Chapter 42

REGIONAL OVERVIEW

UK and Ireland

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Historical archaeology — usually termed either post-medieval or contemporary archaeology in Britain and Ireland, has been extremely vibrant in the early 21st century (Egan 2009). This is due to a combination of three factors which are themselves interconnected. The first factor is the continued recognition of the importance of the heritage (above and below ground) of recent centuries by the various national heritage agencies, identifying significant heritage categories and sites, producing advisory documentation for heritage managers, owners and developers, and interpreting sites in their own care. Some of the recent changes in these aspects are discussed in the following section. The second factor is that contract archaeology in advance of development now often includes recovery and analysis of historical archaeology, and indeed for many projects this is both the largest and most important component. Many of the case studies under the subject headings throughout this chapter were derived from the contract field. The third factor is that many university departments of archaeology have at least one staff member with an interest in some aspect of historical archaeology, and they have encouraged a notable cohort of postgraduate students whose research has been highly influential and who have gone on to careers in the academy or, more often, aspects of the heritage industry. In the case of the first two factors, unfortunately the Republic of Ireland has shown less consistency, though ironically in the case of the third progress has been as great as elsewhere, given the small pool of academic archaeologists.

The academic component, which only began in the late 20th century, started as academics hired for their expertise in earlier periods shifted their focus. Their presence in what had previously been an overwhelmingly empirical field has led to a greater emphasis on theoretical aspects of historical archaeology in recent years and, as they integrated theory into their undergraduate and postgraduate courses, practice has been transformed, led by the Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology (SPMA), the first specialist period society for historical archaeology in the world (Mytum 2016), and the Irish Post-Medieval Archaeology Group (IPMAG), formed in 1999. The popularity of the archaeology of recent times with students — not only with archaeology students but those from across the arts and humanities — has led to a number of historical archaeologists being appointed to tenured positions in open competition with specialists in earlier periods, securing this subject for the future. This chapter does not have

a separate section on theory, as many British and Irish historical archaeologists weave this into their practice in the field and in their writing, creating a distinctive yet diverse tradition which is not dependent on an anthropological training (Courtney 2010). This perspective comes out of a European tradition of archaeology set within the humanities, and with particularly strong links to history (Courtney 2006), and in this Britain and Ireland has much in common not only with Continental colleagues but also most historical archaeologists in Australasia.

British and Irish historical archaeology was at no stage introspective, and no doubt in part due to the colonial legacy always had a global perspective, as seen from the earliest days of the journal *Post-Medieval Archaeology.* However, this international component has become more noticeable in the 21st century with a small number of North Americans working in Britain and Ireland, and more significantly by British archaeologists in particular undertaking projects in many parts of the world and participating in conferences such as that of the European Archaeologists' Association and the World Archaeological Congress, and societies such as the Society for Historical Archaeology —even hosting this North American society's annual event in York (2004) and Leicester (2013). The result is that historical archaeology within Britain and Ireland is both vibrant and distinctive, yet it is connected to the wider trends in the subject across the globe. This is maintained by the annual SPMA annual international congress and IPMAG conference, and for contemporary archaeology the Contemporary and Historical Archaeology in Theory (CHAT) group events. There has been a gradual integration — up to a point — of post-medieval and contemporary archaeology, though at times these remain separate spheres of discourse (Dixon 2011; King 2011). This can be seen in the titles of the monographs and books published by these organisations in the last two decades, often the result of conferences attended by active researchers from academia, museums, and the state and commercial sectors (Table 42.1). A number of multi-authored survey volumes, largely derived from these conferences, contain numerous useful summary chapters, many relating to the themes below, and others covering yet more aspects of post-medieval archaeology. All these books (including the thematic volumes listed in Table 42.1) provide important statements about the post-medieval archaeology of Britain and Ireland in the 21st century. The papers within these volumes are not referenced in this review as the book titles should indicate which may be relevant for any particular theme of interest to the reader. Some other synthetic works have also been published this millennium (Newman et al. 2001; Palmer et al. 2012; Richardson et al. 2017).

British and Irish post-medieval archaeology shares with its European partners an appreciation of continuity from the medieval world seen in material culture and practice in the early part of our period (as exemplified in many of the studies referenced below), and a distinctive if not always comfortable relationship with issues of colonialism, imperialism, industrialisation, and national competition that other parts of the globe do not necessarily share. Continuity also has an impact on research in that many items of material culture — from buildings to ceramics, furniture to jewellery, have never stopped being part of the living system and do not require excavation to recover them for study. There is a strong interdisciplinary strand in much post-medieval archaeology, with social and cultural anthropology being the weakest links except where they have infiltrated via North American archaeology. This means that many of the questions, as well as methodologies and publication strategies, in Britain and Ireland are not as evident in some other parts of the globe.

Table 42.1 Books and monographs published by the major organisations promoting
historical archaeology in Britain and Ireland

Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology (SPMA) Monograph Series
Gaimster, David R. and Roberta Gilchrist (eds.) 2003. *The Archaeology
ofRcformation, 1480-1580.* Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 1.
Leeds: Maney.
Barker, David and David Cranston (eds.) 2004. *The Archaeology of Industrialization.*
Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 2. Leeds: Maney.
Green, Adrian and Roger Leech (eds.) 2006. *Cities in the World, 1500-2000.* Society for
Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 3. Leeds: Maney.
Finch, Jonathan and Kate Giles (eds.) 2007. *Estate Landscapes: Design, Improvement
and Power in the Post-Medieval Landscape.* Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology
Monograph 4. Woodbridge: Boydell and Brewer.
Horning, Audrey J. and Marilyn Palmer (eds.) 2009. *Crossing Paths or Sharing Tracks?
Future Directions in the Archaeological Study of Post-1550 Britain and Ireland.* Society for
Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 5. Woodbridge: Boydell Press; with Irish Post-
Medieval Archaeology Group.
King, Christopher and Duncan Sayer (eds.) 2011. *The Archaeology of Post-Medieval
Religion.* Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 6. Woodbridge: Boydell
Press.
Dalglish, Chris ed., 2013. *Archaeology, the Public and the Recent Past.* Society
for Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 7. Woodbridge: Boydell Press.
Pope, P. and Lewis-Simpson, S. (eds.) 2013. *Exploring Atlantic Transitions: Archaeologies of
Transience and Permanence in New Found Lands.* Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology
Monograph 8. Woodbridge: Boydell Press.
Allan, John, Nat Alcock and David Dawson (eds.) 2015. *West Country Households, 1500-
1700.* Society for Post-Medieval Archaeology Monograph 9. Woodbridge: Boydell Press.
Irish Post-Medieval Archaeology Group (IPMAG) publications
Horning, Audrey, Cohn Donnelly, Ruairi **6** Baoill and Paul Logue (eds) 2007. *The
Post-Medieval Archaeology of Ireland: 1550-1850.* Dublin: Wordwell.
Horning, Audrey and Nick Brannon (eds) 2009. *Ireland and Britain in the Atlantic
world.* Dublin: Wordwell.
Lyttleton, James and Colin Rynne (eds) 2009. *Plantation Ireland.* Dublin: Four Courts Press.
*Contemporary and Historical Archaeology in Theory (CHAT) group studies with relevant
contributions* McAtackney, Laura, Matthew Palus and Angela Piccini 2007. *Studies in
Contemporary and Historical Archaeology 4 Contemporary and Historical Archaeology in
Theory Papers from the 2003 and 2004 CHAT Conferences.* British Archaeological Reports
S1677. Oxford.
Schofield, John 2009. *Studies in Contemporary and Historical Archaeology 5 Defining
Moments: Dramatic Archaeologies of the Twentieth-Century.* British Archaeological
Reports S2005. Oxford.
Oliver, Jeff and Tim Neal 2010: *Studies in Contemporary and Historical Archaeology 6
Wild Signs: Graffiti in Archaeology and History.* British Archaeological Reports S2074.
Oxford.

May, Sarah, Hilary Orange and Sefryn Penrose (eds) 2012. *Studies in Contemporary
and Historical Archaeology 7. The Good, the Bad and the Unbuilt: Handling the
Heritage of the Recent Past.* British Archaeological Reports S2362. Oxford.
Fortenberry, Brent and Laura McAtackney 2012. *Studies in Contemporary and Historical Archaeology 8
Modern Materials: The Proceedings of CHAT Oxford, 2009.* British Archaeological Reports 2363. Oxford.

Organisation and legislation

The legislative structure across Britain and Ireland with regard to historical
archaeology has not changed significantly in the 21st century, but there have
been important shifts in the advisory documentation that has altered the way in
which all archaeology has been treated, and in some respects this has had even
greater impact on historical heritage assets than those

of other periods. The picture is not easy to summarise, as to varying degrees England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland have autonomy on heritage matters. The Republic of Ireland, the Isle of Man, and each of the Channel Islands (e.g. Jersey and Guernsey) are all independent and have their own agencies and laws but come within the geographical remit of Britain and Ireland; only England can be considered at length in this section, though where notable changes have been made in any of the other jurisdictions, they will be noted.

Outsiders are often confused by the changing names and organisational structures of the various heritage agencies. These are therefore set out in Table 42.2. For simplicity, the latest names are used throughout this chapter, though the supporting documentation will be referenced under the name under which it was produced.

The most significant changes came in England in 1990, with the production of planning guidance documents for the built environment (PPG15) and below-ground archaeology (PPG16) in which the polluter pays principle was enshrined and led to a retraction in state contributions to rescue archaeology with that responsibility passing to the developer (Schofield II et al. 2011: 84-106). From then on, limitations on state funding for rescue

Table 42.2 Heritage agencies for the jurisdictions in Britain and Ireland. Each has separate legislation and heritage policies which include different attitudes to historical archaeology, particularly the end date at which sites may be within the terms of such legislation

Country	Heritage Agencies
England charity	Historic England (previously English Heritage, which still exists as a managing sites under state care), Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport www.historicengland.org.uk/
Guernsey	Guernsey Museums and Galleries, Culture and Leisure Department www.museums.gov.gg/archhelp
Isle of Man	Manx National Heritage www.mammationalheritage.im/
Jersey	Jersey Heritage wwwjerseyheritage.org/uk
Northern Ireland	Historic Environment Division, Department for Communities www.communities-ni.gov.uk/topics/historic-environment
Republic of Ireland	National Monuments Service, Department of Culture, Heritage and the Gaeltacht www.chg.govie/heritage/national-monuments-service/
Scotland	Historic Environment Scotland (previously Historic Scotland, which still exists as a membership organisation supporting Historic Environment Scotland) www.historicenvironment.scot/
Wales	Cadw, Economy, Science and Transport Department www.cadw.gov.wales/?lang=en
	Royal Commission on the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Wales (RCAHMW) — research and archive curation functions (Royal Commissions in Scotland and England have been merged into the respective state organisations) www.rcahmw.gov.uk

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archaeology were no longer an impediment, though some threats such as coastal erosion still have to be ameliorated by the state. These documents were the blueprints by which planners were expected to develop local and regional plans and implement policy, including material consideration of heritage assets. A further enhancement of the process occurred in 2010 when these documents were replaced by Planning for the Historic Environment (PPS5), which integrated below- and above-ground heritage in one framework, assisting the planning process as all aspects could be considered under one remit (even though different primary legislation protects buildings still in use as opposed to archaeological remains). Recent government initiatives related to sustainability underpin many heritage management policies.

The English government view of heritage within development was set out in the National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF) (Communities and Local Government 2012: 30-32). This is particularly relevant to both below-ground historical archaeology and standing buildings archaeology in the UK. 'Polluter pays' policies are in place in all jurisdictions across Britain and Ireland, though when and where these are applied, and the accepted levels of investment in both fieldwork and reporting, varies considerably between these authorities. In England, attempts to make the grey literature generated by contract archaeology more widely available are being led by Historic England's OASIS programme, linked to the Archaeological Data Service (ADS) repository, supported by a keyword search system. Also, signposting from local Historic Environment Record (HER) services, an increasing amount of which is being made accessible online, is designed to create an effective platform for both research and heritage industry archaeologists.

In the Republic of Ireland, there have been some indications that protection for heritage after 1700 could be relaxed. This has led to considerable protests from the heritage sector. To what extent this suggests a retreat from support for protecting the historic environment and standing buildings, or ensuring developer-funded excavation of such sites, is at the time of writing uncertain, and at present there are no plans to make grey literature resources available online.

Research frameworks to highlight period-based contexts and priorities have been undertaken in England with a thematic or regional focus including historic components, and in Scotland a national-scale approach was taken by period (Dalglish and Tarlow 2012), though some local frameworks are now being developed. An Irish consideration of archaeology includes research design but is mainly focused on organisational issues, and has no period-specific suggestions (Reeners 2006). In England, most regions have published frameworks, and some are now being reviewed and converted to a more interactive online version that can be kept up to date (Historic England, n.d.). The research design collaboratively produced for the Derwent Valley Mills World Heritage Site sets a new standard for such documentation (Knight 2016). All the research frameworks have a substantial section devoted to the historic period, with regional summaries by theme and extensive bibliographic references. These reviews, combined with the annual summaries of recent work in Britain and Ireland found in *Post-Medieval Archaeology,* provide effective routes into a large number of both published and unpublished sources.

Industrial archaeology

The shift in attitude amongst industrial archaeologists from a technology and 'great inventor' emphasis to a more integrated, contextualised approach to industrial heritage began in the late 20th century (Neaverson and Palmer 1998) but it has really been in the last two decades

that substantial examples of this approach have been completed (Palmer et al. 2012). The move from process to people has in part been due to avocational groups, often full of retired engineers and scientists, being joined by professional archaeologists working on large field projects beyond the scale of local groups. This shift can be seen within the contributions to the journal *Industrial Archaeology Review.* The tradition of combining excavation with standing buildings recording and analysis has been applied to numerous `brownfield' sites which have been prioritised by government for redevelopment (Symonds 2005). The Association for Industrial Archaeology produced its own research framework (2005), and a guide to recording has been updated (Douet 2012).

One of the largest archaeological projects ever undertaken in Scotland took place in advance of major road construction in Glasgow (Nevell 2016a). This provided an opportunity to examine a number of industrial complexes — both in terms of standing buildings and below-ground remains — but also to consider these within their urban landscape setting, including workers' housing, discussed elsewhere. In this respect, this study is a leader for the whole of the UK, though other large-scale studies of industry that have a landscape and social dimension (but excluded excavation as a major component) have included that of Swansea copper processing (Hughes 2000), textiles in south-west England (Palmer and Neaverson 2005) and the North Welsh slate industry (Gwyn 2015).

The earlier seminal research on mills and factories has been consolidated with numerous studies in advance of building conversion, indicating the variety of particular local and company biographies, though there is room for more synthesis of this material and the social implications of design and operation (Nevell 2016b). However, there is more emphasis on people as well as structures and machines, and increasing awareness of 'memory work' both in terms of those who worked in factories and workshops, and wider social perspectives in a variety of post-industrial contexts (Mellor 2005; papers in Barker and Cranstone 2004; Casella and Symonds 2005; Horning and Palmer 2009; Orange 2014). The smaller factories and workplaces designed around clusters of buildings have become increasingly recognised, with studies of the steel and cutlery industries of Sheffield setting a standard in both methodology and analysis (Wray et al. 2001; Beauchamp and Unwin 2002; Symonds et al. 2006; Wooler 2015).

Industry within the domestic context has been recognised for some time in Britain, but recent research has moved agendas on to a wider variety of industries and perspectives (Belford and Ross 2004). The ways in which technology and invention affected even what might be assumed to be traditional locations such as the elite country house are also now being explored (Palmer 2005; Barnwell and Palmer 2012; Palmer and West 2016) and will feed into the management and interpretation of relevant heritage sites.

Irish industrial archaeology has not received the long-term attention received in Britain, but recent work has begun to deal with this omission (Rynne 2006). The early modern Irish iron industry of County Cork has been the subject of a major interdisciplinary research project which has established both the nature and extent of this industry that took advantage of the extensive forests for the production of charcoal that could fuel the local supplies of iron ore (Edwards and Rynne 2017). Ironbridge — the early centre of modern British ironworking — has continued to attract attention (Belford 2007, 2010), as have other centres such as those in Scotland (Photos Jones et al. 2008).

Numerous production and service industries that have previously been neglected have become more central to study in the last couple of decades, including the food and drink industries (Haslam 2011; Jeffries et al. 2016). Case studies include salt working (Hewitson 2017) and gunpowder (Cocroft et al. 2005). Artefact production, for long a staple part of

the industrial archaeology repertoire and one always most integrated with the rest of post-medieval archaeology, is discussed under artefacts. Shipbuilding is also now gaining more attention (Harrison 2015). Most extractive industries were subject to extensive research in the 20th century, but work on tin continues (Newman 2006) and alum has been a recent focus (Miller 2002; Jecock 2009). Retail and services such as power generation and utilities have received some attention, including study of gasworks (Sproat 2006; Francis 2010) and electricity power stations (Stratton and Trinder 2000).

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Transport

Railways have long been a subject of study in the UK, as one of the countries which developed the steam engine and railway systems (Birchenough et al. 2009; Gwyn 2010; Dwyer 2011). Pre-steam rail systems for horse-drawn carts or gravity-powered systems taking mining products to coastal facilities have been surveyed and excavated at several locations, some with remarkable preservation of some timber elements. Early railway features are subject of recent Historic England investment, and more recent railway heritage is also being surveyed, evaluated and selectively recorded and preserved as the continuing changes in railway ownership, management and technology make many aspects of the earlier infrastructure redundant.

The railways required a complex infrastructure which allowed the people and goods transported by the system to be managed and moved elsewhere (Minnis and Hickman 2016). Urban regeneration at the Great Northern Railway's goods yard at King's Cross, London, enabled a large-scale project which involved extensive excavation alongside study of the standing structures (Haslam and Thompson 2016). This has revealed how the agricultural supplies to feed the city's population were managed for distribution, and how manufactured goods were brought in or out. Changes in technology over the period from the mid-19th century showed how not only products but processes changed over the one hundred plus years that the complex was in use.

The Canal and River Trust manages British inland waterways and its team of heritage staff ensure archaeological protection and research across the system, though it is an aspect of British heritage that has always attracted non-professional involvement. Substantive archaeological studies include the Bridgewater Canal (Nevell and Wyke 2012; Nevell 2013) and Pontcysyllte Aqueduct and Canal (Wakelin 2015). Canal infrastructure and even vessels have also been examined (Maw et al. 2009; Atkinson 2012).

One relatively neglected aspect of infrastructure archaeology — that of the navvy camps for those constructing the transport systems — have been located and some have been partially excavated, revealing the material culture and living conditions of this mobile and easily forgotten population (Cardwell et al. 2004; Bevan 2006; Brennan 2015).

Maritime archaeology

The importance of maritime archaeology — including but not only wreck sites — has been recognised during the early 21st century, following on from the Protection of Wrecks Act 1973, with 46 sites designated by 2013. Considerable investment in the application of new techniques and equipment for survey, combined with a collaborative approach to the training of avocational divers to appreciate, report, record, and monitor underwater heritage through the Society for Nautical Archaeology (NAS), has meant that understanding of the maritime resource, combined with enhanced protection, has increased substantially and is

reflected in UK Historic Environment Records (HERs) and in equivalent systems (Quinn et al. 2002; Troalen et al. 2010; Westley et al. 2011). Similar initiatives have taken place in Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. In Northern Ireland, most initiatives have involved government combining with the skills of those in the Department of Archaeology at the University of Ulster at Coleraine, with major projects including the multi-period survey of Strangford Lough (McErlean et al. 2002); the range of work across Ireland is reflected in thematic issue *Historical Archaeology* 41(3).

Research and display of the 16th-century *Mary Rose* shipwreck and the vast array of finds continues, with a new museum opened in 2016. The loss, discovery, and retrieval of the *Mary Rose* has been reported (Marsden et al. 2003) and the ship itself has now been structurally analysed (Marsden 2009). Work continues on the many categories of finds (Gardiner 2005), with the notable assemblages published being the human remains (Stirland 2000) and the armaments (Hildred 2011). Later period mercantile and naval shipping has been subject to numerous surveys and limited further investigation.

The major World War I site where the German fleet was scuttled at Scapa Flow has been surveyed and assessed, encouraged by the anniversary of the war and increased public and government interest in this period (Oxley 2002; McCartney 2012), with the same area's role in World War II also now subject to study (Christie et al. 2016).

The combining of underwater evidence with that from maritime structures and landscapes around the coast has been an important development, integrating maritime archaeology within broader archaeological questions and combining data from a wide range of sources (O'Sullivan and Breen 2007; Stammers 2007). Other land-based maritime theme subjects have included the development of port installations, shipbuilding and the wide variety of Royal Navy support structures (Coad 2013). Port installations have recently been recognised as an under-researched aspect of maritime archaeology in both Britain (Pitt et al. 2003; Willis 2009; Fontana 2013; R. Newman 2013) and Ireland (Breen 2005; Kelleher 2013). The development of ports and harbours transformed the scale and nature of local and international trade, and was often linked to either landlords' or national government improvement agendas. The archaeology of airports and aeroplanes has also been recognised (Grove 2013).

Conflict archaeology

The 17th-century English Civil War has been the subject of battlefield study, with metal detecting finds creating both new threats and opportunities for the resource (Foard and Morris 2012). Many structures were damaged during the Civil War, and the demolition of castles has received greatest attention, to understand both the mechanics of destruction by gunpowder and robbing, but also the symbolic selective damage and the local political contexts that affected the decisions taken (Rakoczy 2007, 2008; Askew 2016). A number of battlefield sites from various conflicts have some level of recognition and protection, but the lack of visible features at many creates challenges for interpretation, though an interpretation centre at Culloden, where there has also been extensive archaeological survey, shows the potential (Pollard 2009). Battlefield archaeology is now an established part of post-medieval archaeology (Freeman and Pollard 2001; Holyoak 2002).

The English Plantations in Ireland have attracted some attention (Lyttleton and Rynne 2009; Lyttleton 2013), along with the Elizabethan settlements in Southern Ireland (Klingelhofer et al. 2005; Klingelhofer 2010). In Ulster, the relationship between the planters and the indigenous population has been increasingly revealed as complex and fluid,

and not as some of the most frequently quoted contemporary texts implied (Horning 2013). Interaction, intermarriage, and mixed settlement have now been revealed as common, seen in the cartographic evidence and the excavated artefactual assemblages and structural evidence in smaller plantations as well as in the larger towns such as Carrickfergus (Homing 2007a; Horning et al. 2015). Indeed, whilst conflict frequently flared up, and prejudices were maintained, it is clear that pragmatic solutions involving a considerable co-existence were the norm. Though most plantations were Protestant, some Scottish Catholic families also became involved, with the most famous being MacDonnell who developed Dunluce Castle and founded the adjacent town which has been explored through survey and excavation (Breen 2012).

Prisoners of war have only recently been recognised as an aspect of past conflict worthy of study, and research has identified surviving sites from the Napoleonic period onwards and undertaken limited excavation. No ship hulk prisons have as yet been identified, but the first bespoke prisoner of war camps in the world were designed and built at a small number of sites in England. Norman Cross, established in 1797, and housing c. 6,000 prisoners, has been the subject of surface and geophysical survey, with limited excavation (Mytum and Hall 2013). The excavated craft debris from bone working adds a new dimension to the understanding of prisoner life and ingenuity already known from the numerous products from the camps held in private and public collections (Lloyd 2007).

World War I camps have been identified, surveyed, and in some cases selectively excavated, often in conjunction with studies of material culture used or produced in the camps and still available for study. Such research has included military camps in both the Midlands and Jersey, and ones for civilians at Stobbs, Scotland, and Knockaloe, Isle of Man. Of similar date are camps constructed for Irish nationalists, and that of Frongoch in North Wales has been subject to survey and limited excavation, again alongside study of the material culture produced in this and equivalent camps in Ireland (Bruck 2015). This art can be usefully contrasted with the trench art also recently given due archaeological attention for the first time (Saunders 2003).

The Council for British Archaeology led a major community project to record local features that related to World War I — including practice trenches and training camps, home and community memorials, munitions factories, and many other new and adapted structures created both to support the war effort and to remember the sacrifices of those at the front (Appleby et al. 2015). This effort was augmented by numerous professional surveys and small-scale examinations of war features to understand their purpose, and to identify those worthy of protection against further degradation by development or insensitive land use. Numerous features, previously unrecognised, have been identified and mapped, most spectacularly some of the extensive practice trenches which are impressively preserved to reveal the training for various types of trench layouts for both defence and attack (Brown and Field 2004). Similar surveys have also been undertaken in Wales and Scotland, all triggered by the anniversaries associated with World War I.

The conflicts surrounding the various attempts at Irish independence have received some archaeological attention, though the limitations on metal detecting in the Republic have both inhibited research but protected the resource at many conflict sites. Recent archaeological studies of the Easter Rising in Dublin have identified many previously unrecognised material traces of this event, demonstrating how careful analysis not only of contemporary written and visual sources but also close examination of structures can reveal the microhistory of an event (Myles et al. 2016). Shifting Anglo-Irish relations in the last couple of decades have opened up the possibility of studying Irish contributions to World

War I in a less problematic contemporary context. As a result, memorials and sites of military and civilian involvement have been given greater prominence. In contrast, the Irish Civil War (1919-1923) has as yet received less attention (Shiels 2006), though finds of arms dredged from the River Shannon are most probably associated with this phase of military activity. More recent conflict archaeology has recognised the physical features of the Ulster border; some were archaeologically recorded before dismantling, and the Long Kesh/Maze Camp where both Unionist and Republican internees were held has been archaeologically studied (McAtackney 2014); a small part of this site has been preserved.

World War II archaeology has developed considerably in the early 21st century, with sites being identified for statutory protection, and much recording of remains undertaken before clearance, re-use, or as part of research programmes, and with elements that relate to the home front, sometimes combined with memory studies and community involvement (Holyoak 2002; Osborne 2004; Moshenska 2009, 2013). Another Council for British Archaeology initiative recorded many features; some categories such as pill boxes are now fully mapped, but others such as bomb shelters, are still not yet comprehensive. Innovative studies include analysis of the murals and graffiti (Cocroft et al. 2004). The Cold War record was recognised by English Heritage as under threat as both diplomatic relations and the role of satellite technology made many of the built sites redundant. Extensive recording has been undertaken (Cocroft and Thomas 2003; Schofield II and Cocroft 2009), and the protest camps against nuclear war have also been subject to fieldwork and analysis (Schofield II and Anderton 2000; Marshall et al. 2009).

Religion and mortuary archaeology

The archaeology of churches and chapels has received only limited attention recently, with King and Sayer (2011) being a notable exception. After a late 20th-century phase of recording and re-evaluation, largely with an architectural focus, recent work has mostly comprised numerous small-scale investigations in advance of the construction of meeting rooms and other facilities at historic churches which have led only to grey literature reports and not to any wider synthesis. The one substantial case study that shows the potential of such interventions when combined with a desire to create a material dimension to architectural and liturgical changes is the archaeological analysis of St. Paul's Cathedral, London (Schofield I 2016). Other cathedrals have similar unpublished data, but rarely has this been analysed; Norwich Cathedral Close has received study (Gilchrist 2005), but sadly this only covers the period up to the late 17th century, and the subsequent developments await publication. A regional study of non-conformist mission in the Pennines of England complements many architectural studies of the chapels (Petts 2011). Irish studies have explored the previously archaeologically neglected mass and meeting houses (Donnelly 2004) and mass rocks, and Historic England have recently reviewed buildings of non-Christian faiths and the first publications are of Jewish (Kadish 2015) and Muslim sites (Saleem 2018), though these are predominantly from an architectural perspective. Sikh heritage has also been considered (Canning 2017).

In contrast to the limited interest in religious structures and institutions, there have been numerous studies related to mortuary archaeology in both urban and rural contexts, and linked to many different denominations. Despite a number of challenging changes in the application of human remains legislation, post-medieval archaeologists now work through a set of ethics and procedures agreed between all the relevant stakeholders (Sayer 2010; APABE 2017; Mytum forthcoming) Tarlow has considered changing attitudes and practices

regarding the corpse for the early modern period (2011), and by combining the data from numerous excavations it has been possible to investigate wide patterns of mortuary practice up to and including the 19th century (Cherryson et al. 2012). Numerous large-scale burial ground clearances, with varying levels of archaeological excavation alongside commercial clearance, provide large assemblages of new data, mainly in London. Those with crypt clearances have produced the best surviving cultural and human remains (Boyle et al. 2005; Boston et al. 2009) but some large and valuable assemblages from earth burials have now also been recovered, with extensive evidence of both human and artefactual remains (Miles et al. 2008; Emery and Wooldridge 2011; Henderson et al. 2013). Beyond the metropolis, other urban ecclesiastical sites include Birmingham (Brickley and Buteux 2006), and Wolverhampton (Adams 2007). Those burial grounds associated with non-conformist congregations have also been investigated at sites including Kingston upon Thames (Bashford and Sibun 2007; McKinley 2008), and institutions including hospitals (Fowler and Powers 2012) and workhouses (Rogers et al. 2006; Geber 2015). Most excavation reports discuss palaeopathology and demography in detail, but other studies include consideration of migration (Beaumont et al. 2013) and living conditions (Brickley et al. 2007). Thematic studies of the cultural remains have led to consideration of early lead coffins (Litten 2009), later coffin choices (Mytum 2015), and the ways in which the threat of bodysnatching has an archaeological signature (Evans 2010; Mytum and Webb 2018).

The archaeological study of memorials has also developed over the last 20 years, with methodological studies (Mytum 2000, 2002a, 2006; UOLGP 2012) and a comparative synthesis (Mytum 2004a). Analytical studies have been regional (Finch 2000; Mytum 2002b, 2004b) and thematic, such as considering mariners (Stewart 2011; Mytum 2017), identity (Buckham 2003; Mytum 2009), spatial development of burial grounds (Mytum and Evans 2002), and treatment of infants (McKerr et al. 2009). War memorials have also attracted archaeological consideration (Walls and Williams 2010).

Artefact studies

Artefact studies have revealed the enormous expansion in the range and quantities of material goods consumed — particularly in urban and elite contexts — in the early modern period (Biddle 2005; Egan 2005, 2009; Gaimster 2012). New categories such as toys make their appearance, and many others — from spoons to candlesticks, buckles to buttons —increase greatly in numbers, forms, and decoration. The ways in which this exponential rise in artefacts is due to consumer demand or improved production methods, and by global trade and colonialism with concomitant new commodities and associated behaviours, all still requires further elucidation from the British and Irish perspective, though some consideration has been given to consumerism (Wilson 2008). Most studies to date have focused on smaller and more localised scales of analysis, part of the post-modern trend away from the grand narrative but also playing to a strong traditional style of particularist archaeology across Britain and Ireland and the site-based focus of developer-funded research which inhibits a wider perspective. Nevertheless, some larger issues have formed the focus of a number of projects, such as mercantile culture (Killock et al. 2005) and artefact biography. The latter has become an approach which has generated a number of studies across a range of artefact types including ceramics (Jeffries 2009; Owens et al. 2010; Owens and Jeffries 2016) and gravestones (Mytum 2004b), but has also considered structures and households in a similar way (Gray 2010; Tatlioglu 2010; Mytum 2010b).

Staffordshire potteries are well known and identified around the globe, but recent work has attempted to more fully understand the industry, particularly across the diversity of producers beyond the most famous, and those operating after the 18th century. Research has concentrated on the one hand on excavation of production sites in advance of development, but equally, on the other, has focused on what was produced and why (Barker 2004). Twentieth-century production has also attracted more attention (Killock et al. 2003; Dawson and Kent 2008; Miller 2014; Barker 2017). Brooks has expanded our understanding of export wares, notably through his work in Australia (2005), linked with studies (Crook 2005) identifying the high proportion of 'seconds' — less than perfect products — in many assemblages. The prevalence of seconds on many British sites complicates efforts tried elsewhere to place costs of acquisition and therefore spending power of households. The production for the South American market reveals the preponderance of brightly coloured designs that otherwise mirror those back in Britain (Brooks and Rodriguez 2012). The production of wares designed for North America, such as granite ware, is well known, but the role of other markets (particularly at times when relationships with North America were strained) in also stimulating innovation has previously been underappreciated. Conversely, imports into Britain and Ireland have also received attention. Ceramics have been important in identifying links with Portugal (Gutierrez 2007; Newstead 2015), building on the already recognised trade with Spain, and there has been steady increase in understanding of the use of exotic ceramics by the mercantile classes in port cities such as London (Killock et al. 2005).

Ceramic use and discard has become a major theme, with less emphasis on typology and classification of form (Symonds 2010; Cessford 2017). Analysis of various household assemblages from middens and dumps reveals the development of brands and changes in consumption in the 19th and early 20th centuries, and how this was visible across different classes (Brooks 2002; Licence 2015). Tavern assemblages have been the focus of several studies, highlighting the range of items in use, and the types of beverage and social interaction that these imply (Pearce 2000, 2016; Boothroyd and Higgins 2005; Watson et al. 2010; Jeffries et al. 2014); sadly, the interest elsewhere in identifying the evidence for prostitution has not been paralleled in Britain.

The patterns of ceramic breakage, continued use of damaged vessels, and where and when dumping or re-use occurs (Pearce et al. 2013), has been combined with studies of how ceramics were used and valued in the home. Some of the major urban excavations in London have concentrated on these aspects, notably at Spitalfields where assemblages from documented households have been published from a range of socially and chronologically diverse contexts (Harward et al. 2015).

Screening of topsoil is rarely undertaken in Britain or Ireland, so sheet refuse is not normally identified, as the focus of most attention is with stratigraphically secure contexts and their assemblages, often excavated over a significant area. The dumps in privies and wells so common in many parts of the world do occur in Britain and Ireland, but not as frequently, and as yet no clear explanation has been presented for this. However, it is likely that their rarity is due in part to more organised refuse collection, and in part to a vibrant recycling culture where items were either re-used or were sold for their materials to be transformed into a different product (Jeffries 2006). As the closed dumps are relatively rare, they have attracted recent attention to understand what they might mean. Certainly, many of the urban assemblages have been shown to be far harder to link to particular households because of complex and fluid patterns of multiple tenancies within buildings (Harward et al. 2015), and the shared use of open spaces by several buildings. This may cause reflection on

some of the more optimistic interpretations elsewhere that are popularly quoted in the literature. Some rural deposits face similar problems of association but where there are longterm occupations this is possible (Licence 2015).

Previous extensive study of clay pipes has continued, but whilst production and makers have remained one focus (White 2004), this has moved from merely ordering stamps and correlating them with documented makers to consideration of makers' networks and the relationship between production and consumption (Cessford 2001; Hartnett 2004; Boyden 2015). Many short publications can be found in the *Society for Clay Pipe Research Newsletter.* British production specifically for export has also been recognised, and some of the production sites located (Higgins forthcoming) Other classes of artefacts with names and sometimes dates have also been noted (Egan 2012), and the way this reveals increased awareness of personal identity, linear time, and a sense of history has been recognised (Mytum 2007).

Glass production has long been of interest, but work continues to build on existing knowledge (Jackson et al. 2005; Crossley 2012; Family et al. 2014). Early glass — both imported and produced by migrant specialists — has been comprehensively studied (Willmott 2001, 2002), and work on bottles and seals continues (Jeffries and Major 2015) whilst the marking of window leads has also attracted attention (Egan 2012). Costume from Dungiven bog has revealed the complex multi-cultural lives of those in 17th-century Ireland (Horning 2014), and other artefacts have been used to examine the immigrant experience in Britain (Allan 2014). Contemporary archaeology has included eclectic artefact studies, most notably a Ford transit van (Bailey et al. 2009; Myers 2011). The large-scale recovery of artefacts from major urban excavations, particularly in London, has led to an archaeological appreciation of small metal finds from cutlery to wool seals, from toys to personal adornment (Egan 2005).

Buildings archaeology

The study of standing remains from an archaeological perspective — both in terms of stratigraphically analysing structures and all the changes that have taken place, and considering their internal spatial arrangements and wider landscape setting — has been one of the great strengths of British and Irish historical archaeology. It is often supported by the integration of documentary sources, and has become an arena within which numerous increasingly theoretically aware studies have taken place alongside a great deal of more descriptive developer-led recording. Many British and Irish buildings archaeology projects do not involve excavation, but where both data recovery methods can be combined this gives greater opportunities (Forsythe 2007). Graffiti studies have considered various forms of place-making, though often not exclusively as resistance or in creating and reinforcing identities (Giles and Giles 2007; McAtackney 2016).

The early modern changes in housing, with greater subdivision and privatisation of space, have continued to be a research concern (Johnson 2010; King 2010). Symbolism of and in early modern houses has been an archaeological dimension that has built on architectural history studies but with a distinctively archaeological perspective (Graves 2009). Workers' housing has been investigated from the viewpoint of the designers and owners on the one hand and the occupants on the other, often linked to places of employment, whether agricultural or industrial (Belford and Ross 2004; Newman and Newman 2008; Belford 2010; Nevell 2016a). Planned settlements range from rural villages and estates (R. Newman 2013; Cavanagh 2017) through to urban developments, including suburbs and housing

estates (Dwyer 2014). There has been less interest in middle-class structures, and indeed the theme of domesticity has not been as significant as in some other parts of the world, though it has not been completely ignored, and house interiors are also now examined archaeologically (Mytum 2013; Newman and Jenkins 2017).

Country houses (Palmer and West 2016) and palaces (Cowie and Cloake 2001; Smith et al. 2014) have received attention, but much of the case study work by bodies such as English Heritage and the National Trust has remained in the grey literature or only visible in popular publications and public interpretation. Interest in fortified residences has continued, though with a greater emphasis on examining changes in the structures over time rather than just the initial design, and considering the social and symbolic roles of the buildings in the landscape on one hand (Johnson 2002; Daldish 2005; Donnelly 2005), and internal use and significance of space within on the other (Sherlock 2011; O'Keeffe 2017).

The strong tradition of standing building archaeology, combined with a global interest in institutions, has led to several important studies (Hughes 2005), some of which have also benefitted from developer-funded excavations of buildings and, in some cases, associated burial grounds, and a number of research studies often linked to a new generation of scholars. Asylums (Fennelly 2014; Newman 2015; Allmond 2016), hospitals (Jeffries et al. 2015; Fennelly and Newman 2017), schools (Wooler 2016), almshouses (Divers 2004), workhouses (C. Newman 2010, 2013), prisons (Oleksy 2008), and guildhalls (Giles 2000) have provided a diversity of approaches to institutional structures and the attitudes and practices associated with them. Familiar themes of observation, control, and resistance are considered in most of these studies, but they are placed in sensitively researched contexts rich with documentary detail.

The archaeology of leisure has included the study of early theatres, which has been of considerable interdisciplinary significance, particularly where a Shakespearian association can be claimed as with the Rose and Globe in London (Bowsher and Miller 2009; Bowsher 2012). Cinemas (Richardson 2005), football grounds (Smith 2001; Peterson and Robinson 2012; Gabie and Wood 2016), and shops (Jenkins 2018) have all attracted attention.

Countryside

Interest in English landscapes — both elite designed landscapes and the impact of enclosure —has continued (Johnson 2006; Finch and Giles 2007; Tarlow 2007), with an emphasis on the mindsets of those initiating change, though with some recognition of the implications of these dislocations in settlement, economy, and social relations. There is a strong tradition of multi-period study of landscape change (Bezant and Grant 2016), with recent enthusiasm for historic landscape characterisation (English Heritage 2002; Aldred and Fairclough 2003; Fairclough 2006; Rippon 2007) revitalising this approach with a strong component of map regression combined with selective ground survey which makes this a reliable method for the post-medieval period even if there are challenges in dating earlier phases of landscape change. A mix of landscape survey and excavation typical of the British tradition, with the post-medieval being merely the last component, is the Shapwick project (Aston and Gerrard 2013), whilst the Scottish approach to settlement continuity and change is well represented by the papers in Govan (2003), and the Welsh in Roberts (2006). An unusual example of a substantial research project devoted to an English post-medieval rural settlement is that of Alderley Sandhills where issues of identity and change are explored (Casella and Croucher 2010).

The clearances in Scotland have concentrated more explicitly on class relations (Dalglish 2006), and the same has been the case with Irish depopulation, though often not exclusively linked to the Famine era (Orser 2005, 2006, 2010). The evidence for Welsh squatter settlements and consideration of the tensions they produced has also been considered (Tarlow 2008), and more complex factors in rural change are now being integrated into recent studies (Campbell 2009; Costello 2015). In Ireland numerous sites of agricultural structures and features, and some domestic sites, have been excavated in advance of road schemes and subjected to largely descriptive accounts. These have created a useful set of examples of types of rural settlement that otherwise have only been noted in field survey, though the analysis of the associated artefacts has often been brief.

Deserted villages are commonly seen as medieval in date across England, but many were in fact only deserted — or substantially reduced in size — in the post-medieval period (Brewster and Hayfield 1988). The classic site of Wharram Percy has a post-medieval dimension and study of ceramic distributions recovered by community projects involving test pitting has emphasised how shifts in settlement nuclei continued from the medieval through the post-medieval period (Lewis 2015). Map regression studies allow the more recent centuries to be brought into these analyses, and have frequently been used in development control studies that have assisted in both protecting and directing mitigation excavation.

Islands have attracted a number of long-term research excavations, often with a multi-period perspective containing a significant post-medieval component. This indicates how much the more recent centuries are seen as archaeologically valid by colleagues studying all periods. In the Western Isles of Scotland, 'black house' sites have been investigated (Parker Pearson et al. 2004; Branigan et al. 2005). Several Irish islands have attracted special attention — Rathlin in the northeast (Forsythe 2007; Forsythe and McConkey 2012), and Inishbofin and Inishmore in the west have had both survey and excavation of house sites (Kuijt et al. 2015a, 2015b). The longest-running investigation, however, has been on Achill Island, where a number of house sites have been examined and many different research aspects developed by research students and more senior academics (Horning 2007b; Dunn 2008; McDonald 2014). It is remarkable how all these studies reveal an attenuated but significant infiltration of mass-produced consumer goods, and the ways in which industrialisation and globalisation had an impact on societies that also retained many features intrinsic to their traditional culture.

The archaeology of designed landscapes has been advanced largely through geophysical and surface survey and excavation in advance of Heritage Lottery Fund-sponsored reconstruction and public interpretation programmes across Britain but with little archaeological publication. Selective study has occurred in Ireland (Bruck 2013). This work has allowed the examination of not only the cutting-edge designs of famous architects and landscapers so favoured by garden historians, but also the more typical (albeit largely upper class) gardens and estates that were established following by then accepted models, though adapted to individual circumstances and tastes.

Large numbers of developer-funded projects have greatly added to understanding of many post-medieval towns, and many have been published in local county archaeological journals, but it is a series of very extensive excavations with substantial post-excavation budgets that have generated the most dramatic results. Whilst the greatest number of projects has been in

Regional overview: UK and Ireland

Urban

London, most notably at Spitalfields (Harward et al. 2015), where depositional processes, household histories, building and plot sequences, and elements of an urban landscape have been revealed and analysed, Glasgow has seen the most ambitious examination of a combination of domestic housing with industrial and retail premises, a transect of a city that required new ways of sampling and managing data (Nevell 2016a). York has benefitted from the Hungate project (Mayne 2011), where the use of oral history and social reformers' records has provided highly contextualised studies (Rimmer 2011). The publication of these large-scale projects is inevitably selective, and the archives and artefact collections offer enormous potential for future research. The ways in which archive resources and retained artefact assemblages can be used to reconsider urban issues has been demonstrated for Carrickfergus (Tracey 2017).

Archaeological studies on the scale of whole towns or cities have not been published, but improvements in sanitation which have implications for changes in civic organisation have been noted in London (Jeffries 2006), Manchester (Nevell 2014), and York (Connelly 2011). Contemporary archaeology has also considered the homeless, examining the urban material landscapes of marginalised people in Bristol and York (Crea et al. 2014; Kiddey 2017). The Ulster Plantation has been a regular topic of research, in recent years encouraged by the incorporation of archaeology within heritage dialogues as part of the peace process and the foundation anniversaries of many towns (Horning 2007a; Horning et al. 2015). Excavations in Dublin and other Irish towns have tended to focus on early modern and earlier phases, and most have only been reported through the grey literature or short, though useful, accounts in *Archaeology Ireland.*

Community archaeology

The amateur — avocational — tradition in British archaeology used to be very strong, particularly in England, but in the last decades of the 20th century it declined as developer-funded archaeology schedules and conditions limited participation of non-professionals. Some amateur groups have continued to be active but other initiatives have also become important. However, the Council for British Archaeology has continued to develop its role as an advocate for all sectors of archaeology, including the amateur and community interests, through a range of publications and projects. Post-medieval themes have been prominent, for example graveyard recording (Mytum 2000), industrial archaeology (Palmer 2010), rural survey (RCAHMS 2011), and the World Wars (Appleby et al. 2015). It also has a lobbying and advocacy role in protecting archaeology and the historic built environment.

Whilst the largest investigations in the 21st century have been derived from developer-funded schemes, in Britain and Northern Ireland numerous smaller-scale studies have been generated through Heritage Lottery Fund (HLF) projects involving local community members. These are partly driven by political forces encouraging empowerment of those within society lacking the skills and confidence that the largely middle-class actors in heritage and archaeology share. Projects funded by the HLF have a social purpose — often increasing inclusion, self-worth, skills, and combating loneliness, lack of activity, and antisocial behaviour — and these have to be balanced with the heritage dimension. Post-medieval archaeology has benefitted greatly as the remains are often resilient and recognisable, and the types of issues being examined can relate to the lives of those involved. Archaeology is no longer only an end in itself, but also a means to other ends, though some of the effectiveness of such projects has been questioned (Simpson 2008;

Simpson and Williams 2008), and further research on the extent and nature of impact is under way. The peace process in Northern Ireland has also used archaeology to increase mutual understanding across the religious and political divide, with projects on native and plantation settlements revealing evidence of past co-existence and more complex histories than acknowledged by the traditional binary narratives (Horning 2007a; Horning et al. 2015).

Underwater archaeologists have been particularly effective in engaging local diving clubs with monitoring and non-destructive evaluation of wreck sites (Satchell 2008). This has involved extensive diver training programmes, and support for the mapping and monitoring of sites. Many wreck sites have been located and identified by these diving groups, and their members fully participate in academic events with their professional partners.

Conclusions

The first decades of the 21st century have been transformative for historical archaeology in Britain and Ireland, consolidating its place within the heritage industry, academia, and in public perception.

The recognition of the social value of the recent past by state bodies such as Historic England and Historic Environment Scotland has led to several significant changes in scale of investigation. The importance of both the archaeological recording of standing buildings prior to conversion or demolition, and the significant historic component in archaeological mitigation for large infrastructure projects, has been profound. Such developer-funded projects have led to large amounts of new data, often linked to sophisticated research questions and leading to the employment of historical archaeologists to an unprecedented degree.

The community value of historical archaeology has also seen a significant rise in HLF projects taking place in all parts of Britain, with equivalent Heritage Council-funded projects in the Republic of Ireland. The recent past often relates to local identities and sense of place, and the artefacts and deposits are often sufficiently robust that both excavation and analysis are possible to acceptable standards by community groups with professional support.

In contrast to the local context, many British and Irish archaeology projects have also begun to consider European and global contexts to a far greater degree than in the past (Laurence 2003; Brooks 2016). Post-medieval archaeology engages with major themes of interest to archaeologists of other periods, anthropologists, geographers, and historians. An example would be the research on the theme of improvement using a variety of data sets (Tarlow 2007; Symonds 2011, Forsythe 2013; Clutterbuck 2015). The implications of involvement in slavery — and eventually its abolition — have also been investigated, in part to support exhibitions linked to the anniversary of the abolition of slavery in Britain, for all the problematic heritage issues these have revealed (Webster 2008, 2015; Smith et al. 2011).

Though single honours archaeology student numbers are falling across Britain, history numbers remain resilient and historical archaeology is able to seize the opportunity to provide a material dimension to the study of the past to many more students as departments are combined and curricula restructured to offer more student choice. Moreover, the mix of theory and practice in field archaeology — led not only by universities but also the major field units — means that the publications offer more inspiring pedagogic resources than in the first decades of post-medieval archaeology when descriptive typology and dating dominated the literature as the material base was defined and classified.

The last two decades have seen more post-medieval archaeology undertaken across all parts of Britain and Ireland, and largely on a more ambitious and intellectually rigorous scale than ever before. Many large projects are in the process of being published and more research students are being recruited. There has never been a more vibrant couple of decades for our subject, and we can anticipate many more stimulating studies to come.

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