fieldwalking rather than those in which flint is best observed. The moisture and lighting conditions are more significant; it is clear that more flints were found when the soil was damp and the sky dull. The soil textures in Sutton Chase were too varied to allow meaningful comparisons. In the Nuneaton area, Warwickshire, flints were concentrated in areas of sandy soil (Saville 1974b, 12, 15; 1981, 61) and at Wellesbourne, also in Warwickshire, most flints were found in the 'lighter', presumably sandier, soils (Fennell 1978, 123). The concentrations observed at both sites may be real concentrations or could indicate that flints are observed more easily in sandy soils.

The main requirements for fieldwalking are that the land be at present arable and that permission be granted by the landowner and tenant. Tracing the owner and tenant of a particular field can be a time-consuming task. It is rare for permission not to be granted provided cultivation conditions are suitable (above, p.27). The two problems I encountered in Sutton Chase were the reservation of fields after ploughing for use by the farmer's family with their metal detectors, and worries that any finds might attract more archaeologists to the field. Few of the farmers showed any real interest in the archaeology of their land; the majority readily granted permission for any archaeological work provided it did not interrupt agricultural operations.

There are three levels of intensity in fieldwalking. At the most intensive level, walking is confined to a single archaeological 'site' whose limits are defined by earthworks or by cropmarks. The material recovered may however be related to activity on the site unrelated to the visible features. At the second level, fieldwalking areas are intuitively selected to answer specific research problems. This approach was adopted in Norfolk by Wade-Martins, who restricted his fieldwalking to those areas which he thought were most likely to produce evidence of settlement. He notes, however, that such selection, related to modern villages, may have resulted in the virtual absence of Romano-British and early Anglo-Saxon artifacts, and have given a false impression of nucleation in the Middle Saxon period (Wade-Martins

1980b, 4). When intuitive selection is used there is a tendency to select the most easily accessible fields, often adjacent to a modern road (Cherry and Shennan 1978, 25). At the third level, fieldwalking may be used as a method of extensive archaeological survey. If the area under study is small it may be possible to walk the whole of it, but for a larger area sampling can be employed. Various sampling strategies have been proposed, based not on anthropogenic features, as in intuitive selection, but on natural features of the landscape, and have usually been concerned with a transect across different geological deposits (e.g. Schadla-Hall and Shennan 1978; Shennan 1981; Hills and Liddon 1982). The problems in applying such sampling methods to fieldwalking are that only the present arable land may be walked and that not all of this is available for fieldwalking because of its inaccessibility or the attitude of the landowner. This is illustrated in the east Hampshire survey where, in part of the survey area, so much of the land was under grass that fields outside the survey transects had to be walked to provide a reasonable coverage (Shennan 1981, 108 and fig.28).

In the present study intuitive selection was used. Fieldwalking was confined to those features of the landscape of Sutton Chase selected for study (above, p.3) and within these as much as possible of the available arable land was walked.

Whatever fieldwalking method is employed, it is essential that the whole of each field or other unit selected be systematically walked. Fieldwalking must be intensive within the unit since any preliminary or superficial walking is the equivalent of 'trial-trenching' in excavation terms and the results may be misleading. At Grove End, for example (below, p.214) a superficial walk produced post-medieval pottery only but when the same area was walked systematically large quantities of medieval pottery were found. This may however also be due to better cultivation, light and moisture conditions, or to increased experience and familiarity with the local medieval pottery.

Repeated walks of the same area, in different conditions, and in successive years, are preferable to a single walk, but in the present study only a single walk of each area was made

to ensure at least one constant feature from site to site. A single walk of an area is comparable to a single flight in aerial reconnaisance, since the results may not be identical on subsequent occasions due to different conditions.

In order to record the distribution of material recovered by fieldwalking in a particular area most writers advocate the imposition of a grid. I tried this in the present study at Weeford Kings Standing (below, p.124) but I found it to be time-consuming since more time was required to lay out the grid than to walk the field. If very few artifacts are found the resulting distribution has little meaning. A more rapid method is to consider the whole of a small field, 4 ha or less in area, as a single unit. A larger field may be divided up into units of about this size, which need not be of regular shape, using existing features such as field corners, trees or ponds. An area of c.4 ha can be walked by one person in a day (below, p.32). Within these units, which I have termed 'zones' in this study, walking follows the line of cultivation, even where it changes direction at field edges, for speed and for the maintenance of a regular interval between each traverse across the field. A distribution pattern over a wide area rather than within a particular field is obtained by this method, but the distribution of artifacts within a particular zone can be recorded subjectively.

There is much variation in the recommended distance between each traverse across the field. Fasham *et al.* (1980, 9) suggest in their text that the interval should be 30m for experienced, and 15m for inexperienced fieldwalkers, but they quote a 3m interval in a table (*ibid.* table 1). On the route of the M3 motorway a 10m spacing between traverses was used, and material was collected within a 30m grid (Bates 1978, 12). Foard (1978, 358-9) seems to have used a 2.5m interval, and in the Vale of Belvoir the 'transects' 10m wide in each field walked (Hills and Liddon 1982, 13) are presumably traverse intervals. The field of view, within which the field surface can be seen in detail, depends both on cultivation methods and on the individual fieldwalker, but is about 1m, i.e. 0.5m on either side of the line walked. If, therefore, a 30m or 15m interval is used, only a small proportion of the total field surface is actually seen, but if

a 2.5m interval is used, about 40% of the surface is seen in detail. In the Hampshire survey (Shennan 1980, 131-132), however, it was found that, although the total quantity of material recovered was less, the same relative proportions of different types of material were recovered with a traverse interval of 30 as with one of 3 paces. In the present study, I did not use a rigid interval size but chose an interval within the range of 2m to 3m to suit the cultivation conditions of each field. Using this traverse interval, one person can walk c.4 ha in a day, compared with the 2 ha per person per day which can be calculated from the figures quoted by Fasham et.al. (1980, 9) and about 1 ha per person per day from the figures of Bates (1978, 12). It is not clear however whether Fasham's and Bates's figures include the time required to set out a grid.

I did the fieldwalking in this study alone, with undergraduate archaeology students, and with local amateurs. I had no previous experience of field-walking but I had excavation experience and I was familiar with local pottery of various dates. My powers of observation and recognition of material probably increased during the study and cannot be regarded as constants. The case of Grove End has been mentioned above (p.30).

Most of the students had no fieldwalking experience but had some familiarity with the material found. I found that the excavation experience of some of the students facilitated their observation and recognition of material in a dirty condition on the surface, and the discipline required to maintain a regular traverse interval. The majority of the amateurs had little or no experience of fieldwalking or of excavation, and it was clear that their recognition of artifacts improved with experience. Most of the amateurs were initially totally unfamiliar with the appearance of flint since it is not abundant locally. Several other problems were experienced in the organisation of fieldwalking when local amateurs were assisting. It was obviously necessary to choose a site of sufficient size for more than one person, but the actual attendance on each occasion was unpredictable. Very little notice could be given of each fieldwalking meeting because of the need to be on each site in suitable weather and cultivation conditions.

In the absence of a grid, the maintenance of a regular spacing between walkers is difficult, and the best results were obtained when each zone was walked by 2 or 3 people. Another problem in the use of local amateurs is that of maintaining interest in the project when there are few finds.

Many field surfaces contain large quantities of relatively modern pottery, clay pipes, brick, tile, bones, coal, coke, charcoal etc., so a collecting policy must be formulated. Fasham *et al.* (1980, 21) suggest that everything should be collected but that it may be possible to discard some types of material after recording them (*ibid.* 14). In the Tame Valley, Smith (1977a, 153) did not collect brick or glass because of the problems of dating such material and of processing the large quantities recovered. He retained post-medieval pottery but he did not make a detailed analysis of it, since he considered that the period was well-provided with other sources of evidence. In Longham, Norfolk, Wade-Martins (1980b, 38) reports that there were fewer finds of post-medieval than of medieval date, and that the archaeological evidence alone could not have been used to reconstruct the settlement plan recorded on a 16th century manuscript map. This may be due to a change in domestic waste disposal or manuring practices in this period.

Another problem posed by post-medieval material is the determination of its source, which may be at some distance from the field in which it is found, since in the period between the construction of canals and the creation of public rubbish tips rubbish and night soil was transported by canal from cities to adjacent agricultural areas where it was tipped on arable fields (Coney 1980, 31). In the present study area this is known to have occurred at Middleton, where fields received refuse transported from Birmingham along the Birmingham and Fazeley Canal (W.Davies, pers comm.).

I decided not to collect post-medieval material systematically in this study because of the problems of its date, source and quantity. Only rim forms not previously noted were retained

(below, p.79). This policy probably increased the speed of fieldwalking considerably.

The interpretation of fieldwalking results is made with reference to the quantity, condition and distribution of each type of artifact. All of these features depend on the archaeological period represented, the type, intensity and duration of activity on the site, subsequent activity, conditions at the time of fieldwalking, and the methods used. An artifact may be *in situ*, *i.e.* it was used and subsequently lost or deliberately deposited on the same site, or it may be *derived*, *i.e.* it has been transported from the place in which it was used. Such transport may have taken place shortly after use of the artifact, or after a period of time, when the artifact was no longer in use (Smith 1977a, 151).

The quantity and condition of artifacts are interpreted as the result of either 'settlement' or 'manuring'. The 'settlement' interpretation is offered when large quantities of relatively unweathered artifacts, including large, unabraded sherds of pottery, are found. Such material is considered to have been deposited shortly after use on, or close to, the site on which it was used, or to have been incorporated into the ploughsoil recently from negative features (fig. 14). It has been shown, however, that concentrations of artifacts, although indicating settlement areas at a regional scale, may not coincide with occupation areas at a local scale. The concentrations may result from the deposition of refuse outside the occupation area, rather than within it (Pryor 1980, 494; Foard 1978, 263). Dense artifact scatters immediately adjacent to occupation sites may indicate intensively manured garden plots (Taylor 1983, 28). Results from Longham in Norfolk have been noted above (p.33); here the known 16th century settlement plan could not have been reconstructed from the distribution of pottery of that date (Wade-Martins 1980b, 38). The size and condition of artifacts may also be determined by the length of time for which they have been incorporated in a ploughsoil. Unabraded sherds may be from features recently penetrated by the plough (Drewett 1980, 71) as a result of deeper ploughing over the whole site or progressively deeper penetration on convexities (above, p.25, fig.14).

A 'manuring' interpretation is offered when smaller quantities of artifacts, including small abraded sherds of pottery, are found. This is considered to be occupation debris which has been thrown, together with other domestic rubbish, onto a dung heap inside a settlement. The dung heap, and any artifacts contained in it, is subsequently deposited as manure on fields adjacent to or at a distance from the settlement site (Fowler 1981, 167). Artifacts are then subject to further fragmentation and abrasion as a result of physical weathering through ploughing or trampling of animals once they have been deposited on a field. Such debris may also include artifacts lost or deliberately disposed of during their use on the field itself, such as flint tools or whetstones, and some of the flint waste may be the debris from tool manufacture or re-shaping in the field (*ibid*.). Manuring does not imply a particular form of land use; pasture as well as arable was probably manured in antiquity, as today (*ibid*., 213). The degree of fragmentation and abrasion of artifacts depends on the type and intensity of activity on the site after their deposition. Lambrick (1980, 21) has suggested that some modern cultivation methods result in excessive fragmentation of pottery.

The distribution of different artifact types is determined by the circumstances of their initial deposition and by susbsequent activity on the site. It has been suggested that, if the field is flat, ploughing causes little lateral displacement of artifacts (Bowen 1980a, 30; Gingell and Schadla-Hall 1980, 109; Nicholson 1980, 22; Simmons 1980, 82-83). The effects of ploughing on a slope has been discussed above (p.25). Lynchet formation against a barrier on the slope may result in a concentration of artifacts near that barrier (Redman and Watson 1970, 280). The process of progressively deeper plough penetration on convexities is indicated by the incorporation of more subsoil into the ploughsoil. In Sutton Chase, this was particularly noted at Oscott College, where exposures of the orange sandy subsoil were visible at the top of the slope. Artifacts newly incorporated into the ploughsoil particularly sherds of pottery, may be large in size and unworn, and will therefore be observed more easily than artifacts which have already been subject to weathering in the ploughsoil. This process may result in a concentration of artifacts on convexities, but this does not necessarily indicate that the activity

represented by the artifacts was concentrated here, since in concavities negative features containing artifacts may be buried by a greater depth of ploughsoil (fig.14). In the Cotswolds, Tyler (1975, 3) noted the concentration of flints along slight ridges or on the upper side of sloping fields, and in Sutton Chase, at Shenstone Park (below, p.253) and Grounds Farm (below, p.261), I found unabraded Roman pottery on convexities, but not further down slopes.

The most detailed recording methods are those involving either the plotting of each individual artifact, or the use of grids. The use of 'zones' in Sutton Chase may be regarded as a modification of the grid method. Much depends on the location of the zones, for instance at the hamlets it may reasonably be assumed that occupation was concentrated along street frontages. In this case the use of undivided zones which extend for some distance away from the roadside may result in the loss of a recognisable concentration of artifacts.

The degree of abrasion cannot easily be quantified, but a numerical comparison can be attempted for the quantity and size of pottery sherds. Most work on pottery quantification has had excavation rather than fieldwalking in mind, for example that of Solheim (1960), Hulthen (1974) and Hinton (1977, 232-5).

Quantification is generally either by sherd number or sherd weight; the other possibilities, sherd volume (Hinton) and surface area (Hulthen), are too time-consuming where large numbers of sherds are involved. Both Hinton and Solheim note that different proportions of different pottery types in a given assemblage are obtained depending on whether a counting or weighing method is employed, and Hulthen suggests that both should be used to complement each other. Solheim suggests that the count: weight ratio for each pottery type should be calculated to compare the average sherd size for different types; if there is no significant difference in this ratio for different types then either a counting or weighing method can be used. Of the two methods Hinton recommends weighing as the simplest quickest and least

open to error, but notes that it tends to over-represent the denser, coarser fabrics. He considers counting time-consuming and notes that it, conversely, over-represents finer fabrics, which are less dense and break into smaller sherds. For pottery recovered by fieldwalking, quantities per unit area walked are considered.

In a fieldwalking context the main problems in quantification are the small quantity of pottery, its excessive fragmentation, and a possible bias towards larger sherds, or towards particular fabrics, which are more easily seen than others in surface collection. The pottery recovered at each site is an unstratified group which is assumed to be representative of all the pottery present.

Foard (1976, 11) considered that the varying collection conditions encountered on different sites made direct quantitative comparison between sites impossible, but Woodward (1978), considering worked flint rather than pottery, adjusted the actual quantity according to the recovery conditions. There is usually too little material for comparison of quantities of particular fabric types from site to site (Fasham *et al.* 1980, 16) so pottery of each chronological period is considered together. Quantification of this type was done by Smith for pottery from fieldwalking in the Tame Valley. He found that the frequency distribution of the number of sherds of Romano-British and of medieval pottery per unit area walked was bimodal, the upper and lower peaks of which he interpreted as representing 'settlement' and 'manuring' activity respectively (Smith 1977a, 174, 181), as discussed above (pp.34-35).

The intensity of manuring, however, and hence the quantity of pottery and other objects representing this activity, is unlikely to be identical on all land farmed from a particular settlement. The area immediately adjacent to the farmstead is likely to be more intensively manured than the rest of the land because of the increase in the time required for manuring with increasing distance from the source of manure. If an infield-outfield system of cultivation is practised, the outfield is not manured at all but depends on periods of fallow to recover its fertility. Manuring may however begin at some distance from the farmstead, since the area

adjacent to it may be occupied by stockpens; this arrangement has been inferred in the Roman period from earthworks around the villa at Barnsley Park (Fowler 1975, 134, fig.8.6) and in the Iron Age from cropmarks at Fisherwick (Smith 1977, 58, fig.6). At Maddle Farm, Berks., there were distinct concentrations of Roman pottery attributable to manuring activities around a villa site, rather than a fall-off in pottery density, and thus intensity of manuring, with increasing distance from the villa (Gaffney et al. 1985).

The absolute, rather than relative, quantity of pottery or other material for either interpretation varies according to its date (Smith 1977a, 166-181; Wade-Martins 1980b, 5). At Longham, eight sherds of Middle Saxon pottery were taken as evidence for settlement (Wade-Martins 1980b, 37). The two medieval sherds from the edge of Southall Green in Longham can hardly be considered to represent settlement although this is how Wade-Martins interprets them (*ibid*). Throughout his work in Norfolk, Wade-Martins seems to have considered that the mere presence of material, regardless of the quantity is evidence for settlement on the site. The only site for which he offered a 'manuring' interpretation was Mileham. Here, medieval pottery was scattered around the existing settlement but was absent from an area which was consequently interpreted as the demesne land of the lord of the manor. Wade-Martins suggested that the manorial tenants deposited their refuse on their own plots as manure rather than here, on land directly farmed by their lord (Wade-Martins 1971, 96; 1980b, 46); the demesne lands may have been manured from dungheaps which were not also domestic rubbish tips.

In the present study I made a comparison of pottery quantities from site to site using the most abundant pottery types (table 2).

These are fabrics, 23, 36, 37, and 39, dateable to the 12th to 15th centuries (below, pp.75-78). The four fabrics are similar, thus the problems encountered in comparing fabrics of different densities with different degrees of fragmentation are alleviated. The forms in these fabrics do however include both thick- and thin-walled vessels. No weighting was employed to take

account of soil, weather and cultivation conditions at the time of walking. The area of each zone walked was calculated to the nearest 100m². Sherd number and sherd weight per 100m² were calculated, together with the average sherd weight. The latter provided an index of fragmentation; larger sherds would be expected where there was occupation in situ than if the sherds had been thrown onto the surface of a field and fragmented further by ploughing or by trampling animals. The frequencies obtained were plotted as histograms (fig.16). The frequency distributions for number and weight measurements each produce a smooth curve, with decreasing frequencies from the lower values to the higher, rather than a bimodal distribution. It is thus impossible to define 'settlement' and 'manuring' values other than purely arbitrarily; a given value can only be described as lying in the upper or lower part of the curve. The distribution of average sherd weights could, however, be considered to be bimodal; an average sherd weight of less than 5 grammes may be interpreted as the result of manuring, and 5 grammes or greater as indicating occupation on the site. Alternatively, a second peak could be defined at an average weight of 10 to 11 grammes, and an average sherd weight of 10 grammes or greater made the criterion for an 'occupation' interpretation. Table 2 includes interpretations based on both peaks.

When the activity at each individual zone is interpreted by these criteria, the result is the same as that which would be expected intuitively. These results suggest that average sherd weight may be a better indicator of the type of activity resulting in pottery distribution on a particular site than either the number of weight of sherds per unit area. The average sherd weight may however be misleading when there are only a few sherds, and fragmentation

POTTERY FABRICS 23, 36, 37 and 39 : Fieldwalking

Table 2

Zone	Area ₂ (x 100m ²)	No. of sherds	Weight of sherds(g)	Number per 100m	Weight per 100m	Average Weight	Inter- pret- ations.
Parks							
AW 81, 3	231	1	-	0.04	_	-	М
AW 81, 4	516.5	6	40	0.01	0.08	6.67	O/M
DP 80, 1	200	2	10	0.01	0.05	5.0	O/M
DP 80, 4	84	3	110	0.04	1.31	36.67	0
DP 81, 6	270	1	-	0.0	-	_	M
DP 81, 7	420	1	_	0.0	_	_	М
DP 81, 10	600	2	-	0.0	_	-	М
SL 81, 6	400	15	180	0.04	0.45	12.0	0
MP 80, 4-10	1300	14	160	0.01	0.12	11.42	О
MP 80, 11-14	1850	1	_	0.0	_	_	М
SHP 80, 2	80	5	20	0.06	0.25	4.0	М
SHP 80, 3	56	2	10	0.04	0.18	5.0	O/M
SHP 81, 8	260	1	-	0.0	-	-	М
SHP 81, 10	216	8	80	0.04	0.37	10.0	0
Hamlets							
MV 80, 2	128	6	40	0.05	0.31	6.67	O/M
ALE 80	42.8	14	50	0.33	1.17	3.57	М
AE 80	96	25	170	0.26	1.77	6.8	O/M
CG 80, 1	4	1	- .	0.25	_	_	М
CG 81, 2	16	14	120	0.88	7.5	8.57	O/M
CG 81, 3	8	3	40	0.38	5.0	13.3	О
CG 81, 4	16	5	50	0.31	3.12	10.0	0

Zone	Area ₂ (x 100m ²)	No. of sherds	Weight of sherds(g)	Number per ₂	Weight per ₂ 100m	Average Weight	Inter- pret- ations.
HG 80	90	14	160	0.16	1.78	11.4	0
HGF 80	48.75	154	1170	3.16	24.0	7.6	O/M
SE 80	48.75	9	50	0.18	1.03	5.56	О/М
LAN 81, 1	81	14	190	0.17	2.35	13.57	0
WA 81, 1	50	1	_	0.02	-	_	М
WA 81, 2	50	1	_	0.02	-	_	М
WG 80, 1	190	1	_	-	-	_	М
WG 80, 2	127.5	3	10	0.02	0.08	3.33	М
WG 80, 3	50	1	-	_	_	-	М
WG 80, 5	45	2	20	0.04	0.44	10.0	0
WG 80, 6	165	17	160	0.10	0.97	9.41	O/M
WG 80, 7	48	2	10	0.04	0.21	5.0	O/M
WG 80, 8	8	2	-	0.25	-	-	M
GE 80, 1	4.72	1	_	0.21	-	-	М
GE 80, 2	26.8	44	240	1.64	8.96	0.55	М
GE 80, 3	23.1	6	40	0.26	1.73	6.67	O/M
TE 80	4	9	110	2.25	27.5	12.22	0
LG 81, 1	25	10	100	0.4	40	10.0	0
LG 81, 3	45	19	280	0.42	6.22	14.74	0
OG 80, 1	4.5	14	50	3.11	11.11	3.57	М
OG 80, 2	157.5	11	50	0.07	0.32	4.55	М
OG 80, 3	18.75	46	210	2.45	11.2	4.57	М
OG 80, 4-5	5	14	80	2.8	16	5.91	O/M
OG 80, 6	4.5	4	30	0.89	6.67	7.5	O/M
OG 80, 7	86.25	24	160	0.28	1.86	6.67	O/M
OG 81, 9	40	1	-	0.025		_	М
OG 81, 11	18	2	30	0.11	1.67	15	0
WC 80, 2	39	2	40	0.05	1.03	20	0
WC 80, 3	41.25	3	10	0.07	0.24	3.33	М
WC 81, 6	84	2	10	0.02	0.12	5	М

Zone	Area (x 100m ²)	No. of sherds	Weight of sherds(g)	Number per 100m	Weight per ₂ 100m	Average Weight	Inter- pret- ations.
Moats, etc.	78	2	_	0.03	_	_	м
MC 81, 1	78	309	2200	44.14	314.29	7.12	O/M
MC 81, 2			•	0.74	8.89		0
	6.75	5	60	ļ			O/M
MC 81, 3	8.75	11	80	1.26	9.14		1
MC 81, 4	9.25	46	410	4.97	44.32		O/M
MC 81, 5	7 - 4	4	40	0.54	5.4	10.0	0
MC 81, 6	11.25	4	-	0.36	-	_	M
BG 81, 1	59.5	1	_	0.017	-	_	M
MNW 80, 1	108	4	10	0.04	0.09	2.5	М
MNW 80, 2	204	4		0.02	-	-	М
MNW 80, 7	143	1	_	0.02	_	_	М
HM 80	1 20	24	160	0.2	1.33	6.67	о/м
LHM 80, 1	24	1	_	0.04	_	-	M
WH 80, 1	35.75	14	100	0.39	2.8	7.14	о/м
WH 80, 2	77.05	5	10	0.06	0.13	2	M
WH 80, 3	40.2	3	_	0.07	_	_	М
WH 81, 4	18.5	1	10	0.05	0.54	10	0
WH 81, 5	100	8	40	0.08	0.04	5	O/M
WH 81, 6	72	3	20	0.04	0.28		O/M
WH 81, 7	170	22	250	0.13	1.47	11.37	0

NOTES

Weight of sherds to nearest 10g; - = less than 10g.

Number of sherds to 2 decimal places

Average weight to 2 decimal places.

Interpretation: 0 = Occupation in situ; average sherd weight > 10g

M = Manuring; average sherd weight < 2g

O/M = Possible occupation; average sherd weight 5-10g.

may result from more recent agricultural activities, as suggested by Lambrick (1980, 21).

Fieldwalking Zones: coding

Each fieldwalking zone, as described above (p.31) is identified by a code consisting of the site name, abbreviated to two or three capital letters, and the number of the fieldwalking zone.

Each zone was walked once only.

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ARCHAEOLOGICAL METHODS: Observation of garden surfaces

Cultivated surfaces in gardens possess several potential advantages over ploughed fields when used for the systematic collection of artifacts. In this study the most important advantage is that, in the case of hamlets and moated sites which are occupied by existing settlements, ploughed fields are on the perimeter of the area of interest but gardens may be within the hamlet or moat. The soil is well broken up, and the addition of organic material as fertiliser over a long period results in a dark-coloured soil against which most artifacts can be seen easily (above, p.27). However there is much recent material included in domestic waste applied as fertiliser which renders observation of the sparser, earlier artifacts more difficult (above, p.25).

I searched garden surfaces at each of four moated sites where the moat platform is occupied by an existing house and its garden. At Peddimore Hall (below, p.259) one sherd of medieval and two sherds of post-medieval pottery were found, and Langley Hall (below, p.255) produced a single sherd of medieval pottery. Post-medieval material alone was found at Hermitage Farm in Over Green (below, p.257) and at Moor Hall Old Farm (below, p.256). The results obtained were probably partly due to the selection of moated sites to test the methods; the problems of the archaeology of moated sites are discussed below (p.237).

Although I did not attempt it in this study, the search of garden surfaces enables the fieldwalking method to be used in areas which are now built-up for residential purposes. The possible potential of an 'urban fieldwalk' was suggested by Yarwood (1980, 22).

ARCHAEOLOGICAL METHODS: Chance finds

'Chance finds' are here defined as artifacts found by means other than deliberate prospecting. Artifacts known to have been found by using a metal detector are therefore excluded since this may be considered to be deliberate prospecting. Artifacts found without deliberate prospecting but by recognition because of familiarity with the appearance of the particular type of artifact are, however, considered to be 'chance finds'. The 53 chance finds from the whole of Sutton Chase have been analysed to assess their value as archaeological evidence. The features under consideration are the date at which the artifact was found, the circumstances in which it was found, the type, date and size of the artifact, the accuracy of its provenance, the record of objects subsequently lost, and the distribution of chance finds in Sutton Chase (table 3; fig.17).

There is a steady increase in the number of chance finds for each 20-year period from 1840 to 1980. This probably represents increased public knowledge and therefore recognition of artifacts. Where the method of finding is known, most objects were found in gardening. The majority of the objects are of stone or metal. Most of the metal objects are coins, and most of these were found in gardening. Very little pottery has been found by chance; sherds are less likely to be recognised as significant by the layman than flint artifacts, coins, or other metal artifacts. As a result most of the chance finds are prehistoric stone artifacts, or Roman coins. Other than coins, the maximum dimension of the smallest of those artifacts whose dimensions are known is greater than 3cm.

Wymer (1977, xi) included an expression of the degree of precision of the provenance of each object in his gazetteer of Mesolithic sites. He qualified the grid reference given for each as accurate, estimated, or the general area only. In Sutton Chase the provenance of relatively few chance finds is known with any precision. The provenance of two chance finds is less precisely known than has previously been assumed. The stone artifacts from Barr Beacon

(below, p.110, table 3, No.48) were found 'in a field near Benbeacon, not far from Sutton Coldfield' (Burgess 1876-8, 268) thus not necessarily actually on Barr Beacon, the highest point of a ridge whose crest is c.1km long and c.200m wide. The bronze object from Hardwick Farm (below, p.110, table 3, no.53) was found 'on Hardwick Farm' (Garner 1844, 543); this could refer to anywhere in the land farmed from Hardwick Farm.

Palmer (1977, 179) has pointed out the danger of duplication of a single chance find in the records if its provenance is not accurately recorded. In Sutton Chase this may be the case for a coin of Constantine (table 3, no.35) which was found on the Roman road in Sutton Park in 1879 (Sidwell and Durant 1890, 9-10) or 1883 (Riland-Bedford 1891, 3). Another problem is the possibility that an artifact may have reached its recorded provenance in relatively recent years, by trade, as attested for some stone axes in Yorkshire (Manby 1979, 74-75), or by movement of soil (Coney 1980). The flint arrowhead from Queen's Wood Road (table 3, no.25) may have been transported there in turf (BMR). The problem of the identification of the character of lost objects from written descriptions has been noted by Palmer (1977, 179).

The overall distribution of chance finds in Sutton Chase (fig.17) shows a marked concentration on the western part, most of which is now built-up (fig.11) although some of the finds may have been made before it was built-up, and others are from non-agricultural open spaces accessible to the public within the built-up areas, such as Barr Beacon and Sutton Park. Vine (1981, 215-217) considered whether artifacts are more likely to be found in densely populated urban areas than elsewhere, but demonstrated, in a table and histogram, a wide variation in the ratio of the number of chance finds to population in the urban centres of his area of study.

Table 3:

CHANCE FINDS CATALOGUE: Key

Material

- C coin
- F flint
- M metal other than coin
- P pottery
- S stone other than flint

Period

- M medieval
- P prehistoric
- R Romano-British
- U undated

Circumstances

- C chance
- CK chance, but familiar with type of object

Method

- A agricultural activities
- D soil disturbance other than agriculture or gardening
- G garden cultivation
- S surface

Accuracy of Provenance

- A area only
- F accurate only to 4-figure grid reference
- S accurate to 6-figure grid reference or more
- S(G) garden

Record

- O oral record only
- S survives
- W lost, but detailed written record
- WV lost, but undetailed written record

Maximum dimensions

- C coin
- L lost, no record of dimensions.

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	CHANCE FINDS. Area and Year (if known)	Thornhill Park, 1972	Thornhill Road, <u>c</u> .1925-26	Middleton	Middleton Park, 1968 or 9	Upper House Farm	Middleton, c.1970	Endhill Road, 1968	Kingstanding, pre-1939	Perry Barr, 1946	Brackenbury Road	Roman Field, pre-1884	Perry Barr, pre-1906	Shenstone Park	Little Aston	Shenstone Park	Streetly	Shenstone Park	Wood End, 1957	Shenstone
	Description	Sandstone head	Sandstone head	Palstave	Torc	Quern	Handaxe	Roman coin	Roman coin	Roman coin	Roman coin	Roman coins	Flints	Flint axe	Roman coin	Flint A.e	Flint Arrowhead	Flint Axe	Flint Blade	Stone Axe
Table	No.on Fig.17	1	2	т	7	2	9	7	∞	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19

Max.dimensions (cm)	ນ	5	<u>п</u>	10.2	ပ	3.2	16.7	14.3	ပ	ပ	ပ	υ	L1	ပ	ບ	ပ	3.8	L
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Accuracy of Provenance	F/S	S	S	<u> </u>	F(?S)	S(G)	F/A	Ŋ	ĮΞ	(5)S	S(G)	F/A	A	A	S/F	A/F	S	ĬΉ
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Period	R	M	Д	Ъ	W	Ъ	Ъ	Ъ	R	æ	æ	œ	n	R	æ	æ	Ъ	ы
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Grid Ref.	SK 110045	SP 169943	SP 092012	SP 094930	SP 0694	SP 119983	SP 1099	SP 1692	SP 1099	SP 113997	SP 126964	SP 167930	SP 1096	SP 1329	SP 087982	SP 087981	SK 155008	SP 1892
CHANCE FINDS. Area and Year (if known)	Shenstone	Over Green, 1980	Witton, 1961	Perry Common, c.1950	Queslett sand pit	Queen's Wood Road	Four Oaks, pre-1935	Minworth Sewage Farm, 1906	Four Oaks	Four Oaks, 1960	Rectory Road, 1938	Wiggins Hill, pre-1884	Sutton Park, pre-1957	Cat Hill, c. 1954	Streetly Wood, c.1909	Suttton Park, 1879 or 1883	Canwell	Curdworth, pre-1923
Description	Roman Coin	Medieval Pottery	Flint Arrowhead	Macehead	Medieval Coin	Flint Arrowhead	Stone Axe	Stone Axe	Roman Coin	Roman Coin	Roman Coin	Roman Coins and Pottery	Pottery	Roman Coin	Roman Coins	Roman Coin	Flint Arrowhead	Palstave
No.on Fig.17	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37

Max.dimensions (cm)		8.3	9.7	8.8	Ы	<u></u>		٣	ပ	<u></u> -	7.5	ပ	ပ	ပ	ပ	5.1
Кесога	S	S	S	S	M	M	S	S	S	ΔM	N/S	S	S	တ	WM	M
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Grid Ref.	SK 1900	SK 196004	SK 191000	SK 103003	SP 1096	SP 092958	SP 105971	SP 1096	SP 128920	SP 086984	SP 062971	SP 061972	SP 069956	SP 073982	SP 072998	SP 077989
CHANCE FINDS. Area and Year (if known)	Drayton Bassett, 1927	Drayton Bassett, 1971	Drayton Bassett, 1980	Four Oaks, 1966	Sutton Park, pre-157	Sutton Park, 1945	Sutton Park, 1974	Sutton Park, 1903	Pype Hayes, 1959	Thornhill Road, ?1957	Barr Beacon, ?1877	Barr Beacon	Chantry Crescent	Streetly, 1976	Bourne Pool, pre-1879	Hardwick Farm, c.1844
Description	Flint Axe	Chopper/Scraper	Medieval Pottery	Flint Knife	Stone Implements	Flint Arrowheads	Roman Pottery	Flint Blade	Roman Coin	Flint Arrowhead	Maceheads	Roman Coin	Roman Coin	Roman Coin	Pottery	Bronze object
No.on Fig.17	38	39	07	41	42	43	77	45	95	47	48	65	50	51	52	53

ARCHAEOLOGICAL METHODS: Aerial photography

Aerial photograph sources for the study area are listed in table 4. Features within those parts of Sutton Chase considered in this thesis have been plotted at 1:2500, by tracing off and enlarging from vertical photographs, and using the Mobius network method, as described by Scollar (1975, 52-53), for obliques.

It is not possible to reconstruct ancient landscapes in any part of the study area from cropmark evidence, as has been done at, for example, Fisherwick in the Tame Valley to the north (Smith 1977b, 56), since the cropmarks that are likely to be of archaeological features are scattered and frequently poorly defined. The factors involved are the types of photographs available, soil types, and present land use.

It can be seen in table 4 that most of the aerial photographic coverage of the study area has been for non-archaeological purposes. These photographs are taken vertically from high altitudes, often at unsuitable times of year for crop-mark production, and the main archaeological feature visible on them is ridge-and-furrow. Evaluations of the archaeological potential of the aerial surveys, for planning purposes, of West Midlands county in 1977 and 1980 have been made (Cooper 1980; Hodder 1980b). Most of the cropmarks on these are recently-removed field boundaries. A cropmark of an archaeological feature at Loaches Banks (below, p.112) is poorly resolved on these photographs, although it is well-defined on the NCB photographs. Aerial photography for archaeological purposes has been confined to single sorties over small areas.

The soils likely to produce the best cropmarks are in the west and north of the study area, where the parent materials are Bunter Pebble Beds, Keuper Sandstone, and drift deposits derived from them, and on the gravel terraces of the Bourne Brook in the north and of the River Tame in the south and east (fig.6). However much of the west of the study area is built-

up and c.10km² of it is occupied by the heathlands and woods of Sutton Park. The gravel terraces of the Tame in the south are built-up, and those in the east are partly removed by quarrying. The soils of the agricultural part of the study area, the east (fig.6) are mainly clays, formed on Keuper Marl and its derived drifts. These soils are sufficiently water-retentive not to produce cropmarks except in particularly dry periods, and also some of this part is occupied by woods and permanent pasture.

Although it is unlikely ever to produce cropmarks of such clarity as better-drained soils, the agricultural area would probably repay persistent and repeated aerial reconnaissance for archaeological purposes. However such reconnaisance is restricted by the 8 mile radius from Birmingham Airport of Air Traffic Control. This zone includes much of the southern part of the study area (Ashton-Cooper 1980, fig.41, p.128). Within it special permission must be obtained, as it was for the single flights along the route of the Sutton Coldfield Eastern Bypass and the Tame Valley, and repeated surveillance is unlikely to be possible.

There are insufficient cropmarks to justify a detailed analysis of types. In this study the most significant cropmarks are those related to deer park management, as at Middleton Park (below, p.157), 'field systems' of 'Celtic field' type, and those providing evidence for the former extent of managed woodland in the form of levelled woodbanks (Smith 1978, 95; Wilson 1975, fig.5, p.64).

Table 4:

AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHS

Shrewsbury Staffs.CC Staffs.CC Roadstone Co.Mus. Source Warks. **NMR** NMR SRO; Amey WRO Board of NW part of study area shire and adjoining parts of Survey for Amey Roadstone of Eastern Bypass in advance of Council: Whole of Stafford-Series of photographs along Series of photographs along 2 sites near Bourne Brook, Tame Valley in advance of route of Sutton Coldfield For Staffordshire County Survey for National Coal Extent of cover Warwickshire and West Middleton Hall Pit Middleton Hall Pit gravel extraction Entire study area its construction Drayton Bassett Midlands 1:10560 26 August 1968 | 1:10560 Scale 1:6000 1;1200 26 April 1962 1971 28 June 1970 20 September 12 July 1971 August 1977 May 1978 Date 1947 J. Pickering J. Pickering Photographer Airmaps Ltd Fairey Ltd Fairey Ltd Fairey Ltd Royal Air Meridian Force W. Ford oblique oblique oblique vertical and angle vertical vertical vertical vertical Archaeology; Archaeology; Archaeology; Planning; Mapping; Purpose Mapping; Mapping; Mapping;

AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHS

Purpose and angle	Photographer	Date	Scale	Extent of Cover	Source
vertical	Topographic International Ltd	26 June 1977	1:5000	For West Midlands County Council: Covers entire county and adjoining parts of Staffordshire and Warwickshire	WMCC
vertical	Cartographic Services (Southampton) Ltd	10 May 1980	1:600	For West Midlands County Council: Covers entire county and adjoining parts of Staffordshire and Warwickshire	: WMCC

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE - Standing Buildings

Standing buildings have been treated in this study as artifacts which are evidence for settlement at a particular time on a particular site, provided that they can be dated and their original sites are known. The latter criterion is included because two buildings in the study area are known to have been dismantled and reconstructed away from their original positions.

The main published sources for the study area are the county volumes of Pevsner for Warwickshire (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966) and Staffordshire (Pevsner 1974), which give very brief descriptions of a few buildings only, the Victoria County Histories, again dealing with a few buildings only but with more detailed descriptions, particularly of churches and of 'polite' architecture, and Chatwin and Harcourt's (1946) account of buildings in Sutton Coldfield.

Little detailed building recording has been done in the study area. Molyneux *et al.* (1977) recorded Peddimore Hall, Pype Hayes Hall barn, and buildings in Sutton Coldfield town centre, Price (1975; 1977) recorded Booth's Farm (below, p.251) before its demolition, and Spolton (1977) discussed Peddimore Hall. In the present study, measured drawings were produced of parts of Middleton Hall (below, p.246) and Wishaw Church (below, p.217). The exteriors of other buildings were described, sketched and photographed, but no attempt was made to record all standing buildings systematically.

The determination of their dates is the main problem in the use of standing buildings in this study. It is however possible to define several types, to which approximate dates can be assigned.

1. Medieval masonry (before c.1500)

Seven parish churches, Curdworth, Drayton Bassett, Lea Marston, Middleton, Shenstone,

Sutton Coldfield, and Wishaw, retain some medieval fabric. Middleton Hall has some 14th century masonry (below, p.246), New Hall may contain some medieval fabric (below, p.256) and Moor Hall Old Farm may be of 15th century date (below, p.255).

2. Medieval timberwork (before c.1500)

14th and 15th century work has been identified at Middleton Hall. It includes both wall-frames and roof trusses (below, p.249).

3. Cruck buildings (14th to 16th century?)

This type is particularly important in the present study since cruck buildings in the study area may be associated with hamlets, or may be isolated homesteads. Isolated cruck buildings have also been noted in The Weald and in the Chilterns (Fletcher 1969, 84). The cruck type has been dated elsewhere in England and Wales by apex typology, blade form, origin, function of the building, epigraphic and documentary evidence, and radiocarbon and dendrochronology.

The typological sequences of apices proposed by Alcock (1973, fig.1) and J. T. Smith (1975, fig.2) are unhelpful since they present opposite progressions. It has been suggested that heavy and well-shaped cruck blades normally indicate a pre-16th century date since with time cruck construction descended the social scale and later, poorer houses used narrower blades (Mercer 1975, 102-103). The original function of a cruck building may now be difficult to determine. In the Midlands, types of construction other than crucks were used for dwellings by the late 15th century, and they became dominant by the late 16th century. Cruck barns may still have been constructed after this, but they are very rare in Staffordshire and Warwickshire, possibly because they were replaced during the 18th and 19th century enclosures (Alcock 1981, 75).

The earliest inscribed date on a cruck blade is 1382 (Fletcher 1963, 94). Cruck buildings are mentioned as peasant houses in 14th century Worcestershire court rolls; the earliest reference is to a cruck in Warley in 1312 (Field 1965). A series of radiocarbon dates has been obtained

for crucks in Berkshire and Oxfordshire. When they are calibrated, and corrected for the likely age of the timber at felling and the differing degrees of fractionation in heartwood and in sapwood, these dates range from 1200 to 1565, allowing one standard deviation on either side (Fletcher 1963; 1969; 1970, 151; Fletcher *et al.* 1981). Eleven cruck buildings have been sampled for dendrochronology, and the date range is 1314-1600. There are dates of 1314 and c.1320 for buildings in Berkshire and Buckinghamshire respectively, and dates ranging from 1468 to c.1600 for buildings in Wales, South Yorkshire and Nottinghamshire. (*Vernac. Archit.* 1980, 22-23, 34; Fletcher *et al.* 1981; Alcock 1982, 75); Leggett *et al.* 1982; Hillam and Fletcher 1983). The earlier end of the scale, 14th to 15th century, is probably applicable to cruck dwelling-houses in Sutton Chase, while cruck barns may be of 15th to 16th century date, and possibly later.

4 The Vesey houses (c.1530). (figs.89, 113)

This well-dated and morphologically distinct type consists of the survivors of the 51 stone houses built by John Vesey, Bishop of Exeter, in Sutton Coldfield parish (Leland, V, 98; Dugdale 1730, 914). Their form has been described (Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 9-10; Wood 1965, 201; Mercer 1975, 29, 33, 60). They are rectangular, single-celled and two-storied. Their walls were constructed of roughly squared sandstone blocks in fairly even courses, with quoins at the angles. There is a stone stack in each gable end, and the upper floor is reached by a spiral staircase placed in the wall at or near the angle and close to the entrance. Internally, each floor is divided into two rooms by upright timbers and horizontal beams. The roof is timber-framed, and was probably intended to be tiled.

5 Small Framing (c.1550-1650)

Building in timber was still the norm in the West Midlands into the early 17th century (Barley 1961, 154), but bricks were used for stacks by the later 16th century (D Whitehead 1981). Small framing, consisting of two square panels to each storey, was the normal form of framing in the late 16th and early 17th centuries for those unable to afford either close-studding or

ornamental framing (Mercer 1975, 115, 122-123).

6 Late timber-framing (c.1650-18th century)

After the Civil War, due to a shortage of suitable timber, framing uses few and smaller, straight, timbers, in large, plain quadrilateral panels. The forms are derived from earlier framing but a different visual effect is produced by the use of such material and methods. The timber-framing tradition is simplified, and buildings are constructed on a stone or brick plinth. They are 3 panels high for 2 floors, 5 panels wide at the gable end, and each bay is 4 panels long. This style was used in all houses, and it continued unchanged into the 18th century (Barley 1961, 184, 214; Wood 1965, 225; Smith and Yates 1968, 547; Mercer 1975, 125-126). In Sutton Chase it was used for both houses and barns, all on stone or brick plinths and with queen-post roof trusses.

7 Early brick buildings (c.1650-1750)

A number of large houses were built in the Jacobean period, the early 17th century (Barley 1961, 131). These include, in the vicinity of the study area, Aston Hall and Castle Bromwich Hall, both of which are brick-built with stone dressings, as quoins and as mullioned window frames. This style descended the social scale to be used in large farmhouses of rectangular plan, constructed before the Civil War in Staffordshire. More were built during a spate of building activity in the 1660s following the Restoration (Barley 1961, 213). An example of this type just outside the study area, Manor Farm at Wall, (SK 101055), bears the date 1662 over its porch, and is probably the 'new home' of Henry Jacson mentioned in 1666 (HT.Staffs. 164). Farm houses were also built of brick alone in this period.

8 Later brick buildings (after 1750)

Post-enclosure farm complexes of 18th and 19th century date typically consist of a farmhouse with associated barns and labourers' cottages, all wholly brick-built.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE: Earthworks

The earthwork types which are particularly important in this study are mounds, ridge-and-furrow, woodbanks, park boundaries, and moated sites.

Mounds

A mound may be interpreted by consideration of its form, dimensions and location, and exposures of its composition and contents by erosion or excavation. A naturally-formed mound may be of any size or shape and in any location, but has no surrounding ditch. It may be formed by erosion or by deposition. Erosion of material on hill summits may give rise to a knoll which appears to be artificial, for example at Hints where three such knolls are now thought to be of natural formation (Gunstone 1965, 39). A mound formed by deposition may be composed of different material from that around and below it.

Artificial mounds may be surrounded by a ditch, the spoil from which was used to construct the mound. Burial mounds can have many forms, with or without a surrounding ditch. Burnt mounds have no surrounding ditch. The mounds can be up to 20m in diameter and 1m high, of oval or kidney plan, and are usually adjacent to a small stream. The diagnostic feature of burnt mounds is that the mound is composed of heat-cracked pebbles and charcoal which may be exposed on its surface or in the banks of the adjacent stream. In the west Midlands, six burnt mounds have been dated by radiocarbon to the Middle Bronze Age, c.1000bc, and one to the late Neolithic, c.2000bc. (Barfield and Hodder 1981a; 1981b; Ellis and Shotton 1973).

Windmill mounds held post-mills of medieval and post-medieval date. They can be of similar dimensions to burial mounds, with which they are often confused, as at Aldridge (Gunstone 1965, 29). The diagnostic feature, revealed by excavation, is a large post-hole in the centre of the mound which held the main post on which the mill turned. This may be indicated by a

hollow before excavation, as at Shobdon, Herefordshire (Hooper 1978), but such a hollow may be a later robber hole dug into the mound on the assumption that it was a burial mound.

Pillow mounds are artificial rabbit-warrens of medieval or post-medieval date. All are ditched, but the plans and dimensions of the mounds vary. They are commonly long and straight or oval and slightly curving in plan, and up to 150 yards (c.135m) long. Pillow-mounds generally occur in groups on hillsides, crossing the contours (Linehan 1967, 141; Tebbutt 1971).

Ridge-and-furrow

Ridge-and-furrow consists of a series of parallel ridges. The ridges were formed deliberately, to increase soil depth or for drainage, or incidentally as a result of land-holding practice. The presence of ridge and furrow is usually taken as evidence for former arable cultivation, for example in Okehampton Park, Devon (Austin 1980, 44), but ridges were used for draining pasture in Cheshire in the 19th century (Kerridge 1951) and in woodland areas ridge-and-furrow may be the result of soil preparation before tree planting (Marshall 1817, 379). In Britain ridge and furrow has been related to strip holdings in open field systems; in Southern Australia, ridge-and-furrow systems are the result of narrow field units, laid out after 1836 (Twidale 1972). The plan of a ridge-and-furrow system and the dimensions of ridges, defined as wavelength and amplitude by Parry (1976), are determined by the method of ridge formation, soil depth, soil type, and land tenure, and the date of formation (Drury 1981).

Bowen (1961, 47) drew a distinction between plough-ridges, with a wavelength of greater than 3 yards, and spade-constructed 'lazy-beds' whose wavelength was 1 to 3 yards. Irish spade-built ridges ranged in wavelength from 2 to 5.5m (O'Danachair 1970). The aratral or 'reversed-S' plan of some ridge-and-furrow has been attributed to the use of an 8-oxen plough team, since a team of this length, 4 pairs of beasts, needed to begin to turn before the end of the

furrow. The introduction of a new breed of oxen in the 16th century resulted in smaller teams, thus new ridges made in the 17th and 18th centuries were straight (Eyre 1955). Straight ridges were also formed by steam-ploughing in the late 19th century (RCHM 1982, *l*). Ridges are not always either aratral or straight; Taylor (1975, 82) notes that a C-shape is more common than an aratral curve. In Okehampton Park, Devon, Austin (1980, 44) noted straight and J-shaped ridges.

Bowen (1961, 47) distinguished 'broad rig', which consisted of high, curving ridges with a wavelength of greater than 5 yards (4.5m), from 'narrow rig', which consisted of low, straight ridges with a wavelength of 5 yards (4.5m) or less. He suggested that 'broad rig' was probably of medieval date, while 'narrow rig' 'survives in a demonstrably late context'. According to Taylor (1975, 143-144), 'narrow rig' is associated with late 18th and early 19th century piecemeal enclosure of waste land and with the extension of cultivation onto marginal lands during the Napoleonic Wars. Within and around Whittlewood Forest in Northamptonshire there are large rectangular fields with straight ridge-and-furrow with a wavelength of up to 7m, some of which must be post-1853, when a Disafforestation Act was passed (RCHM 1982, 1), and in St. Nicholas' Park, Warwick, there is ridge-and-furrow of 6m - 10m wavelength within allotments made by the enclosure of former common land in 1773 (Wallsgrove 1982). Stephens (1877, 95) notes a range in contemporary ridge wavelength of 5 to 15 feet (1.5 to 4.45m), compared with old high, crooked ridges of 24 to 36 feet (7.2 to 10m), but does not specify the areas in which particular ridge widths occur. Although it is in many cases demonstrably later than 'broad rig' and of post-medieval date, some surviving 'narrow rig' may be of medieval or even earlier date where it occurs on land marginal to medieval and post-medieval cultivation (Fowler 1981, 200; Drury 1981).

Narrow rig is superimposed on broad rig on the Lammermuir Hills (Parry 1976) and at Castle Church, Stafford (Hodder 1979). In Northumberland low, straight ridges with a wavelength of 4 to 5m in land newly-cultivated at the beginning of the 19th century were contrasted with

the high, curving ridges of old arable (Bailey and Cully 1805, 66-67). A terminus post quem for narrow rig is provided by its relationship to field systems laid out at a known date. At Castle Church the narrow rig respects field boundaries of probable 17th century date (Hodder 1979), on Brownsea Island it occurs in late 18th century enclosures (Taylor 1975, 144), and in south-west Derbyshire it respects field boundaries established after Parliamentary Enclosure (Jackson 1961). Termini ante quem are available for some narrow rig systems. At Castle Ring, Staffordshire, surviving narrow rig is probably the 'traces of cultivation' recorded by Duignan (1884). On the Lammermuir Hills, cultivation ceased c.1860 (Parry 1976), and at Castle Church the narrow rig is truncated by a platform constructed for a tennis court in the 19th century (Hodder 1979).

Evidence from excavations indicates a medieval or earlier date for some narrow rig. Ridges in Roman or pre-Roman contexts are very narrow and fall into Bowen's 'lazy bed' category, for example at Rudchester where ridges of c.1.5m wavelength on a plough-scored subsoil antedated the construction of the Roman fort (Gillam et.al. 1973, 84-85) and Wall, Staffordshire, where a dark soil had a ridged surface with a wavelength of c.1m, and contained no material of later than Neronian date (Round 1976). At Hen Domen, curving ridges of c.4m wavelength overlay a subsoil scored by ploughmarks and were sealed by the bailey rampart of the 11th century motte-and-bailey castle. The buried ploughsoil contained a reused sherd of Roman pottery (Barker and Lawson 1971).

At Walsall Moat, Staffordshire, parallel ridges of c.4m wavelength and straight so far as could be determined within the limits of the excavated area, were sealed by the artificial platform of the moated site and also antedated other pre-platform structures (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976). At Bordesley Abbey, Worcestershire, ridges of c.3m wavelength were overlain by the abbey's boundary bank, probably constructed in the 12th or 13th centuries (Burrow and Dyer 1976). In Chelmsford, Essex, ridges with a wavelength of c.3m are dateable to between the 12th and 15th centuries (Drury 1981).

It can therefore be shown that ridge-and-furrow does not always indicate former arable fields. 'Narrow rig' is not all of post-medieval date and consequently ridge-and-furrow of medieval date does not always conform to the definition of Bowen (1961, 47) and consist of broad, high ridges curving in a reversed-S plan. This idealised description applies only to the east Midlands, where ridge form is a result of soil type and tenure; the 'broad rig' is formed on heavy soils in medieval open fields. 'Narrow rig' was the optimum form of ridging using a fixed mould-board plough (Drury 1981). Where land-holding was in severalty rather than in common, the ridges held no tenurial meaning, and a 'narrow rig' form should be expected. The ridge-and-furrow at Walsall was suggested to be associated with the cultivation of an assart made in Cannock Forest before the creation of a park in the late 12th century (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976). The straight or J-shaped plan may be the result of using a smaller plough team.

In Sutton Chase, although ridges of reversed-S plan did exist and their line is preserved in field boundaries such as that near Dunton Island (SP 184934), there are also S-shaped ridges at Middleton New Park (below, p.159), and C-shaped ridges at Peddimore Hall (below, p.258) and Wishaw Church (below, p.217). There is documentary evidence for the existence of narrow ridges in the study area in the 15th century. The court rolls for Moxhull for December 1443 mentions two selions in *Churchefeld* (adjacent to Wishaw Church, below, p.217), 1 perch (c.5m) wide. The selion could contain one or more ridges.

Woodbanks

The most recent work on woodbanks is that of Rackham (1976; 1980). He defines a woodbank as an earthwork designed to prevent animals entering woodland in which coppicing is practised, and eating young shoots. The woodbank consists of a bank supporting a hedge or fence, with an accompanying external ditch, the spoil from which formed the bank (Rackham 1980, 5). Surviving woodbanks may be dated by their dimensions and profile, their course,

their relationships to other features, and from documentary evidence. Early woodbanks are characteristically wide, the total width of the bank and ditch being c.9-10m, and they have a rounded profile. Their course is sinuous or zig-zag, probably the result of construction around large individual trees. Later woodbanks are progressively smaller in width and height, more acute in profile, and their course is straight or regularly curving. By the 19th century, the typical woodbank is like contemporary field boundaries. It is straight, and consists of a small ditch and a small bank of triangular profile, with a live hawthorn hedge on the bank (Rackham 1975, 19-23; 1976, 115-117 and fig. 20; 1980, 13).

Tree-ring evidence for prehistoric coppicing, as in the Somerset Levels, implies the existence of enclosed woodland by that time (Rackham 1977) and C. A. Smith (1978, 95), has suggested that some cropmarks may represent prehistoric woodland enclosure ditches. Documentary evidence also demonstrates the antiquity of woodbanks. The Domesday *hayes* are probably enclosed woods, there is an early 12th century reference to a ditch surrounding a grove at Knapwell, Cambridgeshire (Rackham 1976, 71), and a bank and ditch around Bourn Wood in the same county is mentioned c.1285 (Rackham 1975, 19-23). A 1589 map of Bedford Purlieus marks 'ancient boundaries' (Rixon 1975), and in John Norden's survey of the coppices in the New Forest in 1609 the most common type of woodland boundary shown on his maps is a fence on a bank, with an external ditch, the other types being a fence alone or a live hedge alone (Sumner 1931, 149). There are documentary references to the heightening of existing woodbanks and the clearing of ditches (Rackham 1980, 157) and for the construction of new earthworks, such as that built around Bedford Purlieus in 1735 to keep deer from Rockingham Forest out of the wood. This consisted of a ditch 3' deep and 4' wide at the top, the spoil from which was piled into a bank with a hedge on top (Rixon 1975).

The form and course of a woodbank and its relationship to other features may suggest its date, and its line indicates the former limits of the wood. Within the wood there may be earthwork evidence for its division among separate owners, a situation known from documentary sources

(Rackham 1980, 137), and for the management of the wood. It may be divided into falls in a coppice rotation, or compartments may be defined by woodbanks in a compartmented woodpasture system (*ibid.*, 173).

Park boundaries

A park was, by definition, securely enclosed by a stone wall, timber fence, or live hedge, with or without an associated earthwork (Cantor and Hatherley 1979, 31). The form of the boundary was influenced by the function of the park and by the materials available. The earlier medieval parks were intended to contain deer and other animals, so they were enclosed by a fence or hedge placed on an earthen bank accompanied by an internal ditch (Crawford 1953, 194). Deer could enter the park through 'deer-leaps' or *saltatoria* where the fence or wall was lower, but could not subsequently escape because of the ditch (Shirley 1867). The effect of the ditch was to heighten the barrier on the inside. Where suitable stone was available a stone wall alone would suffice, as at Bradgate Park, Leicestershire. There were sometimes two enclosures, one with a wall, for fallow deer, the other with a hedge and a paling fence, for red deer (Shirley 1867, 14).

The parks created after c.1350 were often larger than the earlier ones. They are often not enclosed by high earthen banks because of the expense involved, and a fence or hedge alone probable sufficed (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 74). Many post-Restoration parks functioned as landscaped gardens rather than as game reserves, and in some cases they were bounded by an ornamental sunken fence or ha-ha (Prince 1958, 332).

Park boundaries may sometimes be distinguished from other bank and ditch earthwork boundaries by their pronounced ditch (Gilbert 1979, 82). If the park were intended to contain animals, particularly deer, the ditch may be internal, but this is not invariable since many parks were woods before or after emparking and thus their boundaries are normal woodbanks, *i.e.* they consist of a bank with an external ditch (Rackham 1980, 193).

Moated sites

A moated site may be defined as an area of ground partly or wholly bounded by one or more ditches at least 15 feet (4.5m) wide, which were in most cases intended to be water-filled. The enclosed area may be occupied by one or more buildings or associated structures, and the whole complex usually dates from the medieval period (Le Patourel 1973, I; Taylor 1978, 5).

Two classifications of moat plans have been proposed; that of the RCHM (1968, *lxii-lxiv*) was modified by Le Patourel (1973, 31). Both classifications are initially divided chronologically into groups A and B, medieval and post-medieval respectively, and the subsequent classification is morphological. The problems with this approach are that the date of the site may not be certain even after excavation, and that the present form of the site, if determined by field observation, may not correspond to the original layout.

The simplest form of medieval moat is a single enclosure, type A. Types A2 and A3 have more than one island and attached enclosures and pounds. In Type A4 the moat does not complete a full circuit, but in many cases this may be a result of partial infilling of a moat which was originally complete. The size of the enclosed area is included in both Le Patourel's and the RCHM classifications; 1/2 acre (c.0.2 ha; 2000m²) was used as a dividing line. The width and depth of the moat are not included in either classification, nor is there any consideration of double moat circuits, even though Le Patourel includes triple moats. The presence or absence, and position of, ramparts, which are particularly common in the moats of the Forest of Arden region of Warwickshire, has been considered in Roberts' classification of moated sites in the Midlands (1962, 37).

In many cases the moated enclosure contained structures, but at some sites the moat appears to have enclosed an open space. This may be because the site was abandoned before completion of structures, because structural remains were unrecognised in excavation, possibly because

the excavation was too limited, or because the moat was never intended to enclose structures (Le Patourel 1978, 40). If the last were the case, the site may have been constructed as a moated orchard or garden. At Theobalds, Hertfordshire, a 16th century garden was surrounded by a moat that was large enough to boat on (Hadfield 1960, 50) and at Bulwell near Nottingham excavation showed that the moat had been constructed c.1855-70 to enclose an island planted with species of trees that were used as game cover in the 19th century (Drage 1979). In the 17th and 18th centuries, new moat-like ponds were constructed for stockwatering (Roberts 1962, 37) and existing moats were modified in the post-medieval period, as at Holland House in London where moats were joined in 1812 to make a single pond (Ilchester 1937, 147).

The chronology of moated sites is derived from archaeological and from documentary sources. The problems of their archaeology are considered below (p.275) and documentary sources usually provide only a *terminus ante quem* for moat construction. Le Patourel and Roberts (1978, 46) have proposed a five-phase chronology. The earliest moats, phase I, appear before 1150, and phase II, c.1150-1200, includes 16.5% of dated sites. The majority, 70.5% belong to phase III, c.1200-1325. 44% are in the first part of this phase, c.1200-1275, and 26% in the second, c.1275-1325. Only 13% of dated sites belong to phase IV, c.1325-1500. In phase V, from 1500 onwards, homestead moats were abandoned but the moat tradition was revived in enclosed gardens and orchards up to the 19th century.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE: Worked stone objects

The majority of stone artifacts from the study area are of flint. The artifacts in other stone are a quartzite macehead, two polished stone axes, a macehead, and two carved sandstone blocks (figs.22-25) all of which are chance finds. The flint artifacts (figs.19-21) were found in fieldwalking, as chance finds, and in excavation. The quantity of flint from fieldwalking seems to be determined by the dampness and illumination of the soil surface (above, p.28). The chance finds are generally the more easily recognised tool forms such as arrowheads and polished axes, rather than waste flakes. Worked flint has been recovered in excavation at Loaches Banks (below, p.113), Middleton Hall (below, p.250), and near the River Tame at Middleton (Sheen, n.d.).

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The worked flint is of both prehistoric and post-medieval date. The prehistoric flint can be compared with the assemblages from Bourne Pool, just outside the northern edge of the study area (Gould and Gathercole 1958; Saville 1974a), the lower Tame Valley (Smith 1977a; 1979) and the Upper and Middle Trent Basin (Vine 1981) to the north, and the Nuneaton area (Saville 1974b; 1981) to the east.

The prehistoric flints from the study area (figs. 19, 20) share the characteristics of those from the surrounding area, which result from the use of flint pebbles from local drift deposits as a raw material. The colour of the flint can be black, dark grey, light grey, grey-brown or brown, and it is often of poor quality. Cores are flaked down to small residuals (Saville 1974a, 17), and artifacts are generally small (Smith 1977a, 154). There are few distinctive tool forms, and the shortage of workable flint is reflected, as in the Tame Valley and at Bourne Pool (Saville 1974a, 16; Smith 1977a, 154), by the number of artifacts on cortical flakes and the large proportion of flakes and blades with secondary working or edge damage through use as tools.

Because of the lack of distinctive tool forms, dating is problematic. The main distinction is

between Mesolithic and post-Mesolithic flint industries; the latter are characterised by rougher cores and more irregularly-shaped flakes than the former. At Bourne Pool, Saville (1974a, 22) suggested that occupation continued from the Mesolithic into the Neolithic or later, or there were repeated phases of occupation of the same site. Vine (1981, 54) suggested that the use of flint continued well into the Bronze Age in the Upper and Middle Trent Basin. C. A. Smith (1979, 67-68) postulated the existence of an Iron Age flint industry in the Tame Valley because artifacts bearing no resemblance to Neolithic or Bronze age flintwork types were found stratified in Iron Age features at Fisherwick. In south-west England A. J. Smith (1981) has defined an Iron Age flint industry, characterised by unspecialised cores, side- and side-end scrapers, side-edged knives, and petit-tranchet arrowheads. Saville (1981) has however argued that all these types could be derived from Neolithic and Bronze Age occupation on the sites mentioned by Smith.

The post-medieval flints are gunflints. They were used in flintlock guns which were probably developed in France c.1610, and which superseded the matchlock in the British Army c.1690 (Smith and Smith 1963, 25). Two forms of gunflint have been defined (De Lotbiniere 1977, 18, 41, Plate XIV, A and B). The wedge type was made from a semicircular flake with a wedge-shaped profile. The distal end was the firing-edge, and it was given a reverse trim for longer life, while the sides were trimmed straight and the proximal end given a convex trim. For the platform type, gunflint blanks were broken off a long blade with a trapezoidal profile. One of the former long sides of the original blade became the firing edge. The method of manufacture resulted in a bulb of percussion on either side of the platform, and below it the sides were straightened by light trimming. Craft- rather than self-manufacture of the wedge type began c.1660, and there was a change to the platform type soon after 1780 in Kent and c.1790 in Brandon, Norfolk. Once Brandon had adopted the new technique, its resources of high-quality black flint, the 'floorstone' as mined in the Neolithic at Grimes Graves (*ibid.*, 46-47), drove manufacturers in other areas out of business, and gunflints are still manufactured there.

All the gunflints from the study area (fig.20) were found in fieldwalking. They are varying shades of grey in colour. Five and one fragment are of platform type and therefore of late 18th century date or later. Only one, from Wishaw Hall Farm (WH 6) is possibly of wedge type.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE: Pottery

No prehistoric pottery had previously been found in the study area, with the possible exception of 'ancient pottery' said to have been found in Sutton Park (Anon 1957, 14). To the north, Neolithic pottery in the Peterborough tradition was found in excavations at Lichfield Theological College (Carver 1982, 37, 42, fig.10, p.64) and at Fisherwick (Miles 1969). Other excavations at Fisherwick produced Collared Urn sherds and Iron Age pottery (Smith C.A., 1976; 1979). To the south-east excavations at Coleshill and Lea Marston produced sherds of hand-made vessels in Iron Age forms and fabrics, but it has been suggested that this pottery was manufactured after the Roman conquest (Magilton 1980, 31; Wright 1979, 3). Small quantities of Iron Age pottery were found in fieldwalking in the Fisherwick area (Smith 1977b, 55).

One complete vessel and three sherds of Romano-British pottery had previously been found in the study area. These were chance finds in Sutton Park (below, p.165) and at Wiggins Hill (below, p.212) and fieldwalking finds at Canwell (below, p.245) and Drayton Bassett (Gould, unpub.). Roman pottery has been found in stratified contexts near the study area at Coleshill (e.g. Magilton 1980), Wall (Gould 1968a; Round 1971; 1974), Castle Bromwich (Ford 1971) and Shenstone (Hodgkinson and Chatwin 1944).

No Saxon pottery has been found in the study area. In the vicinity the only pagan Saxon pottery is that from the excavated settlement at Catholme (Losco-Bradley 1974) and the cemeteries of the Trent valley (Heron 1889; VCH.St.I, 200-208). Saxo-Norman pottery has been recognised at Tamworth (e.g. Gould 1968b) and Lichfield (Carver 1982, 38, 44, fig.12, p.64; Hummler 1982, 85, 87). Stafford and St. Neot's ware types were found at Lichfield.

Small quantities of medieval pottery had previously been found in the study area. These were from excavations at Greenside Road, in Erdington (below, p.243), and Booth's Farm (below,

p.252). There was a chance find from Wishaw Hall Farm (below, p.262). In the vicinity of the study area, medieval pottery has been found in excavations at Castle Bromwich (Ford 1971), Rushall Street, Walsall (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1983), Walsall Moat (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976; 1977), Lichfield (Lyon 1960; Barton 1969; Carver 1982; Hummler 1982), Tamworth (eg. Meeson and Sheridan 1974), Wall (Gould 1968a; Round 1971; 1974), and Dudley Castle (Boland 1984), and in excavation and surface collection at Park Hall, Castle Bromwich (Wrathmell 1976), the Sandwell Valley (Hodder 1984) and Fisherwick (Smith 1977a; 1979, 63). In the region as a whole, most of the medieval pottery is from excavations on moated sites, such as Shareshill (Oswald 1961) and Weoley Castle (Oswald 1962).

Pottery from Sutton Chase

Other than that obtained by excavation at Middleton Hall, Booth's Farm and Greenside Road, the pottery is unstratified, since it is derived from surface collection or chance finds. In order to establish broad date ranges, I have compared the fabrics, forms and decoration of pottery from Sutton Chase with those of pottery from sites in the region of the study area (fig.26). I have made an independent fabric type series for Sutton Chase, which considers the hardness of the fabric, the frequency, size, form and colour of inclusions, the colour of the fabric, and the colour of any slip or glaze (pp.81-83). Representative rims and bases of each fabric have been drawn where available (figs. 27-31).

Prehistoric (types 1 and 2): Only two sherds of possible prehistoric date were found. Type 1 is a body sherd of a thick-walled vessel. The type 2 sherd may be from a weakly-shouldered jar, similar to those vessels of Iron Age form and fabric from Coleshill and Lea Marston, now in Warwick Museum. Smith (1977a, 165) notes that very little prehistoric pottery was found in fieldwalking in the Tame Valley north of the study area.

Romano-British (types 3 to 14; fig.27): Some well-known types have been

recognised but the quantities are small. Little samian ware (type 3) was found; the type is difficult to recognise when the characteristic glossy surface has been worn off. At Alder Wood (AW 6) the gloss is only preserved in the groove of a foot-ring on a base sherd, and the sherd is too small for the determination of the vessel form. Colour-coated wares (type 4) may similarly be rare because sherds of these wares are difficult to see on field surfaces. The ware is frequently thin-walled and tends to break into small sherds, and the slip is often darkcoloured. All the sherds found are body sherds, and some are decorated with rouletting. Grey wares (types 5 and 6) are not all necessarily of Roman date, since they may be confused with medieval grey wares such as the products of the Deritend kiln (Sherlock 1957). Most of the sherds in Birmingham Museum from that site, however, have no resemblance to Roman fabrics or forms. There is only one rim in the Sutton Chase grey ware, an everted rim in type 5. The vessels represented in the two type groups are both thin- and thick-walled, the latter being vessels of tankard form. Some of the orange wares (types 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12) could be medieval, but others are probably Roman Severn Valley Ware. There was a kiln producing this ware at Perry Bar, south of the study area (Hughes 1961). A sherd of fabric type 8 (BG) is probably from a tankard like those produced at Perry Barr. Some Severn Valley ware sherds may not have been retrieved when fieldwalking because of their similarity to post-medieval orange flower-pot type fabrics, since only the rims are distinctive. The coarse fabric of type 14, of which only a single sherd was found (DP 6), may also be of Roman date.

The majority of the Romano-British sherds from the study area are from mortaria (type 7) and most of the sherds are rims. The fabric is hard-fired so it tends to be relatively little worn, and light-coloured, so it is easily seen in surface collection. The rims are easily recognised but the body sherds may not be, unless the trituration grits are visible.

All the mortaria from Sutton Chase are from the Hartshill-Mancetter kilns, where production began in the early 2nd century and continued into the 4th century. The fabric of Hartshill-Mancetter mortaria has been described by Hartley (1971, 29). It is a 'pipeclay' fabric, fine-

textured, white, cream or pale buff in colour, occasionally with a pinkish core. The fabric often has inclusions of finely ground grits, probably the same as those used for trituration. From the mid 2nd century onwards, the trituration grits are hard and angular, and red-brown, dark brown or blue in colour. In the earlier 2nd century they are less stereotyped, and include white or grey quartz-like pebbles. The 3rd and 4th century mortaria have harder fabrics than those produced in the 2nd century, probably because they were fired in kilns specifically for mortaria, thus were fired more efficiently and to a higher temperature.

A pioneer type-series of rim forms of mortaria and their dates on various sites was compiled by Bushe-Fox (1913, 76-80). Webster (1961, 13-14) distinguished two basic rim forms, the hook and the rim flattened against the body (hammerhead or wall-sided), but noted many variants within this broad division; the hooked form can be curved or out-turned, and the flattened, plain or reeded. The hooked form continued in use long after the other types had evolved and developed, and the same potter made different forms at the same time, as at Carlton, Lincs. At Sibbington (Peterborough) the hook rim persisted into the 3rd century alongside the flattened rim. The true hammer-head form was a 3rd century development. The spout form also provides some dating evidence. At the Mancetter-Hartshill kilns the practice of forming the spout on a hammerhead rim by breaking the bead was not in use before the 3rd century, and was never common there (Hartley 1971, 32). 3rd and 4th century mortaria were sometimes decorated on the flange or rim with stripes or other patterns in red-brown or dark-brown slip (Hartley 1971, 29).

The fabric of Mancetter-Hartshill mortaria is very similar to that of the medieval white, buff or cream wares, types 36, 37, and 39 (below), although the medieval fabrics tend to be coarser and harder fired than the mortaria. The medieval wares may also be painted with vertical redbrown stripes. Some sherds may therefore have been wrongly identified, since only the rim form or the present of trituration grits provide a certain identification as a mortarium sherd.

Medieval (types 19, 22-23, 25-41; figs.28-30): The medieval pottery from Sutton

Chase is compared here with that from sites in the surrounding area which is now deposited in Birmingham and Tamworth Museums, with pottery from recent excavations at Lichfield Theological College (Carver 1982, 36, 38, 44, fig.12-14 pp 66-68), and with the chronology offered for the medieval pottery of Coventry by Gooder *et. al.* (1966, 124 ff.). The local medieval pottery traditions cannot yet be closely dated (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976, 52; Carver 1982, 36, 38). In most of the published excavation reports dating is based on typology and documentary evidence for site occupation.

The most common types in Sutton Chase are 'white wares', type 36 and the related types, 23, 37 and 39, all white, cream or buff fabrics, sometimes with a blue-grey core resulting from incomplete combustion of organic matter in the clay, and with many small angular inclusions of several colours. The main vessel forms are jugs with strap handles and concave bases, and cooking pots and jars with flat or convex bases. Five rim forms have been distinguished in the assemblage from Sutton Chase (fig.29)

- 1 Flat, or triangular with flat top.
- 2 Rhomboid, with or without lid sealing. Top of rim pointed, not flat.
- 3 Rhomboid, with groove along top of rim.
- 4 Complex rhomboid, slight flange formation.
- 5 Rims of small vessels, probably jugs.

There are two main base forms (fig 30).

- 1 Concave, wall of vessel curves inwards from base. Jug form.
- 2 Flat or convex, wall of vessel curves outwards. Jar form.

There are two main handle forms (fig 30)

- 1 Strap, decorated with either a single incised longitudinal groove or diagonal slashes.
- 2 Rod, approximately circular cross-section, diagonal incisions.

Three decorative methods have been distinguished; each may occur alone or in combination with others.

1 Incised, curvilnear, serpentiform. On top of type 1 rims (fig.29) and lower part of wall

- near type 1 bases (fig 30).
- 2 Finger impressions. Along base of wall near type 1 bases (fig 30)
- 3 'Painted': thin red or brown slip applied with brush to wall of vessel, in narrow irregular vertical stripes.
- Glazed: brown, green-brown, apple-green, olive-green, or mottled, patchy or complete cover.

'White ware' occurs in all the local medieval pottery assemblages. It is fabric 11 at Lichfield Theological College, the most abundant fabric type there, and the forms are cooking pots, bowls, jars, jugs and shallow dishes, whose decoration is incised, stamped or gouged with a blunt-ended tool (Carver 1982, 44). At Walsall Moat it is types 1 and 2 (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976, 41-42) and study of the pottery from that site and Rushall Street, Walsall (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1983) now in Birmingham Museum reveals that this fabric is by far the most common at both. Similarly at Tamworth (Tamworth Museum collection) the fabric is very common, and at Wall and Park Hall (Birmingham Museum collection) it is the main type of medieval pottery. At Fisherwick, Smith (1977a, 174-181; 1979, 63) defined two medieval fabrics, which he termed buff ware, identical to white ware, and sandy ware. I found on examination that only one sherd of 'sandy ware' amongst the pottery from Fisherwick in Tamworth Museum, was convincingly distinct from 'buff ware'. At Shareshill (Birmingham Museum collection), Weoley Castle (ibid.), Kent's Moat (ibid.) Sheldon Hall, Dudley Castle (Boland 1984) and Sandwell Priory (Hodder 1984) although white ware is present, it is not dominant in any assemblage.. At Hawkesley Farm (Birmingham Museum collection) there are only a few sherds, all from the same vessel, and at Wakefield House (ibid.) only 40% of the sherds are white ware. White ware is not present in the Deritend assemblage (ibid.). There appears to be a zone north of the Upper Tame within which white ware is dominant in medieval pottery assemblages. It has been suggested (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976, 42) that the distribution of the ware indicates that it was manufactured and traded in the southern part of Cannock Forest. The white ware from Sutton Chase and all the other sites mentioned above is a fabric which is similar but not identical to Fabric A in the Chilvers Coton kilns near Nuneaton, Warwickshire. At Chilvers Coton the fabric is common during the 13th century, with some spread into the 14th century (Mayes and Scott 1984, 4-41). A possible production site for white ware in Sutton Chase and its vicinity is Wednesbury, where white clay like that at Chilvers Coton occurs in Coal Measures. This clay was used for the production of clay tobacco pipes in the 17th century (Plot 1686, 122). Two potters at Wednesbury are mentioned in 1422 (SHC. xvii,92), but no kiln sites have yet been found.

Various dates have been proposed for the manufacture and use of white ware. Oswald (1961, 54-55) suggested that the jug forms, with red-painted decoration, are local copies of jugs imported from northern France in the 12th century. The latter, as for example at Pevensey Castle (Dunning 1956, 208-11) are white globular jugs with rhomboid rim-profiles and straphandles, decorated with vertical stripes of red paint. There are signs of heat action on and around the base, and Dunning suggests that they were imported with wine and used to heat mulled wine. Such imported wares reached as far north as Newcastle-upon-Tyne and Scotland in the mid 11th to early 12th centuries (Hodges 1977, 251).

If white ware is correctly derived from imported wares, then the 12th century may be proposed as a *terminus post quem* for white ware production in the vicinity of Sutton Chase. At Lichfield, white ware was dated to the 12th to 15th centuries (Barton 1969; Carver 1982). Smith (1979, 63) suggested that it was current from the late 12th to the late 14th century. He divided it into an earlier type, with a softer fabric, slacker forms, and simpler rim profiles, and a later type, often very hard, with elaborate and sharply angular rim forms. In Coventry, a chronological division based on form and decoration has been put forward (Gooder *et al.* 1966, 124-6), allowing a considerable degree of overlap within the 13th to 15th centuries. For the jar form, it was suggested that the 13th century vessels have square-profiled rims, flattened on top, as form 1 above (p.89) sometimes with decoration of form 1 on top of the rim. By the 14th century rims are everted rather than expanded, and may have an internal bevel. However the '13th century type' appears, from its abundance in later layers, still to

have been in use in the 14th century. For the jug form (*ibid.*, 125-126), the sequence is determined by handles, bases and decoration. In the 12th and 13th centuries, handles are of strap form (form 1 above, but in the 13th and 14th centuries rod handles (form 2 above) appear, bases are thumbed (decoration form 2 above), and the most common decoration is the way line (form 1 above) on the vessel's body. By the late 14th and 15th centuries, plain strap handles are most common, and bases are still thumbed but the thumbing produces a horizontal frill rather than a series of parallel vertical marks. Incised line decoration is now confined to a single line around the neck. It can be seen from the overlap allowed for in this sequence that all the forms could have been in use at the same time, the 13th to 15th centuries. At Weoley Castle and Shareshill, Oswald (1961; 1962) suggested a 14th century date for white ware, while the type was dated to the 14th to 15th centuries at Wall (Gould 1968a; Round 1974).

The other main medieval fabric is type 34 (fig.28). The forms in this fabric are thick- and thin-walled cooking-pots with convex bases and expanded rims which may be plain or ridged, or infolded. This type has been found on many sites in the region, including Shareshill (Birmingham Museum collection), Fisherwick, Walsall Moat, and Rushall Street, Walsall. It is comparable to Fisherwick 'sandy ware' (Smith 1979, 63), and Walsall Moat type 4 (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976, 42). Smith considered that sandy ware probably appeared before buff ware, but overlapped in date with it. Wrathmell and Wrathmell (1977, 37) suggested that differences in rim form between this ware and white ware indicated differences in function rather than in date. Since the cooking pot form does not seem to occur in white ware, the two fabrics were probably in contemporary use in forms which were complementary in the repertoire of domestic vessels.

Other types of probable medieval date are types 19, 22, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 35, 38 and 39. Type 22, a pink fabric in a cooking pot or jar form with everted rim, is possibly paralleled by a sherd from Wall (Birmingham Museum collection). Type 26, an open bowl in soft orange fabric, is paralleled by sherd KE 54 CX from Kent's Moat (*ibid.*). Type 38 is represented at

Park Hall by a rim, PH 76 DO 3, sherd no.2 (ibid.).

Late Medieval (types 25, 29, 32, 33, 41; fig.28): These fabrics are 'Midlands Purple' and related hard-fired wares, probably beginning in the late 14th century. Type 29, an everted cooking-pot rim, is similar to a rim from Sheldon Hall. A strap-handle in type 32 fabric was found at Wall (Birmingham Museum collection). Type 41 is from thin-walled vessels represented by body sherds only, and is like 'light brown ware' from Fisherwick (Tamworth Museum).

Post-Medieval (types 15, 16, 17, 18, 21; fig.31): Three parallel traditions can be defined, all derived from local medieval fabrics and forms. These are buff and white wares, bricky wares, and hard-fired wares.

The buff and white wares (type 15) consist of 'Midlands Yellow' and slipwares in pink and white fabrics. Midlands Yellow has been described as a form of slipware which is a local development of a long tradition of buff wares; slipwares developed from Midlands Yellow (Woodfield 1981, 110). The date range of Midland Yellow is late 16th to 18th centuries (Woodfield 1966, 78). Slipware begins in Staffordshire in the 17th century and was probably made there until the late 18th century, but production at other centres continued into the 19th century (Rackham 1951, 7, 9, 13).

Brick-red wares (type 16) appear in the region in the 15th century (Gooder et al. 1966, 119 and fig.11 no.71). In the post-medieval period soft, bricky fabrics occur in a thick-walled, flat-based 'pancheon' form, with an interior black glaze. The pancheon has been defined by Brown (1979, 92) as a large vessel wider at the mouth than at the base, and requiring two hands to lift it. In Coventry, the pancheon form first appears in the 15th century and continues through the post-medieval period (Woodfield 1981, 112). In Sutton Chase, a rim of a vessel of pancheon form in 'white ware' fabric and with a green glaze was found at Wishaw Hall

Farm (WH 72; below, p.262). The black glaze on post-medieval pancheons is actually a transparent lead glaze containing iron compounds. Iron-glazed wares were probably introduced into Staffordshire before slipwares, c.1670, but they have a long history and were made in Staffordshire well into the 19th century (Celoria and Kelly 1973, 6; Greaves 1976, 42, fig.21). Buff bricky fabrics (type 21) also occur in pancheon forms, and some vessels have rim forms of medieval type.

Type 18 is 'Cistercian Ware' type of 16th century and later date, occuring in cup and beaker forms (Le Patourel 1965, 116-118; Brears 1968, 4). It has been described as 'Developed Midlands Purple Ware' (Woodfield 1981, 110). Stonewares (type 17) were made in Staffordshire from the 17th century onwards (Rackham 1951, 19; Greaves 1976, 42, fig.21). The forms include ceramic bottles and open flat-rimmed bowls of pancheon form.

POTTERY FABRIC DESCRIPTIONS

IRON AGE?

- 1. Hand-made, large angular inclusions. Red-black with red outer surface, 11mm thick.
- 2. Very coarse, sandy inclusions. Black core, black-red outer surface. 9mm thick.

ROMANO-BRITISH

- 3. Samian ware. (fig.27)
- 4. Colour-coated wares
- 5. Hard fabric, many small angular inclusions. Dark grey. (fig.27)
- 6. Many small angular inclusions. Grey, sometimes with dark grey core.
- 7. Mortaria, Mancetter/Hartshill fabric. (fig.27)
- 8. Soft fabric with angular inclusions. Orange with dark grey core. Thick-walled.
- 9. Soft fabric with small angular inclusions, roughcast surface. Red/orange with grey core. (fig.27).
- 10. Hard fabric, very coarse, large angular inclusions. Orange with blue-grey core. (fig.27).
- 11. Soft fabric, white, grey, brown and white angular inclusions. Orange with blue-grey core. (fig.27).
- 12. Soft fabric, white, grey, brown and white angular inclusions. Orange with grey core.
- 13. Small angular inclusions. White throughout.
- 14. Large white angular inclusions. Dark grey surfaces, red core.

MEDIEVAL

19. Hard fabric, many small angular inclusions. Buff throughout.

- 22. Many small angular inclusions. Pink-orange, grey core. Red-orange slip, patchy glaze. (fig.28)
- 23. Soft fabric, many small angular inclusions. Pink with one white surface.
- 26. Soft fabric, many small angular inclusions. Orange, with spots of green-brown glaze. (fig.28).
- 27. Soft fabric, orange (fig.28)
- 28. Small angular inclusions. Buff. Thin-walled.
- 30. Few small angular inclusions. Orange-grey, with apple green glaze.
- 31. Many angular inclusions. Red-brown. (fig.28)
- 34. Sandy fabric. Red-brown-grey, sometimes black or dark grey core. (fig.28).
- 35. Hard fabric, many small angular inclusions. Pink, buff-cream surfaces. (fig.28).
- 36. Many small multicoloured angular inclusions. White or buff, sometimes grey core. Sometimes brown or green glaze, sometimes red-painted. (figs.29, 30).
- 37. Fabric as 36. Pink with one white side. Green glaze on interior surface. Thickwalled.
- 38. Small angular inclusions. Red with red slip. (fig.28)
- 39. Fabric as 36 but harder. Thick green glaze. (fig.28)
- 40. Fabric as 39. Green-glazed roof tiles.

LATE MEDIEVAL

- 25. Hard-fired purple fabric, Midlands Purple type. (fig.28)
- 29. Hard-fired grey-red fabric, some with external black glaze (fig.28)
- 32. Hard-fired grey, pimply surface. (fig.28)
- 33. Hard-fired buff with red-brown surfaces. (fig.28)
- 41. Hard-fired, many small inclusions. Buff, with patchy green glaze. (fig.28).

POST-MEDIEVAL

- 15. Slipwares and Midlands Yellow. Fine white or pink fabrics, white slip, yellow and red-brown glaze. (fig.29)
- 16. Coarse bricky fabrics. Orange, buff, maroon and purple fabric, with maroon slip and red or black glaze. (fig.29)
- 17. Stonewares. Buff or grey fabric, brown or yellow glaze. (fig.29)
- 18. Hard-fired maroon or purple fabrics, purple or black glaze. (fig.29)
- 21. Hard-fired coarse fabrics. Buff or white, with maroon slip. (fig.29).

WRITTEN DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

In this study, it was not possible in the time available to undertake a full documentary search. Documentary research was therefore confined mainly to literary sources and to existing transcriptions and summaries of record sources.

The record sources are at national, county and private level. The national records consist of royal surveys, royal grants and legal proceedings. County records include legal proceedings and tax assessments, and private records consist of manorial records and deeds (table 5). Some of the older literary sources may, because of their date, be regarded as record sources. These include the itineraries and the early county histories, and Reports to the Board of Agriculture. The early county histories also contain transcriptions of record sources now lost. The other literary sources are local histories, most of which are collections of material published elsewhere, particularly in the county histories.

2 Table

SHC, Dugdale Soc. transcription or summary SHC, Midland PRO calendar PRO calendar PRO calendar Dugdale Soc. PRO calendar PRO calendar PRO calendar Record Soc. Published DBS; Surveys of manorial Surveys of manorial Legal proceedings Tax assessments Contents below, p.335 Crown grants Crown grants Crown grants Crown grants holdings holdings Record Sources, National 1327 and 1332 16th century Date Medieval Medieval Medieval Medieval Medieval Medieval 1086 WRITTEN DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE: Foreign and Domestic, Henry VIII Letters and Papers Inquisitions post Inquisitions miscellaneous Charter Rolls Domesday Book Assize Rolls Patent Rolls Close Rolls Title Lay Subsidy mortem

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Land transactions

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WRITTEN DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE: Record Sources, County and Private

Published transcription or summary	SHC, I	nts SHC, Warks. County Records	tions PRO Calendar	tions Mason 1980	Holt 1975, app.pp. 135-155	SHC	and management Hilton 1952	and management Midland Record Soc.	and management Arkinstall and Baird n.d	and management Gould 1957, 38, 54-55	and management Mton Mss.
Cont	Legal proceedings	Tax assessments	Land transactions	Land transactions	Landholding	Land transactions	Landholding	Landholding	Landholding	Landholding	Landholding
Date	17th century	17th century	Medieval	1100-1268	1462	Medieval	1479-80	16th century	various	post-medieval	medieval
Title	Quarter Sessions Rolls	Hearth Tax Returns	Ancient Deeds	Beauchamp Cartwlary	Erdington Rental	Shenstone Charters	Sutton Coldfield Manor Account	Sutton Coldfield Corporation Records	Erdington Deeds and Court Rolls	Great Barr and Alridge Court Rolls	Court Rolls and other Mss, Canwell, Curdworth, Drayton Bassett, Erdington, Lea Marston, Middleton, Moxhull,

WRITTEN DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE: Record Sources, Private

	 				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Published transcription	Unpub; transcribed C. Dyer	Unpub; transcribed N. Evans			Calendar: Beresford 1941a, 1941b.
Contents	Landholding and management	Landholding and management	Field names, ownership and use	Field names and ownership	various
Date	14th-15th centuries	18th century	18th-19th centuries	19th-20th centuries	various
Title	Court Rolls and Manor Accounts: Lea, Middleton, Moxhull, Sutton Coldfield	Minute Books of Warden and Society of Sutton Coldfield	Enclosure and Tithe Awards	Auctioneers' Catalogues	Sutton Coldfield documents

WRITTEN DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE : Literary Sources

Type	References
[tineraries	Leland (John Leland c.1530); Morris 1947 (Celia Fiennes, late 17th cent.)
Reports to Board of Agriculture	Pitt 1794; 1813 (Staffs.); Wedge 1794; Murray 1813 (Warks)
County Histories, Staffs. County Histories, Warks.	Plot 1686; Shaw 1798; Pitt 1817; Gardner 1844; VCH Dugdale 1656; 1730; Hutton 1809; VCH
Area, parish and hamlet histories	Chattock 1884 (area) Mitchell 1926 (Berwood), C. Smith 1978 (Drayton Bassett), Arkinstall and Baird n.d.,
	Fowler 1885, Saxton 1928 (Erdington), Gould 1957 (Great Barr), Crook 1968 (Kingstanding), Sandars 1794 (Shenstone), Bracken 1860, Riland Bedford 1891, Midgley 1904,
	Jones 1973 (Sutton Coldfield).

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE

The maps consulted in the present study may be divided into four groups (table 6). Most of the national maps are from the accurate surveys of the Ordnance Survey, beginning in the early 19th century. The county maps, dating from the 16th century onwards, vary in detail and purpose. Those accompanying county histories (in Dugdale 1656; 1730; Plot 1686), for example, concentrate on the country seats and parks of their sponsors. Warwickshire maps have been listed by Harvey and Thorpe (1959). Several Warwickshire maps include parts of Staffordshire and *vice versa*.

Parish and estate maps may depict smaller areas in greater detail. The maps accompanying Tithe and Enclosure Awards, of 18th and 19th century date, include field divisions, the extent of commons and woods, and the limits of titheable land. Field names and ownership are contained in the written awards, except at Weeford. Here the map with the Tithe Award shows the parish divided into four ownership areas only, and does not include individual fields or field names. Auctioneers' maps and estate surveys may include field boundaries, field names, and ownership. They are based on ownership, not parish divisions, and therefore may include land in part of a single parish, or in two or more parishes. The remaining group of maps are those made for varying purposes, and including parts of the study area. Sheriff's canal map includes details of land on either side of the canal route. Midgley's Sutton Park map is the only published source of some local names for parts of the park which are otherwise recorded in oral tradition only.

Table 6:

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE : Map Catalogue

Reference Ogilby 1675 Plot 1686 BRL BRL Buildings, field boundaries individual trees, levels marked as circular or oval fenced and unfenced roads, buildings, parks, woods. Road pattern, individual unenclosed common waste, unfenced parts of road. Detailed road pattern, Parks and common land London Road (A446), Road map. Fenced and Parks, woodland (both areas), main streams, individual buildings Relief indicated by marked and named woods, parks and Detail prominent hills hachuring As above sheet Parks Curdworth Bridge Bourne Brook at Whole of study Whole of study Whole of study on R. Tame to Staffordshire Staffordshire Staffordshire Extent Hints area area area c.25"= 1 mile (1:2500) = 1 mile 0.24"= 1 mile 1" = 1 mile= 1 mile 1" = 1 milel'' = 1 mile Scale 0.5" **5**11 Ordnance Survey Ordnance Survey Ordnance Survey Cartographer Saxton Ogilby Browne Yates (surveyed 1816) (surveyed 1769-75) 1860s 1880sDate 1675 1817 1789 1577 1682

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE : Map Catalogue

0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Morden 0. Beighton con 0. Jeffries 0.
0.3" = 1 mile county: 0.3" = 1 mile hundred: 0.5" = 1 mile 0.5" = 1 mile	ton county: 0.3" = 1 hundred: 0.5" = 1 0.5" = 1 1" = 1 mi
	Morden Beighton Jeffries Yates

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE: Map Catalogue

Reference	Murray 1813	Harvey and Thorpe 1959, 142, no.72	LRO	LRO	BRL	BRL	MSL	WRO	LRO	LRO	BRL	BRL
Detai1	Soils of Warwickshire	Detailed road pattern, unenclosed common waste, woods, parks, individual buildings, parish boundaries	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Tithe Map	Corn Rent Map	Enclosure Map
Extent	Warwickshire	Warwickshire	Drayton Bassett	Shenstone	Perry Barr township, Handsworth Parish	Aston	Aldridge and Great Barr	Dunton manor	Hints	Weeford	Sutton Coldfield	Erdington
Scale	0.2" = 1 mile	1" = 1 mile									8.9"= 1 mile	
Cartographer	Murray	Greenwood										
Date	1813	1820	1837	1839	1840	1840	1841	1846	1847	1884	1825	1805

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE : Map Catalogue

		– - <u></u>		····						
Reference	BRL	WRO	BRL	BRL	BRL	SLL	PRO; PRO 1967, 452, no. 3075	PRO; PRO 1967, 452, no. 3074	Shaw 1798, II, 9	BRL
Detai1	Enclosure Map	Enclosure Map	Auctioneers' Map	Auctioneers' Map	Auctioneers' Map	Auctioneers' Map	Coloured Ms. Accurate road system, some field divisions, some field-and place-names	Coloured Ms. Roads, park paling, woods, fields and strip-divisions, field-and place-names, buildings.	Field divisions, parks, some names, acreages. Now lost.	Fields and strip-divisions, some field-names
Extent	Sutton Coldfield	Wishaw	Sutton Coldfield and Wishaw	Wishaw Manor	Church Farm, Wishaw	Streetly Estate	Arden Estate, Minworth	Arden Estate, Minworth	Drayton Bassett	Erdington
Scale						17.6"= 1 mile	22" = 1 mile			
Cartographer										
Date	1825	1839	1838	1843	1896	1918	1583 (surveyed 20 March)	1589	<u>c</u> .1590	1760

CARTOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE: Map Catalogue

Date	Cartographer	Scale	Extent	Detail	References
1763	Snape		Andrew Hackett's Estate: land in Sutton Coldfield, Curdworth, and Wishaw	Field plans and names	BRL
1773	Snape		Lea Marston	Open fields and commons	BRL
19th cent			C. B. Adderley's Estate and other plans of Lea Marston		BRL
1811			Sutton Coldfield Charity Estates	Fields and names	SCL
1865			Lord Middleton's Estate: Middleton, and parts of Kingsbury, Wishaw and Drayton Basset	Field plans	WRO
1791	Sherriff		A map of the Birmingham and Fazeley Canal from Aston Junction to the Coleshill Road at Dunton, Curdworth, Minworth and Wiggins	Open-fields, with strip-divisions and ownership, and commons	WRO
1904	Midgley	6" = 1 mile	Sutton Park	Names, woodland acreages	Midgley 1904

PLACE- AND FIELD-NAME EVIDENCE

The principal published sources for the interpretation of place-names in the study area are the county volumes of Duignan (1902) for Staffordshire and of the English Place-Name Society (Gover et al. 1936) for Warwickshire. These are supplemented by the more recent studies of Gelling (1974) and Maynard (1974), each of which deals with place-names in the study area. Neither of the county volumes includes all minor and field-names. For the present study, additional names were obtained from written documents and maps, particularly Tithe and Enclosure Awards, and local oral tradition. These names were interpreted with reference to Field's (1972) list of field-name elements and Gelling's (1978) general work.

Place-names provide evidence for settlement and land-use at or before the date at which the name is first recorded. The existence, or former existence, of earthwork features is indicated by the elements listed by Gelling (1978, 130-161), or by names in worth and hay, each of which means 'enclosure' (Field 1972, 100), and the discovery of objects by names such as Roman Field (below, p.118). The vegetation may be described in general terms such as heath, moor or wood, but sometimes plant species are mentioned, such as ling, lime or flax by lin (Field 1972, 126). The site of woodland areas is indicated by hurst or greaves (grove) each of which refer to small woods. Woodland management is recorded by copy (coppice) (Field 1972, 53) and the origins of woodland by plantation. Animal husbandry in general is indicated by the name hardwick, 'land devoted to livestock' (Field 1972, 98), and particular animals by shippen (cowshed) (ibid., 201) and shipton (sheep farm) (Gover et. al. 1936, 52). The elements park, lodge, keeper, coney, doe, warren, burrow and standing (hunting stand) (Field 1972, 118) are evidence for deer hunting and rabbit warrens. Industrial activity, charcoal burning, may be indicated by the name Coldfield (below, p.126).

ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

The evidence for past environmental conditions in and around the study area consists of pollen, macroscopic plant remains and insect remains preserved in waterlogged deposits, pollen in mor humus soil horizons, and buried soils and soil profiles. There has been little work on such evidence in the study area itself but the environmental history of the region can be reconstructed with evidence from other sites in the vicinity (fig.32). In the present study only the post-Glacial period is relevant, therefore those sites inside the study area which have produced evidence only from interstadials of the last glaciation are not considered here. These sites are Middleton (Shotton 1980), Minworth (Coope and Sands 1966) and Lea Marston (Osborne 1973).

The main peat deposits in the study area are in Sutton Park and in the valleys of the River Tame, Plants Brook, and Footherly Brook. Of these only the first two sites have been sampled. A map of marshes and bogs in Sutton Park has been produced by Readett (1971, 6). The most extensive peat deposit is in the valley floor of Longmoor Brook, a tributary of Plants Brook, on the western side of Sutton Park, where the peat has a maximum depth of 1m. There are relatively impermeable deposits on the valley floors, and the valley bog is kept wet by drainage from the surrounding land (Mackney 1971, 66-67).

In the 18th century, peat-cutting revealed tree-trunks, said to be of pine, which had axe-marks on them (Incola 1762, 403); it was suggested that these were part of a trackway across the peat from the Roman Road to the west (Midgley 1904, 9; below, p.168). In 1921 a fire destroyed the shallower parts of the peat, on its north-eastern edge, revealing two groups of mature Scots Pine stools *in situ* below it, together with trunks (Bloomer 1923). A monolith of peat was taken for analysis by S. Colledge in 1980, at SP 08669641, near the centre of the deposit, where the peat was c.80cm thick. In 1981 K. Edwards took samples from exposed sections here and near the northern and southern edges of the deposit. In each case pollen preservation

was good. The spectra obtained indicated a forest of the Atlantic period (zone VIIa), suggesting that the whole deposit had been truncated by the documented post-medieval peat cutting in this area (Incola 1762, 403). At Lea Marston, adjacent to the River Tame (SP 210940), pollen and insect remains were obtained from one level in an organic deposit sealed by alluvium. Dates of 9750 ± 200 bc (Birm-208), 7560 ± 235 bc (Birm-215), 7520 ± 200 bc (Birm-310), 7500 ± 90 bc (Birm-329), 7470 ± 200 bc (Birm-311), and 7340 ± 200 bc (Birm-312) were obtained for the level. The majority of the beetles were species still found in Britain today, and indicated a temperate climate with summer temperatures of 16° - 17° C, and deciduous woodland. The pollen record showed high values for birch and willow, with some pine, a typical spectrum for zone IV (Osborne 1974; 1976).

None of the other peat deposits has yet been sampled. I discovered the deposit in the valley of Plants Brook, in the vicinity of New Hall (area SP 129953) in July-August 1980 during observation of pits dug for new electricity pylons. The peat is sealed by modern dumping associated with recent diversion of Plants Brook, and is 40 to 100cm thick. On the north side of the River Tame, south of Curdworth village (area SP 186920) I observed in summer 1984 that earthmoving for the constructon of the M42 motorway had revealed a peat deposit up to 1.5m thick, overlying terrace gravels, but due to the circumstances of the exposure it was not possible to record it in detail or to take samples.

Samples for pollen analysis were taken from the upper parts of podzol profiles in Sutton Park by Mackney (1961). He does not give the location of his sampling sites, but describes their present vegetation as open-and close-canopy woodland respectively. His results suggested that there had been little change in the vegetation; where there was open-canopy woodland there was no indication of a former denser tree cover, and at the close-canopy site the vegetation had been dominated by oak and holly throughout the profile, with a gradual increase in the proportion of grasses and herbs with increasing depth. The absence of vegetation change is surprising in view of the evidence obtained from soil pollen analysis elsewhere in Britain

(e.g. Dimbleby 1962) and suggests that only the more recent pollen was preserved at Sutton Park, or that the earlier vegetation history was represented at deeper levels in the soil profile.

The only buried soil sampled in the study area is that below the Roman road in Sutton Park. A section dug through the road in the north-western part of the Park in 1936 showed that it rested on a 'black peaty sand' (Walker 1940, 53 and fig.3, p.54). This surface was relocated in 1982 and samples were taken from it by K. Edwards; the results of analysis are not available. The soil profile does, however, indicate podzol development at the site before the Roman road was constructed. Also in Sutton Park, Mackney (1961, 25) observed relict morphological features of argillic soils in the subsoil layers of some podzol profiles. At Middleton, adjacent to the River Tame (SP 205982), a soil surface buried by alluvium derived from Keuper Marl contained struck flints of Mesolithic types (section in Shotton 1980, 130, fig.1., 'grey humic clay'; L. Barfield, pers. comm.).

In the vicinity of the study area, environmental evidence has been obtained from sites at Wall, Shustoke and Fisherwick. At Wall a monolith was taken from below the Roman Watling Street (SK 109060). (Godwin and Dickson 1966). The buried profile consisted of 40cm of crumbly amorphous organic silt, with a basal transition to a clayey sand. At a depth of 6cm the silt contained charcoal fragments and *Juncus* seeds, at 16cm *Juncus* seeds, and at 26cm *Juncus* seeds and some *Sphagnum* leaves. There were pine stumps rooted in the underlying sand. Two pollen spectra were obtained, from depths of 6cm and 38cm below the road. At 6cm the principal taxa represented, expressed as a percentage of total arboreal pollen, were *Alnus* (84%), *Ulmus* (12%), *Filicales* (54%), *Cyperaceae* (14%), *Graminae* (10%), *Pteridium aquilinum* (3%), *Calluna vulgaris* (2.6%), *Plantago lanceolata* (1.3%), and *Quercus* (0.6%). At 38cm the principal taxa were *Pinus* (96%) and *Corylus* (16%). Godwin suggested that the two spectra indicated the inundation of a post-Boreal pine and hazel woodland, and its replacement by a *Juncus*-dominated marsh. In the upper spectrum the grasses and plantain are evidence for open conditions, and the presence of heather and bracken

suggests heathland. The alder percentage is probably derived from local stands, but the high elm frequency is remarkable, particularly in view of the low percentage of oak. The elm pollen could all have come from a single tree growing close to the sampling site, in a predominantly open landscape. Alternatively the deposit could have been disturbed; elm pollen from a lower level may have been mixed in with a post-Elm Decline open-country spectrum. It is however difficult to detect such a disturbance from only two spectra rather than a sequence of spectra through the deposit.

At Shustoke (SP 227908) two deposits, sites A and B, were dated to 2880 ± 100 bc (NPL-39) and 1540 ± 40 ad (NPL-62) respectively, and at each site both insect and pollen remains were found (Kelly and Osborne 1965; Osborne 1976, 153). At site A a pollen spectrum indicated a marked Elm Decline and an abundance of *Tilia*. The beetle fauna was characteristic of deciduous woodland. It contained some species whose northern limits are now further south than Shustoke, and some which now have a more northerly distribution. The presence of the former was attributed to the later contraction of their range because of man's destruction of their woodland habitat, but the latter may indicate cooler conditions than at present. At site B the pollen spectrum indicated widespread agriculture, with a large weed flora of species associated with both arable and pasture, and little woodland, consisting of secondary woodland and scrub communities. The beetle fauna contained mainly species of open habitats.

Pollen and seeds were found in the waterlogged ditch of an Iron Age enclosure at Fisherwick, dated to 180 ± 100 bc (Birm-614) (Greig 1979). 35% was arboreal pollen, of which only 5% was from the main deciduous forest trees, oak, elm and lime, suggesting that most of the surrounding area was clear of forest, and only isolated stands remained. The beetle fauna from this deposit (Osborne 1976, 156; 1979) suggested that temperatures were similar to those at present, but the presence of one species well north of its present range may indicate slightly warmer conditions.

The evidence from all these sites can be combined in an attempt to reconstruct the

environmental history of the region. Post-glacial forest development is indicated at Sutton Park, Wall and Lea Marston. At Shustoke, the high lime values are similar to those recorded elsewhere in midland England (Greig 1982, 32). The Elm Decline and clearance of deciduous forest had occurred by the early third millenium be at Shustoke, and the evidence from Fisherwick and Wall indicates that clearance was almost complete before the Roman conquest. A podzol had developed by this time in Sutton Park, possibly via an intermediate argillic phase of soil development. In the late medieval period an open landscape prevailed at Shustoke.

HEDGE SURVEYS

It has been shown that the number and type of plant species present in a hedge provide information on the date and origin of the hedge. Pollard *et al.* (1974) formulated equations from species counts in hedges of known date, which indicated that a hedge originally planted with a single species would be colonised by one new species for each period of about a century. This does not, however, apply to the whole country. In Shropshire, for example, there is documentary evidence for the planting of mixed hedges on the commons in the 17th to 19th centuries (Johnson 1978; Pollard *et al.* 1974, 85), and subsequent fieldwork (Cameron and Pannet 1980) has confirmed that the number of species cannot be used to determine the ages of hedges in that county. In particular it was noted that smallholdings of relatively recent origin were enclosed by mixed hedges. In upland areas these consisted of a random sample of the species naturally available in the locality, regardless of their suitability or otherwise for hedging. In lowland areas high frequencies of species with uses other than as a barrier were found, including damson, plum, crab apple and hazel which could supply human food, and holly, a reserve food for stock. Similarly in Staffordshire, Pitt (1817, 55) advocated the planting of mixed hedges to supply animal feed.

Pollard *et al.* (1974, 87) defined 'woodland relic' hedges as those containing herb species characteristic of woodland. Hedger (1976) used the occurrence of such hedges to define areas of 'primary' woodland, that of medieval or earlier date. She noted, however, that those herb species which are particularly characteristic of woodland do not survive in a hedge, thus the faithfulness to woodland of the surviving 'woodland' species is questionable. Pollard *et al.* (1974, 88) also defined 'heathland relic' hedges in Dorset, where strips of heathland vegetation were found to have survived on field edges after reclamation and enclosure of the heaths.

The only hedge surveys in the study area whose results have been published are those of Gould (1980). He counted species in 151 hedges in Aldridge and Great Barr, of which most

of the latter is in the present study area. No details of composition were given, only the number of species recorded in each hedge, but there was evidence of mixed planting. Some hedges with 7 species were found near Bourne Pool. These were associated with known early enclosures, but, like the Shropshire examples mentioned above, they were on the edge of an open common, and any available species may similarly have been used. In areas of 19th century enclosure, Gould found that the hedges which were predominantly composed of hawthorn also contained field maple.

In the present study, hedge composition was noted during fieldwork undertaken for other purposes. The eastern boundary of Shenstone Park (below, p.162), for example, was found to consist of a high bank with hedge on its summit which contained hawthorn, bracken, bramble and holly. This hedge may be an example of mixed planting on the edge of common land; the area to the east, in Sutton Coldfield parish, was not enclosed until 1826. The composition of the hedge on the park boundary bank contrasts strongly with the single-species hawthorn hedges bounding fields on the former common.

The only systematic hedge species count undertaken in the present study was at Wiggins Hill (below, p.211), on hedges of fields whose plan suggested that they had been enclosed from strips and furlong blocks of an open field system. 30-metre lengths were counted, as advocated by Pollard *et al.* (1974, 77). Progress was slow due to my unfamiliarity with species and frequent need to consult keys. Another problem was that here, as throughout the study area, many hedges have now been removed and of the survivors many have numerous gaps, so that it is difficult to find a continuous 30-metre length.

PART TWO

Aspects of Settlement and Land Use

Introduction to Part Two

In Part Two a chapter is devoted to each of the aspects of the landscape under consideration in this thesis, and within each chapter sites are discussed by parish. Reference is made to the parish maps which, with their Key, are located at the back of the thesis, and to catalogues at the end of each chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: Unenclosed Common Waste

UNENCLOSED COMMON WASTE: Introduction

The location and extent of unenclosed common waste in the study area in the late 18th century (fig.46) is shown on the Yateses' maps. Areas of waste which formerly existed, but were no longer waste by this time, are recorded in written documentary and other cartographic sources.

The most extensive areas of waste are in the western part of the study area. In 1794 the waste here consisted of Sutton Coldfield, Sutton Park, and the adjoining commons at Hill, Ashfurlong, New Shilton (New Shipton), Berwood and others, a total area of c.10,000 acres (c.4000 ha). The soils of this area are mainly sands and gravels, and they were then covered by a heathland vegetation (Wedge 1794, 38). 'Sutton Coldfield' refers here not to the settlement or parish of that name, but to the area otherwise known as 'The Coldfield', the waste on the northern, western and southern sides of Sutton Park, lying in the parishes or townships of Sutton Coldfield, Shenstone, Great Barr, Perry Barr, Erdington and Witton. The other large areas of waste are in Weeford and Middleton parishes. In the eastern part of the study area, there are small areas of waste in each of the parishes or townships of Curdworth, Kingsbury, Lea Marston, Middleton, Minworth and Wishaw.

The waste areas of the late 18th century consisted of heath and woods, used principally for rough grazing. The purpose of the present study was to trace the history of land use in these areas, and to determine whether there was any evidence for former settlement, cultivation or improved pasture. It has been noted that in the country as a whole, little is known of the evolution of large waste areas before their enclosure (Aston 1985, 112).

CURDWORTH PARISH (fig.34)

Curdworth and Dunton

The only area of waste marked on the Yateses' map is Curdworth Moor (centre SP 183921), between Curdworth village and the River Tame. The north-east part is on sand and gravel drift, the west on terrace gravels, and the south on alluvium. The soil is a gleyic brown earth, classified as grade 3w and 4w agricultural land. A deposit of peat up to 1.5m thick was observed here in 1984 (above, p.97).

Minworth and Berwood

The largest waste area is near the northern edge of the parish, between the boundary with Sutton Coldfield parish and Plants Brook (centre SP 148924). This area is on Keuper Marl and drift, the soils are brown earth and stagnogleys, and is grade 3w agricultural land. A single house and a small attached enclosure are marked in the centre of this waste (c.SP 147925) on the Yateses' map. The other areas of common waste are an area of grade 4w land along Plants Brook, and the large triangular green in Minworth village.

DRAYTON BASSETT PARISH (fig.35)

Bassett's Heath was situated in the south-west corner of the parish, west of Shirrall Park, and spread over the parish boundary into Sutton Coldfield (Dugdale 1730, 914) and Hints (fig.44). The part of Bassett's Heath in Drayton Bassett parish, just over 171 acres in area, was described by Shaw (1798, ii, 9) as 'recently enclosed'. It is not marked on the Yateses' map, but its extent is indicated by field names in the Drayton Bassett Tithe Award of 1837. It is on Boulder Clay, the soil is a clay loam stagnogley, and it is grade 3w land.

ERDINGTON AND WITTON TOWNSHIPS (Fig. 36)

Berwood Common

This waste is in the north-eastern corner of Erdington township, adjoining the boundaries with Sutton Coldfield parish and the Minworth part of Curdworth parish. It is on sand and gravel drift over Keuper Marl, the soils are stagnoargillic brown earths, and it is probably grade 3w agricultural land and is now wholly built up.

The place-name indicates former woodland. In the 15th century Berwood was one of the four bailiwicks of Sutton Chase; the other three were in Sutton Coldfield parish (below, p.155). A keeper of Berwood is mentioned in 1446 (Pat.R.) and again in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). Leland (V,97) lists *Berewod* as one of the 'four lodges' of the Chase. To the north, part of Berwood Common was enclosed in the early 17th century when Pype Hayes Hall (below, p.244) was built (Saxton 1928, 21). On the Yateses' map Berwood Common extends to the north of Chester Road, and its northern boundary is the present path through Pype Hayes Park, running across the southern side of Pype Hayes Hall. Within the waste area, the only building marked by the Yateses is on the north-eastern side of Chester Road, possibly the existing brick cottage at SP 132917, at the corner of Chester Road and Eachelhurst Road. In Pype Hayes Park there are parallel ridges of c.4.7m wavelength at right-angles to the path through the park mentioned above and south-west of it, i.e. outside the 17th century enclosure. The ridges are of 'narrow rig' type (above, p.61) and suggest former cultivation, but it is not clear whether they are truncated by or run up to this line because of the presence of the modern path.

The Coldfield

Part of The Coldfield (above, p.106) occupies the northern part of the townships and extends into Perry Barr in the west and Sutton Coldfield in the north-east. Its western part is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and its eastern and south-western parts are on sand and gravel

drift. It is probably grade 3s land. It is now built-up, except for some arable at Oscott College in the north.

The only chance find from the area is a quarzite pebble macehead with an hour-glass perforation from c.SP 09493 (Gunstone 1967, 94; Wymer 1977, 327), a type with Mesolithic associations elsewhere in Britain (Mulholland 1970, 93; Rankine 1949). A bipolar flint core of Mesolithic type, a flint blade and a retouched flint flake (fig.20) were found in fieldwalking at Oscott College (OC) (Codes for fieldwalking zones have been described above, p.43). The area walked is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and slopes steeply to the south, to a small stream. There is no other evidence for The Coldfield in Erdington and Witton until the Middle Ages. The Oscott College area is close to the boundary between the two townships, and the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield, thus it is probably the location of 'the common waste between Erdington and Witton' in the 1472 rental (Holt 1975) and the 100 acres of 'furze and heath' in Witton, Erdington and Sutton, mentioned in 1599 (FFS). The only material other than flints found in the Oscott College fieldwalking was of 19th and 20th century date, and was probably refuse from the College, built in 1883 (Jones 1973, 102).

GREAT BARR (fig.37)

Part of **The Coldfield** (above,p.106) occupies the eastern part of the township. It is on land sloping north-east, east and south-east from Barr Beacon, and it is bounded on the north by the Bourne Brook. There is no surface water, as noted by Gould (1980, 50), but there are several dry valleys, probably fluvio-glacial channels. The area is on Bunter Pebble Beds and classified as grade 3s agricultural land. The soil is sandy and very pebbly, brown sands and humo-ferrric podzols. The eastern part of the area is built up but the west and north-west are mainly arable.

Chance finds of objects of both prehistoric and Roman date have been made in the area. A flint arrowhead was found in a garden in Thornhill Road (CF 47) (Jones 1973, 2); it was a petit-tranchet derivative type (BMR). In 1877 three objects were found 'in a field near Benbeacon, not far from Sutton Coldfield' (Burgess 1876-8, 268). 'Benbeacon' can be identified as Barr Beacon (CF 48). Two of the objects, a stone hammer and a naturally perforated flint which had apparently been used as a hammer, are now lost (Gunstone 1964, 24), but the third survives (Ashmolean Museum, 1927. 3777). It is oval, 7.9cm long with a maximum width of 5.5cm and minimum 5.0cm, and it has a cylindrical perforation 2.45cm in diameter (fig.23). It has been mentioned by Evans (1897, 244), Chatwin (1924, 60) and Shotton (1934, 46-47). It is S.St.5/ah in the Midlands Stone Axe Survey. The stone is Group XVIII, whose source is the Whin Sill (Roe 1979, 33, fig.9.c.) and in Roe's typology it is a ovoid B macehead (*ibid*; 46). Shotton (*loc.cit*.) suggested that the cylindrical perforation indicated a Bronze Age date.

Two Roman coins have been found, a *dupondius* of Antoninus Pious from Streetly (CF 51) and a *sestertius* of Marcus Aurelius from Barr Beacon (CF 49). The 'small clay vases' found in peat near Bourne Pool (Father Frank 1879) may have been Roman pottery (CF 52). A bronze disc, 2in. in diameter, decorated with classical figures, was found on Hardwick Farm, (CF 53). It was identified as a Roman shield boss (Garner 1844, 543; Willmore 1887, 25). It is now lost, but appears from the description to have been too small for a shield boss, and may have been an ornament of more recent date.

A sandstone block carved into a head (Birmingham Museum, 45'74), was found in a garden in Thornhill Park (CF 1) in 1972 (fig.24). It measures 22 x 18.5cm and has been squared-off, probably for re-use as a gatepost. The design has been described as a severed head with lentoid eyes, and has been dated to the 1st or 2nd centuries AD (BMR; R. Taylor 1975, 133; 1979, No.1). It is comparable to the carved stone heads of native deities which have been found in the Hadrian's Wall area, such as that of Antenociticus from Benwell

(Ross 1967, 106, 118). Similar carved stones have been found close to the study area at Wall, Staffordshire (Ross 1980; Ball and Ball 1987). The Thornhill Park head is in Keuper Sandstone, which outcrops both in the study area (fig.6) and around Wall. It is possible therefore that the head may have been brought to its find-spot from Wall. Another sandstone head was found in Thornhill Road (CF 2) (BMR; H. Belton, pers.comm.). The stone (fig.25) is very worn. The back is flat and pierced by 3 recent screw-holes, and on the front there is a markedly oval head c.12cm long, c.6.5cm wide, and a maximum of 3cm thick. There is a nose in the centre of the face, and one eye is faintly visible. Unlike the Thornhill Park head, this relief is not stylistically similar to carved stone heads of Roman date. It may be part of a relatively modern architectural detail, subsequently used as a garden ornament.

There are two mounds in the area. At Corporation Wood there is a large circular mound known as Round Hill (SP 06789932), c.400 x 370ft (c.120 x 111m) (VCHS I, 372). Hutton (1835, 476) says that it was surrounded by a ditch but there was no trace of this in 1860, when the mound was described as 70 yards (c.65m) in diameter and 10 feet (c.3m) high (Bracken 1860, 3). The size of the mound suggests that it is a natural feature, possibly a glacial drift deposit but the ditch argues against this. Another, smaller, circular mound formerly existed nearby (Bracken 1860, 3), but there is now no trace of it. This latter site could be interpreted as either a barrow or a circular rabbit warren, a type known elsewhere in England (Tebbutt 1971), and possibly represented nearby at King's Standing (below, p.138). There may have been a hillfort on the summit of Barr Beacon: Salmon (1762) mentions lines drawn around the hill on one side, although he does not specify which one, enclosing a camp in the form of a half moon, with several other subdivisions. Nothing is now visible, but Salmon's description was written before the enclosure of the area in the late 18th century, and subsequent ploughing could have resulted in the levelling of any earthworks. Salmon's site could, however, have been Loaches Banks (below).

The free-draining soils of this area are particularly susceptible to drought and much of the

land is now arable, but despite this only two cropmarks have been observed on aerial photographs, at Loaches Banks and east of Barr Beacon. The latter site consists of lines parallel and at right angles to the existing field boundaries, together with an oval mark (WMCC 1977, 103/57). Since the lines are on the same alignments as the field boundaries they are probably contemporary with them, and the oval may be the site of a clump of trees planted in the corner of one of the rectangular fields created by the early 19th century enclosures, like those which still survive nearby. Similar corner plantations were made in Scotland (Sinclair 1813, 43) and were probably planted as game coverts.

Loaches Banks (fig.47) is now visible only as a cropmark, but it survived as an earthwork before the enclosure in 1795 and subsequent cultivation of The Coldfield. A plan of 1752 shows it as a sub-rectangular enclosure at the south-western end of Bourne Pool. It consisted of two parts, the larger defined by three banks and ditches, broken where the 'road to Aldridge' crosses the site, and the smaller, an annexe to the larger, is defined by two banks and two ditches (Shaw 1798, I, PlateA). The 1817 OS map shows the site in outline only, but includes the annexe, and a possible entrance gap into the enclosure as its south-east side. By 1959 the only earthworks surviving were two banks, each c.0.4m high and 3.0 and 3.7m wide, with a ditch c.0.6m wide and 0.4m deep between them forming a right-angled corner adjacent to Bourne Pool (Gould 1959). These can be identified as the northern corner of the earthworks on the 1752 plan. In the field to the south (SP 072998), the rest of the site is now visible as a cropmark (NCB 1968, 2/865). This shows a trapezoidal enclosure, aligned north-west to south-east. Its maximum external dimensions are $150 \times 110 \text{m}$ and its maximum internal dimensions are $c.100 \times 60 \text{m}$, hence the total area is c.1.6 ha (c.4 acres) and the enclosed area is c.0.6 ha (c.1.5 acres). The ditch lines are c.10m apart except in the south-east where the two outer ditches diverge to produce an annexed enclosure c.40m wide. There is a gap through each ditch line on this side.

Gould (1959) excavated a trench across the banks and ditch forming the north corner of the

enclosure and a 10' square area in the interior, in the angle of the earthwork. He showed that the bases of the banks were composed of peat blocks, which he suggested had been stripped from the interior of the enclosure, because of the shallow soil cover he found here. In the interior area, there was an uneven layer of charcoal over small patches of grey clay on a pebbly soil C horizon, the gravel terrace of the Bourne Brook. There were shallow gullies and postholes in the pebbles, tending to form irregular curves. The only finds were a lump of iron from the base of the turf and a utilised flint blade (Birmingham Museum 139'71) from under one of the banks. He suggested that the flint could be from activity associated with a known Mesolithic site on the other side of the Bourne. From the excavated evidence Gould interpreted the earthwork as the site of medieval charcoal-burning. The slight features of the interior were interpreted as the remains of temporary dwellings of charcoal-burners.

Hebden (1963, 22) suggested that the site was of prehistoric date and Larkham (1984, 34) lists the site as a 'definite' medieval moated site, but in his commentary (*ibid.*, p.24) he says it 'may not have been a homestead moat at all'. I walked the area of the cropmark (LB 80), and found a flint blade of Mesolithic type and a fabricator and a core of post-mesolithic type (fig.20).

Hutton (1835, 476-478) noted that the earthwork was situated on a small eminence, bounded on three sides by marshy ground, and only accessible from The Coldfield, on the south-east. On its north-western side, the enclosure joins Bourne or Bowen Pool constructed in the 15th century for an iron mill (Gould 1971) and reduced to its present size before 1902 (Duignan 1902, 23). The Yateses' map shows Loaches Banks on the northern edge of The Coldfield. Field observation during the present study showed that the cropmark is on a plateau 1.5 to 2m above the land to the west, where there is a former stream channel, and slightly higher than the land to the east. The site is overlooked by higher ground, rising steeply north of the Bourne Brook.

In its form and location, Loaches Bank is similar to the 'hill-slope' forts of south-west England (Fox 1952; 1961). These enclosures are defined by widely-spaced, relatively insubstantial earthworks, with simple entrances consisting of a gap in the bank and a corresponding causeway over the ditch. The sites are located close to a water supply, and are frequently overlooked by higher ground. In Fox's typology (1961) Loaches Banks would be a 'dependent enclosure'. Fox has suggested that 'hill-slope' forts were associated with stock management, and that the earthworks were not defensive but were multiple and widely-spaced for use in stock segregation. Another site in the vicinity of the study area which could also fall into this category is the double-ditched enclosure, c.100m square, near Shenstone (Hodgkinson and Chatwin 1944; Gould 1973). It is situated on a gravel rise adjacent to the Crane Brook. Excavation showed that the site had been occupied from the 2nd to 4th centuries AD. There was evidence for stock-keeping and possibly leadworking. It is unlikely that Loaches Banks is contemporary with the Shenstone site, since in that case Roman pottery would have been found in fieldwalking, so it is possibly of prehistoric date. Loaches Banks is located between two types of pasture, a dry area to the south, and land around the Bourne Brook which could have been exploited as pasture in the summer. The enclosure itself is above flood level.

Other than at Loaches Banks (LB 80, 81) five areas were fieldwalked on The Coldfield in Great Barr. They were an area in the northern part (FA), transects east (BB 3 and 6) and south-east (BB 5; BHF 81) of Barr Beacon, areas between these transects (BB 1, 4) and an area in the southern part (BB 2), a total of 32.35 ha. There were few finds. They included a backed point of Mesolithic type (BB 3) (fig.20) and two flint blades (BB 3 and 4). The remaining objects postdated the enclosure of The Coldfield in 1795. The post-medieval finds included a gunflint of platform type (BB 5) (fig.21) which can be dated to later than 1790, and can be associated with shooting game from coverts planted after enclosure (above, p.112) or with military training near targets which survive as earthworks. There was a military display on Barr Beacon on 23 September 1799 when colours were presented to the Volunteer Association under Joseph Scott, of Barr Hall, during the Napoleonic scare

(Hackwood 1895, 51).

The earliest documentary references to this area are to the Colefeld at Great Barr and the Colfeld of Great Barr in 1320 and 1323 respectively (Cor.Reg.St.; MRA 335; P.R.St.). There is no evidence for settlement here until 1618, when Hardwick is mentioned (below, p.244) whose name indicates stock-keeping (above, p.95). Fines for encroachments involving ploughing of the waste and enclosures on The Coldfield appear in the Great Barr and Aldridge court rolls of the 17th and 18th centuries, and there is evidence in the 17th century for controlled use of the waste as an outfield, with 4 years' cultivation followed by 7 years' fallow (Gould 1957, 54-55). The Yateses' Staffordshire map shows nothing on the waste except the Chester Road, the present A452. In 1794 the vegetation of The Coldfield consisted mainly of heather, with bracken, gorse, wortleberries, rushes, and grasses in places. It was used as a 'barren sheep-walk' and as a rabbit warren. During the summer it supported 1100 sheep, but abundant rabbits reduced the potential sheep carrying capacity. The sheep fed mainly on heather in the summer. The breed was grey-faced and hornless, native to The Coldfield and Cannock Chase, but the sheep on The Coldfield were larger in both size and weight than those on Cannock Chase. They met a considerable demand for lamb and mutton in the area (Pitt 1794, 54-56, 61, 72; 1813, 182). This breed is described by Youatt (1837, 263-264) and seems to have been raised primarily for mutton.

KINGSBURY PARISH (fig.38)

Bodymoor Heath consists of two roughly triangular parts on the Yateses' map, the western of which is in Middleton parish (below, p.117). The eastern part is in Kingsbury parish, bounded by Lea Marston to the south. It is mainly on the terrace gravels of the River Tame. The soil of the western part of the Kingsbury section is a gleyic brown earth, grade 3s land, and that of the east is a groundwater gley, grade 4w land. The soil of the area was described in 1813 as a 'dry sharp gravel' which was 'white, sandy and moorish' This is

clearly a podzol, which would give rise to the 'heath' element in the placename. The *mor* element, in contrast, is indicative of poor drainage (Maynard 1974) but Gelling (1984, 54) notes other examples where the element has been used for dry heathland, possibly taking the general meaning of 'barren land'.

There are cropmarks near the edge of Bodymoor Heath (SP 197965; NMR SP 1996, A and B; WA 00314). They consist of a curving line with three parallel lines c.45m apart on its eastern side (fig.48) and may be interpreted as ditched field enclosures, indicating former arable or improved pasture. The date of these features in unknown; they could be prehistoric or Roman, but could also be medieval. The surname of William de Bodimor or de Bodemor of Kingsbury, mentioned in 1327 and 1332, (LSRW), suggests settlement on or adjacent to Bodymoor Heath by this date. The Yateses' map shows houses on the eastern edge of the waste area, Bromley Croft to the north, and *Black Graves* (now Marston Farm) to the south.

LEA MARSTON PARISH (fig.39)

Three waste or common areas are marked on Snape's map of the parish, in 1773. Cuttle Heath, SP 1994, is on the western edge, on the boundary with Curdworth and Middleton. It is on Keuper Marl, stagnogleyic argillic gley soil, and is grade 3w agricultural land. Cuttleheath is mentioned in 1673 (Gover et al. 1936, 45). Lea Common is to the west of Lea hamlet (SP 200935), and extends to the boundary of Hams Park (below, p.155) in the south. It is on terrace gravels, gleyic brown earth soil, and is grade 3w agricultural land. Marston Common, SP 2095, is on the northern edge of the parish, on the boundary with Kingsbury. Its southern corner is on the edge of Marston hamlet, and it is on terrace gravels, gleyic brown earth soil, and is grade 3w agricultural land.

MIDDLETON PARISH (fig.40)

Middleton Heath

The waste, centre SP 150989, stretches along Coppice Lane, north-west of Middleton village, up to the parish boundary with Hints (fig.49). It is on Boulder Clay drift, a stagnogley soil, grade 3s agricultural land. Trickley Coppice is on its northern edge, and New Park (below, p.159) is to its south. The hamlet of Heath End (below, p.204) and dwellings whose erection on the waste at Middleton was permitted in 1663 (QSW) may have been on or adjacent to Middleton Heath. Fieldwalking close to the south-western edge of the waste (MNH 80) produced no finds, but the former existence of a podzol was indicated by a bleached horizon at the base of the ploughsoil.

Bodymoor Heath

The western part of this waste is in Middleton parish. It is mainly on terrace gravel. The soil of the west is a stagnogley, and that of the east is a groundwater gley. It is grade 3w agricultural land. The moated site at North Wood (below, p.250) is close to its southern edge.

PERRY BARR TOWNSHIP (fig.41)

Part of **The Coldfield** occupies the north-eastern part of the township. It is on Bunter Pebble Beds, with an area of sand and gravel drift to the north, probably grade 3s land, and is now built-up. On the Yateses' map it is named *Perry Barr Common* and contains two buildings, later known as Warren Farm and Kingstanding Lodge (below, p.252) both of which are associated with rabbit warren management.

There is no evidence for medieval activity, but there are earthworks and chance finds of probable prehistoric and Roman date. King's Standing is a circular mound which has long

been recognised as artificial (Shaw 1798, I, 17) and interpreted as a round barrow (Duignan 1902, 86; Podmore 1930) but has also been associated with King Charles I. It was said to have been constructed for him to stand on to review his troops (e.g. Crook 1968, 2-3). According to some writers, the mound was destroyed during the enclosure of this waste in 1814, and subsequently reconstructed (Benton 1906, 54n; Podmore 1930). Land clearance produced 'a considerable treasure of silver chains' (Benton 1906, 54), but it is not specified whether these were found in the mound. If they were, the find would support the interpretation of the mound as a barrow. Alternatively, since it is close to the building known as Kingstanding Warren, the mound may be an artificial rabbit warren of medieval or post-medieval date. Although long oval mounds in groups are the commonest form, circular 'pillow mounds' are known at Vaghill on Dartmoor (Linehan 1967, 141). Tebbutt (1971) notes that the circular form was constructed in some parts of England, and was used until the end of the 19th century. Warrening was being practised in the Perry Barr area by 1680, when there was a lease for 'Coney Warren on Sutton Coldfield Heath' (Gough Mss, Birm. Ref. Lib., no.125).

The Roman Ryknild Street crosses The Coldfield. The fields named *Roman Field* and *Lower Roman Field* on the 1841 Tithe Map (SP 07809481) are on its line, and at least eight coins of the 1st and 2nd centuries, possibly a disturbed hoard, were found here before 1884 (Chattock 1884, 236). Nothing was observed in a watching brief here in 1972 during its development as a play area (BMR). Chance finds of Roman coins have been made in gardens at 15 Endhill Road (CF 7), an *as* of Domitian from 60 Brackenbury Road (CF 10), and a *follis* of Constantine from 'Kingstanding') (all BMR).

SHENSTONE PARISH (fig.42)

The Coldfield

The only waste area in Shenstone on the Yateses' map is in the southern corner of the parish, joining Great Barr Coldfield on the west and Four Oaks Common in Sutton

Coldfield on the east. It is on Boulder Clay drift, and the soil is a brown sand. It is grade 3s land. A parcel of waste on The Coldfield near Little Aston was granted in 1308 (Shen. Cart. p.293), presumably for enclosure and improvement. The Coldfield in Shenstone parish was probably part of the 400 acres of 'furze and heath' recorded in Little Aston, Shenstone and Aldridge in 1574 (FFS).

Littlehay Green

The name appears at SK 123025 on the 1839 Tithe Map, associated with the hamlet of Little Hay (below, p.207). It is on Bunter Pebble Beds, the soil is a humo-ferric podzol, and it is grade 3s agricultural land. It extends to the parish boundary in the south and east, joining Hillwood Common in Sutton Coldfield. Shenstone Park (below, p.160) is to the west. Littlehay Green can probably be identified as the 'waste of Shenstone' on which the inhabitants of Little Hay were sowing corn in 1633 (Hebden 1963, 45).

Woodend Common

The name is at SK 109011 on the 1839 map. It is on Bunter Pebble Beds, brown sands, and grade 3s agricultural land. It adjoins the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield.

SUTTON COLDFIELD PARISH (fig. 43)

The Coldfield

Part of The Coldfield (above, p.106) lies in the southern part of the parish, extending from Sutton Park in the north over the parish boundary into Erdington in the south. It is on sand and gravel drift, grade 3s agricultural land, and is mostly built-up.

The only arable land is in the west. Fieldwalking here (PA 81) produced two gunflints of platform type (fig.21) a gunflint fragment, and a flint flake. At Gibbet Hill Wood, SP 104943 (fig.50) a length of bank and ditch c.150m long was recorded. The total width of

the earthwork is c.7m, and the ditch is on the uphill, or south-western, side of the bank. It can be identified as the 'trench and dyke', 900ft (c.270m) long, which was noted by Benton (1906, 50) on Gibbet Hill and interpreted as a defensive feature, and possibly with the remains of 'a very considerable fort' in the area, mentioned by Saxton (1928, 14). A reduction in the length of the wood since 1906 accounts for the difference in the length of the earthwork recorded by Benton and that surviving today. The south-west and south-east corners of the wood are in the same positions as on the first edition of the OS 1:2500 map of 1882, before development of the area. The earthwork appears to be unrelated to and to antedate the enclosure of the area from The Coldfield in 1826. It can be interpreted as either a field boundary, subsequently abandoned, or a former boundary of the wood. The shape of the wood on the 1882 map, with straight south-west and south-east sides and a curving north-east edge, suggests that it was an existing wood incorported into the enclosure pattern laid out in 1826.

The earthwork at Gibbet Hill may be associated with medieval enclosures on The Coldfield. Tofts on The Coldfield in Sutton Coldfield are mentioned in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). The area was probably the *Collefeld* berewick of Sutton Chase in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952) and *Colefeld* lodge (Leland, v, 97).

The Eastern Waste

East of the town of Sutton Coldfield there is a strip of waste of variable width running north-south and bounded by the parish boundary with Middleton and Curdworth (Minworth part) on the north-east and south-east respectively, and the Plants Brook valley on the south-west. Part of it is built-up and thus unclassified, but the remainder is grade 3s agricultural land. On its northern side it adjoins Hillwood Common and Middleton Heath, and on the south Berwood Common.

There are no chance finds and no earthwork remains, and the area walked near Langley Hall

(LH 80) (fig.97) produced no finds. The evidence therefore consists of written documents, place-names, maps and standing buildings.

The eastern waste probably formed the bailiwick of *Lynriche* in Sutton Chase, mentioned in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). Leland (V,97) includes *Linderige* as one of the four lodges of the Chase. The name can be identified as the modern Lindridge, *c*.SP 149966. In the Royal Charter of 1528 (LPFD) it was stated that any person willing to build and inhabit a house on the waste could enclose 60 acres at a rent of 2d. per year. However after the abuse of this right by the governing body of Sutton Coldfield, the Warden and Society, a law suit of 1581-2 led to the formation of 'Lot Acres'. Under this system waste areas where there was no coppice wood were annually partitioned for conversion into pasture or arable, and were subsequently allowed to revert to waste (Beresford 1943, 77). The area was all enclosed by Act of Parliament in 1826.

Areas of former woodland in the waste are indicated by the reference to coppice wood in the arrangements for Lot Acres, and also by earlier references. The pasture of *Lyndrich Copies* is mentioned in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952), and the *wood called Lynriche* in the 1528 Charter (LPFD). Reddicap Heath (SP 134957) is *Reddicot Plain* on the 1817 OS map. The name may be a corrupt form of *Reddeweycoppes* of 1479-80 (Hilton 1952), which contains a 'coppice' element (Field 1972, 126) and possibly a 'redding' element, indicating clearance (*ibid*. 182). The *lin* or *lyn* element in the forms of Lindridge has been derived from linden or lime tree (Gover *et al*. 1936, 51; Rackham 1980, 292), but could also mean 'ling' (Field 1972, 126), the local name for heather, which was the predominant plant type in the area in 1794 (Wedge 1794, 38). Saxton's map of 1576 shows areas of woodland on the eastern edge of the waste, but these cannot be located accurately (fig. 112).

The earliest evidence for settlement is at New Shipton, on the western edge of the southern part of the waste, which is mentioned in 1472 (below, p.257). 51 stone houses were built by Bishop Vesey c.1530 as a deliberate policy of settlement on the waste (Dugdale 1730,

914; Leadam 1897, 64-6; below, p.123).

New Shipton and the Vesey houses provide some evidence for the economy of the area. The name of the former has been interpreted as 'sheep farm' (Gover *et al.* 1936, 52), but it may be derived from 'shippen', 'cow-shed' (Field 1972, 201) since this term is used locally. The implications of the Vesey houses are discussed below (p.123) and the name of one of them, Warren House Farm (SP 137945) may indicate the importance of rabbits on the waste.

Four Oaks Common

The waste (c.SP 0099) extends from waste in Shenstone to the west to Sutton Park in the south. The western part is on Boulder Clay, the south-east on Hopwas Breccia, and the northern corner on Red Marl. It is now built-up. The soil is probably a brown sand, grade 3s agricultural land.

It is named *Sutton Common* on the 1817 OS map. On the Yateses' map it is crosssed by the Walsall road, the modern A454, and a single house is marked, at c.SP 106988. A polished stone axe of Group XX, (fig.23) whose provenance is recorded as 'Jackson Fields, Four Oaks' (Shotton 1959, 141), may have been found in the area of Four Oaks Common following its enclosure in 1826.

Hill Common

The waste is in the northern corner of the parish, and adjoins Littlehay Green on the north and Weeford Hills on the north-east. The southern part is on Hopwas Breccia and the northern arm is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soil is a moderately stony sandy loam in a coarse stony drift derived from these formations. The soil types are brown sands, including reclaimed podzols, podzolic brown soils brown earths, argillic brown earths, and sandy gleys (Soil Survey unpub.). The area is classified as grade 3s agricultural land.

The 'commons at Hill' are first mentioned in 1794 (Wedge 1794, 38). The areas of Hill Wood, running north-south across the centre of the common, is marked on the Greenwoods' map. The earliest reference to it is to *Hillewode* in Sutton Chase in 1468 (PR.St) and *Hulwode* was one of the bailiwicks of the Chase in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). The 'king's wood of Hylwode' is mentioned in 1504 (Pat.R.). Another area of woodland was *Rughley Coppes* (Roughley Coppice), which was a source of charcoal for the Middleton iron-works in 1593 (Mton Mss., 20). Evidence for charcoal burning, presumably hearths, was said to have been found in Hill Wood when the wood was cleared following enclosure in 1826 (Bracken 1860, 116).

Earlier activity may be indicated by a cropmark near Hillwood Common Road, of two parallel light marks c.40m apart and each c.140m long, with a possible line joining them at their eastern end (WMCC 1980, 9785-6). The field was walked (HCR 81) but produced no finds. Fieldwalking at Manorial Wood (MW 81) produced 16 worked flints. These included a backed blade, a core and two possible microburins, all of Mesolithic type (fig.20). There is no other evidence of settlement until the construction of the Vesey houses on the edge of the waste c.1530, as on the waste east of Sutton Coldfield (above, p.121). Their purpose throws some light on the economic use of the waste. Between 1518 and 1549, Vesey enclosed 9 acres out of part of the barren waste, to improve the quality of grazing for sheep because the 'pennygrass' growing there was detrimental to them, and built here, as in other places, a stone house (Leadam 1897, 664-6). The 'pennygrass' may have been field pennycress, Thlaspi arvense, which is described as 'foetid when crushed' (Blamey and Fitter 1979, 26). According to Dugdale (1730, 914), the 9-acre enclosure was of a piece of waste called Cotysmore, in 'a kind of desert place near Canwell Gate'. The Vesey house in Weeford Road, on the edge of the waste, was identified as Cotysmore by Riland-Bedford (n.d., 30; Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 13). The houses were used for a textile industry introduced by Vesey from Devon, the manufacture of Kersey (Dugdale 1730, 914), a coarse woollen cloth woven from long staple wool. The form of the houses is that of smallholders who were also craftsmen or part-time labourers (Mercer 1975, 33). The use of the waste as sheep pasture may have been initiated by Vesey, but it is perhaps more likely that the Kersey industry was introduced because of the large numbers of sheep already there. It is possible that there was already a local woollen textile industry, since the chapel in the manor house of Sutton Coldfield was dedicated to St. Blaise, the patron saint of woolcombers whose day was celebrated in other places, before the 18th century, by a processesion of all clothiers (Roth 1914, 26).

WEEFORD PARISH (fig.44)

Weeford Hills (Centre SK 1301) occupy the south and south-east corners of the parish. The area is grade 3s agricultural land, and is mainly on Bunter Pebble Beds, but on its south and south-east edges there is some Hopwas Breccia, and there is an area of Boulder Clay drift north of Weeford Park. The soil is a moderately stony sandy loam in a coarse stony drift probably derived from the Bunter Pebble Beds. The soil types are brown earths, brown sands, pozolic brown soils, and humo-ferric podzols. The waste surrounds Weeford Park (below, p.175). Opposite the park, the field name *King's Standing* (Centre SK 138012) probably indicates the former presence of a mound, as in King's Standing in Perry Barr (above, p.118) or of a hunting stand (above, p.95). Fieldwalking north of Weeford Park (WFH 81) produced no finds, but in King's Standing (WKS 80) two flint flakes and an irregular core, of probable post-Mesolithic date, were found.

WISHAW PARISH (fig.45)

The only recorded waste area is *Lower Green*, SK 173955, associated with the hamlet of that name (below, p.215). It is on Keuper Marl and is grade 3w agricultural land; it adjoins a large area of grade 2 land to the south. The soil is a clayey loam stagnogley. The area is first marked on Ogilby's map of 1675, where it is named *Whisshaw Green*.

UNENCLOSED COMMON WASTE: DISCUSSION

A distinction was drawn in the introduction to this chapter between the small waste areas in the east and the large areas in the west of the study area.

In the east, the waste areas are generally situated on the edges of parishes, and with the exception of Bodymoor Heath, the edge of the waste is the parish boundary. The waste areas are on Keuper Marl, drift, terrace gravels and alluvium, land classified as grade 3 and grade 4 agricultural land. The soils are stagnogleys and groundwater gleys. At Lea Marston and Wishaw the waste was probably land that was deliberately preserved as common pasture between, and on the edge of, open arable fields. The wastes of Curdworth Moor and Bodymoor Heath, however, are on land which may have been considered unsuitable for arable or improved pasture because of poor drainage. The land may have been waterlogged in winter, and suitable as animal pasture in the summer months only. Parts of each of these have been classified as grade 4w agricultural land. The remainder of Bodymoor Heath is within the soil zone described in 1813 as a 'dry sharp gravel', which was 'white, sandy and moorish', indicating the development of a podzol on the better-drained parts of the terrace gravels. Former agricultural activity here is indicated by the crop-marks of enclosed fields, and there is some documentary evidence for occupation on Bodymoor Heath by the 14th century.

The largest single waste area in the west, the Coldfield, is crossed by parish boundaries, but Middleton Heath and the wastes east of Sutton Coldfield are bounded by them. The wastes in the west are on Bunter Pebble Beds, Hopwas Breccia, and drift deposits, and are all classified as grade 3s agricultural land. The soils are acid brown sands and podzols. The wastes in the north-east contain or are adjacent to major woodland areas on the Yateses' maps. Trickley Coppice and New Park are adjacent to Middleton Heath, Hillwood is in Hillwood Common, and Weeford Park is adjacent to Weeford Hills.

Evidence for Mesolithic activity in the western wastes is provided by the Witton macehead and the worked flints from Oscott College, Barr Beacon, Loaches Banks and Manorial Wood. Some of the flints from Loaches Banks and Manorial Wood are of post-Mesolithic type. A late Neolithic or early Bronze Age date may be assigned to the Four Oaks axe, the Barr Beacon maceheads, and to the possible barrows at Corporation Wood and King's Standing. A hill fort of Iron Age date may have existed on Barr Beacon. Other than Loaches Banks there are no cropmark sites despite the fact that the soils on Bunter Pebble Beds and their derived drifts are the most suitable in the study area for cropmark formation. The Loaches Banks enclosure is on the very edge of the waste and, as suggested above, may be associated with stock-keeping and may be of prehistoric date. The chance finds of Roman coins could be interpreted as travellers' losses or parts of disturbed hoards alongside the Ryknild Street; where they are at a distance from the line of the road, some of the coins may be recent imports. This seems likely to be the case for the Thornhill Park stone head. The absence of Roman pottery from fieldwalking suggests that there was no occupation or manuring during this period.

The dominant features of the development of the western wastes during the Middle Ages are the putative effects of charcoal burning, and the management of the waste as part of Sutton Chase.

18th century references describe the vegetation of The Coldfield as dominated by heather and gorse (above, p.106). Gould (1957, 34; 1980, 50; 1981) has argued, from placename, documentary and archaeological evidence, that this landscape resulted from the clearance of woodland for charcoal-burning. A re-examination of this evidence, together with a consideration of the evidence for the effects of charcoal-burning elsewhere in Britain, suggests that, first, there is little evidence of any kind for charcoal-burning on The Coldfield itself, and, second, that had charcoal-burning occurred then woodland would have been conserved rather than destroyed.

The extent of the area known as The Coldfield can be deduced from place-names. The earliest reference is in 1203, when Drayton Park was said to be within 'the forest of Colesfield' (FFW) but this refers to Sutton Chase, named after the settlement of Sutton Coldfield, since later references imply that The Coldfield did not extend this far east. Sutton Colefield is first mentioned in 1269 (Ch. R.), Little Aston 'upon Colefeld' in 1293 (Ass.R.St.), and the Colefeld at Great Barr in 1320 (Cor.Reg.St.; MRA 335). In 1479-80 the Collefeld bailiwick of Sutton Chase was probably the waste area south of Sutton Park, later described as 'The Coldfield', for example on the Sutton Coldfield Enclosure Map. The name 'The Coldfield' seems therefore to have been applied in the Middle Ages to the large waste areas north, west and south of Sutton Park.

'Coldfield' has been derived from *col-feld*, and interpreted as 'a clearing where charcoal was burned' (Gover *et al.* 1936, 12; Ekwall 1960, 454). The *col* element could however be interpreted as 'cold' or barren land, an appropriate description for the dry heathland that had developed here by the 16th century. Ekwall (1960, 115) notes that *col*, charcoal, is difficult to distinguish in place-names from the adjective *col*, 'cool'.

Turning to the documentary evidence, three charcoal-burners are mentioned in the study area in the 13th and 14th centuries. These are *Osbert le carbon'*, who was involved in a robbery in Sutton Coldfield in 1221 (Stenton 1940, 377) *John le Coliere* of Little Sutton in 1293 (Ass.R.St.) and *Elias le Callier* of London who was robbed while travelling along the Chester Road across Great Barr Coldfield in 1320 (PR St.). Of these only the second provides evidence for the location of charcoal burning; the place of work or dwelling of Osbert is not recorded, and the reference to Elias le Callier cannot be used, as it was by Gould, as evidence for charcoal-burning on Great Barr Coldfield since he was only travelling across it. The only direct reference to the location of charcoal-burning in the study area is to the sources of charcoal for ironworking at Middleton in 1593, which were *Rughley Coppes* (Roughley Coppice), Little Sutton, and 'Middleton lordship' (Pelham

1953, 34). An iron forge at Bourne Pool using charcoal for ore roasting and smelting, was operating in the late 15th century (Gould 1971), and forges were operating at Little Aston in the 16th century (Morton and Gould 1967) and at Hints and Bromford in the 17th century (Johnson 1950, 101 and appendix 1). By the late 18th century coal was replacing charcoal for ironworking (Court 1938, 179) but large quantities of charcoal were still used in the iron forges of the Midlands in 1790 (Marshall 1790, Vol.II, minute 127, pp.303-308).

Two elements of charcoal-burning may leave archaeological evidence, the hearth for the burning process and the dwellings of the charcoal-burners. Charcoal-burning in the 17th century is described by Evelyn (1706, 267-71). The burning took place within the wood from which the raw material was obtained. For the hearth, a stake was driven into the ground and a string attached to it was used to trace out a circle of 20 ft or more in diameter, depending on the quantity of wood to be burned. The area within this circle was cleared of turf and other vegetation with mattocks, and the material derived from this was used to cover the wood. The wood was placed in the cleared circle around the stake, which was removed before the wood was ignited. This process would survive archaeologically as a stakehole in the centre of a shallow circular depression filled with charcoal. Gould (1974) has interpreted circular charcoal spreads observed in ploughed fields at Canwell and Drayton Basset, and circular dark marks observed on aerial photographs at Bangley Park and Hill Farm, as the remains of charcoal-burning heaths. In the present study I observed circular charcoal spreads in ploughed fields at several places. At Weeford Park (SK 140007) there were 7 or 8, ranging from 15 to 24m in diameter, at least 3 near Shirral Coppice (SK 162002), 2 in Bangley Park (SK 169010), and one at Canwell (Sk 150011). The dark marks could however be the sites of more recent fires. A charcoal spread was probably the feature taken to be evidence for charcoal burning at Hill Wood, mentioned by Bracken (1860, 116). At Loaches Banks the layer of charcoal found within the enclosure was considered to be the result of charcoal-burning, and it was suggested that the ditches served as fire-breaks (Gould 1959).

Innocent (1916, 8-13) and Armstrong (1978, 31, ff.) describe the structures used as temporary dwellings by charcoal burners. Those described by Innocent are timber huts based on a tripod of poles whose feet rest directly on the ground surface, thus leaving no archaeological trace. Armstrong describes huts from different areas. In most cases the archaeological remains would consist of a stake ring c.10 ft. (3m) in diameter, with two outliers, which supported a porch, and internal stakeholes, supporting a bed. At Loaches Banks, it was suggested that the undated, shallow features found in the interior of the enclosure under a charcoal spread could be the remains of such emphemeral features as these (Gould 1959). The structures represented by these features could be interpreted as dwellings of prehistoric date; the archaeological remains of the stake-ring dwellings described by Armstrong would be identical to those of the stake-ring roundhouses of Iron Age date excavated at sites such as Moel-y-Gaer (e.g. Guilbert 1977, fig.3).

The only documentary reference to the possible destruction of woodland in the study area by charcoal-burning is in 1571. It was stated then that the woods of the manor of Middleton would only suffice for 4 years if they were exploited for charcoal for the iron forge at Middleton, so the purchase of woods in the adjoining manor of Drayton Bassett was required (Mton Mss, p.494). This does not necessarily mean, however, that the woods would be permanently destroyed by this exploitation, but could mean that the woods were managed as coppice and that 4 years would be insufficient time for regeneration. Elsewhere in Britain, supplies were conserved by wood-using industries and were managed as a renewable resource (Rackham 1980, 153). In the Midlands and in Sussex there is little evidence of woodland destruction by charcoal-burners. On the contrary, woodland tended to be preserved by management, and the result was an increase in coppiced woodland (Brandon 1963, 199, 126; Hammersley 1973, 613; Johnson 1951, 174; 1960, 68). 17th century accounts suggest that charcoal-burning for the iron industry encouraged preservation of woodland (Yarranton 1677, 60-61; James 1981, 122-123). Coppicing would result in depletion of woodland only if it was inadequately enclosed after felling, and thus accessible

to livestock who would eat young shoots.

A re-assessment of the evidence therefore indicates that charcoal-burning was practised in the northern and north-eastern parts of the study area rather than the western. A reinterpretation of the place-name 'Coldfield' suggests that the western part was already open heathland by the Middle Ages. Where charcoal-burning did take place, the woodlands exploited are likely to have been managed and conserved. Depletion could only have occurred if coppice was not properly enclosed after felling.

The distribution of charcoal-burning also indicates the distribution of woodland, since charcoal was burned in or adjacent to the source of wood (Evelyn 1706, 267). Charcoal-burning is concentrated in the north and north-east, the part of the study area which contains most of the woodland on Saxton's map of 1576 (fig.112) and on the Yateses' maps (fig.46). The only woodland areas on or adjacent to the large wastes in the western part are near the centre of the study area, such as Trickley Coppice near Middleton Heath. Hill Wood on Hillwood Common and Lindridge Coppice and Reddicap on the waste east of Sutton Coldfield are all mentioned in the 15th century, and Roughly Coppice is mentioned in the 16th century.

Beresford (1943, 74) suggested that the wastes east of Sutton Coldfield may have been deliberately preserved because of their social value as a hunting reserve. By the 15th century the jurisdiction of Sutton Chase seems to have been divided into the four bailiwicks or lodges of Hillwood, Lindridge, Berwood and Coldfield (Hilton 1952; Leland, V, 97). Including Sutton Park on the west, which was administered by a keeper, these formed a ring around the town of Sutton Coldfield. The earthwork at Gibbet Hill may be evidence for medieval encroachment and enclosure on The Coldfield south of Sutton Park; there were certainly enclosures here in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). Following the demise of Sutton Chase under the 1528 Royal Charter, Sutton Park was deliberately preserved but attempts were

made to settle the waste east of the town of Sutton Coldfield. The main economic use of the large waste areas was as sheep pasture. This had probably begun in the Middle Ages or earlier, and may have supplied a local textile industry even before kersey manufacture was introduced. It met a local demand for meat. The importance of sheep may be indicated by a quatrain of unknown date, first recorded in 1885, which describes the characteristics of Sutton Coldfield and the surrounding towns:

Sutton for mutton

Tamworth for beeves [beef]

Walsall for knock knees

And Brummagem for a thief.

(Showell 1885, 78)

Large-scale sheep grazing may have been responsible for a decline in the browsing quality of the vegetation, encouraging the growth of 'penny-grass', mentioned in the 16th century.

In the 16th century, Leland (V,97) noted that the dry, sandy soils around Sutton Coldfield were 'good for conies'. Rabbits were deliberately managed by the 17th century, and artificial warrens may have been constructed in Perry Barr. The documentary and placename evidence suggests that rabbits were particularly important in the southern part of The Coldfield. Warrening continued until enclosure of The Coldfield c.1800. Elsewhere in Britain, for example in Yorkshire, commercial warrens were established on land that was difficult to improve for pasture or arable land, such as gravelly and sandy soils. Warrening was the most economic use of such land (Harris 1971).

Although their use is not specifically recorded, other resources that could have been exploited on the wastes of the study area were bracken and gorse. In north Staffordshire in the 17th century bracken was burnt when green, and its ashes were made into balls with water and used for washing (Morris 1947, 165-166; Plot 1686, 33). Gorse was used as

fodder in Surrey and in Wales, and grown as a managed crop. In Surrey, in the mid-19th century, cows were fed on gorse for part of the year, and it was chopped to feed horses (Bourne 1955, 144). In Wales gorse was mixed with hay, straw or bran and fed particularly to horses and calves (Jenkins 1976, 51). In Ireland gorse was used for fencing, fuel, fodder for both horses and cattle, animal bedding, drains, as a vegetable dye, and for many other purposes, from at least the Middle Ages (Lucas 1960). Both species of gorse, Ulex europaea (gorse) and U. gallis (dwarf furze) grow in Sutton Park now and are described as 'abundant' (Readett 1971, 22).

UNENCLOSED COMMON WASTE: Chance Finds, Fieldwalking and Excavation Finds

* Illustrated

ERDINGTON AND WITTON: The Coldfield

Chance Finds

Pebble macehead SP 09430 (Gunstone 1974, 94)

Fieldwalking

OC: 3/80; SP 097937; sandy, pebbly; ploughed; 20 ha

- 1. Flint flake, mottled grey, some cortex, 50x22mm*
 Flint blade, mottled grey, 40x12mm
- 4. Flint core, bipolar, mottled grey, 29x20mm*

 Pottery: types 16* and 17.

GREAT BARR: The Coldfield

Chance finds

Flint arrowhead, Thornhill Road, c.SP 086984 (Jones 1973, 2)

Maceheads, Barr Beacon, c.SP062971 (Burgess 1876-8, 268)

Roman Coin, Antoninus Pius *dupondius*, Streetly, SP 073982 (BMR)

Roman Coin, Marcus Aurelius sestertius, Barr Beacon, c.SP 062971 (BMR)

Bronze disc, Hardwick Farm, c.SP 077989 (Garner 1844, 543)
Sandstone Head, Thornhill Park, SP 083978 (Taylor 1975, 133)
Sandstone Head, Thornhill Road, SP 184976 (BMR)

Fieldwalking

BB 1. 10/10/80; SP 063971; sandy, very pebbly, damp; drilled; dull; 2.2 ha Circular bone disc, 3cm diam.

BB 2. 1/11/80; SP 071962; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 3.1 ha. Fragment black flint.

BB 3. 23/9/81; SP 066977; sandy, very pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 3 ha. Backed point, grey flint, length 28mm, max width 9mm*

Flint blade, mottled grey, possible retouching, length 29mm, max width 19mm

BB 4 29/9/81; SP 066968; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 4 ha. Flint blade, mottled grey, length 47mm, width 24mm.

BB 5 2/10/81; SP 069964; sandy, very pebbly, damp; harrowed; dull; 4 ha Gunflint, grey mottled, 32x26x8mm*

BB 6. 6/10/81; SP 063976; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 3 ha No finds

BHF. 17/1/81; SP 072968; sandy, very pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 4 ha Fragment grey flint, some cortex.

FA. 30/9/81; SP 065983; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 3.5 ha No finds

LB. 6/10/80; SP 072996; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 2.3 ha

- 1. No finds
- Flint, red-brown mottled, wear at one end, probably fabricator, 58x22mm*
 Flint core fragment, grey mottled, some cortex
 Flint chip, red
- 3. Flint blade, red-brown mottled, 39x15mm

Excavation

Utilised flint blade, Loaches Banks (Gould 1959).

MIDDLETON: Middleton Heath

Fieldwalking

MNH 27/9/80: SP 152985; sandy, very pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 2.7 ha No finds.

PERRY BARR: The Coldfield

Chance finds

Roman coins, at least 8, 1st/2nd century, Roman Field, SP 07809481 (Chattock 1884, 236)

Roman coin, type unknown, Endhill Road, SP 083956 (BMR)

Roman coin, Domitian as, Brackenbury Road, SP 087937 (BMR)

Roman coin, Maximian billon tetradrachm, Kingstanding (BMR)

SUTTON COLDFIELD: The Coldfield

Fieldwalking

PA. SP 095949; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny, dull.

1. 11/9/81; 5 ha

Gunflint, dark grey, 26x24mm*

Gunflint fragment, dark grey, 20x10mm

2. 14/9/81; 2 ha

Gunflint, grey, 27x26mm*

Flint blade, grey, 34x23mm

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Eastern waste

Fieldwalking

LH. SP 149952; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 1.5 ha No finds.

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Four Oaks Common

Chance find

Polished stone axe, Jackson Fields (Shotton 1959, 141)

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Hillwood Common

Fieldwalking

HCR. 11/2/81; SK 118005; sandy, very pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny, dull; 3 ha No finds.

MW

1. 20/20/81; SK 126002; pebbly loam, damp; ploughed; dull; 3 ha.

Flint: blacked blade, light grey, 41x13mm*; ?microburin, grey-brown, 32x17mm

2. 26/10/81; SK 126004; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny, dull; 4 ha

Flint ?core, grey

Flint ?microburin, grey, 20x25mm*

Flint chip, dark grey

Flint flake, grey

Flint flake, grey

Flint chip, grey

Flint flake, grey, 42x36mm

Flint chip, grey

Flint core, grey

Flint flake, light grey

Flint flake, grey

Flint blade, grey 33x19mm

Flint fragment, grey-brown

Flint chip, light grey

WEEFORD: Weeford Hills

Fieldwalking

WFH. 16/3/81; SK 139019; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull, sunny; 1.3 ha No finds

WKS. SK 138012; sandy, very pebbly, damp; drilled; dull, sunny; 9 ha c.1/4/80

Flint flake, grey, 35x32mm

w. 3/4/80

Flint core, mottled grey

x. 3/4/80

Flint flake, grey

Pottery, types 16, 17, 20.

CHAPTER FOUR: Parks

PARKS: Introduction

The map (fig.52) shows the location and known extent of all the enclosures known as parks which existed in the study area betwen 1100 and 1790, together occupying over 20% of its total area. No study has previously been made of all these parks. Cantor's (1962) account of the medieval deer parks of south Staffordshire included Weeford, Shenstone and Drayton parks in the present study area, and his national gazetteer (1983) included the Warwickshire parks of Sutton and Middleton, but he only listed the dates at which they were created or by which they were in existence, and did not discuss their extent or archaeology. Only Sutton Park has previously been studied from an archaeological point of view (Hodder 1980).

A park may be defined as an enclosed area which functioned as a game reserve, an animal pasture, a pleasure garden, or a woodland reserve, either individually or in combination. The enclosure earthworks have been described above (pp.65). A general description of medieval parks is given by Cantor and Hatherly (1979, 71).

A Roman tradition of emparking was described by Columella (Columella, pp.421-427). Areas near to and within view of the farmhouse were enclosed with a fence, and contained wild animals. They were used for show and as a supply of fresh meat. If they were commercially managed, the enclosures contained grass, wood and a water supply. Rackham (1980, 107, 177, 188) has suggested that the emparking tradition was brought to Britain during the Roman period, and that fallow deer, the main park species of later periods, were introduced, but that the practice subsequently died out. There may however have been some continuity during the post-Roman period, since some parks are mentioned in Domesday Book, for example at Ruislip in Middlesex, and some of the Domesday 'hayes' may have been park-like enclosures. Cantor and Hatherly (1979, 78) consider that emparking effectively began in Britain after the Norman Conquest. Their conquest of Sicily in the 1060s had brought the Normans into contact with the Classical and Islamic traditions

of emparking wild animals, and they probably made further introductions of fallow deer to Britain (Rackham 1980, 177).

Most of the major royal parks were created before 1200, and those of the larger landowners between 1200 and 1350 (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 78-79). Parks created before c.1300 can be considered as part of the assarting activity of the earlier Middle Ages, while after this date their creation was part of the late- and post-medieval enclosure movement (Kerridge 1969, 99-102). From 1350, some disparking occurred, but there was also enlargement of existing parks and the creation of new ones (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 79), a process observed in Sussex at this time (Brandon 1963, 98). After 1500 disparking continued, while the function of some of the surviving parks was changed, and again some new parks were created (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 79). The distinction between 'early' and 'late' parks, those created before and after 1350 respectively, has been retained here in a consideration of park origins, function and internal features.

Prince (1967, 12-13) noted that little was known of the previous land-use of emparked areas. It has generally been considered that early parks were typically created on unimproved land, unsuitable for cultivation, and frequently on the edge of the manor, remote from existing settlements (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 71-72; Crawford 1953, 190; Prince 1967, 12-13). In Sussex, documentary evidence suggests that most of the early parks were enclosed from commons and waste, since common rights were claimed within some, and woods and heath were emparked in others (Brandon 1963, 44). There is however evidence for earlier settlement and cultivation within early parks. In south-west Northamptonshire, for example, most of the medieval parks contain ridge-and-furrow, suggesting that the area emparked was formerly arable land. Parks at Hanbury, Worcestershire, and Walsall, Staffordshire, also contain ridge and furrow (Bassett and Dyer 1980, 91; Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1977, 29). The park at Hanbury is mentioned in Domesday Book, and at Walsall the ridge-and-furrow was sealed under the platform of a

moated site of probable 12th century date (above, p.62) inside a park created in the early 13th century. At each of these, assarts of early medieval date are probably represented by the ridge-and-furrow. Evidence for Roman activity has been found at North Elmham Park in Norfolk and Donnington Park in Leicestershire. At North Elmham (Wade-Martins 1980a, 18, 26), an occupation site of 2nd to 4th century date was indicated by a pottery scatter over an area of c.1.5 ha near a moated site in the centre of the medieval park, but there was no evidence for middle or late Saxon activity; a middle Saxon settlement lay outside the park boundary. At Donnington (Liddle 1979), a park in existence by 1155, a Roman site consisting of a scatter of 1st to 4th century pottery and building materials was found (site 4; ibid. 28) and the excavation of a late medieval park lodge (see below) also produced Roman pottery. The absence of any later material at either North Elmham or Donnington implies that the settlement was abandoned in the Roman or post-Roman periods, and that the areas had reverted to waste before emparking in the Middle Ages. The close proximity of a Roman site to a moat at North Elmham, and to a lodge at Donnington, together with the limits of the Middle Saxon settlement at the former, however, raise the possibility that these parks may have originated, at least as tenurial divisions, in the Roman period.

Late parks, created after c.1350, after included former arable and pasture (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 79; Rackham 1980, 191). There is evidence for pre-medieval activity at Stanhope Park, Co. Durham. The Great Park was created in the late 14th or 15th centuries (Turner *et al.* 1973, 216) and contains traces of fields of probable Iron Age date (Roberts 1977, 179). In south-west Northamptonshire, three of the early medieval parks were enlarged in the 16th century, and the enlargements include ridge-and-furrow, indicating former arable use (RCHM 1982, xlvi).

Early parks were game reserves, primarily for deer, and functioned as prestige symbols, for sport, and as a supply of fresh meat (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 71). They contained a

variety of topography and vegetation (Shirley 1867, 234-235), including a water supply, and frequently a fish pond (Crawford 1953, 190). The vegetation consisted of the *launde* or *lawn*, which was grassland, and the *vert*, which were trees bearing green leaf and providing cover and feed for deer (Whitehead 1980, 268, 281). About half of the area of early parks was occupied by woods, and parks were particularly important as a source of outsize timber (Rackham 1980, 191, 195). Rackham has distinguished two management systems: the 'wood pasture' where trees and grassland were intermixed and the trees were pollarded so that renewed growth was above browsing height, and the 'compartmental' sytem where woodland was coppiced and was fenced to exclude deer (*ibid.*, 173). The only buildings inside parks were hunting lodges, or keeper's dwellings, such as that excavated in Donnington Park, Leicestershire (Liddle 1979). This was a stone building inside a rectangular ditched enclosure c.40m square, which was shown to have been occupied from c.1375 to c.1600 and was identified as the park lodge mentioned in 1399-1400.

Later medieval parks were probably not managed as intensively as earlier parks and were not as securely enclosed, rarely possessing a large boundary earthwork. Their purpose was ornamental rather than practical, and they were situated close to the manor house. They were larger than earlier parks, and there were often 2 or 3 late parks in a single manor (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 74, 79). In south-west Northamptonshire, enlargement of earlier medieval deer parks in the 16th century was usually the result of royal instructions, and it has been suggested that this was due to the Crown policy to encourage the breeding of horses (RCHM 1982, xlvi). The documentary sources (Thirsk 1977, 12-13), however, seem to refer to the use of existing parks for this purpose rather than to their enlargement or the creation of new ones.

In the late 16th and 17th centuries, improved farming techniques made possible the agricultural development of many parks (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 79). In Sussex, for instance, there was a gradual extension of tillage into parks in the 17th century (Brandon

1963, 157). The final phase of park creation began with the almost total destruction of Royalist parks during the Civil War and the Commonweath (Shirley 1867, 47; Whitaker 1892, 2). Some new parks were created following the Restoration of 1660 (Whitaker 1892, 2) but their size and number had decreased. The park was now a large landscaped garden around a country house, rather than a game reserve, and its boundary was ornamental, consisting of a sunken fence or a ha-ha. If deer were kept, they were now in paddocks or small parks on good land close to the owner's house rather than on poor waste at a distance (Shirley 1867, 50). Plantations in the park served as sources of timber, to replace the stocks depleted during the Civil War (Prince 1958, 332).

The purposes of the present study of parks in Sutton Chase were to define their extent and chronologies and to examine the evidence for pre-park land use, for internal features, and for the park's function during its existence.

The park boundary earthwork (above, p.65) survives in some cases. Documents may list boundary points, and field names containing a 'park' element are likely to be within, or outside but adjacent to, the park boundary. Manuscript maps may depict park paling, but this could be used a conventional symbol for a park boundary and does not necessarily indicate the existence of paling (Smith 1977a, 92). The line of the park boundary may also be preserved in existing field boundaries. In early parks, an elliptical or circular shape was common since this form has a minimum perimeter/area ratio, and the park limits often coincided with parish boundaries (Cantor and Hatherly 1979, 72). The boundary line may therefore be represented by a number of curving field boundaries making a continuous line, and joining the parish boundary. Written evidence may provide either the date of, or a terminus ante quem for, park creation. The representation of the park on a map provides the latter. A relative chronology may be obtainable from archaeological sources, such as the earthworks in Sutton Park (below, p.164).

There are three possible types of pre-park land use. The area may have been all waste, consisting of woods and rough grazing, with no settlements, it may have ben all arable or improved pasture, with or without actual settlements, or a combination of these, partly waste and partly improved. Waste is implied by an absence of features or objects, improved land and settlements by earthworks, cropmarks and scatters of objects.

The internal features and function of the park itself may be determined from both archaeological and documentary evidence. There may be written references to deer, and a deer-proof boundary indicates their presence, but the absence of such an earthwork is not evidence for the absence of deer. The areas of former woodland can be reconstructed from documentary and cartographic sources, and there may be earthwork remains of a wood bank, indicating the former extent of woodland.

CURDWORTH PARISH (fig.34)

Dunton Park (fig.91)

The park is marked on Ogilby's map of 1675 at SP 189932, with a paling symbol around it. It is bounded on the north by the present A4097 and on the west by the present A446. Ogilby's map shows Dunton Hall (below, p.239) in the centre of the park; the park may have been created when the present hall was constructed, in the 17th century. Disparking had occurred by 1846, when the Dunton Manor Tithe Award map shows the area divided into fields. Two of these are named *Birchley Park* and *The Old Park*, to the north-east and south-east respectively of Dunton Hall. Former woodland is indicated by the field-names *Big Clapshaw* and *Little Clapshaw*, south of Birchley Park. These may be identified as the site of the 'wood called Clapshaw' which was enclosed in the late 13th century (Dugdale 1730, 933). The southern boundary of the park may be represented by a field boundary running east from the A446 at SP 189929. This consists of a bank and ditch with a total width of *c.*5m. The bank is to the north of the ditch, and rises to *c.*1m above the field to the south.

The area of the park is on sand and gravel drift. The soil is a gleyic brown earth. The western part is grade 2 agricultural land, the eastern grade 3w; this division may be due to a variation in the depth of drift over Keuper Marl. It is now wholly under permanent grass, thus no fieldwalking was possible. No earthworks are visible.

New Park or Minworth Park (fig. 52)

The park may have been in existence by 1222, when at the Warwick Assize William de Arden laid claim to 24 acres of wood held by Leicester Abbey in Curdworth, and there was said to have been a discord between the two parties about the 'wood and park' (Stenton 1940, 622). The 24 acres of wood are probably those mentioned in 1223 in Berwood (below, p.238) to the west of the known site of New Park, thus New Park seems to be the 'park' referred to. The other reference is recorded under Castle Bromwich rather than Curdworth parish. On 4

December 1510, John Wardern (i.e. Arden) had emparked two crofts called Lady Crofts containing 10 acres of arable land, converted them into pasture for wild beasts, and included them in his existing park (Leadam 1897, II, 401); a park at Castle Bromwich is mentioned in 1291 (IPM of Roger de Somery). Saxton's map of 1576 and Vaughan's of 1656 depict New Park as an oval area bounded by a paling symbol, which extends to Plants Brook in the west, and crosses over the Tame into Castle Bromwich parish in the south. In contrast, on each of the 16th century manuscript maps of the Arden estate Minworth Parke or New parke or New Parke is represented as an oval defined by a paling symbol, and bounded on the south by the River Tame, on the west by Plants Brook, and on the north and north-east by the present Park Lane and Water Orton Lane respectively. There is a lodge inside it, and a north-south line, slightly east of centre, divides the park. Oken Hayes in the west is filled with tree symbols, and the eastern part is subdivided into four named enclosures, none of them 'Lady Crofts' (fig.52). New Park was probably disparked in 1584-85 (Shirley 1867, 160).

There are three possible interpretations of the 1510 reference to park creation. Two of these assume that its inclusion in Castle Bromwich parish is an error, which could have arisen because John Arden's residence, Park Hall, was in that parish. This being the case, the name 'New parke' suggests that the whole of the oval area shown on the 16th century maps was newly emparked by him, and added to an existing park south of the Tame, that mentioned in 1291. On the other hand this oval form may itself be the result of enlargement of an existing park. The original park would then have been the wooded area of *Oken Hayes*, and the enclosures to the east of this would include Lady Crofts. Alternatively, if the new emparkment really was in Castle Bromwich, then the oval New Park north of the Tame must be the original park, that mentioned in 1222, which was enlarged to include an area south of the Tame, to produce the park depicted on Saxton's and Vaughan's maps.

The 16th century maps show that about half of the park north of the Tame was occupied by woods, and that the park was bounded by paling. The 1510 reference mentions the inclusion

of former arable land into the park, and its function as an enclosure for wild animals. A bank in front of the Severn-Trent Water Authority building at SP 156917 may be part of its northern boundary.

Other than the 1510 reference, the only indication or previous activity in the area of the park is the name *Charnels ground* for the enclosure in the north-east corner of the park (SP 161917) on the 1589 map. This could record the discovery of skeletal remains here and thus the presence of a cemetery. The cemetery must be of pre-medieval date because the area is in Curdworth parish and its inhabitants would have been buried at Curdworth church. Norman fabric in the church (Mitchell 1928; VCHW 4, 65-66: Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 284-285) indicates that it was in existence by the 12th century.

North of the Tame, the northern part of the park is on Boulder Clay, and the southern is on terrace gravels. The northern part is probably grade 3s agricultural land, but the southern part may be grade 4w due to poor drainage alongside the Tame.

DRAYTON BASSETT PARISH (fig.35)

Bangley Park (fig.53)

Pasture in the close called Bangeley' is mentioned in 1397 (IM) but Bangley is first described as a park in a late 15th century Account Roll for the manor of Drayton (unpub; PRO), and it can be identified as one of the three parks and warrens included in the manor in 1505 (IPM). The park had been disparked by 1756 (Shaw 1798, II, 9). A late 16th century map of the manor, now lost, but described by Shaw, marked Bangley Park on the south-western side of the manor, occupying a narrow oblong of 670 acres extending from Watling Street to *Canwell Thornes*. This area is on Keuper Marl, with some Boulder Clay drift cover, and the soil is a clayey loam stagnogley. It is grade 3w agricultural land. Present land-use is agricultural, both arable and pasture.

Fieldwalking zones (BP 1-7) were scattered throughout the park, in its northern, eastern and southern parts. In the south (BP 6-7) struck flints, including a flake scraper (fig.19) were found, but the only other material found here and in the other areas walked was post-medieval pottery which postdates the disparking and was probably introduced with manure onto fields subsequently cultivated. A Roman coin of unknown date, found with a metal detector at c.SK 173015, could have been within either Bangley or Drayton Parks. The artifact evidence suggests that the area of Bangley Park was not occupied or cultivated either at the time of park creation or during the park's existence, but the 1397 reference cited above indicates that parts of it may have been enclosed, improved pasture.

There is an earthwork boundary on the south-western side only, where the park boundary coincides with the parish boundary. This consists of a bank and ditch running south from Three Parish Wood, and was probably in existence, as the parish boundary, before the park was created. It may be 'the old ditch' mentioned as the eastern boundary of the lands of Canwell Priory in its foundation charter of c.1142 (Dodsworth and Dugdale 1682, 440; below, p.245).

The Yateses's map shows a small area of woodland within the park. The position of the wood is indicated by the field-names *Bangley Coppice* and *Coppice Piece* in the Drayton Bassett Tithe Award of 1837. Possible charcoal-burning hearths at SK 165012 (Gould 1974) and SK 169010 (observed during fieldwork) are further evidence for former woodland. Three buildings are marked within the former bounds of the park on the Yateses' map; they are the present Great Bangley Farm (marked as *Over Bangley*), Lower Bangley, and Hints Farm (marked but not named). All of these are brick farmhouses which were probably built after disparking and enclosure. The original lodge, *Bangly*, which had been converted into a farm by 1756 (Shaw 1798, II, 9), was probably the present Bangley Farm, on Watling Street north of the Bourne Brook.

Drayton Park (fig.54)

In 1203 Waleran, Earl of Warwick, agreed that Ralph Bassett could retain his enclosure, with a hedge, of the woods of Drayton, provided that there was no bukestall, and that deer were given to the Earl as rent (FFW). An Act of Parliament of 1503 described buckstalls as nets to catch deer (Gosling 1726, 18-19). On the lost late 16th century map described by Shaw (1798, II, 9), the park is an oval area of c.692 acres ($c.3 \text{km}^2$), with a stream through the centre. On Saxton's map of 1577, Browne's map of 1682 and the Yateses' of 1775 (fig. 113) its western boundary is the present A453, its southern is Drayton Lane in the west and Heathley Lane in the east, the eastern Drayton Lane and the A4091, and on the north the park extends beyond the Bourne Brook into Fazeley parish. The park was disparked in the late 18th century (Shirley 1867, 180) and was 'much enclosed' by 1798 (Shaw 1798, II, 9). In the Drayton Bassett Tithe Award of 1837 there are four field-names containing a 'park' element in the north, betwen Hill Farm and Lodge Farm, and others are north of Drayton Manor, west of Heathley Farm, and in the south-west and south of the park. The former park boundary, corresponding to that marked on the Yateses' and Browne's maps, is indicated by the limits of titheable land. The park is adjacent to Bangley Park (above, p.149) and Shirral Park (below, p.154). It is on Boulder Clay drift over Keupr Marl. The soil is a clayey loam stagnogley. It is grade 3w agricultural land. Present land-use of the western part is agricultural, while the east is occupied by woods and a golf course.

Cropmarks and objects provide evidence for land-use before park creation and during the park's existence. West of Alder Wood, in the north-west corner of the park, there is a cropmark (NMR SK 1701, 1-2; figs.54, 55) of three sides of a sub-rectangular ditched enclosure measuring c.25m x 20m. The fourth side is formed by the present A453. A group of cropmarks north and east of Hillfarm Cottages (RAF/CPE/UK/2555/4054, 4055) has been published previously (Gould 1972, 6-7, site K). The following description and plot (fig.56) are derived from my own examination of the aerial photographs, and do not agree with Gould's interpretation. The marks form a series of rectangular enclosures, the only complete

one of which is c.210x150m. Where two adjacent corners of the other rectangles are visible, the lengths of their sides are c.60, 65 and 95m. They are arranged in a 'brickwork' pattern and their alignment is neither the same as that of the present field system, probably laid out after disparking in the 18th century, nor is it the same as that of Drayton Lane, which forms the southern park boundary here. However Drayton Lane appears to respect the corners of the rectangles, suggesting that these were still visible when its line was laid out. The rectangles may be interpreted as a series of arable or stock enclosures, pre-dating park creation. Gould (op.cit.) suggests that they are of Romano-British date, but they could equally be prehistoric or early medieval. To the north of the rectangles, and not connected to them, there are two curving parallel lines c.12m apart, running east-west, possibly a ditched trackway (fig. 56). Near the western end of this feature, three lines splay out from the northern line, and the westernmost of these has another line joining it at right angles (WMCC 1980, 9810). The splayed lines are similar to those at Andover, Hampshire, which appeared as a cropmark but were not located in excavation. The Andover site was compared to a cropwork of close-set lines at South Wonston, Hamshire, which were apparently integrated with an occupation site of Iron Age or Roman date, and ended on a pit alignment (Bowen 1975, 110-114). The other cropmark in Drayton Park is a rounded corner east of Hill Farm (WMCC 1980, 9808,9809) (fig.55).

Fieldwalking areas were in the western part of the park, from Alder Wood in the north to Drayton Lane in the south, and in the centre, mainly south of Lodge Farm (AW 80, 1-2; 81, 3-6; DP 80, 1-2; 81, 3-10). Worked flints were found throughout the park (fig.19). The area of the Alder Wood cropmark (AW 80, 1) produced two joining sherds of prehistoric or Roman pottery, and two sherds of possible prehistoric date were found north-east of Hill Farm (AW 81, 4). At the latter area there was also a concentration of Roman pottery, possibly indicating a settlement site, and smaller quantities of Roman pottery were found throughout the western part of the park, suggesting manuring activity. Medieval pottery was found in both the western and central parts. The average sherd weight of white ware suggested occupation at AW 81, 4

and DP 80, 1, and manuring at AW 3 and DP 6, 7, 10. This may indicate that the original park only occupied the eastern part of the area eventually emparked, and that its subsequent enlargement included former agricultural land. The enlargement may have occurred in the late medieval period, when Bangley and Shirral Parks were created.

The only chance find from the area is the Roman coin found with a metal detector at c.SK 173015 (above, p.150). A possible burnt mound (above, p.59) was noted during fieldwalking near Alder Wood (fig.55). It consisted of an area of burnt pebbles c.1.20m in diameter, in the ploughsoil adjacent to a drainage channel along the edge of the field.

There is therefore evidence for probable settlement, cultivation and improved pasture both before the park's creation and during its existence. Former woodland may be indicated by the place-name Drayton, *Draitone* in Domesday Book. Names of this form may mean 'a place where timber is dragged from the forest' (Everitt 1979, 70). Field-names in 'Heathley' to the south-east of the park in the Tithe Award may describe the former vegetation of this area.

The park was bounded by a 'hedge' in 1203 (FFW; above). The only possible boundary earthwork is along the northern side of Heathley Lane, where the lane runs in a ditch and has a bank on its northern side. Small sherds of medieval pottery were weathered out of an area of $c.1\text{m}^2$ of the bank (HL). The 1203 reference indicates the presence of deer and woodland in the park. There were dairy cattle in the park before 1397 (IM), and a drawing shows deer around Drayton Manor in the late 18th century (Shaw 1798, II, facing p.1). The only internal building marked on the Yateses' map, other than Drayton Manor (below, p.240) is a lodge, which can be identified as the present Lodge Farm. This is a brick building of type 7 (above, p.58) with stone dressings, including quoins and mullioned windows, dateable to the later 17th century. The 1817 OS map marks Lodge Farm, named as *Drayton Park Farm*, Hill Farm, named *Drayton Lodge Farm*, and Heathley Farm, which is not named.

Shirral Park (fig.57)

The park is 'the park of Sheralf' in a late 15th century account roll for the manor of Drayton (unpub.; PRO). It can be identified as one of the three parks and warrens in the manor of Drayton in 1505 (IPM). 'Keepers of Sherold' are mentioned in 1523 (Mton MSS, p.359). On the lost late 16th century map of Drayton Bassett, 'Sherrolde Park' occupied c.443 acres (c.180 ha) adjoining the Canwell estate. It was disparked by 1756 (Shaw 1798, II, 9). The line of the park boundary can be determined from this description and from the distribution of 'park' field names in the 1837 Tithe Award. On the north-west it is the present A453, adjoining Canwell estate in Hints parish and Bangley Park; on the north, Drayton Lane adjoining Drayton Park; on the east, Shirral Lane down to Shirral Farm, and on the south, the parish and county boundary through Trickley Coppice. The probable line of the park boundary south-east of Shirral Hall is defined by a change in the field pattern. The fields to the east of this line, outside the park, are irregularly shaped and are probably the result of piecemeal enclosure, but the fields to the west are large and straight-sided, and are likely to be the result of a single, systematic enclosure of land formerly within the park after disparking in the 18th century. Shirral Farm, formerly Shirrall Hall, is marked on the Yateses' map (below, p.241). The area of the park is on sandy, pebbly 'Boulder Clay' drift over Keuper Marl. The soil is a stragnogleyic sandy loam. It is grade 3w agricultural land, adjacent to an area of grade 2 land to the east.

Areas in the northern part of the park were walked (Sl 1-6). Zones 1 to 5 were walked in generally poor conditions, and the only find other than pottery postdating disparking was a small flint flake (SL 3). In SL 6, however, in the northern corner of the park, there were 17 sherds of medieval pottery, from more than one vessel, in an area $c.30 \times 30$ m alongside Drayton Lane. This may indicate earlier occupation within the area later emparked, possibly associated with the adjacent cropmarks north of Drayton Lane in Drayton Park (above, p.151). The average sherd weight suggests occupation rather than manuring. A single sherd of medieval pottery was a chance find near Loddy Wood (LW).

No trace of an earthwork park boundary was found. On the 1837 map, the largest area of woodland in the area of the park is the northern part of Trickley Coppice, some of which has since been cleared. Loddy Wood has the same extent as present, while the Middle Park Plantation consisted in 1837 of two small areas of wood, its present western and eastern ends. Shirral Coppice extended as far as the present A453 in the north-west in 1837, but an earlier north-western boundary line survives as a bank and ditch, with the ditch to the north-west, which runs west through the wood as a continuation of the line of the field boundary on its northern side, and continues out of the wood on the south-west. A cropmark, a curving dark line continuing the line of the southern edge of the present wood to the north-east for c.150m (RAF, Warks, 42/19 NE), indicates the former eastern limits of Shirral Coppice. Further evidence for woodland here is provided by a least 3 possible charcoal-burning hearths, observed during fieldwork in the area of SL 1, 2. Former industrial activity within the area of the park is indicated by an earthen dam c.3m high which runs across the valley on the western edge of Loddy Wood. It has the remains of a rectangular brick structure c.4 x 2.5m near its north-eastern corner. The dam is marked on the first edition OS 1" map.

LEA MARSTON PARISH (fig.39)

The Court Roll of 1379 records that the lord's park at *La Lee* had been broken into, and that cattle had been stolen. On Snape's map of 1773 a park occupies a rectangular area around Hams Hall (below, p.246) in the southern part of the parish. In the north it adjoins Lea Common (above, p.116) and the parish church is near its northern boundary. Ouston Grange (below, p.246) is near its south-east boundary. The edges of the park approximately coincide with the edge of the Upper or Hams Hall Terrace of the River Tame, as defined by Shotton (1956). The area is now built-up, and has been landscaped (*ibid*.).

The location of the parish church, adjacent to the park but c.600m from the settlement nucleus of Lea (below, p.202) suggests that the park includes part or all of a former settlement site

around the church. The putative settlement could have been abandoned before the park was created, or may have been forcibly shifted to the present site to permit creation of the park. The 1379 reference indicates that the park was used then for cattle grazing. The only reference to deer is on a 19th century map of the parish, which includes an acreage for 'Deer Park' near Hams Hall.

MIDDLETON PARISH (fig.40)

Middleton Park (figs.59, 60)

In 1247, Ela, Countess of Warwick, claimed that Philip Marmion had constructed a saltatorium, or deer leap in his park in the wood of Middleton, to the detriment of her forest of Sutton (Ass.R.St.). Middleton Park was subdivided on the death of Philip Marmion in 1292 (IPM), and the manor accounts of 1379-80 mention the *Dower parke*, the *Dereparke*, and the Little park. The 1397 Court Roll mentions the lease of Baldwin de Freville's share of the Dowerparke, with hedges and ditches. In May 1409, animals were impounded in the pasture of the Little park of Middleton (Court Roll), possibly New Park (below, p.159). In the 19th century the deer were removed from Middleton Park (De Hamel 1902, 27). The park is marked on Saxton's map of 1576 and the Sheldon Tapestry map of c.1588. On Browne's map of 1682, it is approximately circular in shape, and extends to the country boundary on the northern side. The limit of the park here is indicated by the field name *Park Leasowe* in the 1837 Drayton Bassett Tithe Award. On a map of the parish of 1865 the park has a roughly triangular shape. Its apex is where the modern A4091 crosses the county boundary, its western side is the A4091, its southern boundary runs north of Coneybury Farm, and its eastern side through New House Farm. This area is on the gravel terrace of the River Tame. The soils on the west are stagnogleys, and to the east are ground-water gleys. It is grade 3w agricultural land, adjacent to an area of grade 2 land to the north-west. Parts of the north and south are now arable land, but much of the remainder is occupied by gravel pits.

There are cropmarks in the northern and southern parts of the park (figs. 59,60) related to land use both before park creation and during its existence. In the northern part two different groups are visible on different photographs. On the NMR photograph (WA 00315) a series of straight lines meet at right-angles and form one complete rectangle c.60m across and parts of others, possibly a system of enclosed fields, similar in both form and dimensions to the cropmarks at Bodymoor Heath (above, p.115) and Drayton Park (above, p.151). A long sinuous line forming the western side of the central rectangle is on the line of a bridle road marked on the 1865 map. The other features in this field, visible on RAF/CPE/UK/2555/3052, consist of two concentric circles with double lines radiating from them. These can be identified as features associated with the management of deer in the park in the 19th century, as described by De Hamel (1902, 21); he states that in the centre there was a clump of trees in an embanked circle 100 yards in diameter, from which 6 avenues each 20 yards wide ran to deerleaps on the edge of the park. Alternatively the features could be part of a garden layout like the 17th century garden at Cookeridge, Yorks (Hadfield 1985, 111, fig.5). In the southern part of the park the cropmarks are a series of straight lines, some but not all of which can be identified as field boundaries marked on the 1865 map and a track leading to Middleton Hall from the south-west. This track went out of use when the main entrance to the Hall was moved from the west to the northern side in the early 19th century (De Hamel 1902, 27).

Fieldwalking in the northern and southern fields (north: MP 11-14, 81; south: MP 4-10) produced a small quantity of worked flints of Mesolithic type (fig.19), a single sherd of Roman mortarium (MP 14; fig.27), and some medieval pottery. The flints are best regarded as lying on the fringe of the main occupied area; a greater density was found on a gravel knoll beside the River Tame to the east (Sheen, n.d.; below, p.280). Other evidence of prehistoric activity is provided by a burnt mound (WA 00113) and the chance find of an Iron Age gold torc (WA 00122). The burnt mound, probably dateable to the Middle Bronze Age (above, p.59) is now destroyed (Hodder 1976-77), but it was described as one of the largest of its type (Cantrill 1913-16,144). It was situated c.100yards (90m) south-east of Middleton Hall and was c.50ft in diameter and c.3ft high (Anon 1930). In October 1913 it was described as a low mound of

burnt stones and charcoal dust c.60ft in diameter, with a hollow on one side (New 1915b 15). A looped bronze palstave (Birmingham Museum, 131'72), whose recorded findspot is near Middleton Hall (BMR; WA 00112) was actually found further east, near the canal; (O. Davies, New House Farm, pers.commm.), and thus outside the park. The torc (British Museum, 1977, 4-1, 1) is made of twisted gold wire and is superficially similar to the torc from Glascote nearby (Painter 1971).

The average sherd weight of medieval white ware suggests occupation in the southern part of the park, and manuring in the north, but the quantities of pottery are too small for this measurement to be meaningful. There is no particular concentration around the Hall, as might be expected were mere rubbish disposal involved, but it is spread throughout the areas walked. The field enclosures visible as cropmarks may therefore be of medieval rather than of prehistoric or Romano-British date. They could represent enclosure before emparking, but could equally be related to deer management after park creation. Another possible interpretation is that parts of the park were sub-divided into small enclosures when the park was divided among Philip Marmion's heirs on his death in 1292 (IPM); in 1379-80, as noted above, three parks are mentioned, and in 1397 the Dowerparke contained hedges and ditches, implying subdivisions.

An earthwork boundary survives on the western side, where it is preserved between the two carriageways of the present A4091. It was described by De Hamel (1902, 21) as a deer-leap 100 yards long, with a ditch 18ft wide. Because Philip Marmion had lost the court case of 1247, noted above, and had been ordered to destroy his *saltatorium* or deer-leap, De Hamel suggested that this earthwork may have been a later sunken fence, constructed to improve the view from Middleton Hall. However, as noted above (p.77) the *saltatorium* or deer-leap would be an entrance feature only, so the earthwork could be the medieval park boundary.

The saltatorium is evidence for the presence of deer in the park in 1247, and there are

subsequent references to them. In 1258, deer were stolen from Middleton Park (Cal. Pat. R.) and in 1379-80 part of the park was known as the *Dereparke* (Manor Accounts). The little park was used for animal pasture in 1409 (Court Roll). The inclusion of woodland in the initial park enclosure of 1247 is indicated by the reference to the 'wood of Middleton' (Ass.R.St.).

Middleton New Park (fig.49)

The park may be the 'little park' mentioned in the Manor Accounts of 1379-80. *New Park* is first specifically mentioned before January 1622 (VCH W, 4, 158) and was sold in 1664-65 (Mton Mss., 194). On Ogilby's map of 1675 the park is named and bounded by a paling symbol. Its western boundary is the present A446 from Withy Hill Road in the north to footpath in the south. On the Yateses' map an irregularly shaped area of woodland is marked in this position but is not named. On the Greenwoods' map of 1820 the shape of the wood is similar to that of the present New Park Wood. New Park Wood is on Keuper Marl; its northwestern part is covered by Boulder Clay drift. The soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam. It is situated between Middleton Heath (above p.117) and Littleworth End (below, p.205) close to the parish boundary.

The area of the park is now wooded, so no fieldwalking was possible, but there is earthwork evidence for former land use. A probable burnt mound was noted at c.SP 158980. It consists of a mound c.15m long, c.13m wide, and up to c.60cm high (fig.61) beside a small stream. It is crossed by a path, and erosion along this and around tree-roots has exposed the characteristic heat-cracked pebbles. There is ridge and furrow in two parts of the wood. In a clearing in the north, c.SP 156980, it is now overgrown and is best observed on an aerial photograph (RAF/CPE/UK/2469/3215). It consists of 11 curving ridges of c.6m wavelength, and up to c.200m long, with possibly more further south. In the south of the wood, southeast of the path at SP 160977, there are 3 or 4 ridges, slightly curving or S-shaped, with a wavelength of 5 to 7m, and c.120m long. There is therefore evidence for former cultivation, probably of medieval date and possibly associated with the adjacent hamlet of Littleworth End

(below, p.205). The park may have been created from some of the *debilitate terrae*, 'exhausted or abandoned land', which is mentioned in the 14th century Court Rolls of Middleton, such as that for October 1391.

SHENSTONE PARISH (fig.42)

Little Aston Park

A park was laid out around Little Aston Hall (below, p.254) in 1765, and for this fences and hedges were cut down and trees were planted (Sandars 1794, 186). The original boundary of the park is defined on the 1817 OS map. The park is on Bunter Pebble Beds, with some Boulder Clay drift cover, mainly in the west. The soil is a moderately stony sandy loam on a coarse stony drift. Most of the park is on brown earths, but in the north-west corner there are humic, cambic and sandy gleys adjacent to a stream. The land classification is 3w and 4w. Part is now built-up, part a golf course, and part agricultural.

The only chance find from the area is a petit-tranchet derivative type H flint arrowhead from a garden in Park Road, SP 095998 (BMR). Part of The Coldfield waste (above, p.118) is to the south, and the hamlet of Little Aston (below, p.207) is on the park's northern edge. Sandars's description indicates that the park was created out of land previously cleared and enclosed. Early editions of the OS 1:10560 map name the park as *Deer Park*.

Shenstone Park (fig.62)

A licence for emparking at Shenstone was granted by the Earl of Warwick to Sir Ralph de Grendon in 1235 (Sandars 1794, 48; Shaw 1798, II, 43). Leland (V, 99) describes Shenstone as a park of the king, 3 miles in circumference, and well stocked with deer. In 1640 the park was granted by Charles I to Lake and Hay, and divided into two parts. The western part extended to the fold-yard adjoining Shenstone Park house, and on to Woodend, and the other included the Weeford and Little Hay lodge in the north-east. There were three lodges at this time; the others were at the gates to Sutton and Wood End. The eastern division was

stocked with deer in 1640, 1641 and 1642 (Sandars 1794, 48-50, 111; Shaw 1798, II, 43, 46). Disparking occurred during the regin of Charles II (Harwood 1884, 422).

The park is marked on Saxton's map of 1577. On the Sheldon Tapestry Map of c.1588 a park pale is shown, and the shape of the park is similar to that deduced from the documentary evidence and the distribution of 19th century field-names containing a 'park' element. On the Robins and Robins map of 1825 a 'park' field is bounded by the present A5127 on the west, the Bourne Brook on the east, and a lane leading to a footbridge over the Bourne on the south. In the 1839 Shenstone Tithe Award, field-names in 'park' are concentrated on both sides of Park Lane, east of the A5127.

The boundaries of the park may therefore be defined as the Bourne Brook on the north, the lane through Little Hay on the east, Blake Street on the south, and the line of the Birmingham Road before turnpiking, as marked on the Yateses' map, on the west. The northern part of this area is on Keuper Sandstone, with a gravel terrace alongside the Bourne Brook, and the south is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soils are moderately stony sandy loams and loamy sands. They are mainly brown earths and brown sands, with sandy gleys alongside streams. The north-west and west is classified as grade 2s agricultural land, alongside the Bourne in the north-east is grade 4w, and the remainder is grade 3s. The park extends to the parish boundary on the south and east, and adjoins waste on the south (above, p.122) and the hamlets of Wood End (below, p.207) and Little Hay (below, p.208) on the west and east respectively. The area of the park is now agricultural.

Activity of prehistoric and Roman date is indicated by chance finds of 3 polished flint axes from within the park, and struck flints of post-Mesolithic type and Roman pottery from fieldwalking around the moat (below, p.253) and near the Bourne Brook (SHP 80, 4; 81, 7-9) (figs.19, 22, 27). Medieval pottery is concentrated around the moated site. Here the average sherd weight suggests occupation (SHP 80, 2, 3; 81, 10), but close to the Bourne (SHP 81,

8), manuring is indicated.

Along Blake Street in the south the park boundary is marked by a hedge bank c.3m wide and c.1m high, which has a mixed species hedge on its summit and an internal ditch in places. On the eastern side, south of Little Hay, there is a high bank with a mixed hedge, and an internal ditch c.3m wide. A continuous north-south field boundary in the southern part of the park, with Scots Pine along it at intervals, may be the line of the 1640 division mentioned above. The location of former woodland is indicated by field-names in 'Hurst' in the centre of the park (SK 116023) in the 1839 Tithe Award.

SUTTON COLDFIELD PARISH (fig.43)

Eachelhurst Park

Pasture in the 'King's park at Echelhurst' is mentioned in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). The location and extent of the park is uncertain, but it was possibly in the area now occupied by the golf course, c.SP 132927. Fields on the northern side of Plants Brook are named 'Eachelhurst Bottoms' on the Sutton Coldfield Corn Rent map of 1825. This is on the edge of the parish, adjacent to part of the late 18th century waste (above, p.108) and is on sand and gravel drift around Keuper Marl. The soils are stagnogleyic argillic brown earths. It is grade 3w agricultural land.

Four Oaks Park (fig.64)

The park is around Four Oaks Hall (below, p.254). It was created in two parts, both of which were taken out of the north-east corner of Sutton Park (below, p.164). The northern part, 48 acres, was sold to Simon Luttrell under authorisation of Act of Parliament in 1756 (Beresford 1957, 233). In 1808 Sir Edmund Hartopp was given permission to put a sunk fence between Four Oaks Park and Sutton Park (Warden's Accounts 9, 101). The southern part of Four Oaks Park was taken from Sutton Park in 1826. It included the 16th century woodland

enclosure of Lady Wood (below, p.173). The western side of Four Oaks Park is now bounded by a brick wall; there is no trace of a sunk fence in the north part. The area of the park is on Boulder Clay, and is now built up. It is on acid brown sands, grade 3s land.

Langley Park (fig.97)

There was possibly a park adjacent to Langley Hall (below, p.255). The Sutton Coldfield Corn Rent Map of 1825 shows Park Field to the south-west and The Park to the south-east. The area is on sand and gravel drift and Keuper Marl, grade 3w agricultural land. The soils are stagnogleys.

Part of The Park was walked (LHM 81, 4 and 5) and a worked flint was found.

Moor Hall Park (fig.63)

The park was probably created out of land obtained by Bishop Vesey from the King in 1527. This land consisted of existing enclosures called More Crofts and Hethe Yards, together with 40 acres of waste, with permission to enclose it (Pat.R.; LPFD). On the Sutton Coldfield Corn Rent Map of 1825 Moor Hall Park is bounded by Weeford Road on the east and a road from Old Farm to Weeford Road on the south (also marked on the Yateses' map). To the north the park may have extended over the fields named Park Closes. If these are included, the total area of the park would be $c.0.3 \text{km}^2$, about 72 acres. This could have included all of the 40 acres of waste mentioned in 1527, and also More Crofts and Hethe Yards, since there are no field names similar to these on the Corn Rent Map. Cultivation in these enclosures before emparking may be indicated by ridge and furrow consisting of parallel ridges of c.3 m wavelength on the present golf course north-east and south-east of Moor Hall. A ditch c.3 m wide, with a bank c.2 m wide and c.50 cm high, along Weeford Road, may be part of the original park boundary. The rather infertile soils of the area are noted by Leland (V, 98) who remarks that fruit trees planted there after emparking 'grow with some difficulty'. The area is on Keuper Sandstone, with Keuper Marl to the east and a partial covering of Boulder Clay.

The soils are acid brown sands, grade 3s agricultural land. The north-western half and south-west edges are now built-up, and the remainder is a golf course.

Sutton Park (fig.64)

The park is on the western side of the parish, and is bounded on the north, west and south by The Coldfield (above, p.106) and on the east by the town of Sutton Coldfield. The solid geology is Bunter Pebble Beds, with Hopwas Breccia in the north. There are several areas of drift cover. The soils (Mackney 1971) are mostly acid brown sands. On the higher parts there are humo-ferric podzols, and around the pools and streams there are sandy ground-water gleys and peaty gleys. Valley bog, with peat over 45cm thick, occurs in the north-west corner of the Park, north-west of Longmore Pool, and around Blackroot and Keepers Pools. The areas of brown sands and podzols are grade 3s agricultural land, and the gleys are grade 4w land. The park is now a public recreation area. The present vegetation consists of heathland in the west and woods in the north and east. There are chance finds of prehistoric and Roman date, and earthwork evidence for pre-park land-use and for park management.

Worked flints have been found in the western part of the park. 12 worked flints of Mesolithic type, including scrapers, flakes and blades (Birmingham Museum 143-147'71) were found near Little Bracebridge Pool, north west of Bracebridge Pool (fig.19). Single finds include a flake from Rowton Hill (Birmingham Museum 141'71) and a core from the Old Peat Pit near Longmoor Brook (Birmingham Museum 140'71). A flint blade in the Geology Museum, Birmingham University (British Collection, B9; Wymer 1977, 416) has 'Near James Pool, Sutton Park, 1903' written on it, but none of the pools in the park has ever been known by this name. This could be one of the flints found 'on Sutton Park' by Benton (1906, 43). An unknown number of flint arrowheads of unknown type were found by German prisoners-of-war cleaning out drainage ditches near Longmoor Pool, and they were allowed to take them back to Germany (Jones 1973, 2). The approximate position of the findspot is on the northern side of Longmoor Pool (N. Evans, pers. comm.). A blade fragment of a bronze flat axe was found with a metal detector west of Holly Hurst (BMR). It is an axe of the Migdale group, as

defined by Britton (163, 270).

Roman pottery and coins have been found. A rim of a mortarium (fig.27) similar in form to an example dated c.170-230 AD at Mancetter (Hartley 1971, no.5), was found in Blackroot Glade between Upper and Lower Nut Hursts in 'recent wash-out' (BMR). It could have been brought to the findspot in recent times with a dump of modern material which has been placed here to surface the deeply-eroded track along the glade. This material may have been dumped here when several tracks in the park were resurfaced for the Scout Jamboree of 1956, but its source is unknown (H M Moss, pers.comm.). The Roman coins were all found close to the Roman road (below, and thus, if they are genuinely ancient losses, may be interpreted as losses by travellers. The bronze coin of Constantine found on the Roman road in 1883 (Riland-Bedford 1891, 3) and the bronze coin of Constantine found on the Roman Road in Streetly Wood in 1879 (Sidwell and Durant 1890, 9-10) are probably the same coin, despite the disparity in dates. Two coins of Diocletian, a follis and a billon tetradrachm (Birmingham Museum 64-65'59) were found in a lump of hard earth prised out of the ground near a seat which was near Streetly Gate and close to the Roman road (New 1915a). The seat is probably one of the two seats at SP 087982, on either side of a modern road. They are sufficiently far away from the Roman road to sugest that the coins may have been in the modern rather than the Roman road surface. The gravel for metalling the roads through the park was probably obtained from quarries within it (H M Moss, pers. comm.), thus even if the coins have been transported to their findspot in recent times, they were probably originally lost in the park.

There is a possible barrow at the end of a ridge north of Longmoor Pool. Bracken (1860, 118) describes the mound as a tumulus c.30 yards in diameter and 3-4ft high. She mentions an excavation here in 1859. A trench and pits were dug into the mound to depths of 4-5ft, and the first 3ft was described as 'disturbed soil', which rested on more consolidated sand. According to Jones (1982, 29) a stone coffin was exhumed from the barrow in 1808, but he could not trace the original reference (pers. comm.). The dimensions of the mound have been quoted

more recently as c.157m long, c.50m wide, and up to c.1.30m high (OSR). It was suggested that it might be a natural formation, since three similar mounds were found to its north-west (*ibid*.). The mound could be on isolated gracial drift deposit, which would account for the results of the 1859 excavation; the drift may be less uniform and less consolidated than the underlying material. It is now covered by a plantation of 1953 (Ramsden 1965, 36).

In the northern part of the park there are possible burnt mounds of probable Middle Bronze Age date. Six mounds were exposed by fire and partially excavated in 1926 (Bullows 1930). There are two pear-shaped mounds c.54m apart, one c.18m long, c.9m wide, and c.0.8mhigh, and the other c.12m long and c.5m wide. Each was found to be composed of heatcracked stones, and in each a circular depression on top of the mound reflected an oval pit below it. The pit under the larger mound was c.1.3m long, Im wide and 0.5m deep, and that under the smaller mound was c.0.8m long, 0.6m wide and 0.25m deep. The other four mounds were oval and of varying size. They were also composed of heat-cracked stones, but no pits were found under them, so they were interpreted as the hearths on which the stones were heated. The six mounds were arranged in an arc which partly surrounded an 'uneven surface' to the east, which was thought to be the remains of a settlement site and to contain a possible hut circle, but which was not excavated. The 'hut circle' now appears as a slight circular depression c.5m in diameter. The site is superficially similar to the burnt mounds known elsewhere in the region (above, p.70) but there are two important differences. Charcoal occurs in large quantities with the stones in the other sites, but its absence was particularly noted at the Sutton Park site (Bullows 1930, 298). The absence of charcoal was confirmed by a test-pit I dug in June 1982 into 'Pot A', the largest mound. This showed that the mound was composed of heat-cracked stones and some unburnt stones, in a matrix of brown sandy loam. The second difference is that the site is at some distance from water; all the other known sites in the West Midlands are adjacent to streams.

The Ancient Encampment is an earthwork site on the end of a ridge near Blackroot Pool surrounded by marshy ground around a small stream. The site was described by Edwards (1880, 45) as a 'military encampment' which consisted of earthworks arranged in a 'systematic plan'. Midgley (1904, 2) mentions a ditch at the base of the slope. He suggests a prehistoric date and a defensive function for the site. According to Benton (1906, 56), a stone wall was found in the ditch during the construction of the adjacent railway c.1875. I made a plan of the earthworks in 1977 (fig.65) and drew profiles of some features (fig.66). On the crest of the ridge a bank encloses an oval area c.30m x 20m, which has shallow pits both inside and outside it. The ditch mentioned by Midgley and Benton runs around the base of the hill. It is c.3m wide and generally c.60cm deep, but it is shallower on the south, where it becomes a terrace. There is no indication of either an internal or an external bank. On the south the ditch up the slope to the earthworks on the summit.

I undertook small-scale excavations in August 1981 in an attempt to determine the original form and date of the earthworks. Two trenches were dug across the ditch around the base of the slope, and one of the pits on the summit was excavated. Trench A, 6 x 1.5m, was across the ditch on the south of the site, including its inner edge, and Trench B, again 6 x 1.5m, was across the ditch on the east side, including its outer edge. The results from both trenches were identical (fig.67). There was very little fill in the ditch, which suggested that there had been recent erosion or cleaning-out. The only finds were sherds of recent pottery from leaf litter near the surface. Trench C was 3 x 2m, the total excavation of a shallow oval depression (fig.68). This was found to be a steep-sided oval pit, c.2.25m long, lm wide, and 1m deep. It had been cut through the E and B horizons of a podzol profile, and the spoil had been dumped to its north, west and east in low mounds, sealing the podzol profile. The fill consisted of lenses of brown sand, leached sand, and pebbles. There were no finds.

In 1880, Edwards clearly considered that the earthworks were of some antiquity (above). The map of Sutton Park in Midgley (1904) contains a list of woodland areas with their acreages,

which includes an entry for 'Roman Camp and Ladywood', Ladywood (below, p.173) was on the rising ground to the east, thus 'Roman Camp' may be the name given to the Ancient Encampment, with its oak and holly woods. It is possible that the surviving earthworks are of different dates. The embanked enclosure on the summit and the pits may be genuinely 'ancient' but the results of excavation suggest that the ditch around the base of the slope is a recent feature. It could be interpreted as a 19th century robber trench, the result of the removal of a stone wall, as described by Benton. The stone wall itself was possibly the boundary of a 17th or 18th century plantation here, designed to improve the view from the nearby Four Oaks Hall. Alternatively the site may have been 'improved' by clearing out and enlarging existing features: this would also explain the excavated evidence from trenches A and B.

A possible timber trackway was found in the Old Peat Pit. The Old Peat Pit is the enlarged channel of a tributary of the Longmoor Brook. Peat was dug from here in the 18th century, and parts of tree trunks, some with axe-marks on them were found (Incola 1762, 403). This was interpreted as a trackway across the Roman road to Rowton Well (Midgley 1904, 9). The earliest timber trackways in Britain, in the Somerset Levels, are dated to c.3000 bc; others appear to fall into three chronological groups, c.2500-1900 bc, c.1100-850 bc, and c.700-450 bc (Burgess 1980, 287). The Sutton Park example may have been a corduroy track like the Abbot's Way in the Somerset Levels, which is composed of timbers laid out at right angles to the line of the trackway, and has been dated to c.2090 bc (Coles and Orme 1976). If the Sutton Park timbers are correctly interpreted as part of trackway, occupation on one or both sides of the Longmoor Valley is implied.

Other than the chance finds of objects already mentioned, the only feature of Roman date is the Roman road, a 2.6km section of the Ryknield Street between Metchley and Wall. It consists of an agger c.9m wide, with a discontinuous flanking ditch on each side, c.5m from its edge, and irregular hollows beyond the ditches. Sections dug across the road in 1936 (Walker 1940, 53-4) showed that the agger was composed of gravel, quarried from these hollows. The agger

overlay a podzol. The road was probably constructed during the campaigns of Ostorius Scapula, c.47 AD (Webster 1958, 63).

Coins found along the line of the road suggest that it was in use into the 4th century. It served as the boundary between Staffordshire and Warwickshire into the 19th century (Riland-Bedford 1891,2). It is cut by earthworks of three of the later enclosures, Sutton Park III and IV, and Streetly Wood. The last, like the other 16th century woodland enclosures (see below), was probably already wooded at the time it was enclosed, indicating that the road had gone out of use and that trees had been allowed to grow over it. The construction of Sutton Park IV, possibly in the 12th century (see below) would have blocked the route along the Roman road and resulted in its replacement by a route around the western edge of the park on the line of the present Thornhill Road.

'A park and enclosed hay' were included in the manor of Sutton in 1126 (Dugdale 1730, 909, 910). The earthwork boundaries of the medieval and later enclosures have been discussed previously (Hodder 1980) but the interpretation of the functions and dates of these has since been modified, and some new field evidence has come to light. The four earliest enclosures are here designated Sutton I to IV, of which I to III correspond to enclosures 12 to 14 respectively in the earlier account (figs. 64, 69).

Sutton Park I is a semi-oval enclosure of $c.1 \,\mathrm{km^2}$ on the eastern side of the present park, centred on Sutton Coldfield manor house. It is bounded by an earthwork $c.5.5 \,\mathrm{m}$ wide, consisting of a bank with an internal ditch. It contains the open area of Meadow Platt, the woods of Holly Hurst and part of Lower Nut Hurst, a stream, and medieval fishponds at Keepers Pool, Wyndley Pool, the small pool north of the Manor House which is possibly the Cross Pool mentioned by Leland (V,97), and probably Sutton Mill Pool which lay north-east of the Manor House and was drained in the 18th century (Midgley 1904, 24). The earthwork boundary of Sutton Park I is cut by the 16th century earthworks around Holly Hurst and

Lower Nut Hurst (below, p.173). Sutton Park II appears to be an addition of $c.0.3 \,\mathrm{km^2}$ to the northern side of Sutton Park I. Its boundary here is defined by a bank with an internal ditch, together $c.7 \,\mathrm{m}$ wide, which is cut by the same 16th century earthworks as I, and encloses the same features. It is cut in the east by the boundary of Sutton Park III, an earthwork $c.4 \,\mathrm{m}$ wide, again consisting of a bank with an internal ditch, and again cut by 16th century earthworks.

Sutton Park III is an irregularly-shaped enclosure of $c.3.3 \,\mathrm{km}^2$ in the east and north of the park. Its boundary consists of a series of short straight lengths of bank and ditch. Its eastern boundary runs along the eastern edge of Holly Hurst, through the centre of Sutton Park I and II, and it may have a common eastern side further north through Four Oaks Park with Sutton Park IV (below), although the details are not clear at the north-eastern corner. On the north the boundary of Sutton Park III is slightly south of, and parallel to, that of Sutton Park IV, but then swings south through Gum Slade and Pool Hollies, and turns to the north-west, heading towards and possibly joining the north-western corner of Sutton Park IV. On the south-west it crosses the Roman road c.25m south of the railway then runs alongside Darnel Hurst and Upper and Lower Nut Hursts towards the junction of Sutton Park I and II west of Keeper's Pool. Its line is then broken by a modern road, but it may have a common western boundary with them and with Holly Hurst down to the western end of Wyndley Pool. Sutton Park III therefore includes all the woodland enclosed in the 16th century except Streetly Wood, and includes woodland at Gum Slade. It also includes Bracebridge Pool, and Wyndley Pool, and an open area in the north-west which includes the whole of the stream, Plants Brook, feeding Bracebridge Pool. Meadow Platt is excluded.

Sutton Park IV corresponds approximately to the present park. It is defined on the north, west and east by a ditch c.5m wide inside the present park fence. In the north-east its boundary lies outside that of the present park because of the creation of Four Oaks Park in 1756 and 1826 (above, p.162) but a short stretch survives as a ditch in the rear garden of 6B Luttrell Road.

The southern part of this is nearly filled in, but the northern part is c.6m wide and c.lm deep. Within the park, and near its south-west corner, the ditch of Sutton Park IV is crossed by the earthwork boundary of Westwood Coppice (below, p.174). The southern boundary of Sutton Park IV is uncertain. It may have been formed by Longmoor Brook, from Longmoor Pool to Wyndley Pool, but have been further south since the map of Sutton Park in Midgley (1904) shows field boundaries forming a continuous line from Chester Road south of Westwood Coppice in the west to Somerville Road in the east. Old Park Farm, Booth's Farm and Stonehouse Farm are on this line, and are also marked but not named on the Yateses' map, on which this line is the northern edge of the unenclosed common waste, The Coldfield (above, p.119). The line may be continued further east by a boundary line marked between houses on the south side of Digby Road on Midgley's map to reach The Driffold, close to the Manor House. The whole of this area is now built-up.

The internal features and relative chronology of Sutton Park I to IV are summarised in table 7. An attempt can be made to relate these features to the documentary evidence. Sutton Park IV was previously interpreted (Hodder 1980) as a 16th century enclosure of common pasture, after the park was given to the people of Sutton Coldfield in the Royal Charter of 1528 (LPFD), since Dugdale (1730, 913) records that its boundary was then defined by a ditch with a quickset hedge. The ditch is on the inside to prevent livestock escaping. This enclosure is now interpreted, however, as the boundary of the deer park mentioned in 1126; the internal ditch would have functioned as a deer-proof boundary. Paling is mentioned in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). Both Beresford (1957, 230-236) and Rackham (1976, 147-148; 1980, 194, fig.12.11, 292), though apparently unaware of the earthwork evidence, considered that the limits of the present park correspond to those of the medieval one, but both make the error of extending the medieval park too far east, up to the present A5127 north of the town of Sutton Coldfield. Skipp (1980, 20) likewise considered that the present park had similar boundaries to the medieval one, since he notes that the medieval park contained 2500 acres; the area of the present park is *c*.2400 acres.

SUTTON PARK: Features of earthwork enclosures

Interpretation	Subsidiary enclosure within deer park. 12th century?	As I. 14th century?	Woodland and stream enclosure within deer park. 15th century?	Deer park. 12th century?
Contents	Streams, pools, woods, open grassland	As I	Streams, pools, woods	I, II and III
Relative date from field evidence	Earlier than III?	Earlier than III	Later than II	No evidence
Enclosure	Sutton Park I	Sutton Park II	Sutton Park III	Sutton Park IV

Each of Sutton Park I, II and III could then be interpreted as subdivisions of the deer park Sutton Park IV. I and II may be two phases of the fenced hay mentioned in 1126. The enlargement represented by II may tentatively be dated to the early 14th century, when the Earls of Warwick seem to have been taking a greater interest in Sutton Coldfield, possibly because they were staying in the manor house more often to hunt in the park. The parish church was built before 1291 (Dugdale 1730, 914) and a charter was obtained for a weekly market and an annual fair in 1300 (*ibid.*, 11). Rebuilding activity at the manor house may be indicated by the two phases of stonework recorded by Benton (1906, 58) and floor tiles from the site are decorated in the same style as mid 14th century tiles from Weoley Castle (Bracken 1860, 52; Riland-Bedford 1891, 10n; n.d., 7; Chatwin 1940, 14, no.15; Hodder 1977, 29-30). Sutton Park III seems to have had a dual function, enclosure of woods within the deer park and enclosure of a stream. Because of the latter feature, its construction may be related to that of Bracebridge Pool, which is attributed to Sir Ralph Bracebridge, who leased the manor from the Earl of Warwick in 1420. The north-western part of Sutton Park III would have protected Bracebridge's fishing rights by including the stream feeding the pool.

The medieval deer park would therefore have been of the compartmented type, as defined by Rackham (1980, 173f.) in which deer were excluded from woodland managed as coppice (above, p.144). There may have been a park keeper's lodge west of Keeper's Pool. This is suggested by the name of the pool, the nearby area called *Lodge Oak Bank* on Midgley's map (Midgley 1904) and the junction here of the boundaries of Sutton Park I, II and III, on the line of a track through the park from Wyndley Pool in the south-east to Streetly gate in the north-west which is marked on Beighton's map of 1725.

Post-medieval activity in Sutton Park consists of woodland management, the construction of pools for industrial purposes, and the enclosure of small areas for arable and pasture. As a result of the 1528 charter (LPFD) the coppices, the 'Seven Hayes', consisting of Streetly Wood, Darnel Hurst, Pool Hollies, Upper and Lower Nut Hursts, Holly Hurst, and Lady

Wood (fig.64) were each individually enclosed. The boundary in each case consists of a bank with an external ditch, to exclude livestock from the coppice, except on the western side of Holly Hurst, where the boundary was an earlier earthwork with an internal ditch (above, p.169). The total width of the bank and ditch around each coppice is c.4m, but that on the south-western side of Darnel Hurst is larger because of later modifications (below). All the coppices have an irregular plan because they are enclosures of existing woodland, which was included in Sutton Park III. The coppice enclosures are separated by 'rides', Stoney Glade between Darnel Hurst and Upper Nut Hurst, and Blackroot Glade between Upper and Lower Nut Hursts. The latter may not have originally been intended since a bank and ditch with a total width of c.3.5m runs for c.11m across its north-western end, on the line of the south-west side of Lower Nut Hurst, but it is cut by the ditch of the boundary earthwork of Upper Nut Hurst.

The Warden's Accounts provide evidence for 18th century woodland management. Westwood Coppice, in the south-west corner of the park, is first mentioned in 1776 when it was ploughed and a cereal crop was grown on it. (Warden's Accounts, 8, 16). The name indicates that it had previously been wooded, but this reference does not necessarily mean that it was converted to arable use, because sowing acorns with wheat was a common method of acorn plantation, such as in Surrey in the early 19th century (Marshall 1817, 379). This evidence for deliberate plantation is supported by other features of Westwood Coppice. It is set apart from the 'Seven Hayes', which are in the north and east of the park, and unlike them it has a straight-sided, nearly rectangular plan. The wood is composed of oak and scots pine. Its boundary, a bank with an external ditrch, was probably laid out at the time of the plantation rather than around existing trees, as at the 'Seven Hayes'. The boundary earthwork crosses the ditch of Sutton Park IV, and therefore postdates it. In 1778, Darnel Hurst was ordered to be enclosed with oak posts and two rails upon a good bank (Warden's Accounts 8, 55). This probably involved heightening the existing 16th century boundary, and accounts for it being larger than the earthworks around the other coppices. The ditch was probably recut to provide more material

for the bank, and this seems to be confirmed by dowsing across it, in which two edges were detected on one side of the ditch (Guest 1982). In 1786 (Warden's Account 8, 195) a regular system of coppice falls was established. These included 6 for Holly Hurst, based on north-south and east-west division, which are first recorded on the 1817 OS map. The main east-west division was Wyndley Glade, whose edges are marked by low banks. This division put the track recorded in 1725 (above, p.173) out of use since there was no longer any direct route through Holly Hurst from north-west to south-east.

The pools at Blackroot, Longmoor and Powells were constructed in the 18th century to drive mills (Porter 1965). At Longmoor permission was given for the enclosure of four acres adjacent to the pool in 1754 (*ibid*. 16). The boundary of this enclosure consists of a bank and ditch, with the remains of a hawthorn hedge on the bank. There are two enclosures adjacent to Powell's Pool, of which the larger may be the earlier since it is in the same position in relation to the pool and mill as the Longmoor enclosure. Both are bounded by a bank and ditch. One, or both, of them was in existence in 1826 (Bracken 1860, 93). It is not known whether these enclosures were for arable or pasture. It is said that an attempt was made to cultivate parts of the park during the 17th century Commonwealth (Friend 1844, 270-271).

WEEFORD PARISH (figs. 44, 70)

In 1288-89, William de Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, granted Ralph de Limesi leave to make a park of Ash Hay in Weeford (Shaw 1798, II, 23). At an assize in Tamworth in 1293, William de Oddingeseles alleged that William de Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, and 9 other men, had removed a fence enclosing his 50 acre wood in Weeford. The Earl claimed the wood was within Sutton Chase and that permission had been granted to Ralph de Lymesey and his wife Joan to enclose the wood, but that the fences had been pulled down on their deaths. De Oddingeseles was allowed to enclose the wood so as to prevent the passage of beasts in or out, and to hunt in the wood and in Hints wood (Ass. R. St.). The manor of Weeford included a

park in 1359 (IPM).

On the Yateses' map Weeford Park is shown as woodland, and its extent is similar to the wood at present known as Weeford Park. On the west it is bounded by the present A38, and on the south it extends to Weeford Park Cottages, but its exact northern and eastern limits are more difficult to determine. On the north it is bounded by the waste of Weeford Hills (above, p.124) and it appears to extend further east than the present wood. The original eastern edge was probably the parish boundary with Hints; this is a continuous line of field boundaries north from Brick Kiln lane, curving at its northern end to become the northern edge of the present Weeford Park. On the Hints side of the boundary is the field named Weeford Park Piece in the 1847 Tithe Award. On the north and west the boundary is marked by an earthwork (see below) which originally continued further south beyond Weeford Park Cottages, thus the southern park boundary was probably Brick Kiln lane, again on the line of the parish boundary.

The west of the area so defined is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and the east is on Hopwas Breccia. The soils are moderately stony loamy sands and sandy loams on stony sandy fluvioglacial drift. These are brown earths, humo-ferric podzols, brown sands, and brown podzolic soils. There are stagnogleys around Stockfields, to the east. The southern part, around Weeford Park Cottages, is grade 2s agricultural land, and the east is grade 3w. The area at present known as Weeford Park is woodland and thus unclassified.

Fieldwalking in the south (WPC 81) and east (WS 81) of the original park produced worked flints of post-Mesolithic type (fig.19) and post-medieval pottery (fig.31) but no artifacts of Roman or medieval date. The park boundary is marked by an earthwork on its northern and western sides (fig.70). On the northern side, this consists of a bank with an internal ditch and has a total width of c.7m (profile 1). The western side has a bank with a ditch on each side and a total width of c.9m (profile 2). Further south the main earthwork is a bank with an external ditch, and a total width of c.6m (profile 3), accompanied by two banks each c.2m

wide running parallel and to the west of it. The westernmost of these may be upcast from a roadside ditch; the bank to the east fades out further north and converges with the western one further south. The presence of an extra bank and the varying form of the main earthwork boundary are probably attributable to the re-enclosure of 1293, noted above. No earthwork is visible on the southern or eastern sides, except along Brick Kiln Lane. The parish boundary diverges from the lane at SK 143009 to make a right-angled corner, which is marked by a bank and ditch, possibly the park boundary.

The documentary evidence makes it clear that a wood was enclosed to create the park, and the 'hay' element in Ash Hay indicates that it had been enclosed before. Later references also mention the woods of Weeford Park. In the 1590's its purchase as a source of wood for charcoal for iron-working at Middleton Hall was considered (Pelham 1953, 25) and in April 1790 750 standing oak trees were sold (Marshall 1790, II, 325). Seven or eight circular charcoal patches, 15-24m in diameter, possibly charcoal-burning hearths, were observed during fieldwork. The pattern of field boundaries in the area suggests two phases of encroachment on the wood, resulting in the present landscape where woodland is confined to the north-western part of the original park enclosure. The first phase is represented by a continuous line of field boundaries running east-west north of Stockfields, then turning south along the eastern edge of the present wood, and the second phase by field boundaries forming a north-south line north of Stockfield.

WISHAW PARISH (figs. 45, 71)

Moxhull Park is marked and named Moxhall Park on Ogilby's map of 1675. It is bounded by a paling symbol, and occupies the eastern part only of the present Moxhull Park, between the present A446 and A4091. In 1687 the park was seen by Celia Fiennes during her journey along the present A446 between Lichfield and Coleshill. She does not mention it by name, but describes, wrongly in the Coleshill-Coventry stretch, the seat of Sir Andrew Hacket on the left

of the road, standing in a park and good gardens walled in (Morris 1947, 112).

The park is north of Lower Green common (above, p.214) and hamlet (below, p.215) and Wishaw Hall Farm (below, p.261) and contains Moxhull Hall (below, p.261). It is on Keuper Marl, with Boulder Clay drift in its south-east corner. The soils are stagnogleys in the west and gleyic brown earths in the east. It is classified as grade 3w agricultural land. There is grade 2 land to its south and south-east. It is now occupied by a golf course.

Former arable may be indicated by ridge and furrow noted on aerial photographs by D.J. Pannett (pers. comm.) but this could be in the west of the present park and therefore outside the original park, as noted above. On the 1843 map of Wishaw, this area is named $Cap\ Field$, and is divided into field enclosures, some of which have strip divisions. The park boundary is marked on the south-west, alongside the A446, by a brick wall, probably that described by Fiennes. On the south-east, alongside the A4091 (c.SP 182950) there is a bank c.2m wide with a ditch c.3m wide on its south-east side. Further north-east, there is a ditch alone along the edge of woods ($c.SP\ 184951$), and then a brick wall.

PARKS: DISCUSSION

There were three periods of park creation in Sutton Chase (fig.72; Table 8) which correspond to the chronological groups defined for the country as a whole (above, p.142). These are early medieval (to 1300), late medieval (14th to 16th centuries), and post-medieval (after 1660).

EARLY MEDIEVAL PARKS: Sutton, Drayton, Shenstone, Middleton, Weeford, and possibly Minworth New

It was noted above that early parks are generally thought to have included unimproved land which was considered unsuitable for cultivation and consisted of heath and woods, but that there was evidence elsewhere in the country for previous occupation and cultivation in the area emparked (p.142). In Sutton Chase, prehistoric activity is attested by finds of worked flints in all the early medieval parks except Minworth, which was not sampled by fieldwalking, and by structures of possible prehistoric date, the burnt mounds, timber trackway and Ancient Encampment in Sutton Park and the possible burnt mound in Drayton Park. No Roman material was found in Weeford Park, and in Sutton Park a podzol had developed by the 1st century AD, suggesting that these areas were heath or woodland used as rough grazing. The quantities of Roman pottery from Drayton and Shenstone parks, however, imply that the land was manured for use as arable or improved pasture. At the latter the condition of the pottery suggests occupation on the site. Land enclosure of unknown date, but before emparking, is indicated by cropmarks at Drayton and Middleton, and again suggests improved land.

There is the usual hiatus in the archaeological record for the period from the 5th to the 11th centuries (above, p.71). Medieval pottery, dateable to the 12th century onwards (above, p.74) was found in Drayton, Middleton and Shenstone Parks. Average sherd weights suggest occupation at Drayton, near or on the site of Hill Farm, and at Shenstone, on the moated site, and manuring at Middleton, but the pottery cannot yet be dated sufficiently closely (p.75) to

Table 8

Parks: Dates of existence and sizes

			,
Park	Creation date	Disparking date	Area (km²)
SUTTON	1126?	-	8.8
DRAYTON	1203	late 18th cent.	3.0
MINWORTH NEW	before 1222?; before 1510	late 16th cent.	0.7
SHENSTONE	1235	late 17th cent.	3.8
MIDDLETON	1247	19th cent.	1.2
WEEFORD	1288-89	-	0.8
LEA	before 1379	20th cent.	1.3
MIDDLETON NEW	before 1379-80?; before 1622	-	0.6
EACHELHURST	before 1479	before 19th cent.	?
BANGLEY	before late 15th cent	before 1756	2.7
SHIRRAL	before 1505	before 1756	1.8
MOOR HALL	1527	-	0.3
DUNTON	before 1675	before 1846	0.5
MOXHULL	before 1675		0.6
FOUR OAKS	1756	19th cent.	0.6
LITTLE ASTON	1765	20th cent.	1.2

determine whether it was deposited before or after park creation.

Further evidence for land use before emparking may be provided by the known contents of the parks and their location. Each of the early medieval parks is known from documentary and field-name evidence to have contained woods, each is adjacent to land which was unenclosed common waste in the 18th century, and each is close to the edge of its parish, as has been observed elsewhere in the country (above, p.142). These three features do not necessarily imply that poor agricultural land was emparked, since Drayton, Shenstone and Weeford Parks contain or adjoin areas which are classed as grade 2 agricultural land.

Other than Sutton, the park of the Earls of Warwick, and Minworth New Park, whose date of creation is uncertain, all the early medieval parks are in the north of the study area. This distribution may indicate that more land was available for emparking here, or reflect the policies of individual manorial lords. Alternatively parks may have been restricted to this part of Sutton Chase by the Earls of Warwick, since it is clear that they closely controlled early medieval park creation to protect their chase rights. The park boundary was not to be designed so as to capture deer roaming on the Chase, and therefore belonging to the Earls. No nets were allowed at Drayton, a deer-leap at Middleton was to be removed, and Weeford Park was to be enclosed so as to prevent the passage of animals both in and out. Additionally at Weeford, temporary emparking seems to have been envisaged.

All the early medieval parks except Drayton had an earthwork boundary, and all contained deer, although at Shenstone deer are not mentioned until the 16th century. The interior of each consisted of both open land and woodland, and there is earthwork evidence in Sutton Park for the management of woodland and deer under a compartmental system. The scatters of medieval pottery in Drayton, Middleton and Shenstone parks may indicate arable farming within the parks, as known elsewhere (above, p.143) but manuring of pasture for deer and other livestock could equally have been the case.

LATE MEDIEVAL PARKS: Lea, Eachelhurst, Bangley, Shirral, Moor Hall, and possibly Middleton New and Minworth New

All of the late medieval parks are in the eastern part of the study area, and all are classified as grade 3 agricultural land. Parks of this period elsewhere were often created from former arable land (above, p.143). In Sutton Chase, prehistoric activity is indicated by worked flints at Bangley and a possible burnt mound in Middleton New Park, but no material of Roman date has been found. There is documentary and archaeological evidence that some of the late medieval parks in the study area included land that had been cultivated during the Middle Ages. Bangley, Minworth New and Moor Hall parks included earlier enclosures, and cultivation of medieval date is attested by ridge and furrow in Middleton New Park. Drayton Park may have been enlarged to include land formerly cultivated. In Shirral Park, the average sherd weight of a scatter of medieval pottery suggests that there may have been occupation on the site. Lea Park may have included the site of a former settlement. Uncultivated land was also emparked, though. At Moor Hall waste was included, and at least half of Minworth New Park was wooded.

The creation of parks in the study area at this period was probably an immediate response to land availability, due to abandonment of former arable, as in Middleton (above, p.159) and to the contraction of the area administered as Sutton Chase before its eventual dissolution in 1528 (below, p.300). Shirral and Bangley are, typically for this period, large (above, p.144, fig.73) and on their creation and the possible enlargement of Drayton Park, there were three parks in Drayton Bassett, occupying about half of the total area of the parish (fig.35). Some of the late medieval parks were short-lived; Minworth New was disparked later in the 16th century, and Bangley and Shirral in the 18th century.

The late medieval parks differed in function from those created previously. Minworth New is the only one known to have contained large game, and the description of Bangley and Shirral as 'warrens' in 1505 suggests that small game was now more important. Lea, Eachelhurst, and possibly Middleton New were used as pasture for cattle. There is no evidence that the late medieval parks of Sutton Chase were associated with horse breeding as has been suggested for parks of this date elsewhere (above, p.144). Moor Hall is the first example in the study area of the creation of an ornamental park around a country seat, a feature particularly characteristic of the post-medieval parks. The change in function is reflected in the nature of the park boundary. Only Minworth New had a paling fence, possibly with an earthwork. There is no trace of an earthwork boundary at Bangley or Shirral, and at Moor Hall the earthwork serves only to define the boundary of the park and to exclude from it livestock on the adjoining common.

Although earlier parks were disparked or their function changed during this period elsewhere in the country (above, p.142) there is little evidence for this in Sutton Chase. The only disparking was that of Minworth New, a 16th century creation. Shenstone, and probably the other early medieval parks, still contained deer. The continuity may have been due to the relaxation and eventual cessation of Chase laws, which resulted in freedom of land use; land outside parks could be enclosed by individuals. The only park whose function was changed was Sutton, which became common pasture and a source of wood as a result of the 1528 Charter.

POST-MEDIEVAL PARKS: Dunton, Moxhull, Four Oaks, and Little Aston

The post-medieval parks are distributed across the centre of the study area. They were all created after the Restoration in 1660. At Dunton and Moxhull former land use is uncertain, but Little Aston included former cleared and enclosed land, and Four Oaks was part of the medieval Sutton Park. Each of the post-medieval parks functioned primarily as a large landscaped garden around a country house. The parks are small compared to those of earlier periods (fig.73) and the park boundary is either an insubstantial earthwork, as at Dunton.

Moxhull and Four Oaks, or a brick wall, as at Moxhull and Four Oaks. Like parks of this date elswhere in the country (above, p.145) they may have been sources of timber. Dunton and Four Oaks parks included existing enclosed woodland, and trees were planted at Little Aston, which is the only post-medieval park known to have contained deer. The park at Dunton contains grade 2 agricultural land, which is consistent with Shirley's statement that, in the post-medieval period, game were kept in small parks on good land close to the owner's house rather than on poor waste at a distance (above, p.145). The other post-medieval parks are on grade 3 land.

It is during this period, rather than the preceding one, that disparking occurs in Sutton Chase. Two early medieval parks, Drayton and Shenstone, and two late medieval, Bangley and Shirral, were disparked. However Lea and Middleton still contained deer, and woodland management continued in Sutton and Weeford parks into the 18th century. Industry was introduced into Sutton and Shirral parks; at the latter it may have been after disparking.

PARKS: Chance Finds. Fieldwalking and Excavation Finds

* Illustrated

DRAYTON BASSETT: Bangley Park

Chance find

Roman coin c.SK 173015 (inf. Mrs Glover)

Fieldwalking

BP 1, 2. 10/9/80; SK 169010; pebbly sand, damp; ploughed; dull, sunny; 3 ha. No finds

BP 3. 13/10/80; SK 162005; loam, damp; harrowed; dull, sunny; 0.8 ha. No finds

BP 4. 14/10/81; SK 168020; pebbly sandy loam; drilled; sunny; 3 ha No finds

BP 5. 16/10/81; SK 167019; as 4; 2 ha
No finds

BP 6. 21/10/81; SK 159010; loam, damp; drilled; sunny; 3 ha

Flint: flake scraper, mottled brown, 58x48mm*; blade, brown, 41x22mm; blade, grey, 39x19mm; flake, brown, 23 x 22mm

Pottery: type 17, 1 body

BP 7. 30/10/81; SK 157009; clay loam, pebbly, damp; drilled; dull; 2 ha

Flint: flake, dark grey; flake, dark grey; flake, brown; flake, brown;

flake, grey; chip, grey-brown; flake, grey-brown.

DRAYTON BASSETT: Drayton Park

Chance find

Roman coin, c.SK 173015 (inf. Mrs Glover)

Fieldwalking

AW 1, 2. 3/10/80; SK 175916; dry; ploughed; sunny.

1. Gravelly sand in N, silty clay in S; 0.25 ha

Pottery: type 11, 1 body; type 21, 1 rim

2. Silty clay; 0.25 ha

Pottery: type 16, 1 rim

AW 3. 18/9/81; SK 175014; sandy clay, damp; ploughed; dull; 2 ha

Pottery: type 6, 1 body; type 13, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

AW 4. 3/10/81; SK 175011; sandy, pebbly, some clay, damp; harrowed; dull; 6 ha

Flint: ?microburin, brown mottled, 26 x 17mm; flake, brown; blade, grey, 37x18mm; ?unfinished tool, grey mottled, 40 x 24mm; blade, dark grey, 38x26mm; flake, dark grey, irregular core, dark grey.

Pottery: type 1, 1 body; type 2, 1 body; type 3, 1 body; type 5, 2 body; type 6, 5 body; type 7, 2 rim*, 1 body; type 13, 1 body; type 32, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 5 body.

AW 5. 4/10/81; SK 173010; pebbly clay loam, damp, dry; drilled; sunny; 3 ha

Pottery: type 6, 1 body

AW 6. 5/10/81; SK 172009; pebbly loam, damp; harrowed; dull; 2 ha

Flint: retouched blade, light grey patinated, 40x28mm*; chip, grey-brown; flake, brown

Pottery: type 3, 1base*, type 6, 1 body; type 9, 1 base

DP 1. 28/9/80; SK 177002; pebbly sandy clay, damp; ploughed; 2 ha

Pottery: type 36, 2 body, 1 rim type 5; type 41, 1 body

DP 2. 28/10/80; SK 186012; very pebbly sandy silt, damp; drilled; dull; 2 ha No finds

DP 3, 4. 1/2/81; SK 184008; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny

3. 3.1 ha

Flint: blade

4. 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 36, 2 body; type 37, 1 base

DP 5. 24-25/5/81; SK 176003; pebbly clay loam, damp; ploughed; dull; 2 ha

Pottery: types 17 and 20

DP 6. 25/5/81; as 5; 2.5 ha

Flint: retouched blade, grey-brown

Pottery: type 6, 1 body; type 9, 1 rim; type 14, 1 base; type 36, 1 handle form 1.

DP 7. 13/9/81; SK 187007; pebbly loam, some flint, damp, dry, harrowed; sunny; 3 ha Pottery: type 36, 1 body

DP 8. 8/10/81; SK 182010; pebbly clay loam; damp; harrowed; dull; 5ha

Pottery: type 5, 1 body; type 6, 1 body; type 26, 1 body; type 36, 2 body

DP 9. 7/10/81; SK 176006; pebbly sandy loam, damp; drilled; sunny; 1.5 ha No finds

DP 10. 11/10/81; SK 176006; as 9; damp, dry; sunny; 7.5 ha

Flint: blade, grey, 42x14mm; blade, brown, 36x12mm; flake, brown; ?core, grey

Pottery: type 7, 2 rim*, 1 body; type 23, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

DRAYTON BASSETT: Shirrall Park

Chance find

LW 81

Pottery: 1 body type 36, c.SK 165001, 7/4/81

Fieldwalking

SL 1, 2. 14/9/80; SK 162002; pebbly sandy clay, dry; ploughed; sunny, dull; 3.8 ha
No finds

SL 3, 4, 5. 12/10/80; SK 170002; loam, damp, dry; ploughed; sunny;

3. 0.7 ha

Flint: flake, brown

4. 0.75 ha

No finds

5. 1.2 ha

No finds

SL 6. 19/9/81; SK 165004; pebbly sandy loam, damp; ploughed; sunny, dull; 4 ha Pottery: type 34, 1 rim; type 36, 3 rim form 1, 1 base form 2, 11 body; type 41, 1 body.

MIDDLETON: Middleton park

Chance finds

Gold torc, c.SP 193981 (BMR) (WA 00122)

MP 15

Pottery: 1 body type 36, area MP 80, 4 (below), 17/2/81

Fieldwalking

Birmingham University 1976-77

Area MP 8 (below): worked flint

MP 1, 2, 3. 20/9/80; SP 194988; pebbly silty loam, damp; drilled; dull

1. 0.12 ha

No finds

2, 3. 3 ha

Flint: flake, brown.

MP 4. 22/10/80; SP 191980; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 1.5 ha

Flint: ?core, mottled grey

Pottery: type 36, 1 base type 2, 3 body; type 37, 1 rim

MP 5. 24-25/10/80; sunny, dull

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim*; type 22, 1 body; type 36, 2 body

MP 6. 25/10/80; dull

Pottery: type 36, 3 body, 1 handle, form 1*

MP 7. 26/10/80; dull

Flint: blade, brown, 37x13mm; blade, buff, 26x12mm

Pottery: type 15, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

MP 8, 9. 26/10/80; dull

8. Pottery: type 4, 1 body; type 15, 1 body; type 22, 1 base

9. No finds

MP 10. 11/11/80; damp; ploughed; dull

Pottery: type 21, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

MP 11. 12/11/80; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny; 1.7 ha

Flint: blade, grey-brown, 56x22mm

MP 12. 16/11/80; as 11; dull, sunny; 6 ha

Flint: chip, buff; flake, brown, 32x20mm; blade, poss. retouched, light grey, 32x12mm*

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 1

MP 13. 7/12/80; damp; sunny

Pottery: type 4, 1 base; type 21, 1 body

Lead disc, diam 46mm

MP 14. 8/2/81; damp; dull

Pottery: type 7, 1 base*; type 16, 2 body

SHENSTONE: Little Aston Park

Chance find

Petit tranchet derivative type H arrowhead, Park Road, SP 095998 (ST 821054)

SHENSTONE: Shenstone Park

Chance finds

Polished flint axe, SK 119035 (ST 821025)

Polished flint axe, SK 115035 (ST 821053)

Polished flint axe, SK 111014 (ST 821055)

Fieldwalking

SHP 1. 25/9/80; SK 117034; sandy, pebbly, damp; drilled; sunny; 2 ha

Flint: blade, grey, 40x13mm

SHP 2. 25/9/80; SK 119034; as 1; 1 ha

Pottery: type 16, 1 rim; type 21, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1

SHP 3. 2/10/80; SK 119035; damp, drilled; sunny; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 21*; type 36, 2 body

SHP 4. 2/10/80; SK 120038; damp; drilled; sunny; 1.2 ha

Flint: scraper, brown, 32x26mm*

SHP 5. 9/9/81; SK 121029; pebbly sand, dry; ploughed; sunny; 1.5 ha

No finds

SHP 6. 15/9/81; as 5; damp; sunny, dull; 1.5 ha

No finds

SHP 7. 15/9/81; SK 122036; pebbly loam, damp; ploughed; dull; 1.5 ha

Flint: blade, grey-brown, 29x12mm; flake, brown, 27x18mm; flake, dark grey, 34x22mm

SHP 8. 25/9/81; SK 124033; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; sunny, dull; 2.6 ha

Flint: blade, grey, 41x29mm; flake, dark grey, 53x35mm; flake, brown; flake, brown mottled

Pottery: type 7, 1 body; type 9, 1 body; type 36, 1 handle form 2

SHP 9. 27/9/81; SK 120037; pebbly sandy loam, damp; harrowed; dull; 1.5 ha

Flint: flake scraper, mottled grey, 32x30mm*; flake, dark grey-brown; broken blade, dark grey-brown, 22x10mm

Pottery: type, 34, 1 everted rim

SHP 10. 27/9/81; SK 118033; sandy, damp; harrowed; dull; 2.5 ha

Flint: Scraper, grey mottled, 39x29mm*; broken blade, light grey

Pottery: type 6, 1 base; type 7, 8 rims*; type 11, 1 rim*; type 34, 1 base, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 6 body, 1 base form 2; type 21, 3 rims*

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Sutton Park

Chance finds

Stone implements and ancient pottery, site unknown (Anon 1957)

Flint blade, 'James Pool, 1903' (Wymer 1977, 416)

Worked flints, SP 098986 (BMR)*

Flint flake, Rowton Hill, SP 091967 (BMR)

Flint core, Rowton Well, SP 092964 (BMR)

Fragment of bronze flat axe, Holly Hurst, SP 102961 (BMR)

Mortarium rim, Blackroot Glade, SP 105971 (BMR)*

Roman coin, Constantine, Roman Road (Riland-Bedford 1891, 3)

Roman coin Constantine, Roman Road in Streetly Wood (Sidwell and Durant 1890, 9-10)

Roman coins, Diocletian follis and billon tetradrachm, Streetly Gate (New 1914).

WEEFORD: Weeford Park

Fieldwalking

WPC 5/9/80; SK 140007; sandy, damp; harrowed; dull; 3 ha

1. Flint: blade, 17x8mm; flake, grey mottled

2. Flint: flake scraper, dark grey, 48x41mm*; core

WS 8/4/81; SK 144014; sandy, pebbly, damp; stubble; dull; 2 ha

Flint: core, grey; chip, grey; flake, grey mottled, 35x22mm

Pottery: type 16, rim*.

CHAPTER FIVE: Hamlets and Villages

HAMLETS AND VILLAGES: Introduction

A 'hamlet' has been distinguished by geographers from villages and single farmsteads by the number of homesteads it contains. C. T. Smith (1978, 283) proposed a range of 1 to 10 homesteads, but Thorpe (1964, 359) suggested a wider range of 3 to 19 to exclude at the lower end individual farmsteads functioning as a single unit but containing more than one homestead. In addition the services offered by the nucleation, such as the possession of a church, may be considered to distinguish a village from a hamlet. It is however unsatisfactory to use either the numerical or the functional definitions rigidly in an historical context, where the evidence for the size of the hamlets is provided by maps which may not depict every house. In this study, a hamlet has been defined as a settlement cluster of more than one farmstead which has its own name but is not the eponymous settlement of a parish.

The study area is within, but near the western edge of, the zone of 'village settlements associated with hamlets and dispersed farms' characteristic of eastern central England, and is adjacent to the zone of 'hamlet settlement with occasional villages and many dispersed farms' (Thorpe 1964, 360). In the study area I have used the Yateses' maps as the main source for location of hamlets c.1790 (fig.74). These maps often have houses marked even if the nuceleation is not named, and the name can be derived from later maps. There is documentary evidence for the existence of settlements at some of the hamlet sites by the Middle Ages, but others are first recorded on 18th and 19th century maps. The research problems were therefore to determine whether the latter are medieval in origin, and whether there was any pre-medieval settlement at any of the hamlets.

Taylor (1983b, 175) says that there is no obvious explanation for the predominance of hamlets and farmsteads in certain areas, while G. Jones (e.g.1985) associates settlement in hamlets and farmsteads with multiple estates described in early Welsh laws. Aston (1985, 90) suggests two alternative processes in the development of hamlets: either waves of colonists from old

established centres filled the landscape with daughter settlements, or the original settlement pattern consisted of a scatter of settlements, some of which developed while others remained small. In Norfolk, Wade-Martins (1971; 1975; 1980b) showed that the dispersed settlement pattern was the result of successive movements of the main settlement nucleus from the late Saxon period onwards. In the Arden part of Warwickshire, Roberts (1982, 138) suggests that 'green' hamlets and single farms were created as a result of medieval colonisation. In the vicinity of Sutton Chase, Skipp, using documentary evidence, suggested that the development of hamlets in Yardley parish was a post-Domesday Book phenomenon. Three hamlets in Yardley, each with its own open field system, were first mentioned in documents in the 13th century. Skipp, like Roberts, has associated hamlet development with settlement expansion in the Arden area in the 12th and 13th centuries (Skipp 1980, 18f.) but he has also suggested (*ibid.* 21) a pre-conquest origin for some of the outlying settlements in Aston parish which are not mentioned in Domesday Book but are recorded before 1300. Many hamlets have names ending in 'green' or 'end'. In Worcestershire, the suffix 'green' is not found until the 13th century. Although in some cases the element does not appear in the place-name until some centuries after the settlement is first mentioned, the first reference to such a settlement is nowhere earlier than the 13th century (Hamshere 1979, 364-365). Some of the hamlets in the region are known to have originated in the post-medieval period, in 'squatter' colonisation of areas of common waste (Roberts B. K. 1965, 638).

In Sutton Chase, the study of hamlet development employed written documents, maps, standing buildings and archaeological evidence from fieldwalking. Written documents mentioning the name of a hamlet are evidence for its existence by a particular date but do not enable the exact site of that settlement, which may not be identical to a cluster of dwellings depicted on a later map, to be located. Maps, depending on their accuracy and detail, may indicate the precise location of, and sometimes the number of buildings in, the hamlet cluster. There are few surviving structures of medieval date, since continuous settlement has resulted in rebuilding on the same site, but the date of the oldest building provides a *terminus ante quem*

for settlement on the site. The main problem in the use of fieldwalking is the lack of arable land in close proximity to the existing settlement cluster. In Norfolk, Wade-Martins (1980b, 4) walked gaps between existing houses along street frontages, but in Sutton Chase such gaps are usually occupied by paddocks used for grazing and are thus not available for fieldwalking. As a result the areas walked were arable fields adjacent to the settlement. Another problem, as noted above, was the location of the ancient settlement area, which did not necessarily correspond to that recorded on the Yateses's maps.

In addition village nuclei have been considered. Fieldwalking was undertaken around village nuclei at Middleton and Drayton Bassett. There was the same problem of finding arable land as in the hamlets, but at Drayton Bassett some material was obtained from salvage recording during redevelopment in the village, as was done in Northamptonshire (Hall 1981, 36).

CURDWORTH PARISH (fig.34)

The only settlement clusters in the parish are Curdworth and Minworth villages.

Curdworth Village (fig.90)

The village is in the centre of the township of Curdworth, in the eastern part of the parish. It is on sand and gravel drift over Keuper Marl, and south of an area of grade 2 agricultural land. The soil is a sandy loam, a gleyic brown earth. It is north of Curdworth Moor (above, p.107) and south of the open fields of Church Field and Dunton Field, marked on Sheriff's canal map of 1791. there may have been another open field, *High Field*, to the east (below, p.239). The church, at the western end of the settlement, contains some Norman work (Cossins 1882-90, v, 47-54; VCH W 4, 65-66), and a platform south of the church may be the site of the original manor house (below, p.239). The moated site at Curdworth Hall Farm (below, p.238) is to the east.

Minworth Village (fig.34)

The village is in the north-east of Minworth township, which forms the detached western part of the parish. It is on Keuper Marl, north of the Tame terrace and south of an area of sand and gravel drift. The soils are brown earths. The village is north of New Park (above, p.147).

DRAYTON BASSETT PARISH (fig.35)

Drayton Bassett village is the only settlement cluster in the parish; all other settlement is in the form of isolated individual farmsteads. The village nucleus (fig.75) is a triangular green (SK 193002) near the south-east corner of Drayton Park (above, p.151). It lies on the junction of Boulder Clay drift, to the west, with the Tame terrace, to the east, both overlying Keuper Marl. It is on the eastern edge of an area of grade 2 agricultural land. The oldest surviving structure

is the parish church to the west of the green, which contains 13th century work (Shaw 1798, II, 10).

I carried out a watching brief in 1980 during the construction of three bungalows on a former playing field on the east of the village green. The areas machine-stripped of topsoil and the foundation trenches were observed. The only features seen were modern pits, but 7 sherds of medieval pottery were recovered from the stripped surface (DB 80, 1-3). The geological stratigraphy was exposed in the foundation trenches. There was $c.35 \, \text{cm}$ of gravel and orange sand, interpreted as the edge of the Tame Terrace, over Keuper Marl.

Moat Close, to the north-west of the village green, is discussed below (p.240). The only chance finds from Drayton Bassett village are four large sherds of medieval pottery (DB 80, 4) from c.SK 191000, to the south-west of the village nucleus.

ERDINGTON AND WITTON TOWNSHIPS (fig.36)

There is much medieval documentation in Birmingham Reference Library, which has been listed by Arkinstall and Baird (n.d., 46-48). The most important written document is a rental of 1462 which has been transcribed (Holt 1975, 135-155). The earliest large-scale maps of the townships are a map of Erdington of 1760 and the map accompanying the Aston Parish Tithe Award of 1848. All the hamlet sites are now built-up.

Erdington Village

The village is in the northern part of the township. It is on sand and gravel drift. There is waste to the north, and other settlements to the south, west and east.

Birches Green SP 1124910

The hamlet may have been the home of John, William and Richard who were each described as

atte Bech in 1327 (LSRW). It is first marked and named on the 1817 OS map, and the 1848 map shows a triangular green on the northern side of Kingsbury Road. The site is on Keuper Marl, near an area of sand and gravel drift. Most of the area is now occupied by a landscaped garden.

Bromford End c.SP 115897

Early occupation of this area may be indicated by the chance find of a Saxon glass bead, whose provenance is 'Bromford' (Gunstone 1867, 94). A croft in *Bromfordeende* is mentioned in 1462. On the Yateses's map two houses are marked on the site, and one of these is described as a nail works on the 1817 OS map. The Greenwoods' map shows six houses on the eastern side of the present Bromford Lane, leading to the Tame crossing. The site is on Keuper Marl and alluvium. It is now crossed by a railway and the M6 motorway.

Coton End Green SP 09913

The 1462 rental mentions a croft in *Cotonend*. *Coton End Green* is marked and named on Beighton's and the Yateses' maps, but on the 1760 map it is named *Meres End*. It is on sand and gravel drift.

Fords Green c.SP 115924

The name first appears on the Greenwoods' map, at the northern end of Erdington village. The site is on sand and gravel drift.

Harbortree Green c.SP 117920

The name first appears on the 1817 OS map. It is on sand and gravel drift.

Mere Green c.SP 109915

Meres Green is marked on the 1817 OS map, and on the 1st edition OS 1" to the mile map Mere Green is at the southern end of Erdington village. The site is on Boulder Clay.

Moor End Green SP 114917

A 13th century deed mentions *More Grene* (Gover et.al. 1936, 33) and *le Moorend* appears in the 1462 rental. There was a cruck house here (BMR). Chattock (1884, 52) says that the Moor of Erdington lay in the valley between Mere Green and Birches Green. The Yateses' map shows a group of houses at SP 114917 but does not name them. On the 1817 OS map and on the Greenwoods' map the same group is marked and named *More End Green*. The name may be derived from *mor*, poorly-drained land' (Maynard 1974), which might be appropriate for the topographic situation described by Chattock. It is on sand and gravel drift.

Stockland Green SP 096918

The place is mentioned in a deed of 1741 (Gover et.al. 1936, 34), and named on the 1760 map and the 1817 OS map. The 1848 map shows houses around a road junction at SP 096918. The site is on sand and gravel drift.

Wood End c.SP 107910

Holwin at Wood, possibly Wood End, is mentioned in a 13th century deed (Arkinstall and Baird n.d., 50) and the 1462 rental includes Wodende. The 1848 map shows a group of houses strung out along the road at SP 107910, and names them Little Wood End. The site is on Boulder Clay.

GREAT BARR TOWNSHIP (fig.37)

There are no settlement clusters in the township, even around the church, which lies outside the study area (Gould 1980, 50)

HINTS PARISH (fig.44)

The village nucelus is the only settlement cluster. It lies north of the Bourne Brook, outside the study area.

KINGSBURY PARISH (fig.38)

The village nucleus is the only settlement cluster. It lies east of the River Tame, outside the study area.

LEA MARSTON (fig.39)

There are two settlement nuclei in the parish. Both of these were suggested as possible shrunken setlements by Beresford and Hurst (1971, 205).

Lea

The settlement is in the centre of the parish. It is on the upper or Hams Hall Terrace of the River Tame. It is east of Lea Common (above, p.116), south of and adjacent to Little Field, and north of Lea Park (above, p.155). The parish church is near the northern boundary of Lea Park, c.600m south of the settlement nucleus, suggesting a shift in the settlement nucleus.

Marston

The settlement is in the north-east corner of the parish, on the Hams Hall Terrace of the River Tame. It adjoins Marston Common (above, p.116) to the north, and open fields to the south and west.

MIDDLETON PARISH (fig.40)

Middleton village (fig.76)

The village nucleus is in the east of the parish, on Boulder Clay drift, and on the southern edge of an area of grade 2 agricultural land. The parish church, which contains some Norman work (VCH W 4, 158-159; Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 355) is in the centre of the village. The present settlement is along the east-west road south of the church, but a series of toft-like

enclosures east of the church suggest former settlement here. This could indicate either shrinkage of the settlement or a change of focus, from the north-south to the east-west road. Arable land north of the main village street was walked (MV 80) and produced small quantities of medieval and Roman pottery.

Allen End (fig.77)

The hamlet may be named after the family of Humfrey Allen, mentioned in 1544 (Gover et.al. 1936, 20). It is first marked and named on the 1817 OS map, on which it consists of a group of houses along a lane leading north-east from the present A446. The latter was turnpiked in 1789 (Cossins 1946, 86) and straightened. The Yateses' map shows its pre-turnpike route, which passes near Allen End Farm. A small area adjacent to the lane was walked (ALE 80). This produced only a small quantity of medieval pottery and the average sherd weight suggests manuring rather than occupation on the site. The road pattern may indicate that the original nucleus of the settlement was the site of the present Allen End Farm or the area to the southwest of it, which is bounded on three sides by the former course of the London road. Allen End is on Boulder Clay, and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam.

Ash End (fig.77)

The hamlet may have been the home of Swane de Fraxino, mentioned in 1327 and 1332 LSRW; Gover et.al. 1936, 20). It is first marked, and named Ash End, on the 1817 OS map; on the Greenwoods' map it is Yeoman End. There are now two farms on the eastern side of the lane. A marked rise opposite these was walked (AE 80), and produced worked flints, including a blade and a core, and medieval pottery. The quantity and average sherd weight of the pottery suggested occupation in the area. The settlement may have been on the site of the present Ash End Farm. The site is on Boulder Clay and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic sandy loam.

Cross Green (fig.79)

The Court Roll for November 1395 mentions *Crossegrene*. The present Cross Green Farm is marked but not named on the Yateses' map, and on the 1817 OS map it is named *Rotten Row*, perhaps indicating derelict buildings or poor agricultural land. Cross Green Farm has exposed roof timbers in a gable end. These are narrow, forming a queen-post truss, and a 17th or 18th century date is likely. A long narrow pond to the rear may be the remnant of a moat. Areas to the north and south of the farm were walked. That to the south (CG 1) was walked in very poor retrieval conditions and only a single sherd of medieval pottery was found. The area to the north (CG 2, 3, 4), however, was walked in better conditions. It yielded medieval pottery whose quantity and average sherd size suggested occupation. The site is at the source of a small stream. It is on Keuper Marl, and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic sandy loam.

Heath End (fig 49)

One of the tithings of the manor listed in the Court Roll for January 1472 is *Hethend*. The 'heath' could be Bodymoor Heath (above, p.117) on the eastern edge of the parish, or Middleton Heath (above, p.117) on its western edge. Heath End may have consisted of dwellings scattered around the edge of an area of waste rather than a settlement cluster. There was some settlement on the Kingsbury part of Bodymoor Heath by the 14th century (above, p.116). William Cox and John Hall were described as *of the Heath* in Middleton parish in the 1662 Hearth Tax (HT Warks); they may have lived on Middleton Heath. There are cropmarks (RAF/CPE/UK/2469/3215) on the northern part of Middleton Heath, south of Coppice Lane, which may be of field enclosures associated with settlement here. Heath End could have been an alternative name for Littleworth End (below).

Hunts Green (fig.80)

The hamlet may have been named after the family of Sir John Hunt, who owned land in Middleton in 1662 (VCH W, 4, 158). At present, as on the Yateses' map, it consists of a cluster of buildings around a road junction. Hunts Green Farm is 400m south-west of the

junction, and is set back from the road. Areas at each of these were walked. The field between Hunts Green Farm and the road (HGF 80) produced a large quantity of medieval pottery, suggesting that this was the site of a medieval settlement. At the road junction (HG 80) a small quantity was found, but the average sherd weight suggests occupation. The site is on Boulder Clay, and is grade 3s agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic clayey loam and sandy loam.

Littleworth End (fig.49)

The name is mentioned in 1232 (Gover *et al.* 1936, 20). On the Yateses's map a row of houses is marked along the present A446 near Middleton New Park, and on the 1817 OS map this settlement is named *Wood-End*. There are cropmarks (WA 00313) to the south of the junction between the A446 and Withy Hill Road which could be interpreted as croft enclosures. Ridge and furrow in New Park Wood (above, p.159) may be the remains of arable land associated with this settlement. Littleworth End may also have been known as *Heath End* (above, p.204). The site is on Boulder Clay, and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic sandy clay loam.

Stoke End (fig.81)

The present settlement is strung out along a lane O.5km north-east of Allen End. It is on Keuper Marl, the soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam, and it is grade 3w agricultural land. *Stoke ende* is listed twice as a tithing of the manor in the Court Roll for January 1427. The name *Stoke End* on the 1817 OS map is given to a group of buildings which are marked, but not named, on the Yateses' map. The nearest site to the present settlement where fieldwalking was possible was at its north-eastern end (SE 80). The quantity of medieval pottery found here was insufficient to indicate settlement on the site, although this is suggested by the average sherd weight. The medieval settlement was probably on the same site as the existing one.

PERRY BARR TOWNSHIP (fig.41)

Old Oscott

Oscote is mentioned in 1344 (Cal.Ch.R.) and on the Yateses' map Ascott is a cluster of houses near the edge of The Coldfield. The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and the soil is an acid brown sand, grade 3s agricultural land. It is now built-up.

Queslett

According to Duignan (1903, 123), the names *Queeslade* and variants are mentioned in the 16th century, but he does not give references. On the Yateses' map *Queestley* is a cluster of houses at the edge of the parish near the boundary with Great Barr. The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and the soil is an acid brown sand, grade 3s agricultural land. It is now built-up.

SHENSTONE PARISH (fig.42)

The parish is divisible into two parts by Footherley Brook. The eastern of these is within the study area. Taylor (1983b, 181-83) suggests that the hamlets in the eastern part originated after the Norman Conquest, whereas those in the west may be of pre-conquest origin.

Shenstone Village

The settlement is in the north of the parish. It occupies a hill rising to over 350' (c.107m) in the centre of the Shenstone Basin. It is on Keuper Sandstone, and the soils are brown sands, grade 2 agricultural land. The Old Church, near the summit of the hill, may contain some Saxon work (Gould and Gould 1974).

Footherley

The present settlement is on Keuper Sandstone. The soil is a brown sand developed on sandy drift, and is grade 2s agricultural land. The settlement is strung out along a lane east of

Footherley Brook. At the northern end of the settlement, near Footherley Hall, the lane follows the line of the Roman Ryknild Street but to the south the Ryknild Street ran alongside the Footherley Brook, while the present lane veers to the south-east, on higher, drier ground. This diversion could have taken place during the Roman period, to serve a settlement on the present site. Duigan (1902, 62) says that *Fulwordlee* is mentioned in the 12th century. The Shenstone Charters (pp.247, 253-4) mention *Footherley ford c.*1190 and Footherley before 1273. The first definite reference to a settlement here is to three men of *Folverleys* in 1336 (P.R.St.).

Little Aston

A charter of 957 AD records a grant of land in *Eastun* and *Bearre* (Birch 1887, no.987; Sawyer 1968, no.574). These places have been identified as Little Aston and Great Barr (Ekwall 1933, 38-39; Forsberg 1970, 27-39; Hooke 1983, 100-103; Gould 1987). The town of Aston is mentioned c.1248 (Shenstone Charters) and a messuage in Little Aston in October 1266 (P R.St.) Hebden (1962, 25; 1963, 40) found evidence for 3 and possibly 4 open fields associated with the settlement. The Yateses' map shows a cluster of houses at SK 089917, around the present Home Farm, north of Little Aston Park (above, p.160) and west of the present settlement along Forge Lane. Areas to the north, west and south of Home Farm were walked (LA 1, 2, 3). That to the south, LA 1, produced a quantity of medieval pottery which included a high proportion of large and unabraded sherds, suggesting that this was the site of a medieval settlement. As at Allen End (above, p.203 and fig.77) three edges of the former settlement site may be defined by the former road line. Home Farm is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and the soil is a loamy brown, developed on sandy drift, grade 3s agricultural land.

Little Hay (fig.42)

The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and the soils are sandy, loamy brown earths. It is grade 3s agricultural land, to the east of an area of grade 2s land. 'Hayefarm below the town of Aston in Sutton Chase' is mentioned c.1248 (Shenstone Charters) and Duigan (1902, 95) says that

there is a 13th century reference to *Luttlehay*. The inhabitants of Littrle Hay are mentioned in 1663 (Hebden 1963, 45). The Yateses' map shows houses along the lane which formed the eastern side of Shenstone Park (above, p.161). The only arable land on the street frontage between the present settlement area was walked (LTH 81) and produced small quantities of post-medieval pottery only.

Woodend (fig.42)

The name is recorded in 1620 (FFSt). Woodend Lodge, on the western side of Shenstone Park (above, p.160) was built in 1640, following the division of the park (Shaw 1798, II, 43, 46). On the Yateses' map the hamlet consists of houses strung out along the present A5127 up to the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield. It is on Bunter Pebble Beds, and on the western edge of an area of grade 2s agricultural land. The soils are loamy, sandy brown sands.

SUTTON COLDFIELD PARISH (fig.43)

Sutton Coldfield town

The town is in the centre of the parish. It is on Keuper Sandstone adjacent to Plants Brook. Sutton Park (above, p.164) is to the west, and other settlements are to the south and south-est.

Hill

Land at Hill was given to Canwell Priory in 1162 (Dosworth and Dugdale 1682, 439-441). The first reference to an inhabitant is to Alex de Hill in 1203 (Ass.R.W.). The Yateses' map shows buildings along the present Hill Village Road, south of the unenclosed waste of Hill Common (above, p.122).

A Roman coin of Trajan was found in Hathaway Road (Gunstone 1965, 93). A Roman pottery kiln was found during the construction of a pond in the rear garden of 16 Sherifoot Lane (SP 113994) in August 1987. Subsequent excavation showed that the main products of

the kiln were jars and carinated bowls in a grey fabric, and a date of no earlier than the late 2nd century has been suggested, from initial examination of the pottery (information from P. Booth). The fuel used for the kiln may have been obtained from woodland in the area of Hill Wood (above, p.123).

Hill is on Hopwas Breccia. The soils are acid brown sands, grade 3s, agricultural land.

Little Sutton

John le Coliere of Little Sutton is mentioned in 1293 (Ass.R.St.). The site is on Keuper Sandstone, where it joins Boulder Clay and Hopwas Breccia. The soils are acid brown sands, grade 3s agricultural land.

Maney

The settlement is on a spur on the opposite side of Plants Brook to the parish church of Sutton Coldfield, and near to the site of the manor house on Manor Hill. Tenants of Maney are mentioned in 1309, in a document which purports to record 10th century customs (Dugdale 1730, 911-912). There is a small cruck house, the Smithy, possibly of 14th century date (Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 5; Moleyneux *et al.* 1977, 95; Alcock 1981, 157). A 'monolith' found on Maney Hill (Bracken 1860, 40) is now suggested (K. Williams, pers. comm.) to have been one of the padstones of the windmill which stood here in the 14th century (Dugdale, *loc.cit.*). The area is on Keuper Sandstone. The soils are acid brown sands, grade 3s agricultural land.

Minworth Greaves (figs. 83, 85)

Land at *Greves* is mentioned in 1364 (FFW); this place has been identified as Griff in Chilvers Coton parish, near Nuneaton, but as the other places mentioned in the same transaction are Minworth, Curdworth and Wiggins Hill it is more likely to be Minworth Greaves. A man of *Greuen* is mentioned in 1381 (Ass.R.St.) and John Wryte of *Greuen* is mentioned in 1418 (Scott Mss., BRL, no.50). *Greve* appears in the Sutton Court Roll for

1422. In 1656, there were 7 houses at *Graves*, one of which was in ruins (Dugdale 1730, 932). The Yateses' map shows 3 houses on the northern side of the present A4097, alongside a rectangular green which is named *Minworth Green* on the 1817 OS map and *Greaves Green* on the Greenwoods' map.

A cruck-framed house named Minworth Greaves formerly stood here (Bournville Trust n.d.; Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 159; VCHW, IV, 49; Alcock 1981, 157). The oldest surviving buildings are at Minworth Greaves Farm. They consist of a brick-built farmhouse and a timber-framed barn with square-framing and a queen-post roof. Both of these buildings are probably of 17th century date, and thus were possibly included with the cruck house in the 7 listed by Dugdale (above). The northern limit of the settlement area is marked by a field boundary bank parallel to Kingsbury Road to the north of which ridge-and-furrow is preserved. The ridges are straight, and have a wavelength of 5 to 7m and an amplitude of 30-35cm. They are truncated by the canal and partly covered by spoil from its construction. On Sheriff's map of 1791 this area is named Greaves Field and is divided into strips.

The site is on Boulder Clay and Keuper Marl near their junction with the gravel terrace of the River Tame, and is grade 3 agricultural land.

Thimble End

On the Yateses' map there are two buildings in an enclosure at c.SP 143941, on the edge of the waste area east of Sutton Coldfield (above, p.120) and another building to the south, on the opposite side of the present Fox Hollies Road. The cluster is named *Thimble End* on the 1817 OS map. The site is near the eastern edge of sand and gravel drift over Keuper Marl, and is grade 3 agricultural land. The soils are brown earths and stagnogleys.

Walmley Ash (fig.84)

The area was probably the home of Galfridus de Warmeley, who was involved in a land

transaction in Sutton Coldfield in 1231 (FFW) and had been making assarts near Peddimore Hall (below p.258) before 1240 (Mason 1980, 171, no.301). The Yateses' map shows houses along the present Walmley Ash Road, close to the parish boundary with the Minworth part of Curdworth parish. There is a possible moated site here (below, p.259).

Fieldwalking on each side of Walmley Ash Road (WA 81), in poor conditions, produced a small quantity of medieval pottery, suggesting manuring rather than occupation. The site is on sand and gravel drift, grade 3 agricultural land. The soils are brown earths and stagnogleys.

Wiggins Hill (fig.85)

The hamlet is in the south-eastern extremity of the parish, a strip which extends to the River Tame and separates the two parts of Curdworth parish. The shape of this part of the parish of Sutton Coldfield can be explained by the fact that Wiggins Hill was formerly a separate manor (below). The northern part of this strip is a spur of Arden Sandstone, which ends in a marked slope near Wiggins Hill Farm. South of this Boulder Clay, and the gravel terrace of the Tame begins south of the present A4097. The soils are stagnogleys. It is grade 3w or 3s agricultural land, west of an area of grade 2 land. North of the A497 present land use is agricultural, but the area to the south is occupied by a Sewage Farm.

Winchichelle in Domesday Book (DBW, 17.12) has been identified as Wiggins Hill. No inhabitants are mentioned in the entry, but it can be assumed that the estate was occupied by the tenant Bruning and his family. By the 15th century there were open fields east and west of the settlement; 'land in the common fields of Wiggins Hill' is mentioned in 1418 (Scott.Mss., BRL, no.50). On Sherriff's map of 1791 both fields are divided into strips, and extend across the parish boundary into Curdworth. They are named *Greaves Field* to the west and east respectively.

The surviving buildings are all of 16th century or later date. The oldest is Wincelle, which

formerly stood on the eastern side of Wiggins Hill Road, SP 16729310, but was removed and re-erected in Wyle Green Road in 1910 (Jones 1973, 54, 174). A photograph (BRL, Stone coll., box 51, nos.22-23) shows the building in the course of dismantling. It is a large timber-framed building, with small square panels, probably of late 16th or early 17th century date (above, p.57). Wiggins Hill Farm is a brick structure with Dutch gables, on a sandstone footing. It is probably of 17th century date. The Old Barn and its adjacent cottage are both constructed in large, square, timber-framing, using narrow scantling on a sandstone base. They are probably of 17th date. Wincelle, Wiggins Hill Farm and The Old Barn are probably the three buildings here in 1656 and mentioned by Dugdale (1730, 920). On the eastern side of the road, the brick Quaker Cottage was erected as a meeting house in 1724 (White 1886, 116; Hodgson 1953, CX). It had a burial ground to the south (SP 16739307) (BRL, Stone coll., box 51, no.21).

Chance finds from the area consist of a polished stone axe of Group VI and a Roman coin hoard. The axe was found in the sewage farm, on the Tame terrace (Shotton 1923, 45-46; Thomas 1974, 35). The coin hoard was contained in an 'urn' which was kicked out of the bank of a pond by cattle. It consisted of about 30 coins of the 3rd century Gallic Empire (Chattock 1884, 235). The exact findspot is not recorded, but since Chattock says it was in Wishaw parish (*ibid.*, 194), it must have been in the part east of Wiggins Hill Road. The 'pond' was probably a marl pit, of which there are several in the area. The hoard is unlikely to have been hidden far from a contemporary settlement; earthworks or the sandstone wallfottings of a villa-type building may have given rise to the name *Castle Croft*, which refers on the Sutton Coldfield Corn Rent Map of 1825 to a field on the edge of the Tame terrace, south of the A4097. A churchway called 'Castell way' between Minworth and Curdworth is mentioned in 1648; the inhabitants of Minworth Greaves and Wigginshill were responsible for its upkeep (QSW).

Earthworks were recorded in 1969 on the eastern site of Wiggins Hill Road (SP 168933) and have been interpreted as possible house platforms (C. J. Bond, pers. comm.). Areas on either

side of Wiggins Hill Road were walked (WG 80-81), including the site of these earthworks, which have now been levelled by ploughing. A few sherds of Roman pottery were found. The distribution of medieval pottery suggested that the medieval settlement was on the site of the present cluster around Wiggins Hill Farm; the average sherd weights from zones 5, 6, and 7 suggest occupation, and that from zones 1 and 2, manuring. There was no particular concentration of pottery in the field in which the earthworks were recorded (zone 2), compared to the other zones walked.

Windley (later Wild) Green

The Court Leet of 1309, which purports to record 10th century customs, mentions the tenants of *Windeley* (Dugdale 1730, 911-912). On the Yateses' map there are three houses around a triangular *Windeley Green* (SP 120944). The site is on sand and gravel drift. The soils are acid brown sands, grade 3s agricultural land.

WEEFORD PARISH (fig.44)

The only settlement cluster in the parish is Weeford village, north of the Bourne Brook and outside the study area.

WISHAW PARISH (fig.45)

There is no village nucleus; the church is isolated, and settlement in the parish is in the form hamlets and individual farmsteads. Beresford (1950, 105) sugested that the isolated church indicated settlement desertion. In Domesday Book, the recorded population of the vill of Wishaw is 3 *villani* and 4 *bordarii*. Harvey (1976, 197-199) has argued that the *bordarii* were those living in scattered homesteads, rather than in a village nucleus occupied by *villani*. The greater number of *bordarii* than *villani* in Wishaw may thus indicate settlement dispersion by this time, and possibly the development of hamlets.

Grove End (Bumble End) (fig.86)

Bumble End is mentioned in 1670 (QSW). On the Yateses' map it consists of a string of buildings along a road, east of the road junction at SP 166950. On the 1817 OS map, buildings are clustered around the junction, and there is no evidence of a spread to the east. The hamlet straddles the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield, which runs north-south through the road junction. The site is on Keuper Marl, with an outcrop of Arden Sandstone. The soil is a stagnogleyic clayey loam and sandy clay loam. It is grade 3w agricultural land, on the north-western edge of an area of grade 2 land.

The oldest surviving building is a cruck house, The Grove, which stands at the road junction on the Sutton Coldfield side of the parish boundary. It has four bays, and is c.18m long, c.6m wide and c.6m high (Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 4-5 and plate II; Alcock 1981, 157). Its size and the use of heavy timbers for the cruck blades suggest that its builder belonged to the upper part of the social scale, and it is therefore likely to be of 14th century or earlier date (above, p.56). Along the road to the east, the oldest surviving building is a timber-framed barn at The Elms, marked but not named on Yateses' map. It is square-framed with a queenpost roof, and is probably of late 17th or 18th century date.

Indistinct earthworks on the southern side of the road may be house platforms (SP 167950). Two cropmarks of ditched enclosures are visible on the north side of the road, which is now arable land. That nearest the road junction is subrectangular and c.30x20m (WMCC 1980, nos.9415-6) and that opposite The Elms is c.20m square (WMCC 1977, 107/200).

The two areas selected for fieldwalking included these cropmarks, GE to the north-east of the road junction and TE 80 opposite the Elms. At GE medieval pottery, with an average sherd weight suggesting occupation, was concentrated on a platform (GE 2,3) whose edges corresponded to the cropmark. Smaller quantities were found in zones 1 and 2, and the average sherd weight suggested manuring. At TE 80 much medieval pottery was found in a

small area, and the average sherd weight suggested occupation. These results indicate that the medieval settlement, like the 18th century one, extended east from the road junction.

Lower Green (Nether Green) (fig. 100)

An oval area is marked on Ogilby's map of 1675 and there named *Whisshaw Green* (above, p.124) but there is no evidence of settlement around the green before the encroachment of John Wheeley onto the common of *Nether Green* in 1683 (QSW). On the Yateses' and the Greenwoods' maps there are 2 or 3 buildings around a rectangular green. The 1843 auctioneers' catalogue mentions a 'cottage and garden' at the northern corner of Lower Green. The site is on Keuper Marl, near an area of sand and gravel drift, and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam.

There is building debris consisting of bricks and tiles, probably from the cottage mentioned in 1843, in the ploughsoil on the north-west side of the former green. Fieldwalking here (LGNW) produced no pottery dateable to before the 17th century, implying that John Wheeley's encroachment, noted above, was the first settlement here. On the south-east side, however, alongside the road (LG 1,2), prehistoric activity was indicated by worked flint, and the quantity, condition and average sherd weight of medieval pottery found suggests occupation here. This settlement seems to have extended north in Moxhull (below) and to the south, where there are possible house enclosures and a concentration of medieval pottery near the moated site at Wishaw Hall Farm (below, p.261).

Moxhull (figs.71, 100)

There was a messuage in Moxhull in 1326 (IPM). Moxhull was a separate manor within Wishaw parish. Its court rolls record that its inhabitants held selions in the open fields of *Chyrchfield*, probably the Church Field adjacent to Wishaw Church on the 1843 map, and the unlocated *Whetefeld*. They probably also held land in Cap Field and Moxhull Meadow, both of which are marked on the 1843 map between Moxhull Park and the present A446. On the

18th and 19th century maps there are two settlement clusters which may have been included in Moxhull manor, each at a road junction. To the north, on the present A446 (SP 176958), there are buildings around a triangular green on the Yateses' and the Greenwoods' map. These include the present Noel Grange (SP 176957) which is named *Hackets Arms* on the 1817 OS map and *Red Cap* on the 1843 map. South-west of this, at the junction of the present A4091 and A446, and at the south-east corner of Moxhull Park, a single building, the present Grange Farm Cottages (SP 184948) is marked on the Yateses', the Greenwoods' and the 1843 map and named *Green Man*. Fieldwalking opposite Noel Grange (LG 3) produced medieval pottery whose quantity and average sherd weight indicated occupation here. It is on sand and gravel drift, and is grade 3w agricultural land. The soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam.

Over Green (fig.87)

The hamlet is clustered around a triangular green, whose western edge is the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield. The site is on Keuper Marl, but field observation on the site of the green revealed that there is thin cover of sand and gravel drift. The soil is stagnogleyic. It is grade 3w agricultural land, near the western edge of an area of grade 2 land.

A messuage at *Overwysshawe* is mentioned in 1549 (Beresford 1941). Pool Hall, at the southern end of the hamlet, is mentioned in 1581 (below, p.259). Over Green was probably the 'town of Wishaw'; a road between this and Wishaw Church is mentioned in 1682 (QSW).

To the east of the green there is a 17th century rectory with an associated square-framed barn. The incumbent of Wishaw church may have been living at Over Green in 1240, when he was assarting land in Langley, just over the parish boundary, to the west (Mason 1980, 171, no.301). Bricklyn Farm, to the west of the green has a queen-post truss in narrow scantling, probably of 17th century date, exposed in its west gable. There is a moated site on the western edge of the green at Hermitage Farm (below, p.257).

The green itself (OG 9-11) and the area to its east (OG 1-7) were walked. To the east,

medieval pottery was concentrated on the present road frontage. The average sherd weight suggested occupation here. The only evidence for earlier activity was a small quantity of worked flints of Mesolithic type, including blades and a core, from both the green itself and the area to its east.

Wishaw Church (fig.88)

The church is on the junction between sand and gravel drift, to the east, and Keuper Marl, to the west. The soil is stagnogleyic sandy loam. It is grade 2 agricultural land.

A priest is mentioned in the Wishaw entry in Domesday Book (DBW, 28.4). According to Lennard (1959, 304) such an entry implies a church, but it is possible that the priest served the private chapel of the manor house, which may have been at Wishaw Hall Farm (below, p.261). The church was in existence by November 1240 when 'Henry, rector of the church of Wishaw' is mentioned (Mason 1980, 172, no.303). The earliest features of the surviving structure have been dated to the 13th century (VCH W, 4, 260-261; Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 475).

On the 1843 map the church lies between two areas of open field, *Church Field* to the north and west and *Rye Field* to the east, both of which are shown divided into strips (fig.45). The small field to the south of the church is described as glebe land on the 1896 map of Church Farm estate. It contains slightly curving ridge and furrow with a wavelength of 5.5 to 6m. The Greenwoods' map shows three houses on the western side of the road running north from the church; these probably all belong to Church Farm as depicted on the 1817 OS map.

Possible settlement sites were suggested by anomalies in the road and field pattern on the 1843 map. These are two right-angled bends in the road north of the church, and a rectangular field to the south (parcel no.98) whose long side is bounded by the road south of the church, and which extends to a road junction in the east. These areas were walked (WC 80, 1, 2, and WC

80, 4; 81, 5, respectively) together with the areas to the west (WC 80, 3) and east (WC 81, 6) of the church and an area at the road junction further east (WC 81, 7). The only evidence for pre-medieval activity was a flint scraper (WC 80, 2; fig.20). A small quantity of medieval pottery was found, probably the result of manuring rather than of occupation. If there was ever any settlement at this site, it must have been founded after the Roman period and abandoned before the 12th century. The period of occupation would then have been that for which few artifacts have yet been found in Sutton Chase.

Alternatively, the church could have been built here in the 13th century to serve a number of scattered settlements, and imposed on an existing field pattern. The ridge-and-furrow is clearly truncated by the road to its south. If it was originally of 'reversed-S' plan then it would also have continued through the rectangular field to the south-west and the area now occupied by the pool known as Church Pit to its west. It would have been part of a furlong in Church Field. Following the imposition of the church and the enclosure of the eastern end of some of the strips to its south, the rectangular field was created to the south-west and Church Pit was dug, both in former open-field lane. Church Pit is probably the marl pit referred to in 1682, when the inhabitants of Wishaw were taken to court for not fencing a marlpit lying near the king's highway between the town of Wishaw (probably Over Green, above, p.216) and the church (QSW). This road, now Church Pit Lane, probably ran south of its present line before construction of the church, to create a crossroads rather than a staggered junction to the southeast of the church (near WC 81, 7).

HAMLETS: Discussion

The hamlets are not evenly distributed within the study area as a whole or within each parish or township in which they occur. They occupy the south, centre and north-west corner of the study area (fig.74). There are no hamlets in the north (Drayton Bassett, Hints and Weeford parishes), in the west (Great Barr and the western part of Sutton Coldfield), or in the east (Lea Marston, Kingsbury, and the eastern part of Middleton parish). The Middleton hamlets are clustered in the south of the parish, and in Erdington they form a ring around the eponymous settlement. All the hamlets in Perry Barr and Wishaw, and Minworth Greaves, Walmley Ash and Wiggins Hill in Sutton Coldfield, are on, or near to, the parish or township boundary. Both of the Perry Barr hamlets, and Hill and Thimble End in Sutton Coldfield, are on the edge of the unenclosed common waste of the 18th century. Littleworth End in Middleton and Little Aston, Litte Hay and Woodend in Shenstone are adjacent to parks.

The hamlets of Wishaw and Shenstone parishes, together with Wiggins Hill, and probably Little Sutton and Maney, in Sutton Coldfield, lie on or adjacent to, and therefore could have exploited, grade 2 agricultural land. The hamlets in Middleton and Erdington are probably on grade 3s or 3w land, and those on the The Coldfield in Perry Barr are on grade 3s land. Of the village settlements, Drayton Bassett, Middleton, Shenstone and probably Sutton Coldfield are on or adjacent to, and therefore could have exploited, grade 2 land.

The apparent chronology of hamlet settlement in the study area is influenced by the type of evidence available for each site. All those sampled by fieldwalking have been shown to be medieval settlements. Roman pottery was found at Lower Green and Wiggins Hill, but at each the quantity was too small to indicate settlement at this period. The Roman coin hoard from Wiggins Hill is evidence for occupation in the area of, but not necessarily on the same site as, the medieval hamlet. Footherley may have developed along a Roman Road. The kiln at Sherifoot Lane in Hill need not imply any more extensive a settlement than the potter's

workshop and dwelling, although more kilns may have existed than the one excavated, and more than one potter may have been involved. It is not possible to prove settlement between the 5th and 11th centuries by archaeological means because of the absence of material dateable to this period from the whole study area. Of the two village sites sampled by fieldwalking, Middleton produced some Roman pottery, and at both Middleton and Drayton Bassett there was evidence for medieval settlement. The parish church at Shenstone may be of pre-Conquest origin, and the parish churches of Curdworth and Middleton contain Norman work.

Where documentary evidence alone has been used, as in Shenstone and in the present built-up areas of Erdington, Perry Barr and central Sutton Coldfield, the chronology so obtained reflects both the available documentation and the superficial nature of the documentary research in the present study. The earliest references are that of 957 AD for Little Aston, and the alleged 10th century reference to Maney and Windley in Sutton Coldfield. Domesday Book references imply settlement at Wiggins Hill and the existence of a dispersed settlement pattern in Wishaw parish. Other than these, the documentary references to hamlets are of 12th century or later date.

By combining the evidence from the study area with that from elsewhere in the country, a model can be proposed for hamlet development in Sutton Chase. There is little evidence for settlement at the hamlets during the Roman period, but the village sites could have been settled at this time. It has been noted above that four of the village settlements in Sutton Chase are on grade 2 agricultural land, which might be expected to have been settled first, and all the villages are mentioned in Domesday Book (below p.289). In the Tame valley to the north of the study area, Smith (1977, 308) suggested that settlement on the site of the medieval and later villages had late Roman origins, since his fieldwalking demonstrated that all those rural sites occupied in the late Roman period became medieval settlements. In some cases, the land around each village, and cultivated by its inhabitants, was laid out in open fields, each consisting of strip allotments. A late 8th or early 9th century date has been suggested for the

formation of open-field strip systems in Northamptonshire (Hall 1979; 1981, 36). Once such a system was established, further expansion of the village settlement could not be accommodated either by the space available for new dwellings in the village nucleus or by the land available in the fields. This would result in the development of settlements on the edge of the land cultivated from the village nucleus. This process was possibly the cause of hamlet creation in Erdington. The settlement plan at Wishaw can be described as annular, and is similar to that of some Norfolk parishes, such as Morley St. Peter and Longham. At the former, the development of an annular plan was attributed to the small area of land suited to arable use. The church stands alone in the centre of the arable land and settlement is on its perimeter, where it joins the surrounding pasture (Smith C.T. 1978, 270-272). At Longham, the results of fieldwalking suggested that there had been a settlement of middle Saxon date around the church, which is now isolated, and that the present settlement plan was the result of successive shifts in the site of the main settlement from this period onwards (Wade-Martins 1975, 143; 1980b, 34-38). Beresford (1973) has suggested that an isolated church almost always indicates settlement desertion or migration, except possibly in some late-settled wooded areas. In Wishaw parish, the strip fields recorded on 19th century maps are on an area of grade 2 agricultural land, in the centre of which is the church. If the church were the nucleus of the original settlement, new settlements could have subsequently developed on the edge of the open fields and grade 2 land, and this eventually resulted in the total abandonment of the settlement around the church. The Domesday Book entry suggests that this process had begun by the 11th century, and the archaeological evidence implies that any settlement around the church had been abandoned by the 12th century. On the other hand the church may have been isolated from the beginning, through being imposed on an existing field pattern in the 13th century. This latter interpretation would conform to Bond's explanation of isolated churches; he suggests that an isolated church could have been built in a central position in a parish where settlement is generally dispersed, equidistant between two settlement nuclei (Bond 1985). In Middleton parish, hamlet development may have resulted in the shrinkage of the main village settlement (above, p.203).

Other hamlets may have developed later in the medieval period. The location of hamlets close to medieval parks suggests that they, like the parks, may be associated with the exploitation of unimproved waste land. This is also implied by hamlets on parish boundaries and on the edge of 18th century waste.

There is some evidence in Sutton Chase for shrinkage and desertion of medieval villages and hamlets. This consists of abandoned arable land, probably that of Littleworth End, in the adjacent Middleton New Park, earthworks and cropmarks which may indicate former house sites at Wiggins Hill, Grove End, Lower Green, and 'Hethende' in Middleton, the isolated church at Lea Marston, and the possible croft sites in Middleton village. There are only five possible examples of post-medieval hamlet development; in each case dating is from documentary references alone so settlement could have begun much earlier. They are Thimble End in Sutton Coldfield, and four of the nine hamlets in Erdington township.

HAMLETS: Chance Finds, Fieldwalking and Excavation Finds

* Illustrated

DRAYTON BASSETT: Village

Chance Finds

DB 4

Pottery: type 29, 1 rim*; type 36, 2 base; type 41, 1 handle*.

HL

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 2, 1 base, 26 body

Salvage Recording

DB 1

Pottery: type 34, 2 base; type 36, 1 rim form 1

DB 2

Pottery: type 36, 1 body

DB 3

Pottery: type 36, 1 body; type 41, 1 body

ERDINGTON: Bromford

Chance Find

Saxon yellow and white glass bead, Bromford (Gunstone 1967, 94)

MIDDLETON: Allen End

Fieldwalking

ALE 24/9/80; SP 166966; sandy, pebbly, damp; harrowed; dull; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 22, 1 body; type 25, 1 body; type 30, 1 body; type 33, 1 body; type 34, 1 inturned rim; type 36, 2 rim form 1, 2 rim form 5, 10 body.

MIDDLETON: Ash End

Fieldwalking

AE 17/9/80; SP 175965; sandy pebbly loam, damp; ploughed; sunny; 0.6 ha

Flint: core?, dark grey; blade, brown, 20x9mm; chip, brown; chip, light grey

Pottery: type 33, 1 body; type 34, 1 body, 1 rim or strap handle; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 base form 1, 1 base form 2*, 22 body

MIDDLETON: Cross Green

Fieldwalking

CG 1 24/9/80; SP 175969; clayey, dry; ploughed; sunny; 0.4 ha

Pottery: type 36, 1 body

CG 2-4 22/9/81; SP 175970; pebbly sandy clay, damp; ploughed; dull.

2. 0.16 ha

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 rim form 2, 1 base form 2, 11 body

3. 0.08 ha

Pottery: type 34, 1 body; type 36, 1 base form 2, 2 body

4. 0.16 ha

Pottery: type 34, 1 rim*, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 rim form 2, 1 base form 1, 2 body.

MIDDLETON: Hunts Green

Fieldwalking

HG 28/9/80; SP 182975; sandy, pebbly, damp; harowed; dull; 0.6 ha

Pottery: type 15, 1 body; type 26, 1 rim, type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 handle form 1, 1 base form 2, 10 body; type 39, 1 base

HGF 24/11/80; SP 184972; sandy clay, damp; drilled; dull; 0.4 ha

Pottery: type 26, 1 body; type 32, 1 rim*, 1 body; type 33, 1 rim*; type 34, 1 base; type 36, 7 rim form 1, 2 rim form 2, 4 rim form 3*, 1 rim form 4, 3 handle form 1, 1 handle form 2*, 1 base form 1, 13 base form 2*, 122 body; type 41, 1 body

MIDDLETON: Stoke End

Fieldwalking

SE 17/9/80; SP 171970; pebbly clay, damp; harrowed; hazy sun; 0.5 ha

Flint: flake, light grey

Pottery: type 16, 1 rim; type 18, 1 base; type 21, 1 rim; type 26, 1 base; type 32, 1 rim*, type 36; 9 body

MIDDLETON: Village

Chance Find

MVC: Pottery, type 36, 1 body, near church porch

Fieldwalking

MV 11/9/80; pebbly sand, damp/dry; ploughed; dull; 2 ha

1. SP 177986

Pottery: type 9, 1 rim; type 33, 1 body

2. SP 178986

Pottery: type 6, 1 body; type 15, 1 body; type 16, 1 rim*, type 23, 1 rim*, type 36, 1 rim form 1, 4 body

3. No finds

SHENSTONE: Little Aston

Fieldwalking

LAN SK 089006; clayey loam, damp; harrowed; dull.

1. 19/10/81; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 27, 1 rim; type 30, 1 base; type 34, 1 rim, 2 base, 5 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 rim form 4*, 1 handle form 1, 11 body

2. 24/10/81; damp, dull

No finds

3. As 2

Flint flake, dark grey

SHENSTONE: LITTLE HAY

Fieldwalking

LTH 9/9/81; SK 121023; Sandy, very pebbly, dry; rotivated; sunny; 1 ha

Pottery: Type 18

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Hill

Chance Find

Roman coin, Trajan as, Hathaway Road, SP 113997 (Gunstone 1965, 93)

Excavation

Roman pottery, Sherifoot Lane, SP 113994

SUTTON COLDFIELD Walmley Ash

Fieldwalking

WA 29/8/81; sandy, pebbly, dry; dull

1. SP 148929; ploughed, harrowed; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 3 body; type 35, 1 rim; type 36, 1 body.

2. SP 148928; ploughed; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 1 body; type 36, 1 base form 2

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Wiggins Hill

Chance Finds

Polished stone axe, Curdworth Sewage Farm (Shotton 1934, 45;46)

Roman coin hoard, c.30 coins including 7 Gallienus, 6 Claudius II,

2 Victorinus, 5 Tetrici, in 'urn' (Chattock 1884, 194, 235)

Fieldwalking

WG 80, 1. 24/5/80; SP 168936; pebbly, dry; harrowed; dull, sunny; 1.9 ha

Pottery: type 12, 1 body; type 30, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

WG 80, 2. 13/9/80; SP 167932; sandy clay, pebbly, dry; ploughed; dull; 1.2 ha

Flint: flake scraper, dark grey, 40x38mm*

Pottery: type 6, 1 body; type 15, 1 body; type 16, 1 rim, 1 strap handle, 3 body; type 22, 1 rim*; type 26, 1 rim*; type 27*, 1 rim*; type 30, 1 body; type 33, 1 body; type 34, 2 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 base form 2, 1 body

WG 80, 3 17/9/80; SP 167932; damp; ploughed; dull; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 10, 1 rim*, type 16, 1 body; type 22, 1 body; type 25, 1 body; type 30, 1 body; type 34, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

WG 80, 4 As 3, 2 traverses only

Pottery: type 34, 1 body

WG 80, 5 21/9/80; SP 168928; damp; ploughed; dull; 0.5 ha

Pottery: type 36, 2 body

WG 80, 6 as 5; 1.5 ha

Flint: fabricator?, brown, 54x20mm

Pottery: type 7, 1 body; type 9, 1 body; type 25, 1 body; type 26, 1 rim; type 29, 1 base; type 34, 2 base, 4 body; type 36, 4 rims form 1, 2 rims form 2, 2 base form 2, 9 body; type 41, 1 body

WG 80, 7 22/9/80; SP 166928; damp; ploughed; dull; 0.5 ha

Flint: chip, grey mottled, poss retouched

Pottery: type 15, 1 base; type 36, 2 body; type 38, 1 rim

WG 80, 8 As 7; SP 166930; 0.08 ha

Pottery: type 4, 1 body; type 16, 1 rim, type 23, 1 body; type 26, 1 body; type 30, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

WISHAW: Grove End

Fieldwalking

GE 80 23/9/80; SP 167950; pebbly sandy clay, damp; ploughed; dull; 0.6 ha

- 1. Pottery: type 29, 1 body; type 36, 1 body
- 2. Pottery: type 15, 1 body; type 16, 1 rim; type 36, 2 rim form 1, 2 rim form 2, 1 handle form 1, 1 base form 2, 38 body
- 3. Flint: flake, brown

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim; type 22, 1 body; type 35, 1 rim*, type 36, 6 body

TE 80 20/10/80; SP 169952; clayey, damp; ploughed; dull; 0.06 ha

Pottery: type 30, 1 body; type 32, 1 body; type 36, 1 handle form 1, 7 body; type 37, 1 base

WISHAW: Lower Green

Fieldwalking

LG 79 19/12/79; SP 172956; stoney clay loam, damp; ploughed; sunny.

Pottery: type 15, 16*, 17, 18

LG 81, 1, 2. 17/2/81; SP 174954; pebbly clay, damp; ploughed; dull

1. O.25 ha

Flint: flake, dark grey, 32x28mm, ? retouched*

Pottery: type 35, 1 rim; type 36, 1 rim form 2, 1 handle form 1, 1 base form 2, 7 body.

2. 0.1 ha

No finds

WISHAW: Moxhull

Fieldwalking

LG 81, 3. 22/9/81; SP 175957; damp; ploughed; dull; 0.45 ha

Flint: blade, brown, 33x15mm

Pottery: type 15, 1 base; type 16, 1 rim*; type 24, 1 body; type 33, 1 body; type 36, 6 rims

form 1, 1 handle form 1, 2 bases form 1, 10 body; type 41, 3 body

WISHAW: Over Green

Chance Find

OG 80, 8 Pottery: type 36, 1 handle form 1, SP 169943

Fieldwalking

OG 80 sandy clay

1. 27/5/80

Flint: chip, dark grey

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 1 body; type 29, 1 body; type 30, 2 body; type 34, 1 body;

type 36, 1 rim form 2*, 13 body

2. As 1

Pottery: type 19, 1 body; type 29, 1 body; type 34, 1 base; type 36, 1 base form 2, 10 body

3. 28/5/80; dry; dull

Flint: blade, light grey, 41x25mm

Pottery: type 23, 1 body; type 34, 1 rim; type 36, 3 rim form 1*, 3 rim form 2*, 1 handle form 1, 38 body

4. As 3

Flint: Core, grey-brown mottled

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 1, 1 base form 2, 12 body

5. As 4

No finds

6. As 5

Pottery: type 26, 1 body; type 36, 1 base form 2, 3 body

7. 30/5/80; damp

Pottery: type 16, 1 rim*, type 20;, type 34, 3 base, 4 body; type 36, 5 rim form 1*, 1 rim form 2*, 1 rim form 4*, 1 base form 2, 17 body; type 41, 1 body

OG 81 1/5/81; SP 168943; sandy clay, pebbly, damp; cultivated; dull, sunny

9. Flint: Blade, brown, serrated edges, 43x11mm

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim; type 36, 1 body

- 10. No finds
- 11. Pottery: type 15, 1 body; type 26, 1 base; type 36, 2 rim form 1.

WISHAW: Wishaw Church

Fieldwalking

WC 80, 1, 2 15/9/80; SP 176946; dry; drilled; dull

1. No finds

2. Flint: scraper, dark grey, 61x46mm*

Pottery: type 6, 1 base; type 24, 1 rim, type 36, 1 body; type 39, 1 body

3. As 2; SP 175945

Pottery: type 28, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 2 body

WC 80, 4 30/10/80; SP 177944; sandy clay, damp; ploughed; dull, sunny; 0.58 ha No finds

WC 81, 5 21/1/81; SP 176944; clayey, pebbly, damp; ploughed; hazy sun; 0.13 ha No finds

WC 81, 6 2/3/81; SP 177945; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 0.84 ha Pottery: type 36, 2 body

WC 81, 7 16/5/81; SP 179943; pebbly clay loam; ridged; dull, hazy sun,0.75 ha

Flint: gunflint, dark grey, 38x288mm

Pottery: type 15, 1 handle

CHAPTER SIX: Moated sites and isolated sites

MOATED SITES AND ISOLATED SITES: Introduction

Moats as earthwork forms have been discussed above (p.66). The purpose of the moat has been disputed. Moated sites have been described as lying on the borderline between defensive and defensible structures, but defence does not seem to have been a primary consideration because subsidiary buildings to the main dwelling-house, particularly agricultural buildings, were situated outside the moated area (Le Patourel and Roberts 1978, 42). The presence of an earthen bank on the inside or outside of the enclosure could indicate a defensive function. This was suggested by Lloyd-Lewis (1958) for the moats in the Forest of Arden, and by Barry (1977) for the moats of south-east Ireland. In both of these regions the moat ditch is frequently accompanied by an earthen bank. Some banks may simply be spoil from the initial digging of the moat, which was dumped rather than levelled, or from subsequent cleaning out (Taylor 1978, 10). Where the circuit is incomplete, the 'moat' may have been constructed as a fishpond: this interpretation was offered at Humberstone, Leicestershire, where an L-shaped ditch with an outer bank was shown to partially enclose 13th century occupation. The excavator suggested that the 'moat' was originally a series of fishponds divided by dams (Rahtz 1959). Moats could have served several purposes. They could have been defensive barriers, sources of fish, drains, sewers and firebreaks. Their primary function may have been social, as prestige symbols of small landowners (Taylor 1972, 246).

The distribution of moated sites is partly related to geology, for example in Warwickshire most sites are on Keuper Marl, where an impermeable subsoil would ensure that the moat would hold water. Roberts (1978, 62), however, suggests that the distribution is influenced by settlement history and local variations in the character of lordship rather than by the nature of the terrain. In the Arden part of Warwickshire (Roberts 1962, 36-37) moats are often in the most remote parts of parishes, and are associated with assarted holdings on the edge of waste and woodland, whereas the fewer moats in the Feldon part are normally within villages, one to each. Generally, the larger moats are in villages, and the smaller in hamlets (Le Patourel and

Roberts 1978, 47). Le Patourel (1973, 15) suggested that larger moats belonged to the more important landowners, but there is no evidence that the enclosed area is related to social status (*ibid.*). Larkham (1984, 27) has suggested that moated sites in south Staffordshire are associated with disafforestation. Taylor (1972, 242-243) has suggested that both settlement history and geology influenced the distribution of moats in Cambridgeshire. Isolated moats in that county are confined to areas of former forest on Boulder Clay.

The chronology of moated sites has been discussed above (p.67). They are comparable to the enclosed homesteads of prehistoric and Roman Britain. The moat is essentially a form of bank and ditch earthwork boundary, similar to that used to enclose assarted holdings with which some moats are associated, as noted above, but which has assumed defensible proportions. The association with land newly brought into cultivation suggests that moated sites represent new settlements of the Middle Ages. In the country as a whole and in the vicinity of Sutton Chase, however, there is evidence at some sites for activity before moat construction. In Cambridgeshire, the site known as The Moats had pottery of Roman to 13th century date on the field surfaces around it (Roberts 1977, 174), the site at Isleham Fen overlay a Roman occupation site and Roman material was contained within the platform (Lethbridge 1937, xiii), and at Flambard's Manor in Meldreth there was late Saxon pottery in the moat platform (Lethbridge 1935, xxviii). At Writtle in Essex the moat platform sealed Iron Age features (Rahtz 1969, 18-26), at Long Whatton, Leicestershire, Roman pottery was found on the old ground surface below medieval occupation (Tarver 1982), and at Burgh Hall Farm, Norfolk, Roman pottery was found in the moat of a site which occupied a natural gravel knoll adjacent to the River Bure (Dollin and Dollin 1982). Fieldwalking at North Elmham, Norfolk, located a scatter of Roman pottery of 2nd to 4th century date over an area of c.1.5 ha near a moat in the centre of a medieval park, but no material of middle Saxon or later date (Wade-Martins 1980a. 18, 26). At Gargrave in North Yorkshire a timber structure was partly destroyed by the cutting of the moat (D. Williams 1981), and at Chalgrove, Oxon., structures occupied the site before when the moat was constructed in the mid 13th century (Page 1983, 3). Clarke (1984, 59) summarises other evidence for pre-moat occupation.

In the vicinity of the study area there are some sites where moat construction postdates ridge and furrow. At Walsall, the moat platform sealed buildings which were themselves cut into ridge and furrow (Wrathmell and Wrathmell 1976; 1977). Observation of earthworks at Bockendon Grange, Stoneleigh, Warwickshire, suggested that the moat overlay ridge and furrow (Bond and Alcock 1981). At Shareshill, Staffordshire, the internal bank of the moat overlay a grey deposit which sealed a series of parallel gravel-filled trenches running across the whole site. There were no finds from these, and the excavator suggested that they had been dug to drain the site before the moat was constructed (Oswald 1961, 44-45). The drawn section (*ibid.*, fig.3) shows that the trenches were 1ft 6ins. to 6ft wide, c.1ft deep, and their centres were c.8ft apart. They could be interpreted as the furrows of a ridge and furrow system. At the Mount, Cheswick Green, Warwickshire, the internal bank of the moat overlay a turf line which sealed a posthole and a gully 2ft wide and 1ft 6 ins. deep, which contained medieval pottery in buff and white ware, which the excavator suggested was of 13th century date. Near the western entrance of the moated enclosure two similar gullies were found; one of them was sealed by the internal bank and continued across the moat platform for at least 20yards. It was 1ft 6 in. wide and 1ft deep, and contained a base sherd of a grey vessel of possible Roman date. The excavator suggested that the gullies indicated cultivation on the site before moat construction (T.L. Jones 1955, 86, 88, 89). At Hunningham, Warwickshire, the moat platform sealed a soil surface containing Roman and medieval pottery (Radcliffe 1980; 1981).

It is clear from this review that two periods of pre-moat activity must be distinguished. First, there is the evidence for prehistoric or Roman activity, separated from the medieval construction and occupation of the moated site by at least 800 years and therefore unrelated to it. The construction of a moated site at these places is purely coincidental; the site may have been selected for the same reasons in both periods, such as the dry waterside location of the

gravel knoll at Burgh Hall. Second there is evidence for activity on the site at the time of or shortly before moat construction. At Walsall, Shareshill, The Mount and Bockendon, there are indications that the moat was constructed on existing or former arable land. At The Mount a turf-line had developed, at Walsall pre-platform features overlay ridge and furrow, and at Shareshill the furrows may have been filled deliberately, to level the site. Previous occupation on the site is indicated by pre-moat buildings at Gardgrave and Walsall and the late-Saxon pottery at Flambard's Manor.

There has been little previous work on the moated sites of Sutton Chase. They lie on the northern edge of the concentration of moats in the Forest of Arden area of north Warwickshire (Watts 1977, fig.19), which have been discussed by Roberts (1978). The sites in south Staffordshire are listed by Larkham (1984), whose study appears to have used maps and secondary documentary evidence only. Those sites in West Midlands county are included in the gazetteer and distribution map compiled by Watts (1977, app.2 p.191 and fig.19 p.65). The only site in the study area which has previously been studied in detail is Peddimore Hall (Spolton 1977).

19 sites in the study area can be defined as moated sites (fig.89). 16 of these were already listed in county Sites and Monuments Records and the Ordnance Survey records. The moated site recorded near Blackgreaves Farm (WA 00066) has been rejected because field observation suggested the feature previously interpreted as a moat was probably a marlpit alongside the road, similar to that at Mullensgrove Farm nearly (SP 193939). Three sites were added during the study, at Walmley Ash, Drayton Bassett and Hurst Green.

Moated sites are, however, a special form of individual settlement, so I have also considered those non-moated isolated settlements which are recorded on the Yateses' maps or where occupation before c.1790 was suggested by the existing archaeological, architectural or documentary evidence.

Documentary and archaeological methods were used to determine the dates at which the sites were occupied. In the case of moats, it did not matter whether or not the actual moat was mentioned in documents, or whether buildings enclosed by the moat were constructed before or after it was dug, since they still provided evidence for settlement on the site. There are particular problems in the use of fieldwalking around moated sites. If the areas enclosed by the moats were occupied by domestic buildings, and the agricultural buildings stood outside, then there would not be a dung heap within the moated area on which to throw rubbish, but instead the moat itself would serve as a convenient rubbish pit. The refuse so deposited could only reach the surrounding fields as a result of periodic cleaning of the moat and dumping of the material on field surfaces adjacent to the outer lip of the moat.

CURDWORTH PARISH (fig.34)

Berwood Hall SP 147910 (fig.34)

The site is on the gravel terrace of the River Tame, adjacent to the edge of alluvium bounding the river. It is now built-up.

The Berwood estate was given to the Abbey of St. Mary at Leicester c.1160; it consisted of a hermitage and messuage together with land bounded by Plants Brook on the north and east, the River Tame on the south, and the parish boundary with Erdington on the west (Dugdale 1730, 932; Thompson 1949; 7). There was rapid woodland clearance in the estate, since at the time of acquisition it contained 300 acres of wood, but by 1223 there was only 24 acres (FFW).

According to a 15th century description, the site at that time consisted of a hall and associated farm buildings, with the old house standing beyond the precincts (Mitchell 1926, 18). The Ordnance Survey 1:2500 map, surveyed in 1887, shows three sides of a moat. There are no buildings inside the moated area, but there are farm buildings outside it.

The Berwood estate adjoins the unenclosed waste of Berwood Common to the West, and Minworth New Park to the east.

Curdworth Hall Farm SP 182929 (fig.90)

The site is on sand and gravel drift, the soil is a gleyic brown earth, and it is grade 3w agricultural land. The moat consists of three arms; the enclosure is completed on the west by a road. The platform is occupied by farm buildings, and is surrounded by open land on three sides.

A small area to the north-west of the moat was walked (CH 81) and produced two sherds of medieval pottery and a flint blade. The area walked probably lies within one of the medieval

open fields of Curdworth, High Field. This name is suggested by the name of Highfields Farm, to the north.

B. K. Roberts (1965, 86-87) suggested that Turchill, one of the major landowners in this area in Domesday Book, lived in Curdworth, his largest manor. The Curdworth Hall Farm site is however unlikely to be of manorial status; its moat is relatively narrow, and the site lies at the extreme eastern end of Curdworth village, on the edge of an open field. In its position and in the dimensions of the moat it is paralleled by a moated site at Mileham in Norfolk, which has been interpreted as a demesne farm. The manorial site here was a motte-and-bailey castle at the other end of the village (Wade-Martins 1971, 95; 1980b, 46). A more likely site for a manor house at Curdworth is an earthwork platform south of and adjoining the parish church, at the western end of the village (SP 177927) (above, p.198).

Dunton Hall SP 190934 (fig.91)

The site is on sand and gravel drift. The soil is a gleyic brown earth. The site is at the junction of grade 2 agricultural land, to the north, with grade 3 land to the south. The surrounding area is under grass.

Terry de Dunton rented land in Dunton in 1220 (FFW) and in 1292 William de Bracebrigg held a messuage and 3 virgates of land here (FFW). Permission was given for the enclosure of Clapshaw Wood in Dunton in the late 13th century, and improvement and enclosure of waste here was allowed in 1301-2 (Dugdale 1730, 933). The present Dunton Hall is in the centre of Dunton Park, which was in existence by 1675 (above, p.147). The 1846 Tithe Award map shows the boundaries of Dunton Manor. These are the present A446 on the west, the parish boundary on the north and east, and the River Tame, also the parish boundary, on the south (fig.91).

There are cropmarks (WMCC 106/008-9 in the field north of the present A4097 (SP 186937),

which could be the boundaries of the field enclosures made in the 13th and 14th centuries. It has been suggested that the present Dunton Hall is on the site of an earlier manor house (D. T. Roberts 1965, 19). The present building (WA 00044) is brick-built, and has been dated to the late 17th century (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 285). The garden surfaces around it were searched, but nothing was found.

DRAYTON BASSETT PARISH (fig.35)

Drayton Manor SK 195013 (fig.54)

The site is on Boulder Clay. The soil to the west is a stagnogley, and that to the east is a groundwater gley. It is now occupied by a pleasure park.

On the Yateses' map it is marked just outside the eastern boundary of Drayton Park (above, p.151). The original house is described and illustrated by Shaw (1798, II, I, facing p.1, 9-10). The complex was contained within a walled garden enclosure, and consisted of a quadrangle with a hall on one side, and a detached banqueting house. All these buildings were demolished shortly before Shaw was writing.

The drawings suggest that the Manor was of 16th century date; it may have succeeded an earlier manor house site at Moat Close adjacent to the village of Drayton Bassett (below).

Moat Close SK 192002 (fig.75)

The field adjoining the north-west side of the village green of Drayton Bassett, and bounded on the north by Heathley Lane, is named *Moat Close* in the Drayton Bassett Tithe Award of 1837. There is a local tradition (Christine Smith, pers. comm.) that it is the site of a monastery. Although the field is now ploughed, the line of a moat ditch may be indicated by a marked hollow visible on the ground and on an aerial photograph (RAF/CPE/UK/2555/4052, 27/3/1948). The Soil Survey (unpub.) note that this part of the field is a manmade soil with

deep disturbance on top. Fieldwalking (MC 1-6) produced large quantities of medieval pottery. The average sherd weight from all areas except MC 6 suggested occupation. The pottery was concentrated in the zones bounded by the ditch (MC 81, 4) and within this area there was also much building debris, consisting of sandstone rubble and mortar, in the ploughsoil. The pottery could simply be refuse from occupation on the adjacent present village site, but it includes pieces of a quality not normally found on local medieval sites, for example the decorated strap handle (fig.30). The ditch itself, the building debris, and the pottery concentration, the local tradition and the field-name suggested that the site was a moated homestead. The quality of pottery and the location of the site adjacent to the parish church implied that it was the site of the manor house, before a new manor house was built away from the village at Drayton Manor in Drayton Park (above). Excavation in advance of residential development on the site began in November 1987, and confirmed that the site was a moated homestead. Pottery suggested that the buildings within the moated enclosure were occupied from the 12th to the 15th century, and there was evidence for occupation of the site before construction of the moat (personal observation, and pers. comm. R. Meeson).

Shirrall Hall SP 166997 (fig.57)

The site lies on the junction of Keuper Marl, to the south and east, with Boulder Clay, to the north and west. The soil is a stagnogleyic clay loam. The land on the Keuper Marl is classified as grade 2 agricultural land, and that on Boulder Clay as grade 3w.

It is within Shirrall Park (above, p.154). The house could be on the site of the dwelling of one of the 'Keepers of Sherold' mentioned in 1523 (Mton. Mss., p.359). On the Yateses' map the house is marked and named *Shurral Park*, and on the 1817 OS map it is *Shirell Lodge*. It can be identified as the former lodge of the park. Shaw said that this remained in 1798. It had been converted into a farm after disparking, and some additions had been made to the building by Mr. Fisher for his residence (Shaw 1798, ii, 9). The present building is a substantial brick farmhouse, probably of 17th or 18th century date.

ERDINGTON TOWNSHIP (fig. 367)

Erdington Hall SP 109900

The site is on Keuper Marl, close to the River Tame. It is now built-up.

Henry de Erdington, who probably lived on this site, is mentioned in 1302-3 (IPM). There

was a double moat (Dugdale 1730, 889). The original Hall within the moated area was

demolished in the 17th century (Saxton 1928, 9). A new building was constructed c.1650-

60, and demolished in 1912 (Arkinstall and Baird n.d., 2). Stone's photographs show that the

building was brick, with Dutch gables, a 17th century form. Earlier foundations were found

beneath the 17th century Hall when it was demolished (Anon 1925), confirming that it lay on

the site of an earlier building. The original Erdington Hall estate was bounded by Gravelly Hill

on the west, Kingsbury Road on the north, Bromford Lane on the west, and the River Tame

on the south (Saxton 1928, 9). The hamlets of Birches Green (above, p.119) and Bromford

(above, p.120) lie on the edge of this estate.

Moat House SP 115916

The site is on sand and gravel drift, and is now built-up.

Chattock (1884, 52) describes this and another moat nearby, and mentions that the adjoining

buildings had sandstone foundations, which he thought were derived from structures within

the moated enclosures. They are close to the hamlet of Moor End Green (above, p.201).

Pipe Hall SP 108907

The site is on Boulder Clay and sand and gravel drift, and is now built-up.

This was probably the site of the capital messuage held by de Pype family in Erdington in 1302

(FFW). The site was later occupied by Wood End house, built c.1600 and demolished in

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1932. A photograph of 1931 (Arkinstall and Baird n.d., 3) shows ornamental or eclectic framing of late 16th or early 17th century date in the gables, but the remainder of the facade is stuccoed. The site is inside the Erdington hall estate (above, p.281) and close to the hamlet of Birches Green (above, p.119).

Greenside Road SP 122922 (fig.92)

The site is on sand and gravel drift, and is now built up. It is east of the hamlet of Harbortree Green (above, p.200) and west of an area of unenclosed common waste on the Yateses' map.

The site was located during house construction in 1960, and excavated. The published report (Taylor 1973) is brief, imprecise, and lacks a plan. I have reconstructed a plan from the written description (fig.92). The excavated features were interpreted as an oval timber hut $c.15 \times 10$ ft ($c.4.5 \times 3$ m). It had a clay floor, a central post, and its walls were defined by a double row of postholes, the outermost larger than the inner. There was a gully outside one wall. The wall-line was cut by a 17th-century drainage ditch, and there was 'a small amount of late twelfth-century yellow-brown glazed pottery with indented decoration' on the clay floor. I have been unable to locate this pottery, but from the description it seems to be a form of my type 36 (above, p.75) dateable to the 12th to 16th centuries. It should be noted, however, that the only relative dating evidence for the structure is the *terminus ante quem* provided by the 17th century ditch. The medieval pottery was on, rather than in, the clay floor; it could have reached this position by worm action, since, judging from the written description, the clay floor lay immediately below the topsoil. If this were the case, the medieval pottery may provide a *terminus ante quem* for the abandonment of the structure.

The Lad in the Lane SP 113907

The site is on Keuper Marl, east of an areaa of sand and gravel drift. It is east of the hamlet of Birches Green (above, p.119) and on the edge of the Erdington Hall estate (above, p.242). The existing building is a 2-bay cruck hall with an added 16th century cross-wing (Pevsner and

Wedgwood 1966, 177; Alcock 1981, 157).

Pype Hayes Hall SP 131932

The Hall was built by Sir Hervey Bagot in the early 17th century (Saxton 1928, 21). It is timber-framed with an 18th century stuccoed facade (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 177). An adjacent brick barn contains a 17th century roof truss (Molyneux *et al.* 1977, 95). It is on the northern edge of Berwood Common (above, p.108). The site is on sand and gravel drift over Keuper Marl.

GREAT BARR TOWNSHIP (fig.37)

Hardwick Farm SP 077989

This has been identified as the site of the *Hardwick* mentioned in 1618 (W. Salt Lib. D634, A/30; Gould 1980, 51). There is however, nothing marked on the Yateses' map at this point. This site is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soil is an acid brown sand, and is grade 3s agricultural land.

Pheasey SP 0067958

A messuage and land here, including some arable, were held by Simon Vesey in 1559 (SHC 13, 1892, 235-6; Gould 1980, 51). Ridge and furrow in Doe Bank Wood, to the east (SP 066962) could be the remains of cultivation associated with Pheasey. The ridges are low, straight, and have a wavelength of up to 2.9m. These earthworks could alternatively be interpreted as the result of soil preparation before tree planting at Doe Bank (above, p.60).

The site of Pheasey is west of The Coldfield and close to the boundary with Perry Barr township. It is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soil is an acid brown sand, and is grade 3s agricultural land.

HINTS PARISH (fig.44)

Canwell Priory SK 147004

A Benedictine Priory was founded here c.1142 (Dodsworth and Dugdale 1682, 439-441). It was always a small establishment; there were rarely more than three monks, often only one, and none in 1456 following the prior's death. At its suppression in 1524 there was one monk besides the prior (Knowles and Hadcock 1971, 61; VCH S 3, 213-6).

The priory estate was an extra-parachial part of Hints parish (Shaw 1798, II, 22) and it is non-titheable land in the Hints Tithe Award of 1847. It was bounded on the north-west, south-west and south-east by the parish boundary. It adjoins Weeford Park (above, p.175) on the north-west, Middleton Heath (above, p.117) and Shirral Park (above, p.154) on the south-east, and Bassett's Heath (above, p.126) on the south. On the east the boundary is described in the foundation charter as the 'old ditch'; it is probably the bank and ditch running south-east from Three Parish Wood, forming part of the boundary of Bangley Park (above, p.149) in Drayton Bassett parish. Fieldwalking by J. Gould in the field centred on SK 152005, produced a flint scraper and a sherd of Roman pottery (Gould 1974).

The western part of the estate is on Red Marl, and the eastern is on Keuper Marl. The soils of the western part are sandy loam brown earths while those of the east are stagnogleyic clayey loams. The western half is grade 3s agricultural land, and the eastern is grade 3w.

LEA MARSTON PARISH (fig.39)

Blackgreaves Farm SP 197940 (fig.93)

Richard de Blachegrava and Roger de Blachegrave are mentioned in 1179 (Pipe Roll 25 Hen. II, 81) and Blackgreaves appears in undated but probably 14th-century deeds (Mton Mss, 627). On Snape's map of 1773 Blackgreaves Farm is separated from Lea hamlet by Lea

Common (above, p.116). It is between High Field to the south and 'old enclosures' to the north, and close to the parish boundary. The present house is 18th century red brick, with an earlier timber-framed gable (VCH W, IV, 114).

Fieldwalking around the present building (BG 81) produced small quantities of Roman and medieval pottery, suggesting manuring rather than occupation in both periods.

The site is on Keuper Marl, stagnogleyic argillic brown soils, and is grade 3w agricultural land.

Hams Hall SP 206023

The site is on the upper terrace of the River Tame. It is now built-up. Hams Hall is mentioned in 1663 (HTW), and is inside Hams Park (above, p.155).

Ouston Grange SP 208916

The site is on the Low Terrace of the River Tame, adjacent to the eastern edge of the Upper or Hams Hall Terrace, and the boundary of Hams Park (above, p.155). It is now built-up.

The foundation charter of the Cistercian Abbey of Merevale in 1148 included the manor of *Overton*, identified as Ouston (Dodsworth and Dugdale 1682, 830). The site was also known as *Ousthirne* or *Ousterne* (Dugdale 1656, 76 and Map of Hemlingford Hundred).

MIDDLETON PARISH (fig.40)

Middleton Hall SP 192981 (figs. 94, 95)

The site is near the edge of the gravel terrace of the River Tame, grade 3w agricultural land. There are stagnogleyic soils to the west, and groundwater gleys to the east. The southern part of the moated enclosure is occupied by buildings. The area to the west of the moat is mainly

arable land, and there is a gravel quarry to the east.

The site is inside Middleton Park (above, p.156; fig.58) which was created in 1247. It can probably be identified as the capital messuage of Philip Marmion in 1292 (IPM). Gover *et al.* (1936, 20) suggested that it was the residence of John atte Halle of Middleton, who is mentioned in 1327 and 1332 (LSRW).

At present the moat defines a rectangular platform $c.120 \text{m} \times 70 \text{m}$ (0.84 ha) (fig.94) but there was formerly another arm of the moat which divided the present platform into two. Anomalies in the present moat edges and the existence of buildings in the southern part of the platform only, suggest that the original moated enclosure was this southern part, measuring $c.70 \times 50 \text{oom}$ (0.35 ha). The former moat arm along the northern side of the buildings was filled in in the early 19th century; it had become insanitary because rubbish had been dumped into it (De Hamel 1902, 27). De Hamel also describes the only surviving portion of this moat, which is a brick-walled rectangular pit 35ft. wide and 5ft. deep. The filled in moat was located in my excavation to the east of this (MHM 81, trench 1) and shown to have been at least 10m wide and 2m deep.

The surviving buildings within the moated enclosure consist of four ranges around a central courtyard. The west and south ranges are brick-built and 18th century in date, but the north and east ranges contain timber-framed buildings and a stone-built room, all of which were partially recorded during the present study.

The stone room, (fig.95) has been interpreted as a chapel (De Hamel 1902) or a hall (VCHW, 4, 156), and has been suggested to be of 12th century date (*ibid.*). A detailed drawing of the interior elevations was made during the present study. The internal dimensions of the room are 8.1m north-south and 4.5m east-west, and it is walled with sandstone blocks. The walls are c.80cm thick at the base but are stepped in at a height of c.1.6m above present ground

level, to c.60cm around the whole interior. A recent drain trench cut through the building showed that its foundation consisted of three courses of sandstone ashlar below the present ground surface. It had a chamfered plinth, and rested on undisturbed gravel. The room is entered from the west through an arch c.1.20m wide and c.1.60m high, which extends up to the step in the wall, mentioned above. The arch has chamfered jambs and a 3-centred head. Opposite this, in the eastern wall, is an entrance gap c.1.10m wide, with straight edges and plain jambs. The opposing entrances have been taken to indicate the former presence of a cross-passage VCHW, 4, 156). In the western wall, south of the door, is a round-headed window, 46cm high and 18cm wide; this has been described as 'Norman' (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 355). The southern wall contains a niche with a shouldered lintel or 'Caernarvon arch'. This form was used for doorways from c.1250 onwards, for windows in northern England in the 14th century, and in fireplaces into the late 15th century (Wood 1965, 265, 339, 358). Above the step in the wall there are openings in all four walls. In the south, there is an arched opening c.2.40m high and c.1.20m wide, with a roll moulding on the jambs and arch. The western jamb includes some moulded pieces of red sandstone. This contrasts with the yellow-green sandstone used for the remainder of the standing building, and was possibly reused from an earlier structure, such as that represented by a wall of red sandstone in MHM 81 trench 3 (below, p.249). The west wall has a simple rectangular opening c.2.60m high and c.1.40m wide. It is not clear whether the openings in the north and east walls are original; the room was subsequently divided by partitions and a ceiling was inserted to make an upper floor (VCHW, 4, 156). The roof is arch-braced, with a heavilymoulded cornice at the base of the braces. The arch-braced form and the cornice style suggest a date of *c*.1300-1350.

A small excavation between the eastern wall of the stone room and the moat edge (MHM 81, trench 2) showed that the undisturbed gravel surface was overlain by a grey pebbly deposit containing a sherd of medieval pottery (type 36) and roof tiles in an orange fabric rested on its surface. The wall of the stone room overlay the grey deposit.

The north-east corner of the building complex is occupied by a 3-bay timber-framed building, with close-studding, probably of 15th century date. This was built up against another timber-framed building which extended across the present entrance to the courtyard. It is marked on the 1924 edition of the 1:2500 OS map, but has since been demolished. The only surviving fragments are a corner post and a fragment of wall-plate, both attached to the building just described, and 4 cusped braces, all of which were re-used elsewhere. Two of these, still pegged to their posts, support a porch canopy, and the other two support a drain-pipe cover above this. These braces have been dated to c.1400 (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 355) De Hamel (1902) interprets this building as the private chapel for which licence was granted in 1390-1; the architectural features would be consistent with construction then.

Of my excavations around the buildings in 1981, trenches 1 and 2, across the former moat arm and near the stone room respectively, have already been mentioned. Trench 3 extended from the southern range to the moat lip. The upper levels consisted of a gravel path with garden soil on either side; the path and garden are on photographs of 1893 in the Stone Collection (nos. 20 and 21). The garden soil contained 18th century and much residual medieval pottery. Between this and undisturbed gravel there was a layer of brown sandy, pebbly loam 16m thick in the north, rising to a thicknes of 50cm in the south. It was cut by the foundation trench of the brick wall of the southern range on the north and by the brick revetment wall of the moat on the south. The brown layer contained medieval pottery only. The lowest course of a wall composed of roughly-shaped blocks of red sandstone mortared together rested on, and was partly recessed into, the brown layer, and was overlain by the garden soils. This wall may belong to the earliest building phase after moat construction, in red sandstone, antedating a phase of building in yellow-green sandstone represented by the surviving stone room. The brown layer is discussed below.

Trench 4 was on the former garden terrace, between the western range and the moat edge. 24 to 38cm of garden soil overlay gravel, depressions in the surface of which may be the sites of

flower beds. There were flower beds here in 1893 (photography by J. H. Pickard, Stone Collection, no.20, BRL).

In summer 1981, a trench for a drain pipe was dug from the northern arm of the existing moat across to the buildings and through the courtyard. The part of the trench outside the courtyard, 70m long and 40-50cm wide, was observed while it was being dug, by hand, and the part inside the courtyard was excavated archaeologically, as a trench 21m long and 1m wide (MHM 81, trench 5). Undisturbed gravel was reached at a depth of c.40-50cm below the present ground level in the courtyard, and c.80cm outside it. It was overlain by a layer of brown sandy loam with pebbles, 20-30cm thick, both inside and outside the courtyard. This was very similar to the deposit found in the same stratigraphical position in trench 3 (above). It contained medieval pottery and a worked flint, and outside the courtyard it filled a ditch c.1.80m wide and at least 40cm deep. Other than the ditch, all features in trenches 3 and 5 were later than the brown layer. The depth of this layer and the even distribution of stones in it suggest that it may have been a cultivated soil which occupied the site before the construction of the moat and buildings.

The only other feature in trench 5 which was likely to be of medieval date was a small posthole lined with red sandstone rubble and containing medieval pottery. In the courtyard, red sandstone blocks were overlain by a brick wall, and there was a possible sandstone wall outside the courtyard. At the entrance to the courtyard and on the inner lip of the former moat the trench revealed the eastern edge of a massive foundation of mortared green sandstone rubble, c.2.7m long and at least 50cm thick, possibly a bridge abutment. Inside the courtyard another sandstone rubble foundation rested on it. The latter foundation was earlier than a series of brick and stone walls revealed in the courtyard, all of which postdated late 18th century pits.

North Wood SP 191960 (fig.96)

The site is on the edge of the gravel terrace of the River Tame. To the west there are

stagnogleys, grade 3w agricultural land, and to the east groundwater gleys, grade 3w land. It is near the parish boundary with Lea Marston and Kingsbury and the waste area of Bodymoor Heath (above, p.117). It is in the part of Middleton parish which did not belong to the Middleton estate on the map of 1865 (fig.40). The earthworks consist of two complete moated enclosures and one partial enclosure, and a partial external bank. The moated area itself is wooded. The only structural feature is a brick bridge connecting the two complete enclosures. The moat is surrounded by arable land. Fieldwalking here (MNW 1-8) produced a small quantity of medieval pottery and a single sherd of Roman mortarium. Crop marks have been recorded to the north-east (WA 00318) and south-east (WA 00319) of the moat but on further examination of the aerial photographs I suggest that they are periglacial features in the gravel. If it were occupied by a homestead, the moated site may have been abandoned in favour of Middleton House Farm 300m to the north-west, a brick house of 17th or 18th century date.

PERRY BARR TOWNSHIP (fig.41)

Booth's Farm SP 062939

The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soils are acid brown sands, and it is grade 3s agricultural land. It is now occupied by a sand and gravel quarry.

The building was recorded before its demolition in 1975 (Price 1977). It was a brick farmhouse, with one surviving timber roof truss of queen-post type. The high-gabled form of the building and the use of decorative brickwork are features well-represented in south Staffordshire farmhouses of late 17th and early 18th century date (*ibid.*, 3). Price suggested that the architectural features generally indicated a late 17th century date.

After demolition of the building, the site was excavated by G. Semmens (unpub.; pers. comm.) but recording was poor and the only surviving records are a plan, photographs and pottery. The plan and photographs show that there was evidence for an earlier building on the site, represented by sandstone wall footings and cobbled floors of quartite pebbles. A

photograph shows a charred beam, presumably part of the superstructure of this building, sealed between a cobble surface and the brick and tile floor of the later building. The stratigraphical position of the pottery was not recorded, but the horizontal position of some sherds is marked on the plan. Much of the pottery (Birmingham Museum) is of 17th century or later date and so can be associated with the occupation of the brick farmhouse, but there is also some medieval pottery. The size of the sherds of the latter suggests that it is derived from occupation on the site, rather than from manuring activity.

Kingstanding Lodge SP 0795953

The site is on sand and gravel drift. The soils are acid brown sands, and it is grade 3s agricultural land. It is now built-up. It lies within The Coldfield (above, p.117). A building is marked on the Yateses' map at this site, and is named *Warren House*. A photograph of 1921 shows that *Kingstanding Lodge* was then a brick-built cottage (Fox and Sons 1921, 42). This building was demolished when the area was bought by Birmingham Corporation for residential development in 1930 (*Birmingham Post* 10.3.1930). It can be identified, from its inclusion on the Yateses' map and its architecture, as one of the two houses built on Kingstanding Warren in 1780 (Crook 1968, 4).

Warren Farm SP 082935

The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds, with small patches of sand and gravel drift around it. The soils are acid brown sands, and it is grade 3s land. It is within The Coldfield (above, p.117).

A building is marked here on the Yateses' maps and named Lodge. On the 1817 OS map it is The Lodge and on the 1st edition of the OS one inch to one mile map it is The Lodge or Warren House. A photograph of the building, then known as Warren Farm, in 1921 (Fox and Sons 1921, lot 48), shows that it was brick-built with stone dressings and Dutch gables, a type dateable to the late 17th century (above, p.58). It was demolished in the 1930s. In 1680 'Coney Warren on Sutton Coldfield Heath' was leased out (Gough Mss., Birm. Ref. Lib.

no.125). The 'Coney Warren' may be Warren Farm itself, but alternatively the lease may have been of the rabbit warren rather than a building, and Warren Farm could have been built as a result of the lease.

SHENSTONE PARISH (fig.42)

Shenstone Park SK 119035 (fig.62)

The moated site is in the north of Shenstone Park (above, p.160). It is on the edge of an outcrop of Keuper Sandstone, adjacent to the gravel terrace of the Bourne Brook, and on the eastern edge of an area of grade 2s agricultural land. The moat platform is wooded, but it is surrounded by arable land.

Construction of the moated site may have been associated with the creation of the park in 1235; Larkham (1984, 47) suggests it was the site of a hunting lodge. On the 2nd edition of the OS 1:10560 map, Staffs LV111 SE, 1903, the moat is marked as 'Fish Pond'. This could represent a secondary use of the moat after the site was abandoned as a homestead and replaced by the existing brick house, known as Shenstone Park, 100m to the north-west. The latter was probably built when Shenstone Park was divided in 1640; the house is mentioned in 1666 (HTS, p.150), when it was owned by Thomas Ward and contained six hearths. The neat rectangular plan of the moat, however, may indicate that it is a post-medieval construction, contemporary with the existing house, to serve as a fish-pond and possibly a game cover. Alternatively a medieval moat may have been modified for use as a fish pond after the homestead was replaced by Shenstone Park house.

The arable around the moat (SHP 80, 1, 2, 3; 81, 10) was walked. This produced Roman and medieval pottery, and some worked flint (figs. 19, 27). The Roman pottery included unworn mortarium rims of 2nd to 4th century date, suggesting occupation on the site in this period, and was concentrated in the area to the east of the moat, at the top of the slope. The average sherd

weight of the medieval pottery suggested occupation.

Little Aston Hall SK 088005

The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds, grade 3s agricultural land. It is inside Little Aston Park (above, p.160) and to the south of Little Aston hamlet (above, p.207). The original building was of 18th century date (Pevsner 1974, 196); it was probably constructed at the same time as the creation of Little Aston Park.

SUTTON COLDFIELD PARISH (fig.43)

Four Oaks Hall SP 110980 (fig.64)

The site is on Boulder Clay, probably grade 3 agricultural land, and is now built-up. It is on the edge of Four Oaks Park (above, p.162). The Hall was built on land inherited in 1696 (Tyack 1970, 292).

Hurst Green SP 159929 (fig.111)

The site is on Keuper Marl, near the gravel terrace of the Hurst Brook, grade 3w agricultural land. It is near the parish boundary with Curdworth.

Hurst Green, Walmley, was listed as a moat by Ford (n.d.), but he may have confused it with a moated site at Hurst Green in *Warley* (SO 986860; OSR, SO 98 NE 3). On the Sutton Coldfield Corn Rent Map of 1825 there are field names containing a 'moat' element north of the point where Hurst Brook is crossed by Wishaw Lane. These are *Moat Piece* (centre SP 158929). *Moat Meadow* (159930) and *Little Moat Meadow* (160931). All these are at some distance from the nearest known moat, at Peddimore Hall (below, p.258) and suggest that there was a moat adjacent to Hurst Brook. Both the Corn Rent Map and the OS 1:10560 map (Warks IX NW, 2nd ed. 1904) show an irregularly-shaped pond *c*.45m across on the western site of Hurst Brook (SP 159929), possibly the remains of a moat. There is now no trace of

this feature. 'The close of Symon of Bereford below *Hynstesbrok* on the western side' is mentioned in 1241-2 (Mason 1980, 172). *Hyntesbrok* may be *Hurstbrook*, and the reference could therefore be to occupation in this area, possibly on the site of the moat. The moated homestead could have been abandoned in favour of the exiting Hurst Green Farm 200m to the south-west. The earliest surviving feature here is a timber-framed brick barn of 17th or 18th century date.

Langley Hall SP 151955 (fig.97)

The site is on Keuper Marl, north of an area of Boulder Clay, and is grade 3s or 3w agricultural land. It is near the parish boundary and on the northern edge of Langley Heath, part of the waste east of Sutton Coldfield (above, p.120), and a possible park (above, p.163). Part of the moat has now been filled in, the platform is occupied by a modern house and its garden, and it is surrounded by arable land.

Assarts were made near *Langeley* by Walter de Bereford before 3 November 1240 (Mason 1980, 171, no.301; below, p.298) and in 1253 he granted his son Walter 50 acres of land here (Dugdale 1730, 924). There was a house here by 7 October 1327, when a licence was granted for the crenellation of the dwelling house of the manor of *Langele* (Ch.R).

A single sherd of medieval pottery was found on the surface of the present garden (LHM 81, 3). The fields to the north (LHM 80, 1, 2) produced a few sherds of medieval pottery, but to the west and south-east, possibly within the area of the park, only post-medieval pottery was found, together with a worked flint (LHM 81, 4, 5).

Moor Hall SP 129983 (fig.63)

The site is on Boulder Clay. It is close to the Old Farm (below) and inside Moor Hall Park (above, p.163). The first hall on the site was built in the 16th century by John Vesey, Bishop of Exeter (Dugdale 1730, 914; Bracken 1860, 61).

Moor Hall Old Farm SP 132948 (fig.63)

The site is on Keuper Sandstone. It is occupied by the house and its garden, and the surrounding area is built-up.

This was probably the site of the residence of Roger Harewell of *Morehall* in the country of Warwick, mentioned in 1434 (Pat.R.), and it traditionally was the birthplace of John Vesey, later Bishop of Exeter, near the end of the 15th century (Bracken 1860, 57). The present building, a sandstone structure, contains several uncusped two-light windows of a type dateable to c.1520-30 (Pevsner and Wedgwood 1966, 429). It is thought to have served as a model for the stone houses built by Bishop Vesey around Sutton Coldfield following the Royal Charter of 1528 (Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 9; above, p.121; below, p.259). Bracken (1869, 57) mentions that the building was also known as *Moat House*. Possible traces of a moat were noted in field observation. These consist of a shallow linear depression in the near garden, north-west of and parallel to the wall of the house, and in line with the fence line on this side, and a ditch along the north-east edge of the front garden.

New Hall SP 132948 (fig.98)

The site is on Keuper Marl and alluvium along Plants Brook. The soil is a stagnogleyic brown earth, and it is grade 4w agricultural land because of poor drainage. The moated enclosure is occupied by New Hall and its garden. Land to the north, west and east is agricultural, and to the south there are terraced gardens, which had been 'recently laid out' in 1871 (Everitt 1871, 4).

New Hall is first mentioned c.1327. It was granted to Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, in 1339 (Dugdale 1656, 675; 1730, 923). The present New Hall contains no medieval architectural features, but may contain reused medieval masonry (VCH W, 4, 231-232). Baker (1908, 246) notes that it is set in a 'picturesque park'. The boundary of the estate may be

represented by an earthwork consisting of a bank with a ditch to the east, which runs alongside Walmley Road, through woods in the south and the gardens of houses in the north. The land to the east of the earthwork was unenclosed common waste in the 18th century (above, p.120) thus the function of the earthwork may have been to exclude livestock grazing on the common from the estate. An area just inside the boundary was walked (NH 81) but there were no finds.

New Shipton Farm SP 135942

The site is on Boulder Clay and Keuper Marl, grade 3s agricultural land. On the Yateses' map it is marked as *New Shilton*, and it is on the western edge of the waste east of the town of Sutton Coldfield (above, p.120). The name is first recorded in 1472, as *Shippton* (Gover *et al.* 1936, 52); the significance of this name has been discussed above (p.122). The present brick farmhouse has been dated to the late 17th century (VCH W, 4, 231). It is accompanied by a four-bay cruck-framed barn on sandstone footings (Alcock 1981, 157). As noted above (p.56), this structure could have been built as late as the 16th century if it was originally constructed as a barn.

Over Green SP 167943 (fig.87)

The site is on Keuper Marl, and is grade 3w agricultural land, west of an area of grade 2 land. It is in the hamlet of Over Green (above, p.216) just inside Sutton Coldfield parish. Three sides of a rectangular moat survive, and enclose a house, Hermitage Farm, and its garden.

Hermitage Farm is brick-built, on a sandstone plinth, with internal timbering, and is probably of late 17th century date. Nothing was found on the garden surface, but the field to the west (HM 80) produced a quantity of medieval pottery and a single sherd of Roman mortarium. The average sherd weight of the medieval pottery suggested occupation. The eastern arm of the moat is filled with sandstone rubble, (pers. comm., present resident), probably from an earlier building on the site.

Peddimore Hall SP 153936 (fig.99)

The site is on Keuper Marl. The soil is a stagnogley and it is grade 3w agricultural land. A double moat encloses a rectangular area containing Peddimore Hall and its garden. The site is now surrounded by agricultural land.

Peddimore was a manor in 1281, and a chapel here was licensed for divine service in 1360 (Dugdale 1730, 923). The site is close to an area of assarts mentioned in 1240 (Mason 1980, 171-172, no.301; below, p.298). The owners of Peddimore Hall were themselves allowed by the Earl of Warwick to enclose and improve waste in 1288; they had already made 4.1/2 acres of waste into arable (Dugdale 1730, 924). Another area of assarting may be that betwen Peddimore Lane and Walmley Ash Lane, where the field pattern on the 1825 map sugests piecemeal enclosure (fig.111).

The present Peddimore Hall is a two-storey double-pile building, in brick with standstone dressings. It is of late 17th century type and has been dated to c.1660-70 (Molyneux $et\ al.$ 1977, 95). It was certainly constructed after 1656 since the moated enclosure was then empty (Dugdale 1656, 674). The farm buildings outside the moat include a square-framed timbered barn, probably contemporary with the existing Hall, and brick buildings on sandstone footings. The sandstone may be derived from an earlier building on the moat platform, since Bracken (1860, 105) records that foundations were traceable below the surface of the platform, and worked masonry has been observed on the platform to the south-east of the Hall (OSR).

Ridge and furrow was recorded in the field to the north of the moat in 1972 (A. Saville, pers. comm.) and to the west and north-east by Spolton (1977) but in neither case were its form or dimensions recorded. The field to the north is now arable and the ridge and furrow is no longer visible, but that to the west and north-east survives. That to the west (SP 1549382) consists of curving ridges with a wavelength of 7 to 8m, and to the north-east (154939) there are straight ridges with a wavelength of c.3m. The former could be of medieval date, the latter post-medieval (above, p.61).

Arable land to the north, west and east was walked (PH 80, 2, 3; 81, 4, 5), but no medieval pottery was found. Possibly, as at other moats, rubbish was thrown into the moat rather than onto a dungheap and subsequently onto the fields, particularly if, as now, the agricultural buildings, together with a dungheap, were outside the moated area. The surface of the garden on the south-eastern half of the moat platform was examined (PH 81, 6) and one sherd of medieval pottery was found, together with pottery of 17th century and later date which can be associated with the occupation of the existing Hall.

Pool Hall SP 176941 (fig.87)

An L-shaped pond south of the present Pool Hall, and a pool to its north-west, may be the remains of a moat. Pool Hall is mentioned in 1581 (Gover et. al. 1936, 51). The site is on the southern side of the hamlet of Over Green (above, 216) and close to the moated site at Hermitage Farm (above, p.257). The parish boundary runs along the road on the eastern side of the site.

Isolated Vesey cottages

The architectural features of these houses have been described above (p.57). Some of them are in hamlets; the isolated examples are all on the edge of waste areas east of Sutton Coldfield (above, p.120) and Hill Common (above, p.122) with the exception of High Heath (SP 144977; Chatwin and Harcourt 1946, 13) which lies within the eastern waste.

Walmley Ash SP 146930 (fig.84)

The site was previously unrecorded. It is in the hamlet of Walmley Ash (above, p.210) close to the parish boundary with Curdworth. It is on Keuper Marl, but observation of a contractors trench showed that this was covered by a pebbly, sandy drift deposit up to 40cm thick. The soil is a stagnogley, and it is grade 3w agricultural land.

The moat is C-shaped, open on the Walmley Ash Road side. Its eastern arm may have been

enlarged by later marl digging. If the present Walmley Ash Road marks the limit of the moated enclosure then the enclosed area is only c.0.12 ha. Dressed sandstone blocks, apparently reused as part of a field gate base, were observed on the outer lip of the moat, and may have been derived from buildings on the moat platform. The moat platform is now grassed, and no features are visible on it.

The site may have been the dwelling of Geoffrey de Warmeley, who was involved in a land transaction in Sutton Coldfield in 1231 (FFW), and was making assarts in the vicinity of Peddimore Hall in 1240 (below, p.280).

WEEFORD PARISH (fig.44)

Blackbrook Farmhouse SK 135035

The site is on Bunter Pebble Beds. The soil is an acid brown sand, and it is grade 3s agricultural land. It is adjacent to the Bourne Brook, on the northern edge of the study area, and north of Weeford Hills (above, p.124). The existing house is a brick-built structure of double-pile plan. It is of early Georgian date, and was the birthplace of James Wyatt in 1746 (Pevsner 1974, 300).

WISHAW PARISH (fig.45)

Grounds Farm SP 165955 (fig.86)

The site is on Keuper Marl. The soil is a stagnogley and it is grade 3w agricultural land. It is north of the hamlet of Grove End (above, p.214) and near the parish boundary with Sutton Coldfield.

Grounds Farm is marked on the Yateses' map but not named, and is *The Grounds* on the 1817 OS map. A field to the south-west of the farmhouse was walked (GF 81), in very good

retrieval conditions. The upper part of the field, nearest the farmhouse, is relatively level; the remainder slopes down to a small stream on the field's southern edge. There was a small scatter of worked flint across the whole field. The upper part (GF 81, 1) produced a small quantity of Roman pottery, including two hammerhead mortarium rims dateable to the 3rd or 4th centuries. The concentration in this area may be due to deeper plough penetration at the top of the slope (above, p.25), thus the occupation with which the pottery may be associated is not necessarily on or near the site of the present farmhouse. There was only a single sherd of medieval pottery.

Moxhull Hall SP 181952 (fig.71)

The site is on the northern edge of an area of sand and gravel drift over Keuper Marl, and is grade 3w agricultural land, north of an area of grade 2 land. The existing house, The Belfry Hotel, is inside the former Moxhull Park (above, p.177) which is now occupied by a golf course.

A long pool on the south-eastern side of the Hall is marked on the 1857 Wishaw Enclosure Map, and this has been interpreted as a fragment of a former moat (WA 00055). The Hall may be on the site of the messuage in Moxhull mentioned in 1326 (IPM). Bracken (1860, 148) suggested that the original Hall was built in the 14th century, but gives no references to support this.

Wishaw Hall Farm SP 173954 (fig. 100)

The site is on Keuper Marl, and is grade 3w agricultural land, near the northern edge of an area of grade 2 land. Part of the site is now permanent grass, the rest is arable land.

The earthworks on this site were levelled in 1972, by first scraping off the topsoil, levelling the subsoil, and then replacing topsoil (W. Lowe, pers. comm.). Fortunately a plan of the earthworks had been made in 1969 by C. J. Bond (unpub.; pers. com.). The most prominent

feature was a L-shaped ditch in the northern corner of the field, which had a raised platform inside its angle. The remaining features were smaller ditches which crossed at right angles to form a series of rectangular enclosures. Bond interpreted the L-shaped ditch as a fishpond and the smaller ditches as associated leats (pers. comm.). The L-shaped ditch could also be interepreted as a partial moat enclosing an occupation area. In its present form it is similar to the earthwork at Humberstone, Leicestershire, where a medieval occupation area was bounded on two sides by an L-shaped ditch interpreted as a fish pond (Rahtz 1959). The rectangular enclosures formed by the smaller ditches could have contained houses.

The area of the L-shaped ditch was walked in a random manner after levelling. Some dressed sandstone rubble suggested possible structures, and a single sherd of medieval pottery was found (WH 72). The original field has subsequently been divided. The western part is now permanent pasture, but the eastern part is anable and was walked systematically (WH 80; 81). A number of worked flints of Mesolithic type were found, and the site of a possible burnt mound was indicated by a concentration of heat-cracked stones in the ploughsoil near the northern edge of the field. There was a small quantity of Roman pottery of 3rd or 4th century date. Medieval pottery was found all over the field, but was concentrated in two areas. On the site of the L-shaped ditch (WH 80, 1, 2) average sherd weights suggested occupation. A dwelling here may have been abandoned in favour of a new site at Wishaw Hall Farm, c.100m to the north-west. Average sherd weights in all the zones in the remainder of the field (WH 80, 4; 81, 5-7) suggested occupation but the greatest concentration of pottery and the highest average sherd weight was in zone 7, in the south-west of the field, suggesting that the ditched enclosures here did contain dwellings, probably part of the hamlet of Lower Green (above, p.215). Zone 7 is bounded on the south by a field path which leads to Wishaw parish church; it is marked as a road on the Yateses' map.

MOATED SITES AND ISOLATED SITES: DISCUSSION

The features considered here are the chronology of both moated sites and non-moated sites in Sutton Chase, and their location in relation to physical regions, and waste, parks and hamlets.

Prehistoric artifacts were found at Shenstone Park, in the park surrounding Middleton Hall and at Wishaw Hall Farm. There was a burnt mound adjacent to Middleton Hall, and a possible example at Wishaw Hall Farm. The quantity and condition of the sherds of pottery found suggest Roman occupation near the site of the moat at Shenstone Park. Manuring of arable or improved pasture during this period is indicated by several sherds from each of Grounds Farm, Blackgreaves Farm and Wishaw Hall Farm, and possibly by the single sherds of Roman pottery from Canwell, Middleton North Wood, Middleton Park, and Over Green. There is no archaeological or documentary evidence for Saxon settlement at any of the sites, but at Moat Close there was evidence of medieval occupation preceeding the construction of the moat.

There is no evidence that any of the sites were constructed over ridge-and-furrow, but at Middleton Hall the brown soil underlying all the structures found in excavation may be a medieval ploughsoil, and the ditch sealed by it could be interpreted as a former field boundary. Documentary evidence indicates occupation between the 12th and 15th centuries at Berwood, Blackgreaves Farm, Ouston, Canwell, Shenstone, Walmley Ash, Dunton, Erdington Hall, Pipe Hall, the Lad in the Lane, New Hall, Moxhull Hall, Moor Hall Old Farm, and New Shipton. There is archaeological evidence for medieval occupation at Moat Close, Greenside Road, Booths Farm, Over Green and Wishaw Hall Farm.

The remaining sites may be post-medieval developments. Pheasey was occupied by the 16th century, Hardwick by the 17th, and Blackbrook by the 18th. The Vesey cottages were built in the 16th century, and Warren Farm and Kingstanding Lodge were established in the 17th and 18th centuries respectively. Grounds Farm may also have been a post-medieval foundation,

since although Roman pottery was found there was no medieval pottery. The country seats were founded from the 16th to the 18th centuries, Drayton Manor, Shirrall Hall, and Moor Hall in the 16th, Four Oaks and Pype Hayes in the 17th, and Little Aston in the 18th. There is also evidence for the abandonment of medieval moated sites in the post-medieval period, resulting in the construction of new dwellings nearby, often in drier and more accessible locations. This occurred, in the 17th and 18th centuries, at Shenstone Park, Hurst Green, Wishaw Hall Farm, and North Wood. In Drayton Bassett, the manorial site was moved from Moat Close to Drayton Manor, away from the village, by the 16th century.

Three chronological groups may therefore be defined, those sites with evidence for premedieval occupation, those for which a medieval origin seems likely, and those which are not occupied until the post-medieval period. As in the study of hamlets, this chronology is limited by the type of evidence available, but can nevertheless be used as the basis for a consideration of the origins and distribution of the sites.

The sites with evidence of Roman activity are on Keuper Sandstone (Shenstone), Keuper Marl (Blackgreaves Farm, Grounds Farm, Wishaw Hall Farm and Over Green) and river terraces (Middleton Hall and North Wood). Of these, Shenstone, Over Green and Wishaw Hall Farm are on or near areas classified as grade 2 agricultural land. All 12 of the sites on Keuper Marl have produced evidence for medieval occupation; eight of these are moated. 7 sites are on sand and gravel drift, four of them moated. Booth's Farm is on Bunter Pebble Beds, Shenstone is on Keuper Sandstone, Moat Close is on Boulder Clay, and Middleton Hall and North Wood are on terrace gravels. The medieval sites at Moor Hall Old Farm and Dunton Hall, and the probable moated sites at Moxhull Hall and Pool Hall, are on or near grade 2 agricultural land, together with those sites listed above where evidence of Roman activity has been found. Of the post-medieval sites, Blackbrook, Hardwick, Pheasey, Warren Farm and Little Aston Hall are on Bunter Pebble Beds, Kingstanding Lodge and Pype Hayes Hall are on sand and gravel drift, Drayton Manor, Moor Hall and Four Oaks Hall are on Boulder Clay.

Hams Hall is on terrace gravels, and the isolated Vesey cottages are on Red Marl, sand and gravel drift and Boulder Clay. All of the sites of post-medieval date are on grade 3 agricultural land with the exception of Shirrall Hall (partly grade 2).

Some of the medieval sites are known to be associated with assarting, and are therefore likely to be new settlements on the site in that period. These are Dunton, Peddimore, Langley, and the holdings of religious houses at Ouston and Canwell. At Berwood, although assarting followed the acquisition of the site by Leicester Abbey, there was already a settlement at the time of acquisition. Most of the post-medieval sites had specialised functions; only Hardwick, Pheasey and Blackbrook were simply farmsteads. The Vesey cottages were associated with industry, Kingstanding Lodge and Warren Farm with rabbit warrens, and there were six country seats.

Only three of the moated medieval sites, Curdworth Hall Farm and Moat Close, Drayton Bassett, are actually in the main village nuclei, and in each case the site is the only moat in the parish. Four are in hamlet settlements, Over Green, Pool Hall, Walmley Ash and Wishaw Hall Farm. In Erdington, both moated and non-moated sites of medieval origin occupy the same part of the parish as the hamlets of medieval date, east of the eponymous settlement. In Middleton the two moated sites are in the east of the parish, whereas the hamlets are in the south-west, but some of the settlements defined as 'hamlets' in this study may have been individual homesteads in the medieval period. Several sites, both moated and non-moated, are on the edge of their parish, and North Wood, Middleton, occupies a separate estate in a corner of its parish.

Two of the moated sites, Shenstone and Middleton Hall, are inside medieval parks, but in Sutton Chase as a whole the distribution of moats is complementary to that of medieval parks, as noted by Roberts (1978, 64) in the Forest of Arden area. There are parks on three sides of the Canwell Priory estate. The country seats at Moor Hall, Little Aston, and Four Oaks are

each inside a small park. Drayton Manor is inside an early medieval park, and Shirrall Hall is inside a later medieval park.

Five medieval sites, Langley Hall, North Wood, Canwell Priory, and New Shipton, are close to the edge of areas which are unenclosed common waste on the Yateses' map. Four post-medieval sites are actually within the 18th century waste areas, Hardwick, Kingstanding Lodge, Warren Farm, and the Vesey cottage at High Heath; Pheasey, Blackbrook, Pype Hayes, Moor Hall and the other Vesey cottages are close to the edge of the waste. All the Vesey cottages were probably built on what was waste land at that time, and Pype Hayes Hall and Moor Hall are associated with the post-medieval enclosure of waste land.

To summarise, little can be said about prehistoric and Roman activity on the sites of later individual homesteads. It is impossible to prove continuity of activity from the Roman period to the Middle Ages because of the lack of Anglo-Saxon artifacts, particularly pottery. At Shenstone the juxtaposition of a Roman occupation site may be purely coincidental; the same area of grade 2 agricultural land could have been chosen independently at two different times. At Wharram Percy, where the medieval manor houses overlie Romano-British farmsteads, but there is little evidence for occupation in the early and middle Saxon periods, it has been suggested that the builders of the medieval manor houses used two suitably-sized existing enclosures of Roman date (Welch 1982, 229); this could have been the case at Shenstone. Smaller amounts of Roman pottery from other sites in Sutton Chase suggest that, even if there was no occupation, the land was manured and was therefore either arable or improved pasture, but this could have been abandoned and reverted to heath or woodland before the reestablishment of settlement in the Middle Ages.

The majority of the sites appear to be of medieval origin, and several are associated with assarting, the improvement of land that was previously waste used as rough pasture and a source of wood. Middleton Hall is the only site which may have been established on land cultivated in the Middlé Ages. Some of the moated sites are associated with hamlets, and the

moated sites are, like the hamlets, mainly in the central and southern parts of Sutton Chase. Some of them are exploiting areas of grade 2 agricultural land. This distribution is complementary to that of the early medieval parks, which represent a specialised use of waste by manorial lords.

The post-medieval sites are more widely distributed; some of them are on The Coldfield in the west and south-west of the study area, and are mainly on grade 3 agricultural land. They include farmsteads, country houses and sites with specialised, non-agricultural, functions. In the latter case the agricultural potential of the site is obviously not important, since the position is determined by other factors.

MOATS AND ISOLATED SITES: Chance Finds, Fieldwalking and Excavation Finds

* Illustrated

CURDWORTH: Curdworth Hall Farm

Fieldwalking

CH 81. 8/9/81; SP 183930; pebbly sandy loam, damp; harrowed; dull; 1 ha

Flint: blade, grey, 16x9mm

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form, 1 body

DRAYTON BASSETT: Moat Close

Fieldwalking

MC 81. 20/1/81; SK 192002; gravelly loam; damp; ploughed; dull, hazy sun

1. 700m²

Flint: blade, mottled grey, 24x10mm; chip, grey

Pottery: type 23, 1 rim; type 25, 1 base; type 29, 2 body; type 34, 5 rim*, 3 base, 17 body; type 36, 11 rim form 1, 6 rim form 2, 3 rim form 3, 3 rim form 5*, 8 base form 1*, 23 base form 2, 5 handle form 1*, 1 handle form 2, 224 body; type 39, 1 rim*

$2. 560m^2$

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 1 body; type 34, 1 base; type 36, 5 body

$3. 850m^2$

Pottery: type 34, 1 rim*; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 2 handles form 1, 8 body; type 40, 3 body

$4. 800m^2$

Pottery: type 34, 3 rim*, 1 body; type 36, 3 rim form 1, 3 rim form 2, 1 rim form 5, 1 base form 1, 2 base form 2, 1 handle form 2, 33 body; type 39, 1 body; type 40, 8 body

5. 610m²

Pottery: type 22, 1 base, type 36, 1 rim form 2, 1 base form 2, 2 body; type 41, 1 body

6. $1000m^2$

Flint: flake, red

Pottery: type 34, 1 rim, 1 body, 1 base; type 36, 4 body

Excavation (1987-88)

Large quantities of medieval pottery

ERDINGTON: Greenside Road

Excavation

'Small amount' of medieval pottery (Taylor 1973)

HINTS: Canwell

Fieldwalking

SK 152003: Flint scraper, sherd of Roman pottery, stone spindle whorl, iron axehead (Gould 1974)

LEA MARSTON: Blackgreaves Farm

Fieldwalking

BG 81 28/11/81; SP 197940; sandy, pebbly, over clay, damp; ploughed; sunny.

1. O.75 ha

Pottery: type 4, 1 body, with rouletting; type 7, 1 rim*, 1 body; type 8, 1 body; type 9, 1 rim*, type 26, 1 body; type 36, 1 body.

2. 0.2 ha

No finds

3. 0.75 ha

Pottery: type 21, 1 body

MIDDLETON: Middleton Hall

Excavation

MHM 81 (pottery only)

Pottery: types 15, 16, 17, 18, 21, 23, 36*, 40, 41

MIDDLETON: North Wood

Chance Find

MNW 80: Pottery type 16, 1 rim*

Fieldwalking

MNW 80. SP 191959; pebbly clay loam with flint frags; drilled, harrowed

1. 1/10/80; 1 ha

Flint: 2 chips, brown, ? natural

Pottery: type 7, 1 body; type 36, 1 handle form 1, 1 body

2. 1/10/80; as 1 but more clayey; 2 ha

Pottery: type 15, 1 rim; type 36, 4 body

3. 5/10/80; as 2, 0.5 ha

No finds

4. As 3; 0.5 ha

Flint: chip, brown; flake, brown

5. As 4, but very humic; 0.6 ha

No finds

6. As 5; 0.2 ha

No finds

7. As 6; 1.7 ha

Pottery: type 36, 1 body

MNW 81

8. 21/9/81; ploughed, damp; sunny

Flint: gunflint, dark grey, retouched on all sides, 32x25x6mm*

PERRY BARR: Booth's Farm

Excavation

BF. 75

Pottery: types 15*, 16, 18, 34, 36*.

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Langley Hall

Fieldwalking and Garden

LHM 80. 8/10/80; pebbly sandy clay; damp, dry; ploughed; sunny, dull.

1. SP 151956: 0.3 ha

Pottery: type 27, 1 rim; type 21, 1 body; type 36, 1 body

2. SP 150956: O.5 ha

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 2, 1 base form 1

LHM 81

3. 21/5/81; garden

Pottery: type 36, 1 body

4. 16/9/81; SP 150954; NE dark loam, SW orange sandy loam, damp; stubble; sunny,

dull; 1 ha

Flint: flake, serrated edge*

Pottery: type 15, 1 body

5. As 4; SP 152954; orange sandy loam, dry; 2 ha

No finds

SUTTON COLDFIELD: New Hall

Fieldwalking

NH 81 18/1/81; SP 176952; sandy, pebbly, damp; ploughed; hazy sun, dull; 2 ha No finds

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Over Green

Fieldwalking

HM 80.7/10/80; SP 166943; pebbly sandy clay, damp; drilled; dull, sunny; 1 ha
Pottery: type 7, 1 rim, type 15, 1 body; type 30, 1 body; type 34, 1 base; type 36, 1 rim
form 1*, 23 body

SUTTON COLDFIELD: Peddimore Hall

Chance Find

PH 80.1. SP 154940: Pottery, type 36, 1 body

Fieldwalking and Garden

PH 80

- 2. 21/5/80; SP 153939; pebbly clay, dry; ridged; dull, sunny Pottery: type 15, 1 rim, 1 body; type 24, 1 base
- 3. 23/11/80; SP 151935; sandy clay, pebbly, damp; ploughed; dull; 1-5 ha No finds

PH 81

- 4. 21/1/81; SP 154936; pebbly clay, damp; ploughed; dull; 0.75 ha
- No finds
- 5. 14/2/81; SP 152928; sandy pebbly clay, damp; ploughed; sunny; 12.25 ha Pottery: type 25, 1 rim*
- 6. 30/4/81; garden
 - Pottery: type 15, 1 body; type 18, 1 base*; type 34, 1 base

WISHAW: Grounds Farm

Fieldwalking

GF 81. 17/9/81; SP 164954; clayey loam, damp; harrowed; dull

1. 0.75 ha

Flint: ? microburin, grey mottled; chip, grey-brown

Pottery: type 4, 2 body, one with rouletting; type 5, 1 rim*, type 6, 1 body; type 7, 2 rim*, 1 body; type 9, 1 body; type 34, 1 base

2. 2.25 ha

Flint: serrated blade, grey-brown, 40x13mm*;

blade, grey-brown, 30x15mm; chip, grey-brown; chip, mottled grey

Pottery: type 9, 1 rim*, 2 body; type 24, 1 rim

WISHAW: Wishaw Hall Farm

Chance Find

WH 72 Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 1.

Fieldwalking

WH 80

1. 19/10/80; SP 174953; clay loam, damp; drilled; dull; 0.35 ha.

Flint: patinated core; flake, brown; flake, brown

Pottery: type 7, 1 base; type 19, 1 body; type 22, 1 body; type 28, 1 body; type 34, 1 base, 2 body; type 36, 1 rim form 2, 2 base form 2, 11 body

2. 20/10/80; as 1. 2 and 3, 1.5 ha

Flint: blade, brown, 17x11mm, blade, brown, patinated; 25x13mm; blade, brown, 31x16mm; flake, grey-brown; flake, dark grey

Pottery: type 7, 1 body; type 34, 1 rim, 1 base; type 36, 5 body

3. As 2

Flint: blade, brown, 37x18mm; blade, dark grey, 39x13mm; chip, grey

Pottery: type 4, 1 body; type 22, 1 body; type 31, 1 rim*, type 36, 3 body

4. As 3

Flint: flake, brown

Pottery: type 36, 1 rim form 1

WH 81

5. 24/9/81; SP 174952; damp; ploughed; dull; 1 ha

Flint: ? core, mottled grey; flake, grey; flake, brown

Pottery: type 7, 1 rim*, 1 body; type 23, 1 body; type 34, 1 body; type 36, 7 body

6. 22/10/81; SP 174951; damp; harrowed; dull; 1 ha

Flint: gunflint, light grey with some cortex, 38x32mm*

Pottery: type 22, 3 body; type 36, 1 base form 2, 2 body; type 38, 1 rim*

7. 22/10/81; SP 173951; damp; harrowed; dull; 2 ha

Flint: scraper, brown*; blade, brown, 36x21mm; flake, brown; flake, dark grey, 25x19mm; ? irregular core, dark grey; flake, light brown, ? patinated; flake, grey, ? patinated.

Pottery: type 13, 1 base; type 19, 1 body; type 22, 1 rim; type 24, 1 body; type 32, 1 handle*; type 34, 1 rim, 3 base, 1 body; type 36, 1 rim form 1, 3 rim form 2, 1 rim for 4, 1 handle form 1, 2 base form 2, 14 body.

PART THREE

Discussion

ASSESSMENT OF METHODS USED

Archaeological methods

With the exception of the study of standing buildings, present land use determines which archaeological methods can be employed and therefore the type of archaeological evidence available. In residential built-up areas, garden surfaces can be observed, and chance finds may have been made in gardens. Earthworks may also be preserved in gardens, such as at New Hall (p.256) and Luttrell Road (p.170). The only archaeological evidence from areas built-up for industrial purposes is likely to consist of chance finds made during construction works. Areas that are not built-up may be woodland, heath, grass, or arable land. Earthworks are preserved in woods, heath and grass and sometimes in arable land. In arable land, fieldwalking is possible and soil marks and crop marks may be visible.

Fieldwalking was the main archaeological method used in this study. It allowed a rapid coverage of large areas of land, and could be done by one person. It was particularly suitable for the large areas of land that were formerly unenclosed common waste or parks, where these are now arable land. The main problem encountered in these areas was that it was impossible in the time available for the study to walk all the area available; those parts selected for fieldwalking may not be representative of the whole. Fieldwalking was not, however, as suitable a method for the study of hamlets, moated sites and non-moated isolated settlements. Unless the site has been abandoned and is now arable land, only the area around the site, rather than the site itself, can be walked. In hamlets it was frequently difficult to find arable land close to the settlement, and material from moated sites may have been deposited in the moat itself rather than on the surrounding fields.

The types and dates of material recovered by fieldwalking are restricted, and the

interpretation of results in terms of settlement and landscape is problematic. However it was found that it was possible to suggest areas of 'occupation' and 'manuring' activity in the medieval period by quantification of pottery recovered, with greater confidence than would have been possible using documentary evidence. I would support Shennan's view that, for the medieval period, material from fieldwalking provides a basis of comparison between medieval and other periods and between the different sources of evidence available for the period (Shennan 1985, 91), but I would disagree with his contention 'the medieval archaeologist has the total map to start with', thus the results of fieldwalking are only of use to answer relatively detailed and small-scale questions (*ibid.*, 17); my results contributed to the *definition* of the medieval landscape of Sutton Chase.

The advantages of fieldwalking as a method in this type of study, where large areas are involved and time and manpower is limited, outweigh the disadvantages. It was also found that fieldwalking could be useful other than as a method of artifact collection. Ploughed-out features were observed, and the relief and soils of the site being walked could be observed in detail.

The observation of garden surfaces is again a rapid method which can be done by one person. It is more likely than fieldwalking to produce reliable data from hamlets, moated sites and isolated sites which are still occupied, since artifacts are recovered from the site itself rather than from the area around it. The problems of this method are the possibility of the recent transport of artifacts to the garden, and that the surface is usually partially obscured.

Small-scale excavations were undertaken at Middleton Hall (p.246) and at the Ancient Encampment (p.167). At Middleton Hall the trenches could have been observed rather than excavated, but although this would have provided evidence of structures and of sequence, it is unlikely that dating evidence would have been obtained. At the Ancient Encampment

excavations provided information on the form of structures only. Here it would be necessary to excavate the whole, or most of, the site to obtain evidence of sequence and dating.

It has been noted above that the types and dates of objects normally found by chance, and the distribution of chance finds, are restricted. Some objects may have been transported in recent times to the place at which they were found, and the findspots are not always accurately recorded. Although the evidence of chance finds may be misleading, they represent the only archaeological evidence from built-up areas in the absence of systematic observation of garden surfaces, and are therefore worth careful analysis.

The main problem in the use of archaeological objects and structures is the determination of their dates. The dating is mainly typological for both classes of artifact. For buildings, a local typological sequence has been proposed. Buildings survive throughout the study area. They provide definite evidence for occupation, in contrast to the often ambiguous evidence from fieldwalking and from documents. Their generally late date, however, meant that their use in the present study was limited. The functions and dates of earthworks, whether upstanding or only visible as cropmarks, may be deduced from their forms, but similar earthworks forms may have different functions and dates. Relative dating can only be obtained where junctions between earthworks are available for study, as in Sutton Park (p.169f). The dating of flint artifacts by typology alone is particularly problematic in the study area, where recognisable forms are rare. On the other hand, chronological ranges were defined for medieval and post-medieval pottery types (above, pp.74-80).

Documentary and other evidence

The particular importance of written documents, maps and place-names is that their coverage of the study area is not determined by present land use. These types of evidence are

however deficient in their chronological and spatial coverage of the study area.

Where they exist, documents are usually more closely dateable than artifacts, and a reference to a particular feature provides a *terminus ante quem* for its existence unless the reference is to the establishment of the feature, such as the creation of a park. Most of the documentary sources are of 12th century or later date. The interpretation of documents in terms of settlement and land use may be difficult because they do not refer specifically to the features of interest, and any information provided is incidental.

The areas covered by early maps are limited, and features are included incidentally, but when they are so included they can be located accurately, which is often not the case when they are mentioned in written documents. In the present study, where they were available, maps were found to be more useful than written documents. All types of place-name are generally first mentioned at a relatively late date, and their origin is unknown. Field-names were more informative than others because the place to which they refer can be located with relative precision.

The environmental evidence available is mostly from outside the study area and therefore not necessarily applicable to it. Chronologically, it all relates to the prehistoric and Roman periods except for the post-medieval data from Shustoke. Sites which could provide environmental data in the future were however located in the present study (below, p.309).

It is clear that, in a study of this kind, all possible methods should be employed since the information provided by each method is limited to some extent. however, comparisons may be difficult because different features and different chronological periods may be represented by different types of evidence.

SUTTON CHASE IN ITS WIDER CONTEXT

In this section, the archaeological and documentary evidence from the aspects of the landscape considered in this thesis has been combined with that from elsewhere in Sutton Chase, from the surrounding region, and from elsewhere in the country, and is arranged in chronological periods.

Mesolithic (fig. 101)

In Sutton Chase, assemblages of worked flints of Mesolithic type were found at five sites in the present study, Oscott College (p.109), Manorial Wood (p.123), Sutton Park (p.164), Middleton Park (p.157), and Wishaw Hall Farm (p.262), and have been found previously on a gravel knoll adjacent to the River Tame, east of Middleton Park (Sheen, n.d.). Each of these contained cores, indicating tool manufacture on the site. Close to the northern edge of the study area, at Bourne pool on the north side of the Bourne Brook, about 2000 worked flints, mainly of Mesolithic type, were found by surface collection (Gould and Gathercole 1958; Saville 1974a). Single struck flints, possibly of Mesolithic date, have been found throughout the study area, and the pebble macehead from Witton (p.109) may be of Mesolithic date.

Saville (1981) discussed the Mesolithic of central England, based on flint assemblages obtained by fieldwalking in the Nuneaton area, east of Sutton Chase. The artifacts from sites in the Nuneaton area are, like all those from the Midlands, typologically later Mesolithic, starting in the 7th millenium b.c. Three major sites were found in the Nuneaton area. At each of these the raw material used was pebble flint, which was not native to any of the sites but was obtained from glacial drift deposits, in each case a few kilometres distant, thus the location of the sites was not determined by the availability of flint. All the sites are on, but close to the edge of, the East Warwickshire Plateau, and in close proximity to a water supply, often a spring (Saville 1974b, 12, 15; 1981, 61). Saville (1981) suggests that the marked upland concentration and

the apparent absence of Mesolithic flintwork from valley bottoms may be because the contemporary ground surface in the latter situation has been covered by post-Mesolithic alluvial and colluvial deposits. In the Kinver (Staffs) area, flints were concentrated near streams, and most were found within 200-300 yards of water (King et. al. 1980).

The five main assemblages from Sutton Chase, listed above, were located on a variety of geological formations, but each is close to a small stream. Away from streams, only single flint artifacts have been found such as the point from Barr Beacon (p.114), suggesting that the distribution of sites is determined by proximity to a water supply rather than by any other physical factor. Although there is no evidence for this activity in Sutton Chase, it is possible that some woodland was cleared by fire to improve the quality of grazing for the animals hunted in this period, as suggested elsewhere in the country (e.g. Simmons *et. al.* 1981, 102,106), and this may have had a long-term effect on soil conditions.

Neolithic and early Bronze Age (fig. 102)

For subsequent prehistory it is difficult to assign some artifacts and structures to specific periods. It has been noted above (p.68) that the flintwork can be divided typologically into Mesolithic and post-Mesolithic forms only, and that the manufacture and use of flint artifacts may have continued into the Iron Age.

The Neolithic and Early Bronze Age are best considered together since many stone and flint types were used throughout this period, such as polished flint and stone axes and maceheads (I.F. Smith 1979), flint arrowheads (Green 1980), and scrapers. In the Upper and Middle Trent Basin, which includes Sutton Chase, Vine (1981, 227) has suggested that the small number of bronze flat axes from the region implies that polished stone and flint axes continued to be used as primary clearance tools into the early Bronze Age.

The material dateable to the Neolithic and Early Bronze Age in Sutton Chase includes, in addition to the stone and flint types discussed above, the bronze axe fragment from Sutton Park (p.164) and three possible round barrows. The possible timber trackway in Sutton Park (p.168) may be of this date, because of its similarity to the Abbot's Way in Somerset. The portable objects are distributed throughout the study area, but are sparser in the upland in the west. The possible barrows are all on the upland, but this distribution may reflect subsequent land use which has resulted in the preservation of earthworks here rather than elsewhere in the study area.

The evidence from Shustoke (above, p.99) indicates forest clearance in the region in the earlier Neolithic. Other than round barrows, structures of this period in the region are mainly confined to the valleys of the Avon and the Trent and Tame, (e.g. Slater 1981, map on p.19; Vine 1981, passim), where they are visible as cropmarks, but artifacts, mainly chance finds, have a much wider distribution (ibid.). In the Nuneaton area worked flints of post-Mesolithic type have a lowland distribution, usually related to patches of glacial drift, river gravels or alluvium (Saville 1974b, 13-14).

Middle Bronze Age (fig.103)

The structures and objects from Sutton Chase dateable to this period in the study area are burnt mounds and chance finds of metalwork respectively. The burnt mounds at Middleton Park (p.157), Middleton New Park (p.159), Sutton Park (p.166), Drayton Park (p.153) and Wishaw Hall Farm (p.262) have been discussed above. Another site was in the south of the study area, where the features described by Fowler (1885, 15) were probably burnt mounds. He mentions several large, turf-covered mounds in a meadow at Berwood, near Chester Road, (c.SP 193908). The mounds were found to be composed of broken stones which were subsequently removed and used to surface farm roads. In the absence of a systematic search of stream banks for exposures of burnt mounds no longer surviving as earthworks, the six

known sites are probably only a small proportion of the actual number, if the density of sites in Sutton Chase is comparable to that in the south Birmingham area (Barfield and Hodder 1981a; 1981b). The distribution of burnt mounds, however they are interpreted, is probably a better indication of the distribution of settlement during this period than the metalwork, and suggests occupation throughout the lowland part of the study area. The outlier, on the upland, is the dubious example in Sutton Park.

The period is also represented in the surrounding area mainly by burnt mounds and metalwork (Hodder 1982). The only definite occupation site of this period in the region is at Fisherwick, north of Sutton Chase, where sherds of cordoned, bucket and secondary series collared urns were associated with a probable timber house, and radiocarbon dates of 1170 ± 140 bc (Birm-503) and 850 ± 140 bc (Birm-502) were obtained from this structure (Smith 1976). It is possible that some of the undated ditched field systems visible as cropmarks in the study area may have originated in this period; land enclosure on a large scale is known in other parts of the country during the second millenium BC (e.g. Fowler 1983, 94-144).

Late Bronze Age and Iron Age (fig.104)

There are no structures or objects certainly dateable to the Late Bronze Age in the study area, but metalwork hoards of this period have been found in the region (e.g. Hodder 1982). In the floodplains of the Rivers Severn and Avon, to the south of the study area, a red clay or clayey silt overlying organic alluvium dated to c.650 bc has been interpreted as mineral soil loosened by ploughing on the valley slopes, suggesting a great increase in the area under the plough, and possibly ploughing in the late autumn for winter-sown cereals (Shotton 1978). Taylor (1983b, 62) has drawn attention to the appearance of fixed territorial divisions in several parts of the country in the later Bronze Age; these might be associated with an increase in the area of arable land.

In Sutton Chase, the only object certainly of Iron Age date is the torc from Middleton Park

(p.157). The pottery from Drayton Park (p.152) although of prehistoric type, could date from either side of the Roman conquest (p.72). A hillfort of Iron Age date may have existed on Barr Beacon (p.111), and the earthwork sites of the Ancient Encampment in Sutton Park (p.167) and Loaches Banks (p.112) together with the cropmarks of ditched field systems in Drayton Park (p.151), Middleton Park, p.157), and on Bodymoor Heath (p.116) may be of later prehistoric date. It has been suggested above (p.114) that Loaches Banks was associated with stock keeping. In Sutton Park a podzol had developed by the time that the Roman road was constructed (p.98). It is possible that the western, upland part of the study area was heath and woods used as rough pasture, while in the lowland there was arable land and improved pasture in ditched fields.

To the south of the study area, Iron Age settlements composed of farmsteads in ditched enclosures have been excavated in the Avon and Severn Valleys at Barford, Beckford and Wasperton (e.g. Webster 1982) and in the Tame Valley to the north the typical Iron Age settlement form was a single round house in a sub-rectangular ditched enclosure of 0.25 to 0.5 ha, surrounded by associated ditched field systems (Smith 1977a, 317). The density of settlement sites dated by Smith to c.500 - 0 BC by excavation, surface collection or cropmark morphology is greater than one per square kilometre (ibid., 338). The Tame gravel terrace seems to have been divided up by permanent ditched boundaries for the first time during the first millenium BC, in response to the increase in population to the density suggested by the number of sites (ibid.). Some of the undated cropmark sites near Wall described by Gould (1972) are as likely to be of Iron Age date as the Roman date he ascribes to them, particularly his site D, which consists of one or two circular huts in a polygonal ditched enclosure surrounded by field enclosures. An extensive rectilinear field system of pre-Roman or very early Roman date has been traced around Lichfield (Bassett 1982, 93-98 and fig.1); this is similar to field systems traced from existing field boundaries or cropmarks at Wootton Wawen (Basset 1986, 18-20), in Essex (Rodwell 1978) and in south Yorkshire and north Nottinghamshire (Riley 1978), all of which are demonstrably of Roman or earlier date. It is possible that the ditched fields recorded in the study area represent parts of a much larger system like that around Lichfield. Within Sutton Chase, another part of this system may be represented by a group of fields between Sutton Coldfield and Wishaw, which are known to be the sites of medieval assarting (fig. 111; below, p.298), but whose regular layout is similar to the early field systems described above. The alignment of these fields may be continued by the furlongs and strips of the open field systems of Wishaw to the east and Wiggins Hill and Curdworth to the south. These hints of extensive areas of enclosed fields are consistent with the environmental evidence from Fisherwick and Wall (pp.98-99) which indicates that the Iron Age landscape of the region was predominantly open, with only small areas of woodland.

Although, as described above, most of the evidence for the Iron Age in the region is in the main river valleys, there is a fairly even distribution of relatively small hillforts, occupying locally high points (Greenslade and Stuart 1984, map on p.20; Slater 1981, map on p.19). The only gap in the distribution is the Birmingham and Black Country conurbation, and this would be filled by a hillfort on Barr Beacon and hillforts suggested by the placename, topography and surviving earthworks at Wednesbury (Palliser 1976, 42; Gelling 1962, 10-11), by the placename and topography at Oldbury (Gelling 1978, 144) and by topography, postholes and Iron Age pottery on the site of Dudley Castle (pers. comm. S. Linnane). The study area and its region are on the eastern edge of the hillfort-dominated landscape of the Welsh Marches (Cunliffe 1974, fig.13.30, p.285).

The period from c.1000 BC has been seen as one of rising population, (Fowler 1978, 5-7), resulting in increasing territorialism (Fowler 1983, 218). In Northamptonshire, Iron Age settlements occur on all soils, and the pattern of settlement may have been similar to that of the Middle Ages (Brown and Taylor 1978); the settlement pattern was one of dispersed farmsteads (Foard 1978). Taylor (1983b, 77) has suggested that fewer hillforts in the Midlands than in other parts of the country indicates less pressure on resources, but this is contradicted by the appearance of an enclosed landscape, as noted by Smith (1977a, 338).

Romano-British (fig. 105)

The distribution map of Romano-British artifacts from Sutton Chase shows a marked contrast between the western and eastern parts of the study area. In the west most of the objects have been found by chance in gardens and in areas of public access, and are mainly coins. The coins are to some extent clustered around Ryknild Street, where they could be interpreted as travellers' losses rather than as indicators of settlement, but some are at a distance from the road. It is possible that some of the coins are recent imports to the area; this may be the case with the Thornhill Park stone head (p.110) and the Hardwick bronze object (p.110). No artifacts of Roman date were found in fieldwalking in the western part of the study area, suggesting that not only was there no settlement, but also that the land was not manured with domestic refuse and was therefore woodland or heath used for rough grazing. This is supported by the podzol sealed by the Roman road in Sutton Park, which could have developed under either of these types of vegetation.

The presence of the Ryknild Street may have encouraged the development of a settlement on the northern edge of the study area, at Footherley (above, p.206) and the pottery industry at Hill (above, p.208). The latter does not necessarily imply an associated settlement but is more likely to have been a rural industry; a comparable kiln site at Perry Barr (Hughes 1961) is also near to the Ryknild Street, just to the south-west of the study area.

In the eastern part of the study area, arable land and improved pasture in the Roman period, and hence the settlements to which they belonged, are implied by the presence of pottery. The ditched field systems visible as cropmarks in Drayton and Middleton parks, on Bodymoor Heath and in the Wishaw area, described above as prehistoric (p.285) could be of Roman origin, like the field systems elsewhere with which they were compared, or, even if originating before the Roman period, could have remained in use. They could be associated with ditched field systems on the gravel terrace on the eastern side of the River Tame in Lea Marston parish.

In small-scale excavations at this site, pottery of Iron Age type and Roman pottery were recovered from the ditches (Wright 1979).

The distribution of Roman pottery in Sutton Chase suggests widespread exploitation of the eastern part, but the sites of actual settlements remain elusive. The only site where settlement seems certain, because of the condition of the pottery recovered in fieldwalking, is near the moat in Shenstone Park (p.253). Some other isolated settlements and moated sites may be on the sites of Roman settlements, such as Blackgreaves Farm (p.246), Grounds Farm (p.261) and Wishaw Hall Farm (p.262). There is however little evidence for Roman settlement on the later hamlet sites; only Lower Green and Wiggins Hill have produced Roman pottery. At the former it is in the vicinity of the moated site at Wishaw Hall Farm, and at the latter the Roman settlement could be anywhere in the area, not necessarily on the same site as the medieval hamlet (p.213). The pottery from within the medieval parks at Drayton, Middleton and Shenstone indicates that these areas were manured and not waste; the field systems at Drayton and Middleton have been discussed above. The quantity of pottery from the western part of Drayton Park suggests that there may have been a settlement in the vicinity of Hill Farm. The site of this settlement may be indicated by the cropmark adjacent to Alder Wood (p.152).

The problem of the location of Roman settlements in the study area is discussed below, in considering the Anglo-Saxon period, but there can be no doubt that they existed. The evident intensity of land use in at least the eastern part of the study area, together with the evidence from the parts of the surrounding region where intensive survey has been undertaken, such as Hanbury in Worcestershire, and large numbers of Roman rural settlements have been located (Bassett and Dyer 1980; 1981) contradicts previous suggestions that the West Midlands was an area of second rate economic growth during the Roman period (Webster 1974). A similar density of Roman rural settlements is reported in other parts of the country, such as the Nene Valley (Taylor 1975b) and east Hampshire (Shennan 1981, 117). In Somerset and north Dorset the distribution and density of Roman settlement sites is similar to that of medieval

settlements (Aston 1985b), and in the central Avon Valley of Warwickshire there is a high coincidence of Roman and medieval finds on settlement sites (Ford 1973, 121). In Northamptonshire, the settlement pattern seems to have been one of dispersed farmsteads (Foard 1978). The large number of Roman settlements now known has led to estimates of population much in excess of those formerly imagined. These are a maximum of 5 million (Taylor 1983b, 83-84, 106), 2 - 4 million (Fowler 1983, 32-26) and 4 - 6 million, well above the population of 1986 deduced from Domesday Book and more like that of the mid 14th century AD (Salway 1981, 542-552).

Population figures of the order now suggested imply a large area of agricultural land. Field systems of Roman date and possible land units have been suggested (e.g. Taylor 1975, 62). It has also been shown that the alignment of furlong blocks in some open-field systems ostensibly of medieval date conform to the alignment of Roman field systems (Taylor 1975, 58 and fig.8b); Taylor and Fowler 1978); it may tentatively be suggested that this is the case at Wishaw and Curdworth (above, p.285 and below, p.293), where the alignment of the open-field furlongs appears to conform to that of adjacent field systems of possible prehistoric or Roman date.

The political location of the study area during the Roman period is uncertain; it appears to be on the boundary between the Cornovii and Coritanii (Todd 1973, fig.1; Webster 1975, (figs.4, 13; Richmond 1963, map p.253 and p.254), but part of it lies within a putative territorium of Wall (Letocetum) identified with the Lichfield estate of the Bishop of Chester in Domesday Book (Taylor 1969, 50-51). This includes Hints and Weeford; the southern parts of both Hints and Weeford parishes lie within Sutton Chase, but the boundary of the territorium may have been the Bourne Brook, therefore not including any part of the study area.

Anglo-Saxon, c.400 - 1100 A.D. (fig.106)

There is little archaeological or documentary evidence for activity in Sutton Chase in this period. Settlement in the Tame Valley in the pagan Saxon period is suggested by the possible cemetery at Minworth (p.149), and although there is no record of any associated finds, the Bromford bead (p.200) may be from a cemetery site. A settlement existed at Little Aston by 957, if Eastun in the charter of that date is correctly identified (p.207). Maney and Windley in Sutton Coldfield may also have been in existence by the 10th century (pp.209, 213). The names of all of the villages and some of the hamlets are mentioned in Domesday Book, and the entry for Wishaw implies dispersed settlement in that parish.

An analysis of the Domesday Book entries for places in the study area throws some light on the 11th century landscape. 16 entries relate to places in the study area. Of these, Weeford and Hints are listed as dependencies of Lichfield. They do not possess full individual entries and have thus been omitted from the analysis. Middleton has two entries, which have been combined, and the Marston part of Lea Marston has been omitted because it is not clear which entry refers to it and which to Marston Green, also in Coleshill Hundred. For the two places named Barr, Barre has been identified as Great Barr, and Barra as Little Barr (VCH W, 7, 71). The boundaries of Domesday vills have been considered here to be identical to those of the 19th century parishes of the same name (fig. 107). Five of the parishes have been divided, where there is a Domesday Book entry for more than one place within the parish. Wiggins Hill has been divided from Sutton Coldfield by Wishaw Lane (SP 160928 to 164942) and Lea and Marston by a lane (SP 195940 to 202940) and the projection of its line east to Coton Bridge on the River Tame (SP 213942). Erdington and Witton are divided from the remainder of Aston parish by the River Tame and are themselves divided by the stream flowing south from SP 092949 to the Tame. Great Barr is divided from Aldridge to the north by a line running west from the source of the Bourne Brook, c.SP 065995, and Perry and Little Barr have been

Analysis of Domesday Book entries

Table 9

Domesday Book vill	Modern Name	A Area km ²	Hides	P Recorded	W Woodland	P/A	Р/н	W/A	M/H
					Leagues				
BARRE	Great Barr	18	3	m	0.11	0.17	1.00	0.01	0.04
CREDEWORDE	Curdworth	2	4	22	0.25	3.14	5.5	0.04	90.0
DRAITONE	Drayton Bassett	12	2	12	Н		9	80.0	0.5
HARD INTONE	Erdington	14	3	14	0.5	~	4.33	0.04	0.17
LETH	Lea	7	Н	80	ı	2	∞	ı	ı
MENEWORDE	Minworth	9	П		0.13	0.17	Н	0.02	0.13
MIDELTONE and MILDENTONE	Middleton	17	80	41	ı	2.41	5.13	ı	ŧ
PIRIO and BARRA	Perry Barr and Little Barr	13	9	6	0.83	0.69	ر.1	90.0	0.14
SENESTE	Shenstone	29	3	26	4.5	06.0	8.67	0.16	1.5
SUTONE	Sutton Coldfield	50	8.25	26	2	0.52	3.15	0.04	0.24
WINCHICHELLE	Wiggins Hill	ĸ	0.75	-	0.03	0.33	1.33	0.01	0.04
WITONE	Witton	5	П	5	ı	-	5	1	ı
WITSCAGA	Wishaw	5	2	∞	0.02	1.6	4	0.004	0.01

combined, as the part of Handsworth parish north of the Tame. Shenstone and Great Barr both extend outside the study area but their entries have been taken to apply to those parts of them within it. The entry for Kingsbury has not been included in the analysis since such a small part of the parish lies within the study area.

Two of the statistics in Domesday Book entries have been considered, population and woodland, in each case with reference to the area of the vill as defined above, and to the hideage given in the entry (table 9). The latter, as a unit of tax assessment, may reflect the relative sizes of the estates to which Domesday Book entries refer more accurately than do the 19th century parishes. Population densities have been calculated from the recorded population; no adjustment for family size, as some have attempted (e.g. Darby 1977, 87f.), has been made here. There is no recorded population at Wiggins Hill, so one, the tenant Bruning, has been assumed, and the 'four burgesses of Tamworth' in the Drayton Bassett entry have been omitted, since although they held land in the Manor they may not have lived there. The dimensions given for woodland in each entry have been converted to leagues, taking the Domesday League to have been 1.1/2 miles or 12 furlongs as argued by Derby (1977, 178-179). The area of woodland, expressed in square leagues, has been obtained by multiplication of the length and width dimensions given, but this can only be approximate because the wood recorded could be rectilinear or curvilinear in shape. The problems of the calculation of the area of woodland mentioned in Domesday Book have been discussed by Rackham (1980, 113-114)

The consistent features of the two population density maps (fig.108) are high densities in the Tame Valley in the east, medium densities in the Tame Valley in the south, and the lowest densities in Sutton Coldfield, Great Barr and Perry Barr in the centre and west. The only major discrepancy between the two maps is the density for Shenstone; here there may have been a single large settlement in a large area of land. No woodland (fig.109) is recorded for Lea, Middleton and Witton, all of which are in the Tame Valley. Great Barr in the west has low

densities, and the highest is in Shenstone to the north. The greatest discrepancy between the two maps is in Sutton Coldfield; this may indicate that there was much woodland in the area actually assessed, which was only a part of the later parish.

Combining the woodland and population analyses, the east and south-east of the study area has the densest population and least woodland, while the south and south-west has medium densities for each. Great Barr in the west and perhaps Sutton Coldfield in the centre have low population and low woodland densities. This implies that much of this part of the study area was open, rough pasture or heath, with little settlement. Open-field systems in the study area are not documented until the later Middle Ages and are not recorded cartographically until the l8th century (e.g. Sherriff's map, above, table 6, pp.106-110), but it is reasonable to assume, by analogy with other parts of the country, that the layout of the systems began in, even if it was not completed within, the later Saxon period. In Northamptonshire, for example, Hall (1979; 1981, 36) proposed an 8th or 9th century date. The only open-field system in the study area to which a relative date may be assigned is that at Wishaw, which appears to be overlain by a 13th century church (above, p.218). Neither written documentation or cartographic representation of the open-field systems in Sutton Chase occur before the systems are partly enclosed, but the former extent of the open field systems can often be deduced from field patterns and field names.

The 2 or 3 field 'Midland system' of open-field agriculture occurs in Sutton Chase only in Wishaw (fig.45) and in Minworth, Curdworth, Wiggins Hill and possibly Lea Marston, all in the Tame Valley in the south and south-east (fig.110). The Tame Valley fields are marked on Sherriff's 1791 map (table 6 above). A mixed system of severalty holdings and several small open fields is more characteristic of the area (Hebden 1963, 47); this occurs in Shenstone parish, where there were three or four small open fields in the hamlet of Little Aston alone (Hebden 1963, 39-40), and in Drayton Bassett (16th century map, table 6 above), Middleton (1865 map, table 6 above), Erdington (1760 map, table 6 above), Lea Marston (fig.39), and

Sutton Coldfield, where the existence of small areas of open field has been inferred from field shapes and field names on 19th century maps (R. Lea, pers. comm.). Such a pattern in which there are irregular field systems lacking standard units, has been termed a 'woodland system' by Roberts (1973). It is thought to have developed in areas where there were substantial reserves of waste, woods and heath which served as common pasture, and there was thus less need to safeguard common grazing rights on the open fields after harvest (Roberts 1973, 210; Fox 1981, 94).

The alignment of furlongs in some of the open field systems in Sutton Chase conform to probable Roman or prehistoric field systems (above, p.285), implying a continuity of land use but reorganisation of its management. There is evidence for a change in land use patterns in other parts of the study area between the Roman period and the Middle Ages, but it is not possible, because of the paucity of archaeological or documentary evidence, to define when, in the broad period from 400 to 1100 AD, these changes took place. The possible Roman or prehistoric field system in Wishaw did not become part of an open-field system but was assarted in the 13th century (below, p.298), implying that cultivation had ceased and the land had reverted to waste. Field systems and pottery scatters implying Roman cultivation or improved pasture are also found within areas which were parks or waste in the Middle Ages (above, p.179). The apparent lack of coincidence between Roman and medieval sites was noted above; it is however possible that the village sites, which could not be sampled by fieldwalking, may be on the site of Roman settlements. In the Tame Valley to the north of the study area, Smith (1977a, 308) has postulated that the existing villages are on the sites of late Roman settlements because of the rarity of late Roman material on abandoned rural Roman settlements.

By 1100 AD the study area was included in Cannock Forest. The forest was probably created shortly after the Norman Conquest. It is not mentioned in Domesday Book but was probably in existence then because one of the tenants-in-chief holding land within the area of the forest was Richard the forester (Cantor 1968, 44). The earliest written description of the bounds of

Cannock Forest occurs in 1286, after Sutton Chase had been taken out of it (above, p.4). Its original boundaries were probably riverine, the Rivers Trent, Tame, Penk and Sowe (Gould 1967, 23); the study area was therefore in its south-east corner (Cantor 1968, 50). It has been suggested that the region was made a royal forest because its poor soils were unsuitable for any other use (Beresford 1946, 102) and it was well--wooded and thinly populated at the time of the Norman Conquest (Cantor 1968, 40).

In the vicinity of the study area, pagan Saxon cemeteries have been found in the Avon Valley to the south (e.g. Slater 1981, map on p.27) and the Tame and Trent Valleys to the north (e.g. Greenslade and Stuart 1984, map on p.24). A close association between cemeteries and Roman settlements has been noted in the Avon Valley (Ford 1976), and a group of ditched farmsteads at Catholme in the Tame Valley, which were occupied from the 5th to the 10th centuries lay adjacent to a Roman settlement (Losco-Bradley 1974; Losco-Bradley and Wheeler 1984). The juxtaposition of Roman and early Saxon settlements has been noted elsewhere, for example in Oxfordshire (Bond 1985), but does not appear to be the case in south-west England (Fowler 1976, 34).

A change in the location of settlements between the Roman period and the Middle Ages has now been observed in many areas. In Oxfordshire, it has been noted that the juxtaposition of Roman and Medieval settlements does not necessarily indicate continuity of settlement, since statistically there are less examples of this juxtaposition than would be expected purely by chance, thus a change appears to occur in the middle to late Saxon period (Bond 1985). In the Avon Valley, ridge and furrow overlies early Saxon settlement sites (Ford 1973, 74) and the Catholme settlement was similarly overlain by ridge and furrow (Losco-Bradley and Wheeler 1984). In Northamptonshire, early and middle Saxon sites are seldom coincident with medieval settlements, but in some cases mid-Saxon material has been found on the sites of medieval settlements (Brown and Taylor 1978; Cadman and Foard 1984).

There appears to have been a considerable abandonment of settlement sites in the early to

middle Saxon period, possibly attributable to a catastrophic fall in population in the 6th to 7th centuries, with forest regeneration in some areas, such as Northamptonshire (Taylor 1983b, 121; Fowler 1976, 43). The settlement pattern of the early to middle Saxon period, which seems to have consisted of individual farmsteads and hamlet-sized clusters, was being replaced by nucleated villages by the 9th century, but hamlets still existed (Foard 1978). It has been suggested that settlement shifts observed during the Saxon period may be explained by a wish to use the manured soils of previously occupied sites for cultivation (Roberts 1987, 92). The shifting nature of Saxon settlement has been noted (Fowler 1976, 32; Taylor 1983b, *passim*), and it has been suggested that the movement occurs within defined land units or estates which themselves remain stable (Fowler 1976, 26; Bond 1985)

The tendency to the development of larger nucleations in the late Saxon period has been attributed by some to an increasing population (Bond 1985; Fowler 1976, 43; Roberts 1987, 92), but Taylor (1983b, 130, 133f.) disputes this explanation and suggests that deliberate planning is the dominant force, a process of 'feudalisation' (Aston 1985b). It has been noted above that some open-field systems overlie early and middle Saxon settlement sites. The late Saxon settlement nucleation may have been associated with, or accompanied by, the development of open-field systems, replacing earlier infield/outfield systems (Foard 1978; Taylor 1975, 68-69).

The earliest indication of defined land units or estates in Sutton Chase is the charter of 957 AD which describes the Barr and Little Aston estate. It is likely that the boundaries of the manors recorded in Domesday Book corresponded closely to those of the parishes or townships with which they have been identified above (p.289). It is possible that the study area, or parts of it, were included in a larger estate. Meeson (1979, 14 and fig.9), arguing from parish boundaries, has postulated the existence of a later Saxon estate centred on Tamworth; this would include Drayton Bassett at its south-west corner. The place-names Middleton and Sutton contain relative locational elements, suggesting they lay within a large land unit; this could

have been centred on Tamworth, or Lichfield, or both, and was possibly derived from the suggested *territorium* of Letocetum (above, p.288). Multiple estates have been defined in Wales and parts of England (e.g. Jones 1976); each estate contained a group of vills, and a mixed settlement pattern of hamlets and individual farmsteads. Estate groupings have also been detected in the Avon Valley in Warwickshire (Ford 1976). There is no direct evidence for estate groupings within Sutton Chase, but it is possible that the settlement pattern of predominantly hamlets and individual farms may reflect such an organisation. This could be suggested, for example, in Middleton and Sutton Coldfield, in each of which there is a single major settlement in the parish and a number of hamlets, all of which may have existed by the late Saxon period. Some sort of estate linkage may have existed in the area which became Cannock Forest, and could have facilitated its creation, and similarly Sutton Chase itself, as well as being defined by natural features, may also have been a region over which the settlement of Sutton Coldfield had a long-standing hegemony as an estate centre.

Early Medieval, c.1100-1350 AD (fig.110)

Sutton Chase was created out of Cannock Forest in 1126. It was an area over which the Earls of Warwick had sole hunting rights for large game, deer and boar. The rules regulating activity with this area are nowhere specifically described, but the 'custom of the Chase' is mentioned in 1288 (Dugdale 1730, 924) and the 'Assize of the Chase' in 1301-2 (*ibid.*, 933). They were probably similar to those of the Forest Law operating in Royal Forests (Assize of the Forest), since in 1203 Sutton Chase is described as the 'forest of Colmesfeld' (FGFW), in 1237 the 'forest and chase of Sutton' (FFST) and in 1247 'Sutton Forest' (IPM). The rules were concerned with the maintenance of the area as a game reserve. They were thus related to the clearance of woodland and improvement of waste, which would reduce the cover and food supply available to game, and to the construction of enclosures, which would restrict its movement and access to food supplies. In the manor of Middleton in 1292, for example, there were 100 acres of wood and waste within Sutton Chase, which were common, and could not

be improved 'without challenge, and waste' (IPM).

The western part of the study area was known as The Coldfield by the 14th century (p.127). The name suggests that it was open, unimproved land, probably heath. There was, however, some enclosure of it at Little Aston. There is no evidence for charcoal-burning on The Coldfield, again implying that there was little woodland. Charcoal-burning was concentrated in the north-east, the part of the study area which contains the most woodland on the Yateses' maps. In the east, former cultivation or improved pasture on Bodymoor Heath is implied by cropmarks of field enclosures. These could be of prehistoric or Roman date, or they could be associated with documented 14th century settlement here.

The creation of private deer parks in Sutton Chase required the permission of the Earl of Warwick, because they included woodland areas and were enclosed in such a way as to allow deer to enter but not to escape. The location of the early medieval deer parks, in the north of Sutton Chase, may be due to a deliberate policy of the Earls of Warwick, to the policies of the different manorial lords involved, or to the existing use of the area of land emparked. The documentary evidence suggests that the Earls' concern was that the parks were created at all and the form of their boundaries, rather than where they were created. The second and third factors may be combined, in that parks of early medieval date can be interpreted as one method of enclosure and utilisation of unimproved land. In some manors the lord would enclose such land as a park for himself, and in others he would allow individuals to enclose and hold parcels of such land. All of the early medieval parks are close to the edge of their parishes, and are known to have contained woodlands, and adjoin areas which were waste in the 18th century. Some of the areas emparked were occupied by settlements, arable land, or improved pasture in the Roman period, but there is no evidence for such use at the time of emparking, when they may have been used as rough pasture.

It has been shown that there was settlement at most of the hamlets in the Middle Ages, and

some of them possibly originated in this period. They are concentrated in the centre and south of the study area, with a group in Shenstone in the north-west. The distribution is similar to those of moated sites and of those individual settlements which were occupied in the early medieval period but complementary to that of the early medieval parks. There may have been Roman occupation at a few of these sites, some may have originated before the Norman Conquest, and others may be associated with medieval assarting of waste and woods. Such activity was permitted by the Earls of Warwick provided it was not to the detriment of game. Cultivation and enclosure of the waste at Peddimore was allowed in 1288 so long as does and their fawns could leap over the fences of the enclosure (Dugdale 1730, 924). Similarly at Dunton in the late 13th century, the wood called Clapshaw could be enclosed with a fence to exclude domestic animals, but it had to remain accessible to the Earls' deer (*ibid.*, 933). When permission was granted in 1301-2 for improvement of waste of Dunton, the size of the new bank and ditch field boundaries was specified; the ditch was to be no wider than 3ft 6in and the bank no higher than 1ft 6in (*ibid.*), again so that deer could leap over it.

Agreements on the making of assarts and the holding of assarted land in the eastern part of Sutton Coldfield are recorded in 1240-1 (Mason 1980, 171-173; fig.111). Some of the assarts, Wyttemor, Hawksnest, Burhale and Hynstebrok can be located by comparison of their names with field names on the 1825 Sutton Coldfield Com Rent Map. Three fields east of Peddimore Hall contain the element Whitmoor, and a field to the north is Hawkesnest. There is another Hawkesnest further west, at SP 142957, but since the Peddimore Hawkesnest is in the general area of the other assarts identified it is probably the site referred to in 1240. Several fields between Ox Leys Road and Bulls Lane are named Burrels, probably a corruption of Burhale, and the name of Bulls Lane itself could be a contraction of Burhale. The 'two great roads to Langley', between which assarts had been made, can probably be identified as Bulls Lane and Ox Leys Road. These are now roughly parallel; Ox Leys road runs close to Langley Hall, while Bulls Lane ends on Fox Hollies Road. The 1825 map shows that before the 19th century enclosure Bulls Lane turned north, joining Ox Leys Road near Langley Hall. Both roads are wider on the 1825 map than at present, and their former edges

are now marked by steep banks. *Hyntesbrok* may be a mis-transcripton of *Hurst Brook*, which runs from near Peddimore Hall to Hurst Green. An earlier enclosure in this area was the 'meadow called Pedimor', mentioned in 1298 in the IPM of William Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, which is a 'meddow called Earlesmede otherwise Patymore' in 1479-80 (Hilton 1952). This can be identified as *The Lords Meadow* on the 1825 map, which is defined by a curving field boundary which other field boundaries run up to but do not cross. Other unrecorded, assarting is suggested by the field names *The Riddings* and *Pill Ridding*. The *ridding* element indicates new clearance (Field 1972, 182). The pattern of fields to the south of Peddimore is that which would result from assarting, *i.e.* small, irregularly shaped fields (cf. Taylor 1975, 95-96 and fig.13A). In contrast, the more regular pattern of long, narrow fields containing those named *Burrels* is not like this, and it has been suggested above (p.285) that this field system may be prehistoric or Roman in origin, later reverting to waste before the 13th century assarting. Alternatively, the regularity of the field pattern could result from communal assarting (R. Lea, pers. comm.).

There was also substantial woodland clearance between 1160 and 1223 at Berwood, adjacent to the River Tame (above, p.238). Assarting was not however restricted to the main area of hamlets and moats, since in 1297 the lord of the manor of Little Barr, in the south-west of the study area, was allowed to enclose his woods and to improve them by assarting and cutting underwood (Dugdale 1730, 911).

The assarting activity in Sutton Chase corresponds to that documented in the Forest of Arden part of Warwickshire in the 12th and 13th centuries, which appears to have been sponsored by the Earls of Warwick (Roberts 1965; 1977, 169f.). Habitative surnames indicate that land here was colonised by people from the south of the county (Slater 1981, 38). It has however been pointed out that such colonisation is dated only by documents, which do not generally appear until the 12th century, and it is therefore possible that the whole process of medieval colonisation began much earlier, and may not have been colonisation at all (Taylor 1983b,

192,194); this view is supported by the evidence for the presence before the Norman Conquest in the Arden area of hamlets and individual farmsteads settlement types normally associated with the colonising movement (Hooke 1985).

Late Medieval, c.1350-1528 AD. (fig.112)

The area administered as Sutton Chase may have been reduced in size by the early 14th century, since in a description of its bounds in 1309-10 (Dugdale 1730-910) the eastern edge appears to have been a line from Schrafford Brugge (Salford Bridge) on the Tame in the south to Wyford (Weeford) on the Bourne Brook in the north. However, the absence of any other named boundary points on this side, and of any natural features which could mark a boundary, suggests that this perambulation is incomplete and that the Chase still extended to the Tame in the east. The area of Sutton Chase had certainly been reduced by the 15th century. By then it consisted of land around the town of Sutton Coldfield only, divided into the bailiwicks or lodges of Hillwood in the north, Lindridge in the east, Berwood in the south, and Coldfield in the south-west (Hilton 1952; Leland, V, 97; fig.112).

The locations of these bailiwicks correspond to the areas of unenclosed waste to the north, south and east of Sutton Coldfield marked on the Yateses' maps in the 18th century. There was some woodland here in the late Middle Ages, at Hill Wood, Lindridge and possibly Reddicap. By the 15th century there was settlement on the waste east of Sutton Coldfield, at New Shipton, and some of The Coldfield to the south had been enclosed.

The parks created in the early medieval period continued in use. Late medieval park creation seems to have been a result of the availability of land, possibly because of the reduction of the area in which Chase laws were enforced, but probably due to the abandonment of agricultural land as a result of population decline or climatic conditions. Middleton New Park included former arable, Minworth New Park included enclosures. Drayton Park may have been enlarged

to include former agricultural land, and Lea Park may have included a former settlement site. The short life of some of the late medieval parks suggests that their creation was an immediate response to land availability, before it reverted to agricultural use.

There is evidence for settlement desertion at some of the hamlet sites; probable former house sites were recorded at Wiggins Hill and Lower Green. There may have been a reduction in the size of the settlement at Middleton village. Agricultural land was abandoned. The former arable land of the hamlet of Littleworth End in Middleton may have been included in Middleton New Park. The Middleton Court Roll for 1391 records exhausted or neglected land, and the Account for the manor of Sutton Coldfield for 1479-80 mentions enclosures which had been abandoned and yielded no rent (Hilton 1952); the earthwork on Gibbet Hill may have been the boundary of one such enclosure.

Some of the isolated sites, for example New Shipton Farm, are first mentioned in the late medieval period, but this may reflect the limitations of the documentary evidence rather than indicate that they were established at this time. There was however some new settlement associated with industry, an iron forge at Bourne Pool in the north-west was in existence by the late 15th century (Gould 1971).

Post-Medieval, c.1528-1790 AD (fig.113)

Sutton Chase ceased to exist following the Royal Charter of 1528. Within Sutton Coldfield parish, settlement of waste areas formerly conserved as part of the Chase was encouraged by the construction of stone cottages associated with a textile industry, together with low rents for land provided that a minimum area was enclosed from the waste and improved. In the 17th century this system was replaced by management for the waste as an outfield through the system of 'Lot Acres' (above, p.121). There was settlement on, and enclosure of, waste in other parishes in the study area. In Perry Barr, Warren Farm and Kingstanding Warren were established on The Coldfield in the 17th and 18th centuries respectively for a specialised

function, the management of rabbit warrens, but elsewhere there were settlements such as the cottages established on the common in Middleton by 1663. Some of this settlement was associated with illegal encroachment on common land, such as that at Lower Green in Wishaw. In Erdington licence was granted for the erection of a cottage on the waste in 1683 (QSW). In Great Barr, much of The Coldfield remained heathland used for sheep-grazing, although some of it was used as an outfield. The latter use was regulated in Great Barr, but at Little Hay the common was illegally cultivated. Basset's Heath in Drayton Bassett was completely enclosed in the 18th century, but other waste areas were not enclosed until the end of the 18th century or the beginning of the 19th century.

Areas of woodland existing c.1790 are shown in some detail on the Yateses' maps. On Saxton's maps of 1576 woodland is represented schematically as oval areas but is nevertheless concentrated in the same areas as that on the Yateses' maps, the north-east of the study area.

Some of the parks in existence in 1500 were disparked before 1790. As a result of the 1528 Charter, Sutton Park survived, but with a changed function, since it became common land rather than a private game enclosure. Its existing woodlands were maintained, and at least one new plantation was made. There may have been some cultivation in Sutton Park in the 17th century. The parks newly created in the post-medieval period were ornamental gardens around country houses rather than game reserves.

Some hamlets, such as Stockland Green in Erdington, may have originated in this period, but the limitations of the documentary evidence do not permit precise dating. It should be noted, though, that all of the hamlets sampled by fieldwalking were shown to have been in existence by the Middle Ages, thus there is no certain evidence for post-medieval 'green' settlements as mentioned by Roberts (1965, 469). On the contrary, some of the hamlets may have been partially or wholly deserted in the post-medieval period; post-medieval village and hamlet abandonment occurs in adjacent parts of Staffordshire (Bate and Palliser 1971).

At several of the moated sites, a new dwelling house was built outside the moat. New country seats were built. Individual settlements established on waste during this period have been discussed above. The development of industry continued. Iron forges were constructed at Middleton Hall (Pelham 1953) and Little Aston (Morton and Gould 1967) during the 16th century, and pools were constructed to drive mills in Sutton Park.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF SETTLEMENT AND LAND USE IN SUTTON CHASE

The observed development of settlement and land use in the study area might be expected to have been influenced by the physical environment, population fluctuations, human policy and the methods used in this study. Methods have been discussed above (pp.276-279). For each of the other factors, the expected evidence for their influence or lack of influence will be considered and compared with the observed evidence from Sutton Chase.

If the physical environment were a strong influence, then variations in patterns of settlement and land use would correspond closely and consistently to variations in physical characteristics. Geographic determinism is no longer seen as an influence on human activity (Taylor 1983b, passim), but Roberts (1977, 88) draws attention to the importance of details of the physical site of settlements, and Smith (1977a, 341) notes that details of the terrain in south-east Staffordshire were reflected by details of the human landscape. In Sutton Chase, two principal physical regions, divided by the 400ft (122m) contour, were defined above: a lowland in the south, east and north-west, and an upland in the north and west. The lowland in the south and east has gentle slopes, soils which are predominantly stagnogleyic clay loams developed on Keuper Marl, and much surface water. It is mainly grade 3w agricultural land, with some grade 3s and 2s land. The upland has steeper slopes and a slightly higher rainfall. It has sandy, pebbly acid brown sands and podzols developed on Bunter Pebble Beds and Hopwas Breccia, and little surface water. It is mainly grade 3s agricultural land because of summer dryness.

In all periods the general pattern of landscape development exhibits a dichotomy which corresponds to this broad physical division. In the Mesolithic period, activity was concentrated near streams and therefore, although flintwork of this period occurs throughout the lowland where surface water is abundant, it is found only on the edges of the upland because of the

absence of surface water. From the Neolithic onward, settlement and intensive agricultural activity were confined to the lowland. Field systems of Iron Age or Roman date and Roman pottery representing manuring occur only in the lowland, and all of the medieval settlements are in the lowland. Within the lowland, however, the details of landscape development do not correspond to physical details; each of the aspects of the landscape studied in this thesis occurs on a variety of geological deposits and soil types. The upland was dominated in the 18th century by large areas of unenclosed heathland used for rough grazing. The evidence obtained in this study suggests that this type of vegetation and land use pertained by the Iron Age; even in the Bronze Age the upland may have been rough grazing land which was also used as a cemetery area, judging by the occurrence of probable barrows on it but the absence of burnt mounds or metalwork. The physical conditions of the upland are likely to have been accentuated by human activity. It is reasonable to assume that the upland was originally wooded and that the removal of woodland and the subsequent lack of regeneration is attributable to human activity, whether or not through deliberate management. The extensive heathland of the upland can be considered a 'heathland nucleus' as defined by Limbrey (1978, 25). The free-draining, sandy, pebbly soils of this area are susceptible both to leaching, resulting in the development of a podzol, and to excessive dryness in summer, leading to parching of vegetation and soil erosion. The soil conditions would have been accentuated, if not initiated, by human clearance of trees. Because of drought and soil erosion the land may not have been considered worth improving by the addition of nutrients, and a heathland would have been maintained by use for grazing, which would prevent woodland regeneration. The development of the upland was therefore influenced by a combination of physical characteristics and human management.

Fluctuations in population may be inferred from an increase or decrease in the number of settlements, growth or shrinkage of individual settlements, an increase or decrease in the extent of cultivated land, or by the presence or absence of man-made structures which might indicate pressure on land, such as territorial boundaries, or the reorganisation and regulation of land

use. Not all of these features need necessarily, however, be due to population change; changes in settlement size may be a result of population movement, or deliberate planning, the extent of cultivated land may change due to different agricultural practices, and territorial boundaries may reflect stronger overall management of land use. It is not possible to judge any of these criteria in Sutton Chase before the Iron Age. By that time there is evidence for extensive systems of enclosed fields, which may indicate a need to reorganise and define landholdings due to population pressure. The intensity of land-use in the Roman period is attested by the distribution of pottery probably deposited as a result of manuring arable land, and implies a relatively high population. The combination of the abandonment of Roman field systems and the lack of continuity of settlement sites from Roman times to the Middle Ages suggest a population decline in at least part of the lowland zone of the study area; by the time of Domesday Book population densities are greatest in the Tame Valley. The lack of development of open field systems away from the Tame Valley could also indicate a lack of pressure on land, as might the absence of villages in much of the area. Parks created in the 13th century included areas of potentially good agricultural land; this could indicate a lack of demand for the land because of a relatively low population but could also reflect attitudes of the lords creating the parks, who could determine land use regardless of land quality. Similarly, assarting in the 13th century may have resulted from the need to bring more land under cultivation to serve a rising population, but would also have depended on the willingness of a lord to permit assarting. A decline in population in the later Middle Ages is suggested by the presence of abandoned arable land, incorporated into parks, but a subsequent rise in the postmedieval period resulted in the emparked areas reverting to agricultural use. It is clear from the preceding discussion that although population fluctuations must at times have had a major influence, the evidence is equivocal and Smith (1977a, 343) is surely overstating the case in his contention that the development of the landscape of his study area was an expression of the demands of an increasing population on a finite resource, land.

None of the developments discussed above is attributable to physical factors or population

change alone but also to the human response to both of these factors, and indeed, as noted above, the observed developments may be attributable solely to human land management policies, which have been seen as the dominant factors in landscape development (Aston 1985, chapter 8; Taylor 1983b, *passim*). It is however difficult to define these policies closely, particularly when they are deduced from archaeological evidence alone.

It was noted above that the maintenance of heathland was due to human management. The presence of a large area of uncultivated land may have contributed to the inclusion of the study area in Cannock Forest and later in Sutton Chase; it has been suggested by some that the combination of poor soils and a low population was a major factor in the selection of the area to be put under Forest Law (above.p.294) but patterns of land tenure may have been more significant (above, p.296). The management of the study area as part of Cannock Forest and then as Sutton Chase in the Middle Ages might be expected to have had a strong influence on landscape development, in inhibiting the extension of agricultural land, and consequently the establishment of settlements that would have been associated with it, but the available documentation suggests that such influence was limited to details of the landscape, such as the size and form of boundaries. The heathland areas may have been deliberately conserved to provide grazing for deer, but the fact that settlement on the waste had to be positively encouraged after the demise of Sutton Chase in 1528 suggests that there was in any case little need or demand for its use.

FUTURE WORK

As a result of this study it is possible to suggest future work on the specific features of the landscape of Sutton Chase selected for study in this thesis and in Sutton Chase as a whole, and the methods applicable to such work.

Unenclosed Common Waste and Parks

More of the extensive areas of former waste in the west of the study area could be sampled by fieldwalking, where present land use makes it possible. Attention should also be paid to the smaller areas of waste in the east, since only one of these, Lower Green in Wishaw, was walked during this study. In the parks more extensive fieldwalking is necessary. The nature of the original park boundaries could be determined by small-scale excavation of the existing boundary earthworks. The soil surfaces sealed by boundary banks could provide evidence of environmental conditions at the time of construction (see below).

Hamlets, moated sites and isolated sites

Where these sites are occupied by existing settlements, the standing buildings could be examined in detail, garden surfaces could be searched for objects and earthmoving activities observed. More of the isolated individual settlements marked on the Yateses' maps could be sampled. Information on settlement history might be obtained from small-scale excavations in the town centre of Sutton Coldfield or in the village nuclei.

Sutton Chase

The scarcity of archaeological activity and data from Sutton Chase as a whole made it difficult to see the features of the landscape studied in this thesis in their wider context.

The recovery of objects by extensive fieldwalking seems to be a suitable method for defining Romano-British and medieval settlement and land use patterns. The method could be used on

present garden surfaces and pasture disturbed by trampling livestock as well as on present arable land. The pottery sequence suggested on typological grounds above could be tested by the excavation of deposits in Sutton Coldfield town centre or in one of the village or hamlet nuclei. Earthworks, soil marks and cropmarks may be located by further ground survey and inspection of aerial photographs. The ground survey could include a search of stream banks for exposures of burnt mounds and other features. It is unlikely that further aerial reconnaissance for archaeological purposes will be undertaken, because of the restrictions imposed by Air Traffic Control, but more surveys for planning purposes will make additional vertical photographs available. A detailed structural survey of standing buildings, both externally and internally, may demonstrate that earlier features survive in buildings which had previously been dated by a superficial examination of their exteriors only. A search of adjacent garden surfaces could be combined with the structural survey. The archaeological evidence could be augmented by a detailed study of the abundant medieval and later documentation for some parts of Sutton Chase, such as Erdington and Middleton, which was not fully considered in the present study.

It was noted above that the record of past environmental conditions in the study area was poor. In particular, nothing is known of conditions during the Middle Ages. Peat near New Hall and Curdworth (above, p.97) may provide a sequence of vegetation change. The banks of earthworks will seal the ground surface at the time of their construction, and preserve a buried soil profile. Even if pollen preservation within the profile is poor, surface pollen on the buried soil will indicate the local pollen rain at the time of construction. The method of dating hedges by counting species requires further testing in the study area to determine whether it is applicable here.

Abbreviations used in text and bibliography

BAR British Archaeological Reports

BRL Bimingham Reference Library

CBA Res. Rep. Council for British Archaeology Research Report

LRO Lichfield Joint Record Office

NMR National Monuments Record

PRO Public Record Office

SCL Sutton Coldfield Library

SHC Staffordshire Historical Collections

SRO Staffordshire County Record Office

ST Staffordshire County Sites and Monuments Record

TB(W)AS Transactions of the Birmingham (and Warwickshire) Archaeological Society

TSSAHS Transactions of the (Lichfield and) South Staffordshire Archaeological Society

WA Warwickshire County Sites and Monuments Record

WMA West Midlands Archaeology

WMANS West Midlands Archaeological News Sheet

WRO Warwickshire County Record Office

WSL William Salt Library, Stafford

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YOUATT, W. (1837)	Sheep, their breeds, management, and diseases (London)

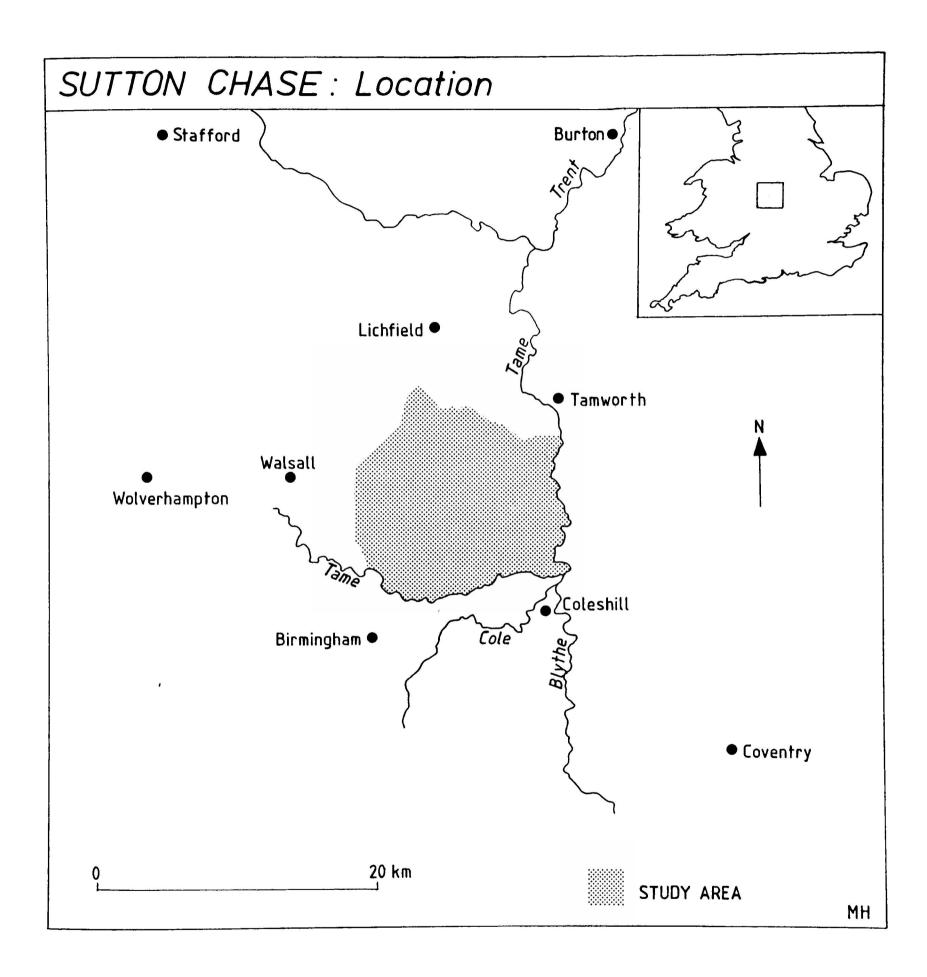


fig. 1

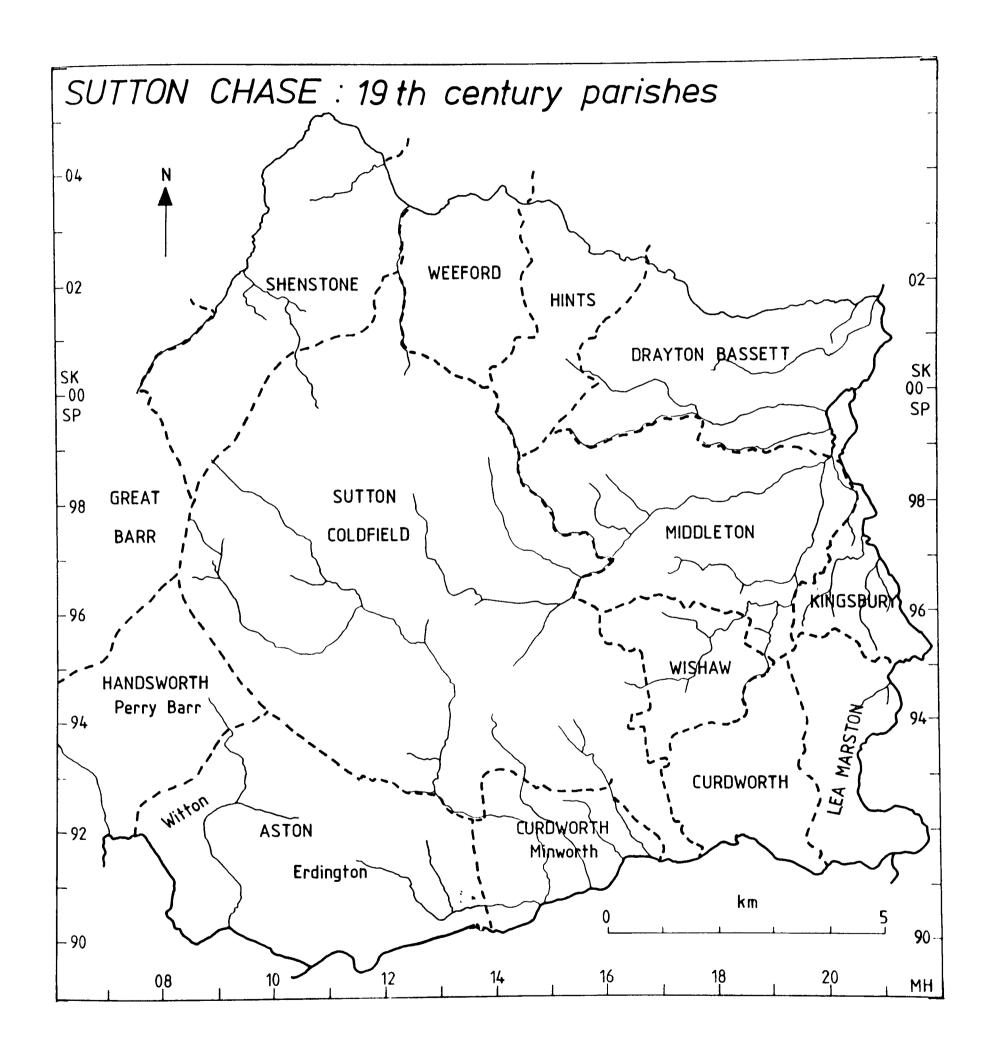


fig. 2

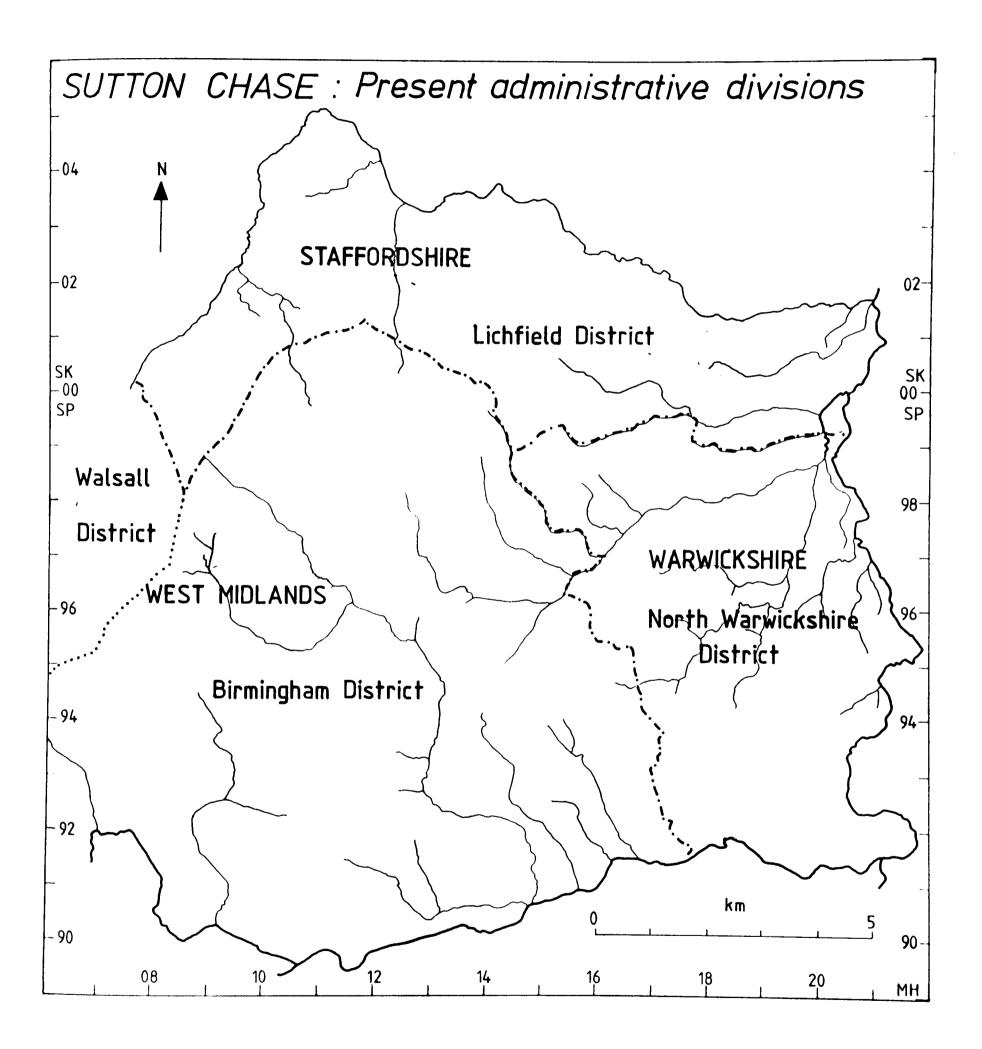


fig. 3

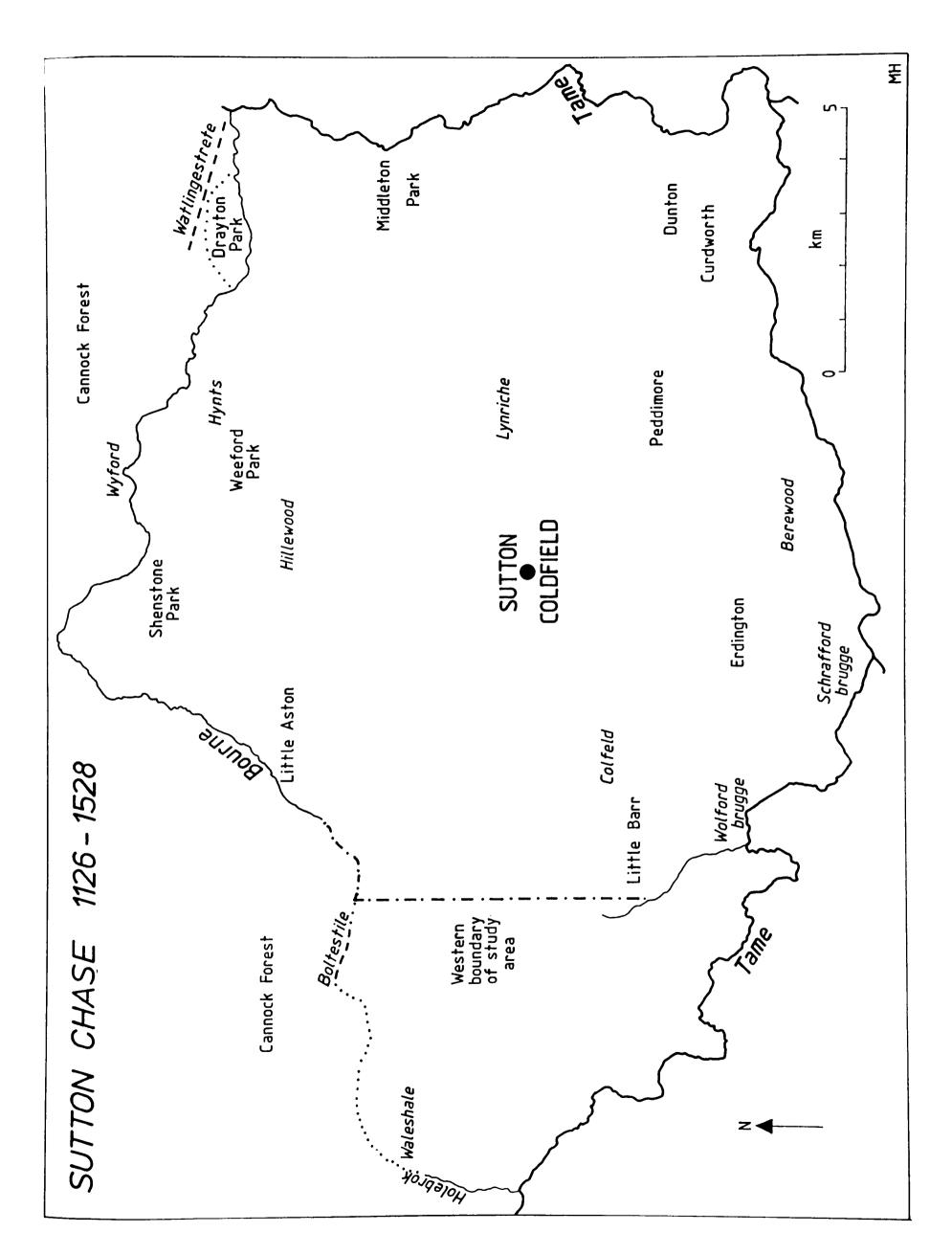


fig. 4

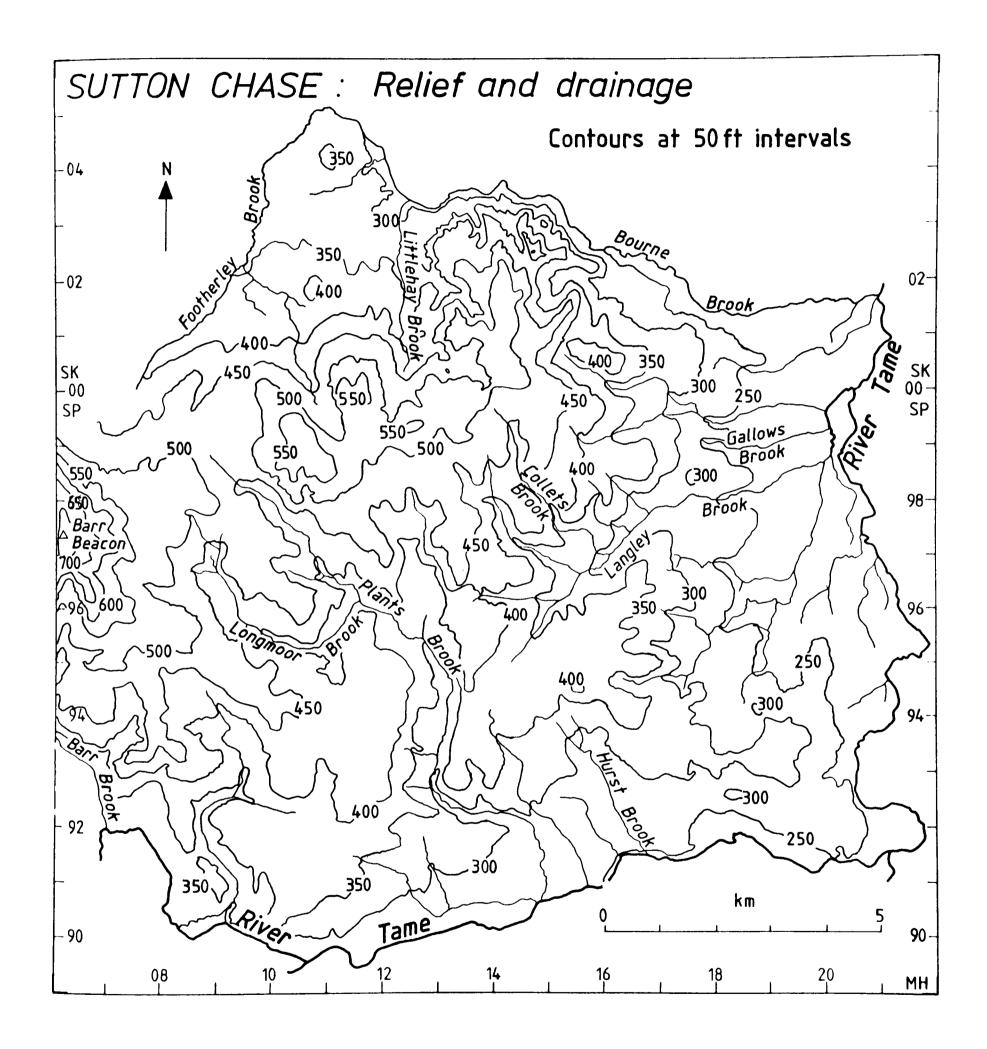
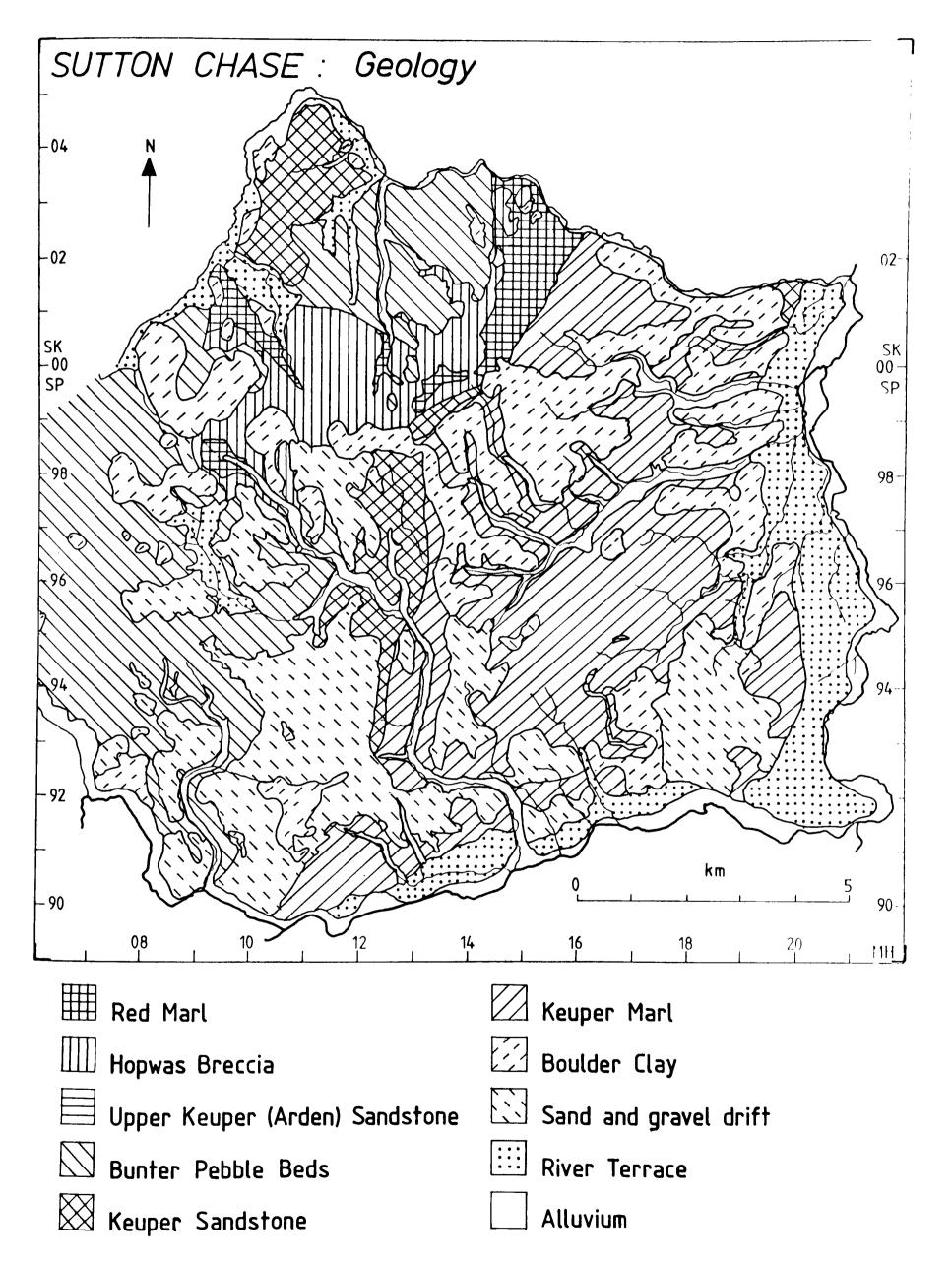


fig. 5



SUTTON CHASE: Soil records I LELAND (16th cent.) and 'AGRICOLA' dry and sandy (1762)sandy or gravelly dry ¦and sandy rich and loamy dry /and /sandy 5 km Sutton parish boundary Leland's routes WEDGE (1794), MURRAY (1813) HUMPHREYS (1913) hungry sand hungry sand and gravel and gravel: very poor and moorish dry gravel sandy and(poor soils moorish good red clay loam $5\,km$ ···· County boundary Murray's zones

fig. 7

SUTTON CHASE: Soil records II **FIELDWALKING OBSERVATIONS** Δ $_{\Delta}^{\Delta}$ Δ ΔΔ Δ Δ Δ Δ Δ $\triangle \triangle$ Δ Δ Δ 5 km \triangle sandy soils ▲ clay soils SOIL SURVEY Δ Δ Δ_{Δ} Δ -_______ limit of detailed survey Sutton sample Park sites Δ Δ^{Δ} $5 \, km$ sandy clay loam \triangle sandy loam ▲ clay loam

fig. 8

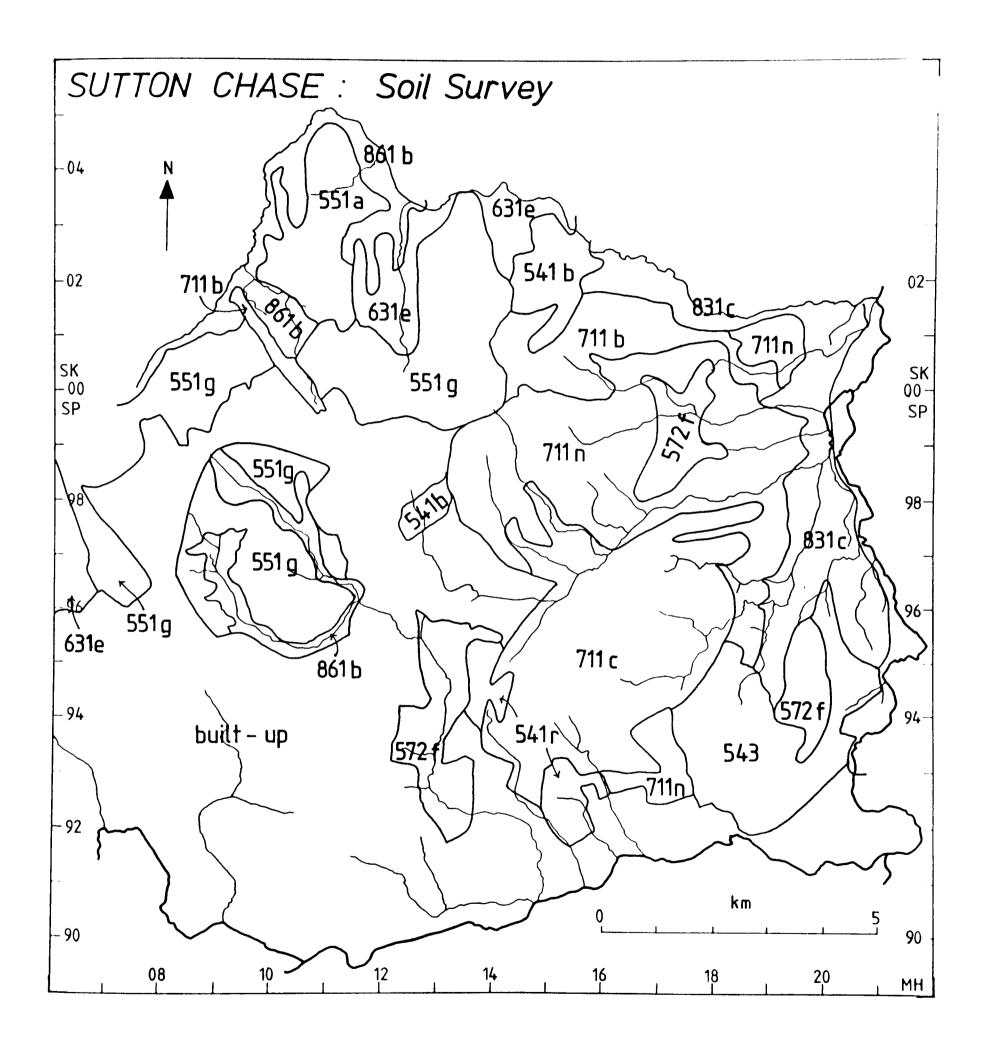


fig. 9

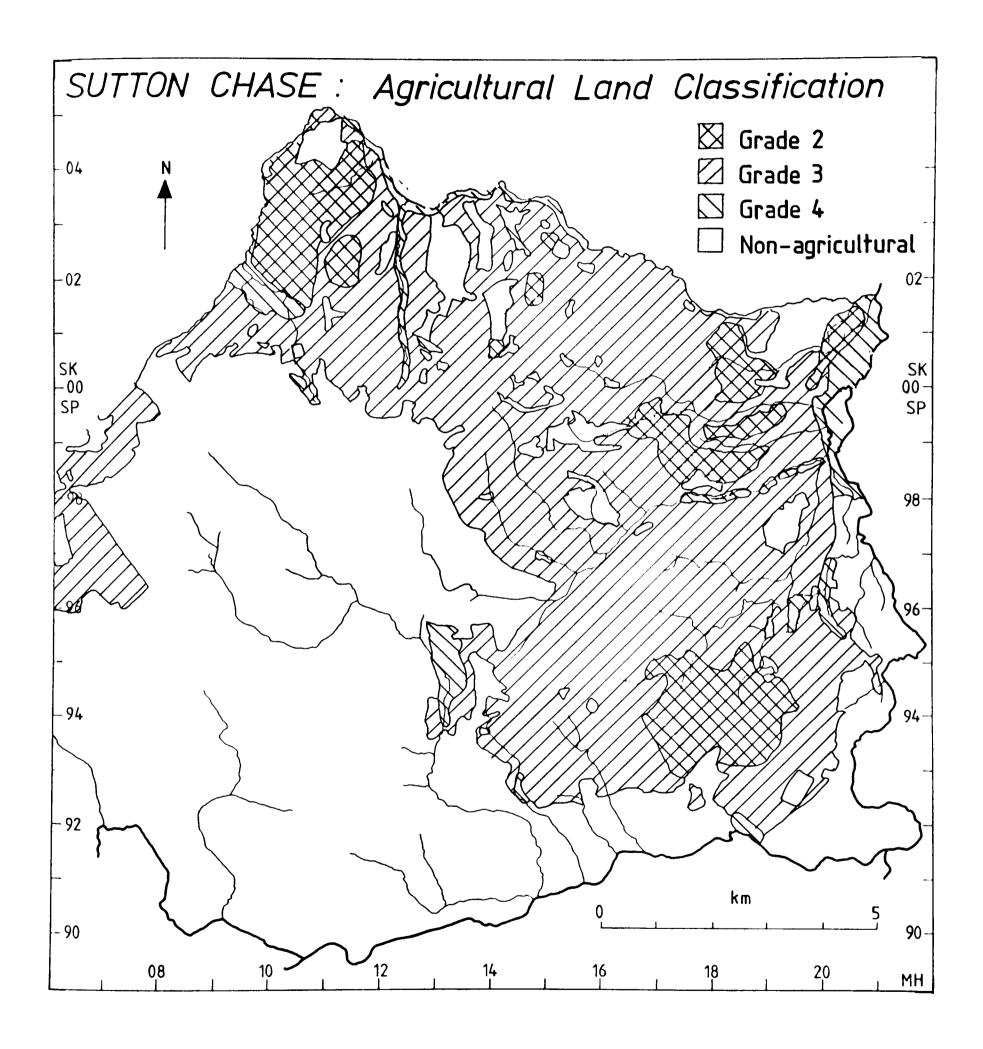


fig. 10

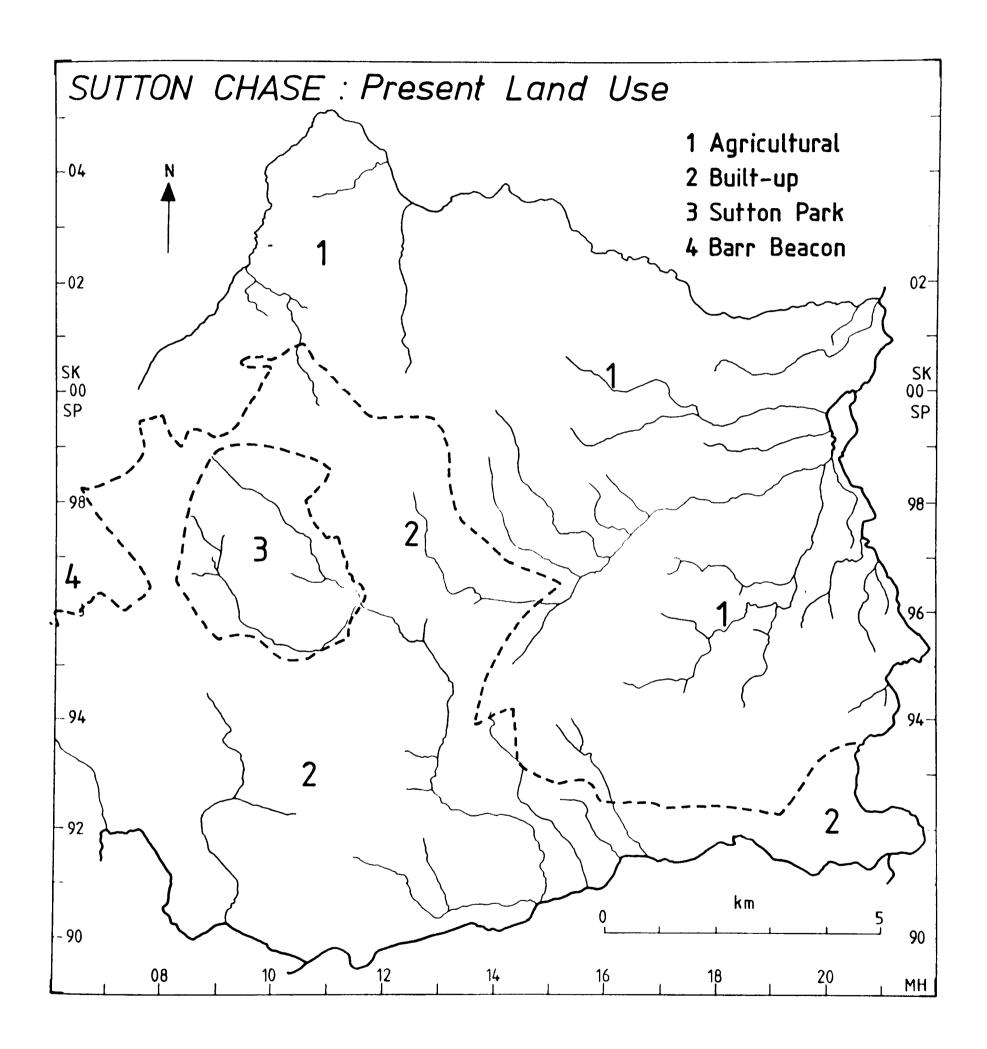


fig. 11

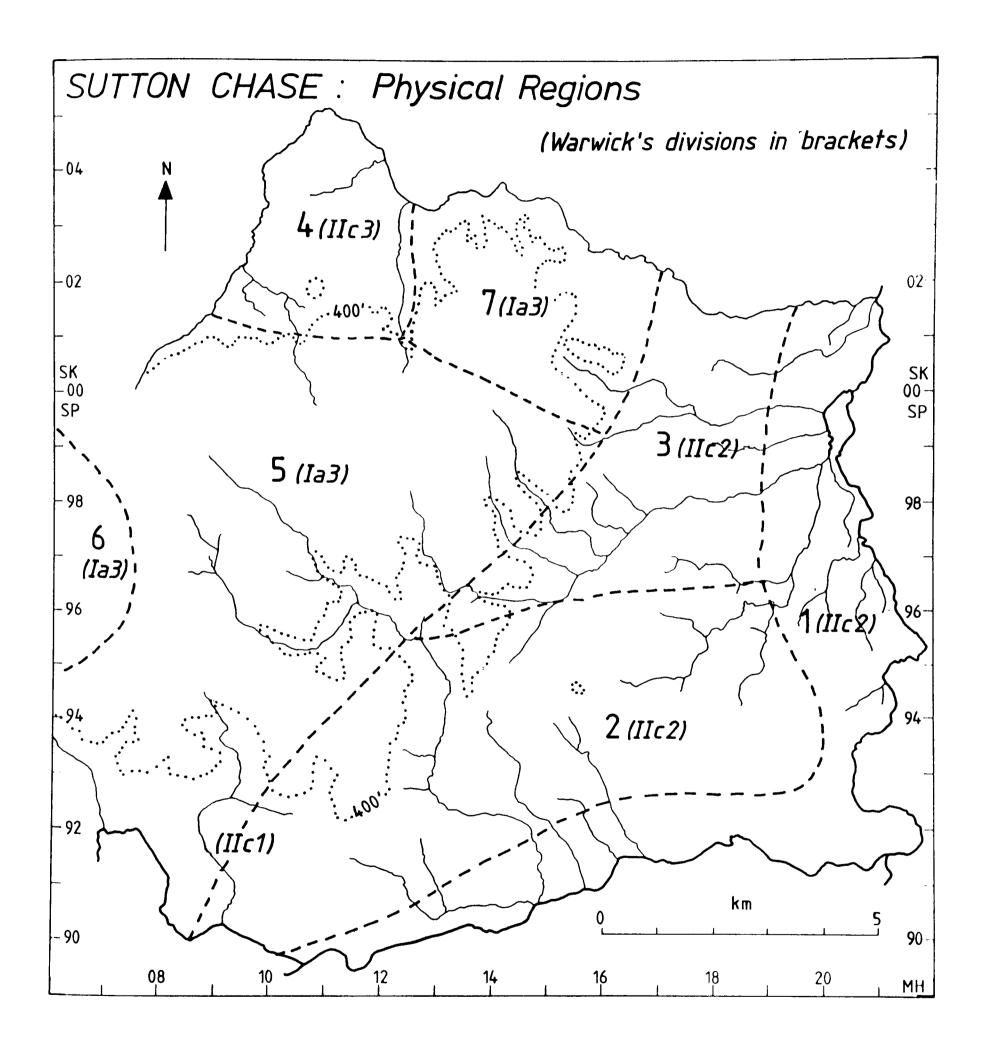


fig. 12

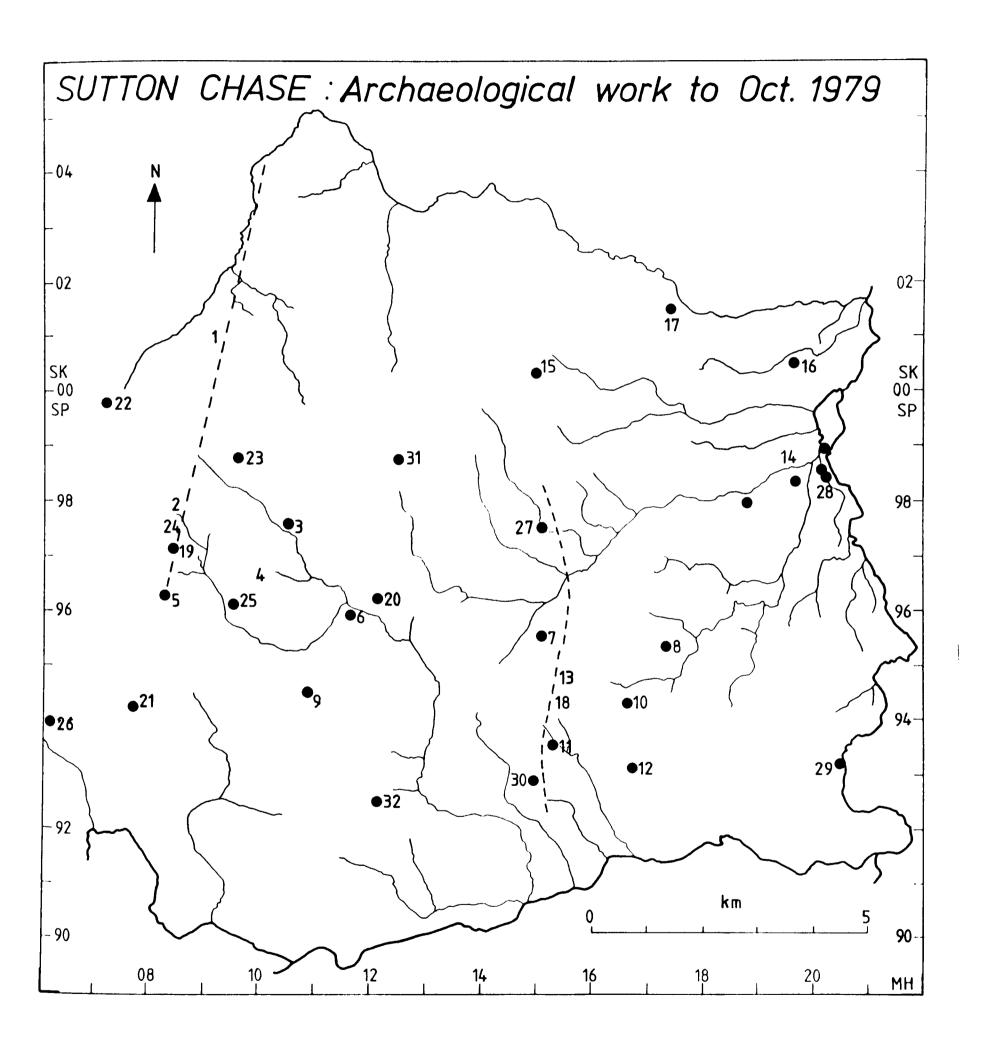
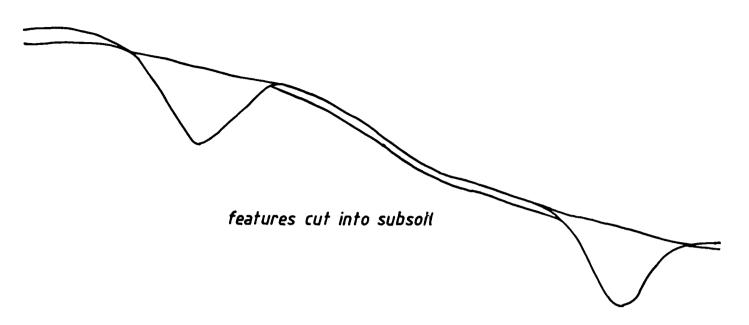
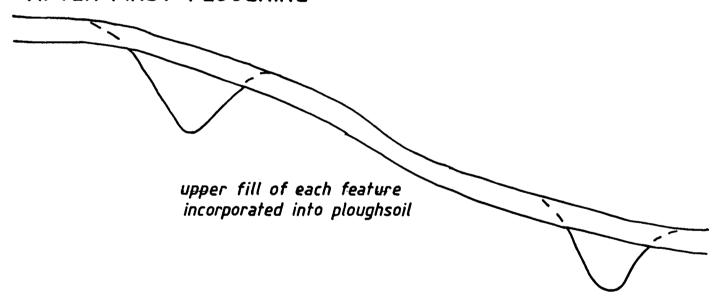


fig. 13

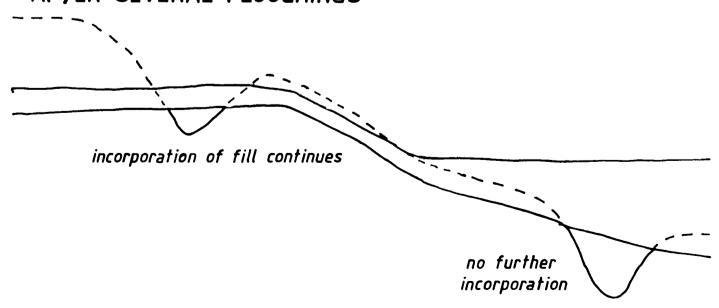
BEFORE PLOUGHING



AFTER FIRST PLOUGHING



AFTER SEVERAL PLOUGHINGS



LKING ZONES PRODUCING FLINT (TOTAL=56) FIELDWA

Cultivation conditions

other (29)	
ploughed (27)	

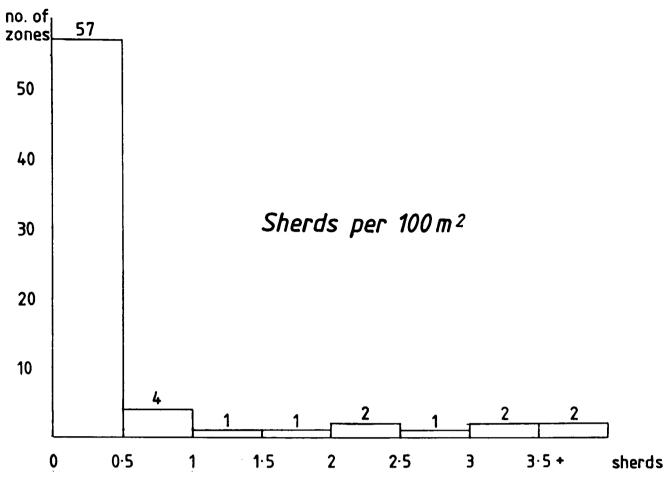
Surface moisture

dry (3)	
p (53)	

Surface lighting

sunny (19)	
dull (37)	

POTTERY FABRICS 23, 36, 37, 39: Fieldwalking



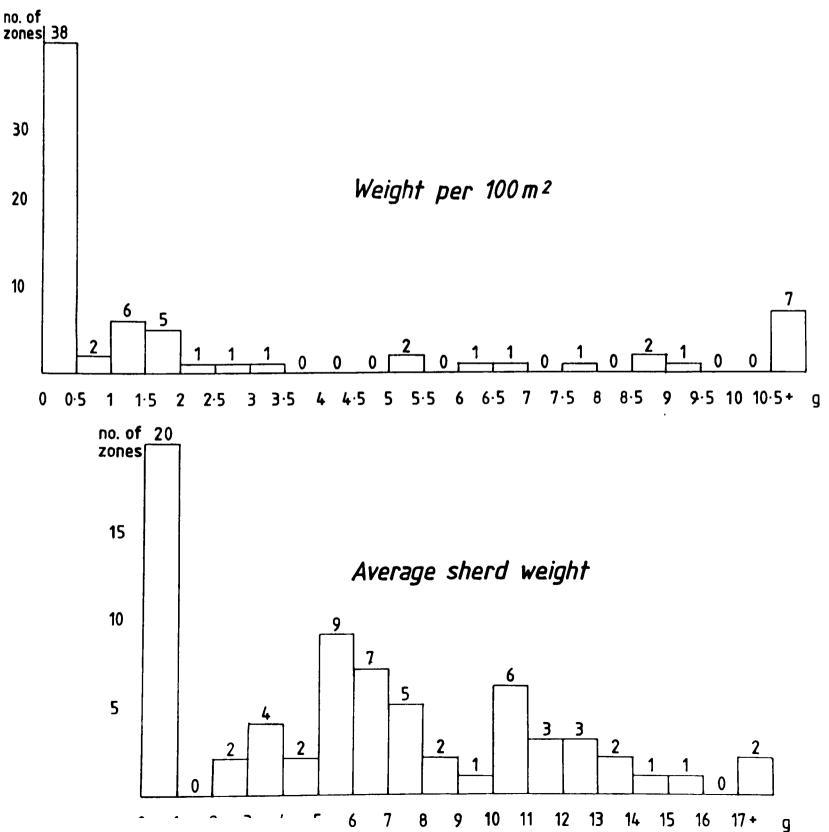


fig.16

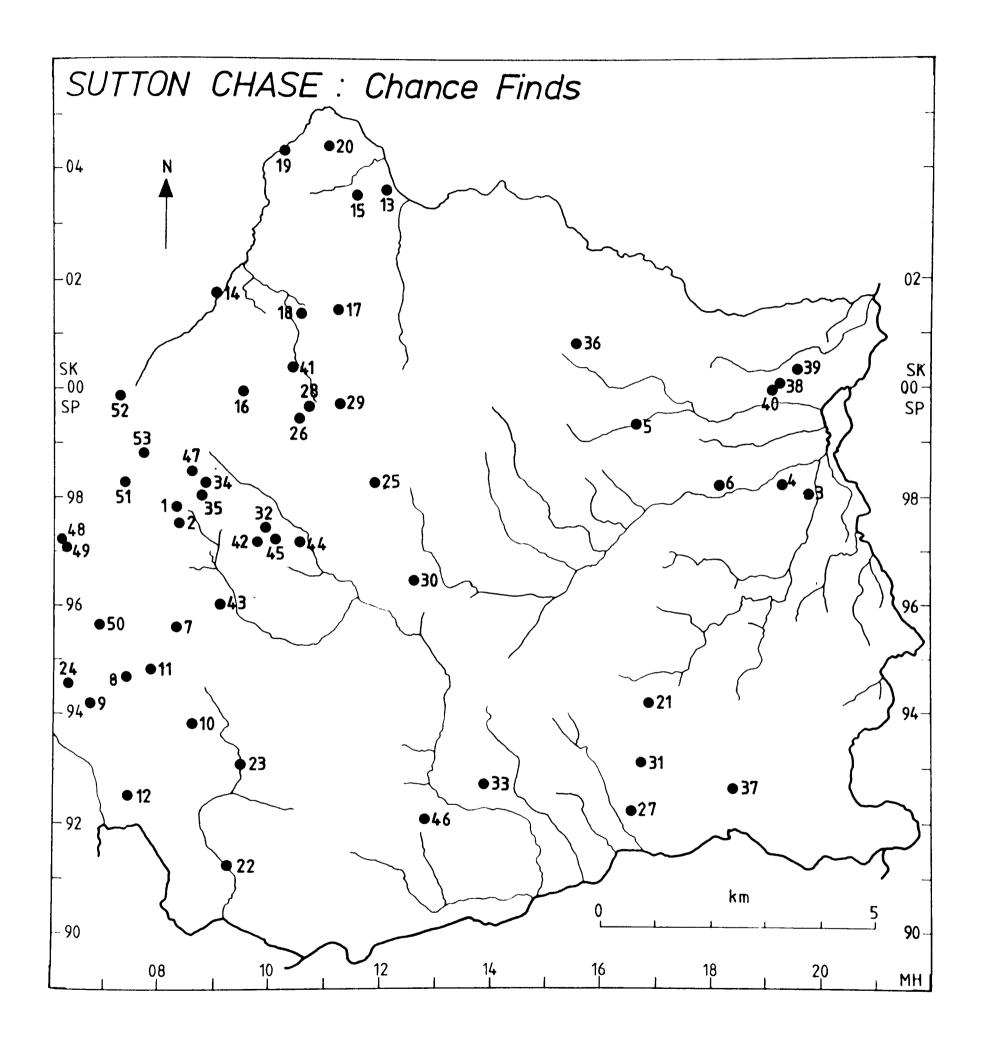


fig. 17

CHANCE FINDS ANALYSIS (TOTAL=53)

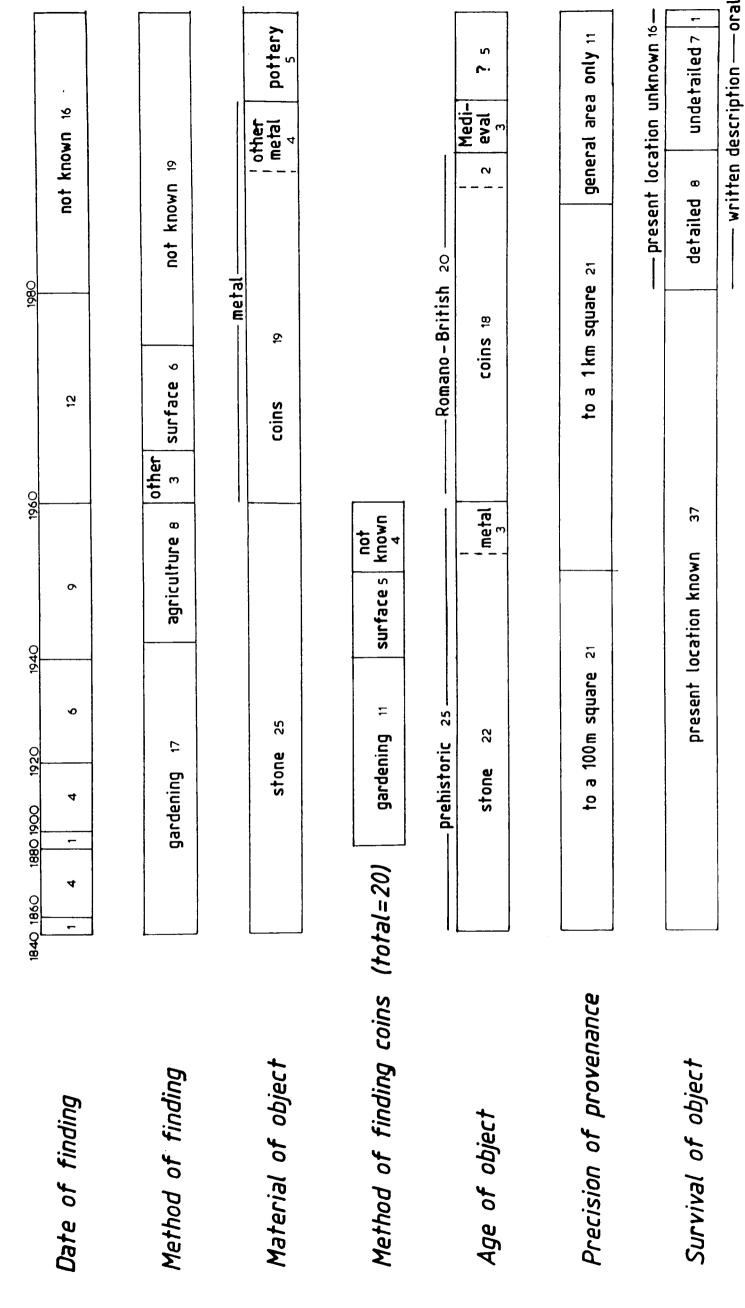
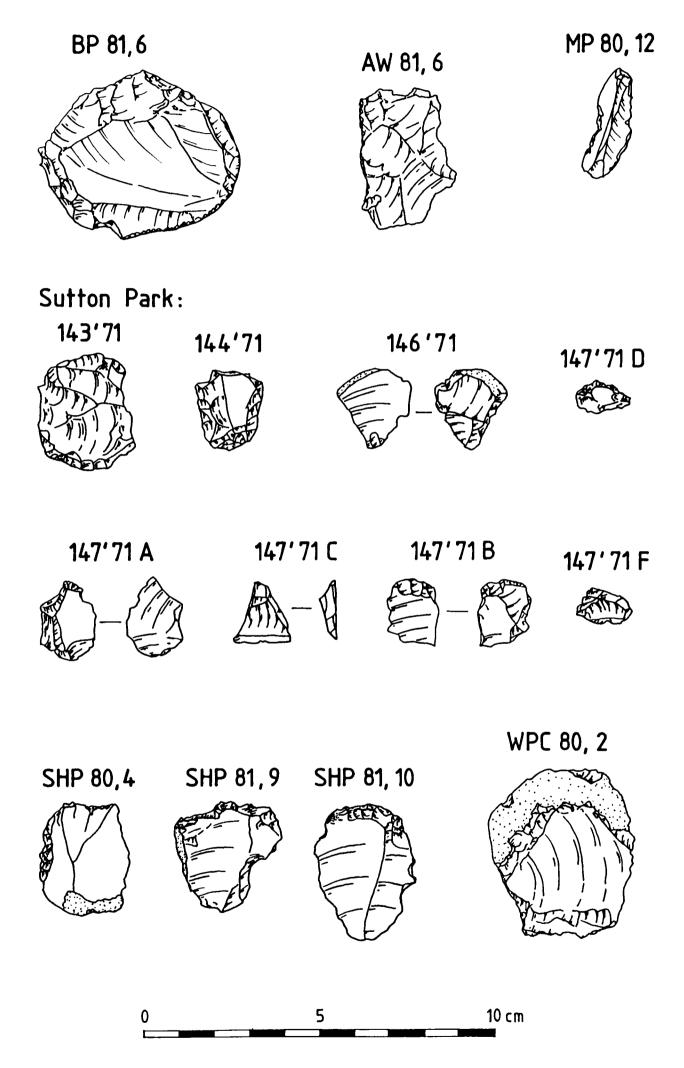


fig. 18

FLINTS: Parks



FLINTS: Waste, Hamlets, Moats

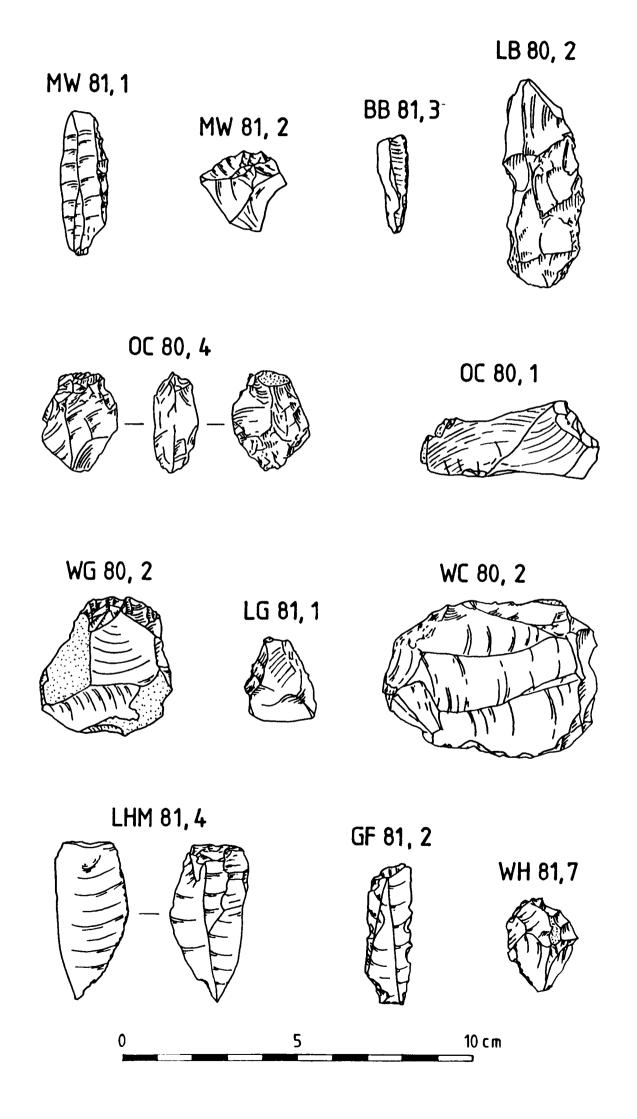


fig. 20

GUNFLINTS

BB 81, 5





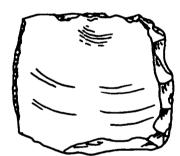
PA 81, 2



PA 81, 1



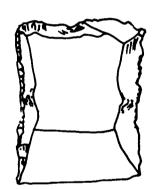
WH 81, 6



WC 81, 7



MNW 81,8





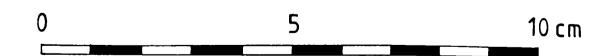
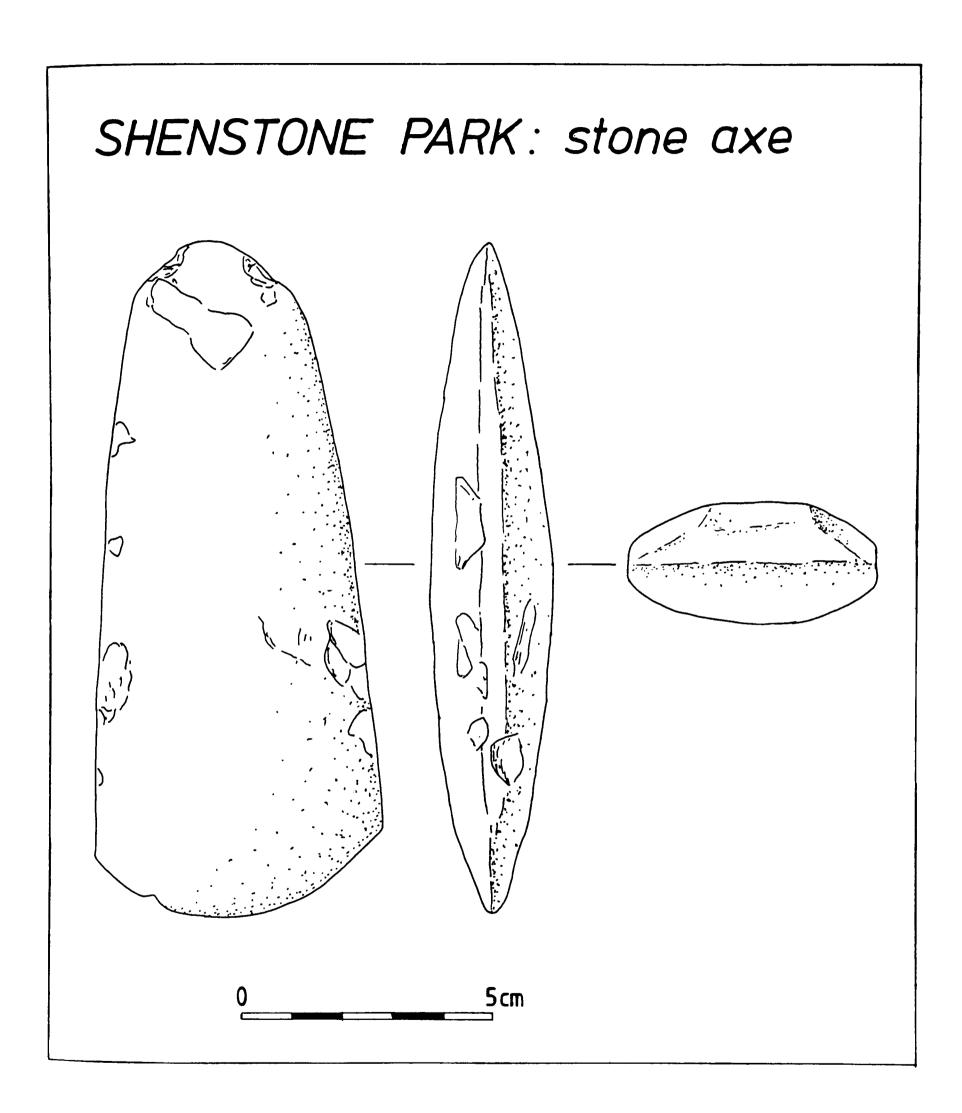
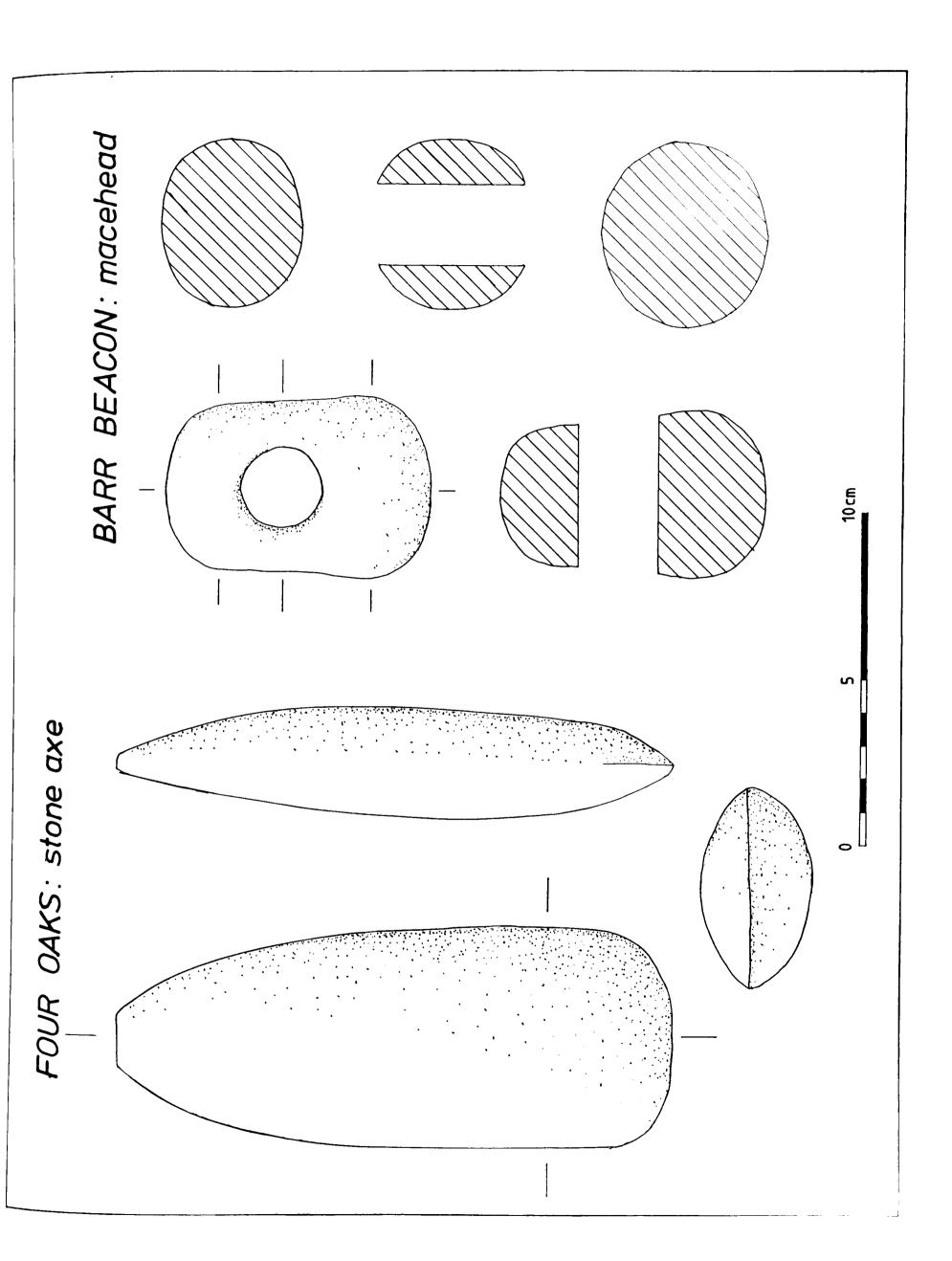
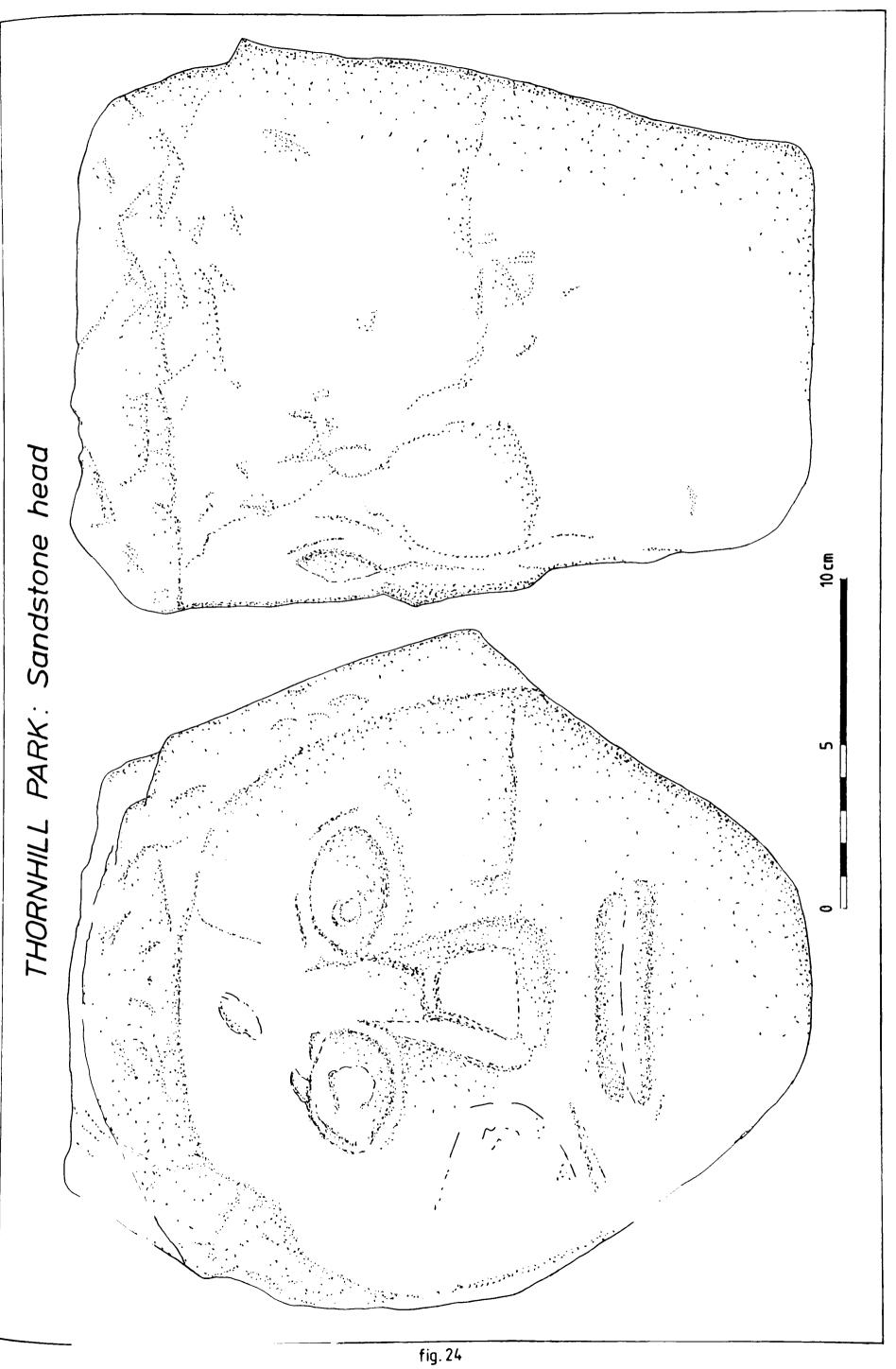


fig. 21







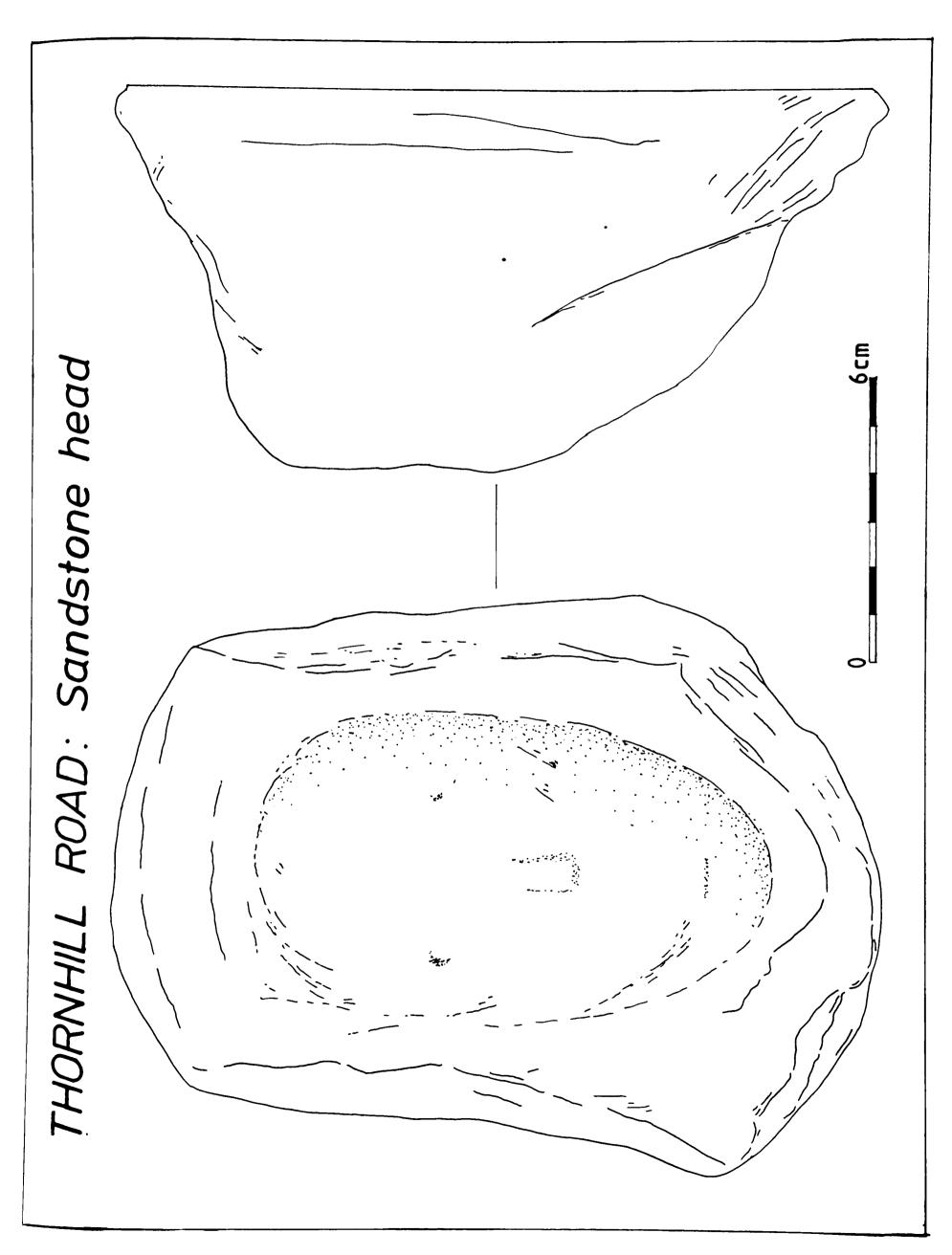


fig. 25

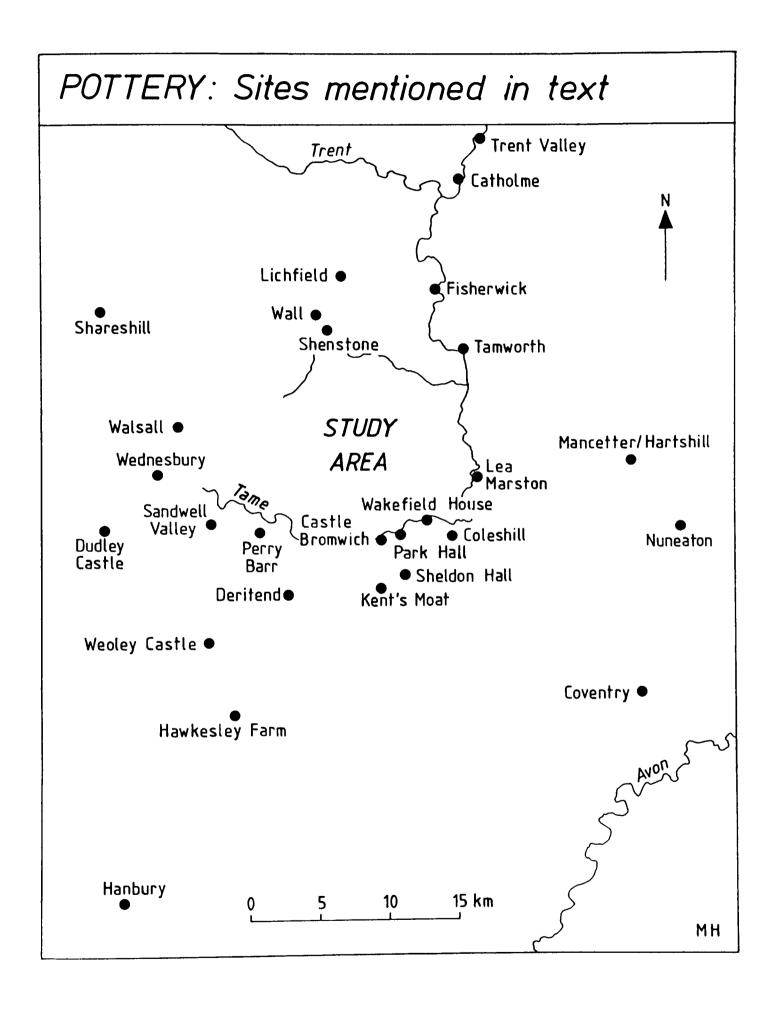
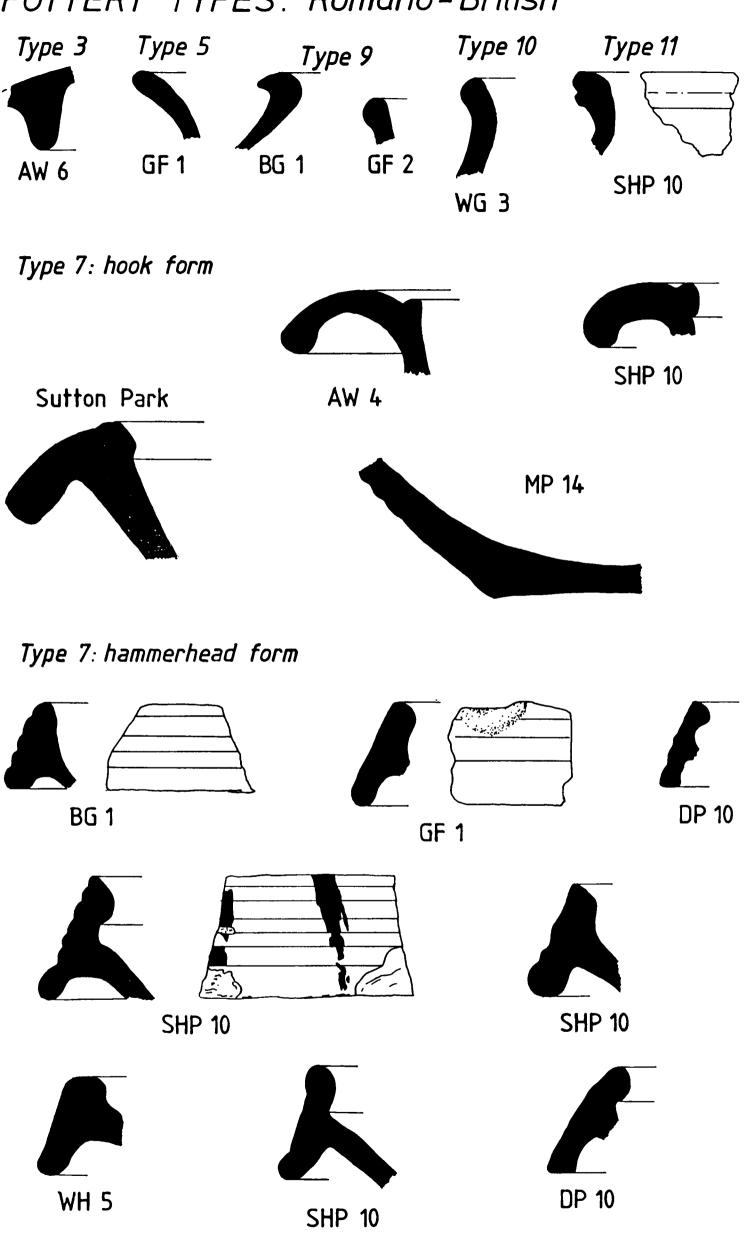


fig. 26

POTTERY TYPES: Romano-British



0 5 10 cm fig. 27

POTTERY TYPES: Medieval

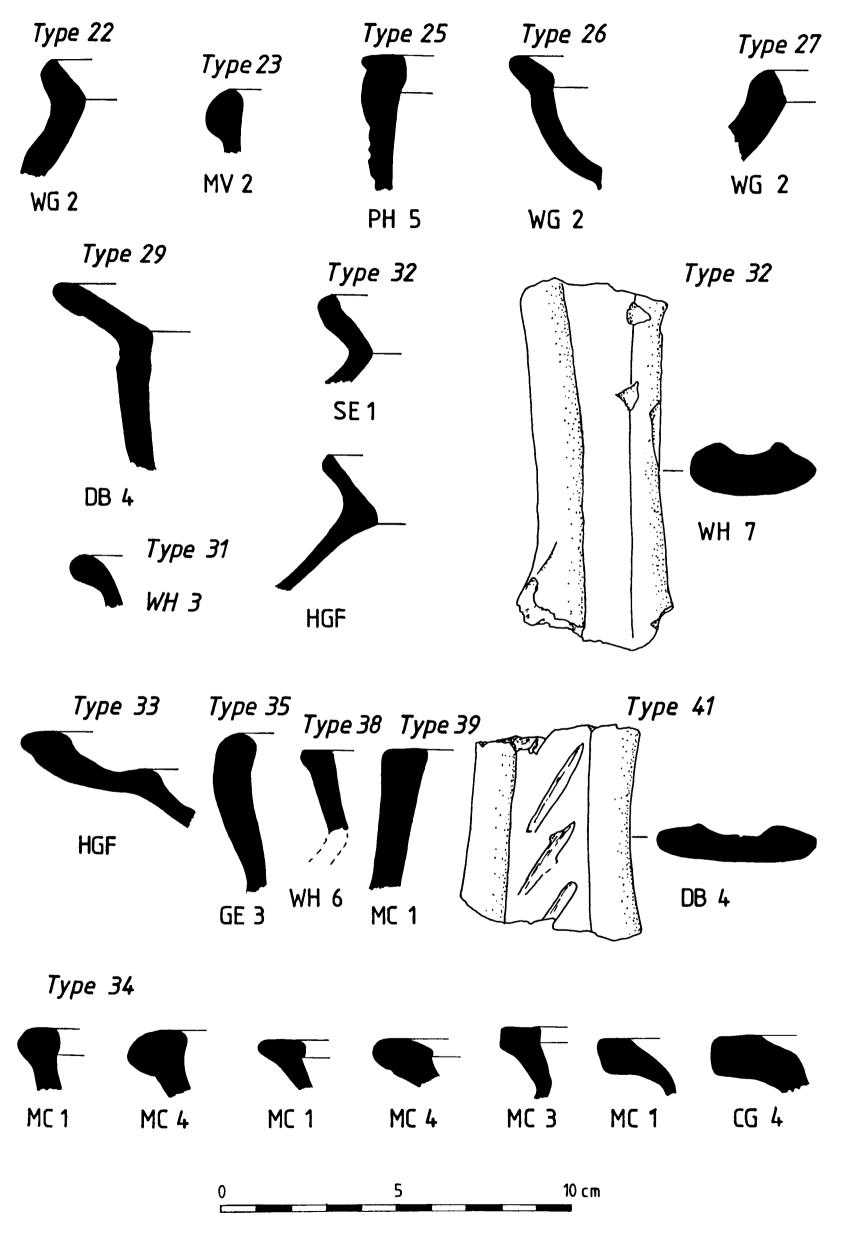


fig. 28

POTTERY TYPES: Medieval, Type 36

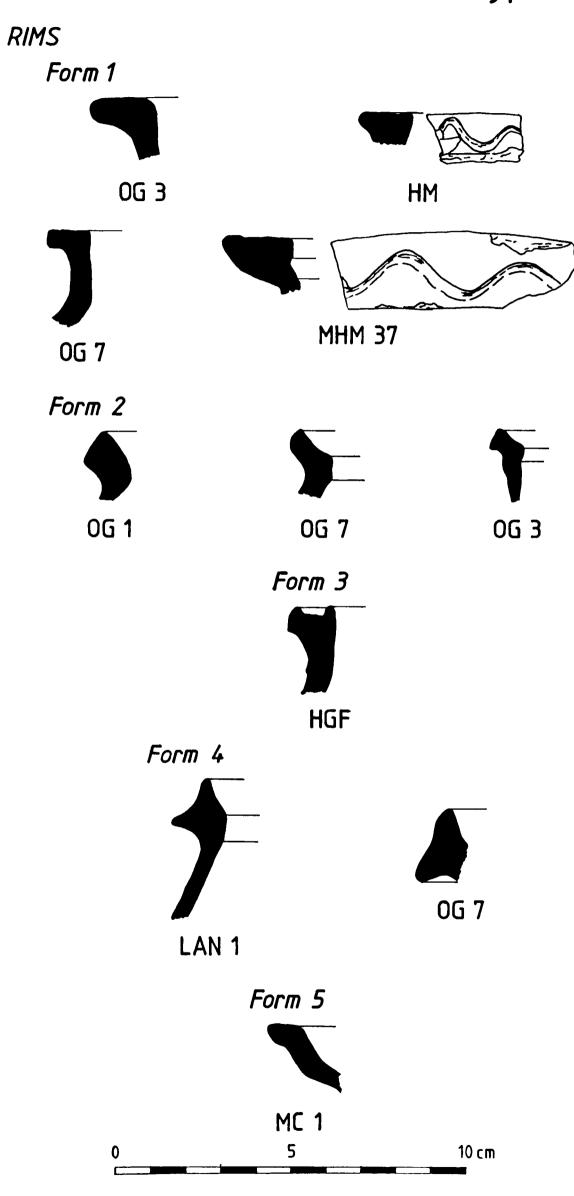


fig. 29

POTTERY TYPES: Medieval, Type 36

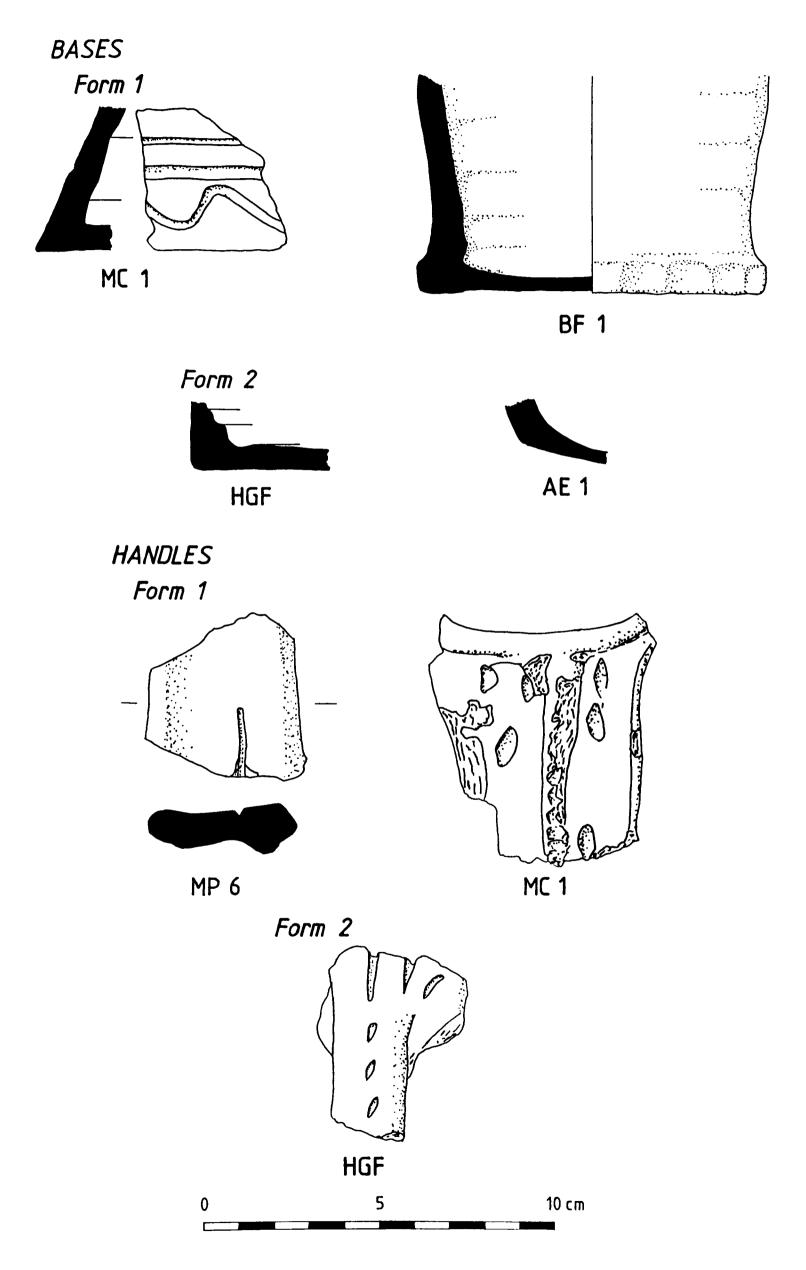


fig. 30

POTTERY TYPES: Post-Medieval

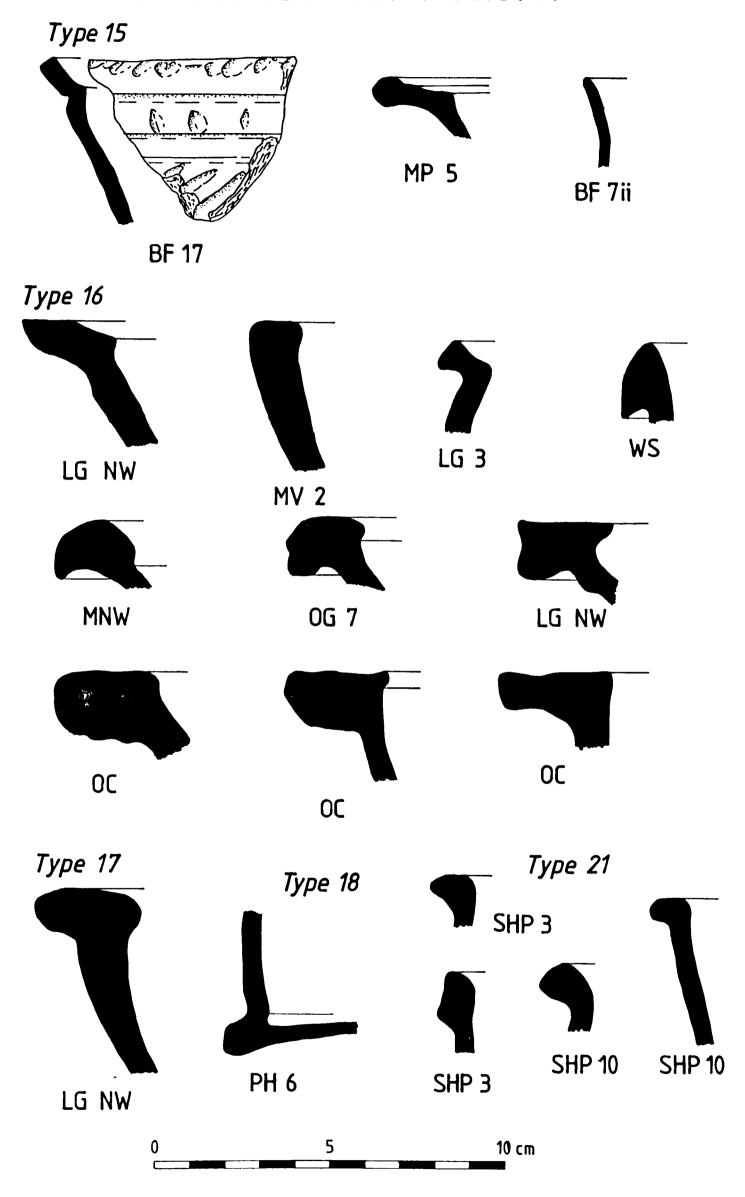


fig. 31

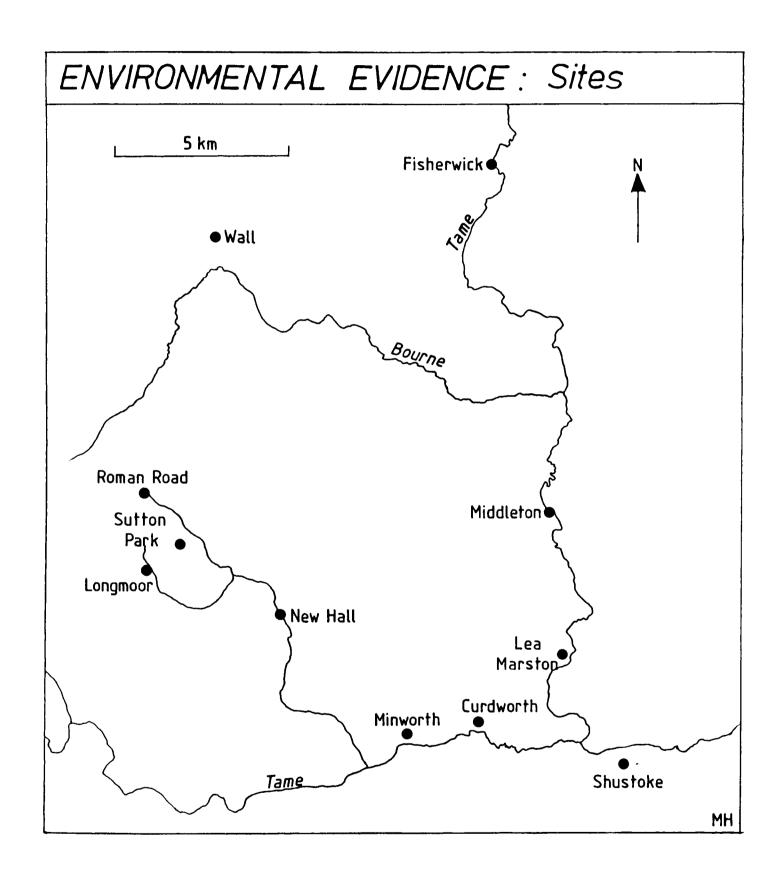


fig. 32

PARISH PLANS: Key

- ▲ Eponymous village
- △ Hamlet
- Moated site
- □ Non-moated isolated site
- Unenclosed common waste
- □ Park
- ··· Parish boundary
- Fieldwalking zone
- × Chance finds

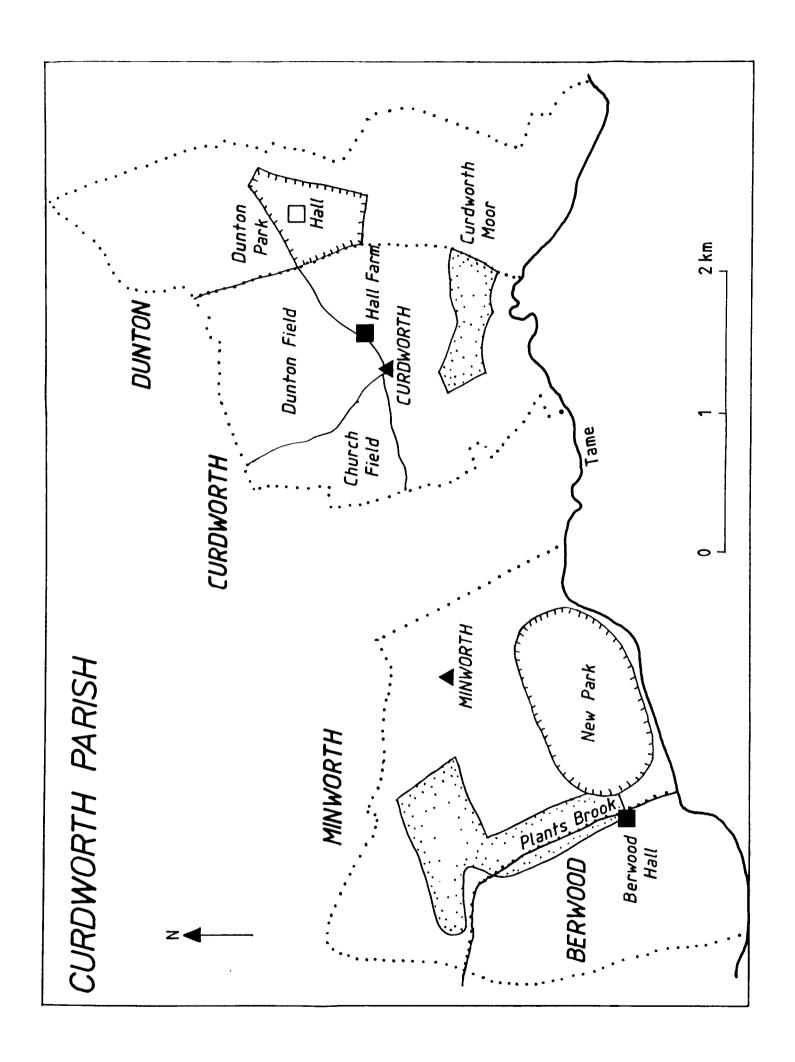


fig. 34

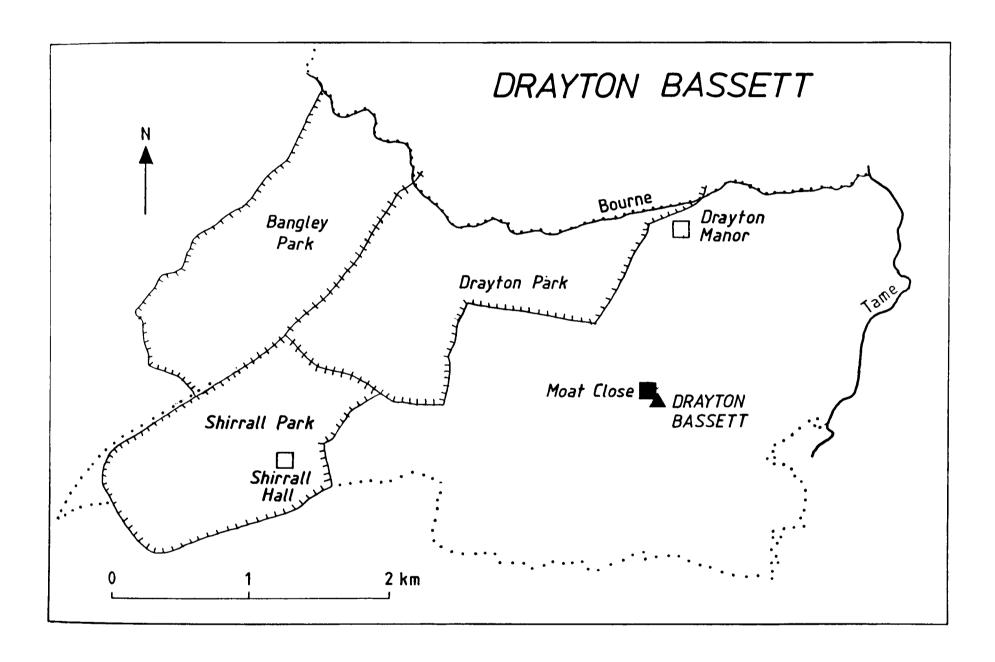


fig. 35

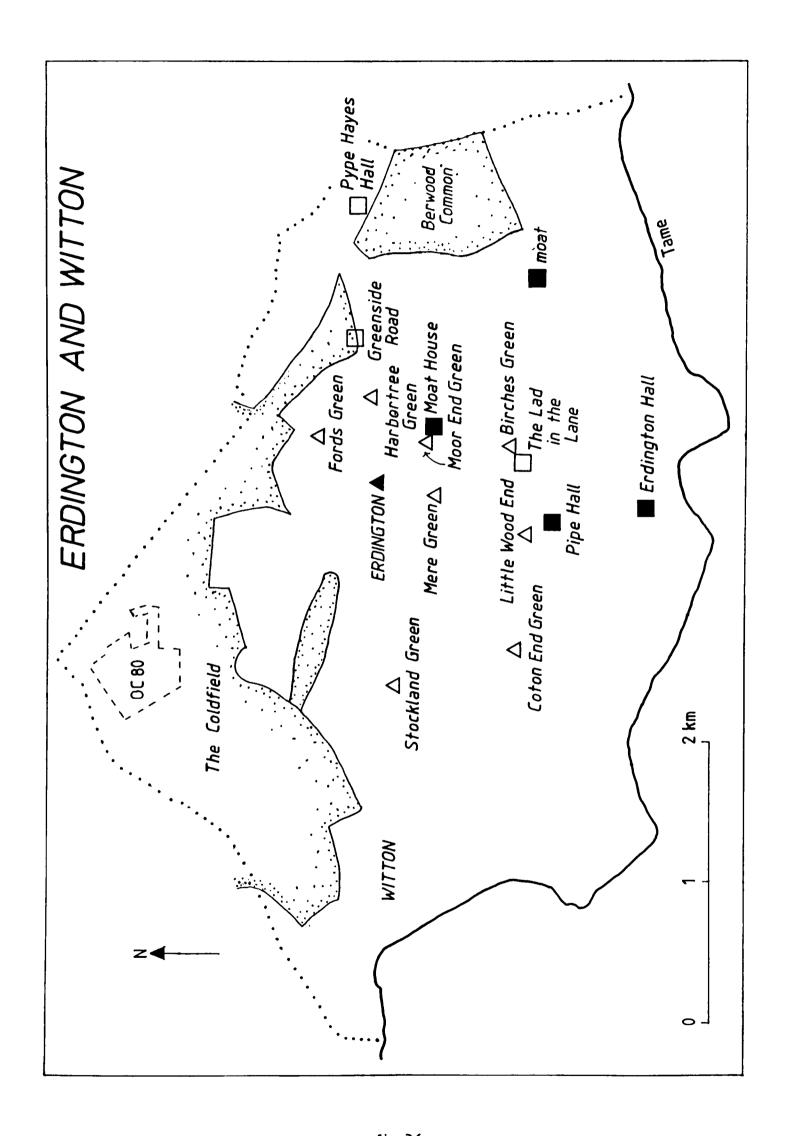
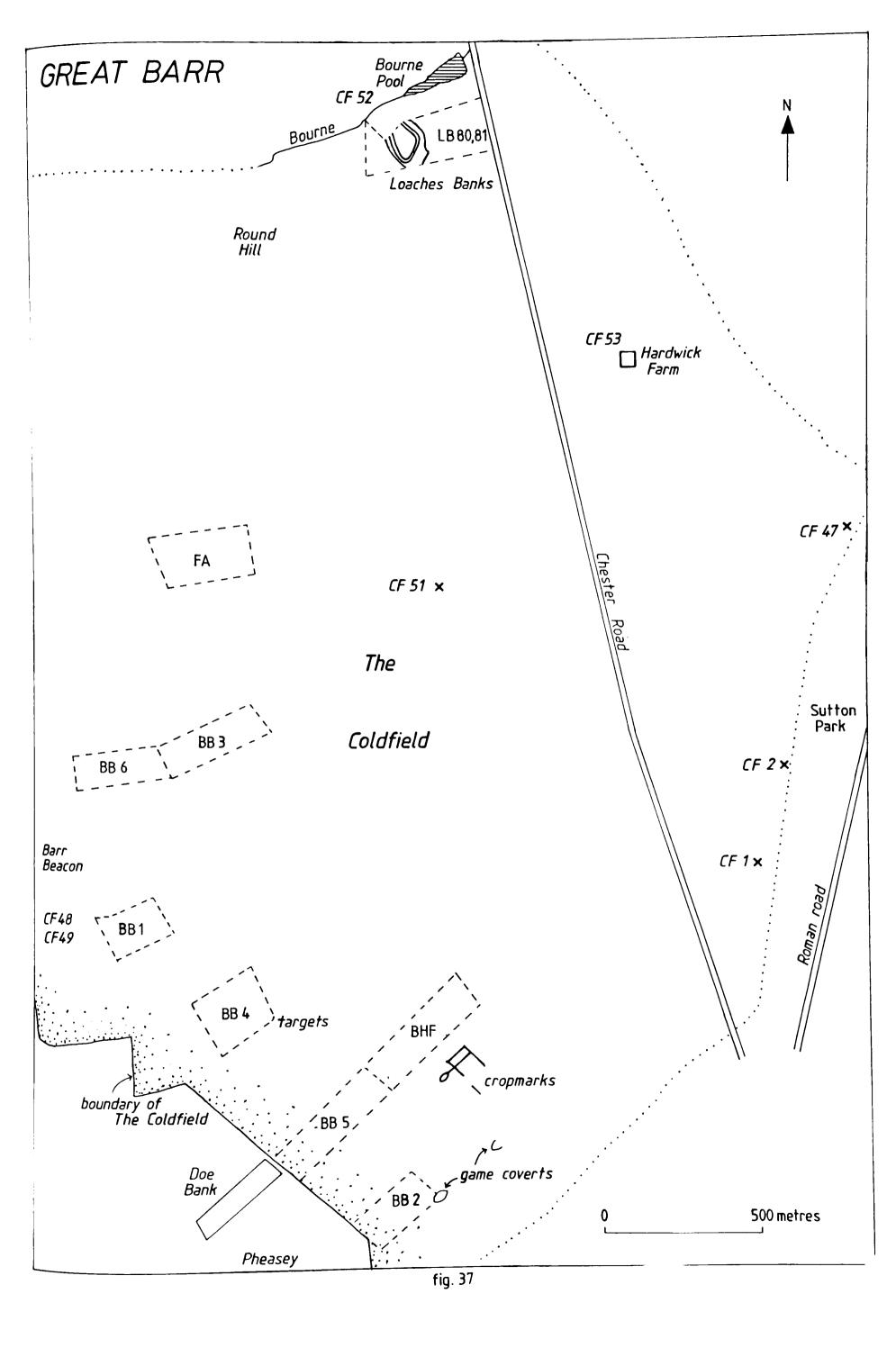


fig. 36



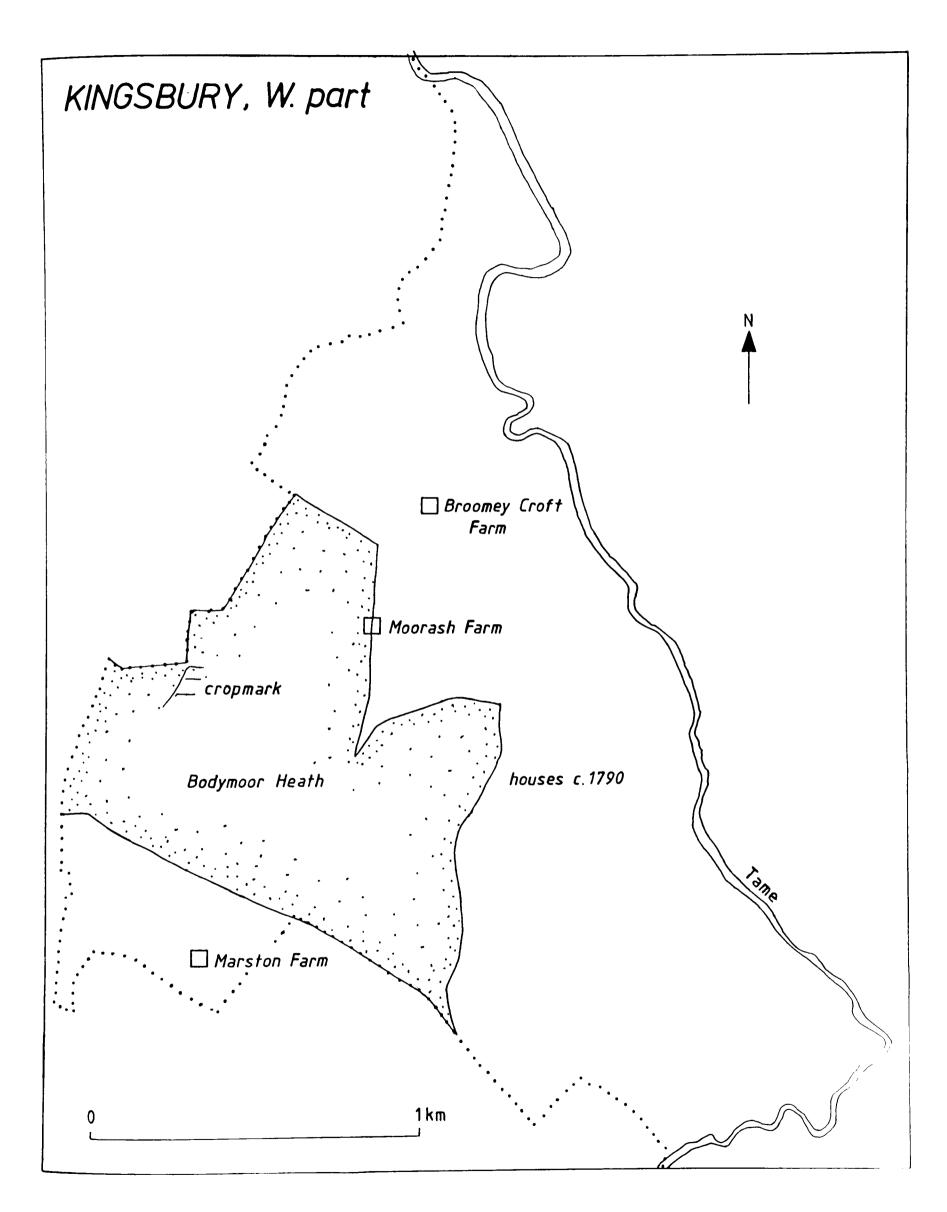
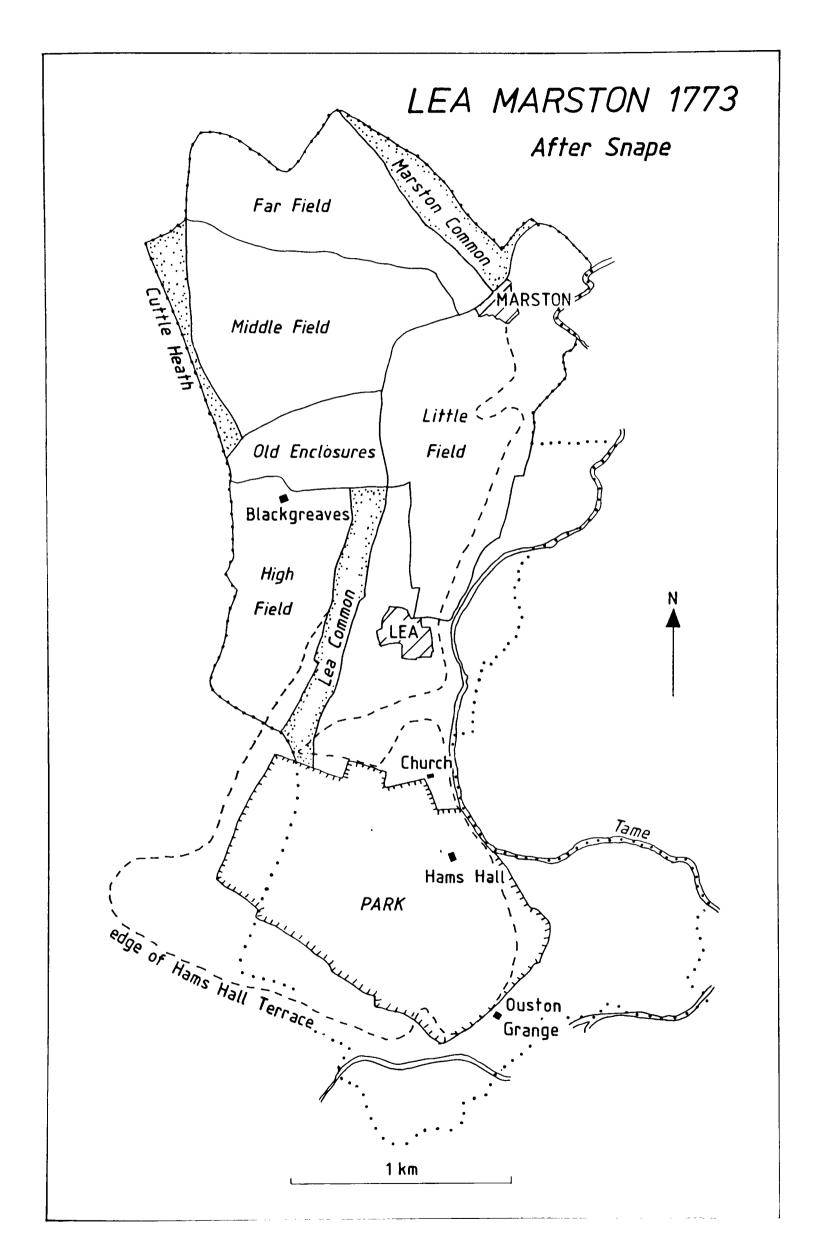


fig. 38



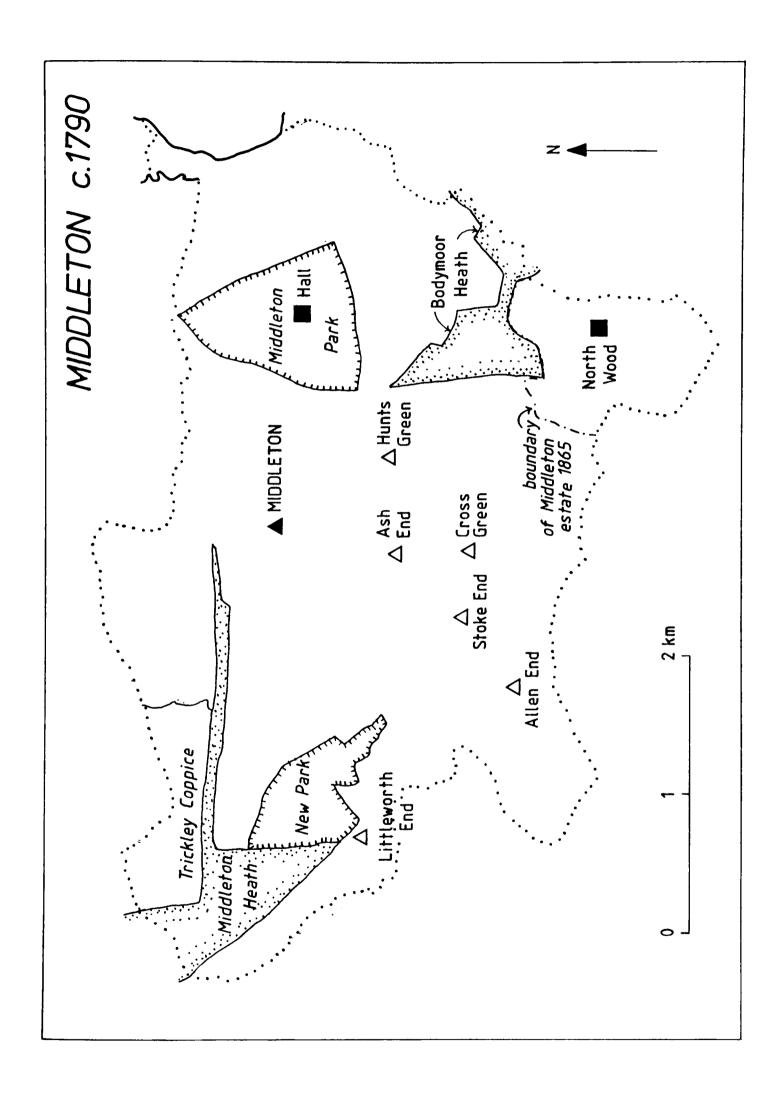


fig. 40

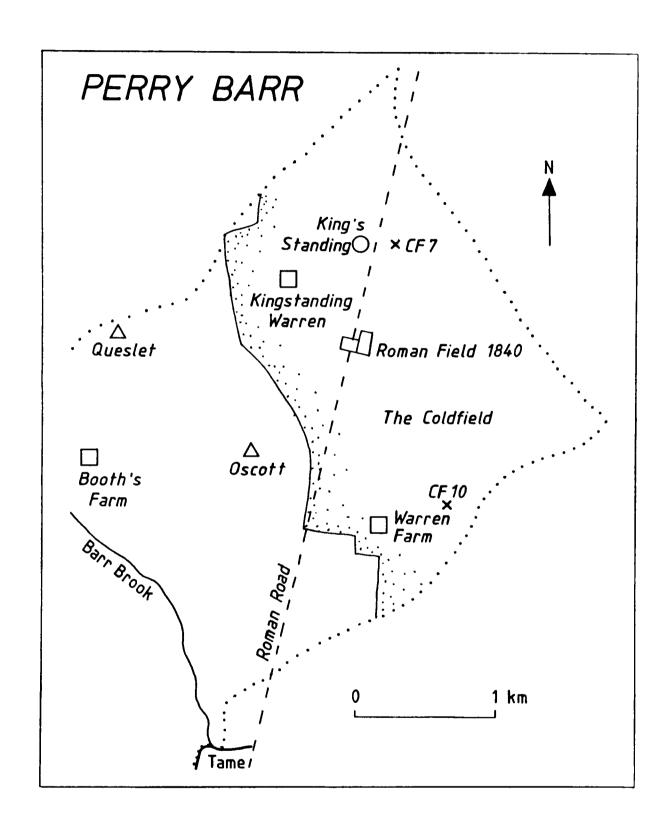


fig. 41

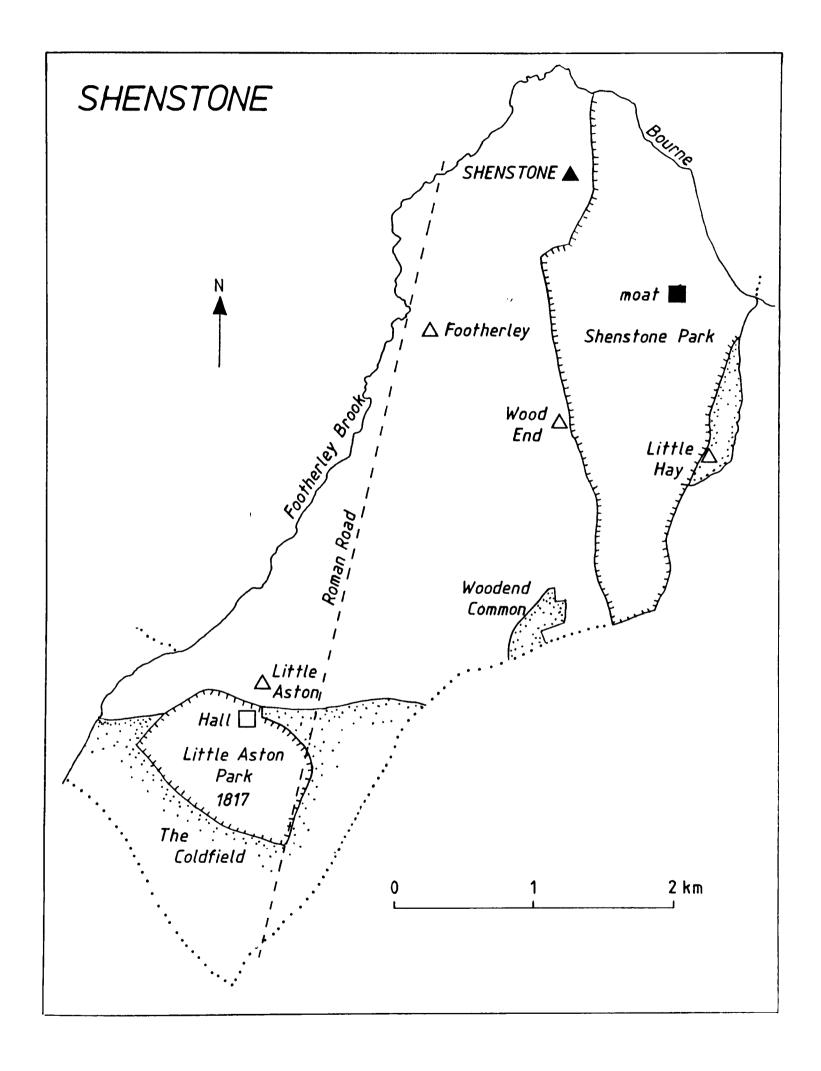


fig. 42

Key to Fig. 43: SUTTON COLDFIELD PARISH

- 1. The Coldfield
- 2. Eastern Waste
- 3. Four Oaks Common
- 4. Hillwood Common
- 5. Four Oaks Park and Hall
- 6. Moor Hall Park, Moor Hall and Old Farm
- 7. Sutton Park
- 8. Sutton Coldfield
- 9. Hill
- 10. Little Sutton
- 11. Maney
- 12. Minworth Greaves
- 13. Thimble End
- 14. Walmley Ash
- 15. Wiggins Hill
- 16. Windley
- 17. Hermitage Farm
- 18. Hurst Gren
- 19. Langley Hall
- 20. New Hall
- 21. New Shipton
- 22. Peddimore Hall
- 23. Walmley Ash
- 24. Gibbet Hill

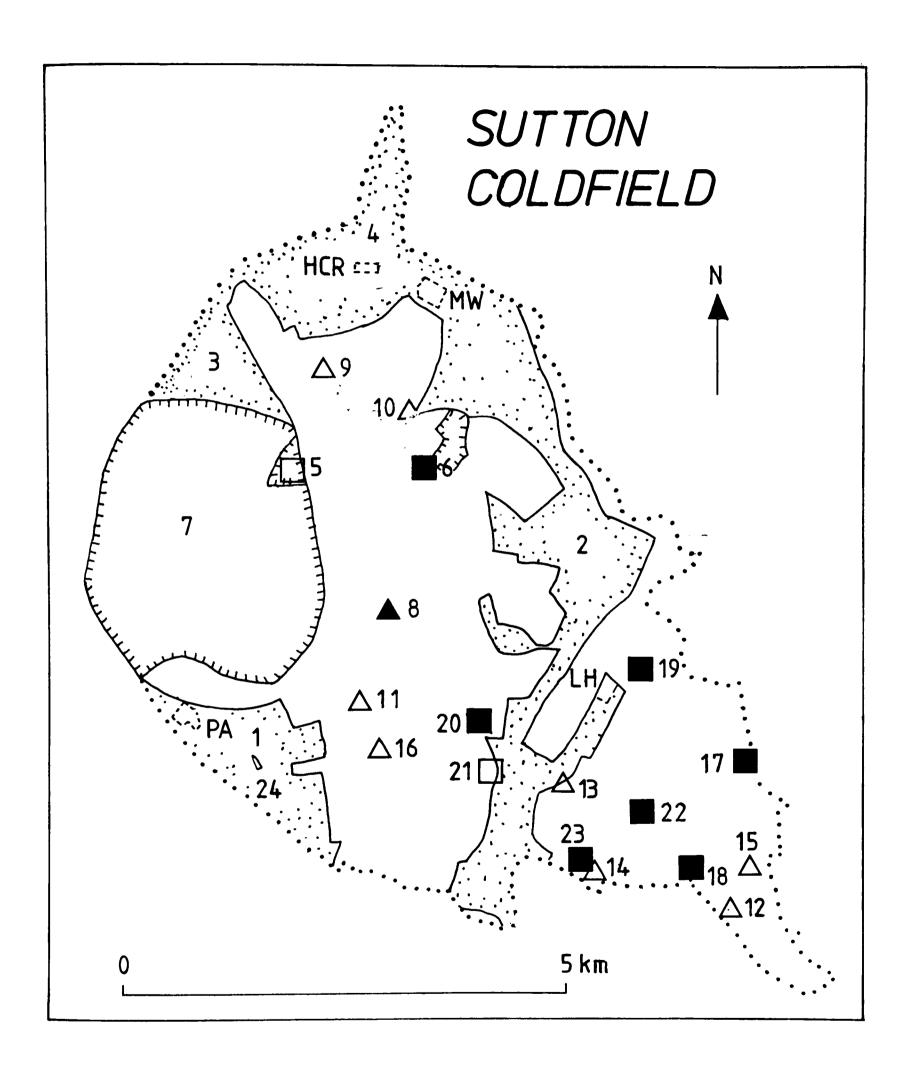


fig. 43

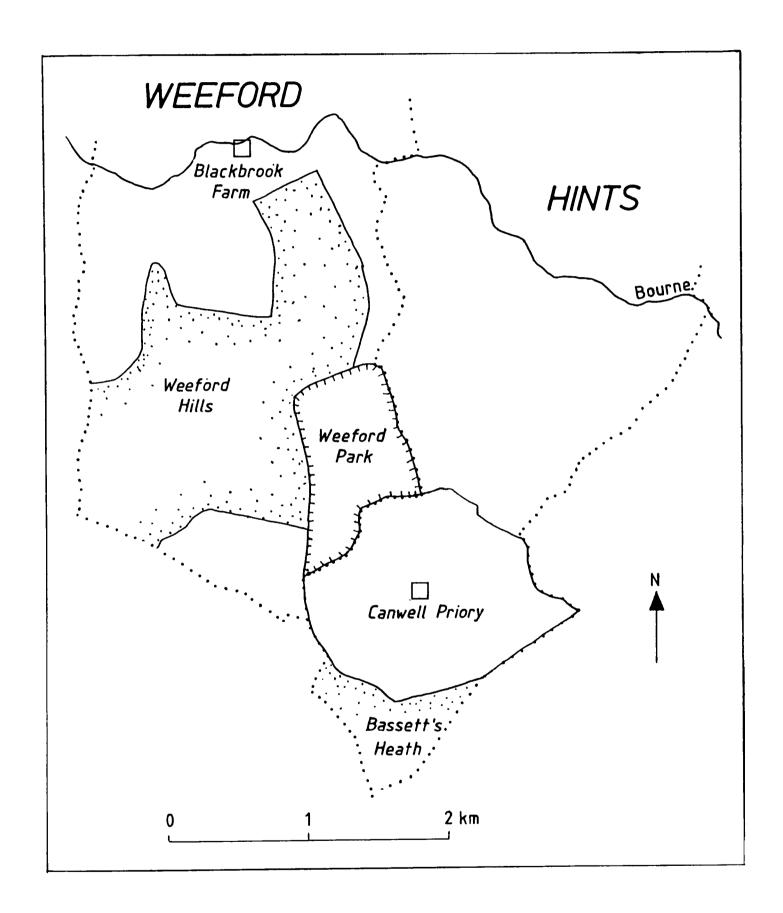


fig. 44

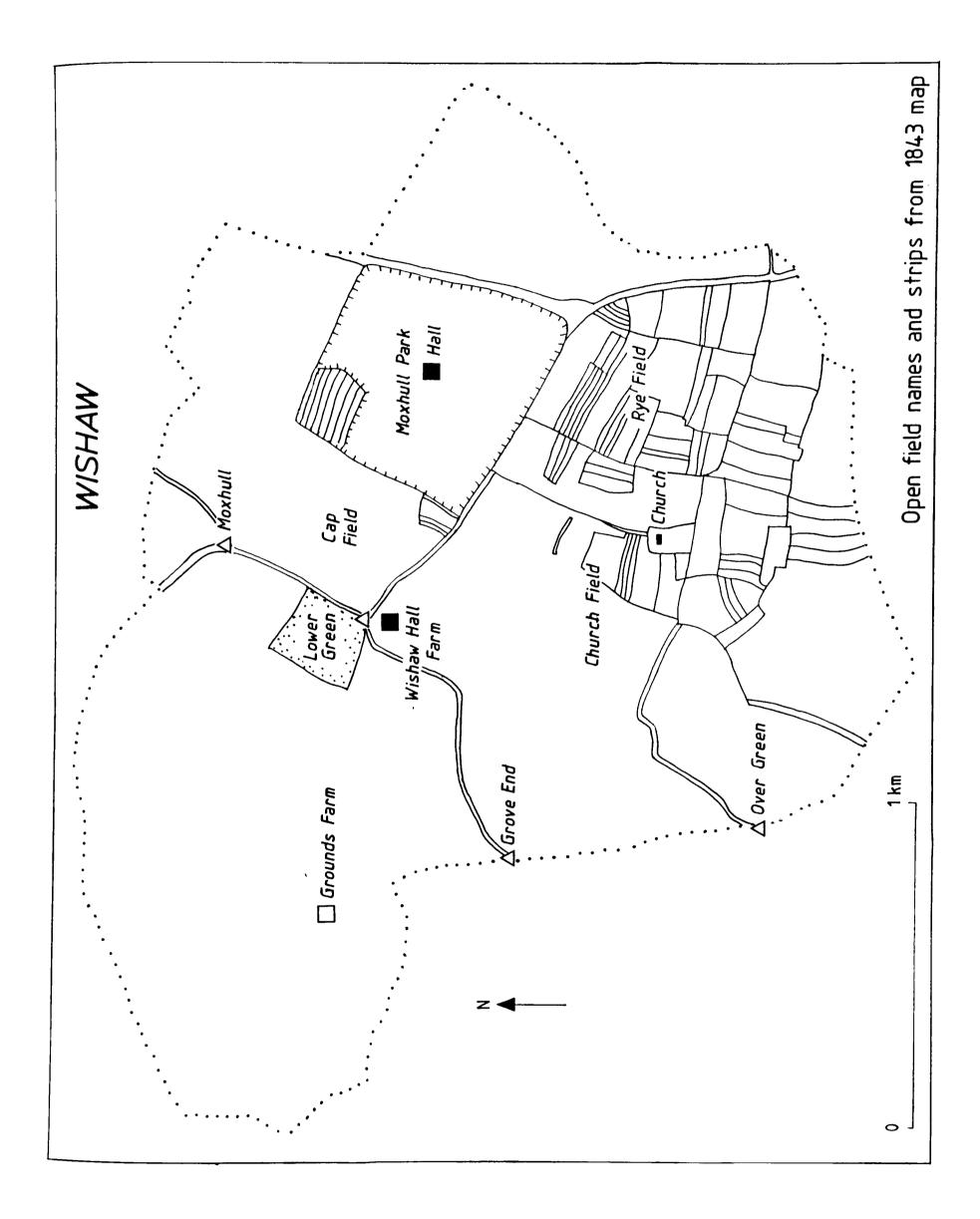


fig. 45

Key to Fig. 46: SUTTON CHASE: Waste and woods, c.1790

- 1. The Coldfield
- 2. Curdworth Moor
- 3. Berwood Common
- 4. Bodymoor Heath
- 5. Middleton Heath
- 6. Sutton Coldfield eastern waste
- 7. Four Oaks Common
- 8. Hill Common
- 9. Weeford Hills
- 10. Lower Green

Parish boundaries as on fig. 2

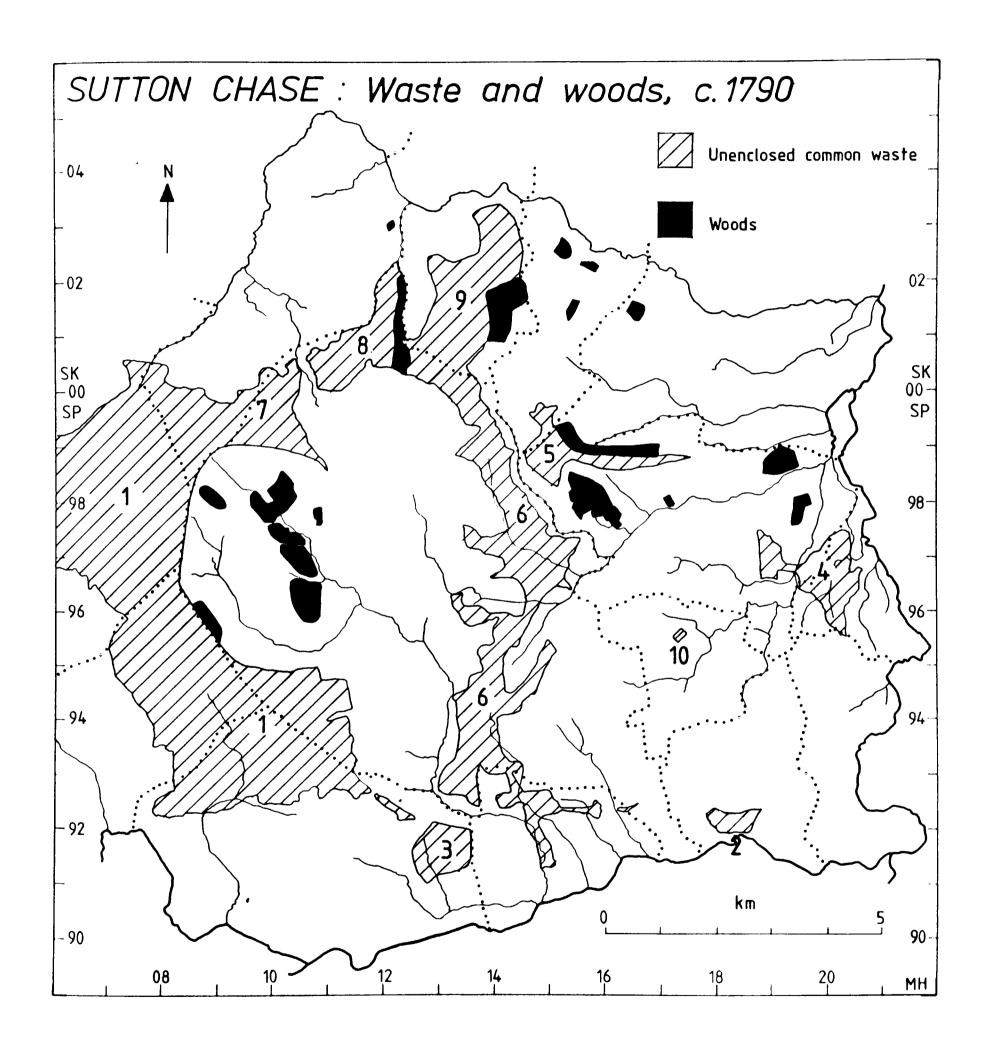


fig. 46

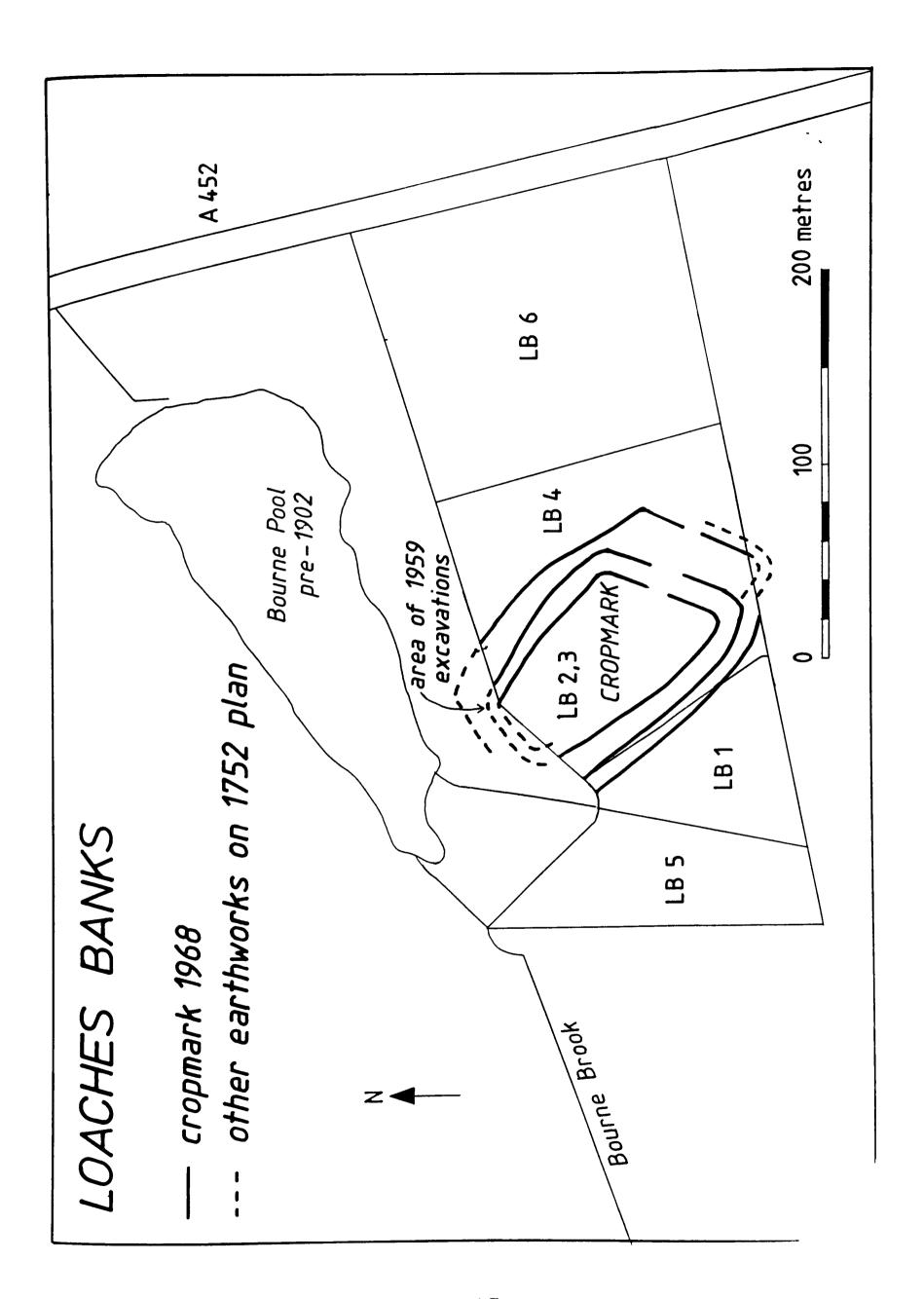


fig. 47

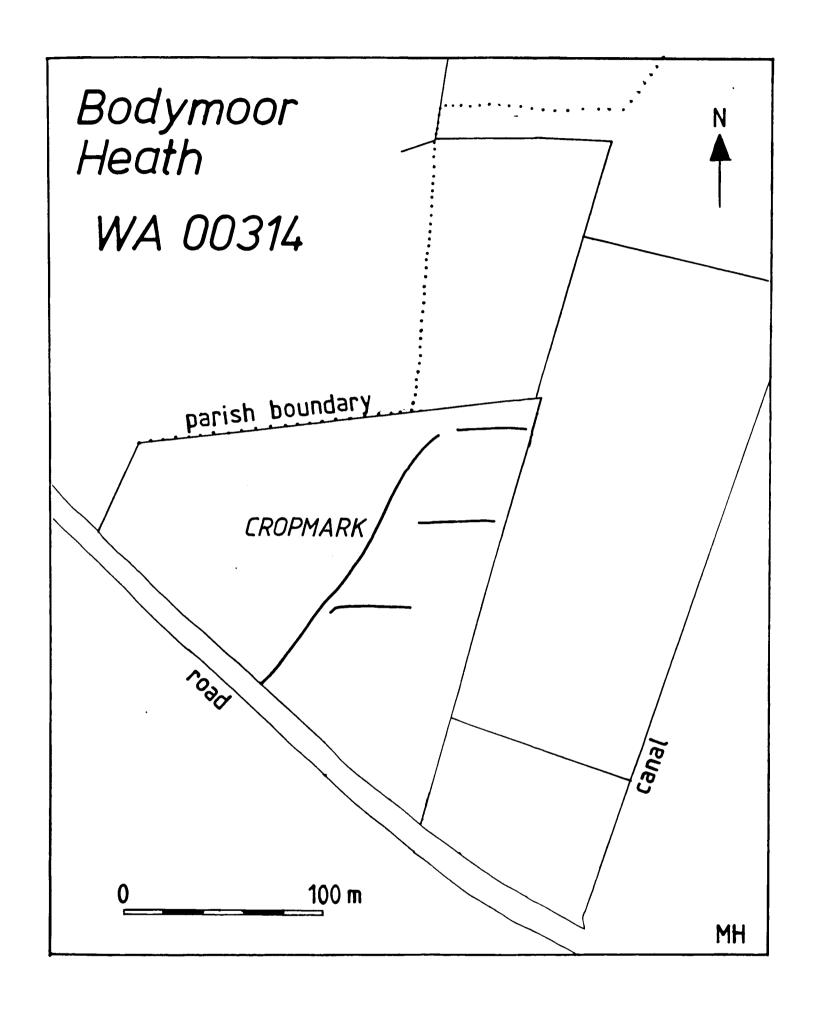


fig. 48

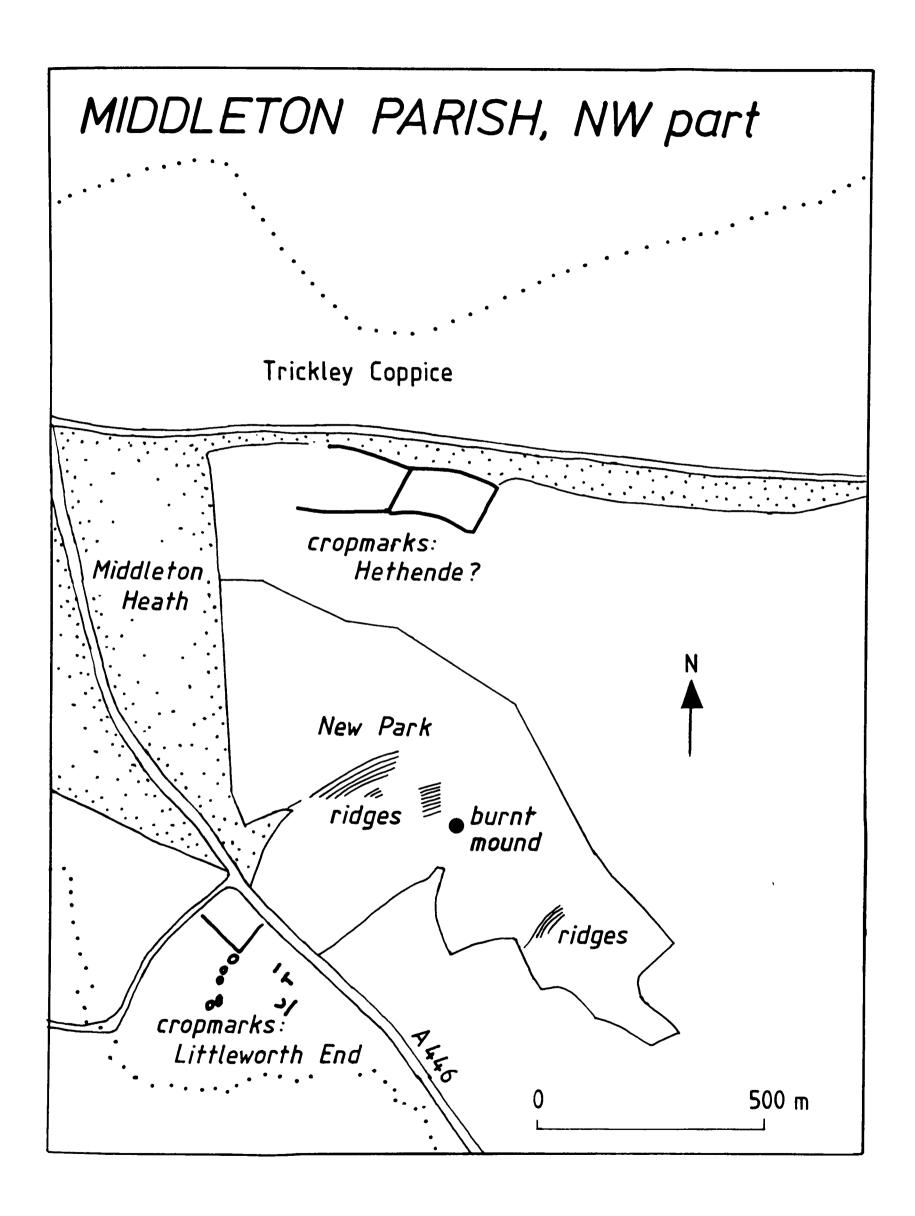
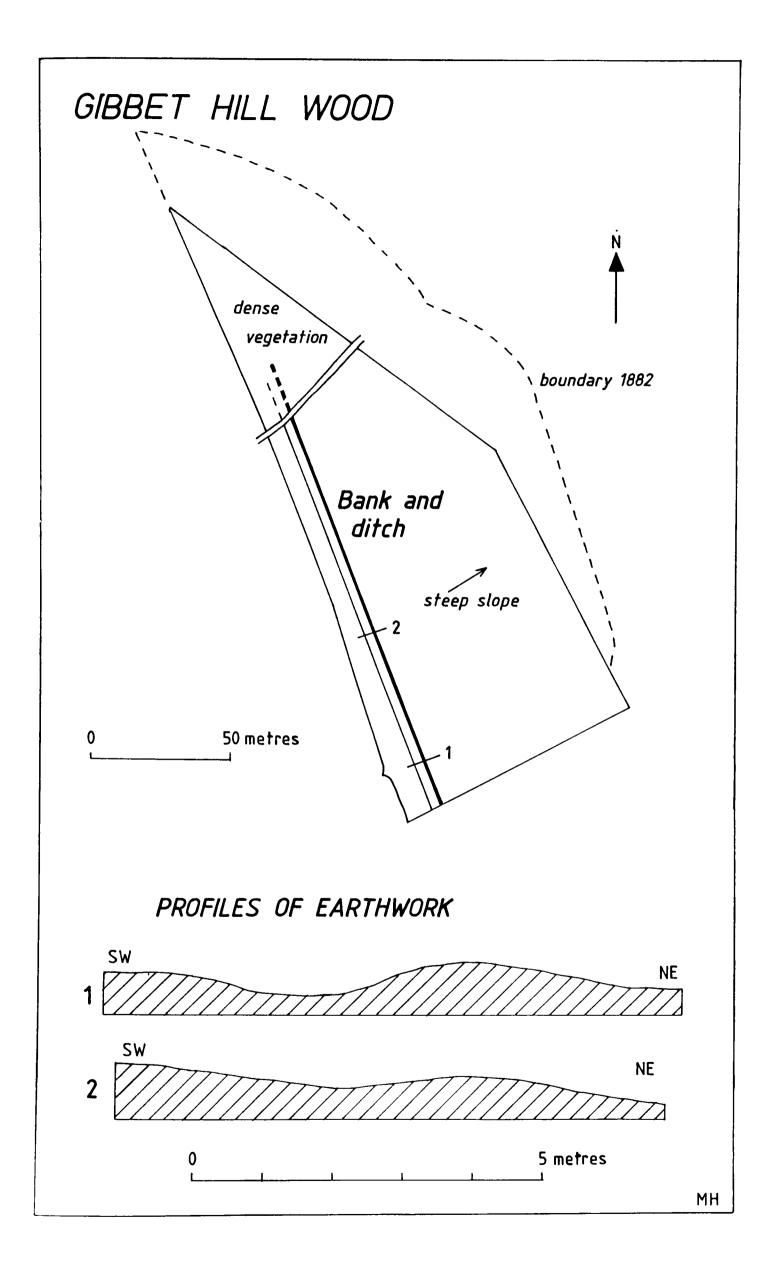


fig. 49



Key to Fig. 51: SUTTON CHASE: Parks

CURDWORTH

- 1. Dunton
- 2. Minworth New

DRAYTON BASSETT

- 3. Bangley
- 4. Drayton
- 5. Shirral

LEA MARSTON

6. Lea

MIDDLETON

- 7. Middleton
- 8. Middleton New

SHENSTONE

- 9. Little Aston
- 10. Shenstone

SUTTON COLDFIELD

- 11. Eachelhurst
- 12. Four Oaks
- 13. Langley
- 14. Moor Hall
- 15 Sutton

WEEFORD

16 Weeford

WISHAW

17. Moxhull

Parish boundaries as on fig.2

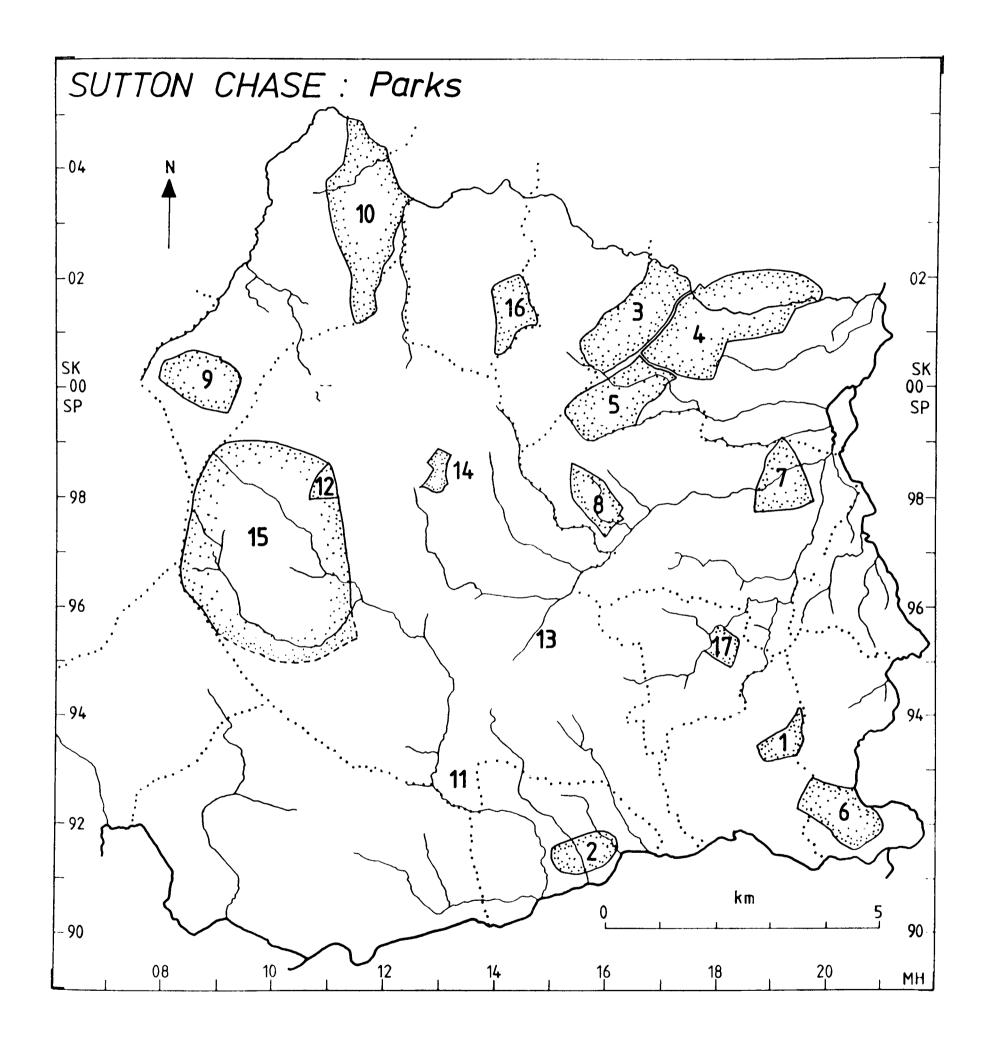


fig. 51

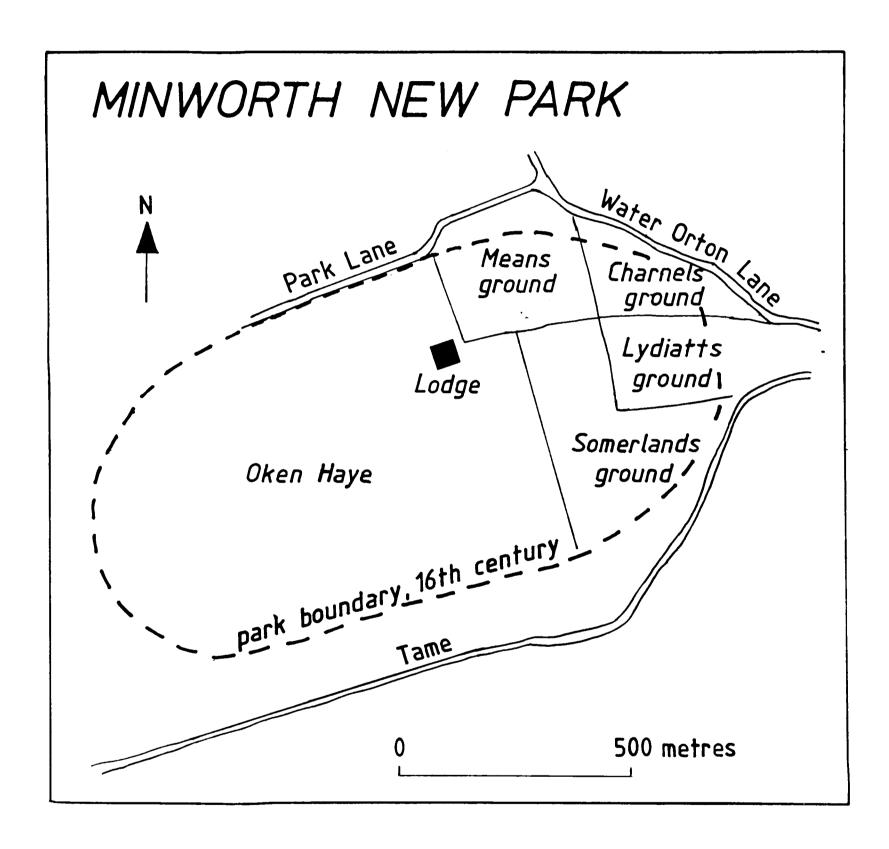
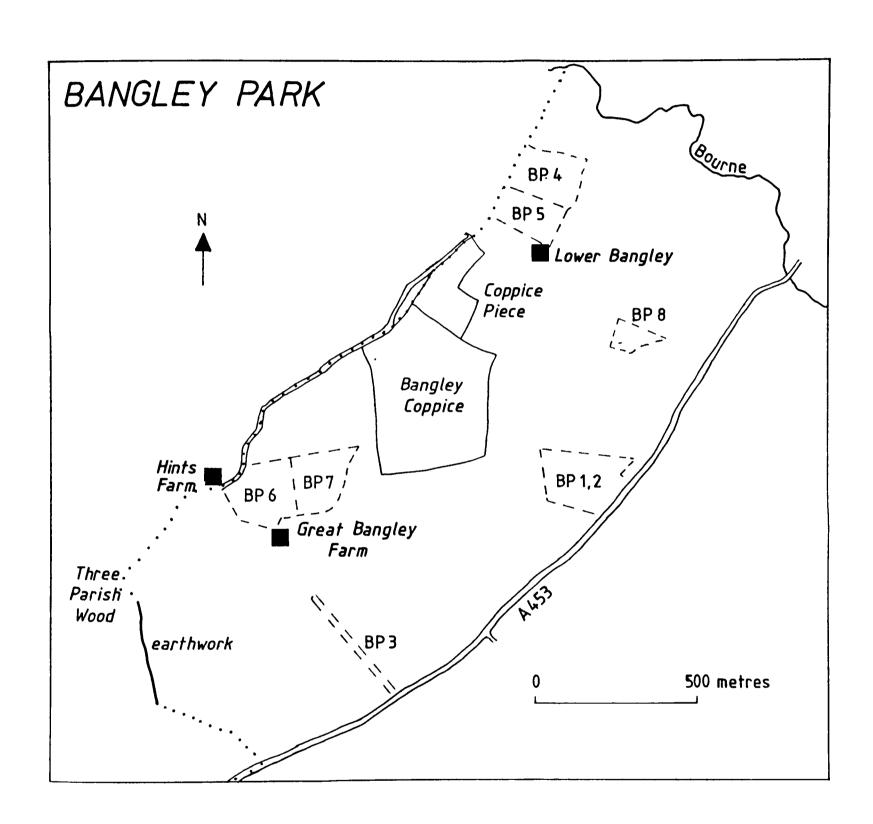


fig. 52



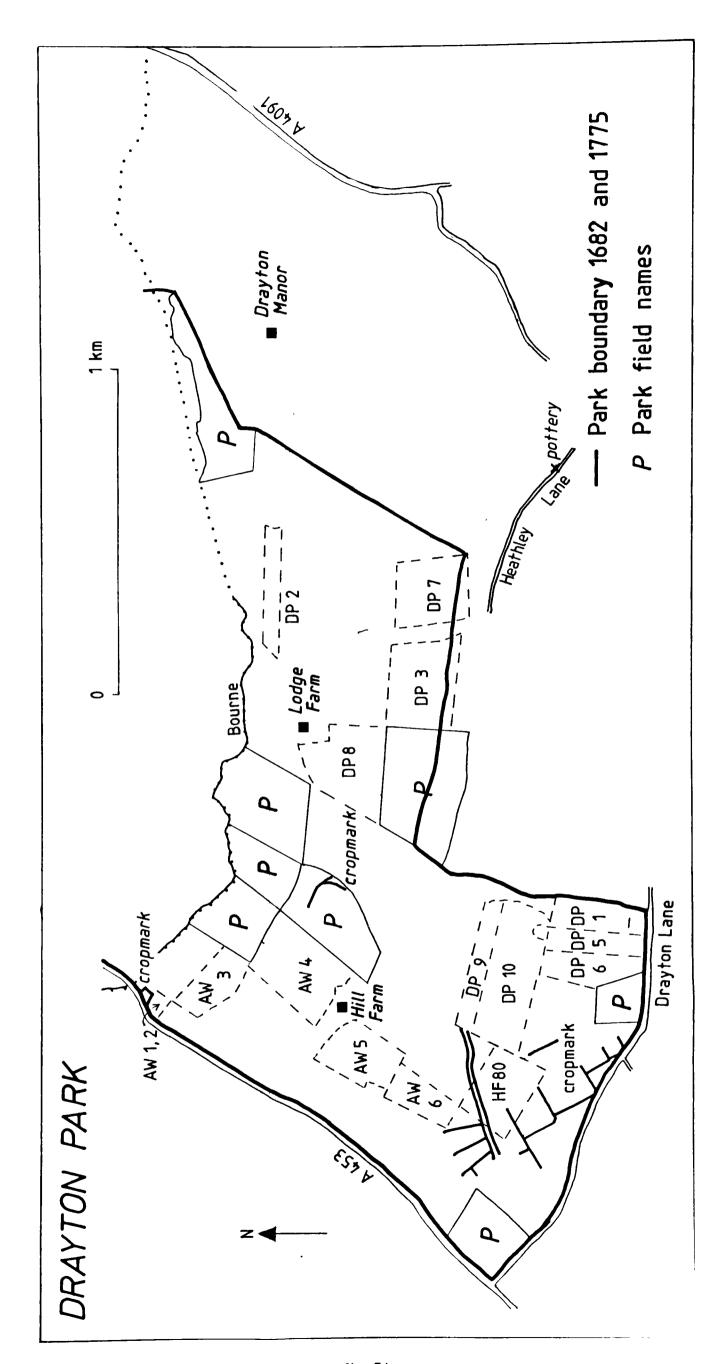


fig. 54

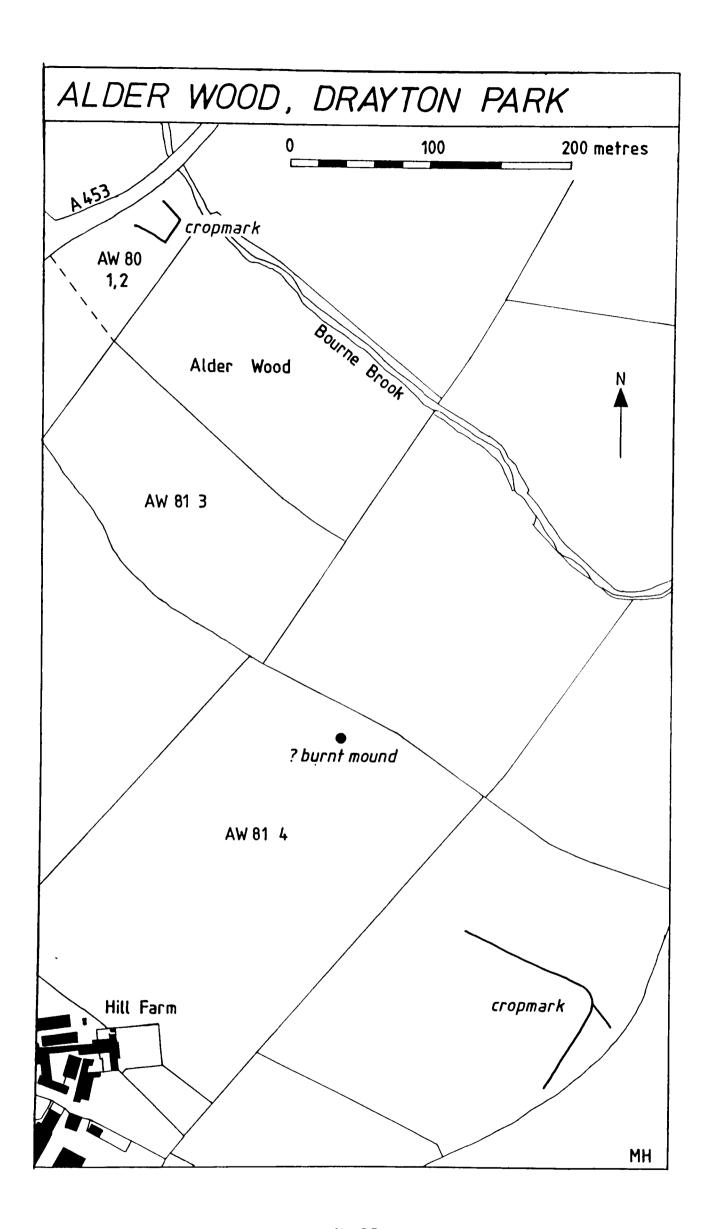


fig. 55

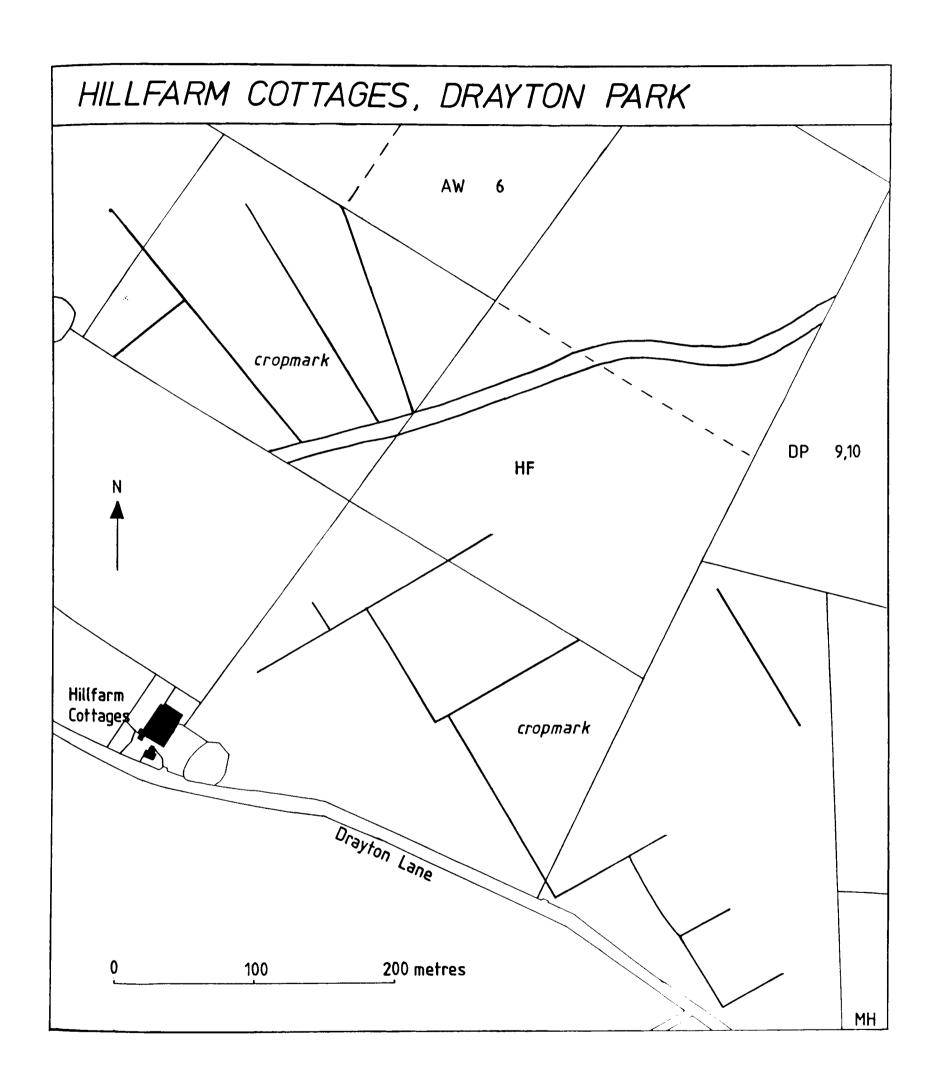
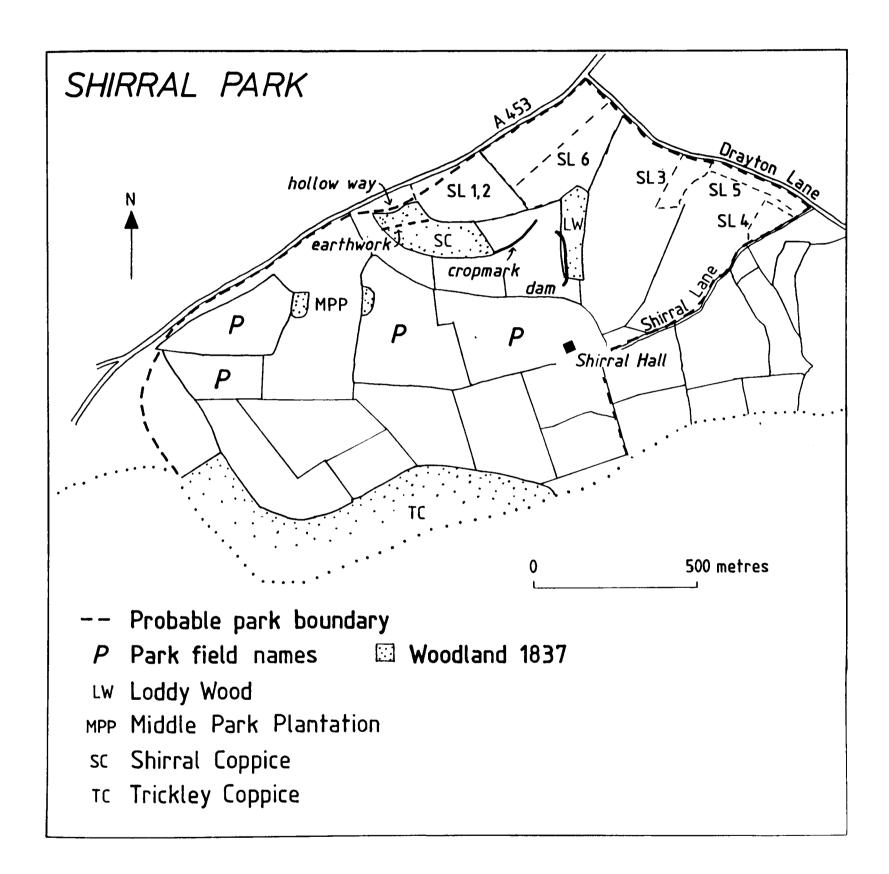


fig. 56



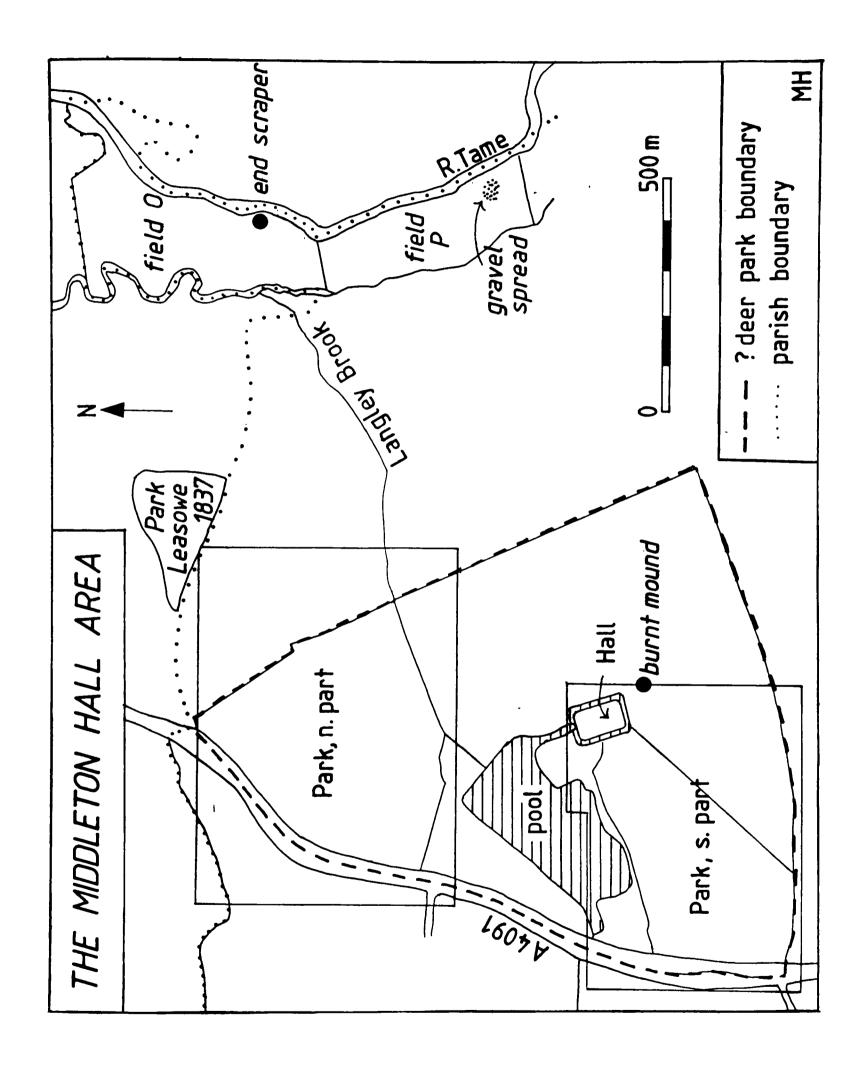


fig. 58

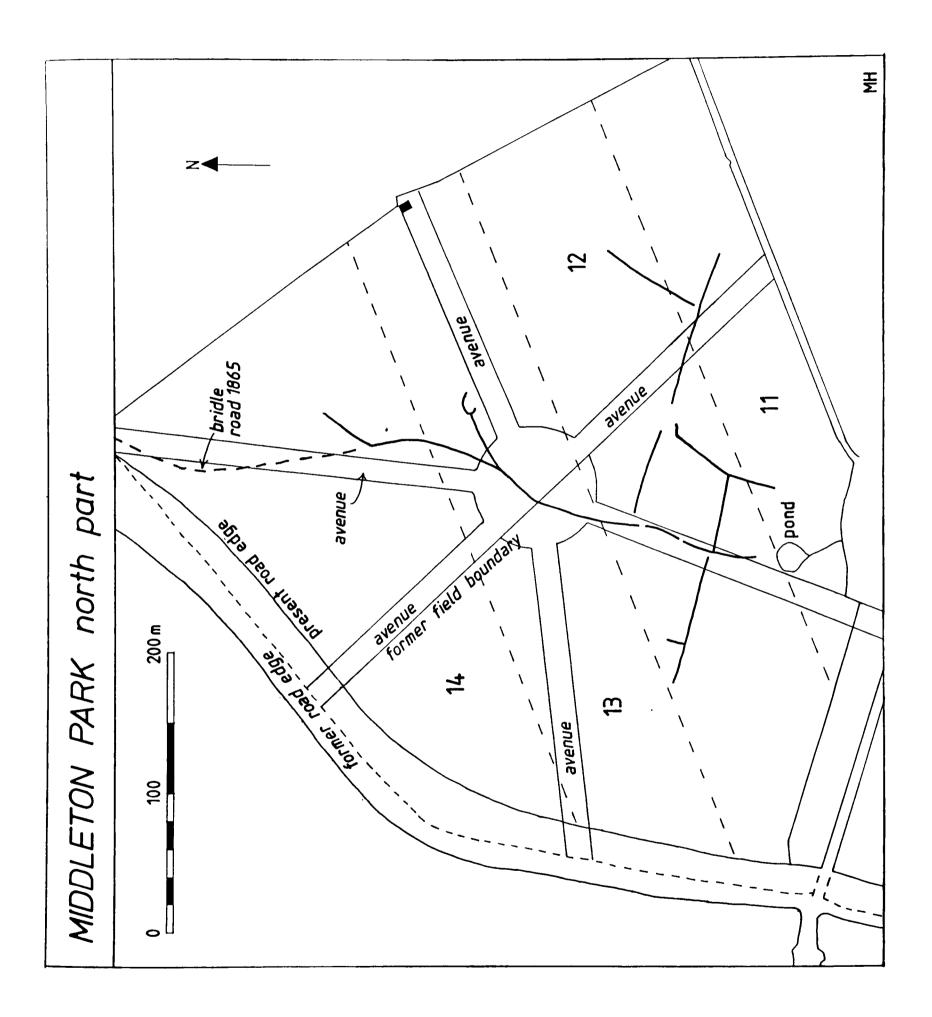


fig. 59

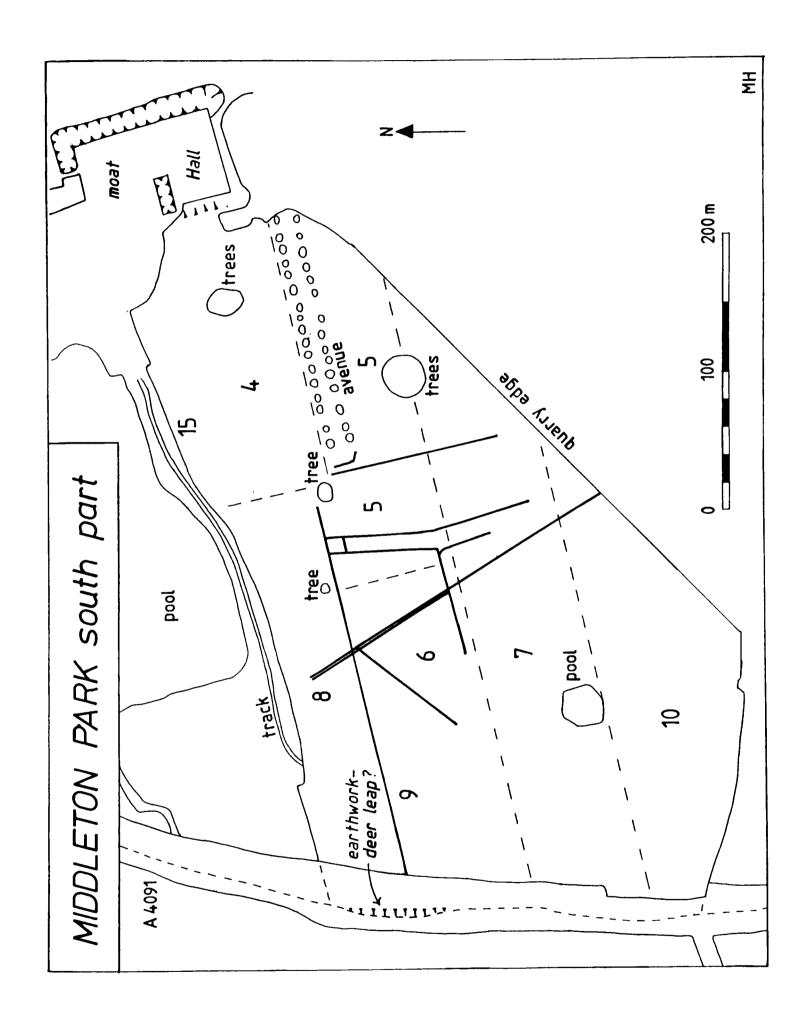


fig.60

MIDDLETON NEW PARK BURNT MOUND hollow approximate edge of mound steep slope 10 metres 5

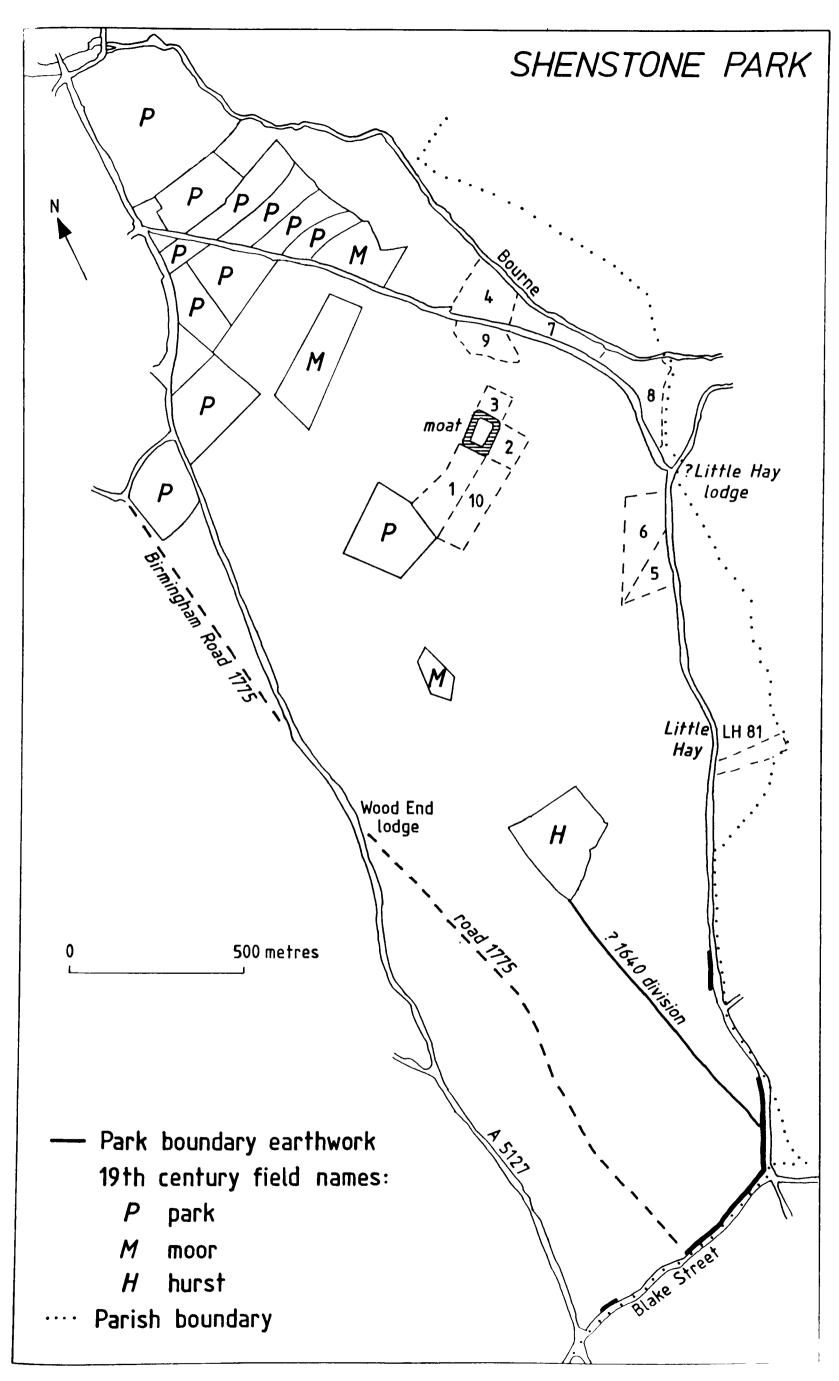


fig. 62

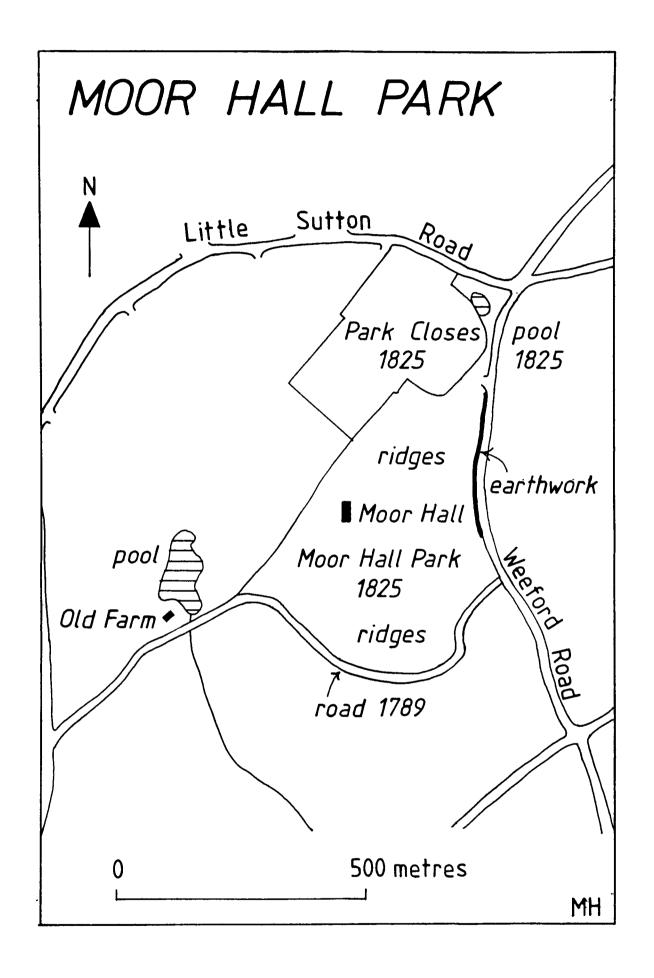


fig. 63

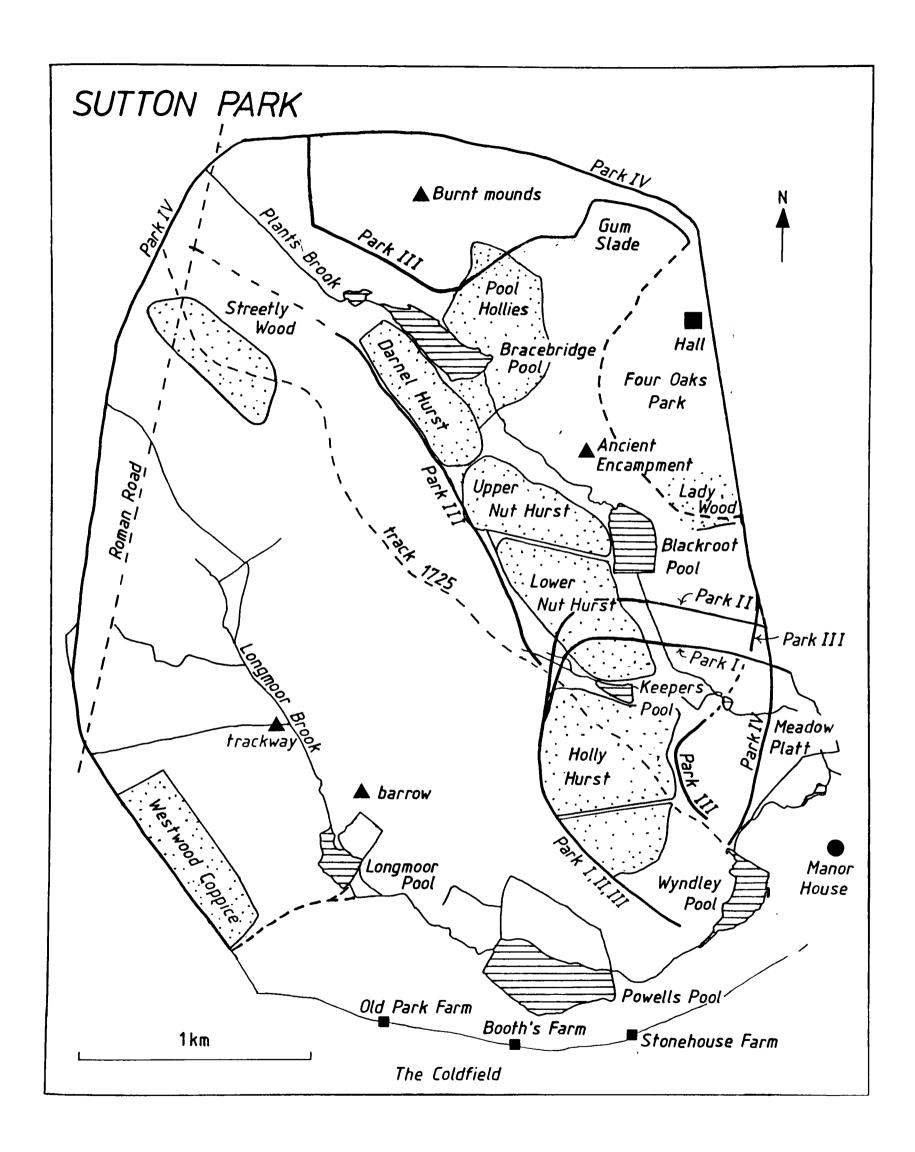


fig. 64

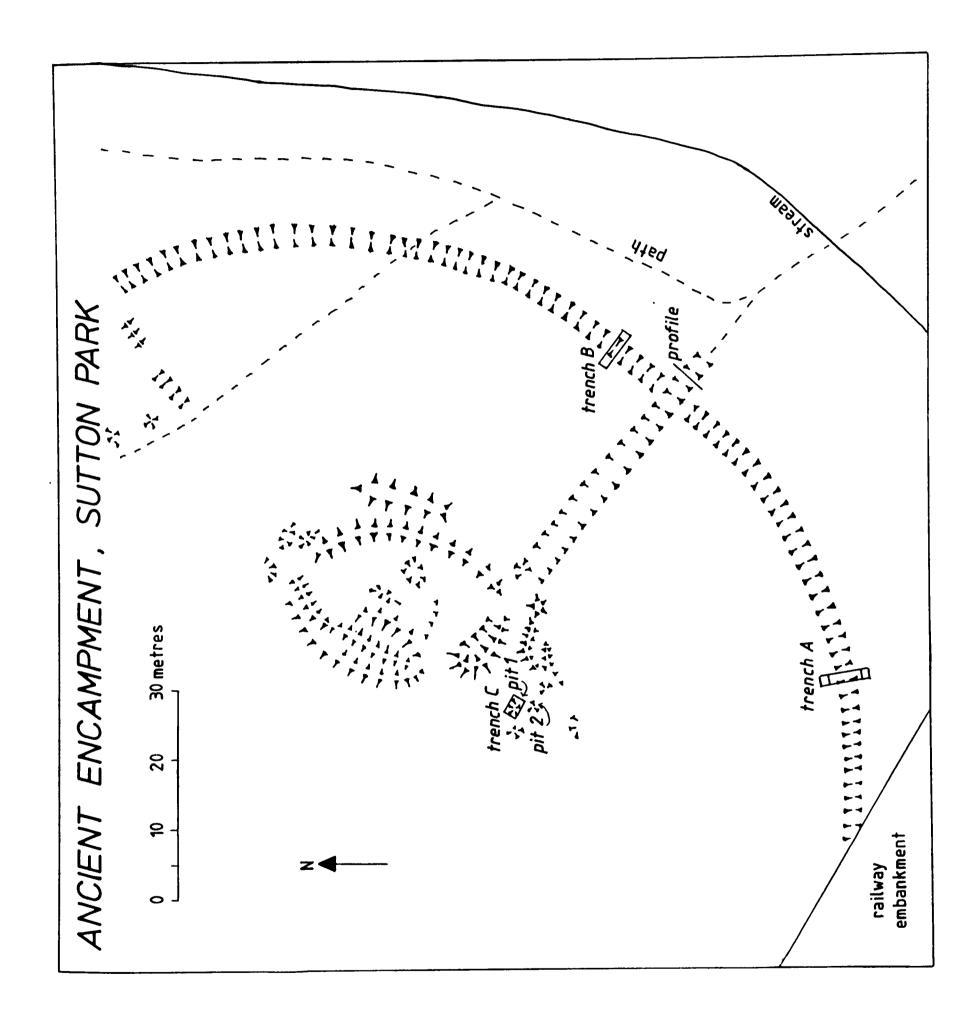
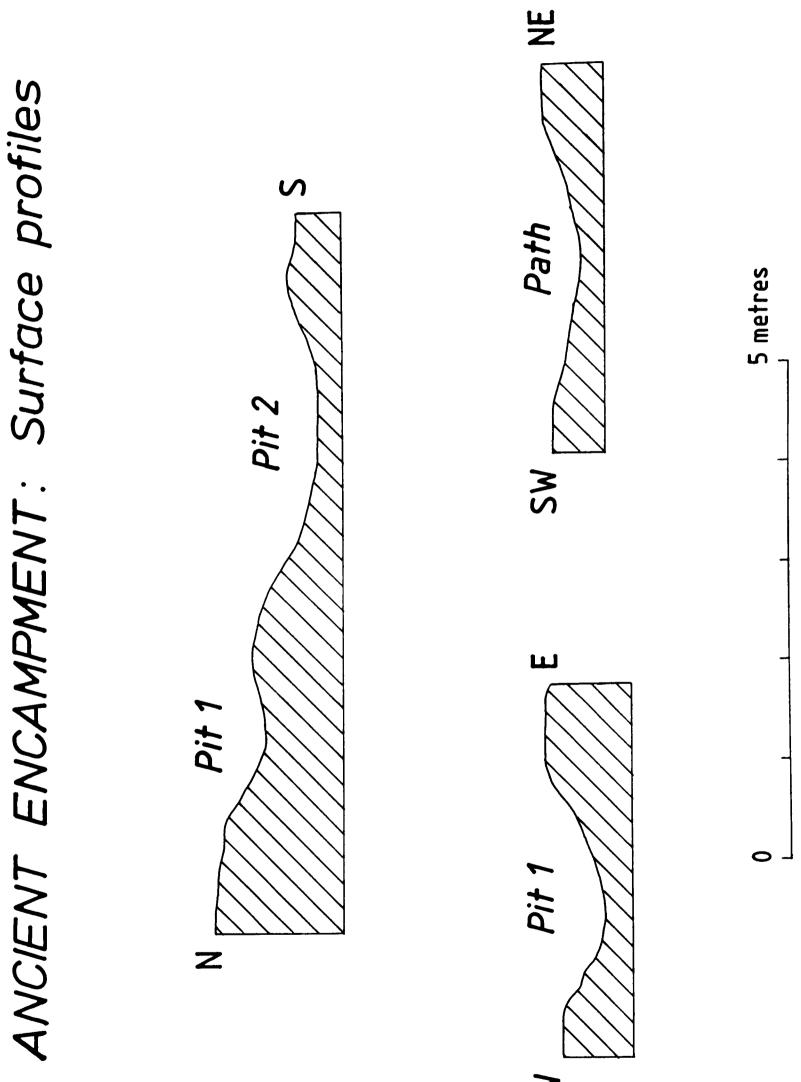


fig. 65



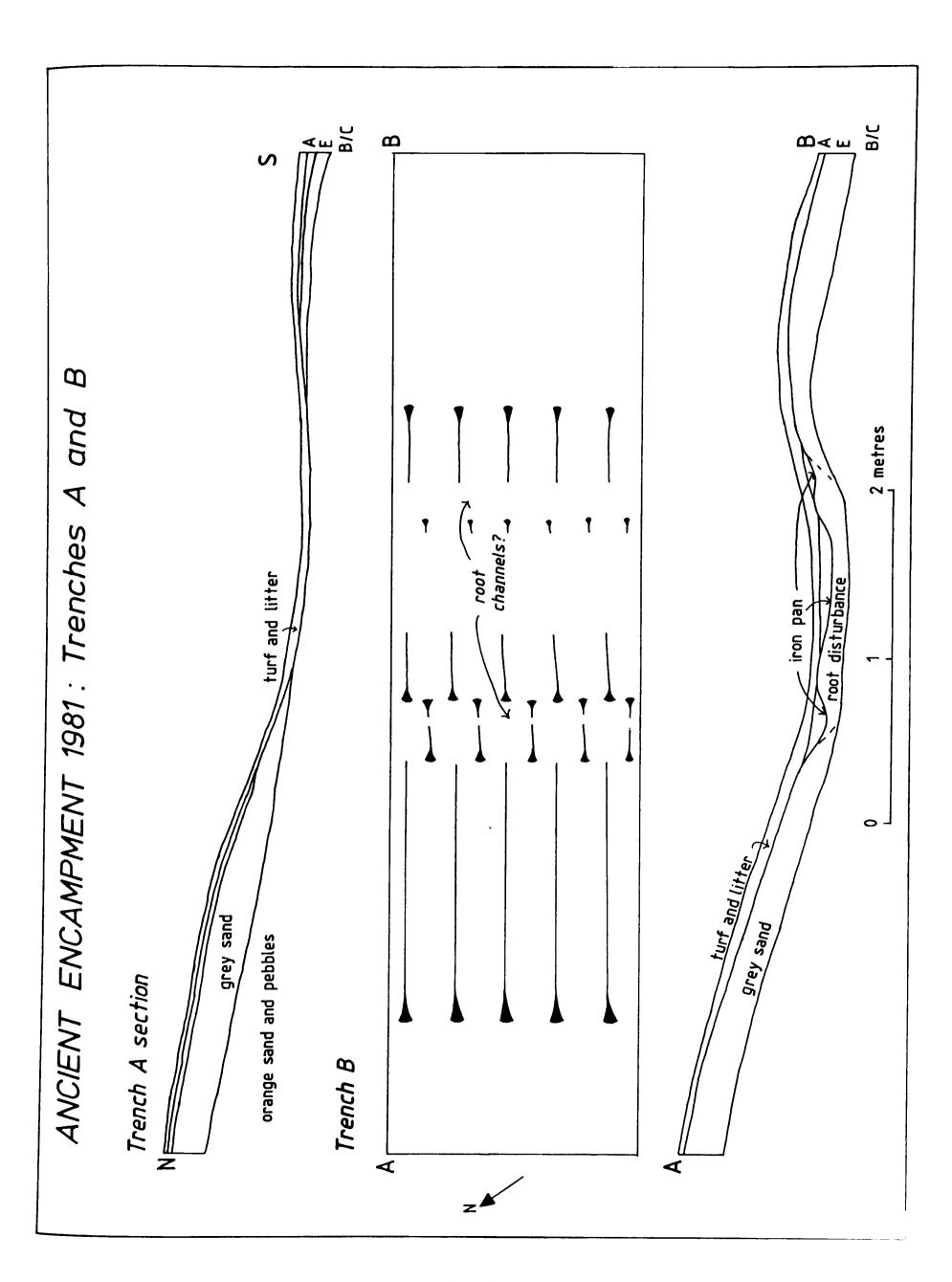


fig. 67

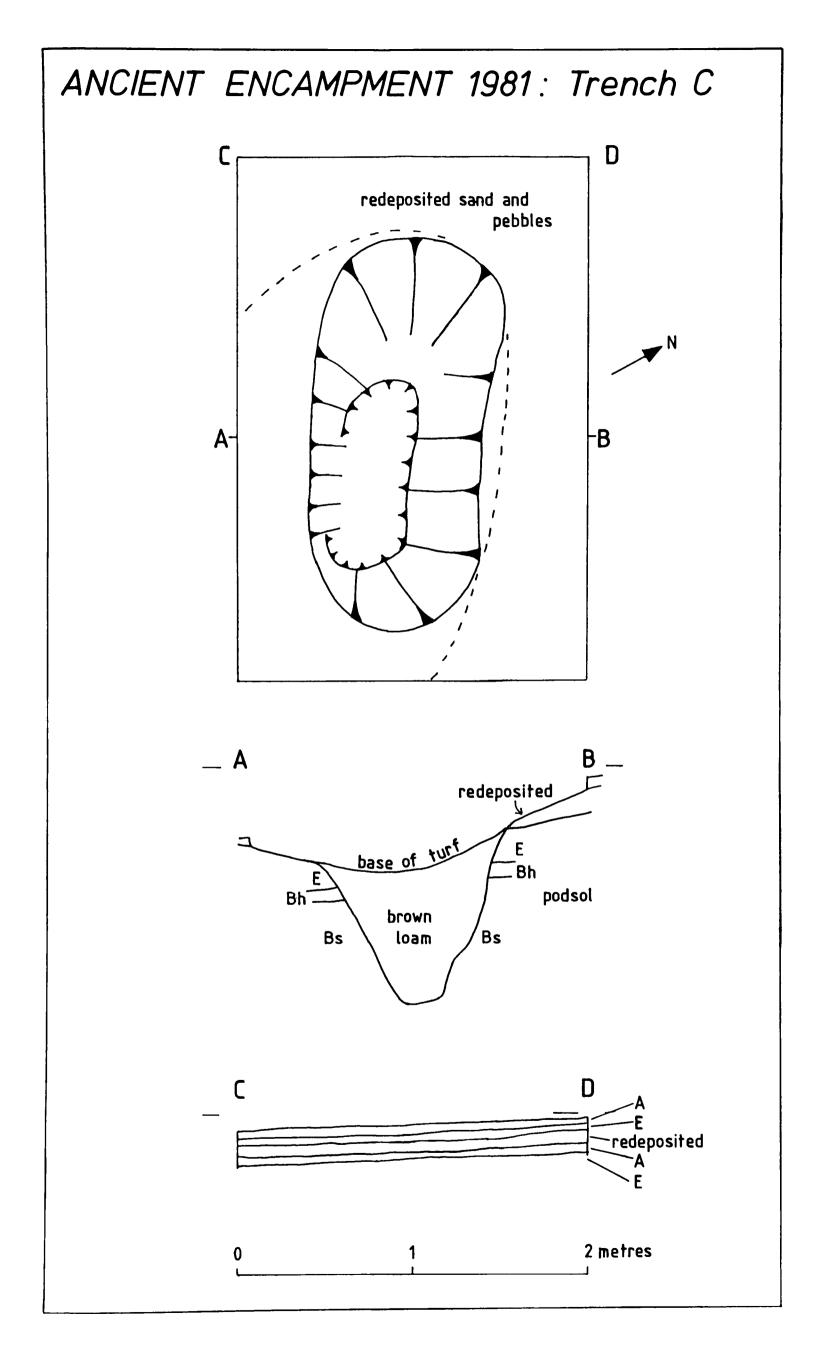


fig. 68

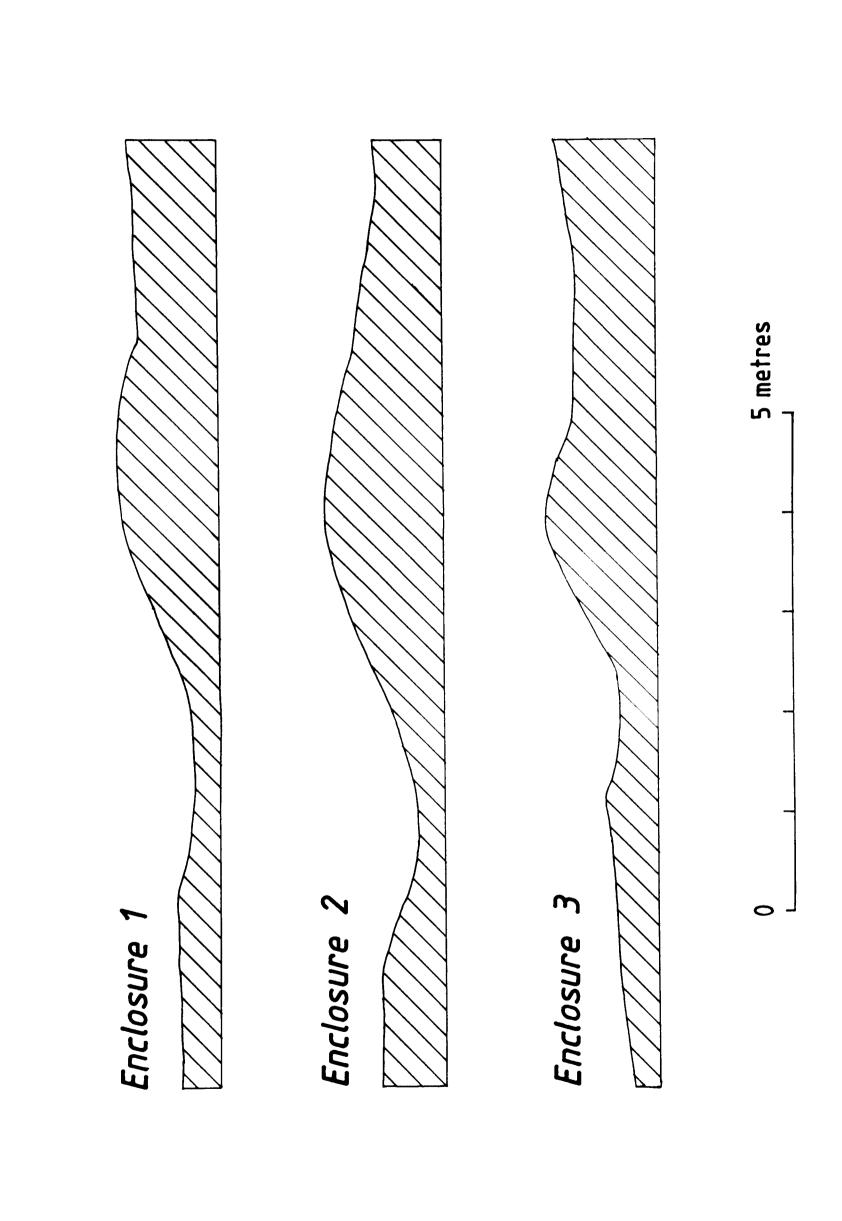
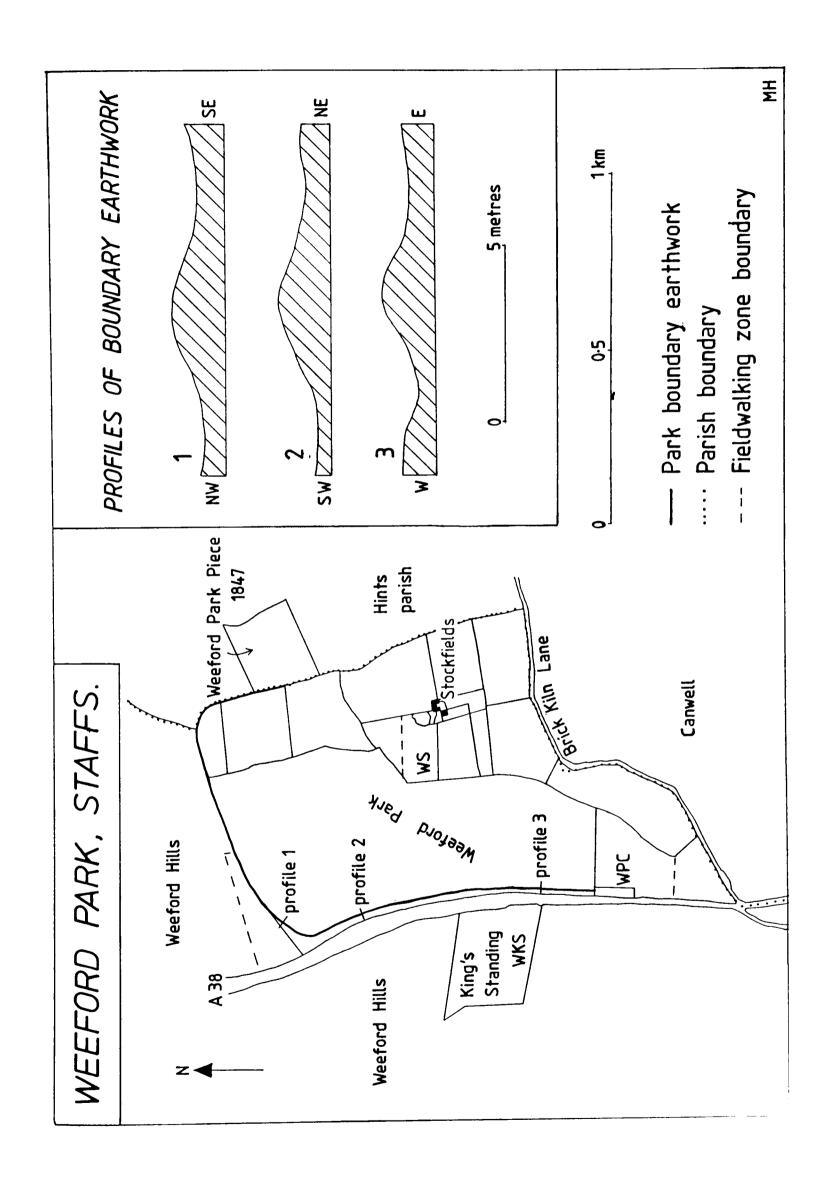


fig. 69



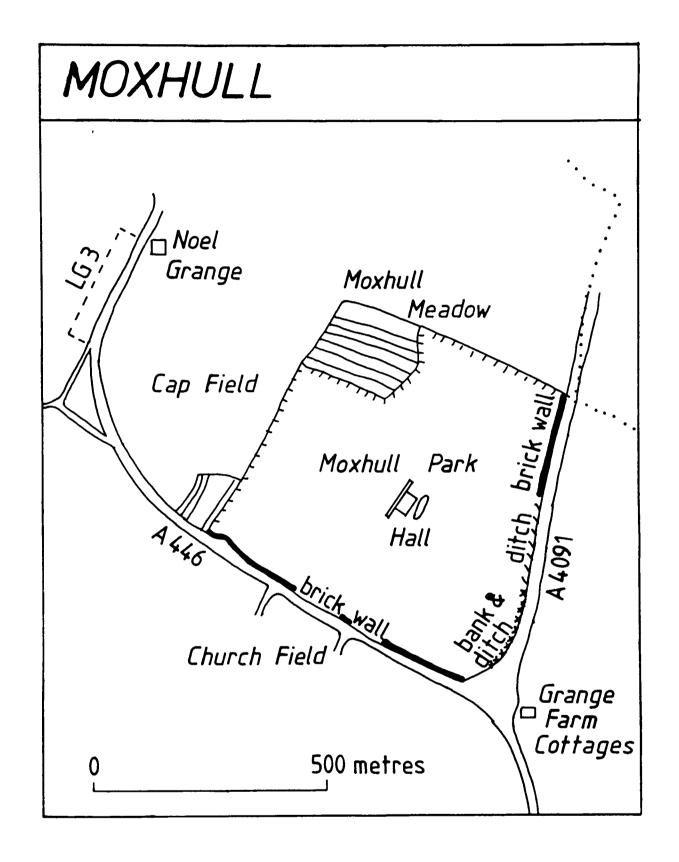
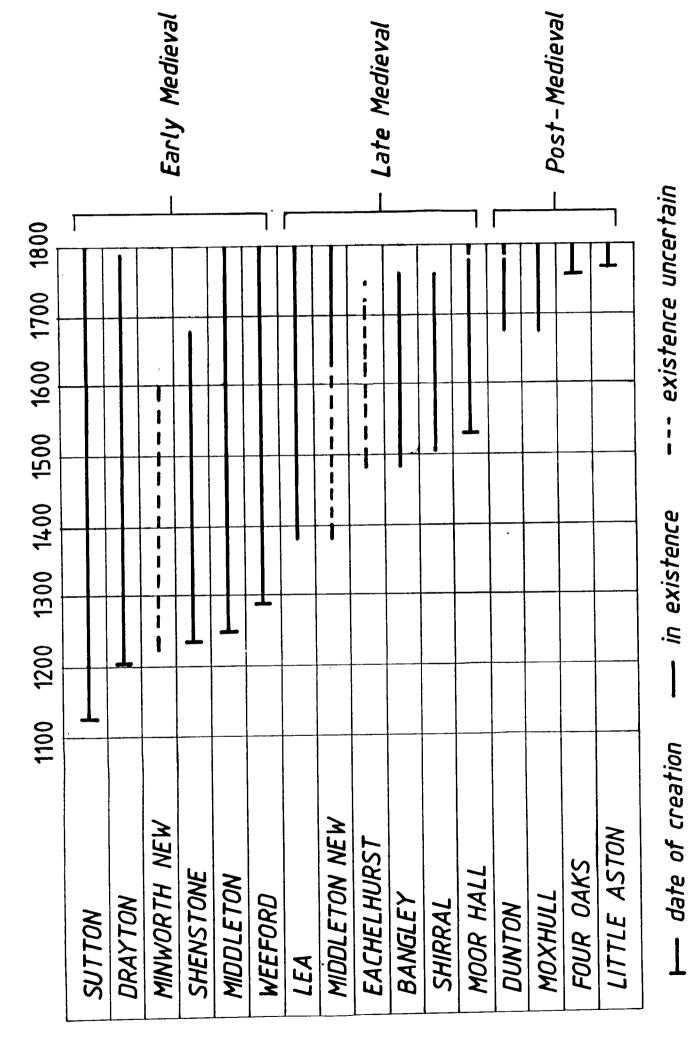
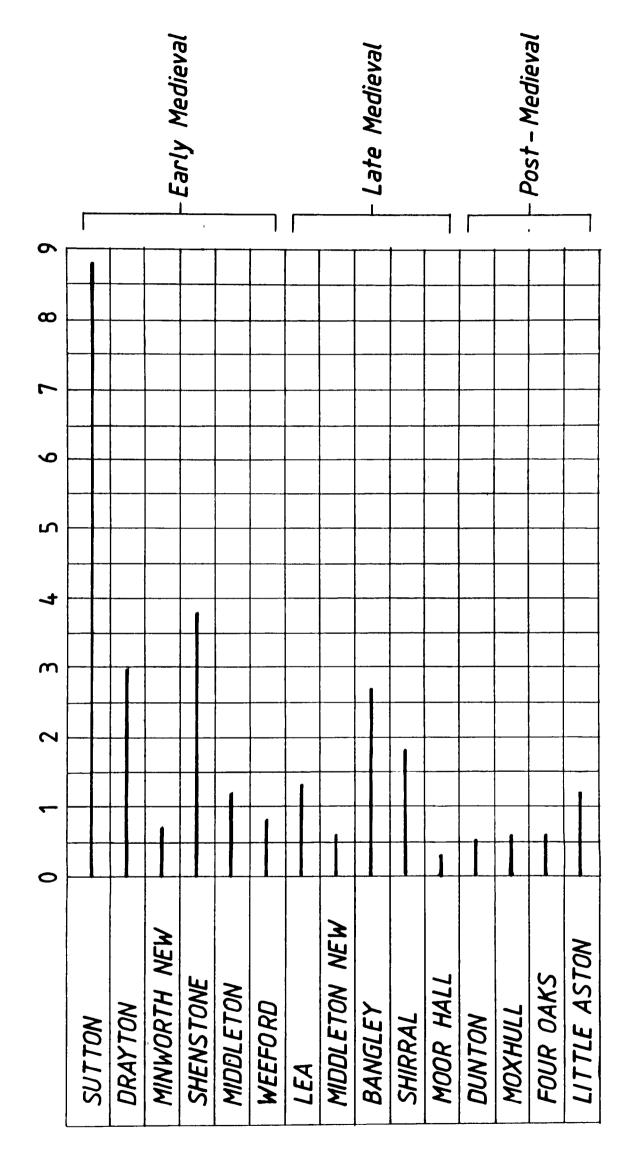


fig. 71

PARKS: Dates of existence



PARKS: Areas in km²



Key to Fig. 74: SUTTON CHASE: Villages and Hamlets

- 1. Curdworth
- 2. Minworth
- 3. Drayton Bassett
- 4. Erdington
- 5. Witton
- 6. Birches Green
- 7. Bromford End
- 8. Coton End Green
- 9. Fords Green
- 10. Harbortree Green
- 11. Mere Green
- 12. Moor End Green
- 13. Stockland Green
- 14. Wood End
- 15. Lea
- 16. Marston
- 17. Middleton
- 18. Allen End
- 19. Ash End
- 20. Cross Green
- 21. Heath End
- 22. Hunts Green
- 23. Littleworth End
- 24. Stoke End
- 25. Old Oscot
- 26. Queslett
- 27. Shenstone
- 28. Footherley
- 29. Little Aston
- 30. Little Hay
- 31. Woodend
- 32. Sutton Coldfield
- 33. Hill

- 34. Little Sutton
- 35. Maney
- 36. Minworth Greaves
- 37. Thimble End
- 38. Walmley Ash
- 39. Wiggins Hill
- 40. Windley Green
- 41. Grove End
- 42. Lower Green
- 43. Moxhull
- 44. Over Green
- 45. Wishaw Church

Parish boundaries as on fig. 2

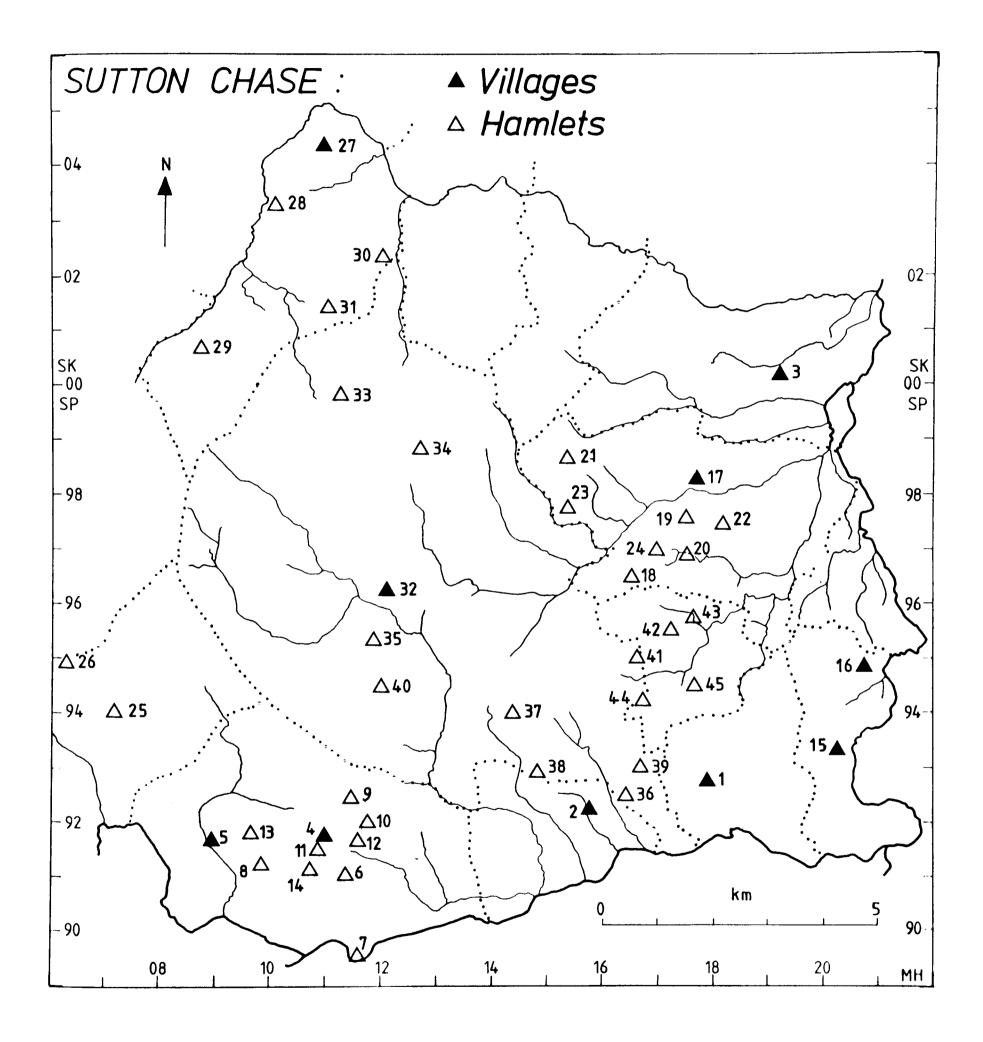


fig. 74

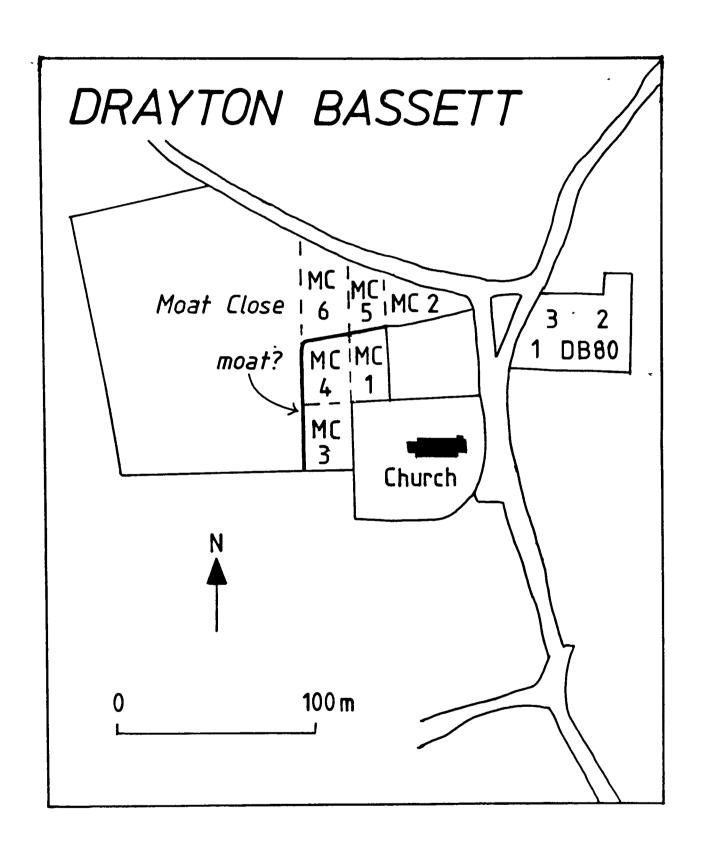


fig. 75

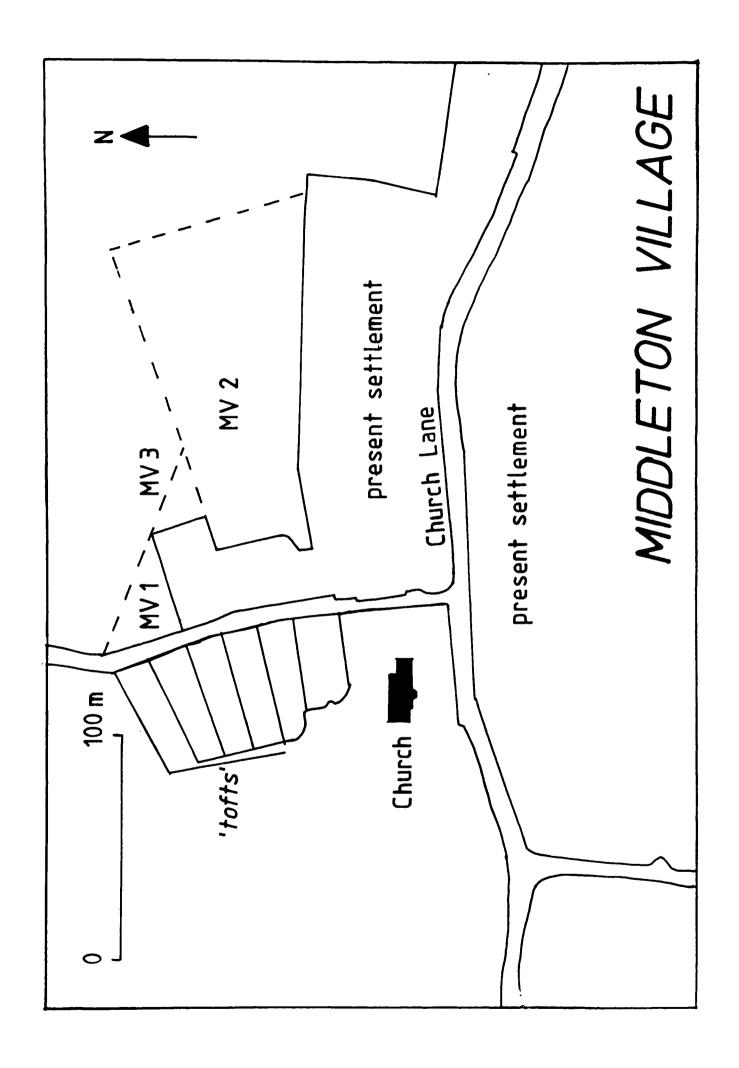


fig. 76

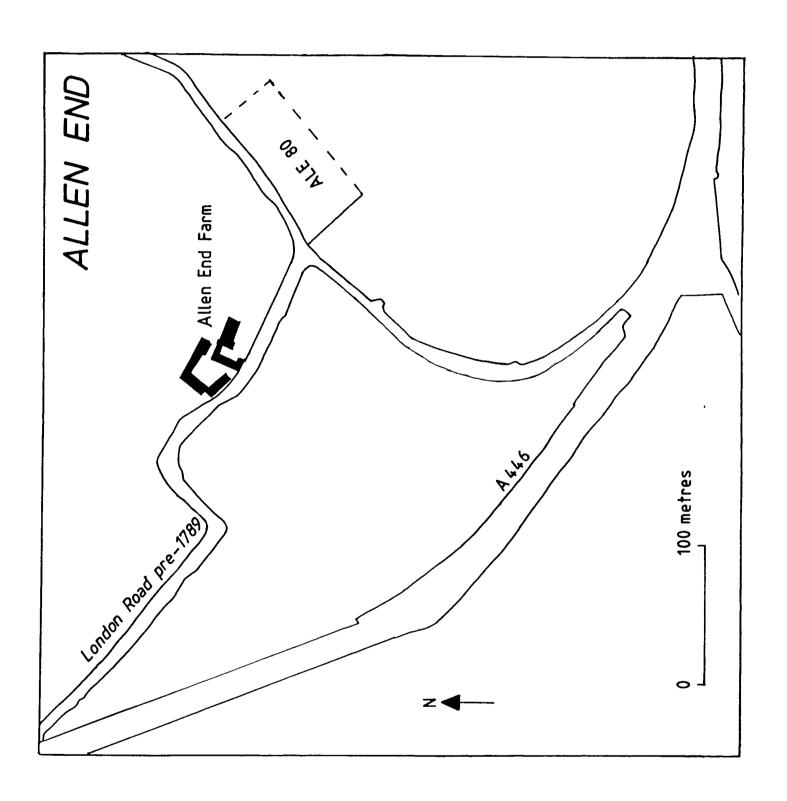


fig. 77

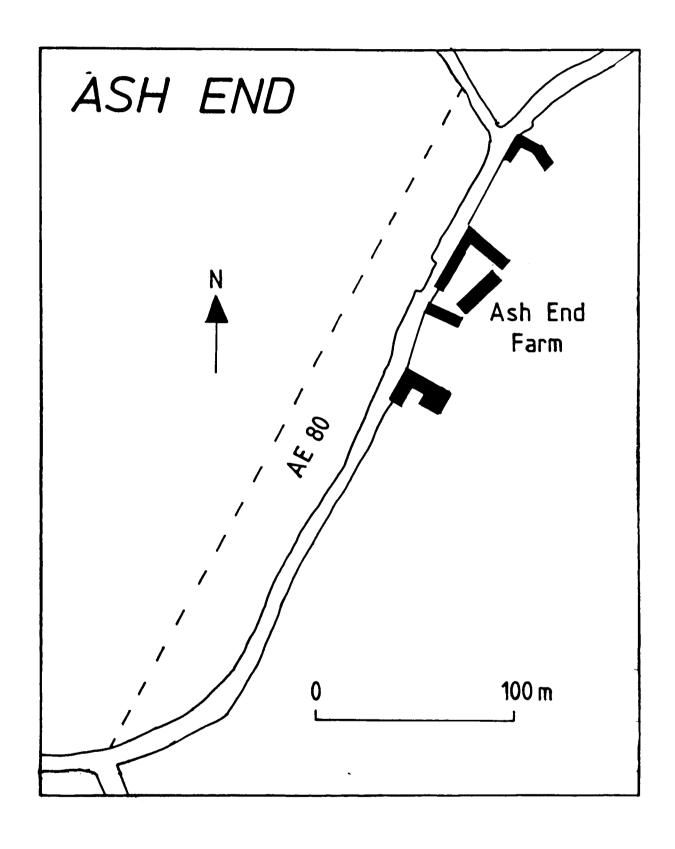


fig. 78

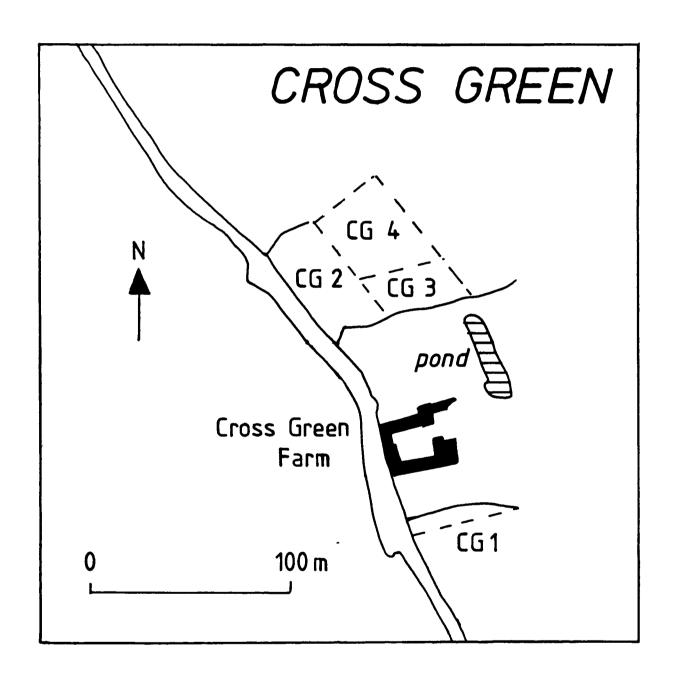
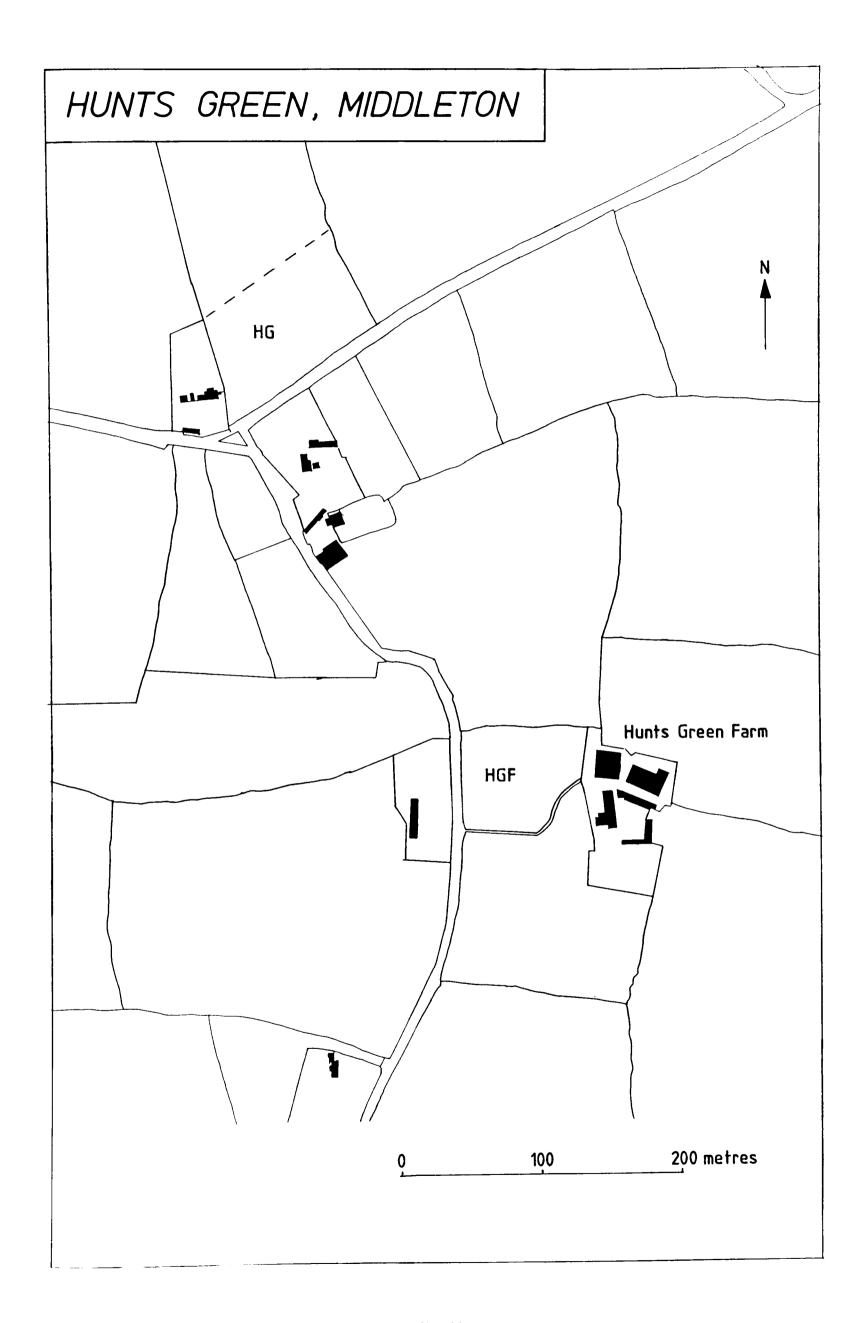
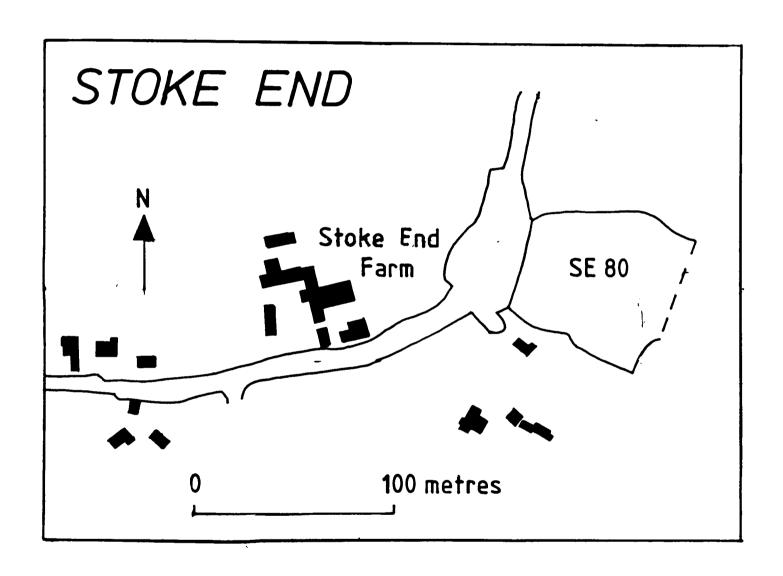


fig. 79





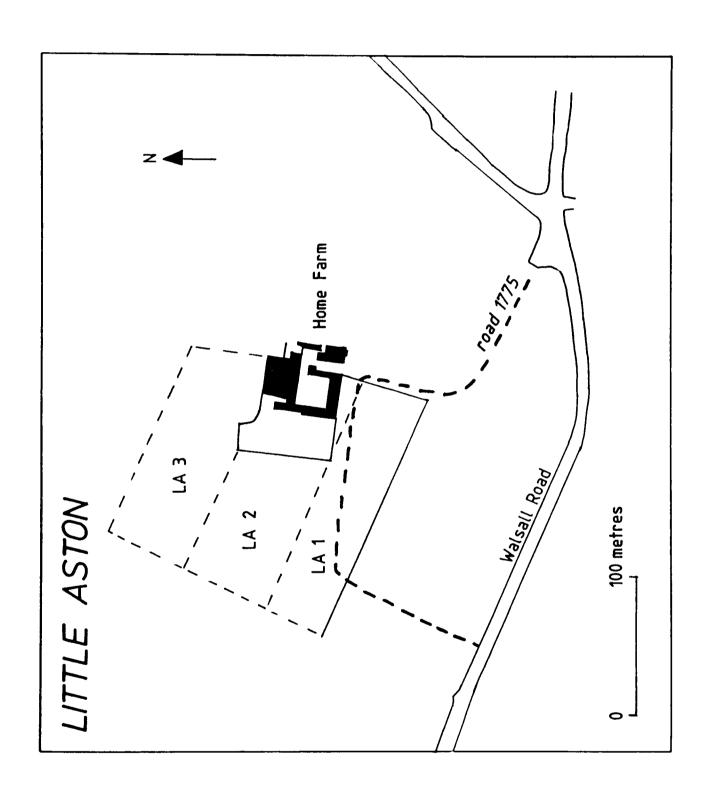


fig. 82

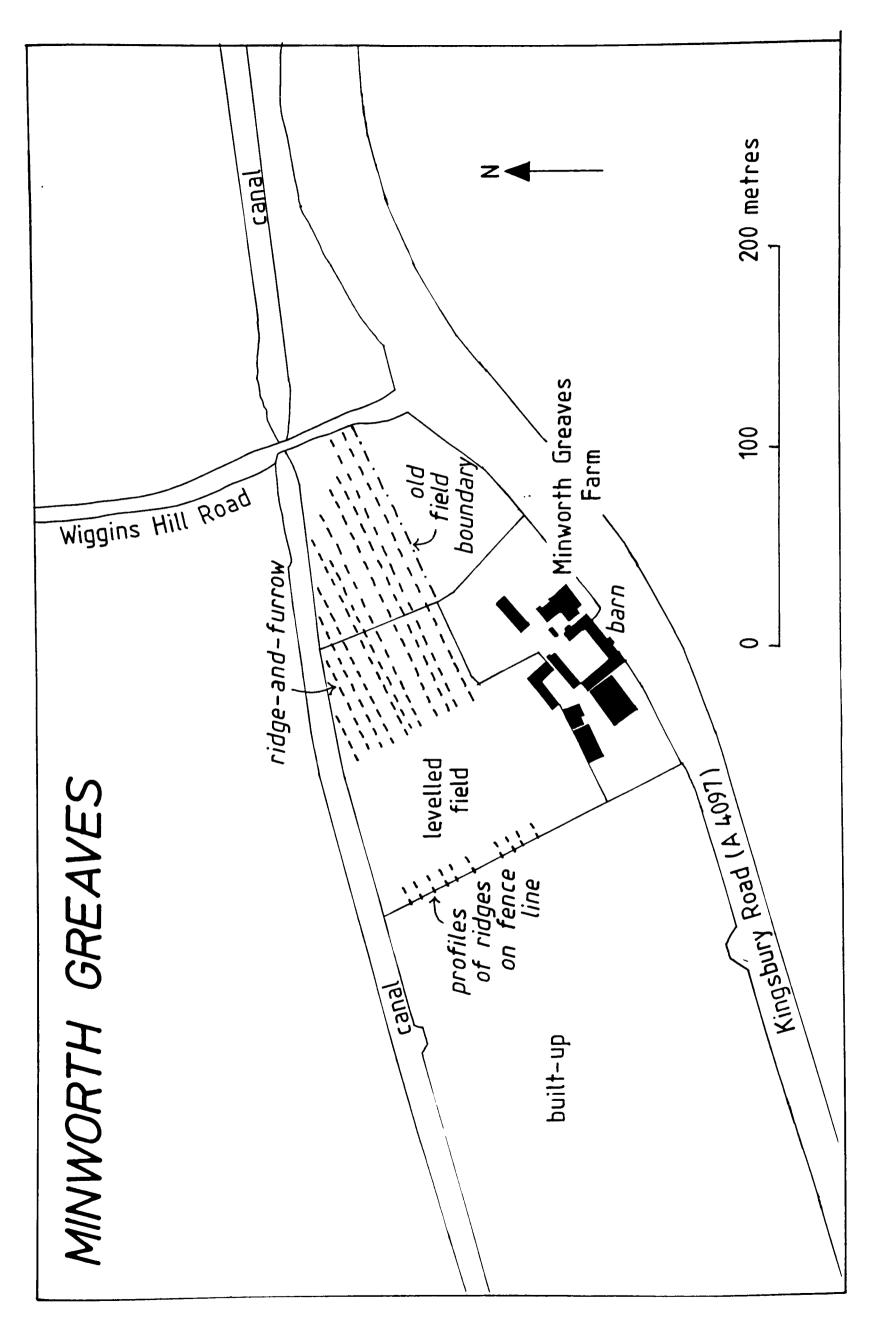


fig. 83

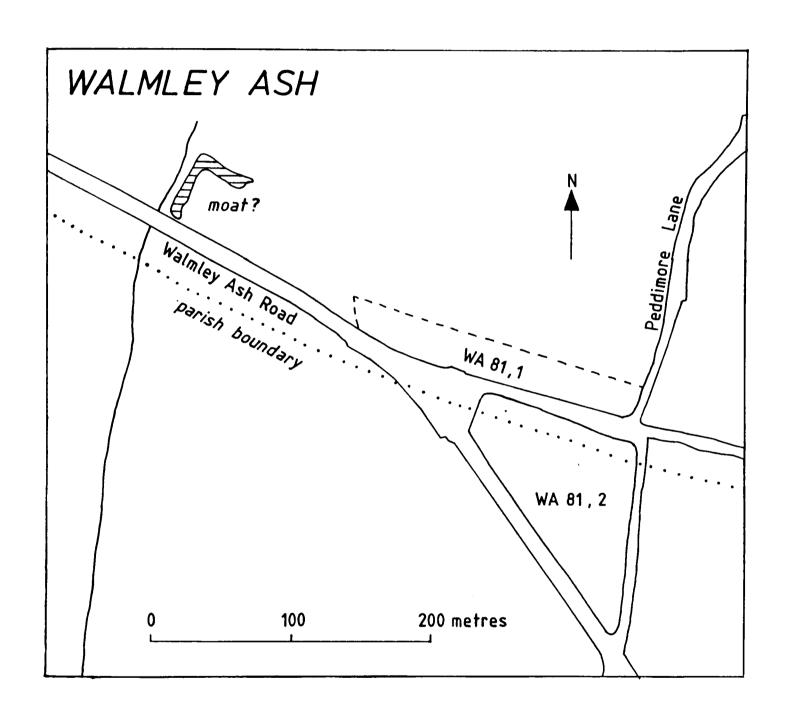


fig. 84

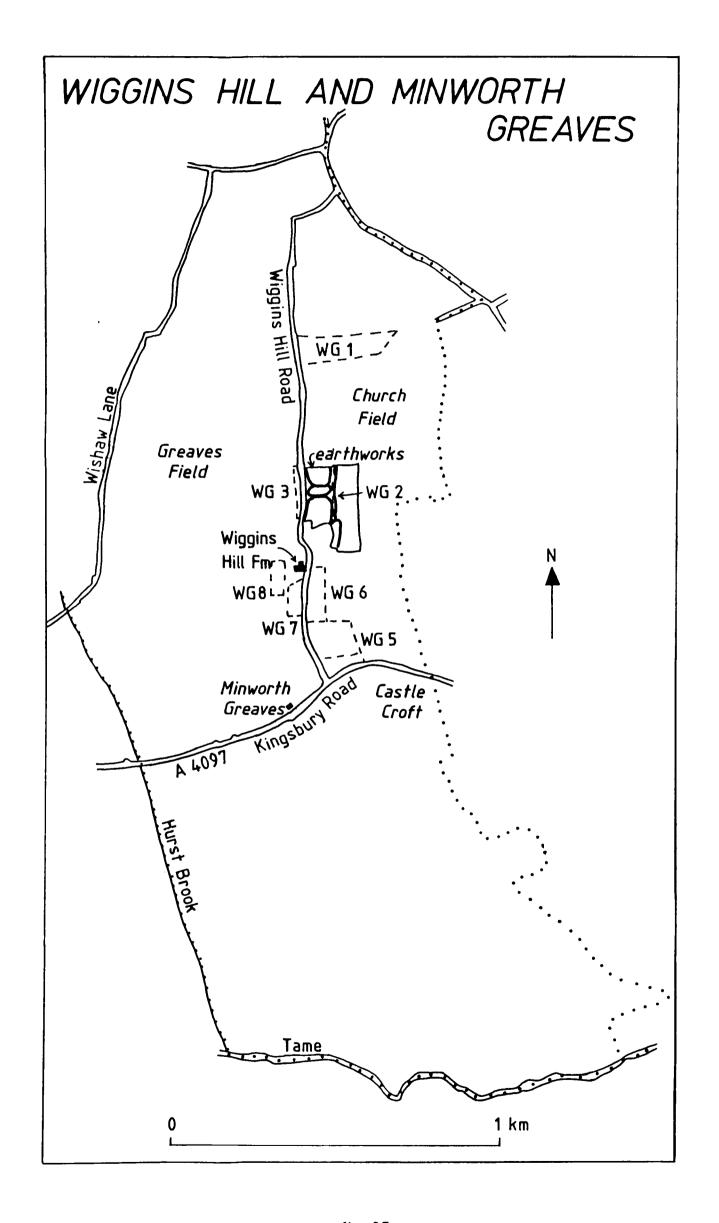
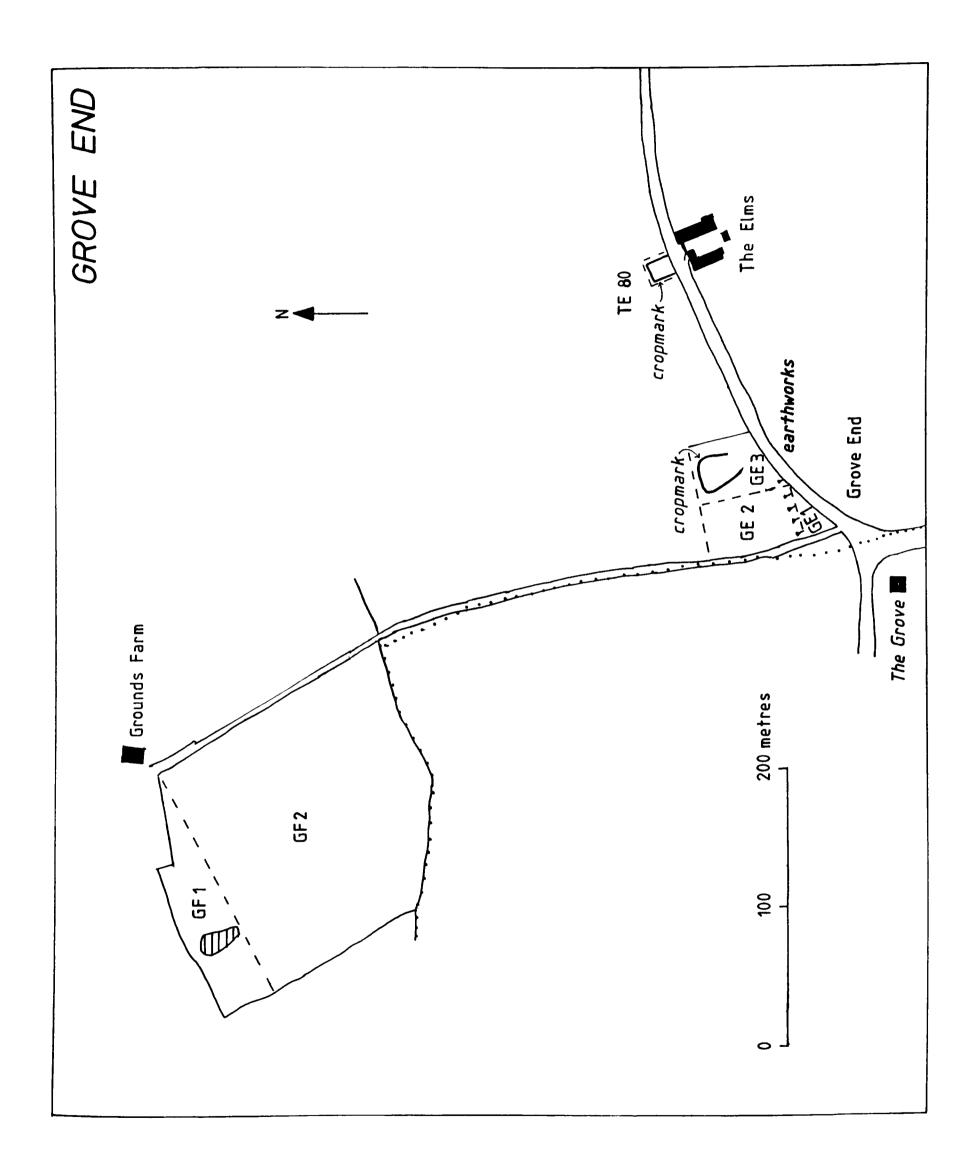


fig. 85



Key to Fig. 89: SUTTON CHASE: Moated sites and non-moated isolated sites.

Moated Sites

- 1. Berwood Hall
- 2. Curdworth Hall Farm
- 3. Drayton Bassett
- 4. Erdington Hall
- 5. Moat House
- 6. Pipe Hall
- 7. Middleton Hall
- 8. North Wood
- 9. Shenstone Park
- 10. Hurst Green
- 11. Langley Hall
- 12. Moor Hall Old Farm
- 13. New Hall
- 14. Over Green and Pool Hall
- 15. Peddimore Hall
- 16. Walmley Ash
- 17. Moxhull Hall
- 18. Wishaw Hall Farm

Non-moated isolated sites

- 19. Dunton Hall
- 20. Greenside Road
- 21. The Lad in the Lane
- 22. Pype Hayes Hall
- 23. Hardwick Farm
- 24. Pheasey
- 25. Canwell Priory
- 26. Blackgreaves Farm
- 27. Hams Hall
- 28. Ouston Grange
- 29. Booth's Farm
- 30. Kingstanding Lodge
- 31. Warren Farm
- 32. Little Aston Hall

- 33. Four Oaks Hall
- 34. Moor Hall
- 35. New Shipton Farm

Isolated Vesey cottages:

- 36. High Heath
- 37. Warren House Farm
- 38. Weeford Road alias Cotysmore alias Muffin's Den
- 39. Whitehouse Common
- 40. Wylde Green Road
- 41. Blackbrook Farmhouse
- 42. Grounds Farm
- 43. Drayton Manor
- 44. Shirral Hall

Parish boundaries as on fig. 2

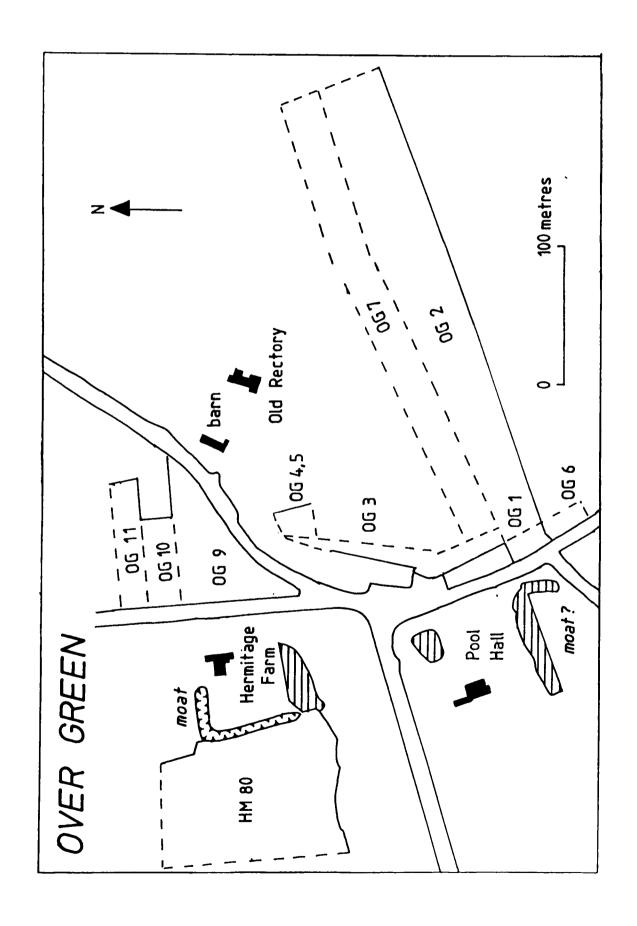


fig. 87

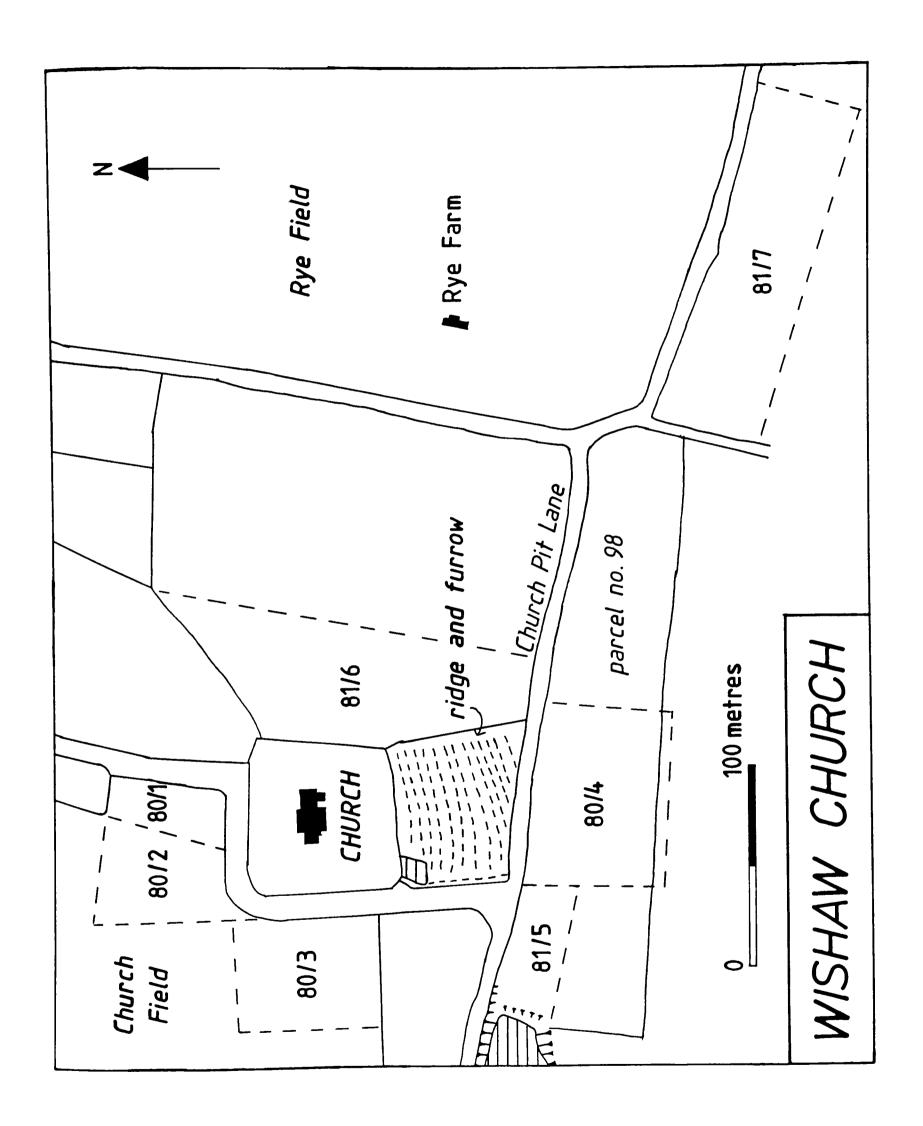


fig. 88

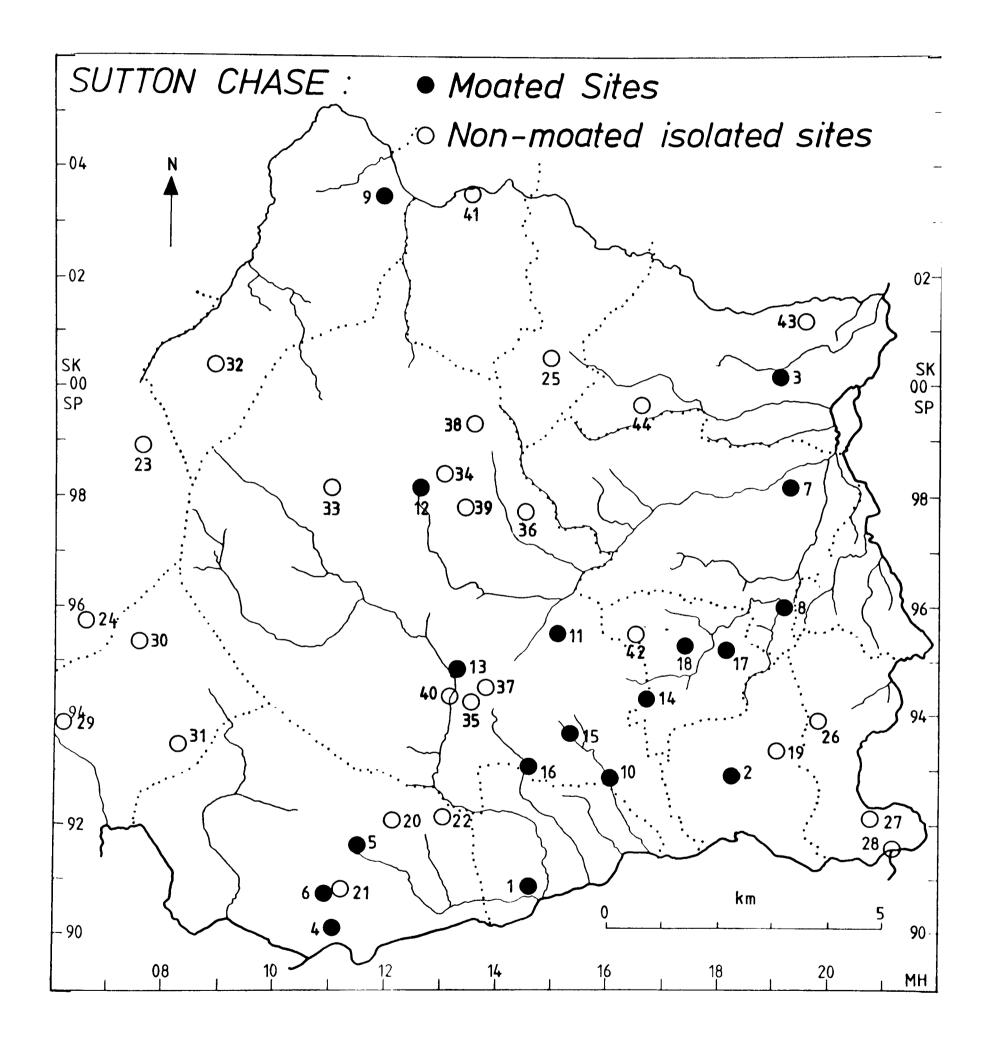


fig. 89

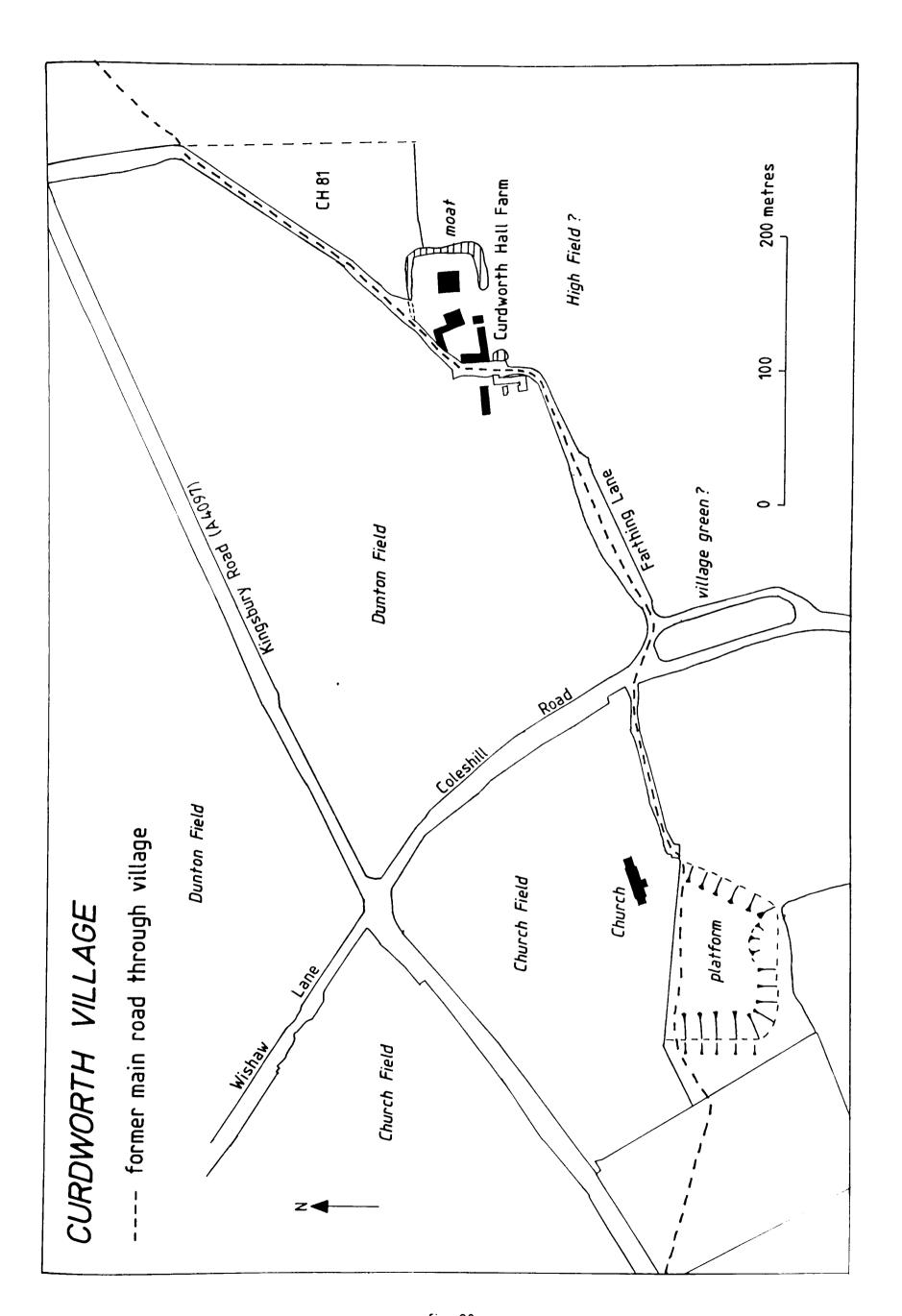


fig. 90

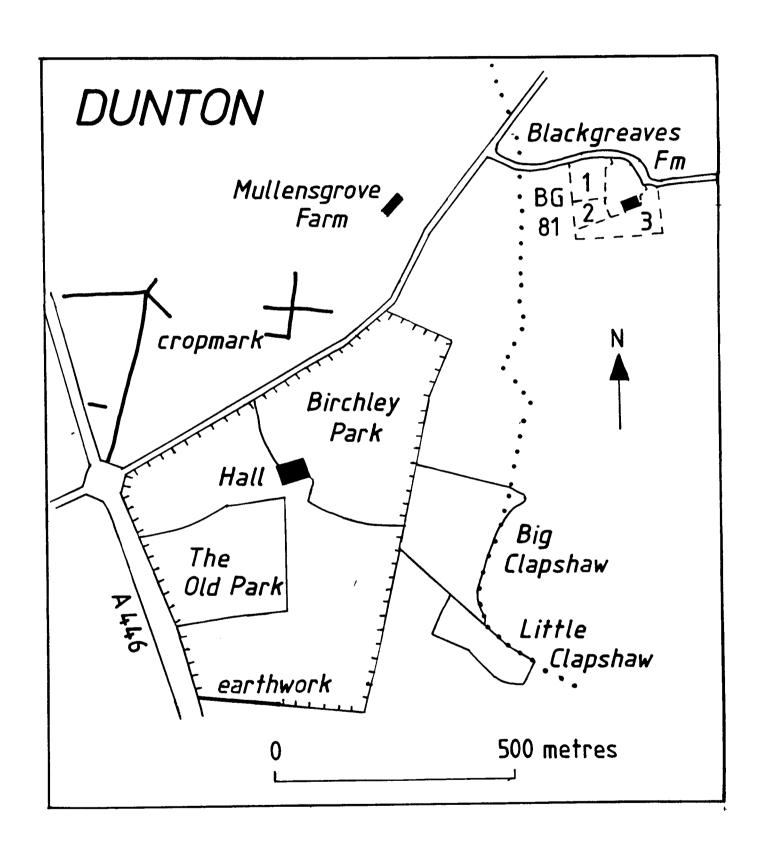


fig. 91

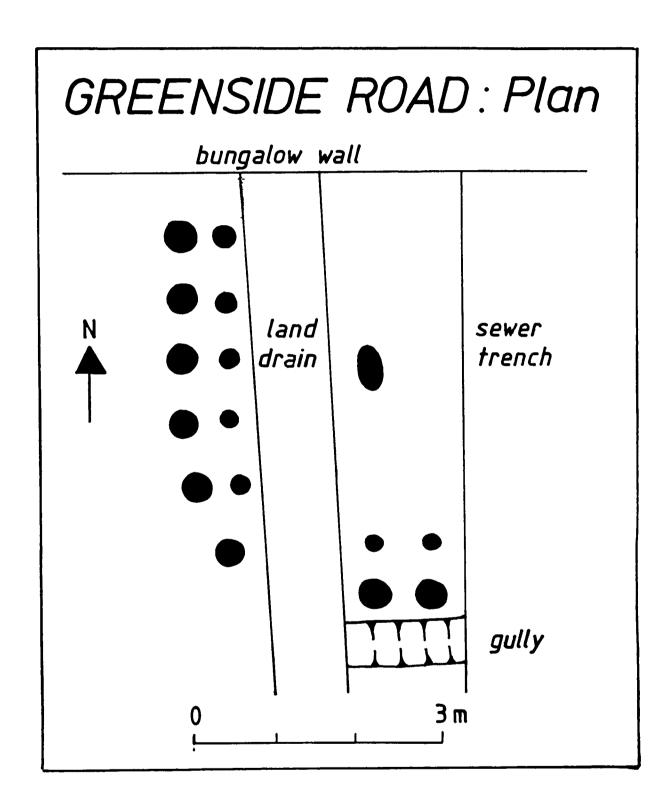


fig. 92

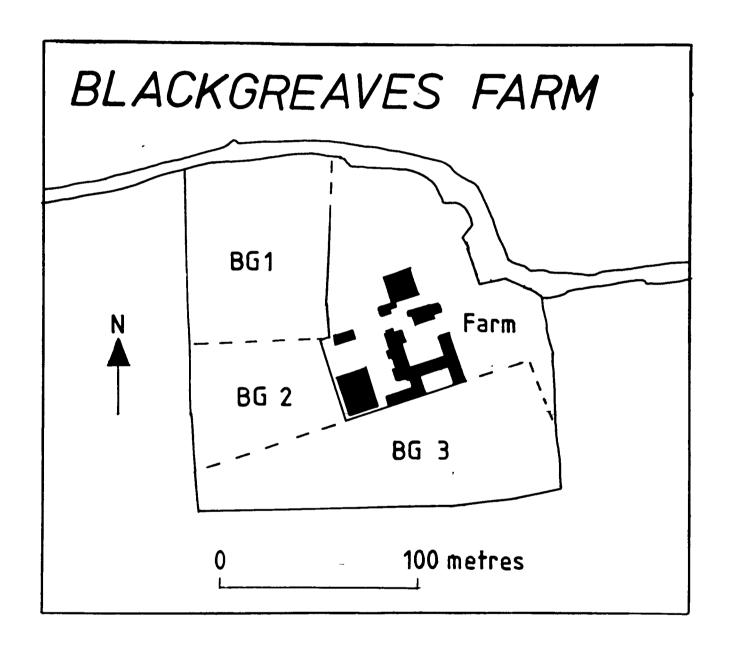


fig. 93

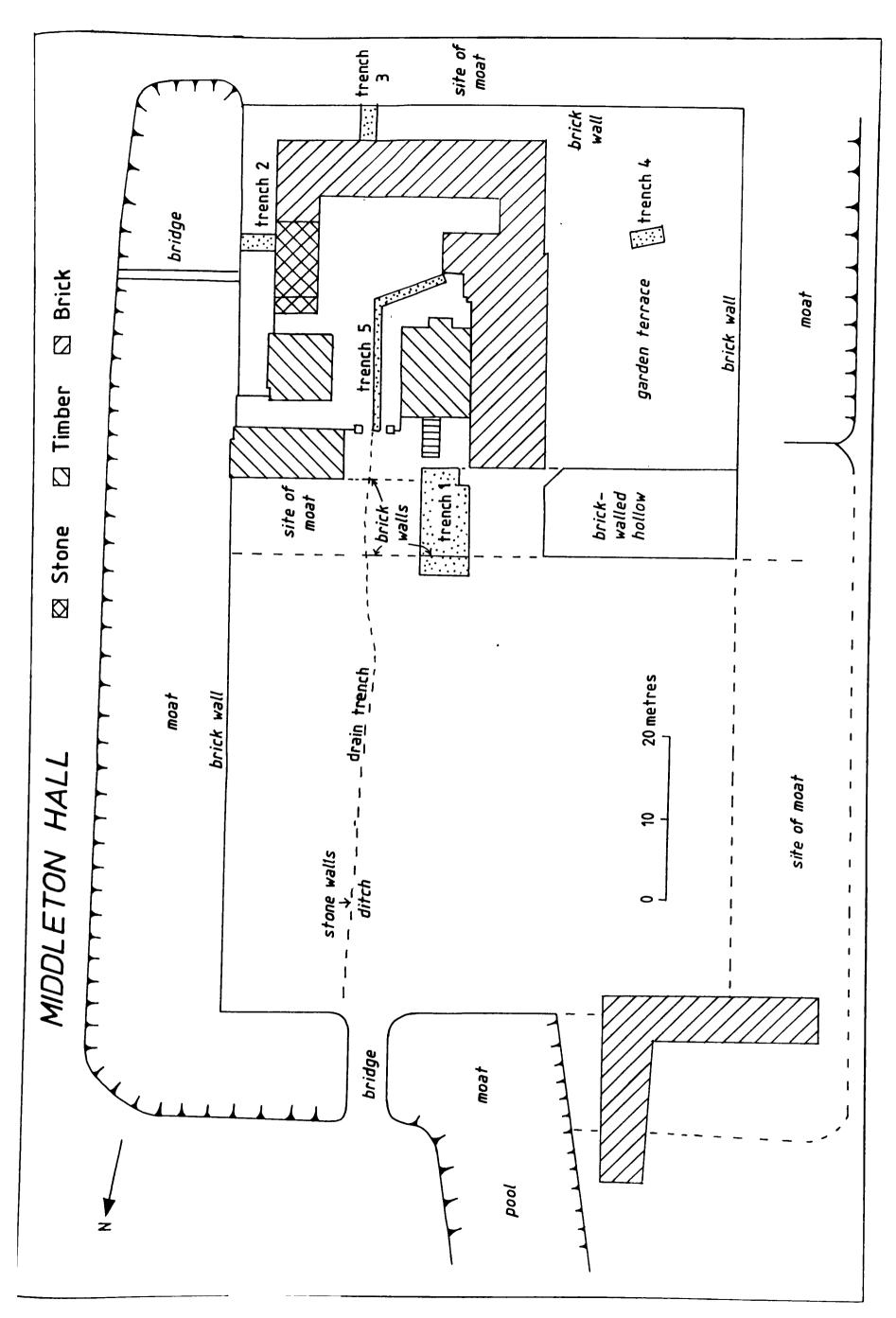
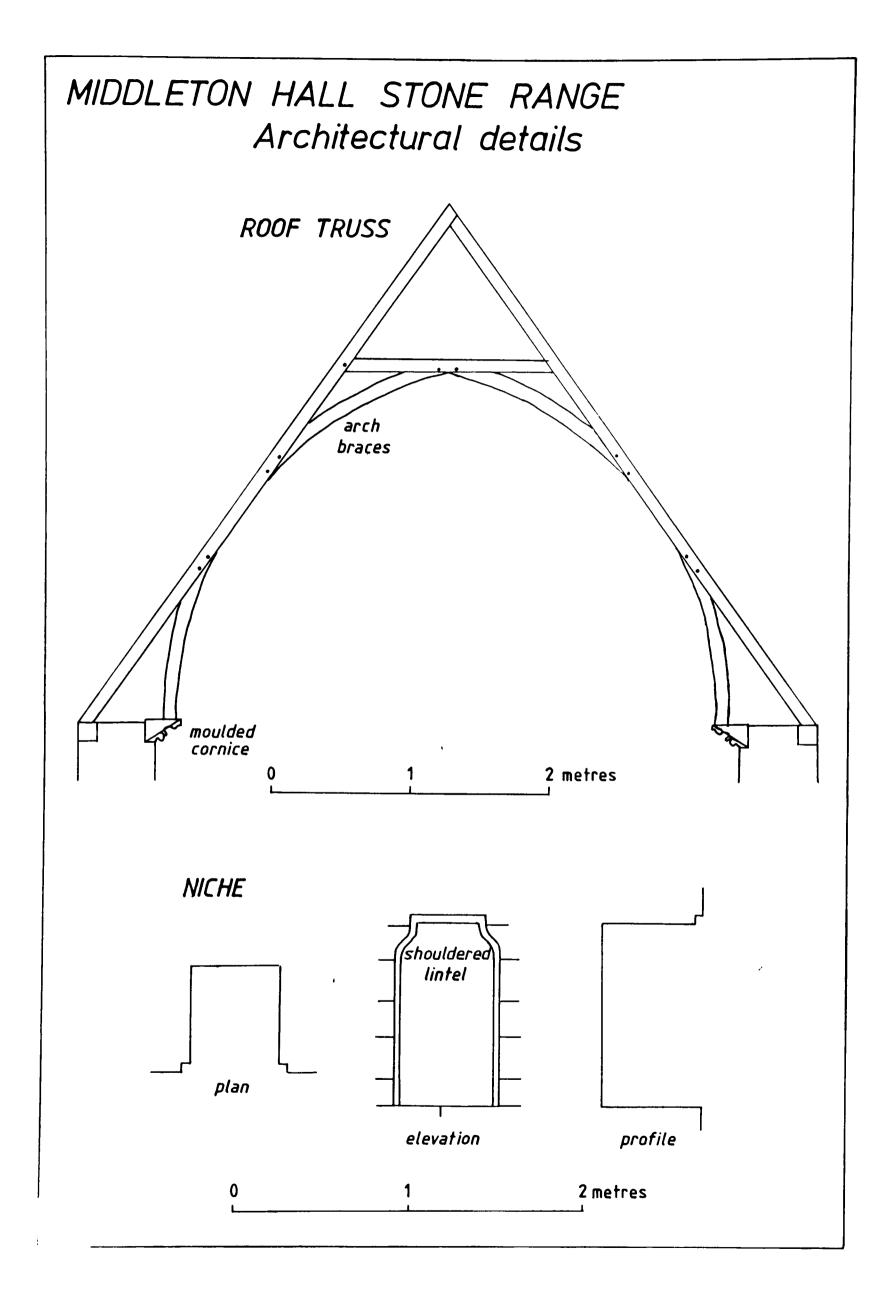


fig. 94



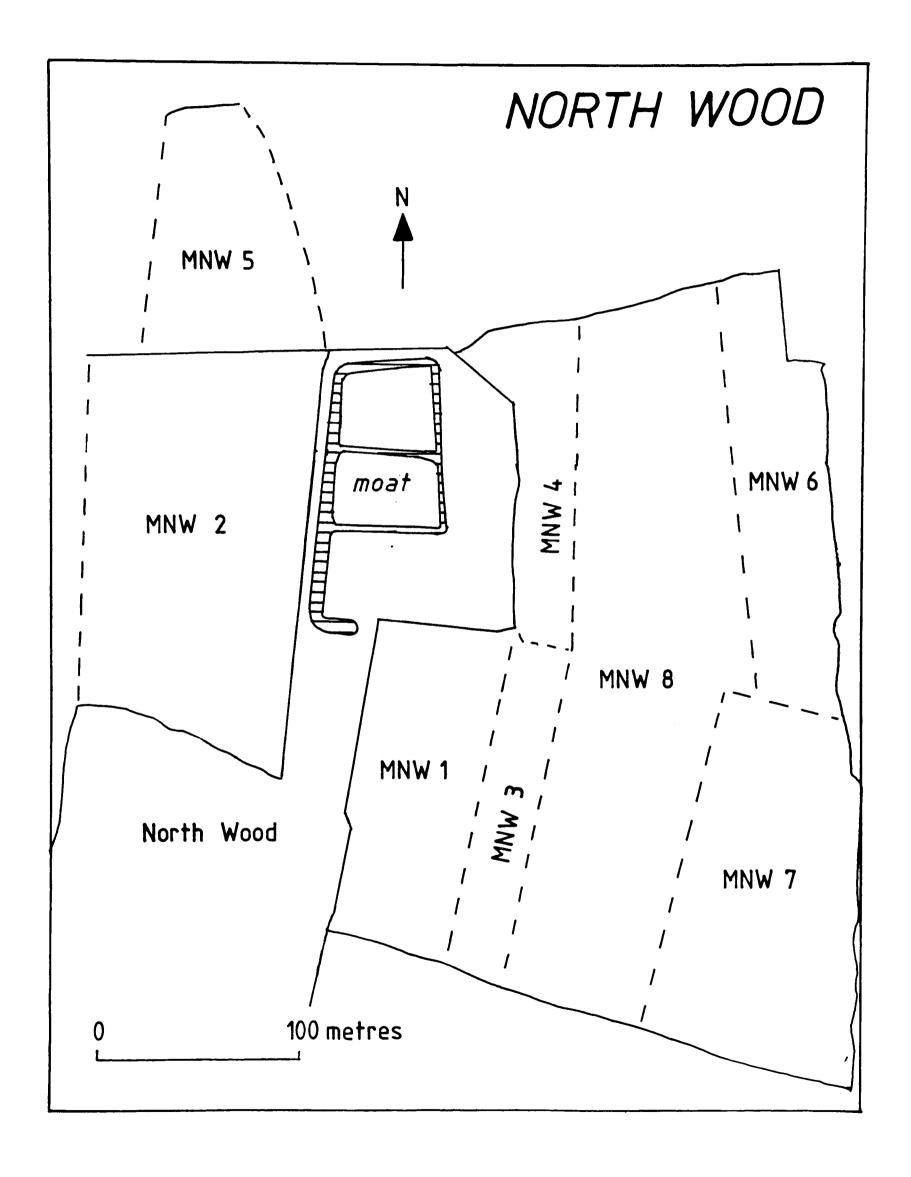


fig. 96

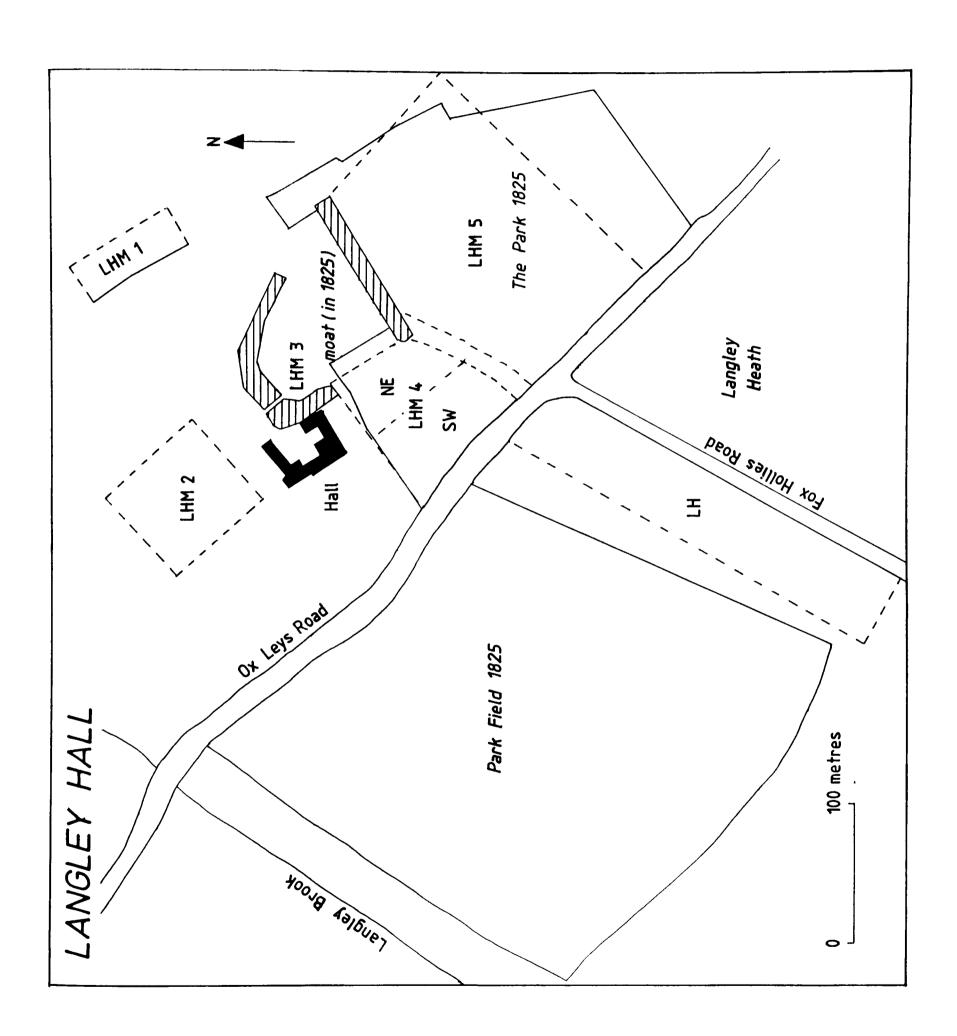
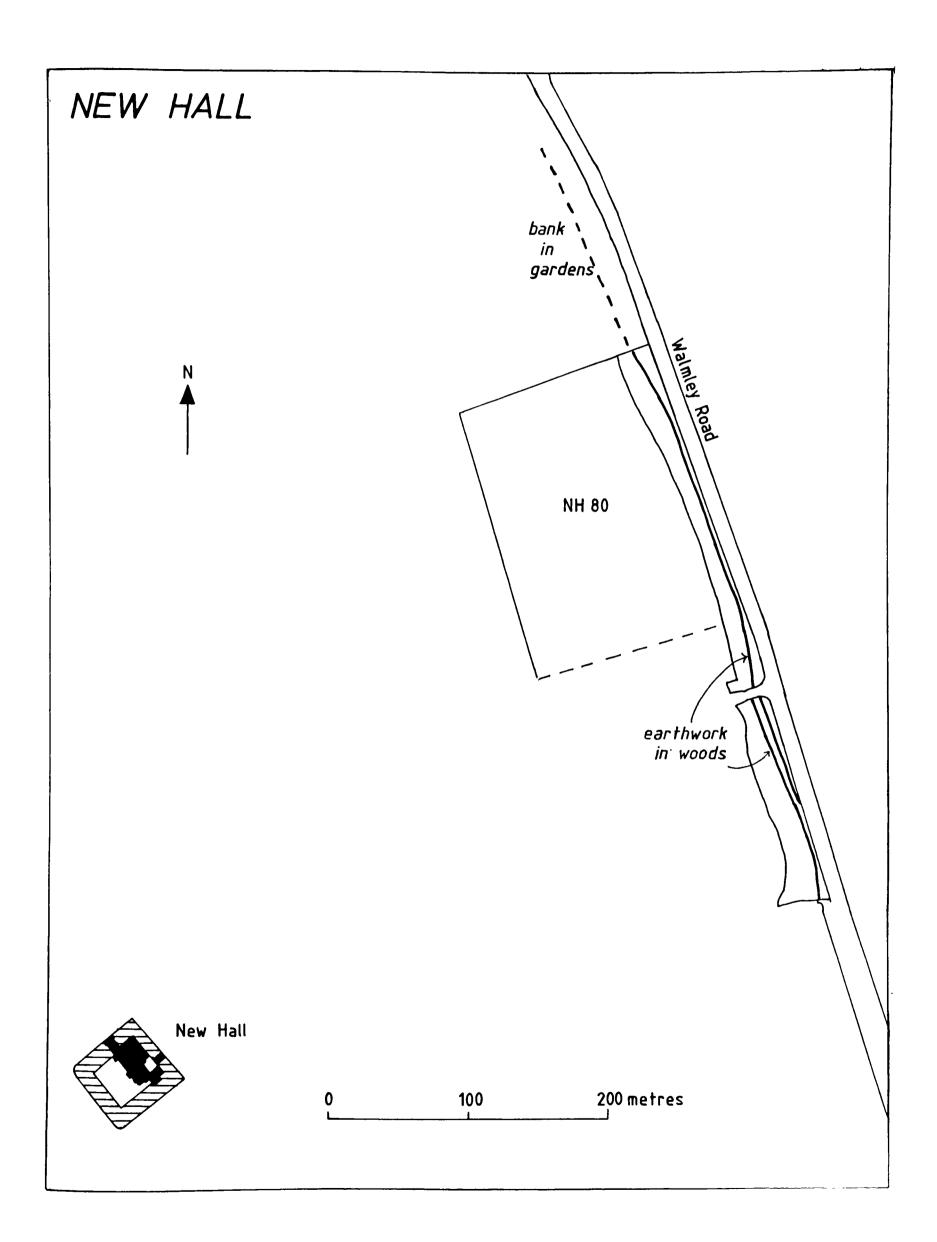
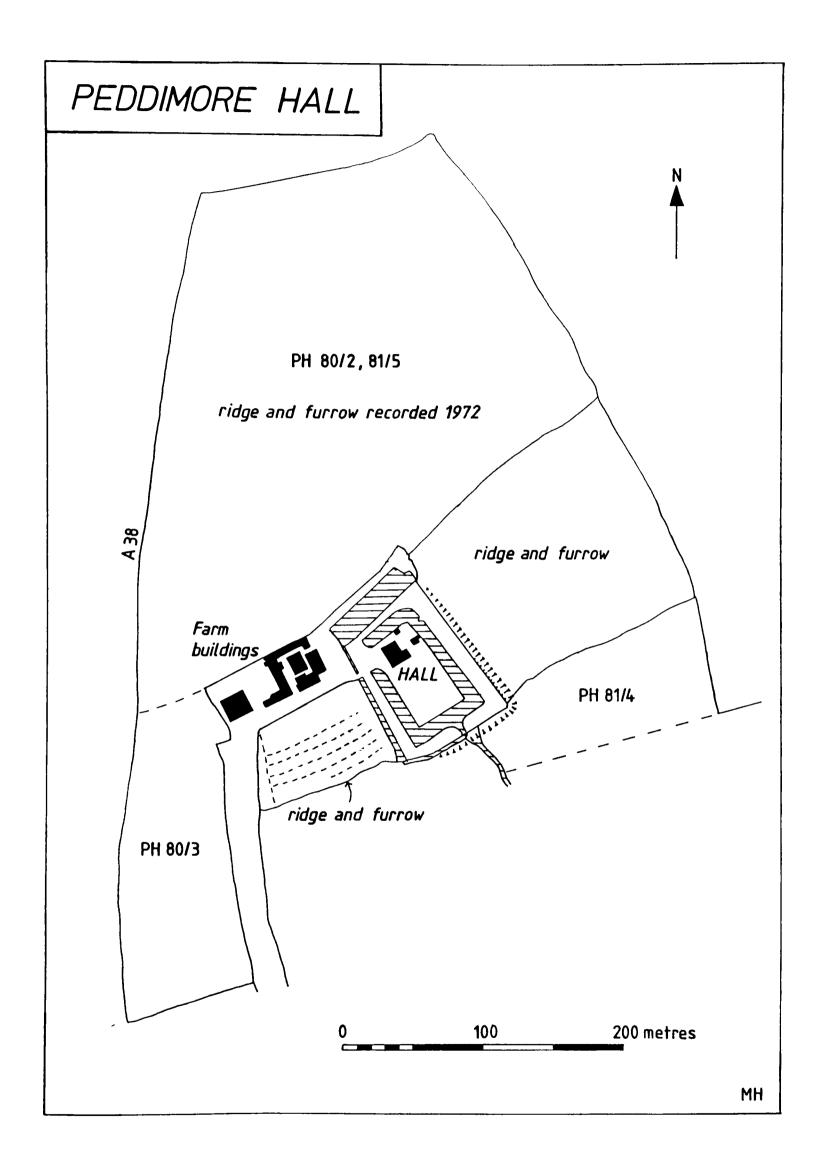
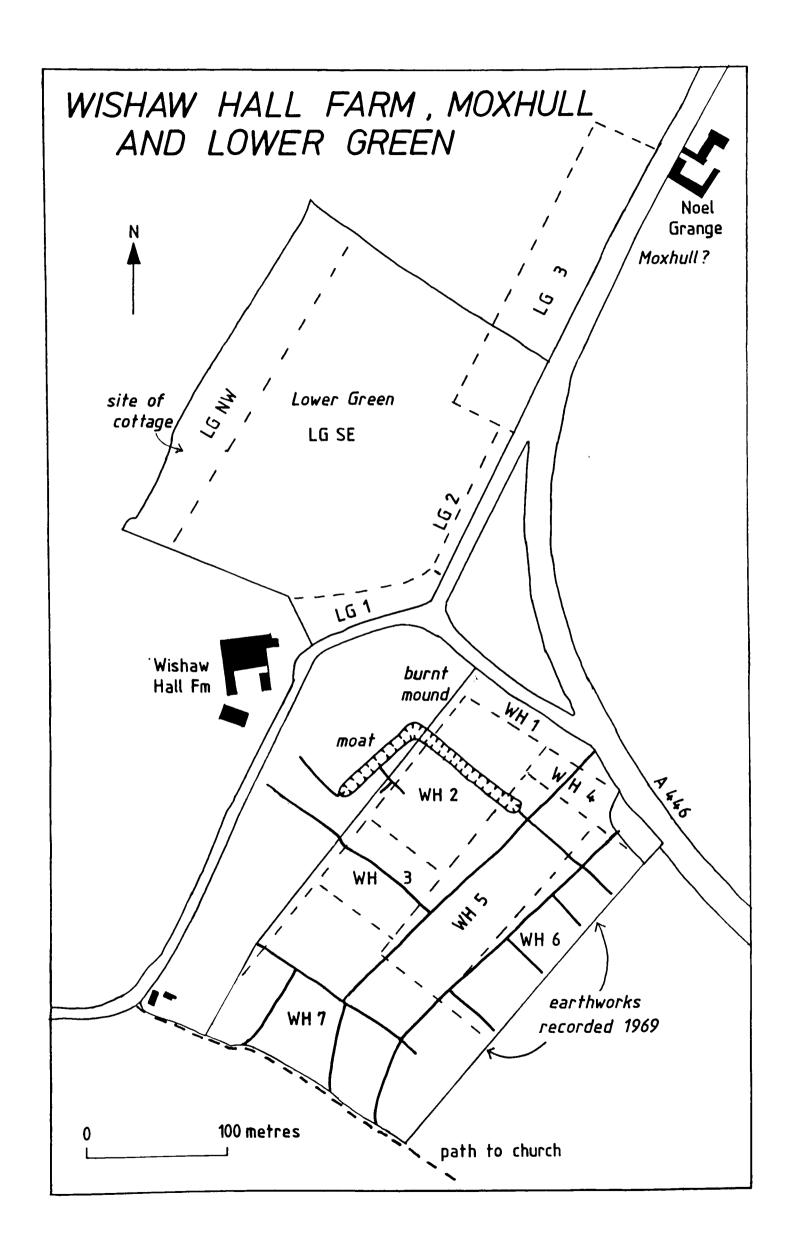


fig. 97







Key to Fig. 101: SUTTON CHASE: Mesolithic

Unenclosed Common Waste

	Erdington and Witton, The	Coldfiold	
1.	Core, blade and flake	SP 097937	OC 80 1 2 4
2.	Pebble macehead	c.SP 094930	OC 80, 1, 2, 4.
2.	Great Barr, The Coldfield	C.SF 094930	Gunstone 1967, 94
3.	Backed point and blade	SD 066077	DD 01 2
<i>4</i> .	Blade	SP 066977	BB 81, 3
₹.		SP 066968	BB 81, 4
5.	Sutton Coldfield, Hillwood		NOV. 01
3.	Backed blade, microburin,	SK 126002	MW 81
	scraper, blades and flakes		
Par	ks		
_ ~~			
	Drayton Park		
6.	Blades and flakes	SK 176006	DP 81, 10
	Middleton Park		
7.	Blades and flakes	SP 188979	MP 80, 81
	Sutton Park		
8.	Scrapers and flakes	SP 098986	p. 164
9.	Flake	SP 091967	p. 164
10.	Core	SP 092964	p. 164
11.	Blade	'James Pool'	Wymer 1977, 416
Hamlets			
	Drayton Basset		
12.	Blade	SK 192002	MC 81
	Wishaw, Moxhull		
13.	Blade	SP 175957	LG 81, 3
 •	Wishaw, Over Green		,
14.	Core and blade	SP 168943	OG 80, 4

Moats and Isolated Settlements

Wishaw

	Others		
16.	Core, scraper and blades	SP 174953	WH 80, 81
15.	Blades and ?microburin	SP 164954	GF 81

17.	Scraper and blades	Area SP 2098	Sheen nd.
18.	Blade	c.SK 108012	BMR

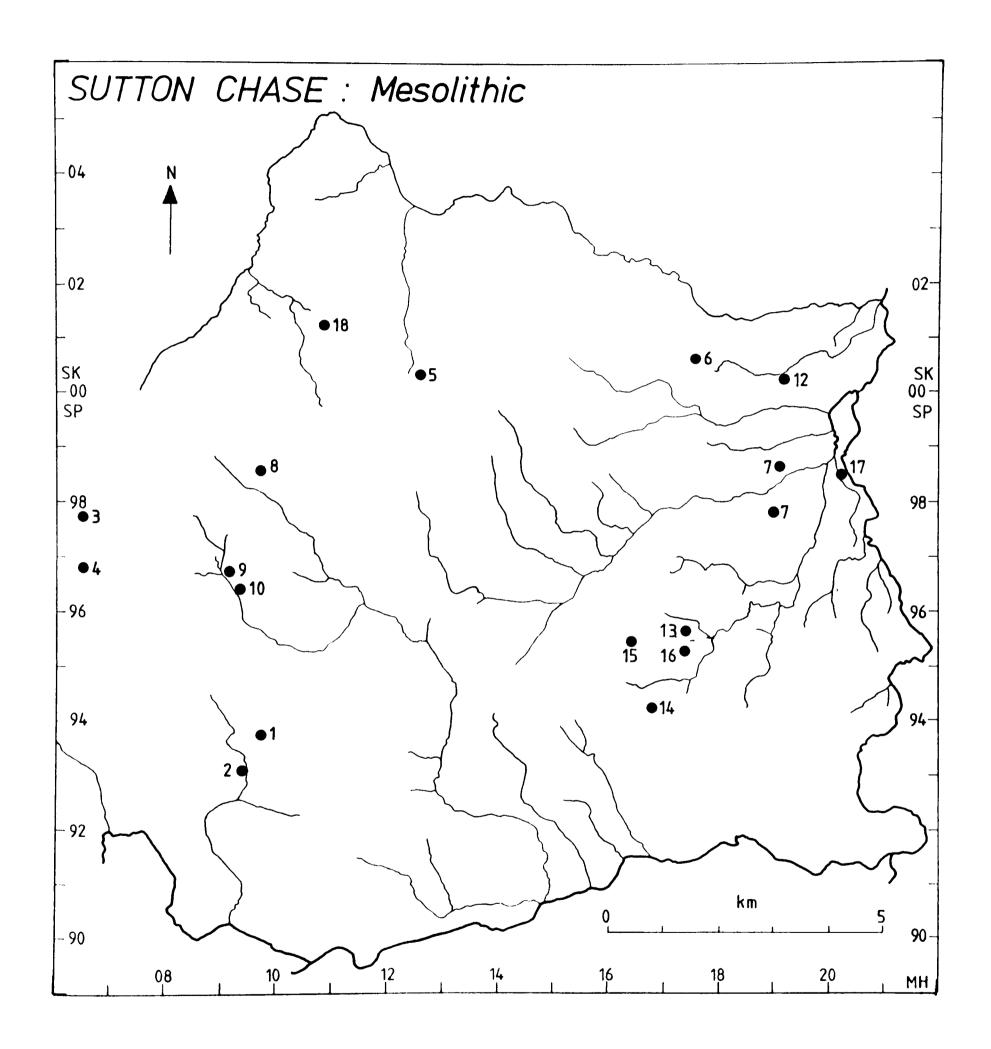


fig. 101

Key to Fig. 102: SUTTON CHASE: Neolithic and Early Bronze Age (* Post-Mesolithic Flintwork)

Unenclosed Common Waste

	Great Barr, The Coldfield		
1.	Flint arrowhead	c.SP 086984	Above, p. 110
2.	Maceheads	c.SP 062971	Above, p. 110
*3.	Core, blades, ?fabricator	SP 072996	LB 80
4.	?Barrow	SP 080955	Above, p. 111
5.	?Barrow	c.SP 067993	Above, p. 111
	Sutton Coldfield, Four Oaks	Common	
4a.	Stone axe	c.SP 1099	Above, p. 122
	Weeford, Weeford Hills		
*5a.	Core and flakes	SK 138012	WKS 80
Parl	KS		
	Bangley Park		
*6.	Scraper and flakes	SK 159010	BP 81, 6, 7
0.	Drayton Park		,_,
*7.	Core and flakes	SK 175011	AW 81, 4
*8.	Blade and flakes	SK 172010	AW 81, 6
	Little Aston Park		
9.	Petit tranchet arrowhead	SP 095998	BMR
	Shenstone Park		
10.	Flint axe	SK 119035	Above, p. 161
11.	Flint axe	SK 115035	Above, p. 161
12.	Flint axe	SK 111014	Above, p. 161
*13.	Scraper	SK 120038	SHP 80, 4
*14.	Blades and flakes	SK 122036	SHP 80, 7
*15.	Blades and flakes	SK 124033	SHP 81, 8
*16.	Scraper, blade and flake	SK 120037	SHP 81, 9
*17.	Scraper	SK 118033	SHP 81, 10
	Sutton Park		
18.	Bronze flat axe	SP 102961	Above, p. 164
19.	?Barrow	SP 102961	Above, p. 165

20.	?Timber trackway Weeford Park	SP 092964	Above, p. 168
*21.	Core, scraper, blade, flake	SK 140007	WPC 80
*22.	Core, flake	SK 144014	WS 81
Han	nlets		
	Middleton, Ash End		
*23.	Core, blade, and flakes	SP 175965	AE 80
	Sutton Coldfield, Wiggins Hill		
24.	Stone Axe	c.SP 1692	Above, p. 212
*25.	Scraper	SP 167932	WG 80, 2
*26.	?Fabricator	SP 168928	WG 80, 6
	Wishaw, Lower Green		
*27.	Retouched flake	SP 174954	LG 81, 1
	Wishaw, Wishaw Church		
*28.	Scraper	SP 176946	WC 80, 2
Moa	ats and Individual Settlements		
	Canwell Priory		
*29.	Scraper	SK 152003	Above, p.245
	Langley Hall	•	
*30.	Flint flake, serrate edge	SP 150954	LHM 81, 4
	Others		
	Drayton Bassett		
31.	Flint axe	c.SK 1900	Gunstone 1964, 21
*32.	Scraper	SK 198005	BMR
	Erdington and Witton		
33a	Toward Clint amountaged	SP 092912	0 . 10/7 05
	. Tanged flint arrowhead	31 092912	Gunstone 1967, 95
	Hints	51 092912	Gunstone 1967, 95
		SK 155008	Bamford 1977
	Hints		
33.	Hints Barbed and tanged arrowhead		
33. 34.	Hints Barbed and tanged arrowhead Sutton Coldfield	SK 155008	Bamford 1977
33. 34.	Hints Barbed and tanged arrowhead Sutton Coldfield Leaf arrowhead	SK 155008 SP 119983	Bamford 1977 Thomas 1974, 35

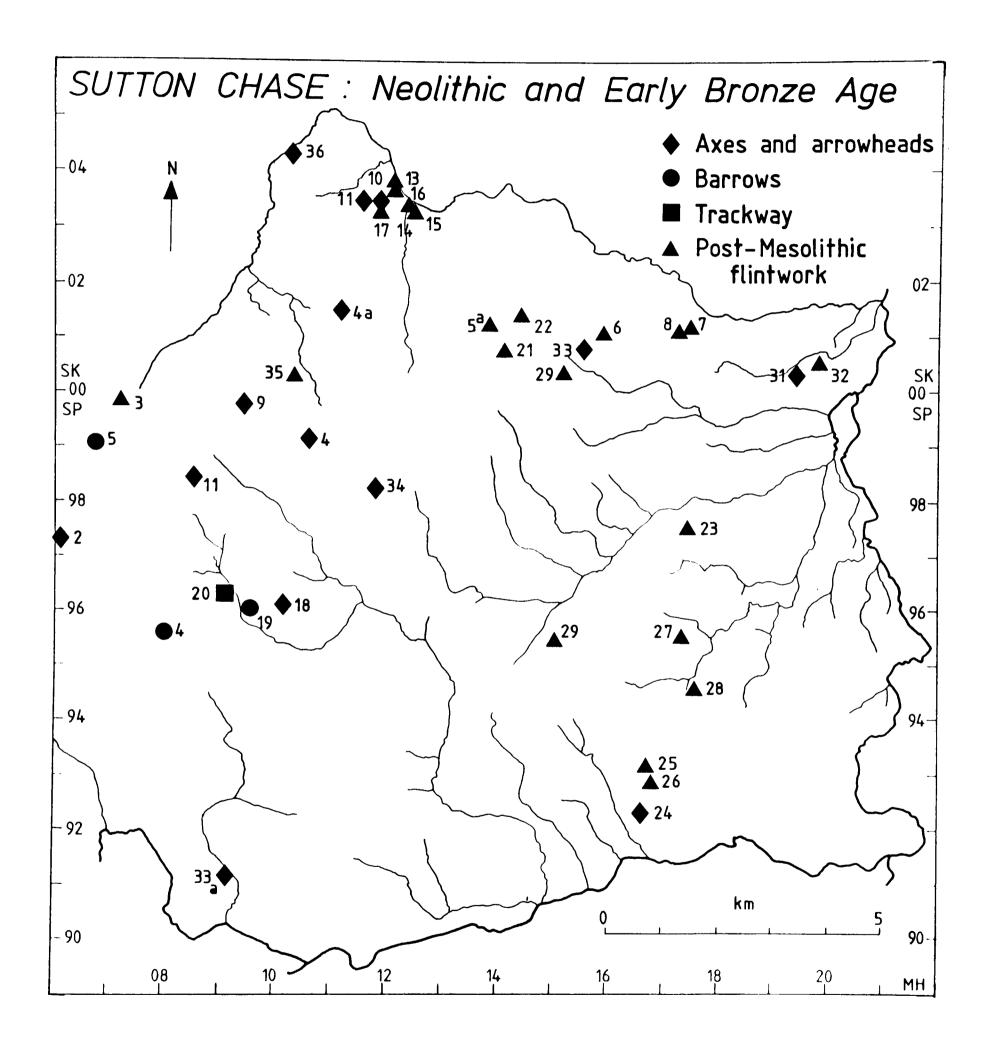


fig. 102

Key to Fig. 103: SUTTON CHASE: Middle Bronze Age

Burnt Mounds

1.	Sutton Park	SP 098987	above, p. 166
2.	Middleton Park	SP 193980	above, p. 157
3.	Middleton New Park	SP 158980	above, p. 159
4.	Drayton Park	SK 176013	above, p. 153
5.	Wishaw Hall Farm	SP 174954	above, p. 262
6.	Berwood	c.SP 139908	Fowler 1884, 15
	Palstaves		

7. Middleton SP 198981 BMR

8. Curdworth *c.*SP 1892 Mitchell 1923

Post-Mesolithic flintwork: see Neolithic and Early Bronze Age

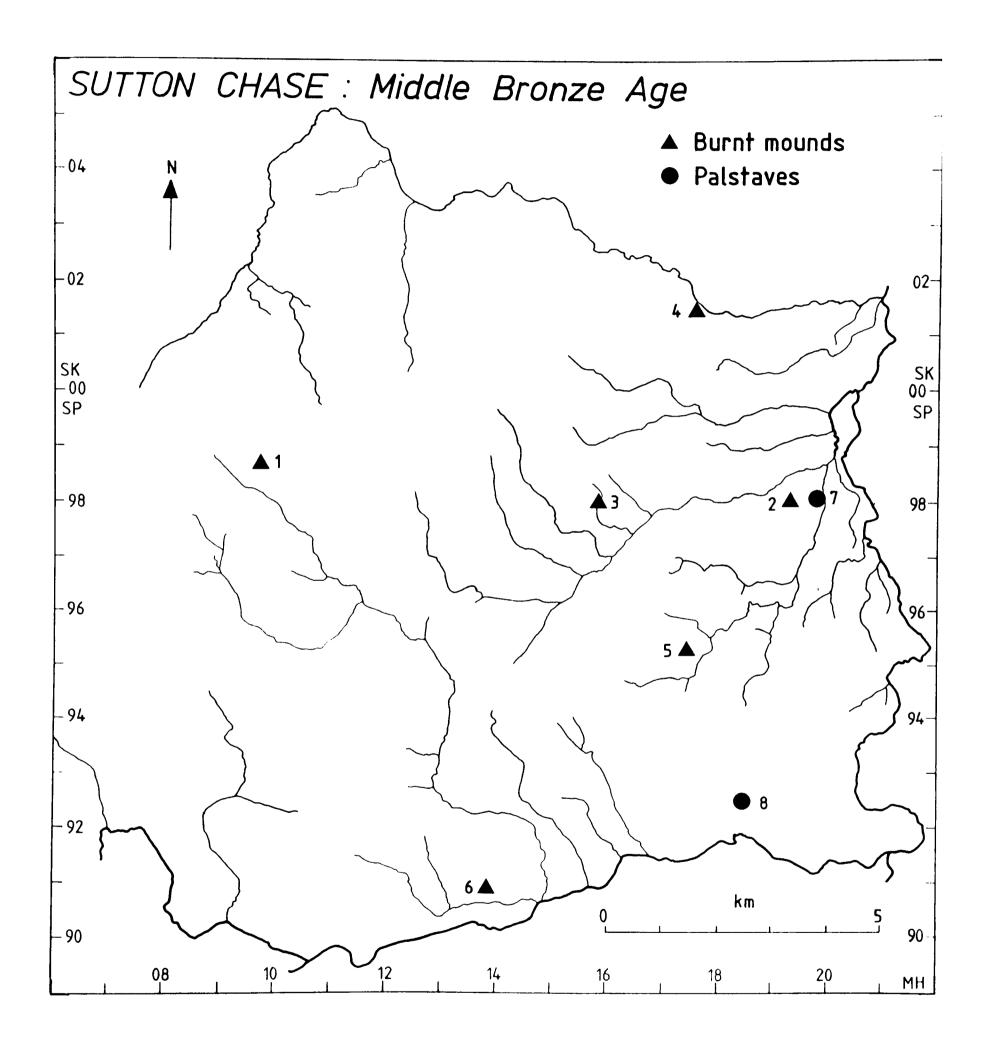


fig. 103

Key to Fig. 104: SUTTON CHASE: Late Bronze Age and Iron Age

1.	Torc, Middleton Park	SP 193982	BMR
2.	Loaches Banks	SP 072998	Above, p. 112
3.	Ancient Encampment, Sutton Park	SP 105975	Above, p. 167
3A.	Possible hillfort, Barr Beacon	c.SP 060973	Above, p. 111
4.	Field system, Bodymoor Heath	SP 197965	Above, p. 116
5.	Field system, Drayton Park	SK 172005	Above, p. 151
6.	Field system, Middleton Park	SP 191986	Above, p. 157
7.	Pottery, Drayton Park	SK 1750011	AW 81, 4
8.	Field system, Ox Leys Road	c.SP 158947	Above, p. 285

Post-Mesolithic flintwork: See Neolithic and Early Bronze Age

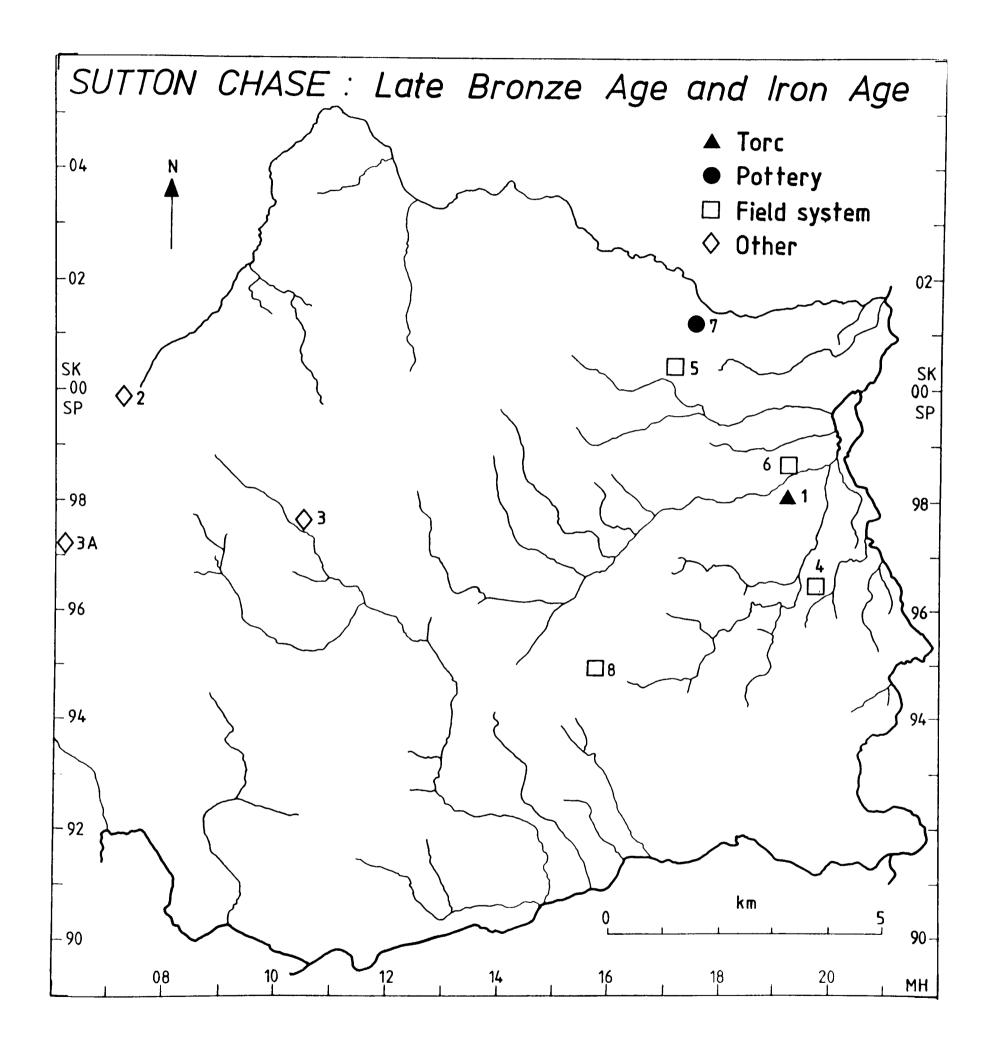


fig. 104

Key to Fig. 105: SUTTON CHASE: Romano-British

1. Roman Road

SP 073919 to SK 101043

Unenclosed Common Waste

	Great Barr, The Coldfield		
2.	Roman coin	SP 073982	Above, p. 110
3.	Roman coin	c.SP 062971	Above, p. 110
4.	Bronze disc	c.SP 077989	Above, p. 110
5.	Sandstone head	SP 083978	Above, p. 110
6.	Sandstone head	SP 084976	Above, p. 110
	Kingsbury, Bodymoor Heath		
7.	Field system	SP 197965	Above, p. 116
	Perry Barr, The Coldfield		
8.	Roman coins	SP 078948	Above, p. 118
9.	Roman coin	SP 083956	Above, p. 118
10.	Roman coin	SP 087937	Above, p. 118
11.	Roman coin	'Kingstanding'	Above, p. 118

Parks

	Bangley Park		
12.	Roman coin	SK 173015	Above, p. 150
	Drayton Park		
13.	Field system	SK 172005	Above, p. 151
14.	Pottery	SK 175016	AW 80, 1
15.	Pottery	SK 175014	AW 81, 3
16.	Pottery	SK 175011	AW 81, 4
17.	Pottery	SK 173010	AW 81, 5
18.	Pottery	SK 172009	AW 81, 6
19.	Pottery	SK 177002	AW 81, 7
20.	Pottery	SK 176003	DP 81, 6
21.	Pottery	SK 182010	DP 81, 8
22.	Pottery	SK 176006	DP 81, 10

	Middleton Park		
23.	Field system	SP 191986	Above, p. 157
24.	Pottery	c.SP 192989	MP 81, 4
	Shenstone Park		
25.	Pottery	SK 124033	SHP 81, 8
26.	Pottery	SK 118033	SHP 81, 10
	Sutton Park		
27.	Pottery	SP 105971	Above, p. 165
28.	Roman coin	Roman Road	Above, p. 165
29.	Roman coin	Roman Road, c.SP 087981	Above, p. 165
30.	Roman coins	c.SP 087982	Above, p. 165
Har	nlets		
	Middleton Village		
31.	Pottery	SP 178986	MV 80, 2
	•		,
	Sutton Coldfield, Hill		
32.	Roman coin	SP 113997	Above, p. 208
32A	. Pottery kiln	SP 113994	Above, p. 208
	Sutton Coldfield, Wiggins	Hill	
33.	Coins	c.SP 167930	Above, p. 212
34.	Pottery	SP 168936	WG 80, 1
35.	Pottery	SP 167932	WG 80, 2
36.	Pottery	SP 167932	WG 80, 3
37.	Pottery	SP 168928	WG 80, 6
38.	Pottery	SP 166928	WG 80, 8
Moats and individual settlements			
14104	ats and individual settlements	•	
	Canwell Priory		
39.	Pottery	SK 152003	Above, p. 245
	Blackgreaves Farm		
40.	Pottery	SP 197940	BG 81, 1
	North Wood		
41.	Pottery	SP 191959	MNW 80, 1

	Hermitage Farm		
42.	Pottery	SP 166943	HM 80
	Grounds Farm		
43.	Pottery	SP 164954	GF 81, 1, 2
	Wishaw Hall Farm		
44.	Pottery	SP 174953	WH 80, 1, 2, 3;
			81, 5, 7
	Other		
	Drayton Bassett		
45.	Pottery	SK 198005	BMR
	Erdington and Witton		
46.	Roman coin	SP 128920	BMR
	Middleton		
47.	Pottery	SP 203983	Sheen, n.d.
	Perry Barr		
48.	Roman coin	SP 067941	BMR
	Shenstone		
49.	Roman coin	c.SK 110045	BMR
50.	Roman coin	SK 098018	Barnett 1931
	Sutton Coldfield		
51.	Roman coin	SP 126964	BMR
52.	Roman coin	c.SP 138927	BMR
53.	Possible field system	c.SP 158947	above, p. 285

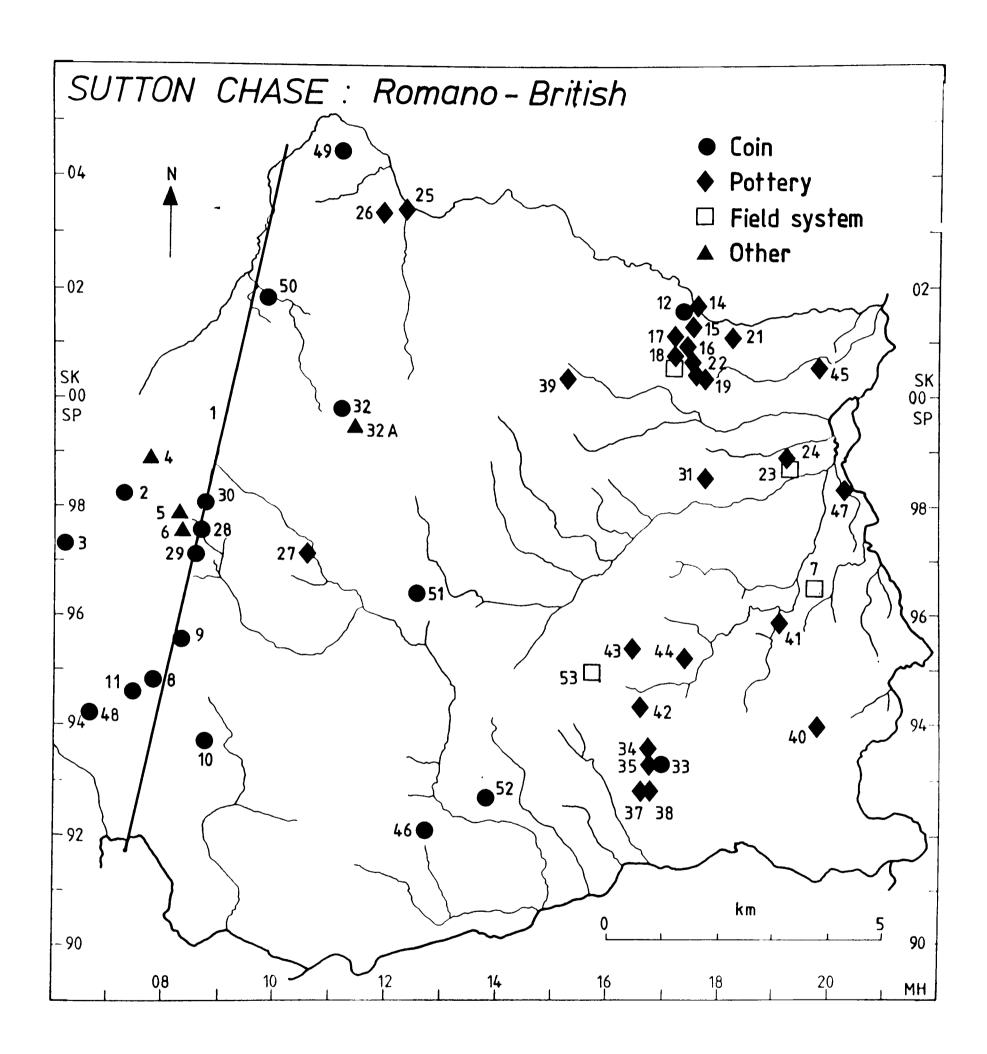


fig. 105

Key to Fig. 106: SUTTON CHASE: Settlements recorded before 1100

- 1. Curdworth
- 2 Drayton Bassett
- 3. Erdington
- 4. Lea
- 5. Little Aston
- 6. Maney
- 7. Marston
- 8. Middleton
- 9. Minworth
- 10. Shenstone
- 11. Sutton Coldfield
- 12. Wiggins Hill
- 13. Windley
- 14. Wishaw
- 15. Witton

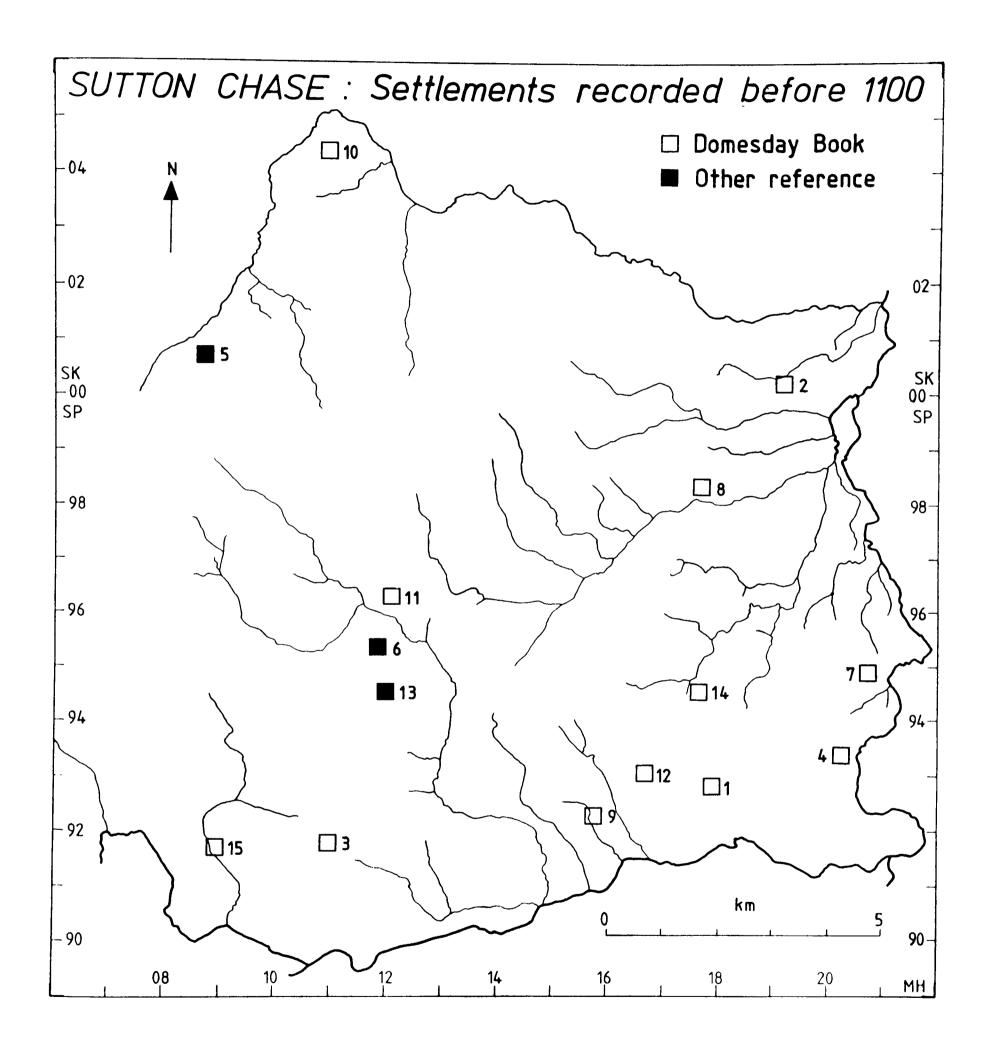


fig. 106

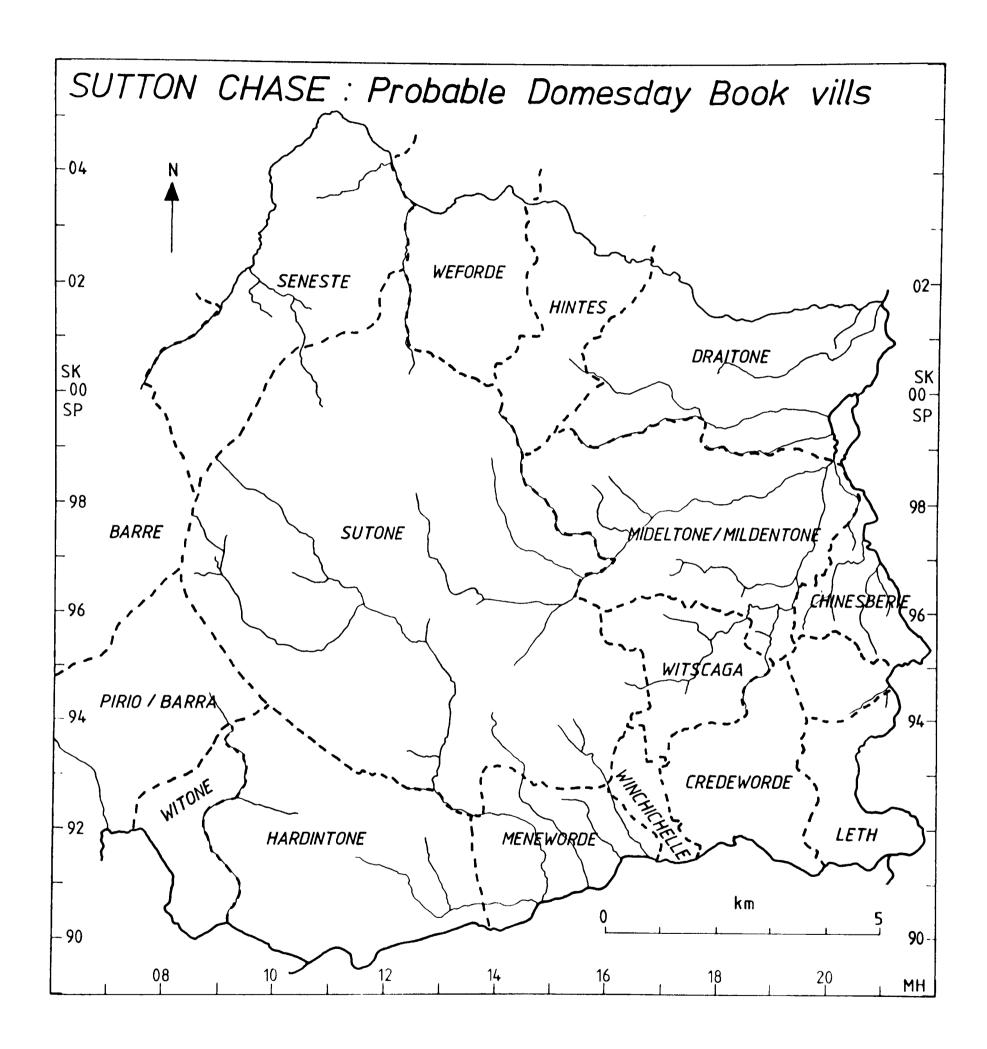
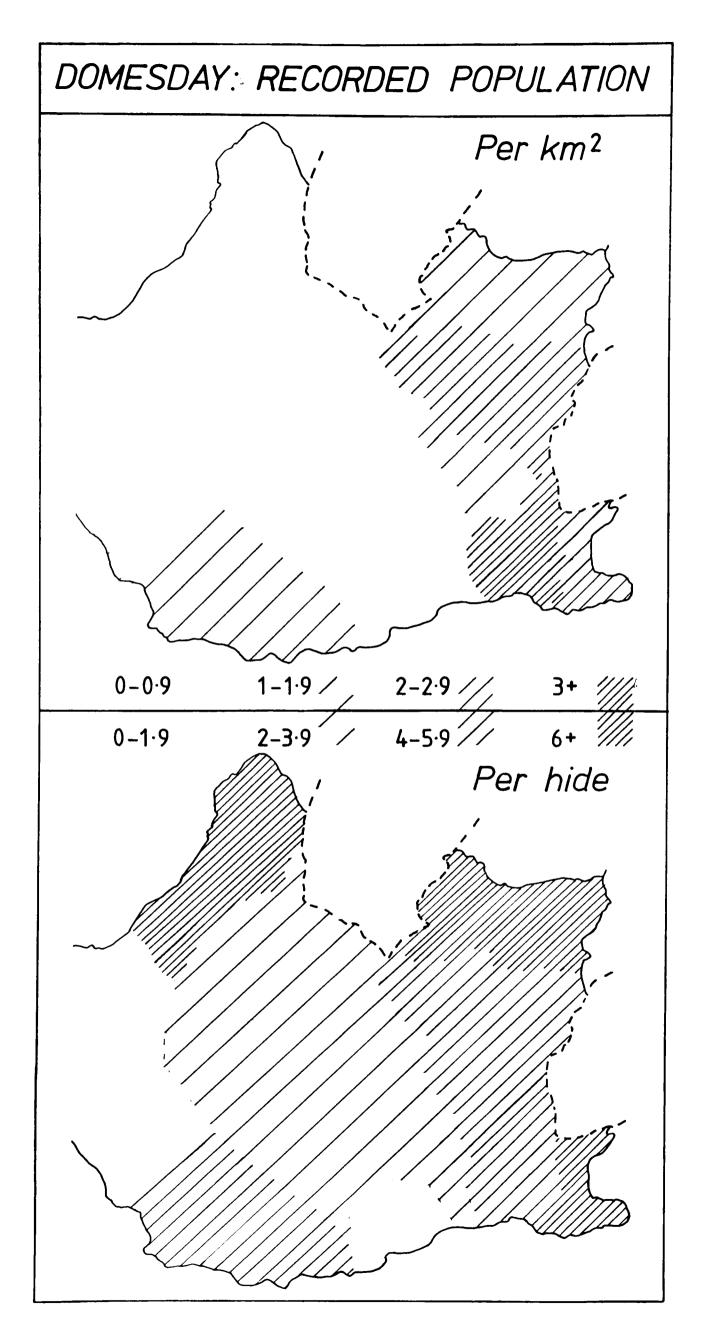
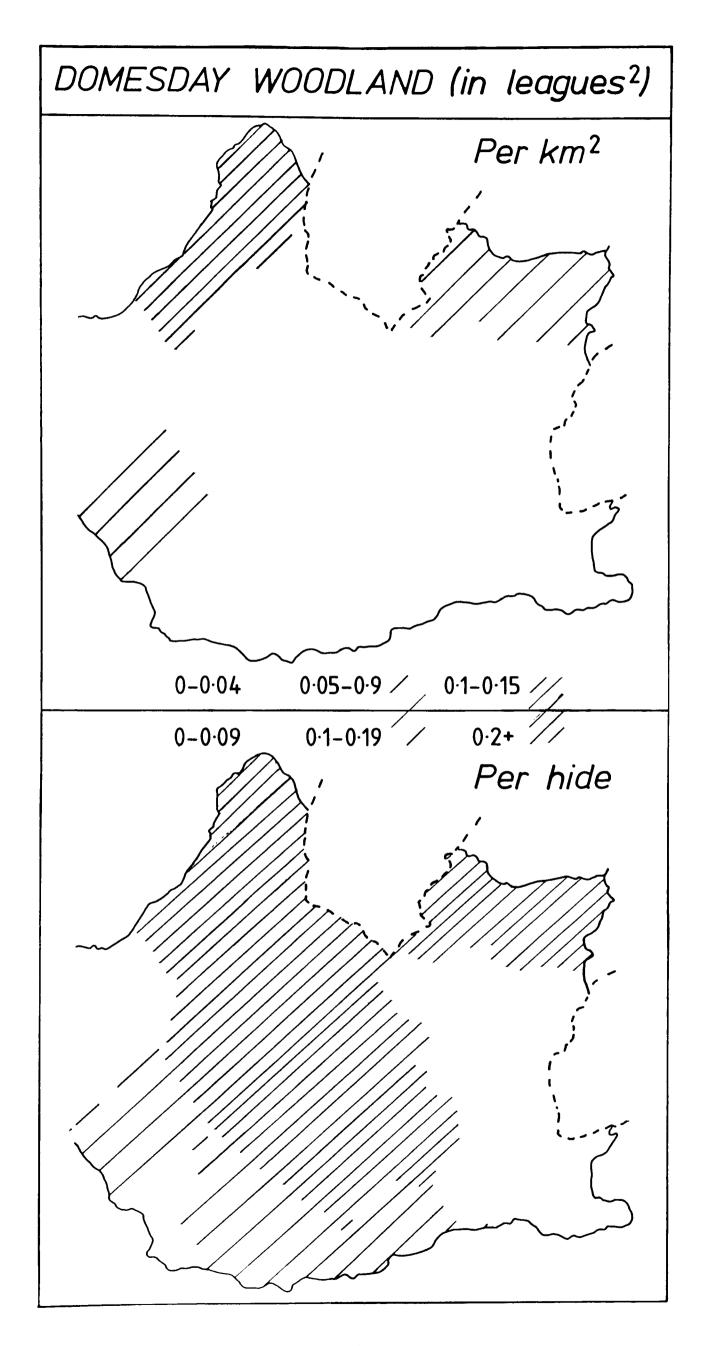
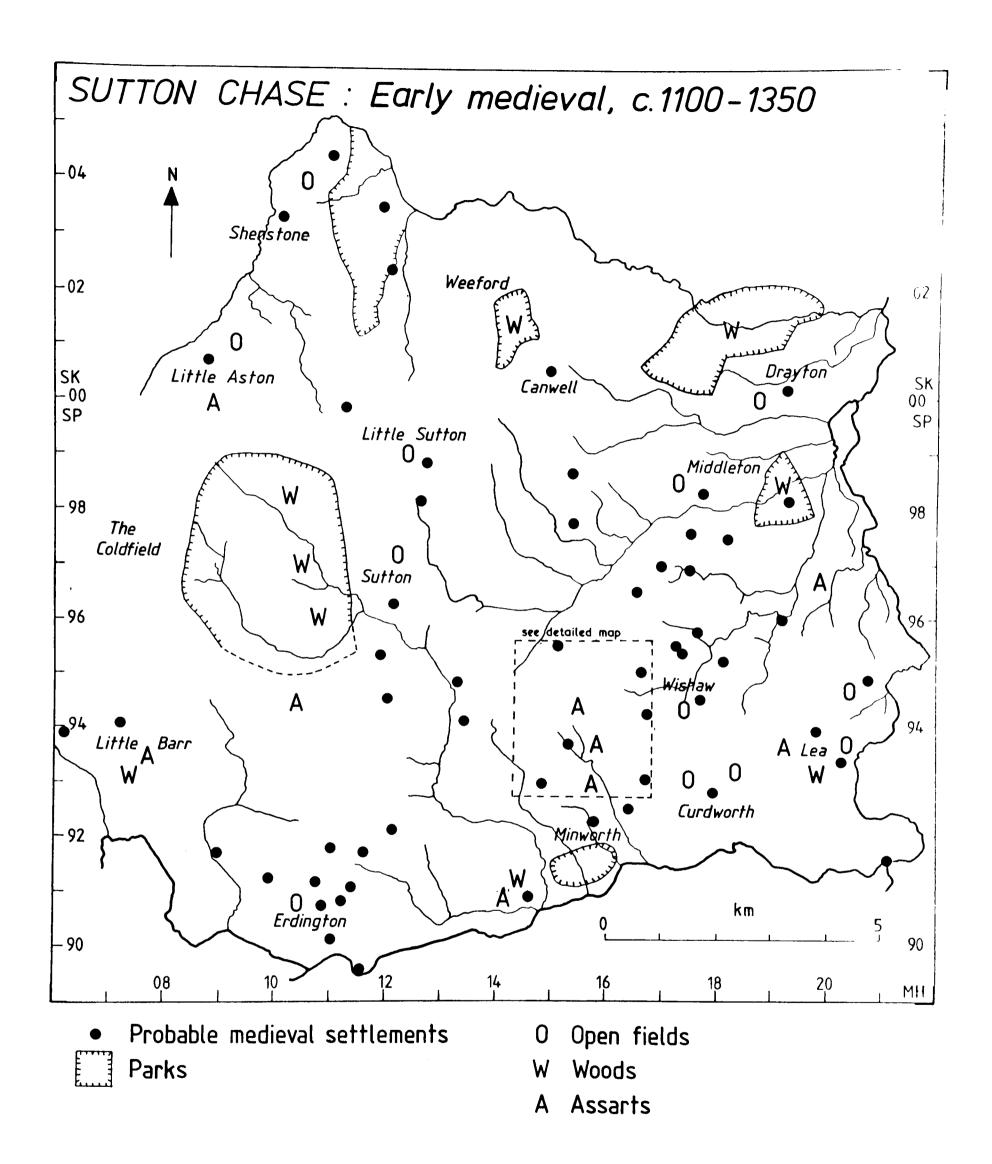


fig. 107







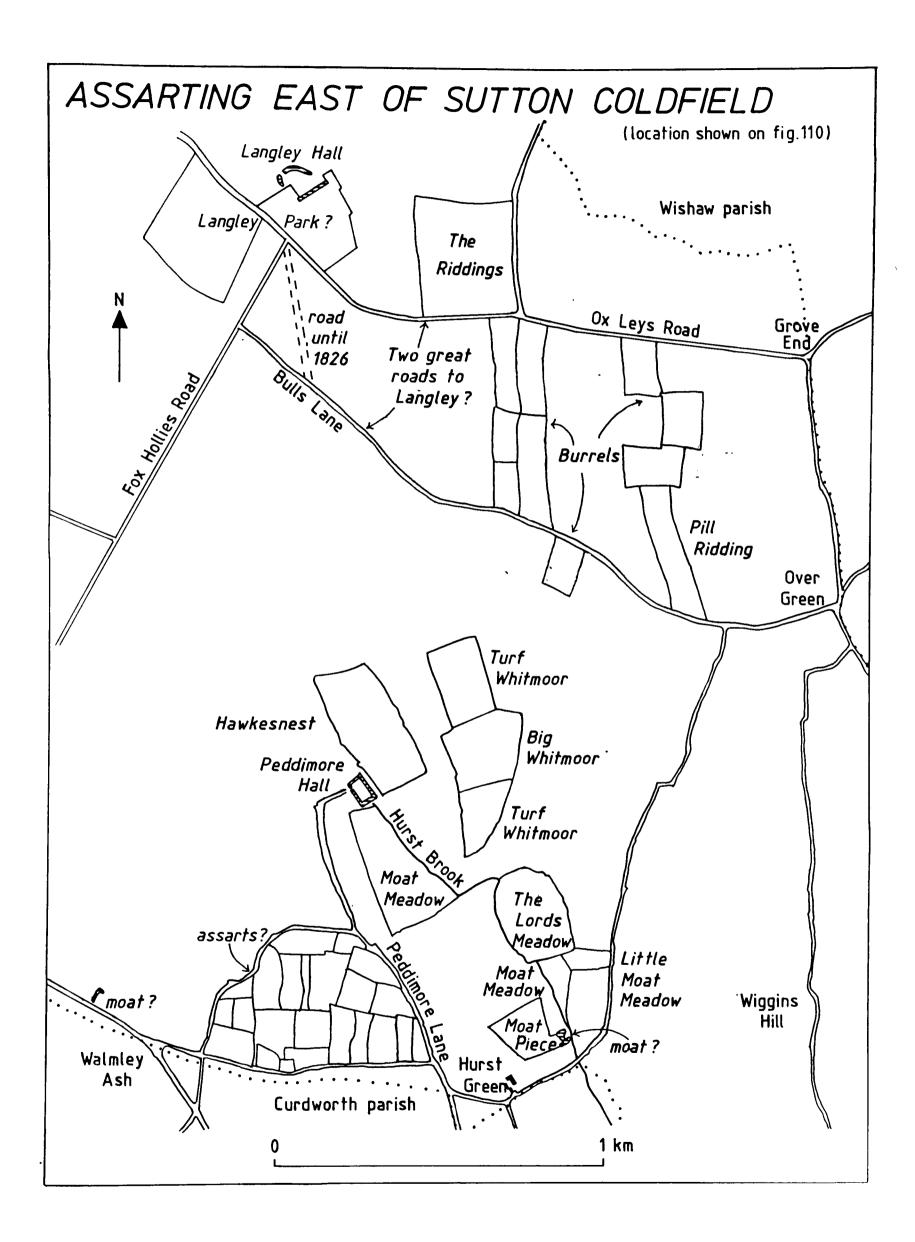
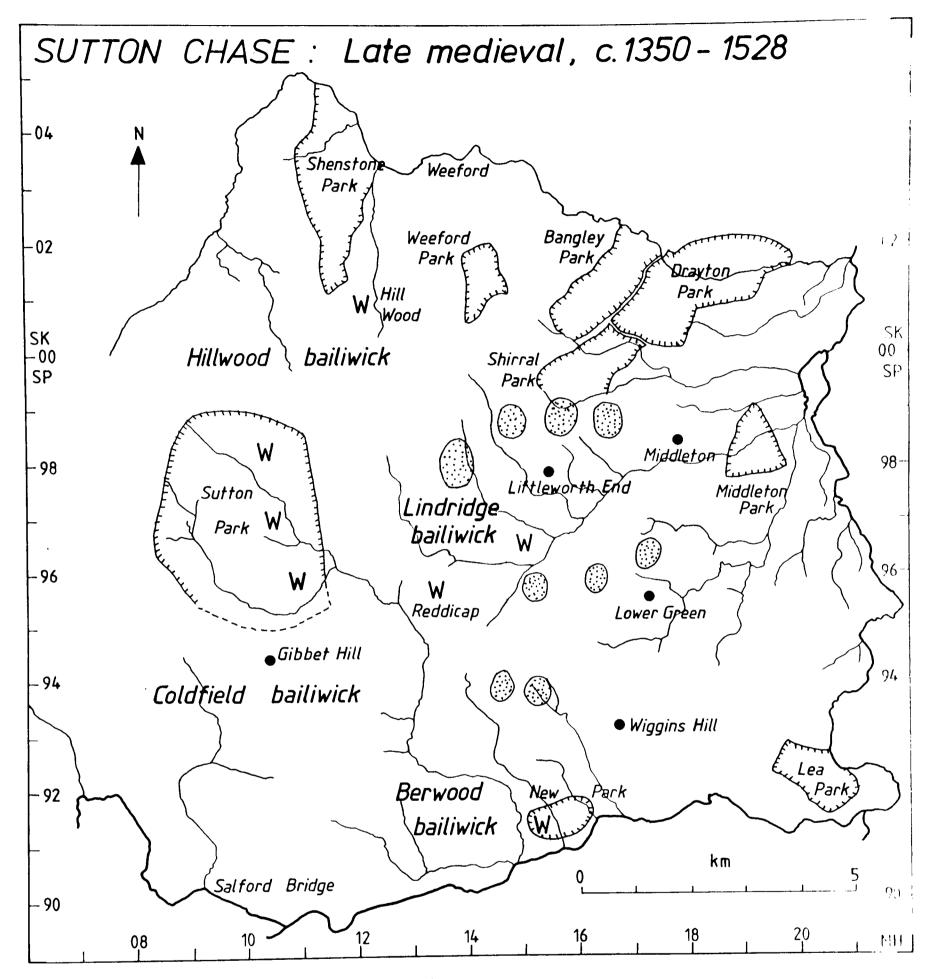


fig. 111



- Land or settlement abandoned
- Parks
- Woodland on Saxton's map of 1576 (approximate location)
- W Woods in existence 1350-1528

