TRADITIONAL ARCHITECTORE DOMESTIC ARCHITECTOR

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24 DOMESTIC ARCHITECTURE OF THE BANBURY REGION

As has been already stated, evidence of medieval domestic structure is limited to the more important stone-walled dwellings, including such great houses as Broughton Castle and other large manor-houses, all of which have undergone extensive rebuilding at later periods. Such larger houses do not come within the scope of this study, possessing little regional character, the manor-houses in particular having developed in virtual independence of local influences. In the 13th century, the manor-house was in the final process of settling into a type to be fairly uniformly followed throughout the country.1 The chief and dominating element was the common hall, divided by a screens passage from service rooms, such as buttery and pantry, which might have a private solar above them: sometimes the solar was a separate chamber, detached from the hall. Beyond or near the service rooms was the kitchen, set apart from the main building as a precaution against fire, but usually linked by a covered passage. From about 1300, the solar appeared with increasing frequency at the 'upper' end of the hall, away from the service rooms, raised over a ground-floor cellar (later, parlour) in the grander manor-houses, whilst the kitchen came into definite association with the hall, reached by a passage between the buttery and pantry. The lesser medieval manor-houses often were wholly ground-floor structures, especially if in timber, but with these it was an appreciably longer time before the full sequence of solar, hall, screens passage, service room and kitchen was attained.

The scarcity of medieval houses in the region below manorial rank and the obvious influence of the manor-house on the subsequent development of the yeoman house, calls for consideration of such instances within the region which preserve sufficient evidence of the original arrangements. *Manor Farm, Cottisford*, in Oxfordshire (Fig. 4), lying beyond the north-east boundary of the Banbury Region, in the area of grey limestone south of Brackley, is of particular interest as representing the manorial plan with the hall at first-floor level. This is an established plan type of the 12th and 13th centuries, a development from 'Norman' instances, such as Boothby Pagnell in Lincolnshire, and ultimately related to the stone defensive keeps or donjon towers of the Norman castle. The building, which may have been the former manor-house, 2 dates from the late

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The manorial plan in the 13th century is considered in some detail by Margaret Wood in *Thirteenth Century Houses*, with some note of Oxfordshire examples.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> It would appear that from 1100 there was no resident lord of the manor at Cottisford, the estate being in monastic and subsequently collegiate hands, the administration of the lands being left to a bailiff or steward. An indenture of

13th or early 14th century—the evidence of architectural detail suggests the later date, although there is a window in the north gable dating from c. 1200 which has presumably been re-used—and there have been extensive alterations in the 16th century and more recently. A plan of the house was recorded by Turner and Parker in 1851,1 and since this date there has been further addition and modernization.

The manor-house, a rectangular structure with stone walls averaging 2 feet 6 inches in thickness, was originally of two storeys, although the existing first floor and its beams are 16th-century renewals. The plan comprises two 'units',2 with the principal rooms formerly on the first floor and open to the roof. These would be the hall and solar, the former measuring 27 feet by 15 feet wide. There are, in addition, two small projecting wings on the west wall, the more northerly opening from the solar and measuring 5 feet 6 inches by 9 feet internally, providing a small closet on the first floor. Within this small apartment is an original stone trough and drain on the north wall, together with two contemporary windows of rectangular form with simply splayed jambs. The fine 14th-century stack which surmounts this projecting wing, octagonal in plan, with battlemented cresting, does not connect with a fireplace and is presumably a vent to the closet. The central projection may be of later date, and its purpose is not clear, although opening from the hall it could be a small service room or store. The principal stair is contained in this projection, but there is no trace of the original stair, that in the southeast corner being of recent date. In its original state the ground floor presumably provided storage and service accommodation. It has, however, been extensively altered in the 16th century when the floor was converted to provide the principal living apartments; these subsequent developments are considered in a later chapter. Few of the original details have survived these alterations, apart from two trefoil-headed lancet windows in the north wall of the solar.

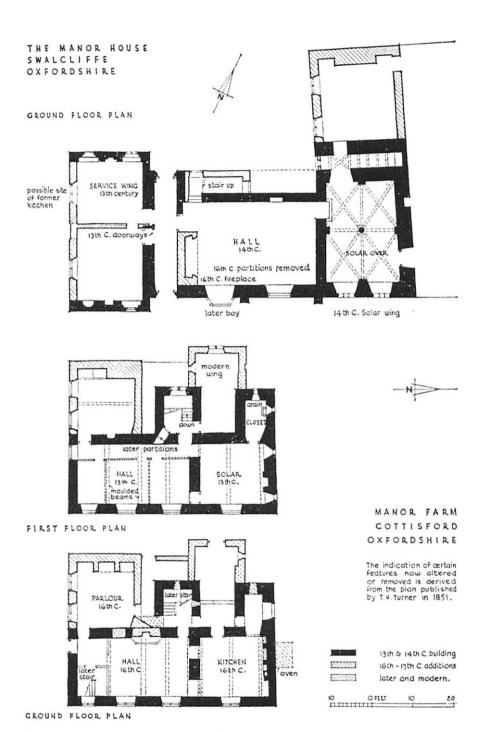
The Rectorial Manor House at Swalcliffe (Fig. 4) is of particular

<sup>1325</sup> records details of the manor-house of that date, including a hall and chamber, with kitchen and servery, and a close and garden complete with fishery and dovecote. The present manor-house is of 18th-century date and is known to have replaced an earlier structure built in the 16th century. It is possible that the description of the 14th-century house could refer to the present manor-farm, then held by a tenant of the monastic owner (V.C.H. of Oxfordshire, Vol. 6, p. 104).

<sup>1</sup> Turner and Parker, Some Account of Domestic Architecture in England, 1851 Vol. 1,

<sup>12</sup>th-13th centuries, pp. 161-3.

<sup>2</sup> The term 'unit' has been used throughout to denote a room or compartment occupying the full width of the dwelling, hence 'single-unit', 'two-unit', and 'three-unit' plans, comprising respectively one, two and three principal rooms.



MANORIAL PLANS OF THE THIRTEENTH & FOURTEENTH CENTURIES  $\mathbf{Fig.\,4.}$ 

Balscott. The subsequent history of the two houses is also very similar. There was further rebuilding in the 17th century, as already suggested, with a final modernization in the 18th century. At that time the walls of hall and kitchen were raised in height to provide more lofty chambers with sliding-sash windows on the first floor under a slated roof, and the present stair was introduced, probably replacing a 17th-century stair in the same position. At the same time, the building was extended beyond the parlour to provide an extra service room at the lowest end of the site.

The plan, structure and architectural detail of these buildings present certain precedents which can be clearly related to subsequent regional developments. The planning of these earlier houses. from c. 1300 to mid-16th century, follows the basic later medieval hall-house pattern with screens passage and open hearth, lacking a separate solar unless one is provided over the lower end. The screens passage, outside the hall from Leadenporch House onwards, becomes a stone-walled unit at the end of the 15th century with the introduction of a fireplace on the gable of the lower end of the hall, before the provision of upper floors over the hall was contemplated. The pattern is that which has been established in Monmouthshire and elsewhere as the accepted domestic plan in upland regions. It is probable that the manor houses, in which the hall had special functions, would always have solars, until 1300 either completely separate or over the service wing, and later at first-floor level at the upper end of the hall. Manor Farm at Cottisford, six miles beyond the eastern boundary of the region, presents an early stage in this pattern, with its suggestion of vertical development in the tradition of the military keep, the hall and solar being at first-floor level. The possible relationship of this plan-type to a number of houses limited to single unit plan, although otherwise of some architectural quality, is considered in Chapter VIII.

It is in the structure of walls and roof that the most interesting regional characteristics are to be noted, particularly in the evolution of the raised cruck trusses, in association with stone walling. The early forms noted at Leadenporch House and Chinners Farm, as well as those of the tithe barns described in Chapter II, find counterparts in houses built in the transitional period in the second half of the 16th century—to be considered in the following chapter—and provide a link with forms of roofing adopted in the regional building period of the 17th century.

Although little survives of domestic craftsmanship in stone or wood of the medieval period, there is evidence of considerably Ba

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## DOMESTIC ARCHITECTURE OF THE BANBURY REGION

that it served the later house as an upper end, or even as a farm building. The extent of subsequent amendment, however, makes this

largely a matter of conjecture.

Other evidence of this transitional period which preceded the building activity of the 17th century is even more fragmentary. Two further roof structures may be noted as providing an additional link between the raised crucks described earlier and the standard forms of roof truss employed in the 17th century. The roof of Manor Farm, Cottisford, Oxfordshire (Fig. 67-12; Pl. 6c), rebuilt in the late 16th century, is of interest in this context. The principals are here quite straight, rising from a tie-beam, but preserving the earlier treatment of the apex with a saddle mortised to the tops of the blades, with the squared ridge resting on edge in a notch cut to receive it. There is one collar at intermediate level, with inclined struts between tie and collar, and curved wind-braces are provided between the purlins. The trusses span 14 feet 6 inches, and the bay spacing averages 8 feet. The deeply moulded transverse beams of the first floor are also part of the late 16th-century rebuilding.

The roof of the older portion of the Old Malthouse Cottage, Tadmarton (Fig. 61) represents a similar development more clearly related to the raised crucks. Two periods of building are here indicated, the original nucleus being a single-room building of one-and-a-half-storey height, with walls of 2 feet 6 inches thickness in which survives one stone-mullioned window, the flat-splay mullions and label being of unusually heavy section. There is also an early oak-mullioned window in the chamber above. This room is divided into two bays by a central truss spanning 15 feet 6 inches, the blades being rather roughly shaped and chamfered, following an ogee curve and seated in the wall at eaves level. Two collars are provided, the lower at the level of the modern ceiling, whilst the apex is of the saddle type, raised by a triangular block to receive the squared ridge. The truss is therefore similar to those described at Kings Sutton and elsewhere, lacking only the curving feet to the blades.

The original plan again cannot be determined, assuming that this portion of the building originally stood alone, for there is no fireplace or stair within the room, and no evidence to indicate an open fire. In the 17th century the house was developed as a three-unit plan of one-and-a-half storeys, but there was still no communication at attic level between the two parts of the house. The later development of this building is considered in Chapter X, p. 209.

Also in Tadmarton, in Cotswold Cottage, there is a single truss with the curving principals in a small single-unit house, now of one-and-a-

on a saddle. In the second group at Bloxham, both houses have similarly shaped trusses, but there is no saddle, the ridge at Blue Gates being seated in the crossing of the principals in the manner adopted in the 17th century. The third group has straight principals but retains the earlier treatment of the apex, a difference noted at Cottisford being the diagonal seating of the ridge. At Tadmarton the principals spring from the walls themselves, but those at Cottisford—a full two-storey building—spring from a tie-beam at the level of the first-floor ceiling, and the roof trusses of the 17th century are related to both these types, the height of the building being the determining factor.

Further variation in detail is also noted, as in the arrangement and support of purlins, which are with only one exception continuous over the trusses, being either housed into the backs of the blades or, as at Blue Gates, supported by wooden cleats on the backs of the

principals to which they are also pegged.

The house in Sycamore Terrace provides a rare example of practice associated with the Lowland Zone of England, the purlins—now removed—being butted against the principal rafters and supported by tenons. The principals here cross at the apex, but there is no evidence of a ridge, and it seems probable that there was no such member, a further indication of south-eastern practice. The truss also appears to be of rather better finish than the others described, of which the workmanship is generally rather rough, members being approximately squared and roughly chamfered, with pegs projecting unevenly.

Spans vary considerably, from 19 feet at Blue Gates, 17 feet 6 inches in Sycamore Terrace, 16 feet in both houses at Kings Sutton and in that at Hempton, to 15 feet 6 inches at the Old Malthouse, Tadmarton, the Cottisford roof being of course limited to the 14 feet 6 inches span of the earlier building. This factor appears to be without chronological significance, the variation in size being at all times primarily related to the social status of the house. The variations in bay size are, however, more informative. The Blue Gates trusses are at 14-feet centres, supporting a thatched roof. At Kings Sutton, the bay is reduced to 10-feet and 12-feet centres, Hempton also being 12-feet, and at Cottisford—as in the earlier roof at Leadenporch House—it is only 8-feet, the roof now being finished with modern slates. It is probable that these smaller bays were designed for stone slates, which as already noted have been discovered below

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These examples all occur in the fringe areas of the region, and were presumably originally roofed with the limestone 'presents' deriving from the oolitic beds. Prior to the introduction of the Stonesfield slates, probably at the end of the

the thatch in the first dwelling at Kings Sutton. Apart from the later brace introduced at Kings Sutton, Cottisford Manor alone has wind-braces, of curved form.

The unusual treatment of the first-floor joists, spanning from a spine-beam to narrow beams set against the external wall, or as noted at Kings Sutton, spanning between cross walls, is peculiar to the earlier houses, and the use of wall-beams in many cases may be regarded as an indication of inserted floors. In these later buildings, however, it is more likely that this represents an early stage in floor building practice, and overcomes the problem of building small joist ends into the rubble masonry. It is also possible to see in this practice an extension of the preceding timber-framed tradition, framing the floor up as a complete unit in itself with the minimum number of supports from the crude and heavily built rubble walling. The heavy, flat, floor joists at Kings Sutton are probably of early date, and there is little evidence of enrichment. Beams at Cottisford are more heavily moulded on the splays, with good stops, than is elsewhere found in the region, which in the 17th century at least is not distinguished by good wood-work. Original partitions are few, and also give little indication of any sound timber tradition. The infilling of the half-truss noted at Kings Sutton is of heavy mud plaster on wattles and appears to be original work. Other partitions, as at Blue Gates and Hempton, are of light stud construction, the studs averaging 3 inches square, roughly chamfered and tenoned to light sill and head beams, and the whole continuously plastered over one side on split laths. The thickness of masonry walling is one of the surest indications of early date; the majority of these examples have rubble walls of 2 feet 6 inches in thickness or over, reducing to the eaves by an internal batter, comparing with the 22-inch thickness so constantly maintained from the end of the 16th century. Plinths have been noted at Priory Farm, Balscott and at Blue Gates, in both cases restricted to the main elevations.

The accurate determination of the original plan has generally presented difficulty because of later alterations, but there is sufficient evidence to trace the evolution from the previous sources. No further examples of the first-floor hall have been noted in this period; the Old Malthouse, Tadmarton, appears to have been originally a single room on plan, but there is no suggestion of vertical development. The through-passage plan is common to all houses of the period,

<sup>16</sup>th century, it is probable that thatch was the exclusive roofing material within the greater part of the region. (See also note 1, p. 232).

The remote origins of vertical living lie with the powerful donion towers of the early castles of the 11th century, but the truly domestic version is the manor-house, a rural residence but protected defensively in sufficient degree. In this type of dwelling, as already noted, there was an important but numerically diminishing class, almost invariably in stone, in which the principal accommodation was on the first floor. Such was Boothby Pagnell, Lincolnshire, built at the end of the 12th century, a noted example of the first-floor hall over vaulted cellars, entered at the first floor. In the neighbourhood of Banbury, Cottisford Manor provides the only instance of this type, which had similar arrangements of early 14th-century date. These are instances in which the accommodation is tending towards lateral living; but there are many other manor-houses in which the tower motif remains dominant, despite the reduced or almost non-existent need, well beyond the medieval period. In these buildings the prestige motif is the dominant reason behind the retention of the tower.

There are no instances amongst the great houses of the region of the true tower-house. Castle House, Deddington, Oxfordshire, the rectorial manor-house, which lies to the north of the church, largely dates from the 17th century, but incorporates within its plan an unusual tower-like structure, of medieval origin, extensively altered in the later rebuilding (Pl. 9a). The lower two storeys of the tower, having walls over 3 feet in thickness, are of 13th-century date, but their original function is obscure, although it seems probable that there was a chapel on the first floor. Rainwater heads bear the date and initials 1654 TAM, and at that time or a little earlier, the 13th-century block was largely rebuilt, being raised in height to three storeys over a semi-basement, refaced and refenestrated, whilst any adjoining buildings were replaced by a new wing on the south side containing hall and parlour with chambers over, a fine stair with turned balusters being added in a projection on the west side of the tower, to produce a complex, double-depth plan. Windows have flat-splay stone mullions, and the stone walling approximates to ashlar, the stone being well squared and coursed, making decorative use of alternate bands of the grey limestone and brown ironstone which are both obtainable in this eastern fringe of the region.

One of the two brick towers survives which terminated the wings of Hanwell Castle, a great house built around three sides of an open court, marking one of the first uses of brick in Oxfordshire at the end of the 15th century. These towers, of characteristic Tudor design,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Tattershall Castle, Lincolnshire, probably the most important brick tower-house, dates from 1440.

1700. The few medieval buildings which survived this general rebuilding were manor-houses or first-rate vernacular structures, where stone construction was earlier adopted, and all have undergone extensive modernization in later centuries. Only such larger and more permanent stone-built medieval structures survived in sufficiently sound condition to permit of improvement rather than replacement. In the case of the majority of smaller homes, built of timber and no doubt somewhat decayed by 1600, it was necessary to demolish them completely and to replace them by new stone structures, probably rebuilding on or near the same site.1 The great houses of the region have all undergone extensive rebuilding, and lower down the scale it is the stone-built manor-houses such as Swalcliffe and Cottisford, and such fine houses as Leadenporch House, which were still structurally sound, and planned on a sufficiently spacious scale to make them acceptable and amenable for improvement in the succeeding period. It is unlikely that sentiment or tradition was behind the retention of a house for improvement, rather than building anew-too many fine houses within the region have totally disappeared to make way for their more up-to-date successors.

The three dwellings mentioned above were brought into conformity with 17th-century requirements by drastic alteration involving plan, structure and detail. At Swalcliffe the single-storey hall was sub-divided in height and length and a fireplace introduced against the screens passage, whilst a new kitchen wing was added. Leadenporch House was similarly amended by the introduction of a first floor and fireplace, with the addition of a new parlour with cellar under, to produce a characteristic regional plan, with the introduction of new fenestration. Cottisford, already of two storeys, with the hall on the first floor, also received the addition of a parlour wing, and the ground-floor apartments now became the principal rooms, with bedrooms over, in accordance with late 16th-century usage. All three houses underwent major structural renovation—only Leadenporch House retaining its original roof structure—whilst there was similarly extensive modernization in detail of fireplaces, stairs and above all of windows, with further amendment of these features in the 18th century.

In Chapters III and IV a number of houses were considered and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Some earlier structures may have been permitted to survive for a while in baser use as farm dwellings before finally perishing. Many fine 17th-century dwellings similarly underwent this social decline, to finish as cottages or farm buildings to the newer houses which replaced them. The ancient manor-house of the Greviles at Drayton was turned into a poor-house in the 18th century before finally being demolished.

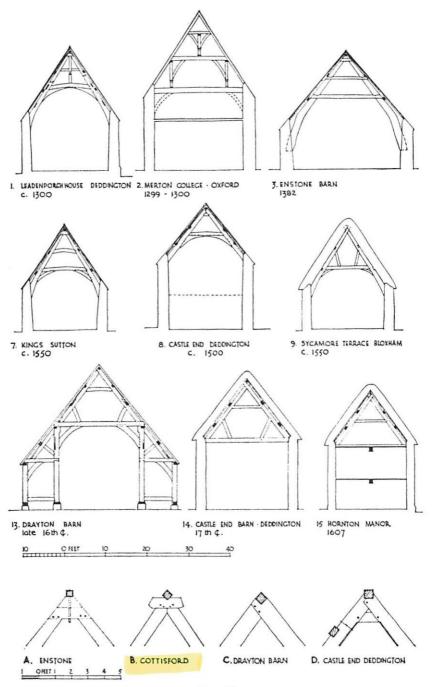
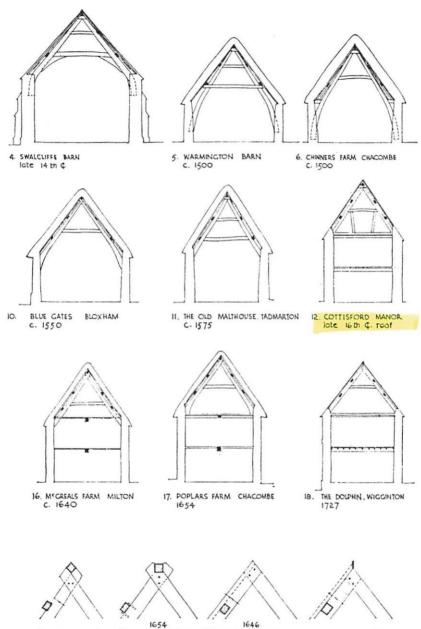


Fig. 66.



E. HORNTON 1607 F. POPLARS, CHACOMBE G. LODGE FARM, HOCK NORTON H. WIGGINTON 1727

REGIONAL TIMBER STRUCTURE - COMPARATIVE DIAGRAMS

FIG. 67.

house of unsophisticated character dating from c. 1640, is typical of the majority of houses of this period, and roofs of this construction persisted in a rougher form in the smaller houses and cottages of the 18th century. The relationship to the earlier raised crucks is apparent, but there is here the later form of apex whereby the ridge is seated in a squared recess in the crossing of the blades (F). The absence of a tie at the feet of the principals has resulted in signs of spreading in many of these collar roofs, and from the end of the 16th century a new roof truss is recorded in minor domestic work, which gains greater strength by a tie-beam at second-floor level, to which the principals are tenoned. This first appears in the single surviving truss at Parish's Farmhouse, Hempton (Fig. 59), where it establishes a relationship with the cruck form of construction; the cruck blades spring from a tie-beam at first-floor level to produce an 'upper cruck', the only recorded instance in a building of one-and-a-half-storey height, the roof being thatched. The raised crucks usually had only a shallow, 6inch seating within the walls of houses, but the tie-beams are deeply embedded and frequently their ends can be seen on the external wall-face, as at Warkworth Farm (Fig. 43).

The primary reason for the adoption of the tie-beam roof was the desire to increase room heights, and to rid the upper chambers of the obstructive roof principals. With the height of larger buildings at the end of the 16th century increasing to two full storeys with attics over, the tie-beam roof provided a more appropriate and convenient structure, adopted in the first instance in the barns and manorhouses. The Buckler drawing of a barn at Drayton<sup>1</sup> in south Oxfordshire is of considerable interest as showing a precursor of these taller buildings, relating them to a preceding timber-framed structure probably of late-16th-century date. In this building (13) the tie-beam is supported on timber posts, thickened at the top in the manner of the box-frame structures of the lowland tradition. The principals are tenoned to the tie-beam, and the ridge-beam is laid diagonally in the fork (C), whilst queen-post struts and arch-braces are also provided. The aisled construction of this barn finds no parallels in domestic architecture in the region.

Equally of interest as the earliest domestic example of this type of roof-truss is the 16th-century structure replacing the original roof of Cottisford Manor (12), where the straight principals similarly rise from the tie-beam at caves level, with the ridge (B) supported diagonally in a notch cut in the saddle which joins the principals at the apex (Pl. 6c). The manor-house at Hornton, 1607 (15), is an early

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> British Museum Add. MS. 36436, f. 679.

worth Farm (1639–58), which it is understood was originally roofed with stone slates. At the Dolphin Inn, Wigginton, in 1727, the roof is, however, again sub-divided by cross-walls and trusses into 8-feet bays, to support stone slates.

Consideration of upper-floor structures throws further light on timber construction in the region. At Cottisford, which probably represents the earliest two-storey building in north Oxfordshire, the first floor is supported on transverse beams, renewed in the 16th century, the absence of cross-partitions on the ground floor probably making this arrangement necessary.1 Later buildings of the 16th century generally show the central spine-beam, with joists spanning on to lateral wall beams, which in certain cases indicates an inserted floor.2 This method would, however, simplify the new practical problem of building-in the ends of small joists into the masonry, by perpetuating the timber framing of the whole floor. The wall-beams soon disappear, but the spine-beam becomes general practice from  $\epsilon$ . 1600 at first- and second-floor levels, usually being of approximately square section, averaging 11 inches each way, supported on gable, fireplace and cross-walls, or on stud partitions. These members frequently attain lengths of over 20 feet when continuous over a partition. Second floors are similarly constructed, with spine-beams usually independent of the trusses, but occasionally, as at the Poplars Farm, Chacombe, gaining support from the tie-beam to which the floor-beam is tenoned.

From the end of the 17th century, a change is noted in the arrangement of the floor-beams, the spine-beam being abandoned in favour of principal members spanning across the building. This is primarily the result of developments in planning, i.e. the practice of placing fireplaces on gable walls, and eliminating all masonry crosswalls, thus reducing the support for spine-beams at a time when the longer timbers required were in increasingly short supply. Joists are tenoned or housed into the tops of the beams and at first are laid flat, as at Kings Sutton, but from the beginning of the 17th century they become lighter in section and are invariably laid on their narrower edges.

There is very little enrichment of woodwork, beams and joists being usually chamfered with squared ends, but only occasionally is there a simple ornamental stop to the chamfer. The deeply moulded

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the hall at Warmington Manor, dating from the 17th century, transverse beams are employed for a similar reason, the clear length being too great for a spine-beam (Fig. 16).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This factor is considered in relation to particular buildings in Chapter IV.

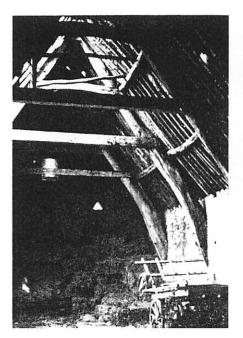
beams to the second floor at Cottisford Manor of late-16th-century date, and those in the Court House at Kings Sutton (Fig. 69) are quite exceptional, and even the simplest variation on the plain chamfer—as at Kings Sutton, and the Old Rectory, Alkerton (Fig. 78)—is of rare occurrence outside the larger manor-houses.

Upper floors are boarded in oak or elm in random widths, planks being between 9 and 15 inches wide by 11 inches in thickness. No other type of floor has been recorded. Up to the end of the 17th century, and later in smaller houses, the joists appear to have been left exposed underneath, the soffit of the boarding between being sometimes daubed with clay and hair plaster. The enclosure of the joists by a ceiling on split laths is introduced in the larger and more

sophisticated houses early in the 18th century.

Internal partitions in timber are of singularly simple, even rough character, and although this may result from the shortage of good timber, it gives little evidence of a mature tradition of timber walling developed before stone was generally adopted. Three types of partition have been recorded, of which by far the most common is that made of light chamfered studs, averaging 3 inches square—lighter still in 18th-century work—about 15 inches apart and tenoned to a head and sill. The covering is of a coarse hair plaster on wattles or more frequently on split laths. Such partitions occur from the end of the 16th to the 19th centuries with little change in character, later work tending to become, if anything, lighter and more crude in construction. Door posts in partitions are tenoned at head and sill, and in earlier work the timber sill is frequently continued across the opening as a threshold. A second type of partition comprising large panels of mud on wattles, averaging 6 inches in thickness, is of rarer occurrence, and has only been recorded as the infilling of trusses in the late 16th-century house at Kings Sutton, and in an indeterminate structure, now ruinous, at Upper Tysoe. Still less frequent—only one instance having been discovered—is the oak post-and-panel partition, discovered on the first floor of Friar's Cottage, Great Bourton, (Fig. 34) built in 1685, where chamfered panels between 7 and 10 inches wide and 11 inches thick are tongued-and-grooved to posts, also chamfered, which average  $4\frac{1}{2}$  by 2 inches in size. Although this particular partition appears to be of some antiquity, its very isolation as an example invites doubts of its having been introduced from outside during a later rebuilding, particularly as original partitions of the more usual stud form are also found in this house.

The variety of timber used in roofs and floors, and particularly in partitions, in the 17th and 18th centuries, together with the in-



(a) Rectorial Barn, Church Enstene, 1382 (p. 15).



(b) House at Kings Sutton, c. 1550 (p. 57).



( $\epsilon$ ) Cottisford Manor Farm, 16th-century roof (pp. 24, 64). Plate 6. Regional Timber Structure