

From the *Transactions* of the
Bristol and Gloucestershire Archaeological Society

A survey of St James's Church, Lancaut, Gloucestershire

by C. Parry
1990, Vol. 108, 53-103

© The Society and the Author(s)

A survey of St James's church, Lancaut, Gloucestershire

By CHARLES PARRY

Summary

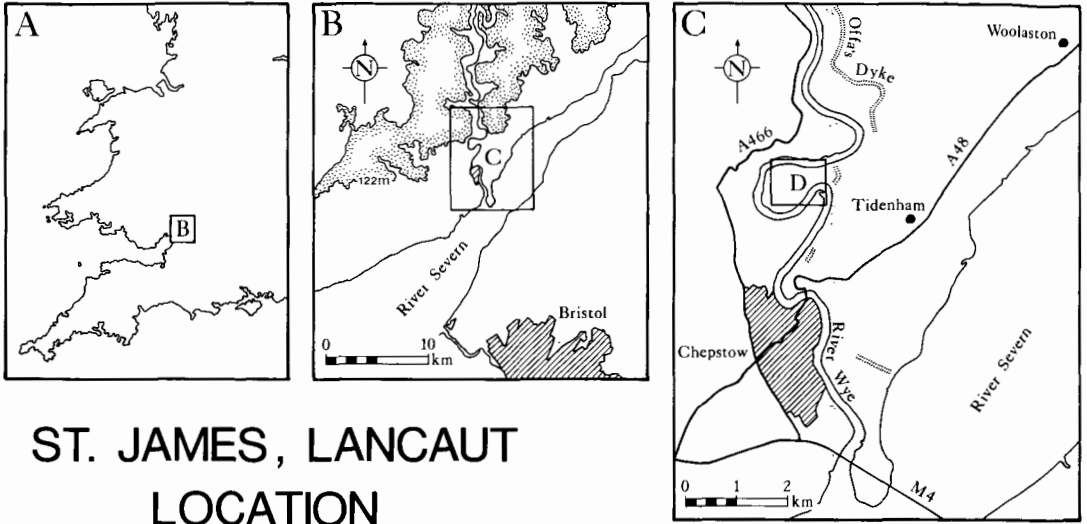
St James's church, Lancaut, in ruins since c. 1865, was surveyed in 1986 before its consolidation in 1987–88. The church once contained a lead font dating to c. 1130–40, now displayed at Gloucester Cathedral. The earliest surviving part of the church can be dated no earlier than the late 12th or early 13th century. The church has undergone almost total reconstruction since then, perhaps partly during late medieval times, but mostly during the post-medieval period.

Introduction

The church of St James, Lancaut (ST 5369 9647) is situated on the Gloucestershire bank of the River Wye, 3 kilometres (c. 2 miles) due north of Chepstow (FIG. 1). At this point, the river loops to form a peninsula containing some 80 hectares (c. 200 acres) of land, the area at one time constituting a parish with St James's church as its focal point. The church is situated on the southern side of the peninsula within a small churchyard (FIG. 8). It is a Grade II listed building, and is also within an area designated as a scheduled ancient monument. To the north and west of the church lie the remains of the deserted medieval village of Lancaut, the modern hamlet being situated high above the river. The church has been roofless for over a century, but was not deconsecrated until 1987, when it was nominally a chapel of ease attached to the parish of Tidenham. Many years of exposure to the elements led to the collapse of a portion of the chancel-arch c. 1984, which in turn led to the formation of the Lancaut Church Preservation Group, who installed shoring to safeguard the remainder of the structure. As a preliminary to conservation, the Group commissioned a survey of the church from the Crickley Hill Archaeological Trust (MSC Agency). The majority of this work was carried out during September–October 1986, with a short programme of mortar sampling occurring in April 1987. The survey archive has been deposited with Gloucester City Museum (accession no. 19/1990). Since the survey, the Lancaut Church Preservation Group has been absorbed into the Gloucestershire Heritage Trust, who have owned the church since 1987. In that year, following advice and part-funding by English Heritage, they instituted a major programme of repair and consolidation, the first phase being completed during the spring of 1988. The following paper has two aims; the first is to describe the church as it stood in 1986, the second is to attempt an analysis of the structural development. By way of a preface, it is perhaps appropriate to consider what is known of the history of the church.

St James's church: history

The history of the church has been discussed by Wood (1936), Dobson and Hicks (1936), and most extensively by Herbert (1972). References to Lancaut contained within the Llandaff Charters, which ultimately date to the early medieval period, have been examined by Davies (1978; 1979).



ST. JAMES, LANCAUT LOCATION

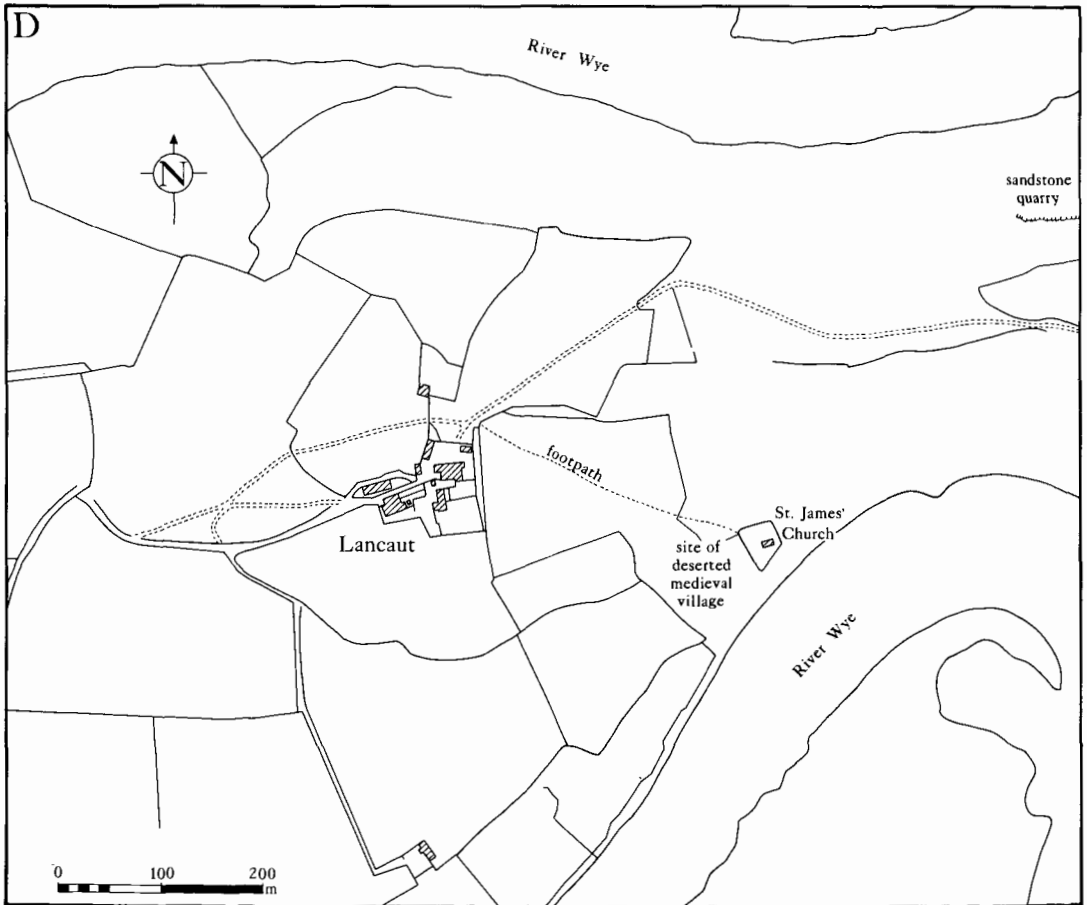


FIG. 1 Location plan; the Lancaut peninsula.

The place-name 'Lancaut' derives from the Welsh *Llan Cewydd*: the church of St Cewydd (Smith 1964, 263). Cewydd was an obscure 6th-century Welsh saint about whom little is known (Baring-Gould and Fisher 1907, II, 115); on the evidence of the Llandaff Charters it may be deduced that a structure dedicated to his name was in existence on the Lancaut peninsula by the 7th century. An abbot or representative of *lann ceuid* is referred to *c.* 625; a later mention of *c.* 703 refers to *podum ceuid* as part of an estate boundary (Davies 1978, 135).

The precise status of the *podā* referred to in the Llandaff Charters is not entirely clear: use of the term seems to be chronologically restricted to a period before the 9th century, when it was used to describe a form of Welsh monastic settlement (Davies 1978, 122). Then, a linguistic change appears to have occurred whereby the use of the *podum* (monastery) element in place-names largely disappeared, to be replaced by *llan* (church). This substitution is attested from other sites in south-east Wales (Davies 1982, 145) and suggests that the *llan* element in the present place-name dates no earlier than the 9th century. If so, the reference to *lann ceuid* of *c.* 625 must be considered an anachronism, and is perhaps explicable as a scribal gloss of the original name *podum ceuid* preserved in the later charter. Apart from the early reference to *lann ceuid*, the first record of the *llan* element in the present place-name occurs in the 11th century, when it appears as 'Landcawet' (Smith 1964, 263).

The location of the early medieval *podum* or *llan* is unknown, but claims for its structural survival within the fabric of St James's church have been made. Dobson and Hicks (1936, 216) stated confidently that the church contained within its western half 'the ancient Celtic oratory'. Hart (1967, plate XXIb) subsequently lent weight to this contention when he described the two-light opening in the west gable of the nave as 'Saxon'. Were these assertions correct, St James's church would be a remarkable structure, for there are no definite examples of masonry pre-Norman churches in Wales or the Marches, where timber construction was probably the norm for this period (Davies 1982, 25).

The *llan* element in the present place-name might indicate that the *podum* survived into the 9th century and beyond, and it is tempting from this single factor to conclude that St James's church occupies the site of the *podum*, and grew out of it. However likely such continuity of occupation may seem, there is only the most tenuous sort of evidence to support it, and the argument relies heavily on one interpretation of the significance of the early medieval political boundary along the Wye Valley. Fox and Phillips (1931, 65–67) postulated that the Lancaut peninsula was ceded to the Welsh by treaty on the establishment of the Mercian frontier along the River Wye in the 8th century. The treaty, they held, was negotiated in recognition of the importance of Welsh river trade on the lower Wye, and resulted in the construction of Offa's Dyke some way east of the tidal waters of the river. (The theory was reiterated by Fox, 1955, 217–8.) In support of their argument, the riparian character of St James's was cited as evidence that the church owed its location to an early medieval predecessor, serving the needs of a Welsh fishing and river trading community, cut off from Mercia by Offa's Dyke at the neck of the Lancaut peninsula (FIG. 1). Certainly, by the late 9th century there are documentary references to trade on the lower Wye, and one text (of 956 or *c.* 1050) contains a reference to foreign (possibly Welsh) sailors who rented land at Tidenham (Davies 1978, 61).

However, Fox's 'negotiated treaty' hypothesis, accepted by Dobson and Hicks (1936, 214–5) as an established fact, has not gone unchallenged. Noble (1983, 1–4) has put forward convincing arguments in support of an opposing view, that the tidal waters of the Wye were *not* surrendered by Mercia, and that the dyke was situated to give the strongest possible line of military defence against Welsh encroachment in the area. If this interpretation of the significance of Offa's Dyke is correct, the existence of a Welsh settlement on the Lancaut peninsula after the 8th century must be thought highly doubtful; be this as it may, there is no physical or documentary evidence that a



FIG. 2 St James's church; 1836, looking north-east. Drawn by Sarah Ormerod (Ormerod [13]).
Reproduced by permission of the owner, Mr P.J. Ormerod.



FIG. 3 St James's church; c. 1840, looking north. Artist unknown.
Reproduced by permission of the owner, Mrs P. Johnson.

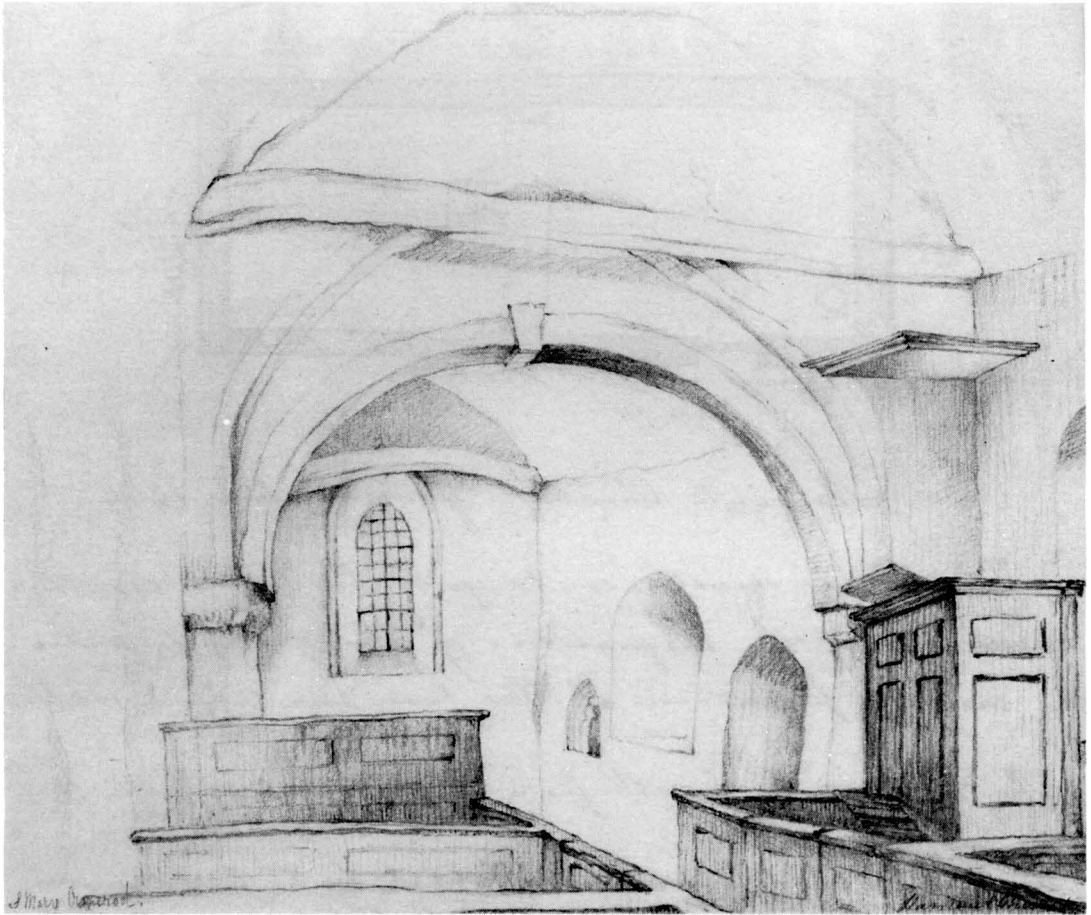
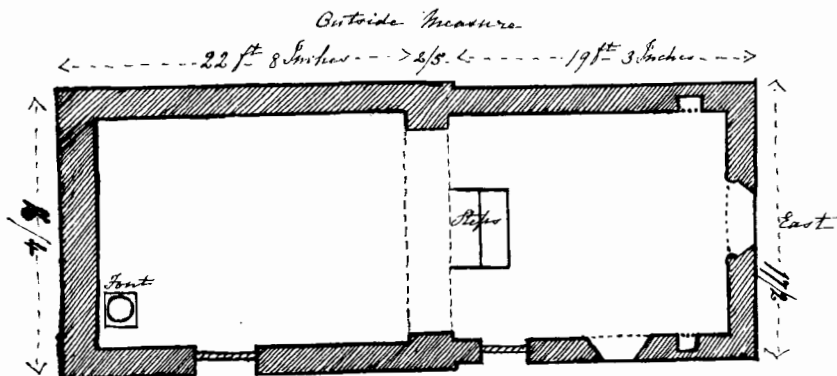


FIG. 4 St James's church; interior c. 1840, looking east. Drawn by Susan Mary Ormerod (Ormerod [11]). Reproduced by permission of the owner, Mr P.J. Ormerod.

secular community existed at Lancaut until the later medieval period. In addition, the survival of the *llan* element in the modern place-name need not necessarily indicate the continued existence of a religious structure, for examples are known where *llan* merely denotes the property or estate of a mother church located some distance away (Davies 1982, 145). It can be considered as a possibility, therefore, that the *podum* was abandoned with the construction of Offa's Dyke, but that property rights to its estate were retained long enough under ecclesiastical authority to determine the form of the place-name.

To sum up, proving continuity of siting from *podum* to church is extraordinarily difficult. On balance, and despite the place-name evidence, continuity might be thought unlikely in view of the frontier location of any Welsh settlement on the Lancaut peninsula after the construction of Offa's Dyke. Ultimately, the survival of the *podum* beyond the 8th century is a question that cannot be resolved at present, but it is neither impossible, nor improbable, that St James's church was an entirely new foundation with independent origins, and that the *podum* lay elsewhere on the peninsula.



Llancaunt Church - Gloucestershire 1844.

The outside measure could not be taken exactly on account of the inequalities of the ground and the varying projections of the base and upper walls

The total inside length from E to W - $37-2$ - ^{1/2 in.} - Width ^{1/2 in.} $12-2$

The Chancel and nave are divided by a pointed arch resting on masonry piers with Capitals.

The arch of the Eastern Window (of which plan and sections are subjoined) is nearly but not absolutely round headed - The piers converged at base.

FIG. 5 St James's church; plan of 1844. Unsigned, but probably by George Ormerod (Ormerod [12]). Reproduced by permission of the owner, Mr P.J. Ormerod.

Detailed information about the early history of St James's church is lacking. There is no documentary evidence to date the foundation of the church, and Lancaut is not mentioned in the Domesday Survey. The institution of a rector is first recorded in 1297 (Herbert 1972, 77), but the style of the Lancaut font provides evidence that the church was founded by the 12th century. The font has been assigned to the Saxon period (Ormerod 1842, 20) and to the latter half of the 12th century (Fryer 1908, 277; Fryer 1914, 115; Zarnecki 1957, 14), but the most recent assessment has dated its period of manufacture to c. 1130–40 (Zarnecki *et al* 1984, 247). The font is one of a group of six lead fonts which were cast from the same mould, the other five belonging to the parish churches at Frampton, Oxenhall, Sandhurst, Siston, and Tidenham (Zarnecki 1957, 10). There is no record of the dedication of the church to St James before the early 18th century (Herbert 1972, 77), nor any record to establish the saint in question: an assertion that the dedication dates from the first half of the 12th century (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 215–6) is unsubstantiated. Little is known of the history of the church beyond details of the institution of its rectors (Herbert 1972, 77). The parish of Lancaut was always small, but it managed to exist independently as a rectory until 1711, when it was held in plurality with Woolaston. This association continued until 1932, when St James's was transferred, as a chapel, to Tidenham parish (Herbert 1972, 77), although by then it had been in ruins for over sixty years.

The precise reasons for the destruction of the church are not known. There is ample evidence that services during the 19th century were seasonal, being held only during the summer months (Glos R.O. P376 IN 4/8; Glos R.O. P93 IN 4/1/5; Ormerod 1842, 20). One summer service was remembered long afterwards for its holiday atmosphere, induced by the difficulty of access for the congregation, and the pleasant, unusual situation (Ormerod 1904, 22). This lack of use provides a possible reason for the destruction of the church, but the true cause is obscure. A letter written in 1914 (Glos R.O. P93 IN 4/1/5), portrays the destruction as a joint decision taken by the Rector of Woolaston and a churchwarden of St James's who '... decided to pull down all but the walls . . .'. The event may be dated with some precision to the autumn of 1865, because the letter also records that it occurred at the 'end of a season' (i.e. a summer) shortly after the baptism of [James] William Rymer in the Lancaut font. James William Rymer was born on 12th June, 1865 and it is likely that he was christened soon afterwards. Further corroboration of the date of the destruction of the church is indicated by the fact that when the next Rymer child (Harold) was born in 1867, he was christened at Tidenham. (Details of the Rymer family history were kindly supplied by Miss Ann Rymer, Philpotts Court Farm, Tidenham.) In 1881 the church was described as 'in ruins' on the first Ordnance Survey County Series map.

Photographs taken by 1936 record that some effort had been made to preserve the ruins, for the walls had been capped with a layer of sand and cement, and the gable above the chancel arch had been reduced in height (Dobson and Hicks 1936, plates), presumably because it had become unstable. The date of these attempts at consolidation is not known, but they certainly pre-date correspondence of Vicar Newman of Tidenham in 1937 (Glos R.O. P333/1 IN 3/3) which suggests that consolidation was being considered. There is no evidence, however, to indicate that Newman's attempted restoration ever came about.

Description: introduction

Bearing in mind the predilection of 18th and 19th century tourists for boating trips on the Wye, it is perhaps surprising that St James's church received scant attention from those with an antiquarian interest. Sir Richard Colt Hoare, for example, proceeding from Tintern to Chepstow in 1797, merely noted in his diary a 'small chapel on left' (Thompson 1983, 83). It is fortunate, therefore, that around the 1830s and 1840s, St James's church came under the scrutiny of the

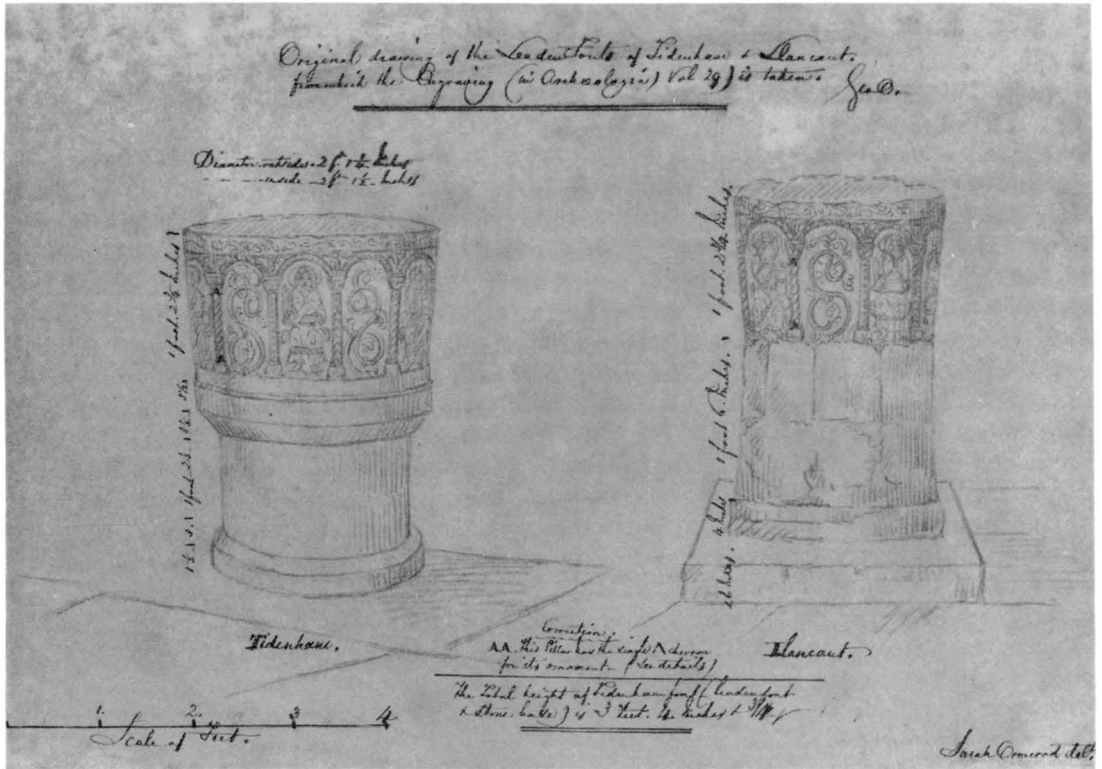


FIG. 6 St James's church; font and base c. 1840. Drawn by Sarah Ormerod (Ormerod [21]).
Reproduced by permission of the owner, Mr P.J. Ormerod.

Ormerod family. George Ormerod of Sedbury Park, Tidenham, a prominent local antiquary (Gray 1981, 96–7), wrote the earliest accounts of the church with particular reference to the font (Ormerod 1842; 1861). In addition, Ormerod, his wife Sarah, and two of their daughters (Susan and Eleanor) produced a series of drawings which include a plan (FIG. 5), measured sketches of the east window, and general views of the church (FIG. 2 being one example). The single surviving drawing of the interior (FIG. 4) is invaluable for the record it provides of St James's church in the last years of its use. These drawings are contained within one of three volumes of manuscript notes made by George Ormerod relating to the history and archaeology of the Sedbury Park locality, formerly deposited with Gloucestershire Record Office (Glos R.O. D726/1–3), but now in the possession of their owner, Mr P.J. Ormerod of Maidstone, Kent. Gloucestershire Record Office holds microfilm copies (Glos R.O. MF 357/1) of the drawings formerly in its care (Glos R.O. D726/1, drawing numbers 8–14, 19–21), and for ease of reference throughout this account these will be noted as *Ormerod*, followed by the drawing number enclosed in square brackets. Another drawing of the exterior of the church, made by Sarah Ormerod in 1836, is held by Edinburgh University Library (Special Collections Df.1.446). Also dating to the 1840s are two drawings of the church contained in a sketchbook inscribed with the name 'J.J. Ormsby', owned by Mrs P. Johnson of Chepstow, Gwent. One drawing (reproduced



FIG. 7 St James's church; photographed before 1865.
Previously published in Ormerod 1904, plate VIII.



FIG. 8 St James's church and surrounding landscape; looking south-east.
Date unknown, but before 1939. Copyright: B.T. Batsford Ltd.

as FIG. 3) is particularly important as it provides the only documentary record of the southern doorway of the chancel; this is noted as *Johnson*.

Several photographs of the church with its roof intact are extant (see Ormerod 1904, plate VIII, reproduced as FIG. 7, for one example). Before 1986, the structural record was otherwise limited to photographs of the ruins, and short textual descriptions in Dobson and Hicks (1936), Herbert (1972) and Verey (1980).

The churchyard (FIG. 14)

The churchyard covers 0.114 hectares (about ¼ acre) of steeply-sloping ground which, over a distance of 40 m, drops a total of 9 m from a high point in the north down towards the south. The gradient is not continuous, the church being situated just north of the steepest portion. To erect the church it was probably necessary to excavate a level platform on which to build. The back of this terrace perhaps survives as a slight bank which curves around the north side of the church. Modern ground-levels suggest that at least 0.9 m of soil has accumulated against the external face of the north wall (FIG. 17). The natural contours of the hillslope may account for the deviation of the church away from a true east–west alignment along its major axis.

The churchyard had achieved its present form by 1815 (Glos R.O. P333a SD 1/1: enclosure map), but construction of the wall which now surrounds it may post-date c. 1840, for drawings of this date (*Ormerod* [13], FIG. 2; [14]) suggest that the churchyard was then enclosed with a wattle fence. The churchyard-wall is very dilapidated, having almost completely fallen on the north, and is in need of repair on the south, east, and west.

Only a few features were present within the churchyard in 1986. Seven metres west of the north-west corner of the church lay three blocks of sandstone, the southernmost having the remains of a stone shaft embedded in a central socket. These stones represent the remains of a churchyard cross-base, and were evidently designed to stand one on top of the other, but only the largest block appears now to be *in situ*. The date and form of the cross are unknown: a view of c. 1840 (*Ormerod* [13], FIG. 2) shows an intact cross-base, but no shaft.

No tombstones are now *in situ* anywhere in the churchyard or church; indeed, only four heavy tombstone-fragments remained in 1986, the more portable fragments having been removed in 1985 to Vale House, Woodcroft, by members of the Lancaut Church Preservation Group. Most of the fragments are from ledger tombstones dating to the 17th and 18th centuries, which formerly paved the interior of the church. In 1844, George Ormerod recorded tombstone-inscriptions dating to 1559 and 1596 (Glos R.O. D 726/3). The latest memorial is a headstone recording deaths of 1844 and 1845, the only example of a headstone present. The tombstones have been described in an unpublished report by J. Rawes (Glos R.O. GE 166). Another summary of the tombstone evidence forms part of the 1986 survey archive, differing from Rawes's report in detail.

The church: general

The church consists of a nave and chancel separated by a chancel-arch. The south and east walls of the church rise from a sloping or battered plinth, which perhaps serves as a form of buttressing to the base of the wall. The dimensions of the plinth are obscured by soil-accumulation, and all measurements given below do not, therefore, take it into account.

Almost all of the material used in the construction of the church and churchyard wall is local to the Lancaut area, and belongs geologically to a group of rocks within the local Carboniferous Limestone series (Welch and Trotter 1961, 59–83; Ordnance Survey Geological Map Sheet 250,

Chepstow). No intensive geological survey of the elevations of the church was undertaken, but from a brief survey of the elevations a number of observations can be made.

The church is constructed mainly of Drybrook Sandstone laid as coursed rubble, perhaps obtained from the north side of the Lancaut peninsula where old Drybrook Sandstone quarries are visible. A few fragments of Carboniferous Limestone are incorporated within this coursing, most notably at the external north-west corner of the nave where a large block of Whitehead Limestone (Welch and Trotter 1961, 76-7) is used as a quoin. Whitehead Limestone forms the predominant stone used in the construction of the churchyard wall, though not in the structure of the church itself.

Drybrook Sandstone is not easily dressed, and for this reason most of the stone used for architectural mouldings was brought from some distance. Possible exceptions are two examples of an oolitic limestone, both containing a design in low relief (FIGS. 23 and 24). They are perhaps local, for oolitic Crease Limestone beds are present on the south side of the Lancaut peninsula; alternatively, they could derive from oolitic strata within a Drybrook Limestone formation exposed *c.* 500 m north of the church (Welch and Trotter 1961, 76-79).

Non-local stone would have been easily transported along the Wye. Old Red Sandstone may have been closest to hand, accounting for its predominant use. It was utilised for mouldings forming the western side of the chancel-arch, for the piscina, and for all but one of the window and doorway surrounds. Old Red Sandstone is too common within the area for an exact provenance to be suggested, but it could have been quarried with ease in several locations in the Wye Valley (Welch and Trotter 1961, 41).

Imported from a greater distance, coarse-grained yellow Triassic Sandstone was used in the construction of the jambs of the chancel-arch, as voussoirs for much of the eastern side of the arch, as quoin-stones, and also as randomly distributed blocks in the rubble coursing of the fabric. This stone was also used in the construction of Chepstow castle, and possibly comes from the Sudbrook area of coastal Gwent (North 1967, 34-40).

Lastly, a second type of oolitic limestone was used to construct the east window of the chancel. The stone is creamy-yellow in colour, and a source from somewhere along the Jurassic ridge, perhaps the Cotswolds, is possible.

In 1986, considerable portions of masonry were obscured by layers of white lime-plaster rendering, which survived especially well near ground level. The Ormerod drawings of *c.* 1840 suggest that the external rendering may at that time have been incised to give an ashlar effect; but this was nowhere visible when the church was surveyed.

The maximum total length of the church (east-west) is 13.12 m; the maximum width (north-south) is 5.63 m. The chancel (5.98 m by 5.10 m) is only a little smaller than the nave (7.03 m by 5.63 m) and is set slightly north of the long axis of the nave, giving an almost continuous line along the north external face of the church. Two major deviations in plan may be observed. The south wall of the nave runs some 5 degrees north of its expected line, and the reason for this will be discussed below. West of the chancel doorway, the chancel wall is askew, presumably due to structural instability which has caused a considerable portion of the south wall of the chancel (including the doorway) to fall. It may be significant that the skewed masonry has no battered footing, this being the only portion of the south front without this feature.

The nave

The nave encloses an area of 5.7 m by 4.3 m (maximum) and is entered by a doorway (1.07 m wide) in the south wall. Internally, the doorway surround is of coursed rubble construction. Externally, no doorway-surround is now present (FIG. 10), but a segmentally-arched surround,



FIG. 9 St James's church; September 1986, before clearance, looking south-east.
Photographed by S. Dorey for Gloucestershire County Council.

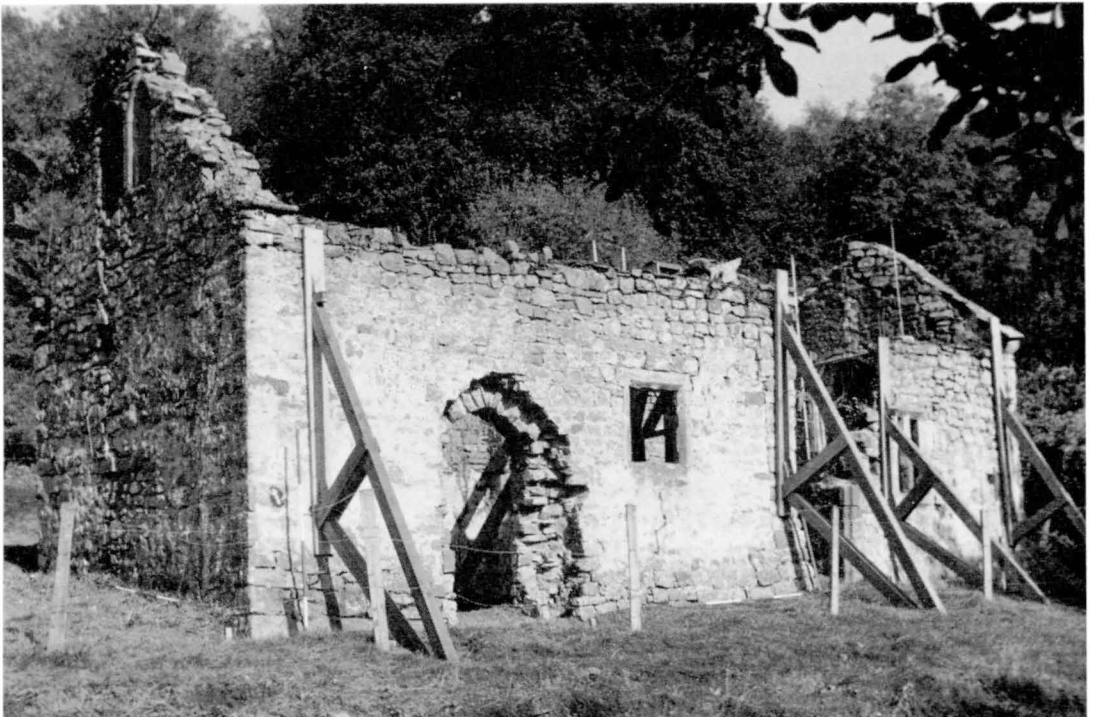


FIG. 10 St James's church; October 1986, after clearance, looking north-east.
Photographed by C. Parry.

with a keystone and narrow chamfered arch and jambs, was *in situ* in 1969 (Herbert 1972, 77). The nave doorway was reported as 'tumbled down' in 1954 (Grigson 1954, 2308), but this is a mistaken reference to the chancel doorway. Photographs (Glos R.O. D 392/145; G.L. 38545 2D, FIG. 13) record the appearance of the doorway-surround before its removal.

East of the doorway is a lintel-headed window (0.82 m by 0.72 m), set flush with the external elevation. It was originally of two lights, but its central mullion had probably gone by the 1930s, for it was not mentioned by Dobson and Hicks (1936). The jambs of the surround are splayed (FIG. 19), and the lintel has a narrow chamfer along its bottom external edge. Two iron brackets on the west jamb indicate that a single shutter was once in use. No glazing-bar holes are present on the surround, although a sketch of c. 1843 (*Johnson*, FIG. 3) shows a diamond pattern of glazing leads in both lights, and no shutter. Under the lintel, a thin iron bar with a series of small holes probably held glazing leads in place, and can be presumed to be a later insertion, although no evidence for this could be seen. Each window-splay contains a large stone with striations (chisel markings?) running diagonally across it. The masonry above the splay of the window opening is supported by a segmental rere-arch.

The west wall of the nave has a two-light opening situated high up in the apex of the gable. It is of crude design: the sill and north jamb are of coursed rubble; the mullion is a single stone block; the south jamb has two blocks. Each light is capped by a roughly pointed arch, formed by laying slightly curved stones against one another. The springing-line of each of these is at a different level. Both lights are the same height (1.10 m) but the northern light (0.65 m) is 0.11 m wider than its counterpart. Neither light appears to have been glazed; iron bars were present within the thickness of the southern light c. 1950 (Glos R.O. D392111/5), but were not present in 1986. Holes to accommodate the bars are visible on the reveals of the south jamb and mullion. Other holes, and a groove along the top edge of the southern reveal, do not appear to have been cut for the insertion of these bars, and it is possible that the blocks had a former use elsewhere.

The function of the two-light opening is not entirely clear. Herbert (1972, 77) interpreted it as 'apparently constructed to house bells', on the basis that a documentary reference dating to 1703 mentions a bell hanging in the west wall. This may be correct, but c. 1840 a small wooden bellcote was situated just above the openings, rising above roof level (*Ormerod* [13], FIG. 2; [14]), and this was recorded photographically (FIG. 7) before its disappearance, presumably at the destruction of the church c. 1865. It must be considered as a possibility that this wooden structure held the bell in 1703; and if this is so, the two-light opening may never have held bells, and functioned simply as a window. If Herbert's interpretation is correct, however, it can be presumed that the higher, wooden bellcote was constructed after 1703. When the church roof was removed c. 1865, a single bell was taken and rehung at Woolaston school (Glos R.O. P93 IN 4/1/5); since 1971 the bell has been displayed at Woolaston church. The bell has no inscription but may date to the 15th century (Bliss and Sharpe 1986, 668).

The eastern wall of the nave contains the chancel-arch, which has been partly destroyed by the fall of its western portion (FIG. 12). The arch was intact in 1983 (English Heritage, Field Monument Warden's report) but had fallen by 1984 when shoring was erected against the remaining portion, and at various points around the church. For the earlier appearance of the arch it is necessary to resort to photographs which give some impression of its composite form (Glos R.O. D3921 11/5; RCHM AA81/1775; G.L. 38545 2B, FIG. 11), showing that it consisted of two adjacent arches of unequal height. The intact eastern arch is formed of small, roughly shaped voussoirs. A sketch of the interior c. 1840 (*Ormerod* [11], FIG. 4) shows the eastern arch as round with a keystone. In fact, the arch has no keystone and is pointed, although slightly buckled on its southern side. The form of the arch in 1840 may have been obscured by plasterwork, and

this would also explain why the same sketch appears to show the arch springers projecting forward of their supporting impost, which is not the case in reality.

The fallen, western arch had a higher, more pronounced pointed form, and was composed of long, quite slender, sandstone blocks dressed with a chamfer which was broader towards the springing line. A chamfer is also present on the western side of the arch jambs. On the northern jamb only, the chamfer terminates near the base of the jamb in a chamfer stop. The imposts of the chancel-arch have a plain, square form with a simple under-chamfer. The southern impost is partly cut back; this is probably due to the insertion of a panelled wooden pulpit, which abutted the impost at the point where it is damaged (*Ormerod* [11], FIG. 4).



FIG. 11 St James's church; chancel-arch and east window, looking east. Date unknown, but probably *c.* 1930.
Gloucester Library, Gloucestershire Collection 38545 2B.

The chancel

The chancel encloses an area measuring 5.28 m by 3.64 m. Only the lower portions of a doorway (0.68 m wide) survive, due to the collapse of the south wall of the chancel at its junction with the chancel-arch. The date and cause of the fall of the doorway are unknown, but had occurred before 1936 (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 217). In the spring of 1989, more of the east jamb was dislodged when a herd of cows strayed into the church.

Only one drawing of the south front of the chancel is extant (*Johnson*, FIG. 3) and this shows the door with a pointed arch. The east jamb of the door has a surround with cavetto moulding and a square door-stop (FIG. 19). The western jamb has similar decoration, but the single stone projecting above present ground level is very worn, and the moulding is detectable only at ground level. Piercing the east jamb of the door is a circular (diameter 0.10 m) draw-bolt hole, which runs east through the thickness of the wall as far as the south window.

East of the doorway lies a lintel-headed window (1.04 m by 0.62 m), similar to the window in the nave but taller and narrower, having two lights separated by a mullion. As is also the case in

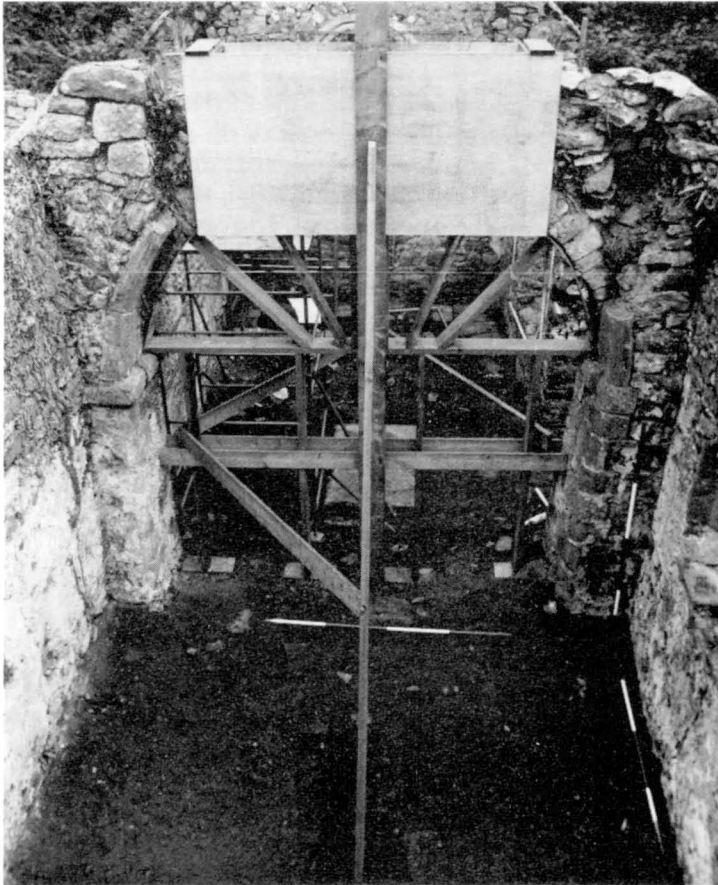


FIG. 12 St James's church; chancel arch and nave interior, 1986, looking east.
Photographed by C. Parry.

the nave, a segmental rere-arch supports the masonry above the splay of the window opening. One view (*Jobson*, FIG. 3) shows the window glazed with square panes. The window has glazing-bar holes in its west jamb and facing mullion reveals, but these holes do not correspond in height, indicating that the window has been rebuilt. Presumably, the window fell with the nearby doorway. Above the window, the masonry in 1986 contained a re-used dressed stone, ornamented with 'dog-tooth' motif (FIG. 25).

East of the window on the south wall is a cinquefoil-headed piscina, having a shallow basin with a drainhole. The moulding of the piscina is worn, and at the back a void indicates where a stone has been removed. The piscina has been dated to the 14th century (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 217), but less specifically as late medieval (Herbert 1972, 77).

Formerly opposite the piscina on the north wall was an aumbry, which was last reported intact in 1954 (Grigson 1954, 2308). It was a plain square box, composed of long thin stones (Dobson and Hicks 1936, plate III). By *c.* 1965 the aumbry and wall above had fallen (pers. comm. Mr C. Burder, Lancut). The wall has since been repaired but the aumbry was not restored.

The east wall of the chancel contains a round-headed window (FIG. 11), doubly splayed, with single roll moulding internally and a double roll externally (FIG. 19). With the exception of one external Old Red Sandstone block, the surround is entirely composed of oolitic limestone. Traces of lime-wash, with red pigment over, were visible on the internal mouldings in 1986. A view of *c.* 1840 (*Ormerod* [11], FIG. 4) shows the window glazed with square panes; glazing-bar holes on the surround corroborate this detail. The flat sill of the window (Dobson and Hicks 1936, plate III) had fallen by 1986 and was restored in 1988. A repair to the soffit of the window arch, using roofing-tile, was observed in 1986. Structural weaknesses in the sill and arch are represented in drawings of *c.* 1840 (*Ormerod* [8], [9], and [10]): one drawing [10] also suggests that the internal arch head had a small keystone which, if present, must have been a plaster feature which has since fallen.

All three walls of the chancel have putlog holes in contrast to the nave, where none is apparent. The north and south walls each have a pair set widely apart in roughly the mid-point of the elevation, and the east wall too has one pair arranged at approximately the same level. The putlogs mystified Dobson and Hicks (1936, 217) who failed to interpret them. On the east wall of the chancel, two large kneelers supported by corbels are set at each end of the gable.

Furnishings

Presumably, all of the furnishings would have been swept away when the roof of the church was removed, and our knowledge of them is based almost entirely on the information contained in George Ormerod's plan (*Ormerod* [12], FIG. 5), and his daughter Susan's sketch of the interior (*Ormerod* [11], FIG. 4), both drawn *c.* 1840. In the nave, there was a pulpit and a tester situated adjacent to the southern jamb of the chancel arch, impinging slightly on the splay of the south window of the nave. On either side of a central aisle in the nave, wooden box-pews faced the pulpit. The pews and the pulpit may have been contemporary installations, perhaps of the 18th century.

The nave also contained the font, which Ormerod's plan locates in the south-west corner (*Ormerod* [12], FIG. 5). On the destruction of the church *c.* 1865, the font was taken first to Lancut Farmhouse before being reclaimed by the Rector of Woolaston (Glos R.O. P93 IN 4/1/5). Somehow, the font then came into the possession of the Marling family, who had it restored in 1890 (inscription inside bowl). The Marlings also commissioned a new base (Glos R.O. P331 IN 3/3), and the font was displayed on this at the Marlings' house at Sedbury Park, and later at Stanley Park (*Gloucestershire Countryside* July–September 1954, 187). As early as 1914,

possession of the font was disputed between the Marlings and the diocese of Gloucester (Glos R.O. P93 IN 4/1/5), and negotiations for its return began in earnest in the 1930s. Vicar Newman of Tidenham (to which Lancaut was by this time attached), suggested that the font should be displayed in his parish to promote the restoration of St James's church (Glos R.O. P333/1 IN 3/3), but the diocese apparently considered Gloucester Cathedral a more appropriate setting, for with the Marlings' return of the font *c.* 1940 (Herbert 1972, 78), it was installed in the Lady Chapel where it has stood since, except for brief periods when it has been sent to Barcelona (1961) and London (1984) for exhibition purposes (Zarnecki *et al* 1984, 247, no. 243, illus.). During the 19th century, if not before, the font stood on a 'column with a projecting plinth, circular in its lower part and octagonal above, very rudely cut' (Ormerod 1842, 24). Sarah Ormerod's drawings (Ormerod [20]; [21], FIG. 6), provide the only record of this setting. The uppermost part of the base has disappeared, but the circular part of the base and the square plinth on which it stood were both *in situ* in 1936 (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 216), having survived the removal of the font by more than seventy years. The return of the font to the diocese *c.* 1940 prompted the removal of the surviving portion of the column (*Gloucestershire Countryside* July–September 1954, 187) and this supported the font in Gloucester Cathedral until 1987, when a new base was constructed on the same spot. The original plinth, which remained in 1986, was found displaced; where it once probably stood, a few flagstones, the only surviving examples in the nave, were preserved (FIG. 18). As mentioned above, much of the original flooring of the nave appears to have been ledger tombstones, all of which have been removed; some were *in situ* in 1954 (Grigson 1954, 2308).

Within the south-west angle of the nave, a raised masonry bench or 'wall seat' (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 217; Herbert 1972, 77) runs west from the nave doorway along the south wall, then north for 2.5 m along the west wall. The bench is a maximum of 0.4 m wide and rises nearly 0.3 m above the level of the stone flags nearby. Within its south-west corner, the topmost course of the bench incorporates a fragment of dressed stone (FIG. 26) with a pattern in low relief which is datable to the early 14th century (Appendix A). The bench, however, may not be of a single, contemporary build; the portion against the west wall is composed of small, thin blocks of rubble, contrasting with the build by the doorway which has utilised larger rectangular blocks. The function of the bench and its date of construction are uncertain. It does not appear on Ormerod's plan of the church, which shows the font base adjacent to the west wall of the nave (Ormerod [12], FIG. 5). This might indicate that the bench was not then present, or alternatively, might indicate that the font lay above the bench on a raised floor. In this context, it may be of relevance that the base of the north jamb of the chancel-arch is also at approximately the same level as the top of the bench. It is more probable, however, that the base of the jamb was related in some way to the level of the chancel, rather than to the nave, for it would be difficult to believe that the interior flooring of the nave was ever raised to this level.

Little is known of the furnishings in the chancel. In 1986, two vertical impressions, both 0.06 m wide and set 0.16 m apart, were visible as indentations into the plaster rendering of the north wall, near its west end. The western impression was filled with small stones and plastered over, perhaps implying that furniture had stood here but was repositioned to the east.

A burial in the chancel is recorded in 1821 (Glos R.O. Bishop's Transcript of Woolaston Parish records, 1821: margin note), and the relevant tombstone survives in fragments, indicating that the chancel, too, was partly paved with tombstones, although none survives *in situ*. Like the nave, the floor of the chancel was also partly stone-flagged, and a number of these survives near the east wall (FIG. 18). Other flags which had become displaced over the years were removed from site with the tombstones in 1985. The intact flags in the chancel are approximately 0.5 m higher than the examples in the nave, and the resulting step up into the chancel may at one time

have occurred just east of the chancel-arch, where a line of stones (marked step? on FIG. 17) runs approximately north-south across the width of the chancel. The interpretation is uncertain, for it may be significant that the alignment of this feature appears to relate to the orientation of the south wall of the nave, rather than to the church in general. If not a step, its function can only be guessed, for it does not appear on Ormerod's plan, (*Ormerod* [12], FIG. 5) which shows two steps central to, and immediately east of, the chancel-arch. As mentioned briefly above, the height of the base of the north jamb of the chancel-arch might also indicate that the chancel floor once extended as far as the west jambs of the chancel-arch.



FIG. 13 St James's church; nave doorway and south window.
Date unknown, but before 1936.
Gloucester Library, Gloucestershire Collection 38545 2 D.

Roofing

Dobson and Hicks (1936, 217) asserted that the roof was 'continuous and was supported by the composite arch'. This was not so, for the pictorial and photographic records clearly show a lower roof over the chancel, with the east gable of the nave rising above it. Little is known of the construction of the roofs. Two tie-beams resting on the wall-plate are visible on Susan Ormerod's drawing of the interior (Ormerod [11], FIG. 4). These were set against the head of the east window in the chancel and the head of the chancel-arch in the nave, somewhat obscuring both features. It may be inferred, perhaps, that the roof in 1840 was a crude successor to a more elegant original.

Two brackets set in the wall-plate, projecting over the external face of the south wall of the nave (FIG. 13) may have functioned as rafter-supports, for their southern ends hook upwards (a row of three such projections was drawn *c.* 1840 (Ormerod [13], FIG. 2); the eastern one has gone). These brackets do not appear to have existed elsewhere, and they are peculiar to the construction of this wall.

In 1840 the roof covering appears to have been slate or tile crowned with ridge-tiles (Ormerod [13], FIG. 2); *Johnson*, FIG. 3). When the church interior was cleared in 1986, sandstone roofing slates, fired clay tiles, and one fragment of fired clay ridge-tile were found, and stacked with other rubble in the churchyard.

To conclude this description, it may be noted that there is no record of any archaeological excavation having taken place within the church or surrounding scheduled area. It is unfortunate that during the erection of shoring by the Lancaut Church Preservation Group in 1984, two pits were dug, one either side of the chancel-arch, in order to insert shoring footings (FIG. 17). In addition, and for the same reason, five pits were dug externally, four along the south front, and one on the north side of the church. It has not been possible to assess the full extent of these intrusions; only the outlines of the pits and their minimum depths could be recorded in 1986, and the subsequent removal of the shoring at the commencement of consolidation in 1987 resulted in the pits being backfilled to present ground level.

Apart from this, the fact that the church has been disused since *c.* 1865, and the low level of its use in the preceding century, suggest that archaeological deposits there are potentially well preserved. In addition, in view of the suspected early medieval occupation of the area, it is of some interest that the churchyard conforms topographically to the type of site at which Morris (1983, 34) has predicted archaeological evidence for Early Christian occupation might survive, buried under layers of make-up where terracing has occurred.

The structural evidence: introduction

It is evident from the stylistic variety of its architectural features that the present form of the church is the product of a series of alterations to an original structure. Presenting a coherent account of this structural development is not a simple matter, as the range of published opinions testifies. Dobson and Hicks (1936, 216–7) saw the church beginning in early medieval times as a single-cell structure which had a chancel added in the early 12th century. Verey (1980, 384), in a brief description, interpreted the church as essentially Norman with Transitional features. Herbert (1972, 77) also described the church as 'mainly . . . 12th and 13th century', but noted in addition the post-medieval south windows and nave doorway, and observed that the nave and chancel appeared to have been built, or rebuilt, at different times.

These accounts share a common analytical approach in that they are based almost entirely on the dating evidence provided by the surviving architectural features. Although this approach is perhaps valid as a brief survey method, it has been recognised for some time that a full

ST. JAMES, LANCAUT. 1986

plan of churchyard

contours at 0.25m intervals a.o.d.

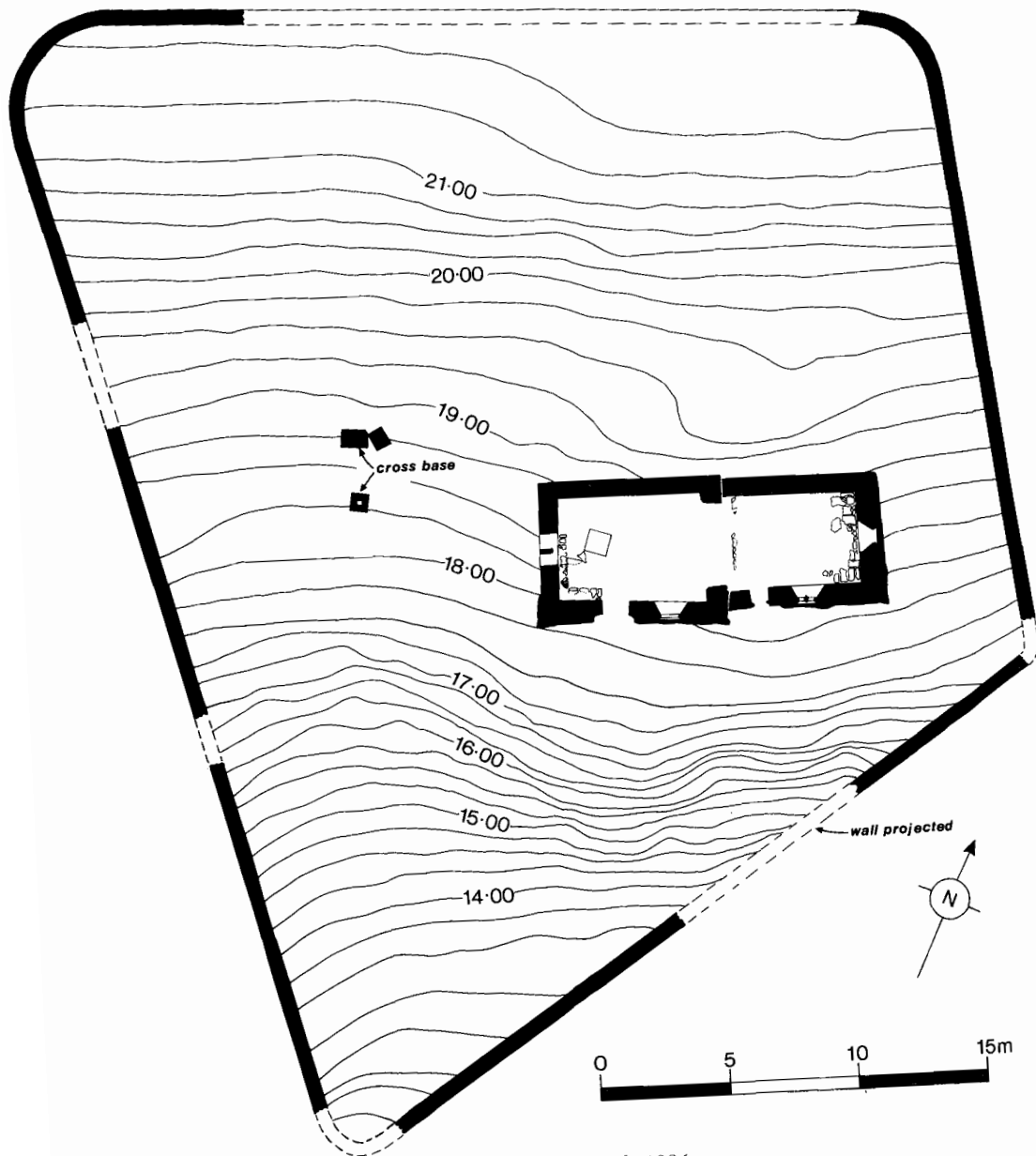


FIG. 14 St James's church; contour survey of churchyard, 1986.

comprehension of a structural sequence can result only from close inspection of the total evidence contained in the fabric of a building (Addyman and Morris 1976). In Gloucestershire, detailed fabric studies of churches, undertaken in conjunction with excavation, have taken place at St Mary's church, Deerhurst (Rahtz 1976) and St Oswald's priory, Gloucester (Heighway 1978 and 1980). The examination of Lancaut church in 1986 offered an opportunity to study the above-ground evidence alone.

Method of study

The fabric of the church was surveyed in 1986 by making a stone-by-stone record of the wall-elevations (FIGS. 15, 16, and 17). This led to the identification of structural joints, indicating where breaks in construction had occurred. Close examination of the joints between the rubble courses of the elevations allowed the identification of bonding mortars, which were recorded using colour conventions on the elevation drawings. In this section, we shall treat firstly of the mortars in general, secondly of the structural joints, and thirdly of the fabrics; readers should keep these three terms quite distinct.

The mortars – general

Six types of wall-bonding mortar were found; these were classified and assigned type-numbers running in a series from 1–6. A summary description of each type is given in TABLE II. On the premise that contemporary construction utilised only one type of wall-bonding mortar, six

Table I. Summary of mortar/fabric evidence

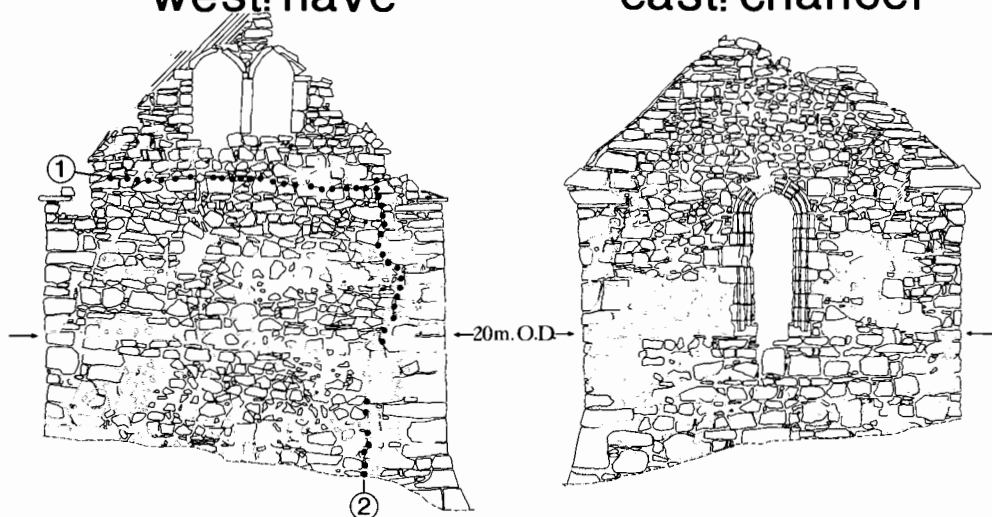
<i>Mortar type no.</i>	<i>: Fabric no.</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Date</i>
1	: 1	The west and north walls of the nave	Uncertain, but post-c. 1100
2	: 2	Chancel-arch; southern abutment of the chancel-arch; a stub of wall under the north wall of the chancel; some of the battered plinth at the foot of the south wall of the nave	Late 12th/early 13th C
3	: 3	The south wall of the nave	Probably post-medieval
4	: 4	The south, east, and north walls of the chancel; the northern jamb and impost of the chancel-arch	Probably post-medieval
5 and 7	: 5	Repair to the south window of the chancel and masonry above; all wall cappings; pointing in the chancel	Post-1865
6	: 6	Repair to the north wall of the chancel	c. 1970
none defined	: 7	The gable of the west wall of the nave	Uncertain, but post-c. 1100

ST. JAMES, LANCAUT. 1986

External Elevations

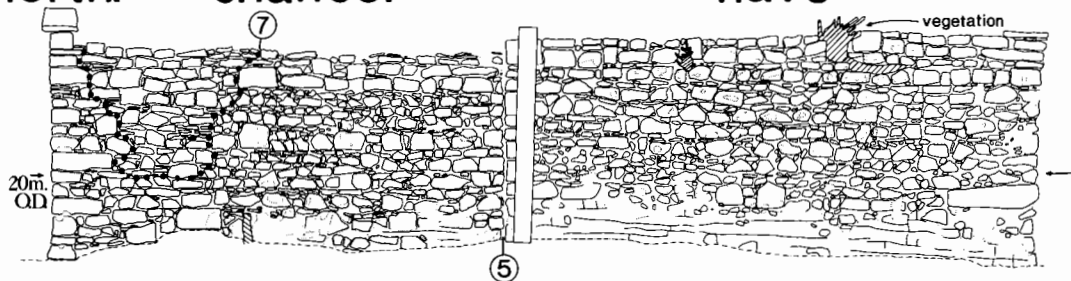
west: nave

east: chancel



north: chancel

nave



south: nave

chancel

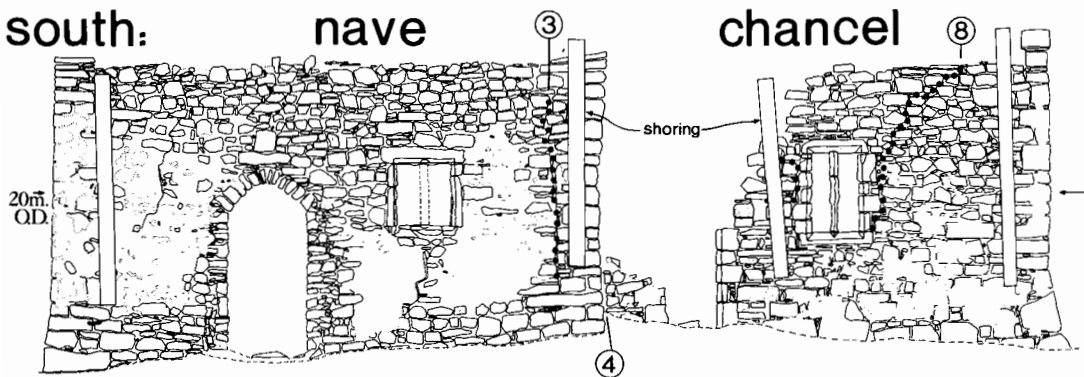


FIG. 15 St James's church; external elevations, 1986.

ST. JAMES, LANCAUT. 1986

Internal Elevations

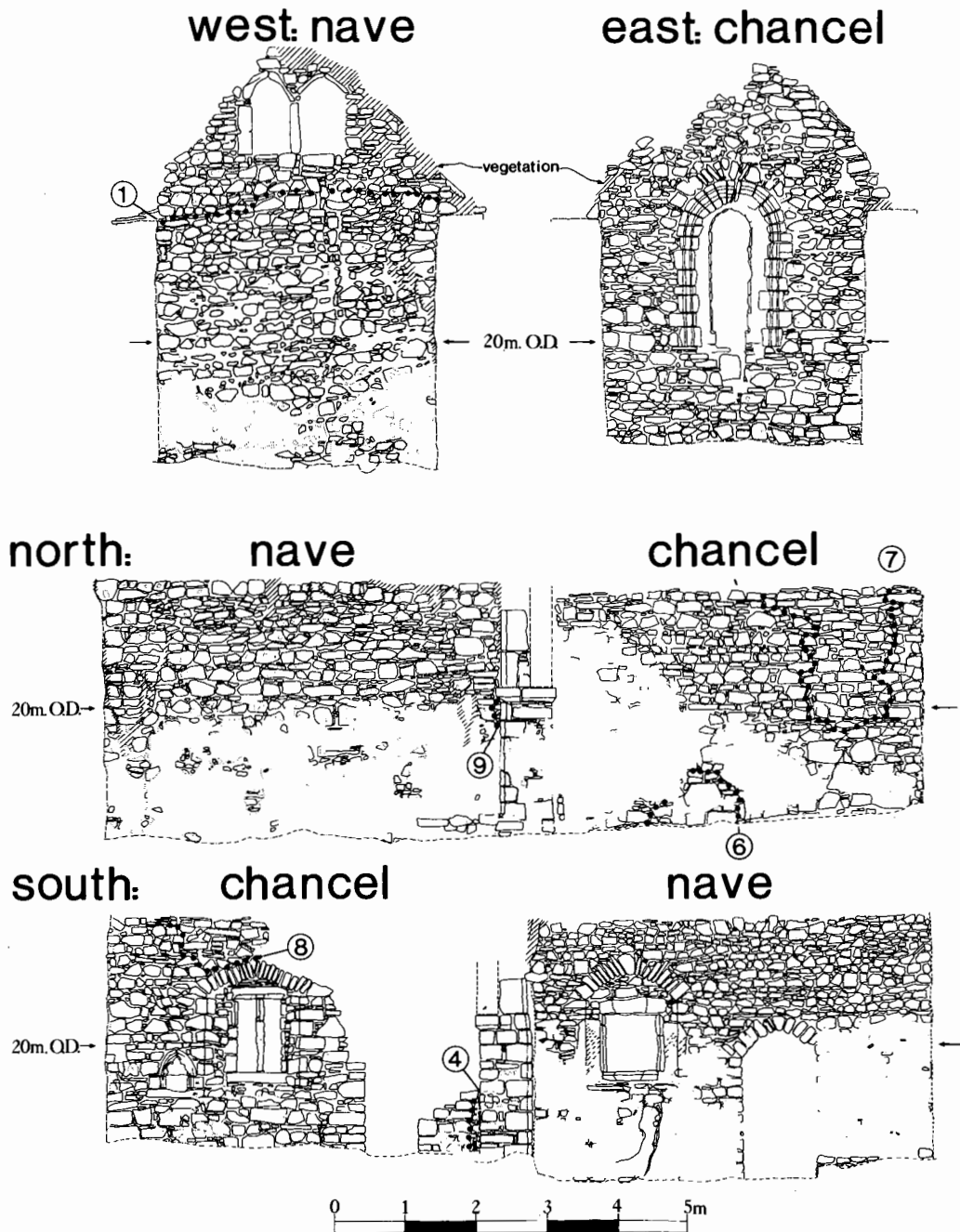


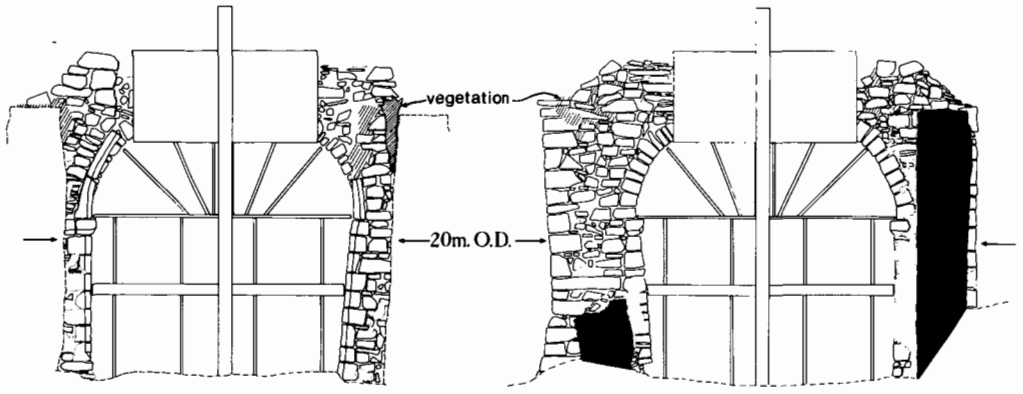
FIG. 16 St James's church; internal elevations, 1986.

ST. JAMES, LANCAUT. 1986

Chancel Arch.

west facing

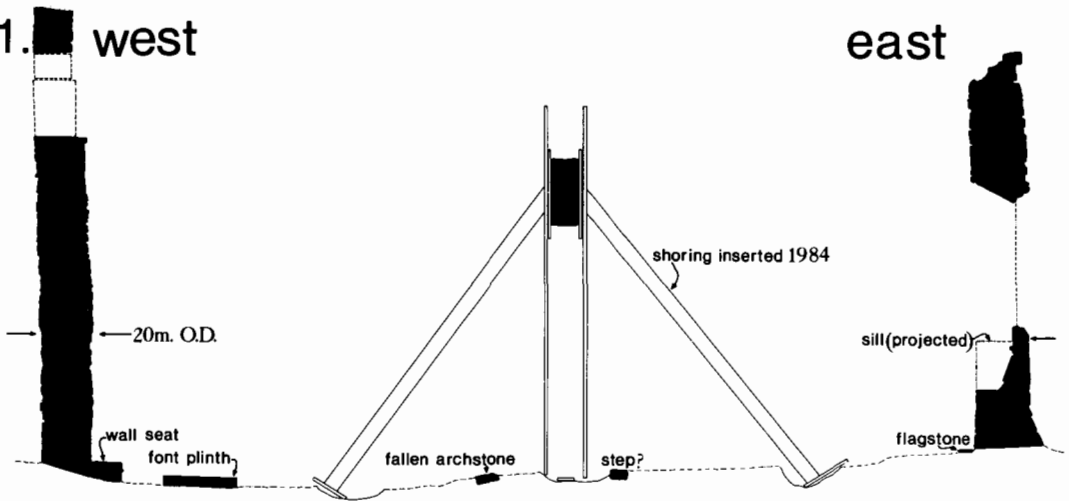
east facing



Profiles 1-3.

1. west

east

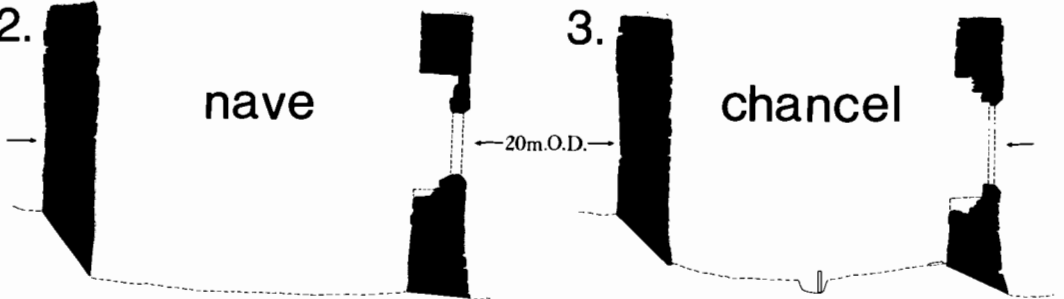


2.

nave

3.

chancel



north-south

north-south

FIG. 17 St James's church; above: chancel-arch elevations, 1986, below: profiles 1-3, 1986.

episodes of construction were identified. To facilitate discussion of the sequence of construction, each of these episodes is termed below a 'fabric', the 'fabric' number simply corresponding with the type number of the mortar identified in each case TABLE I. It should be noted that the term 'fabric' is just a conveniently brief way of referring to an episode of construction indicated by the structural, primarily mortar, evidence. For the purpose of this report, the term 'fabric' is intended to be synonymous with term 'unit of construction'.

For the most part, then, the analysis of the constructions forming the church has been led by the study of its bonding mortars, considered with the structural-joint evidence. In most instances, observation of the mortars *in situ* was adequate for the purposes of identification; but, to check, a detailed examination of the mortars was undertaken when scheduled monument consent was obtained in April 1987 for the removal of eighty-seven samples from selected points on the elevations. This allowed more detailed descriptions of each mortar-type to be made, and reinforced direct visual comparison between the types. Chemical analysis of a selection of these samples was also undertaken (Appendix B).

Table II. Summary of structural joint evidence

Unless otherwise stated, each joint was visible on both the internal and external elevations in 1986, to some degree

<i>Structural Joint no.</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Formed by Fabrics (earlier) : (later)</i>
1	The gable of the west wall of the nave, running horizontally at eaves level	1 : 7
2	The west wall of the nave, running vertically alongside the quoins at the south-west corner of the nave; external elevation only	1 : 3
3	The south wall of the nave, running vertically near the east end, and perhaps horizontally along the top of the wall batter, although this is uncertain; external elevation only	2 : 3
4	Junction of the southern chancel-arch abutment and the south wall of the chancel	2 : 4
5	Junction of the northern chancel-arch abutment and the north wall of the chancel; external elevation only	1 : 4
6	Base of the north wall of the chancel; internal elevation only	2 : 4
7	The north wall of the chancel, a repair joint	4 : 6
8	The south wall of the chancel, around the south window; a repair joint	4 : 5
9	The northern jamb of the chancel-arch area, internal elevation only	1 : 4

The distribution of the mortars bonding the church can be seen on FIG. 18, the limits of each mortar being additionally demarcated by structural joints. However, analysis of the church was not entirely led by the mortar evidence, for at the west gable of the nave only faint traces of a leached and weathered mortar could be observed. In this case, a fabric was defined on the evidence of a structural joint (Joint 1), supported by negative evidence for the presence of Type 1 mortar, which bonded walling immediately below. To continue the sequence of fabric numbers, the gable has been designated Fabric 7.

Lastly, a seventh type of bonding material, consisting of a sand and cement mix, was found in association with Type 5 mortar, but used mostly as a wall capping. It is in no way related to Fabric 7, and this, Type 7 mortar, is the only mortar type whose number does not correspond with a fabric (TABLE I).

Following the establishment of the individuality of each fabric, two sorts of dating evidence contributed towards an interpretation of the sequence of construction. First, structural joints (when fully examinable) allowed a relative chronology to be established (TABLE II). Second, the architectural features were studied for the dating evidence they contained. It is important to note that this type of evidence is valid only if integral, and thus contemporary, construction with a surrounding fabric can be proven by the presence of an identical bonding mortar. For this reason, the description of the fabrics and the discussion of the datable features will be considered together, preceded by an account of the evidence contained in the structural joints.

Table III. Summary descriptions of mortar types

Mortar types 1–5 are lime based mortars, Type 6 mortar is an unusual concoction involving ashes. Each of the constructions which these mortars individually bond have been assigned corresponding fabric nos. The mortar bonding of Fabric 7 could not be characterized, and is unrelated to Type 7 mortar, which is a sand and cement mix associated with the application of Type 5 mortar

<i>Mortar type no.</i>	<i>Description</i>
1	A hard, brittle, sandy mortar with an occasional lime lump and pebble; predominantly light-grey in colour, it is tinged reddish-brown towards the base of the walls
2	A soft, friable mortar containing inclusions of lime lumps, charcoal flecks, and an occasional pebble; rich dark brown in colour
3	A friable, sandy mortar with frequent specks of white lime; dark brown in colour, it is superficially similar to Type 2 mortar
4	A hard, white mortar containing substantial quantities of small grits and gravels forming an estimated 50% of the mix
5	An off-white mortar with frequent inclusions of charcoal flecks and red brick dust
6	A soft, grey-black mortar composed of ashes mixed with a little cement
7	A sand and cement mix

The structural joints

Nine structural joints (Joints 1–9) indicating the presence of adjoining, but chronologically distinct, constructions were identified. The location of each joint is indicated on the elevation drawings, marked with a dotted convention where the junction is not obvious (FIGS. 15–17), and additionally indicated on plan (FIG. 18). Qualifying statements made in the following descriptions regarding the visibility of some of the evidence should be noted. The relative chronology of each joint is summarized by TABLE II. Working progressively eastwards from the west wall of the nave these are:

Joint 1 — A horizontal joint separates the gable of the west wall of the nave (Fabric 7) from the wall below (Fabric 1). It runs across the elevation at the level of the eaves and is visible both externally (where it is well defined) and internally (where it is more difficult to see and slightly bowed). The construction above the joint incorporates the two-light opening. The joint is emphasized by very obvious differences in the masonry styles above and below it; externally, the joint runs across the top of a course composed of large blocks of rubblestone, the gable masonry above constructed of smaller stones, with neatly jointed courses.

Joint 2 — A (more or less) vertical structural joint is present at the southern end of the west wall of the nave, indicating that the quoins at the south-west corner of the church are not contemporary with the remainder of the west wall of the nave. The joint is difficult to interpret because rendering obscures it. The highest portion of the joint is irregular, but despite an impression that some of the higher quoins lie beneath the masonry of the west wall, this assumption is almost certainly incorrect, for, lower down, a short length of the joint is exposed just above the battered plinth at the foot of the wall, and within this the adjoining fabrics are bonded together by Type 3 mortar. This can only imply that the west wall of the nave (Fabric 1) is earlier than the quoins (Fabric 3).

Joint 3 — Visible externally on the south wall, at a point 0.7 m west of the south-east corner of the nave, is a clearly defined vertical joint emphasised by a slight recessing of the masonry on its eastern side. The joint separates the southern abutment of the chancel-arch (Fabric 2) from the remainder of the south wall of the nave (Fabric 3). The joint is not visible at the top of the wall, and extends downwards only to the top of the battered wall footing. At the external south-east corner of the nave, there is conclusive evidence that the chancel-arch abutment and the battered plinth are of an identical and contemporary build; Joint 3 demonstrates, therefore, that the majority of the south wall to the west of the joint was constructed later than the battered wall footing, for no break can be detected in the length of the batter to indicate otherwise. Chemical analysis of mortar samples from the area in question (Appendix B) added evidence to support this interpretation, although a possibility that some of the batter was reconstructed when Fabric 3 was built was also suggested by the analysis.

Joint 4 — This is situated at the junction of the south walls of the nave and chancel, and is of particular importance because of the information revealed there by the collapse of the chancel wall. Corework projecting from the nave (i.e. the arch abutment; Fabric 2) indicates that at one time the nave masonry was carried on into the chancel area with no break in construction. This earlier chancel was presumably replaced by the present chancel (Fabric 4), represented by the stub of its collapsed wall butting up against the corework of the arch abutment. Internally, a tiny portion of the earlier chancel is visible at ground level, and this projects slightly, but not significantly, forward of the elevation which replaced it.

Joint 5 — Joint 5 is the northern counterpart of Joint 4, formed by the junction of the north wall of the chancel (Fabric 4) and the northern abutment of the chancel-arch (Fabric 1). As at Joint 4, the chancel is the later of the two constructions, as it abuts the nave masonry, a relationship also observed at Joint 9. Unlike Joint 4, there is no evidence that the chancel-arch abutment was at one time bonded into a chancel, for within Joint 5 there is a gap wide enough to show that the northern abutment has a faced elevation, and that this is, apparently, coated with a layer of rendering.

The abutment belongs to Fabric 1, for which there is no precise dating evidence: below (p. 83), it will be argued that the abutment *post-dates* the construction of a chancel and, moreover, represents a replacement of an earlier northern chancel-arch abutment. At first sight, the faced and apparently rendered elevation of the northern abutment within Joint 5 appears to contradict this interpretation, suggesting that the abutment was once free standing, with no chancel wall adjoining. However, both factors can be accounted for.

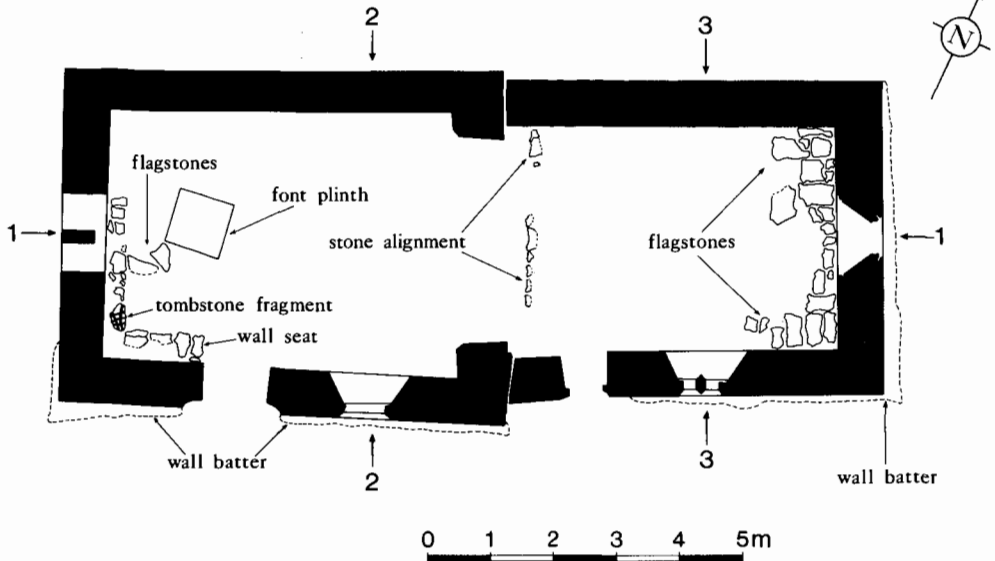
Taking the facing of the abutment elevation first: at Joint 4, it has been demonstrated that the southern abutment of the chancel-arch was constructed with a contemporary chancel, and that these were bonded together with no break in construction. It can be presumed that the same was once true of a contemporary northern abutment, until this was demolished and replaced in an operation which left the contiguous north wall of the chancel intact. If this occurred, it would then have been necessary to rebuild a faced elevation up against the end of the chancel wall, which would have been left with a ragged end where its bonding with the earlier abutment had been broken. This ragged joint would not be visible today, however, if the chancel contemporary with the operation was subsequently replaced, an occurrence suggested by the evidence from Joint 4.

This proposed sequence collapses, however, if the apparent coating of rendering is truly present, for this could be applied, of course, only at a time when no adjacent chancel wall existed. The mortar in question is identical in composition with the Type 1 bonding of the abutment. Elsewhere on Fabric 1, the same material may be observed overlapping joints between the rubble coursing, as though excess mortar was squeezed out from them during construction, but not removed. Poor building-technique may thus explain the presence of the layer of apparent rendering within Joint 5, preserved within the joint because of the extra protection offered against the elements. The uneven coursing and wide mortar joints, seen on Fabric 1 as a whole, in itself suggests construction of poor quality.

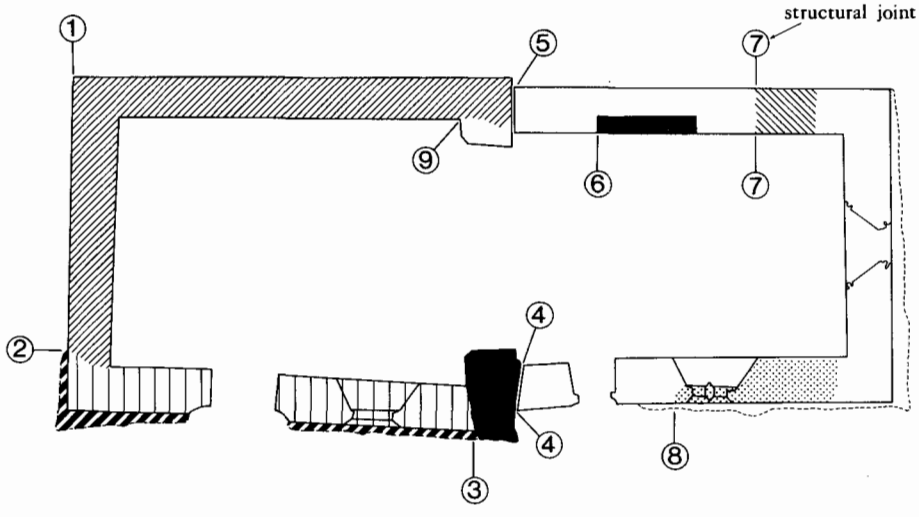
The relative chronology of Joint 5 was noted by Dobson and Hicks (1936, 216). They believed, however, that the fabric of the chancel dated to the early 12th century, and could be used to provide a *terminus ante quem* to give a pre-Norman construction date for the adjoining chancel-arch abutment. This interpretation is no longer tenable, for below (p. 85) the chancel will be shown to date no earlier than the late medieval period (and is probably later); additionally, it will be demonstrated that Fabric 1 incorporated a fragment of decorated stone (p. 83) indicating a *terminus post quem* of c. 1100 for the construction of the northern chancel-arch abutment.

Joint 6 — Lying at the internal foot of the north wall of the chancel (Fabric 4) is a stub of an earlier wall (Fabric 2) with a structural joint clearly demarcated by a carelessly placed stone lying at an angle over it. The joint confirms the evidence seen at Joint 4 for an earlier chancel. The joint is not traceable for its entire length, for much of the area is obscured by rendering. The survival of the stub may be due to the fact that a large stone is incorporated within it. The joint is not visible externally because soil has accumulated against the corresponding portion of wall, and for this reason FIG. 18 leaves the presence of an external joint open to question.

plan of church showing profiles 1-3



mortar types and structural joints



key to mortar types

- type 1
 type 2
 type 2/3
 type 3
 type 4
- type 5
 type 6

FIG. 18 St James's church; above: plan, showing interior features, 1986, below: plan, showing locations of structural joints (Joints 1-9) and wall bonding mortars (Types 1-6).

Joint 7 — On the north wall of the chancel, near its junction with the east wall, is an U-shaped joint, visible both internally and externally due to the use of a mortar which contrasts with the mortar bonding the surrounding fabric. The masonry inside the U (Fabric 6) is a repair to the collapsed aumbry area, and rests on top of Fabric 4.

Joint 8 — In 1986 it could be observed that the south window of the chancel and the wall above (Fabric 5) had been partly reconstructed, being later in date than the chancel masonry (Fabric 4). The construction was shoddy, and the resulting break in the masonry was recorded before this portion of wall was dismantled and subsequently reinstated as part of the consolidation process in 1988.

Joint 9 — The description of Joint 9 has been left until last because it was visible only after careful plotting of the mortars used in the adjoining constructions. The presence of Type 4 mortar proves that the northern jamb of the chancel-arch, and a considerable portion of the masonry above its western side, were reconstructed at the same time as the chancel (Fabric 4). The structure of the arch (Fabric 2) does not appear to have been disturbed during this work. A few stones bonded with Type 4 mortar are also adjacent to the arch-jamb on the north wall of the nave, where they replaced stonework bonded with Type 1 mortar. This evidence confirms the later dating of the chancel masonry with the northern abutment of the chancel-arch, observed at Joint 5.

Mortar types and fabric dating: the Fabrics

Five fabrics (1–4, and 7) belong to the period when the church was in use; two fabrics (5 and 6) are interpreted as repairs to the ruined structure.

Fabric 7: the west gable of the nave — Separated from the wall below by Joint 1, this is the only fabric where a mortar type could not be characterized because of weathering and vegetation growth in the joints, and so it may best be dealt with here. The two-light opening contained within it is not readily datable, and the ‘Saxon’ date advanced by Hart (1967, plate XXIb) is certainly incorrect, for the opening sits above Fabric 1, which cannot have been constructed before the early 12th century (see below). Precise parallels for the opening have not been found. It is possible that it was in place by c. 1700 at which date Herbert (1972, 77) believed it housed a bell. The late medieval date suggested for the Lancut bell (Bliss and Sharpe 1986, 668) could indicate a date of construction for the opening, but this is at best a guess, especially since its function has not been established beyond doubt.

Fabric 1: the west and north walls of the nave — *Type 1 mortar*. With the exception of the gable masonry discussed above, the entire north and west walls of the nave may be considered as a constructional unit, which is bonded only with Type 1 mortar. The mortar is mostly a light grey colour, with an occasional lime lump and pebble. Towards the base of the walls, the mortar is tinged a reddish-brown, perhaps because of a chemical reaction with rising dampness. The other main distinguishing characteristic of Type 1 bond is its texture, which is extremely sandy and hard, with a brittle quality. There can be no doubt about the homogeneity of Fabric 1, but its date is difficult to ascertain because it is devoid of any architectural feature.

Nevertheless, a piece of dating evidence for Fabric 1 was discovered during the consolidation programme of 1987–1988, when a decorated limestone slab (FIG. 23), with traces of Type 1

mortar adhering to it, came to light when the upper portions of the north wall were dismantled prior to reinstatement. Romanesque decoration on this stone indicates a late 11th or early 12th century period for its carving (Appendix A), but its incorporation within Fabric 1 may have occurred much later; structural-joint evidence (Joints 2, 5, and 9) proves only that Fabric 1 is earlier than the post-medieval reconstructions it adjoins. Allowing time for the decorated stone to have become redundant, a considerable period may have elapsed between its carving and subsequent incorporation as a rubblestone. The surviving construction which is closest in date to the decoration belongs to the Transitional period (see below), but judging from the mortar evidence it cannot be concluded that Fabric 1 formed part of the Transitional church. On these grounds, therefore, Fabric 1 may tentatively be assigned to a period after the mid-13th century, but it is admitted that there is no structural proof for its construction having occurred either before or after the Transitional fabric was in place.

Fabric 2: the chancel-arch and its southern abutment — the wall stub in the chancel — some of the battered plinth at the foot of the south wall of the nave — Type 2 mortar. Fabric 2 is bonded by Type 2 mortar, which is soft, very friable, and typically a rich brown in colour. Some white lime lumps, charcoal flecks, and an occasional pebble are also present. The mortar was best defined where the collapse of the south wall of the chancel revealed a considerable expanse of corework projecting from the southern chancel-arch abutment. There, it bonded the entire east-facing elevation of the abutment, including the wall batter at its foot. An identical bond was also found on the chancel-arch, where detection was considerably aided by the ruinous state of the western portion. This allowed mortar samples to be removed from not only its remaining western arch stones, but also from corework above the intact eastern arch. Before 1986, it had been presumed that the composite nature of the chancel-arch indicated that two construction periods were involved (Dobson and Hicks 1936, 216; Herbert 1972, 77), but the mortar evidence proves that the reverse is true: the arch was erected during a single building operation, for at all points where it could be examined, the bonding of both elements was identical.

The southern chancel-arch abutment is of extreme importance to the overall interpretation of the development of the church, because the corework projecting from it demonstrates conclusively that a chancel contemporary with the abutment has been demolished and replaced by the present chancel fabric. In addition, the agreeing alignment of the corework with the present south wall of the chancel suggests strongly that the new chancel was rebuilt to the same plan as the old, as is further corroborated by the survival of a stub of an earlier chancel wall, also bonded with Type 2 mortar, preserved at ground level below Joint 6.

The chancel-arch is the only architectural feature contained in Fabric 2. Both Verey (1980, 384) and Herbert (1972, 77) concur in identifying it as a Transitional form, and a construction-date in the late 12th or early 13th century may be assigned to it. As a parallel, a composite arch of similar date may be seen locally at Staunton parish church (near Coleford), forming the northern entrance into the southern transept (Verey 1980, 346–7).

The precise relationship of Fabric 2 with the batter at the foot of the south wall of the nave is not clear. The relationship is important, for if the batter is considered as a single constructional unit, its entire length must be contemporary with the chancel-arch. If so, at Joint 2 there would be *three* instead of *two* fabrics present, thereby adding to the interpretational difficulties already associated with this joint. Because of the lack of *in situ* mortar evidence along the batter, and the difficulty of distinguishing mortar Types 2 and 3 where only small amounts were exposed, the precise limits of Fabric 2 in this area could not be ascertained. An attempt to solve the question by chemical analysis of mortars was not conclusive, but might be interpreted as indicating that

the majority of the batter indeed belongs to Fabric 2 with localised replacement in Fabric 3 (Appendix B). In recognition of the unresolved nature of the batter construction, the uncertain portion has been designated as Type 2/Type 3 bond (FIG. 18).

Fabric 3: the south wall of the nave — Type 3 mortar. Little mortar was visible on the elevations of the south wall of the nave during the 1986 survey because many of the joints between the courses of the elevations were obscured by rendering. Survival of the rendering may owe something to the distinctive masonry style seen in the construction of this wall, which is neat, with narrow joints, especially on the upper portions of the elevations. It is this building style, and the fact that it can be traced as far as Joints 2 and 3, which suggests the homogeneity of the fabric, rather than the overwhelming evidence of any bonding agent. Although Type 3 mortar was difficult to detect, its characteristics are quite well known from the large expanse of mortar visible in the corework of the nave doorway-void, and at isolated locations along the elevations of the south wall. Superficially, it is not unlike Type 2 mortar, being dark brown in colour; but it is liberally speckled with white lime fragments, and has a harder, sandier texture. This bond was also observed within Joint 2 at the south-west corner of the nave, proving that Fabric 3 was built later than Fabric 1.

The period of construction of Fabric 3 may, perhaps, be indicated by the architectural forms with which it is associated. Only the lintel-headed window is now *in situ*, but the dismantled south doorway mouldings are complete. Both features are of the post-medieval period (Herbert 1972, 77), although the exact date is arguable. The window is of a form normally associated with domestic, rather than ecclesiastical, structures. Its splayed mullion and jambs are derived stylistically from medieval prototypes, but at a vernacular level this moulding can be found in construction as late as c. 1700 (Brunskill 1978, 126). For the doorway, no similar keystone arches from the west of Gloucestershire have been noted, but closely-datable Cotswold examples suggest that an early 18th century date can be assigned to it. At Sapperton church, reconstructed c. 1710 (Verey 1979, 450), the south porch contains an arch reminiscent of Lancut. Even closer parallels can be found in secular architecture: Alfred's Hall, Cirencester Park, (c. 1721) has a narrow chamfer on the arch and jambs of its northern doorway (Verey 1979, 186) and the same chamfer decorating keystone window surrounds can be seen at Park House, Dollar St, Cirencester, constructed c. 1725 (Verey 1979, 178).

The loss of mortar evidence caused by the removal of the doorway surround, and the difficulty of detecting Type 3 mortar around the window, makes it impossible to prove that these features are contemporary with the reconstruction of the south wall of the nave. There is no conclusive evidence against their contemporaneity, although some localised infilling around the nave doorway mouldings (visible on FIG. 13) raises the possibility that the doorway was inserted later. However, the same effect could as easily be created during construction contemporary with the surrounding elevation, and the significance of the infilling must remain uncertain.

Fabric 4: the chancel — the northern chancel-arch jamb and impost — Type 4 mortar. Type 4 mortar was distinctive and easily recognised, having a matrix of white lime mortar, containing substantial quantities of small grit and gravel inclusions forming an estimated 50% of the mix. This aggregate is not local to the Lancut area, but must have been brought some distance, as was shown during consolidation of the church in 1987–88, when an attempt was made to mix a matching mortar, for no supply of similar gravels could be found locally (pers. comm. Mr. C.R. Graham). The use of Type 4 mortar was widespread, indicating that almost half of the church was of contemporary construction. It is found throughout the chancel, and also extends on to the north jamb of the chancel-arch, which must have been reset. The evidence contained in Joint 4,

and the fragment of underlying masonry on the north wall (see Fabric 2 above) indicates that Fabric 4 amounts to an almost complete reconstruction of the chancel. Dating the chancel is a complex matter, because of the variety of architectural features incorporated within it; these features will now be discussed individually.

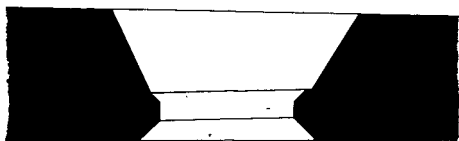
(i) *The northern jamb of the chancel-arch.* At first glance, the northern jamb of the chancel-arch appears identical to its southern counterpart. Both jambs are constructed of Triassic Sandstone, chamfered on their western sides and topped by identical impost-blocks. However, the mortar evidence proves beyond doubt that the northern jamb and impost have been rebuilt, for they are bonded with Type 4 mortar. This presumably explains why the northern jamb is set perpendicular (in contrast to the outward leaning south jamb) and also accounts for the presence on the northern jamb of a stop at the base of the chamfer (which the southern jamb lacks). The rebuilding of the north jamb does not appear to have disturbed the structure of the arch itself, although some stonework above the arch was also rebuilt.

(ii) *The east window of the chancel.* The east window was assigned an early 12th century date by Dobson and Hicks (1936, 217); its semi-circular arch does indeed indicate a Romanesque design, but the slender roll-moulding on the surround suggests that a later 12th or early 13th century dating is more accurate, as Verey (1980, 384) has suggested. Similar windows, with a comparable single roll-moulding on the exterior, are present locally at the base of the tower of St Mary's church, English Bicknor, where Verey (1980, 182) dated the form to the middle of the 13th century. Even so, the window must have been erected much later than this, for its Type 4 bonding was used to construct other features in the chancel (such as the piscina and south doorway) which are certainly later in date. This, no doubt, accounts for a number of characteristics which may be thought unusual for its stylistic period and locality. Firstly, the window is composed of oolitic limestone, in contrast to all other features at St James's which are sandstone. Secondly, the moulding is very sharp and unweathered, both internally and externally. Thirdly, the stones forming the window have very slight, but regular, vertical grooves on them, which offers the possibility that their cutting was machine-aided. When added to the hypothesis advanced below – that the present chancel dates no earlier than the post-medieval period – these factors argue against a Transitional date for the carving of the window. It is possible, however, that it replaced a damaged or weathered original of the same design. Externally, the southern window jamb contains a single, very weathered, Old Red Sandstone block on which the roll moulding only just survives, and a second Old Red Sandstone block is set adjacent. These stones may have formed part of an earlier window, retained for some reason when the present window was constructed.

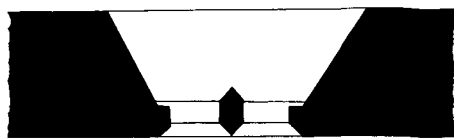
(iii) *The piscina.* The style of this feature is later medieval (Herbert 1972, 77), and no earlier than the 14th century. Like the east window and northern chancel-arch jamb, it is set with Type 4 mortar. The piscina provides a secure *terminus post quem* for the construction of the Type 4 mortar-bonded chancel; yet, as will be suggested below, it is probable that the chancel is post-medieval in date, and that the piscina was formerly incorporated within an earlier chancel, being reset in the present one.

(iv) *The south doorway.* The remaining portions of the doorway, and recent finds of an archstone and more jambstones, demonstrate that the jambs and external arch-head had a broad cavetto moulding. This, in conjunction with the simple square-sectioned projecting door stop, dates the doorway to the later medieval period; it may be considered as broadly contemporary with the

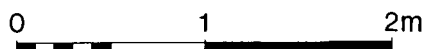
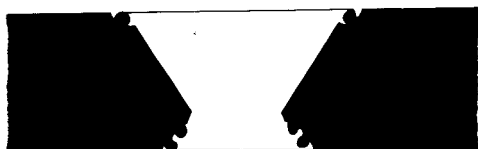
Nave – south window



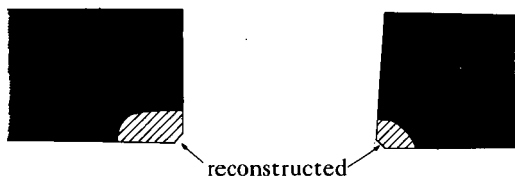
Chancel – south window



Chancel – east window



Nave – doorway



Chancel – doorway



FIG. 19 St James's church; window and doorway mouldings.

piscina, and the same comment regarding its incorporation in an earlier chancel applies. There can be no doubt concerning its present bonding with Type 4 mortar.

(v) *The south window.* The window in the south wall of the chancel belongs to Fabric 5, but is discussed here because of the period of construction which it suggests for Fabric 4. The window is nearly identical with the southern window in the nave, and its splayed mouldings are again indicative of a design current as late as *c.* 1700 (Brunskill 1978, 126). The window probably fell with the nearby doorway and, being reset with Type 5 mortar, the evidence for its original bond has been lost. There can, however, be little doubt but that it was originally constructed using Type 4 mortar: not only does the window sit neatly in the Type 4 bonded fabric which surrounds it, but Type 4 mortar was used to bond its surviving rere-arch, which bears close comparison with the post-medieval rere-arch above the south window in the nave. Therefore, the

post-medieval window in the chancel probably provides a *terminus post quem* for the construction of Fabric 4, even though much of the evidence for this is now lacking.

Fabric 5: repairs to the south window of the chancel-wall cappings of sand and cement-repointing in the chancel — mortar Types 5 and 7. A cursory glance at the south window discussed immediately above indicates that it has been repaired: the setting is crude and the holes on the reveals which formerly supported glazing bars no longer correspond in height. The window was reset using two types of mortar. The main bonding agent was Type 5 mortar, an off-white lime mortar with inclusions of charcoal flecks and red brick dust. In addition to this, a small amount of a sand and cement mix (Type 7 mortar) was present. These bonds were observed in various locations over the fabric of St James's church, and there is reason to believe that both were applied during a single phase of repair and consolidation which took place some time after the roof of the church was removed c. 1865. With the exception of the sand and cement cappings over all of the wall-tops, these repairs were mainly restricted to the chancel. The only indication of a repair to an elevation of the nave was the presence of a thick band of mortar infilling a prominent vertical crack in the middle of the west wall. This infill was almost identical to Type 5 mortar, but lacked brick dust. In contrast, repairs in the chancel were extensive. Above the reset mouldings of the south window, a substantial portion of the wall was reconstructed, the rubble courses being bonded with Type 5 mortar. This portion of rebuilt wall was of some interest, for on the internal elevation, a slab with 'dog-tooth' decoration (FIG. 25) was incorporated. Elsewhere, construction using Type 5 mortar took place above the chancel-arch, above which lay a capping of sand and cement. The capping must have been laid after the gable above the chancel-arch was demolished, and the demolition of the gable may also have formed part of the repair programme. Further use of these mortars in association with each other was observed on the east-facing elevation of the chancel-arch, where both were used to repoint the joints between the arch voussoirs. There, a blob of Type 5 mortar was seen adhering over a sand and cement filled joint, providing a reversed sequence of mortar usage. The application of Type 5 bond by itself as a repointing mortar was also widespread on all the elevations of the chancel.

What prompted such a programme of consolidation is uncertain, but the possibility that structural instability caused the dismantling of the church in 1865 can be considered, and if this was so, a consolidation programme undertaken soon after, to make safe the ruins, might be envisaged. However, there is no evidence for the date of the collapse of the south window, nor of the consolidation; all that is certain is that both events had occurred before the 1930s, by which date the wall tops had received their sand and cement cappings (Dobson and Hicks 1936, plates).

Fabric 6: the repair of the north wall of the chancel — Type 6 mortar. Fabric 6 is situated in the position formerly occupied by an aumbry on the north wall of the chancel, visible internally and externally as an U-shaped infilling of a portion of Fabric 4 which suffered collapse. The following details surrounding the reconstruction were supplied in 1986 by Mr C. Godwin and Mr C. Burder, both of Lancaut, the former having undertaken the work at the instigation of the latter.

Mr Burder dates the collapse of the aumbry to c. 1965 and remembered that the resulting gap was at first small, but was widened over the years by sheep until it was some 2 m wide and had extended slightly below the level of the base of the aumbry. About 1970, the collapsed area was repaired by Mr Godwin, who used the fallen rubble, but the aumbry was not restored and all trace of it is lost. Mr Godwin's repair was bonded with Type 6 mortar, which contained no lime, but was instead composed of 'ashes mixed with a little cement'. The bond is very soft, but so far has hardly weathered.

Consolidation of the church, 1987–88. To conclude this survey of the fabrics, mention should also be made of the most recent programme of repair and consolidation, undertaken by the Gloucestershire Heritage Trust and carried out by C.R. Graham, building contractor, Coleford, in 1987 and 1988. The work followed specifications drawn up by English Heritage, and included some dismantling and subsequent reinstatement of the upper portions of some walls where tree roots had to be removed from the masonry core. Extensive repointing of the elevations during consolidation now obscures much of the mortar evidence visible in 1986. Missing mouldings from the nave and chancel doorways were also found lying in a heap of rubble outside the churchyard during the consolidation programme. The nave doorway surround is complete, and plans to restore this and other fallen features are being considered.

A discussion of the structural development of the church

Excluding 19th–20th century repair work, four major phases of masonry construction can be postulated (FIG. 20). This may not represent the full building sequence, since it is possible that evidence for other builds may survive below ground.

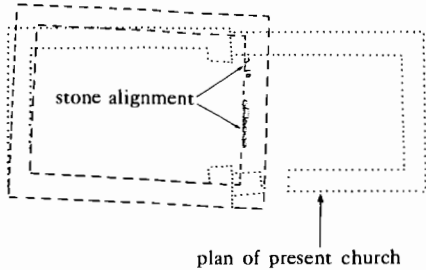
PHASE I

Evidence for a church in existence by the mid-12th century

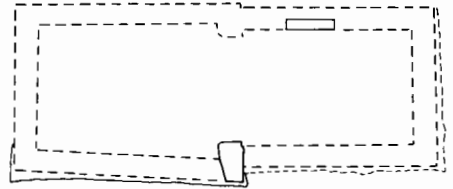
The Lancaut font, of *c.* 1130–1140 (Zarnecki *et al* 1984, 247) provides a firm basis for assuming that Lancaut church was in existence before 1140. Supporting evidence is also provided by two, broadly contemporary, decorated stones which belong also to the early part of the Romanesque period (FIGS. 23 and 24). As none of the above-ground fabric can be assigned to a date before the latter part of the 12th century at the very earliest, the Phase I church must have been entirely removed in subsequent phases of construction. It is possible, nevertheless, that traces of it may survive in anomalous alignments of plan: the most obvious concerns the south wall of the nave, which deviates some 5 degrees out of alignment, effectively narrowing the nave at its west end. By itself, this may not appear significant, for the south front of the church lies close to the edge of the terrace on which the church was constructed, and the alignment could be attributed to a lack of space in which to build. However, the anomaly takes on an added significance when the alignment of a second feature is considered. This consists simply of a line of stones, exposed by clearance of rubble and vegetation in 1986, which runs approximately north–south across the chancel, just east of the chancel-arch (FIG. 18), and for some time thought to represent a step up into the chancel (FIG. 17). It is incomplete but, if projected, would join with the south-east corner of the nave and form a right angle with the deviating south wall. It is possible, therefore, that the stones are the vestigial remains of a wall reduced to foundation level, and if so, the anomalous alignments may indicate that the orientation of the church had altered by the late 12th or early 13th century, when the walls of the chancel appear to have been on their present alignments. For the Phase I church, FIG. 20 suggests a rectangular chancel-less structure, with the alignment of stones in the chancel interpreted as its east wall. It is admitted that there is scant evidence for the plan, and the interpretation cannot be proved to any degree. Even if correct, the present south wall of the nave can only have been rebuilt on earlier foundations: there can be no doubt that its construction dates to the latter part of the 12th century at the earliest for, as we have seen, at its eastern end the masonry is clearly bonded with Type 2 mortar, which also bonds the chancel-arch of the Phase 2 (Transitional) church.

ST. JAMES LANCAUT : DEVELOPMENT

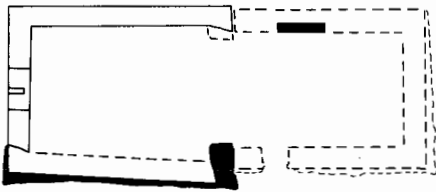
1 Before 1140



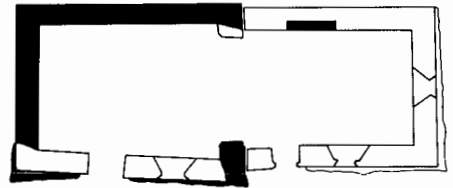
2 Late 12th/Early 13th. century



3 Late medieval?

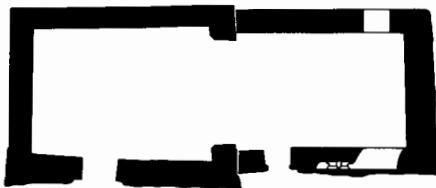


4 Post-medieval



0 5 10m

5 19th/20th century repairs

Key

■ Retained from previous phase

□ New at this phase

--- Hypothetical

FIG. 20 St James's church; development of structure.

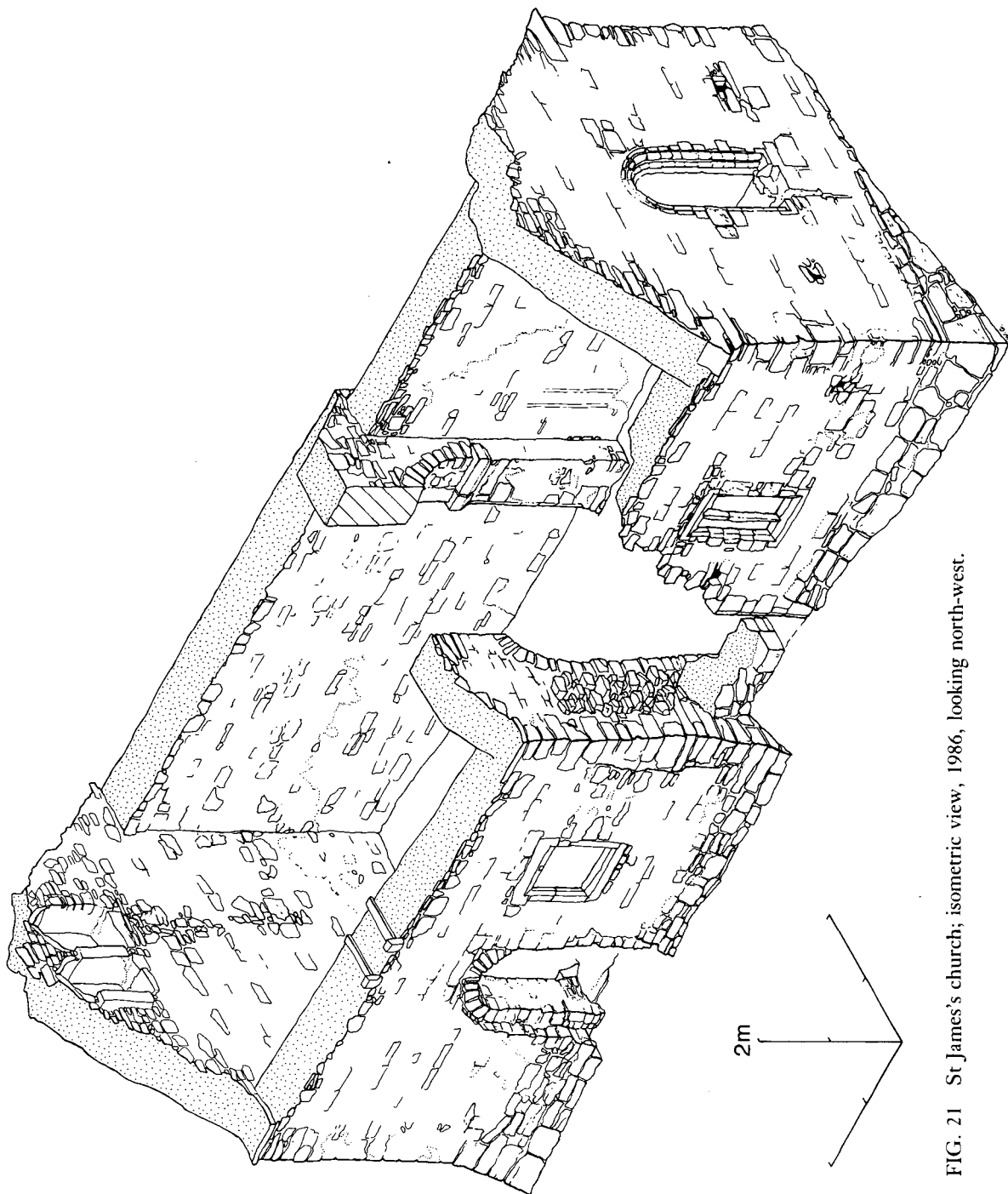


FIG. 21 St. James's church; isometric view, 1886, looking north-west.

If constructed in stone, demolished portions of the Phase 1 church would, perhaps, have been utilised during subsequent reconstructions. There is a slight suspicion that the impost stones of the chancel-arch are re-used Phase 1 elements, as their square form and simple chamfer might be considered more appropriate for early, rather than late, 12th century settings. The jambs and imposts of the chancel-arch are composed of Triassic Sandstone. At Chepstow castle, this stone was used for the initial construction of the hall-keep *c.* 1067–1075 (Knight 1986, 32) and it has been argued that this was the only occasion of their transportation (from their source at Sudbrook, Gwent) to the castle, although blocks were robbed and re-used in later construction phases (North 1967, 40). The circumstances governing the introduction of this material to Lancaut can never be known, but in view of the expense of quarrying and transportation, it can be argued that it was connected with the Chepstow building phase of the second half of the 11th century. Alternatively, the stones may be waste blocks from the remodelling of the hall-keep during the first half of the 13th century (Knight 1986, 34), which would agree with the Transitional setting of the jambs and imposts. In addition, the simple impost form used in association with a Transitional chancel-arch should not, perhaps, be considered highly unusual, for a Gloucestershire parallel at the parish church of Ampney St Peter (Verey 1979, 89) can be cited as another example.

To sum up, there is reason to believe in the existence of a church dating before the 1140s. The artifacts described above indicate that it was not without decoration, and as Wood (1936, 209) suggested, may well have been constructed by one of the early lords of Striguil, although his foundation date of 1120 has nothing to support it. The precise date of the foundation of the Phase 1 church must be left open to question, particularly since the font and the decorated stones may have been installed into a pre-existing structure.

PHASE 2

The late 12th/early 13th century church (Fabric 2)

The absence of surviving structural evidence for a Phase 1 church is possibly due to a large scale reconstruction programme during Phase 2, with the new fabric incorporating Transitional style architectural mouldings. This involved the erection of a new chancel and chancel-arch, and included some construction, of unknown extent, in the nave.

Almost nothing of this fabric, however, has escaped the effects of subsequent refurbishment, for only the chancel-arch, a portion of the battered wall at the foot of the south wall of the nave, and a stub of wall in the chancel, survive. Nevertheless, the Transitional form of the church appears to have been substantially retained. Not only are the present north and south walls of the chancel on their Transitional alignments, but the battered plinth at the foot of the chancel is also derived from the Transitional design. In addition, the east window in the chancel may be a post-medieval copy of a window constructed during this period.

Beyond this, little more can be positively said about the Phase 2 church, and much remains uncertain. The east wall of the chancel may, or may not, reflect the precise limits of the Transitional plan; an entire reconstruction of the nave at this date may have occurred, but construction involving only the south wall can be proved.

The Transitional structure may have had some decoration. The slab carved with dog-tooth motif (FIG. 25) probably belonged to it, as may the design of the east window of the chancel. However, the composite chancel-arch, with simple chamfer on the western side only, must have presented a decidedly plain and rustic appearance.

The Transitional design does not allow a very precise date to be assigned to this phase of construction. However, the chancel-arch (which, it should be emphasised, is the only *in situ* Transitional feature) might suggest a date for Fabric 2 well into the first half of the 13th century, a period in which, as we have seen (p. 91), there is a probability that Triassic Sandstone was transported to Lancaut during the remodelling of the hall-keep at Chepstow castle, dated by Knight (1986, 8, 34) to the period 1219–1245. In addition, this is an appropriate period for the design of the east window of the chancel, though this would seem best interpreted as a faithful reproduction of an original.

Thus, the available evidence suggests that an extensive and perhaps total reconstruction of the church was undertaken during the first half of the 13th century, or perhaps slightly earlier. The scale of the work accords with what is known of the tendency of the clergy to extend and enrich their churches during the first half of the 13th century (Verrey 1980, 22); this motive, rather than any structural decay of the Phase 1 church, may account for the Phase 2 construction programme.

PHASE 3

Late medieval construction? (Fabrics 1 and 7)

In the chancel, the south doorway and piscina are stylistically late medieval in date. Unless a late medieval reconstruction of the chancel is postulated (and for this there is no evidence) it must be assumed that these features originated as insertions into the Transitional period chancel, being reset (perhaps in the positions which they formerly occupied) when this was reconstructed during the post-medieval period.

Thus, the piscina and chancel doorway provide evidence for at least minor alterations to the church in the 14th–15th centuries, which period may also have seen the reconstruction of the north and west walls of the nave (Fabric 1). Evidence for the construction date of this fabric is scanty, but a case for it post-dating the Transitional period church has been made (p. 83), and it is difficult to envisage Fabric 1 in existence before c. 1250. In view of the fact that structural-joint evidence indicates that Fabric 1 pre-dates the post-medieval Fabrics 3 and 4, a late medieval construction date may be considered as a possibility. In addition, Fabric 1 lies under Fabric 7 (the nave gable) for which a late medieval period of construction has been very tentatively conjectured. However, it must be admitted that the evidence is far from conclusive; indeed, it is conceivable that Fabrics 1 and 7 could date as early as the 12th century, or as late as the post-medieval period, for there is no structural information to supply a date within this timespan.

PHASE 4

Post-medieval reconstructions (Fabrics 3 and 4)

Discussion of this part of the sequence is hampered by the lack of contextual evidence for the post-medieval architectural features; there can be no certainty that these were integrally constructed with Fabrics 3 and 4, but neither is there evidence for later insertion.

The evidence relating to Fabrics 3 and 4 may be quickly summarised. The Ormerod drawings prove that they were *in situ* c. 1840, and the structural defects then visible on the east window imply that the chancel, at least, was not then of recent construction. Fabrics 3 and 4 contain window forms which could be dated to any time within the period 1500–1700, but the nave

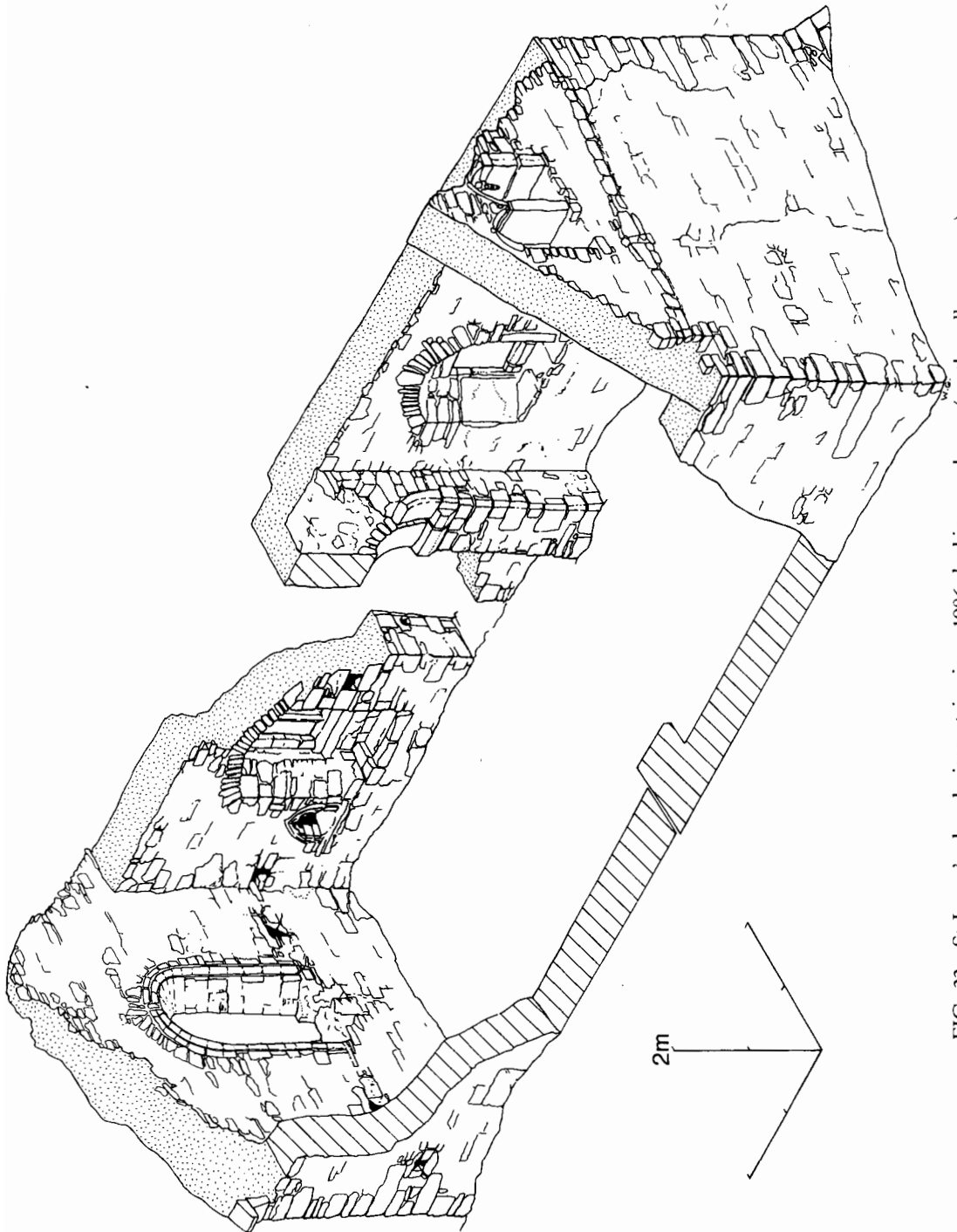


FIG. 22 St James's church; isometric view, 1986, looking south-east (north wall cut away).

doorway would suggest a slightly later date of *c.* 1720 for Fabric 3. The similarity of the window-forms suggests that construction of Fabrics 3 and 4 was not separated by a lengthy period of time, although their mortars imply that they were not exactly contemporary. The plaster keystone visible on the east window of the chancel (*Ormerod* [10]), which perhaps imitated the real keystone of the nave doorway, suggests that Fabric 4 is earlier in date than Fabric 3, although this is hardly conclusive.

On the evidence, such as it is, Fabrics 3 and 4 can be tentatively assigned to the decades around 1700. It may also be of relevance to note that in 1711 the parish of Lancaut was joined with the larger parish of Woolaston, and it is possible that construction was undertaken then, or soon afterwards. There is an interesting difference between Fabrics 3 and 4, but whether it is significant or not is uncertain. Reconstruction in the nave incorporated architectural features of modern date only: in contrast, the chancel incorporated not only modern features, but also mouldings of earlier date or inspiration. The north jamb of the chancel-arch, the piscina, and the south doorway all certainly derive from an earlier chancel, and the east window, if not a direct copy of a Transitional predecessor, is a deliberate archaism for its construction period. In this context, it is of some interest that another church reconstruction involving the resetting of Romanesque mouldings occurred in 1706, only two miles downstream from Lancaut at the parish church of St Mary, Chepstow, following the collapse of the west tower in 1700 (*Soden* 1984, 110). From this we might infer that structural decay provides the most likely reason behind the post-medieval reconstructions at Lancaut, and the possibility also arises that the reincorporation of earlier features followed the example set by Chepstow, although economy may have been the prime or only consideration.

Although Fabrics 3 and 4 represent the last major structural alterations to the church, it can be presumed that fixtures and fittings continued to be added after these were in place. Additions of plaster keystones to the chancel-arch and east window, and the insertions of box pews and a pulpit in the nave, gave the interior of the church an essentially late 17th–18th century aspect when it was drawn *c.* 1840 (FIG. 4). These features may be early, for in 1738 the church had not even a bible or a surplice, and from 1750 (if not previously) services were very infrequent (*Herbert* 1972, 77).

Conclusion

In the earliest account of the structure of St James's church, George Ormerod (1842, 20) remarked:

‘The diminutive and almost disused church of Llancaut [*sic*] . . . possesses nothing of a decidedly architectural character, excepting one small round-headed window at the east end. . .’

The description remains apt. There is little to suggest that a monumental architecture was ever aspired to, and the vernacular construction so evident in the present form of the church probably reflects the seclusion and small size of the parish which it once served. It is likely that throughout the period of the church's use, only meagre financial resources were available for structural additions and repairs which, when absolutely necessary, would have been undertaken by local masons conversant only with traditions of domestic construction: the two-light opening in the nave gable remains of uncertain date and function because it would appear to represent an example of a local mason's response to an ecclesiastical requirement. Some aspects of the structural history of the church may be better understood after a more exhaustive study of local vernacular styles has been made.

Given that uncertainties and interpretational difficulties are inherent in any structural survey unsupported by contemporary documentation, how far may it be judged that the development outlined above gives a true picture of the sequence of construction? In one sense the question is unanswerable, as the account can be assessed only against the limited range of evidence set out above. It can be stated, however, that the majority, if not all, of the fabrics forming the church have been isolated and described, even if uncertainties over dating remain. Further research, unimpeded by plaster rendering adhering over the elevations, and aided by evidence gained by archaeological excavation, would, no doubt, extend our understanding of the fabrics and clarify some of the interpretations above.

Prime targets for future research are the earliest structural phases, and especially the nature and extent of the postulated early 12th century church. In addition, with a better understanding of the battered plinth on which the south wall of the nave stands, several problems associated with this wall may be resolved: presently, the reason for its alignment, and its relation to the Transitional and post-medieval church, are by no means clear. Similarly, the north and west walls of the nave (Fabrics 1 and 7) need further clarification, because the late medieval date of construction suggested above is at best a guess. Yet, despite these qualifying statements, it may be asserted that the first sure steps in understanding the structural development of the church have been taken. In particular, the identification of the chancel as late medieval at the earliest, but more probably a post-medieval build, represents an advance, for all previous accounts have identified this as 12th or 13th century work. In addition, the Transitional origin for the present plan of the building has been firmly established, and the extent of subsequent reconstructions detected.

APPENDIX A: Decorated stone

The following decorated stones were found during the survey of 1986 and the consolidation programme of 1987–88. Stones 1–3 have been removed from site since their discovery, and their future curation is yet to be decided; Stone 4 remains in its findspot at the time of writing.

1. FIG. 23 211 mm × 257 mm (decorated face), depth 61 mm. Oolitic (Crease?) limestone
 Found re-used as a facing stone on the external north wall of the nave when a portion of this was dismantled before reinstatement during the consolidation programme of 1987–1988. The stone is broken and damaged but appears to represent the corner of a panel decorated in low relief up to 9 mm deep. The reverse of the stone is shaped roughly flat but is not smooth. The intact edges are smooth. Three bands of decoration form a border. The outer band consists of a plain undecorated area, between 51 mm and 79 mm broad. The middle band is between 30 mm and 36 mm broad, and contains interwoven strands with a shallow, incised groove. The innermost band is a 10 mm wide bead moulding. The decoration enclosed within the border is not interpretable with certainty, for two interpretations of it are possible. Adjacent to the broken edge of the slab is an eye-like motif, possibly indicating that a (?human) face was the intended representation. If an eye, the design above could be interpreted as some form of headgear, possibly a crown or a helmet; alternatively, the 'headgear' might be viewed as an animal, possibly a lamb or sheep, with its body shown in profile and its head viewed as if from above. The interpretation is inferred from delicately moulded 'ears' projecting either side of the head of the animal, and striations (above the eye-like motif) which may represent a fleece hanging underneath the body of the animal. This piece requires further study in the light of comparative material.

2. FIG. 24 321 mm × 116 mm (decorated face) × 152 mm. Oolitic (Crease?) limestone
 Found lying loose amongst rubble in the south-east corner of the chancel when the church was cleared at the commencement of the survey in 1986. One face only has decoration consisting of four arcs, three of which run in the same direction. The fourth, running in an opposing direction, overlies two of the others. The relief is a maximum of 7 mm deep. The reverse side of the stone is smooth and flat. The other edges are



FIG. 23 St James's church; decorated stone no. 1. Photographed by S. Dorey for Gloucestershire County Council.



FIG. 24 St James's church; decorated stone no. 2. Photographed by S. Dorey for Gloucestershire County Council.

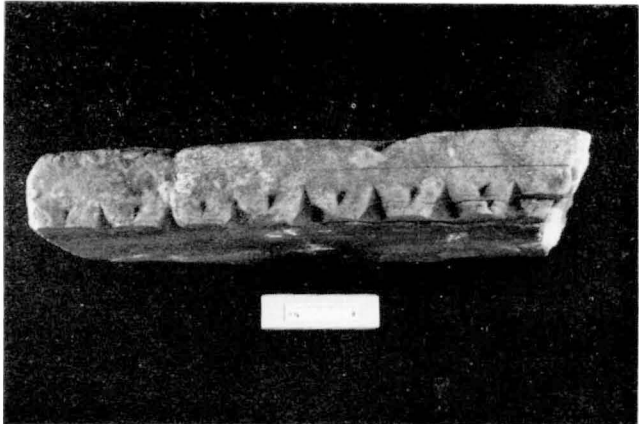


FIG. 25 St James's church; decorated stone no. 3. Photographed by S. Dorey for Gloucestershire County Council.

rough and pitted. Below the decoration is a slight rebate, but it is impossible to determine whether this reflects the shape of the stone as it was originally cut, or whether it is due to re-use of the stone.

3. FIG. 25 570 mm × 71 mm (decorated face) × 212 mm. Old Red Sandstone

Found incorporated within 19th–20th century repair masonry above the south window of the chancel during the survey of 1986. The stone had been reset with the decoration visible. Removed 1987–88 during the demolition and reconstruction of the masonry above the window, which was unstable. The broad face at right-angles to the decoration has laminated badly; removal of the stone in 1987–88 resulted in the loss of *c.* 5 mm from the top of the decoration. The stone is carved with dog-tooth motif. This is formed of seven, or perhaps eight elements, very regularly spaced with adjacent bases exactly 60 mm across (only one is not). A jagged edge shows where the stone has been broken in the past, and the design presumably continued. The opposing edge is intact.

4. FIG. 26 400 mm × 270 mm (decorated face) × 60 mm (minimum). Sandstone (type unknown)

The stone was discovered and recorded during the survey of 1986 when it was found set into the top of a raised masonry bench running along the interior south-west corner of the nave. It remains *in situ*, but is no longer securely bonded. The stone is broken and only one straight edge is intact. The decoration consists of intersecting arcs in low relief *c.* 3 mm deep.

Discussion

On the basis of its style of execution, Stone 1 can be dated to the late 11th or early 12th centuries. In this period, similarly carved designs in shallow, flat relief had a wide distribution in England, where the style

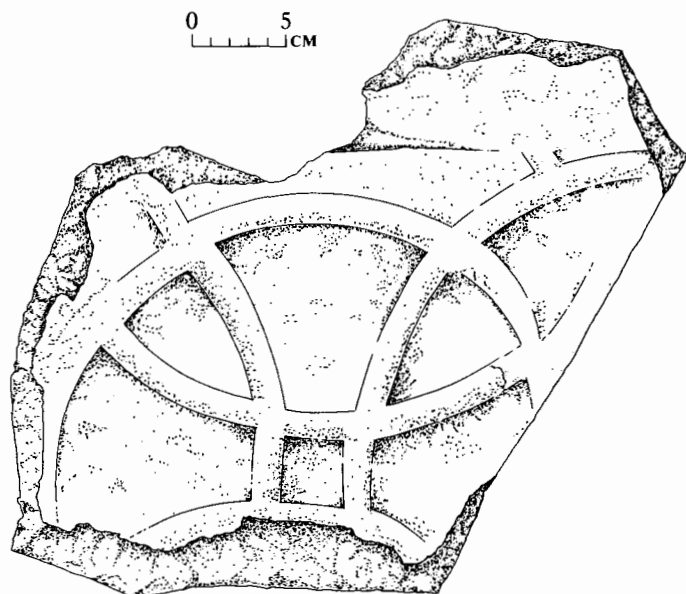


FIG. 26 St James's church: decorated stone no. 4.

appears to have had its origins in pre-conquest sculpture (Zarnecki 1951). In the west of Gloucestershire and neighbouring counties of the Welsh Marches, sculpture in the shallow relief style would appear to pre-date the emergence of the 'Dymock' style of sculpture *c.* 1120, although examples appear to have been produced for some decades after this (Gethyn-Jones 1979).

Because of its ambiguous iconography, precise parallels for the decoration of Stone 1 cannot be cited with any confidence, but both interpretations (p. 95) are possible given that the suggested interpretations of the motifs fall within the range of those depicted during the early Romanesque (see Zarnecki 1951).

The function of Stone 1 is uncertain, but a clue to its former use may be given by the obtuse angle forming its corner. Such an angle can be seen on a number of mouldings utilised during the Romanesque: small carved window heads (Gethyn-Jones 1979, plate 44), and stones forming rarely surviving examples of canted doorheads (Alford 1984, 2) sometimes have this shape, but it is also commonly encountered on coffin-lids of the period. The sizes of contemporary examples (cf Zarnecki *et al* 1984, 184) suggest that if it were a coffin-lid, approximately half the width of the Stone 1 has been lost. However, in view of the fragmentary nature of the stone, its function cannot be determined with certainty, and must remain open to question. Similarly, the date and function of Stone 2 are not determinable with any degree of certainty, although its intersecting decoration is reminiscent of the arcading often seen in Romanesque work.

Stones 1 and 2 have an identical geological origin, and can be identified, tentatively, as examples of Carboniferous Limestone from Crease Limestone strata near to the church, as this has a hard, oolitic composition (Welch and Trotter 1961, 78–79). No other examples of this stone have been found at the church.

Stone 3 presents a slightly better opportunity for interpretation, for dog-tooth is a common late Romanesque-Transitional motif. The stone probably formed part of the Phase 2 church, of which the chancel-arch is the sole survivor. Like the western side of the arch, Stone 3 is composed of Old Red Sandstone. Its original location can only be guessed, but the stone may perhaps have functioned as part of a window or doorway surround.

The decoration on Stone 4 is comparable to the intersecting arcs forming a cross-head on a coffin-lid dating to the early 14th century found at Valle Crucis Abbey (Gresham 1968, fig. 47, 70); Stone 4 may also have functioned as a coffin-lid.

APPENDIX B: Chemical analysis of Types 2, 3, and 2/3 mortars

By J. Evans and C. Parry.

Introduction (C. Parry)

Problems relating to the differentiation of areas of the fabric bonded with Type 2 and Type 3 mortars have been discussed briefly in the descriptions of these mortars above. The similarity of the mortar types, and the difficulty of observing the bond of most of the battered wall footing at the base of the south wall of the nave, have led to the bond of the majority of the footing being left open to question (FIG. 18).

To progress further with the discussion of the wall footing, an objective analysis of mortar Types 2 and 3 was sought, to discover, firstly, whether the perceived differences noted during field observation were justified, and secondly, whether further evidence for the bond of the wall-footing could be found. Ten mortar samples were, therefore, submitted to Mr J. Evans (Environmental Division, Polytechnic of East London) for chemical analysis. Three samples (164, 150, 108) were from presumed Type 2 mortar locations; four samples (109, 116, 122, and 146) were from presumed Type 3 mortar locations; three further samples (110, 115, and 119) from the battered plinth at the foot of the south wall of the nave, were of questionable Type 2/3 character. A description of the location of each sample is given on Table IV.

The samples submitted for analysis were selected from a total of 87 samples (numbered in a sequence 101–187) removed from the elevations of the church in April 1987. Wherever possible, samples were taken from deep within unweathered joints, after any obscuring rendering had been removed. All mortar types located by the 1986 survey were sampled, and the 77 samples not sent for analysis form part of the survey archive.

In the case of samples of Type 2, 3, and 2/3 bond, it should be noted that recognition of mortar type prior to removal was not always possible. Samples from exposed corework were distinguishable as types prior to removal, but these could not be differentiated with any certainty from each other, or from other samples, in their granular, post-removal state. In most cases, therefore, the mortar type number ascribed to the majority of samples submitted for analysis was presumptive, and based upon the location from which each was removed.

Analysis (J. Evans)

Chemical analysis of mortars, concretes, and plasters does not give absolute dating evidence. With the possible exception of mortars used in Roman military construction, no period can be diagnosed on the recipe of the mix alone. The gravel: sand: lime ratios employed for various building tasks in the past were much the same as those used today.

Chemical analysis can provide two sorts of information. Firstly, it can provide the weight of acid insoluble aggregate, and secondly, the approximate amount of lime used in the original mixture. Additional information may be obtained from sieving the insoluble aggregate: particle size distribution can be diagnostic, and may also help in recognising geological sources of aggregate. Visual examination of the samples before and after analysis may provide information about the preparative practices of the builder – whether the sand was sieved or washed, for example. Microscopic examination of the sieved material may give useful data, as it is possible to assess the shape of the quartz grains and the quantity of non-quartz inclusions. In assessing the results of any mortar analysis, it is necessary to assume that the mixing processes prior to building were reasonably homogeneous, when in practice this may not have been the case.

Method of study

Ten samples were submitted for analysis. All were in sound condition and showed little sign of loss of calcium salts by leaching processes. All of the samples contained small quantities (up to 5% of visual area) of up to 2 mm white, well rounded fragments. These were, most probably, recarbonated lime fragments. No sample contained any shell, but most contained the odd fragment of charcoal. The colours of the mortar samples ranged from dark red-brown to a greyish brown.

The samples were initially dried at 110 C to a constant weight. Approximately 50g of dried material was treated with 4M hydrochloric acid to remove acid soluble material (mainly calcium carbonate) thus reducing the sample to its insoluble aggregate. This aggregate was filtered off, thoroughly washed, and dried to a constant weight. It was then passed through a series of standard sieves and the retained quantities were noted. In order to facilitate inter-sample comparison, the raw data were converted into percentages of total aggregate. All analyses were carried out in duplicate with the exceptions of samples 110 and 146, where too little material was available. Where duplicate analyses were carried out, the mean values were used for comparison.

Conclusions

Examination of the coarser aggregates (i.e. particles more than 2 mm in size) showed them to consist of fragments of a coarse red sandstone. All showed angular fractures suggestive of relatively recent breakage, and were thus probably fragments obtained from larger pieces of parent sandstone. The finer aggregates were composed of sub-angular quartz and a fine purplish-red powder. Sample 122 exhibited a pronounced grey bias that was caused by the presence of substantial amounts of powdered charcoal. All samples contained relatively high percentages of finest sand (i.e. less than 0.13 mm) fraction. Such percentages would normally make the mortar/concrete ineffective in load-bearing situations. In addition, samples 109, 116, 122, and 146 exhibited high percentages of calcium carbonate (i.e. lime in the original mix) which would normally be associated with mortars used for plastering or other decorative treatment.

Aggregate size analysis (FIG. 27), the ratios of sand employed in the mix of the samples, and varying levels of calcium carbonate (Table IV) suggested that two mortar groups, designated A and B, were present.

Table IV

<i>Sample no.</i>	<i>Presumed mortar type</i>	<i>Location of sample</i>	<i>Approximate mix Gravel : Sand : Lime</i>	<i>X = High calcium carbonate level</i>	<i>Mortar Group</i>
164	2	Chancel-arch: southern abutment; corework of east facing elevation (revealed by collapse of south wall of chancel).	0.2 : 2.3 : 1	-	A
150	2	Chancel-arch: base of south jamb.	0.1 : 2.4 : 1	-	A
118	2	Nave south wall: external elevation; east of Structural Joint 3, 0.6 m above the top of the battered wall footing.	0.2 : 2.3 : 1	-	A
110	2/3	Nave west wall: external elevation; quoins at south-west corner of nave, 0.3 m below the top of the battered wall footing.	0.1 : 2.3 : 1	-	A
115	2/3	Nave south wall: external elevation; corework revealed by the removal of the doorway surround, 0.2 m below the top of the battered wall footing, directly below sample 116.	0.5 : 2.1 : 1	-	A
119	2/3	Nave south wall: external elevation; 0.7 m west of Structural Joint 3, 0.6 m below the top of the battered wall footing.	0.1 : 1.4 : 1	-	B
109	3	Nave west wall: external elevation; quoins at south-west corner of nave, 2.4 m above the top of the battered wall footing.	0.1 : 1.4 : 1	X	B
116	3	Nave south wall: external elevation; corework revealed by the removal of the doorway surround, 0.5 m above the top of the battered wall footing, directly above sample 115.	0 : 1.4 : 1	X	B
122	3	Nave south wall: external elevation; 0.9 m west of doorway at mid-height of elevation.	0.7 : 1.0 : 1	X	B
146	3	Nave south wall: internal elevation; location similar to sample 122.	0.1 : 1.4 : 1	X	B

sand fractions : particle-size distribution

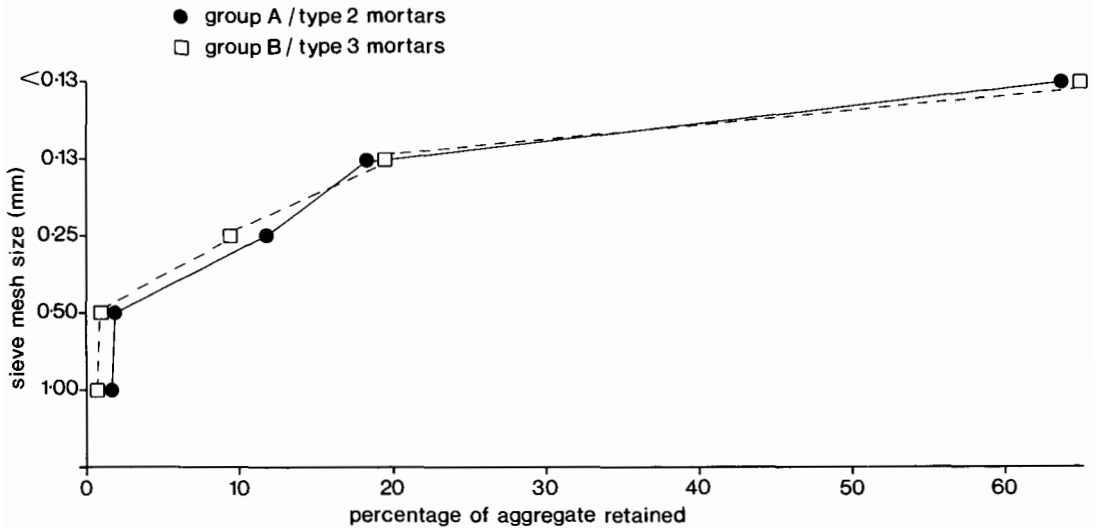


FIG. 27 St James's church; mortar analysis.
 Sand fractions, particle size distribution of mortar groups A and B.

However, the close similarity of aggregate sizes present in each group suggests that the mortars were related in use, and may be indicative of two, broadly contemporary, phases of construction.

Discussion (C. Parry)

If the results of the aggregate size analysis (FIG. 27) are considered in isolation, the conclusion that two mortars are present on the south wall of the nave would appear to be untenable. However, the consistently differing ratios of sand found in the group A and group B mortars, and the high levels of calcium carbonate detected in the group B mortars (Table IV) indicate variations which appear significant when set against the structural evidence relating to the area in question. Most importantly, the mortar typology detected by field observation was confirmed by the analysis: Type 2 mortars fell entirely into group A, Type 3 mortars into group B. Bearing in mind that these mortars were located in areas of the fabric separated by Structural Joint 3, it can be suggested that any similarity is coincidental, and can be explained by chronologically distinct constructions utilising a common source of aggregate. The structural and mortar analysis evidence do not correlate precisely, however, for the analysis differentiated mortar samples obtained from corework of the nave doorway void (115 = Group A; 116 = Group B), whereas no separation of mortar type was detected there during the structural survey, when only Type 3 mortar was identified. This finding is perturbing, as it suggests one instance where a mortar was incorrectly diagnosed during the survey. The comparatively greater weathering present in the lower portion of the doorway-surround may explain the matter.

Turning to the question of the bonding of the battered wall footing, the analysis was not decisive. Although two samples from batter locations (110 and 115) were found to correspond to Type 2 mortars of group A, the third batter sample (119) corresponded with the Type 3 mortars of group B. It may be relevant to note that sample 119 lacked the high proportion of calcium carbonate detected in the other group B samples, but the ratio of sand employed in the mix of 119 leaves little room for doubt that it belongs with the group B mortars. An impression that some of the wall batter is bonded with Type 2 mortar has been gained, therefore, but sample 119 would suggest that in places the batter has been reconstructed. The small number of samples submitted for analysis prevents firm definition of the precise limits of the fabrics along the batter, and the bond of this must remain open to question.

Acknowledgements

The writer would like to thank: Marjorie Imlah for administering the Crickley Hill Trust's survey team in 1986–87, and the staff of Gloucestershire County Record Office and Gloucester Library for their help with documentary sources. I am grateful to the following in connection with the illustrations: Mr P.J. Ormerod, for permission to reproduce FIGS. 2, 4, 5, and 6; Mrs P. Johnson, for permission to reproduce FIG. 3; B. T. Batsford Ltd, for permission to reproduce FIG. 8. The line illustrations were drawn by several hands: Samuel Linwood, Joanne Vallender, and Briony Walker drew the church elevations (FIGS. 15, 16, and 17). Wynne Greenhalgh drew the isometric views (FIGS. 21 and 22) and FIG. 26. All the other illustrations were drawn by John Hoyle. Richard Bryant and Michael Hare discussed aspects of the structural sequence. Jan Wills (County Archaeological Officer) offered encouragement throughout the duration of the project. The writer alone is responsible for any errors.

Abbreviations

- Glos R.O.: Gloucestershire Record Office.
 G.L.: Gloucester Library, Gloucestershire Collection.
Johnson: Sketches privately owned by Mrs P. Johnson, Chepstow.
Ormerod: Sketches privately owned by Mr P.J. Ormerod, Maidstone, Formerly curated by:
 Gloucestershire Record Office (Glos R.O. D726/1 drawing nos 8–14, 19–21)
 RCHM: Royal Commission on Historical Monuments (England).

Bibliography

- Addyman, P.V. & Morris, R.K. 1976. *The archaeological study of churches*. CBA res. rep. 13.
 Alford, S. 1984. Romanesque architectural sculpture of Dorset: a selective catalogue and commentary. *Proc Dorset Natur. Hist. Archaeol. Soc.* 106, 1–22.
 Baring-Gould, S. & Fisher, J. 1907–1913. *The lives of the British saints*. 4 volumes. London.
 Bliss, M. and Sharpe, F. 1986. *Church bells of Gloucestershire*. Alan Sutton.
 Brunskill, R.W. 1978. *Illustrated handbook of vernacular architecture*. 2nd edition. London.
 Davies, W. 1978. *An early Welsh microcosm: studies in the Llandaff Charters*. London.
 Davies, W. 1979. *The Llandaff Charters*. Aberystwyth.
 Davies, W. 1982. *Wales in the early middle ages*. Leicester University Press.
 Dobson, D.P. and Hicks, F.W.P. 1936. The church and parish of Lancut. Note. *TBGAS* 58, 214–218.
 Fox, C. and Phillips, D.W. 1931. Offa's Dyke: a field survey. Offa's Dyke in the Wye valley. *Archaeologia Cambrensis* 86, 1, 1–74.
 Fox, Sir C. 1955. *Offa's Dyke: A field survey of the western frontier-works of Mercia in the seventh and eighth centuries A.D.* O.U.P. & British Academy.
 Fryer, A.C. 1908. Gloucestershire fonts. Part I. Leaden bowls. *TBGAS* 31, 277–281.
 Fryer, A.C. 1914. Gloucestershire fonts Part VI. Norman. *TBGAS* 37, 107–133.
 Gethyn-Jones, E. 1979. *The Dymock school of sculpture*. Philimore.
 Gray, I. 1981. *Antiquaries of Gloucestershire and Bristol*. Bristol.
 Gresham, C.A. 1968. *Medieval stone carving in North Wales*. Cardiff.
 Grigson, G. 1954. England's smallest parish?. *Country Life*. December 30th, 2308–2309.
 Hart, C. 1967. *Archaeology in Dean*. Gloucester.
 Highway, C.M. 1978. Excavations at Gloucester, fourth interim report: St Oswald's Priory, Gloucester, 1975–76. *Antiq J* 58, 103–132.
 Highway, C.M. 1980. Excavations at Gloucester 1977–78, fifth interim report: St Oswald's Priory. *Antiq J* 60, 207–226.
 Herbert, N.M. 1972. (Lancut entry) In N.M. Herbert (ed), *Victoria History of the County of Gloucester*, 10. Oxford.
 Knight, J.K. 1986. *Chepstow castle*. Cadw: Welsh Historic Monuments.

- Morris, R. 1983. *The church in British archaeology*. CBA res. rep. 47.
- Noble, F. 1983. (Ed. M. Gelling) *Offa's Dyke reviewed*. BAR British Series 114.
- North, F.J. 1967. Building stone. In J.C. Perks, *Chepstow castle*. 2nd Edition. H.M.S.O.
- Ormerod, E. 1904. (Ed. Wallace, R.) *Eleanor Ormerod, LL.D.* London.
- Ormerod, G. 1842. Antiquities near the confluence of the Wye and the Severn. *Archaeologia* 29, 5–31.
- Ormerod, G. 1861. *Strigulensia*. London.
- Rahtz, P. 1976. *Excavations at St Mary's church, Deerhurst, 1971–73*. CBA res. rep. 15.
- Smith, A.H. 1964. *The place-names of Gloucestershire*. Part 3. Cambridge.
- Soden, R.W. 1984. *A guide to Welsh parish churches*. Llandysul.
- Thompson, M.W. 1983. *The journeys of Sir Richard Colt Hoare through Wales and England 1793–1810*. Gloucester.
- Verey, D. 1979. The buildings of England: *Gloucestershire, 1 The Cotswolds*. Harmondsworth.
- Verey, D. 1980. The buildings of England: *Gloucestershire, 2 The Vale and the Forest of Dean*. Harmondsworth.
- Welch, F.B.A. & Trotter, F.M. 1961. *Geology of the country around Monmouth and Chepstow*. Memoirs of the geological survey of Great Britain. H.M.S.O.
- Wood, J.G. 1936. The church and parish of Lancaut. *TBGAS* 58, 207–214.
- Zarnecki, G. 1951. *English romanesque sculpture 1066–1140*. London.
- Zarnecki, G. 1957. *English romanesque lead sculpture: lead fonts of the 12th century*. London.
- Zarnecki, G., Holt, J., and Holland, T. 1984. *English romanesque art 1066–1200*. Hayward Gallery Exhibition, Catalogue notes.

June 1990

The Society is grateful to the Historic Buildings and Monuments Commission for England for a grant towards the cost of publishing this report.