Market Lavington, Wiltshire

An Anglo-Saxon cemetery and settlement

By Phillip Williams and Richard Newman

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Excavations at Grove Farm, 1986–90

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with contributions from

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Front cover: Detail of saucer brooch (obj. 289, grave 26)

Back cover: Two pairs of saucer brooches (left: objs 33 & 34, grave 7; right: objs 288 & 289, grave 26)

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Following a hiatus in the publication programme, English Heritage once again stepped forward, in 2004, and offered a grant for the completion of the report and subsequent publication (the details of this are elaborated further below). In the final stage of this rather protracted post-excavation programme we are particularly grateful to Sarah Jennings, Jill Hummerstone, and David Robinson of English Heritage for help and advice. Co-ordinating the completion of the report has been undertaken by Phil Andrews, and overseen by Karen Walker. We are grateful to all the contributors for waiting patiently for so long to see their work appear in print, and acknowledge their understanding of the pragmatic approach that has been adopted in this case.

The illustrations are by Linda Coleman, S.E. James, and Robert Read. S E. James undertook the final preparation of the drawings for publication. The cover photographs are by Elaine Wakefield.

Detailed analyses of all artefacts from all episodes of excavation on the site are held in archive. All finds have been packaged according to UKIC guidelines for the treatment of excavated artefacts (Hunter 1988) and will be deposited, together with the archive, at Devizes Museum.

Abstract

The village of Market Lavington lies on a low greensand ridge at the foot of the north-west scarp of the chalk forming Salisbury Plain. The area has attracted settlement at various times from the Mesolithic period onwards, and a possible Roman villa has been recorded from aerial photographs. However, it is the Anglo-Saxon evidence for settlement and burial that is of particular interest at Market Lavington, uncovered during rescue excavations in 1990.

Forty-two inhumation burials probably spanning the late 5th and 6th centuries were excavated and unstratified finds suggest that a 7th century element may have been destroyed during development prior to 1990. The burials were interred with a variety of personal items and weapons, associated with quantities of preserved textile. The cemetery has provided an opportunity to examine burial practice in early Saxon Wiltshire and allowed an assessment of the structure of the social groups being interred at Market Lavington. The significance of the site is increased by the presence of early and mid-Saxon settlement features, including three sunken-featured buildings, broadly contemporary with the cemetery.

The subsequent sequence of late Saxon and medieval plot boundaries and other remains, and their proximity to the parish church, has enhanced understanding of the growth of the village which, by the 14th century, had become a minor town in Wiltshire. The relatively large assemblage of finds and ecofacts, and a closely-dated palynological sequence with evidence for late Saxon viticulture, provide new information on this period of rural development.

Zusammenfassung

Das Dorf Market Lavington liegt auf einem niedrigen Grünsandkamm am Fuß des nordwestlichen Abhangs der Kalkformation, die die Ebene von Salisbury bildet. Besiedlungsaktivität läßt sich in dieser Gegend seit dem Mesolithikum nachweisen, und Luftbildaufnahmen zeigen Spuren, die möglicherweise zu einer römischen Villa gehören. Von besonderem Interesse sind jedoch die Nachweise angelsächsischer Besiedlung und Bestattungen, die in Market Lavington bei Rettungsgrabungen 1990 entdeckt wurden.

Es wurden 42 Körperbestattungen, die wahrscheinlich den Zeitraum des 5. und 6. Jahrhunderts abdecken, ausgegraben. Streufunde legen zudem nahe, daß ursprünglich auch Elemente des 7. Jahrhunderts vorhanden waren, die aber wahrscheinlich durch Baumaßnahmen vor 1990 zerstört wurden. Die Bestattungen waren mit zahlreichen persönlichen Gegenständen und Waffen ausgestattet. Außerdem hat sich eine Vielzahl textiler Funde erhalten. Das Gräberfeld bot die Möglichkeit, die Bestattungssitten im frühsächsischen Wiltshire sowie die Strukturen der in Market Lavington bestatteten sozialen Gruppen zu untersuchen. Die Bedeutung des Fundplatzes wird noch gesteigert durch den Nachweis früh- und mittelsächsischer Siedlungsstrukturen, darunter drei Grubenhäuser, die mit dem Gräberfeld mehr oder weniger zeitgleich sind.

Die daran anschließende Abfolge spätsächsischer und mittelalterlicher Grundstücksgrenzen und anderer Überreste sowie deren Nähe zur Pfarrkirche hat die Kenntnisse über die Entwicklung des Dorfes verbessert, das sich im 14. Jahrhundert zu einer Kleinstadt in Wiltshire entwickelt hat. Die relativ große Menge an Kleinfunden und botanischen Funden sowie eine gut datierte Pollensequenz mit Nachweis spätsächsischen Weinbaus liefern wichtige Informationen für diese Periode ländlicher Entwicklung.

Übersetzung: Jörn Schuster

Résumé

Le village de Market Lavington est situé sur une arête basse de grès vert à la base de l'escarpement nord-ouest de la craie formant la plaine de Salisbury. La région a été colonisée plusieurs fois à partir du Mésolithique et reconnaissance aérienne suggère la présence d'une villa romaine. Pourtant, c'est l'évidence découverte au cours des fouilles de sauvetage en 1990 du village et cimetière anglo-saxon qui est d'intérêt particulier à Market Lavington,.

Quarante-deux inhumations datant du 5e et 6e siècles après JC furent découvert, et des objets non stratifiés suggèrent qu'un élément du 7e siècle a été détruit au cours de travaux de développement entrepris avant 1990. Les inhumations ont été enterrées avec une variété des objets de parure et des armes, associés avec des quantités des textiles préservés. La découverte du cimetière a fourni la possibilité d'examiner les pratiques d'enterrement haut médiéval en Wiltshire et a permis l'évaluation de la structure du groupe social enterré à Market Lavington. L'importance du site est augmenté par la découverte des vestiges du village proto- et haut saxon, y compris trois maisons fosses qui seraient plus ou moins contemporaines avec le cimetière.

La séquence suivante des limites d'immeubles et d'autres vestiges tardo-saxon et médiévaux et leur proximité à l'église paroissiale ont augmenté la connaissance de l'expansion du village qui, dès le 14e siècle, est devenu une petite ville en Wiltshire. L'assemblage des objets et des trouvailles botaniques, aussi bien qu'une séquence palynologique bien datée indiquant viticulture tardo-saxon, fournissent des informations importantes pour cette période de développement rural.

Traduction: Jörn Schuster

Preface

The bulk of this report was completed in 1992, with the structural text and grave catalogue both being substantially reduced in length in 1995 (by Julie Gardiner) following readers' comments. A revised pollen report with additional radiocarbon dates was received in 1997. Soon after this, and with part of the text already typeset, the publication programme stalled for several reasons and the project remained dormant for seven years.

In late 2004 Wessex Archaeology was asked by English Heritage to submit a proposal for completion and publication of the report in as rapid and cost-effective way as possible. Two options were considered: a Wessex Archaeology Report, involving publishing the existing report more or less as it stood in 1997, or a very substantially cut down version – essentially only the Anglo-Saxon cemetery – as an article in the local journal (the *Wiltshire Archaeological Magazine*). The former option was considered appropriate, and possibly easier, but it was recognised that this would require that a very pragmatic approach be adopted to completing the report.

Work recommenced following approval of the publication proposal at the beginning of 2005. This allowed for only minor changes to the figures and minimal or no re-writing of the text. For this reason there has been no attempt to update the structural text from its position in 1997 and most of the specialist contributions as they were written in 1992, though a few more recent references have been added. However, the project design did allow for the preparation of an updated and enlarged concluding discussion, particularly relating to the cemetery, in order that the site could be set alongside more recent developments in village settlement research and the study of Anglo-Saxon cemeteries.

It is hoped that the reasons for this approach to the publication being adopted will be understood; had this not been done then it is certain that the site would have remained as an unpublished archive report. Such an end to the project would not have done justice to the efforts made to organise the excavation, the hard work undertaken on site, and the subsequent contributions of the various authors. The local, if not regional importance of, in particular, the Anglo-Saxon elements of the site at Grove Farm, Market Lavington, is still apparent more than 15 years after the excavation was undertaken.

1. Introduction

1. Geology and Topography

The village of Market Lavington, Wiltshire (SU 0135 5415) is situated astride a small ridge (at *c.* 100 m OD) within the Upper Greensand bench which runs below and parallel to the northern chalk escarpment of Salisbury Plain and which overlooks the gault clays and lowlands to the south of Devizes. The ridge is a result of the action of a small stream to the south (between the chalk and greensand) and the Easterton Brook to the north (which cuts through the Upper Greensand bench).

The site itself is situated on the northern slope of the ridge (Fig. 1), at the base of which is the Easterton Brook. The Upper Greensand at this location is highly variable but predominantly consists of buff to olive-green coloured micaceous sandstone with occasional patches of mottled clay known collectively as 'Gaize' (Findlay 1986). The greensand contains a number of discontinuous soft sandstone beds and is mainly composed of loose and structureless, or weakly laminated, sand. It also contains localised patches of ironstone. The greensand is predominantly olive-green in colour due to the presence of glauconite, but weathers to yellowish-brown or buff. The valley floor of the Easterton Brook contains localised peat and alluvium, together with eroded, presumably colluvial, greensand derived deposits.

The present day soils at Market Lavington consist of stone-free sandy loams and are typical brown earths of the Urchfont Series (Findlay 1986). They are deep, permeable coarse loamy soils with greenish, glauconitic subsoils passing to sand, often bedded at depth, and extending over the gently sloping areas of Upper Greensand. The soils are circum-neutral to slightly calcareous, though the localised patches of clay or ironstone result in small patches of more acidic soils.

The summit of the ridge is occupied by the present village church and cemetery, the majority of the modern and medieval settlement lying both to the south and east.

2. Historical Overview

Origins

There was an estate known as Lavington before the Norman Conquest, for it is described in *Domesday* as having been held by Queen Edith. The present small town of Market Lavington appears to have originated as a market and planned 'urban' settlement in the mid 13th century. It has long been clear, however, that this planned 'town' was grafted onto an earlier settlement. In 1976, Haslam, in his survey of the towns of Wiltshire, postulated an earlier village of late Saxon origin focused around the church (Haslam 1976, 82, 95).

Before the Saxons

Contrary to Haslam's assertion (ibid., 39) that no finds had been made of a prehistoric or Roman date in the Market Lavington area, artefacts from the Neolithic period onwards have been found in the locality since at least the 1960s. The greensand ridge and its associated spring-line probably provided a focus of settlement from earliest times. The remains of field systems and burial mounds on the neighbouring chalk downs of Salisbury Plain are well attested, but artefacts of Neolithic and Bronze Age date have also been found in the vicinity of Market Lavington along the greensand ridge. The Wiltshire Archaeological and Natural History Society's museum at Devizes records flint tools from Frieth Farm, Manor Woods, and from elsewhere in the parish. Also recorded from the edge of the Plain at Rams Cliff is a Bronze Age shafthole axe (Robinson pers. comm.).

Although no material of Iron Age date has been recorded locally, the density of Romano-British finds indicates that native British settlements were probably present in the vicinity before the Roman Conquest (Fig. 2). Again, Devizes Museum records Romano-British pottery sherds found at various places along the greensand ridge. A 3rd century bronze coin, a barbarous radiate, was found on the present Market Lavington–Easterton parish boundary and the *Victoria County History* (*VCH*) for Wiltshire records a bronze bow-spring brooch having been found in Market Lavington and deposited in the British Museum (*VCH* I.1, 85). The most notable Romano-British find in the area was the 'Easterton Hoard' discovered in the 1860s, which consisted of *c.* 100 Roman coins dating from AD 348–353 (Moorhead 1984, 41–9). Air-photographic evidence for a possible early villa site has also been noted approximately 250 m west of Market Lavington parish church.

It is likely that some form of sub-Roman control and jurisdiction prevailed in the area for perhaps 80 years after the withdrawal of the Roman army from Britain. Archaeological evidence from a number of sites indicates that, by the late 5th century, much of northern, central, and eastern Wiltshire had been taken over by Saxon peoples (Fowler 1976, 31, fig.

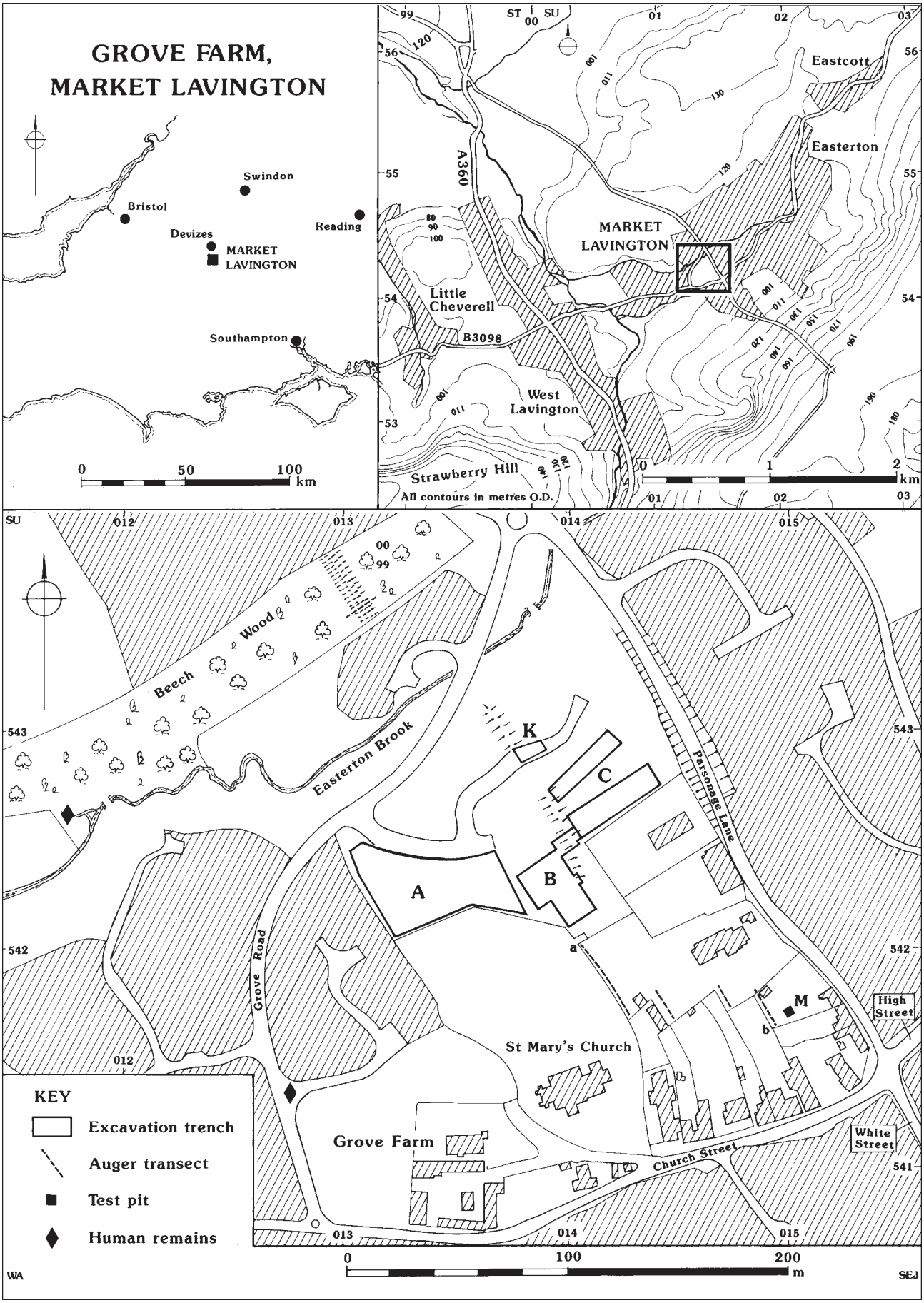

Figure 1 Grove Farm, Market Lavington: location of 1990 excavations (Reproduced by permission of the Ordnance Survey on behalf of Her Majesty's Stationary Office © Crown Copyright 1000028190)

1.4), perhaps those known later as the *Geuissae* of the Upper Thames Valley (Yorke 1989, 96).

The Saxon Period

Lavington is a name of Anglo-Saxon derivation meaning the farm or settlement of *Lafa's* people (Gover *et al.* 1939, 240; Tomkin 1983, 65). The name is first recorded in *Domesday* in 1086 as *Laventone*, when the estate of that name was recorded as being held prior to the Conquest by Queen Edith. The estate consisted of 15 hides, including what appears to have been a large area of common grazing, presumably on the Downs, and a mere 12 acres of woodland (Thorn and Thorn 1979, 73b). As a royal estate the place may have been of some importance. Certainly there is plenty of archaeological evidence to suggest that Market Lavington was an Anglo-Saxon settlement (Fig. 2). Grass-tempered pottery has been found, not only near the church but also at the Non-Conformist cemetery in Fiddington, and at Fiddington Clays a *sceatta* was found in 1988. Nevertheless, it is around Market Lavington church that stray finds of Anglo-Saxon date are concentrated. A bronze strap-end and a bone comb have been found on the south side of the road, opposite the church, and a 10th century book clasp was discovered at Grove Farm (Robinson pers. comm.).

The Middle Ages

Following the Norman Conquest, Queen Edith's estate was granted to Robert the Marshall, along with Gore, a small detached part of Lavington on the Plain (Thorn and Thorn 1979, 73b). It is unclear whether West Lavington and Market or East Lavington were already separate estates by the Conquest; if not, they became so soon afterwards. By 1242 Market Lavington was being referred to as Steeple Lavington; the prefix here, as at nearby Steeple Ashton, being derived from *stapul* meaning a market (Crittall 1975, 82). During the later Middle Ages, Market Lavington was also referred to as Chipping Lavington and Lavington Forum, both names indicative of its market status and presumably used, as with the Steeple place name element, to distinguish the settlement from West or Bishops Lavington.

A market charter for Market Lavington was granted to the manorial lord, Richard Rochelle, in 1254 (Crittall 1975, 82), clearly recognising an already existing situation; a not unusual occurrence. Although Market Lavington does not possess a borough charter, nor was anyone described as holding property by burghal tenure in surveys of 1225, 1308, or 1361 (Wilts. IPM 1242–1326, 192; Wilts. IPM 1327–77, 291; Stevenson 1987, 89–91), there does seem to have been an attempt to establish it as a town in the mid 13th century. Morphologically, the settlement consists of two distinct parts, a nucleus around the church and planned extensions to the east along High Street and to the south along White Street. The planned nature of these extensions can still be seen in the present-day property boundaries. Elements of planning can also be seen in the creation of a market area, probably now much reduced in size by later encroachments, and by the provision of encompassing backlanes. In its layout it resembles some other medieval Wiltshire towns, such as the boroughs of Downton and Heytesbury. It must be stressed, however, that unlike them it never possessed any burghal institutions, nor was its community ever summoned to attend a medieval parliament (Rathbone 1951).

These planned extensions are best interpreted as being laid out in the 13th century in association with the development of a market or perhaps even the granting of market rights. The settlement focus around the church continued to be of importance, however, for in the early 14th century an aisled hall was built to the east of the church. This was probably the capital messuage of the Rochelle manor and is today known as the Old House (Crittall 1975, 88).

That Market Lavington achieved some success as a town can be inferred from the reduction in the revenues of nearby Devizes in the mid 13th century (Haslam 1976); indeed, in 1255, attempts were made to suppress the market because of this (Close 1254–6, 86). Ironically, by 1267, Richard Rochelle was complaining that his market was being damaged by the Abbess of Romsey's market at Steeple Ashton (*VCH* VIII, 210). Nevertheless, by 1332 Market Lavington was the wealthiest place in the Kings Rowborough Hundred (Crowley 1989, 94–5), and had a higher tax assessment than that for the boroughs of Downton, Ludgershall, Calne, Cricklade, Bedwyn, Marlborough, the decayed borough of Old Sarum, and perhaps, most significantly, Devizes (ibid.). The meaning of such information is not clear and these statistics should be set against the fact that Market Lavington was not as highly rated nor had as many tax payers as Bishops Lavington. In 1334, Market Lavington was listed as one of the 18 most highly rated fiscal units in the county and ranked with Wilton (Crittall 1975, 94). In 1377 it had 252 poll tax payers, nearly as many as Chippenham. In the 14th century, Market Lavington certainly earned wealth from more than just agriculture having innkeepers, merchants, and cloth workers within the settlement (Crittall 1975, 94–5). By the early 19th century, John Britton was able to describe it as having the appearance of being 'formerly a considerable town' (Britton 1814, 443).

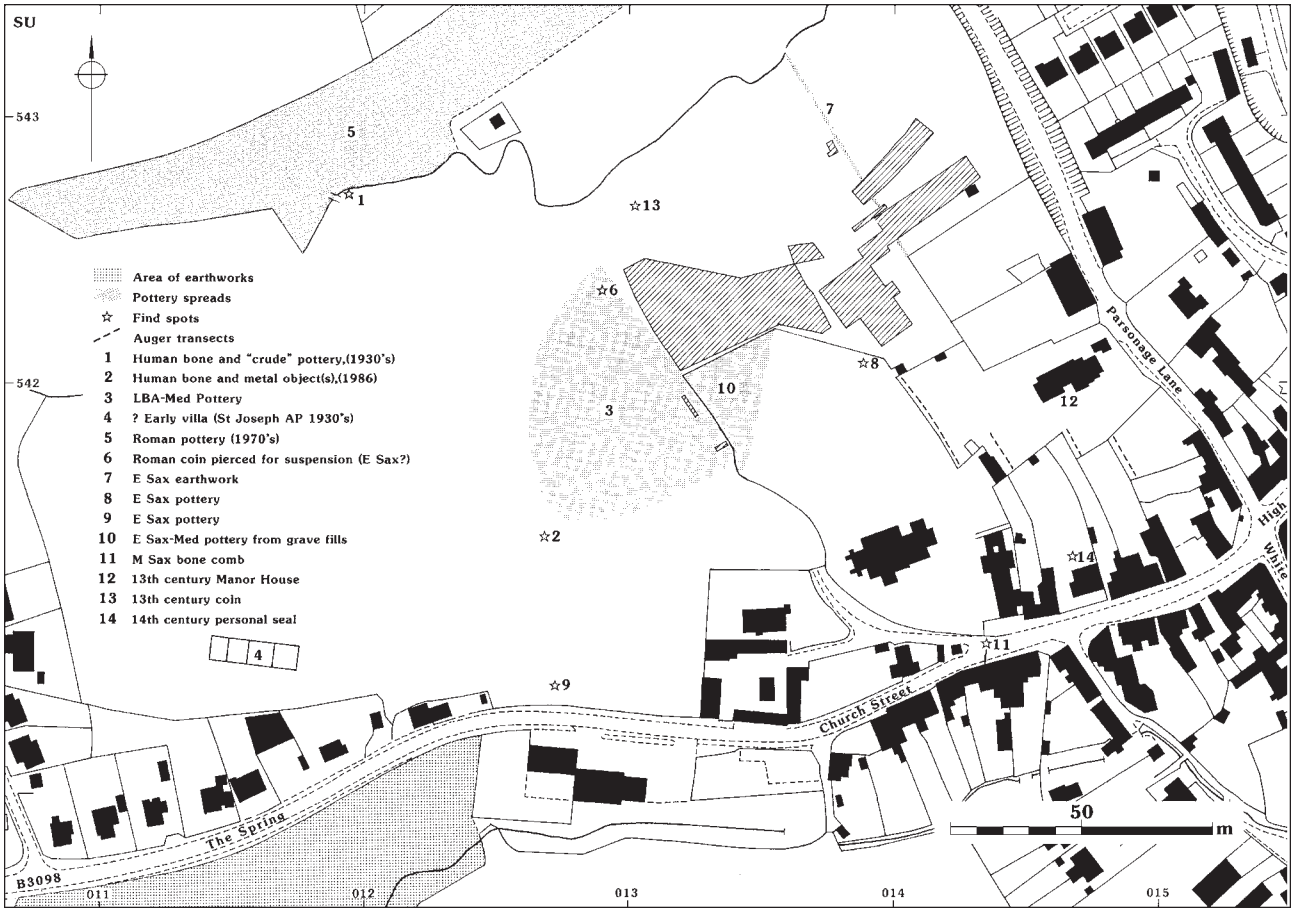

Figure 2 Features and findspots recorded in the vicinity (Reproduced by permission of the Ordnance Survey on behalf of Her Majesty's Stationary Office © Crown Copyright 1000028190)

Agricultural Economy and Landscape

In 1086 the estate of Robert the Marshall was said to have land for ten ploughs and there were a total of nine ploughs held by the estate's inhabitants (Thorn and Thorn 1979, 73b). By the later 17th century, the landscape of Market Lavington appears to have been divided into clearly definable zones related to underlying geology and topography. To the north of the settlement on the greensand was an area of common meadow, probably occupying both flanks of the valley of the Easterton Brook. This land was enclosed by agreement in 1662 (PRO C78/1243/5; Crittall 1975, 95). To the south of the settlement in the heavy soils known as the clays, the soils being derived from clay and probably some colluvium overlying Lower Chalk, lay the principal arable fields. By the late 18th century these consisted of a series of common fields (ibid., 96), probably originally derived from a two-field system. To the south and climbing towards the Plain, was further but less fertile arable land underlain by the Middle Chalk. This land was under common fields probably derived from a three-field system.

In the 18th century it was farmed on a four-year cycle of two years arable crop followed by two years of sheep grazed grass. This is indicative of its relative lack of fertility and it can thus be suggested that these fields were only taken into cultivation at times of high population within the township. Finally on the Downs of the Upper Chalk was the common pasture land. The grounds at highest elevation on the Plain were only used as summer pastures (Crittall 1975, 96). The arable and pasture lands were enclosed by Act of Parliament in 1781, when a total of 2076 acres was enclosed (Sandal 1971, 93–4).

In the 19th century it was considered that Market Lavington had been a considerable corn market (Atley 1855, 5). Certainly both wheat and barley were grown in the 18th and 19th centuries (Crittall 1975, 96). During this period, as today, there was a lack of woodland in the parish, though the countryside viewable to the north was described as 'well wooded' (Atley 1855, 10). A lack of woodland within Market Lavington township appears to reflect a situation existing since at least the time of *Domesday*. Small holdings of woodland are sporadically mentioned within the township during the Middle Ages, five acres in 1444 and 25 acres of woodland in Easterton and Market Lavington in 1495 (Kirby 1956, 121, 126), probably the combined total acreage for the two townships.

The Church

The present day church of St Mary at Market Lavington is a Victorian restoration of a medieval church built in phases during the 14th and 15th centuries (Crittall 1975, 103). That an earlier church existed on the site is indicated by 12th century carved masonry fragments incorporated into the later fabric. The churchyard is mentioned in 1360 (Stevenson 1987, 97) but not otherwise described. Its 14th century extent was probably the same as that depicted on the 1840 tithe map (WRO TA Market Lavington). It was first extended northwards in 1862, incorporating a cottage and garden. It was extended to encompass its present limits in 1906, when it encroached upon the field known in 1840 as Home Mead Orchard (WRO TA Market Lavington). This is the plot of land developed by Walter Lawrence Homes and excavated by Wessex Archaeology in 1990.

3. Archaeological Background

In 1986, a planning application was submitted by Walter Lawrence Homes (Wessex) Ltd for a residential development on what was at that time a green-field site lying on the northern slope of the greensand ridge immediately to the north and west of the parish churchyard (Fig. 1). The Wiltshire County Field Archaeologist specified a brief for archaeological evaluation of the development area and the work was undertaken by the Thamesdown Archaeological Unit during August 1986 (TAU 1986).

Thamesdown Evaluation 1986

The evaluation work was primarily targeted at the investigation of two low mounds situated just to the north-west of the modern parish churchyard. There was no assessment of the archaeological potential of the development area as a whole with the lamentable result that much information was subsequently lost.

The two mounds had been modified by modern trackways and footpaths but one was found to be quite pronounced, rounded (5.5 m south–north and 6.5 m east–west) and with a maximum height of 0.6 m at its centre (TAU 1986). The surface was uneven and many house bricks were observed protruding from it. The second was much less distinct, showing as a low platform with definable southern and western edges, merging into the modern churchyard to the east, and with no discernible northern limit.

The mounds were investigated by use of hand-dug trenches (T1 and T2, see Fig. 4). The excavation of trench T1 (1.5 x 5.0 m) revealed the remains of an uncoursed wall foundation associated with a demolition layer of recent date (ibid., 2). Trench T2 (1.5 x 10 m) produced markedly different results. Over two metres of overburden were removed before the greensand subsoil was revealed. This material contained quantities of Romano-British, early Saxon, and later medieval pottery, a hammered silver coin (subsequently lost), and small quantities of post-medieval material (ibid., 3). A north–south ditch (215) running along the long axis of trench T2 contained a large quantity of animal bone in association with Romano-British and early Saxon pottery; no later material was recovered from this deposit.

The depth of overburden in the immediate area was further investigated by the hand excavation of two test pits 30 m and 60 m west of T2 respectively (not illustrated). In both cases the 'topsoil' was found to be of considerable depth (>0.8 m) and could not be bottomed within the confines of the test pits. There are no records of any finds from these additional trial works. The depth of 'topsoil' within the modern churchyard is also noted (ibid., 3), and the grave-digger is quoted as reporting that subsoil was not encountered at depths of up to six feet (1.8 m), during grave-digging.

The presence of valley peats at the bottom of the slope is also mentioned (TAU 1986, 3), these being identified by the excavators during the observation of ground stability testing by the water authority. The stratigraphy of the valley floor was summarised as

> '... to a depth of *c.* 5 m. Here the topsoil/subsoil layer was 30 cm deep with gravel, peat, and clay with sarsen boulders stratified naturally beneath'.

The concluding paragraphs of the evaluation report (TAU 1986) comment that the Romano-British and early Saxon coarsewares were not unexpected and state that the lack of archaeological features was disappointing. The north–south ditch is ascribed to the early Saxon period and it is noted in passing that Romano-British sherds were present both in mole-hills within the modern churchyard and as a surface scatter to the north of and adjacent to the Easterton Brook.

The Interim Period

No additional archaeological work was stipulated further to that carried out by the Thamesdown Unit, and planning permission was granted to Walter Lawrence Homes (Wessex) Ltd with no archaeological constraint, other than the standard allowance for access stipulated for Kennet District Council planning consent in the area at that time. Residential development commenced initially within the area to

the north-west of the parish churchyard. With the exception of a small number of artefacts recovered by metal detector no record was made of any items of archaeological interest. One group of metal detector finds was reported in the local press as possibly being associated with human remains but no details were recorded.

In January 1988, one of the houses on the development was purchased by one of the authors of this report (P. Williams). During the clearance and levelling of the gardens of the property, large quantities of animal bone and sherds of pottery dating from the Late Bronze Age to the early medieval period were recovered. Subsequent examination of the flower beds in adjacent properties produced similar results. This suggested that extensive archaeological deposits had been destroyed by the construction of the houses. As a result, Williams maintained a watching brief on the construction works over the next two years. Little was observed until mid 1990 when groundworks began for the final phase of development of the housing estate. This phase of construction affected the area to the north and east of the churchyard, an area totalling *c.* 1 ha.

At the time when the first visit to the construction site was made, a small area had been roughly topsoil stripped and excavation had begun for the construction of a service roadway (Fig. 3). The surface of the stripped area was found to contain dense scatters of pottery of Romano-British and later date in association with building material, mainly Romano-British, and animal bone. Several subsoil features were also visible in the southern section of the cutting for the service road. One of these was examined and in part excavated; it contained quantities of late 3rd and 4th century pottery and building material.

The potential of the site was immediately brought to the attention of both the County Field Archaeologist and the Director of Wessex Archaeology and a further site visit was made. At this stage, English Heritage was approached in order to seek funding for a rapid evaluation of the areas under immediate threat. A tripartite strategy was suggested: hand excavation of a small area of known high potential, machine trenching, and geophysical survey. English Heritage immediately made funding available and an evaluation was carried out between 19 and 23 July 1990.

Wessex Archaeology Evaluation July 1990

The evaluation was carried out under what were far from ideal conditions, in high temperatures with minimal rainfall. This made feature recognition almost impossible because of the minimal tonal contrast between feature fills and the subsoil. Many attempts were made at dampening the excavated surfaces, but all met with negligible success, the water evaporating within seconds of hitting the ground. The excavation process was also confounded by wind-blown sand, the top 20 mm being generally so dry as to disperse with the slightest wind. Almost certainly many features remained unrecognised as a result, and those excavated must be regarded as only a small percentage of those which may have been actually present.

At the time of the evaluation, the developer's construction works had been restricted to the western half of the area remaining for development. To the east, the field was bisected south–north by a large linear earthwork bank, interrupted at its mid point and seemingly associated with a ditch on its eastern flank. To the east of this feature, the slope of the ridge was interrupted by two, possibly three, slight east–west lynchets (Fig. 3).

Area evaluation and excavation

Work was initially concentrated in the western area, adjacent to the cutting for the estate service road which was then under construction and had been topsoil stripped at the beginning of development. The area examined (later subsumed in Area A) was hand cleaned and all definable subsoil features were then hand excavated. Excavated features included the mortar floor of a small Romano-British building, pits and ditches attributable to the early Saxon period, and a group of 13 early Saxon inhumation burials (see below). The Romano-British feature previously examined had been totally removed by further excavation for the service road. On discovery of the burials the excavated area was extended southwards in order to attempt to define the southern boundary of the cemetery.

Geophysical survey

The southern section of the area to the east of Area A was examined by resistivity and magnetometer survey (Fig. 3) the results of which are detailed in archive. The geophysical surveys appeared to indicate the presence of several large linear features, including two possible enclosure ditches (Fig. 3, a and b), potential rubble spreads, and a number of possible large pits.

Machine trenching

The pits and rubble spreads were examined by a machine excavated trench (later subsumed in Area B, see Fig. 3), 2 m wide and 30 m in length. This trench was machine excavated to the base of the topsoil, at which point a compacted surface of chalk and flint was encountered. This surface would certainly have masked any subsoil features and as it was attributable by artefact association to the late post-medieval

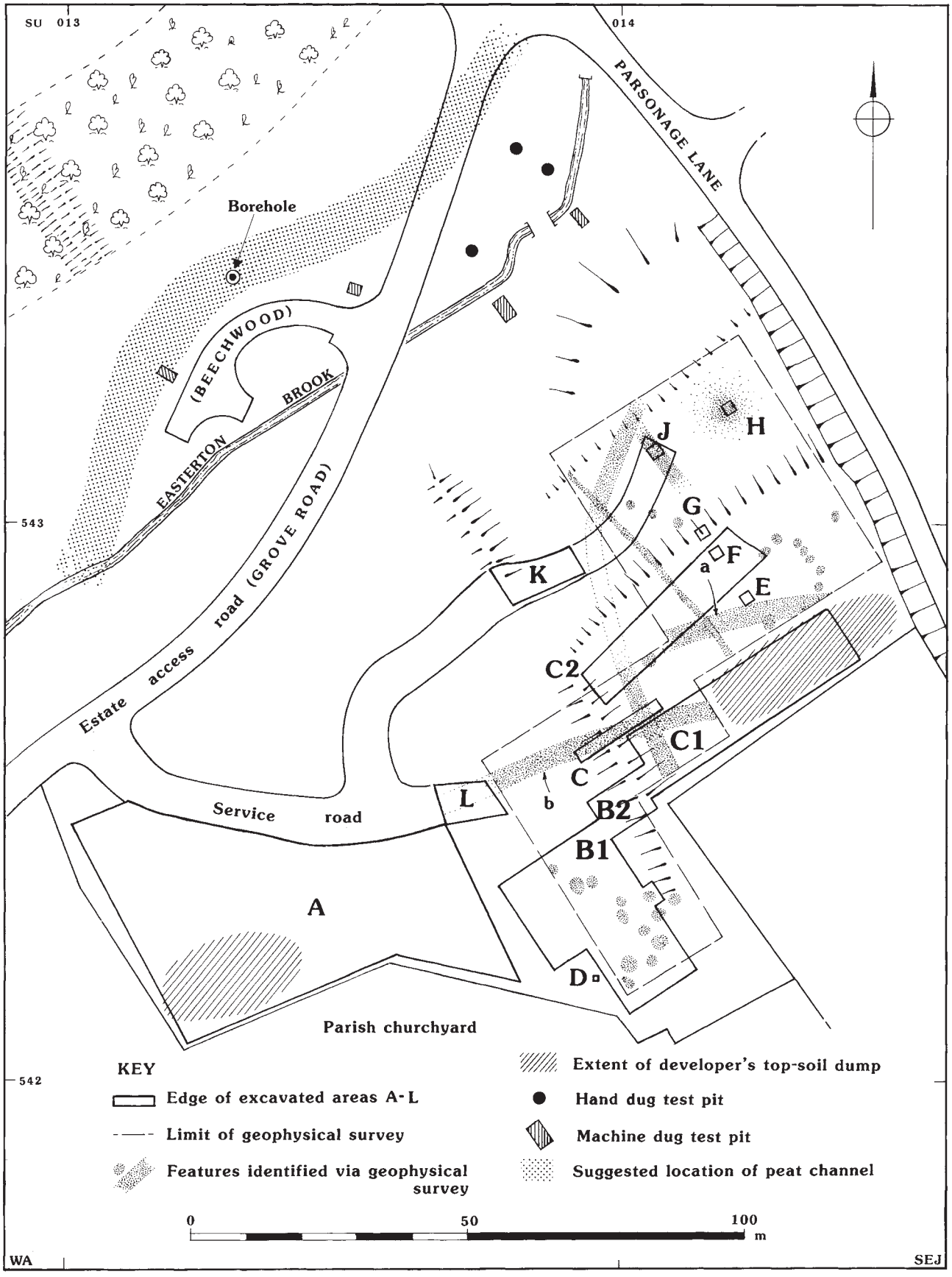

Figure 3 Site plan with areas subject to geophysical survey and excavation

period, it was also removed by machine. Its removal revealed a layer of very dark greyish-brown sandy loam, the surface of which was rich in early Saxon pottery and animal bone. The layer was sampled by means of a 2 m² test pit located at the southern extremity of the machine trench. This test pit was hand excavated in 0.1 m spits and also yielded early Saxon pottery and animal bone. The sandy loam layer overlay both the natural greensand subsoil and the fill of a north–south linear feature which, on excavation, appeared to be of early Saxon date.

For the comparison of soil depths and artefact densities, a 1 m² test pit (D) was hand excavated in 0.1 m spits to the west of Area B. After topsoil removal, a layer similar to that seen beneath the chalk surface in Area B was revealed. This layer was found to be 0.6 m deep and overlay the greensand subsoil. Once again it yielded early Saxon material.

A trench (C), 4 m wide and 17 m in length, was excavated by machine, and cut the linear earthwork at right angles (Fig. 3). The bank make-up (509) was found to be homogeneous, and sealed a buried soil horizon (see Fig. 7, 503). The buried soil was cut by a north–south ditch (Fig. 7, 511) which lay close to the centre line of the bank. To the east of the bank was a substantial flanking ditch (Fig. 7, 505) which appeared to have been recut on at least one occasion (Fig. 7, 507). No reliable dating evidence was retrieved from this trench.

Palaeo-environmental fieldwork

In addition to the archaeological fieldwork, efforts were made to examine the valley floor peat deposit (Fig. 3) which had been noted in the Thamesdown Unit's evaluation report. An attempt was made to obtain at least one pollen core, initially for assessment, and subsequently for complete analysis. Fieldwork was carried out by Wessex Archaeology staff with on-site advice from the English Heritage palynologist, Patricia Wiltshire. Access to the areas where peat had been previously observed was limited by the construction of the estate access road, the presence of high voltage electricity cables, and areas sealed by hard core and scalpings for construction. Nevertheless, it was assumed that the peat deposits were relatively extensive and small hand excavated test pits, coring, and subsequently machine dug test pits were excavated in order to identify it (Fig. 3). Three machine dug test pits were bottomed into greensand, none being in excess of 1.85 m. No peat was observed. In all three instances the excavated deposits were predominantly post-medieval colluvium. Three small hand-dug test pits also failed to record peat and were bottomed at less than 0.6 m. There were no further potential areas for examination.

The distribution of test pits, and the fact that the construction of the estate access road (Fig. 3) encountered up to 3 m of peat along the valley bottom, suggested that the peat probably existed within a relict river channel and did not occupy extensive areas of the valley floor.

The results of the evaluation were assimilated into a report which was submitted to English Heritage at the end of July 1990, together with detailed proposals for an excavation programme. The proposals were accepted and excavation took place in August–September 1990.

Wessex Archaeology Excavations

Three areas of the site (A, B, and C) were targeted for further excavation work on the basis of the evaluation results (Fig. 3).

Area A

Extending to the south and west of evaluation trench A, the principal objective of excavating this area was to record features relating to the early Saxon cemetery. The south-western corner of this area was covered by spoilheaps derived from construction works for the residential development immediately to the west. These were later removed by the developer and then the remnant topsoil stripped by machine. The subsoil was subsequently removed by machine in a closely controlled manner in 0.05–0.10 m spits, any definable features and burials being excavated by hand prior to the next spit being removed. The area which had been machine stripped during the evaluation, but not cleaned and examined, was also excavated.

Area B

The evaluation results indicated that the area to the east of Area A contained a 'dark earth' deposit which was likely to provide data relating to intensive early Saxon and later occupation. A test pit and a machine trench had suggested that feature definition within this deposit would be very difficult and that artefact and ecofact densities were very high. In order to examine this deposit, it was proposed to remove the topsoil and the post-medieval yard surface by machine and then to hand excavate an area (B1) of the 'dark earth'. The suggested strategy was to excavate in 0.10 m spits, employing a collection unit size of 1 m². It was hoped that this would allow subsequent spatial analysis enabling the definition of otherwise invisible cut features. After the removal of the 'dark earth', it was proposed to hand-excavate any definable features cutting into the natural subsoil.

Area C

The evaluation, with the exclusion of the geophysical survey, had concentrated on the area to the west of the linear earthwork. It was therefore proposed to

excavate a series of 2 m² test pits (E, F, G, H, and J) to the east. A spit digging approach was again advocated, and as for the assessment test pits (B and D), all the soil was to be dry-sieved and a total artefact collection made. If, as proved to be the case, artefact density was shown to be high, then it was proposed to machine strip an area in order to assess the density of archaeological features. In the event, the developer's building programme did not allow for the excavation of a single large area; instead two rectangular trenches (C1 and C2), in area totalling that originally proposed, were stripped.

Area B2
The data recovered from Areas B1, C1, and C2 suggested that early Saxon activity was in the main restricted to the west of the north–south linear earthwork and that this feature was of early Saxon or earlier date. It was regarded as imperative to determine the relationship of this feature to the 'dark earth' deposit and, therefore, some additional funds were sought to excavate a section through the earthwork and to link Areas B1 and C1. In order to maintain integrity with the analytical procedures for B1, the same spit digging strategy was employed.

Trench K
During the course of the excavation programme, the developer extended the estate service road across the line of the linear earthwork. A watching-brief was carried out in this area.

Trench L
It was originally proposed to investigate the southern of the two large enclosure ditches (b on Fig. 3) defined by the geophysical survey, within the area of Area C1. This would, however, have caused major disruption to the developer's building programme and have had sizeable cost implications with regard to foundation works. A compromise was negotiated and a section excavated on the line of the suggested feature but to the west of the earthwork. The results were very disappointing in that no large linear feature was identified. The magnetometer results were reconciled when, at a depth of *c.* 3 m, a dense band of iron-rich sandstone was encountered. Subsequent observation of developer's trenching further to the north confirmed that the other 'ditch' was also in fact a band of ironstone.

Palaeo-environmental fieldwork
The evaluation had failed to recover a peat core, and augering had suggested that the peat-filled watercourse ran along the line of the estate access road. During the early stages of the excavation programme, the developer began construction of residential units to the north of the access road. It became immediately apparent that the peat-filled water course in fact meandered to the north and that an opportunity still existed for the recovery of a complete pollen sequence. A second stage of palaeo-environmental fieldwork was subsequently carried out (P. Wiltshire this volume).

Ancillary fieldwork
Late in the fieldwork programme a continuation of the north–south linear earthwork was identified on the north side of the valley. The availability of volunteer labour enabled an auger transect to be sited across this feature, and also provided scope for gaining some further data regarding the extent of the 'dark earth' deposit, enabling an auger transect to be carried out southwards from the main excavated areas into the centre of the modern village (see Fig. 1).

The Post-Excavation Programme and its Methodology

The particular interest of the archaeological work at Market Lavington lay in the close proximity of Anglo-Saxon settlement and a cemetery and their relationship to the later medieval settlement and church. The possibility of studying the transition from Romano-British to Anglo-Saxon settlement also existed. The excellent palaeo-environmental remains recovered from the site, notably seeds, animal bone, and pollen, further presented the possibility of examining these developments in occupation patterns within the context of the local economy and environment.

The resultant post-excavation research design set out a strategy to interpret the excavated deposits in relation to their regional and national contexts. An holistic approach was defined to present the results as an examination of trends in settlement occupation and use. Rather than over-emphasise the archaeological importance of the cemetery and treat it in isolation, the objective of the post-excavation programme was to present the cemetery as an integrated part of the story of the development of settlement at Market Lavington.

The difficulties of excavating and interpreting a greensand site with a 'dark earth' deposit were realised from the outset of the excavation programme, particularly given the 'salvage' nature of the on-site work, so both the excavation and subsequent post-excavation analysis were designed to maximise information retrieval within such difficult circumstances. The principal means of achieving this was the excavation of Area B1 in spits. Post-excavation study of this material concentrated on the computerised generation and analysis of artefact and ecofact clustering as an aid to feature recognition and hence site interpretation.

2. Settlement Features

1. Introduction

In the interests of clarity, no distinction is made within this section of the report as to the episode of work in which individual contexts were encountered. Figure 4 is a complete plan of all excavated features. The site is described by chronological phase and feature type. Group context numbers were assigned during post-excavation to closely spaced groups of features which were deemed to have had some chronological/functional or morphological relationship. Where this relationship was sufficiently coherent the group was assigned a label such as *Structure 1*, *Sunken-featured Building 2*, etc. Where several sections of what was eventually shown to be the same feature (notably ditches) were excavated the group number is used in text though the component parts are labelled on the relevant plans and sections. Site co-ordinates are provided for major features/groups (usually the approximate centre point) for ease of reference to Figure 4. The stratigraphic evidence for settlement is presented first, followed by a summary of the spatial analysis undertaken on the 'dark earth' deposit.

2. Period 1: Romano-British

Structure 1

One of the two excavated features that could be attributed to this period (group context 1282; Site grid co-ordinate (Co-ord.) 143 122) was a small, roughly rectangular structure (*c.* 5.5 m east–west; 6.5 m north–south), probably partly truncated on its northern edge by the estate access road (Fig. 5). The structure consisted of a mortar floor (1000), in the main still well-preserved and compact but becoming progressively more patchy towards the south, which in part overlay the remains of a dwarf wall (1042). This wall was constructed from locally available sandstone, insufficient of which remained in situ to determine whether it had once been coursed, or had formed a random rubble fill of the foundation trench (1277). Whichever, it had been largely removed by a robber trench (1025).

Pits

A small pit (3062) was identified at the western end of Area C1. This feature contained a rim sherd from a flat flanged dish (Dorchester type 22; Seager-Smith and Davies 1993, 233) dated to the mid-2nd century AD, and a block of ashlar masonry of locally derived sandstone.

Prior to the excavation, a large feature (1061) was observed in the southern section of the cutting for the site access road (Co-ord. 163 116). It was briefly investigated at the time but all trace of it was subsequently removed by the further extension of the road. The feature was U-profiled, *c.* 3 m in width east–west and *c.* 1.5 m deep. It contained large quantities of late 3rd and early 4th century pottery, characterised by a large mean sherd size and unabraded surfaces and breaks. This material was associated with roofing tiles, both ceramic and limestone, and a large quantity of animal bone. Only a very small sample of this material was collected and retained. At the time of observation it was not clear whether the section examined was of a pit or a north–south ditch, but its subsequent total removal by the access road makes the former more likely.

3. Period 2: Early Saxon

Features Possibly Associated with the Cemetery

Two ditches were identified running east-west across the centre section of excavation Area A (Fig. 6). The northern of these (1028; Co-ord. 160 113) turned towards the north at its eastern end before being cut by the access road. The lack of edge definition between the fill of the ditch and the surrounding subsoil precluded the line of the feature being traced for more than *c.* 12 m. The southern ditch (1278; Co-ord. 160 110) was traced for a much greater distance but was lost at its western end just as it began to turn northwards. Towards the western end of this ditch was a primary charcoal-rich fill (Fig. 6, Section 7, 1059) which extended for *c.* 5 m along its length. There was no evidence for localised burning, suggesting that burnt material was deliberately dumped. Neither ditch had any stratigraphic relationship with any other excavated feature. Dating has been determined by limited ceramic evidence and the presence of an early Saxon annular loomweight (Obj. No. 148, Fig. 52) from the fill of 1278. They may relate to the definition or subdivision of the cemetery area. Two ditches (1041, 1031) were identified near Structure 1 (Fig. 6). Both were cut by early Saxon inhumation burials and 1031 cut 1041 and the robber trench 1025 which had been dug to remove the dwarf wall of Structure 1.

Two pits close to Structure 1 (Fig. 6) have been assigned to this period. 1058, irregular in plan, cut through the mortar floor (1000) of Structure 1 while

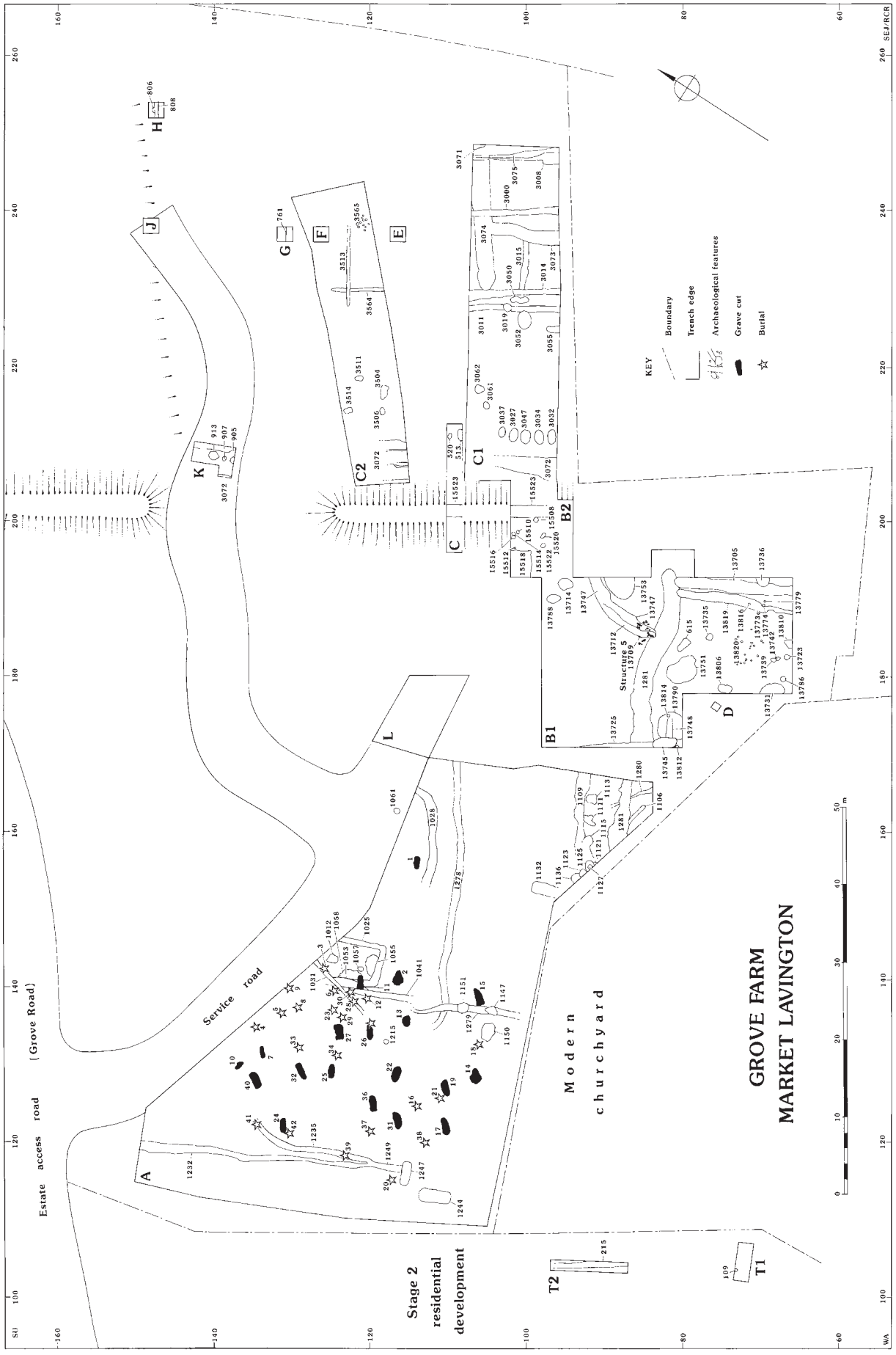

Figure 4 Overall plan showing excavated features

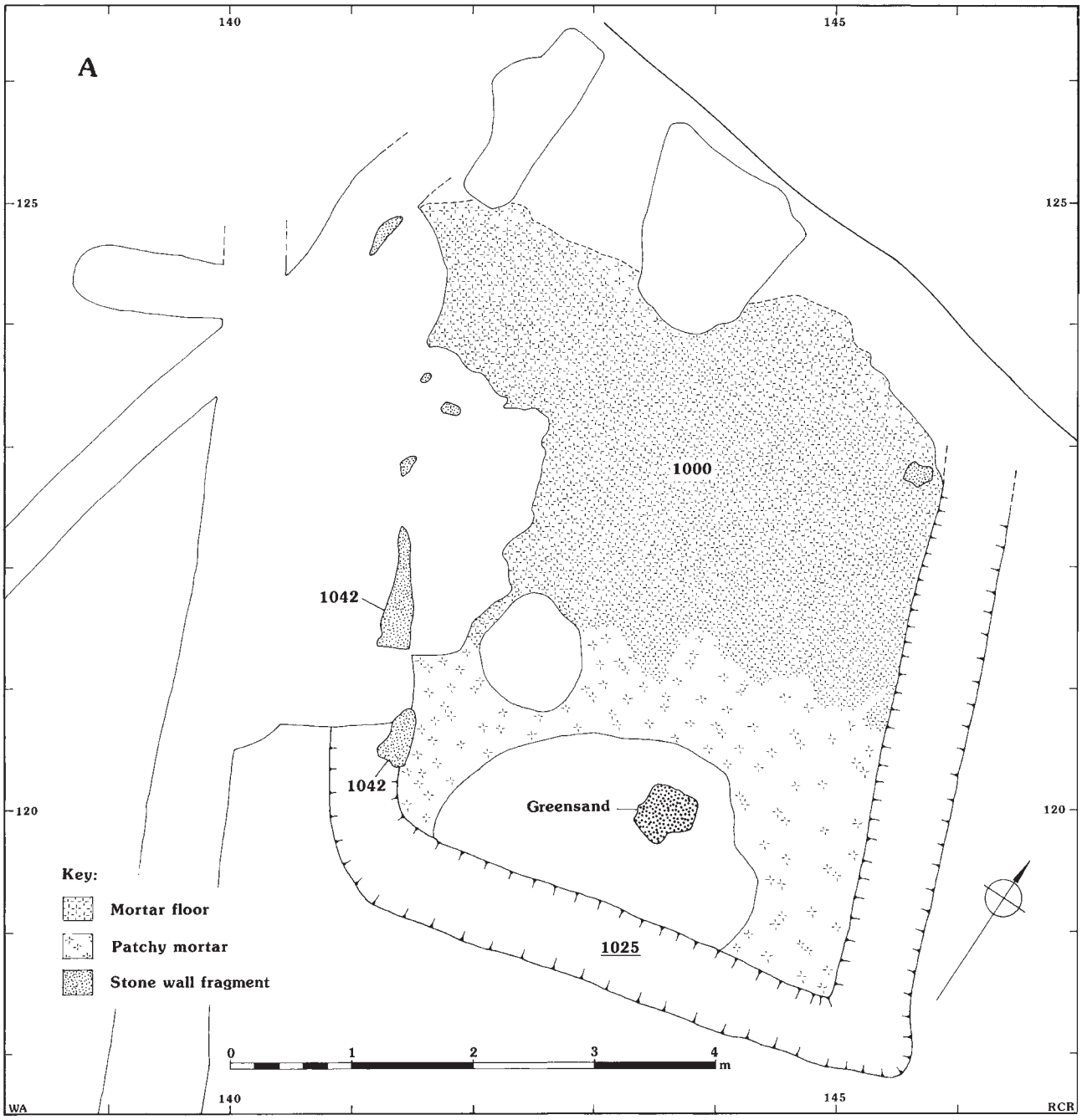

Figure 5 Period 1: Romano-British Structure 1

1215, roughly circular in plan and with a rounded base, lay to the south-west. Only the very base of the latter feature was excavated as it was not recognised during machine stripping until its lower fill was seen to be a slightly darker colour than the surrounding subsoil. Three other pits cutting the floor of Structure 1 (1012, 1055, and 1057) may also date to this period, though they contained no datable artefacts.

The Linear Earthwork and Associated Features

Before excavation, the most obvious landscape feature was a large earthwork bank, interrupted at its mid point and fronted on its eastern side by a shallow depression (Fig. 7). This was excavated in Areas B2 and C (Co-ord. 201 112). On excavation, the bank (509) was found to be composed of a dump of apparently homogeneous loamy sand (Fig. 7, Sections 1–3, 510/15502). Immediately to its east was a complex series of ditch recuts (3072) and, despite the homogeneity of the makeup of the bank, it is likely to be the product of the up-cast from repeated recutting of the ditch. This hypothesis is further supported by the analysis of the collection units within Area B2.

The tail of the bank was overlain by the 'occupation deposit' (Fig. 7, Section 1, 15501) and the earthwork appeared to be respected by the early

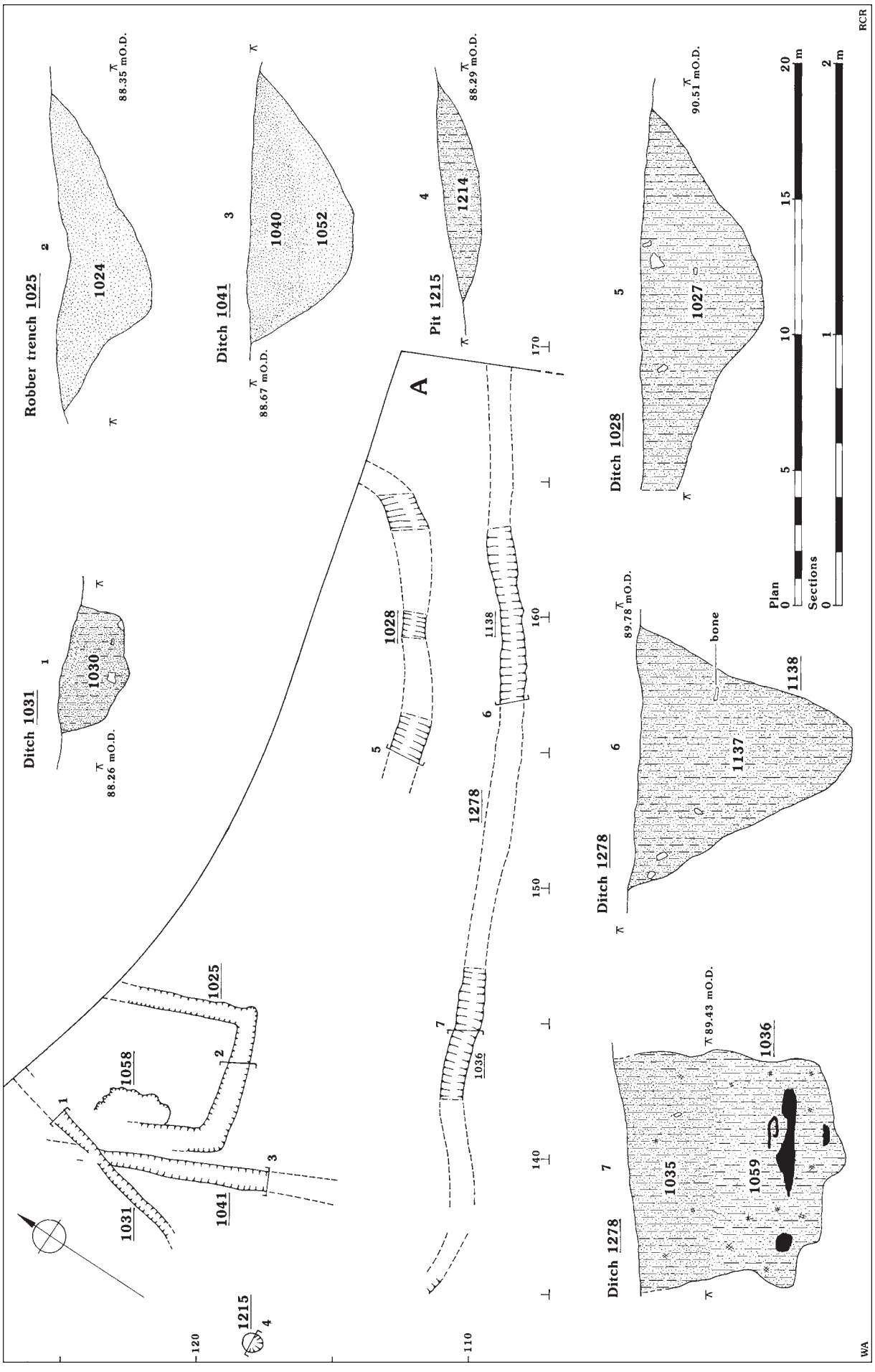

Figure 6 Period 2: Early Saxon non-funerary features in Area A

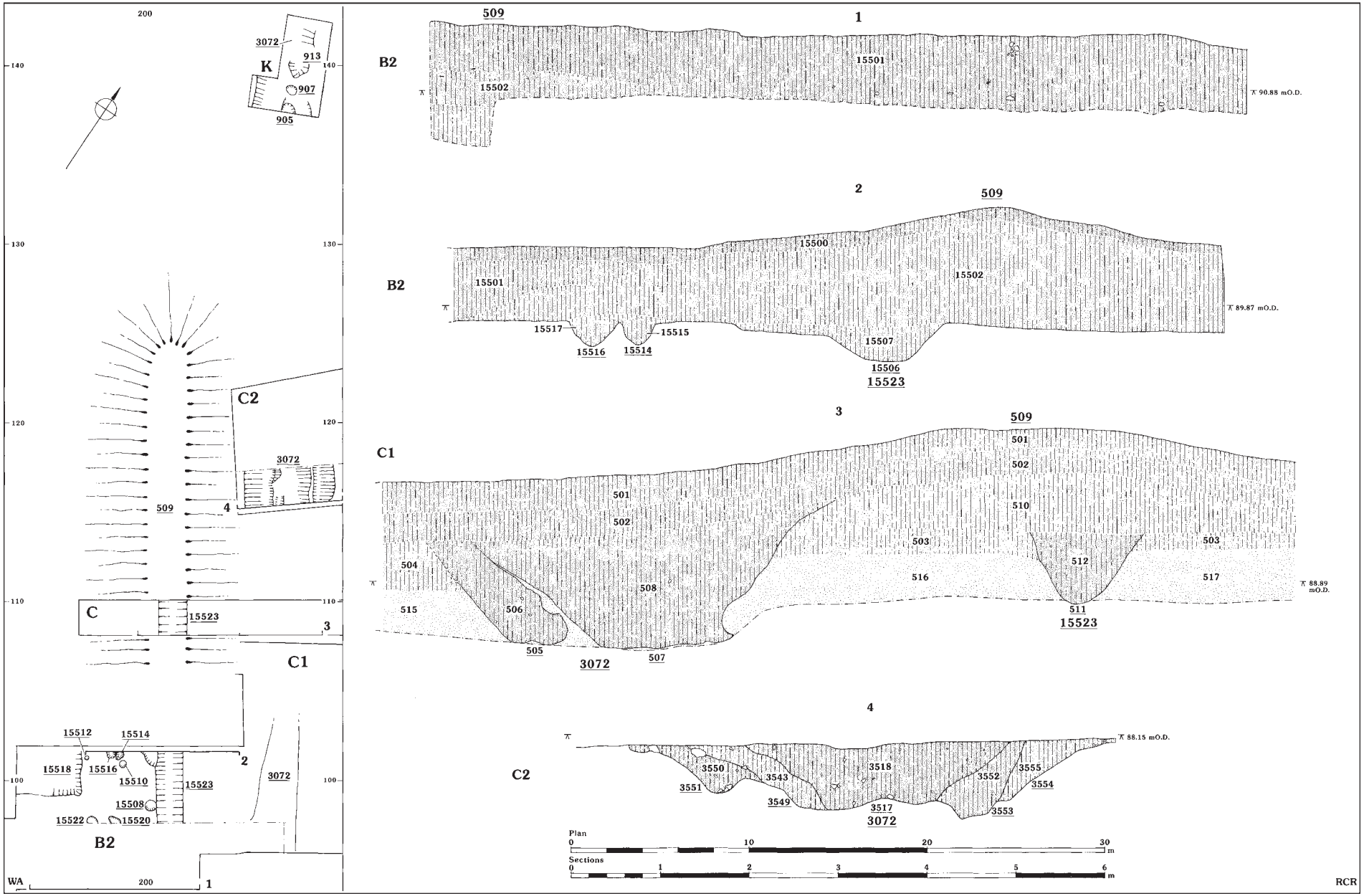

Figure 7 Period 2 (and later): Linear earthwork 509, ditches, and other features in Areas B2, C, C1, C2, and K

Saxon settlement boundary ditch (1281, below), implying that this feature was established early in the Saxon period. This suggestion is supported by the fact that, with the exception of three ditches (3073, 3074, and 3015) in Area C1 and possibly a small pit in C2, all early Saxon features lie to the west.

The presence of the bank during the early Saxon period suggests that there was a contemporaneous ditch immediately to the east but examination of the pottery from each of the discernible ditch recuts indicates that they are all likely to be early medieval or later in date. All traces of any early Saxon ditch have therefore been removed by later redefinition of this boundary feature.

Differentiating between the bank material and any surviving buried land surface proved to be almost impossible. Only within the southern section of trench C was it possible to identify the vestigial remains of a buried soil (Fig. 7, Section 3, 503/504). This old land surface was cut by a north–south ditch (15523) dated by artefact association to the early Saxon period. The ditch was also recognised within Areas B2 and K. It was sealed by bank material and lay on the same centre line as the later earthwork. It is likely that it represents an earlier demarcation of the same boundary. That the early ditch was present within Area K suggests that the overlying earthwork was probably also originally continuous and that the interruption in its length represents a later slighting.

Several small pits or post-holes (15508, 15510, 15512, 15514, 15516, 15520, and 15522) within Area B2 (Co-ord. 197 100) were sealed by the bank material. All were filled with a very similar olive-grey, very fine sandy loam and where pottery was present it was consistently of early Saxon date.

The Sunken-featured Buildings

Three of the features that were excavated within Area B2 can be interpreted as sunken-featured buildings (Fig. 8). Most sunken-featured buildings have post-holes mid-way along the short sides, but additional posts are sometimes present, and a few examples appear to have no post-holes (West 1985, 114).

SFB 1
Group context 13820 (Co-ord. 172 081). Flat-bottomed pit (13790), 3.5 m wide, at least 4.1 m long, *c.* 0.25 m deep, oriented south-west to north-east. Circular post-hole at either end of longitudinal axis (13812, diam. 0.41 m, depth 0.16 m; 13814, diam. 0.42 m, depth 0.20 m). Produced pottery of both early Saxon and Roman date plus a double-sided composite comb (Obj. No. 5060, Fig. 55), a fragmentary pin beater/pin (Obj. No. 5058), and a perforated stone loomweight or thatchweight (Obj. No. 5066, Fig. 54), the latter lying on the base of the pit.

SFB 2
Flat-bottomed oval pit (13753; Co-ord. 192 087) *c.* 0.27 m deep, oriented south-west to north-east with traces of possible post-hole at south-western end. The excavated portion suggested it was similar in size to SFB 1. Contained early–mid-Saxon pottery.

SFB 3
Roughly oval, flat bottomed pit (13751; Co-ord. 180 070) *c.* 0.33 m deep, 2.8 m east–west, 3.9 m north–south, oriented south-east to north-west. No post-holes identified but feature morphologically similar to SFB 1 and 2 and produced two antler pin beaters (Obj. Nos 5052 and 5059), an antler awl (Obj. No. 5055), an iron stud (Obj. No. 3070), and an iron heckle tooth (Obj. No. 5071). Early Saxon and Roman fineware pottery was present.

Structure 2

A group of four post-holes (group context 13821 = 13723, 13739, 13786 and 13810) was identified in the south-western corner of Area B1 (Fig. 8; Co-ord. 182 069). Three were aligned east–west with the fourth centrally and to the north. 13723 and 13739 were packed with locally derived greensand and 13739 appeared to have contained two posts. It is likely that the four excavated features formed part of a larger structure that continued beyond the southern and western limits of the excavation. Dating evidence is limited to a small amount of early Saxon pottery.

Gullies

The vestigial remains of two north–south gullies were identified in the southernmost corner of Area A, both of which were cut by the east–west ditch 1281 (see Fig. 8). The westernmost gully (1106) appeared to butt end to the south. This may, however, be the result of overmachining in this area, as was almost certainly the case with the eastern gully (1280), which appeared to fade out to both north and south of the east–west ditch. Early Saxon pottery was recovered from both features, with no material of any later date.

Ditches

Three intercutting early Saxon ditches were excavated within the settlement area. The earliest of these (1281) can be interpreted as the northern boundary of the settlement. The others (13705 and 13747)

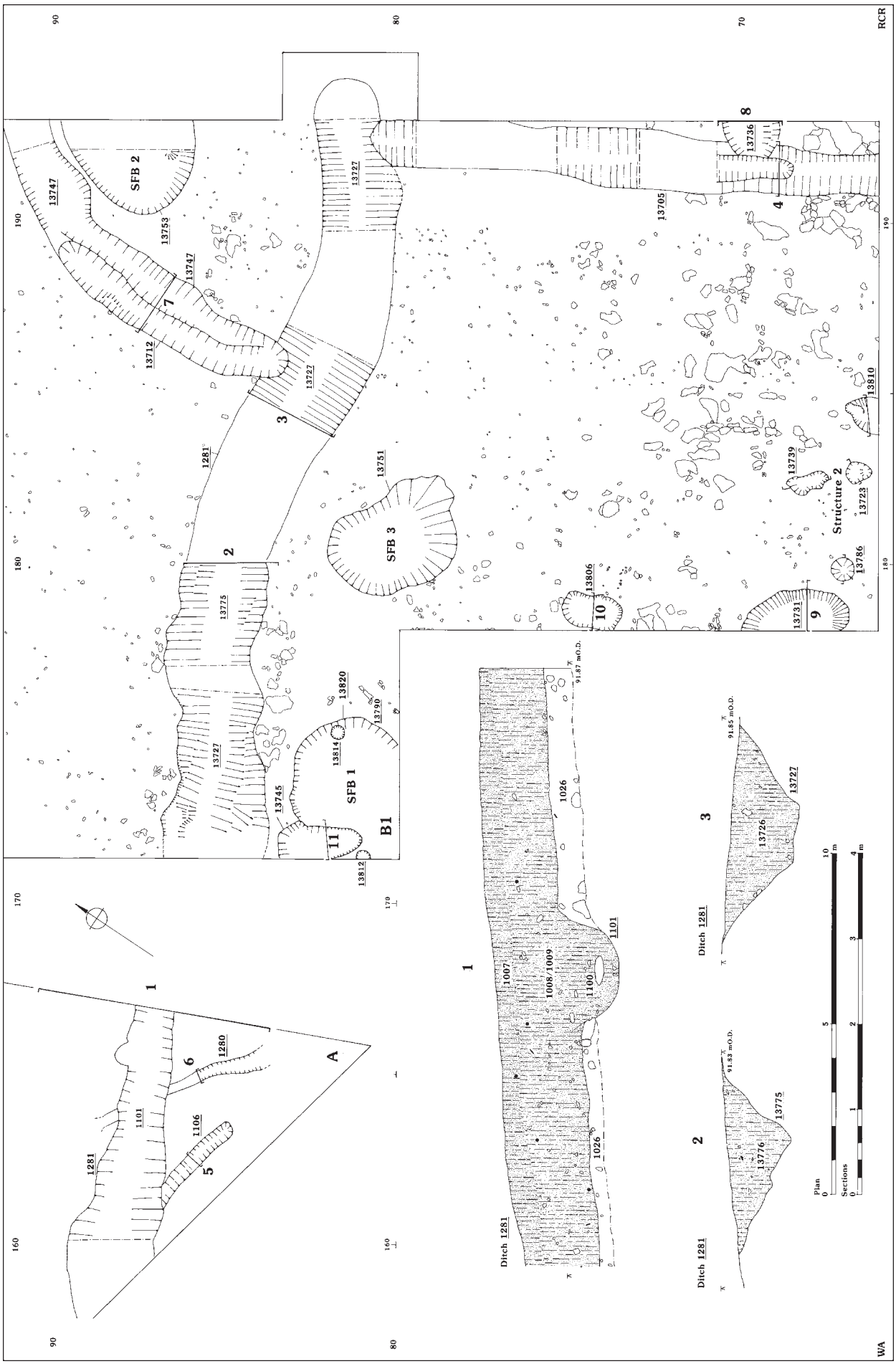

Figure 8 Period 2: Early Saxon non-funerary features in Areas A and B1

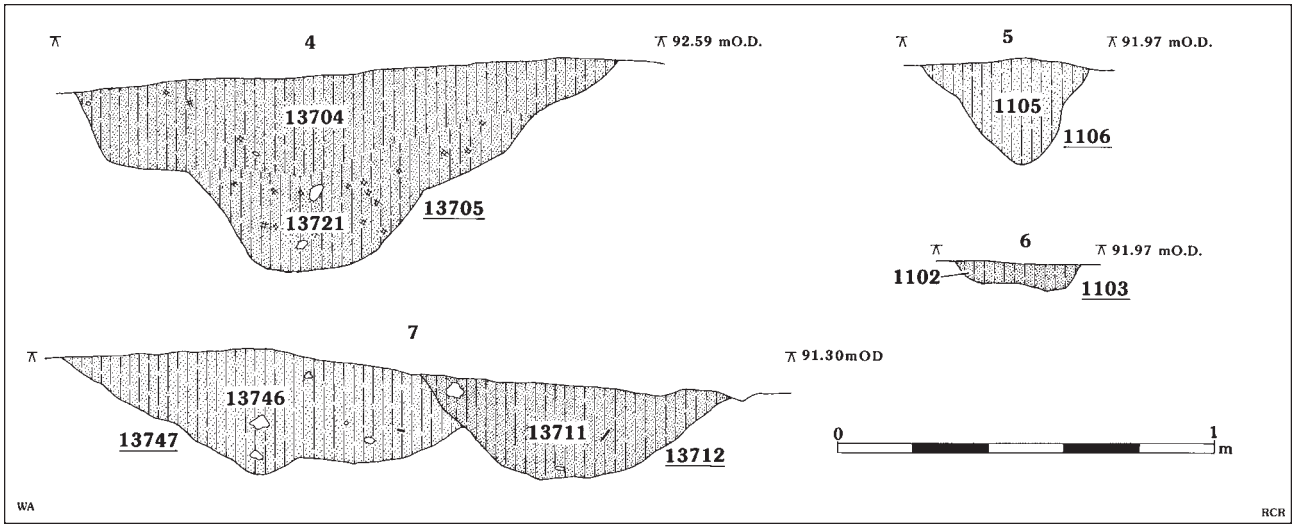

Figure 9 Period 2: Early Saxon ditch sections, Area B1

probably indicate sub-division and/or extension of the settlement area.

Settlement boundary ditch

This feature (1281; Co-ord. 160 087; 180 085. Fig. 8) was aligned east–west across Area B1 and the southern extremity of Area A. A box section was excavated by machine at the point where it entered the eastern main section of Area B1 in an attempt to define its relationship with the line of the early Saxon earthwork bank (509). The ditch had a butt end *c.* 1.5 m west of the standing section and appeared to respect the line of the bank. It also appeared to respect the placement of the three sunken-featured buildings, curving south of SFB 2 and to the north of the others. This suggests that the ditch may be later than at least SFB 1 and SFB 3 and that any associated upcast bank was on its northern side.

The ditch was sectioned at five points along its length; only one fill was identified, though the profile (Fig. 8) suggests that it had been recut on at least one occasion. Over-machining in Area A left only the lower 0.24 m of the ditch fill intact; only early Saxon pottery was recovered. Within Area B1, both early and late Saxon pottery was recovered and a small oval buckle, probably of 7th century date (Obj. No. 419). The original cutting of the ditch appears to have occurred during the early Saxon period and it also defines the northern extent of the artefact and ecofact distributions within the 'occupation deposit'. Apart from SFB 2 and its associated ditch, all other early Saxon settlement features lie to the south.

North–south ditch

A ditch (13705; Co-ord. 192 070. Fig. 8) ran south to north along the eastern edge of Area B1, joining the main boundary ditch (1281) close to its butt end. Three sections were excavated, with a single fill (Fig. 9; 13721). A localised increase in the depth of the ditch at one point may suggest a recut. Five early Saxon, one residual Roman, and one undated sherd were recovered. The ditch cut early Saxon pit 13736.

Ditch possibly associated with SFB 2

Ditch 13747 (Co-ord. 190 090. Fig. 8) curved to the north and east from the northern edge of ditch 1281, seemingly to enclose SFB 2, and continued into the eastern limit of Area B1. For the southern two-thirds of its excavated length it was possible to identify the slightly darker fill (Fig. 9; 13711) of a recut (Fig. 9; 13712), on the same alignment but slightly to the west. Both became shallower towards the north because their gradients were shallower than the south to north slope of the subsoil. The fill of 13747 contained 19 early Saxon sherds and two Roman; the recut contained only two undatable sherds.

Ditches in Area C1

The only early Saxon features identified east of the earthwork were three ditches within Area C1 and possibly a pit in C2 (Fig. 10). The larger of the ditches (3074; Co-ord. 239 105) ran east–west close to the northern edge of the excavated area. It had a butt end at the west and continued eastwards out of the excavated area. It was cut by two early medieval ditches, two post-medieval features, and possibly by ditch 3073 (see below and Fig. 10).

The ditch was quite substantial, *c.* 2 m wide and with a maximum depth into subsoil of 0.52 m, presumably having been cut from a higher level. Its similarity to the settlement boundary ditch 1281 suggests a comparable function. Dating evidence for this feature is limited as it contained a mixture of artefacts including Roman pottery, prehistoric

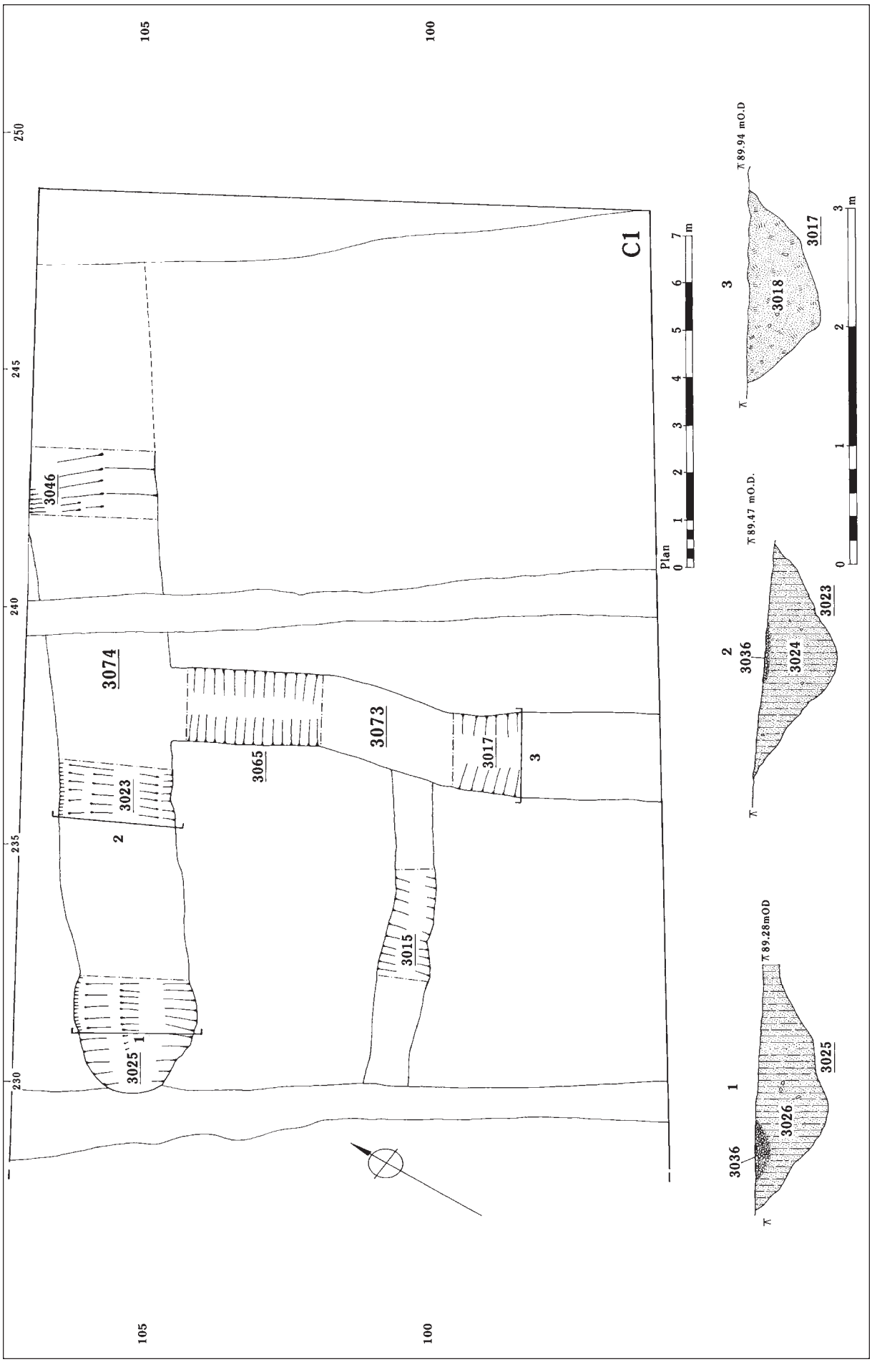

Figure 10 Period 2: Early Saxon ditches in Area C1

flintwork and 11 sherds of early Saxon pottery. One of the early Saxon sherds is large (28 g) and relatively unabraded.

The north–south ditch (3073; Co-ord. 237 100) could not be traced further north than the southern edge of ditch 3074 but may have cut it. Two large unabraded early Saxon sherds and two small highly abraded Roman sherds plus a quantity of worked flint were recovered. This ditch appeared to cut a second east–west ditch (3015; Co-ord. 233 100), though they may be contemporaneous. At its western end ditch 3015 was cut by early medieval ditch (3014) but could not be identified any further to the west.

North–south ditch within assessment trench T2

The only early Saxon feature identified during the Thamesdown Unit's assessment was a north–south ditch (215; Co-ord. 105 090. Fig. 4), running the length of their trench 2 (west of Area A). This feature contained a quantity of early Saxon sherds and some residual Roman material.

Pits

Four pits (13731, 13736, 13745, and 13806) were excavated within Area B1 (Figs 8 and 11). With the exception of 13736 (Co-ord. 193 068), all contained very similar sandy loam fills. The atypical pit contained large quantities of charcoal but little artefactual material. There was no evidence for localised burning suggesting the dumping of material from elsewhere. This pit was cut by an early Saxon ditch (13705). Pit 13745 cut the fill of SFB 1 and was cut by a mid-Saxon wall slot (13748) and a north–south late Saxon ditch (13725). The pits contained quantities of early Saxon pottery and animal bone. Pit 13745 also contained a broken copper alloy object (Obj. No. 5050), possibly a dress pin similar to those from graves 26 and 36 (Fig. 46, 6).

A possible early Saxon pit (3511; Co-ord. 219 122) was excavated within Area C2. This, small, oval pit contained a single fairly unabraded sherd of early Saxon pottery (19 g) and *c.* 0.65 kg of animal bone.

Stake-holes

A minimum of 20 stake-holes (13820; Co-ord. 184 071) were identified in the southern half of Area B1. The only datable material was a single, small sherd of early Saxon pottery (2 g) from 13756 but given the concentration of early Saxon activity in this area, and the proximity of Structure 2, it seems most likely that they belong to this period.

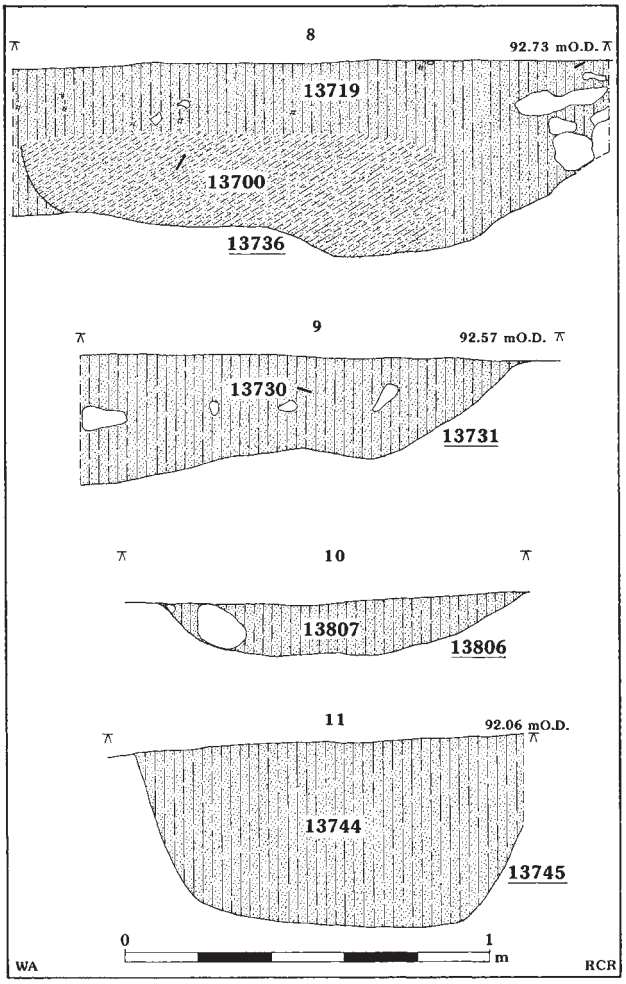

Figure 11 Period 2: Early Saxon pits

4. Period 3: Mid-Saxon

Only one excavated group of features can be very tentatively ascribed to the mid-Saxon period.

Structure 3 (group context 13822)

A linear feature (13748; Co-ord. 173 081) was observed running from the western limit of Area B1 (Fig. 12). The fill (13749) of this feature contained large lumps of clay, interpreted as degraded wattle and daub walling and suggesting that the feature was a wall slot. At the centre point of its excavated length was a quantity of locally derived sandstone fragments (13708). It was possible to define the feature for a length of 3.75 m, at which point the absence of further clay elements within the fill prevented any edge differentiation from the subsoil and a box section placed 1 m further to the east failed to find any trace of it. Three metres to the east and slightly south of the line of the wall slot was an area of neatly laid sandstone fragments (Fig. 12; 13706) seemingly

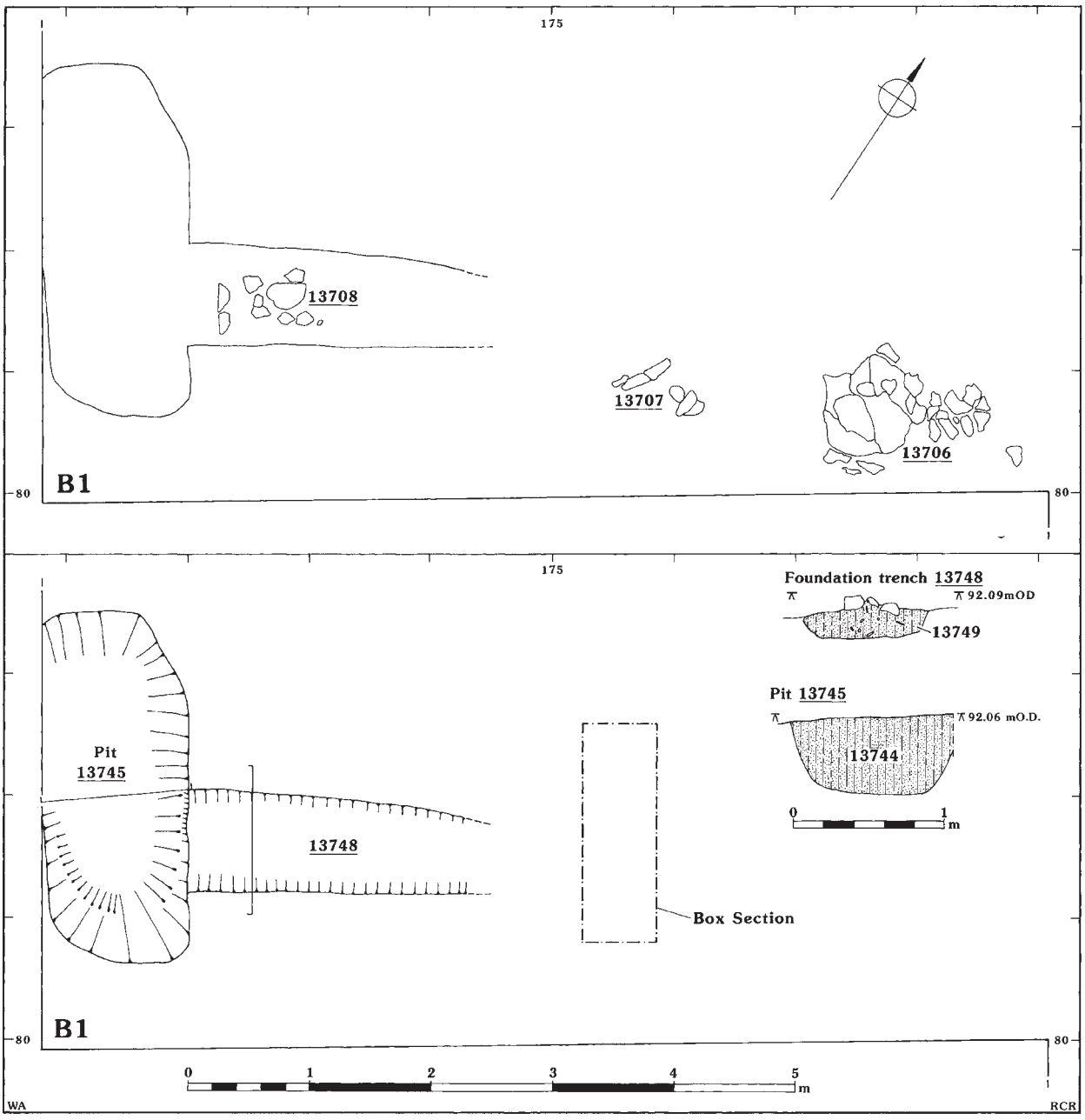

Figure 12 Period 3: Mid-Saxon Structure 3

a post-pad, with an adjacent patch of stones (13707). It is suggested that these features represented the remains of a timber structure (Structure 3, group context 13822) that continued beyond the limits of Area B1. The lack of structure to the clay and stone elements, and quantity of artefacts incorporated into the soil matrix, strongly suggests that the structure was demolished rather than allowed to decay *in situ.*

The wall slot (13748) cut through the fill of SFB 1 and almost certainly that of early Saxon pit 13745. It was, however, itself cut at that point by a late Saxon ditch (13725). Wall slot 13748 produced eight sherds of early Saxon pottery and one residual Roman sherd, together with a large rim and shoulder sherd of a hand-made vessel of a form and in a fabric not represented elsewhere within the ceramic assemblage. It is suggested (see below) that this sherd may be of mid-Saxon date.

5. Period 4: Late Saxon

Settlement Boundary Ditch (group context 1281)

The early Saxon ditch (1281) also produced a quantity of late Saxon pottery from its fill within Area B1 where there is also some evidence to suggest recutting (Fig. 13). The late Saxon sherds indicate that the feature was at least open at this time, and their rela-

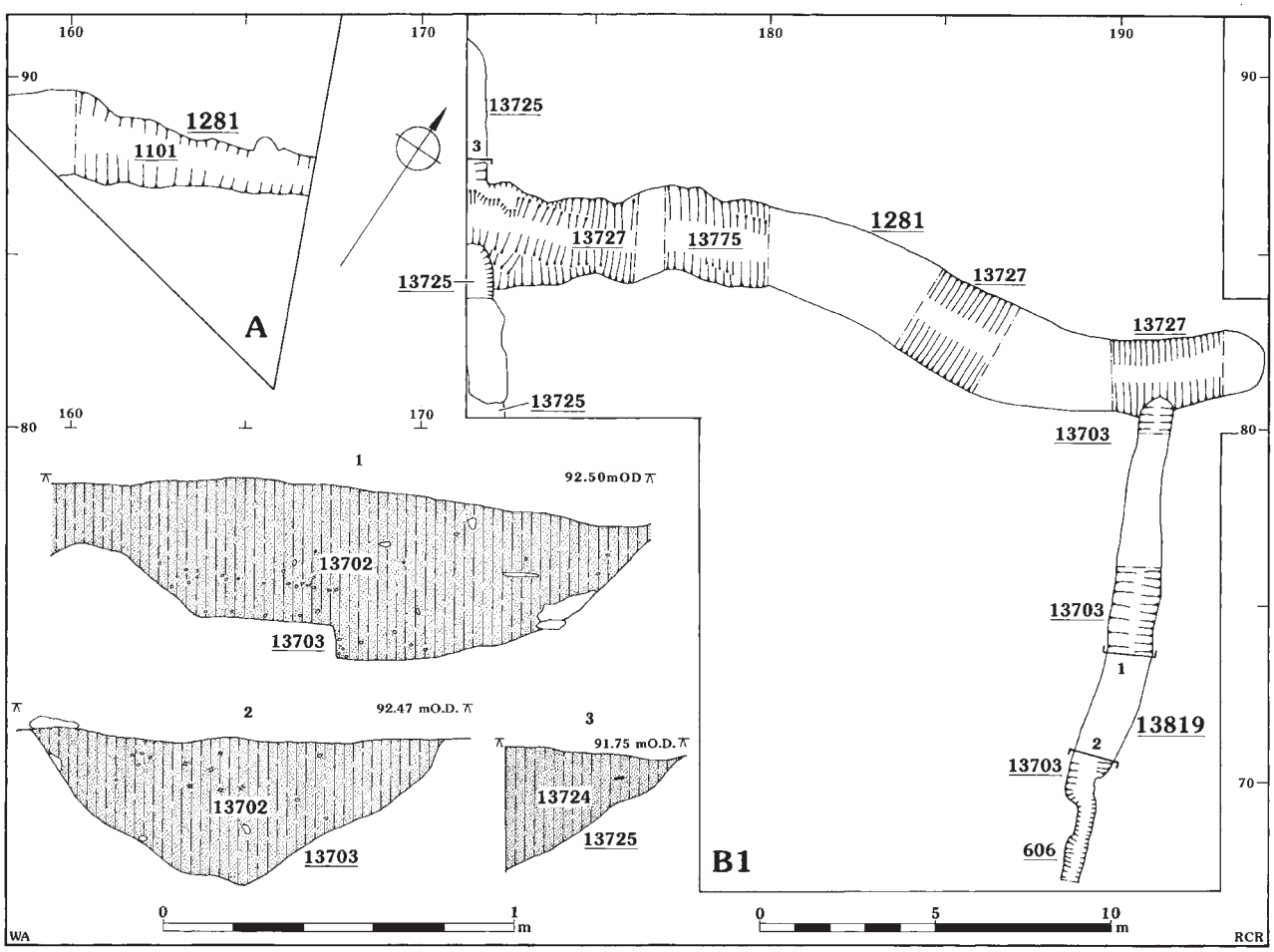

Figure 13 Period 4: Late Saxon settlement boundary ditch

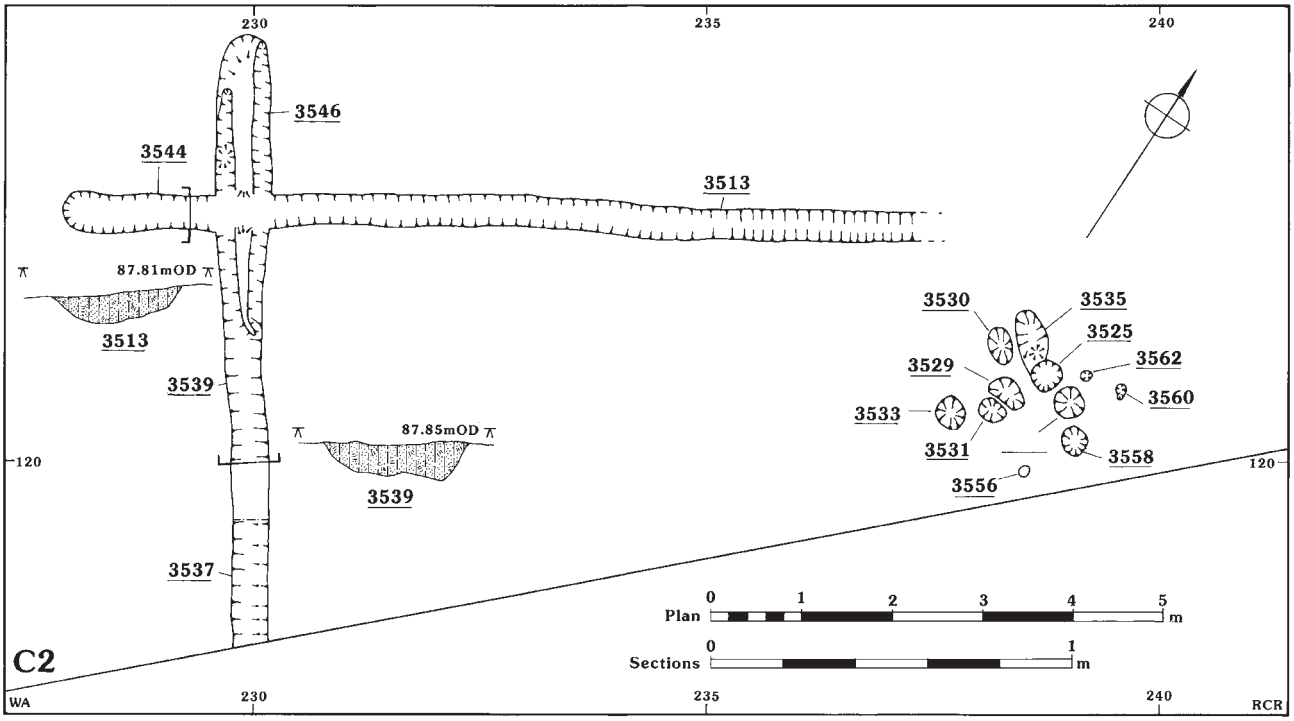

Figure 14 Period 5: Medieval Structure 4

tively large size may imply its deliberate backfilling. However, it should be noted that a possible pommel mount ((see Fig. 46, 9) of late 12th–14th century date also came from the ditch in this area.

Ditches

North–south ditch 13819 (Co-ord. 191 075) was originally identified within an assessment test-pit (test pit B; 606) and subsequently examined in more detail within Area B1 (13703: Fig. 13). The feature lay immediately to the west of, and on a similar alignment to, early Saxon ditch 13705 and, while this may be coincidental, it may indicate a continuation of boundary demarcation. Only a single fill was recognised, producing six late Saxon, 20 residual early Saxon, and eight Roman sherds; a fragment of bone point (Obj. No. 118), a knife (Obj. No. 238), an iron bracket (Obj. No. 5065), and a fragment of lava, possibly a rubber (Obj. No. 5062).

A second north–south ditch (13725; Co-ord. 171 081) was identified at the western limit of Area B1. It contained no pottery later than early Saxon, but it cut wall slot 13748 and boundary ditch 1281, suggesting a late Saxon *terminus post quem*.

Pit

A roughly oval pit (1053) was identified in close proximity to Structure 1 (Co-ord. 139 124). The fill of this feature was virtually indistinguishable from those of several adjacent features but it appeared to cut two early Saxon ditches (1031 and 1041), an early Saxon pit (1058), and at least one early Saxon inhumation (grave 11). A single large piece of late Saxon pottery and some residual sherds were recovered. Three undated pits in this immediate area may be contemporary with it.

6. Period 5: Medieval (12th–13th century)

Structure 4

Two straight, shallow gullies, intersecting more-or-less at right-angles, were identified at the western end of Area C2 (Fig. 14). One (3546; Co-ord. 230 123) ran northwards from the southern edge of excavation and butt ended after a distance of *c.* 6 m. Three-quarters of the way along its length it cut east–west ditch 3513. Both contained medieval pottery and have been interpreted as possible eaves-drip gullies. In an attempt to identify any associated structural elements, this area was gradually reduced in level by means of a mechanical excavator, resulting in the identification of a discrete group of 11 post- and stake-holes (group context 3565) at the eastern end of the earlier gully. This group did not have a discernible pattern, but it is likely, given the difficulties of feature definition within the greensand, that many more similar features were present which could not be recognised. It is possible that these features together represent the remains of a relatively insubstantial building.

Ditches

Two medieval ditches were identified in Area A: 1132 (Co-ord. 157 105; Fig. 15), which ran northwards from the southern limit of excavation and 1109 (Co-ord. Co-ord. 163 095), which ran east–west across the excavated area. Ditch 1132 was excavated for a length of *c.* 5 m before butt ending and was one of the few examples where it was possible to differentiate between successive fills, all three of which contained medieval ceramics. Ditch 1109 was cut by a group of medieval pits (group context 1283) and contained predominantly medieval pottery together with a small fragment of painted window glass (Obj. No. 127).

As discussed above, the examination of a complex series of ditch recuts immediately to the east of earthwork 509 failed to identify any traces of an early Saxon ditch (Fig. 7). The ditches were examined at three locations with the maximum number of successive recuts being the five identified within Area C2 (Fig. 16; 3072). A mixed assemblage of pottery was recovered from the fills of all the recuts, but sherds of medieval wares were present throughout. It was not possible to suggest any correlation in recuts between each of the excavated areas.

Area K was placed to examine the interruption in the line of 509. The fact that the ditches are present in this area suggests, first, that the earthwork was originally a continuous feature and, secondly, that it continued to be so into the medieval period. This continuation of the earthwork bank is further emphasised by the recognition of a small linear feature running north–south across Area K on its centre line. This small ditch (911; Fig. 16) is likely to be a continuation of the early Saxon ditch recognised within Area B2 and evaluation trench C (15523). The fills of the ditches in this area were sealed by a chalk rubble surface (901) which, it is suggested, was contemporary with the slighting of the earthwork. No datable artefacts were recovered from the surface and, as such, a *terminus post quem* must be provided by the latest sherd, a fragment of Laverstock pottery of the late 12th–early 13th century.

Three north–south ditches (3011; Co-ord. 227 105, 3014; Co-ord. 229 105, 3000; Co-ord. 240 100)

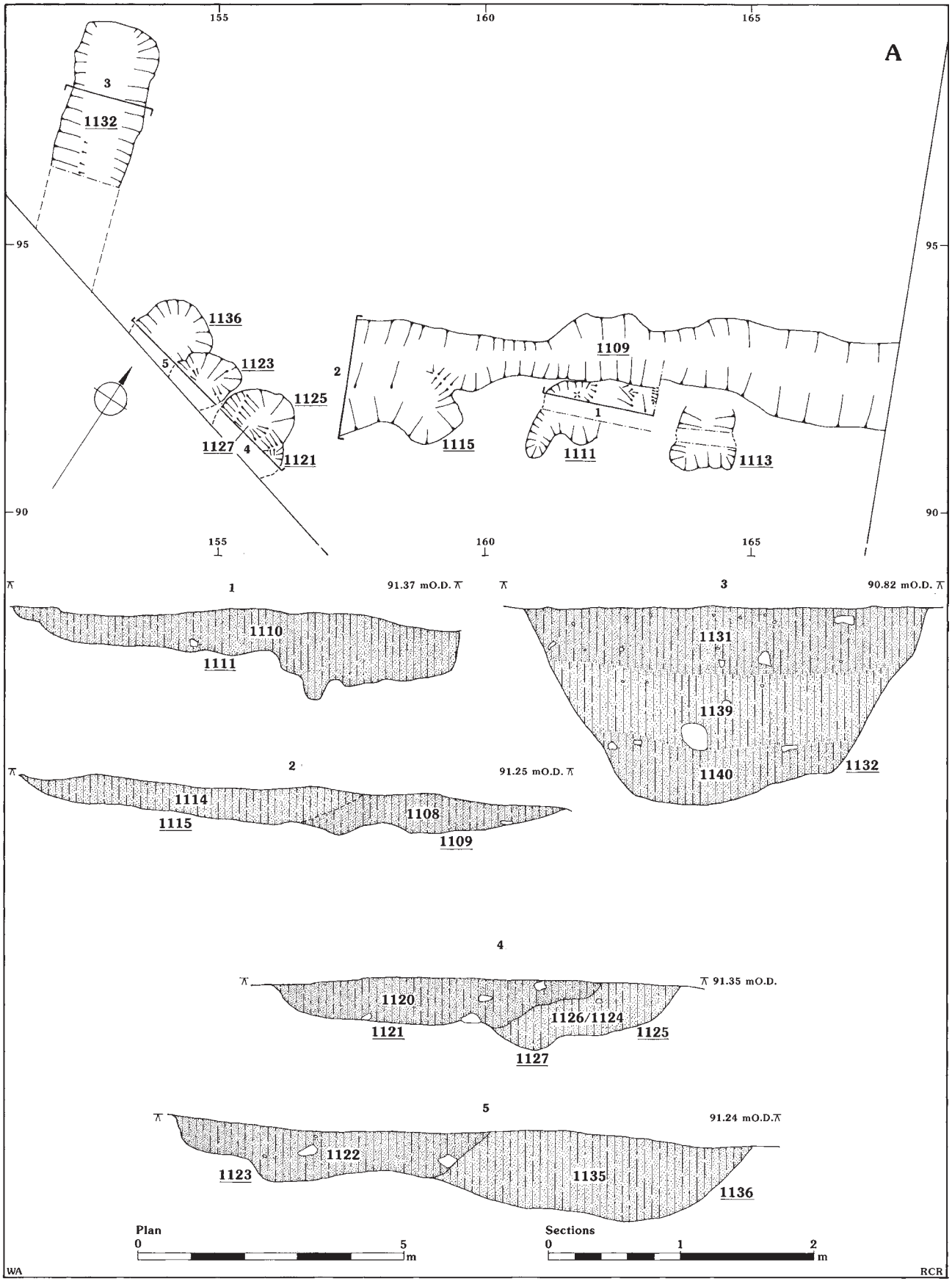

Figure 15 Period 5: Medieval features in Area A

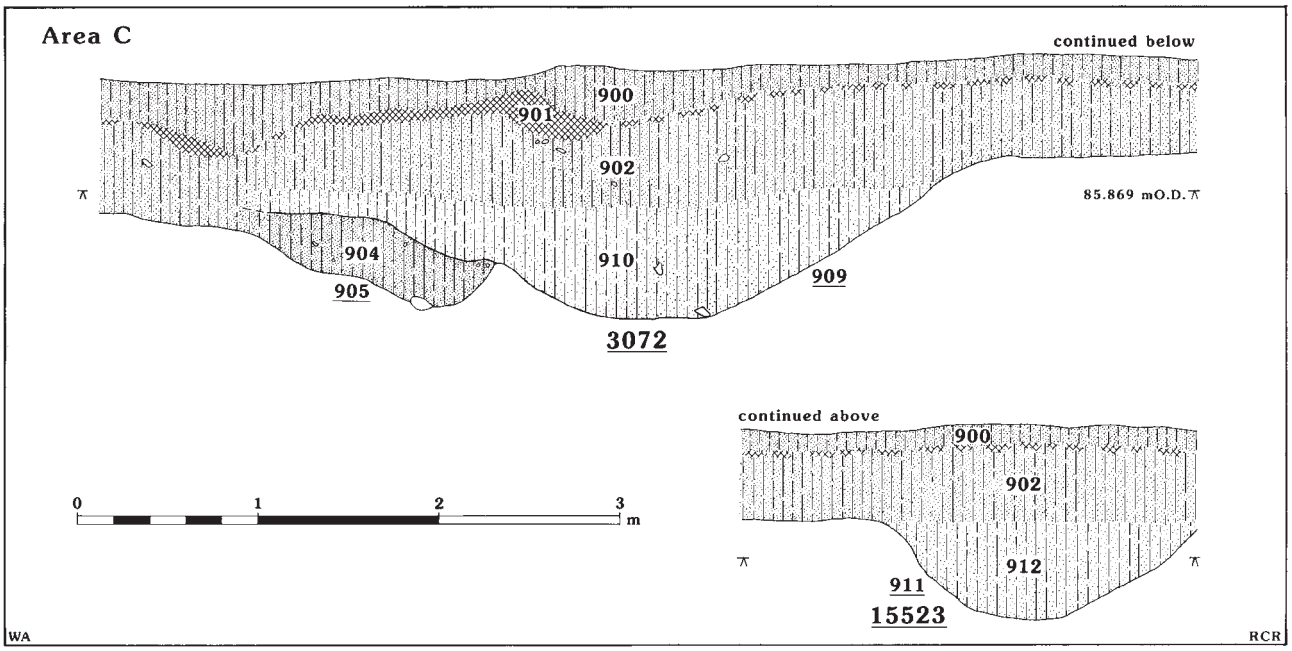

Figure 16 Medieval ditches flanking linear earthwork 509

were identified within the central section of Area C1 (Fig. 17). This area contained a north–south band of dark yellowish-brown clay subsoil, with a maximum depth of *c.* 0.5 m, overlying the greensand. This clay made feature recognition much easier than elsewhere on site, the darker sandy loam fills contrasting well with the yellow-brown background. The boundary between the clay and the greensand subsoils also served to highlight the problems of feature recognition elsewhere, in that where features crossed the boundary, they were easily seen against the clay but almost impossible to define against the greensand.

Finds were predominantly of medieval sherds but mixed with both earlier and later material. Ditches 3000 and 3014 cut early Saxon ditch (3074) while the westernmost (3011) was cut by two medieval pits (3019 and 3052).

Pits

A group of eight pits (group context 1283 = 1111, 1113, 1115, 1121, 1123, 1125, 1127, and 1136; Co-ord. 160 091) occurred close to and, in some cases, cutting ditch 1109 (Fig. 15). Some were intercutting indicating a sequence though all contained pottery of similar date with just a few, possibly intrusive, small sherds of 13th–14th century date.

A roughly oval pit (13714; Co-ord. 192 094) in the north-eastern corner of Area B1 contained four small and abraded early Saxon sherds (<4 g), but a single, unabraded, medieval sherd provides a *terminus post quem* for this feature.

Only the basal 0.22 m of a probably rectangular pit (15518; Co-ord. 195 105) survived in the north-western corner of Area B2, producing a single small sherd 12th–13th century pottery.

Three small, roughly ovoid pits were examined in Area K, two of which (905 and 907; Co-ord. 207 137; 207 138) appeared to be sealed by at least one of the fills of ditch 3072 (Fig. 16). Neither contained any datable artefacts. The third pit (913) contained a large quantity of animal bone and both medieval and post-medieval pottery. The fill of 913 was identical with that of the north–south ditch complex and no clear relationship could be defined. The presence of the post-medieval sherds, however, suggests that the pit cut the ditch fills.

A north–south alignment of five pits (group context 3076 = 3032, 3034, 3047, 3027, and 3037) was identified at the western end of Area C1 (Co-ord. 212 100. Fig. 4), just east of the ditch complex fronting the bank 509. The bases of two additional pits (513 and 520) occurred in evaluation trench C. In Area C1, each pit survived to a much greater depth than in the machine trench and contained two fills; a lower fill of dark olive-grey, very fine loamy sand and an upper fill of olive-grey sandy loam. The five pits within Area C1 were oval and measured *c.* 1.5 m east–west and *c.* 1.0 m north–south; ranging in depth from *c.* 0.43 m to *c.* 0.8 m. All contained predominantly medieval ceramics. The function of these pits group is not clear but they do not seem to have been used for domestic waste disposal.

Two pits (3019 and 3052) cut medieval ditch 3011 (Fig. 17). 3052 was roughly circular; *c.* 1.75 m in diameter and *c.* 0.75 m deep. It contained an homogeneous dark olive-grey, very fine sandy loam which included four medieval sherds, a residual early Saxon fragment (<2 g) and *c.* 0.45 kg of animal bone.

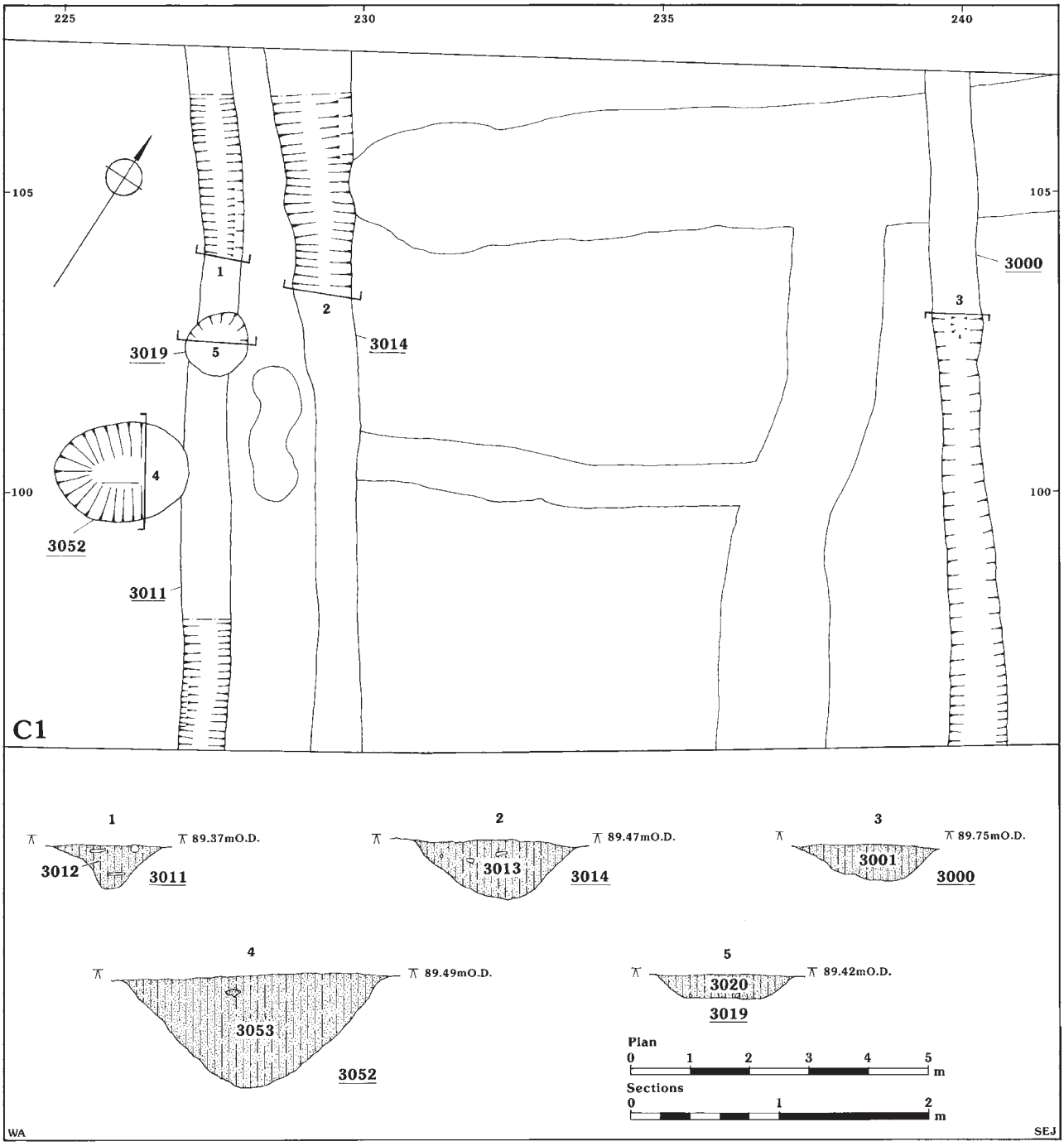

Figure 17 Period 5: Medieval ditches in Area C1

The other pit (3019) was oval, *c.* 1 m east–west and *c.* 0.8 m north–south, and only *c.* 0.15 m deep. It contained four tiny (<1 g) medieval sherds.

7. Period 6: Later Medieval

Ditches

Two ditches (1232 and 1235) lay close to the western edge of Area A (Co-ord. 118 125. Fig. 18). At the southern limit of their definable length these two features merged imperceptibly to form a single ditch (1249) which appeared to have been cut by a large, rounded, rectangular pit (1247). A second, larger feature (1244) occurred to the south-west. All these features contained similar olive-grey sandy loam fills. Dating is ambiguous but a terminus post quem for the complex is provided by an early French jetton (Obj. No. 5019), dated *c.* AD 1285–1305 from ditch 1232.

Approximately 20 m to the east was another north–south ditch (1279; Co-ord. 137 106. Fig. 4) which appeared to be cut by two small pits (1147 and

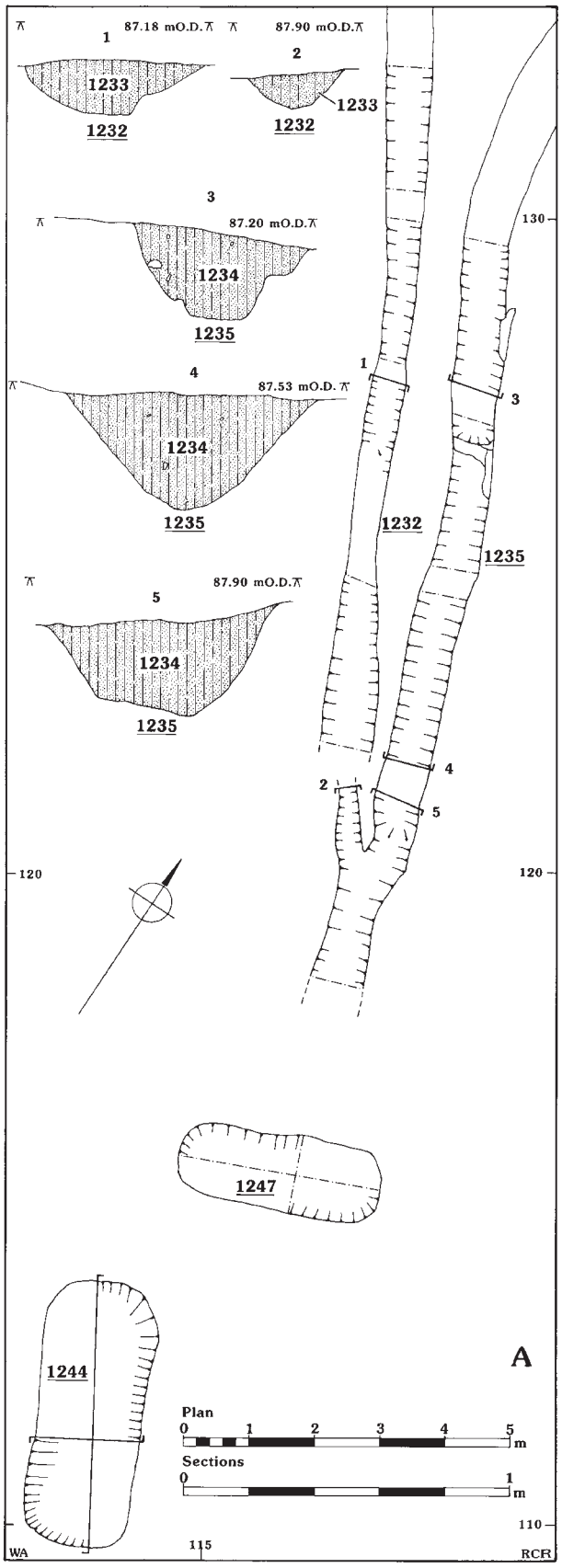

Figure 18 Period 6: Later medieval features in Area A

1151). The ditch could only be traced for a total of *c.* 13 m before its fill merged with the subsoil. Ceramic dating is again ambiguous although a late medieval date is suggested on the basis of a sherd of 13th–14th century Lacock-type ware from the ditch fill.

Pit

A small, oval pit (13788) was encountered in the north-eastern corner of Area B1 (Co-ord. 190 096). Five abraded early Saxon sherds and one 13th–14th century Lacock-type sherd were recovered.

8. Period 7: Post-medieval

Yard Surface

The 'dark earth' deposit within Area B2 was, for the most part, sealed by a post-medieval yard surface constructed from consolidated crushed chalk with areas of repair consisting of patches of roughly laid, hand-made bricks. It is most likely that it was the construction of this yard surface that resulted in the levelling of the earthwork bank to the east. No contemporary structural remains were recorded and the surface was probably associated with farmyard buildings to the east, as depicted on the 1840 tithe map (WRO TA Market Lavington).

Ditches

Two post-medieval linear features were identified running north–south across the eastern end of Area C1. Ditch 3008 (Co-ord. 247 103) contained a modern ceramic field drain. Part of ditch 3075 (= 3022 and 3067) appeared to have been cut by a pit (3071; Co-ord. 248 106), the fill of which was indistinguishable from that of the ditch, but was of greater depth. Both the ditch and the pit are dated by two post-medieval sherds from the primary fill of the ditch.

Pits

Two post-medieval pits were recorded. Pit 1150, in the central section of Area A (Co-ord. 134 105) produced a single small sherd of Verwood-type ware and fragments of a copper alloy strap-end (Obj. No. 160). The second (3050; Co-ord. 229 100), in the centre of Area C1 contained a large sherd of glazed red earthenware and some residual material.

9. Undated

Structure 5

The only undated feature of any significance is a short (*c.* 1.5 m) length of walling or wall footing in Area B1. The remnant of wall 13709 (Co-ord. 186 840) was constructed from unmortared local sandstone and flint nodules. It overlay early Saxon ditch 13712, and was perhaps partially overlain by the 'dark earth' deposit, though this largely seemed to abut it; it was certainly sealed by the post-medieval yard surface.

10. Spatial Analysis of Area B1

by W.A. Boismier

Conventionally, archaeological materials recovered from stratigraphically 'sterile' deposits, such as the 'dark earth' deposit in Area B1, have been considered to be of limited value as interpretative tools because of the absence of any identifiable contextual units. Clearly, in such situations, there could be occasions where the spatial patterning of artefact distributions reflect the locations of features which would otherwise go undetected. The largely homogeneous 'dark earth' deposit of Area B1, excavated in spits, provided the opportunity for an exploratory analysis of the spatial distributions of archaeological materials recorded for the deposit. A summary of the analysis is presented here, full details of methods, statistics, and results are in archive.

Methods

To determine whether relic features could be identified within the 'dark earth' deposit, a study was undertaken on the frequencies of 11 broad finds class groups and six classes of bone attrition data recorded by spit and grid square.

The groups were:

Finds class groups		
Bone	Burnt flint	Building material
Clay pipe	Fired clay	Flint
Pottery	Shell	Slag
Copper objects	Iron objects	
Bone attrition class groups		
Chewed	Very chewed	Gnawed
Abraded	Very abraded	Unidentified

The basic strategy involved four steps or stages concerned with the identification of pattern within the data set. The results generated at one particular stage in the study being used as a guide for the design of the following stage.

1. Class group frequencies per grid square were converted into presence–absence scores (necessary to minimise effects of low counts and/or recording errors), tabulated in a series of 2 x 2 contingency tables, and Yule's Q test used to measure the strength and direction of pairwise associations.
2. The second step was to add a spatial referent and more detail to the broad, somewhat aspatial, patterns of class group associations which were identified. This stage of the analysis was concerned with the identification and location of concentrations or clusters of archaeological materials that might reflect the position of relic features within the deposit. The frequencies of the 11 finds classes were added together by grid square for each spit, and isopleth or contour mapping undertaken on the basis of the total number of finds recorded for individual grid units (Fig. 19); the assumption behind this being that relic features were more likely to be indicated by the total number of finds per grid square rather than by the frequencies of individual class groups. Concentrations of material were then identified by visual inspection of the contour plots for the individual spits. Identified concentrations were numbered individually by spit and the finds from grid squares occurring within their boundaries tabulated by class group.
3. The concentrations of material identified for the individual spits from the contour plots were quantitatively described. Emphasis in this stage of the analysis was directed towards characterising the composition or diversity of the class groups comprising individual concentrations that may be related to possible functional or temporal patterning. The Shannon index of diversity (Magurran 1991, 34–6) was used to characterise class group composition within individual clusters and as a basis for comparing the composition of materials recovered from the features occurring at the base of the deposit. This index is a summary measure that describes class group diversity by a single value ranging from zero upwards. Lower values indicating less diversity in the range of class groups present within a cluster and higher values, greater diversity.

   A measure of species evenness related to the Shannon index (Magurran 1991, 36–7) was used to describe the frequency representation of the class groups present within a concentration. This measure is also a summary

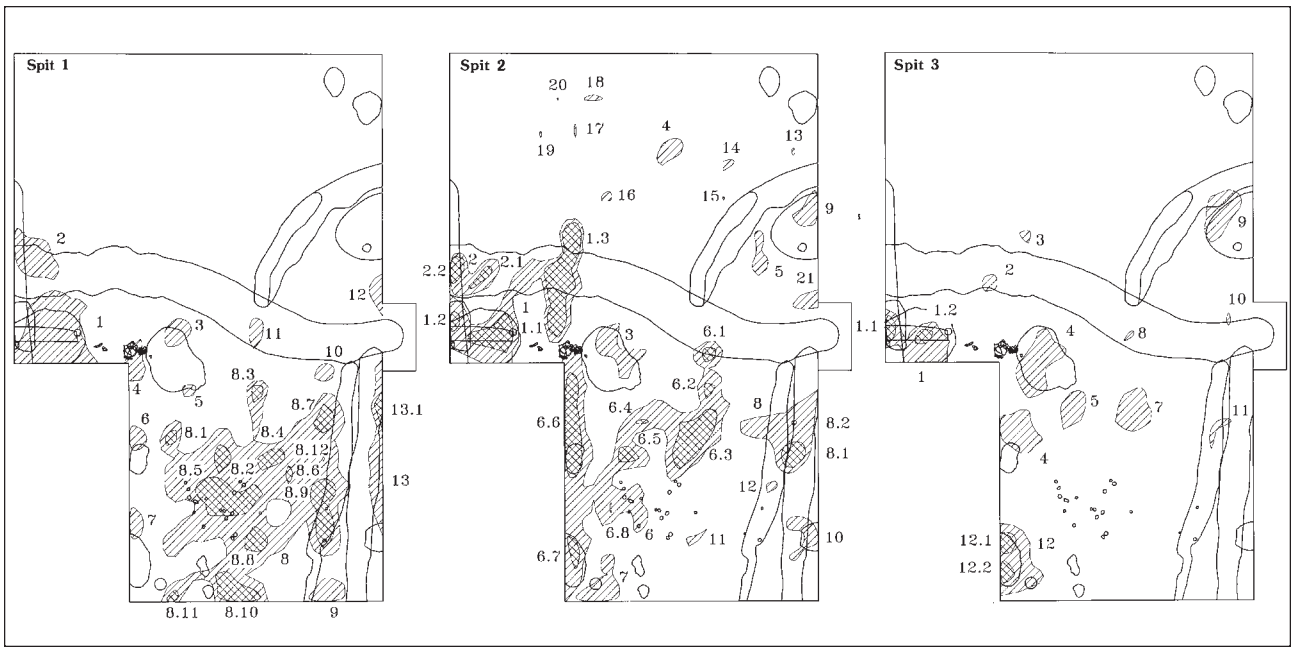

Figure 19 Area B1: Contour map of artefact densities per grid units, spits 1–3

statistic that describes the frequency distribution of materials across all class groups by a single value that ranges from 0.0 to 1.0. Higher values indicating a more equal frequency distribution among the class groups present within a cluster.

Quantitative comparisons of class group diversity were based on a t-test from the values of H′ developed by Hutcheson (1970).

4. A vertical referent was added to the horizontal patterns of material identified by the contour mapping of individual spits. This stage of the analysis was concerned with the identification of vertical patterns through the deposit that might reflect both the location and depth of possible relic features. The total numbers of finds per grid square generated in Stage 2 of the analysis were converted into negative numbers and wire frame surfaces created for the individual spits. Vertical patterns through the deposit were then assessed by visual inspection of the plots.

Discussion

The results of this exploratory study revealed the presence of a number of concentrations or clusters of archaeological material that appear to reflect the positions of probable relic features within the homogeneous 'dark earth' deposit. In addition, many of these clusters also appear to be the material fills of features identified at the base of the deposit. These results are encouraging and suggest that there are some situations where, at least on a general level, it is possible to identify potential relic features on the basis of material distributions within an otherwise homogeneous deposit.

However, there are some general pattern recognition problems which need to be pointed out in order to place the results of the study in their proper perspective. Perhaps the most obvious problem concerns the identification of features originally containing only a few or no material objects. Pattern recognition procedures based on the identification of material clusters will not distinguish isolated items as relic features from the general background distribution. Such features will largely remain unidentifiable no matter at what scale of detail or resolution the pattern recognition study is carried out. Along similar lines, determining whether a cluster of materials represent the fill of a single feature or a series of recuts is also relatively difficult if not impossible. A cluster of archaeological materials is simply a three-dimensional spatial arrangement of objects with very little in the way of surviving evidence of how it was formed. Given these fundamental problems and the exploratory nature of the study, the results should be seen more as providing an indication of the survival of relic features and their probable locations within the deposit rather than as an absolute demonstration of their existence.

3. The Cemetery

1. Introduction

A total of 42 inhumation burials was excavated in Area A (Fig. 20). Because of the difficulties of feature edge definition within the greensand, compounded by the dry weather conditions, it was only possible to identify the grave cuts for 19 burials. The burials excavated represent only a sample, possibly small, of the total population of the cemetery. It is certain that burials were removed during the cutting of the service road and during the construction of a housing estate to the west of the excavation during the mid 1980s. While it is possible to deduce minimum figures for the latter (see below), it is not possible to determine any estimates regarding overall cemetery size.

The cemetery area was excavated by use of a mechanical excavator in 0.05–0.10 m spits. Graves were often only recognised when the bucket of the excavator first encountered human bone, generally the skull, which was often damaged as a result. After the machine removal of each spit, the exposed surface was surveyed by metal detector, which proved very

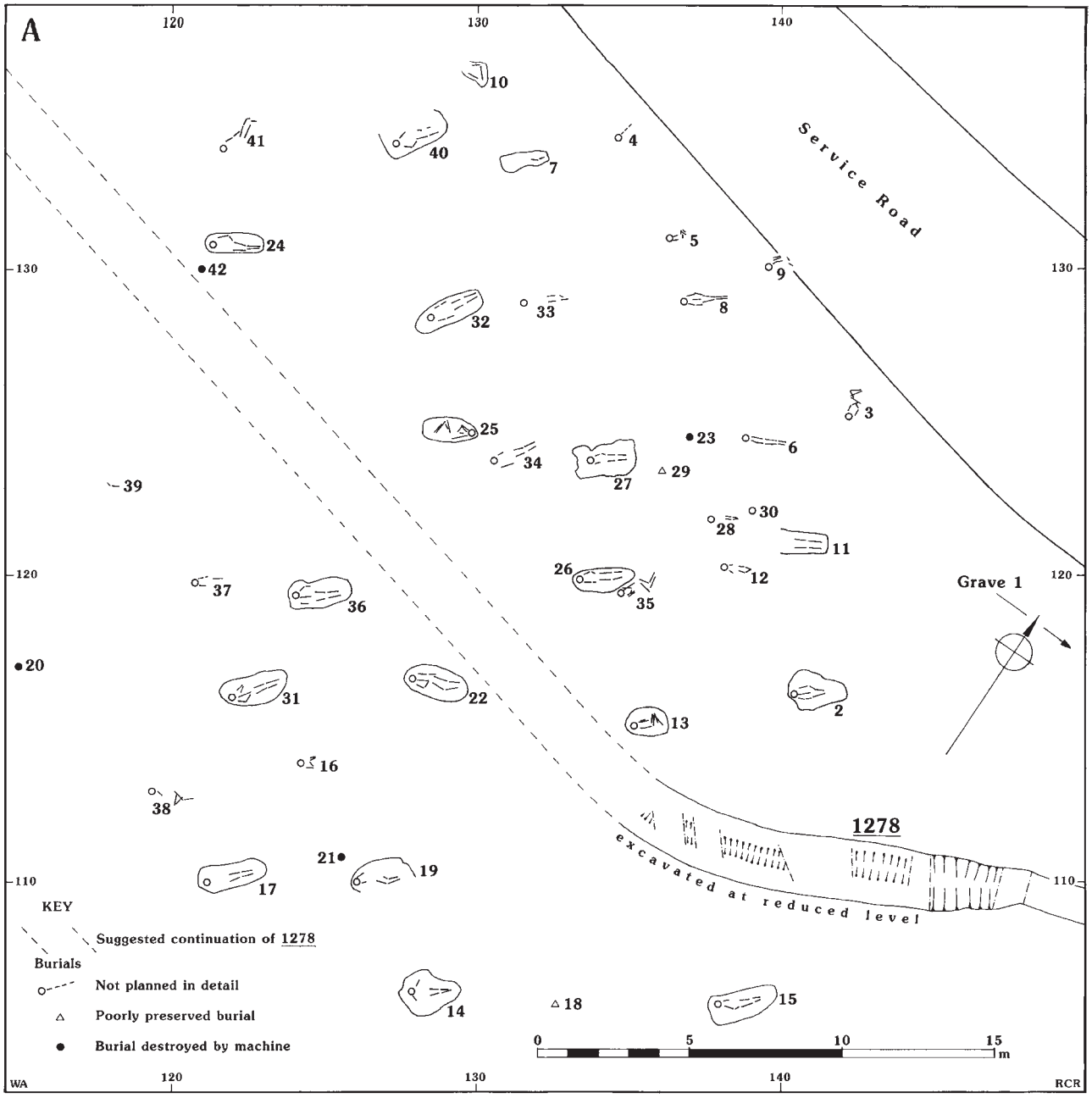

Figure 20 The cemetery, showing all graves except grave 1 (see Fig. 4)

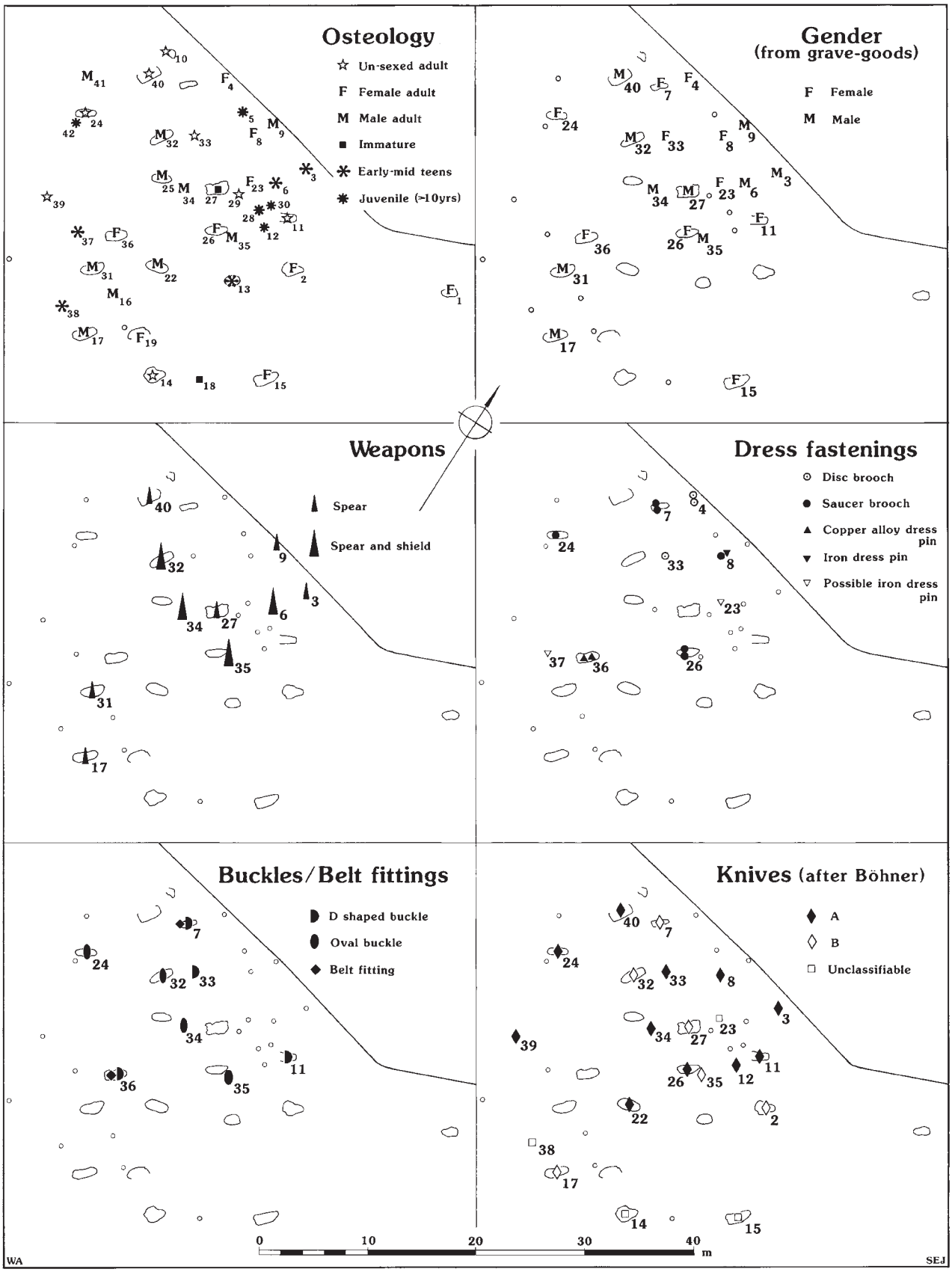

Figure 21 Group patterning within the cemetery

successful in identifying graves containing metal grave-goods. Where groups of metal objects were detected, the surrounding area was carefully hand excavated. When graves were found in this manner, it was often possible to identify the edges of the grave cut. While there was no colour differentiation between the fill of the grave and the surrounding soil, a slight textural difference was often discernible, the fill being rather less compact than the surrounding material.

A metal-detector survey of a large, developer's spoilheap left in the area of the cemetery (see Fig. 3) resulted in the retrieval of four early Saxon brooches and 11 knives. Fragments of human bone were also observed. By comparison with the numbers of similar artefacts recovered from the 42 excavated graves (9 and 21 respectively), and assuming that these unstratified items were all grave-goods, then a conservative estimate for the number of burials destroyed by development would be within the range of 19, on the basis of the number of brooches, to 22, based on the knives.

2. Stratigraphy

No direct grave to grave relationships were definable within the excavated area. Evidence provided by indirect relationships does, however, suggest that there may have been at least two main phases of burial. In the area close to Structure 1 (Fig. 5), a number of pits and two intercutting ditches were identified. The ditches (1031 and 1041) and two of the pits (1058 and 1215) were datable to the early Saxon period. Ditch 1041 cut two inhumation burials (graves 11 and 30) and was probably cut by grave 6. Ditch 1031 cut grave 28 and was cut by graves 3 and 35.

3. Horizontal Patterning

Unfortunately, too few graves were excavated to enable any form of statistical approach to be taken in examining spatial patterning within the cemetery. It might be suggested, however, that the burials can be sub-divided into two groups, a northern (28 burials) and a southern (14 burials), the division being made by the projected line of early Saxon ditch 1278. It is possible that this ditch, and a second parallel example slightly further north (1028), may be boundary features relating to the initial layout of the cemetery.

It also appears possible to differentiate the two groups on the basis of their associated grave-goods (Fig. 21), for example, eight out of ten spears were recovered from the northern group, as were all four shield-bosses. Brooches, both saucer and disc, were recovered from the northern group, but were noticeably absent from the southern. In overall terms, the northern group appears far 'richer' in grave-good associations than the southern.

There is some possible patterning in the distribution of juvenile burials (Fig. 21). Five juveniles were identified, all within the northern group. Of these, three (graves 12, 28 and 30) lay within an area of 6 m^2. Similar concentrations of juvenile burials have been noted elsewhere, for example, at Westgarth Gardens, Suffolk (West 1988, 8). Otherwise there is no apparent patterning by age or sex.

4. Grave Orientation

When the graves are considered together (Fig. 22), all, except graves 3, 4 10, and 41, lie within 40° of arc, being oriented broadly south-west to north-east or the reverse. When the northern and southern groups are examined separately, it becomes apparent that the northern group itself can be sub-divided into northern and southern components. Those in the northern sub-group are broadly aligned at right-angles to the natural slope of the hillside. Those in the southern sub-group are perhaps more interesting; two burials (graves 3 and 35) were insertions into the fills of early Saxon ditch 1031 and their alignment reflects that of the linear feature. It is possible that the remaining graves of this southern sub-group (graves 4, 9, 32, 34, 40, and 41) were also aligned with this feature, which may indicate some degree of synchronicity. Only one of the burials (grave 31) to the south of the suggested early boundary ditch (1278) is of similar orientation. Unfortunately, the associated grave-goods are of little help in supporting this suggested chronological sub-division. Comparing grave orientation with gender reveals that, with one exception (grave 4), the female burials lie within 15 degrees of arc, or the reverse, and are oriented at right-angles to the natural slope, whereas the male burials are spread over 75°. The relative wealth represented by the grave-goods was examined using the method proposed by Arnold (1980). Both methods of examination – number of grave-good types, and assignation of wealth scores – were attempted. The results were not conclusive but suggested that the comparatively most 'wealthy' graves were oriented across the slope of the hillside.

5. Grave Markers

The 'open' character of the cemetery, combined with the lack of any intercutting burials, suggests the presence of grave markers. No post-holes were identified which could be interpreted as such, though two graves contained large fragments of sandstone

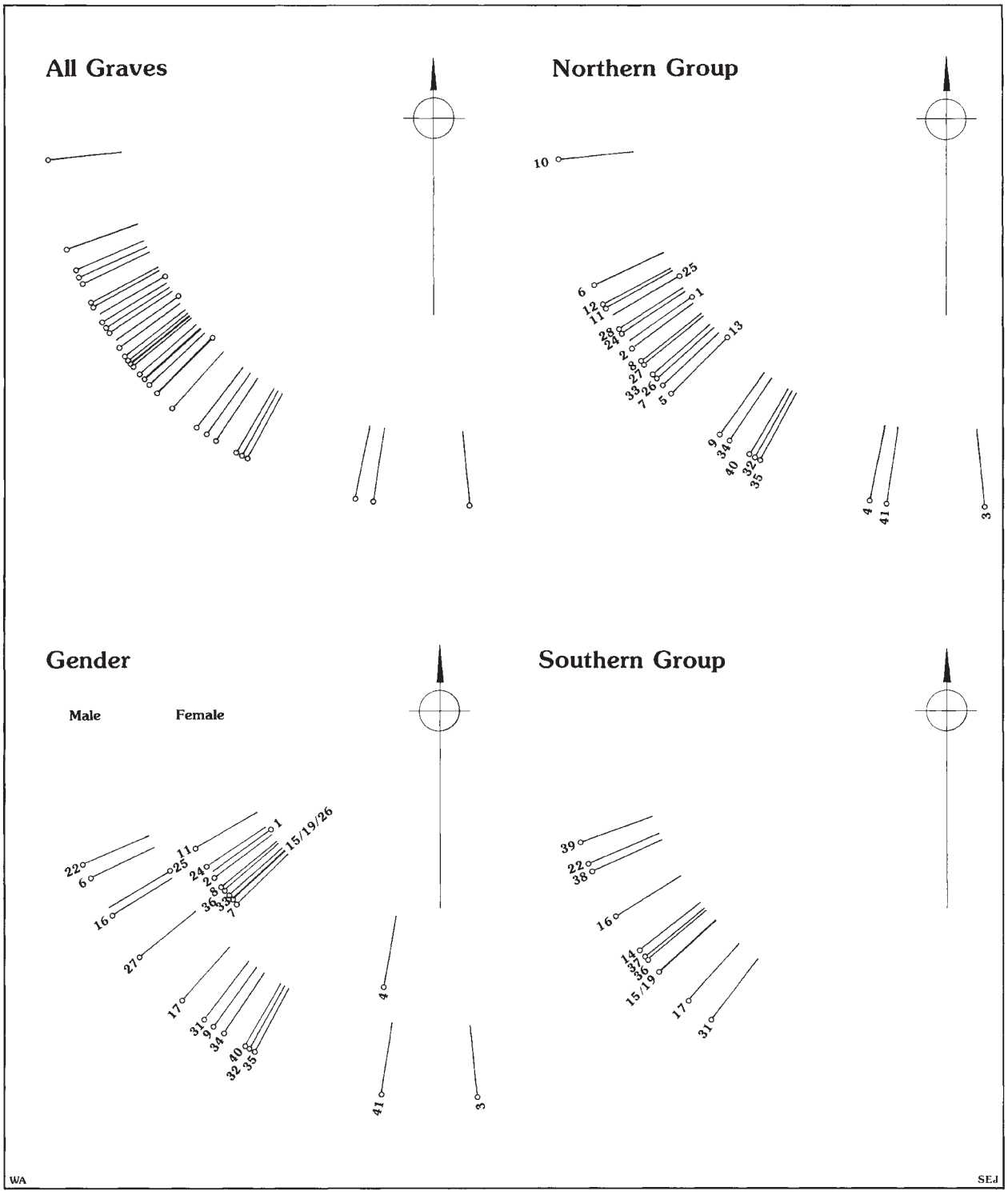

Figure 22 Grave orientation in relation to solar arc

that may be the remnants of markers or cairns. In graves 2 and 17 sandstone blocks appeared to have been placed as flanking markers or grave liners to the north and south of the bodies. Small fragments of sandstone were also present flanking a third burial (grave 27), but these may be incidental. Sandstone fragments were rare in non-funerary contexts within the cemetery area.

6. Body Position

Both extended and flexed inhumation burials were present and neither form appears to have any chronological or spatial attribute. The most eastern grave (grave 1), which was spatially isolated from the remainder of those identified, was notably different in that it contained the body of a young adult female who had been placed prone, though slightly on the

left side, within a grave that was too small (Fig. 24). The legs were flexed leaving the feet uppermost and her hands were together below the pelvis. The right humerus was broken, apparently cut cleanly in two, in antiquity. Prone burials are comparatively rare within Anglo-Saxon cemeteries. Harman *et al.* (1981) listed 23 sites which between them contained c. 33 prone burials, but the numbers were usually small, one or two each cemetery, with a maximum of four from Mitcham. A minimum of seven burials from the 119 at South Acre, Norfolk, were prone (McKinley 1996). Some prone burials have been interpreted as being indicative of 'live burial', for example Sewerby, East Yorkshire (Hirst 1985), Camerton, Somerset (Horne 1933), and Kingsworthy (Hawkes and Wells 1975). Hirst believed prone burials were probably associated with some kind of crime, and it was suggested that the cemetery at South Acre may represent an execution ground (McKinley 1996). Others have suggested that pronation was used to prevent the dead from walking or had other ritual significance (Wilson 1992). While there are historical examples for the prone burial of 'social outcasts', it is dangerous to infer too much with regard to the Anglo-Saxon burial ritual as it may, at least in some instances, be no more than the result of a particularly hasty disposal.

Grave 6 was that of a male in his mid teens. The skeleton was, by comparison with the other burials, markedly contracted laterally. This may have been because the body was placed in a particularly narrow grave or possibly because it was either tightly wrapped in a shroud or placed within a narrow coffin (Rodwell 1988, 166). One factor for arguing against the former is the placement of a shield-boss over the lower abdomen which, within a narrow grave, would have necessitated its removal from the shield-board.

7. Human Skeletal Remains

by Christine Osborne

Forty-one of the 42 excavated graves (grave 21 was empty) contained skeletal remains. None of the skeletons was complete and, though variable, the condition of the bone was generally poor. The complete or partially complete skulls were all badly warped and distorted in shape, and much of the bone was worn, eroded, and fragmented, restricting the information which could be obtained in analysis.

Age was assessed from the stage of tooth development and epiphyseal fusion (Bass 1971), the length of immature long bones (Bass 1971), the degree of dental attrition (Brothwell 1972), age-related changes at the pubic symphyses (Bass 1971) and age-related degenerative joint disease. Three broad adult age ranges are used: 'young' (20–35 yr), 'mature' (35–50 years), and 'old' (>50 years). There is, inevitably, some overlap between these ranges, particularly where bone survival and recovery was poor.

The sex of the skeletons was based on macroscopic skeletal sexual dimorphism (Brothwell 1972; Bass 1971). As the characteristics of sexual dimorphism only develop during puberty, it is not possible to sex immature skeletons. Where sufficient bone survived, stature was estimated using Trotter and Gleser's regression equations (1952; 1958). Pathological lesions were described and diagnoses suggested where possible.

A summary of the results is presented in Table 1. Full details are in archive. Twenty-seven of the 41 identified individuals were adult, 12 were immature, and two could not be aged. Of the immature individuals, three were infants (18 mth–5 yr), one an older infant/young juvenile (3.5–6.5 yr), one juvenile (*c.* 8 yr), one older juvenile/young subadult (9.5–14.5 yr), three young subadults (12–15 yr), and one a subadult (*c.* 15 yr). Among the adults, four were classified as young, one as mature, one as older and one as old adult. Of the 27 adults, six are male with four other probably male, and three are female with six other probably so. It was possible to estimate the stature of five individuals; two females at 1.70 m and 1.64 m and three males with a range of 1.65–1.71 m.

Pathology

As a result of the generally poor condition of the bone, much pathological information will undoubtedly have been lost. Consequently, any detailed discussion of pathology would be inappropriate in this instance. A summary of the types of lesion/condition together with the bones/bone groups affected are presented in Table 1.

Thirty of the 41 individuals had some surviving dentition; ten had only a few loose teeth, 20 had some *in situ* teeth. Of the latter, four (20%) had lost teeth ante mortem. Ante mortem tooth loss may result from caries, periodontal disease (Brothwell 1972), abscesses or deliberate extraction; nine (45%) have carious lesions, three (15%) have noticeable periodontal disease, two (10%) have an abscess lesion, and five (25%) show calculus deposits. Hypoplasia (lines in the tooth crown indicative of interrupted growth during development resulting from illness or dietary deficiency) was evident in teeth from eight (40%) individuals. Three (15%) of the individuals have some crowding of the teeth, one with tooth rotation.

Schmorl's nodes (destructive lesions in the vertebral body surface caused by a herniation of the nucleus pulposus of the intervertebral disc into the adjacent body surface) were noted in one or more

Table 1. Summary of results from the analysis of human bone

Grave No.	*Skeleton No.*	*Approx. % recovered*	*Age*	*Sex*	*Pathology*
1	1004	80%	Young adult	F	Caries; spondylolysis - L5; Sch. - L4–5; exostoses - r. distal humerus
2	1005	70%	Adult	?f	Caries; calculus; o.p. - T4–7; ddd - T8–10; Sch. - T4–5
3	1006	55%	Young subadult	?	
4	1016	4%	Adult	?f	Calculus; cribra orbitalia
5	1021	50%	Infant	?	
6	1022	80%	Subadult (*c.* 15yr)	?	
7	1023	5%	?	?	
8	1029	90%	Young adult	F	
9	1034	70%	Young adult	M	Calculus; caries
10	1039	10%	Adult	?	
11	1043	25%	Adult	?	
12	1046	35%	Juvenile	?	Hypoplasia
13	1049	65%	Young subadult	?	Cribra orbitalia; hypoplasia
14	1144	30%	Adult	?	
15	1145	50%	Adult	?f	Calculus
16	1155	20%	Adult	?m	
17	1156	45%	Adult	?m	
18	1157	15%	Immature	?	
19	1164	70%	Adult	?f	Caries; hypoplasia; Sch.
20	1167	<1%	?	?	
22	1182	92%	Old adult	M	Caries; hypoplasia; o.p. - odontoid; ddd - C3–7; Sch. - T8–L4; o.a. - r. elbow joint, l. hip, r, knee joint, l 1st MP joint
23	1185	80%	Older adult	?f	p.d.; hypoplasia
24	1186	50%	Adult	?	o.a. - distal femur, proximal tibia
25	1187	75%	Adult	M	Caries; hypoplasia; Sch. - T8–12
26	1192	50%	Adult	?f	
27	1195	21%	Immature	?	
28	1198	15%	*c.* 5 yr	?	
29	1201	5%	Adult	?	
30	1204	1%	Young infant	?	
31	1207	85%	Adult	M	Caries; dental abcess; p.d; hypoplasia; pitting - cranium; exostoses - rib facets, l. fibula; o.a. - T4–6; Sch. - T5–9; ddd - L5, S1
32	1210	40%	Adult	M	
33	1213	10%	Adult	?	
34	1217	40%	Adult	?m	
35	1219	95%	Mature adult	M	o.a. - T5–6; Sch. - T7–8
36	1222	70%	Young adult	F	m.v. - rotated teeth
37	1225	40%	Young subadult	?	
38	1228	35%	*c.* 12 yr	?	
39	1231	10%	Adult	?	Sch. - 2 thoracic vertebrae
40	1238	10%	Adult	?	
41	1241	25%	Adult	?m	
42	1250	<5%	*c.* 4 yr	?	

Key: Sch. = Schmorl's nodes; ddd = degenerative disc disease; o.p. = osteophytes; o.a. = osteoarthritis; m.v. = morphological variation; p.d. = peridontal disease

vertebrae of eight individuals. Other degenerative joint disease, with lesions inclusive of marginal osteophytes, eburnation (polishing) and pitting were observed in five, skeleton 1182 (grave 22; old adult male) having lesions in up to five joint groups. Skeleton 1004 (grave 1) has spondylolysis in the 5th lumbar vertebra. This is a condition whereby the inferior articular processes are only attached to the vertebra by fibrous tissue. It is thought to result from injury, such as a stress fracture in childhood and may give rise to pain in the lower back (Adams 1986).

Cribra orbitalia (pitting in the roof of the orbits) was noted in two individuals (Skeletons 1016 (grave 4; adult), 1049 (grave 13; young subadult)). The condition may be associated with dietary deficiency (Brothwell 1972). The femora and tibiae of skeleton 1046 (grave 12; juvenile, aged 8 years ± 24 months) appear bowed in an anterior–posterior direction which may indicate rickets resulting from a deficiency in vitamin D.

8. Catalogue of Inhumations

The grave plans presented within this catalogue are enhanced versions of those drawn on site. During both the evaluation and excavation stages of the project, the grave outlines, skeletal information, and grave-good positions were recorded graphically. During the main phase of excavation this strategy was enhanced by the detailed recording of grave-good positions using an electronic distance meter (EDM). Where there was any discrepancy between the manually recorded positions of grave-goods and those electronically calculated, then minor adjustments have been made in favour of the latter. In the interests of clarity, the inter-relations between graves and other features are not shown on these detailed plans.

Where large fragile grave-goods, for example shield-bosses or artefacts associated with quantities of preserved textile, such as brooches, were present, they were lifted within soil blocks by the conservator. The positions of these blocks were accurately recorded and it has, therefore, been possible to reposition the grave goods in them within the grave.

The identifiable grave-goods are drawn to scale using their post-conservation dimensions on grave plans (Fig. 23). Many are also illustrated individually. Unidentifiable fragments and beads are represented symbolically. The grave-goods are referenced by use of their object numbers. An internal site grid reference (*Co-ord. 0000 0000*) is provided, being approximately the centre of the grave.

Five graves were not planned or photographed. Four of these (20, 21, 23, and 42) were inadvertently badly damaged during machining. The remaining grave (16) was not sufficiently recorded in error.

The grave plans and grave groups are, as far as possible, illustrated in grave number order. All iron objects are presented at a scale of 1:2, those of copper alloy at 1:1, and pottery at 1:3. All iron objects were x-rayed and, in cases where this helps in elucidating the structure of complex objects, a true scale schematic view has been presented in addition to the detailed drawing. A list of the illustrated unstratified, but probable grave-goods is presented at the end of the catalogue (see Figs 43–5).

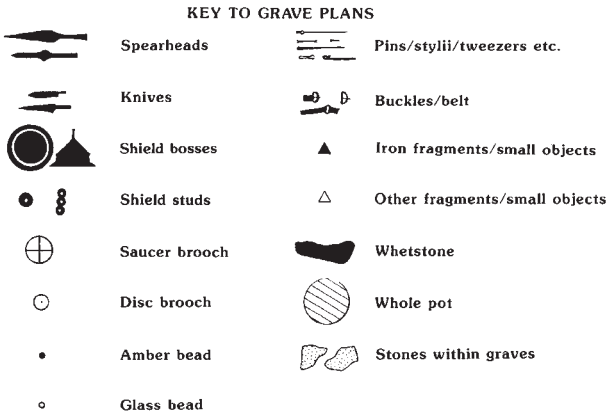

Figure 23 Key to grave plans

Three context numbers were assigned to each grave: skeleton, grave cut, and grave fill. In cases where no grave cut could be identified, all three numbers were, nonetheless, allocated. Where artefacts were recovered in proximity to the skeleton and at a similar or higher level, but which appeared to have no direct association with the body, the objects are included in the category *fill finds*. Specialist information has been incorporated into the entries for each grave; but see Chapter 4 for full consideration of finds categories and material types. Attention is drawn, in particular, to the method statements and results of the metallurgical analyses and to the textiles.

Grave 1 (1020; fill 1019)
(Fig. 24)
Co-ord. 1555 1140; irregular rectangular grave cut oriented NE–SW, too small to permit extended burial. Prone, extended, legs flexed at knee, feet removed by machining. Right humerus apparently severed ante mortem close to shoulder. Upper section of the humerus had rotated through *c.* 180°, but severed arm had been placed in approximately correct position.

Skeleton: Female (1004), young adult.

Grave 2 (1018; fill 1017)
(Figs 24; 31)
Co-ord. 1410 1162; irregular cut oriented SW–NE. Local sandstone frags to N and S of skeleton, possibly grave markers. Extended supine.

Skeleton: ?Female (1005), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 3, iron whittle tang knife; 55 mm long tang, rectangular-sectioned; poss. horn on tang. Blade cutting edge curves up to meet slightly angled back at tip. Blade length 96 mm. Böhner type B. Length 151 mm; width 24 mm; thickness 3.5 mm.

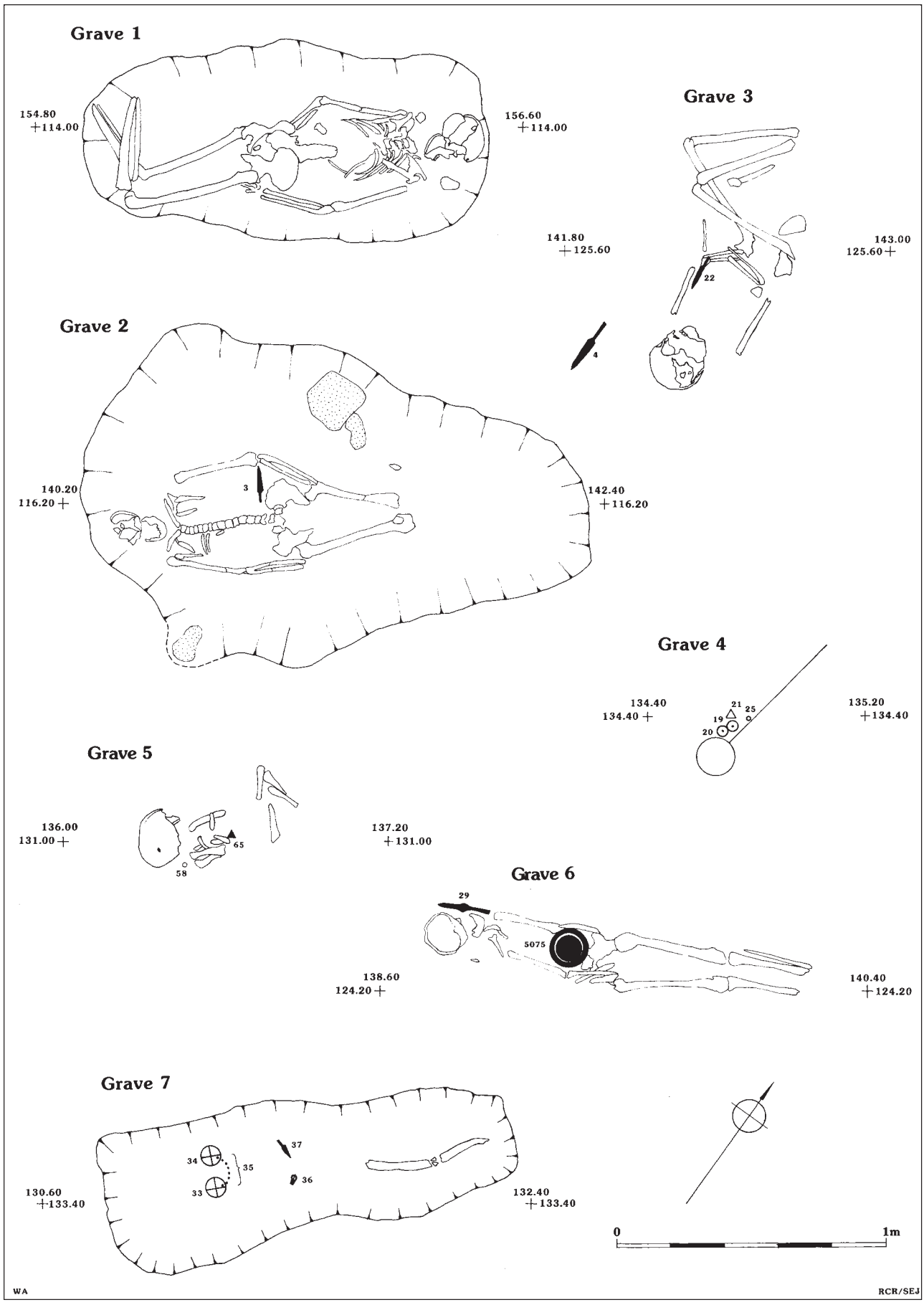

Figure 24 Grave plans: Graves 1–7

Grave 3 (1011; fill 1010)
(Figs 24; 31)
Co-ord. 1425 1255; no recognisable grave cut, oriented S–N; cut fill of early Saxon ditch 1031 and mortar floor 1000 of Structure 1. Flexed to left, lower arms flexed across waist.

Skeleton: Early to mid teens (1006).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 4, iron spearhead. Socket cleft for entire length (83 mm); mineral-preserved wood from shaft. Rivet hole 3 mm diam., 16 mm from socket end. Both blade angles faceted from angle towards neck, terminating in ridge with V-shaped profile on either side of neck. Blade with angular profile; lozengiform section. Swanton group E2. Length 227 mm; max. width 33 mm.
Obj. No. 22, whittle tang knife. Tang (43 mm) has rectangular section and tapers, with angled shoulder up to back of blade, other edge forming continuous line with cutting edge; traces of horn. Blade (99 mm) has straight back angled to tip; cutting edge uneven through resharpening; ?remains of the sheath on one side of blade. Böhner type A. Length 142 mm; width 14 mm; thickness 4 mm.

Grave 4 (1264; fill 1263)
(Figs 24, 31)
Co-ord. 1345 1344; no recognisable grave cut, oriented S–N. Lower half of skeleton removed by excavation of site access road; probably extended supine.

Skeleton: ?Female (1016), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 19, copper alloy disc brooch; five double ring and dot-punched motifs, one positioned slightly off-centre, others fairly evenly spaced around edge; diam. of outer rings 9 mm. Rough surface with two areas of corrosion; some of decoration destroyed; mineral-preserved textile. Copper alloy attachment plate and iron pin spring visible in iron corrosion with preserved textile and glass beads (below). Dickinson group 4.2. Max. diam. 41 mm.
Obj. No. 20, Disc brooch forming pair with Obj. 19; same decoration scheme, slightly differently spaced; diam. outer rings 9 mm. Brooch surface rough with areas of corrosion which have destroyed some decoration. Copper alloy catchplate broken, tip of iron pin preserved, both corroded; Textile remains in corrosion; other linear fibres, possibly hair running in line with pin. Dickinson group 4.2. Max. diam. 41.5 mm.
Obj. Nos 25, 114, 5073, three biconical polychrome glass beads, opaque red, interlacing trails with yellow dots. Thickness 9–10 mm, diam. 8–9 mm. 5073 attached to corrosion products on Obj. No. 19. 114) recovered by sieving (not on Fig. 24).
Obj. No. 5072, fragment of ?Romano-British glass vessel rim, pale translucent green, folded over, reused as necklace spacer. Attached to corrosion products on Obj. No. 19.

Grave 5 (1266; fill 1265)
(Figs 24; 32)
Co-ord. 1365 1310, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Flexed to left.

Skeleton: 3 years ± 12 months (1021).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 65, Square-sectioned straight bar of iron, broken at both ends. Length 21 mm; width 4 mm; thickness 4 mm.
Obj. No. 58, fragmented translucent, dark blue annular glass bead. Thickness 7 mm, diam. 11 mm.

Fill finds: one worked flint (2 g). Lump of iron slag (Obj. No. 57; 17 g).

Grave 6 (1256; fill 1255)
(Figs 24; 32)
Co-ord. 1400 1243, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine. Skeleton appeared laterally compressed suggesting presence of coffin or shroud, or unusually narrow grave. Cut early Saxon ditches 1041 and 1031.

Skeleton: Mid teens (1022).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 29, Iron spearhead. Socket cleft for entire length (70 mm); containing mineral-preserved wood from shaft. Rivet hole, 3 mm diam. either side of socket 12 mm from socket end; one rivet *in situ*. Blade corrugated; leaf-shaped profile, slight concavity towards tip; lunate fullering, broad margin of preserved metal between fullering and blade edge; blade lentoid in section towards tip. Swanton group I1. Length 197 mm; max. width 33 mm.
Obj. No. 5075, iron shield-boss, straight walls, straight cone terminating in large flat button (35 mm diam.) on thin neck; flange *c*. 18 mm wide; three rivets remaining (15–17 mm diam.), two with washers, X-

radiograph shows the position of fourth, poss. with washer, set symmetrically round flange. Space of 7 mm between underside of flange and washers; in this area mineralised wood; distinct but amorphous thin layer of ?leather between wood and rivet ends, poss. remains of a leather shield-cover. Neck ?squared off on one face but otherwise round in section. Dickinson group 5. Diam. 133 mm; height 96 mm.

Obj. No. 5078, iron shield-grip; expanded straight-ended terminals pierced by single rivet (15 mm diam. head), shanks broken. Two strips of mineral-preserved material (?leather), running diagonally across upper surface of grip, one partially covering rivet heads On underside, traces of mineral-preserved wood, grain running perpendicular to long axis of grip. Length 115 mm; width 40 mm; thickness 2 mm.

Obj. No. 5077; large, flat, iron, disc-headed shield-stud, traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside. Space of 8 mm between underside of stud head and end of shank. Diam. 29 mm; thickness 12 mm.

Obj. No. 83, large, flat, iron disc-headed shield-stud. Shank (12 mm long) has traces of mineral-preserved wood running 8 mm down from underside of stud head. Small frag. sheet iron shield-boss and ?washer 9 mm down shank. Diam. 30 mm; thickness 15 mm.

Obj. No. 5076, large, flat, iron disc-headed iron shield-stud; traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside. Space of 9 mm between underside of stud head and end of shank. Diam. 29 mm; thickness 12 mm.

Fill finds: 37 frags animal bone (100 g).

Grave 7 (1262; fill 1261)
(Figs 24; 33)
Co-ord. 1310 1336, roughly rectangular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Left leg (1023) only survived, suggests extended supine.

Grave-goods:

Obj. Nos 33; 34, pair of almost identical mercury-gilded bronze saucer brooches; 4 concentric rings and central field with three-armed (arrowhead) motif, three Style I legs in spaces between arms. Second ring in from edge of brooch decorated with oval punched designs with upstanding areas of ridge between, giving dimpled pellet effect. Third ring in deeper than the other three. Outline of three legs picked out by thin groove. Loss of gilding on surface of No. 33. Catch-plate, attachment plate, and pin of this brooch are copper alloy; pin spring clearly visible; traces of poorly-preserved mineralised textile remains on underside. Gilding well-preserved on No. 34, except around part of rim, which is broken in one place. Copper alloy catchplate visible on underside; copper alloy attachment plate largely hidden by iron corrosion surround-ing pin. Hinge construction concealed by mineral-preserved textile remains on corrosion mass. Max. diam. 76 mm; 78 mm.

Obj. No. 37, iron whittle tang knife. Tapering tang (54 mm) central to blade; rectangular section, ?horn. Cutting edge of blade (81 mm) slopes upwards to tip; back has very slight curve downwards. Corrosion on blade possibly indicates sheath. Böhner's type B. Length 135 mm; width 21 mm; thickness 5 mm.

Obj. No. 36, iron buckle and plate. D-shaped buckle, made of wire with subcircular cross-section of 4 mm diam. Buckle loop broken; original length *c*. 32 mm, 24 mm wide. Tongue is rectangular-sectioned tapering bar. Plate 18 mm wide, end broken) formed of a strip of sheet iron 1.5 mm thick folded over buckle and fastened with rivet. Mineral-preserved ?bone. Traces of leather on front surface and textile on back of plate; textile traces on buckle loop. Length 42 mm; width 33 mm; thickness 12 mm.

Obj. No. 35, nine irregular amber beads; diam. 9–16 mm, length 10–14 mm.

Grave 8 (1254; fill 1253)
(Figs 25; 34)
Co-ord. 1370 1290, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, knees and ankles together, arms extended along sides.

Skeleton: Female (1029), young adult.
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 63, Gilded copper alloy saucer brooch; gilding completely worn away. Brooch metal is copper alloy containing zinc and silver (ie between bronze and brass), plated with mixture of gold and silver, in which gold predominates. Uneven central boss (bearing small central dimple, ?indicate position of compasses used to lay out design), surrounded by zone of animal ornament consisting of two chasing bipeds in Salin's Style I, with bird-of-prey beaks

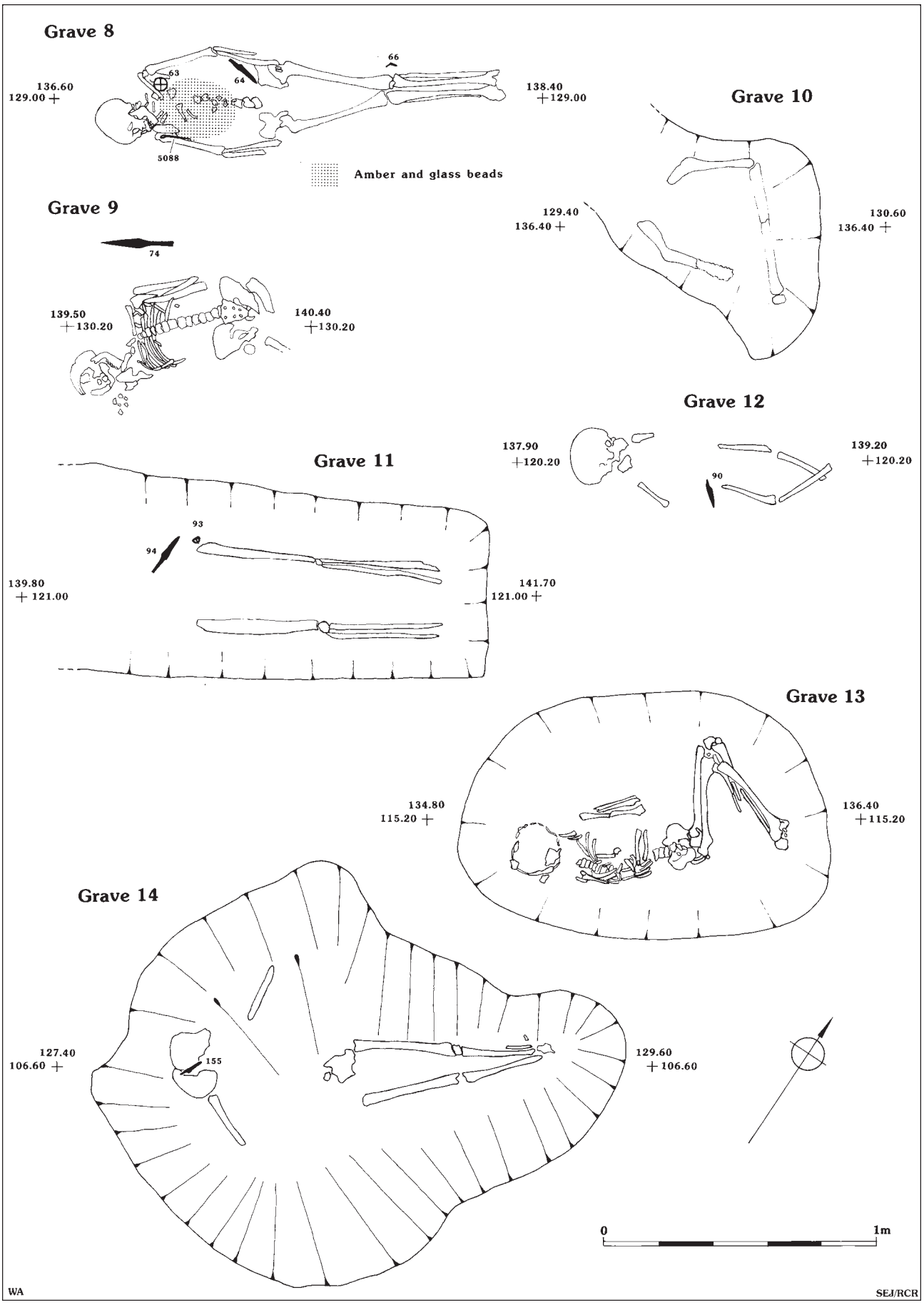

Figure 25 Grave plans: Graves 8–14

arranged clockwise. Bipeds in extremely schematic form. Outside animal decoration is narrow milled ring, then undecorated border between ring and upwards angle of rim. Copper alloy catchplate and attachment plate; iron pin has corroded completely, corrosion bears traces of mineral-preserved textile. Dickinson group 7. Max. diam. 48 mm.

Obj. No. 64, iron whittle tang knife; broken tang central to blade, rectangular-sectioned; ?horn. Blade (104 mm) has distinct angle on back leading down to broken tip. Böhner's type A. Length 146 mm; width 16 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Obj. No. 5088, iron pin; square-sectioned shank tapering to round cross-section near point; other end formed into oval loop 9 mm wide. Layer of bone on one side, and traces of textile surround object. Small frag. sheet iron corroded to loop. Length 107 mm; width 3 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.

Obj. No. 66, tapering square-sectioned iron bar, broken at one end. Traces of textile in corrosion. Length 66 mm; width 4 mm; thickness 4 mm.

Obj. No. 61, 31 irregularly shaped amber beads. Diam. 8–16 mm, length 9–20 mm; one small irregular bead, diam. 6 mm.

Obj. Nos 65, 72, frags translucent dark blue glass beads; No. 72 ?annular, min. thickness 7 mm.

Obj. No. 62, small, translucent, pale blue annular glass bead. Thickness 3 mm, diam. 4.5 mm.

Obj. No. 5115, opaque red spherical glass bead. Diam. 7.5 mm.

Obj. No. 5116, translucent green cylindrical glass bead. Thickness 12 mm, diam. 13 mm.

Obj. Nos 5113; 5114, translucent green annular glass beads. Thickness 6–7 mm, diam. 12.5–13 mm.

Obj. No. 5117, translucent orange/brown cylindrical glass bead, yellow/white trailed decoration. Thickness 11.5 mm, diam. 17 mm.

Obj. Nos 5020–5022, translucent green annular glass beads with yellow/white trailed decoration. Thickness 6.5–7.5 mm, Diam. 13–14.5 mm.

Obj. Nos 5118; 5119, translucent green melon glass beads. Thickness 8 mm, diam. 10 mm.

Fill finds: two Roman body sherds (6 g).

Grave 9 (1258; fill 1257)
(Figs 25; 34)
Co-ord. 1400 1320, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Most of skeleton removed by excavation of site access road and developer's geotechnic pit. Supine, slightly flexed to right.

Skeleton: Male (1034), young adult.
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 74, iron spearhead. Socket cleft for entire length (104 mm); at junction with blade shank is almost rectangular in section with cleft a shallow, narrow groove; traces of mineral-preserved wood in socket. Blade with leaf-shaped profile; lozengiform section and clear ridge. Swanton group C2. Length 276 mm; max. width 34 mm.

Fill finds: 3 frags animal bone (1 g); 1 worked flint (2 g).

Grave 10 (1268; fill 1267)
(Figs 25; 34)
Co-ord. 1300 1364, partially defined grave cut, oriented W–E. Only legs survived, flexed.

Skeleton: Adult (1039).
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 82, iron ?awl; square-sectioned bar with twisted shaft, one end snapped off. Intact end narrows to wedge-shaped tip. Length 51 mm; width 2.5 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.

Grave 11 (1045; fill 1044)
(Figs 25; 35)
Co-ord. 1405 1210, ?rectangular, oriented SW–NE. Only legs survived, extended supine. Cut the mortar floor (1000) and dwarf wall (1042) of Structure 1. West end of grave removed by early Saxon ditch 1041.

Skeleton: Adult (1043).
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 94, iron whittle tang knife; tapering rectangular-sectioned tang (63 mm). X-radiograph shows angled shoulder up from tang to back of blade. Mineral-preserved remains of horn handle on both sides of tang. Cutting edge and back of blade curve to meet at broken tip; resharpening curve near tang. Mineral-preserved textile at blade/tang junction. Böhner type A. Length 169 mm; width 18 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Obj. No. 93, iron buckle, now lost. Described from X-radiograph as D-shaped (though possibly oval), broadened at curved part of loop. Tapering tongue extends for 3 mm beyond loop. Length 33 mm; width 23 mm.

Fill finds: 14 frags animal bone (41 g.).
Fill of ditch 1041 close to grave: three irregularly-shaped amber beads (Obj. No. 92). Diam 7–9 mm, length 9–13 mm.

Obj. No. 100, two glass beads, one large, translucent, pale blue, biconical with yellow/white spots. Thickness 18 mm, diam. 21 mm; other biconical, opaque red with interlacing yellow trails and spots. Thickness 6.5 mm, diam. 7.5 mm.

Grave 12 (1048; fill 1047)
(Figs 25; 35)
Co-ord. 1391 1202, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, legs slightly flexed and crossed at ankles.

Skeleton: 8 years ± 24 months (1046).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 90, iron whittle tang knife; tapering rectangular-sectioned tang (40 mm), positioned centrally on blade; mineral-preserved remains of horn handle on tang, tabular discrete corrosion layer on blade representing sheath. Back of blade and cutting edge curve to meet at tip. Böhner type A. Length 107 mm; width 16 mm; thickness 2 mm.

Fill finds: iron T-headed nail. Length 22 mm; width 13 mm; thickness 5 mm (Obj. No. 108); 5 frags animal bone (25 g).

Grave 13 (1051; fill 1050)
(Figs 25)
Co-ord. 1355 1152, oval grave cut, oriented W–E. Flexed on left side.

Skeleton: Early to mid teens (1049).
Fill finds: One Roman body sherd (2 g).

Grave 14 (1260; fill 1259)
(Figs 25; 35)
Co-ord. 1280 1066, grave cut defined but plan uncertain, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, ankles together, arms appear flexed.

Skeleton: Adult (1144).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 155, iron whittle tang knife; tang (c. 38 mm) central on blade; rectangular cross-section. Mineral-preserved horn on tang. Back of knife straight, point missing, cutting edge sloping upwards. Length 91 mm; width 19 mm; thickness 5 mm.

Fill finds: 1 animal bone (40 g).

Grave 15 (1270; fill 1269)
(Figs 26; 35)
Co-ord. 1385 1060, roughly rectangular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine.
Skeleton: ?Female (1145), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 157, iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned tang (49 mm) with angle to back of blade; other edge with very shallow angle to cutting edge. Mineral-preserved horn on tang overlain on one side by textile. Cutting edge knife parallel to back of blade before both curve, back slightly and cutting edge more markedly, towards broken tip. On left hand side of blade two incised grooves *c.* 1 mm wide, 1.5 mm apart from shoulder parallel to straight part of blade. On right hand side of blade single incised groove 1.5 mm wide, also parallel to back of blade but longer than others. Length 144 mm; width 23 mm; thickness 3.5 mm.
Obj. No. 156, iron strap separator or suspension loop consisting of 2 loops of circular cross-sectioned wire with flattened expanded ends; one loop (ends joined by rivet), swivels inside other. Additional broken length of rectangular-sectioned iron also looped around. Powdery orange corrosion between loop plates suggesting riveted leather straps. Mineral-preserved textile around whole object. Length 39 mm; width 25 mm; thickness 34 mm.
Obj. No. 210, thin, rectangular-sectioned iron strip with circular expanded ends. One end pierced for in situ rivet, other shaped into small scoop. ?Toilet item pierced for suspension. Length 64 mm; width 7 mm; thickness 4 mm.
Obj. No. 5074, fragment of iron bar (not illus.), 3 mm wide, 3 mm thick, covered in mineral-preserved textile. Length 15 mm; width 8 mm; thickness 7 mm.
Obj. No. 211, fragment of mineral-preserved textile.

Fill finds: 4 frags animal bone (17 g); 1 frag. ceramic building material (1 g); 1 medieval sherd (3 g).

Grave 16 (1162; fill 1163)
(Figs 26; 35)
Co-ord. 1242 1138, no recognisable grave cut, oriented W–E. Only skull and arms survived, ?supine, arms together across chest.

Skeleton: ?Male (1155), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 187, broken tip of circular-sectioned iron pin (not illus.). Length 8 mm; diam. 3 mm.
Obj. No. 158, numerous frags of translucent green bead (not illus.), type unidentifiable.
Obj. No. 191, flat, ?complete, sub-rectangular whetstone; irregular-shaped section. Evidence for sharpening on all surfaces; one surface very flat and smooth, opposite surface

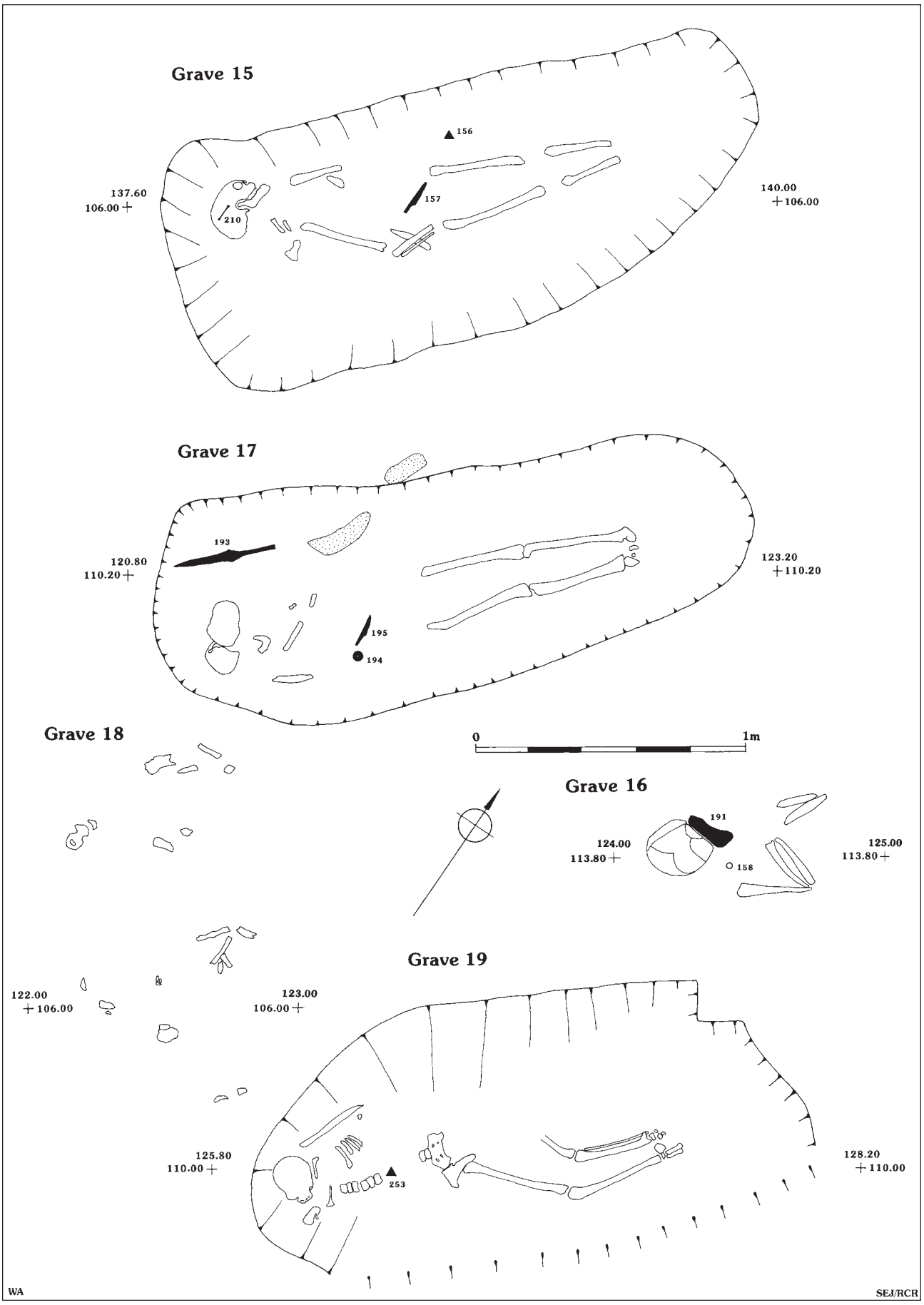

Figure 26 Grave plans: Graves 15–19

irregular with 2 distinct faces used for sharpening and groove at one end. Fine-grained sandstone. Length 162 mm; width 60 mm; thickness 20 mm.

Fill finds: 1 frag. ceramic building material (1 g); 2 Roman sherds (20 g); 2 medieval sherds (14 g).

Grave 17 (1160; fill 1161)
(Figs 26; 36)
Co-ord. 1388 1102, roughly rectangular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Local sandstone fragments to N of skeleton, possibly grave markers. Extended supine.

Skeleton: ?Male (1156), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 193, iron spearhead. Socket (132 mm) cleft for nearly entire length (128 mm); cleft completely infilled with mineral-preserved wood. Both blade angles faceted from angle to neck, terminating in bead ridges. Blade with angular profile and lozengiform section; tip broken. Swanton group H3. Length 366 mm; max. width 34 mm.
Obj. No. 194, flat disc-headed iron stud, ?shield-stud. Shank protrudes through lozenge-shaped copper alloy washer. Between washer and underside of stud is 7 mm thickness of mineral-preserved wood. Diam. 41 mm; thickness 13 mm.
Obj. No. 195, iron whittle tang knife; tang (51 mm) is rectangular-sectioned and tapering, forming continuous line with back of blade; angled shoulder onto cutting edge. Small amount of corrosion suggestive of horn. Blade has worn cutting edge which curves up to tip, back has distinct angle down to tip. Several areas of textile impression on both sides of blade, also oval blisters, ?remains of corrosion around fly pupae, some in row along edge of blade in very typical manner. Böhner type B. Length 128 mm; width 17 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Fill finds: 21 frags animal bone (42 g); 1 frag. ceramic building material (12 g);1 late Saxon (9 g) and 3 medieval sherds (12 g).

Grave 18 (1158; fill 1159)
(Fig 26)
Co-ord. 1326 1056, no recognisable grave cut. Very fragmentary skeletal remains, ?disturbed.

Skeleton: Immature (1157).
Fill finds: 22 frags animal bone (241 g); 1 worked flint (2 g); 2 frags iron slag (30 g).

Grave 19 (1166; fill 1165)
(Figs 26; 36)
Co-ord. 1270 1100, grave cut partially definable, oriented SW–NE. Skeleton slightly flexed to right.

Skeleton: ?Female (1164), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 253, fragment of iron sheet, retaining one original straight edge. Length 21 mm; width 11 mm; thickness 1 mm.

Fill finds: 2 frags animal bone (20 g); 1 worked flint (8 g); 1 late Saxon sherd (3 g); 3 frags iron slag (16 g).

Grave 20 (1264; fill 1263)
(not illus.)
Co-ord. 1152 1169, no recognisable grave cut. Only a small number of skull fragments remained *in situ*.

Skeleton: (1167).
Fill finds: 19 frags animal bone (326 g); 1 medieval sherd (34 g).

Grave 21 (1181; fill 1179)
(Fig. 36)
Co-ord. 1258 1108, no recognisable grave cut. Burial badly damaged by machining, only the left femur remained.

Skeleton: (1180).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 255, iron square-stemmed rivet with lozenge shaped heads. Space of 9 mm between heads. Length 12.5 mm; width 4.5 mm; thickness 3.5 mm.

Grave 22 (1183; fill 1184)
(Figs 27; 36)
Co-ord. 1287 1164, elongated oval grave cut, oriented W–E. Very slightly flexed, supine.

Skeleton: Male (1182), old adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 259, iron whittle tang knife; tang (52 mm) central on blade, distinct angled shoulders, traces of horn. Cutting edge and back of blade curve to meet at broken tip. Cutting edge shows distinct sharpening curve. On left hand side of blade two incised grooves running parallel to straight part of back. Thick layer of corrosion, ?decayed sheath, on top of which traces of ?textile. Böhner type A. Length 160 mm; width 17 mm; thickness 4 mm.
Obj. No. 260, lozengiform iron sheet pierced by 2 square-stemmed rivets extending 8 mm below fitting. Length 37 mm; width 13.5 mm; thickness 1 mm.

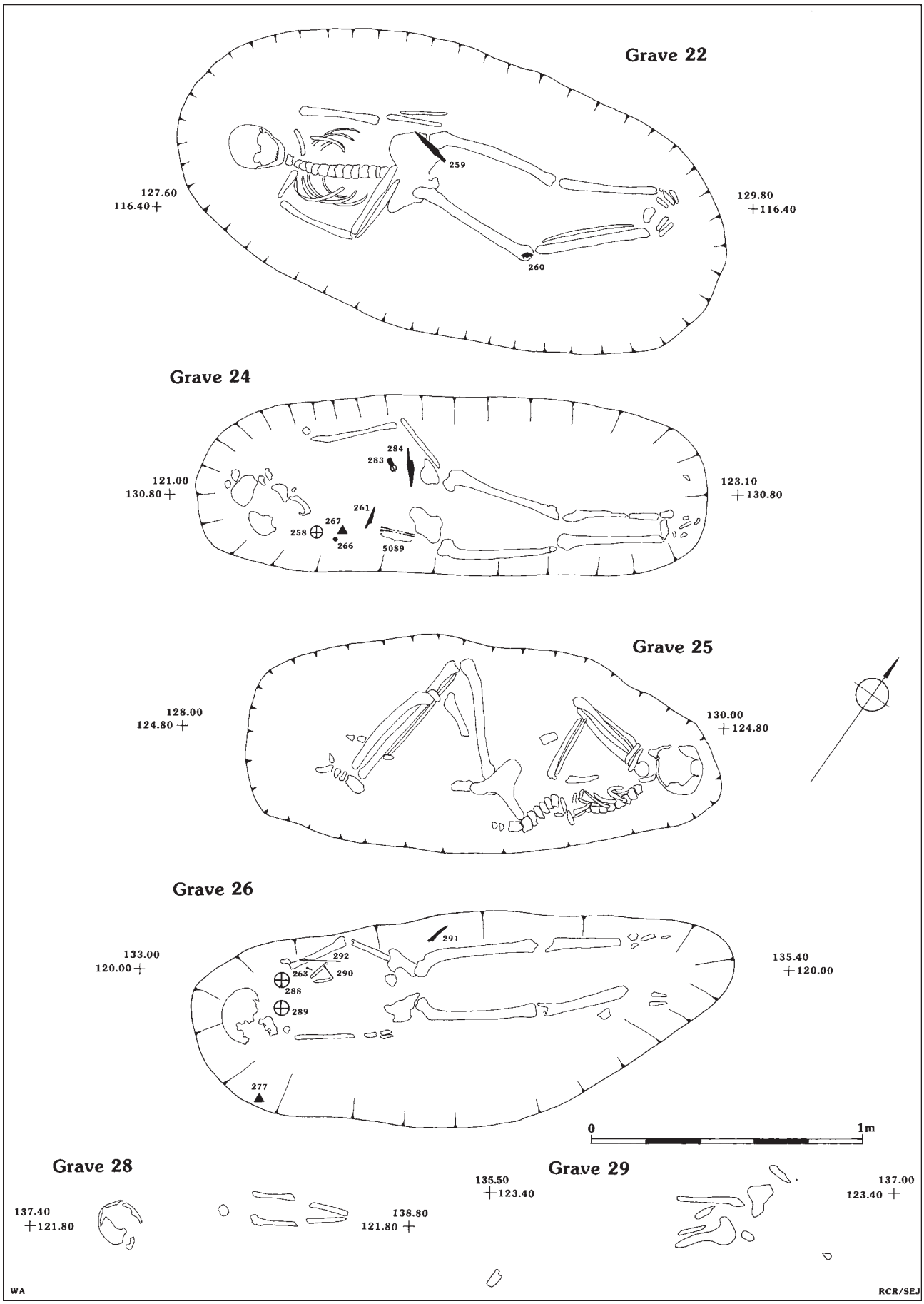

Figure 27 Grave plans: Graves 22, 24–6, 28, 29

Fill finds: 1 frag. ceramic building material (7 g).

Grave 23 (1274; fill 1273)
(Fig. 36)
Co-ord. 1370 1246, no recognisable grave cut, oriented E–W. Burial almost totally removed by machine, skeletal remains recovered from spoil-heap.

Skeleton: ?Female (1185), older adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 257, mass of iron and copper alloy objects corroded together, but not otherwise physically joined, covered with mineral-preserved textile. Consists of 2 groups of iron strip objects (1 x 2 strips; 1 x 4 strips), both suspended from broken iron wire loops; 2 copper alloy strip objects suspended from copper alloy wire; spare length of iron wire; decorated copper alloy ring. Obj. No. 280 may also belong as it was excavated from same block of sand and corrosion products. All iron strips folded at top to form simple loops for suspension; loops of the group of 2 are scrolled. One copper alloy strip (length 75 mm, width 8 mm) complete; gently flaring strip with simple loop at one end, V-shaped, forked, incision in other, many fine striations running down length on both sides. Other copper alloy strip broken, possibly at top of V-shaped incision. Iron wire circular in section, badly corroded. Ring fragment decorated with shallow zig-zag grooves, interior of triangles gouged out to enhance relief effect; int. diam. 22 mm. Length 94 mm; width 30 mm; thickness 26 mm.
Obj. No. 281, iron whittle tang knife frag.; tapering tang (30 mm) covered with mineral-preserved remains of horn on one side. Blade very mineralised, no surviving surfaces. Length 47 mm; width 15 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.
Obj. No. 280, broken, tapering ?pin; square-sectioned shank, slightly flattened at one end, bent over to form loop slightly upturned end. Traces of mineral-preserved textile around. Length 80 mm; width 4 mm; thickness 6 mm.
Obj. No. 282, pair of tapering wire objects, curved and lying adjacent, broken at both ends, round/oval section (4 mm and 3 mm diam. at wider ends). Corroded together; fragment of mineral-preserved textile over one area. ?Part of iron wire loops in group 257. Length 19 mm; width 7 mm; thickness 4 mm.
Obj. No. 248, fragment of bone ?pin beater made from sheep/goat rib. Surfaces polished. Flattened circular section, beginning to taper at one end. Length 74 mm; width 8 mm; thickness 6 mm

Fill finds: 4 frags animal bone (5 g).

Grave 24 (1188; fill 1189)
(Figs 27; 37)
Co-ord. 1220 1380, rounded rectangular grave cut, oriented W–E. Extended supine, arms slightly flexed.

Skeleton: Adult (1186).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 258, mercury-gilded brass saucer brooch; decorated with central motif of small quatrefoil surrounded by circular band and wider border of 3 plain triangular wedges interspersed by 3 sets of basket-work made up of 2 horizontal and 1 radial multiple-bar blocks, all enclosed by band. Mercury-gilding missing from edge of brooch, which is plain with small area of damage. Copper alloy catch-plate, attachment plate and badly corroded iron pin survive on underside. Area of pin spring covered in mineral-preserved textile. Max. diam. 48 mm.
Obj. No. 284, iron whittle tang knife; tang (48 mm) central on blade, tapering, rectangular section with angular shoulder up to back of blade and a gentle slope to cutting edge. Traces of corrosion, representing unidentifiable handle, on tang. Back of blade relatively straight, cutting edge curves up to tip. Patches of corrosion on blade indicate sheath above which faint traces of mineral-preserved textile. Böhner's type A. Length 136 mm; width 32 mm; thickness 3 mm.
Obj. No. 5089, 2 (3 mm and 2 mm diam.) iron pins, each broken in 2 non-conjoining frags, covered with mineral-preserved textile on both surfaces; a sub-rounded cross-section, expanding into flattened strip-like, broken ends (5 mm and 6 mm wide). Min. length 102 mm; width 12 mm; thickness 10 mm.
Obj. No. 283, ?oval iron buckle and plate. Buckle loop and tongue with rectangular cross-section. Buckle 30 mm long, 23 mm wide, tongue overhangs loop by 4 mm. Plate is formed by single sheet folded over buckle. Both sides covered by mineral-preserved textile. No rivet. Soft orange corrosion between buckle plates probably ?leather from belt

or strap. Length 60 mm; width 34 mm; thickness 12 mm.

Obj. No. 266, 1 irregular amber bead. Diam. 10 mm.

Fill finds: 1 worked flint (1 g). 5 early Saxon (25 g), 1 Roman sherd (1 g).

Grave 25 (1190; fill 1191)
(Fig. 25)
Co-ord. 1290 1248, irregular grave cut, oriented NE–SW. Flexed on right side.

Skeleton: Male (1187), adult.
Fill finds: 1 frag. animal bone (1 g); 1 Roman sherd (5 g); 3 worked flints (5 g).

Grave 26 (1193; fill 1194)
(Figs 27; 38)
Co-ord. 1342 1197, no recognisable grave cut, irregular grave plan, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine. Cut fill of grave 35.

Skeleton: ?Female (1192), adult.
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 288, mercury-gilded bronze saucer brooch, *c*. one-third missing. Decorated with 3 concentric border rings surrounding 6-pointed star. At centre of star is low boss surrounded by concentric ring highlighted by groove within each arm and chevrons in areas between arms of star. Upper surface originally completely gilded, gilding now remains only in grooves and small area between 2 arms. Copper alloy catch plate and attachment plate; the iron pin corroded, but traces of spring visible under mass of mineral-preserved textile. Max. diam. 53 mm.

Obj. No. 289, mercury-gilded bronze saucer brooch, pair to Obj. 288, similar decoration; gilding remains only in grooves. Copper alloy catch plate and attachment plate; corroded iron pin; spring covered with mineral-preserved textile. Max. diam. 54 mm.

Obj. No. 292, bronze tooth/cosmetic pick; tapering circular-sectioned shank, flattened at one end to form oval head with rectangular-sectioned terminal extending 6 mm beyond. Head perforated; 2 mm diam. hole worked from both sides (3 mm ext. diam.). Traces of white metal plating on shank (silver with trace of gold). Three strands mineral-preserved textile thread on one edge of head. Length 141 mm; width head 6 mm; diam. shaft 3 mm.

Obj. No. 290, Bronze ?ear scoop; both ends broken. Shank has a circular cross-section (2 mm diam); both ends expanded and flattened, one terminal perforated. Terminals set in different planes, at *c*. 90 to each other. Traces of white metal plating on scoop (silver with trace of gold). Length 60 mm; width 5 mm; thickness 4.5 mm.

Obj. No. 291, iron whittle tang knife, most of tang missing. Traces of mineral-preserved horn on tang. Back and cutting edge of blade curve up to meet at tip. Distinct layer of corrosion on blade representing leather sheath. Böhner type A. Length 87 mm; width 15 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Obj. No. 263, broken iron pin (tip and part of tapering shank); circular cross-section; ?belongs to one of the brooches. Length 27 mm; diam. 2 mm.

Obj. No. 277, frag. iron sheet; remains of 2 circular holes *c*. 7 mm diam. One straight edge intact. Length 29 mm; width 11 mm; thickness 1.5 mm.

Fill finds: 1 frag. burnt (3 g) and 1 worked flint (10 g).

Grave 27 (1196; fill 1197)
(Figs 28; 37)
Co-ord. 1343 1238, irregular, rectangular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine.

Skeleton: Immature (1195).
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 278, iron spearhead; socket cleft for entire length (100 mm); containing mineral-preserved wood from shaft. Blade corrugated; leaf-shaped profile with stepped section. Swanton group K2. Length 262 mm; max. width 38 mm.

Obj. No. 279, iron whittle tang knife; tapering rectangular-sectioned tang (54 mm), central to blade with distinct shoulders up to cutting edge and back; traces of mineral-preserved horn. Cutting edge shows very pronounced sharpening curve near tang; back has slight angle down to tip. Böhner type B. Length 137 mm; width 18 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.

Fill finds: 1 frag. ceramic building material (1 g).

Grave 28 (1199; fill 1200)
(Fig. 27)
Co-ord. 1379 1218, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine. Cut by early Saxon ditch 1031.

Skeleton: 5 years ± 16 months (1198).

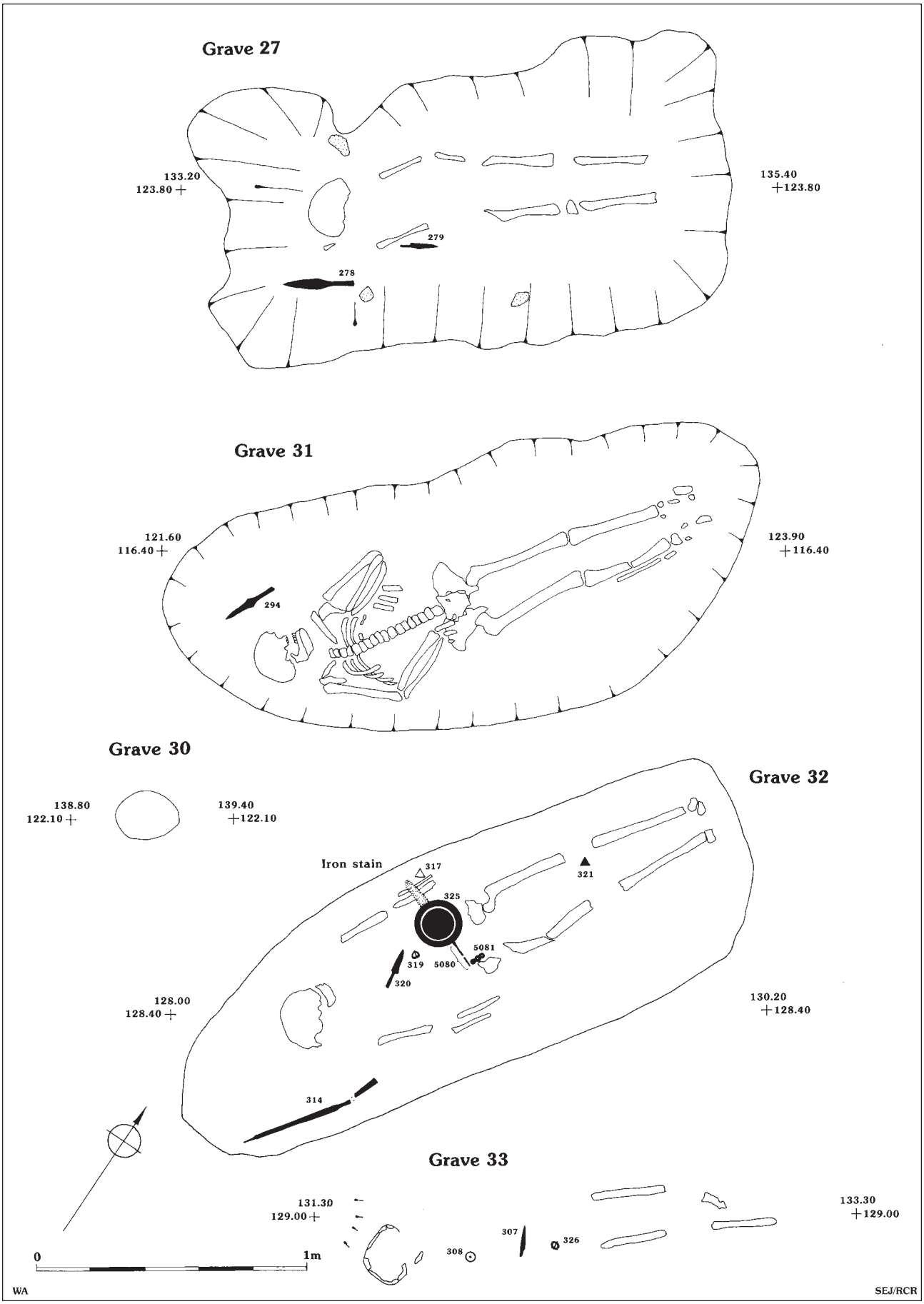

Figure 28 Grave plans: Graves 27, 30–3

Grave 29 (1202; fill 1203)
(Fig. 27)
Co-ord. 1365 1234, no recognisable grave cut, ?oriented W–E. Very fragmentary, badly preserved skeletal remains.

Skeleton: Adult (1201).

Grave 30 (1252; fill 1251)
(Fig. 28)
Co-ord. 1390 1221, no recognisable grave cut, ?oriented W–E. Only skull survived, rest removed by early Saxon ditch 1041.

Skeleton: 2 years ± 8 months (1204).

Grave 31 (1205; fill 1206)
(Figs 28; 37)
Co-ord. 1227 1164, irregular, oval grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, left hand on left shoulder, right hand on right hip.

Skeleton: Male (1207), adult
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 294, iron spearhead. Socket cleft for entire length (81 mm); at junction with blade, shank rectangular in section with narrow, shallow cleft; mineral-preserved wood in socket; rivet holes 3 mm diam. both sides, 20 mm from end of socket. Blade angular in profile with thickening above angle; lozengiform section. Swanton group H1. Length 205 mm; max. width 33 mm.

Grave 32 (1209; fill 1208)
(Figs 28; 39)
Co-ord. 1291 1284, rounded, rectangular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, arms along sides.

Skeleton: Male (1210), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 314, broken iron spearhead, broken socket (133 mm), but cleft up to junction with blade; traces of mineral-preserved wood in socket and textile on one side. Blade attenuated leaf shape profile; lozengiform section for most of length; 45 mm from tip narrows to square section. Swanton group C4, with E4 type section. Length 520 mm; max. width 27 mm.
Obj. No. 325, iron shield-boss; straight wall, very slightly convex cone, terminating in small flat button (22 mm diam.) on short neck. Flange *c*. 28 mm wide, five small symmetrically placed flat-headed rivets (diam. 9–11 mm), iron washers attached to 3; 6 mm space between underside of flange and end of rivet shanks, and mineral-preserved wood on underside of flange. Traces of white metal plating on the X-radiograph of 1 rivet head. Dickinson group 3. Diam. 161 mm; height 90 mm.
Obj. No. 335, broken iron shield-grip with part of 1 terminal attached to underside of boss flange. Rounded terminals, centrally pierced by flat-headed rivets (10 mm and 13 mm diam.); end of smaller one clenched over enclosing thickness of *c*. 5 mm. Mineral-preserved wood remains on back of 1 terminal, grain running perpendicular to long axis of grip. On front of grip, 2 diagonal lines in corrosion, 1 either end of grip. Traces of white metal plating on grip rivet heads. Length 160 mm; width 31 mm; thickness 2 mm.
Obj. No. 5080, broken iron shield-fitting comprising broken, narrow, flaring, rectangular-sectioned strip (*c*. 4.5 mm wide). Perhaps a broken off grip extension of the 'long grip' type. Length 133 mm; width 13 mm; thickness 2 mm.
Obj. No. 5081, iron strap holder, consisting of 3 conjoining flat disc-headed shield-studs (*c*. 17 mm diam.). Studs were riveted through shield (traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside of stud heads and along shanks for thickness of 6 mm); outer studs also riveted through metal strip (45 mm long with rounded ends) with pronounced central 'kink' (*c*. 3 mm deep), formerly positioned on inside of shield-board. Length 52 mm; width 18 mm; thickness 19 mm.
Obj. No. 5082, flat, disc-headed iron shield-stud; traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside; end of shank slightly clenched over to enclose thickness of *c*. 6 mm. Found in close association with Obj. No. 325. Diam *c*. 16 mm; thickness 14 mm.
Obj. No. 5083, shank of iron nail or stud; traces of mineral-preserved wood on shank; end slightly clenched over, enclosing thickness of *c*. 6 mm. Found in close association with Obj. No. 325. Diam. 5 mm; length 14 mm.
Obj. No. 320, iron whittle tang knife; rectangular-sectioned tapering tang (60 mm) with traces of mineral-preserved horn. Angular shoulders from tang to both edges of blade. Back of blade has very slight angle down to tip, cutting edge curves up to tip, with strong sharpening curve. Böhner type B. Length 48 mm; width 29 mm; thickness 3.5 mm.

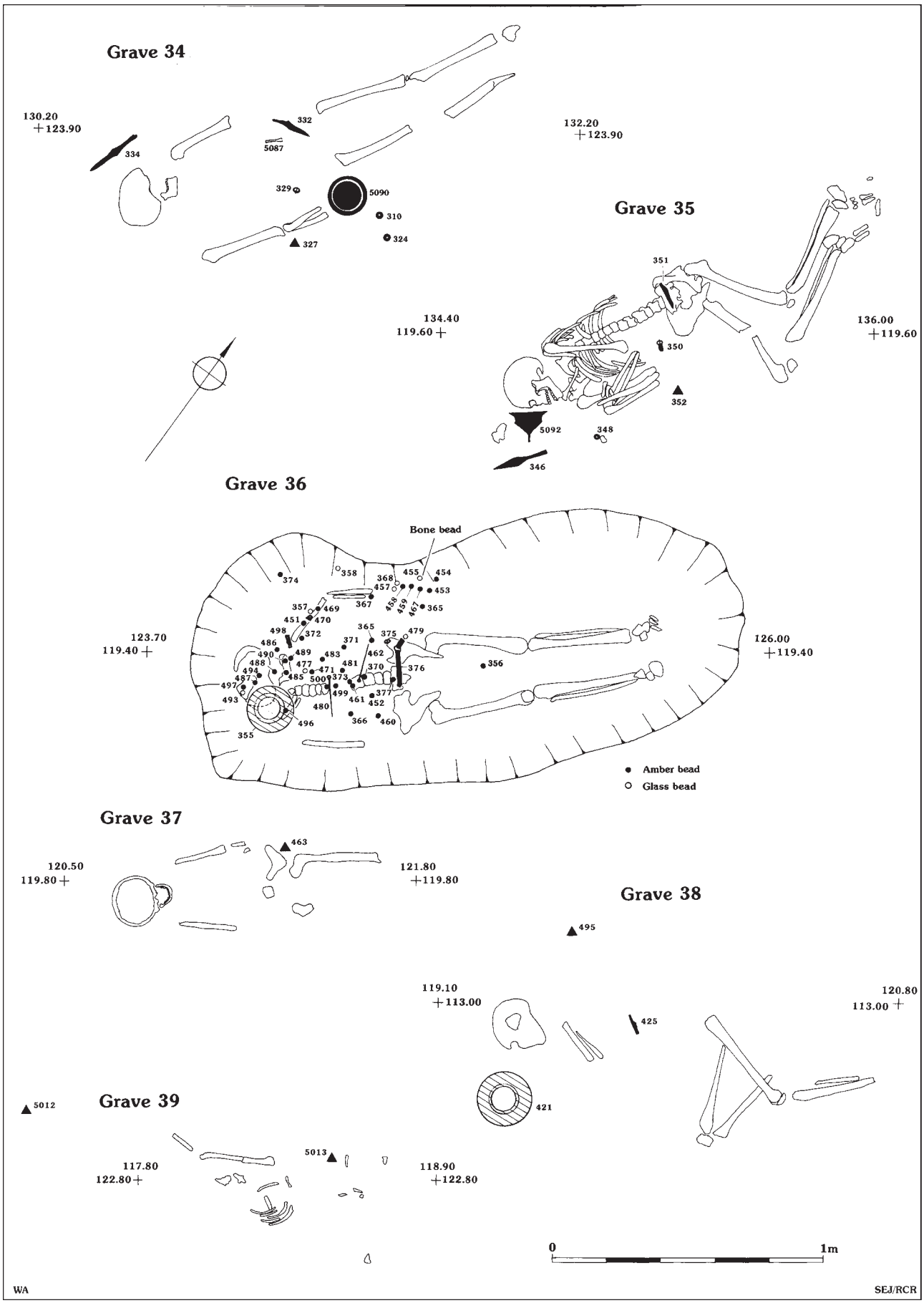

Figure 29 Grave plans: Graves 34–9

Obj. No. 319, ?oval iron buckle; rectangular-sectioned; curved part of loop broadened. Tongue tapering, rectangular-sectioned, extending to end of buckle loop. Mineral-preserved traces on both sides of buckle. Length 34 mm; width 32 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Fill finds: 1 burnt flint (1 g); sherds pottery (8 g); 17 frags charcoal (7 g); 1 lump iron slag (Obj. No. 321).

Grave 33 (1212; fill 1211)
(Figs 28; 38)
Co-ord. 1323 1289, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Poorly preserved skeletal remains, extended supine.

Skeleton: Adult (1213).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 308, copper alloy disc brooch; double ring and dot punched decoration positioned slightly off-centre. Outer ring is rather faint (diam. 8 mm). Copper alloy catch-plate; iron pin completely corroded with mass of mineral-preserved textile marking former position and covering copper alloy attachment plate. Dickinson group 2.1. Max. diam. 34 mm.
Obj. No. 307, iron whittle tang knife; oval-sectioned, broken tang, with tapering end, forms continuous line with cutting edge, sharply angled shoulder up to back. Corrosion products, ?remains of a horn handle. Back and cutting edge of blade curve to meet at tip; cutting edge has pronounced sharpening curve. Traces of mineral-preserved textile. Böhner type A. Length 120 mm; width 17 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.
Obj. No. 326, D-shaped iron buckle; sub-square section *c*. 5 mm diam., covered in mineral-preserved textile on both sides; tongue broken. Length 36 mm; width 25 mm; thickness 8 mm.

Grave 34 (1218; fill 1216)
(Figs 29; 41)
Co-ord. 1312 1238, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine. During excavation a medium brown stain was identified within the central section of the burial, origin unknown.

Skeleton: ?Male (1217), adult.
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 5087, pair of undecorated copper alloy tweezers; traces of mineral-preserved textile on one side near end of one arm; traces of single thread of yarn wrapped at least 7 times round both arms, ?to prevent snagging. Length 69 mm; width 9 mm; thickness 10 mm.
Obj. No. 334, iron spearhead. Socket cleft, length 83 mm; containing mineral-preserved wood; rivet hole (3 mm diam.) on one side, 33 mm from end of socket. Socket and blade separated by short piece of solid shank. Blade angular in profile, slightly concave above angle; lozengiform section; tip broken. Swanton group H1/H2. Length 218 mm; max. width 28 mm.
Obj. No. 5090, iron shield-boss; straight walls, straight cone terminating in flat button (21 mm diam.) on short neck. Poor condition, much of the flange missing; part of grip attached to underside of flange. Flange *c*. 23 mm wide, bears 4 symmetrically placed flat headed rivets (18–20 mm diam); 3 with remains of circular iron washers at end of shanks, 4th beneath grip. Traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside of flange and along rivet shanks for thickness of 6 mm between underside of flange and washers; grain of the wood runs in same direction. Dickinson group 4. Diam. 145 mm; height 102 mm.
Obj. No. 5091, broken iron shield-grip with expanded convex terminals; one part still attached by corrosion products to shield-boss. Both ends perforated by single flat-headed rivet (*c*. 18 mm diam), 1 with circular iron washer at end of shank, enclosing thickness of 6 mm. Residue of white metal plating on rivet heads, traces of mineral-preserved textile on top surface of grip. Traces of mineral-preserved wood on underside, 6 mm thick, with grain running perpendicular to long axis of grip and in same direction as that on underside of shield-boss flange. Length 133 mm; width 40 mm; thickness 14 mm.
Obj. No. 324, flat, disc-headed, iron shield-stud. Traces of mineral-preserved wood extend from underside of stud head for 6 mm along broken shank. Diam. 21 mm; thickness 11 mm.
Obj. No. 310, flat, disc-headed, iron shield-stud. Traces of tinning on stud head. Shank protrudes through broken circular washer of thin sheet bronze; 7 mm thickness of mineral-preserved wood between underside of stud head and washer. Diam. 20 mm; thickness 14 mm.
Obj. No. 332, iron whittle tang knife; tapering rectangular-sectioned tang (64 mm), angled shoulders to both edges of blade.

Cutting edge of blade has distinct re-sharpening curve, curves up to tip; back of blade has pronounced 'Bowie knife' curve at tip. Good mineral preservation of handle, sheath and textile. Handle (?horn) protrudes from sheath (unident. material); fragments of textile over these. Böhner type A. Length 156 mm; width 25 mm; thickness 12 mm.

Obj. No. 329, small, ?oval iron buckle, triangular-sectioned broadened loop, narrow square-sectioned rotation bar. Tongue sub-circular in section extending to outer edge of loop. ?Broken remains of buckle plate in spongy corrosion around bar. Traces of mineral-preserved textile on either side of buckle. Length 26 mm; width 19 mm; thickness 5 mm.

Obj. No. 327, sheet fragment, no original edges. Mineral-preserved grassy stems/leaves on one side. Length 26 mm; width 13 mm; thickness 1 mm.

Fill finds: one sherd of early Saxon pottery (19 g).

Grave 35 (1220; fill 1221)
(Figs 29; 42)
Co-ord. 1356 1196, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Flexed to right, both arms flexed up towards head. Cut by grave 26. Cut fill of early Saxon ditch (1031).

Skeleton: Male (1219), mature adult.
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 346, iron spearhead. Socket cleft, length 68 mm; containing mineral-preserved wood. Socket and blade separated by short piece of solid shank. Blade corrugated; leaf-shaped profile; stepped section over most of blade, lentoid at tip. Swanton group K1/K2. Length 209 mm; max. width 32 mm.

Obj. No. 5092, iron shield-boss; distinctly uneven (oval) plan and (squashed) profile. Boss has straight walls and straight cone terminating in long thin rod with small, slightly domed button (10 mm diam.). Flange 19–23 mm wide, with 5 rivets, 4 placed near-symmetrically (12–14 mm diam.), 5th (15 mm diam), close to one of smaller rivets. Remains of iron washers at end of 2 rivet shanks which retain 4–5 mm thickness of wood between underside of flange and broken washers; wood has been cut out on inner edge of flange; grain lies in same direction. Dickinson group 1.2. Length 155 mm; width 139 mm; height 106 mm.

Obj. No. 5093, iron shield-grip; expanded ends, both pierced by single stud (14 mm and 17 mm diam.). On underside of grip are well-preserved mineral remains of wood; 1 set of grain belonging to shield-board, on terminals, perpendicular to long axis of grip; other set belonging to wooden cross bar forming handle, on and parallel to long axis of grip. Rivets retain a 6 mm thickness of mineral-preserved wood. Length 121 mm; width 41 mm; thickness 13 mm.

Obj. No. 348, broken, flat, disc-headed iron shield-stud; 5–6 mm thickness of mineral-preserved wood between underside of stud head and broken iron washer at shank end. Diam. 25 mm; thickness 13 mm.

Obj. No. 351, iron whittle tang knife, tang central on blade with angled shoulder to cutting edge and slightly gentler curve to back of blade; mostly missing. Traces of ?horn on tang. Back of blade is straight with 'Bowie knife' tip; cutting edge curves up to tip with distinct sharpening curve. Mineral-preserved textile on blade. Böhner type B. Length 109 mm; width 15 mm; thickness 2 mm.

Obj. No. 350, iron buckle and plate, now lost. Described from X-radiograph as oval 25 x 15 mm, tongue extending 7 mm beyond loop. Plate (28 x 19 mm) made of iron sheet bent over buckle and secured by centrally positioned rivet with head *c.* 4 mm in diam. Length 48 mm; width 25 mm.

Obj. No. 352, iron corrosion product (not illus.). Length 51 mm; width 43 mm; thickness 24 mm.

Fill finds: 1 worked flint (10 g).

Grave 36 (1223; fill 1224)
(Figs 29; 40)
Co-ord. 1249 1194, irregular grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, right arm ?disturbed and displaced after burial.

Skeleton: Female (1222), young adult.
Grave-goods:

Obj. No. 462, copper alloy pin, tapering round-sectioned shaft. Shaft decorated with incised lines for 17 mm, then incised cross and single line on neck. Shaft flattened with rectangular-section in decorated zone. Head flattened and sub-circular, with 2 mm diam. hole. Length 148 mm; diam. head 9 mm; diam. shaft 2.8 mm.

Obj. No. 480, Copper alloy pin, forming pair with 462, similar decoration, etc. Length 147

mm; diam. 8 mm; diam. shaft 2.8 mm.

Obj. No. 375, iron D-shaped buckle; square-sectioned bar broadened at curved part of loop. Tongue square-sectioned, extends 3.5 mm beyond loop. Mineral-preserved textiles on both sides of buckle. Length 30 mm; width 21 mm; thickness 4 mm.

Obj. No. 376, composite iron and bone belt fitting consisting of 20 mm wide thin iron strip riveted to curving D-sectioned bone (horse rib). One end broken; other is joined to 20 mm wide strap plate by oval link. 3 rivets passing through entire thickness. Thin (11 mm wide) strip of iron secures oval link to bone-and-iron strip; folds over it, and is fixed by centrally placed rivet which pierces through. Link ring oval, square-sectioned, riveted to strap plate and bone-and-iron strip. No textile traces on strap suggesting leather. Mineral-preserved remains on both sides of object, mostly on iron strip side. Length 180 mm; width 30 mm; thickness 17 mm.

Obj. No. 470, broken, sheet iron strap fitting, slightly tapering, 3 mm diam. hole pierced at one end. Length of mineral-preserved yarn runs diagonally across surface. Length 22 mm; width 14 mm; thickness 1 mm.

Obj. No. 498, iron strap fitting; sheet with burred-over edge except for one part which has 'dog-leg' cut into it. Pierced by 2 rivet holes (3 mm diam., 4 mm from end; 2.5 mm diam. 11 mm from end). Length 50 mm; width 15 mm; thickness 1 mm.

Obj. No. 492, iron pin, broken at both ends; sub-circular cross-section. Length 12 mm; width 2.5 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.

Obj. Nos: 356, 359, 361, 365), 366, 369–373, 377, 452, 454, 456, 458–461, 465–469, 471, 473–478, 481–483, 485–491, 494, 496–497, 499–500, 5003–5007, 5010, 51 irregularly-shaped amber beads. Length 13–15 mm; diam. 11–15 mm.

Obj. Nos 374, 422, 2 small, irregular amber beads. Diam. 6–7 mm.

Obj. Nos 367, 451, 453, 484, 5011, 5 wedge-shaped amber beads.

Obj. Nos 423, 5008, 5009, 3 unidentifiable amber bead frags (not illus.).

Obj. Nos 5001, 5002, 2 translucent, dark blue, annular glass beads. Thickness 4.5 mm, Diam. 10.5 mm.

Obj. Nos 358, 457, 479, 493, 4 translucent, dark blue, drawn cylindrical glass beads. Thickness 13–21 mm, diam. 3–5.5 mm.

Obj. No. 357, 1 blue-green melon bead, glass, possibly faience. Thickness 14 mm, diam. 17 mm.

Obj. No. 368, 1 segmented, cylindrical, gold-in-glass bead. Thickness 9 mm, diam. 3 mm.

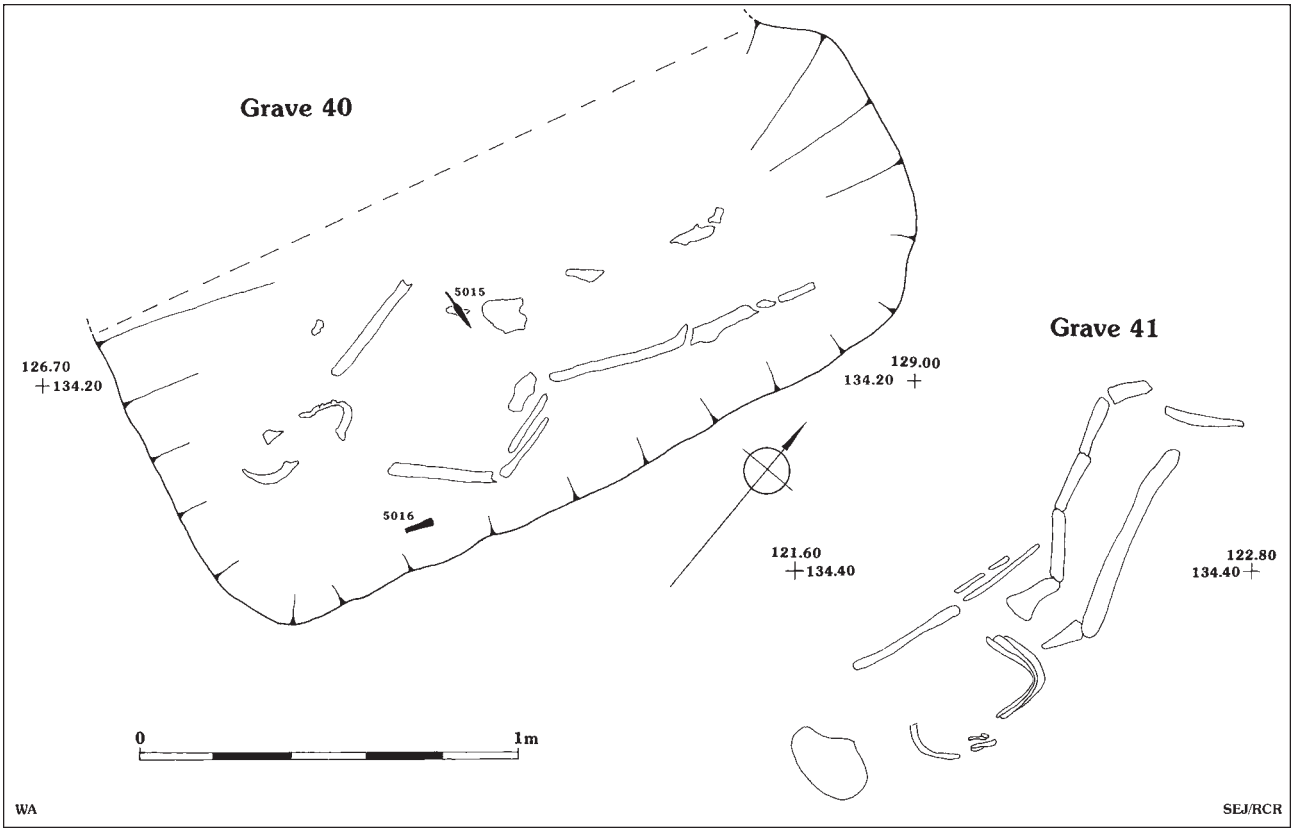

Figure 30 Grave plans: Graves 40, 41

Obj. No. 5002, 1 spherical, clear glass bead with segmented pattern in relief. Diam. 5 mm.
Obj. No. 455, 1 cylindrical antler bead. Thickness 16 mm, diam. 21.5 mm.
Obj. No. 355, globular (Type 3) pottery vessel in fabric V401; ext. surface smoothed but not burnished. Rim diam. 110 mm; height: 150 mm.

Fill finds: 1 frag. animal bone (1 g); 1 frag. iron slag (1 g); 1 lump charcoal (4 g).

Grave 37 (1226; fill 1227)
(Figs 29; 41)
Co-ord. 1212 1198, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine.

Skeleton: Early to mid teens (1225).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 463, broken, iron, square-sectioned, ?pin; one end bent to form loop. Mineral-preserved textiles around. Length 34 mm; width 9 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Fill finds: 2 frags animal bone (6 g); 2 frags iron slag (24 g).

Grave 38 (1229; fill 1230)
(Figs 29; 42)
Co-ord. 1200 1128, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Flexed to right. Right leg much more flexed than left.

Skeleton: 12 years ± 30 months (1228).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 425, iron whittle tang knife; tang tapering, rectangular-sectioned, placed centrally on blade; sloping shoulders up to blade. Mineral-preserved horn on tang. Tip of blade missing; layer of mineral-preserved corrosion representing sheath and textile on one side. Length 36 mm; width 17 mm; thickness 2.5 mm.
Obj. No. 495, fragment of curving iron sheet, irregular shape, ?scrap. Convex surface has some specks of copper coloured metal plating, with underside more evenly covered. Length 32 mm; width 13 mm; thickness 1 mm.
Obj. No. 421, sub-biconical (Type 3) pottery vessel in Fabric V401; ext. surface smoothed but not burnished. Rim diam. 115 mm; height: 180 mm.

Grave 39 (1236; fill 1237)
(Fig. 29; 41)
Co-ord. 1173 1228, no recognisable grave cut, oriented SW–NE. Highly disturbed skeletal remains, ?extended supine. Skull and upper torso cut by a later medieval ditch (1232). Legs removed by later medieval ditch 1235.

Skeleton: Adult (1231).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 5110 = 5012 and 5013, broken iron whittle tang knife. Tang rectangular-sectioned, tapering, end broken. Blade has ragged cutting edge, back and cutting edge curve to meet each other. Layer of corrosion indicating leather sheath; ?horn corrosion on tang. Böhner type A. Length 91 mm; width 12 mm; thickness 3 mm.

Grave 40 (1240; fill 1239)
(Figs 30; 42)
Co-ord. 1279 1342, partially definable grave cut, ?rectangular, oriented SW–NE. Extended supine, both arms flexed outwards at elbows.

Skeleton: Adult (1238).
Grave-goods:
Obj. No. 5016, broken iron spearhead socket; cleft for entire length; mineral-preserved wood in socket, mineral-preserved textile covering part of ext. surface. Length 76 mm.
Obj. No. 5015, iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned tang (59 mm), with distinct angled shoulder up to back of blade, other side of tang forming continuous line with cutting edge. Mineral-preserved horn on tang. Cutting edge and back of blade slope to meet; cutting edge has pronounced sharpening curve. Corrosion layer on the blade may represent sheath. Böhner type A. Length 127 mm; width 19 mm; thickness 5 mm.

Grave 41 (1243; fill 1242)
(Fig. 30)
Co-ord. 1223 1347, no recognisable grave cut, oriented N–S. Flexed slightly to left. Cut by later medieval ditch (1235).

Skeleton: ?Male (1241), adult.
Fill finds: 1 frag. iron slag (2 g).

Grave 42
(not illus.)
Co-ord. 1214 1300, no recognisable grave cut, oriented W–E.

Skeleton: 4 years ± 12 months (1250).

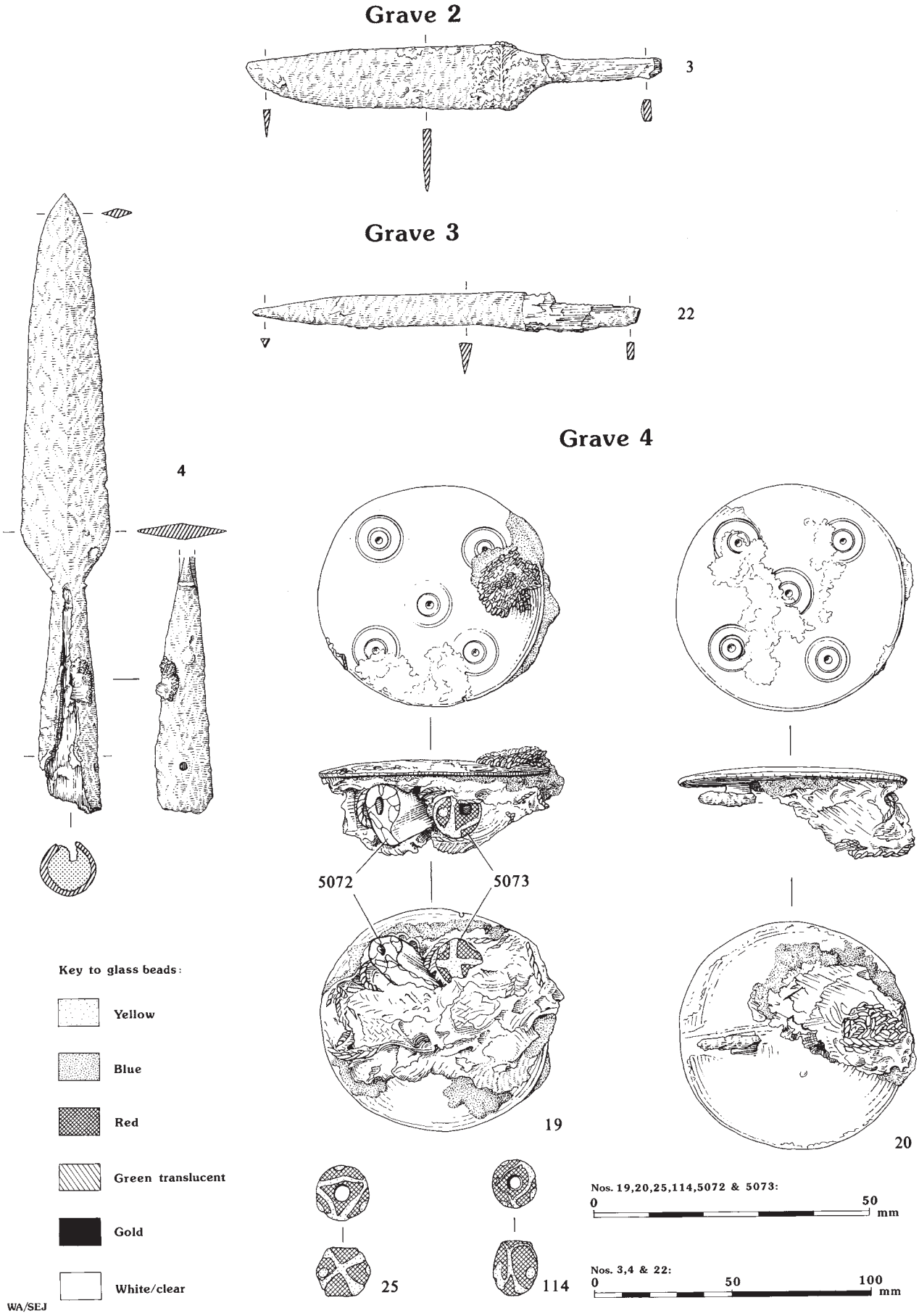

Figure 31 Grave-goods: Graves 2–4

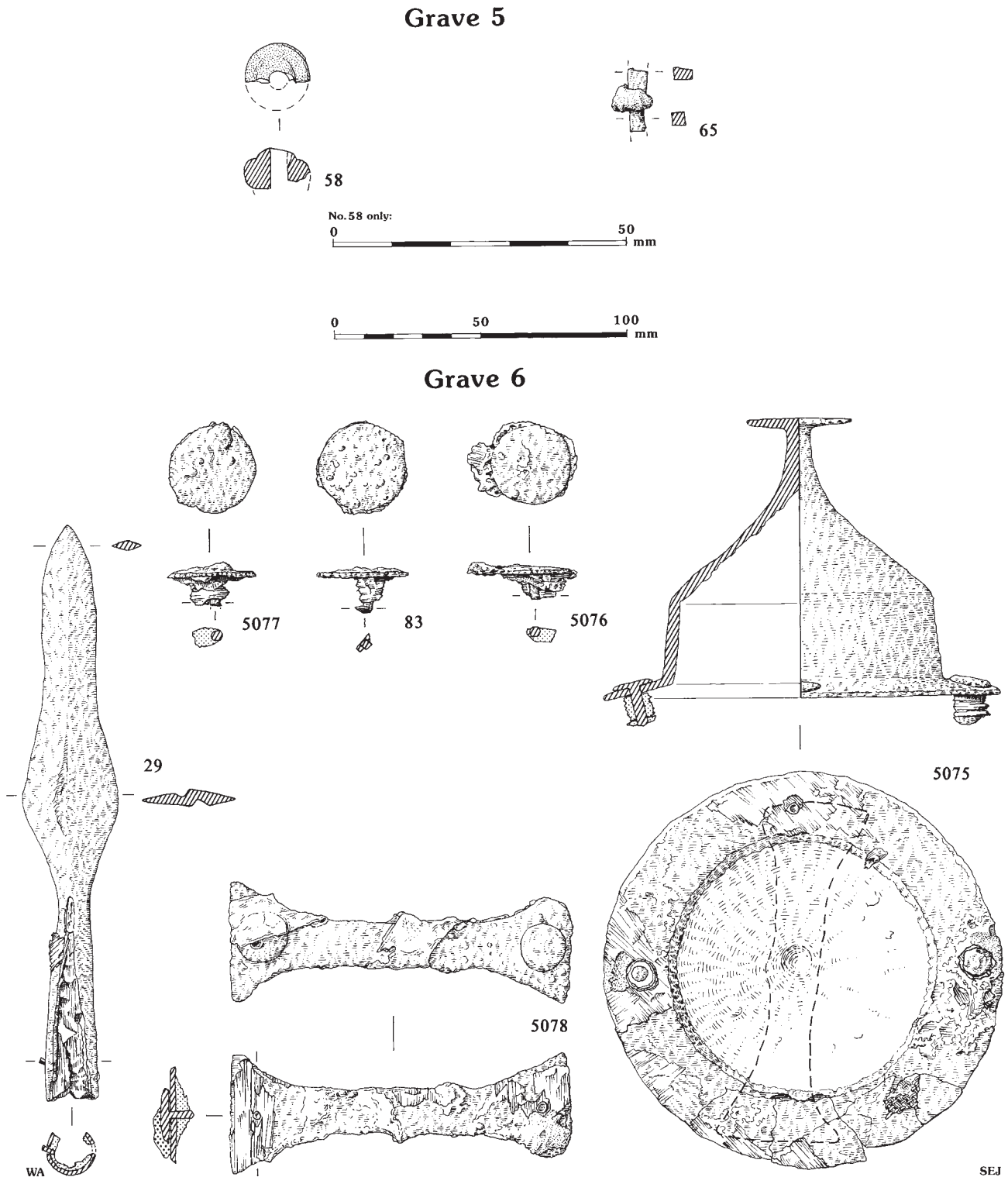

Figure 32 Grave-goods: Graves 5, 6

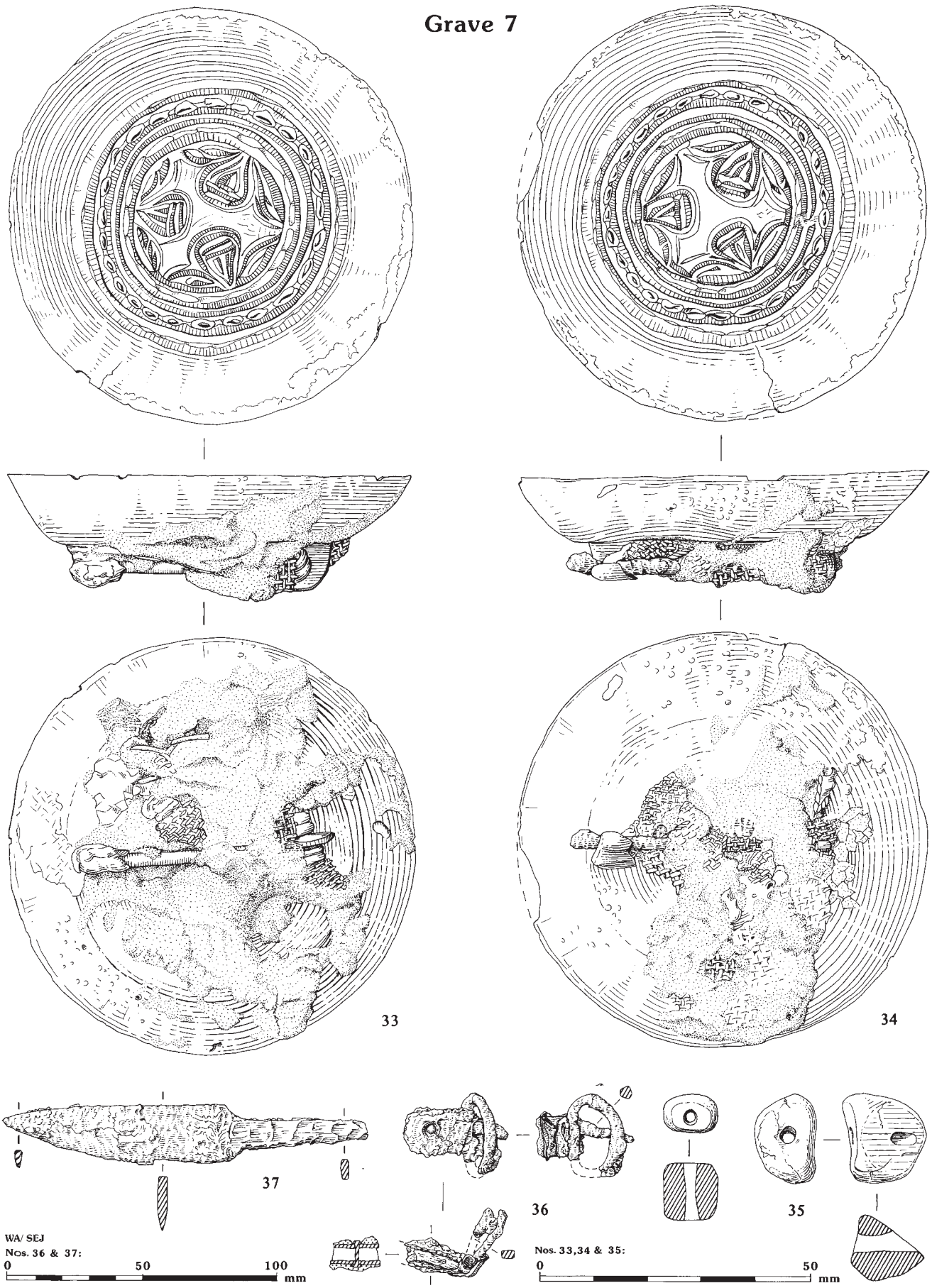

Figure 33 Grave-goods: Grave 7

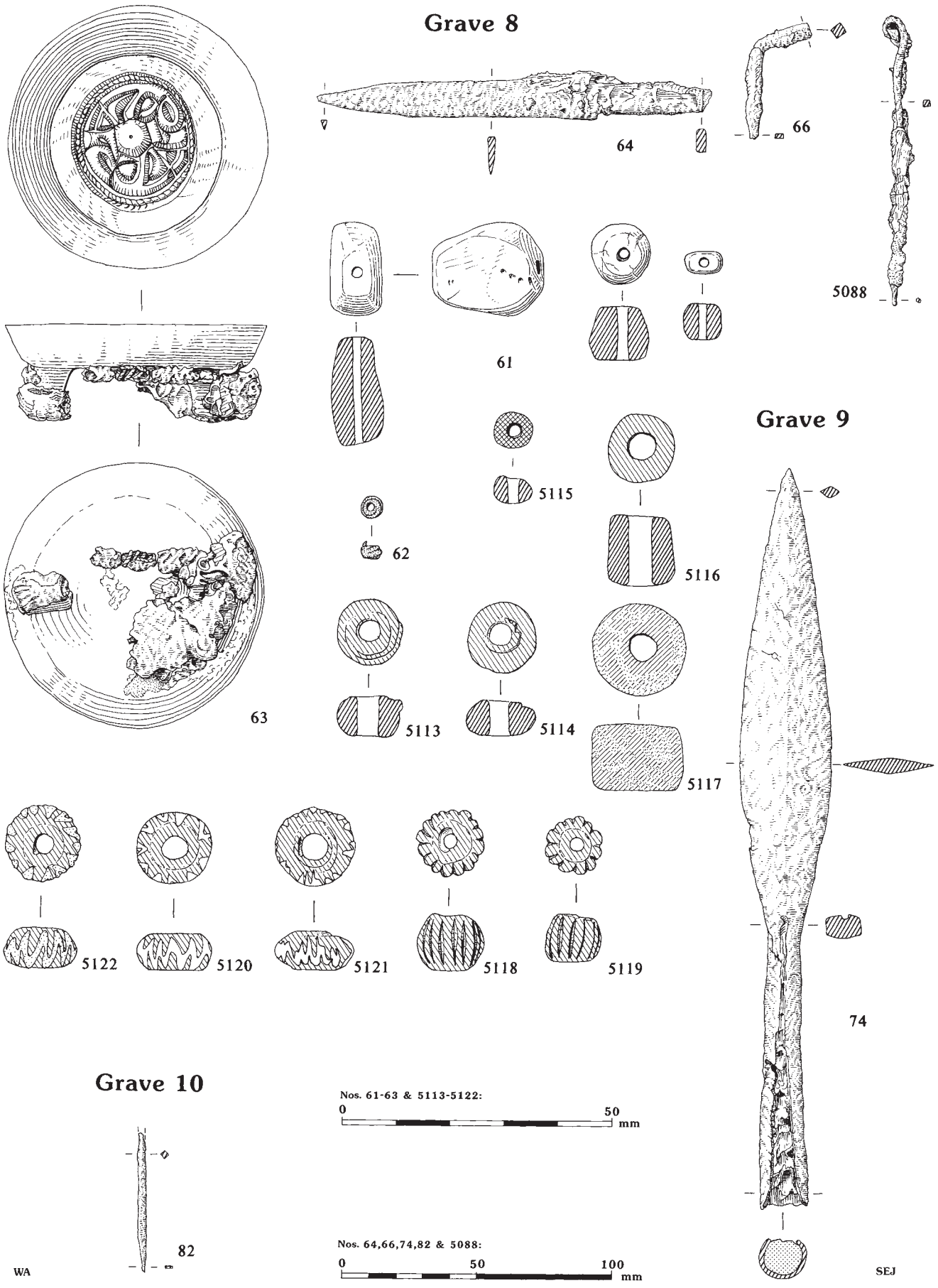

Figure 34 Grave-goods: Graves 8–10

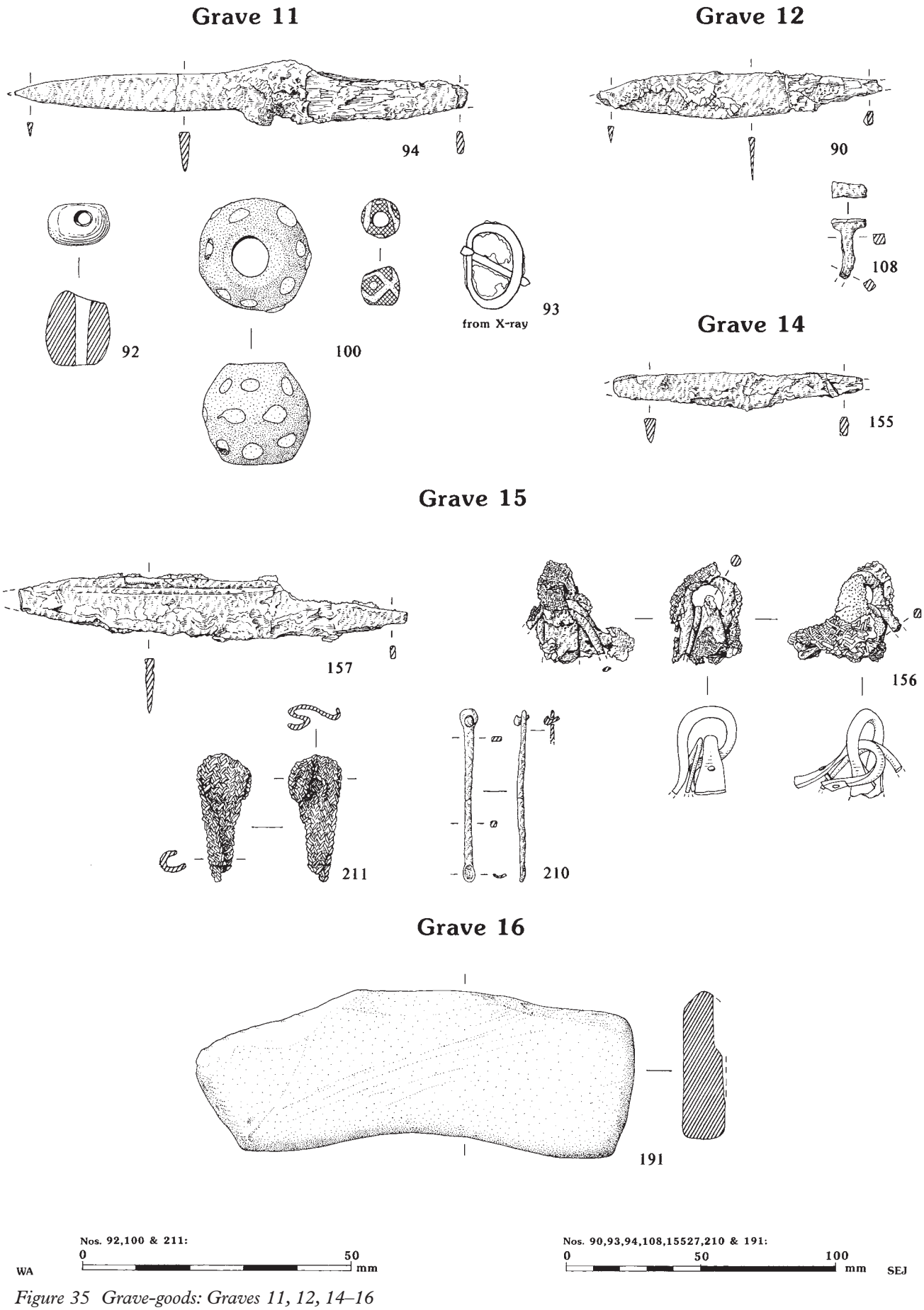

Figure 35 Grave-goods: Graves 11, 12, 14–16

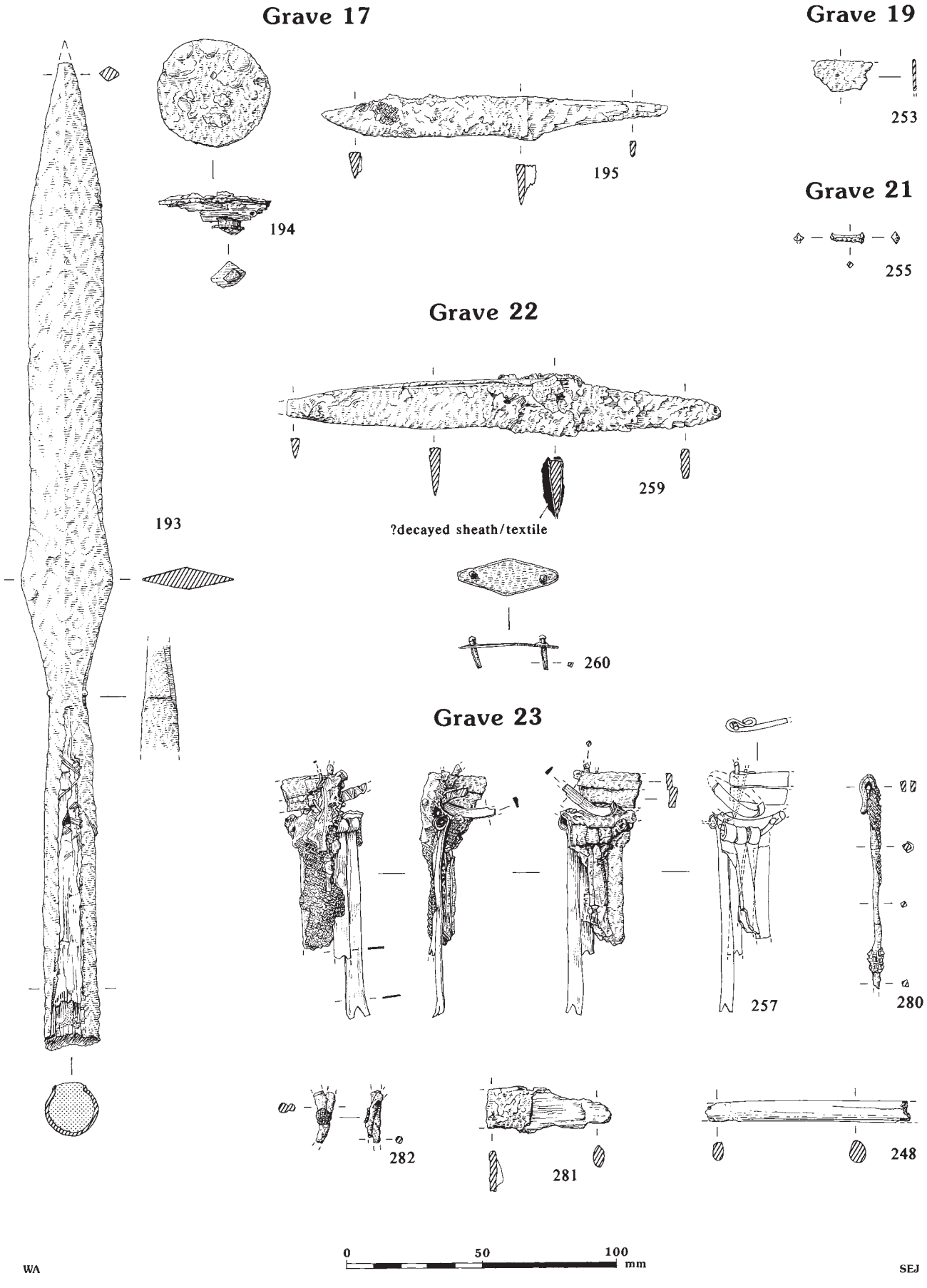

Figure 36 Grave-goods: Graves 17, 19, 21, 23

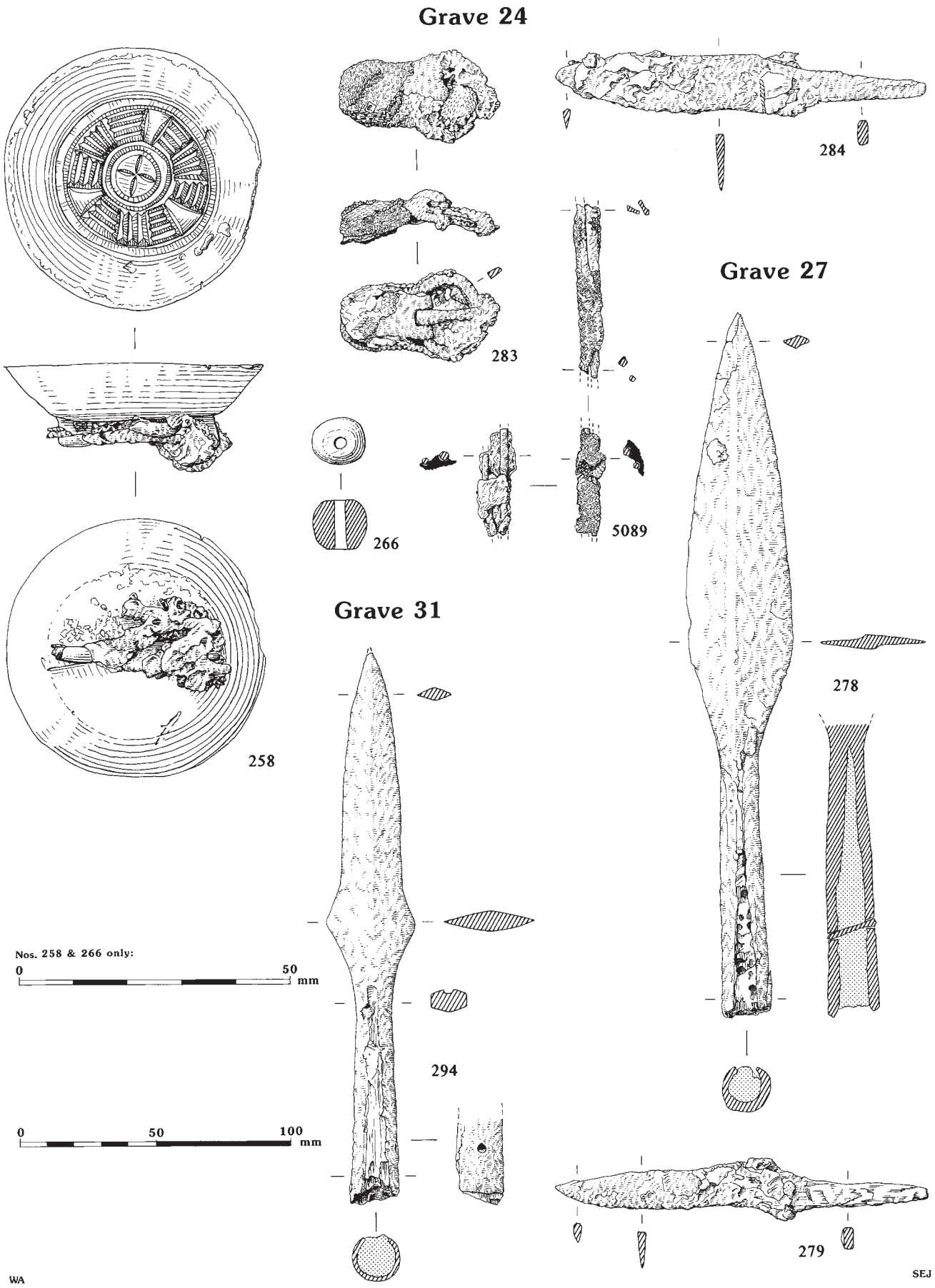

Figure 37 Grave-goods: Graves 24, 27, 31

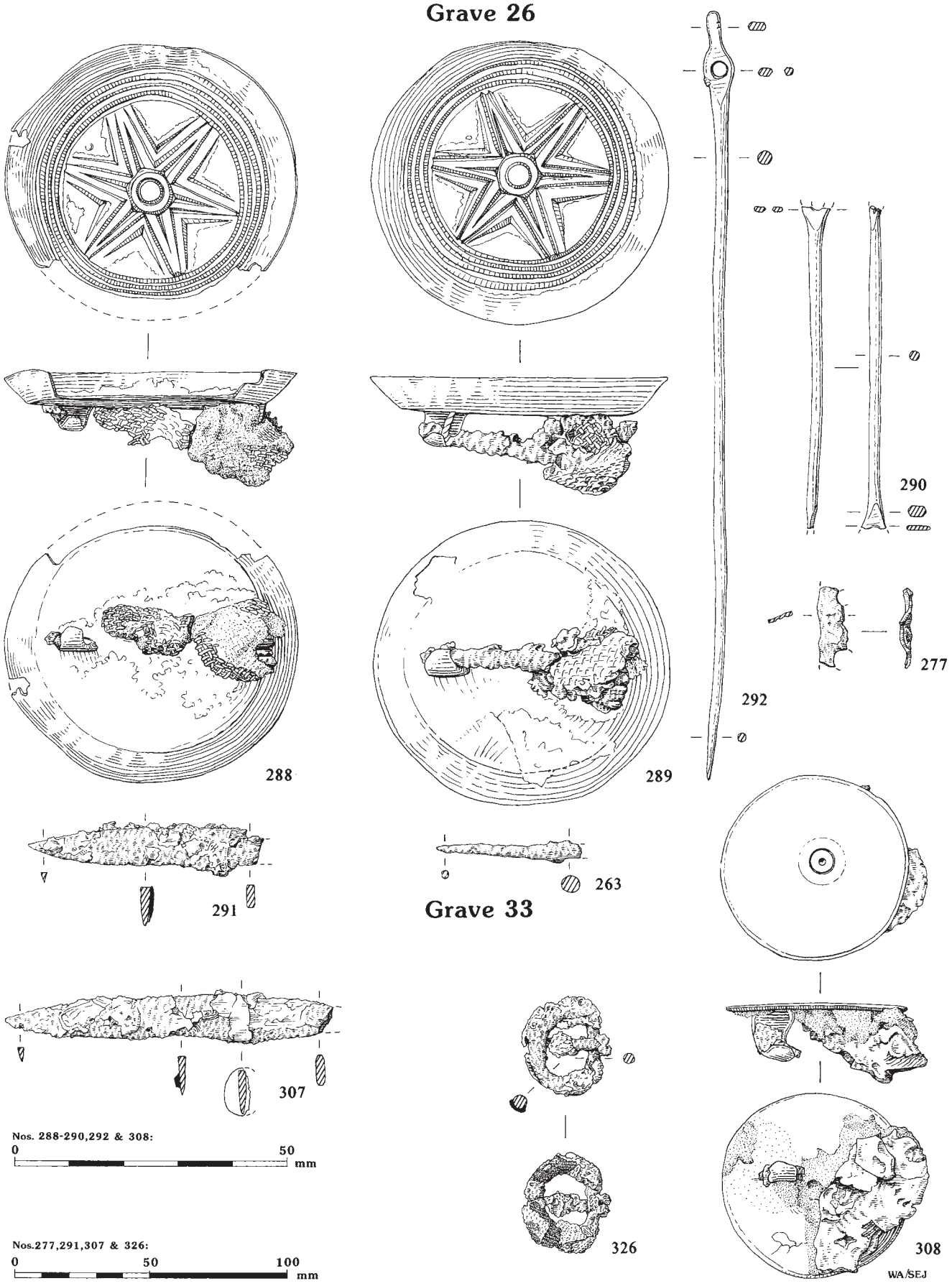

Figure 38 Grave-goods: Graves 26, 33

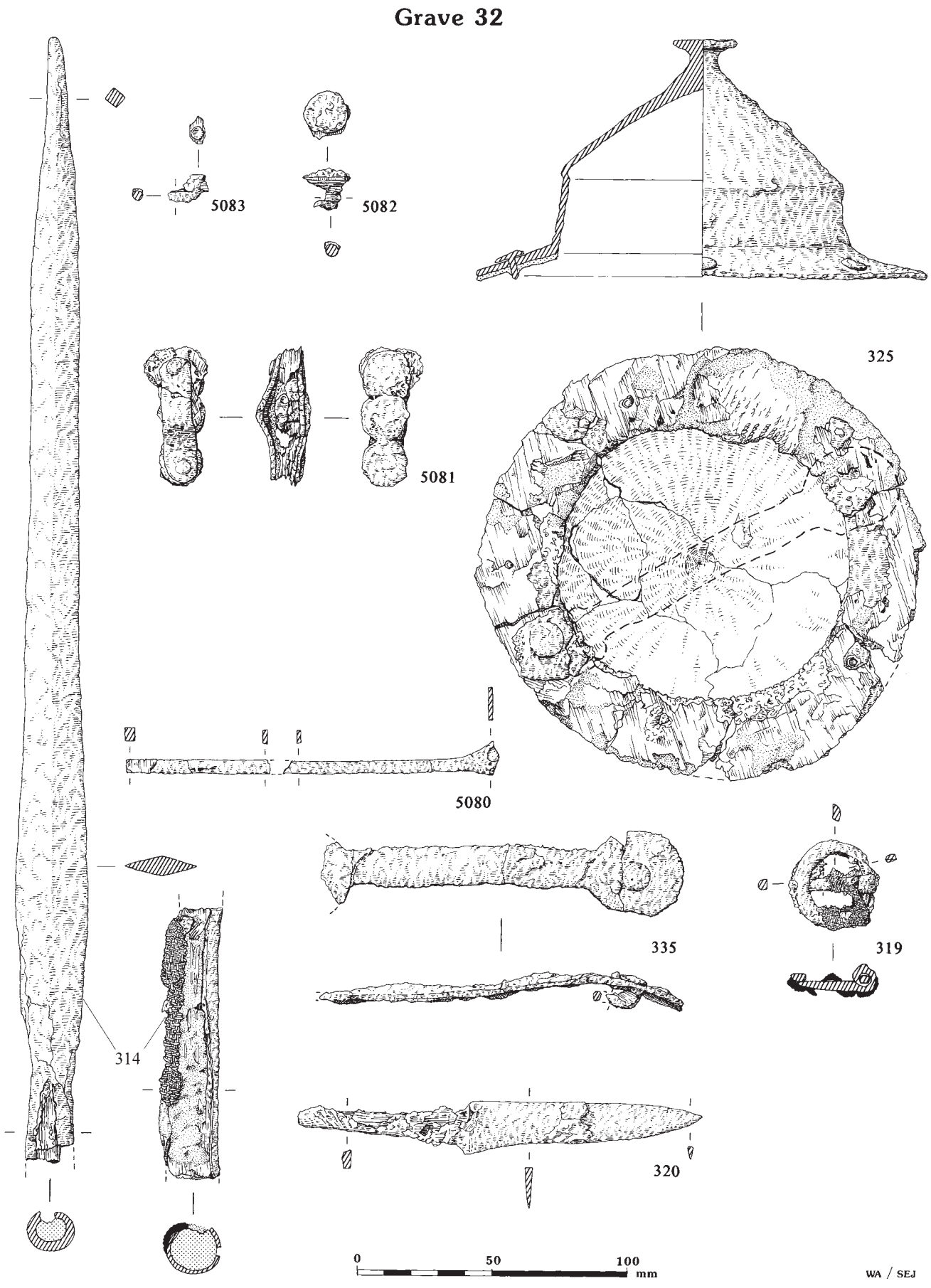

Figure 39 Grave-goods: Grave 32

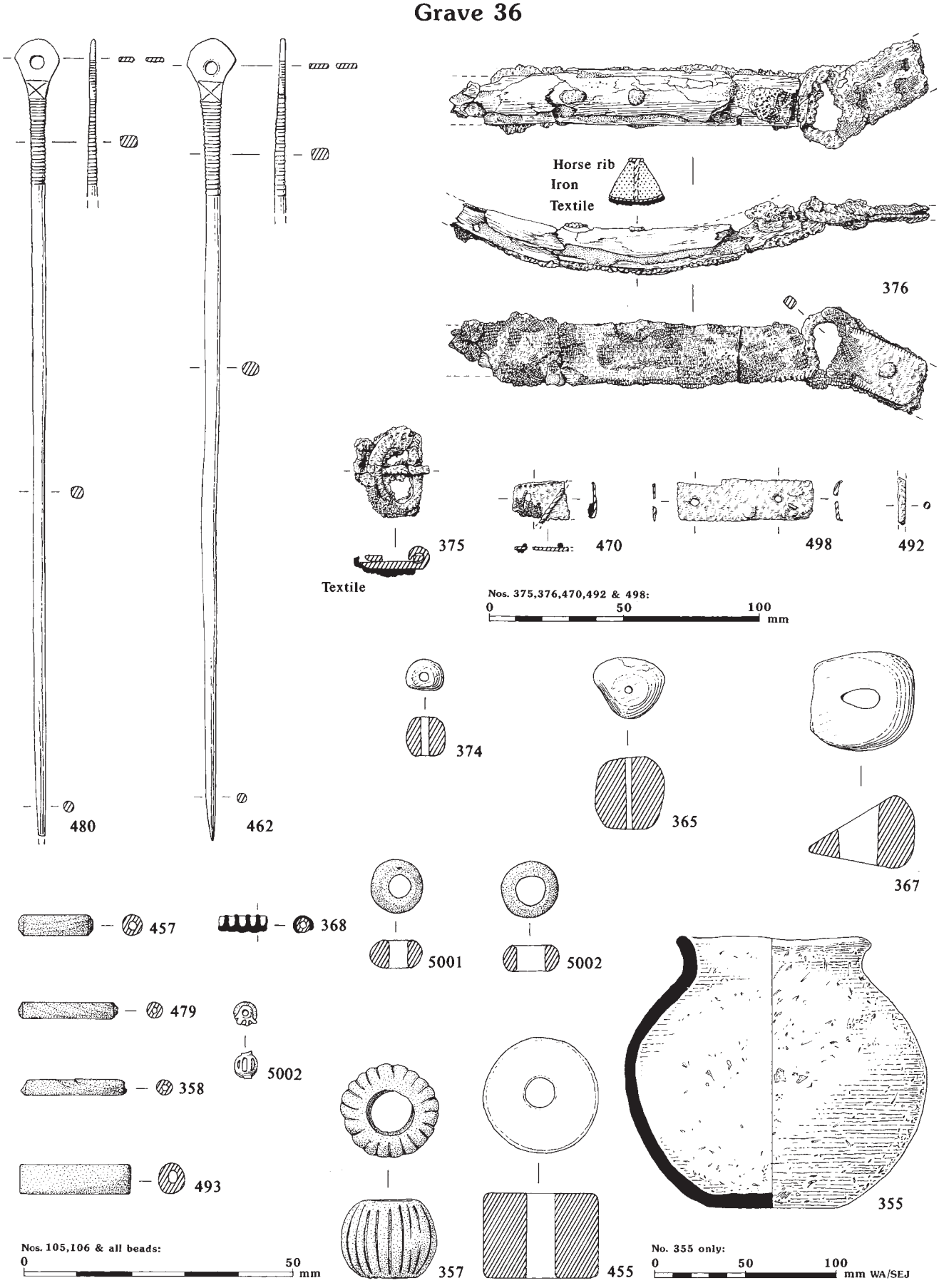

Figure 40 Grave-goods: Grave 36

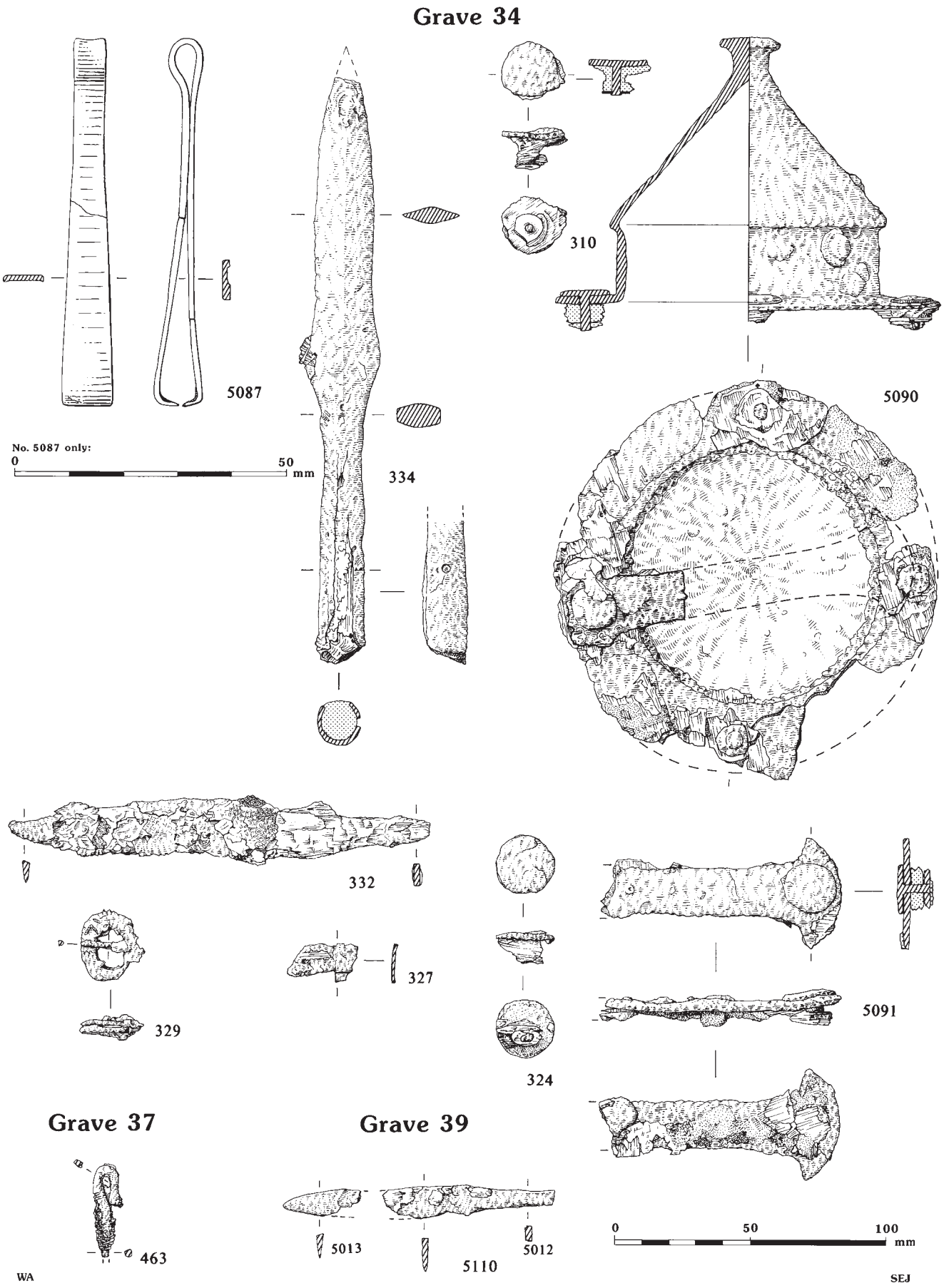

Figure 41 Grave-goods: Graves 34, 37, 39

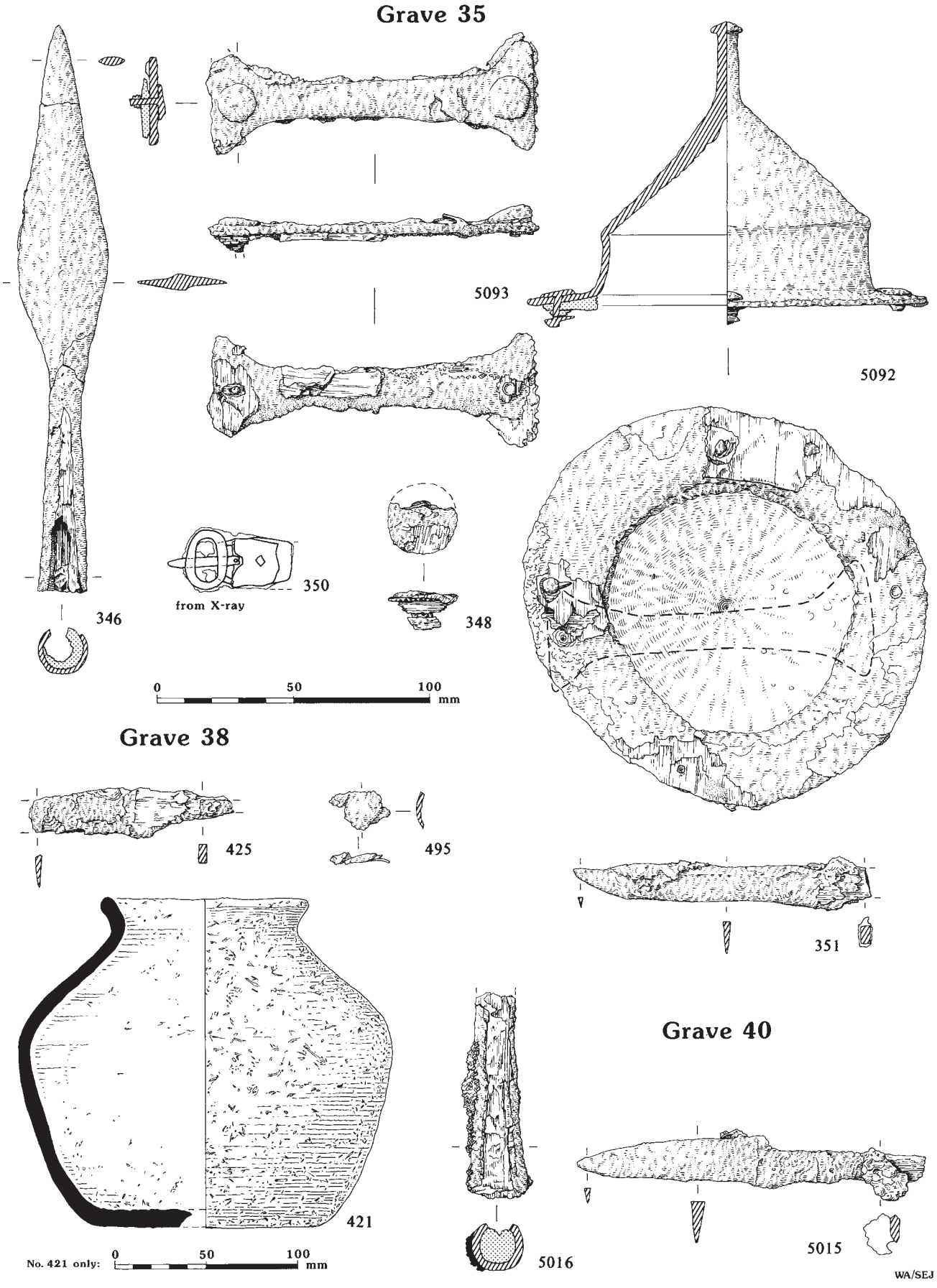

Figure 42 Grave-goods: Graves 35, 38, 40

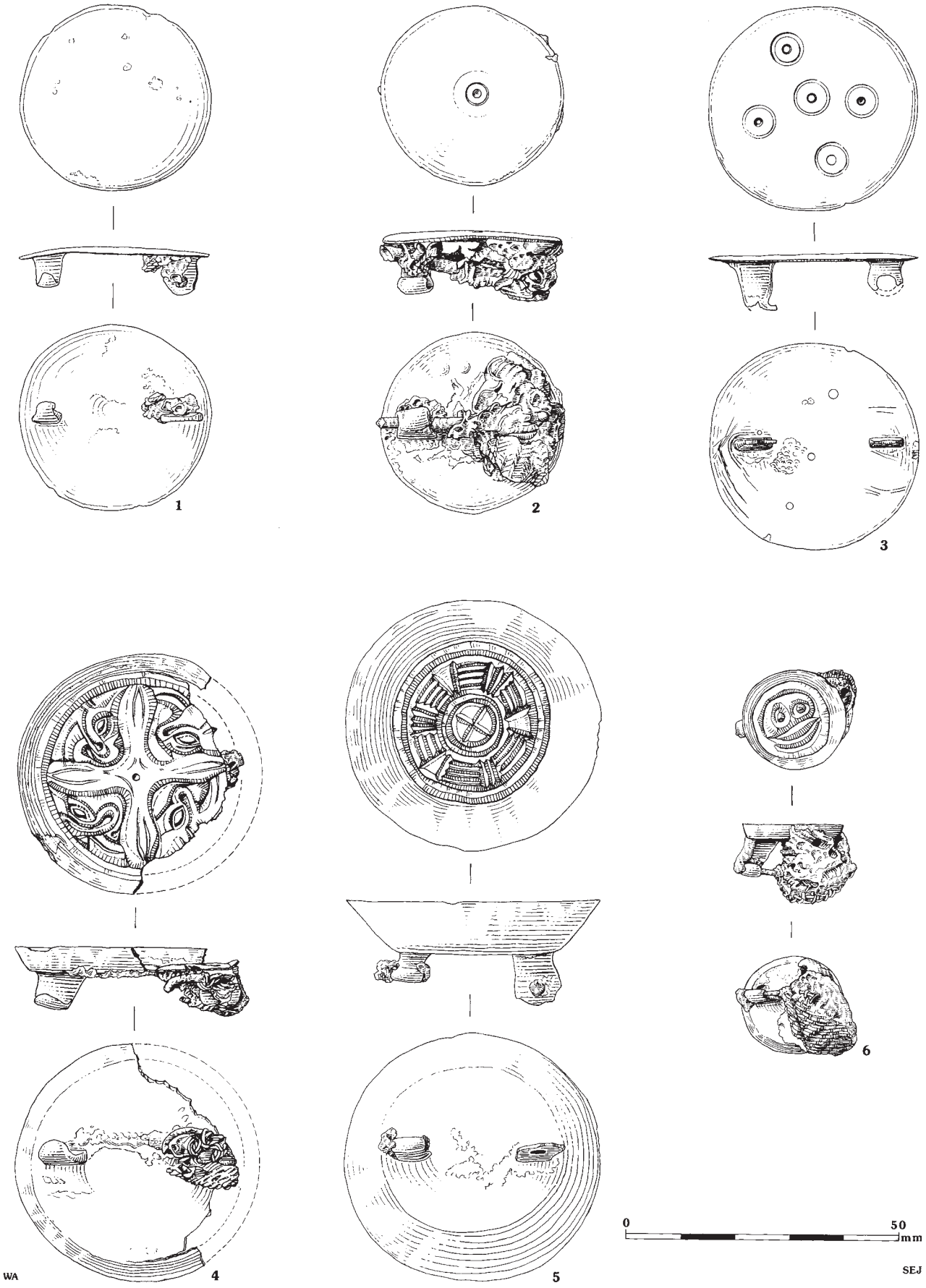

Figure 43 Possible grave-goods: copper alloy brooches

List of Illustrated Unstratified Probable Grave Goods

(Fig. 43)

1. Undecorated copper alloy disc brooch with catch-plate and attachment plate; iron pin survives as mass of rust where swivels through attachment plate. Mineral-preserved textile in this corrosion. Dickinson group 1. Max. diam. 34 mm. Obj. No. 2491. Context 1146; Area A.
2. Copper alloy disc brooch; double ring and dot punched decoration positioned slightly off-centre. Outer ring very faint, diam. *c.* 8 mm. Copper alloy catch-plate on underneath; pin very corroded. X-radiograph shows attachment plate present, but hidden under mass of corrosion which has mineral-preserved textile, also remains of threads possibly representing bead cord. Dickinson group 2.1. Max. diam. 33 mm. Obj. No. 349. Context 1146; Area A.
3. Copper alloy disc brooch; five ring and dot motifs, one positioned slightly off-centre, others unevenly spaced around edge. Ring motifs punched, varying in width depending on depth of punch, diam. 6 mm. Dots (1.5 mm diam) pierce through to underside of brooch and have tapering section. Small notch in edge of brooch. Copper alloy catch-plate and attachment plate broken. Dickinson group 4.2. Max. diam. 38 mm. Obj. No. 246. Unstratified.
4. Broken, mercury-gilded bronze saucer brooch; zoomorphic decoration comprising outer concentric ridge enclosing central cross with small central dimple and arrow-shaped arms, with motif of Salin Style I between each of the four arms of cross. Arms decorated with 2 shallow grooves. Much of gilding worn away, not clear if rim. Copper alloy catch-plate and attachment plate; iron pin survives as small area of corrosion near attachment plate covered with mineral-preserved textile. Max. diam. 44 mm. Obj. No. 391. Context 1007; Area A.
5. Mercury-gilded bronze saucer brooch; central motif of small quatrefoil, surrounded by circular band and wider border of 3 plain triangular wedges interspersed by 3 sets of basketwork made up of 2 horizontal and 1 radial multiple-bar blocks; all enclosed by band. Gilding does not survive at edge which may have been plain. Copper alloy catch-plate and attachment plate; small area of iron corrosion products indicates former presence of iron pin. Max. diam. 45.5 mm. Obj. No. 390. Context 1007; Area A.
6. Mercury-gilded bronze button brooch; highly stylised human mask with rounded eyes and broad grin. Copper alloy catch-plate visible and tip of iron pin; attachment plate is concealed under mass of corrosion and mineral-preserved textile. Diam. 18 mm. Obj. No. 245. Unstratified.

(Fig. 44)

1. Broken composite copper alloy and iron buckle. Oval loop, consisting of tinned copper plate which does not extend beneath strap plate, riveted with copper alloy rivets to underlying iron plate; side opposite strap plate expanded and broadened. Sides of iron plate originally bent upwards at 90° to enclose copper plate and overlying area of ?decoration. Single almandine garnet attached to copper plate by corrosion products to side of centrally positioned wedge-shaped piece of sheet iron, on which rests buckle tongue. Large copper alloy tongue; rectangular cell at base, broken copper alloy loop extending from underneath cell would originally have attached tongue to buckle loop. Buckle has been mended; cell is empty with head of iron pin fixing tongue to buckle loop visible inside. End of pin clenched over and lies beneath tongue. Broken strap plate formed of piece of sheet iron folded over narrow part of oval loop. Buckle would have measured *c.* 50 mm long when complete. Length 35 mm; width 42 mm; thickness 13 mm. Obj. No. 171. Context 1146; Area A.

(Fig. 45)

1. Iron whittle tang knife; rectangular-sectioned tapering tang (36 mm) central on blade, angled shoulder up to back of blade. Blade (57 mm) has straight back with distinct bevel; cutting edge also straight, both curve towards tip. The blade is 57 mm long. X-radiograph shows line in mid-blade indicating back and blade made separately. Böhner type C. Length 93 mm; width 12 mm; thickness 2.5 mm. Obj. No. 394. Context 1007; Area A.
2. Iron whittle tang knife; tapering rectangular-sectioned tang (49 mm) forming continuous line with cutting edge of blade, with an angled shoulder from the tang to the back of the blade (98 mm); traces of hard brown corrosion on handle are horn. Back of blade has distinct bevel; back and cutting edge straight before curving towards tip. Böhner type C. Length 147 mm; width 12 mm; thickness 4 mm. Obj. No. 238. Unstratified.
3. Iron whittle tang knife; rectangular-sectioned, tapering tang (31 mm). Pronounced angle from tang to back of blade (76 mm) which has straight back angled to tip; cutting edge has been heavily resharpened, curves to tip. 2 grooves on left hand side of blade parallel to

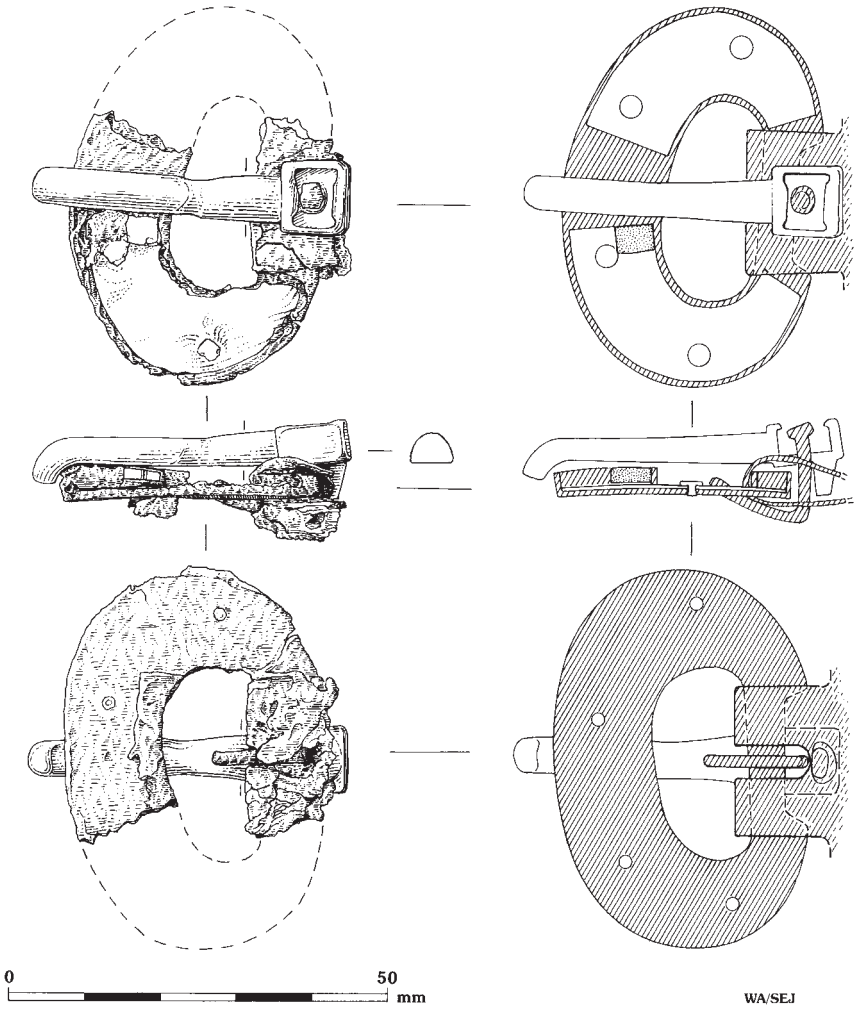

Figure 44 Possible grave-goods: Buckle 171

straight part of back *c.* 1 mm wide and 1.5 mm apart. ?Böhner Type C, but resharpened to resemble an A Type knife. Length 107 mm; width 19 mm; thickness 2.5 mm. Obj. No. 128. Unstratified.

4. Iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned, broken tang. Similar to Obj. No. 128. On left hand side lower of 2 grooves sloping down towards tang, upper groove parallel to straight part of back of blade; grooves on right hand side of blade parallel. Böhner type C. Length 133 mm; width 16 mm; thickness 4 mm. Obj. No. 96. Context 1009; Area A.
5. Iron whittle tang knife fragment; blade broken both ends, cutting edge very ragged. Blade has straight back which slopes down towards tip. On left hand side of blade are two incised grooves *c.* 1 mm wide which run parallel to back of blade and merge just below change of angle. Böhner type C. Length 84 mm; width 16 mm; thickness 3.5 mm. Obj. No. 129. Unstratified.
6. Iron knife blade fragment, tip intact. Böhner type C. Length 38 mm; width 10 mm; thickness 3 mm. Obj. No. 5114. Context 1007; Area A.
7. Iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned tang (38 mm) central to blade. Position of handle clearly marked by corrosion, on tang and overlapping onto blade by *c.* 1.5 mm. Blade (80 mm) has straight back with distinct bevel and is parallel to cutting edge before angling down to tip. Böhner type C. Length 118 mm; width 11 mm; thickness 3 mm. Obj. No. 227. Unstratified.
8. Iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular cross-sectioned tang (36 mm) central to blade; angled shoulder to back of blade. Blade (70 mm) has straight cutting edge with back curving down to meet it. On left hand side of blade are 2 near-parallel grooves, one long, one short, below back of blade. Böhner type C. Length 106 mm; width 11 mm; thickness 3 mm. Obj. No. 126. Context 1009; Area A.
9. Small iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned tang (29 mm) forms straight line with cutting edge; angled shoulder between tang and back of blade. Blade (57 mm) and cutting edge parallel before back

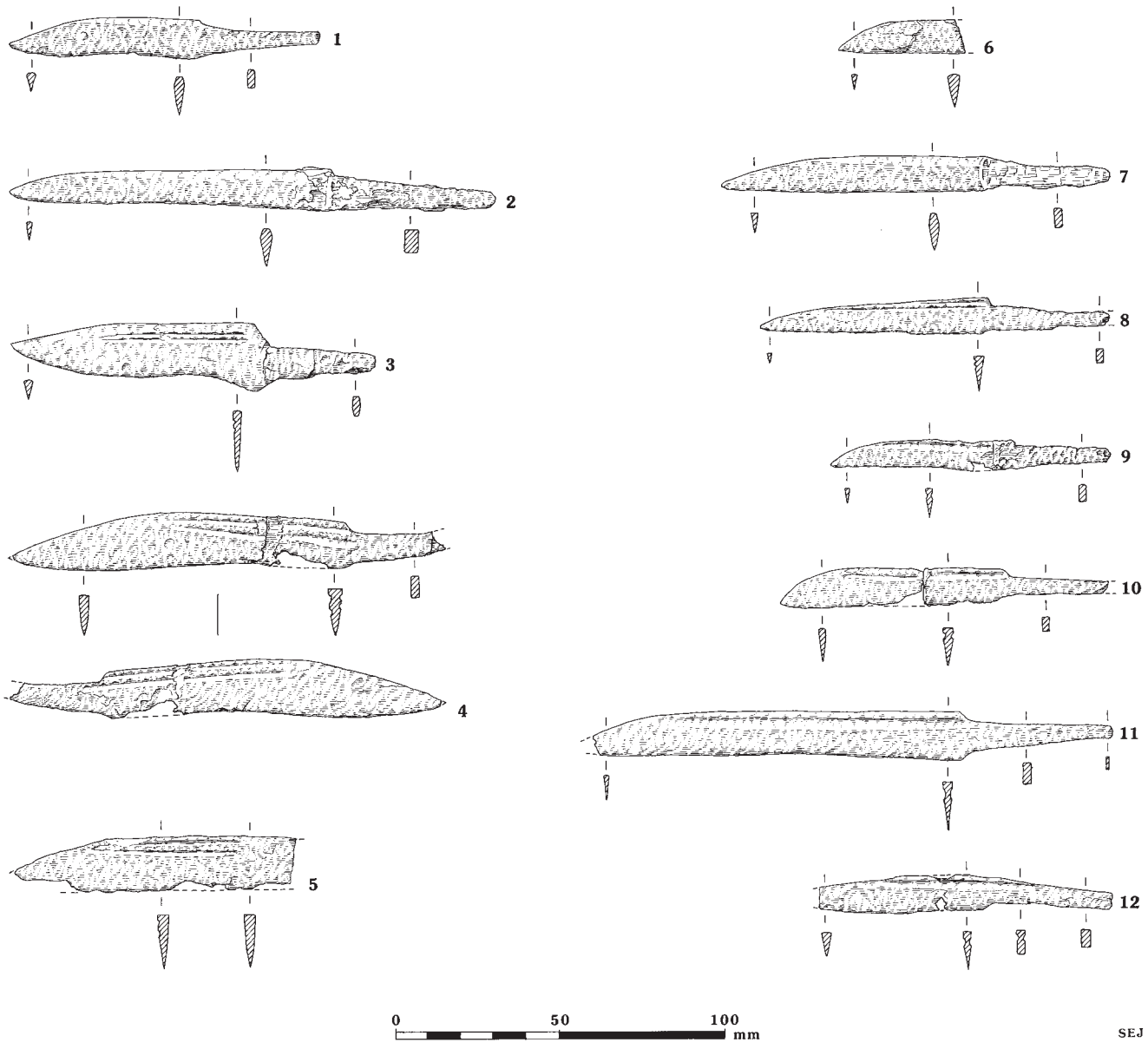

Figure 45 Possible grave-goods: knives

slopes down to tip. Groove (2 mm wide) running parallel to straight part of back on both sides. Böhner type C. Length 86 mm; width 9 mm; thickness 2 mm. Obj. No. 133. Unstratified.

10. Broken iron whittle tang knife; rectangular-sectioned tang (31 mm) central on blade; angled shoulder up to back of blade (69 mm). Back of blade parallel to cutting edge before sloping down to tip. Incised groove *c.* 2 mm wide on both sides of blade, just below and parallel to straight part of back. Böhner type C. Length 100 mm; width 11 mm; thickness 2.5 mm. Obj. No. 5109. Unstratified.
11. Iron whittle tang knife; tang (45 mm) central on blade (114 mm); angled shoulders to both back and cutting edge which is straight, with back parallel to it before angling down to broken tip. On both sides of blade is 3 mm wide groove running parallel to straight part of back. Böhner type C. (A 'large knife' typical of the 7th/8th century, pers. comm. Heinrich Härke). Length 159 mm; width 15 mm; thickness 3 mm. Obj. No. 132. Unstratified.
12. Iron whittle tang knife; tapering, rectangular-sectioned tang (40 mm) forming line with back of blade; angled shoulder down to cutting edge of blade. Blade tip broken; back and cutting edge parallel before sloping very slightly towards tip. Deep groove *c.* 2–3 mm wide running parallel to straight part of back on both sides. Length 89 mm; width 10.5 mm; thickness 2.5 mm. Obj. No. 254. Context 1146.

4. Artefacts

1. Introduction

Artefacts were recovered from all periods from the prehistoric to the post-medieval, the bulk dating to the early Saxon period. This section includes material from the evaluation and excavation carried out by Wessex Archaeology in 1990. The small number of finds from the evaluation carried out by the Thamesdown Archaeological Unit in 1986 have been scanned, but are not discussed in this section; full details are in archive.

Finds are discussed by material type. The text for each category includes material from both cemetery and settlement, although catalogues for the two parts are presented separately. Artefacts from graves are included in the Grave Catalogue (Chapter 3) and illustrated above (Figs 31–42), while settlement finds are catalogued separately below and appear following the discussion of each relevant material type and a representative sample is illustrated (Figs 46–55).

X-radiography and conservation of the metalwork assemblage have been carried out by Margaret Brooks, English Heritage funded contract conservator at Salisbury Conservation Laboratory, who also provided conservation back-up on site. Many of her comments and observations, particularly those concerning technological aspects such as plating and gilding, have been included in both the metalwork catalogue descriptions and discussion. Metal objects selected for X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (XRF) were analysed by Dr Catherine Mortimer of the Ancient Monuments Laboratory. The full conservation report is in archive. Chapters 3 and 4 were written in 1992, before publication of relevant articles such as Dickinson and Härke's 1992 *Archaeologia* monograph on Early Anglo-Saxon shields, and Dickinson's 1993 preliminary overview of Early Saxon saucer brooches. These were available during the main editing stage of this publication (August 1995), but due to constraints of finance and time, it has not proved possible to incorporate them fully.

2. Coins

by John A. Davies [1992]

Ten late Roman bronze issues struck between the years 268 and 375 and five post-Roman coins were recovered.

The Roman coins include two from the late 3rd century and two early 4th century, before AD 330. The remaining six come from a tighter date range, between AD 330 and 375. Very late types, struck before the final decades of Roman Britain, are noticeably absent from the group. Three Roman coins exhibit heavy wear, two 3rd century (Cat. Nos 1 and 2), and a single mid 4th century item (Cat. No. 6). Two of these (Nos 1 and 6) are pierced (see below).

It is possible to assign seven of the ten coins to specific mints. Both early 4th century issues were struck at London, reflecting the importance of the British mint prior to its closure. Trier, which became the major supplier of coin to Britain during the mid 4th century, is represented by a single coin. During the later Valentinianic period the main supplier to Britain was Arles, which was supported by a smaller input from the Balkan mints. This pattern is reflected in the three issues of that period present. Thus, the assemblage contains a representative selection of the coins which circulated in late Roman Britain.

The association of late Roman bronze coins with Anglo-Saxon sites is now well-established; both from settlements such as West Stow, Suffolk (West 1985) and from burials (Rigold 1988). Roman aes clearly underwent a later, ornamental, function during that period. Most examples recovered from Saxon graves in England are perforated, having been used for suspension as necklaces and bracelets and for attachment to clothing. It is likely that the pierced coins from Market Lavington, and possibly others from the group, were reused in this way. Most Roman coins reused in Saxon years were those struck between the mid 3rd and mid 4th centuries, precisely as represented by the Market Lavington assemblage, and the source appears to have been quarrying from nearby late Roman sites (King 1988). It must be stressed that the use of Roman coins in Anglo-Saxon England was strictly for ornamental purposes, or as scrap metal or occasionally as weights, and the concept of their continued circulation in a post-Roman monetary economy is no longer tenable.

There are five post-Roman items, two of which are worthy of particular note. The first is an early medieval French jetton. This well-preserved counter, which carries no inscription, is an uncommon type in England. The second is a silver penny of Henry VI, struck at the York ecclesiastical mint, which shows signs of heavy wear. The remaining issues are two English copper half pennies and one penny of the years between 1694 and 1807.

Catalogue of Coins

Roman Issues

1. Victorinus. Antoninianus
Obverse: [IMP C VICTORINVS PF AVG]
Reverse: [VIRTVS AVG]

Date: AD 268–270
Mint: Cologne (Elmer 699)
Obj. No. 14, context 602; Test-pit B; unphased
Pierced for use as pendant, very worn.

2. Barbarous radiate
Obverse: Tetricus I
Reverse: Laetitia
Date: AD 270–284
Diam.: 15mm
Obj. No. 5057, context 13719, soil accumulation; Area B1; unphased.

3. Constantine I. Follis
Obverse: FL VAL CONSTANTINVS NOB C
Reverse: GENIO POP ROM
Date: AD 307
Mint: London (RIC VI: 88b)
Obj. No. 138; unstrat.

4. Constantine II. Follis
Obverse: CONSTANTINVS IVN NC
Reverse: BEAT TRANQLITAS. VOT/IS/XX
Date: AD 323–324
Mint: London (RIC VII: 287)
Obj. No. 44; Grave 4, context 1016; Area A; unphased

5. Constantine I, Follis
Obverse: [CONST]ANTINVS MAX AVG
Reverse: [GLO]RIA [EXER]CITVS, 2 standards
Date: AD 330–331
Mint: Trier
Obj. No. 244; unstrat.

6. Helena. Follis
Obverse: [FL IVL HELENAE AVG]
Reverse: [PAX PVBLICAE]
Date: AD 337–340
Mint: illegible
Obj. No. 5053, ditch 13705, context 13704; Area B1; Period 2.
Pierced for suspension. V. worn.

7. Constantius II. AE3
Obverse: D N CONSTANTIVS [PF AVG]
Reverse: [FEL T]EMP REPARATIO, falling horseman
Date: AD 355–360
Mint: illegible
Obj. No. 6, context 1009, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.

8. Gratian. AE3
Obverse: D N GRATIANVS [AVGG AVG]
Reverse: GLORIA NO[VI SAEC]VLI
Date: AD 367–375
Mint: Arles (RIC IX: 15)
Obj. No. 7, context 1009, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.

9. Valentinian I. AE3
Obverse: [D N VALENTINI]ANV[S PF AVG]
Reverse: [SECVR]ITAS REIPVBLICAE
Date: AD 367–375
Mint: Arles (RIC IX: 17a)
Obj. No. 435; unstrat.

10. Valentinian I. AE3
Obverse: D N VALENTINIANVS PF AVG
Reverse: SECVRITAS REIPVBLICAE
Date: AD 367–375
Mint: Siscia (As RIC IX: 15 a)
Obj. No. 115, context 1009, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.

Post-Roman issues

11. King's administation (Philip IV). French jetton
Obverse: Shield of France, bearing 6 lis, arranged 3–2–1. Pellety field
Reverse: Long cross recerellé, cutting inner circle. Pellety field
Date: *c.* 1285–1305 (Mitchiner 356)
Obj. No. 5019; ditch 1232, context 1233; Area A; Period 6.

12. Henry VI. Silver penny
Obverse: [HENRIC DI GRA REX ANGL Z FRANC DNS HYB]
Reverse: [CIVITAS EBORACI]
Date: 1427–1430
Mint: York Rosette-Mascle issue (North 1451)
Obj. No. 5, context 1007, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.
Incomplete flan.

13. William III. Halfpenny
Obverse: GVLIELMVS [TERTIVS]
Reverse: [BRITANNIA]
Date: 1694–1702
Obj. No. 8, context 1007, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.

14. George III. Halfpenny
Obverse: [GEORGIVS III REX]
Reverse: [BRITANNIA]
Date: 1770–1775
Mint: London, first issue
Context not recorded.

15. George III. Penny
Obverse: GEORGIVS III.D:G. REX 1807
Reverse: BRITANNIA
Date: 1804
Mint: Soho, fourth issue
Obj. No. 446, context 1146, general cleaning layer; Area A; unphased.

3. Metalwork

by R. Montague [1992]

The metalwork is dealt with in three main sections – Romano-British; early and mid-Saxon, including that from both the cemetery and the settlement; and later Saxon, Saxo-Norman, medieval, and post-medieval metalwork. Short summaries of the nails and the miscellaneous metalwork recovered follow the main sections. Very few pieces were recorded from securely dated contexts and so each section also includes discussion of artefacts from undated or unstratified deposits which are typologically representative of the period in question.

A total of 717 pieces of metalwork was recovered. Of these, 103 came from the cemetery, 19 are unstratified probable grave-goods, and the remaining 595 pieces came from the settlement area, including 390 nails and miscellaneous fragments. Only 187 pieces (25.6%) came from securely phased contexts with another 207 (28.4%) from spit contexts which have been tentatively dated to Period 2–4, though medieval and post-medieval pottery was also present in these contexts. The remaining 335 pieces (46%) are from unphased or unstratified contexts (Table 2).

Romano-British Metalwork

A small number of Romano-British and probable Romano-British metal objects were recorded, in addition to the coins mentioned above. A 'fiddle-key' nail (archive) from beneath the mortar floor (1000) of Structure 1, was the only piece of metalwork to be retrieved from a Period 1 context. This type is regarded as being early medieval in date (Clark 1986, 2–3, fig. 9) but it can be compared with similar nails from the Romano-British settlements at Catsgore (layer containing a coin hoard deposited *c.* AD 340–345; Leech 1982, 101, 123, figs 86, 79) and Ilchester (context no later than end of the 4th century AD).

Three copper alloy objects were recovered. A fragment of bracelet (Fig. 46, 8) from a spit context in Area B1 has incised grooves and plain terminals, and is of a kind found at Roman sites such as Exeter (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 252, fig. 113: 75) and at South Shields Roman Fort (Allason-Jones and Miket 1984, type 7: 126, 132, figs 3.244–5). Also from a spit context in Area B1 came a pin (Fig. 46, 5), its incised lattice decoration typically Romano-British (eg. Crummy 1983, 30, fig. 31: 505; Viner 1986, 106, fig. 78: 12), while a ring corroded to the girdle group from grave 23 (Fig. 36, Obj. No. 257) may be Romano-British rather than Anglo-Saxon. The decoration is similar to that found on a Roman armlet and two rings from Colchester (Crummy 1983, 38, figs 43: 1653, 50: 1766, 1774).

Three hobnails, all from unphased contexts, are probably of Romano-British date as are two cleats, from the soles or heels of boots (Manning 1985, 131, pl. 61, 54–64), though similar objects of differing function are known from later periods.

Early and Mid-Saxon Metalwork

A total of 132 pieces of metalwork (including corrosion products) came from Period 2 features on the site, with a further 19 unstratified probable grave-goods (Table 2). The metalwork retrieved from Period 3 features is represented by a nail from a context associated with Structure 3 (archive). In the settlement area, only 29 pieces of metalwork came from Period 2 features, including 16 miscellaneous nails and fragments. Of the remaining 13 pieces, one (a possible pommel mount, Fig. 46, 9) is probably intrusive.

The excavated part of the cemetery produced 103 pieces of metalwork (Table 3).

Weapons

All the evidence for weaponry, with the exception of one strap holder and a possible shield-stud, came from the cemetery. The strap holder (Fig. 47, 21) was recovered from an early Saxon ditch fill in the settlement, whilst the possible shield-stud (Fig. 47, 19) came from SFB 3.

Of the 14 known male burials, four graves contained shields and spearheads (graves 6, 32, 34, 35), one contained a spearhead and a possible shield-stud (grave 17), and a further five contained spearheads alone (graves 3, 9, 27, 31, 40). No swords were recovered (Table 4).

One of the burials with both a shield and a spear (grave 6) belonged to an immature individual in his mid teens. This is not especially remarkable, as biological immaturity does not necessarily correlate with social immaturity and it is quite likely that a boy of 15 or 16 would have been expected to fight alongside his elders in battle. However, Härke (1990) argues that the Anglo-Saxon weapon burial rite was a symbolic act rather than the reflection of real warrior function, with one in 12 of those buried with weapons being under the age of 14, while the late 5th–early 6th centuries were times of relative peace. Two of the spear-only graves (graves 3 and 27) were also of immature individuals. Another survey (Härke in Dickinson and Härke 1992, 68–9, table 19) has shown that the shield also had a symbolic role within the funerary rite. Unlike the spear, which occurs with individuals of all age ranges in Anglo-Saxon burials, the shield is definitely underrepresented in the burials of immature individuals. It appears to symbolise male status rather than being a functional weapon.

Table 2. Metal objects by type, location, and period

Type	*Period*										*Total*
	2 Cem	*2 ?G-G*	*2 Settle.*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*Spit*	*US/unph.*	
Coin	–	–	1*	–	–	–	1	–	–	13**	15
Shield/boss	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4
Shield-grip	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4
Shield-stud	9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	9
Shield-fitting	2	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3
Spearhead	10	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	10
Knife	21	12	1	–	–	–	–	–	12	9	55
Knife-fitting	–	–	1	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	2
Spoon	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Brooch	9	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	15
Pin	3	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	6
Button	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	5	5
Girdle group/pin/toilet item	19	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	4	3	27
Pendant	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Buckle/strap-end/belt fitting	9	1	2	–	–	–	–	–	1	6	19
Bracelet	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1
Ring	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	5	7
Token	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Tool	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	10	9	21
Shears	–	–	–	–	–	–		–	–	1	1
Heckle tooth	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	1	2	5
Lock furniture	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	4	5
Fitting	4	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	5	16	26
Ferrule	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	1	3
Loop/link/ring, etc	–	–	1	–	–	1	–	–	3	14	19
Rivet/stud	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1	2	8
Nail	1	–	3	1	2	8	–	1	117	120	253
Staple/cleat	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	4	6
Hooked object	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	2
Hooked tag	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Heel iron	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	3	5
Horseshoe	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	1	4
Spur	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	2
Arrowhead	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	3	5
Lead shot	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	6	7
Lead waste	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Rod/bar frag.	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	2	4
Sheet/strip frag.	3	–	2	–	7	2	2	1	17	53	87
Misc./unid. frag.	–	–	3	–	2	2	–	–	13	25	45
(corrosion product)	(1)	–	(9)	–	–	(1)	–	–	(1)	(10)	(22)
Total (exc. corrosion product)	102	19	20	1	13	14	4	2	203	317	695

* = reused Roman issue; ** = includes 1 reused Roman issue; 2 ?G-G = Period 2, unstratified, probable grave-goods

Ten out of the 42 graves contained weapons (23.8%), which can be compared with a figure of 20% for Blackpatch, Pewsey, and slightly lower figures for other sites in Hampshire and Wiltshire (Cook 1985, 88); though it is lower than for contemporaneous sites in Kent, Sussex, and the Isle of Wight (Arnold 1980, 86). Of the 14 identified male burials, ten had weapons (71.4%); this figure is higher than those from other sites in the area; Petersfinger with 59% is the next highest total (ibid., 88). The cemetery at Market Lavington is characterised by the total absence of swords and its small number of shields; only 40% of the weapon graves contained shields, compared to figures of 80% for Blackpatch and 61.5% for Petersfinger. This assemblage is more similar to that at the cemetery at Portway, Andover,

Table 3. Grave-good associations (presence/absence)

Grave	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*14*	*15*	*16*	*17*	*19*	*21*	*22*
Sex	?f	?	?f	?	?	?	f	m	?	?	?	?	?f	?m	?m	?f	?	m
Saucer brooch						X	X											
Disc brooch			X															
Finger-ring																		
Spearhead		X			X			X							X			
Shield-boss					X													
Shield-grip					X													
Shield-stud					X										X			
Shield-fitting																		
Knife	X	X				X	X			X	X	X	X		X			X
Buckle						X				X								
Bone/iron belt-fitting																		
Fitting																		X
Strap separator													X					
Copper alloy pin																		
Iron pin							X						X					
Iron awl									X									
Ear scoop													X					
Tweezers																		
Copper alloy toilet item																		
Iron toilet item																		
Suspension loop																		
Rivet																	X	
Iron fragment				X									X			X		
Glass bead			X	X			X			X				X				
Amber bead							X			X								
Antler bead							X											
?Pinbeater																		
Whetstone														X				
Pot																		

Table 3 (cont.)

Grave	*23*	*24*	*26*	*27*	*31*	*32*	*33*	*34*	*35*	*36*	*37*	*38*	*39*	*40*
Sex	?f	*?*	*?f*	*?*	m	m	?	?m	m	f	?	?	?	?
Saucer brooch		X	X											
Disc brooch							X							
Finger-ring	X													
Spearhead				X	X	X		X	X					X
Shield-boss						X		X	X					
Shield-grip						X		X	X					
Shield-stud						X		X	X					
Shield-fitting						X		X	X					
Knife	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X			X	X	X
Buckle		X				X	X	X	X	X				
Bone/iron belt fitting										X				
Fitting			X							X				
Strap separator														
Copper alloy pin										X				
Iron pin	X	X	X							X	X			
Iron awl														
Ear scoop			X											
Tweezers								X						
Copper alloy toilet item	X		X											
Iron toilet item	X													
Suspension loop	X													
Rivet														
Iron fragment			X					X				X		
Glass bead										X				
Amber bead		X								X				
Antler bead										X				
? Pinbeater	X													
Whetstone														
Pot										X		X		

Table 4. Analysis of weapon graves (male)

Age group	*Total male burials*	*Graves without weapons*			*Weapon burials*			*Graves with shield & spear*			*Graves with spear only*		
		No.	*% age group*	*% all males*	*No.*	*% age group*	*% all males*	*No.*	*% age group*	*% all males*	*No.*	*% age group*	*% all males*
Adult	11(79%)	4	36%	29%	7	64%	50%	3	27%	21%	4	36%	29%
Immat.	3(21%)	–	–	–	3	100%	21%	1	33%	7%	2	67%	14%
Total	14	4		29%	10		71%	4		29%	6		43%

Immat. = immature.
Graves without weapons = graves 16, 22, 25, 41; graves with shield and spear = (adult) graves 32, 34, 35, (immature) grave 6; graves with spear only = (adult) graves 9, 17, 31, 40, (immature) graves 3, 27.
Sex based on osteological and/or cultural associations

where there were no swords with the burials, and only three of the 12 weapon burials had shields (ie, 25%). However, the percentages may be affected by the incomplete excavation of the Market Lavington cemetery.

The distribution of weapon graves within the cemetery is shown in Figure 21. It can be seen that these occur in all parts of the cemetery but more frequently in the northern area. Three of the four burials with spears and shields lay close together and appear to be aligned (graves 32, 34, 35), though this may be coincidental.

Shields

Four shields, represented by bosses, grips, studs, fittings, and, in the case of grave 34, a possible shield stain, were recovered. The four burials were all positioned fairly close together in the northern part of the cemetery. In addition, the lozenge-shaped fitting from grave 22, that of an adult male, may be a shield-fitting as may be the strap holder recovered from an early Saxon ditch (Fig. 47, 21) and a possible shield-stud from SFB 3 (Fig. 47, 19).

The typology first proposed by Dickinson (1976) for Anglo-Saxon shield-bosses has been adopted here. Of Dickinson's seven boss types, four (groups 1.2, 3, 4, and 5) are represented at Market Lavington. The comparative dating of these forms in England are given in Table 5.

Three of the four Market Lavington examples (75%) were placed on or at the stomach or upper legs, while the position of the fourth (in grave 35) is ambiguous; it may have been placed vertically at or horizontally over the head and was found on its side in front of the face which was turned to the side. Härke's 1992 examination of shield positions within graves (Dickinson and Härke 1992, table 17) shows that just over half of 45 early Saxon burials with shields in Wessex had them positioned on or at the stomach or upper legs. Vertically placed shields accounted for less than 7% of the Wessex graves and less than 1% overall of the 304 burials examined by Härke. The shield in grave 35 may have been placed horizontally over the head and the boss then sagged following decomposition of the wood, though it could have been deposited vertically.

The four grips can all be classified as Härke's type Ia1, that is, short, flat grips with expanded ends (Dickinson and Härke 1992, 24–7, fig, 17), though that from grave 32 may be a type IIIa 'long grip'. The short flat grip is the most common type in all regions throughout the early Saxon period; expanded terminals are frequent from the 5th–7th centuries and occur in conjunction with all types of bosses in this period (ibid.). The terminal shapes of the Market Lavington grips vary. Those with concave sides and flat ends (grave 6 (Fig. 32, Obj. No. 5078), grave 35 (Fig. 42, Obj. No. 5093)) are of a common type, here associated with different boss types (Dickinson's groups 5 and 1.2). The grip from grave 34 (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 5091) has concave sides and convex ends and is associated with a similar type of boss (Dickinson group 4) to examples from Brighthampton (Dickinson 1976, fig. 26: c, d). The grip from grave 32 with rounded terminals, associated with a group 3 boss, is similar to one from Abingdon I, B4 which was associated with a group 1.1 boss (ibid., fig. 25: b).

The boss from grave 32 was lifted in a block and excavated in the laboratory, and a narrow broken strip of iron with one flaring end was found running from one end of the handgrip out to one side of the shield where strap holder 5081 was situated. This could be part of an ordinary grip of the 'long grip' type (Härke's type IIIa; Dickinson and Härke 1992, 24–7, fig. 17) and have served a functional rather than decorative purpose as it was situated on the back of the shield.

A small, disc-headed stud (diam. *c.* 20 mm) from SFB 3 (Fig. 47, 19) could be a shield-stud on comparison with those from the graves. Grave 17, which contained a spear, also produced a lone disc-

headed stud (Fig. 36; Obj. No. 194). Though larger than those of the shield-studs (41 mm diam.) it may be a shield-stud, but other functions are possible.

Two fittings, one from grave 32 (Fig. 39; Obj. No. 5081) and the other from a Period 2 ditch (Fig. 47, 21) can be compared with two examples from grave G2 at Finglesham, Kent (Chadwick 1958, 24, fig. 14: e), which have been interpreted as strap holders. The Market Lavington examples are shorter and the example from grave 32 has a third, centrally placed shield-stud which appears to serve a purely decorative function. Grave G2 at Finglesham has been dated to the 6th century (ibid., 59); while grave 32 at Market Lavington dates from the period of AD 550–650.

The lozenge-shaped iron fitting from grave 22 (Fig. 36; Obj. No. 260) is similar to a type of iron shield-board fitting found mainly in Wessex cemeteries, usually occurring only once in each cemetery, such as Portway, Andover and Harnham Hill, Salisbury (Härke in Dickinson and Härke 1992, 27). Such fittings could have pinned two boards together, but their scarcity may suggest some significance beyond a purely practical function. Härke (ibid., appendix 4) lists five Wessex examples whose average size is shorter and broader than the Market Lavington example. These also occurred with shields and other grave-goods, whereas the Market Lavington example occurred solely with a knife. A similar fitting in copper alloy occurred in grave 25b at Apple Down, West Sussex, along with various fragments of copper alloy sheet (Down and Welch 1990, 38–9, fig. 2.23: 10) and it is possible that the Market Lavington and Apple Down examples may have been fittings from a wooden box or other such organic artefact which has not survived.

The thickness of the shield-boards can be extrapolated from the projecting length of the boss rivets and from the length of the shanks of the shield-studs. Most early Anglo-Saxon shields have a thickness of 6–8 mm (Härke 1988, 12), and two of the four shields from Market Lavington fall within these parameters. The third, from grave 6, is slightly thicker (8–9 mm), and the fourth, from grave 35, a little thinner (5–6 mm). One of the three studs from grave 6 (Fig. 32; Obj. No. 83) has a somewhat longer shank than the others from this grave (12 mm); this is not uncommon and may indicate the former presence of some organic material (Dickinson and Härke 1992, 52).

The type of handle construction can be inferred for three of the shields: grave 6 (Härke's type D2; 1981, 144, fig. 1) grave 34 (?type D2), and grave 35 (type A1). In the former type of handle, a bridge between two lunate openings cut into the board, was covered with leather strips to thicken the bridge, the grip being set on this and riveted to the back of the board. Thick cloth or leather was then wrapped around the handle (eg. graves 6 and 34). The grip from grave 35 (Fig. 42; Obj. No. 5093) comes from a wooden handle (Härke 1981, 142, fig. 1) fitted into an opening in the board with the iron grip riveted to the back of the board through the rebated joint; the boss was then riveted to the front of the board, with the inner part of the flange covering the edge of the handle and wedging it in. The two sets of grain, at right-angles to each other on the back of the grip, provide the evidence for this type of construction.

Assuming that the shields were placed horizontally, the width of the grave, together with the size and positions of the boss and shield-studs, may be used to suggest the maximum size of the shield. A minimum diameter of 437 mm is suggested for the shield in grave 32, well within the limits suggested by Härke (1990, 26). The position of the shield-studs in grave 34 suggest a minimum diameter of *c.* 455 mm. An area of staining covering much of the area of the body noted in this grave could possibly have been a shield stain. However, it would have been exceptionally large, at over 1 m in diameter, and this interpretation is considered extremely unlikely. This grave dates to the late 5th–early 6th century and no shields over 600 mm diameter are known before the mid 6th century (Dickinson and Härke 1992, 46). No estimate could be made for graves 6 and 35.

Studs and boss rivets on the shields played a decorative as well as funtional role. White metal plating was used to highlight the rivet and stud heads on two of the four shields (graves 32 and 34). Decoration was not solely reserved for the front of the board, as shown by the plating of the grip rivets on the back.

Three shields show evidence of possible repairs: non-matching studs in grave 34; an additional rivet positioned close to one of four symetrically placed rivets on the boss from grave 35; and non-matching studs at either end of the shield-grip from grave 32.

Spears

Swanton's (1973) classification has been used, though some spearheads could not be assigned confidently to a group and several showed intermediate characteristics. Nine spearheads and one presumed spearhead socket were recovered during the excavations, all from the cemetery. Swanton group and inferred dating are shown in Table 5. Two spearheads are leaf-shaped, four angular, and three corrugated.

The long spearhead from grave 32 (Fig. 39; Obj. No. 314) seems to be a hybrid of group C4 (leaf-shaped profile) and E4 (lozengiform section). It has an unusual tip which narrows for the final 45 mm and has a square rather than lozengiform section. Furthermore, no other C4 and only two E4 spearheads are known to be associated with shield-bosses of waisted or carinated varieties (Swanton 1973, 59) as is this one.

Table 5. Dating of weapon burials

Grave	*Spear type (Swanton)*	*Boss type (Dickinson)*	*Date (centuries AD)*
3	E2	–	6th
6	I1	5	Late 5th–early 6th
9	C2	–	5th–7th
17	H3	–	Late 5th–mid 6th
27	K2	–	Latest 5th–earlier 6th
31	H1	–	Late 5th–mid 6th
32	C4	3	mid 6th–mid 7th
34	H1/H2	4	5th–early 6th
35	K1/K2	1.2	Late 5th–mid 6th
40	Broken	–	–

Eight of the ten burials which contained spearheads were in the northern part of the cemetery. Three occurred in the graves of immature or teenage individuals (graves 3, 6, and 27) and are smaller than usual, possiby reflecting the age of the individuals. All except that in grave 9 were at the head end of the grave, near the skull. Of the ten examples, six were on the left hand side of the body which may suggests a ratio of 1.5:1 in favour of left-handed spearmen. A ratio of 2:1 for left-handed spearmen was noted at the cemetery at Portway, Andover, but otherwise the preference at Wessex sites is for right-handed spearmen (Härke 1985, 91). However, the positions of at least two of the Market Lavington examples was probably influenced by the presence of a shield.

Dating of the weapon burials

The shields and spears provide the best, and in many cases, the only evidence for the dating of the weapon burials at Market Lavington. It can be seen from Table 5 that most date from the mid 5th–mid 6th centuries (graves 34, 27, 6, 35, 31, 17). Grave 32 seems to be later (mid 6th–mid 7th centuries) while graves 9 and 3 overlap with these date ranges.

Knives

A total of 55 knives and possible knife blanks was recovered during the excavations; 22 from the settlement area, 21 from the graves, and 12 from the developer's spoil heap and subsoil layer 1146, which may represent unstratified Saxon grave-goods. A total of 40 are certainly Saxon.

The Anglo-Saxon knives have been classified according to Böhner (1958) who divided them into four types based on the general outline of the knife and the location of the point in relation to the centre line. (Type A is in line, Type B is above the centre line, and Type C below the centre line. Type D is a specific form not present at Market Lavington). Several factors created difficulties in applying Böhner's typology to the Market Lavington collection in that it was not always possible to classify knives with broken points. Types were assigned to 33 of the 40 knives, representing Böhner's types A, B, and C (Table 6). Blade measurements were taken to the shoulder of the knife.

Table 6. Knives: summary of types and decoration

Type	*No.*	*Decoration (no. examples x no. grooves)*	
		LHS	*Both (LHS/RHS)*
Graves			
A	11	1 x 2	–
B	6	–	–
C	–	–	–
?	4	–	1 x 2/1
Settlement			
A	2	–	1 x 1/1
B	–	–	–
C	4	1 x 1	–
?	1	–	–
Probable grave-goods			
B	–	–	–
C	10	2 x 2	3 x 1/1; 1 x 2/2
?	2	1 x 2	1 x 1/1

LHS = left hand side; RHS = right hand side

Knives were the most common class of grave-good, occurring in 21 of the 42 excavated graves (Table 6). Four came from the burials of immature individuals (graves 3, 12, 27, 38), and knives were found in both male and female graves in equal numbers. Within the cemetery, there is no obvious spatial patterning for the two knife types represented, although knives in general are more frequent in the northern part. A high proportion of the unstratified, possible grave-goods, are Type C, which Härke dates to the 7th century AD (ie, possibly later than the excavated weapon burials). A particularly large, unstratified, example (Fig. 45, 11) is of a type most frequent in the 7th–early 8th centuries (Härke 1988, 145, table 2).

The settlement area produced seven Anglo-Saxon knives, one from a Period 2 ditch fill (Fig. 45, 5), the rest from spit contexts in Area B1, tentatively dated to Periods 2–4.

Knives from ten burials were positioned on the left side of the body, usually at waist level or at the elbow or upper femur; three were on the right side of the body; five centrally positioned on the waist or chest; one near the head and two unrecorded. There is no correlation with age or sex and evidence for 'handedness' is inconclusive when compared with that for the spears.

Twelve knives (30%) were decorated with incised grooves, either single or double, on one or both sides of the blade; this is an unusully high percentage. At

Alton, Hampshire, 5 out of 31 knives (16%) were grooved, while, at Abbots Worthy, a knife was found with an inlaid decoration parallel to the back of the blade on both sides (Davies 1991, 42–3, fig. 33: 10). It is not clear, therefore, whether the grooves are intended decoration, or merely the result of the loss of inlay, though the latter is unlikely and laboratory examination of the Market Lavington knives found no trace of inlay. Grooved decoration on knives is known from both cemetery and settlement sites in Wiltshire, such as Petersfinger (Leeds and Shortt, 1953, 26, fig. 9: 115), Trowbridge (Mills 1993, fig. 30: 2–3), and Blackpatch; in Hampshire from, for example, Alton (Evison 1988, 23) and Portway (Cook 1985, 93); and various sites further afield including Apple Down, West Sussex (Down and Welch 1990, 102–3, 146, fig. 2.17), Bargates, Dorset (Jarvis 1983, 119, fig. 64: 2) and Morning Thorpe, Norfolk (Green *et al.* 1987, 75, 108–11, figs 344, 384).

It has been suggested that the use of grooves to decorate knives was a 7th century development (Cook 1985, 93; Cunliffe 1976, 200; Evison 1967, 34–5). However, there seems now to be some evidence for an earlier origin, for instance at Alton, where three graves span the period AD 425–575 (Evison 1988, 41–44) and Morning Thorpe (Green *et al.* 1987, 108–11, fig. 384) where a grooved knife was associated with a type H3 spearhead, dated by Swanton (1973, 81–2) to the later 5th or 6th centuries.

Dress fasteners

Twelve examples of dress fasteners, represented by nine copper alloy brooches and three pins (two copper alloy and one iron), were recovered from the cemetery. Two more iron pins from the cemetery are possibly dress pins. A further six brooches were recovered from the developer's spoilheap and unstratified contexts in Area A.

Of the 13 graves identified as female, eight (67%) had some form of dress fastening (Table 7). Grave 37, of an immature individual of indeterminate sex, also produced an iron pin. Seven of the nine graves occurred in the northern part of the cemetery; the other two lay just to the south in the central part.

Brooches

Fifteen Anglo-Saxon brooches were recovered, nine from six graves and six unstratified examples which may be grave-goods. Of the six burials producing brooches, only one (grave 8) is definitely female on osteological evidence, with a further two (graves 4 and 26) probably female. There are three sets of pairs and three burials with a single brooch. The brooches were all positioned on the shoulder, with two of the single brooches on the right shoulder (graves 24 and 33), and the third single brooch on the left shoulder, with an iron pin on the right (grave 8). The pair of large, cast saucer brooches from grave 7 had nine amber beads strung between them.

Table 7. Combinations of dress fastenings in female graves

Type of fastening	*Grave no.*
Pair of shoulder brooches	4, 7, 26
Single shoulder brooch and pin	8
Single shoulder brooch	24, 33
Pair of copper alloy pins	36
Possible iron dress pin	23, 37*
No fastenings	???

* Sex indeterminate

Three types of brooch were found: cast saucer (eight examples, 53.3%), disc (six, 40%), and button (one, 6.7%), compared with six types from Petersfinger (64 graves producing 13 brooches), and ten types from Blackpatch, Pewsey (106 graves producing 47 brooches; Welch 1983, 168, fig. 9.3). This limited repertoire is unusual, though others may have been present in unexcavated graves. The dominance of saucer brooches is echoed in the assemblages from the upper Thames area (Dickinson 1976, 32).

Only those brooches with obvious or suspected white metal-plating were selected for X-radiograph fluorescence analysis. In these cases brass (grave 24, Obj. No. 258), bronze (grave 7, Obj. Nos 33, 34; grave 26, Obj. Nos 288, 289; and unstratified Obj. Nos 245, 390, 391), and an alloy between bronze and brass (grave 8, Obj. No. 63) were identified.

Cast saucer brooches: Of six cast saucer brooches from the cemetery, two were single brooches with two sets of pairs. The two unstratified brooches were single brooches, but one (Fig. 43, 5) is very similar to the single brooch from grave 24 (Fig. 37, Obj. No. 258). However, this grave was undisturbed and well sealed, and if they were ever a pair, it seems that they must have been split some time prior to the interment of the occupant of grave 24.

The pair of cast saucer brooches from grave 26 (Fig. 38; Obj. Nos 288, 289) bear a central six-pointed star design within three outer border rings. Five-point stars are a common design, with examples of four- and seven-point stars known in the upper Thames region (Dickinson 1976, 68–72) but a six-point star is unusual, the only other known example is from Barrington A (Dickinson, pers. comm). However, examples are known from applied saucer brooches (eg, Portchester Castle, Hampshire (Welch 1976, 206–11, fig. 136: 45), and Mucking, Essex (Evison 1978, 262)). The dating of individual brooches has been open to some discussion (eg,

Evison 1978; Welch 1976) but the star motif seems to have been used from the later 5th to the mid 6th centuries.

The two large brooches from grave 7 have zoomorphic designs (Fig. 33; Obj. Nos 33, 34) and find parallels at, for instance, Mildenhall, Wiltshire (Passmore 1934, 393) and Blackpatch, Pewsey. Their large size (diam. 76–78 mm) suggests a late 6th century or later date (Dickinson 1976, 36–7, fig. 3).

Two other cast saucer brooches have zoomorphic designs. Sahlin's Style I decoration, which occurs on the two brooches, was popular in the later 5th and 6th centuries (Leeds 1970, 35). Brooch 63 from grave 8 (Fig. 34, 63) corresponds to Dickinson's group 7 in the upper Thames valley (Dickinson 1976, 75) and finds close parallels at Alveston, Warwickshire and Woodston I, Cambridgeshire (Dickinson pers. comm). It is also reminiscent of pairs of brooches from a grave at Portway, Andover (Cook 1985, 36, 79, fig. 61: 2, 3) and Alton (Evison 1988, 9–10, figs 3, 37: 47, 1, 2). It has been suggested that these examples, together with a pair from Droxford were produced in Hampshire (Evison 1988, 10); the Market Lavington example, from 32 km west of Portway, may have been manufactured by the same producer. The grave 8 brooch can probably be dated somewhere between AD 525 and 575. The other brooch with zoomorphic decoration (Fig. 43, 4) is similar to a larger example from Alveston, Warwickshire which has a date range in the middle or later 6th century.

The brooch from grave 24 (Fig. 27, Obj. No. 258) and Object No. 390 (Fig. 43, 5) were possibly never a pair (see above), though their size and decorative motifs are almost identical. The various elements of the design find good parallels elsewhere and provide a similar date range to Obj. No. 63 from grave 8 (ie, between AD 525 and 575).

Disc brooches: Six disc brooches were recovered. Of the three from the cemetery, two were paired (grave 4; Fig. 31, Obj. Nos 19, 20) and one occurred as a single brooch in grave 33 (Fig. 38; Obj. No. 308), though this may have formed a pair with an unstratified example found nearby (Fig. 43, 2). In her study of disc brooches from the upper Thames area, Dickinson (1976) divided the ornament on disc brooches into seven major groups; three of which are represented at Market Lavington. The undecorated example (Fig. 43, 1) belongs to Dickinson's group 1 and finds a local parallel with an unassociated pair from Alton. Two brooches (Fig. 43, 2; Fig. 38, Obj. No. 308) belong to Dickinson's group 2.1 and the other three belong to Dickinson's group 4.2. Dickinson (ibid., 121; 1979, 47–8) dates the main period of use of disc brooches to the mid 5th–mid 6th centuries; Welch (1983, 55–7) argues that this brooch form emerged in the second half of the 5th century and continued into the later 6th century; whilst the earlier period of this date range is emphasised by Evison (1988, 11).

Button brooches: The single brooch (Fig. 43, 6) bears close resemblance to both the type Eii and type Eiii brooches described by Avent and Evison (1982, 84, fig. 6, pl. xvi). Its closest parallels are probably three of the five button brooches from Alfriston, East Sussex, classified as Eiii (ibid., 111–2) and it is similar an Eii example from Alton (Evison 1988, 10, 80, figs 33, 47, pl. Ih) as well as examples from other locations. The date ranges given by Avent and Evison are AD 425–475 for type Eiii and AD 450–500 for type Eii. Welch (1983, 53) states that button brooches are typically found in 6th century contexts and prefers a date sometime in the first half of the 6th century for the Alfriston example (Welch 1985a, 144). The likely date range seems to be late 5th–mid 6th centuries.

In conclusion, Dickinson has stated that the Market Lavington brooches appear to be a fairly typical assemblage in terms of date and 'cultural' connections for a Wessex cemetery at the very western edge of the distribution area for 5th–6th century Anglo-Saxon burials. The parallels for the saucer brooches are primarily with upper Thames, even Midlands, areas in the 6th century.

Pins

Both copper alloy and iron pins were recovered from both the cemetery and the settlement area.

Two copper alloy pins were associated with an adult female burial in grave 36 (Fig. 40; Obj. Nos 462, 480). They lay over the spine, one at the chest and the other at the waist. These pins are similar in shape and decoration to one from a grave at Blackpatch, Pewsey dated to the very end of the 5th–early 6th century (S. Ross, pers. comm.). Other decorated pins with perforated heads are known from, for instance, Highdown, East Sussex (Welch 1983, 78; fig. 116: d) and Abingdon I, Oxfordshire, dated to the early 6th century (Dickinson 1976, 194). In general, longer pins tend to date mostly from the 6th century, which fits with the other grave-goods from grave 36. A broken copper alloy pin from an early Saxon pit in the settlement area (Fig. 46, 6) may be an Anglo-Saxon or residual Romano-British pin.

An iron pin with a looped head was found on the right shoulder of the woman in grave 8 (Fig. 34, Obj. No. 5088), with a saucer brooch on the left shoulder. Two more iron pins, from graves 23 and 37 may also be dress pins. The function of simple pins and pin-like objects is always open to question. Loop-ended pins are common and Ross (1991, 198–201) has argued for an early 6th century date. Two unstratified pins (Fig. 47, 23, 24) have more elaborate scrolled terminals on the loops and are similar to two objects from graves 11 and 48 at Portway. As at other

cemeteries of this date, there is strong evidence to suggest that pins were more frequently associated with females than males, though the numbers are small.

Girdle groups and toilet items

Four graves produced items which may have been suspended from the waist. Grave 15 (adult ?female) produced a 'strap separator' or suspension loop slightly below the left waist (Fig. 36, Obj. No. 156); grave 23 (adult ?female) a group of iron and copper alloy strips suspended from rings (Fig. 35, Obj. No. 257) and an iron pin; grave 24 (probably female as it contained a saucer brooch) a pair of broken pins (Fig. 37, Obj. No. 5089) on the right side of the body at the waist; and a single broken iron looped pin came from the left waist area in grave 37 (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 463), which may have been a dress pin or key.

The strap separator or suspension loop from grave 15, with its interlinked loops with flattened expanded strap plates, is of a similar type to objects found placed at the waist or hip in the graves of two adult females at Droxford (Aldsworth 1979, 124, 128, figs 25: 1–3, 27: 1–4). Another close parallel comes from a sunken-featured building at West Stow (West 1985, 21, fig. 60, 5). The corrosion products between the strap plates of the Market Lavington example suggest that they were originally riveted to leather straps.

The probable girdle group in grave 23 was lifted in a block, X-radiographed and then excavated in the laboratory. The elements were corroded together but it appears to have originally consisted of five separate elements: two groups of iron strips on iron wire loops, copper alloy strips on a copper alloy wire loop, a fragment of a spare iron wire loop, and a broken copper alloy ring. In view of the unattached nature of these elements, it is possible that they were all loose but together in a bag which has long since decayed. There is a large area of textile remains on one side of the group and a smaller area of a different weave on another side. Alternatively, the three strip groups and the ring may all have been suspended from the 'spare' iron loop, which is of thicker wire, only a fragment of which now remains.

Similar iron strip objects have been found at the cemetery at Alton, Hampshire. Both were from female graves, were associated with iron loops and other objects for suspension, and came from the left waist area (Evison 1988, 77, 82, figs 18, 21, 29: 10, 34: 7a–f). Another object from Alton, of similar type but approximately twice the size of the Market Lavington specimens, has been described as a sharpener (ibid. 79, fig. 31: 3). Three more examples, two of which were attached to an iron ring, were found at Droxford (Aldsworth 1979, 141, fig. 46: 161, 193).

The two copper alloy strips are in better condition. They are of differing lengths and the longer of the two has a V-shaped cut at one end. A parallel for it comes from Chessell Down, Isle of Wight. Here a bronze strip with one end forked and the other looped over for suspension and a second strip with the looped end complete but the other end broken were among the unprovenanced finds (Arnold 1982, 41, fig. 27: 30, 31). Both were decorated with zig-zag grooves. Another unprovenanced find from Chessell Down consists of a group of bronze objects suspended on a ring, including a 'nail cleaner' with a ribbed shaft, ring decorations and a forked end (ibid., 41, fig. 48). 'Nail cleaners' are a relatively common category of find on Romano-British sites but also occur in Anglo-Saxon contexts. The copper alloy ring may possibly be Romano-British. It may have been kept with the girdle group as, with a diameter of 22 mm, it may have been too large to be a finger ring for its female owner, or it may have served as an amulet.

The pair of broken pin-like objects from grave 24 (Fig. 37, Obj. No. 5089) have sub-rounded sections which become expanded and flattened at one end and may be compared with a similar object from grave 69 at Westgarth Gardens, Suffolk, which is complete with the other end looped for suspension (West 1988, 38, fig. 85d). This has been described as a possible key.

The small iron scoop from grave 15 (Fig. 35, Obj. No. 210) is pierced at one end for suspension and may have been used as an ear or unguent scoop. Bronze scoops have been found as parts of toilet sets at a number of sites, associated with both males and females, though more commonly with the latter, and in various positions on the body. However, of all the toilet sets in Dickinson's survey of the upper Thames area, only one, from Blewburton Hill, was of iron (Dickinson 1976, 224). Most belong to the later 5th–earlier 6th centuries (ibid., 224).

Copper alloy object No. 290 (Fig. 38) was found close to copper alloy pick No. 292 on the left chest area of the woman in grave 26. It is likely that object No. 292, with its head perforated for suspension, is a toilet pick rather than a dress pin. Object No. 290 is broken but could possibly be an ear scoop, although the perforated end and the scoop are usually in the same plane, rather than at 90° to each other. Toilet sets consisting of picks and ear scoops suspended from metal rings are common and the fact that both objects have been plated with silver containing a trace of gold suggests that they are part of a group.

The plain copper alloy pick (object No. 292) can be compared with several examples of objects which were undoubtedly used as pins. The Market Lavington example is similar to, but slightly longer than, a copper alloy pin found at Mildenhall, Wiltshire (*Wiltshire Archaeological & Natural History Magazine* 6, 1860, 259; 37, 1911–12, 611–12) associated with a pair of saucer brooches of late 6th–early 7th century date (Dickinson 1976, 194; Ross 1991, 215). Another

'bronze' pin, from Poulton Down near Mildenhall is unlikely to date from earlier than the second half of the 6th century (Meyrick 1950, 221). Other parallels for this pin type indicate that it is generally of a late date, although the type is not unknown from earlier contexts (Dickinson 1976, 194–5).

A pair of plain copper alloy tweezers came from the male burial in grave 34 (Fig. 41, Obj. No. 5087); associated artefacts in grave 34 date to the late 5th–early 6th centuries.

Buckles, strap-ends and other belt fittings

Eight of the 42 graves produced iron buckles and/or other belt fittings. Four came from female burials, three from male burials, and one from a burial containing beads and, therefore, probably female. Three of the eight buckles appear to be 'D'-shaped and perhaps four are oval; the eighth, from grave 35, is now lost and has been described from the X-radiograph as oval. Such simple forms cannot be closely dated, although the D-shaped buckles might be attributed a mid 5th–mid 6th century date range. Four buckles have buckle plates attached made of iron sheets folded over the loop, with a central perforation to accommodate the tongue.

Buckle 171 (Fig. 44), an unstratified find from Area A, has a rectangular cell at the base of the tongue which may once have contained a garnet or similar decorative inlay. The buckle loop may also have been decorated; a solitary garnet now remains, attached by corrosion products (and therefore not necessarily in its original position) to the underlying tinned copper plate. Buckles of a similar shape, although smaller in size, with rectangular cells at the base of the tongue have been recovered from sites such as Highdown (Welch 1983, 98, fig. 90: b) and Apple Down (Down and Welch 1990, 43, 101, fig. 2.27: 5), Sussex. Both occur with rectangular strap plates decorated with zoomorphic designs of Salin's Style I of Merovingian derivation and date to the middle of the 6th century or a little later.

Six other buckles were recovered from the settlement area; four from unphased contexts, one from a spit context and one from the Period 2 boundary ditch (Fig. 47, 26), which is of a much smaller size than any of the buckles from the cemetery and has an elongated oval loop. Buckles of a similar size were present in cemeteries such as Alton, Portway, Sewerby and Polhill. Although not unknown in earlier periods, such small iron buckles are characteristic of the 7th (or possibly 8th) century (Hirst 1985, 86). The other buckles are undiagnostic.

The belt fitting from grave 36 (Fig. 41, 376), formed of a curving strip of iron riveted to a piece of bone, is of a fairly unusual type but can be compared with examples from a number of sites including Harnham Hill, Droxford, Alton, Apple Down and Beckford, Worcestershire (Evison 1988, 20–2; Down and Welch 1990, 101–2). Dating is subject to debate but spans the 5th–7th centuries.

Pendants

One copper alloy pendant was recovered (Fig. 46, 1). It has a central boss and is 'scutiform', roughly trimmed from a sheet metal circle. It bears punched decoration of four quadrants, each containing a ring and dot. Scutiform pendants have been found in Anglian graves dating to the 6th century and over a wider geographical area in the 7th (Hawkes 1973, 192), for instance at Morning Thorpe (Green *et al.* 1987), Sewerby, East Yorkshire (Hirst 1985), dated *c.* AD 480–550, and Alton, dated AD 425–525 (Evison 1988, 44). Scutiform pendants in silver were also recovered from the Buckland cemetery at Dover, including three from one grave with punched cross decoration, dated to the 7th century (Evison, 1987, 55–6, fig. 37). Two of the Roman coins from the site were perforated, presumably for suspension, and may have been reused in the Anglo-Saxon period (see above).

Late Saxon, Saxo-Norman, Medieval, and Post-medieval Metalwork

Only 34 pieces of metalwork came from later, securely dated contexts and 27 of these are miscellaneous nails and fragments (archive). Twelve items that can be dated from the 13th century to the post-medieval period on stylistic criteria come from Spits 1, 2, and 3 in Area B1. The spits have been phased on the basis of pottery to Periods 2–4 but they also contain fairly high percentages of medieval and post-medieval pottery as well as intrusive metalwork.

An unstratified, decorated copper alloy strap-end (Fig. 46, 3) is similar to examples from Cheddar, Somerset (Wilson 1979, 282, fig. 95: 10) and Burford, Oxfordshire (Hinton 1974, 12). The punched decoration may be compared to the 'billeted cords' on a strap-end found at Youlgreave, Derbyshire, dated to the 9th century (Wilson 1964, 202, pl. xlii: 136). The decoration may be a very debased form of zoomorphic design with a stylised animal head motif at the terminal, such as have been found at Portchester Castle, Hampshire (Cunliffe 1976, 216, fig. 136: 49) and elsewhere. A second, unstratified copper alloy strap-end (Fig. 46, 4) is of a short-lived but popular type, introduced in the late 13th or early 14th century and continuing to the early 15th century (Egan and Pritchard 1991, 145–6).

A late Saxon/Saxo-Norman knife (Fig. 47, 13) has a perforated 'M'-shaped indentation in the cutting

edge of the blade to allow it to pivot into a handle. Similar examples occur at, for instance, Thetford, Norfolk (Goodall, I.H., 1984b, 81, fig. 122: 48, 49) and Abbots Worthy (Davies 1991, 42, fig. 33: 9), where they are dated to the 10th–11th centuries.

An iron whittle tang knife with an oval bolster between the blade and the tang also bears a cutler's mark (Fig. 47, 14). Bolsters between the tang and the blade were introduced in the early–mid 16th century (Goodall 1980, 510) while the cutler's mark is very similar to one on a late 14th century knife from London (Cowgill *et al.* 1987, fig. 6: 173); both are inlaid with copper/zinc alloy. A knife from a spit context in Area B1 also has a bolster between the blade and tang, providing a *terminus post quem* for this object of the early–mid 16th century. A fragment of a 13th century or later scale tang knife, a post-medieval knife with a solid iron handle, and a 16th century copper alloy knife handle (Fig. 46, 10) were also recovered.

The perforated and decorated sheet (Fig. 46, 9) from the Period 2 boundary ditch may have been a pommel mount. The distinctive decoration, formed of a double line of opposed, punched triangles, appears on artefacts dated from the late 12th–late 14th centuries (Egan and Pritchard 1991, 30, fig. 15: B).

A variety of other metal objects, mostly of iron, were recovered. Very few of these are from closely datable contexts and they probably include some residual Saxon objects. They comprise an iron spoon of probable mid- or late Saxon date (Fig. 47, 4); a decorated, white metal plated strip fitting (Fig. 47, 17); a stapled hasp (Fig. 47, 15); a ?binding strip (Fig. 47, 18); a ?hinge pivot (Fig. 47, 16); a white metal plated prick-spur of probable 10th–11th century date (Fig. 47, 27); a short-bodied rowel spur of probable 17th century date (S. Margeson, pers. comm.) (Fig. 47, 28); five arrowheads (Fig. 48) including two post-13th century hunting types (Ward Perkins 1940, 68, figs 16: 3; Fig. 48, 1, 3) and a cross-bow arrowhead (Fig. 48, 2) of possible 15th century date (ibid., 68, 70). Other finds include heckle teeth, horseshoes, heel-irons and two medieval keys. There is, in addition, a range of tools including awls, chisels, a gouge, a hammer, a plummet, a pair of pliers, wedges, axes, sickles or scythes, a saw, and a pair of shears, as well as a variety of nails and miscellaneous fragments.

Metalworking evidence

The analysis of the slag from Market Lavington showed that there was a low level background scatter of smithing slag over the whole site. This consisted of 263 fragments weighing 10 kg, with slight concentrations occurring in Period 5 contexts (60 frags/2.5 kg) but mostly in unphased contexts with quantities insufficient to suggest that smithing was taking place on the site. Similarly, there is little in the metalwork to suggest that metalworking was an important activity at Market Lavington. Two small pieces of iron bar which may represent raw material for smithing were recovered, one from an unphased context and the other from a spit context. Three possible knife blanks may represent unfinished objects manufactured on site, though they may have been purchased from a local smith for later finishing.

List of Illustrated Metalwork

(Fig. 46)

Copper alloy objects

1. Pendant. Cat. No. 20; Obj. No. 13; Context 602; Test Pit B; Unphased.
2. Strap-end. Cat. No. 21; Obj. No. 5069; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Sample 9404; Area B1; Period 2.
3. Strap-end. Cat. No. 22; Obj. No. 119; Unstratified.
4. Strap-end. Cat. No. 23; Obj. No. 70; Context 1007; Area A; Unphased.
5. Pin. Cat. No. 25; Obj. No. 201; Spit 1; Context 10296; Area B1; Unphased.
6. Pin. Cat. No. 24; Obj. No. 5050; Pit 13745; Context 13744; Area B1; Period 2.
7. Ring. Cat. No. 30; Obj. No. 98; Pit 1053; Context 1014; Area A; Period 4.
8. Bracelet frag. Cat. No. 36; Obj. No. 396; Spit 2; Context 11114; Area B1; Unphased.
9. ?Pommel mount. Cat. No. 37; Obj. No. 436; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B1; Period 2.
10. ?Knife handle cover. Cat. No. 38; Obj. No. 5063; Group Context 3072; Ditch 3069; Context 3070; Area C1; Period 5.
11. Fitting. Cat. No. 46; Obj. No. 12; Context 1008; Area A; Unphased.
12. Strip fragment, possibly from a bracelet. Cat. No. 48; Obj. No. 397; Spit 1; Context 10551; Area B1; Unphased.
13. Sheet object. Cat. No. 50; Obj. No. 448; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B1; Period 2.
14. Unidentified object. Cat. No. 55; Obj. No. 116; Context 1009; Area A; Unphased.

(Fig. 47)

Iron objects

1. Awl. Cat. No. 74; Obj. No. 5111; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B1; Period 2.
2. Bladed tool. Cat. No. 93; Obj. No. 230; Unstratified.
3. Heckle tooth. Cat. No. 94; Obj. No. 5071; SFB 3; Context 13778; Area B1; Period 2.
4. Spoon. Cat. No. 99; Obj. No. 9; Context 1009; Area A; Unphased.
5. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 100; Obj. No. 38; Ditch 1031; Context 1030; Area A; Period 2.

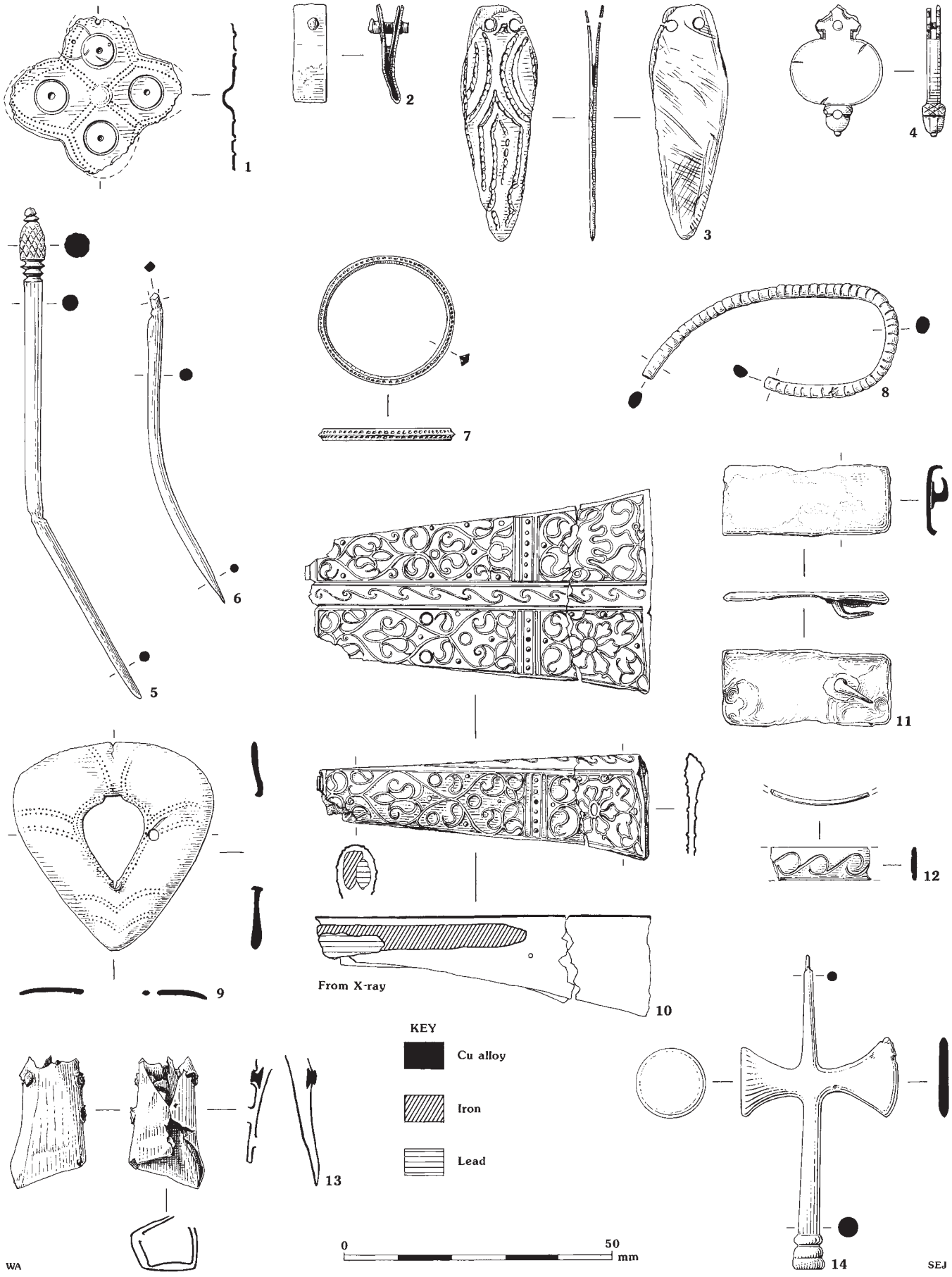

Figure 46 Copper alloy objects from non-funerary contexts

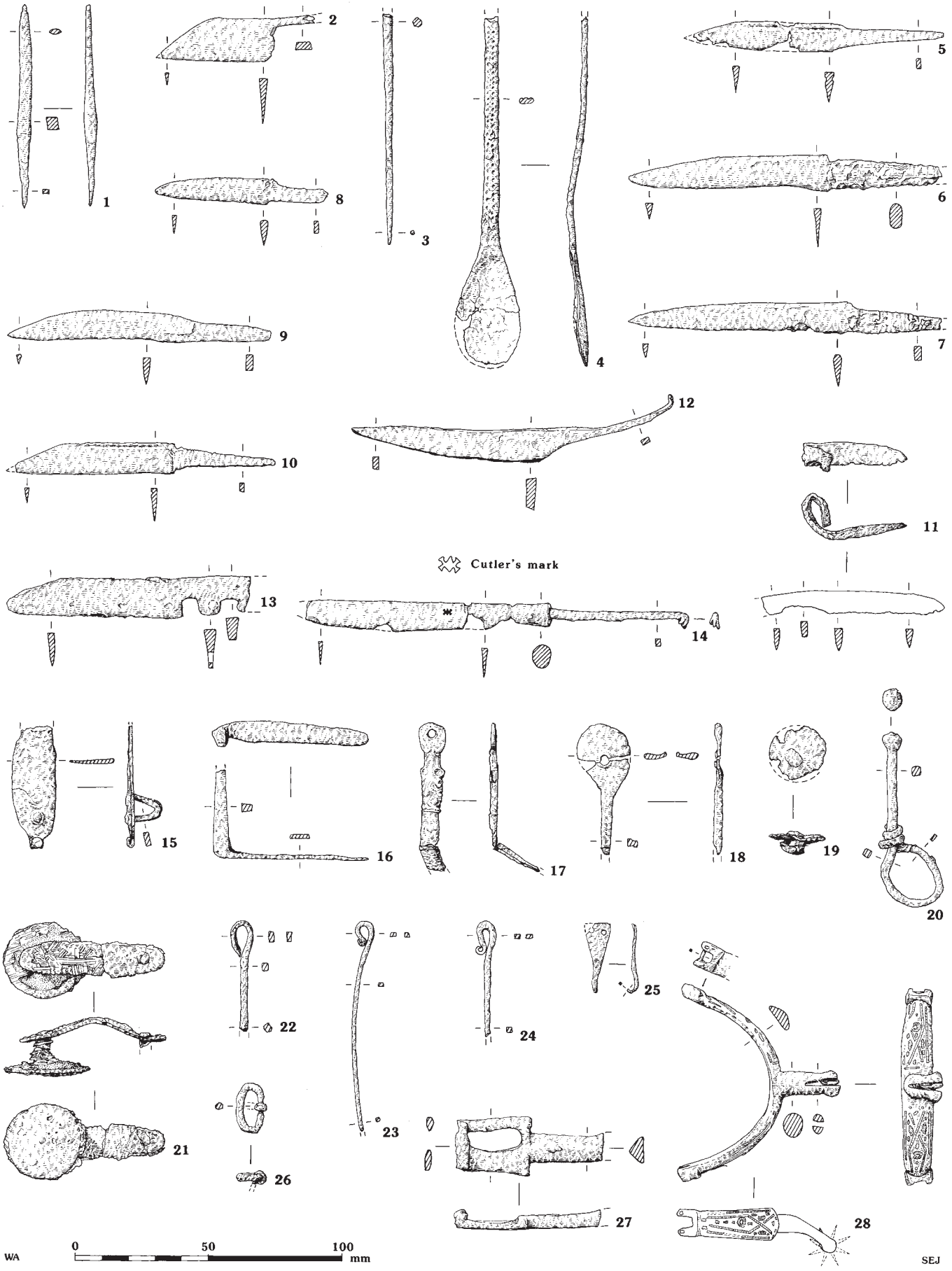

Figure 47 Iron objects from non-funerary contexts

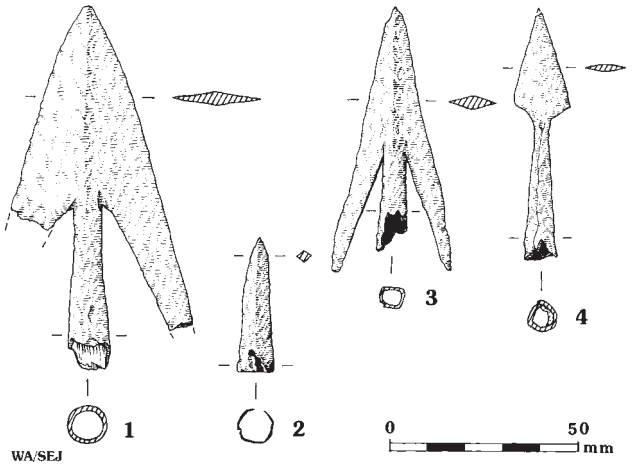

Figure 48 Arrowheads

6. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 114; Obj. No. 219; Spit 1; Context 10470; Area B1; Unphased.
7. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 113; Obj. No. 218; Spit 1; Context 10360; Area B1; Unphased.
8. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 111; Obj. No. 220; Spit 1; Context 10241; Area B1; Unphased.
9. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 115; Obj. No. 226; Spit 1; Context 10576; Area B1; Unphased.
10. Whittle tang knife. Cat. No. 118; Obj. No. 434; Spit 3; Context 12159; Area B1; Unphased.
11. Blade fragment. Cat. No. 101; Obj. No. 4113; Context 603; Test Pit B; Unphased.
12. Knife blank. Cat. No. 108; Obj. No. 136; Spit 1; Context 10000; Area B1; Unphased.
13. Pivoting knife blade. Cat. No. 119; Obj. No. 5022; Spit 2; Context 14135; Area B2; Unphased.
14. Whittle tang knife with oval bolster and cutler's mark. Cat. No. 105; Obj. No. 103; Context 1026; Area A; Unphased.
15. Stapled hasp. Cat. No. 127; Obj. No. 222; Spit 1; Context 10595; Area B1; Unphased.
16. Fitting. Cat. No. 128; Obj. No. 5065; Ditch 13703; Context 13702; Area B1; Period 4.
17. Fitting. Cat. No. 132. Obj. No. 106; Context 1009; Area A; Unphased.
18. Fitting. Cat. No. 138; Obj. No. 5116; Spit 3; Context 12574; Area B1; Unphased.
19. ?Shield-stud. Cat. No.142; Obj. No. 5070; SFB 3; Context 13750; Area B1; Period 2.
20. Swivel hook. Cat. No. 155; Obj. No. 5054; Ditch 13705; Context 13704; Area B1; Period 2.
21. Shield-fitting. Cat. No. 178; Obj. No. 85; Ditch 1031; Context 1030; Area A; Period 2.
22. Pin. Cat. No. 179; Obj. No. 206; Ditch 1130; Context 1128; Area A; Period 2.
23. Pin. Cat. No.183; Obj. No. 215; Spit 1; Context 10253; Area B1; Unphased.
24. Pin. Cat. No. 186; Obj. No. 416; Spit 2; Context 11532; Area B1; Unphased.
25. Hooked tag. Cat. No. 187; Obj. No. 5112; Unstratified.
26. Buckle. Cat. No. 190; Obj. No. 449; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B1; Period 2.
27. Prick spur terminal. Cat. No. 205; Obj. No. 384; Context 1146; Area A; Unphased.
28. Rowel spur. Cat. No. 206; Obj. No. 216; Spit 1; Context 10494; Area B1; Unphased.

(Fig. 48)
Iron arrowheads
1. Cat. No. 207; Obj. No. 199; Context 1172; Area A; Unphased.
2. Cat. No. 209; Obj. No. 5115; Spit 3; Context 12302; Area B1; Unphased.
3. Cat. No. 210; Obj. No. 232; Unstratified.
4. Cat. No. 211; Obj. No. 389; Unstratified.

4. Amber

by Julie Lancley [1992]

Amber beads were recovered from five graves and two non-grave contexts, representing a total of 108 items. The beads have been subdivided into three groups on the basis of shape, although some of the divisions between the groups, are fairly subjective, since the beads show little sign of standardisation.

1. Irregularly-shaped, sub-spherical with oval or sub-rectangular section, sometimes with flattened ends. Diam. 7–16 mm, length 10–20 mm (eg, grave 8, Fig. 34).
2. Small, irregular, as above. Diam. 7 mm (eg, grave 8, Fig. 34).
3. Wedge-shaped, circular section, wedge-shaped profile. Diam. 12–23 mm, max. thickness of 7.5–10 mm (eg, grave 36, Fig. 40).

The beads of Types 1 and 2 do not appear to have been deliberately shaped, apart from some flattening of the ends. Irregular beads of Type 1 are the most commonly occurring type (97; 90%); Type 2 beads occur only in the two largest grave groups (graves 8 and 36; 3 examples (3%)), and Type 3 only in grave 36 (5; 5%). A similar range of shapes, in similar proportions, was found at Portway, Andover (Cook 1985, 87).

In the five graves containing amber beads (graves 7, 8, 11, 24, 36), they occurred either singly (grave 24) or as multiples of between 3 and 61 beads. Graves 8 and 11 also contained glass beads. In only two cases could the sex of the inhumation be determined and in both cases the individual was female (graves 8 and 36), although the presence of a pair of large saucer brooches in grave 7 might indicate that this individual also was female. The beads from grave 11 were recovered from a ditch cutting the burial and their original position can only be inferred as somewhere

on the upper half of the body. In the other four graves, all the beads were recovered mainly from the upper chest area, although the large group from grave 36 (61 beads) covered the whole body above the pelvis. In grave 7 a line of beads, representing a strung length, appeared to join a pair of brooches. The two large groups (graves 8 and 36) were scattered over the body, which could indicate either that a necklace had been deliberately or accidentally broken during burial or later disturbance, or that the beads were originally sewn onto a garment or covering cloth.

Of the two beads from non-grave contexts, one is a Type 1 (diam. 10 mm) from Period 2 gully 1041 in Area A and the other is an unphased broken fragment.

5. Glass

by Julie Lancley, with XRF analysis by Catherine Mortimer [1992]

Beads

Glass beads were recovered from six graves, and also from one non-grave context, representing a total of 31 objects, including one rim fragment from a Romano-British glass vessel apparently reused as a bead. X-ray fluorescence analysis (XRF) was carried out on 17 selected beads to determine colouring and opacifying elements present.

Beads occurred singly (graves 5 and 16), or as multiples of up to 13 beads in grave contexts. The largest groups, in graves 8 (13 beads) and 36 (9 beads) were associated with amber beads and this was also the case for grave 11. This grave was cut by ditch 1041 (Period 2) so the surviving beads of both glass and amber are likely to represent only a portion of the original number. The examples of single monochrome beads were found with one ?male burial (grave 16), where the position of the bead was not recorded, and one child (grave 5, Fig. 32; Obj. No. 58), where the bead was found behind the shoulder. The position of the beads in grave 8 can be inferred only as on the upper half of the unsexed skeleton (Fig. 25). The three remaining burials are all female (graves 8, 36), or probably female (grave 4). In grave 4 two beads were found adhering to the back of one of a pair of brooches and may originally have been strung either from one brooch, or between the pair (Fig. 27). In grave 36, the beads were found scattered, together with a large group of amber beads, across the upper half of the body (Fig. 29).

Monochrome and polychrome beads are both represented and most of the bead types present are commonly found within early Saxon contexts throughout England, for example at Alton (Evison 1988), Sewerby (Hirst 1985), and Portway, Andover (Cook 1985).

The 19 monochrome beads (63%) include three bead forms which were produced from at least the Romano-British though into the Saxon period. Blue annular beads, occurring in three graves and one non-grave context at Market Lavington, were in use from the 6th century BC to the 8th century AD (Guido 1978, 66–8) and are very common on Anglo-Saxon sites. They have been found in graves dating to the 5th century at Mucking, Essex, although they are more commonly of a 7th century date. It has been suggested, using evidence from the cemetery at Sewerby, that this bead type was linked to status, on the basis of lack of association with elaborate polychrome beads (Hirst 1985, 75). However, this does not appear to occur within the assemblage at Portway, where the occurrence is more random (Cook 1985, 82) and the same appears to be true at Market Lavington, although the numbers of beads involved are much smaller. Here, one grave (No. 8) of the three with blue annular beads also contained polychrome beads. Melon beads first appear during the 2nd century AD then reappear in a much coarser style in the 5th century. This difference is well illustrated by the three examples from Market Lavington. That from grave 36 (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 357) is much finer in appearance than the two beads from grave 8 (Fig. 34, Obj. Nos 5118, 5119) and, therefore, probably of Roman origin, reused in the early Saxon period. XRF analysis revealed a fairly strong blue-green colour with a crystalline surface, suggesting a faience composition, rather than true glass. Iron, tin, and copper were detected; both tin and copper may have caused opacity and copper may have affected the colouring.

Blue drawn cylinder beads also date from the 2nd century AD (Guido 1978, 94–5) through to the Anglo-Saxon period. They are present at Alton, where comparison with dated examples from Dover has given a date range of AD 475–575. All four examples of this type at Market Lavington occur in grave 36 (Fig. 40, Obj. Nos 358, 457, 479, 493). XRF analysis revealed that No. 493 contains antimony, which is unusual in the Anglo-Saxon period and may indicate an earlier, and possibly Mediterranean, origin. Also of a probable 4th–5th century date is the small, pale blue biconical bead from grave 8 which also contained antimony (Fig. 34, 62).

Other monochrome beads include four examples of translucent green/yellow beads: two annular and one cylindrical from grave 8 (Fig. 34, Obj. Nos 5113, 5114, 5116) and a crushed example from grave 16 (Fig. 35, Obj. No. 158); a small, annular, opaque red bead from grave 8 (Fig. 34, Obj. No. 5115) and a small, clear glass bead (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 5002) with a segmented pattern in relief from grave 36.

One segmented cylindrical bead of clear glass had a significant gold content (grave 36, Fig. 40, Obj. No.

368), demonstrating that gold leaf was included in its manufacture. It also seems to have a very high manganese content, which could explain the clearness of the glass, since manganese is an excellent clarifier and suggests deliberate addition. Gold-in-glass beads are frequently found in Anglo-Saxon graves and examples are known elsewhere in Wiltshire at Winterbourne Gunner and Collingbourne Ducis (Cook 1985, 82). These beads have a long history and are known from the Ptolemaic period in Egypt. They are found in late Roman and post-Roman graves in this country, but it is uncertain whether the later examples are Roman survivals or newly manufactured (Boon 1977; Guido 1978, 94).

Nine polychrome beads were recovered from graves 4, 8, and 11. These beads have been compared with examples from Sewerby and Portway where the beads have been dated using parallels from the Continent (Hirst 1985, 62–70; Cook 1985, 82, but see cautionary note on the dating from Schretzheim). Beads representing four of the nine groups defined at Portway are present at Market Lavington, corresponding to Cook's groups 1 (single wave decoration; 3 examples), 3 (interlacing wavy lines with spots; 4 examples), 7 (zig-zag decoration; 1 example), and 8 (spots; 1 example). The spotted bead from grave 11 (Fig. 35, Obj. No. 100) is made of translucent blue glass on which the large grey spots are lead- and tin-rich and must, therefore, be made of tin-opacified leaded glass. They may originally have been yellow or white. None of these groups is dated earlier than the mid 6th century at Schretzheim, and groups 1 and 7 extend into the 7th century (ibid.).

Evison (1988, 16) suggested that the lack of complex polychrome beads and their single occurrence in graves at Portway indicated that they were either expensive or difficult to acquire. The evidence from Market Lavington is more difficult to assess, since the original size of the cemetery is unknown, but here the proportion of polychrome beads is much greater than that at Alton (9 out of 31 glass beads (29%), compared with 18 out of 302 (6%) at Alton) and where polychrome beads did occur, they did not occur singly.

The site produced several dark, opaque-red/brown cylindrical beads (eg. Fig. 34, 5116, 5117). Despite all appearances, Obj. No. 5116 is made of a translucent greenish glass, whose corrosion products happen to mimic opaque red glass. No. 5117 appears to be a translucent orange-brown glass with swirls of yellow/white glass in the surface. However, this impression too may be erroneous. Light shining through the sides of the bead may be coloured since it must pass through layers of dark red corrosion products – the glass may be very lightly coloured. It was difficult to analyse the bulk of the glass and the yellow/white trailed glass separately but the decorative swirls are likely to be made of tin-opacified glass. One fragment of vessel glass was discovered adhering to the back of a brooch from grave 4 (Fig. 31, Obj. No. 5072), together with a polychrome bead. The fragment is part of a folded rim in a translucent glass with a bluish tinge and is probably originally of Romano-British date.

Vessel/Window Glass

A total of 73 fragments (134 g) of vessel/window glass was recovered including post-medieval bottle glass. Three very small fragments were recovered from phased contexts, including one possible vessel fragment (Period 7). Also present are two fragments of painted window glass, one unphased and one from ditch 1109 (Period 5), which is likely to be 13th century or later and probably originates from the church.

6. Pottery

by Lorraine Mepham [1992]

The pottery assemblage comprises 3198 sherds, with a total weight of 25,796 g. This assemblage was derived from all excavated areas of the site and includes material from unstratified cleaning layers, from stratified feature fills, from arbitrary spits excavated in Areas B1 and B2, and from test pits, also excavated in spits, across Areas B and C.

The bulk of the assemblage is dated to the Saxon and medieval periods but there are also smaller groups of prehistoric and Romano-British material, most of which can be regarded as redeposited, and a number of post-medieval sherds (Table 8). This report concentrates particularly on the Saxon assemblage and the remaining material is discussed in less detail.

In general, the condition of the assemblage is fairly good but variations have been observed between different areas of the site. While sherds excavated from spits and features in Areas B1 and B2 are generally in good condition, relatively large and unabraded, in other areas of the site preservation is poorer and the sherds are smaller and more abraded. These variations, and their implications for site formation processes, are discussed in more detail below, but it should be noted at this point that the poor condition of sherds in some areas of the site has inevitably led to difficulties during the recording of fabric types and vessel forms.

Methods

The assemblage was examined according to the standard Wessex Archaeology guidelines for the analysis of pottery (Morris 1992). The initial step involved the division of the assemblage into fabric types. Using a binocular microscope (x20 magnification), the pottery was sorted into 78 separate fabric types, on the basis of the range and coarseness of inclusions, or, in the case of post-medieval sherds, according to known type. These 78 fabrics fall into six broad fabric groups, according to the dominant inclusion type, or known source: Group C (fabrics with calcareous inclusions); Group E ('established' wares, ie those of known type or source); Group F (flint-gritted); Group G (grog-tempered); Group Q (sandy); Group V (organic temper). All fabric types were assigned a unique alpha-numeric code, combining a letter signifying broad fabric group with a chronologically significant number of up to three digits. Thus, prehistoric fabrics are numbered 1–99; Romano-British fabrics 100–399; post-Roman (Anglo-Saxon and later medieval) fabrics 400–599; and post-medieval fabrics 600–899. A few fabric types could not be attributed to any period; these are numbered 900 onwards.

The poor condition of some of the sherds has, as already mentioned, hampered classification; this and other factors affecting the assignation of sherds to the various fabric types are discussed in detail below within the various period sections. All fabric types, together with total counts and weights for each, are listed in Table 8 by chronological period. A reference collection of fabric samples has been retained by Wessex Archaeology.

In order to test the validity of the fabric divisions and also to attempt to define possible source areas, 25 fabric samples were selected from the Saxon and medieval assemblages for petrological analysis. This was carried out by D.F. Williams of the University of Southampton. His full report is presented below.

The second stage of analysis concerned the creation of type series for rim, base, and handle forms from all periods except the post-medieval. As far as possible, these were related to vessel forms. Because of its small size and relatively poorly-stratified nature, this exercise was not carried out for the post-medieval assemblage. A type series was also created for decorative motifs for the Saxon and medieval assemblages. All these variables were coded for entry on to a database (dBase IV), together with details of rim and base diameters where appropriate, surface treatments, manufacturing technique, cross-context joins, and evidence of use (residues, perforations, etc.). The whole assemblage was quantified by fabric type within each context; a full record can be found in the archive.

The pottery is discussed by chronological period below. In the fabric descriptions, the following terms are used to describe the frequency of inclusions, with the percentages calculated macroscopically from the area on a freshly broken edge and by comparison with frequency charts (Morris 1992): rare (1–3%); sparse (3–10%); moderate (10–20%); common (20–30%). All other percentages mentioned in the text are given by weight, unless otherwise stated. The term 'soft' is used to describe fabrics which can be scratched with a fingernail; 'hard' fabrics can be scratched with a metal blade but not a fingernail; 'very hard' fabrics cannot be scratched by a metal blade.

Prehistoric

Fabrics

Three fabrics were defined as prehistoric.

G1. Soft; fine-grained clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular to subrounded grog <2 mm; rare iron oxides and mica. Handmade; oxidised with unoxidised core.

G2. Soft; soapy feel; fine-grained clay matrix; common, fairly well-sorted, subangular to subrounded grog <1 mm; rare rounded quartz <0.5 mm; very rare subangular flint <1 mm; very rare iron oxides. Handmade; oxidised with unoxidised core. Beaker.

Q1. Soft; sandy feel; moderately fine-grained clay matrix; moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; sparse possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised black throughout.

Fabric G2 is represented by a single, very abraded body sherd, decorated with square-toothed comb impressions; identified as a sherd from a Beaker vessel. The other grog-tempered fabric, G1, may also be of similar, or slightly later date within the Early Bronze Age; no diagnostic sherds are present.

In macroscopic terms and even when viewed with the binocular microscope, there is little or no distinction between fabric Q1 and the Saxon fabric Q400, and the former has been defined solely on the basis of form. The single sherd representing this fabric is a finger-impressed rim sherd (Fig. 50, 1), which has a suggested date of Early–Middle Iron Age; comparable examples have been found elsewhere in Wiltshire, for example at Budbury, where they were dated to the Early Iron Age (Wainwright 1970, fig. 11).

It is possible, therefore, that other sherds within fabric Q400 may also belong to the same type; in the absence of clearly diagnostic forms, however, this is impossible to prove. For example, a finger-impressed body sherd, assigned to fabric Q400, may also be of Late Bronze Age/Iron Age date but equally would not be out of place in a Saxon context.

One further grog-tempered fabric (G900) could be of prehistoric date but due to the complete lack of

Table 8. Pottery: fabric totals by period

Fabric	*No.*	*Weight (g)*	*% wt of period total*
Prehistoric			
G1	9	23	57.5
G2	1	8	20.0
Q1	1	9	22.5
Total	11	40	
Period 1: Romano-British			
Black Burnished ware	95	1465	25.8
Rhenish ware	3	7	0.1
New Forest fineware	21	211	3.7
Oxford fineware	11	66	1.2
Amphora	1	84	1.5
Samian	31	216	3.8
F100	8	25	0.4
G100	27	743	13.1
G101	39	338	6.0
G102	5	53	1.0
Q100	69	1022	18.0
Q101	80	624	11.0
Q102	22	629	11.1
Q103	2	39	0.7
Q104	33	155	2.7
Total	447	5677	
Periods 2–3: Early–Mid-Saxon			
C406	2	74	0.8
F402	33	180	1.8
Q400	152	679	6.9
Q402	46	314	3.2
Q404	6	50	0.5
Q413	54	223	2.3
V400	177	1728	17.6
V401	427	4181	42.7
V402	40	414	4.2
V403	216	1585	16.2
V404	55	323	3.3
V405	7	53	0.5
Total	1215	9804	
Period 4: Late Saxon/Saxo-Norman			
Cheddar B	14	137	9.5
C400	26	102	7.1
C402	15	129	9.0
C403	86	715	49.6
C404	3	59	4.1
C405	11	91	6.3
F400	9	65	4.5
F401	5	26	1.8
Q406	17	117	8.1
Total	186	1441	
Periods 5–6: Medieval			
Laverstock finewares	13	120	1.9
Laverstock coarsewares	154	1127	17.5
Lacock wares	83	771	12.0
C401	34	196	3.0
C407	2	104	1.6
Q401	412	1824	28.2
Q403	139	834	13.0
Q405	3	32	0.5
Q407	44	435	6.8
Q408	24	154	2.4
Q409	13	102	1.6
Q410	26	144	2.2
Q411	4	20	0.3
Q412	96	580	9.0
Total	1047	6443	
Period 7: Post-medieval			
Red wares	84	1029	44.7
Verwood-type	74	848	36.9
Staffs-type slipwares	7	56	2.4
Tin glaze	4	10	0.4
Fine white wares	68	134	5.8
Creamware	5	10	0.4
Pearlware	1	4	0.2
Whieldon-type ware	1	1	0.1
Stonewares unspec.	4	76	3.3
Raeren stoneware	2	31	1.4
English stonewares	14	67	2.9
White saltglaze	5	7	0.3
Basalt ware	1	8	0.4
Bone china	7	19	0.8
Total	277	2300	
Uncertain date			
F900	8	57	62.6
F901	6	31	34.1
G900	1	3	3.3
Total	15	91	

diagnostic material, and the small size of the single representative sherd, it has been classified as of unknown date (see below).

Distribution on site

All the prehistoric pottery occurred as redeposited sherds in later contexts, mostly from the spit contexts in Area B1; all sherds are small and abraded to varying degrees. Their presence on site, however, combined with the lithic evidence (Healy, this volume), demonstrates at least a low level of activity during the prehistoric period.

Period 1: Romano-British

Fabrics

Fifteen Romano-British fabrics were identified. Six of these are of known type, mainly fine wares. Colour-coated wares from both the New Forest and Oxfordshire production centres are present in small quantities and include mortaria, beakers, and bowls imitating samian forms; these wares can be dated to the later Roman period (Fulford 1975; Young 1977). A few sherds of Rhenish ware, from vessels of unknown form, are of mid 2nd–mid 3rd century date (Greene 1978). Samian is present in slightly larger quantities. Recognisable vessels include common bowl forms 18, 31, and 33). There is also a single sherd of a southern Spanish Dressel 20 amphora.

Coarsewares of known type are represented by Black Burnished ware (BB1) from the Poole Harbour area (Farrar 1977; Williams 1977). Vessel forms identified cover the whole Romano-British period and include bead rim jars, dog dishes, flanged and drop-flanged bowls, a fish dish, and everted rim jars (Fig. 49, 4–7). Black Burnished ware makes up nearly one-third of the coarseware assemblage and this relatively high proportion is perhaps surprising given the distance from the source area (*c.* 60 km), and the existence of possible coarseware production centres much closer to the site (see below). Comparative information from other Romano-British sites in Wiltshire is scarce but recently excavated assemblages from the Amesbury area at Butterfield Down and Figheldean contained much lower proportions of Black Burnished ware (5.2% and 11.3% by number of sherds respectively; Millard 1996; Mepham 1993a). At a third site near Warminster, however, Black Burnished ware did account for the largest number of sherds within the Romano-British assemblage (20.4% by number of sherds; Mepham and Morris 1992).

The remaining nine fabrics are of unknown source.

F100. Soft; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular flint <2 mm; rare rounded quartz; rare possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised throughout.

G100. Soft; slightly soapy feel; fine, dense clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular to subrounded grog <2 mm; very rare subangular flint <2 mm; rare rounded quartz; rare iron oxides and possible glauconite. Handmade; oxidised and unoxidised examples.

G101. Soft; soapy feel; fine, dense clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular to subrounded grog <1 mm; rare rounded quartz; rare mica. Handmade; generally unoxidised but some patchy oxidisation.

G102. Soft; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subrounded grog <2 mm; sparse subangular flint <1 mm; sparse rounded quartz <0.5 mm; sparse iron oxides. Handmade; unoxidised with partially oxidised surfaces.

Q100. General type for all fine greywares; smooth or powdery feel; rare rounded quartz <0.25 mm; glauconite and mica may be present.

Q101. General type for all moderately coarse grey wares; sandy feel; common, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm.

Q102. General type for all coarse greywares; sandy feel; common, fairly well-sorted rounded quartz <1 mm; mica, iron oxides and possible glauconite may also be present.

Q103. Soft; smooth feel; fine, dense clay matrix; moderate, well-sorted rounded quartz <0.25 mm; moderate red iron oxides; sparse mica. Wheelthrown; oxidised salmon pink/orange.

Q104. Very hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; rare rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare mica and iron oxides. Wheelthrown; oxidised, occasionally with unoxidised core. Sometimes white-slipped.

The flint-gritted and grog-tempered fabrics occur in bead rim jar forms and the coarse grog-tempered fabric G100 is also used for large storage jars; these four fabrics would seem to be of early Roman date (1st–2nd century AD). The sandy fabrics cover a wider range, and vessel forms recognised, mostly everted rim jars, include both early and late Roman forms (Fig. 49, 1–3).

The sources of these wares are uncertain and the general fabric types Q100, Q101, and Q102 may of course each include wares from more than one source. However, the presence of possible glauconite in fabrics Q100 and Q102 may indicate a source on or near areas of greensand, which outcrops on the site and throughout the north and west of Wiltshire and in which glauconitic sands can be found. One centre of greyware manufacture has been defined in north Wiltshire (Anderson, A.S. 1979) and another potential centre has been identified at Westbury (Rogers and Roddham 1991), although in neither case has petrological analysis been employed to confirm the presence or absence of glauconite.

Distribution on site

Only three Romano-British features were identified on the site, and of these, only two contained any pottery. Pit 1061, cut by the access road in Area A, produced 77 sherds (1831 g), predominantly late Roman coarse- and finewares in large, relatively unabraded sherds (mean sherd weight 24.0 g). These included greyware jars (38 sherds; Fig. 49, 1–2) and flagons (Fig. 49, 3); everted rim jars, including an unusual handled form (Fig. 49, 4–5), a drop-flanged bowl (Fig. 49, 6) and a fish dish (Fig. 49, 7) in Black Burnished ware (30 sherds); body sherds of New Forest finewares (8 sherds; Fig. 49, 9–11); and part of

a samian dish (Drag. 18/31) with a repair hole (Fig. 49, 8). Pit 3062 in Area C1 contained a single Black Burnished ware rim sherd from a flanged bowl, a type dated to the second half of the 2nd century (Seager Smith and Davies 1993, type 22). No Romano-British sherds were recovered from Structure 1 in the cemetery area.

Apart from these contexts, the Romano-British pottery from the site occurred as redeposited sherds, mainly from spit contexts in Area B1 and from features in all post-Roman phases. These sherds, with a mean weight of 10.3 g, show a markedly greater degree of abrasion than those from pit 1061.

There is evidence, then, certainly for late Roman activity on the site itself, with a general background scatter of earlier Roman material presumably deriving from the general vicinity. Some continuity of occupation from the early Roman to the late Roman period on the site itself may be suggested by the presence of the repaired samian in pit 1061.

Some evidence for the reuse of Romano-British sherds was noted from Area B1. Two bases, one in samian and one in Oxford red-slipped ware, may have been deliberately cut down to a roughly circular shape and the Oxford ware sherd has a design incised on the underside of the base (Fig. 50, 2). The reuse of Romano-British pottery has been identified on other early Saxon sites, for example at West Stow in Suffolk, where it is suggested that the late Roman assemblage might be at least partly the result of the deliberate collection and, in some cases, the reuse of Roman pottery by the Anglo-Saxon inhabitants (Plouviez 1985).

The evidence from Market Lavington, however, is more ambiguous, since most of the Romano-British pottery derives from (unphased) spit contexts in Area B1 and there is no discernible correlation between Romano-British sherds and early/mid-Saxon features. Although the proportion of finewares is relatively high (*c.* 12% by weight; *c.* 16% by count), this is not comparable to the figures from West Stow, where the finewares made up over 90% of the late Roman assemblage (Plouviez 1985). The proportion of finewares at Market Lavington could equally well be a reflection of some relatively high status of Romano-British occupation in the vicinity and could have entered the archaeological record on the site through normal discard processes. This is supported by the comparable proportion of fine wares in pit 1061 (9 sherds out of 77 (11.7%)). Bearing these qualifications in mind, the collection of Romano-British artefacts during the Saxon period is supported by the presence of Roman coins, some pierced for suspension, in Saxon features (Davies, this volume) and the reuse of Romano-British glass (Lancley, this volume).

Periods 2–3: Early–Mid-Saxon

The early–mid-Saxon pottery makes up just over one-third of the total assemblage and its significance in terms of size may be appreciated by comparison with other Saxon material known from Wiltshire. This is (in 1995) the largest domestic early–mid-Saxon assemblage so far known from the county (1215 sherds; 9804 g: see Table 8). Other, much smaller, unstratified groups have been recovered from Downton, Ogbourne St George, and Westbury (Fowler 1966). Pottery has also been recovered in very small quantities from pagan Saxon cemeteries at Blackpatch, Pewsey, and from Petersfinger, Clarendon Park (Leeds and Shortt 1953); selected vessels from both sites are illustrated by Myres (1977). Elsewhere in Wessex, the early Saxon settlement at Old Down Farm, Andover yielded *c.* 7000 g of pottery (Davies 1980), while the settlement at Cowdery's Down near Basingstoke produced only 146 sherds (Millett and James 1983).

It might be hoped, then, that the Market Lavington assemblage would provide some much needed chronological information regarding the ceramic sequence during the Saxon period in Wiltshire, particularly since it appears that both early–mid- and late Saxon pottery is present, as well as functional and technological information derived from the vessels themselves. The difficulties of extracting any of this information are discussed below.

Fabrics

Twelve fabric types were assigned to the early–mid-Saxon period. A single sample of each fabric was selected for petrological analysis by D.F. Williams; the results are discussed below and full details can be found in archive. The term 'organically-tempered' is used in preference to 'grass-' or 'chaff-tempered', terms traditionally used to describe early and mid-Saxon pottery with organic temper, but shown to be something of a misnomer (Brisbane 1981, 235). Organic tempering can include grass, chaff, and fern, as well as cereal grains and grass seeds.

C406. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular limestone <1 mm; moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare iron oxides. Handmade; oxidised.

F402. Soft; sandy feel; moderate, moderately fine clay matrix, poorly-sorted, subangular flint <3 mm; moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; sparse probable glauconite. Handmade; oxidised and unoxidised examples.

Q400. Soft; sandy feel; fine, dense clay matrix containing moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare mica and glauconite. Handmade; irregular firing. Surfaces occasionally wiped.

Q402. Soft; smooth feel; very fine, dense clay matrix; common, well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; sparse mica; rare glauconite. Handmade; generally unoxidised; some surface wiping; frequently burnished.

Q404. Hard; sandy feel; fine, dense clay matrix; common, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare mica, iron oxides and glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised with unoxidised margins. Frequently burnished; a coarser version of Q400?

Q413. Hard; sandy feel; fine, dense clay matrix, common, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare to sparse subangular flint <2 mm; rare mica and glauconite. Handmade; generally unoxidised. Coarser version of Q400?

V400. Coarse; soapy feel; fine, dense clay matrix; common, poorly-sorted organic material (grass or straw?) <5 mm; rare mica. Handmade; firing irregular but predominantly unoxidised. Frequently burnished, interior often wiped.

V401. Hard; slightly sandy feel; matrix and inclusions as V400 with addition of moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm, and rare glauconite. Handmade; firing as V400. Occasionally burnished.

V402. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted organic material <5 mm; moderate, fairly well-sorted rounded quartz grains <1 mm. Handmade; irregular firing.

V403. Soft; smooth feel; very fine, dense clay matrix; sparse, poorly-sorted organic material <3 mm; rare mica. Handmade; irregular firing. Frequently burnished. Finer version of V400?

V404. Soft; smooth feel; very fine, dense clay matrix; rare organic material <3 mm; rare rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare mica. Handmade; irregular firing. As Q400 but with organic material.

V405. Soft; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted organic material <5 mm; sparse, poorly-sorted subangular flint, some calcined, <4 mm; sparse mica and probable glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised exterior.

With the exception of one fabric with calcareous inclusions (C406), and one flint-gritted fabric (F402), the Saxon fabrics fall into two main groups: sandy and organically-tempered, with the latter predominating. However, within these groups, the divisions between the various fabric types are not always clear-cut and it would seem that the types really represent arbitrary divisions along a continuous spectrum of variation, rather than discrete types. Even the distinction between sandy and organically-tempered fabrics is not always easy to define, particularly between the fine organically-tempered fabric V404 and the sandy fabric Q400. The same applies to the distinction between the sandy fabric Q413 and the flint-gritted fabric F402. It should be borne in mind, therefore, that the degree of confidence attached to the assignation of sherds to fabric types within the Anglo-Saxon assemblage is not as great as, for example, for the later medieval assemblage.

Manufacture

This lack of well-defined fabric types might be expected from an assemblage which derived essentially from many local individuals making vessels for their own use, ie, a household level of production (Peacock 1982, 8). There is nothing amongst the Saxon assemblage from Market Lavington to contradict this supposition. The use of bonfire or clamp kilns is indicated by the irregular firing conditions reflected in the patchy and inconsistent surface colouring of the sherds and the relative softness of the fabrics (most can be scratched with a fingernail). A household level of manufacture appears to be the normal mode of production for early and mid-Saxon domestic wares in the south and west of England (eg, Davies 1980; Timby 1988, 110). It seems probable that most, if not all, of the assemblage was manufactured either on or very near the site by the inhabitants themselves. There are outcrops of clay on the site itself, although their suitability as potting clays is uncertain; the location of the site on the edge of the clay vale would have meant easy access to other clay sources. Tempering materials, particularly the organic elements, would have been readily available. There is no surviving evidence of pottery manufacture on the site, although the presence of a few overfired sherds in fabric V400 in Area B1 may be suggestive of such.

Manufacture of such a sporadic nature would have left only ephemeral traces at the very most. The only possible exceptions to this postulated local manufacture are the decorated sherds (Fig. 50, 18–20), which may represent a more specialised mode of production, perhaps at the level of household industry where a few specialists served a local area (Peacock 1982, 8). This household level of production can be contrasted with the situation observed in East Anglia, where settlements have produced far greater quantities of pottery than those in Hampshire and Wiltshire; for example, the settlement at West Stow yielded *c.* 53,500 sherds (West 1985). Furthermore, the quality of pottery is higher in East Anglia where more labour was apparently invested in vessel finishing and decoration and fabrics are generally finer with the organic tempering, so common in Wessex, conspicuously scarce.

Vessel forms

The rim forms identified amongst the Saxon assemblage were used to create a type series, which was linked, as far as possible, to vessel forms. However, it should be borne in mind that only three complete profiles are present and in many cases rims

Table 9. Pottery: Periods 2–3 early–mid-Saxon rim/vessel forms by fabric type

	Rim type							
Fabric	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*Total*
C406	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Q400	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Q402	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
V400	1	–	3	2	1	–	–	7
V401	1	–	4	3	–	–	1	9
V403	–	–	3	2	–	1	–	6
V404	1	1	–	1	–	2	–	5
Total	8	2	10	8	1	3	1	33

are too small, and the rim angle too uncertain, to permit assignation to any vessel form. Of the 58 rims present, 25 could only be described as 'rim, type unspecified'. Fabrics F402, Q404, Q413, V402, and V405 lacked any examples of rim sherds. Despite these restrictions, seven rim/vessel forms were defined. The correlation of rim form and fabric type is given in Table 9. Types 1–5 are described simply as 'vessels', rather than attempting to define 'jar' and 'bowl' forms. While a distinction between 'closed' and 'open' forms can in most cases be observed, the functional interpretation implied by the use of the terms 'jar' (closed) versus 'bowl' (open) cannot be substantiated (see below). Only in the cases of Types 6 and 7 has any functional definition of form been attempted, although the same *caveats* apply regarding the pitfalls of this process.

Type 1: Rounded vessels with plain thickened, or short upright rims (Fig. 50, 3–4).

Type 2: Rounded or slack-shouldered vessels with upright rims (Fig. 50, 5–6).

Type 3: Slack-shouldered vessels with everted rims (Fig. 50, 7).

Type 4: Wide-mouthed vessels with everted rims, no pronounced shoulder, straight-sided or convex bodies (Fig. 50, 8–11).

Type 5: Wide-mouthed vessel with pronounced shoulder and everted rim; one example only (Fig. 50, 12).

Type 6: Bowls with straight or convex sides (Fig. 50, 13–14).

Type 7: Small cup with inturned rim; one example only (Fig. 50, 15).

The lack of complete profiles has meant that vessel shape is difficult to assess. The complete vessels from graves 36 and 38 (Type 3) can be described respectively as globular and sub-biconical (Fig. 41, Obj. No. 355; Fig. 42, Obj. No. 421). The remaining vessels of Types 1–3 could fit into either shape but most are of closed form, ie, the rim or neck marks a constriction in the vessel body. Types 4–7 could all be described as open forms and, as such, have a straighter or baggier profile, with the rim or neck marking the maximum diameter. All these vessel forms, with the exception of the small cup, are paralleled amongst the assemblage from the Saxon settlement at Old Down Farm, Andover (Davies 1980) and examples from other small domestic assemblages in Wiltshire are also comparable (Fowler 1966, fig. 1).

The two complete vessels from grave contexts (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 355; Fig. 42, Obj. No. 421) have flat bases with rounded base angles and this may be taken as representative of most of the rest of the assemblage, in the absence of any other diagnostic forms. The one exception is a sherd from a base with a footstand, from a vessel of unknown form (Fig. 50, 17).

The correlation of fabric and vessel form (Table 9) reveals that organically-tempered fabrics are used for all types, while sandy fabrics are restricted to closed vessels of Type 1. Type 6 bowls occur only in the finer fabrics V403 and V404. It is, however, dangerous to base firm conclusions on the basis of such scanty evidence.

Surface treatment and decoration

The amount of effort expended on the finishing of the vessels varies greatly. A small proportion of the sherds are burnished (13.6% by number of sherds) and this technique is especially common on sherds of fabrics V400, V403, and V404 (73.7% of the total number of burnished sherds). This appears to indicate that preference for burnishing was given to vessels in the organically-tempered fabrics and the burnishing is certainly more noticeable on fabrics lacking macroscopically visible quartz inclusions (Q402, V400, V403, V404), but this is probably due rather to the physical nature of the clay body rather than to any conscious decision on the part of the potters. In cases where the sandier fabrics have been burnished, this is generally over a surface slip or slurry of finer clay. It appears that the burnishing was not of a particularly high standard; in most cases a 'scribbling' technique seems to have been used, with individual tool marks being visible, rather than a high-quality, all-over finish.

The coarser fabrics, particularly V400, also show occasional signs of surface wiping, probably with vegetable matter which has left linear marks. It should be noted at this point that the two vessels found in graves (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 355; Fig. 42, Obj. No. 421) do not show a particularly high degree of surface finishing. Although the surfaces are smoothed, neither vessel is burnished, which is consistent with the settlement assemblage material in this same fabric.

Decoration of any kind is very scarce. Three sherds, all in the coarse fabric V400, have wide horizontal furrowing, possibly from the shoulder area of the vessel. One sherd in fabric Q400 has burnished decoration; the sherd is too small to distinguish any motif. A second sherd in fabric Q402 has a combination of burnished and impressed decoration, although again the sherd is too small to discern the overall design (Fig. 50, 20). Two sherds are stamped. One sherd in fabric V403 has a segmented oval stamp (Fig. 50, 18). Lady Briscoe has identified this stamp as of a type otherwise found only in East Anglia (Briscoe D 3ai). A second sherd in fabric V403 has multiple segmented circles (Fig. 50, 19). The finger-impressed body sherd in fabric Q400 has already been mentioned. It is worth stressing that all the decorated sherds are in fabrics found commonly elsewhere on the site.

Vessel size and capacity

Rim diameters are difficult to calculate, since surviving rim sherds are generally relatively small and irregular. Fourteen rims provided measurable diameters and these varied considerably. Omitting the small cup (Type 7), which has a rim diameter of 75 mm, diameters ranged from 110 mm to 240 mm. Numbers are too small to permit the observation of any significant clustering within this range, although a tentative division into 'small' (diam. 110–120 mm; 5 examples), 'medium' (diam. 140–180 mm; 4 examples), and 'large' (diam. 200–240 mm; 4 examples) might be suggested. In instances where more than one diameter is available for a rim type (Types 2, 3, 4, 6), the diameters do not all fall within the same size category.

It might be expected that rim diameter would give some indication as to the vessel size. Comparison of the two complete Type 3 vessels, however, both of which have 'small' rim diameters, shows that the rim diameter/capacity ratio is not always constant. Using calculations of capacity based on the summed cylinders method (eg, Rice 1987, 222), the vessel from grave 36 has a capacity of *c.* 1.6 litres, while the vessel from grave 38, with a rim diameter only 5 mm greater, has a capacity of *c.* 2.8 litres. An accurate picture of vessel sizes, therefore, could only be gained by examining not only rim diameters but also maximum girth and height; this information, with the exception of the three complete vessels, is conspicuously absent from this assemblage.

Table 10. Pottery: Periods 2–3, early–mid-Saxon vessel size and capacity

Rim type	*Diam. (mm)*	*Capacity (litres)*
2	120	0.6*
2	200–220	5.8*
3	110	1.6
3	115	2.8
4	120	0.7*
4	160–180	1.6*
5	180	2.3*
7	75	0.1

*Calculation based on vessel profile reconstruction

An attempt has been made to calculate the capacities of a further five vessels (all from the illustrated series: Fig. 50, nos 5, 6, 8, 11, 12) for which maximum girth measurements are available, using theoretical profile reconstructions. The results, summarised in Table 10, range from *c.* 0.6–*c.* 5.8 litres. Although it must be remembered that these figures, based as they are on only tentative vessel profiles, have a wide margin of error, they do demonstrate the range of vessel sizes present within the assemblage.

Vessel function

Little systematic work has been undertaken regarding vessel function within Anglo-Saxon assemblages. The amount of functional information to be gained from an assemblage such as Market Lavington must be limited by the relatively unstandardised nature of the range of vessel forms. It is likely, moreover, that many vessels were multi-functional. An examination of the available data on vessel forms, bearing in mind the paucity of information on actual vessel size, reveals that most of the vessels of Types 1–3 possess a combination of features which would have rendered them suitable for either cooking or storage purposes. One Type 3 vessel has sooting on the exterior. Vessels of Types 4 and 5, and bowls of Type 6, which are wider at the mouth, might be considered more suitable for food preparation or serving (for example, Braun 1983; Hally 1986) and, in fact, one of these vessels (Type 6 bowl) is sooted on the exterior. Other direct evidence for use is restricted to burnt residues on the interior (six examples; all organically-tempered fabrics; unknown vessel forms) and a single rim sherd with a pre-firing perforation, presumably for suspension (unknown vessel form; Fig. 50, 16).

The function of the small cup (Fig. 50, 15) is uncertain. Its coarseness and the inturning of the rim would make this an unlikely drinking vessel, and it

would be equally difficult to pour liquids from it. The crudity of the manufacture might indicate that it was made quickly for a particular purpose which did not require a well-finished vessel, possibly some industrial function. That the cup was subjected to high temperatures is suggested by the friable and slightly sintered nature of the fabric and by its recovery from a discrete patch of charcoal in Area B1 (Spit 3).

The two vessels from graves (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 355; Fig. 42, Obj. No. 421) have been included in the vessel type series and there is no indication that these two vessels represent any kind of 'specialised' manufacture, although they may have been deliberately made for deposition in the graves. Their lack of high quality surface finish has already been noted and while the lack of comparative evidence means that the profiles cannot be paralleled amongst the rest of the assemblage, the rim forms are not unique.

Dating

The dating of the early–mid-Saxon assemblage has proved problematic. The marked homogeneity in fabric of most of the assemblage might be taken to indicate that it derived from a relatively restricted period of use. This homogeneity, however, could equally well result from the continued use over a longer period of a similar range of sources of clay and tempering materials. Rapid change would not be expected within an assemblage resulting from domestic production, where the exploitation of clay and other resources would be most likely to remain localised and where vessel shape was governed primarily by functional considerations. In such a situation, there would be little pressure or need for change.

The use of particular tempering agents might give some chronological indications. Organically-tempered pottery is considered to have a date range, in the south of England at least, from the 6th century to the end of the 8th century (Cunliffe 1976). However, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest its survival well beyond this date, for example at Wraysbury in Berkshire (Astill and Lobb 1989). In Wiltshire, there are no other closely dated groups of organically-tempered pottery and the assemblages which are known have potential dates anywhere between the 5th and 9th centuries (Fowler 1966).

The dating of vessel forms is equally unreliable. The purely domestic and functional nature of the assemblage has already been emphasised and it is likely that many of the forms are long-lived varieties. The only forms which might be tied down to a tighter date range are the wide-mouthed vessels (Types 4–6), for which Myres proposes a general 6th century date (Myres 1977). Such a date range would be compatible with the broadly comparable assemblage from Old Down Farm, also dated to the 6th century (Davies 1980).

Associated artefacts cannot refine this dating. The vessel from grave 36 was accompanied by metalwork for which a tentative date of 6th century is proposed, although several objects merely have a broad 5th–7th century range. The metalwork accompanying the vessel from grave 38 cannot be dated more closely than 5th–7th century. Furthermore, while the assumption is that the pottery from Areas B and C is at least partly contemporary with the cemetery, there is no direct evidence to confirm this and, given the relative lack of vertical stratigraphy, there is no indication of the length of time that the settlement was occupied.

Evidence for a continuation of the sequence in the settlement beyond the 5th–7th century date range suggested by the artefacts from the cemetery comes from wall-slot 13748, which cuts SFB 1. This wall-slot represents part of a stone and timber building which, on architectural grounds, cannot be earlier than mid Saxon. This Period 3 feature contained one rim sherd in fabric C406 (Fig. 50, 6), of which only one other sherd in this fabric was recovered from the site. This rim form, from a Type 2 jar, finds parallels amongst the organically-tempered fabrics but its occurrence in this anomalous fabric and, in this particular context, is suggestive and could be taken to represent a chronologically later element. Other artefacts of a potentially similar date on the site are, however, conspicuously scarce, being confined to a single copper alloy strap-end of 9th century date (Fig. 46, 3).

To summarise, in the absence of definite evidence to the contrary, the bulk of the Saxon assemblage fits well with a 6th century date (early Saxon: Period 2), with the possibility of at least one later group (mid-Saxon: Period 3).

Distribution on site

The distribution of pottery by feature (Period 2) is given in Table 11. It is apparent that only 184 Period 2 sherds, out of a total of 1215, were recovered from features ascribed to Period 2. Some of the remaining sherds were recovered as residual or intrusive material from features of other periods, but approximately three-quarters of the early–mid-Saxon assemblage (903 sherds) derives from unphased contexts, largely spits in Areas B1 and B2 (636 sherds from these two areas). There is very little early–mid-Saxon material from the areas to the east of the linear earthwork. Pottery from features assigned to Period 2 is concentrated, as might be expected, in Area B1, mostly from the sunken-featured buildings and from ditches; the pits in Area B1 produced comparatively little pottery. Some variations in the nature of the

Table 11. Pottery: Period 2 pottery by feature (no./weight (g))

	Redep.	*F402*	*Q400*	*Q402*	*Q413*	*V400*	*V401*	*V402*	*V403*	*V404*	*V405*	*Intrus.*
Ditch 1278	1/14	–	1/2	–	1/9	–	–	–	1/2	–	–	1/3
Robber trench 1025	–	–	–	1/23	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ditch 1041	1/3	–	–	–	–	–	1/1	–	–	–	–	1/4
Pit 1058	–	–	–	–	–	4/53	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 1215	–	–	–	–	–	2/7	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bank 509	1/26	–	1/4	–	–	4/12	6/18	–	1/2	–	–	–
SFB1	6/38	–	1/6	–	–	9/112	10/54	–	3/46	–	–	–
SFB2	–	–	1/6	1/6	1/1	1/7	2/34	–	–	–	–	–
SFB3	1/1	1/2	2/8	1/9	2/4	4/24	5/42	–	1/2	1/4	–	–
Structure 2	–	–	–	1/2	–	1/10	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 13731	–	1/3	3/16	–	–	11/184	4/44	–	1/20	–	–	–
Pit 13745	–	–	1/11	–	–	2/14	2/53	–	–	–	–	1/21
Pit 13806	1/2	1/8	–	–	–	–	2/9	–	1/26	–	–	1/1
Gully 1106	2/2	–	–	–	–	–	2/12	–	1/2	–	–	1/2
Gully 1280	–	–	–	–	–	1/78	1/2	–	–	–	–	2/4
Ditch 1281	8/27	1/4	7/34	1/2	3/13	10/96	12/109	–	4/21	1/4	1/5	29/291
Ditch 13705	1/5	–	–	1/4	–	–	1/7	2/20	1/4	–	–	–
Ditch 13757	2/23	–	2/4	–	2/22	11/108	4/15	–	–	–	–	–
Ditch 3074	1/3	3/8	4/7	–	3/5	–	1/28	–	–	–	–	1/8
Ditch 3073	2/4	–	1/20	1/34	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 3511	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1/10	1/4	–	–	1/1
Total	27/148	7/25	24/118	7/80	12/54	60/705	53/428	3/30	15/129	2/8	1/5	37/333

deposits across Areas A and B1 were noted and these are discussed in more detail elsewhere in Chapter 2.

Period 4: Late Saxon/Saxo-Norman

Fabrics

A small quantity of pottery was identified as of late Saxon or Norman date, ie, 10th–mid 12th century. Nine fabric types were defined and samples of six fabrics were selected for petrological analysis; these are indicated (P).

C400. Soft; soapy feel; fine clay matrix; common, poorly-sorted, rounded to subangular limestone fragments, including some oolites, <2 mm; very rare quartz <0.5 mm; very rare iron oxides. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised margins. (P)

C402. Hard; slightly soapy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular to subrounded limestone fragments <3 mm, sometimes leached out leaving voids; moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <1 mm; very rare iron oxides. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces, or completely oxidised. (P)

C403. Soft; slightly soapy feel; fine clay matrix, common, poorly-sorted, subangular limestone fragments <2 mm; very rare quartz <0.25 mm; rare mica, iron oxides and possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised. (P)

C404. Hard; slightly soapy feel; fine, dense clay matrix; sparse, poorly-sorted, subrounded limestone fragments <2 mm; rare mica and possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised. (P)

C405. Hard; soapy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular voids <3 mm, probably representing leached-out limestone; rare subangular flint <2 mm; rare rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare mica, iron oxides and possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces. (P)

E400. Very hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; sparse, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <1 mm; some surface pitting. Wheelthrown; unoxidised, generally with oxidised surfaces. Cheddar B.

F400. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, flint <2 mm, both subrounded and subangular; moderate, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare mica. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces.

F401. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, flint <1.5 mm, both subrounded and subangular; sparse, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare iron oxides and mica. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces.

Q406. Hard, irregular; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; sparse, poorly-sorted, rounded grains <1 mm; sparse, poorly-sorted flint <2 mm, both subangular and

subrounded. Handmade; unoxidised black throughout. (P)

One fabric is of known type: E400, which is of a type identified at Cheddar (Peacock 1979, fabric B). This early wheelthrown fabric was originally considered to be restricted to Cheddar itself (Vince 1981), but it has also been recognised recently at Trowbridge (Mepham 1993c). A date of late 10th–11th century has been suggested for its occurrence at Cheddar. No diagnostic sherds were recovered from Market Lavington. The remaining fabrics may be of similar or slightly later date. Fabric C400 also finds a parallel at Trowbridge, where it occurred in contexts associated with the late Saxon settlement and the Saxo-Norman manorial enclosure on the site (ibid.).

Vessel forms

Rim sherds occur in all fabrics except F401. Two main forms can be identified: cooking pots with simple rims, slightly everted (11 examples; Fig. 51, 1–2), and straight-sided bowls with sagging bases (two examples; Fig. 51, 3). Both fabrics and forms in this group of material are quite distinct from those dated later in the medieval period (see below).

Distribution on site

Only three features assigned to this phase produced pottery (Table 12): two ditches in Area B1 and one pit in Area A. In addition to these, boundary ditch 1281 was almost certainly still functioning as a boundary in this period. Late Saxon pottery from unphased contexts is concentrated in Area B1, with small amounts in Area A, and very little from Areas C1 and C2.

Periods 5–6: Medieval

Fabrics and forms

Fifteen fabrics were assigned to the medieval period. Four of these are of known type.

E420. Laverstock-type fine glazed ware. Hard; slightly sandy feel; moderate, fairly well-sorted, subrounded quartz <0.5 mm. Wheelthrown; pale-firing; unoxidised pale grey with buff surfaces.

E421. Laverstock-type fine glazed ware. Fabric as E420 but sparse iron oxides. Wheelthrown; oxidised orange-pink.

E422. Laverstock-type coarseware. Hard fabric; sandy feel; common, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <1 mm; rare iron oxides; 'pimply' surfaces. Handmade; oxidised or unoxidised; generally pale-firing when oxidised.

E424. Lacock-type ware. Hard; sandy feel; common, well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare iron oxides. Wheelthrown; oxidised and unoxidised examples.

Two production centres are represented: Laverstock, near Salisbury, and Lacock in north-west Wiltshire. The Laverstock-type wares show a distinction between coarsewares, used for cooking pots and other kitchen vessels (Fig. 51, 5–6), and the finer glazed wares, used for jugs and other serving vessels (Fig. 51, 7–8). The coarsewares are occasionally scratch-marked. Kilns excavated at Laverstock have an archaeomagnetic date in the latter half of the 13th century (Musty *et al.* 1969) but also contained coarsewares which were dated typologically earlier, from the late 12th century onwards, and for which a similar source area is suggested (Vince 1981, 311). Ceramic evidence from Salisbury suggests that both coarsewares and fine glazed wares continued in use well into the 14th century (Mepham 2000). The coarsewares at Market Lavington cover a wide range of coarseness and can be broadly dated to the late 12th–13th century, with the finer glazed wares falling within the latter part of this date range.

Fabric E424, which has been identified as Lacock-type ware (McCarthy 1974, fabric B), is partly contemporary with the Laverstock wares. The kilns at Lacock are dated to the late 13th–early 14th centuries. Examples of lid-seated cooking pots, one of the most common Lacock forms (Fig. 51, 9), and shallow dishes (Fig. 51, 3) are present and also a few glazed sherds which could derive from jugs. There is no distinction in fabric between the glazed and unglazed sherds.

The relatively high proportion of Laverstock-type coarsewares (Table 13) is perhaps surprising, given the position of Market Lavington on the fringes of the known distribution area for these wares (Vince 1981, fig. 21: 1). They were noted as absent at Huish, only 5 km further from the source area (Musty 1972) and formed only a very small proportion (1.7%) of the medieval assemblage from Trowbridge (Mepham 1993b). The kilns at Lacock are closer to Market Lavington and might have been expected to be better represented than Laverstock but the low proportion may be due partly to chronological factors, since it appears that much of the medieval assemblage predates the known currency of the Lacock kilns. The remaining 11 fabrics are all of unknown source.

Table 12. Pottery: Period 4, late Saxon–Saxo-Norman pottery by feature (no./weight (g))

	Redep.	*C400*	*C403*	*E400*	*F400*	*Q406*	*Intrus.*
Ditch 13819	26/106	2/12	4/28	–	1/2	–	2/19
Ditch 13725	5/11	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 1053	5/23	–	1/37	–	–	–	1/10
Ditch 1281	48/315	–	11/123	1/5	4/26	3/53	10/84
Total	84/455	1/12	16/118	1/5	5/28	3/53	13/113

Samples of six fabrics were selected for petrological analysis; these are indicated (P).

C401. Hard; slightly soapy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted subangular to subrounded limestone fragments <1 mm; sparse rounded quartz <0.5 mm. Handmade; unoxidised. (P)

C407. Hard; slightly soapy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; common, fairly well-sorted, subrounded limestone fragments (including some ooliths) <1.5 mm, some leached out, leaving voids; very rare rounded quartz <0.25 mm; very rare iron oxides and mica. Uncertain manufacture; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces.

Q401. Soft; sandy or powdery feel; fine clay matrix; sparse to moderate, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare subangular flint <1.5 mm; sparse mica; rare iron oxides. Handmade; unoxidised, occasionally with oxidised surfaces. (P)

Q403. Hard; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; very rare, subangular flint <2 mm; rare carbonaceous material; rare mica and iron oxides. Handmade; generally unoxidised, with partially oxidised surfaces; some surface pitting. (P)

Q405. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; common, fairly well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare red iron oxides; very rare mica. Handmade; oxidised orange/pink with unoxidised core.

Q407. Hard; powdery feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, well-sorted, rounded quartz <0.25 mm; rare iron oxides, mica and glauconite. Wheelthrown; oxidised, often with unoxidised interior surface. Frequently glazed. (P)

Q408. Hard, irregular; sandy feel; fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <2 mm; rare carbonaceous material <1 mm; sparse mica; rare iron oxides. Handmade; unoxidised, frequently with oxidised buff/pink surfaces. (P)

Q409. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; common, fairly well-sorted, rounded <0.25 mm; rare iron oxides. Wheelthrown; oxidised brick red; glazed jug fabric.

Q410. Hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; common, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare red iron oxides. Wheelthrown; oxidised pink/orange; glazed jug fabric.

Q411. Very hard; sandy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare red iron oxides. Wheelthrown; unoxidised with oxidised margins; glazed jug fabric.

Q412. Soft; sandy or soapy feel; moderately fine clay matrix; moderate, poorly-sorted, rounded quartz <1 mm; sparse chert <2 mm; sparse mica; rare iron oxides. Handmade; oxidised with unoxidised core; some surface pitting. (P)

While all these fabric types are of uncertain origin, a broad source area at least can be suggested for most. Fabrics Q401, Q403, Q408, and Q412 are all characteristic of fabric types found in south and west Wiltshire. All these fabrics are paralleled, for example, at the shrunken settlement at Knook, where their preponderance suggested a relatively local source, possibly from the documented kilns at Crockerton, or from that general area (Mepham 1993b, fabrics Q400, Q403; McCarthy and Brooks 1988, 334). A broad date range of 12th–13th century can be suggested for this group of fabrics, which together make up just over one half of the medieval assemblage from Market Lavington. Vessel forms recognised consist mainly of cooking pots with everted and generally thickened or clubbed rims (Fig. 51, 11–12) and a small number of incurved or 'West Country' dishes; all these fit well within the known range of vessel forms for the area (Musty 1972; Greene 1979).

Fabric C401 finds a parallel amongst the medieval assemblage at Trowbridge (Mepham 1993c, fabric C400) and has been identified there as Bath fabric B, with a suggested source area in the Avon Valley (Vince 1979). Again, the date range is likely to be 12th–13th century. The small proportion of this fabric within the Market Lavington assemblage (Table 13) and the general lack of calcareous-tempered fabrics, emphasises the dominance of pottery sources from the south and east of the county and correspondingly little contact with sources to the west and north. The two sherds of fabric C407 are the only possible products of the Minety kilns in north Wiltshire, although, again, the lack of Minety wares might be due to chronological factors, since these kilns were not in operation until the late medieval period (Musty 1973).

The vast majority of the medieval assemblage consists of plain unglazed cooking wares. Fabrics Q409, Q410, and Q411, which together comprise less than 5% of the assemblage, represent the only glazed wares apart from the recognised Laverstock and Lacock products. Sherds of fabric Q409 probably derive from a single vessel, a jug with rilled decoration around the neck and a thumbed base, probably of 13th or 14th century date. These sherds were distributed in a restricted area in B2, in upper spit contexts to the east of the linear earthwork.

Fabric Q407 can be dated to the later medieval period (Period 6). It is used for both unglazed cooking pot/jar forms (Fig. 51, 13) and for partially glazed jugs. The fine, micaceous fabric is superficially similar to the matrix of fabrics Q401 and the other putative west Wiltshire products. Again, a potential source in the Crockerton area may be suggested.

Distribution on site

Table 13 gives the distribution of pottery in features assigned to Period 5 (medieval). These features are concentrated in Areas A and C, with very little material in Area B1; pottery of this date from the latter area is confined to unphased spit contexts.

Table 13. Pottery: Period 5, medieval pottery by feature (no./weight (g))

	Redep.	*C401*	*E422*	*E424*	*Q401*	*Q403*	*Q410*	*Q411*	*Q412*	*Intrus.*
Ditch 1132	3/53	1/10	2/13	–	5/13	–	1/1	–	–	1/6
Ditch 1109	7/33	1/9	1/4	–	6/42	–	1/2	–	–	3/37
Pit 1283	11/77	8/32	10/79	3/16	14/40	–	1/6	–	–	–
Pit 13714	4/11	–	–	–	1/10	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 15518	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1/6
Ditch 3072	13/66	–	3/6	–	5/11	8/64	–	–	1/6	4/35
Pit 913	–	–	1/3	–	–	–	1/4	–	1/7	4/36
Ditch 3011	4/15	–	–	–	1/3	–	–	–	–	4/13
Ditch 3014	7/32	–	5/17	–	4/12	2/9	1/1	–	2/5	2/9
Pit 3076	4/38	–	6/12	–	5/17	1/4	–	2/9	–	1/2
Pit 3019	1/1	–	–	–	3/3	–	–	–	–	–
Pit 3052	1/2	–	2/5	–	2/6	–	–	–	–	–
Structure 4	15/67	–	–	–	3/6	1/2	–	–	2/9	–
Total	70/395	10/51	30/139	3/16	49/163	12/79	5/14	2/9	6/27	20/144

Unlike the pottery of preceding periods, medieval material is found in some quantity in Area C1 and also from the test pits (E–J) in the eastern half of the site.

Period 7: Post-medieval

Most of the post-medieval pottery from the site consists of coarse earthenwares, more or less equally divided between the pale-firing type characteristic of the Verwood kilns of the Hampshire/Dorset border (Algar *et al.* 1979), and red wares of unknown source; the latter including a small quantity of slipwares, probably of West Country origin. These coarsewares cannot be closely dated within the post-medieval period but have a broad date range from the late 17th century onwards.

Finer slipwares are represented by Staffordshire-type sgraffito wares of late 17th–18th century date. Other 18th century wares include creamwares, Whieldon or 'tortoise-shell' ware, white saltglaze, and Basalt ware. Stonewares are present in small quantities, mainly of English origin, although there are two possible sherds of German stoneware, probably from the Raeren/Aachen production centre. The latest wares on the site consist of fine white wares and bone china of 19th–20th century date.

A Petrological Note on some Saxon and Medieval Pottery from Market Lavington

by D.F. Williams

Twenty-five small sherds of Saxon and medieval pottery from the Market Lavington excavations were submitted for thin sectioning and study under the petrological microscope. The main purpose of the examination was first, to provide additional information on the individual fabrics and secondly, to see if any useful comments could be made on the possible origins of the pottery.

Petrology

On the basis of the range and texture of the non-plastic inclusions present in the sherds submitted, a number of broad fabric divisions have been made.

Flint and quartz

(1). F900, (2). V405, (3). Q406, (4). Q403, (5). F402, (6). Q401, (7). Q408, (8). Q412

All of these sherds contain pieces of flint, to a greater or lesser extent. Also present in many of these sherds is the odd grain of glauconite or collophane. Texturally, the group can be further subdivided. The clay matrix in sherd (1) is fairly clean, with just a moderate scatter of medium-sized quartz grains. Sherd (2) contains silt-sized quartz grains, shreds of mica and a little carbonaceous material. Organic impressions can easily be seen on the surfaces of this sherd. No. (3) contains frequent quartz grains in the size range 0.10–0.20 mm, with a few slightly larger grains. Numbers. (4)–(7) have a groundmass of silt-sized quartz grains and a scatter of large grains generally falling in the size range 0.20–0.40 mm but with some grains larger than this, together with flecks of mica. No. (8) is somewhat different from the other sherds in that, strictly speaking, it contains chert rather than flint. It has a very clean clay matrix with subangular quartz grains, some shreds of mica and a piece of ironstone.

Quartz/glauconite

(9). Q402, (10). Q407, (11). V404

Frequent, well-sorted subangular quartz grains generally under 0.20 mm in size, with a few slightly larger grains, together with flecks of mica, a scatter of discrete subrounded to rounded reddish to light

brown and opaque glauconite pellets, and occasional collophane and some iron oxide.

(12). V401, (13). Q404, (14). Q400, (15). Q413
Somewhat larger size range of quartz than sherds (9)–(11) and coarser, especially (14) and (15), with the odd small piece of flint but also containing glauconite pellets.

Chalk/limestone
(16). C400, (17). C403, (18). C404
A fairly fine-textured clay matrix containing a sparse scatter of silt-sized quartz grains and a few slightly larger, together with irregular-sized pieces of cryptocrystalline chalk/ limestone, a few shreds of mica, and some iron oxide.

(19). C401
Somewhat coarse than nos. (16)–(18) and also containing a little flint.

(20). C406
Fine textured clay matrix with subangular quartz grains, average size 0.20–0.50 mm and irregular pieces of cryptocrystalline chalk/limestone.

(21). C405, (22). C402
These two sherds contain a number of irregular voids, easily noticeable in the hand specimen, which may represent inclusions of chalk/limestone which have been lost in the firing process or during the course of burial. Some grass or chaff impressions can also be seen on the outer surface of No. (21).

Organic
(23). V400
A fairly fine-textured clay matrix containing a moderately sparse scatter of silt-sized quartz grains, shreds of mica and a little iron oxide, together with some long slim carbonised organic material and a number of elongated voids which presumably once held these remains – probably grass or chaff.

(24). V403, (25). V402
More quartz grains than No. (23), especially in the case of No. (25), but also containing some carbonaceous material.

Comments
In the absence of other information, it is possible that all of the major inclusion types found in the clay of the Market Lavington pottery were derived from fairly local sources. The presence of glauconite, for example, suggests a possible origin in the Lower and Upper Greensand deposits which are common within the region, while the chalk/limestone inclusions may well have been derived from the Chalk formations which dominate the area. It is difficult, therefore, to think at present of anything other than a fairly local manufacture for this pottery, though since these fabric types are not uncommonly found during the Saxon and later periods over a wide area, it is of course quite possible that some of these vessels may well have been imported to the find-site from some distance away.

Pottery of Uncertain Date

Fabrics
Three fabrics, represented by 15 sherds, could not be assigned to a specific date range.

F900. Hard; sandy feel; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular flint <3 mm; rare rounded quartz <0.5 mm; rare mica, iron oxides and possible glauconite. Handmade; oxidised with unoxidised surfaces. Surfaces quite well-finished. ?Late Iron Age/early Saxon

F901. Soft; gritty feel; moderate, poorly-sorted, subangular flint <3 mm; rare mica, iron oxides and possible glauconite. Handmade; unoxidised with oxidised surfaces. ?Prehistoric or Saxon

G900. Soft; slightly sandy feel; sparse, poorly-sorted grog <3 mm, both subangular and subrounded; rare subangular calcined flint <4 mm; sparse possible glauconite; rare mica. Handmade; oxidised with unoxidised core. One sherd only; ?prehistoric

As has already been mentioned, fabric G900 could be of prehistoric date, based on its similarity with the other grog-tempered prehistoric fabrics. However, due to the small size and undiagnostic nature of the single sherd, an uncertain date has been preferred. Fabrics F900 and F901 might also be of prehistoric date, although the dominant flint inclusions in both fabrics are not exclusive to this period and in fact are known from the prehistoric to the medieval period. The relatively well-finished surfaces of the sherds in fabric F900 might suggest a date in the very late Iron Age or early Roman period. Sherds in fabric F901 are more irregular and bear a superficial resemblance to early/mid Saxon sherds, particularly fabric V405.

List of illustrated sherds
(Fig. 49)

1. Rim; narrow-mouthed jar; Q100. Wheel-thrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A, Period 1.
2. Rim everted rim jar; Q100. Wheelthrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A, Period 1.
3. Rim; flagon or bottle; Q100. Wheelthrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.
4. Rim; everted rim jar; Black Burnished ware (BB1); remains of handle stump at rim. Hand-made. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A, Period 1.
5. Rim; everted rim jar; Black Burnished ware (BB1); burnished externally except for a matt band with

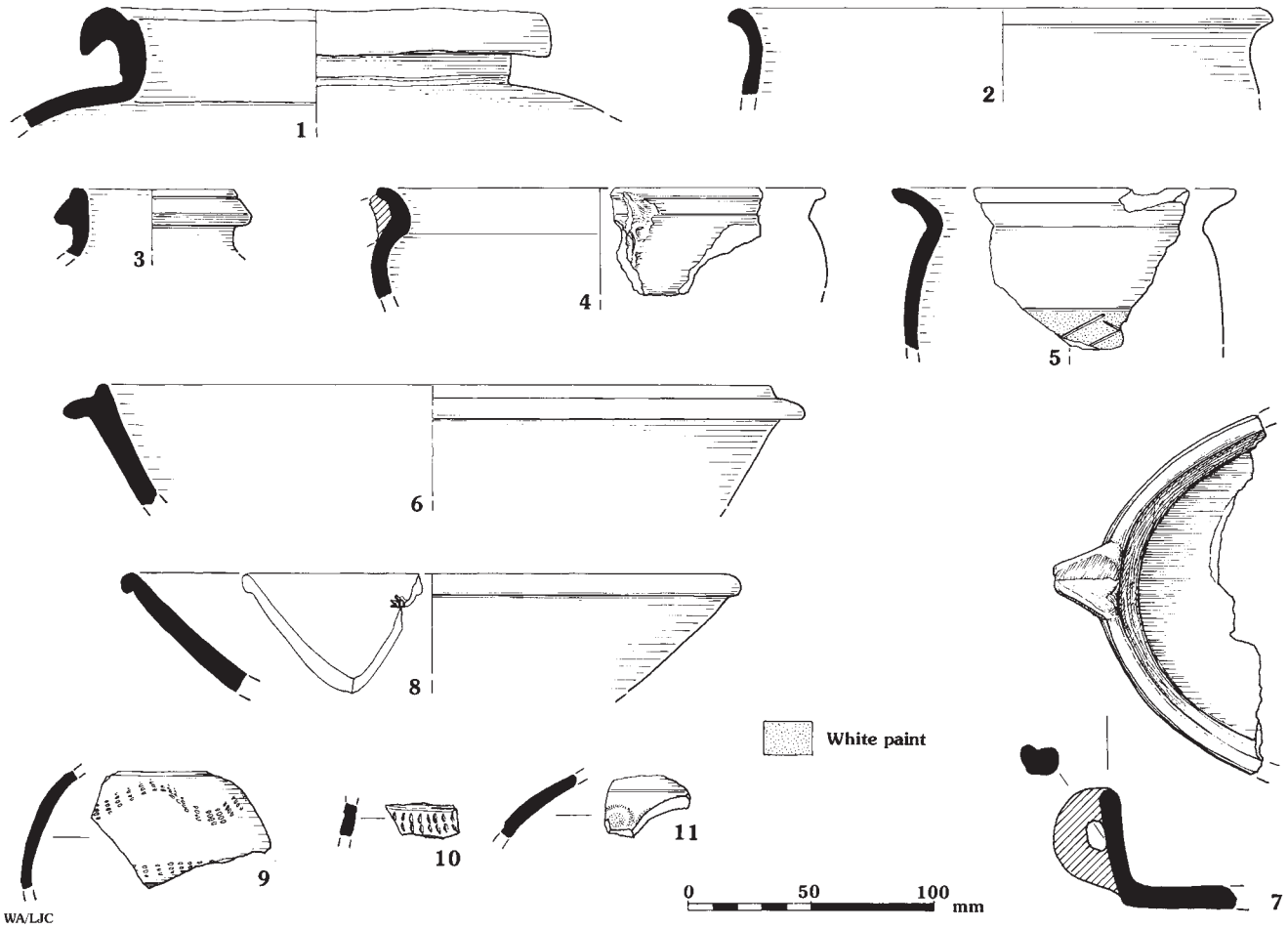

Figure 49 Romano-British pottery

burnished lattice decoration. Handmade. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.

6. Rim; drop-flanged bowl; Black Burnished ware (BB1). Handmade. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A, Period 1.
7. Oval fish dish with handle; Black Burnished ware (BB1). Handmade. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.
8. Samian bowl (Drag.18/31); repair hole below rim. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.
9. Body sherd; New Forest colour-coated vessel; rouletted decoration. Wheelthrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.
10. Body sherd; New Forest colour-coated vessel; rouletted decoration. Wheelthrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.
11. Body sherd; New Forest colour-coated vessel; white painted decoration. Wheelthrown. Pit 1061; Context 1060; Area A; Period 1.

(Fig. 50)

1. Rim sherd; Q1. Handmade; fingertip impressions on inside and outside rim. Spit 3; Context 12041; Area B1; Unphased.
2. Base vessel; Oxford colour-coated ware. Abraded; possible deliberately cut down to circular shape; incised design (post-firing) on underside base. Spit 1; Context 10203; Area B1; Unphased.
3. Rim sherd; Type 1 vessel; Q402. Handmade; burnished incompletely inside and out. Spit 1; Context 10294; Area B1; Unphased.
4. Rim sherd; Type 1 vessel; V400. Handmade; burnished incompletely inside and out. Gully 1280; Context 1102; Area A; Period 2.
5. Rim; Type 2 vessel; V404. Handmade; burnished incompletely on outside, and inside rim. Spits 1 and 2; Contexts 10006 and 11253; Area B1; Unphased.
6. Rim; Type 2 vessel; C406. Handmade. Structure 3; Context 13749; Area B1; Period 3.
7. Rim; Type 3 vessel; V401. Handmade. Spit 2; Context 11259; Area B1; Unphased.
8. Rim; Type 4 vessel; V403. Handmade; burnished incompletely inside and out. Traces of possible food residues inside. General cleaning layer; Context 1146; Area A; Unphased.
9. Rim; Type 4 vessel; V401. Handmade; burnished incompletely on the outside. Spit 3; Contexts 12128 and 12129; Area B1; Unphased.
10. Rim; Type 4 vessel; V403. Handmade; traces of burnish on exterior; inside wiped. Spit 1; Context 10304; Area B1; Unphased.

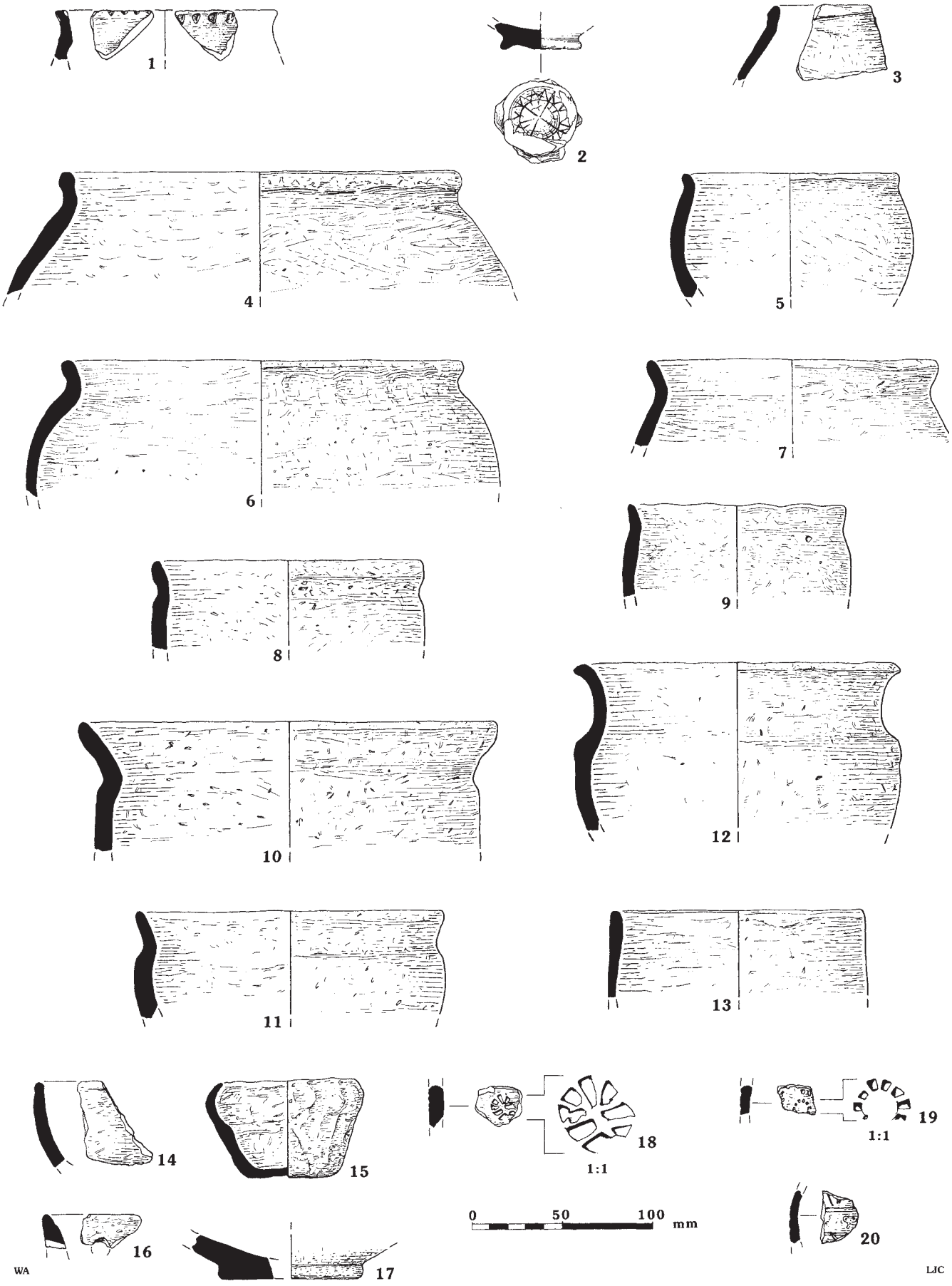

Figure 50 Prehistoric, Romano-British, early–mid-Saxon pottery

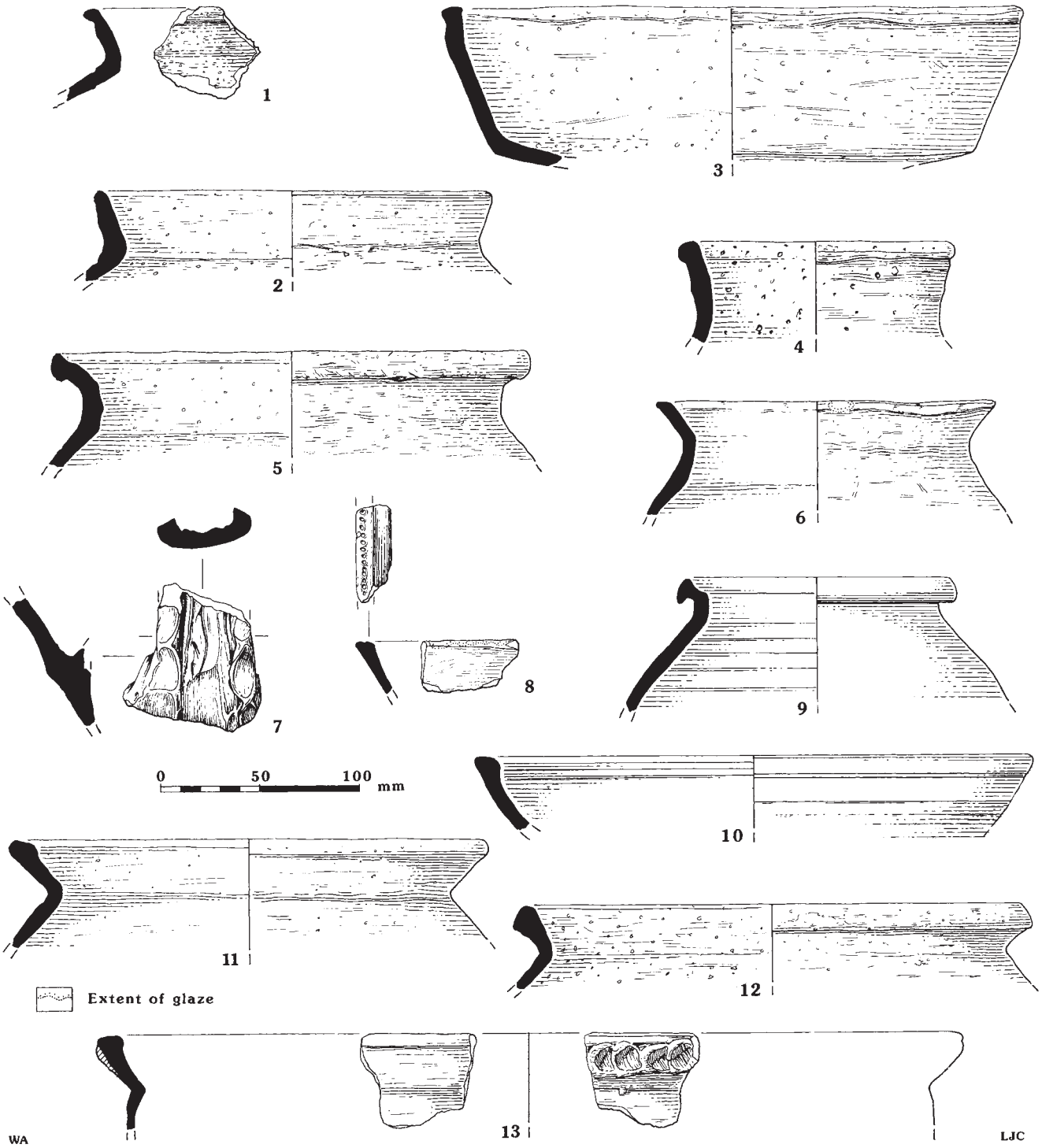

Figure 51 Late Saxon and medieval pottery

11. Rim; Type 4 vessel; V401. Handmade, very irregular. Spit 2; Context 11160; Area B1; Unphased.
12. Rim; Type 5 vessel; V400. Handmade; burnished incompletely on outside and on inside rim and neck. Pit 13731; Context 13730; Area B1; Period 2.
13. Rim; Type 6 bowl or cup; V403. Handmade; burnished lightly on outside and on inside rim. Spit 3; Context 12257; Area B1; Unphased.
14. Rim; Type 6 bowl or cup; V404. Handmade. Spit 1; Context 10218; Area B1; Unphased.
15. Small cup (Type 7); V401. Handmade, probably pinched; very irregular. Possibly slightly overfired. Spit 3; Contexts 12433 and 12464; Area B1; Unphased.
16. Rim; vessel unknown form; V401. Handmade; pre-firing perforation below rim. Structure 3; Context 13749; Area B1; Period 3.
17. Base with footstand; V401. Handmade; traces burnish on inside and out. Spit 1; Context 10421; Area B1; Unphased.

18. Body sherd; stamped decoration; V403. Handmade. Context 1151; Area A; Period 6.
19. Body sherd; stamped decoration; Q402. Handmade. Spit 0; Context 604, Test pit B; Unphased.
20. Body sherd; stamped and burnished decoration; V403. Handmade; traces of burnish on outside. Spit 2; Context 11296; Area B1; Unphased.

(Fig. 51)

1. Rim; cooking pot; C403. Handmade. Spit 1; Context 10482; Area B1; Unphased.
2. Rim; cooking pot; C404. Handmade. Spit 2; Context 11578; Area B1; Unphased.
3. Straight-sided bowl with sagging base; C400. Handmade. Spits 1 and 2; Contexts 10485 and 11486; Area B1; Unphased.
4. Rim; pitcher; C402. Handmade; glazed exterior. Spit 1; Context 10489; Area B1; Unphased.
5. Rim; cooking pot; Laverstock-type coarseware (E422). Handmade. General cleaning layer; Context 1009; Area A; Unphased.
6. Rim; cooking pot; Laverstock-type coarseware (E422). Handmade; glaze spot on rim; sooting on exterior. Spit 4; Context 14389; Area B2; Unphased.
7. Strap handle; jug; Laverstock-type fineware (E421). Handmade; glazed over outside of handle with mottled apple-green glaze. Outside edges thumbed; multiple incised lines longitudinally down handle. Spit 3; Context 14221; Area B2; Unphased.
8. Rim; bowl; Laverstock-type fineware (E421). Probably handmade; exterior knife-trimmed. Multiple stabbed dots along top rim; glazed interior. Spit 1; Context 10240; Area B1; Unphased.
9. Rim; lid-seated cooking pot; Lacock-type ware. Wheelthrown. Spits 1 and 2; Contexts 10492 and 11486; Area B1; Unphased.
10. Rim; convex-sided bowl; in Lacock-type ware (E424). Wheelthrown. Spit 1; Context 10425; Area B1; Unphased.
11. Rim; cooking pot; Q401. Handmade; rim possibly wheelfinished. General cleaning layer; Context 14000; Area B2; Unphased.
12. Rim; cooking pot; Q403. Handmade; rim possibly wheelfinished. Spit 1; Context 10128; Area B1; Unphased.
13. Rim; cooking pot or jar; Q407. Wheelthrown; applied thumbed strip below rim. Soil accumulation; Context 1172; Area A; Unphased.

7. Ceramic Building Material and Fired Clay

by Julie Lancley [1992]

A total of 1433 fragments (23,597 g) of Romano-British and medieval/post-medieval ceramic building material, 62 (617 g) fragments of fired clay and four fired clay objects were recovered. The ceramic building material included Romano-British *tegulae* and flue tiles, and medieval/post-medieval roof and floor tiles.

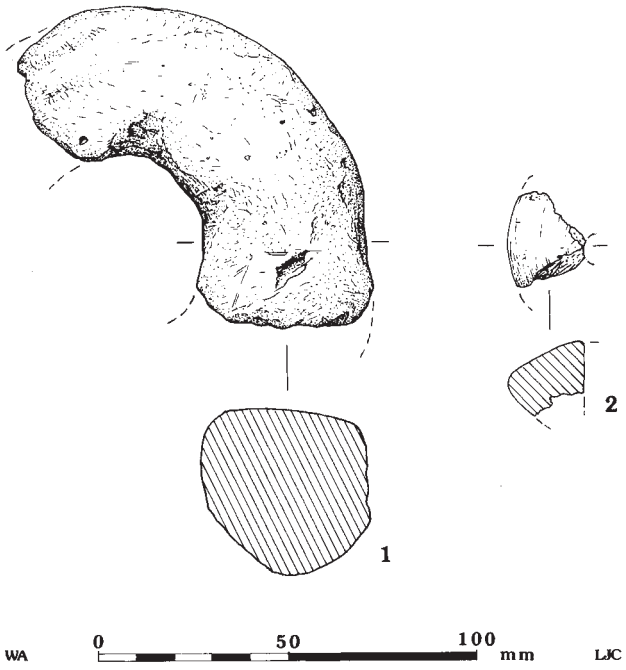

Figure 52 Annular loomweight and biconical spindlewhorl

Three types of Romano-British tile were identified: box flue fragments (60/3901 g) with combed exterior surfaces, *tegulae* (5/574 g), and brick fragments (3/974 g). These pieces were widely scattered across the site with a small number in pit 1061 (Period 1) in Area A and other fragments from Period 2 and 3 features in Areas A and B1. Eighteen other fragments (367 g) have been assigned a Roman date on the basis of fabric.

Medieval/post-medieval ceramic building material forms a general scatter across the whole site and consists mainly of unphased roof tiles (190/7594 g), including three ridge tile fragments. Some are partially glazed and some have surviving peg holes. Plain, unglazed floor tiles were also recognised (15/1489 g).

Four fired clay objects were recovered: one partial early–mid-Saxon annular loomweight (Fig. 52, 1) from Period 2 ditch 1278 in Area A; a possible loomweight fragment, a biconical spindlewhorl (Fig. 52, 2) in pottery fabric V401 and therefore probably of 6th century date; and a possible gaming counter manufactured from a sherd of Romano-British Oxfordshire colour-coated ware.

In addition, 62 fragments (617 g) of fired clay were recovered, about half this total derived from phased contexts in Areas A and B1. Fired clay was recovered from Period 2 ditch 1278 in Area A and from a restricted area in the south-west corner of Area B1: pits 13731, 13745 and 13806 (Period 2), SFB 1, SFB

3 (Period 2), and structure 3 (Period 3). All are in a coarse, poorly-wedged fabric, very pale-firing, containing organic inclusions and clay pellets. Some fragments have a porous texture, possibly resulting from exposure to high temperatures. No wattle marks were observed but several fragments have one surviving surface and it is likely that this material had some kind of structural function. Fired clay recovered from spit contexts in AreaB1 did not coincide with the distribution in the underlying features.

(Fig. 52)

1. Biconical spindlewhorl. Original diam. 40 mm. Obj. No. 234; Spit 2; Context 11003; Area B1; Unphased.
2. Annular loomweight. Diam. 120 mm, thickness 40 mm. Object No. 148; Ditch 1130; Context 1128; Area A; Period 2.

8. Struck Flint

by Frances Healy [1992]

The composition and incidence of the struck flint are summarised by area in Table 14; retouched forms are summarised in Table 15; and selected artefacts are illustrated in Figure 53. None of the material was recovered from prehistoric contexts. It serves, however, to demonstrate a sporadic human presence from the Mesolithic to the Early Bronze Age.

Condition is highly variable, ranging from relatively fresh and matt to glossed, plough-damaged, or heavily corticated. This level of variation obtains even among material from a single context, reflecting diverse histories for objects eventually incorporated in the same deposit. Cortex is sometimes discoloured by Greensand. Where it can be ascertained, the raw material is almost always chalk flint. A few pieces of orange flint and a few others with thin, abraded cortex are likely to have been obtained from gravels.

Mesolithic and Early/Middle Neolithic

This material is most abundantly represented by blade cores (of which there are four), blades, and bladelets. Platform-edge abrasion (Fig. 53, 3), and soft-hammer flaking are frequent in this element of the collection. The incidence of heavy cortication seems higher among blades and blade-like flakes than among other material. While 8% of blades and bladelets in the collection as a whole (Table 14) may not at first sight seem a high proportion, it contrasts with 0.5% and 0% in two samples of material from Late Bronze Age deposits at Potterne, nearby (Healy 2000, tables 34–5). Serrated pieces on blade-like blanks (Fig. 53, 6) are also likely to fall in this broad time bracket. Specifically Mesolithic material is confined to a microlith (Fig. 53, 1), a backed blade (Fig. 53, 2), and a possible burin, and specifically Early or Middle Neolithic material to a leaf arrowhead (Fig. 53, 4). Other probably Neolithic forms include a regularly-worked long scraper on a flake with a narrow, almost linear butt (Fig. 53, 5) and a bifacially flaked fragment (Fig. 53, 7) of what may have been a single-piece sickle, like the more complete examples from the Abingdon causewayed enclosure, Oxfordshire (Whittle 1982, fig. 22: 41) or the Middle Neolithic structure at Padholm Road, Fengate, Cambridgeshire (Pryor 1974, fig. 8: 3).

Beaker and Early Bronze Age

This material, corresponding to the presence of small quantities of contemporaneous pottery, is likely to be

Table 14. Struck flint: summary of overall composition by area

Area/type	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*Total*	*Burnt*	*Broken*
A	1	6	2	2	148	18	14	191	9	84
B1	7	19	6	2	276	28	24	362	18	174
B2	–	–	–	–	11	2	–	13	3	6
C1	1	1	2	–	51	8	4	67	2	37
C2	–	–	–	–	5	1	2	8	0	4
D	–	–	–	7	15	–	–	22	2	12
E	–	1	–	2	14	2	–	19	2	15
F	–	1	–	–	35	4	2	42	0	28
G	–	1	–	–	7	–	1	9	1	7
H	–	–	–	–	16	–	1	17	3	8
J	–	1	–	1	19	2	1	24	3	14
K	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1	0	1
Total	9	30	10	14	598	65	49	775	43	390
%	1.2	3.9	1.3	1.8	77.2	8.4	6.3		5.5	50.3

1 = irregular waste; 2 = cores; 3 = core rejuvenation flakes; 4 = chips; 5 = flakes; 6 = blades & bladelets; 7 = retouched

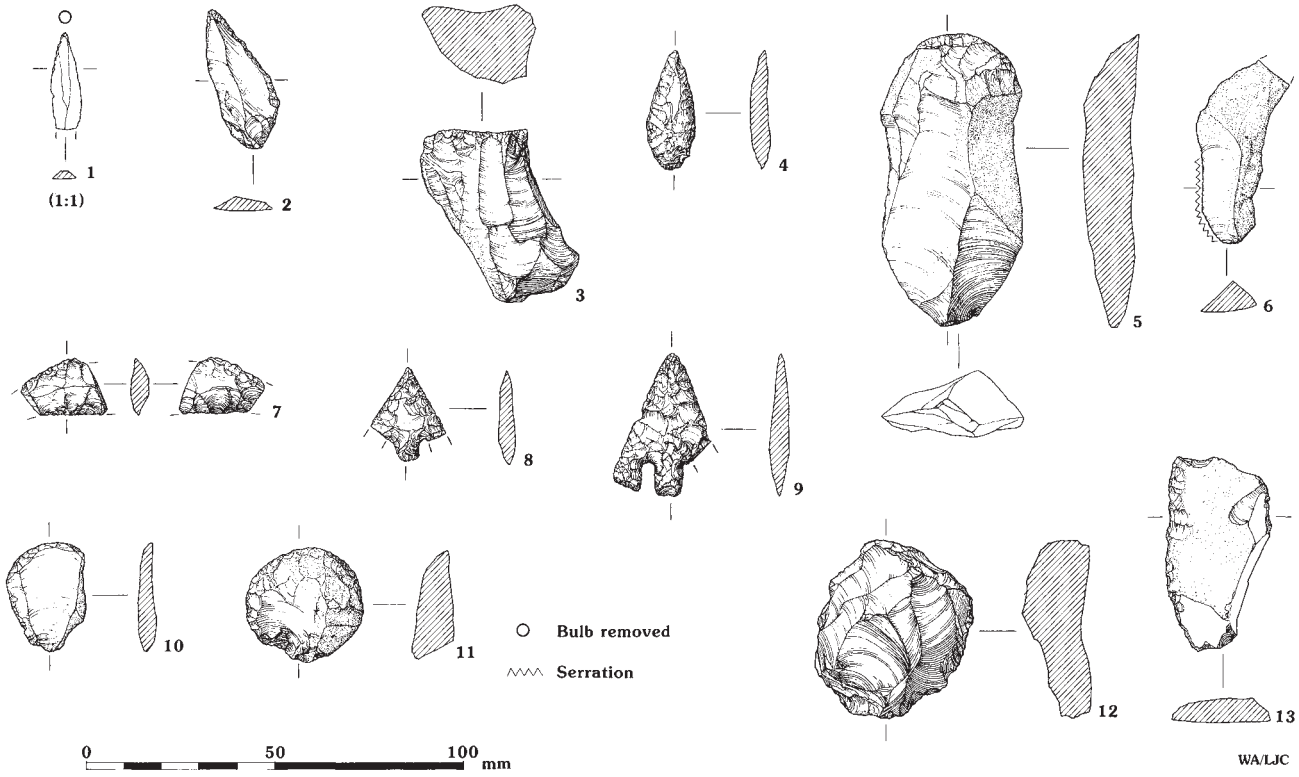

Figure 53 Flint implements

represented by the bulk of the debitage (which includes 18 flake cores, most of them multi-platform) as well as by finished artefacts. The latter include two barbed and tanged arrowheads (Fig. 53, 8, 9), the larger of them of Green's Conygar Hill form, more often found in association with Early Bronze Age urn styles than with Beaker (Green 1980, table vi.20). Eight 'thumbnail' scrapers (Fig. 53, 10, 11), are of a form often associated with Beaker pottery, as in the upper levels of the Windmill Hill causewayed enclosure (Smith 1965, 107, fig. 41) or in pit 23 at Dean Bottom on the Marlborough Downs (Harding 1991). A scale-flaked knife made on an older, corticated flake (Fig. 53, 13) is likely to be of similar date, corresponding to many examples from Beaker and Early Bronze Age contexts. Three larger scrapers (Fig. 53, 12), are particularly thick and steep, with their edges formed by a few large removals. These are most readily matched in Bronze Age contexts, including sites on the Marlborough Downs (Harding 1991).

Prehistoric activity in the valley at Market Lavington was previously represented by a possibly Mesolithic flint collection (Manor Woods; SU 0050 5395) and a Middle Bronze Age rapier (SU 0030 5357). The struck flint from the excavation thus fills out a scanty record quite considerably. It serves to emphasise that, while the prehistory of north Wiltshire is best known and most readily recognised on chalk downland, this was only one element of the occupied landscape. River valleys would have been as important

Table 15. Struck flint: summary of retouched forms by area

Area/ type	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*13*	*Total*
A	–	–	–	1	–	1	1	5	1	2	–	1	2	14
B	–	1	1	–	1	–	7	9	–	3	–	–	2	24
C1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	2	–	–	1	–	–	4
C2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	2
F	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	–	–	2
G	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
H	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
J	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Total	1	1	1	1	2	1	8	19	2	6	1	1	5	49

1 = microlith; 2 = backed bladelet; 3 = ?burin; 4 = leaf arrowhead; 5 = barbed & tanged arrowhead; 6 = arrowhead frag.; 7 = 'thumbnail' scraper; 8 = other scraper; 9 = piercer; 10 = serrated piece; 11 = scale-flaked knife; 12 = bifacially-flaked frag.; 13 = misc. retouched

for settlement and communication as they were in later periods.

(Fig. 53)

1. Microlith (obliquely blunted point). Indeterminate buff-grey flint. Obj. No. 5044; Spit 00; Context 754; Test pit G; Unphased.
2. Backed blade. Indeterminate buff-grey flint. Slightly glossed. Obj. No. 145; Spit 1; Context 10094; Area B1; Unphased.
3. Blade core. Chalk flint. Slightly glossed; platform edge abraded. Spit 3; Context 12360; Area B; Unphased.
4. Leaf arrowhead (Green's form 3B). Indeterminate grey flint. Slightly glossed. Obj. No. 185; Grave 18; Context 1159; Area A; Unphased.
5. Long scraper. Mottled grey-buff flint with near-white inclusions. Obj. No. 233; Ditch 1278; Context 1175; Area A; Period 2.
6. Serrated piece. Chalk flint. Spit 1; Context 10001; Area B1, Unphased.
7. Bifacially flaked fragment possibly from a single-piece sickle. Indeterminate buff flint. General cleaning layer; Context 1007; Area A; Unphased.
8. Barbed and tanged arrowhead. Orange-buff flint. Obj. No. 418; Spit 2; Context 11485; Area B1; Unphased.
9. Barbed and tanged arrowhead (Green's Conygar Hill form). Indeterminate grey flint. Obj. No. 406; Ditch 3074; Context 3024; Area C1; Period 2.
10. 'Thumbnail' scraper. Chalk flint. Slightly glossed. Obj. No. 224; Spit 1; Context 10486; Area B1; Unphased.
11. 'Thumbnail' scraper. Chalk flint. Slightly glossed. Obj. No. 153; Spit 1; Context 10275; Area B1; Unphased.
12. Thick, steep, roughly-worked scraper. Chalk flint. Heavily glossed. Obj. No. 5032; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B; Period 2.
13. Scale-flaked knife. Indeterminate grey-buff flint. Made by relatively fresh retouch on heavily corticated flake. Obj. No. 407; Ditch 3000; Context 3001; Area C1; Period 5.

9. Worked Stone

By Julie Lancley [1992]

The worked stone comprises building material (188 fragments, 32,074 g) recovered from various contexts and 25 portable stone objects.

The building material consists of 179 tile fragments, particularly in Cotswold limestone but also in Old Red Sandstone, probably from the Avon district. Most are roof tiles and a small number have surviving peg holes; thicker fragments (thickness 30 mm) may be floor tiles. Nine fragments of greensand and limestone showed some possible signs of working and could be interpreted as architectural fragments. Greensand fragments occur naturally on the site. The nine fragments include examples with one worked face, with two parallel worked faces, or with two or more worked faces at right-angles to each other. The only certainly worked architectural fragments are a large piece of greensand from pit 3062 (Period 1) in Area C1 (Obj. No. 432) and one piece of fine-grained limestone from a spit context in Area B1 (Obj. No. 5041). Each piece has one worked surface surviving.

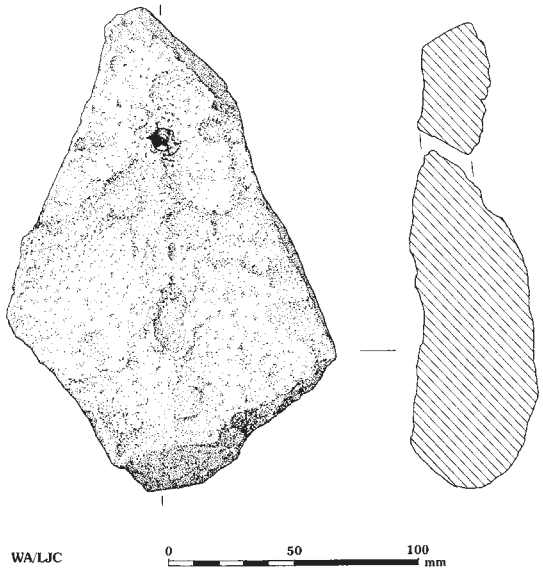

Figure 54 Stone weight

The 25 worked stone objects comprise a range of objects including whetstones, querns, mortars, and possible weights.

Seven whetstones are present, one in grave 16 and the others from unphased contexts, predominantly spit 1 contexts from B1. Two appear complete, with polishing present on all surfaces. The others are circular (Obj. No. 5067), square (Obj. No. 5042) or rectangular (Obj. Nos 143, 147) in section and none is closely datable, although a range of very similar objects occurred at Thetford, Norfolk (Moore and Ellis 1984, 107). Six, including the example from grave 16, are in very fine-grained sandstone, probably from the Avon district; the other (Obj. No. 5067) is in a coarser sandstone.

A maximum of 12 querns are represented. Fragments of lava quernstones occur most frequently (eight examples). Lava querns in post-Roman contexts are generally dated to the 7th–8th century or later in this country. They originate in the Eifel region of Germany and occur widely, some probably coming via Southampton, from *c.* 700 AD onwards (Addyman and Hill 1969, 79). All were recovered from the settlement boundary ditch 1281 which almost certainly continued into use in the late Saxon period. One other fragment (Obj. No. 5062) derived

from a phased context: ditch 13819 in Area B1 (Period 4). Of the four other quernstone fragments, one example in a very coarse sandy lime-stone, probably originating from the Cotswolds (Obj. No. 223), and a small gabbroic granite fragment from Cornwall (Obj. No. 5035), came from unphased contexts. One greensand fragment (Obj. No. 5051) and one fragment possibly derived from Cornish granite (Obj. No. 84), both came from Period 2 contexts, respectively from the same Period 2 ditch as the lava fragments (ditch 1281) and from ditch 1278 in Area A.

One fragment of a stone mortar was identified (Obj. No. 46), a rim fragment from an unstratified context in Area A. This object, in a shelly limestone probably originating from the Cotswolds, is likely to be of medieval date. It is very similar to a limestone mortar found at Faccombe Netherton (Fairbrother 1990, fig 10.4: 11). Although stone mortars are found on Roman sites, Fairbrother (1990, 453) has noted that their presence is rare within mid–late Saxon contexts. They do not become common until the late 12th–13th centuries.

Two objects (Obj. Nos 5066, 214) were probably utilised as weights, each having one hole drilled for the purpose of suspension. Object No. 5066 (Fig. 54) was found within SFB 1 (Period 2, context 13791) and may have been a loomweight or, more probably, a thatchweight. It is in roughly worked greensand with an apparently deliberately drilled perforation 10mm in diameter towards the top of the apex. No attempt made to smooth any of the surfaces. It is 190 mm in length, 115 mm wide and, 55 mm thick. Hole diam. 10 mm.

One small sandstone disc, possibly natural, perhaps used as a counter and two, probably modern, stone marbles were also recovered from unphased contexts.

10. Worked Bone and Antler

by Julie Lancley [1992]

A total of 27 worked bone and antler objects was recovered, including two examples, one dubious, from graves. The objects include pin-beaters, needles/pins, awls, spindlewhorls, combs, and a bead. Some limited evidence for bone-working was also recovered.

Double-ended points, used in weaving and commonly termed 'pin-beaters', are the most frequently recovered bone object from the site (Fig. 55, 1–2). All are made of antler and have polished surfaces resulting from wear. Four examples are double-pointed with a flattened circular section (Fig. 55, 1), a type which occurs frequently in Anglo-Saxon contexts (eg, Southampton (Addyman and Hill 1969, fig. 29) and West Stow (West 1985, fig. 246: 15–17)). Obj. No. 312 (Fig. 55, 2) has one pointed and one chisel-shaped end; similar examples have been found at Goltho (MacGregor 1985, fig. 101: 17). A possible example from grave 24 is not definitely worked, although the surfaces show signs of polishing, and two other possible examples were recovered. Three pin-beaters were recovered from Period 2 contexts, one from a pit in Area A (Obj. No. 312) and two from SFB 3 (Fig. 55, 1–2); one was from a Period 4 gully in Area B1 (Obj. No. 118); and four were unphased.

One complete needle (Fig. 55, 3) was recovered from an unphased context, as well as three possible needles/pins (Obj. Nos 5058, 430, 256). Needles are not common in post-Roman contexts generally and MacGregor (1985, 193) suggests that many are actually pins. The Market Lavington example is fairly well-made from a pig fibula, with the articular end trimmed to a chisel-shaped point, a type found at West Stow where pig fibulae were most commonly utilised for these implements (West 1985, 125). One needle/pin point (Obj. No. 5058) came from the settlement boundary ditch 1281 in Area B1 (Period 2); the others are unphased.

A complete antler point, highly polished from wear (Fig. 55, 4), was recovered from SFB 3 (Period 2), with an example made from a cow metatarsal (Obj. No. 5152) from ditch 13725 (Period 4). It could be an awl, or for use in weaving or basketworking (MacGregor 1985, 174–5).

One complete spindlewhorl from SFB 3 (Fig. 55, 5) appears to be lathe-turned with incised decoration, a type which is frequently found in Anglo-Saxon contexts, for example at Shakenoak (MacGregor 1985, fig. 101, 10) and Collingbourne Ducis (Gingell 1978, fig. 21: 6). An apparently roughly-shaped femur head may also be an unfinished whorl (Obj. No. 5124); a type common from the Iron Age through to the medieval period (MacGregor 1985, 187 and fig. 101).

Four composite combs, three double-sided and one possible single-sided, were recovered, the most complete of which (Fig. 55, 6), from SFB 1, is undecorated with both side plates nicked by saw marks. This typically Anglo-Saxon type has been found, for instance, at West Stow (West 1985, fig. 252: 1–2). One example, found unstratified in the cemetery area, has incised, double lattice decoration on the side plate (Fig. 55, 7) and, again, is a type found at West Stow (ibid., fig. 252: 3); the two further examples are of the same type but undecorated. A small fragment of an end-plate (Fig. 55, 8) is from a composite object, possibly a single-sided hogbacked comb of 7th–8th century date (MacGregor 1985, fig. 49). Double-sided combs have a date range of mid 6th–mid 7th century (ibid.). A potentially similar comb comes from Collingbourne Ducis (Gingell 1978, fig. 21, 7).

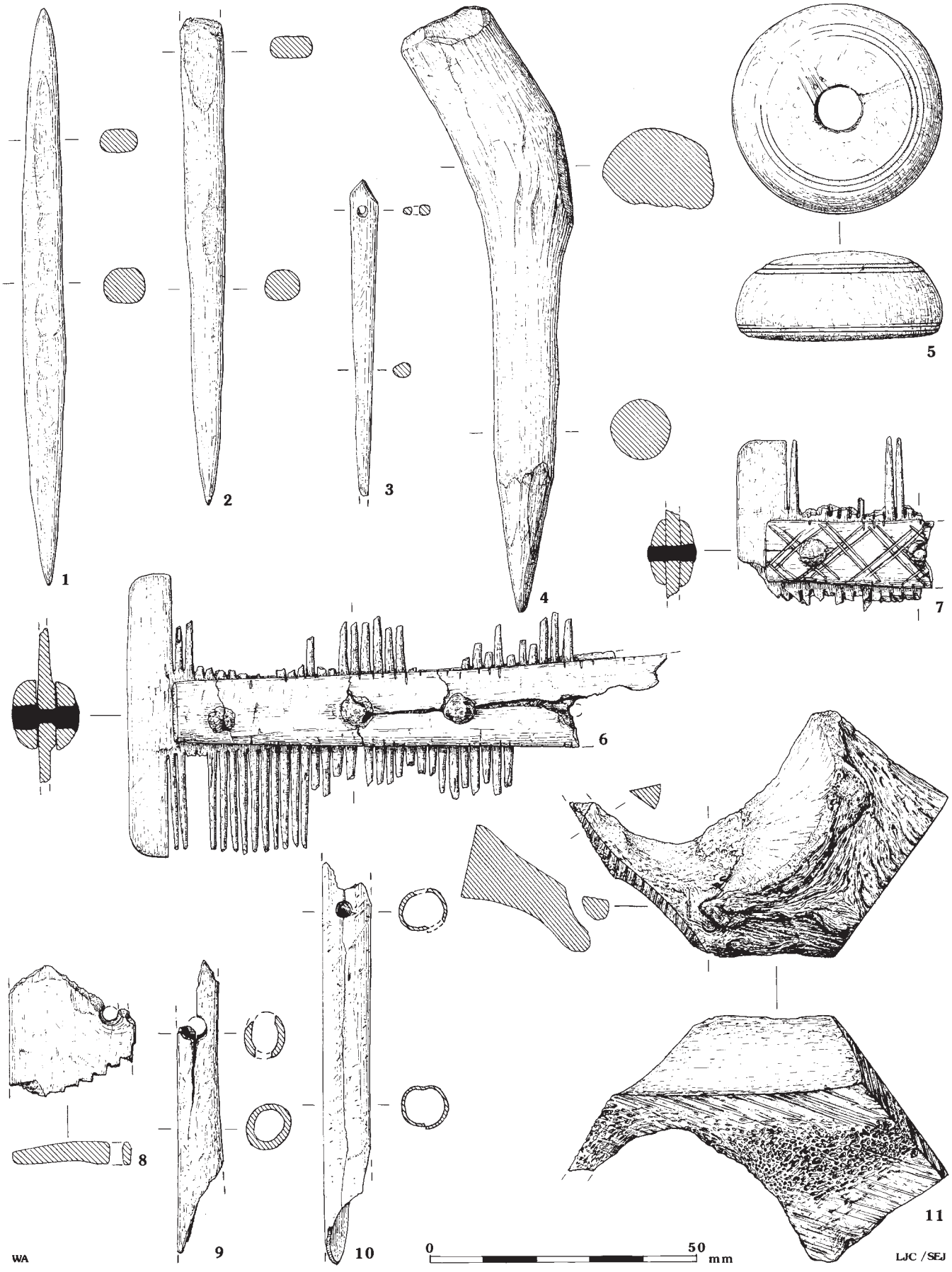

Figure 55 Worked bone and antler objects

A large cylindrical antler bead comes from grave 36 (Fig. 40, Obj. No. 455). Two pierced bones: a sheep/goat tibia (Fig. 55, 9) from SFB 3 and a goose ulna (Fig. 55, 10) from the Period 2 boundary ditch may be dress pins or bobbins (MacGregor 1985, 102–3 and fig. 59). Or they may have been used as simple musical instruments, for example by spinning the bone on a taut cord to produce a buzzing sound (Brown and Lawson 1990, 589). A number of bone fragments with notches, cut marks, and saw marks indicate some boneworking on site.

(Fig. 55)

1. Antler pinbeater. Double-ended, flattened circular section. Surface highly polished. Length 106 mm, width 7 mm, thickness 6 mm. Obj. No. 5052; SFB 3; Context 13750; Area B1; Period 2.
2. Antler pinbeater, pointed at one end, chisel-shaped at other, flattened circular section. Surface polished, except at chisel end. Length 100 mm, width 8 mm, thickness 6 mm. Obj. No. 5059; SFB 3; Context 13750; Area B1; Period 2.
3. Needle; pig fibula; pierced at head; sub-rectangular section. Head pointed, triangular in profile; shaft, circular section. Surface polished. Length 58 mm, width 5 mm, thickness 2 mm. Obj. No. 99; Cut 1057; Context 1056; Area A; Period 8.
4. Antler point; ?red deer. Pointed end has circular section. Length 112 mm, diam. 11 mm. Obj. No. 5055; SFB 3; Context 13750; Area B1; Period 2.
5. Antler spindlewhorl; ?red deer. 3 incised concentric circles. Diam. 39 mm, thickness 16 mm. Obj. No. 88; Ditch 1041; Context 1040; Area A; Period 2.
6. Double-sided, composite antler comb, joined by iron rivets. Side-plate edges nicked by saw marks. Teeth cut down to side-plates within central area. Length 100 mm, width 53 mm, thickness 12 mm. Obj. No. 5060; SFB 1; Context 13791; Area B1; Period 2.
7. Double-sided, composite antler comb joined by iron rivets. One side-plate has incised double lattice decoration. Side-plate edges nicked by saw marks. Length 36 mm, width 30 mm, thickness 8 mm. Obj. No. 151; Unstratified; Area A.
8. Frag. antler end plate, teeth graded in straight line. Part of rivet hole present. ?Hogbacked (single-sided) or double-sided comb with graded teeth. Length 24 mm, width 24 mm, thickness 4 mm. Obj. No. 5056; Ditch 1281; Context 13726; Area B1; Period 2.
9. Frag. sheep/goat tibia, drilled hole, broken across perforation. Length 27 mm; thickness 7 mm. Obj. No. 5123; SFB 3; Context 13750; Area B1; Period 2.
10. Frag. goose ulna, crude perforation. Length 77 mm; diam. 10 mm. Obj. No. 5129; Ditch 1281, Context 13776; Area B1; Period 2.
11. Very finely sawn frag. cow pelvis, 3 sawn surfaces in different planes. Length 68 mm, width 40 mm, thickness 25 mm. Obj. No. 5128; Pit 13731; Context 13730; Period 2.

11. Textiles and clothing

by Penelope Walton Rogers [1992]

Excavation of the Market Lavington cemetery uncovered 42 graves, of which 15 yielded remains of textile. As is usual with early Anglo-Saxon inhumations, the remains are fragile, part-mineralised fragments associated with metal objects. The dead's clothing has survived only where it has been fastened by brooches, pins, buckles and belt-fittings, or where it has fortuitously lain in contact with spearheads, shield-fittings, knives, and tweezers (Janaway 1985; Walton Rogers 1999).

Comparative material comes from over a hundred early Saxon cemeteries. These have been studied in the main by Elisabeth Crowfoot, who has generously provided the author with unpublished data. The largest collections are from eastern England, but Wiltshire has produced two moderately sized groups, from Blackpatch, Pewsey (E. Crowfoot unpubl.) and from Charlton Plantation, Downton (E. Crowfoot 1984); with smaller numbers of textiles from Collingbourne Ducis (E. Crowfoot 1978), Petersfinger (G. Crowfoot 1953), Swallowcliffe Down (E. Crowfoot 1989), Winklebury Hill (E. Crowfoot unpubl.), and Winterbourne Gunner (E. Crowfoot 1964). Three larger cemeteries with textile, at Berinsfield, Dorchester, Oxfordshire (E. Crowfoot 1995), Portway, Andover (E. Crowfoot 1985), and Worthy Park, Hampshire (E. Crowfoot 2003), also lie within the region which Bede would have called the 'province of the West Saxons'.

Market Lavington is the first of these West Saxon cemeteries in which it has been possible to distinguish between wool and linen textiles, by using modern techniques of microscopy.

Principal Textile Types

Technical details of the textiles from the graves, and from three unstratified finds, are presented in Table 16. A summary of the evidence is given in Table 17. To identify the fibre, the better preserved samples were viewed with a transmitted-light microscope (x400 mag.), fitted with polarising analyser. Fully mineralised remains and fibre casts were identified from Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) photographs made by Jonathan Webb (English Heritage). Out of the 23 textiles in which weave and yarn could be recorded, 16 proved to be wool and two linen. Whatever the identity of the remaining five, these

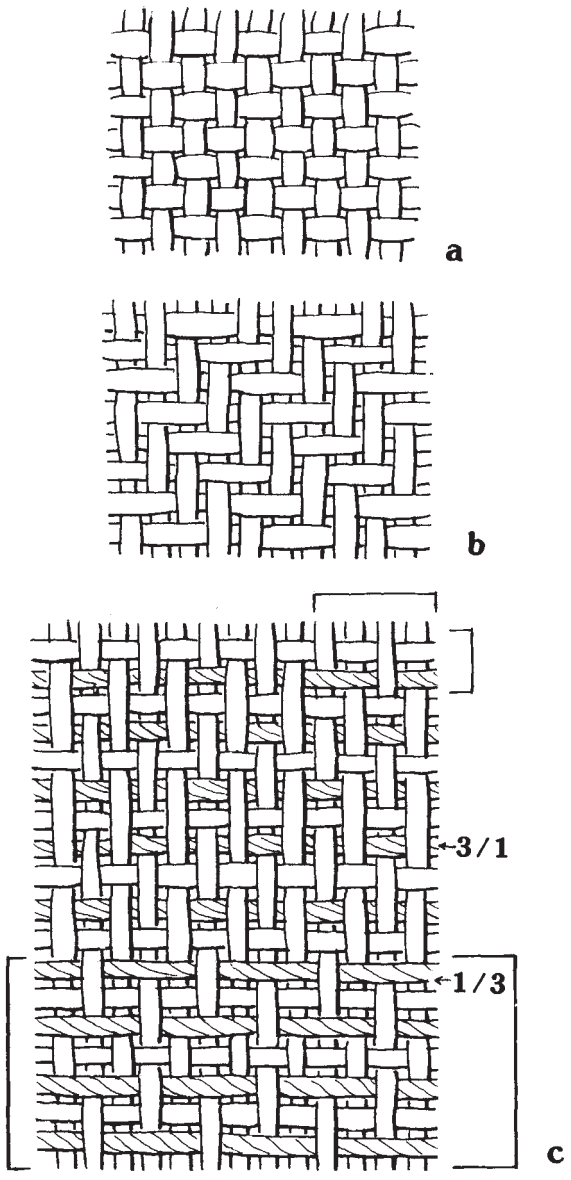

Figure 56 Textile remains

figures indicate a preponderance of wool, especially in twill weaves.

Tabbies and twills

Textiles from Anglo-Saxon cemeteries form a remarkably consistent pattern from cemetery to cemetery, despite differing soil conditions and other variables involved in their preservation. Tabby and 2/2 twill (Fig. 56, a and b) are the main weaves in all cemeteries, with yarn Z-spun in warp and weft (ZZ) or Z in the warp and S in the weft (ZS). It can be shown that in cemeteries of eastern England there is a chronological rise in ZZ tabby, from less than a third of all textiles (excluding braids) in 5th and 6th century cemeteries, to over half in late 6th and 7th century collections, and even to two-thirds in one 7th century cemetery in Kent (Walton Rogers 1998, 275).

The position in the West Saxon region has been less clear, as only two medium-sized collections have yet been published with firm dates. The textiles from Portway, Andover, belong to the period between the late 5th and late 6th century (Cook and Dacre 1985, 106–9) and include 31% ZZ tabby (E. Crowfoot 1985); those from Charlton Plantation, Downton, are from a similar date range but with the addition of some 7th century material (Davies 1984) and include 41% tabby (E. Crowfoot 1984). The Market Lavington group, which comes mainly from graves dated between the mid 5th and mid 6th century, includes 30% ZZ tabby. The West Saxon evidence therefore conforms with the other Anglo-Saxon regions and it is beginning to appear likely that the rise in ZZ tabby was a process which affected the whole of Saxon England.

It is not yet clear whether this increase in ZZ tabby is simply a change in weaving habits or a reflection of an increase in the use of linen. Since linen is traditionally woven in tabby weave, the latter seems likely, but too few fibre identifications have been possible in the past. The Market Lavington fibre work has, therefore, been most useful in showing that, in at least one 5th–6th century cemetery, the predominant fibre is wool. In contrast, the textiles from a later cemetery in Castledyke, Humberside, have recently proved to be at least half linen. Many more fibre identifications are, however, necessary before any firm conclusion can be reached.

Patterned weaves

As well as the standard tabbies and twills, a small number of patterned weaves are found scattered through Anglo-Saxon cemeteries. At Market Lavington there are four, all in wool. The most unusual of these is a weave, attached to the probable girdle group with the ?female burial in grave 23, which alternates a pattern row of 3/1 or 1/3 twill with a ground-weave row of tabby (Fig. 56, c). It is small but the weave can be matched exactly with larger fragments from men's graves at Mucking, Essex, and Wakerley, Northamptonshire (Crowfoot 1988). All three have similar thread-counts, in the region of 10–11 x 8–10 per centimetre.

This weave was used for Anglo-Canadian coverlets in the 19th century, when it was known as 'summer and-winter' (Tovey 1969, 62–3; Burnham 1980, 137). In these coverlets the pattern weft is generally a different colour from the tabby weft and the warp, so that the pattern emerges in blocks of colour where the 3/1 weft comes to the front; it is a reversible weave, the design on the back being the negative of the front. At Wakerley the textile had loose S-spun yarn for the pattern weft and firm Z-spun for the warp and the tabby weft. At Mucking and at Market Lavington the yarn is of the same quality throughout, although

different dyes may have been used. The overall effect is likely to have been of squares and rectangles on a contrasting ground. The solid nature of these textiles and their position over the top of the grave-goods at Mucking and Wakerley suggests that this weave was used for coverlets or over-blankets.

The second patterned weave is less easy to identify, as it is very poorly preserved. It appears in two places in grave 26, both on the backs of gilded saucer brooches. The pieces have a twill effect but, unlike the usual 2/2 twill, both warp and weft sometimes pass over three or more threads. The only weave of the period which has these features is 'rosette twill' (Hundt 1978), although no complete rosettes have been identified.

The remaining two textiles are woven in the usual tabby and 2/2 twill but patterned by alternating Z-spun and S-spun yarns in one system (grave 7, grave 24). These examples are unusual in alternating single threads, so that the fabrics have a crêpe effect (the technique can sometimes be seen today in cotton shirts). In most other Anglo-Saxon examples, the yarns of differing spin are arranged in groups of two, four or six threads, giving a shadow-patterned effect.

Where do these patterned fabrics originate? Spin-patterned tabbies and twills are found evenly, if rather thinly, distributed through all the Anglo-Saxon regions. They occur in fine, medium, and coarse qualities and, where the fibre has been identified, they generally prove to be wool. In this they contrast with spin-patterned textiles of the continent, which are mainly linen tabby ('Gudmingegaard-type': Bender Jørgensen 1992, 142). Spin-patterning is simple to achieve by alternating two different weft bobbins while weaving. There is, therefore, no reason to look for the source of these fabrics outside England, or even beyond the local weavers.

The 'summer-and-winter' is not so easily explained. The standard Anglo-Saxon warp-weighted loom can, with ingenuity, be adapted to produce all sorts of pattern effects but a sophisticated weave such as this is more naturally the product of a two-beam loom with multiple heddles. Such a loom almost certainly existed in northern Europe in the Roman period but was probably only associated with specialist weaving centres (de Jonghe and Tavernier 1978; 1981). In post-Roman Europe the loom, plus specialist weavers, may have reappeared in workshops attached to royal courts. It is, however, difficult to imagine a suitable milieu for such a workshop in 6th century England.

No comparable fabrics have as yet been recorded from outside England, but there are several equally complex patterned weaves from 5th–8th century Alamannic row-grave cemeteries of Germany (Hundt 1978, 157–9, 162–3; Bender Jørgensen 1988, 116–8; 1992, 145–7). These weaves are fluted twill (*Rippenköper*), rosette twill (*Rosettenköper*), honeycomb weave (*Wabengewebe*) and tabby with pattern floats (*Wolltuche mit Musterkette*). The summer-and-winter weave can be seen as a relative of this last, as the tabby ground is the same, with long floating threads substituting in the German examples for the 3/1–1/3 pattern row of the Anglo-Saxon ones. These pattern weaves are rare in Anglo-Saxon cemeteries, although examples of rosette twill have been recorded at Finglesham, Kent, Winklebury Hill, Wiltshire (E. Crowfoot unpubl.), and now perhaps also at Market Lavington. The greatest concentration of pattern weaves at present seems to be in the Alamannic graves of the upper Rhineland, with England on the periphery of their distribution. There are, however, few recorded textiles of this date from France. Since the Alamanni had been conquered by the Franks by the end of the 5th century, it is conceivable that artisans attached to the Frankish court were the real source of weaves such as rosette twill and summer-and-winter.

Costume Evidence

Women's dress

There appear to have been several fashions worn by the Market Lavington women. Those buried in graves 4, 7, and 26 almost certainly wore the traditional Germanic tubular gown, or *peplos*, a loose cylinder of material pinned at the shoulders with a pair of matching brooches (Owen-Crocker 1986, 28–39). In graves 4 and 7, the garment fastened by the shoulder brooches was made from a medium-weight wool twill; in grave 26 it was the fine patterned weave which may be a rosette twill. The twill gown in grave 7 also had a border in plain tabby running along the edge which had been pinned by the shoulder brooches. In other cemeteries, tablet-woven bands often form a decorative border along the top edge of the tubular gown (eg, Blewburton Hill, Berkshire; Henshall 1959) although, unusually, no such bands were found in the Market Lavington graves. It is, of course, possible that the patterned weave in grave 26 was a decorative strip along the top of the gown, rather than the fabric of the whole gown itself.

These tubular gowns were generally worn over an undergown which, in Anglian areas, can be shown to have had long sleeves (Owen-Crocker 1986, 39–43). There was no evidence of the undergown in grave 4 but in grave 7 there was a spin-patterned wool tabby on the back of the shoulder brooches, behind the wool twill with tabby border; it was probably also on the back of the buckle at the waist. This, then, seems to have been a long, belted undergown. There was similar evidence for the fastening of undergowns with belts at West Heslerton, Yorkshire (Walton Rogers

Table 16. Textiles and costume

Grave	*Date*	*Skele.*	*Sex/ gender*	*Objects with textile*	*Objects without textile*	*Fibre*	*Weave*	*Spin*	*Count per cm*	*Position of textile in grave*	*Costume interpretation*
4	mid 5th–mid 6th	1016	(f)	2 Cua disc brooches (19, 20)	glass bead	wool	2/2	ZZ	9x8	Pinned by brooches at neck	Garment of medium-coarse wool twill fastened by both brooches. A veil of fine linen tabby. Possibly a further linen garment with a fringe, outside the wool twill but inside veil, perhaps a shawl. Linen cord, prob. for suspending glass bead
						linen	tabby	ZZ	16–18 x12	In two layers on front of brooch (19) at neck	
						linen	cords	Z2S	1.5 mm diam.	Poss. a fringe, on back of brooch (20)	
						linen	cord	Z8S	3 mm diam.	On back of brooch (19)	
7	mid 5th–mid 6th	1023	?(f)	2 Cua saucer brooches (33, 34), Fe buckle (36)	amber beads, Fe knife	wool	2/2	ZS	?	Pinned by brooch (33) at r. shoulder & perhaps also by brooch (34) at l. shoulder	Outer garment of wool twill with border or edging, pinned by brooches at shoulders. Inner gown of spin-patterned tabby fastened by belt at waist. Beads worn as festoon between shoulder brooches, over outer garment
						wool	tabby	Zx?	20x8	Border or edging on twill on brooch (33)	
						wool	spin-patterned tabby	ZxZ & S	10–12 x10	On back on both broches at shoulders inside twill; prob. also on back of buckle	
						linen	cord/ braid	?	2 mm diam.	Outside twill on brooch (33) prob. for stringing beads	
8	mid–late 6th	1029	young adult F (f)	Cua saucer brooch (63), Fe pin (5088)	knife, Fe bar, amber & glass beads	wool	2/2	ZZ	9x8	On brooch at l. shoulder	Garment of medium-coarse ?patterned wool twill fastened at l. shoulder
									?chev/ diamond	Traces of ZZ textile on Fe pin at r. shoulder may be same or different	
11	mid 5th–6th	1043	adult?	Fe knife (94)	Fe buckle, amber & glass beads	not id.	?tabby	?ZZ	?	On blade of knife at l. waist	None
15	late 5th–earliest 6th	1145	adult ?F	Fe strap separator/ suspension loop (156)	Fe knife, toilet item, bar frag.	not id.	2/2	ZZ	15x13	Against rivetted fitting (156) to l. of l. thigh	Two textiles of twill, the coarser prob. the outer & the finer the inner
						not id.	2/2	ZZ	8x8	Outside other twill, next to plant stems	
23		1185	older adult ?F	Cu/Fe girdle group (257); Fe pin (280, Fe wire objects (282)	Fe knife, bone pinbeater	wool	'summer-&-winter'	ZZ	10x10	Along Cua & Fe strips	Grave disturbed
						not id.	ribbed tabby	ZZ	22–4x9	Along opposite side of strips (257) & on 1 side of Fe wire	
						not id.	?	Zx?	?	Fine textile on pin with eye (280)	
24	6th	1186	adult (f)	Cua saucer brooch (258), Fe buckle (283), knife (284), & pins (5089)	knife, amber bead	wool	2/2 spin-patterned	ZxZ & S	9–10x9	On back of brooch at r. shoulder; on pin at r. of waist; on back of buckle at l. of waist inside tabby	An undergown of spin-patterned wool twill, prob. fastened by single brooch. Overgown of plain wool tabby fastened at waist with belt. Third textile, a finer twill, on pins at r. waist may be from bag or cloak
						wool	tabby	ZZ	9–10x 8–9	On back of buckle outside patterend twill & on tip of buckle pin	

Table 16 (cont.)

Grave	*Date*	*Skele.*	*Sex/ gender*	*Objects with textile*	*Objects without textile*	*Fibre*	*Weave*	*Spin*	*Count per cm*	*Position of textile in grave*	*Costume interpretation*
24 (cont)						not id.	?2/2	ZZ	12x12	On opposite side of Fe pin from spin-patterned twill	Linen threads may be from cord for bead found below brooch
						linen	?	Z	?	On hinge of brooch	
26	later 5th–mid 6th	1192	adult ?F (f)	2 Cua saucer brooches (288, 289), Cua pin (292)	Cua scoop, Fe knife, pin, & sheet frag.	wool	patterned weave	ZZ	*c.*18x12	Pinned by brooches at shoulders	Prob. a tubular gown of fine patterned wool textile. Another fine wool garment of uncertain function also worn
						wool	?2/2	ZS	?	Fine textile on pin (292) at l. upper arm	
						not id.	cord	Z?S	*c.* 1 mm diam.	Wrapped round hinge of brooch pin (289)	
32	early 6th–early 7th	1210	adult M (m)	Fe spearhead (314) & buckle (319)	Fe knife, shield-boss, grip & studs	wool	twill	ZZ	10x9	On socket of spearhead to r. of r. shoulder	Garment of ribbed linen tabby fastened by belt at waist. A coarser garment worn over the belt: may be same as the wool twill at r. shoulder
						linen	ribbed tabby	ZZ	?	On back of buckle at centre waist	
						not id.	?	Z?Z	?	Coarser textile on front of buckle	
33	mid 5th–mid 6th	1213	adult (f)	Cua disc brooch (308), knife (307), Fe buckle (326)		wool	tabby	ZZ	14–16x 12	Pinned by brooch on r. upper body	Inner gown of wool twill. Assuming tabby on back of buckle is same as that on brooch, an outer garment of wool tabby clasped by brooch on r. chest & held by belt at waist
						wool	2/2	ZZ	10x10	On back of brooch inside wool tabby	
						not id.	tabby	ZZ	16–18 x14	On back of buckle at waist	
						not id.	fibres	–	–	On knife above waist, poss. inside of sheath	
34	5th–earliest 6th	1217	adult ?M (m)	Cua tweezers (5087), Fe buckle (329), knife (332), shield-boss & grip (5090)	Fe shield-studs, spear-head & sheet frags	not id.	?twill	ZZ	?	Relatively fine textile on back of buckle at r. waist	A twill inner garment, perhaps trousers or under-tunic, fastened by belt. A coarser twill garment outside this; knife lay over outer garment. Over this a finer soft-finished textile, perhaps a cloak
						not id.	2/2	ZZ	8x7	Under knife at waist & poss. also on front of buckle	
						not id.	tabby	ZZ	14x12	Soft-finished (ie felted) textile over knife	
						not id.	threads	Z	–	Threads binding ends of tweezers	
36	early 6th	1222	young adult F (f)	Fe buckle (375), Fe/bone belt-fitting (376), Fe strap-fitting (470)	Fe strap fitting, knife, 2 Cua pins, whole pot, amber & antler beads	wool	tabby	ZZ	13x10	On back of Fe/bone belt fitting on hips, also on front of Fe buckle at l. waist	An inner gown of wool twill, poss. fastened at waist by belt with Fe buckle. Over this a full outer garment of tabby, fastened on hips with Fe/bone belt fitting
						wool	2/2	ZZ	16–18 x16	On back of belt fitting inside tabby	
						not id.	cord	Z-ply	2.5 mm diam.	On small Fe strap fitting on l. upper arm	
37		1225	early/ mid teens	Fe buckle pin (463)		wool	2/2	ZZ	11x10	Behind buckle pin at l. hip	None
38		1288	juven-ile, 9–14 yrs	knife frag. (425)	Fe sheet frag., whole pot	not id.	?	?	?	Relatively fine textile on knife at l. torso	None

Table 16 (cont.)

Grave	*Date*	*Skele.*	*Sex/ gender*	*Objects with textile*	*Objects without textile*	*Fibre*	*Weave*	*Spin*	*Count per cm*	*Position of textile in grave*	*Costume interpretation*
40	mid 5th–7th	1238	adult (m)	spearhead (5016)		wool	?2/2	ZZ	10x10	On socket of spearhead to r. of shoulder	None
Unstrat (Area A)				small gilded saucer brooch (245)		wool	2/2	ZZ	18x16	On back of brooch inside other textile	Inner garment of fine wool twill, outer of linen
						linen	?2/2	?	?	On back of brooch, poss. pinned by it	
Unstrat (1007)				gilded saucer brooch (391)		not id.	?2/2	ZZ	*c.* 16x16	On back of brooch	None
						linen	cords	Z	–	Bundle of threads knotted round brooch pin	
Unstrat (1146)				Cua disc brooch (349)		linen	?2/2	ZZ	?	On back of brooch inside other textile	Original position on body not known, but inner gown, inside that pinned by brooch, was clearly linen. Cord prob. for beads outside garments
						not id.	?	ZZ	?	Pinned by brooch	
						linen	cord	Z4S	–	Between brooch & textile	

Sex and age as derived from the osteological remains (M/F, juvenile, adult). Gender interpreted from grave-goods is given as (m/f). A textile described as 'inner' or 'inside' would have been closer to the body than those described as 'outer' or 'outside'.

1999, 155). In grave 26, a fine wool twill on the upper arm may have been from another undergown, but, as it may have been fastened by a pin at this point, it is perhaps more likely to have been from a shawl.

The garments worn in the graves of women without matching shoulder brooches are difficult to reconstruct. In grave 8, a single brooch on the left shoulder fastened a wool twill similar to the fabrics of the tubular gowns of graves 4 and 7. This may still be a tubular gown but fastened on only one shoulder. Gale Owen-Crocker has noted that in the Berkshire–Wiltshire region, single brooches on the left shoulder are associated with children and young women (Owen-Crocker 1986, 35) and the woman in grave 8 has indeed proved to be a young adult.

In grave 33 an outer gown of wool tabby was fastened by a single disc brooch on the right breast and held by a belt at the waist. Inside was a wool twill. The low position of the brooch may indicate that the tabby garment had a front opening fastened by the brooch. As this does not appear to have been a tubular gown, the inner garment of twill may not have been visible during wear.

In grave 24 a single gilded saucer brooch seems to have fastened the undergown. The brooch lay on the right shoulder, although it may have slipped from a more central position, as the body was turned to the right. The spin-patterned wool twill pinned by this brooch also lies on one face of the parallel pins at the right waist and on the back of the buckle at the left waist; but on the buckle it is inside a wool tabby. It seems unlikely that the bulky and impressive saucer brooch was worn hidden from view and there was no trace of textile on its outer face. The outer garment of wool tabby was, therefore, probably left open at the front to reveal the brooch and the spin-patterned twill undergown. Cook has suggested that a woman buried in grave 203 at Finglesham, Kent, and another in grave 843 at Mucking, Essex, may have worn a long coat-like gown of Frankish style but with the front held open to reveal the inner tunic and jewellery (Cook 1974, 69–70, 120–1; Owen-Crocker 1986, 62). The evidence from grave 24 matches this style of dress, although here – unlike the Finglesham and Mucking reconstructions – the belt fastened the outer gown as well as the inner.

Lastly, in grave 36, a fine wool twill inner gown has been fastened at the waist by a belt and then over this there is an outer gown of medium-weight wool tabby with a more elaborate belt of bone and iron on the

Table 17. The main textile types

	Wool	*Linen*	*Not ident.*	*Total*
Tabby				
ZZ	3	2	2	7
Spin-patterned	1	0	0	1
2/2 Twill				
ZZ	7	0	3	10
ZS	2	0	0	2
Spin-patterned	1	0	0	1
Misc. spin-patterned waves	2	0	0	2
Total	16	2	5	23

hips. This use of the finer material for the inner gown and the coarser for the outer seems to be consistent through most of the women's graves, except for grave 33 where the style of dress may have hidden the undergown from view.

As well as the main garments, there is some evidence for textile dress accessories in women's graves. In grave 4 the fine linen on the outside of one of the shoulder brooches is probably from a shoulder-length veil. In the same grave, a linen fringe had been caught into the back of the other shoulder brooch. There is similar evidence from the 5th–6th century cemetery at West Heslerton, where corners of cloaks or shawls seem sometimes to have been caught on the pin of the shoulder brooch (Walton Rogers 1999, 157). Finally, in grave 24, a wool twill in association with the parallel pins at the right of the waist may be part of a purse or bag.

Men's dress

Three of the Market Lavington graves with textile were those of men. In grave 32, there was an inner garment of ribbed linen tabby fastened by a belt and over this a coarser garment probably of wool twill. In grave 34, the inner garment fastened by the belt was a relatively fine twill and the outer a coarser twill. In grave 40, only one textile survived, a medium-weight wool twill in the same position in the grave as the twill forming the outer garment in grave 32.

Men's upper garments at this date are generally assumed to be the simple Germanic tunic, although there is also some evidence for a wrap-over jacket (Walton Rogers 1998, 279 and forthcoming). Roman sculptures also show that trousers with belts were worn by Germanic men in the Roman Iron Age; and there is an almost complete pair of 2nd century wool trousers from Thorsbjerg, Schleswig, with a separately worked waistband with loops for a belt (Hald 1980, 328–35). It therefore seems reasonable to reconstruct the dress of the Market Lavington men as belted trousers of relatively fine linen or wool, with a tunic or jacket of coarser wool twill over the top. In grave 34 there was also a third garment made from a soft-finished (ie, felted) wool tabby lying across the knife at the man's waist. There is evidence for this type of finished fabric in both men's and women's graves in the Saxon period and generally, as here, in a position where the textile can be interpreted as a cloak, or a blanket over the grave.

Conclusion

The wool and linen tabbies and twills of the Market Lavington cemetery are the usual fabrics of the early Anglo-Saxon period and the predominance of wool twill has been shown to be typical of the first hundred years. Evidence for weaving is widespread throughout Saxon settlements at this time and simple fabrics such as these are likely to have been made within the local community. The two patterned weaves are, however, more exotic and, it has been argued, may come from some specialist weaving centre.

With the aid of grave-plans it has been possible to make a reconstruction of at least some of the styles of dress worn by individuals buried in this 5th–6th century cemetery. In particular, the discovery that a single gilded saucer brooch could fasten the front of an undergown, whereas paired brooches of the same sort more predictably fastened the outer gown, makes a useful contribution to the study of early West Saxon women's dress and its influences.

5. Evidence for the Environment and Economy

Each category of environmental evidence obtained from the excavation and the Easterton Brook palaeochannel is discussed individually with conclusions drawn together in the final discussion. Full reports containing detailed lists and tables are available in the archive.

1. The Easterton Brook Palaeochannel

Introduction

by Patricia E.J. Wiltshire [1997]

A small stream, the Easterton Brook, now runs north of the church of St Mary, flowing north-east to south-west. The 1986 evaluation revealed a palaeochannel, with relatively deep peaty silts, up to 20 m north of the present streambed (see Fig. 3). Long sequences of sediments so closely adjacent to archaeological settlement are rare; they offer an exciting opportunity to investigate the impact of human settlement on the local landscape over a considerable period. The deposits of the Easterton Brook palaeochannel yielded both macroscopic and microscopic botanical remains sufficient to provide information about the local environment and economy of the Saxon settlement, as well as of late Saxon viticulture. Results from the palaeochannel complemented those obtained from animal bone and macroscopic plant remains from the on-site features, and a picture of the local Roman to medieval landscape and agrarian economy was obtained.

The Easterton Brook would have had a considerable bearing on the site's settlement value. Besides being a source of water, the stream would have enriched and neutralised adjacent soils and sediments with suspended solids and dissolved mineral nutrients received from the basal lithology, and seepage/inwash from its catchment. So, if overbank flooding occurred (even periodically), the stream's influence on local soil fertility might have been significant. The local topography and the juxtaposition of a diverse Cretaceous lithology have resulted in highly heterogeneous pedogenesis in the environs of Market Lavington. Today, the soils in and around the village consist of glauconitic sandy loams and clays, brown calcareous soils, brown earths and argillic gley soils, with some valley soils being perennially wet; patches of more acidic soils are also present (Findlay 1986). With such variable topography, hydrology, and soil, highly diverse microhabitats and plant communities could be expected to have existed throughout the history of the site, and these probably had a significant impact on the land use history of the settlement. Furthermore, such diverse communities (natural, semi-natural, and anthropogenic) would be reflected in the local pollen rain. Coupled with the complex taphonomic problems often associated with archaeological settlements, this diversity makes interpretation of palynological data difficult. Water flow is another complicating taphonomic factor in the palynological study of palaeochannels (Bonny 1978), as water-borne pollen and spores from elsewhere in the catchment could lead to erroneous interpretation. However, there was neither sedimentological nor palynological evidence for active stream flow in the Easterton Brook deposits, so water-borne palynomorphs were not likely to influence this study. It is probable that the channel was cut off from the main stream for a considerable period before intensification of adjacent land-use and expansion of the Saxon settlement.

Radiocarbon Dating

by Patricia E.J. Wiltshire and Alex Bayliss [1997]

Although relatively little palynological work has been achieved in central southern England, there have been some notable palynological and molluscan studies which suggest that large areas of the landscape were cleared of woodland by the Iron Age (Evans 1975; Waton 1982; Day 1991; 1993). The post-Roman landscape appears to have been variable and, in some areas, there is some evidence for regeneration of woodland (Waton 1982). However, dating resolution in pollen diagrams for the Saxon and medieval periods is poor and depends, to a great extent, on interpolation from time-depth curves. Production of these curves assumes constant sediment accumulation, and they have been based on uncalibrated radiocarbon dates with no consideration of error ranges. It follows, therefore, that estimates in the chronology of woodland clearance and regeneration are crude. At Market Lavington, dating was highly resolved and all radiocarbon dates were calibrated. This palynological study provides the most comprehensively analysed and dated sequence of Saxon and earlier medieval deposits in the British Isles. It also presents convincing evidence for the changing pattern of vegetation and land use at the site.

It proved impossible to excavate a section across the palaeochannel, and samples for radiocarbon estimates, pollen analysis, and the recovery of waterlogged plant remains were obtained from cores

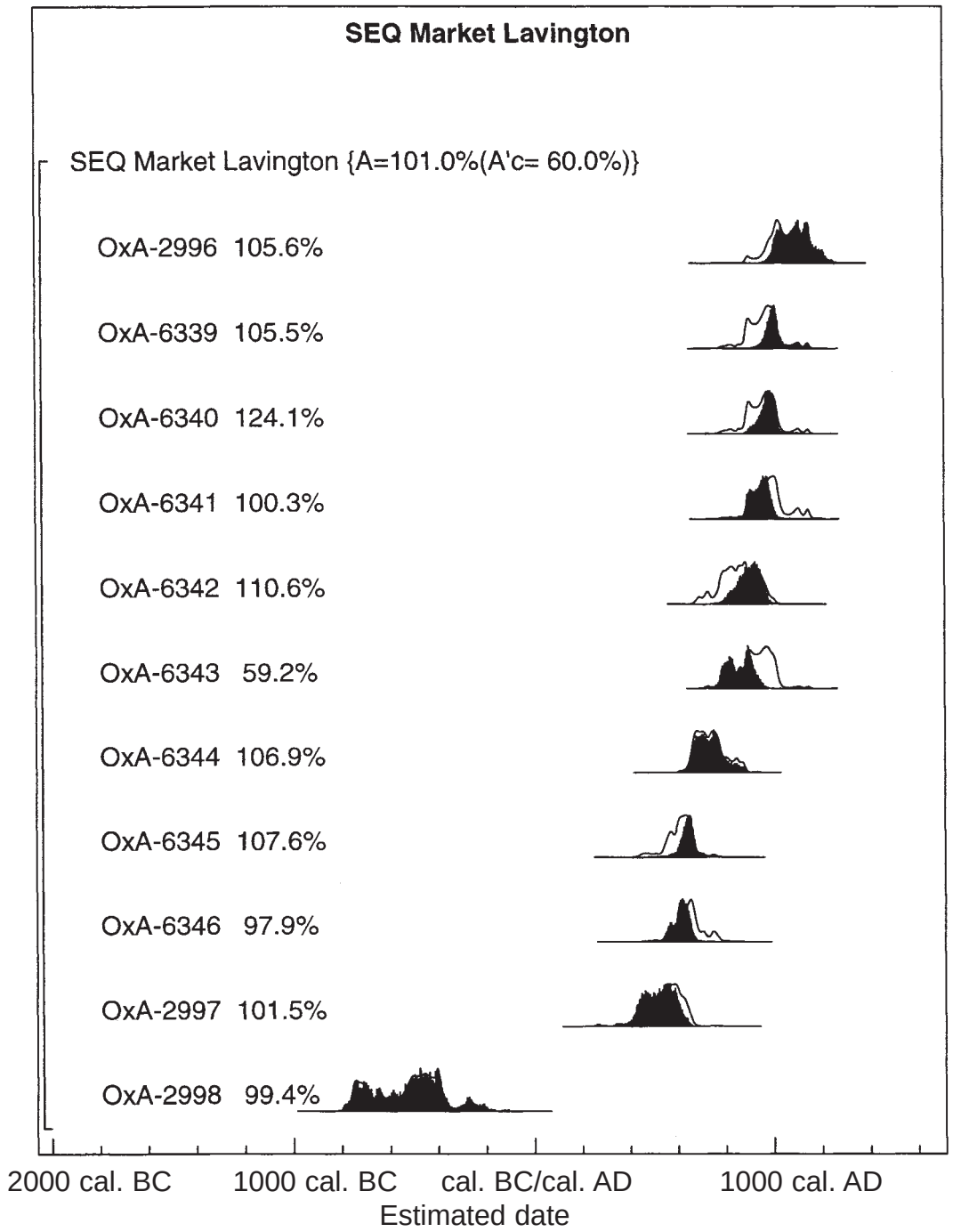

Figure 57. Probability distributions of dates from the Easterton Brook palaeochannel. Each distribution represents the relative probability that an event occurs at a particular time. For each of the dates two distributions have been plotted: one in outline, which is the result of simple radiocarbon calibration, and a solid one, based on the chronological model used. The large square brackets down the left-hand side along with the OxCal keywords define the overall model exactly

of sediments taken from a borehole (see Fig. 3). Early in the excavation, five samples were submitted to the Oxford Radiocarbon Accelerator Unit to provide an outline chronology for the sediment sequence. Once assessment had established that the polleniferous horizons were confined to the upper part of the core, eight more closely spaced samples were submitted for radiocarbon determination. These were aimed to date specific events in the vegetation history, and to provide the basis of calculating the rate of sediment accumulation from early Saxon times.

The results of the eleven AMS (accelerator mass spectrometry) determinations from the borehole (and two from the channel edge) are presented in Table 18. All determinations were calibrated using the maximum intercept method (Stuiver and Reimer 1986)

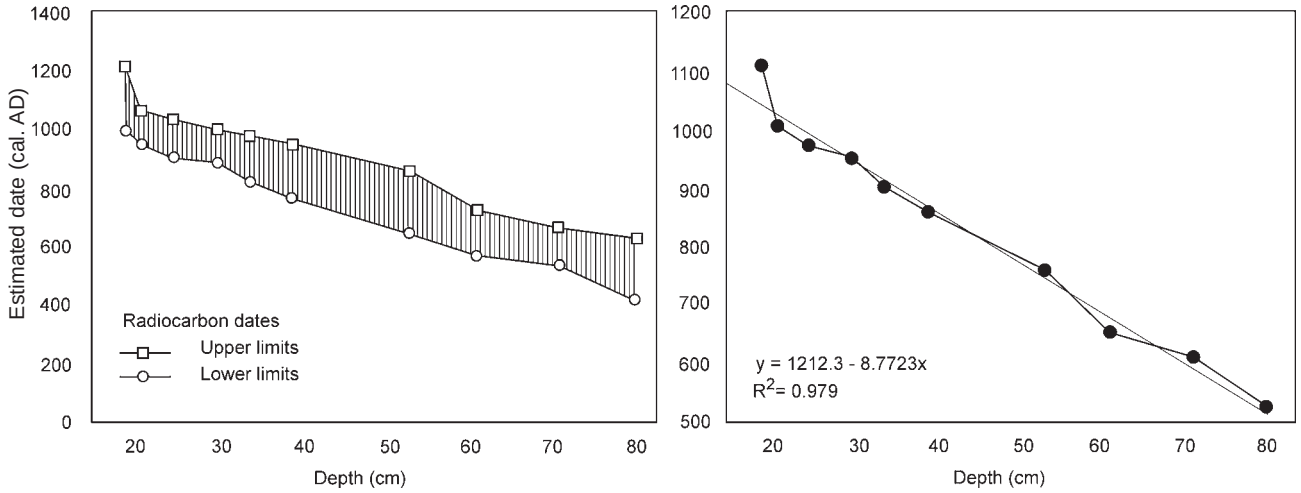

Figure 58. (Left) estimated date ranges *from the Bayesian chronological model shown in Fig. 57 plotted against depth; (right) simple linear regression through the centre points of the* estimated date ranges *from the Bayesian chronological model shown in Fig. 57 against depth (R^2 = 0.979)*

using OxCal v 2.18 (Bronk Ramsey 1995) which uses the data from Pearson and Stuiver (1986) and Stuiver and Pearson (1986). The end points of the calibrated dates were rounded outwards to 10 years following the form recommended by Mook (1986). The probability distributions (shown in white on Fig. 57) were produced using OxCal v2.18 (Bronk Ramsey 1995).

Interpretative estimates were achieved by applying Bayesian statistics (Table 18). Ranges are quoted in italics and were derived from the mathematical modelling of archaeological problems using the probability method (Stuiver and Reimer 1993; van der Plicht 1993; Dehling and van der Plicht 1993). A Bayesian estimate provides a probabilistic model which allows the adaptation of a given 'prior' probability distribution between two radiocarbon dates in the light of new information (ie, more radiocarbon dates). The adapted distribution (ie, the 'posterior' distribution) is calculated with reference to background stratigraphy; the samples are constrained by stratification and the 'prior' knowledge that sediment lower in the sequence is older than that higher up. The 'posterior' estimates have narrower ranges than those provided by calibration alone.

It is the date of an event that is of interest rather than simple calibrated dates ranges of radiocarbon measurements. The Bayesian modelling produces realistic estimates of dates of archaeological interest.

Table 18. Radiocarbon dates

Sample	*Depth (mm)*	*Lab. no.*	*Radiocarbon age (BP)*	*Calibrated date range (cal. AD; 95% probability)*	*Est. date range (cal. AD; 95% prob.)*	*Pollen zone*
Percussion bored core						
9605	170–200	OxA-2996	970±70	890–1250	*1000–1220*	
	200–220	OxA-6339	1055±60	880–1110	*950–1060 (88%)* *1080–1130 (7%)*	ML5
	240–260	OxA-6340	1060±60	880–1040	*910–1030*	
	300–320	OxA-6341	1035±60	880–1160	*890–1010*	
	340	OxA-6342	1160±60	680–1010	*820–980*	
	380–400	OxA-6343	1080±60	800–1030	*770–950*	ML4
	520–540	OxA-6344	1290±60	640–890	*650–860*	ML3
	600–620	OxA-6346	1425±60	530–680	*570–720*	ML2
	700–720	OxA-6345	1380±60	550–680	*540–570*	
9604	790–820	OxA-2997	1500±70	410–660	*420–630*	ML1
9603	1540–1580	OxA-2998	2370±80	780–250 cal. BC	*770–360 cal. BC*	
Channel-edge section						
9601.1		OxA-2999	2110±70	380 cal. BC–cal AD 20		
9601.2		OxA-3000	2100±70	370 cal. BC–cal. AD 60		
			Weighted mean	360–1 cal. BC		

Since these are *estimates*, it follows that they may change if more radiocarbon determinations were to be made, or if a different approach to modelling were to be adopted.

The technique of 'Gibbs sampling' (Gelfland and Smith 1990) was applied using OxCal v2.18 (Bronk Ramsey 1995; Buck *et al.* 1991; 1992; Buck, Litton *et al.* 1994; Buck, Christen *et al.* 1994). The algorithms used in the models can be derived from the structure shown in Figure 57 and should allow the analyses to be repeated. No assumptions about the accumulation rate of the sequence have been made (see Christen *et al.* 1995). The revised 'posterior' probability distributions are shown in black in Figure 57 and represent the Bayesian estimates for dates of the levels in the pollen sequence. They relate to the *estimated date ranges* given in italics in Table 18, and are the best estimates for the dates in this pollen sequence at present.

It should be noted that the index of agreement for OxA-6343 (380–400 mm) was slightly below the accepted threshold for reliability (Bronk Ramsey 1995). There was a probability of only 12% that the dated material was in the true stratigraphic position. Whilst this represents a statistical outlier, this percentage probability was not low enough to cause serious concern. Overall, the radiocarbon results show good agreement with the stratigraphy and they were statistically consistent. This suggests, therefore, that the model was realistic.

The lowest sample (1540–1580 mm) gave a calibrated date of 790–250 cal. BC. This fell close to the radiocarbon plateau (*c.* 800–400 BC), so it was only possible to say that the sample was of Iron Age date. However, this study concentrated on deposits of Saxon date for which the results were well resolved. Indeed, with ten radiocarbon estimates over a depth of 650 mm (from 170–820 mm), and an additional result from 1540–1580 mm, the Market Lavington palaeochannel presents the most closely dated sequence ever associated with an archaeological site in southern England. It has been demonstrated that the upper part of the peat-filled channel was contemporary with the excavated Anglo-Saxon and medieval settlement; it accumulated over the six centuries between *c.* cal. AD 630 and *c.* cal. AD 1220.

Figure 58 (left) shows the calibrated and *estimated date ranges* from the Bayesian model plotted against depth for the palaeochannel. The true dates for the deposits could lie anywhere within the upper and lower limits. The centre of the *estimated date range* is given in Figure 58 (right) and a simple regression line has been calculated. Although a plot of the midpoints of the *estimated date ranges* may introduce error, and errors were not calculated here, these 'depth/time' curves are, perhaps, more realistic than where the midpoints of uncalibrated radiocarbon ages are used. The regression line through the centre of the *estimated date ranges* fitted remarkably well, with a value for R^2 of 0.979. This suggested that sediment accumulation was linear and the degree of variation was well within that which could be expected from experimental error.

Although interpolation between radiocarbon dates is usually regarded as erroneous because actual dates could fall anywhere between the upper and lower limits of the date ranges, the linearity of the depth-time curve expressed here might allow some time estimates of undated sediment (Orton, pers. comm.). At the time of writing, however, where the data and regression have such a good fit, the adoption of the centre of the *estimated date ranges* was deemed the best option for any interpolation.

2. Palynological Analysis of the Palaeochannel Sediments

by Patricia Wiltshire [1997]

This is a summary of the final version of the archive report (Wiltshire 1997), prepared for the Ancient Monuments Laboratory, English Heritage. Full details of the methods may be found in this report.

Initial Assessment of the Sediments

During excavation, sediment cores were obtained from various locations within the palaeochannel with a view to assessing their potential for reconstructing the vegetation history of the site. Most contained very poorly preserved palynomorphs, but 2000 mm of polleniferous sediments were eventually obtained from the putative centre of the channel. Palynological scanning to a depth of 1820 mm indicated that full analysis was only feasible for the upper part of the sequence (Wiltshire 1991); but the assessment results did allow a crude reconstruction of the environment for the period represented by the lower deposits. As demonstrated by earlier studies mentioned above, they revealed a virtually treeless pre-Iron Age landscape. Although very low levels of *Corylus*-type (hazel), *Quercus* (oak) and *Alnus* (alder) were recorded, the catchment of the Easterton Brook was dominated by weedy grassland and heath vegetation. Very low levels of cereal-type pollen were found only at 1040 mm, and the pollen spectra implied a predominantly pastoral economy at the site between at least the Late Bronze Age and Iron Age times. That the area around the site of Market Lavington was devoid of woodland in prehistoric times is, perhaps, not surprising in view of the abundance of evidence for prehistoric activity on the chalk downs of Salisbury Plain; and Neolithic, Bronze Age, and

Romano-British artefacts have also been found around the modern village (see above).

Palynological Analysis

Full palynological analysis was completed only on sediment to a depth of 840 mm. Analytical results are presented in the pollen diagrams (Figs 59–62). For convenience of description, the diagrams were divided into six local pollen assemblage zones designated ML1 to ML6. The radiocarbon date range (95% probability) indicated that the pollen diagrams spanned some time before *cal. AD 420–630* up to *cal. AD 1000–1220*. They recorded most, if not all, of the Saxon period and certainly extended to after the Norman Conquest.

The palynological data shown in Figures 59–62 reflect the extreme complexity of the *plant* assemblages contributing to the pollen spectra; the pollen and spores spectra derived from those plant assemblages resulted from a wide range of taphonomic variables. These include responses of local, extra-local, and regional plant communities to soils, microclimate, hydrology, and cultural impact such as agriculture and dumping of waste. Both stenotypic (of narrow ecological tolerance) and eurytypic (of wide ecological tolerance) species were represented, and it was clear that plants from a wide range of microhabitats were represented.

Presentation of conventional pollen diagrams proved to be unhelpful for easy interpretation, so Figures 59–62 were constructed with pollen taxa grouped according to their probable ecological affinities. The groups were determined by reference to patterns within pollen spectra themselves, and aided by multivariate analysis, reference to standard ecological texts, and personal field observation. Pollen data inherently lack taxonomic resolution when compared to macrofossil data, so it is even more difficult to characterise plant communities from pollen results alone. But, for ease of interpretation, the approach was considered justifiable. Tables indicating the possible/probable taxa identified, and the plant groups to which they were assigned are given in archive. Figure 59 is a summary diagram where the *average* pollen values for each pollen assemblage zone were given. This diagram gives a crude overview of the changes in the major vegetation components in each local pollen assemblage zone. Such summary diagrams are useful aids to description when viewed with the detailed diagrams (Figs 60–2).

It must be stated most emphatically that the palynological record of a single core of sediments cannot be taken to reflect the true vegetation history of a *wide* landscape. It will represent what has accumulated in that restricted space. The nature of any pollen spectra being deposited on a surface will depend on (a) the vegetation dominating the site, (b) relative pollen production of that vegetation, (c) filtering effects of local vegetation against extra-local and regional pollen, (d) the presence of other physical barriers, (e) the effect of peoples' activities, and many other factors, some of which have been mentioned above. Inevitably, the major influences will be the immediately local vegetation, and the level of representation of any one taxon will depend on its proximity to the pollen site as well as its pollen production and dispersal characteristics. The likelihood of pollen or spores of any plant being incorporated into sediment will decline with increasing distance from the site.

The extensive results obtained in forensic palynological studies between 1993 and 2006 (since the original analysis of Market Lavington was carried out) have demonstrated the uniqueness and high degree of variability in pollen and spore deposition (Wiltshire forthcoming). However, the patterning of the pollen curves in Figures 60–62 does indicate meaningful changes in the vegetation close to the site.

Overview and Some Taphonomic Considerations

It is immediately obvious from Figure 59 that from early Saxon to Norman times, the palaeochannel was surrounded by open meadow, damp grassland, pasture, and poor fen. Although not abundantly represented, obligate aquatic and emergent plants seem to have been growing in and along the margins of the channel throughout the period of sediment accumulation. The palynological assessment, which included deeper sediments, indicated that the site had been open for a very long time and the woodland had been cleared before the Iron Age. Poaceae (grasses) dominated the pollen spectra throughout the sequence (achieving between 40–50% of the pollen sum). This may have been due to a local abundance of the common reed (*Phragmites australis*). But, there are very many species of grass with varying ecological tolerance ranges, particularly with regard to pH and pF, and since it is virtually impossible to distinguish one taxon from another in routine analysis, grass pollen is not very useful for habitat characterisation. Considering the species richness in the assemblage as a whole, it may be surmised that the site supported many species of grass, and that these were able to reach the flowering stage. This might imply relatively low levels of management and grazing around the channel.

It is interesting to note that there was no evidence of a post-Roman recovery of woodland in this part of Wessex. Low values for woody plants were recorded

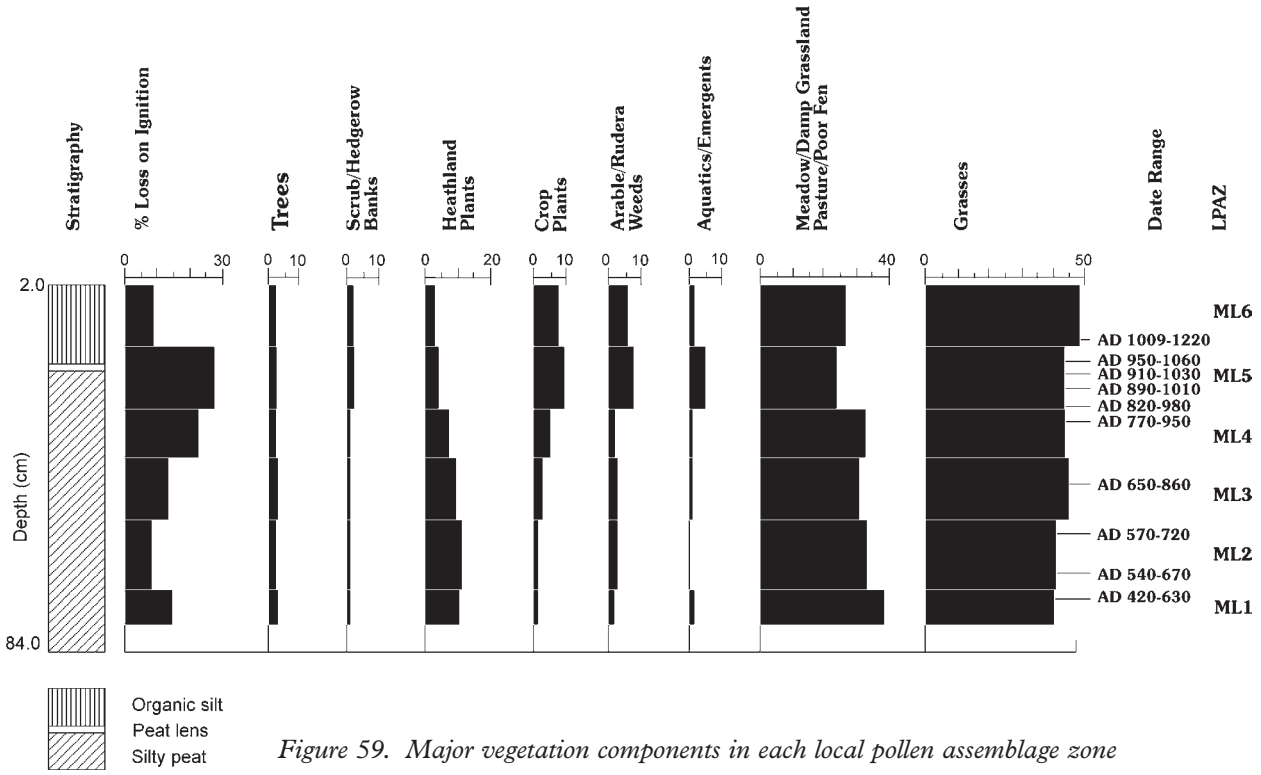

Figure 59. Major vegetation components in each local pollen assemblage zone

throughout the sequence, and trees were probably present either as small stands, or isolated individuals scattered in the landscape. It is also possible that any substantial tracts of woodland lay a considerable distance away from the site. However, since many of the scrub/hedgerow plants are insect-pollinated and have poor pollen dispersal, a record of them in the palaeochannel deposits means that they were likely to have been more local. Heathland vegetation and arable fields were obviously significant elements within the catchment, but their proximity to the palaeochannel would be difficult to ascertain. It is of interest that, for the same period, the vegetation history for this palaeochannel bears a close resemblance to one analysed at Scole on the Suffolk/Norfolk borders. Even though the East Anglian site had slightly more trees in its catchment, a similar record of landscape and management was recorded (Wiltshire and Murphy 1999).

Microscopic charcoal was found in every sample, and this reflects the long archaeological record of settlement close to the palaeochannel. But, it was never very abundant and there was no evidence of the local vegetation having been burnt. Occasional algal spores were found in zones ML2 and ML3 and this was to be expected considering the nature of the sediments. However, it is surprising is that so few iron pyrite framboids were found; sparse quantities were present at 780 mm and towards the surface of the sequence at 100 mm and 20 mm.

Framboids are good indicators of a number of microenvironmental factors because of the very narrow range of physico-chemical conditions necessary for their formation (Wiltshire *et al.* 1994). Framboids are produced through the action of iron-reducing and sulphate-reducing bacteria which function at very low redox potential (Eh of +100 mV, and between –100 to –150 mV respectively). They need organic compounds produced by fermentation (Eh of <+200 mV) and, of course, a source of sulphate and ferric iron (detrital iron). These conditions are often achieved in waterlogged, organic, palaeochannel sediments. However, if there is periodic drying/aeration, redox can rise to levels where the iron pyrite oxidises without trace. The consistent presence of *Glomus*-type sporangia (Fig. 60) implies a regular input of bioactive soil into the palaeochannel, so detrital iron was unlikely to have been limiting; the humic nature of the sediments indicated the availability of a source of sulphate and organic substrates. It seems probable, therefore, that although the palaeochannel sediments were wet enough to maintain a redox low enough for pollen preservation, it was (a) not low enough for framboid formation, or (b) the sediments dried periodically and framboids oxidised away. Their absence implies that waterlogging in the palaeochannel was periodic rather than persistent.

Figure 60 shows that palynomorph concentration was consistently low in zones ML1–4 but that it increased markedly in zone ML5 and even more in zone ML6. In the main, the pattern of species richness followed that of the palynomorph concentration except it fluctuated around a lower

level in zone ML4. It is difficult to give clear reasons for the concurrent and marked rise in concentration and species richness in the uppermost zones, but differential decomposition might be a reason for the observed variation in the sequence. Breakdown of palynomorphs depends on non-biological oxidation of structural polymers and microbial activity. Thus redox potential, a large array of other physico-chemical parameters, and microbial assemblages play a role in palynomorph disappearance. The curve of unidentified pollen and spores (Fig. 60) might give some idea of the impact of differential decomposition in this sequence since the vast majority of unidentified grains were the result of decay of diagnostic anatomical elements. There is a downward (though not marked) trend in the curve through time, with the greatest numbers of unidentified occurring in zone ML2.

The pattern within the 'concentration', 'richness', and 'unidentified' curves would suggest that preservation was better in zones ML5 and ML6. As will be discussed later, the pollen site appeared to become wetter in zones ML5 and ML6 and this might have resulted in a lowering of redox potential and reduction in palynomorph disappearance. However, the degree of variation in percentages of unidentifiable grains between the lower and upper parts of the curve are not pronounced enough to explain the great differences in the concentration and species richness curves.

Another factor to consider is the possibility that there was a real increase in the numbers of pollen and spores from a larger amount of plant material finding its way into the channel. It is interesting that zone ML5 had the highest organic content, and zone ML6 had one of the lowest organic contents yet both had a well preserved and species rich assemblage. The relationship between organic content and pollen preservation is thus not straightforward in this context.

The low levels of organic matter in zone ML6 might suggest that conditions were conducive to organic breakdown. If so, the relatively high levels of palynomorphs suggest that pollen and spores were more resistant to breakdown than detrital organic matter. However, it is also possible that the lower organic content in zone ML6 could also have been caused by an influx of minerogenic material into the channel. The low organic content would then be a function of dilution by inorganic material rather than disappearance or organic remains by decomposition. The lack of 'dilution' of palynomorphs in ML6 probably means that highly polleniferous material was being incorporated into the sediment. As will be discussed later, it is possible that the palaeochannel was being used as a refuse dump for agricultural/horticultural waste in zones ML5 and ML6. By providing an artificially high influx of pollen-laden material, dumping could have resulted in a real rise in both the amount of pollen and species richness of taxa.

Description and interpretation of local pollen zones

Zone ML1 (780–820 mm)

A date of *cal. AD 420–630* was obtained for sediment at 790–820 mm, and relates to the early to mid-Saxon period.

The presence of aquatics and emergents indicate that the channel contained enough standing water to support floating aquatics, at least periodically. The local vegetation was dominated by meadow/damp grassland/pasture/poor fen (Figs 59 and 62). Poaceae and Cyperaceae (grasses and sedges) dominated the community, but it was rich with broad-leaved herbs such as *Sinapis*-type (eg, lady's smock), *Lychnis flos-cuculi* (ragged robin), *Ranunculus*-type (buttercups), *Trifolium*-type (eg, clover), and *Polygala* (milkwort), amongst others. Lactuceae, a taxon which includes a very large number of dandelion-like plants, was particularly abundant. By virtue of its resistance to decomposition, high levels of this pollen taxon are often taken to be an indication of very poor pollen preservation (Havinga 1971). But when the nature of the whole community is taken into account, and also that many 'vulnerable' pollen taxa were present, it is likely that the Lactuceae were not overrepresented. Also consistently present was *Ophioglossum* (adder's tongue fern), today characteristic of damp/wet pastures and fen meadows; and other ferns (monolete Pteropsida) were important components. The very openness and wetness of the site suggests that the dominant ferns were species such as *Thelypteris palustris* (marsh fern). Tall herb communities with *Filipendula* (meadowsweet), *Equisetum* (horsetails), *Cirsium* (eg, marsh thistle) and others were probably growing along the banks of the channel and in the wetter areas.

Away from the wet soils, *Pteridium* (bracken) was relatively abundant and *Calluna* (heather) consistently present (Fig. 60). It is very difficult to determine the kind of community from which these plants were derived. There might have been well managed lowland heath on adjacent acid soils, or acid grassland pastures colonised by heathers and infested with *Pteridium*.

Trees and shrubs were very poorly represented in the catchment, the most abundant taxon being *Quercus* (oak); when their high pollen productivity is considered, *Alnus* (alder), *Betula* (birch) and *Pinus* (pine) were present only as traces (Fig. 60). It is, of course, possible that both trees and shrubs were growing in the area but that the deciduous ones were so intensively coppiced or pollarded that flowering was largely inhibited.

A number of cereal-type pollen grains were found at 800 mm and again at 780 mm, and a few arable/ruderal weed taxa (Fig. 61). Thus, cereals were probably being grown and/or processed locally, and the pollen record suggests that

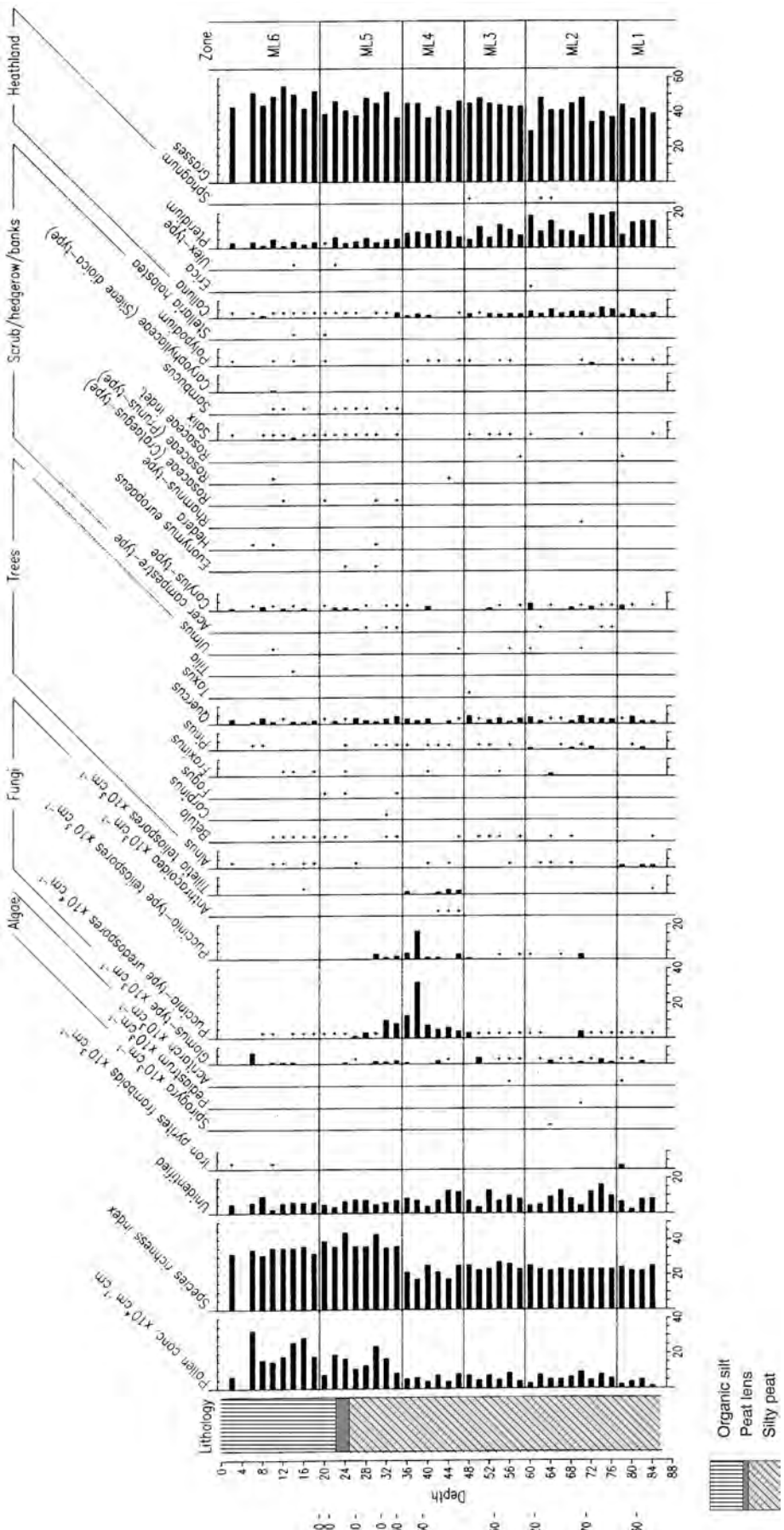

Figure 60. Detailed pollen diagram

arable agriculture was being practised at a low level. However, by virtue of cleistogamous (self-) pollination and large pollen size, cereal pollen does not travel far from source, and it is possible that crop production and processing was occurring too far from the pollen site to be more clearly indicated (Vuorela 1973; Hall 1989). Another important point to remember is that tall herb vegetation at the pollen site might have acted as an effective filter against poorly dispersed pollen grains.

In such a mixed community, and in such damp conditions, it is not surprising that *Puccinia*-type (rust) uredospores were present. Rusts are obligate, parasitic fungi. There are literally hundreds of species, and thousands of strains (and physiological races of those strains) capable of infecting a very wide range of plants including grasses, sedges, rushes, and cereals, and very many broad-leaved herbs and wood plants (Preece and Hick 1990). Most plant communities sustain low levels of infection.

Zone ML2 (580–780 mm)

A date of *cal. AD 540–570* was obtained from sediments within this zone (700–720 mm). Generally, the vegetation was very similar to that in zone ML l except that that there appears to have been a small reduction in the tall herb plants, ferns and Lactuceae. There was probably some standing water in the channel since both *Sparganium*-type (bur-reed and lesser reedmace) and *Typha latifolia* (greater reedmace) were present. However, both these taxa are tall and their pollen could have come from plants growing at the margins of the actively-flowing Easterton Brook which would have been nearby.

The increased abundance in plants of smaller stature such as *Sinapis*-type (charlock and others) and *Ranunculus*-type (buttercups), the appearance and consistent representation of the pollen of *Aster*-type (daisy, hemp agrimony and others), and an overall increased frequency in other meadow/damp grassland/pasture/fen plants, suggests that there was some disturbance of the immediate vegetation. The greater number and abundance of taxa which must have been growing a little distance away from the channel (eg, heathland plants and trees and shrubs) also suggest that the *in situ* vegetation was cut or flattened allowing more pollen from outside the immediate source area to enter the record.

The pollen spectra give the impression that the rather dense, meadow/grassland/fen was being disturbed and it is possible that more intensive grazing and trampling were causing these effects.

Zone ML3 (460–580 mm)

A date of *cal. AD 570–720* was obtained from this zone (at 520–540 mm). Overall, the vegetation was similar to that in zones ML1 and ML2 but the pollen site seems to have become wetter, as evidenced by the higher frequency of plants characteristic of standing water (Figs 59 and 61).

The decrease in Lactuceae and Cyperaceae might indicate that they were being removed so reducing competition for *Filipendula* (meadowsweet), *Plantago lanceolata* (ribwort plantain), and grasses. In the past, Cyperaceae (sedges) represented a very valuable domestic resource (for flooring, bedding for stock, etc) and it is possible that the meadow was being exploited for plant materials. The drop in *Pteridium* (bracken) and *Calluna* (heather), and the indication of a decline in *Corylus*-type (hazel) might also have been due to their being gathered for some domestic use. Cereal-growing was still being carried out at low level. Vegetation continued to sustain fungal rust infections and they increased towards the top of the zone.

There was certainly some impact on the vegetation in the environs of the channel where the zone boundary was drawn between zones ML2 and ML3 (at 580 mm). An interpolated date for this level is *cal. AD 672* (Fig. 58 (right)). Obviously this is too precise, but it does show that somewhere in the region of the latter part of the 7th century, mid-Saxon people were disturbing the meadow and possibly removing sedges. More widely, heathland plants were being affected as well as *Corylus* (hazel), and local resources seemed to be expoloited more heavily than previously.

Zone ML4 (340–460 mm)

A single radiocarbon determination from this zone (at 380–400 mm) gives a date of *cal. AD 770–950*, indicating deposition during the Late Saxon period. This phase coincides with a rise in organic content from 13.1% in zone ML3 to an average of 22.4% and indicates either that decomposition of organic residues was being impeded, or that greater volumes of organic matter were finding their way into the sediment, possibly by dumping of waste material.

There seems to have been pressure on woody and heathland plants, and *Salix* (willow) disappeared from the record altogether. This might suggest that the catchment of the pollen site was being more heavily exploited than before. The reciprocal changes in the herb pollen spectra indicate that local disturbance (possibly higher grazing intensity or trampling) resulted in more light being available to the sward. However, whatever the nature of the changes within the community, *Ophioglossum* (adder's tongue fern) was favoured for what would seem to be a long period of time, and it must have increased considerably within the meadow.

The very marked increase in cereal-type pollen, especially the sample at 400 mm (Fig. 61), and the appearance of *Cannabis*-type (hemp/hop) pollen, suggests that arable activity was expanding locally. Given the fact that there was very little evidence for nearby woodland or the kind of hedges favouring wild hop (ie, old, relatively undisturbed ones), the chances are that the *Cannabis*-type pollen was derived from a *Cannabis* crop. There are certainly a number of records of hemp cultivation in Saxon times (Greig 1991; Wiltshire in prep.). Hemp is a demanding crop for calcium and phosphate and the present-day soils around Market Lavington are rather low in phosphate; however, the soils adjacent to the palaeochannel which had previously

supported livestock might have been productive for *Cannabis* since the plant also needs moist conditions (Esdaile 1931).

Only a small number of *Cannabis*-type pollen grains were found, but large amounts might not be expected if harvesting strategy avoided flowering/seed-set (Whittington and Edwards 1989; Edwards and Whittington 1992). However, there are several sites which have been interpreted as retting areas in view of the high concentrations of hemp pollen recorded (Bradshaw *et al.* 1981) although, presumably, pollen samples would need to have been taken more precisely at retting points to detect these high values. It is conceivable that the channel at Market Lavington was used for retting; the channel would have provided a source of water close enough to the settlement to be practical and yet far enough away for the foul stench of retting to be avoided. However, the evidence for hemp retting in the channel is not convincing, at least not in the area from which the pollen core was obtained. The few grains that were found might have been derived from dumped plant material, or blown in from a nearby crop.

There were certainly significant changes in the microenvironment of the channel in zone ML4. The progressive increase in *Puccinia*-type (rust) spores to the very large value at 380 mm, and the consistent presence of *Tilletia* (smuts), might indicate that the local plant communities were stressed in some way since disease severity often depends on the vigour of the susceptible plant (Wheeler 1969). Two of the most serious rust diseases of grasses and cereals in Britain today are caused by strains and races of the yellow rust, *P. striiformis* and the black stem rust, *P. graminis*. They have a very wide host range and cause problems in temperate climates where winters are mild and summers are relatively cool. The pattern of the rust and smut spore curves is suggestive of a build-up and climax of fungal infection in plant taxa represented in the pollen diagrams.

With the lack of precision in morphological identification of the various rusts, it is impossible to make precise statements about environmental conditions which promoted the sustained infections indicated in Figure 60 since each physiological race is enhanced and stimulated by highly specific factors. However, observation has demonstrated that the interplay between temperature and humidity is often an important precursor of an epidemic although, for each individual species or race, particular regimes of temperature and humidity determine infection (Wheeler 1969). Early studies in America showed that epidemics of black stem rust occurred when the average summer temperature was above 17.8°C and not below 16.1°C. Furthermore, irrespective of temperature, epidemics only occurred when rainfall was high (Stakman and Lambert 1928; Levine 1928; Lambert 1929). Other studies in Canada showed that the average temperatures between mid June and early August, and high rainfall in spring and summer, were critical to the severity of rust infections (Craigie 1945). In Britain, *Puccinia graminis* outbreaks occur in years with high summer temperatures and prevailing southwesterly air streams (Hirst *et al.* 1967).

It is possible, therefore, that the very high increase in fungal parasites indicates a climatic shift which was conducive to rust infections of epidemic proportions. Plants which were abundant in the meadow, such as grasses and sedges, could easily have been susceptible hosts. Evidence from a number of sources has been presented to suggest that the northern hemisphere enjoyed an episode of climatic warming between about AD 700 and 1300 (see Bell and Walker 1992). This period has been referred to variously as 'The Medieval Warm Period' or 'The Little Optimum'. However, the warm episode certainly does not seem to have been uniformly widespread. A review by Hughes and Diaz (1994) concludes that 'in some areas of the globe, for some part of the year, relatively warm conditions may have prevailed'. There is, however, no direct information for a warm medieval period in Britain, and inference for such has relied largely on documentary evidence (Lamb 1977; 1982). But even relying on documentary evidence has come under scrutiny (Hughes and Diaz 1994).

The lack of taxonomic resolution of the fungal rust spores means that their peak of abundance in zone ML4 is difficult to interpret. Certainly, a number of plant species must have been affected since the presence of *Anthracoidea* (cf *A. subinclusa*) probably means that *Carex riparia* (great pond sedge) was among the sedge species present (Ellis and Ellis 1985). It is interesting to speculate whether the abundance of these rusts and smuts is also associated with the marked increase in cereal-type pollen towards the end of the zone. The fungal spores and pollen could have been derived from cereal waste being dumped into the channel.

There is a possibility that, rather than gross changes in climate, the abundance of rusts and smuts in zone ML4 might reflect changes in local microclimate or soils, or even disturbance of the local vegetation. Plant communities in the environs of the channel could have provided foci for increasing inoculum potential for rust diseases. However, there is little indication from the pollen data that any taxa other than *Ophioglossum* fern and cereal-type showed any significant change. This appears to be the first substantial evidence for fungal rusts in the palynological record, and it offers the possibility of providing a novel proxy indicator of environmental (possibly climatic) change.

The transition between zones ML3 and ML4 thus marked considerable changes in the vegetation. An interpolated date for this level is *cal. AD 800* (Fig. 58 (right)). Somewhere around this time, mid-Saxon people were possibly causing changes in the meadow and this coincided with the expansion of *Ophioglossum* (adder's tongue fern). It was also the start of what appears to have been persistent fungal infections in the local plant communities and/or in plants which had been dumped in the channel. The infections of both rust and smut diseases reached a climax in about *cal. AD 860* (at 380 mm), just after the appearance of *Cannabis*-type pollen, and the expansion of the cereal pollen curve.

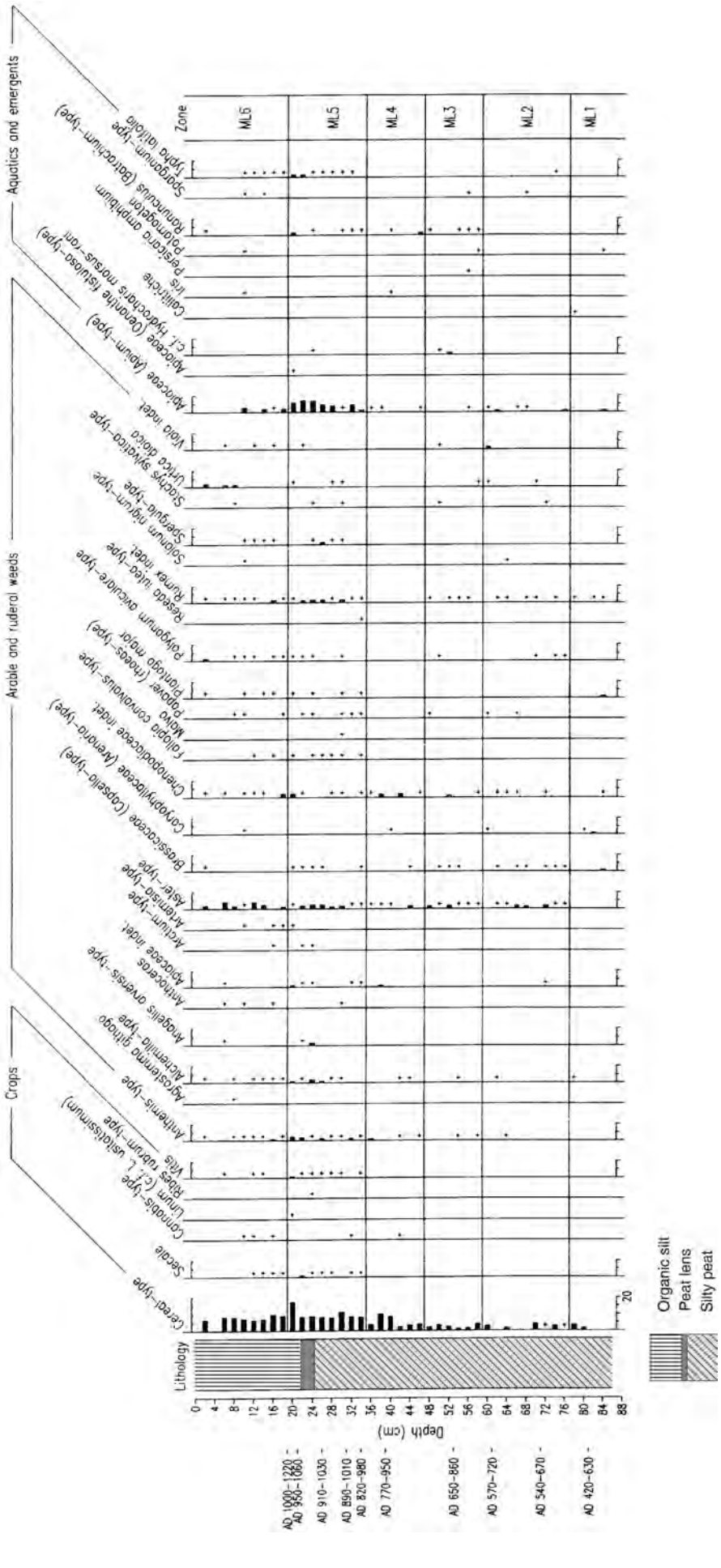

Figure 61. Detailed pollen diagram

Zone ML5 (180–340 mm)

There are five radiocarbon determinations spanning the estimated period of *c.* cal. AD 820–1220 (see Table 18). Thus, this zone relates to the Late Saxon and earlier medieval activity. There is a marked increase in both pollen concentration and species richness (Fig. 60) and there appears to have been a change in management of the local habitats and land use.

The pollen spectra in zone ML5 reflect the most significant changes in local landscape and land use in the sequence. Fungal infections gradually declined to previous incipient levels at about *cal. AD 950* (at 300 mm; Fig. 58 (right)). This means that plant diseases were prevalent and had persisted for about 150 years, well into late Saxon times.

The organic content of the sediment increased to an average value of 27.6% possibly influenced by the peaty band between 245 and 260 mm. There was also a marked increase in aquatics and emergents, particularly *Apium*-type (eg, fool's water cress). The higher values for aquatic and emergent plants suggests that the channel had become wetter; this is supported by the macrofossil content of the sediment which included a large number of taxa that suggested wet conditions (Straker this volume). The elevated organic content might have been related to the wetness and low redox potential, but no iron pyrite framboids were present, and this suggests that either water levels fluctuated or that the channel dried-out periodically.

In many systems such as fast-growing peat bogs, increased wetness is inferred by raised organic content and a *lowering* of pollen abundance and species richness. In such cases, increased organic content is due to the inhibition of microbial decomposition of plant residues because of anaerobiosis (caused by wetness), and lowered pH and base status. This is not the situation seen in the Easterton Brook palaeochannel where pollen abundance and species richness actually increased. Furthermore, most of wetness indicator plants in this zone were capable of growing under conditions of fluctuating water table so the sediments could have had periods of relatively high redox potential. These conditions would have promoted rapid decomposition of organic debris (Swift *et al.* 1979) and yet pollen concentrations could have been enhanced. Pollen seems to be more resistant to decomposition than other plant residues; it is often abundant in soils where all other plant material has decayed.

The pollen spectra show that pollen of crops was very closely associated with that of aquatic/emergents, and yet it is highly unlikely that soils immediately adjacent to the channel were being exploited for the kinds of crop plants recorded in the sequence. It is much more likely that the channel itself was being used as a dump for agricultural waste, and deliberate manipulation associated with hay meadow management cannot be ruled out.

If the channel were being used as a rubbish dump, the sediment would have become nutrient enriched and the decomposition of plant debris would have been enhanced. This might explain the increased pollen abundance and richness. Certainly, the pollen taxa recorded in zone ML5 were characteristic of plants occupying a wide range of soil conditions. Many would be found growing in drier and mesotrophic to eutrophic soils, and would have contributed litter of relatively high base status.

Certain 'old meadow' taxa such as *Sanguisorba officinalis* (great burnet), *Centaurea nigra*-type (knapweeds), *Silene vulgaris*-type (eg, bladder campion), *Potentilla*-type (eg, tormentil and creeping cinquefoil), *Rumex acetosa*-type (sorrel) and *Cirsium* (thistles), and others increased. This could mean that the vegetation adjacent to the stream was being managed in a manner that enhanced the development of hay meadow. The crop residues themselves would have been relatively nutrient-rich having been grown on soils which had probably been treated with some kind of fertiliser. If dung had been used for manuring fields, it is conceivable that the crop waste would retain some of the manure and, hence, result in an increase of these taxa in the pollen record. Although there was no parasitological evidence for faecal contamination in the samples, it is conceivable that animals were pastured in the meadow so that deposition of pollen-rich dung was direct. The apparent increased pollen of certain members of the 'old meadow' community could have been derived from the dung of stock animals grazed in the meadow and herb-rich pasture.

Poaceae (grasses) remained the dominant plants at the site, but impact on the local environment seems to have affected some plants adversely. The changes in the stratigraphy between 245 and 260 mm seem to correspond to reductions in Cyperaceae, monolete Pteropsida, *Ophioglossum*, and fungal rusts, and an increase in some arable/ruderal weeds. *Ophioglossum* and fungal rusts gradually declined, and eventually disappeared from the record, while other important members of the community such as *Ranunculus*-type, Lactuceae, and *Plantago lanceolata* also declined.

The most startling features of this zone included not only the marked overall increase in crop plants and ruderal/arable weeds, but also the range of crops found. This suggests that there was a considerable expansion and diversification in the arable economy. The decline in heathland taxa, such as *Pteridium* and *Calluna*, may indicate that relatively poor or neglected areas around the settlement were being improved. There was a marginal increase in cereal-type pollen over the previous zone, with a very marked increase at 200 mm. *Secale* (rye) and *Vitis* (grape-vine) were first recorded at about *cal. AD 900* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)) and were consistently represented. There were occasional finds of *Cannabis*-type, *Linum* cf. *usitatissimum* (flax/linseed), and *Ribes rubrum*-type (eg, black/red currant). The range of crops might give some indication of the local soils being exploited for agriculture and, perhaps, the degree to which they were being managed to enhance productivity. It must be remembered, however, that crops might not always have been grown optimally.

The increase of plants associated with scrub/hedges/banks such as *Corylus*, *Salix*, *Sambucus* (elder), *Acer campestre*-type (field maple), *Crataegus*-type (hawthorn and

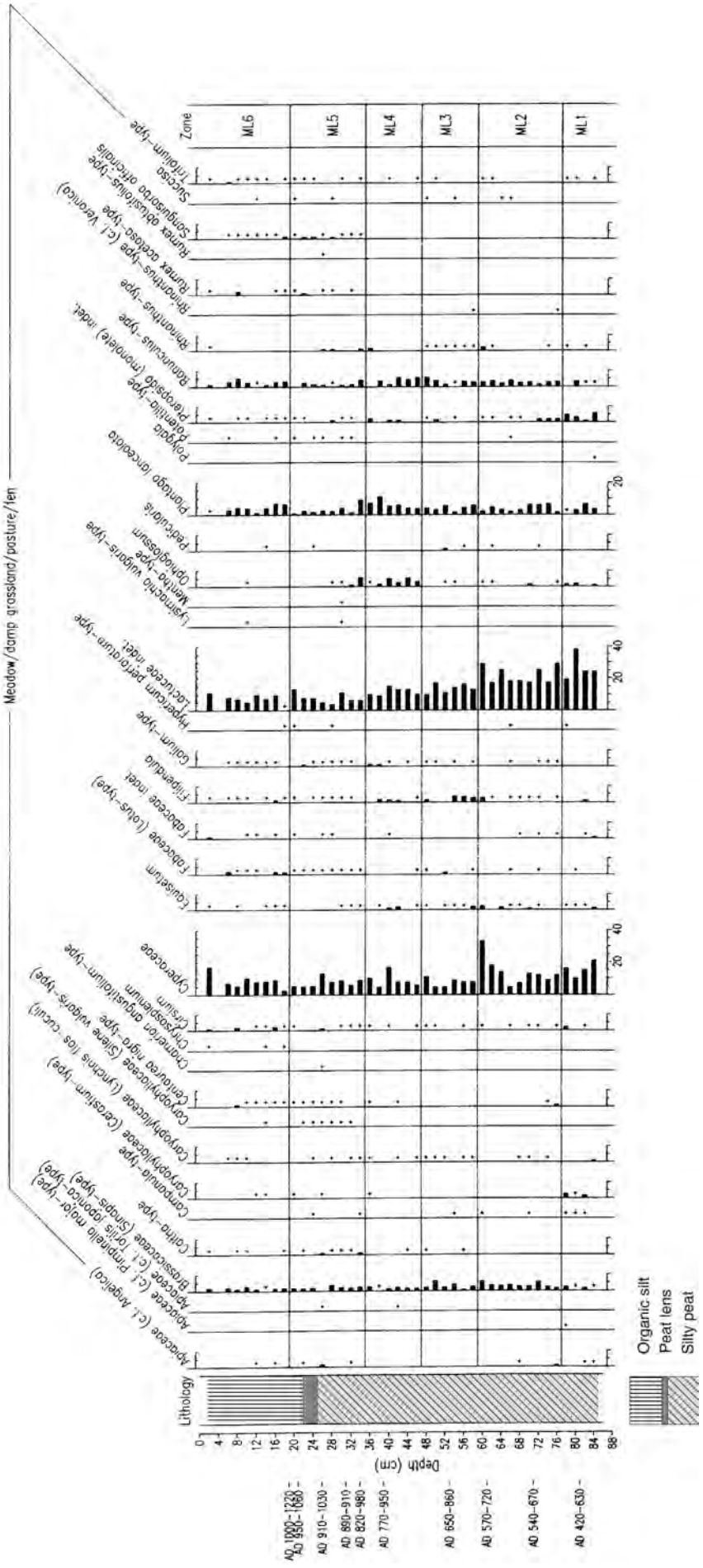

Figure 62. Detailed pollen diagram

others), *Euonymus* (spindle), *Ulex*-type (gorse), and *Hedera* (ivy) is difficult to interpret but hedges and scrub might have been less intensively managed. It is even possible that hedges were being created, although there is little direct evidence for this. There was very little change in the representation of tree taxa and, presumably, any woodland was probably managed as a valuable resource.

Economy and cultivated plants: All the crop taxa were probably grown within the immediate vicinity of the settlement, but the overwhelming evidence of wet conditions in the channel suggests that arable fields and horticultural plots were some distance away from the stream. Their presence in the sediments probably represents dumping of plant waste into the channel. Additional evidence for this might be the charred remains of *Triticum* (wheat) and *Hordeum* (barley), seeds of *Papaver somniferum* (opium poppy), capsules of *Linum usitatissimum* (flax), and the charred seeds of arable weeds (Straker this volume). When the varied requirements for the different crops are considered, it is highly unlikely that all those found in the sediments were grown so close to the channel.

The pollen record of *Linum* (flax) is interesting since it produces very small amounts and is very poorly dispersed (Hall 1989). *Linum usitatissimum* is grown for its fibres (flax) and/or seed (linseed). It grows best on firm level ground, not too richly manured, with a fairly deep subsoil to hold moisture during dry periods. If grown for fibre, the plants are harvested just before the fruits are ripe since the fibres become very hard if left too long. Thus the same plants cannot be used for both fibre and seed. The plants are harvested by pulling them out at the roots. They are then sorted, bundled, and retted either on wet grass, in flowing streams or rivers, or in vats of warm water. In the latter case, the effluent provides a useful fertiliser (Esdaile 1931). It is tempting to suggest that the channel was being used for retting or that flax/linseed waste was being dumped. Some seed plants would need to be grown to ensure future planting, so some finds of fruiting heads would be expected even if the crop had been grown for fibre.

Cannabis-type pollen includes both *Cannabis* (hemp) and *Humulus* (hop) and it is difficult to ascertain which crop was grown at the site. Actually, both could have been cultivated, but wild hops also occur as climbers in scrub and hedges. In any event, they have not been differentiated by pollen identification. No macrofossils of either plant were found.

Cannabis has been valued for both its fibre and seeds. Large amounts of oil can be pressed from the seeds and they provide a good source of food for captive birds. If grown for fibre, both male and female plants are reaped together before seed-set since, after fruiting, the fibres become very coarse. The male plant produces superior quality fibre, and it may have been selectively cropped (Whittington and Edwards 1992). For finest quality fibre, rich, but not heavy, soil and high levels of phosphate and calcium are needed. Mild and humid conditions are also necessary and planting needs to be dense to encourage tall growth. The crop is hand pulled and retted in a similar way to flax.

Ribes rubrum-type includes *R. rubrum* (red currant) and *R. nigrum* (black currant), and it was not possible to differentiate between them (Verbeek-Reuvers 1977). Both species are probably introduced (Stace 1991) and, today, are to be found in woods, hedges and along shaded streams. However, these shrubs will grow in any 'ordinary garden soil' and they have a long history of being grown as garden crops. Rybnickova and Rybnicek (1986) recorded that *Ribes* was planted in the Czechoslovakian uplands in the 12th–14th centuries, and Greig (1994a) found *Ribes* pollen in 13th century deposits from Chester. However, they did not differentiate between *R. rubrum*-type (black and red currants) and *R. uva-crispa* (gooseberry). The find of currant at Market Lavington is particularly interesting since it would appear to be the earliest British pollen record from an archaeological settlement where arable agriculture is clearly indicated.

It is likely that cultivars of *Ribes* were grown in small plots or 'gardens' in the settlement but the extent of viticulture is not clear and it is impossible to determine the scale of vine-growing at Market Lavington. It was certainly grown both in gardens and vineyards in Pompeii up to AD 79 (Jashemski 1979). In view of its poor pollen dispersal, the consistent presence of *Vitis* pollen strongly suggests that the plants were being grown in the vicinity of the settlement. However, it is probable that the *Vitis* pollen found its way into the channel via dumped processing waste or pruning debris. The consistent pollen representation, and lack of evidence for faecal contamination of the sediments, suggests that it is unlikely that the pollen came from imported dried fruits or human faeces as is so often the case in archaeological contexts (Greig 1994a).

When the requirements of the grapevine are considered, evidence of viticulture yields important information about the climate. The plant needs warm summers, mild winters, few late frosts, and hot summers are needed for fruit maturation. Generally, grape production requires the mean temperature of the warmest month to be in excess of 18.9°C, and the mean temperature of the coldest month to be higher than –1.1°C. However, the situation is complex and temperature is only one factor among many which determines the success of viticulture. For example, length of growing season, hours of sunshine, and rainfall influence whether grapes can be grown outside the temperature limits (Mullins *et al.* 1992). In summary, for a good grape harvest, there needs to be (1) freedom from late spring frosts (2) sufficient sunshine and warmth in summer (3) not too much rain (4) sunshine and warmth in autumn to raise sugar content of the fruit (5) winters where frosts are not too hard (Lamb 1965). It is highly likely, therefore, that local vineyards were situated on south-facing slopes of local hills to capitalise on their favourable microclimate.

Because of the profound effects of soil hydrogen ion concentration on the soil microflora and nutrient availability, the most fertile agricultural soils tend to be

circumneutral or slightly acidic (Brady 1974; Curl and Truelove 1986; Etherington 1982; Fitzpatrick 1986), but the grapevine can grow well in soils with a pH as high as 8.0. Its mineral requirements (particularly nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium) are considerably lower than those of many other crop plants and so relatively nutrient-poor soils can be exploited for viticulture. Indeed, as with many other nutrient-undemanding plants, free ions in the soil can be toxic to *Vitis*, and this is a particular problem in acid soils where metallic ions are more available. Liming can often overcome this effect but liming of fields is labour-intensive.

Chalk soils are perennially short of available phosphorus and nitrogen and, in spite of the undemanding nature of the grapevine, it is likely that the fields were fertilised with light dressings of organic manure to increase crop yield and to prevent deficiency diseases. Heavy and frequent application of manure can result in soil acidification and increased solubility of toxic ions such as copper, aluminium, and manganese (Brady 1974; Etherington 1982; Conradie and Saayman 1989, quoted in Mullins *et al.* 1992). But light applications might decrease the pH around the roots just enough to afford protection from borate toxicity which can occur in soils over pH 8 (Mullins *et al.* 1992).

Since poor, sandy soils would need to be limed, it is likely that the Market Lavington vines were being grown on the chalk rather than the very local Greensand soils. The vineyards were probably situated on south-facing chalk slopes (the chalk hills lie only about 0.5 km to the south and east of Market Lavington) and, if so, the soils might have been lightly dressed with organic manure.

The earliest record for vine fruit in Britain is from the Neolithic (Jones and Legge 1987). There are also numerous records of grape pips in Roman deposits, nearly all from urban deposits. Evidence for viticulture is more elusive but recent results from Wollaston, Northamptonshire (Meadows 1996) and in the Windrush Valley, Oxfordshire (Chambers unpublished) indicates that some vines were grown in Roman Britain. There are no records of grape pips from early Saxon sites and only a few from mid-Saxon ones, but after about AD 850, they are more frequent and again they are mainly from urban contexts (see Greig 1991; Green 1994; Wiltshire and Murphy in prep.). However, grape pips have been found on a rural site, Sharvards Farm, Meonstoke (Green 1991) and Green has suggested that viticulture might have been more widespread in Saxon England than suggested by current archaeological evidence. It is significant that Straker (this volume) found a grape pip in a late Saxon feature at Market Lavington.

There is documentary evidence of the existence of many vineyards in England in Late Saxon times. Domesday records of 1086 indicate that they were restricted to the south of the country (the most northerly one was at Ely) and that they were most numerous around London (Darby 1977). Four are recorded for Wiltshire: Wilcot, Tollard Royal, Bradford-on-Avon, and Lacock, and the yield at Wilcot is recorded as being good. If these vineyards were productive in 1086, they were probably in existence for some considerable time before that, and it is likely that they were all founded by Saxon communities. It is interesting that Lacock lies 17.5 km to the north-west, and Wilcot lies 13.8 km to the north-east of Market Lavington, so the region seems to have been a favoured one for viticulture, but there are no Domesday records for viticulture at Market Lavington.

Vitis has a similar frequency pattern to that of *Secale* (rye) in the pollen diagram (Fig. 61). Both taxa appeared together and were found throughout zone ML5. This suggests that *Secale* was of considerable importance to the settlement. Straker (this volume) found a few *Secale* cereal grains in both early and late Saxon features at the site and the poor representation of this cereal led her to believe that it was either insignificant as a crop, or was a weed of other cereals. She demonstrated that *Triticum* (wheat), *Avena* (oats), *Hordeum* (barley) as well as Secale were being consumed in the settlement. These could not be differentiated through pollen analysis but cereals other than *Secale* were recorded in this zone.

Secale is unlikely to have been grown on the better soils since it does not yield as well as other cereals; but its good representation in the pollen record suggests that it was, indeed, grown as a crop, probably on the poorer acid soils around the settlement. The palynological results here suggest that it was being grown from about *cal. AD 900* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)) onwards. This cereal has a long history of cultivation in Europe; it was grown in the Iron Age and production was greatly expanded in the early medieval period (Behre 1992). The earliest authenticated evidence of a rye crop in Britain dates from about AD 100 (Helbaek 1964) although there is evidence that it was present in prehistoric times (Chambers 1989). *Secale* produces a dark, heavy bread, and Roman writers complained that it had a bad smell and harsh taste (see Hjelmqvist 1989). It is also prone to infection by *Claviceps purpureum* (ergot) which is highly toxic if eaten in any quantity (Cooke 1977); traditionally, other cereals are preferred. The plant will grow on poor, light, acid soils such as those formed over the Greensand, and it can even be grown continuously with occasional break of leys (Lockhart and Wiseman 1983). Green (1994) emphasised that *Secale* seems to have been a significant crop in southern England from the late 10th to early 12th centuries and also points out that there appears to have been considerable variation in cereal preferences in the Saxon period. In other parts of Britain, *Secale* was certainly being grown as a crop in the 6th century and continued through to the 9th century and medieval period (Murphy 1985; Moffet 1988). Today, this cereal is not even considered suitable for animal feed, but it is valuable for its long, tough straw which provides good thatching and bedding (Lockhart and Wiseman 1983).

Many of the plants in the pollen record from the palaeo-channel, and which grow in disturbed soil and in waste places today, were frequently found in association with crop fields and vegetable gardens before the advent of herbicides

(Hanf 1983); and even under intensive modern cultivation, many ruderals form thick swathes around arable field edges. Indeed, there is so much overlap in the ranges of the plants in this group, and there is such a lack of precision in pollen identification, that it would be unwise to attempt a precise classification. However, the presence of such diverse taxa in the palaeochannel strengthens the evidence for the dumping of waste.

Zone ML6 (0–180 mm)

The upper radiocarbon determination of the sediments between 170–200 mm gives an estimated date for the transition of ML5 to ML6 of *cal. AD 1000–1220* (ie, the late Saxon and earlier part of the medieval period). There are no determinations from within ML6. The date for the boundary between zones ML5 and ML6 spans *cal. AD 1000–1220* with a mid-point of *cal. AD 1110*. It is likely, therefore, that the changes seen in ML6 were post-Conquest.

The sparse presence of aquatics and emergents, and iron pyrite framboids throughout this zone indicates that some standing water must have been available in the channel, at least periodically. The decline in *Apium*-type (eg, *Apium nodiflorum*) might also indicate a rise in water table; certainly *A. nodiflorum* performs better in wet soils rather than where it is continually being submerged (Grime *et al.* 1988). The marked decline in organic content of the sediment and the presence of *Glomus*-type sporangia could indicate the flushing of soil into the channel. It is also possible that inorganic sediment was being brought in by overbank flooding of the active Easterton Brook which must have been close by and/or less plant debris was being deposited in the channel.

There certainly seem to have been changes in land-use around the channel, and plants of meadow/damp grassland/pasture/fen appear to have been favoured, particularly, Poaceae (grasses), Cyperaceae (sedges), *Plantago lanceolata* (ribwort plantain), and *Ranunculus*-type (buttercups). Trees and shrubs were probably little affected but the reduction of *Pteridium* (bracken) and *Calluna* (heather) suggests that more pressure was being exerted on 'waste' land.

Overall, crops and arable/ruderal weeds were less well represented although cereals (including *Secale*), *Vitis*, and *Cannabis*-type continued to be grown. The crops certainly appeared to be weedy with, among others, *Anthemis*-type (eg, stinking mayweed), *Agrostemma githago* (corncockle), *Alchemilla*-type (eg, parsley piert), Chenopodiaceae (goosefoots), *Papaver* (poppy), *Solanum nigrum*-type (black nightshade), *Fallopia convolvolus* (black bindweed), and *Spergula*-type (eg, corn spurrey) being represented. This wide assemblage of taxa, most of which have poor pollen dispersal, suggests that plant debris was still being dumped in the channel as it is highly unlikely that they would all have been growing in the wet meadow. The slightly lower values for cereal-type pollen suggest that disposal of agricultural waste was less intensive than before and perhaps a different stretch of channel and meadow was exploited as a dump. The presence of so many agricultural indicators certainly indicates a continuance of agriculture after the Conquest, and the lowered percentages of cereals are probably not significant.

Discussion and Interpretation

The pollen record shows that people have been exploiting the area around the Easterton Brook from at least the Iron Age. The radiocarbon date range for the base of the analysed sediment at 790-820 mm indicates that the pollen diagrams represent the vegetation history of the site starting some time between *cal. AD 420–630*. This means that it is impossible to say whether the deposits below 820 mm accumulated in late Romano-British or early Saxon times. However, the date range from the top of pollen zone ML5 (170–200 mm) of *cal. AD 1000–1220* makes it clear that the top of the diagram (zone ML6) represents a period after the Norman Conquest. The pollen diagrams thus span most, if not all, of the Saxon period and almost certainly extend into Norman times.

The local environment (the Easterton Brook)

The pollen record suggests that, although the channel probably contained standing water, at least periodically, growth of obligate aquatic plants was not prolific. Neither were indicators of flowing water found. The wetland taxa recorded (both pollen and macrofossil) were those characteristic of stagnant water, swampy conditions, and wet banks. It is probable, therefore, that pollen was overwhelmingly derived from aerial sources, very local plants, and refuse rather than from active stream flow. Whilst an allochthonous water-borne element cannot be completely discounted, there is little evidence that it was a significant component in the pollen assemblages. It is also possible that the channel dried out periodically raising redox potential sufficiently to inhibit the microbial formation of iron pyrites and to enhance the decomposition of organic debris.

Plants of standing water indicate the nature of the channel in the Easterton Brook valley. This included plants which are (a) usually floating: cf. *Hydrocharis morsus-rani* (frogbit) and *Potamogeton* (pondweed), and (b) those which can grow in shallow water and on wet mud: *Callitriche* (water starwort), *Ranunculus* (*Batrachium*-type eg, common water crowfoot), *Persicaria amphibia* (amphibious bistort), *Apium*-type (eg, fool's watercress), *Iris* (iris), *Oenanthe fistulosa*-type (eg, tubular water dropwort), *Sparganium*-type (bur-reed) and *Typha latifolia*-type (greater reed-mace). An increase in the pollen of these plants probably indicates an increase in wetness at the site with standing water being available at least seasonally.

There is little doubt that, from at least the Iron Age through to post-Conquest time, the immediate environs of the Easterton Brook were dominated by herb-rich meadow, damp grassland, pasture, and poor fen. The lack of precision in pollen identification, coupled with the wide ecological tolerance of the plants, make it difficult to characterise the plant communities from which the pollen assemblages were derived. But there is little doubt that the local landscape was very open with diverse plant communities. Small differences in microtopography can affect many environmental variables, while management and farming (variable mowing, grazing, and trampling) can cause considerable gradation in community structure. 'Old meadow' can grade from lush, herb-rich grassland into poor fen with patchy *Filipendula* (meadowsweet), when there is little grazing, or be dominated by *Juncus* spp (rushes) where stock have access.

The wider landscape

Throughout the sequence, trees appear to have been infrequent, or so heavily exploited that they failed to flower. *Quercus* (oak) was the most abundantly represented tree taxon; all other tree pollen was present as traces. It is exceedingly difficult to ascertain either the nature of the distribution, or proximity of the tree taxa. Some, such as *Betula* (birch), *Alnus* (alder), *Pinus* (pine), and *Taxus* (yew) produce copious amounts of well-dispersed pollen, and the trees could have been growing some considerable distance from the site. Others such as *Ulmus* (elm), *Tilia* (lime), *Fraxinus* (ash) and *Fagus* (beech) are usually under-represented in the pollen rain, and their presence in the pollen assemblage can often indicate that they were growing closer to the site (Nilsson and Praglowski 1992).

All these trees could have been growing as full-grown standard and/or (in some instances) coppiced or pollarded trees. However, it is important to note that although the above taxa are generally thought of as being woodland trees, with the exception of *Pinus*, all are to be found in ancient hedges (Rackham 1986). Essentially, hedges are managed 'woodland edges' and to keep a hedge, it is essential to keep it trimmed. But cutting of trees and shrubs can greatly impede their flowering. *Fagus* has been known to flower within 28 years of being cut but 50–60 years is more usual; *Ulmus* takes 34–40 years, *Fraxinus* 25–30 years, *Quercus* 40–50 years and *Tilia* 20–30 years. Even shrubs such as *Corylus avellana* (hazel), *Acer campestre* (field maple), and *Crataegus monogyna* (hawthorn) can take up to 10 years to recover from severe cutting (Gordon and Rowe 1982; Forestry Commission, pers. comm.).

In palynological studies, it is very difficult to determine the status of shrubs, and associated herbaceous plants. Typically, most shrubs are light requiring and could represent (a) the woodland edge created by assart (b) scrub colonising neglected land (c) hedgerows and banks created through active management. *Corylus*-type was the most frequently represented shrub throughout the sequence. However, this plant has been of special significance to people since the Mesolithic period, and its status is very difficult to assess in a well-established settlement such as at Market Lavington. For millennia, it has been important as a source of food and wood and, even today, it is planted and intensively coppiced in many areas of Britain. Thus, in spite of being a very prolific pollen producer, by virtue of management and intense exploitation, *Corylus* could be under-represented in the pollen record. Furthermore, although it is managed in coppiced plantations today, it is also a prominent plant of hedgerows so, again, its status is difficult to ascertain from the pollen record alone. There is little doubt that hazel was used for food at Market Lavington since hazel nutshells were found in both the Saxon and medieval deposits (Straker, this volume). But it is difficult to tell whether there were plantations of the shrub or whether it was grown in hedgerows and managed as a resource, although, of course, both situations could have prevailed. Certainly, coppicing and hedge cutting would reduce the plant's pollen productivity and food potential, and this might be reflected in the relatively low pollen frequency and small number of hazel nut finds at the site.

Unlike *Corylus*, most shrubs and climbers are insect pollinated and invariably greatly under-represented in the pollen record. Where their pollen is derived from airborne rather than water-borne sources, it indicates that the plants were growing close to the accumulating sediment. For example, *Salix* (willow) was frequently represented in the sequence and reached a value of 1.0% in zone ML6; this is a relatively high value for willow in postglacial contexts and it is likely to have been growing very close to the pollen site. It is interesting that a number of the trees and shrubs such as *Acer campestre*-type (field maple), *Crataegus*-type (hawthorn), *Prunus* (eg, sloe), and *Sambucus* (elder) are indicative of mesotrophic to eutrophic soils while *Euonymus* (spindle) and *Rhamnus*-type (eg, purging buckthorn) favour strongly calcareous soils. It is possible that the waters of the Easterton Brook had enriched the local soils with calcium and other bases enough to allow these shrubs to grow in the near vicinity; it is very likely that the nearby chalk had considerable influence on the site. Another point of interest is that whereas *Crataegus*, *Prunus*, and *Sambucus* are rapid colonisers of neglected ground as well as being common in hedgerows, *Acer campestre*, *Euonymus*, *Corylus*, and *Rhamnus* are generally less aggressive. Today, they are

found at the edge of old woodlands and in old established hedgerows (Rackham 1986). *Hedera* (ivy) is also a common plant of hedges today, and its presence indicates open canopy and a support of several feet. The plant can flower only in light conditions and where the shoot reaches a height of several feet above the ground (Grime *et al.* 1988). Variations in the pollen spectra of shrub taxa need to be viewed with caution since a there may be number of disparate reasons for observed patterns. Nevertheless, there is growing evidence for archaeological settlements having supported hedges (Boyd 1984; Greig 1994b; Wiltshire forthcoming) and the presence of some of the above taxa might imply that some of them were old even in Saxon times.

A previous assessment of the pollen from the sediments (Wiltshire 1991) indicated that heath vegetation was prominent in the landscape at the site in Iron Age times, but that it gradually diminished in importance through to the Saxon period. *Calluna* (heather) was abundant but *Erica* (eg, cross-leaved heath and bell heather), *Sphagnum* moss and *Ulex*-type (eg, gorse) were also recorded. Except for *Ulex*, which has a wide tolerance to soil reaction, these taxa must have been growing on the more oligotrophic, acid, sandy soils. While *Calluna* is an exceedingly prolific pollen producer and could have been growing some considerable distance away from the pollen site (Pohl 1937 [quoted in Faegri and Iversen 1975]), *Erica* and *Sphagnum* are not thought to be disseminated very far from source. However, even in the case of *Calluna*, most of its pollen is deposited very close to the plant, and its pollen representation in the modern pollen rain appears to be directly related to its percentage ground cover (Evans and Moore 1985). *Pteridium* (bracken) was the most abundant calcifuge (lime intolerant plant) found in the assemblage, and it is probable that it was growing in association with the other heathland plants. However, it is also an aggressive invader of acid grassland and is favoured by intensive grazing by virtue of is protected rhizome, poor palatability, and toxicity. Heathland plants such as *Calluna* and *Pteridium* were very useful sources of bedding, thatching, and tinder; *Pteridium* also accumulates potassium and it yields potash on burning, so might have been collected and brought into the settlement for use as a fertilizer or even for mixing with animal fat and making lye (raw soap). Indeed, the plant was found in the macrofossil assemblage (Straker, this volume), so it is possible that it was being collected and brought in to the settlement and used as a domestic resource. The relatively smooth pollen curves suggest that the decrease in representation of heathland plants indicates a sustained reduction in the catchment.

Patches of heathy vegetation were probably quite local to the palaeochannel, but it is not clear whether these plants were growing in well developed lowland heath (Gimingham 1972; 1992; Thompson *et al.* 1994) or as members of an acid grassland community (Rodwell 1992). It is possible that *Sphagnum* was a component of the acid grassland, if it were wet enough, although there are species which favour higher pH and are commonly found in fens and more mesotrophic conditions. These include common species such as *Sphagnum palustre*, *S. subnitens*, and *S. squarrosum* (Daniels and Eddy 1985). The moss could have been growing in waterlogged soils at the palaeochannel margins but, again, it must be stressed that this plant has domestic uses. It is very absorbent and has been used for padding, filling, and even as 'toilet paper'.

Cultivation, economy and activities

All the taxa of crop plants found were probably grown within the immediate vicinity of the settlement but the overwhelming evidence of local wet conditions suggests that arable fields and horticultural plots were not in the base of the Easterton valley. As already discussed, their presence in the sediments probably represents dumping of plant waste into the palaeochannel.

Cereals had been grown, and possibly processed, in the vicinity of the palaeochannel since at least the 6th century AD although there was little evidence of extensive arable agriculture at the pollen site until much later. There was a continuous, low grade infection of local vegetation by fungal rusts throughout the sequence, but events occurring at about *cal. AD 800* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)) seem to have precipitated a rising and sustained rust and smut infection, with very severe infection occurring at about *cal. AD 860* (interpolated). The local vegetation seems to have become stressed and infested with fungal pathogens while *Ophioglossum* increased simultaneously. It is difficult to ascertain the nature of these events, and the concurrent rise in fungal spores cannot be due to the expansion of *Ophioglossum* since this fern does not act as host to rusts. The events might be indicative of changing management at the site and/or a long period of warm summers with frequent wet spells. Sequences of fungal pathogen spores have never before been demonstrated in palynological studies and work is continuing with a view to investigating their value as environmental indicators.

It is clear that in early and mid-Saxon times, arable agriculture at Market Lavington was either practised in a modest way, or the crop fields and processing areas were some distance from the pollen site. Cereal production seemed to increase in mid- to late Saxon times, and a marked rise in cereal-type pollen coincided with a period when fungal pathogens were at the height of their virulence. In most cases, it was

impossible to identify the rust and smut species on morphological criteria alone and it is probable that the local plants in the meadow/grassland/fen were the main sources of fungal spores; but this does not preclude the possibility that some were derived from infected cereals.

The channel seems to have become considerably wetter in the late Saxon period, but it is impossible to be certain of the cause. Rising water table might have been linked to climatic wetness, but also to a change in management of both the channel and local habitats and, indeed, by expansion and impact of the Saxon settlement. Accompanying the indicators of increasing wetness was a large rise in the abundance and richness of pollen taxa, particularly those of arable/ruderal weeds and hay meadow plants. There was also a marked increase in cereal-type pollen as well as that of other crop plants. From about *cal. AD 900* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)) the nearby settlement seems to have been engaged in much larger-scale and diverse agriculture and horticulture.

Although pollen of arable and ruderal weeds included some plants characteristically associated with crops, particularly *Agrostemma* (corn cockle), *Solanum nigrum* (black nightshade), *Alchemilla*-type (eg, *Aphanes arvensis* (parsley piert)), and *Fallopia convolvolus* (black bindweed), it is exceedingly imprudent to consider plants as being strictly arable or ruderal weeds. A particular problem is encountered with pollen types containing large numbers of members with varying ecology. For example, the pattern of the pollen curves of *Aster*-type (and certain other taxa whose members have varying ecology, eg, *Rumex* (docks)), appears to follow that of crops. Many of herbaceous plants listed grow in disturbed soil and in waste places today and, before the advent of herbicides, were frequently found in association with crop fields and vegetable gardens (Hanf 1983).

To have such diversity of pollen taxa in a single deposit suggests that taphonomy was complex. It is highly unlikely that such a wide range of crop and wild plants would have been growing immediately adjacent to the channel and the site was probably being used as a refuse dump. This contention is supported by macrofossil evidence from the upper sediments, and the fact that taxa with poor pollen dispersal and varying ecological requirements were found together. The channel might also have been used for hemp and flax retting although there is no strong evidence for this at the actual pollen site.

The peaty layer between 245–260 mm might account, at least partially, for the high loss on ignition values in zone ML5; this layer might represent a relatively large amount of material deposited over a short period of time, and there are indications (Fig. 58) that sediment deposition was very slightly faster between about *cal. AD 950–1000* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)).

Although a wider range of crop taxa was found before about *cal. AD 1110* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)), Figure 61 shows that *Secale* and other cereals, *Cannabis*-type, and *Vitis* continued to be grown at Market Lavington after that date. The *Secale* record stops rather abruptly halfway through zone ML6 although cultivation of other cereals, *Cannabis*-type and *Vitis* continued well into post-Conquest time.

With ten radiocarbon dates over a depth of 650 mm (from 170–820 mm) and an additional result from between 1540–1580 mm, the sediment in the Market Lavington palaeochannel is a very closely dated sequence. There was certainly some impact on the vegetation in the environs of the channel where the zone boundary is drawn between zones ML2 and ML3 (at 590 mm) at about *cal. AD 670*. Another marked change in the vegetation is delimited by the boundary between zones ML3 and ML4 (at 470 mm). An interpolated date for this level is *cal. AD 800*. Somewhere around this time, mid-Saxon people were possibly causing changes in the meadow which coincided the start of what appears to have been persistent fungal infections in the local plant communities and/or in plants which had been dumped into the channel. The infections of both rust and smut diseases reached a climax in about *cal. AD 860* (at 380 mm), just after the appearance of *Cannabis*-type pollen and the expansion of the cereal-type pollen curve. Fungal infections then gradually declined to previous incipient levels at about *cal. AD 950*.

The appearance of *Secale* and *Vitis* may be dated to about *cal. AD 900* (interpolated; Fig. 58 (right)) so that diverse arable agriculture and horticulture were well established by the late Saxon period and lasted well beyond the Norman Conquest. The date for the boundary between zones ML5 and ML6 spans *cal. AD 1000–1220* with a mid-point of *cal. AD 1110*. It is likely, therefore, that the changes seen in ML6 are post-Conquest. As already stated, the decline in the cereal-type curve might be insignificant and, certainly, crops like *Secale*, *Cannabis*-type, and *Vitis* were grown well into Norman times.

It can be seen from Figure 58 that the sediment seems to have accumulated at a fairly constant rate, but in zone ML5 the rate appears to have been very slightly faster, then marginally slower at the junction between zone ML5 and ML6. It is unfortunate that more dates within the uppermost zone were not available so that the trend could be followed.

Conclusion

The landscape around the Easterton Brook was open with few trees, probably as far back as Bronze Age times. The pollen record shows that the area had been influenced by people since at least the Iron Age, but

there is little doubt that changes in the local environment were relatively dramatic in the late Saxon period, at about *cal. AD 900*. These changes may have been due to village expansion, and a way of life was then established which continued to after the Norman Conquest. At Market Lavington, there was no evidence of Norman intensification of existing agriculture as has been suggested for other parts of the country (Darby 1977).

The people enjoyed varied and high-status foods such as grapes and currants as well as the staples such as wheat, barley, oats and rye. No evidence was found for other garden herbs, but their pollen would be difficult to differentiate from that of wild species. The late Saxons at Market Lavington were also growing textile plants such as flax, and probably hemp; and these could also have been used for food. Opium poppy might have been grown for its copious, oil-rich seeds, or for the fact that it is very pretty! Overall, the palynological findings have important implications for archaeological interpretation of the expansion of this rural Saxon settlement.

3. Charred, Mineralised and Waterlogged Plant Macrofossils

by Vanessa Straker [1992]

The soils at Grove Farm are dry, stoneless, sandy loams derived from greensand, and most of the plant macrofossils are preserved by charring. Careful examination revealed that some mineralised macrofossils were also present; this phenomenon has been encountered in the greensand soils of the Bronze Age 'midden' and underlying features at Potterne (Carruthers 2000) only a few kilometres away and so it was anticipated at Grove Farm.

During the course of the archaeological investigations a palaeochannel was identified a few metres to the north of the present course of the Easterton Brook (see above). Samples were taken from this for pollen analysis (Wiltshire, above) and a single bulk sample of the wet silty clay overlying the peat was taken for macrofossil analysis. This proved to contain both charred and waterlogged plant macrofossils.

A series of 63 bulk samples of about 20 litres was taken from a variety of features of Romano-British to post-medieval date, and processed by flotation at Wessex Archaeology. Flots were collected on a 250 micron sieve and residues on a 500 micron mesh. Forty-seven of the samples were subsequently selected for analysis and the plant macrofossils extracted (by Sarah Wyles) from the 2 mm, 1 mm, and at least 12.5% or 50 ml from the 500 micron residue fractions. The sample of silty clay from the palaeochannel was processed by the writer at the Department of Geography, University of Bristol. A 0.5 litre subsample of this was processed and both the flot and the residue were collected on 250 micron meshes. All of the flot was sorted, including the residue greater than 500 microns, and a 0.5% subsample of the residue greater than 250 microns was also sorted.

Identification was done using comparative collections in the Department of Geography, University of Bristol. Nomenclature follows Clapham *et al.* (1989) and ecological information is taken from Clapham (*ibid.*). The results are presented by phase in Tables 19-26. The data are limited by the fact that there are only 47 samples; the number of samples for

Table 19. Plant remains from Roman contexts

		Feature no.	*3062*
		Feature type	*Pit*
		Context	*3063*
		Area	*C*
Cereals	*Common name*		
Triticum sp. (p.), grain	wheat		8
Triticum sp. cf. free threshing grain	wheat		5
Triticum sp. top of rachis internode of free threshing wheat	Durum/rivet or bread wheat		8
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley		5
H. sativum, symmetrical grain	barley		3
H. sativum, hulled symmetrical grain	barley		1
H. sativum, rachis internode	barley		
Avena sp., grain	oats		3
Cereal indet. + frags			10+(40)
Other taxa			
CARYOPHYLLCEAE			
Agrostema githago L.	corn cockle		1
LEGUMINOSAE			
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	vetch/tare		1
GRAMINAE			
Gramineae spp.	grasses		2*
Sample volume (litres)			20
Total, exc. nodules & cereal frags			43
Items/litre, exc. nodules & cereal frags			2.2

Key to plant macrofossil tables

All items are 'seeds' unless otherwise stated (strictly speaking botanically some may be more correctly classified as fruits).

Unless stated otherwise, macrofossils are charred, except for Table 24 where, unless stated otherwise, they are waterlogged.

* = number adjusted if found in 500 micron residue; m = mineralised; pm = partly mineralised; +( ) = fragments (no.)

each phase is, therefore, small and no samples are particularly rich.

The criteria used for the identification of the cereals, and in particular the free threshing wheat chaff, are those described by Jacomet (1987) and Moffett (1991a).

Results

Romano-British

The single sample was from a pit fill in Area C (Table 19). All macrofossils were charred. Wheat (*Triticum* sp.) was represented by grain and internodes of a free threshing form. Some of the grain has been tentatively identified as free threshing on the basis of grain morphology, but it is difficult to separate free threshing tetraploid (*T. durum* or *turgidum*, Durum or rivet wheat) from hexaploid wheat (*T. aestivum* sl.) and, as only the fragmented upper part of the rachis internodes were present, these cannot be used to confirm which form is present. No grain or chaff was identified as spelt (*T. spelta*) which is usually very common in Romano-British cereal assemblages.

A few grains of hulled barley (*Hordeum* sp.) and oat grains (*Avena* sp.) were identified. The latter did not preserve the floret bases and therefore it is not known whether they are wild and therefore a weed, or a domesticated species. Weeds include corn cockle (*Agrostemma githago*), vetch/tare (*Vicia*/*Lathyrus*), and grasses.

The presence of the internodes of free threshing wheat in a single Romano-British sample poses a problem because, on a multi-period site such as Grove Farm, contamination from overlying Saxon or medieval deposits could have occurred. However, free threshing bread wheat is known as a minor element of Roman cereal assemblages

Early Saxon

The 26 samples from this phase are from ditches, sunken-featured buildings, pits and a bank; they come from each area but principally from Area B. Mineralised plant macrofossils were present in a ditch in Area A and sunken-featured buildings, pits and ditches in Area B (Tables 20 and 21).

The cereal crops represented are wheat, rye, and barley. Wheat is represented by indeterminate grains, grains tentatively identified as a free threshing form, and poorly preserved internodes of free threshing wheat which could be tetraploid or hexaploid.

A spikelet fork of hulled wheat (either of emmer, *T. dicoccum* or spelt, *T. spelta*) was identified from ditch 3046 (context 3045), in Area C. Hulled wheat is much more likely to be found in a context of Romano-British date and, as noted above, the possibility of contamination already exists. This may be an example of residual Romano-British material in a context stratigraphically later. However, Pelling (2003) cites the early to late Saxon cultivation of emmer wheat in the Thames Valley confirmed by radiocarbon dating of emmer glume bases. This is a rare and local instance of medieval glume wheat cultivation.

Barley grains were hulled and some were of the asymmetrical, six-row form where three fertile florets develop at each rachis internode. Rachis internodes are present but not well enough preserved to identify two and six-row forms.

There are about twice as many wheat grains as barley but if presence in samples is considered, both are found in 23 out of 26 samples. This is probably a more accurate representation of the importance of the two cereals, especially in a relatively small assemblage. Rye (*Secale cereale*) is represented by just two grains, both from pit 13736 (context 13700). As in the Romano-British sample, oats are represented by grain only.

The wild plants include several taxa that could have grown as arable weeds and include vetches/tares, sorrel (including sheep's sorrel (*Rumex acetosella* agg.) which has a preference for acid soils of the type present at Grove Farm), stinking mayweed (*Anthemis cotula*), brome (*Bromus* sp.), black bindweed (*Fallopia convolvulus*), and cleavers (*Galium* cf. *aparine*). The sedge (*Carex* sp.) is not a likely arable weed on such dry soils unless the fields extended down into the valley of Easterton Brook where plants of wet ground were well represented (see below). It could also have been collected as roofing or flooring material. The hazelnut fragments show that the hedge/woodland edge resources were available locally to supplement the diet.

The mineralised seeds are all of *Brassica*/*Sinapis*, the genera in the Cruciferae which includes cabbage, rape, turnip, and mustard. It is not possible to state whether they are from wild or domesticated varieties and evidence for the use of leafy vegetables in the diet is impossible to obtain from assemblages where no waterlogged conditions exist to preserve soft plant tissues. Most green vegetables are cut before they go to seed but the seeds of these genera are rich in oil and, as today, they could have been grown for this purpose in the past. Many charred *Brassica* seeds were identified from prehistoric levels at Potterne (Straker 2000).

Late Saxon

The two samples from this phase are both from ditches in Area B (Table 22). The remains of wheat, barley, and oats take the same form as those described for the early Saxon deposits: wheat including indeterminate tetraploid/hexaploid rachis internodes, hulled barley grains, rachis internodes and grain, and

oat grains. However, there is no evidence for contamination from Romano-British levels. The weed seeds include vetch/tare, fat hen (*Chenopodium album*), sorrel (*Rumex* sp.), and stinking mayweed which could all have grown as arable weeds. A charred, partially preserved, *Centaurea* (knapweed) seed and *Medicago*/*Trifolium* (medick/clover) might be the remains of a grassland assemblage, perhaps originally in hay brought to the settlement as animal fodder. However, this suggestion is tentative as the *Centaurea* seed is fragmentary and while there are two meadow species (*C. nigra* and *scabiosa*), cornflower (*C. cyanus*) is an arable species. The charred grass caryopses could be from plants growing in a range of habitats.

Mineralised seeds include *Brassica*/*Sinapis* and a grape pip (*Vitis vinifera*). The grape pip is of particular interest as Wiltshire (above) found *Vitis* pollen in peat in the palaeochannel, dating to the late Saxon period. She suggests that the settlement had a vineyard.

Medieval

Eight of the ten samples from ditches and pits are from Area C, two are from Area B. All plant macrofossils from the excavation are preserved by charring. In addition, a further sample came from the silty clay overlying the peat in the palaeochannel.

Cereals from the bulk samples (Table 23) include wheat and hulled six-row barley. Some of the grain resembles free threshing wheat but the internodes are too fragmentary for distinction between tetraploid and hexaploid to be made. Once again, because of the lack of oat chaff, it is not possible to tell whether the oats represent a crop or a field weed. A limited range of wild species was recovered and includes vetches and tares, orache (*Atriplex* sp.), knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare* agg.), sorrel, ribwort plantain (*Plantago lanceolata*), and brome, all of which are common field weeds.

The sample from the silty clay is more informative. The radiocarbon date from near the top of the peat is 970±70 BP (OxA-2996, *cal. AD 1000–1220*) and the silty clay must post-date this. It is assumed, therefore, that this deposit is probably medieval, and the charred and waterlogged plant macrofossils in it add considerably to our knowledge of the environment for this phase of activity.

The taxa identified in the analysis of the palaeochannel sample are presented in Table 24 and represent a variety of habitats as indicated. The plant macrofossils were abundant and well preserved.

Apart from a typical assemblage of aquatic and wetland vegetation with some common garden weeds, several cultivated plants were also found in this deposit and include barley represented by hulled barley grain and barley rachis internodes (one of which was identified as the two-row form). Some of the wheat grain was tentatively identified as free threshing and the better preserved rachis internodes possess the curved shield-shaped sides characteristic of hexaploid bread wheat (Jacomet 1987; Moffett 1991). No tetraploid internodes were identified. All the wheat and barley is charred, except for one waterlogged barley rachis internode. Waterlogged flax capsule fragments were identified, though no seeds were recovered from the sub-sample. The opium poppy seeds probably represent a field or garden crop used either for its oily seeds or as a flavouring. Further consideration of the plants from the palaeochannel is included in the discussion.

The fact that the arable assemblage is present, both charred and waterlogged, in the same deposit away from the settlement is of interest. As the ratio of grain to chaff and weeds is relatively high, the charred crops, chaff, and weeds probably represent accidentally burnt unprocessed crops discarded into the 'boggy' area in the valley. The unburnt arable weeds could either represent unburnt crop processing waste that was also thrown away or seeds from arable fields nearby that blew or were washed down the slope. The arable weeds could have infested the cereal or flax crops. Flax is a demanding crop and would not have been suitable for intensive cultivation on the greensand soils, though other soil types are present in the vicinity (see above and in the discussion). It could have formed part of a rotation with, for example, a leguminous crop which would help to restore soil fertility. Small vetches were identified in the carbonised assemblages but, as discussed below, the species is uncertain and they could be arable weeds or grassland plants.

Late medieval

Seven samples were analysed from this phase, six were from ditches in Area A and one from a pit in Area B (Table 25). As in the earlier phases, the crops include wheat, some grains comparable to free threshing wheat (either *T. aestivum* sl. or *T. durum*/*turgidum*), hulled barley grain and barley rachis internodes, and oats grains which could be from a wild or domesticated species. Rye is present, represented by two grains and a rachis internode but whether it was a major contributor to the arable economy is open to debate. It is present in two out of seven samples, whereas wheat is in six and barley in seven. The processing requirements of hulled barley, free threshing wheat, and rye are similar enough for major differences not to be attributed to this alone.

Two glumes of spelt wheat and rachis fragments, which are probably of a hulled wheat, were found in this phase. This probably reflects contamination from earlier Romano-British deposits, rather than the continued cultivation of hulled wheat. When spelt wheat has been found on medieval sites it is always in

Table 20. Plant remains from early Saxon contexts (Areas A–C)

	Feature no.	*1028*	*13712*	*13705*	*13727*	*13731*	*13745*	*13751*	*13753*	*13790*	*3074*	*3074*	*3074*
	Feature type	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Pit*	*Pit*	*SFB3*	*SFB2*	*SFB1*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*
	Context	*1029*	*13711*	*13721*	*13726*	*13730*	*13744*	*13750*	*13752*	*13791*	*3024*	*3026*	*3045*
	Area	*A*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*C*	*C*	*C*
Cereals	*Common name*												
Triticum sp (p)., grain	wheat	-	5	5	68	6	23	-	5	8	-	-	-
Triticum sp. cf. free threshing grain	wheat	-	-	-	1	-	-	5	-	-	10	4	1
Triticum sp. top of rachis internode of free threshing wheat	wheat	-	-	-	9	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp. rachis frags	wheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-
Secale cereale L., grain	rye	-	-	-	-	-	-			2			
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley	1	2	5	25	3	14	-	3	5	-	1	2
Hordeum sativum, hulled grain	barley	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, symmetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled symmetrical grain	barley	-	-	1	6	-	3	-	-	3	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, assymmetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled asymmetrical grain	barley	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, rachis internode	barley	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-
Avena sp., grain	oats	1	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-
Cereal indet. + frags		2+(5)	-	+(40)	+(150)	1+(30)	25+(30)	5+(25)	15	3+(40)	-	-	-
Other taxa													
CRUCIFERAE													
Brassica/Sinapsis	wild turnip etc	5m	1m	2m	1	1	8	-	-	8m	-	-	-
LEGUMINOSAE													
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	vetch/tare	-	-	1	-	3	1	1	1	2	-	-	-
Fallopia convolvulus A. Love	black bindweed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Vicia/Pisum sp.	vetch/pea	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
cf Pisum sp.	cf. Pea	-	-	-	1+(1)	-	-		-	-	-	-	-

Feature no	*1028*	*13712*	*13705*	*13727*	*13731*	*13745*	*13751*	*13753*	*13790*	*3074*	*3074*	*3074*	-
Feature type	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Pit*	*Pit*	*SFB3*	*SFB2*	*SFB1*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	
Context	*1029*	*13711*	*13721*	*13726*	*13730*	*13744*	*13750*	*13752*	*13791*	*3024*	*3026*	*3045*	
Area	*A*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*B*	*C*	*C*	*C*	-
POLYGONACEAE													
Rumex sp.	sorrel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-
Rumex acetosella agg.	sheeps sorrel	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PLANTAGINACEAE													
Plantago lanceolata L.	ribwort plantain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
RUBIACEAE													
Galium cf aparine L.	cleavers	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
CYPERACEAE													
Gen. et sp. indet.	sedges etc	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
CAPRIFOLIACEAE													
Sambucus nigra L.	elder	-	-	-	-	-	1pm	-	-	-	-	-	-
COMPOSITAE													
Anthemis cotula L.	stinking mayweed	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GRAMINAE													
Gramineae spp.	grasses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Bromus sp.	brome	-	-	-	3	+(3)	-	-	-	7+(1)	-	-	2
Avena/Bromus sp.	oats/ brome		-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Leaf buds, indet.		3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mineralised seeds, indet.		-	-	5*	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Mineralised nodules		1	1	1	1	20	2	-	-	2	-	-	-
Sample volume (litres)		18	10	20	20	15	10	20	18	20	15	18	15
Total, exc. nodules & cereal frags		15	11	28	152	20	84	16	24	55	17	7	11
Items/litre, excl nodules		0.8	1.1	1.4	7.6	1.3	5.6	0.8	1.3	2.75	1.1	0.4	0.73

Table 21. Plant remains from Early Saxon contexts (Area B2)

	Feature no.	*15523*	*15523*	*15523*	*15523*	*15523*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*	*507*
	Feature type	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*	*Bank*
	Context	*15507*	*15507*	*15507*	*15507*	*15507*	*14010*	*14110*	*14210*	*14310*	*14410*	*14510*	*14610*	*14710*	*14810*
	Area	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*	*B2*
Cereals	*Common name*														
Triticum sp (p)., grain	wheat	9	2	1	2	6	4	-	-	2	2	1	-	2	-
Triticum sp. cf. free threshing grain	wheat	-	1	-	5	5	2	2	-	1	-	1	-	1	-
Triticum sp. basal internode	wheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp. top of rachis internode of free threshing wheat	wheat	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum/Secale, grain	wheat/rye	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley	1	2	4	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	-	1	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled grain	barley	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, symmetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled assymetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cereal indet. + frags		6+(20)	+(30)	7+(30)	+10	-	2+(50)	3+(150)	2+(20)	6+(30)	2+(35)	-	2+(5)	2	-
Other taxa															
LEGUMINOSAE															
Vicia sp.	vetch	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	vetch/tare	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CORYLACEAE															
Corylus avellana L. nutshell frags	hazel	-	-	-	-	+(2)	-	-	-	-	-	-	+(2)	-	-
RUBIACEAE															
Galium cf aparine L.	cleavers	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
GRAMINAE															
Gramineae spp.	grasses	-	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Bromus sp.	brome	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-		1	-	-	-	-
Grass/cereal culm node		-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Sample volume (litres)		20	16	15	18	10	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Total, exc. nodules & cereal frags		17	10	12	8	19	11	6	4	13	9	3	4	5	1
Items/litre, exc. nodules		0.9	0.6	0.8	0.4	1.9	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.05

Table 22. Plant remains from late Saxon Contexts (Area B)

	Feature no.	*13703*	*13725*
	Feature type	*ditch*	*ditch*
	Context	*13702*	*13724*
Cereals	*Common name*		
Triticum sp. (p.), grain	wheat	6	35
Triticum sp. cf. free threshing grain	wheat	4	18
Triticum sp. top of rachis internode of free threshing wheat	Durum/ rivet or bread wheat	8	-
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley	3	9
H. sativum, hulled grain	barley	4	2
H. sativum, hulled symmetrical grain	barley	-	2
H. sativum, rachis internode	barley	-	4*
Avena sp., grain	oats	1	3
Cereal indet. + frags		12+(15)	30+(150)
Other taxa			
CHENOPODIACEAE			
Chenopodium album L.	fat hen	8*	4*
CRUCIFERAE			
Brassica/*Sinapis*	wild turnip etc	48m	_
VITIDACEAE			
Vitis vinifera L.	grape vine	1m	-
LEGUMINOSAE			
Vicia/*Lathyrus* sp.	vetch/tare	2	5*
Medicago/*Trifolium* sp.	medick/ clover	1	-
POLYGONACEAE			
Rumex sp.	sorrel	11*	-
CORYLACEAE			
Corylus avellana L. nutshell frags	hazel	+(1)	-
COMPOSITAE			
Anthemis cotula L.	stinking mayweed	2	-
Centurea sp.	knapweed	-	1
GRAMINAE			
Gramineae spp.	grasses	1	1
cf. *Phleum* sp.	cat's tail	1	-
Bromus sp.	brome	5(+)	2
Avena/*Bromus* sp.	oats/brome	1	1
Mineralised worm cocoons		2	-
Mineralised nodules		10	2
Sample volume (litres)		20	20
Total, exc. nodules & cereal frags		120	145
Items/litres, exc. nodules		6	7.3

small amounts and in situations where earlier, Romano-British, stratigraphy exists. Radiocarbon accelerator dates on spelt from a medieval deposit at Burton Dassett, Warwickshire, proved that it was, in fact Romano-British (Moffett 1991b; Hedges *et al.* 1990). However, as noted above, the Thames Valley has provided radiocarbon dated emmer chaff of early and late Saxon date (Pelling 2003). Spelt wheat was grown on the Continent in the medieval period, so it is possible that we shall find that it was grown, as emmer was in the Saxon period, in some local areas. A radiocarbon date on the glume bases from Market Lavington would resolve the question here. Other plants include vetches/tares, sorrel, cleavers (*Galium* cf. *aparine*), brome, and other grasses.

Mineralised plant macrofossils were recovered in three samples and produced the widest range of taxa from any phase. *Brassica*/*Sinapis*, as in other phases, was common. In addition, purging flax (*Linum catharticum*), fool's parsley (*Aethusa cynapium*), medick/clover (*Medicago*/*Trifolium*), stinking mayweed, and elder (*Sambucus nigra*) were all found in mineralised form. These plants grow in different habitats; purging flax and medick/clover probably derive from grassland, whereas fool's parsley and mayweed are arable weeds. Elder, the seeds of which are often found mineralised or partly mineralised, thrives on disturbed, often nutrient enriched ground and is sometimes a component of hedgerows.

Post-medieval

The single sample from this phase is from a pit in Area C. Wheat which is probably of the free threshing form, hulled barley, and oats are present and the weeds include several taxa identified in earlier phases as well as orache, knotgrass, and ribwort plantain. All macrofossils were carbonised.

Discussion

Mineralisation

Mineralised plant and arthropod remains have been recovered from sites of Bronze Age date and later on a variety of soil types and geologies. Recent research (McCobb *et al.* 2003) has shown that decay of organic matter creates local conditions with high concentrations of pore water phosphate and calcium ions resulting in replacement of plant tissues by calcium phosphate. Mineralisation was less extensive at Grove Farm than it was at nearby Potterne, being restricted to 'seeds', small nodules, and occasional worm cocoons, but it still provides important evidence for the use of a range of plants not represented in the carbonised record.

Carruthers (2000) comments on the predisposition of certain taxa to mineralisation and this means that others, notably cereal grains and legumes, are under-represented. McCobb *et al.* (2003) demonstrated that the variation in seed coat

Table 23. Plant remains from medieval contexts (Areas B and C)

	Feature no.	*13714*	*15518*	*3000*	*3014*	*3517*	*3544*	*3551*	*3553*	*3554*	*3020*
	Feature Type	*Pit*	*Pit*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Pit*
	Context	*13713*	*15519*	*3001*	*3013*	*3518*	*3543*	*3550*	*3552*	*3555*	*3019*
	Area	*B*	*B*	*C*	*C*	*C*	*C*	*C*	*C*	*C*	*C*
Cereals	*Common name*										
Triticum sp (p)., grain	wheat	5	3	-	4	4	3	4	8	4	8
Triticum sp. cf. free threshing grain	wheat	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	5	3	-
Triticum sp. top of rachis internode of free threshing wheat	wheat	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Triticum/Secale grain	wheat/rye	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley	1	2	3	4	-	-	-	3	-	2
Hordeum sativum, hulled grain	barley	-	-	1	1	1	-	-			
Hordeum sativum, symmetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
Hordeum sativum, hulled symmetrical grain	barley	-	1	2(1t)	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, assymmetrical grain	barley	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled assymetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	2(1t)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Avena sp., grain	oats	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Cereal indet. + frags		15+(30)	-	10+(50)	-	2+(1)	-	+(36)	-	5+(34)	9+(40)
Cereal sp. base of basal rachis internode		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Other taxa											
CHENOPODIACEAE											
Atriplex sp.	orache	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
LEGUMINOSAE											
Vicia sp.	vetch	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	vetch/tare	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
CORYLACEAE											
Corylus avellana L. nutshell frags	vazel	-	-	-	+(3)	-	-	-	-	-	-
POLYGONACEAE											
Polygonum aviculare agg.	knotgrass	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rumex sp.	sorrel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
PLANTAGINACEAE											
Plantago lanceolata L.	ribwort plantain	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
GRAMINEAE											
Bromus sp.	brome	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Unidentified seeds		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Sample volume (litres)		15	15	20	18	18	18	10	10	14	12
Total, excl nodules & cereal frags		23	20	18	6	4	4	7	20	13	26
Items/litre, excl nodules		1.5	1.3	0.9	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.7	2	0.93	2.2

composition between taxa play a role in the preferential phosphatisation of some taxa. Because often the soft tissue only is replaced, the seed coat (testa) or fruit wall may be missing, making identification difficult or impossible for some species.

At Grove Farm, mineralisation occurs only in medieval and late medieval features and is confined to Areas A and B. Four out of the seven ditches in Area A and seven out of 13 ditches and pits in Area B contained mineralised remains, but there seems to be no obvious reason why mineral replacement has taken place in some features and not in others. This must relate to the suitability of very local conditions. Area A contained a cemetery and, therefore, a plentiful supply of calcium, and the main area of settlement was recorded in Area B where presumably domestic waste, if it was disposed of in and around the settlement, would have been plentiful.

No mineralised remains were found in the bank and ditch samples from Areas B2 and C which lay away from the focus of the settlement. Carbonised plant macrofossils were present in the samples and

Table 24. Plant remains from the silty clay above peat in the palaeochannel

Taxon	*Common name*	*No. specimens*
WATERLOGGED PLANT MACROFOSSILS		
Plants of high water table (aquatic or in shallow standing water including marshes)		
Caltha palustris	marsh marigold	1
R. sceleratus L.	celery-leaved crowfoot	34
R. Subgenus Batrachium (DC) A. Gray.	water crowfoot	24
Nasturtium officinale R. br.	green watercress	1
Lychnis flos-cuculi L.	ragged robin	8
Apium nodiflorum (L.) lag.	fool's watercress	40
Mentha aquatica L.	water mint	6
Lycopus europaeus L.	gypsywort	5
Alisma plantago-aquatica L.	water plantain	2
Potamogeton sp.	pondweed	1
Cypereceae, indeterminate	sedges etc	7
Eleocharis palustris/uniglumis	spikerush	4
Isolepis setacea	bristle club-rush	4
Carex spp.	sedges	40
Juncus sp.(p)	rush(es)	10**
Grassland		
Ranunculus acris/repens/ bulbosus (**d**)	buttercup(s)	4
Polygonum persicaria L. (**d**)	redshank	4
Euphrasia/Odontites verna (Bell) Dumort.	eyebright/red bartsia	6
Salvia pratensis/verbenacea (also disturbed)	clary	1
Ajuga reptans L. (**d**, also woods)	bugle	1
Disturbed, including arable		
Papaver argemone/rhoeas/lecoquii	poppy	19
Agrostemna githago L. (fragment) (**a**)	corn cockle	1
Stellaria media group		7
Chenopodium album L.	fat hen	9
Atriplex sp.	orache	1
Aphanes arvensis sens. lat. (**a**)	parsley-piert	3
Polygonum aviculare group	knotgrass	4
Fallopia convolvulus (L.) Dumort. (fragment) (**a**)	black bindweed	1
Urtica urens L.	small nettle	2
Urtica dioica L.	stinging nettle	48
Anagallis arvensis L.	scarlet pimpernel	4
Hyoscyamus niger L.	henbane	1
Verbena officinalis L.	vervain	1
Salvia pratensis/verbenacea (also grassland)	clary	(-)
Lamium sp.	dead nettle	1
Plantago major L.	great plantain	1
Anthemis cotula L. (**a**)	stinking mayweed	16
Chrysanthemum segetum L. (**a**)	corn marigold	1
Cultivated		
P. somniferum L.	opium poppy	7
Linum usitatissimum L. capsule fragments	flax	3
Hordeum sativum. Rachis internode	barley	1
Varied		
S. graminea L.	lesser stitchwort	1
Montia cf. fontana L. (woods, heath, grassland)	blinks	2
Rosaceae	spine	1
Rubus fruticosus agg. (hedges, scrub)	blackberry	4
Potentilla sp.	tormentil	1
Fragaria/Potentilla	strawberry/ tormentil	1
Umbelliferae, indeterminate		1
Labiatae indeterminate		2
Sambucus nigra L. (esp. disturbed soils)	elder	17
Carduus/Cirsium sp.	thistles	1
Leontodon sp. (meadows, pastures, waysides)	hawkbit	1
Centaurea sp. fragment	cornflower/ knapweed	1
Gramineae indeterminate (several species)	grasses	1** & 15
Cerastium sp.	chickweed	1** & 23
Rumex sp.	sorrel	1**
Cf. *Veronica* sp.	speedwell	5**
Compositae		1**
CHARRED PLANT REMAINS		
Cultivated		
Triticum sp. grain	wheat	2
Triticum sp. cf free threshing grain	wheat	8
Triticum sp. rachis internode fragment	wheat	1
Triticum sp. rachis internodes, free threshing hexaploid	bread wheat type	2
Triticum sp. rachis internodes, free threshing wheat	wheat	3
Hordeum sativum. Rachis internode	barley	1
Hordeum sativum. Rachis internode, two-row barley	barley	1
Cereal fragments		1
Disturbed, including arable		
Bupleurum cf. rotundifolium L. (**a**)	hare's ear	1
Anthemis cotula L.	stinking mayweed *w	11
Bromus mollis/secalinus	brome	1
Varied		
Rumex sp.	Sorrel	1
Centaurea sp. fragment	Cornflower/knap weed	(-)
Pteridium aquilinium (L.) Kuhn, pinnules	Bracken	2
*w = also preserved waterlogged		
Sample volume 0.5 litres		
TOTAL ITEMS		448

(all from flot and >500 micron residue unless inidcated ** = from 250 micron residue (0.05% sorted)
(a) = strong arable association; (d) = preference for damp ground.
Plants that grow in more than one habitat are listed under all relevant groups

this does suggest that only a certain sort of waste, possibly just occasional ashes from hearths, were disposed of outside the settlement.

The density of the charred plant macrofossils (given below) in the different areas shows a similar pattern of rubbish disposal to that suggested by the mineralised remains. Despite the fact that the range of plants represented is very similar in each area, the different character of the features is reflected by the concentration of macrofossils.

Area	*Density*	*Average items/litre soil*
A (cemetery)	0.3–3.4	1.54
B (settlement)	0.3–7.3	2.95
B2 (bank/ditch)	0.05–0.7	0.55
C (outside settlement)	0.2–2.1	1.07

Comparison between phases

Table 26 lists all the taxa recovered from the samples, except for the waterlogged silty clay from the Easterton Brook palaeochannel.

The small number of samples, more from some phases than others, and low density of plant remains makes comparison only possible in very general terms. Apart from rye, which was only recorded in the early Saxon and late medieval phases and the possible contamination from residual Romano-British hulled wheat, the range of crops and weeds was similar from all the Saxon and medieval phases.

The crops

Most archaeological evidence supports the view that, with some exceptions (eg, Barton Court Farm, Oxfordshire; Jones 1986), free threshing wheat was a minor component of the arable field from the Neolithic onwards and did not become the dominant wheat variety until the late Romano-British or early Saxon periods. So few 5th and 6th century sites have been excavated in England that we have no idea at present when the main emphasis changed. Free threshing cereals are easier to process as the grain is released more readily from the tough rachis internodes and glumes. Under the right conditions, the yield of free threshing wheat is higher than for hulled wheats but is more prone to attack from birds and fungi, is less able to compete well with weeds, and requires greater soil fertility. A greater availability of labour would have been required to realise the potential of free threshing wheat.

Grain morphology is not a reliable method of identifying the different wheat species and, for this reason, most wheat grains have been identified to genus only. Some have been tentatively identified as free threshing wheat as they appeared to exhibit the characteristics described by Jacomet (1987). The dimensions of the small number of grains that are well enough preserved to warrant measurement compare most closely with those given for the compact form of bread wheat (*ibid.*). However, many forms are intermediate between the dense-eared compact wheat and more lax-eared bread wheat, and as no reliable characteristics exist to separate tetraploid from hexaploid wheat grains, the dimensions listed below are best considered as supporting evidence that, on the basis of grain morphology, free threshing rather than hulled wheat is probably present.

*Dimensions (mm) of cf. free threshing wheat (*Triticum *sp.) grains*

N=24	*Minimum*	*Average*	*Maximum*
Length	3.2		5.0
Breadth	2.2		4.7
Height	2.0		3.3
L/B	0.8	1.27 (mostly 1.2–1.4)	1.8
L/H	1.28	1.61 (mostly 1.5–1.8)	2.0

Internodes of free threshing hexaploid wheat, with internodes that appear to be too long to be from the compact form of bread wheat, were identified with certainty from the waterlogged silty clay sample, but none of the internodes from the excavation is well enough preserved to separate tetraploid from hexaploid.

Tetraploid wheat, *T. durum*, or more likely given the British climate and the documentary evidence *T. turgidum* (rivet wheat), has been found on a number of medieval sites studied recently (eg Moffett 1991a; and at Eckweek, Avon; Carruthers unpublished). Rivet (or cone) wheat has long straw which would have been useful for thatching and, according to Percival (1921), was resistant to various diseases and tolerant of poor growing conditions but, owing to its mealy grain, would have been more suitable for biscuit making than bread making.

Both forms of wheat could have been winter sown, however, barley is a spring sown crop. Barley could have been used for food, for brewing, or for feeding animals (Greig 1988). It is not really possible to say which cereal was more important. In terms of numbers of grains, wheat is more common than barley at Grove Farm but, where simple presence in samples is considered, barley is as common as wheat in the early and late Saxon samples and only slightly less so in the later phases. If barley was being used primarily to feed animals and was less important as a staple food, it could be under-represented simply because it would come into contact with domestic fires less often or in smaller amounts.

Rye seems to have been one of the normal crops of the medieval period (Greig 1988), but is rarely noted as a dominant cereal on excavations, the exceptions being the finds from the Lydford Granary, Devon, Church Street, Romsey (Green 1994, 85), and a 10th century oven from Peninsular House in London (Jones *et al.* 1991). Rye has long straw, will tolerate poor soils, and might have been rather suitable for the greensand soils. It was certainly a favoured late medieval crop in some sandstone derived soil areas as seen by the often-used district name 'Ryelands'. Surprisingly, it is so infrequent at Grove Farm that its status as a crop or weed of wheat is unclear.

Oats are not as frequent as wheat and barley and, as the floret bases which are required for the

Table 25. Plant remains from late medieval contexts (Areas A and B)

	Feature no.	*1232*	*1332*	*1235*	*1235*	*1244*	*1245*	*13788*
	Feature type	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Ditch*	*Pit*	*Pit*	*Pit*
	Context	*1233*	*1233*	*1234*	*1234*	*1245*	*1246*	*13789*
	Area	*A*	*A*	*A*	*A*	*A*	*A*	*B*
Cereals	*Common name*							
Triticum sp (p)., grain	wheat	-	5	6	12	-	1	1
Triticum sp. Cf. free threshing grain	wheat	-	-	-	6	6	7	2
Triticum sp. rachis frags	wheat	-	1	1	2	-	-	-
T. Spelta, glume bases	spelt wheat	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Secale cereale L., grain	rye	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Secale cereale L., rachis internode	rye	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, grain	barley	1	-	3	3	3	7	2
Hordeum sativum, symmetrical grain	barley	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, hulled symmetrical grain	barley	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Hordeum sativum, assymmetrical grain	barley	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum sativum, rachis internode	barley	-	-	2*	-	-	-	-
Avena sp., grain	oats	-	-	-	-	1	1	-
Cereal indet. + frags		+(14)	-	2+(29)	10+(40)	9+(60)	+(40)	+(50)
Other taxa								
CRUCIFERAE								
Brassica/Sinapsis	wild turnip etc	-	2m	1, 29m	9m	-	-	-
CHENOPODIACEAE								
Gen. et sp. indet.		-	-	2*	-	-	-	-
LINACEAE								
Linum catharticum L.	purging flax	-	-	2m*	-	-	-	-
UMBELLIFERAE								
Aethusa cynapium L.	fool's parsley	-	-	1m	-	-	-	-
LEGUMINOSAE								
Vicia/Lathyrus/Pisum sp.	vetch/tare/ pea	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	vetch/tare	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Medicago/Trifolium sp.	medick/ clover	-	-	1, 1m	-	-	-	-
POLYGONACEAE								
Rumex sp.	sorrel	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Gen. et sp. indet.		-	-	-	2*	-	-	-
CORYLACEAE								
Corylus avellana L. nutshell frags	hazel	-	-	-	-	+(1)	-	-
RUBIACEAE								
Galium cf. aparine L.	cleavers	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
CAPRIFOLIACEAE								
Sambucus nigra L.	elder	-	-	-	-	-	1pm	-
COMPOSITAE								
Anthemis cotula L.	stinking mayweed	-	-	1m	-	-	-	-
GRAMINAE								
Gramineae spp.	grasses	-	-	5*	3	-	-	-
Cf *Phleum* sp.	cf cat's tail	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Phleum sp.	cat's tail	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bromus sp.	brome	-	6	1	2	-	1	-
Avena/Bromus sp.	oats/brome	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Mineralised nodules		3	9	26	4	-	-	-
Unidentified seeds		-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Sample volume (litres)		12	11	20	20	20	20	16
Total, exc. nodules & cereal frags		4	25	68	50	12	18	6
Items/litre, exc. nodules		0.3	2.3	3.4	2.5	0.6	0.9	0.4

separation of the cultivated and wild species are absent, we can speculate that it was probably an arable weed rather than a crop in its own right.

It is difficult to interpret the assemblages in terms of the nature of the crop processing activities they represent as macrofossils are so scarce. The proportions of the main components were calculated for the only three samples that contained over 70 charred items, as listed below, but they cannot be assumed to be representative of the whole assemblage.

The early Saxon and one late Saxon sample are dominated by grain, both wheat and barley, and probably represent the accidental burning of cleaned crops. The other late Saxon sample is largely a mixture of grain and weeds and could be the burnt remains of uncleaned crops or a mixture of crop waste and prime grains.

Percentages of the main components

	Grain	*Chaff*	*Weeds*	*?Cultivated legume*
Early Saxon ditch (9404), n=152	87.4	6.6	5.3	0.7
Late Saxon ditch (9410), n=71	42	11	47	–
Late Saxon ditch (9410), n=137	87	3	10	–

Other possible crops

Flax was only found in the form of waterlogged capsule fragments but would have been a crop useful for its oily seeds, which could be eaten or used as a source of oil. The stems provide fibres for linen and, while flax today is grown either for its oil or fibre, it is possible that the distinction was not so rigid in the past. Flax could have been a field or garden crop (Greig 1988) as could opium poppy which is also useful for its oily seeds.

A number of small legumes, most recorded as *Vicia*/*Lathyrus*, were identified from all the phases. It has not been possible to take the identification further as the hilium and epidermis are not preserved. The dimensions of the best preserved examples suggest that at least two different species are represented. It is likely that these small-seeded plants were field weeds, but some species (such as *Vicia sativa* ssp. *sativa*) were grown as fodder crops (Greig 1988) and have been recognised as probably such from several rural medieval sites, such as Burton Dassett, Warwickshire (Moffett 1991b) and Eckweek, near Bath (Carruthers unpublished).

A single legume may be a pea and another could be a vetch or pea. Peas, which are known from other medieval sites, could be used for human consumption or animal fodder. No evidence for the use of lentils or beans was recovered from Grove Farm; these legumes have been found in Saxon and medieval contexts from towns such as London (Jones *et al.* 1991) as well as rural sites such as the medieval farmstead at Eckweek (Carruthers, unpublished).

The pollen evidence from the palaeochannel suggests that the late Saxon settlement had a vineyard (Wiltshire, above) which is important and very unexpected evidence. It is known that grapes were grown in some parts of the country, but they were also imported (Greig 1988). However, apart from grapes, which are usually considered to be high status food, there is no other evidence for the use of exotic fruits. It is true that most evidence for exotic fruits and spices etc. is usually recovered from waterlogged rather than carbonised assemblages, but as mineralisation occurs at Grove Farm (and a late Saxon mineralised grape pip was found), we might have expected to find seeds of, for example, figs if they had been available to the inhabitants.

The evidence for the use of vegetables is usually restricted to waterlogged deposits as the green leaves and roots were not casualties of parching or malting accidents, as cereals seem regularly to have been. Vegetables were often grown in gardens in the medieval period and members of the cabbage and onion families were among the most important (Greig 1988). Leafy vegetables are usually cut before they set seed, except where seeds are being retained for the next years crop. The mineralised *Brassica*/*Sinapis* seeds at Grove Farm could be from wild or cultivated plants and may have been useful as a source of oil, as a spice, as seed for the following year or they may simply have been weeds.

Other plants

Most of the seeds of wild plants could have grown as arable weeds or in the disturbed nutrient enriched areas in and around settlements. Stinking mayweed, corn cockle, and corn marigold (*Chrysanthemum segetum*) are now extremely rare in Britain, mostly because of the use of herbicides. The ecology of some of the plants suggests that the crops may have been grown on a range of soil types, not just the local greensand. Stinking mayweed has a preference for heavy soils, perhaps present in the valley of the Easterton Brook where waterlogged seeds of this plant were found in the palaeochannel. Corn marigold favours acid ground and parsley-piert prefers dry soils; both these plants could have grown locally. Hare's ear (*Bupleurum rotundifolium*), which was found carbonised in the waterlogged silty clay deposit, grows on calcareous soils and may well have been brought into the area with cereals grown elsewhere. It was not found in the settlement. Lastly, purging flax (*Linum catharticum*), represented by a single mineralised seed, is a grassland plant which grows on calcareous soils. It could represent fodder such as hay brought into the settlement or dung from an animal which had been pastured elsewhere.

Table 26. Presence of taxa from all phases (excluding palaeochannel)

Taxon	*Roman*	*ES*	*LS*	*Med*	*L. Med*	*P. Med*
Triticum sp. grain	+	+	+	+	+	+
Triticum sp. free threshing internodes	+	+	-	+	-	-
Triticum spelta or *dicoccum/spelta* glume bases	-	+	-	-	+	-
Hordeum sativum internodes or grain	+	+	+	+	+	+
Secale cereale internodes or grain	-	+	-	-	+	-
Avena sp. grain	+	+	+	+	+	+
Brassica/Sinapsis	-	+	+	-	+	-
Agrostemna githago	+	-	-	-	+	-
Chenopodiaceae, *C. album*	-	-	-	-	+	-
Atriplex sp.	-	-	-	+	-	+
Vitis vinifera	-	-	+	-	-	-
Linum catharticum	-	-	-	-	+	-
Aethusa cynapium	-	-	-	-	+	-
Vicia/Lathyrus, Vicia sp.	+	+	+	+	+	+
Vicia/Lathyrus/Pisum	-	-	-	-	+	-
cf *Pisum*	-	+	-	-	-	-
Medicago/Trifolium	-	-	+	-	+	-
Polygonaceae	-	-	-	-	+	-
Rumex sp.	-	+	+	+	+	-
R. acetosella agg.	-	+	-	-	-	-
Polygonum aviculare agg.	-	-	-	+	-	+
Fallopia convolvulus	-	+	-	-	-	-
Plantago lanceolata	-	+	-	+	-	+
Corylus avellana	-	+	+	+	+	-
Galium cf. aparine	-	+	-	-	+	+
Sambucus nigra	-	+	-	-	+	-
Lithospermum arvense	-	+	-	-	-	-
Anthemis cotula	-	+	+	-	+	-
Centaurea sp.	-	+	-	-	-	-
Carex sp.	-	+	-	-	-	-
Gramineae	+	+	-	-	+	-
cf. *Phleum* and *Phleum* sp.	-	+	+	-	+	-
Bromus sect. *Bromus*	-	+	+	+	+	+

The absence of waterlogged deposits, apart from the palaeochannel, may account in part for the very restricted flora identified at Grove Farm. Despite the pollen evidence for viticulture, the contrast with the wide range of local and imported fruits, herbs and spices from urban sites such as London, where fig, strawberry, grape, and a range of spices were relatively common (Jones *et al.* 1991), and other towns (Greig 1988), is evident. Such foods, which were also available to high status rural sites such as the moated manor at Cowick (Greig 1988) are less frequently to be found on other rural sites such as Eckweek (Carruthers unpublished). However, as so few rural sites have been excavated, this may simply reflect those examined so far.

In conclusion, the plant macrofossil evidence from Grove Farm appears to suggest an economy based on a limited range of domesticated species which was not supplemented by bringing in 'exotics', perhaps because they could not be afforded. A similar picture of relatively ordinary status is given by the animal bone assemblage (Bourdillon, below).

4. The 'Dark Earth' Deposit

by Richard I Macphail and Michael J Allen [1992]

The 'dark earth' deposits at Grove Farm were examined *in situ* by one of the authors (RIM), who confirmed that they are anthropogenically created accumulations. The deposits represent accretion as a result of high inputs of organic matter (refuse), general domestic debris, and building material (Courty *et al.* 1989; Macphail 1983). Elsewhere, similar deposits have been seen to be largely the result of the decay of buildings, and the inclusions of burnt clay and daub seen at Market Lavington is typical of these deposits. In many respects this material finds parallels with the 'dark earth' *senso stricto* which are 'anthropogenic deposits, ... commonly present on

archaeological sites between the Roman and medieval levels' (Macphail 1981, 309). The attributes of the Market Lavington 'dark earth' are common to these anthropogenic deposits generally; for example, they are dark in colour, poorly stratified, contain reworked Roman pottery, and features are difficult to detect and identify within them (Boismier, Chapter 2). Occupation deposits are therefore primarily rubbish material and general accretion and spread of waste materials and occupation debris

The deposit was evident throughout much of the excavation area, particularly in Area B, and its nature and extent were recorded beyond these by undertaking a north–south auger transect across the Upper Greensand ridge (a and b on Fig. 1). Hand augering was conducted using a 40 mm diameter Dutch auger and material described following pedological notation outlined by Hodgson (1976). Augering was undertaken at 5 m intervals, where possible, from the southern end of the excavation, through Manor House Garden and over the crest of the ridge.

The excavated Saxon 'dark earth' was seen to continue for *c.* 25 m south of the excavation; this deposit thinned and became indistinguishable as it reached the crest of the slope. A single test pit (m on Fig. 1) excavated on the southern slope produced grass tempered pottery from the 'dark earth' indicating the presence of further Saxon occupation deposits. The Saxon occupation deposit can be defined as a plateau edge deposit (*sensu* Bell 1981, 76, fig 5.1) possibly creating an 'aureole' around the knoll upon which St Mary's Church stands.

On the crest of the ridge, a drier and more consolidated 'occupation deposit' was identified beneath that described above, and was tentatively ascribed in the field to the Roman period. On the summit of the ridge a number of augerholes were not bottomed and recorded masonry or mortar of walls or floors of unknown date.

5. Animal Bones

by Jennifer Bourdillon [1992]

The Market Lavington animal bone assemblage consists of approximately 7000 fragments from hand recovery from cut features, 12,000 fragments from the excavated spits, 1500 from the clearance of general soil layers, and *c.* 450 from soil samples. In general the assemblage is well preserved.

The aims of analysis were two-fold: to establish the animal economy of the area, certainly for the well-represented early Saxon period and, to some extent, across the entire chronology represented; and to use data from the bones to clarify formation processes on a site where traces of structures had proved elusive in the shifting matrix of greensand.

The general methods of study were fully compatible with those of the Faunal Remains Unit (FRU) in Southampton, whose archives and reference material were consulted. Data from the present material were recorded in dBase files; the coding was designed to be readily compatible with that in use at the FRU.

The level of study varied with the different excavation techniques. The suspected occupation layers within Trenches B and B2 were excavated in 0.1 m spits after topsoil stripping and the recovered animal bone derives from the 1x1 m collection units within these spits. Three such spits were removed in Trench B and ten in Trench B2 before features could be recognised and excavated. Assemblages both from the cut features and from the excavated spits were studied and recorded bone by bone; that from general soil spreads was only scanned, and its archive is more summary. The bone from soil samples from one of the trial trenches previously excavated by the Thames-down Archaeological Unit (TAU) seemed to contrast with that from the main excavation (which lay to the east) and its material was recorded in full. Bone from a clearance layer over the bank and ditch in Area B2 was largely unidentifiable and was scanned only.

A total of 49 contexts, sieved and sorted at Wessex Archaeology, provided residues of animal bone. This material was identified by Sheila Hamilton-Dyer, using her own comparative collection.

Report Presentation

The assemblages are summarised by phase, with a brief description of the material recovered from the TAU evaluation. This is followed by a description of the material recovered from the excavated spits which provides information for the general assessment of the site's taphonomy. The assemblages are finally presented as analyses of bone groups and by species, enabling their overall significance to be discussed.

The boundary ditch (1281) spans at least two main phases; it is tabled separately and its material is not included in the sub-divisions into context-type.

Virtually all the material from the post-medieval period was from skeletons (pigs or horses) and this whole phase has been excluded from several of the tables. Also excluded are the early Saxon and medieval pig and mole skeletons. To have included this material in the percentage figures would have led to serious bias but it is not out of place in the discussion.

The Assemblage

A detailed description of the animal bone assemblage by phase and sub-phase is included in the archive.

Here it is sufficient to summarise the main characteristics only.

Romano-British
Only two bones were recovered from the whole of this phase, both from the fill of pit 3062, Area C1. One was a deciduous lower incisor of pig and the other a cattle upper molar that was just coming into wear. Both were representative of young animals.

Early Saxon
The vast majority of the animal bones recovered from Market Lavington, where phaseable, came from contexts datable to the early Saxon period (Table 27). Various groups were recovered from ditches, pits, and sunken-featured buildings. The largest assemblage was recovered from the east–west boundary ditch (1281). Much of the material recovered during the excavation of the 'dark earth' deposit by spits appears to relate to this phase.

Ditches
Bone from the ditch fills was quite poorly preserved and bone was eroded in most contexts. Much unidentifiable material was cattle or horse size. Many bones had been chewed by dogs, and others gave signs of rodent gnawing.

The bones from ditches were mainly larger species, almost exclusively cattle, and some were very large animals. Also commonly found in ditches were large fragments from the head, some with horn cores still attached. There was not, however, the bias towards cattle foot bones that is quite often found in ditches; the dumping here had been of large fragments from all over the body, and not just of head and foot-waste. These bones had certainly been butchered.

Other bones included fragments of a horse and a nearly complete skeleton of a dog (context 1137) of medium stature, common in Saxon times. There were few bones of pig, and nearly all were from the head, and sheep/goat was only found in a few contexts, but goat horn cores were present. A butchered, nearly complete metatarsal from a large red deer was recorded. As red deer are a very labile species, a bone of such a conspicuous size must denote good feeding somewhere in the neighbourhood. Bird bones included domestic goose, domestic fowl and mallard.

Pits
A shallow pit (1058) which cut a mortar floor contained only small bone fragments of sheep/goat limbs and feet. Nearly all showed marks of butchery. Such an assemblage, though small, could be associated with 'house deposition' rather than with the external dumping of larger material.

Sunken-featured buildings
Preservation was very good and the bones were very hard. Few bones showed marks of canine chewing, though two radius shafts of sheep/goat may have been gnawed by rodents.

The relative representation of the species could be seen as typical for Saxon times. Cattle bones were dominant, with good numbers of sheep/goat and with pig reasonably well represented; horse, fowl, and goose were present but rare. The cattle fragments were from all parts of the skeleton, but many were from the head, and there were many bones of calf. There were also piglet and lamb bones.

There was much evidence of butchery, some of it oblique and rough, some of it rather more precise. Several cattle longbones seem to have been chopped with a heavy cleaver, whereas many bones of sheep/goat showed knife cuts which were small, sharp and neat. Most of the pig bones had also been butchered.

The back half of a cattle skull with both cores in place, with the clear line of the forehead, and with complex careful butchery was found in pit 13938 (fill 13737). There was a major insertion hole right of centre on the forehead, then two parallel forward through-cuts. Another insertion hole (now broken) lay left of centre and forward of the first hole. There were oblique surface cuts under the orbits, and deep oblique cleaving up into the parietal bones behind the right zygomatic arch. It seems that some special need or special occasion had called for such careful preparation of this head.

Post-holes
Although some post-holes were quite substantial they contained only scrappy fragments of bone and few of these could be identified. Post-hole 13723 (early Saxon structure 2), however, produced a first phalanx of cat which, though of course very small, appeared to have been cut.

Mid-Saxon
Slot 13748 (structure 3) provided the only animal bones from the mid-Saxon phase. This context may represent the filling of a wall slot – or perhaps of something more extensive in view of the number of the bones and species ratios.

The bones of cattle just outnumbered those of sheep and goat, and pig was far behind; most of the cattle bones had been chopped to a size that would suit neat disposal. Nearly all the bones, including unidentified material, were crisp and hard, though there was much variation in their staining.

Late Saxon
All the material phaseable to this period came from three ditches (13606, 13703, and 13725) with poor

preservation, and one pit (1053) with much better preservation. The ditch material was suggestive of casual deposition, with many loose cattle and sheep/goat teeth and foot bones. A small number of horse and pig bones were also present.

Medieval
This was the period most widely represented in the animal bone assemblage after the early Saxon period. Animal bones were recovered from ditches, gullies, and pits.

The sparse material from the ditches was generally poorly preserved. It included chewed and butchered cattle limb bones, butchered horse and few pig bones and a relatively large number of teeth. Bones of both pig and sheep/goat showed a bias to fragments from the head and included many loose teeth. Dog was present in few contexts, and there were fragments of domestic fowl and wood pigeon.

One ditch complex (group no. 3072) with very mixed bone preservation contained bones that are atypical of the period. The occasional finds of dog, cat, and amphibian bones (all from context 3518), and the good size of the sheep/goats is not uncharacteristic of medieval assemblages. However, the pig bones came mainly from two young individuals that straddled two contexts (3518 and 3542). One of these was a distinctive partial skeleton which was of a size only rarely reached by the pigs of medieval Southampton. The earlier medieval period is the least likely time for a young individual, and a sow at that, to have been large and sturdy; so one may suggest a later burial.

In contrast to the ditch contents, the bones from pits and one pit group in particular, although poorly preserved and often both stained and eroded, showed few signs of chewing. There were as many fragments of sheep/goat as there were cattle, which would not be abnormal in a pit deposit, and they came from all across the body. Pig was unusually well represented, with a few limb bones and with many skull fragments and loose teeth. Many were from young individuals. In one pit the only identified fragments were from the butchered mandible of a horse.

There was a range of other species in the pits. Cat bones were found in two pits (1113 and 1136) as were bones of fowl. Pit fall victims were represented by bones from a large toad and frog.

Later medieval
The later medieval material was derived from several pits and one ditch (1279). In view of some uncertainty concerning the dating of the material from ditches 1232 and 1235 this has not been included in the analysis by phase. Bones from the ditch fill were almost entirely from the feet and head of cattle, sheep/goat, and pig. Only two bones had been chewed and only two were eroded, which suggests quite rapid deposition rather than the incorporation of much residual material. Material from pits produced quite small assemblages of chewed cattle and gnawed fragments of sheep/goat and pig. Elsewhere (pits 1244 and 1247) preservation was poorer and the bone consisted largely of loose teeth including a dog tooth.

Post-medieval
Most of the material was derived from pits and ditches. Horse (pony) was most common but pig, cattle, and dog bones were also present.

The evaluation trench
The small assemblage recovered from the TAU evaluation is the only material recovered from outside the main excavation areas. Given its potential interest, all bones were fully recorded but they are not phased or dated and their data has been stored separately.

The bones were stained, either grey or orange-brown, but preservation was good and bones were crisp and hard and formed a coherent group. They were conspicuous for the large numbers of very young bones, including a whole fore limb of foetal or neonatal pig, a young sheep/goat jaw, and several quite young cow jaws.

There were many cattle ribs, some broken but others near-whole. There were several heads of cattle, with many mandible fragments, but a marked dearth of cattle hind legs. The butchery was tidy and clean-cut, suggesting Roman material, although the common Roman practice of bone-splitting was not in evidence. It is likely that they represent a distinct phase (possibly Roman) or type of activity, different from those identifiable in the main excavation areas.

Some Questions of Taphonomy

A discussion on taphonomy should be pivotal to any bone report. The basis for this one is the computer data gathered from the study of the soil development in Area B. Here, the bones from the spits were compared with those from the underlying features. For this report, the taphonomic discussion also includes the bones from the cut features in Areas A and C. Indeed, the wider interpretation of the archive would be impoverished without them.

The material from the spits was recorded in the same way as that from the cut features with two exceptions only. First, a quick analysis of fragmentation data from the cut features showed little usable data for the smaller bones of the body, and such bones were thereafter recorded by fragmentation size only when at least half of the bone still remained; for the spits, the default in that field represents ‘less

Table 27. Animal bone: identified fragments summarised by phase

Origin	Phase	Cattle	Goat	Sheep	Sheep/ goat	Sheep-size	Pig	Horse	Dog	Cat	Red deer	Fallow deer	Roe deer	Hare	Rabbit	Ferret	Mole	Rat	Shrew	House mouse	Harv. mouse
Features	R-B	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	ES	572	–	33	244	62	191	15	23	2	1	–	2	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
	MS	52	1	2	24	19	8	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
	LS	53	1	10	51	12	15	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Bditch	231	3	20	87	18	45	12	12	2	35	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Emed	118	–	8	92	1	185	40	10	4	–	–	–	1	–	1	69	–	–	–	–
	Lmed	27	–	–	32	3	16	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	–
	PM	7	–	1	10	–	226	192	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Spits	Saxon	2752	6	135	1022	82	506	92	45	18	19	4	4	–	1	–	3	–	–	–	–
Layers	mixed	655	–	–	230	–	167	42	141	5	3	–	5	–	1	–	–	1	–	–	–
All hand recovered		*4468*	*11*	*209*	*1792*	*197*	*1360*	*397*	*236*	*31*	*58*	*4*	*12*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*77*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*0*
Samples	R-B	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	ES	8	–	–	6	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	–
	LS	1	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
	Emed	2	–	–	5	–	2	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	2	1	1
	Lmed	2	–	–	2	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	PMed	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
All sample retreived		*13*	*0*	*0*	*15*	*0*	*6*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*4*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*1*
Total		4481	11	209	1807	197	1366	397	236	32	58	4	12	2	2	1	81	1	2	1	1

Origin	Phase	Bank vole	Feld vole	Water vole	Sml mam	Slow worm	Goose	Dom fowl	Mal-lard	Red kite	Thrush size	Wood-cock	Bird	Amphib.	Dog-fish	Eel	Carp	Her-ring	Sml fish	Fish	Unid	Total
Features	R-B	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
	ES	–	–	–	–	–	11	10	1	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1497	2667
	MS	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	111	221
	LS	–	–	–	–	–	2	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	404	558
	Bditch	–	–	–	–	–	2	7	1	2			–		–	–	–	–	–	–	941	1419
	Emed	–	–	–	–	–	1	6	–	–	1	1	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	739	1281
	Lmed	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	151	236
	PMed	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	172	609
Spits	Saxon	–	–	–	–	–	13	27	2	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7496	12,226
Layers	mixed	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	–		–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	376	1632
All hand recovered		*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*30*	*60*	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*	*7*	*6*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*11,887*	*20,851*
Samples	R-B	–	–	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	7
	ES	1	5	–	50	19	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	5	83	3	1	–	2	9	–	198
	LS	–	–	1	12	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	12	1	–	7	1	4	–	44
	Emed	–	–	–	22	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	12	–	–	–	1	8	–	61
	Lmed	–	1	–	14	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	4	1	3	–	–	7	3	–	41
	PMed	–	–	–	8	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	–	–	–	5	–	16
All sample retreived		*1*	*6*	*1*	*110*	*21*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*6*	*14*	*108*	*7*	*1*	*7*	*11*	*30*	*0*	*367*
Total		1	6	1	110	21	30	60	2	2	1	1	13	20	108	7	1	7	11	30	11,887	21,218

Table 28. Animal bone: taphonomic information: percentage of identified bone and state of identified material

	No. identified	*% identified*	*% of identified*						
			Moderate chewing	*Heavy chewing*	*Gnawing*	*Moderate abrasion*	*Heavy abrasion*	*Burning*	*Loose teeth*
Spits	4730	39	5	1	1	9	1	<1	18
Cut features	2188	36	8	3	1	10	4	2	12
Early Saxon	1067	42	9	3	1	10	3	2	13
Mid-Saxon	110	50	4	2	5	3	–	1	6
Late Saxon	154	28	7	5	2	7	14	3	19
Boundary ditch	448	32	10	4	–	9	2	4	19
Early medieval	324	30	8	3	2	16	4	1	22
Late medieval	85	36	7	–	–	17	4	2	32
Ditches	491	37	10	4	1	15	6	2	19
Pits	207	46	10	3	–	3	–	3	11
SFBs	337	51	7	2	1	5	<1	–	5

than half' rather than 'less than a quarter' for all elements save for skulls, girdles, longbones, and the main metapodials. Secondly, a visual grouping of disposal assemblages was of course not possible and some relationships may have been missed.

The results of the computer study showed that the animal bones from the spits were similar to that from the features recognisable below the spits (Boismier, Chapter 2). It can be concluded therefore, that the animal bone was derived from material very largely datable to the Saxon periods. It was formed both of background waste and also of bones from cut features which could not be seen in the greensand matrix. In this broad Saxon group any intrusive material must be spotted bone by bone. The group as a whole augments the feature assemblages and enables more to be said about the animal economy but this must be argued from the standard and not from the exception, for no bone from the spits is quite secure in its phasing and interpretation.

The represented characteristics of the material

Rate of identification

Many fragments were small undiagnostic crumbs of bone and could not be identified. The lowest rate of identification was found in the small assemblage from the late Saxon period (Table 28). Identification was also poor for the medieval period: the ditch contexts from Area C1 contained much rough and heavy material, the ditches from Area A contained mixed material, and the pits contained much small material and many fine crumbs. The proportion of identified bone was highest in the material from the early Saxon sunken-featured buildings and from mid-Saxon wall slot 13748 (structure 3).

The condition of the unidentified material was recorded in the archive, since at times it can offer clues either to unusual erosion or to concentrations of chopping and trimming, but many of these tiny fragments are too small for any further individual comments to be made. The remaining discussion of the condition of the material is based on identified fragments only.

Incidence of chewing, erosion, burning and loose teeth

Table 28 shows the incidence of several factors which quite commonly give clues to site formation: chewing (by dogs or more rarely by cats), gnawing (by rodents), erosion, and burning, and also loose teeth which are a useful index of disturbance (Maltby 1981, 41–4). These factors were used to assess the material from the known cut features; and to see if the bones from the spits, where no features were distinguished in the greensand, might perhaps have shared a similar taphonomic history with the bones from the underlying defined features. The more similar the condition of the two groups of bones, the stronger the chances that their formation process was the same.

In several ways the material from the spits showed good preservation. Signs of rodent gnawing and of burning were less common in the spits than in the cut features as a whole; though they were no more than sporadic anywhere. With loose teeth as an index, the material from the cut features appears as the better preserved but only marginally so.

Signs of canid chewing are recorded either as mild or as heavy. From the cut features overall there was a small amount of heavy chewing, and a greater amount of mild chewing. No clear pattern was evident by context-type; the bones from mid-Saxon slot 13748 showed little chewing; the bone from the boundary ditch (1281) and the late Saxon ditches both exhibited a fair amount and likewise the material from the early Saxon pits.

Overall there was a higher proportion of chewed bones in the spits, which indicates their accessibility

Table 29. Animal bone: fragmentation of cattle limb bones and metapodia (% of all examples)

	Humerus, radius, femur & tibia completeness						*Metapodial completeness*					
	<25%	*25–50%*	*50–75%*	*>75%*	*Whole*	*No.*	*<25%*	*25–50%*	*50–75%*	*>75%*	*Whole*	*No.*
Spits	58	31	8	3	–	482	49	26	6	12	7	253
Cut features	59	20	13	5	3	164	57	18	14	4	7	44
ES	60	21	14	2	3	91	52	28	10	–	10	21
MS	–	–	–	–	–	6	–	–	–	–	–	3
LS	–	–	–	–	–	5	–	–	–	–	–	23
Boundary ditch	65	10	10	13	2	31	67	–	17	8	8	12
EM	54	23	15	4	4	26	–	–	–	–	–	4
LM	–	–	–	–	–	5	–	–	–	–	–	1
Ditches	48	28	15	4	5	54	38	46	8	–	8	13
Pits	74	16	10	–	–	19	–	–	–	–	–	2
SFBs	76	6	18	–	–	17	–	–	–	–	–	5

from the ground surface, and they are therefore more likely to be subject to bias resulting from differential destruction of parts more attractive to scavengers.

There was a low rate for heavily eroded bones in the cut features but a rather higher one for mild erosion. The interest is in the patterning by phase and context-type which shows a higher proportion of mildly eroded bone in the medieval phases and early Saxon ditches, but a low proportion in all the Saxon pits, in the mid-Saxon slot, and in the sunken-featured building pits.

As with the chewed bones, the rate for eroded bones was higher overall in the spits, though here it was the mild erosion that markedly increased, while the rate for the heavy barely changed. Again this suggests probable bias against smaller bones and species but, with heavy erosion still relatively rare, it is not likely to be excessive.

There is a relative lack of overlap between the distribution of chewed and eroded bones. This might suggest some form of two-stage process, with chewing often taking place before sealed deposition in features. This lack of much overlap was true also for the spits.

Slightly worse preservation in the spits in comparison to the excavated features below them seems to be indicated, but there was no other clear taphonomic difference between the assemblages. Even in the spits, we are not dealing with the sort of material that has been lying around for a long time and open to the dogs as much as to the elements. There is a coherence in the whole assemblage.

Fragmentation of the cattle bones

Although butchery evidence is discussed in detail below, it is relevant here since it affects the size of fragments, and selective disposal by fragment-size is a further clue to site formation. Most of the cattle limb bones and metapodials were broken into fragments less than one quarter the size of the whole bone (Table 29). Of the whole or near-whole limb bones, most came from Saxon ditches, which could represent the opportune deposition of bulky waste. Two from the medieval phase were found in ditch 3517, and both were relatively small, from two calves. The whole or near-whole cattle metapodials came largely from the ditches; the exception, a whole metacarpal from an early Saxon sunken-featured building 13751 (fill 13750), was again from a calf.

In the spits the pattern was different, with fewer whole or near-whole cattle limb bones and a correspondingly higher proportion of those over a quarter but not more than a half in size. On the other hand, a similar proportion of complete cattle metapodials was recorded in both cut features and spits (where they were well represented) and many were over 50% complete. The metapodial results, then, suggest similarities between the spits and cut features, but the difference in completeness of limb bones is not readily explained.

The relative representation of the assemblage

It should be stressed that the proportions are calculated from the identified fragment count, which may be far removed from the original relative abundance of the species since taphonomic factors such as fragmentation and recovery bias the proportions, often in favour of the larger animals and bone elements.

Abundance by the main species-groups

For this comparison, the 30 disintegrated fragments of a single skull of red deer (from context 13776 in the boundary ditch 1281) have been counted as one; they are listed separately in the archive since their breaks were apparently old.

For a rural settlement there was little exploitation of wild animals (Table 30). Fish bones were only found in small quantities from sieved soil samples and

Table 30. Animal bone: proportions of main domesticates and broad species groups by phase

	% of broad species groups							*% main domesticates*		
	Main domestic	*Other domestic*	*Deer*	*Small wild mammals*	*Domestic birds*	*Wild birds*	*Amphi-bians*	*Cattle*	*Sheep/ goat*	*Pig*
Spits	95	3	1	<1	1	–	–	61	28	11
Cut features	91	6	<1	<1	2	<1	<1	53	36	11
ES	94	4	<1	<1	2	<1	–	57	34	9
MS	96	2	–	1	1	–	–	49	43	8
LS	92	3	–	–	5	–	–	37	52	11
Boundary ditch	90	6	1	–	2	1	–	57	32	11
EM	78	17	–	2	2	1	1	47	40	13
LM	92	2	–	–	4	–	2	35	45	21
Ditches	91	7	<1	<1	2	<1	–	59	32	9
Pits	94	1	1	–	4	1	–	54	38	8
SFBs	97	1	–	–	2	<1	–	59	31	9

Table 31. Animal bone: bone representation by phase and species (%)

		E Saxon	*M Saxon*	*L Saxon*	*B ditch*	*Spits*	*E med*	*L med*	*P-med*
Cattle	Skull	26	25	15	30	12	8	–	–
	Teeth	9	8	23	18	13	14	–	–
	Vertebrae	11	10	9	13	11	13	–	–
	Ribs	18	27	19	7	12	14	–	–
	Girdles	6	4	4	7	9	8	–	–
	Front legs	10	8	9	5	11	13	–	–
	Back legs	8	8	2	9	9	9	–	–
	Feet/ankles	12	12	19	12	23	23	–	–
	No.	*572*	*52*	*53*	*231*	*2751*	*118*	*0*	*0*
Sheep/goat	Skull	15	22	22	14	14	23	14	–
	Teeth	17	7	22	23	27	34	40	–
	Vertebrae	8	7	3	6	5	6	6	–
	Ribs	24	48	18	16	8	2	9	–
	Girdles	4	4	8	2	5	4	3	–
	Front legs	7	7	11	10	13	10	3	–
	Back legs	11	2	10	13	16	18	9	–
	Feet/ankles	15	4	7	15	13	3	17	–
	No.	*339*	*45*	*73*	*125*	*1239*	*101*	*35*	*0*
Pig	Skull	22	–	–	22	24	10	–	5
	Teeth	13	–	–	24	23	8	–	3
	Vertebrae	28	–	–	7	5	10	–	29
	Ribs	5	–	–	7	1	12	–	48
	Girdles	8	–	–	7	10	2	–	3
	Front legs	5	–	–	9	20	6	–	3
	Back legs	7	–	–	7	11	7	–	4
	Feet/ankles	12	–	–	18	7	43	–	5
	No.	*191*	*0*	*0*	*45*	*506*	*185*	*0*	*226*

there were very few fragments of wild bird. Deer was better represented, in the spits more than in the features, but the incidence was somewhat lower than that from late Saxon Trowbridge (Bourdillon 1993) and much lower than that from the rural iron smelting, but perhaps higher status settlement at mid-Saxon Ramsbury (Coy 1980). Both of these settlements are within 30 km of Market Lavington, to the north of Salisbury Plain.

A high overall percentage of the main domestic animals (cattle, sheep/goat, pig) characterises the assemblage, with smaller numbers of other domestic mammals (horse, dog, and cat). In the early Saxon period, the latter are found very largely in the ditches; in the medieval period they occur in both pits and ditches. The medieval assemblage is much more varied than the early Saxon, despite its smaller size, and the relative percentage of these other domestic mammals is very high indeed. It also has a range of small wild mammals including rabbit, hare, and a probable ferret, as well as amphibians (both frog and toad).

The relative representation of the main food mammals

Overall, cattle is well represented, especially in the large assemblage from the spits. The sheep/goat group (which here includes the rib fragments recorded in the archive as SAR 'small artiodactyl') is also well represented. Numbers of pig bones are generally low. Some of the smaller assemblages are anomalous and may be the product of particular disposal patterns; the large proportion of sheep in Phases 4 (late Saxon) and 6 (late medieval), for example. But the groups from Phase 2 (early Saxon) and from the boundary ditch (1281) were substantial and any quirks of disposal are likely to be masked.

The results from the soil samples were used to investigate recovery, and show that sheep/goat are best represented (by 26 fragments, against 16 of cattle and 9 of pig). It may be, therefore, that many of the smaller fragments of sheep/goat were missed during normal excavation recovery. If the samples give an accurate picture, the bones lost would have been the smallest loose teeth, the sesamoid foot bones, and the occasional carpal or ear bone.

Sheep/goat comprised a higher percentage of the material recovered from the features than the spits and, since the standards of recovery were constant between them, the difference is likely to be genuine. For cattle, the greater relative richness was found in the spits, while proportions of pig bones were much the same in both.

Breakdown by early Saxon context-type reveals it is the pits which were richest for sheep/goat, whilst the sunken-featured buildings, the ditch contexts, and the boundary ditch itself are closely alike. It may be that the smaller material from sheep/goat was the more easily disposed of and often went directly into pits. Dumping of cattle bones, by contrast, is generally thought to have been more common in ditches, the heavier and more offensive waste being disposed of farther away from immediate areas of occupation. If this was so, the sunken-featured building pits appear to have been treated more like ditches, and used as waste depositories after abandonment.

A tentative explanation for the differences between cut features and spits could be that smaller bones were less well protected in the layers excavated by spit, and disintegrated or eroded to such an extent that they were unidentifiable. The high rate of loose teeth also suggests that the general soil matrix of the spits did not offer to the jaws of sheep/goat that element of protection that cut features can afford. Conversely, the rib fragments recorded as SAR (likely to have come overwhelmingly from sheep) were much rarer in the spits than in the main early Saxon context groups; these, and other small sheep bones, may have gone to the dogs.

Table 32. Animal bone: representation by Saxon feature type (%)

		Ditch	*Pits*	*SFB*
Cattle	Skull	21	30	31
	Teeth	11	9	5
	Vertebrae	11	13	10
	Ribs	11	13	30
	Girdles	6	8	6
	Front legs	11	8	8
	Back legs	10	11	4
	Feet/ankles	18	9	7
	No.	*263*	*106*	*194*
Sheep/goat	Skull	16	12	15
	Teeth	28	11	5
	Vertebrae	6	8	10
	Ribs	7	39	36
	Girdles	3	4	7
	Front legs	9	3	10
	Back legs	15	11	7
	Feet/ankles	17	13	12
	No.	*142*	*75*	*103*
Pig	Skull	27	–	13
	Teeth	39	–	7
	Vertebrae	–	–	26
	Ribs	5	–	–
	Girdles	10	–	10
	Front legs	10	–	3
	Back legs	5	–	26
	Feet/ankles	5	–	16
	No.	*41*	*15*	*31*

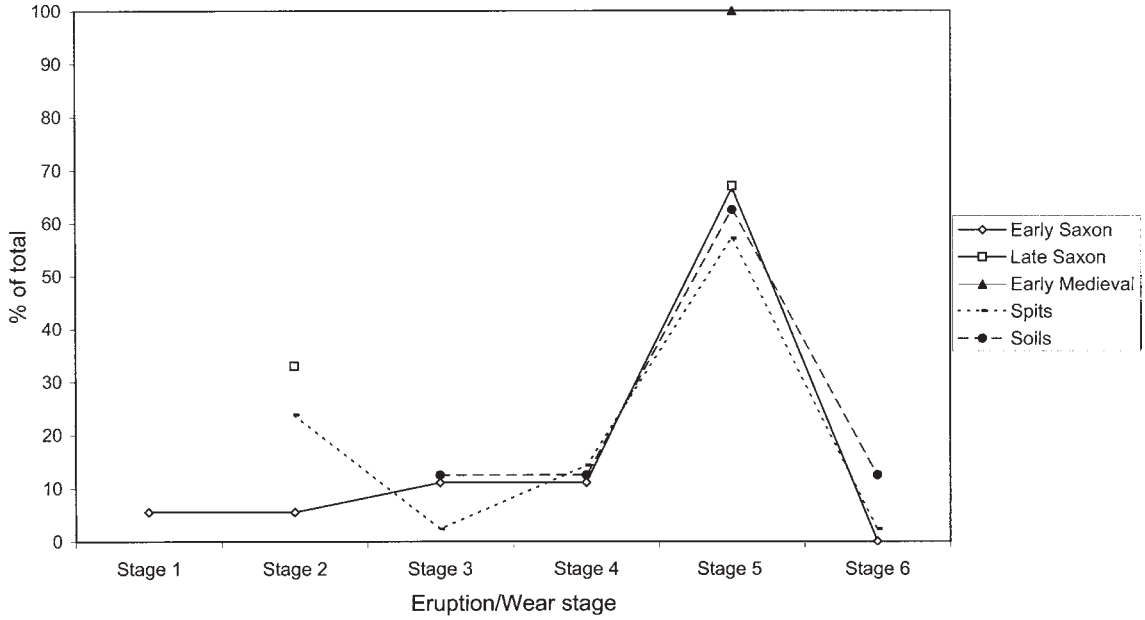

Figure 63 Animal bone: cattle ageing data from toothwear

The Material by Species and Species-groups: Domestic

Cattle

Cattle were well represented. Their greater abundance in the spits may have resulted from the better survival of more robust material from the larger species but, within the cut features themselves, the differences were more closely related to time than to context. There were fewer cattle bones from the pits than from ditches and sunken-featured buildings in the early Saxon period, and the boundary ditch echoes these early ditches. However, the differences were greater over time and, as a whole, the later phases had fewer cattle remains. Perhaps the later and smaller assemblages reflect greater specialisation or, maybe over time, the whole pattern of disposal changed.

The distribution of parts of the body differed spatially and temporally (Tables 31 and 32). Although no definite concentrations were evident, there were relatively more bones of the feet from the ditches and spits.

Ageing

The mandibles of many mature individuals were present (Table 33). The spits contained none from the very youngest group and remains from animals of this age were rare even from the cut features; there was, however, material of the second group (and of group 2/3) from the spits, with a small amount of the tender, better-to-eat age group (Fig. 63).

Of the very porous bones, 20 were from foetal or neonatal individuals. Although such bones are fragile and can be expected to disappear in unprotective environments, the cut features did not appear to provide better preservation conditions as no feotal or neonatal bone was found in early Saxon features.

Pathology

There were various signs of pathological conditions in the cattle bones. Much of this was exostosis; 16 cases, of which 12 were on the feet. The most serious case was on a first phalanx (from 11396), where both proximal and distal joint surfaces were affected and where the exostosis spread massively around the shaft. In addition, three calcanea showed ossified tendons and three metapodials (all from the spits) were notably splayed at the distal ends.

Six pelvic joints showed problems: eburnation was commonest, either in the acetabulum or on the caput of the femur, but one acetabulum was twisted at the rim (11268).

There were a few lesions at joint surfaces, signs perhaps of incomplete formation but not likely to have been seriously incapacitating in life. Tooth rows too were at times defective. One from 13726 in boundary ditch 1281 was shortened at each end, lacking both the second premolar and the last cusp of the third molar. Two other lower third molars were similarly shortened and four upper third molars had irregular and pointed wear that could only have come from a stunted tooth in the mandible below.

All these may be indications of the stock being below par in their genetic health, or (for the elbow and acetabulum and for the splaying) of long years of hard work. By contrast, the only sign of infection was on a distal radius which was compressed and distorted from the pressure of accumulated infection behind the ulna (early Saxon ditch 13747, fill 13746).

Table 33. Animal bone: ageing data from toothwear (mandible or lower third molar)

		Stage 1	*Stage 1/2*	*Stage 2*	*Stage 2/3*	*Stage 3*	*Stage 3/4*	*Stage 4*	*Stage 4/5*	*Stage 5*	*Stage 5/6*	*Stage 6*
Cattle	E Saxon	1	1	1	–	2	1	2	–	12	1	–
	M Saxon	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–
	L Saxon	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	–
	E medieval	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	2	–	–
	L medieval	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Post-med	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Spits	–	–	10	8	1	7	6	1	24	2	1
	Soils	–	–	–	–	1	1	1	–	5	1	1
Sheep/goat	E Saxon	3	3	6	1	5	1	7	–	9	1	–
	M Saxon	1	–	1	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	–
	L Saxon	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	2	–	–
	E medieval	2	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	4	–	–
	L medieval	1	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
	Post-med	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Spits	6	4	11	3	8	3	20	3	38	8	–
	Soils	–	1	1	–	1	2	2	–	8	2	–
Pig	E Saxon	–	–	4	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	–
	M Saxon	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
	L Saxon	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	–
	E medieval	3	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–
	L medieval	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Post-med	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Spits	2	–	2	1	10	2	6	1	1	–	–
	Soils	–	–	–	–	1	–	3	1	–	–	–

Stage 1: 1st molar not in wear; Stage 2: 2nd molar not in wear; Stage 3: 3rd molar not in wear; Stage 4: 3rd molar coming into wear; Stage 5: 3rd molar final column in wear; Stage 6: 3rd molar heaviest wear

Two examples of exostosis at the elbow joint were recorded in bone from the early Saxon ditch contexts; the pathological feet and teeth came from material derived very largely from the spits. Little can be read into either of these relationships but it is of interest that no cattle pathology was found from contexts dated later than the early Saxon period.

Sizes

The full list of measurement data (to an accuracy of 0.1 mm) and further details are given in the archive. Selected measurements of cattle are summarised (to 1 mm) in Table 34; measurements from the large and consistent assemblage from the Melbourne Street sites at mid-Saxon Hamwic (Bourdillon and Coy 1980) are given as comparison. This assemblage acts as a suitable standard for the period and may be seen as reliable, but it should be remembered that the larger the assemblage the greater is its expected range.

The largest samples of cattle measurements from Market Lavington are the humerus breadth at the trochlea, the breadth of the distal tibia, and by the greatest length of the astragalus. The humerus measurements are within the Hamwic range but tend to group towards its lower end, with the means for the spits and from the features both slightly smaller (Fig. 64).

There may be some grouping of females at the lower end of the range for the humerus, and of males (bulls or more often oxen) at the higher; the two groups come in roughly the same proportions (2:1) as at Hamwic. Breadth measurements of the back leg tend to differentiate less between male and female and the distal tibia measurements are more tightly grouped; here the means are rather higher than the large assemblage from Hamwic. For the astragalus the means are virtually the same.

Calculations of withers heights (Table 35) require whole fused bones, rare (and therefore perhaps unrepresentative) in routinely butchered assemblages. It seems that the material from the spits is small compared with that from Hamwic — but within the lower end of the Hamwic range. One fused metacarpal from the early Saxon ditch is notably large and indeed would be notable even from Hamwic, where the upper end of the range was greatly extended by a few conspicuous bones.

The Hamwic sizes, with which this material is compared, were well above those from British cattle of the Iron Age. This must denote a Roman legacy, for

Table 34. Animal bone: selected measurements (mm) using von den Dreisch (1976)

		Mean				*No. examples*			
		Spits	*Saxon*	*Early medieval*	*Hamwic*	*Spits*	*Saxon*	*Early medieval*	*Hamwic*
Cattle	Humerus (BT)	67.3	67.1		68.1	9	10		72
	Tibia (Bd)	58.2	59.9		56.8	22	5		111
	Astragalus (GL)	61.0	64.8	64.5	60.9	40	3	3	167
Sheep	Humerus (BT)	27.0	27.2	28.4	28.7	16	4	2	200
	Tibia (Bd)	25.4	24.8		25.9	37	10		267

the broad trends in cattle sizes showed a steady decline following domestication in the Neolithic to very low figures for the later Iron Age, followed by higher mean sizes for the Roman period, and after this a greater range of sizes, for in some places the small native stock continued. By the medieval period, the cattle were once again quite small. The broad picture holds good for Wessex (Bourdillon 1980; 1988, 185) and also more widely in this country (Armitage 1982) and for the continent (most recently, Audoin-Rouzeau 1991a).

It seems that the Market Lavington measurements are acceptable for Saxon cattle and the larger ones would have been out of place post-Norman Conquest. Early Saxon material is likely to be larger where the Roman influence was stronger, or smaller where there was more continuity with the native Iron Age stock. Some of the bones from the early boundary ditch indicate that the Market Lavington material included animals of Roman stock. Coy (1988) found the same for the early Saxon settlement at Abbots Worthy to the north of Winchester.

Horn cores: conformation and working

Thirty-eight fragments of horn core were found, plus two pairs still attached to large pieces of skull. Only nine of these cores showed marks from cutting or scraping and these marks were often rough. It is of interest that there were no definite knife cut marks on cattle cores later than the early Saxon phase, where they were seen on a huge core from ditch 1130, on two cores from pit 13738 (many oblique surface cuts near the base of the left core on the splendid specimen skull, and concentric scraping on a fragment from another individual), and in fill 13750 from sunken-featured building 13751, where there were heavy cuts on a heavy core.

The cores on the intensively butchered skull in pit 13738 were of medium size (left base 49.8 x 45.5 mm; right base, 47.7 x 46.0 mm; right circumference 152 mm; outer curve of 192–5 mm). The span from coretip to coretip was close to 440 mm. They curved gracefully outward and upward, suggesting that this animal was female. A pair from 12128 were much smaller (right base 46.8 x 35.1 mm; left base 43.8 x 35.1 mm; 118 mm and 116 mm for outer curve). The fragment of core from early Saxon ditch 1036 was larger and was deeply grooved, of the type discussed for Hamwic as most likely coming from a castrate (Bourdillon and Coy 1980, 106). Two other early Saxon cores were larger still: that from sunken-featured building 13751 was very heavy (base measurements of 65.0 x 46.8 mm); and a huge oval core from ditch 1130 was so large that, although initially the possibility of an aurochs was considered,

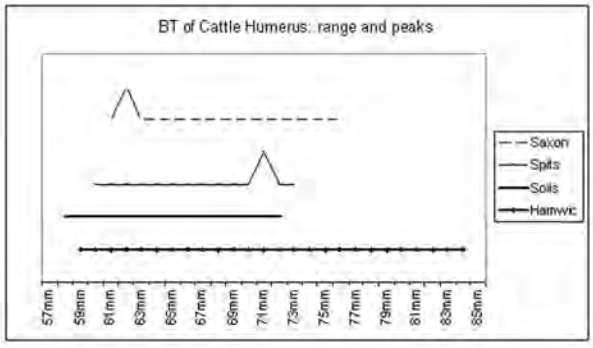

Figure 64 Animal bone: breadth at trochlea of cattle humerus

Table 35. Animal bone: withers heights (m) calculated by factors of Fock (1966) for metapodials and Matolcsi (1970) for other bones

		Min.	*Max.*	*Mean*	*No.*
Cattle	Spits	1.03	1.19	1.12	14
	Saxon	1.09	1.29	1.17*	4
	Soils	0.99	1.22	1.11	
	Hamwic	*1.02*	*1.38*	*1.15*	
Sheep	Spits	0.55	0.70	0.61*	4
	Saxon	0.58	0.58	0.58	1
	Soils	0.67	0.67	0.67	1
	Hamwic	*0.5*	*0.71*	*0.61*	*187*

* = one larger outlier

the fragment could have been residual Roman, or else the early Saxon rearing of a remarkable beast descended from good Roman stock.

Butchery

The cattle bones consist almost entirely of butchered material. From a total of 2958 cattle bones (excluding loose teeth), 56% showed clear marks of cutting and many others were fragmented in such a way that butchery has to be inferred.

Most longbone fragments were less than a quarter complete. Of the few that are whole, or nearly whole, notably more were found in the features and, in particular, from ditch contexts. In this respect, material from the sunken-featured buildings was more fragmented than that from the pits. Cattle metapodials are smaller, more compact, and tended to be butchered less extensively; however, only three whole metapodials were found in cut features.

Nearly all the limb bones had been chopped through and nearly always obliquely. Over 20% of the limb bone fragments showed vertical chopping, presumably for marrow, but this was not in the Roman urban tradition of neat vertical splitting (Maltby 1989, 90). In this assemblage, such chops were rarely the only cuts into a bone, and it appeared that a range of rough cuts was employed to break up the material in many different ways.

Some bones, however, had been butchered more neatly. Careful butchery was seen most often on the cranial end of the sacrum (notably on two specimens from context 13749 of mid-Saxon structure 3, and in context 13726 of boundary ditch 1281). By the medieval period, a wider range of bones were being cut with evident care; these included several examples with fine cuts in ditch contexts.

About a quarter of the cattle vertebrae had been cut along the line of the body (in the sagittal plane); such cuts were usually quite rough and seem to be more the product of casual chopping than a bilateral division of the carcass as a whole. On the other hand, there are traces of quite clean sagittal cuts which are slightly off centre, a type termed 'paramedian' by Coy (1984), who first recognised them from late Saxon contexts in Winchester. Since then, similar cutting has been seen in material from the final phase of Hamwic (late 9th or 10th century). In the Market Lavington material, vertebrae cut in this way were found only in the linear feature (1139) from phase 5 (medieval) and in the spits: cervical vertebrae in 10290 and 12205; thoracic in 11198, two from 11310, 12040, and 12046; and lumbar in 11171, 11440, 12056, and 12205. One very large thoracic vertebra in spit context 10324 had been sawn down the centre, and must be a later intrusion.

The exceptional butchery on a cattle skull from pit 13738 (context 13737) was described in the assemblage notes above. No similar examples were found.

Two distinctive butchery marks were noted from the early Saxon pit 13745 (context 13744): a scapula with neat, vertical slicing of the spine in the Roman tradition and a mandibular hinge which (unusually for any period) had been neatly and vertically cut. A group of 45 unidentified fragments from this context was also notable: these fragments were very solid and almost certainly from cattle, and were also very sharp. They were probably chips from heavy splitting with a cleaver in the manner brought in by the Romans. Yet the other butchered bones from this context were more characteristic of Saxon techniques. Such sharp, unidentified material was noted only in this context, in 1100 from ditch 1101 (39 fragments), and to a lesser extent in the material from the TAU evaluation trench.

Goat

Goat was distinguished from sheep using the comparative material of the FRU and also by the criteria of Boessneck *et al.* (1964), supplemented by that of Deniz and Payne (1982) for the deciduous fourth premolar. Only 11 fragments were found that were certainly from goat and most of these were from the head – six horn core fragments. Most positive goat identifications are of mature animals but the premolar (from spit context 12205) gave a useful indication of the presence of quite a young individual.

Some measurements could be taken at the base of the horn cores and correspond with the large male cores from mid-Saxon Hamwic. It is of interest that the core was still joined to a large fragment of forehead, just as the Hamwic material (Bourdillon and Coy 1980, 99), and in contrast to the cutting at the base itself for the material from West Stow, Suffolk (Crabtree 1989, 103). Two smaller cores from the boundary ditch (1281) were both from the right side of the head, one still joined to a small fragment of the skull. These two cores were not like the small curving oval cores from the females found at Hamwic; both were chubby and D-shaped at the base, were very upright, and were more similar to those from late Saxon Winchester which, it was argued, were almost certainly male ones (Bourdillon 1992).

Sheep

More than 200 fragments were identified securely as from sheep and are fully listed in the archive; 74 were from the cut features and 135 from the spits. A further 47 mandibles, or loose deciduous premolars, were certainly from sheep but have been classed as sheep/goat. Because of the low numbers of goat, the sheep/

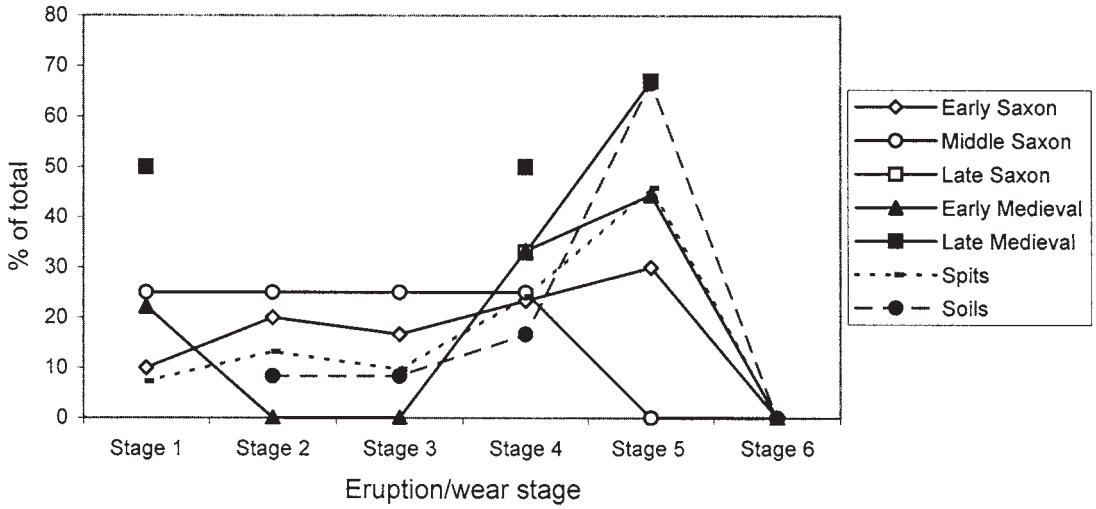

Figure 65 Animal bone: sheep/goat ageing from toothwear

goat fragments have been categorised as sheep in the analysis.

It has already been stated that sheep were well represented at Market Lavington and that perhaps they were quickly disposed of into cut features, especially pits. They were less common in the spits, though even so, good numbers of fragments were found; many ribs seemed to be absent from spit contexts, and the plentiful loose teeth suggested poorer preservation.

Ageing

The cheek-rows of mandibles are hard and they preserve well, which probably accounts for the large numbers of these elements that could be aged (Table 33). There were a fair number of young mandibles, a relative drop in deaths around stage three, especially in the medieval material, then some increase with the young adults, and then a great many jaws that were fully mature, but not senile (Fig. 65). The pattern is similar for the cut features and for the spits. Evidence of material pertaining to young animals was sought in other bones, which tend to survive less well than mandibles. Only one foetal or neonatal sheep/goat bone was found but there is more evidence of individuals a little older.

The teeth and bones together do give some evidence for the deaths or the killing of lambs but they do not show it extensively. There was more evidence for young sheep than for young cattle; and more than from Hamwic.

Many older animals, some younger, and few in between were indicated by the ageing pattern, and this could perhaps be a sign of provisioning, with the most tender sub-adults being traded off-site and consumed elsewhere. So many old mandibles are probably evidence of the successful cultivation of wool flocks, conceivably a feature of local sheep exploitation from the early Saxon period onwards.

Pathology

There were anomalies and pathological conditions but on the whole these were not serious. Most problems were located at the elbow joint or in the jaws (both common points of weakness in sheep). There were seven cases of exostosis or of lipping at the elbow joint, though only one case was worse than mild. Such a condition is thought to be common in sheep that are put through races or pens (Baker and Brothwell 1980, 127), but no inference may be made here on the conditions in which the sheep were kept because of the relatively small number of examples.

On several young mandibles there were marked lumps on the lateral side below the erupting first molar and, in one case, this was so serious that the structure of the bone appeared to be distorted. Six other jaws showed impaction of teeth or serious malalignment. On other bones of the body, the only sign of infection was on a fused lumbar vertebra (from 11112), which was puffy and distorted at the spine.

Only one horn core (from spit context 12024) showed a 'thumbprint' mark which was common in the sheep cores from mid-Saxon Hamwic, and which has been taken by Hatting (1975) as a possible sign of malnutrition following castration. Another core on a mature skull fragment from spit context 10192, however, was most unusually distorted – very wizened, very small, and very indented.

Sizes

Sheep measurements were compared for the two groups where the sample size is greatest (Table 34). The measurements are generally small, with two humeri breadths at the trochlea falling below the Hamwic range. These parameters are still above those

of the Iron Age, and several are above the figures from medieval Wessex, so a Saxon date is reasonable but suggests that animal husbandry was not of the highest quality. It may be that the sheep were reared more casually than were the cattle (which stayed more closely in the Roman tradition). Again there is a parallel with the material from early Saxon Itchen Abbas (Coy 1988) and it may be that specific animal husbandry practices in this period were similar in diverse regions rather than following a purely local tradition. Of the four smallest measurements, three are from phases 2/4; the other is from the spits (12113).

There were few whole fused longbones or metapodials of sheep, with which to calculate withers heights (Table 35). It should be noted, however, that one radius (from spit context 10327) was conspicuously long, similar to that attained by the improved stock of the 18th century. The radius gives a height of 0.70 m, and from medieval Southampton, no sheep bones have been found to exceed the mean withers height calculation of 0.61 m. The radius from the Market Lavington spit (10327) may, therefore, be of a relatively recent origin.

Horn cores

There were 24 fragments of sheep horn core. Eight had been cut. Of these, three probable male cores were from early Saxon cut features (ditch contexts 1030 and 1040 and a sunken-featured building). The remaining five from the spits were all females, except for one fragment from a large male. Some horn cores were still attached to the skull. Other fragments not obviously cut or worked seemed to have come mostly from females.

No polled material was seen in sheep and, although the tally of horn core fragments was quite low, it would appear that the flocks had been horned in both sexes.

Pig

In the spits, pig bones only accounted for 11% by fragments of the main food mammals (cattle, sheep/goat, and pig). It is harder to assess the proportion from the cut features, since there were several whole or near-whole skeletons in the ditches from various phases and some of these are likely to have been intrusive. With the skeletons discounted, the figure is under 11% of the main food mammals. There is no suggestion of any fall-off over time and pig was low from the start, at less then 10% in the early Saxon period. For comparison, the corresponding figure for pig was 15% at Hamwic (Melbourne Street), over 20% in the first early Saxon phase at West Stow (Crabtree 1989, 11), and over 30% for the mid-Saxon site at Wraysbury in Berkshire (Coy 1987).

There seems to have been a practice of burying young pigs in the ditches; skeletons were found in contexts from the early Saxon, late Saxon, and post-medieval phases, though the early Saxon example may be a later intrusion. All were of young unbutchered individuals (of prime tender eating ages, which is an unusual burial pattern) and might imply that their deaths were a result of mishaps, perhaps disease. Other pig remains were found in various context types.

There are some anomalies in distribution of body parts. The longbones are far more rare in the cut features than in the spits. Bones of the head, and especially loose teeth, were found in reasonable numbers from the cut features but they were more plentiful in the spits. It appears that the smaller or less dense elements (especially foot bones and ribs) were very vulnerable to loss unless the whole animal was cleanly buried or disposed of in a cut feature. The low overall rate for pig bones may therefore reflect agrarian as well as disposal practices. Nevertheless, the proportion of pig in the assemblage is low in comparison with other sites where similar survival conditions may have occurred.

There were a fair number of mandibles with which to assess age profiles (Table 33). The main point of contrast is the greater number of fairly young individuals that were found compared with either cattle or sheep/goat. It was not the youngest individuals, but those of stage 2 in the cut features that were more common, and those of stage 3 in the spits. Old, worn mandibles were rare.

There were a few cases of pathology in pig. One was very minor: a fused distal scapula from an early Saxon pit showed a small lesion on the surface of the joint. More serious was the state of the left calcaneum of an early Saxon skeleton. This was very puffy and uneven on its lateral surface and especially so at the distal end. No other bones from this skeleton had been obviously affected, but the puffiness could well have been the result of an infection and perhaps had led to the death of the animal and to its rejection as food.

All other cases of pig pathology related to teeth: in one mandible and a maxilla the molar roots had worn right through the surface of the bone; other jaws showed strange patterns of wear and malalignment and twisted premolars.

All measurable material fell within the range for mid-Saxon Hamwic; but with generally young material the range of available measurements was too small for metrical analysis; nor was it possible to investigate any changes over time.

The whole skeletons had been disposed of unbutchered. Of the remaining fragments, 169 showed cut marks and nearly half of these were on the

longbones (56 on the forelimb and 24 on the hind). Of the skull fragments, 42 had clearly been cut. There was some cutting of the girdles but cuts on other bones were rare.

Horse

Horses were well represented. Excluding the post-medieval skeletons, there were 71 fragments of horse out of 2218 identified fragments from the cut features, and 92 out of 4730 in the spits; 3.2% and 1.9% respectively. However, the incidence was uneven, and the medieval phase was notably the richest, with 40 from 324 identified fragments (12.3%).

For the Saxon phases, and including the boundary ditch 1281, there were 31 bones of horse in a total of 1809 identified fragments; this gives a rate similar to that from the spits. Both are much higher than the meagre value of 0.1% from the large assemblage from Melbourne Street in mid-Saxon Hamwic.

About half the horse bone fragments, representing at least three individuals, were found in early Saxon ditches, and those from pits included head, feet, and ribs. There was a different distribution, however, in the 'horse-rich' medieval period, with 19 fragments of horse in various ditch contexts, especially 3518 in ditch 3517, which included butchered pelvises from at least three individuals. In comparison, medieval pit contexts yielded 17 fragments from the head, feet, and ribs. The skeletal distribution was less polarised elsewhere, including bones other than, but in conjunction with, foot and head waste.

There were no foetal or neonatal horse bones, but a porous metatarsal shaft in boundary ditch 1281 may have come from an individual of perhaps a few months old and there was some evidence of sub-adults – including loose proximal femur epiphyses from early Saxon context 1105 (gully 1106) and a spit context.

A great many bones had been butchered. Small bones like carpals and patellas did not show any cut marks but otherwise an uncut bone was a rarity. Butchery was present in all periods.

With much butchery, and with some evidence of younger (and therefore fairly tender) animals, it seems likely that horse was sometimes eaten. This presents no problem of interpretation for the early Saxon period, and Coy (1988) found evidence of this from the early-to-mid-Saxon settlement at Abbots Worthy on the River Itchen to the north of Winchester. By the medieval period, however, the repeated ecclesiastical prohibitions on the eating of horse-flesh had made such a practice unlikely and the cuts from these later phases may be seen perhaps as from skinning; there was certainly evidence for this from medieval layers at Jennings Yard, Windsor (Bourdillon 1993a).

So many bones had been cut that few withers heights could be estimated but it seems that individuals of various sizes were represented. The two articulated individuals from a post-medieval context have been discussed in the first section of this report: one was a gracile individual of just under 14 hands (of medium height according to the nine-point classification of Vitt, discussed in von den Driesch and Boessneck 1974), and showed an advanced degree of arthrosis in the lower spine. With such a size and such a disability it would have felt at home at any time in the Saxon or medieval period. The other was a hefty individual and seems likely to be modern. Of at least three individuals represented by pelvic bones in medieval ditch 3517 (context 3518), one was quite small, one was notably heavier, and the third seems to have been of medium build. In addition, whole fused bones from various spit contexts included an associated humerus and third metacarpal from 11483 which fall into Vitt's group of smallish ponies (between 128 and 136 cm at the withers, or round about 13 hands). A very small metatarsal (greatest length 232 mm) came from spit context 12790; this is likely to have come from a pony of barely 12 hands (122 mm).

Dog

The rate of canid chewing was seen to be quite high. Furthermore, a close examination of the sieved material by Sheila Hamilton-Dyer suggested that many of the small unidentified fragments had been through the guts of dogs. It is, therefore, not surprising that a good number of dog bones were found: 49 from the cut features, 45 from the spits, and a further 141 from clearance in Trench C.

The material from the soils came largely from near-whole skeletons from a clearance layer in Trench C (3003). The rest of the material contained some groups of associated bones (most notably from early Saxon ditch 1101, context 1104); but mostly it was as individual fragments. It seems likely that dogs were quite common in the settlement.

Dog bones were most commonly recovered from ditches. All the early Saxon material came from ditches, with none from the pits or sunken-featured buildings. Likewise, the medieval dog bones came only from ditches.

Also notable is the high number of cut marks, observed on 13 bones, most of which were longbones, though in the spits they included two girdles (from 10022 and 12568) and two jaws (from 10113 and 11129). It is of interest that only dog bones from Saxon features were cut. Eleven of the cut fragments showed surface marks only, though several individual fragments had been cut repeatedly. The other two fragments had been cut right through: a distal femur from 1137 in early Saxon ditch 1138 had been vertically chopped at the joint, and a scapula from spit context 12568 had been chopped at the back. In

addition, there were five cuts on two of the skeletons from the soils.

Harcourt (1974, 171) points out that simple skinning need leave few if any marks on the bones and suggests that cuts are more likely to have been produced in the process of dismemberment for eating. In the present material, however, those cuts on the dog bones in the soils must have been from skinning, for the skeletons were articulated, whole and therefore presumably uneaten. The other cuts may have been made for the same purposes, since the differential deposition of dog bones, in ditches but not in pits, may argue against their being general food waste.

Three fragments of dog showed signs of pathology. All were exostoses on radii and phalanx.

Sizes

Harcourt's survey indicated dogs of two main size groups from Anglo-Saxon England. Certainly, in much material from Saxon Wessex, small dogs seemed to have departed with the Romans, and do not reappear until late Saxon times, and then mainly on higher status sites. One would therefore expect, from the early and mid-Saxon periods, that the dogs would be of medium size and generally mongrel in type but the Market Lavington material was more varied. Small individuals were noted in particular from the spits, although these may have been intrusive. One small proximal radius (proximal breadth 15.5 mm) and a small proximal metacarpal were found in the boundary ditch 1281, perhaps reflecting the late Saxon recutting of this feature. In addition, two notably large bones were found in the spits.

The skeletons from the clearance layer in Trench C (3003) were all of medium-sized individuals. Several whole bones could be measured and gave estimated withers heights ranging from 0.61 to 0.70 m, using Harcourt's and Koudelka's factors (of which the latter gave quite wide results for the same individual, whereas those of Harcourt were more consistent).

Ageing

An unfused distal tibia was one of only two very young dog bones; the other was the left acetabulum of a foetal or neonatal puppy in 10169. The only other unfused bones were four epiphyses of the last-fusing group. It may be that the dogs were valued for their skins, but they seem to have been kept to a good age before the skins were claimed.

Cat

Cat bones were found infrequently and were far less common than those of dog. They were found in early Saxon sunken-featured buildings 1 and 3, two pit contexts and a ditch of medieval date. There was also a fragment from the boundary ditch (1281). Cat was better represented in the spits, although this may be biased by nine fragments from three related squares which could have come from a single adult individual (3 bones of the lower right leg in 10597; a right femur, a cervical vertebra, and a caudal fragment of left pelvis in 11597; and a right pelvis, a right metatarsal, and skull fragment in 12597). If this is indeed the same individual, the vertical distribution is of interest. Only one fragment (an incisor) was found from the soil samples. Although many bones of this species are small, it does not look as though they had been significantly overlooked during recovery.

The fragment of left pelvis from 12597 had been cut through on the ilium shaft. In addition, a rib from context 13813 in sunken-featured building 1, showed several sharp cuts near its head. Cuts from skinning are seen more often on the feet and head but with the strong evidence for dogs skinning it seems likely that some cats were skinned as well. There were no signs of any pathological conditions on the cat bones.

Domestic poultry

Goose

Goose or probable goose bones were found in deposits from all phases, with a relatively higher incidence in the cut features than in the spits. In the early Saxon phase, the distribution spans ditches, pits, and sunken-featured buildings.

Bones of the wing were most commonly found and none of these was whole. On most of them, the signs of butchery were clear, either small sharp marks on the surface or clean cuts right through. In a few contexts (most notably in 13730, from early Saxon pit 13731), both ends of radius and ulna had been trimmed firmly and obliquely, leaving a pointed shaft some 50 mm in length. In a cut ulna shaft from ditch 1281 (fill 13726), a neat small hole had then been pierced. This is perhaps a sign of working, presumably to make some sort of flute. If this is so, could the other sharp cuts have been some form of preparation on wing bones which were subsequently rejected?

Fowl

Some unidentified material, though not fully diagnostic, was believed on texture and handling to have been domestic fowl. Including this material, domestic fowl was rather more common than goose, although their relative importance may have been much the same, for each goose bone would have carried more meat and goose eggs would have been larger.

There were cut marks on six of the bones, a far smaller proportion than for goose. Several sharp neat cuts were seen on a proximal femur from boundary ditch 1281 and a small deep cut on a pelvis from sunken-featured building 1, context 13791. Other marks of butchery were cruder.

The fowl measurements all fell within the quite low figures for mid-Saxon Hamwic. This is not surprising, for it was not until the later medieval centuries that larger domestic fowl were in evidence at Southampton, and fowl is not represented in the Market Lavington groups from these later centuries. Two bones, however, were apparently full-size but were still extremely porous and, had their owners lived longer, they might have grown much larger. They may have been castrated individuals and came from the upper spits, so were perhaps part of later deposits.

The Material by Species and Species-groups: Wild

Deer

For a rural area, deer bones were not abundant though found in moderate numbers. Occurrences were more common in the spits, which contained 19 fragments of red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) from all parts of the body, and four fragments each of fallow deer (*Dama dama*) and roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*). From the boundary ditch (1281), a group of 30 skull fragments and three loose teeth should be taken as from a single individual – though the breaks in the skull were old ones. Even so, this ditch was richer in deer than were the other features, for it also contained a femur and butchered distal tibia of red deer and a whole fused radius of roe. Other deer fragments from the cut features were a butchered metatarsal of red deer and a cut roe antler in early Saxon ditches 1176 and 13705 (contexts 1175 and 13704) and a lumbar vertebra of roe deer, neatly and sagittally butchered, in pit 13745 (context 13744) from the same phase. There were no deer bones recovered from the sunken-featured buildings, nor from the cut features (apart from boundary ditch 3072) in any of the medieval phases.

Fallow deer was found only in the spits, where two of the four fragments (from 11004 and 11005) may be taken as a single deposit. The other two fragments were found in 10169 and 11012. Fallow deer is held to be a medieval introduction and, indeed, from the deer-rich assemblage of nearby Trowbridge, was found from contexts very soon after the Conquest but not convincingly before it (Bourdillon 1993b), so its presence in these four squares must raise questions concerning their stratigraphic security. All the fallow bones were from the back leg and two of them showed cut marks.

Some of the red deer bones were from very large individuals, in particular a proximal femur from 10004 and a distal tibia from 10428 (both spits), both butchered and neither measurable, but obviously very large. A broken metatarsal in early Saxon ditch 1176 (context 1175) had an estimated length of at least 300mm. Red deer are a very labile species and such large sizes suggest rich woodland; but they are also a mobile species and the woods need not have been particularly close. If the sizes are any indication, it could be suggested that the trend over time to more intensive agriculture and smaller animals makes an earlier date for the capture and butchery of these conspicuous individuals most likely.

All the deer epiphyses were fused, save for a lumbar vertebra of roe deer from a pit.

The incidence of antler was not high. There were six fragments from red deer, one of them still on the skull (from spit 10128). Three had been cut and one of these (from spit 10423) had been well polished. This was different in texture from the rest of the assemblage and could well have been worked elsewhere and brought as an object to the site. A roe deer antler fragment was still attached to a butchered skull; there was no antler from fallow deer. The deer remains as a whole may be seen as refuse from hunting for food rather than as the collection of material for working.

Hare

A proximal radius of hare (*Lepus* sp.) was found from 1140 in medieval ditch 1132. This had a small horizontal cut at the back. A further fragment of hare (an ear bone) was found from a soil sample from a medieval ditch.

Rabbit

Only one bone was found of rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) – a maxilla from an upper spit. Rabbit is taken as a Norman introduction to this country.

Ferret

A right distal ferret humerus was found in a medieval ditch. The distal epiphysis was fused but the proximal end had recently been broken off and was missing. Ferret is a domesticated form of the polecat (*Mustela putorius*) and bones of the two are hard to tell apart. Neither is common in archaeological contexts. The ferret is thought to have been introduced into Britain by the Normans (Coy and Maltby 1984).

Mole

Isolated fragments of mole (*Talpa europaea*) came from cut features and from the spits, covering a range of phases and context-types: a proximal femur from early Saxon pit 1121 (context 1120), a scapula from the mid-Saxon slot 13748, a humerus and skull fragment from medieval ditch 1132 (context 1131), and another scapula from medieval pit 1136 (1135). Three spit contexts (10323, 10577, 12472) each contained a humerus. In addition, there was a partial skeleton in very poor condition from medieval pit

13730 (13731). The isolated bones were so well preserved that they are likely to have come from deliberate deposition and were perhaps a result of skinning. The remains of the skeleton, by contrast, were more likely the result of natural death *in situ*. A few other mole fragments came from soil samples and early Saxon contexts.

Other small mammals

The total number of identified small mammal bones is not high; they were found quite sporadically across the site and from various context types. Field vole (*Microtus agrestis*) was the most dominant by species identification and this suggests rough grassland nearby. Two identifications of mice, both were from medieval contexts, are of interest. From ditch 3046 (context 3045), an upper first molar with five roots must have come from harvest mouse (*Micromys minutus*), a very small mammal indeed and a summer denizen of cornfields. Pit 3046 (context 13713) contained a house mouse (*Mus musculus*) lower first molar. This species is not indigenous to this country, but it has been found in Wessex on many sites from the Iron Age onwards (found first at Gussage All Saints; Harcourt 1979, 155). Water vole (*Arvicola terrestris*) was found in late Saxon ditch 1281 but this need not imply any notable water nearby. Indeed, the many finds of this species from Wessex Iron Age sites on chalk support the growing suggestion that this species may have changed its habitat preferences over time (Coy and Maltby 1984, 89). The bank vole (*Clethrionomys glareolus*) usually lives in shallow burrows or in banks. Here remains were found in a spit over the bank and ditch in Area B2 context 14010, and in an early Saxon pit 3745, fill 13744.

The two occurrences of shrew (*Sorex* sp.) could not be identified to species and the fragments listed simply as small mammal are most probably of mice or voles. No rat fragments were found from the samples, and the fragment of black rat (*Rattus rattus*) which was found from the subsoil (1107) may be treated as a probable recent intrusion.

Slow worm

The slow worm (*Anguis fragilis*) is a small legless lizard. A total of 22 fragments of slow worm were recovered during sieving, mostly from early Saxon contexts. O'Connor (1991, 262) interpreted slow worm fragments from Anglian levels on the Fishergate site in York as likely evidence of nearby rough pasture or scrub.

Amphibians

A few fragments of amphibians were found in medieval contexts. They included both frog (*Rana* sp.) and toad (*Bufo bufo*). There was an amphibian fragment in medieval ditch 3517, fill 3518, and a pair of frog humeri, left and right, from the late medieval context 1245, pit 1244. There were no amphibian fragments recovered from the spits. Amphibians were better represented from the soil samples, with a total of 14 fragments; these came from early Saxon, medieval, later medieval, and post-medieval pits and ditches.

Wild birds

Fragments of wild bird were rare. The four fragments of duck, not recovered through sieving, were mallard (*Anas platyrhynchos*) sized and they are taken as having come from wild birds, since domesticated duck is rare in Saxon contexts. Moreover a larger number of recovered fragments would be expected had a domestic flock been present on the site.

The other bird bones give little sign of rich or special eating. A distal left femur of woodcock (*Scolopax rusticola*) was found in a medieval linear feature, but bones from this species are quite common on Saxon and medieval sites. The probable red kite (*Milvus milvus*) from boundary ditch 1281 would have been in the proximity of the site as a scavenger. A peacock femur from subsoil 1107 is thought to have originated from the nearby manor garden in late medieval or post-medieval times. A few small bird bones, thrush-size or sparrow-size, were recovered but could not be further identified.

The soil samples confirmed the low incidence of fragments of wild bird. Only nine fragments were found, several from thrush-sized passerines.

Fish

The soil samples provided the only evidence for fish, the remains of which were small in number but found in nearly all the sampled groups. Many samples provided evidence of cartilaginous fish (*Elasmobranchii*) that were not definitely identifiable. This cartilaginous material was widespread, with a total of 113 fragments, and most came from the early Saxon phase, especially from pit 13745, ditch 13705, and the sunken-featured building 3 (13751). The most easily caught, and therefore perhaps the most likely, common species in this group are Dogfish (*Scyliorhinidae*). The nearest source for these fish would have been the Bristol Channel, so if they were not to become tainted, then their transport would have had to have been planned. Perhaps they were carried live in water; or maybe they were smoked. Dogfish are not common in the archaeological record; in copious sieved deposits from Anglian and medieval Fishergate at York, O'Connor (1991, 264) found a minimum of two fragments, or 20 at the maximum, and York is much nearer to the sea. A major sieving programme at mid-Saxon Wraysbury produced no fragments of dogfish at all (Coy 1987). Cartilaginous material is not likely to preserve as well as bone and it

is suggested that the soil matrix at Market Lavington may be especially kind to such material, whilst at other sites the evidence has been lost.

There were seven fragments of eel (*Anguilla anguilla*); one from a pit and the rest from ditches, mostly datable to the early Saxon phase. These came from small individuals such as may be readily found in inland streams; they therefore give no evidence of large scale exploitation or of trade. Similarly, there were 11 fragments of very small fish – many of them probably minnows (*Phoxinus phoxinus*) and some perhaps bullheads (*Cottus gobio*). These could not be positively identified but also could have come from local streams.

An early Saxon ditch 13705 (fill 13721), contained a vertebra very likely of the carp family (*Cyprinidae*), indicative of non-local freshwater exploitation.

Finally, seven bones of herring (*Clupea harengus*) from late Saxon ditches 13725 and 13703, also indicate a connection between this inland site and the coast, this time suggesting quite complex trading activities since these fish live in deeper waters than those required by dogfish. Most of the herring bones are vertebrae, one of which had been crushed sideways quite likely by human teeth; there are also two bones from the head and this must mean that the fish arrived whole on the site rather than pre-prepared.

Discussion

The sealed and stratified material from the features comprises a coherent assemblage which can be confidently interpreted and discussed. The assemblage as a whole provides scope to discuss the early Saxon phase in some detail, although comments on other periods have to be made with more caution.

The environment

The recovered bones suggest grassland nearby, in the Saxon period at least. Field vole, the most common small mammal from the sieving, thrives in rough pasture and the presence of slow worm also suggests such conditions. The few mallard may have inhabited a local watery environment, but the fish were from coastal or marine areas, with no regular exploitation of freshwater species indicated. Though there were frogs and toads in all phases, their bones came most often from the ditches and they need not indicate a watery habitat. Evidence for woodland was not conclusive, for though there was deer, red and roe, and though one or two large red deer must have fed well, they could all have browsed at a distance. Pig was quite poorly represented, so the exploitation of woodland for pannage may have been quite limited.

The animals

For a rural settlement there was little evidence for the exploitation of the wild environment, notably a few fragments of deer and a very few of wild bird. The red kite is taken to be a natural casualty. Poultry, however, was well represented for the early Saxon period. By fragment count, cattle were the most common among the domestic animals. Calves were certainly present and would have been reared nearby but many of the cattle were mature. Cattle make heavy demands on pasture and some of these animals were of notably good size. The grassland also supported many sheep, with some mortality of young lambs and a few sheep of prime eating age killed, but many individuals were kept into maturity. The pigs were probably predominantly reared for meat.

Fragments of horse were found in several early Saxon contexts and also in the boundary ditch. The animals were wide ranging in size and age (which is rare); most had been butchered and some horses were probably eaten, resulting in a scatter of body parts in deposits.

Dogs too were of differing sizes: medium or small. They may or may not have been eaten but some had certainly been skinned. Smaller dogs are often seen as a sign of status, and these would have been the size of small Roman introductions, but are unlikely in the Saxon period to have just been lapdogs. Assuming they were Saxon in date, they must have been kept for some purpose, not terriers yet as a breed, but performing a particular function appropriate to their size. There were a few bones of cat, which may also have been skinned.

Some of the cattle, sheep, and goat horn cores were worked (though only in the early Saxon period). Post-cranial bones also exhibited evidence of working. An ulna of goose in the boundary ditch had been holed as for a whistle and other goose wing bones had been cut. Most of the working seemed competent but rough. One cattle acetabulum had been very finely worked and this may have been brought in from outside since there was no sign of a regular local bone-working industry to foster such a measure of skill.

The settlement

Market Lavington was, in the early Saxon period, a rural settlement with at least some involvement in a wider network of exchange. At the very least, something must have been traded out of the settlement to account for the incoming dogfish, which were common especially in the early Saxon phase, and such trade would have entailed a link with a distant coast. Some exported items could perhaps have been skins, or horses for transport or for pack. The large numbers of older cattle and sheep and lack of prime meat animals could also indicate a producer status for

Market Lavington, with meat provisioning playing a part in the economy. For sheep, however, this bias towards older specimens may result not so much from an exodus of prime individuals as from deliberate husbandry practice. Market Lavington had a quite different pattern of ageing from that of the sheep at West Stow. This may indicate that even in early Saxon times Market Lavington's sheep were kept primarily for their wool. Specialisation may therefore be shown by the age of animal slaughter, the presence of limited exotics (dogfish and herring), and the indications of trade, and imply a settlement that was engaged in more than mere subsistence. Trade may be indicative of a need to pay tax or tribute to some form of external authority (Carver 1994, 3).

Traces of pre-Saxon phases

The small amount of material from the TAU evaluation trench(es) gave a different age structure for the animals than did the main Market Lavington excavation assemblage; a different exploitation could have been rather earlier and perhaps even native Romano-British. But there are few if any identifications of residual Roman bones. One large worked horn core of cattle in the boundary ditch may be Roman. One cattle scapula was sliced down the spine and there may have been some vertical splitting of limb bones in the Roman manner, but the fragments seem too unabraded to conclude that reburial of residual material had taken place, and other butchery cuts in these contexts (early Saxon pit 13745) are in the rougher Saxon styles. Romano-British traditions may have continued for some time amongst a native population later absorbed by the Anglo-Saxons.

There are other signs of continuity from Romano-British times. The good sizes of the cattle (as for many other sites in southern Britain, including West Stow and Hamwic) must mean some continuity of stock and of good farming practices. The sheep, too, were taller in the main than were those of the Iron Age and they too must have been genetically descended from the larger Roman stock, though their sizes were waning (as at early Saxon Itchen Abbas, though not at Hamwic or West Stow). The greater resilience of the cattle is of special interest for Market Lavington in that with rough grassland and likely dry conditions it is the sheep that might have fared the better. The cattle could well have received special care and their husbandry been regarded as of greater importance.

Signs of post-Saxon change

After the Saxon period, the small assemblage from the medieval phase indicates greater variety. A harvest mouse from the samples may be a sign of a cornfield. For the main domestic animals, the sample is small when broken down by context type but there are several young sheep and young pigs, and more horse, cat, and dog. Hare, ferret, and woodcock are all new species for the site – and the fallow deer and rabbit are likely to be medieval introductions and also new, though their phasing of course cannot be proved.

Yet one should not place too much stress on such changes. Over the centuries the basic processes of rural life went on, and the bones of the animals exploited by the settlement's inhabitants continued to be discarded in similar ways.

6. Discussion

by Michael J. Allen, Phil Andrews, Lorraine Mepham and Nick Stoodley

1. Introduction

The 1990 excavation at Grove Farm, Market Lavington was undertaken just before the introduction of *Planning Policy and Guidance Note* 16 (*PPG*16) and was not, therefore, subject to the same processes of evaluation and mitigation that would have been the case today. Indeed, had it not been for the opportunistic vigilance of Phillip Williams then it is very unlikely that any record at all would have been made of the site, apart from the few details noted in the limited evaluation of 1986.

Following the site's discovery and the recognition of its importance, it is thanks to the developers (who enabled access) and English Heritage (who provided immediate funding for excavation) that a satisfactory and significant result was achieved. In retrospect, it appears that the layout and extent of the excavated areas successfully encompassed the bulk of the early Anglo-Saxon settlement evidence within the site boundary, though there was some loss of what might be regarded in this context as less important Romano-British and medieval remains. Perhaps the greatest loss is an unknown number of Anglo-Saxon graves, particularly because some of these appear to represent a later, possibly mid-Saxon element (on the basis of unstratified possible grave-goods) which has not been identified among the surviving graves in the cemetery. In addition, it is possible that a Romano-British villa (and other remains) may have been destroyed during an earlier phase of the Grove Farm development, to the west of the site described here, and this is discussed further below.

It is the early Saxon cemetery evidence that is of particular significance at Market Lavington. This, coupled with possibly contemporaneous settlement and the subsequent sequence of mid-Saxon, late Saxon, and medieval features has ensured that the site remains of considerable importance, especially in Wiltshire, despite the more than 15 years which have elapsed between excavation and publication. Sites elsewhere, excavated since 1990, have produced more extensive evidence, but rarely has the range of settlement remains (including finds and environmental evidence) as well as burials been recovered together. Furthermore, their proximity to the parish church is potentially significant in understanding village development, in this case a village which, by the 14th century, had become a minor town in Wiltshire, though it was a subsequent casualty of post-medieval decline. Opportunities for undertaking investigations in such a core location rarely arise, and in Market Lavington itself there has been very little archaeological work undertaken since the 1990 excavation, and virtually none of any consequence in furthering our knowledge of the settlement (ASI 2000; 2004).

The setting of the site has been an important factor in its long history. Located on a low greensand ridge at the foot of the north-west scarp of the chalk that forms Salisbury Plain, with streams to the north and south and diverse soils in the vicinity, it has attracted settlement at various times from the Mesolithic period onwards.

2. Prehistoric Activity

Evidence for prehistoric activity, ranging in date from Mesolithic to Iron Age, is limited to a background scatter of lithic material and a few sherds of pottery. Pottery identified as Late Bronze Age was collected from the area immediately to the west of the site prior to the 1990 excavation, but no further sherds of this date were subsequently recovered. None of the material from the excavation can be considered to be *in situ*. However, it can be taken as an indication of intermittent human activity in the vicinity during the prehistoric period, and emphasises the importance of the river valleys as areas for settlement as well as the more well-known chalk downland. Nevertheless, the fact that river valley settlement was also exploiting the chalk is reflected in the selection of raw materials for the production of flint tools. The Easterton Brook palaeochannel (see Fig. 3) has demonstrated the potential of such features to contain important sequences of environmental data stretching back into the prehistoric period. The earliest radiocarbon date obtained indicates an Early–Middle Iron Age date for the bottom of the sequence at Grove Farm, though in this case only the Saxon and medieval deposits were studied for pollen and plant remains.

Important stratified prehistoric peat sequences at Market Lavington may, therefore, survive along the former course of the Easterton Brook. Such a sequence, spanning possibly the Bronze Age and Iron Age periods, would complement the detailed land snail sequence from the Mesolithic base and Bronze Age to medieval colluvium at Strawberry Hill on the chalk only 2 km to the south-west (Allen 1992; 1994), and the detailed palaeo-environmental work undertaken at the Late Bronze Age site at Potterne on

an Upper Greensand outlier *c.* 4 km to the north (Lawson 2000).

Generally, settlement traces in the valleys are more likely to be obscured or destroyed by later activity, as at Grove Farm, or by colluvial sediments (eg, Strawberry Hill Reservoir, West Lavington (Allen pers. comm.)), or by a combination of anthropogenic and other deposits, as at Cherhill near Calne (Evans and Smith 1983).

3. Romano-British Activity

Evidence for activity on the site during the Romano-British period is similarly scanty, comprising one small structure without associated artefacts, and two pits. Little can be inferred from this, though the stone footings and mortar floor may represent an ancillary building of some kind, particularly when the evidence below is considered. The range of artefacts present on the site in the pits and in post-Roman contexts does enable some conclusions to be drawn regarding the nature of the activity, though there is insufficient faunal and plant remains to enable any comment to be made on the economy of the site.

There is certainly artefactual evidence for late Romano-British activity, with a general background scatter of earlier Roman material, presumably deriving from the general vicinity. It is apparent from the range of artefactual material of this period that the settlement at Grove Farm, whatever its nature, had wide-ranging contacts, receiving pottery from a variety of local, regional, and even international sources. In fact, it is unlikely that any of the recovered artefacts were produced on the site itself. The only craft activities which can be inferred are boneworking, on the basis of a single finely-sawn piece of cow pelvis which is considered to be out of place in a Period 2 (early Saxon) context.

The presence of ceramic building materials in the form of roof and box flue tiles could be taken to imply the existence nearby of a substantial structure or structures, and occupation of relatively high status is suggested by the pottery finewares of British and continental origin, and by the reused glass found in the Period 2 graves. Worked stone in the form of tiles and architectural fragments, occurring in early Saxon contexts, is also likely to be of Romano-British date, and supports the argument for substantial building work on or near the site. There is one obvious potential candidate, represented by what has been interpreted (from aerial photographic evidence) as a possible 1st century villa 200 m to the west of the excavated area at Grove Farm (see Fig. 2). Unfortunately, if this villa does exist, then it now lies beneath a part of the Grove Farm development which was undertaken before 1990.

4. Early Saxon Settlement and Cemetery

The early Saxon settlement and the cemetery which lay little more than 20 m to its west comprise the most substantial and important elements of the site. The excavated cemetery appears to be of late 5th–6th, perhaps later 6th, century date though there are unstratified possible grave-finds which might extend this range into the 7th century. The dating of the settlement is less sure with virtually nothing other than pottery to help, and the chronology of the assemblage has proved problematic. A broad 5th–7th century range has been ascribed, and only the wide-mouthed vessels might be assigned a more specific, 6th century date (Mepham, Chapter 4). With such uncertainty it cannot be demonstrated that settlement and cemetery were contemporary, though their juxtaposition is suggestive.

It seems likely that the early Saxon settlement, as in the Romano-British and later periods, was focused on the greensand ridge, though its extent remains uncertain. The northern limit seems to have been confirmed in the excavation, with both the spread of features, and the artefact densities in Area B1 (Boismier, Chapter 2), probably reflecting the extent of occupation. Subsequent evaluations undertaken within Grove Farm itself and the area immediately to the west (Wessex Archaeology 1995; see Fig 1) produced only a single sherd of early Saxon pottery and no features certainly of this date, suggesting that this area lay beyond the limit of settlement to the west. The limits to the south and east are unknown, though augering and a test pit indicated that the 'dark earth' Saxon occupation soil continued for at least 100 m to the south-east, towards the junction of High Street and White Street (see Fig. 1)

Any attempt to consider spatial or functional patterning within the early Saxon settlement must bear in mind the fact that only a part of the settlement has been excavated. That this part was on the northern periphery of the original settlement, perhaps broadly defined by ditch 1281, may have some bearing on the nature of activities carried out in this area. The existence of this ditch, along with several others, perhaps forming enclosures, may also assist in the dating of the settlement as such boundary features appear generally to be a development of the later 6th century (Reynolds 2003, 104). The ditches in areas B1 and C1, showing a generally linear arrangement, with some meeting at 90° is worthy of note, though little more can be gleaned about the overall layout given the limited area exposed in the excavation. From the available evidence it might be suggested that the ditches, or at least some of them, may have been imposed on pre-existing settlement. Although SFBs 1 and 3 lie within a possible enclosure formed

by ditches 1281 and 13705, and could have been constructed later, SFB 2 appears to be respected by ditch 13747 and is therefore likely to have pre-dated it (see Fig. 8).

At this point it is appropriate to reconsider the dating of bank 509 and associated ditch(es) 3072 to the east, which have both been assigned to the early Saxon period. In retrospect, this seems inherently unlikely, although ditch 15523 which runs centrally beneath bank 509 (see Fig. 7) does seem to be of this date. The stratigraphic evidence for the bank being early Saxon is far from convincing, and a medieval (12th–13th century) date is now considered more likely. Ditch 3072 contained a relatively large quantity of medieval finds and arguing that it is an early Saxon feature which survived through recutting over a period of 700 or more years stretches credulity; a more likely interpretation for both this and the bank is that they were of medieval date. This revised dating suggested for these features does not have any important implications in terms of the overall interpretation of the site; indeed it would be remarkable if such an early earthwork feature was originally present and survived in this context. Neither are there any implications in terms of the finds and environmental analysis, for the assemblages from the bank (and ditch) have been recognised as being mixed in date. The bank and ditch and their place in the medieval settlement is discussed further below.

While the only evidence for structures consists of three sunken-featured buildings, these may not have been the only structures on the site. Other early Saxon sites have revealed both sunken-featured buildings and post-built halls, though some settlements appear to comprise sunken-featured buildings only. Given the peripheral nature of the site at Grove Farm, and the difficulty of seeing post-holes in the prevailing dry, sandy conditions, it is possible that evidence for timber halls lay outside the excavated area or went unnoticed.

Only SFB 1, with post-holes at either end, was of the most commonly occurring type, with SFB 3 and possibly SFB 2 containing no post-holes. Whether all three structures were contemporary, perhaps part of a single complex associated with one enclosure, is unknown. It has been suggested that different activities were carried out in halls and SFBs, the former perhaps providing domestic accommodation and the latter workshops or stores (eg, West 1985; Bell 1977). Sunken-featured buildings have traditionally been associated with spinning and weaving activities (Rahtz 1976, 76), but it is difficult to confirm this association at Market Lavington where the pattern, as elsewhere, seems to reflect disposal patterns rather than actual use. That spinning and weaving took place on site in this period is apparent from the presence of spindlewhorls, loomweights, pinbeaters, and a heckle tooth. However, although SFB 3 did produce two bone pinbeaters and an iron heckle tooth, and a ceramic spindlewhorl came from a spit context above SFB 1, items of spinning and weaving equipment appear to occur more frequently in ditches and pits. The crudely perforated greensand fragment from SFB 1 is more likely to be a thatchweight than a loomweight.

Other items found in the sunken-featured buildings have a mixed functional significance: one bone point, possibly an awl, one comb, and one pierced bone. The pottery assemblages from all three structures are small and fragmentary. The concentration of fired clay in and around the structures may indicate the presence of clay-lined hearths.

A picture of a considerable degree of self-sufficiency, in terms of both economy and material culture, has emerged for early Saxon settlements, with many craft activities taking place on site, and agricultural surplus being exchanged for the small amount of traded items (eg, West 1985). Such self-sufficiency may have been more apparent amongst expanding agricultural communities. This is argued by Brisbane (1981), who suggests that the distribution of organic tempering appears to correspond with areas of expanding communities, particularly those under stress resulting from a move into new territory. Such stress would have necessitated more self-sufficiency amongst the new settlements, and less contact between settlements. However, while this model of self-sufficiency appears to fit the ceramic evidence from Market Lavington, it is not certainly so for other craft activities. Moreover, this model fails to take account of the length of occupation on any site.

Pottery manufacture on site is a probability, following a pattern of household production which has been observed elsewhere in the early Saxon period (eg, West 1985, 129; Timby 1988, 110). There is no definite evidence of on-site production in the form of wasters or traces of firing places, but the methods employed, such as small and ephemeral bonfire or clamp kilns, would be unlikely to have left any recognisable traces.

The evidence for boneworking on site is less convincing. Most of the objects made from skeletal materials are of antler. While deer bone is present on the site, the quantities are small and are likely to represent food refuse from sporadic hunting rather than a deliberate collection of material for working, although there is no reason why antlerworking on an *ad hoc* basis should not have utilised these carcasses. Of the three bone objects found in Period 2 contexts, the needle is the only one which shows any degree of craftsmanship; the two pierced bones are rather crudely perforated. The single piece of boneworking

waste from a Period 2 context is more likely to be of Romano-British date, though several horn cores showed evidence for the horn having been removed. Metalworking seems unlikely to have been anything other than a small-scale, perhaps seasonal occupation; the few pieces of ironworking slag from Period 2 graves are almost certainly redeposited from earlier Romano-British activity, and the few knife blanks are all from unstratified contexts. It should be remembered, however, that only a small area of the settlement has been investigated.

It is possible, then, that some of the objects of material culture in general use at Market Lavington could have been brought in from elsewhere, and to these can be added those items which are more obviously foreign to the site. These include the amber and glass beads. The fragments of lava querns found in the settlement boundary ditch are out of place in this period, and can be more probably attributed to the later Saxon period when this ditch, it is argued above, was still in use.

To these two aspects of artefact procurement: production on site and exchange or trade, can be added a third: the deliberate collection of Romano-British artefacts. Coins, pottery, glass, and metalwork found in Period 2 contexts all bear witness to the magpie-like tendency of the early Saxon occupants to hoard Roman objects. In some cases, it seems that this activity was conducted merely for pleasure in the collection of 'interesting' objects, and in others the intention may have been reuse. Certainly the function of some items had been deliberately changed, for example, the coins pierced for suspension, and the glass vessel rim reused as a bead. The practice of collecting and reusing Roman objects is already well-attested on other early Saxon settlements and cemeteries (Curnow 1985), and coin-piercing is particularly characteristic.

The palynological evidence indicates open countryside in the vicinity of the site, with little indication for woodland, an interpretation broadly supported by the animal bone evidence. Grass and herb pollen suggests a mixture of old hay meadow and pasture, with the Easterton Brook palaeochannel seemingly stagnant and rather swampy and perhaps prone to occasional drying out as it gradually silted up. Cereals were certainly grown from at least the 6th century, and increasingly so from perhaps the later 7th century, though perhaps not in the Easterton Brook valley itself. The mixed nature of the material recovered is more suggestive of the dumping of domestic waste, and it is likely that the arable fields and plots were located a little further away from the settlement. Overall, however, the pollen and the charred and mineralised plant remains present a picture of an economy based on a limited range of domesticated species, at least in the early Saxon period.

The animal bone assemblage from all Saxon periods includes very few remains other than the main domesticates, and this suggests a generally plentiful but probably rather dull meat diet. Cattle were most common, pig relatively poorly represented, and many of the sheep were kept into maturity presumably for wool. In addition, there is evidence for the consumption of poultry, probably horsemeat and possibly also deer. For a rural settlement there is little indication of the exploitation of wild species, but the fish (notably dogfish) were marine rather than freshwater species, suggesting a trade link with coastal areas. This in itself might imply that the settlement at Market Lavington was engaged in more than mere subsistence activity.

The age patterns of the main domesticates are consistent through all phases, as far as one can tell, and the large size of the cattle suggests that they derived from Romano-British stock, though this is less evident in the case of sheep. The general absence of young animals is noteworthy and might be explained if Market Lavington was a 'producer site'. Overall, the assemblage reflects a consistency in animal husbandry which is apparent elsewhere at this time, and in the mid-Saxon period, most notably at Hamwic (Southampton).

The Cemetery

By Nick Stoodley

Market Lavington is the most westerly of the Wiltshire group of early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries. This alone makes it an interesting and important site, but its significance is heightened by the probable longevity of its use, the presence of early and mid-Saxon settlement features, and its relationship to earlier activity. The site has the potential to help elucidate important questions, such as the relationship between settlements and their attendant burial grounds, and the issue of settlement continuity during the 1st millennium AD. This contribution will specifically focus on the evidence from the cemetery in an attempt to answer these questions. It will also examine burial practice in the context of early Saxon Wiltshire and will assess the structure of the social groups interring their dead at Market Lavington during the later 5th and 6th centuries AD.

Chronology

The burial ground may have been established at about the same time that the other Wiltshire sites came into existence in the late 5th century. On our present understanding of the chronology of the early Anglo-Saxon period it is difficult to date any Wiltshire burials to before about 475. The earliest burials from the county include Winterbourne Gunner grave 6 that

contained a male with a rare throwing axe (*francisca*) dating no earlier than the late 5th century. Several burials from Charlton Plantation (Davis 1985) in the Avon Valley produced material that can be easily accommodated in the 5th century (burial 12 with a quoit brooch; burial 9 with part of a tubular belt slide) but these came from burials salvaged by Salisbury Museum and probably do not represent full assemblages. Burial at Collingbourne Ducis (Gingell 1978) may have begun slightly earlier, to judge by the buckle inlaid with silver wires in male burial 11 (which also had a gilt Roman disc brooch still functioning as a fastener) and the damaged equal-armed brooch in grave 6.

In common with the other Wiltshire sites, the majority of graves at Market Lavington were dug in the 6th century and it is possible that all the excavated interments can be accommodated in that century. The lack of definite 5th century metalwork, such as found at Charlton Plantation and Collingbourne Ducis, is notable. In fact the disc brooches, which are probably the earliest brooches, and the Dickinson and Härke type 4 shield-boss, although being produced in the 5th century, were also probably deposited in the following one. It is interesting, however, that the majority of the nine unstratified knives belong to Böhner's type C, a type which is generally centred on the 7th century. This seems to indicate the presence of a later phase of burial at Market Lavington which has been destroyed. The corpus of longer-lasting cemeteries which span the 5th to later 7th centuries is increasing in number and several important examples have been found in southern England, such as at Worthy Park (Hawkes and Grainger 2003) and Alton (Evison 1988) in Hampshire, and Apple Down, Sussex (Down and Welch 1990). At present, Wiltshire has not produced any definite examples. At Charlton Plantation (Davis 1985) several of the burials have date ranges which extend from the 6th into the 7th century, but the site does not appear to have a distinctively late phase.

General location and relationship with the settlement

The cemetery was sited at a height of *c.* 100 m OD overlooking the Vale of Pewsey and at a distance of about 50 m from Easterton Brook, which lies to the north. When compared with other contemporary sites in the county (Table 36), Market Lavington appears to have been placed unusually close to a water source. In fact, the general area was well provided with streams. The great majority of early Anglo-Saxon settlements were located close to rivers and other water sources, an essential requirement for watering livestock and the general needs of these agricultural communities. However, at Market Lavington it is particularly intriguing that the graves were dug on the slope directly below the settlement and are thus actually closer to the water than the settlement: the opposite arrangement is usually true.

Table 36 Location of Wiltshire cemeteries in the landscape

	OD (m)	*Distance from water (m)*	*Distance from settlement (m)*
Market Lavington	100	50	0
Collingbourne Ducis	140	200	150
Winterbourne Gunner	70	250	400
Petersfinger	70	750	800

In recent years the relationship between early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries and the settlements that they served has become clearer. The examples of Bishopstone, East Sussex (Bell 1977), Spong Hill, Norfolk (Rickett 1995), Mucking, Essex (Hamerow 1993), and West Heslerton, North Yorkshire (Haugton and Powesland 1999) have demonstrated that a close spatial association could exist. And at Market Lavington, the two appear to be almost adjacent to each other. Such adjoining of sites does, however, contrast with the examples from Wiltshire and Hampshire where a small but notable distance separates cemetery and settlement. For example, around Andover the settlements in the Anton Valley were located in the valley bottoms, while the cemeteries were sited on higher ground away from the river (Stoodley in press a). A similar situation seems to have existed in both the Itchen and Dever valleys as indicated by the sites of Abbots Worthy (Fasham and Whinney 1991) and Northbrook (Johnston 1998) respectively. In Wiltshire this has also been shown to be the case (Table 36), for example at Collingbourne Ducis a distance of about 150 m separates the two, though neither has been investigated in their entirety.

The relationship of settlement to cemetery at Market Lavington is especially important if the latter had a 7th century phase, as suggested by the presence of Böhner's type C knives mentioned above, because this suggests that the cemetery remained static during the early Anglo-Saxon period. It seems to show that cemetery relocation did not occur at Market Lavington in the 7th century as can be seen at the Hampshire sites of Winnall (Meaney and Hawkes 1970) and Portway (Stoodley in press a), and probably at most of the known Wiltshire cemeteries given the lack of demonstrable later burials. The settlement at least may even have retained this general position for longer, to judge from the later Saxon evidence, though it appears to display a wandering settlement pattern (Hamerow 1991, 15) similar to that observed at Mucking, Essex and Meonstoke, Hampshire, as opposed to genuine settlement shift. It also begs the question as to when the site at Market

Lavington was abandoned. Did occupation eventually cease in the later Saxon period when there was a widespread settlement shift accompanying the process of nucleation and the creation of villages (Hamerow 1991)? Market Lavington is important because it shows that a variety of different patterns were possible within a locale, and because each may have been determined by differing topographic, environmental, or political factors (Boddington 1990; Stoodley in press a), each should be considered singly without recourse to generalisations or models derived from a small number of random case studies.

Burial practice

The recovery of only inhumation burials at Market Lavington is not unusual: the county is notable for the almost total lack of cremation burials in its cemeteries (Table 37). The burial grounds that have yielded evidence of cremation burial are Blackpatch, Pewsey (Eagles in press), with four examples, and the partially excavated site of Charlton Plantation with just one. Although the early Anglo-Saxon period is characterised by mixed-rite burial, the proportion of inhumation to cremation burials varies regionally. Anglian areas are known for large cremation cemeteries (though they also have smaller mixed-rite sites); Kent has a strong bias towards inhumation, while Saxon regions are mixed-rite but with the bias towards inhumation. For example, the neighbouring regions of Hampshire and the Upper Thames both carried out mixed-rite burial and it is typical for the rites to occur in roughly equal proportions, as at Abingdon (Leeds and Harden 1936) and Portway East, Andover (Cook and Dacre 1985). Set against the rest of Wessex, the lack of cremation burials – considered a genuinely Germanic practice – is surprising, and is a difference that requires further comment.

It could be argued that, because the earliest datable Saxon evidence is from the late 5th century (see above), Saxon influence reached Wiltshire from established centres within the country (Hawkes 1989, 94), by which time the practice of cremation had largely given way to inhumation. This explanation does not, however, take account of the fact that cremation was still practised in Hampshire and the Upper Thames right through the 6th century and, in some places, later still. It seems more reasonable to view the area of Wiltshire as one with a more structured and consistent attitude to burial practice. Perhaps the deliberate use of one mode of disposal was deliberate – a way of expressing unity or a symbol of group identity – and reflects opposition to the other Germanic groups which lay to the north and east. Does this type of patterning allow us to glimpse evidence for pre-kingdom political groupings in the material record similar to that which has been proposed for areas of East Anglia (Scull 1993, 75) and Hampshire (Stoodley 2005) at this time?

Table 37. Numbers of inhumation and cremation burials in selected Wiltshire and Hampshire cemeteries

	No inhumation burials	*No. cremation burials*
Market Lavington	42	0
Collingbourne Ducis	36	0
Charlton Plantation	46	1
Winterbourne Gunner	85*	0
Petersfinger	71	0
Pewsey	105	4
Harnham Hill	79	0
Andover (Portway E.)	71	min. 60 max. 87
Alton	55	46
Worthy Park	105	39
Droxford	41	0

* 47 excavated

The influence of native burial practice must also be considered. During the 3rd century AD inhumation gradually replaced cremation throughout most areas of the British Isles (Philpott 1991), and by the late 4th century most burials were unaccompanied. This tradition continued into the post-Roman period in areas of the south-west. The identification and dating of these interments is problematic because of the lack of diagnostic features and their presence in Wiltshire has yet to be proven. However, in Dorset and Somerset, radiocarbon dating has resulted in the identification of several groups of sub-Roman burials, for example Ulwell, near Swanage (Cox 1988) and Tolpuddle Ball, near Dorchester (Loader and Hearne 1999, 55–63; Hearne 1999, 226–31). The rite consisted of inhumation without grave-goods, the body laid on its back with its head to the west.

At Market Lavington, Romano-British settlement evidence was discovered and is testament to earlier occupation but, because of the inability to accurately date the few Romano-British features, it is impossible to determine how closely connected the two phases of activity were and thus assess the nature of the relationship between the two. But evidence for native survival may come from the Saxon cemetery. In his survey of early Anglo-Saxon evidence in Wiltshire, Eagles wonders whether the location of Market Lavington may have something to do with the establishment of a settlement by Saxons on the limits of newly acquired territory (Eagles 2001, 217). Perhaps, as Eagles suggests, the settlement may represent one of a small number of immigrant groups in a largely native area, or an outlying area in which a

Table 38. Burial position in Wiltshire cemeteries (no./%)

	Extended supine	*Flexed*	*Side*	*Crouched*	*Prone*
Market Lavington (n=35)	25/71	1/3	1/3	7/20	1/3
Pewsey (n=95)	68/72	19/20	1/1	7/7	0
Petersfinger (n=62)	49/79	2/3	6/10	5/8	0
Charlton Plantation (n=29)	23/79	4/14	2/7	0	0
Collingbourne Ducis (n=26)	20/76	1/4	1/4	3/12	1/4
Harnham Hill (n=67)	62/93	1/1	0	4/6	0

(n= known positions)

largely British population recognised Saxon overlordship (*ibid.*). The general lack of early Saxon sites around the area of Market Lavington is, in this respect, intriguing. If either of the above was the case we might expect to find evidence for natives within the burial ground. The examination of the burials discovered that most of the unaccompanied individuals were actually subadults and their age can explain this treatment (Stoodley 2000); while of the four adults that were interred without grave-goods, only one was found placed extended with the head (possibly) to the west. It appears, therefore, that Germanic mortuary practices had largely supplanted the native rite of unaccompanied burial and, if any natives were buried in the cemetery, they had been absorbed through a process of acculturation. Accompanied inhumation may not have been viewed with any particular hostility: it is not a fundamentally different concept as is cremation. Essentially, the principle rite of disposal is maintained but with an additional element added: an element that would not have been alien to the ancestors of the Market Lavington population. However, subtle variations in the types of grave-goods, and the manner in which they were deposited, may have signalled cultural or ethnic difference (see below).

Other aspects of the burial rite

The following discussion focuses on other aspects of burial practice, and will assess their significance by considering them in the context of early Saxon Wiltshire.

Burial position

It was possible to discern burial position for 35 of the interments at Market Lavington (Table 38). The predominant position was for the deceased to have been laid in the grave on their back (extended supine). This was the main position throughout the country during this period and is also found in the other Wiltshire burial grounds. A feature Market Lavington shares with the other sites is the presence of several minority positions, such as placing the corpse on the side or in a crouched attitude. Variations do exist between the sites in terms of these positions though, but because the numbers are generally small and several of the sites are incompletely investigated, it is unwise is speculate further. The proportionally higher numbers of crouched inhumations at Market Lavington may, however, prove significant, especially as all but grave 38 were found to the north of the early Saxon ditch 1278 (see below).

Particularly worthy of note is grave 1 which was found isolated from the rest of the cemetery. This contained a young adult female placed prone in a grave clearly too small for her. Interestingly, the hands were together below the pelvis suggesting that they might have originally been bound, and the right humerus had been cut cleanly in two. In addition, the burial has an unusual alignment: the head lying to the north-east, the opposite of the standard orientation for this site. Unlike in the Romano-British period when prone burial was a small but persistent feature of the mortuary record, in the 5th–7th centuries it was clearly reserved for only a very small minority. And because this practice is often associated with a lack of burial wealth and some type of maltreatment to the individual it carries strong negative connotations. Certain people were being singled out as being different to the rest of the population, either because of something they did or that they were subject to. The fact that grave 1 at Market Lavington was set apart from the rest of the burials indicates a desire by this community to distance themselves from this woman. Prone burials do have a slight bias towards females (Stoodley 1999a, 56–7) and could also involve children, though the only other known example from Wiltshire is an adult male from Collingbourne Ducis who was found with a Roman disc brooch on the shoulder fastening a cloak in traditional Roman fashion. (Incidentally, this is good evidence for the existence of a native within a Saxon cemetery, and the fact that he was buried in a position that was more commonly found in the Romano-British period is intriguing).

Table 39. Burial orientation in Wiltshire cemeteries (no./%)

	NNE	*NE*	*E*	*ESE*	*SE*	*SSE*	*S*	*SSW*	*SW*	*WSW*	*W*	*WNW*	*NW*
Market Lavington (n=38)	–	2/5	–	–	–	–	3/8	–	23/61	–	8/21	–	2/5
Pewsey (n=92)	–	–	–	–	4/4	1/1	3/3	2/2	16/17	14/15	38/41	13/14	1/1
Petersfinger (n=65)	–	–	1/2	–	3/5	15/23	19/29	1/2	1/2	10/15	13/20	2/3	–
Charlton Plantation (n=27)	1/4	–	–	–	–	1/4	–	2/7	–	6/22	7/26	9/33	1/4
Collingbourne Ducis (n=27)	–	–	–	1/4	2/7	6/22	1/4	1/4	1/4	5/19	8/30	2/7	–

(n= known orientations)

Orientation

Compared with the other Wiltshire sites, Market Lavington demonstrates a relatively restricted range of alignments (Table 39 and Fig. 22): the majority are positioned south-west to north-east with the head at the southerly end of the grave. The features determining the alignment of the graves appears to have been the slope of the hillside and perhaps ditch 1278 (see above). The Wiltshire cemeteries all show a propensity for the placing of graves around the southern and western arcs of the compass, which suggests that some factor other than mere alignment on a reference point was responsible for this behaviour. For example, it is notable that when divided by sex, the women buried at Market Lavington have a much more constrained range of alignments than the men (see Fig. 22) – the opposite of this was discovered at Pewsey (Stoodley 1999a, 65), supporting the notion that the factors underlying orientation are probably more complex that initially assumed.

Multiple burials

At Market Lavington, no grave contained more than one individual and, although multiple burial is a minority practice, such burials are found elsewhere within the county. For example, at Charlton Plantation there were eight multiples (11% of the excavated burials) – a high number, especially considering the small proportion of the site that was investigated; whereas Collingbourne Ducis, Pewsey, and Petersfinger had 4 (11%), 3 (3%), and 12 (17%) examples respectively. Perhaps the limited nature of the excavations at Market Lavington can explain this lack, although it may be a genuine reflection of burial mores within this community.

Grave structure

The grave-pits were largely unspectacular with no clear evidence for any type of internal structure or external means of marking them. This is quite surprising considering that other Wiltshire cemeteries have provided evidence of timber structures within the grave, beds of grass or bracken protecting the deceased from the grave floor, stone linings, and large stones within the fill which may have been associated with timber planking. At Market Lavington, graves 2, 17, and 27 contained sandstone blocks, but these appear to be isolated fragments, and it is doubtful whether they were originally associated with any internal feature; they may have entered the pit accidentally. On the whole, the lack of investment in the grave concurs with the relatively impoverished nature of the burials in terms of grave-goods and indicates a community which either had little disposable wealth or wished not to consign it to the earth.

Cemetery layout and community structure

A spatial analysis of the cemetery can be undertaken, although the incompleteness of the investigation limits the accuracy of any conclusions. On first glance, the arrangement of graves in many early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries does not appear to show any clear structure, though closer analysis often reveals several distinct clusters. The detailed analysis of these clusters usually reveals that they consisted of a mix of different ages and sexes, which were interred throughout the cemetery's life. It seems only reasonable to interpret these clusters as household burial plots (Härke 1997, 137–41; Stoodley 1999a, 126–35).

The part of the site available for analysis at Market Lavington similarly shows two discrete clusters, which appear to have been demarcated by the early Saxon ditch (1278) extending roughly through the middle of the excavated portion. This feature may have played a key role in organising the cemetery and the graves within it. Such boundary features are rare; most early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries did not have formal boundaries or, at best, made use of earlier field divisions to demarcate one or two sides of the site. At Portway East, Andover, for instance, a prehistoric ditch – probably still visible in the Anglo-Saxon period – ran along the east side of the burial ground.

The two clusters were contemporary, as a chronological analysis of the burials from each

demonstrates. Both groups contain males and females, though the southern one does not have as many subadults as its counterpart to the north. It is also notable that three of the subadults from the latter are in close proximity to one another. Such age-related patterning has been noted in other early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries, such as Portway East and, especially, at Collingbourne Ducis, where a cluster of four child burials was discovered on the eastern edge of the excavated area. Of course, age-related patterning does not undermine the household model of development; rather it might indicate that those groups were unfortunate in experiencing several child deaths in close succession.

The identification of general differences in terms of grave-good deposition and other aspects of ritual between individual clusters may also help to subdivide cemeteries, perhaps pointing to variations in household status in the community. Internal differentiation was observed at Pewsey, where the northern cluster of graves contained a greater proportion of weapon burials than those in the southern cluster, in addition to having received interments with relatively larger quantities of grave-goods. At Market Lavington the group lying to the north of the ditch also stands out: it has most of the crouched burials and the interments were also accompanied by greater portable wealth. It yielded all but two of the weapon burials and boasts all of the burials with brooches. In fact, the southern half is clearly materially impoverished. Because the two groups are contemporary, this difference is probably not chronological. The northern cluster has a much stronger Germanic feel to it: not only in the presence of most of the weapon burials, but also by the fact that several of the women were laid to rest fully clothed in traditional Anglo-Saxon folk costume. Typical costume consisted of a peplos dress secured at the shoulders by a pair of, usually, matching brooches, which, for Saxon areas, were mostly of the saucer, disc, and occasionally small-long variety. For example, grave 26 was discovered with a pair of saucer brooches at the shoulders. It is notable, however, that there may have been variation in the type of costume worn, or how it was secured (Walton Rogers, this volume). For example, in grave 4 the pair of disc brooches look to have been located one above the other on the left side of the upper chest, while in graves 24 and 33 single fasteners were found on the right-hand side of the chest. Similar variation in costume style can also be seen at Pewsey (Stoodley in press c) and Petersfinger (Carr 2004). It is possible that the position of the brooches had shifted as a result of post-depositional disturbance by small animals but, because the brooches are found in similar positions here and elsewhere, it does point to the use of alternative styles by a minority.

If burial was a public affair (Halsall 1996) and the ritual deliberately orchestrated by relatives and other community members to project identities and notions about the deceased and their immediate social/kin group, then the choice of alternative costumes may have been instrumental in this signalling. The burials within the northern plot also show differences in burial wealth as indicated by numbers and types of grave-goods. It is impossible to know what this treatment meant in real terms; it could have been bound up with variations in rank, ethnicity, or even religious preference. If we are correct in seeing this cluster as representing a household then this variation cut across such social groups – a finding recognised elsewhere (Stoodley 1999a, 140–1) and which supports the view that plots belonged to internally ranked households as opposed to families in the biological sense (Härke 1997, 138–9).

The southern cluster is intriguing. Not only are there few weapon burials (graves 31 and 17, with a spear each) but, overall, the group is materially impoverished; in addition there is a notable dearth of female costume evidence. In fact, the only burials to have provided evidence are grave 36 with three pins and grave 37, which produced an iron object that could be viewed as a pin, but its position by the pelvis argues against such an interpretation. It is tempting to interpret this in chronological terms with the southern burials being later and belonging to the 7th century, when the practice of placing grave-goods was being scaled down; a change that particularly affected the furnishing of female burials. However, on the available dating evidence it appears that the two groups were contemporary. What we may be seeing is the evidence for status difference between households. But the lack of Germanic style female costume is also important for this topic, particularly given the positioning of the settlement on the periphery of the Saxon area. Are we in fact seeing the presence of two distinct ethnic groups within one community who were largely segregated in death? A social *and* an ethnic explanation are compatible. Härke (1997, 150) claims that the weapon burial rite was a way of expressing the dominance of Germanic groups within ethnically mixed communities and the generally higher burial wealth shows that it had more disposable wealth. It might even be suggested that the two spear burials in the southern group perhaps reflect contact in the form of intermarriage between the two groups.

Ethnicity would have played an important role in social structure, but divisions of gender and age also differentiated individuals. The inhumation burials of the early Anglo-Saxon period reveal that a great emphasis was placed on gender display through separate, sex-linked assemblages: weapons for males and jewellery and other dress accessories for females

(Stoodley 1999). Wiltshire was no exception (Stoodley 1999b). Here it was important to distinguish in death between men and women in a clear and unambiguous fashion, though whether this reflected the actuality of gender in living society is unknown. Given the practical demands of everyday life, gender distinctions may have been blurred and the burial rite a corrective to this situation. However, ritual treatment was not merely a reflection of the distinctions between men and women determined by role and responsibility. This is demonstrated by the fact that a gendered burial rite was not accorded to all members of the community. In fact gender neutral burials are found throughout the early Anglo-Saxon world and the figures provided by Market Lavington roughly agree with the regional statistics, although the proportion of adult males with weapons is at the upper end of the scale, while the proportion of gendered women is rather low. Of course, this may be a result of incomplete excavation and the presence of several interments that could not be sexed and aged.

The reasons why only certain individuals were granted burial with gender-signalling paraphernalia is complex but it seems likely that other social factors are relevant. It has been argued that the gendered burial rite was reserved for certain key community members, perhaps the heads of the households and other close kin (Stoodley 1999a, 140–1). Thus, in the northern plot the spear and shield burials may belong to different generations of important males in this social group: grave 34 with its early type of shield-boss is likely to pre-date grave 32 by at least one generation. Likewise, the burials with disc brooches (grave 4 and 34) may pre-date the burials with saucer brooches in that plot, especially the individuals in graves 7 and 8 with their Sahlin's Style I decorated fasteners. On the whole, individuals who had their gender symbolised in death were also accompanied by more disposal wealth than those who were not, which may in turn support the assertion that they were of greater social merit. This is true of the burials from Market Lavington, though overall they lack the burial wealth that some of the interments at Pewsey and Petersfinger have.

Furthermore, biological age was also instrumental in the decision who to grant a gendered burial to. It is true that weapons and jewellery were not usually placed in the burials of subadults, but a closer inspection of the evidence discloses subtle gender-linked patterning and notions regarding the lifecycle that varied according to whether you were male or female (Stoodley 2000). Children under the age of about 10–12 years were unlikely to receive the full feminine assemblage, which indicates that this age represented an important threshold in early Anglo-Saxon society; perhaps one bound up with the ability to bear children. The jewellery burials from Market Lavington concur with this finding – where biological age was discerned, all were adult at the time of death. Other female-linked age thresholds did exist (Stoodley 2000), but because of the small sample size and the inability to closely age the individuals it is not possible to test these against the Market Lavington burials. Weapons, however, show less structure with regard to age. Although they are largely constrained by age to adult burials, younger individuals could get interred with weapons, though according to Härke (1997, 128) it was only from the age of 12 that it was permissible for shields and spears to be placed with the dead. The Market Lavington burials agree; weapons were found with children upwards, but it was only from the teenage years that a shield was deposited, as in grave 6 which contained an individual in 'mid teens' with a spear and shield.

5. Mid-Saxon–Late Saxon

There is only the most tenuous evidence to indicate settlement of the site in the mid-Saxon period, comprising a single feature, perhaps structural, which contained a single sherd of pottery dated to the mid-Saxon period largely on the basis of fabric type. The choice of calcareous material, probably chalk, as tempering material for this fabric, reflects a change in the nature of resources exploited for pottery manufacture, although this pottery could still have been made on or near the site. Other artefacts which may date to this period include the lava quern fragments found in the boundary ditch and elsewhere within the settlement, though it is probably more likely that these fragments are late Saxon. However, a mid-Saxon bone comb was found to the south of the site in Church Street (see Fig. 2), providing a further modicum of evidence in support of a mid-Saxon presence in the area. This is important because, as Reynolds has recently remarked, 'we know all too little of the processes whereby Middle Anglo-Saxon settlements became village communities' (Reynolds 2003, 133).

Only a small number of features are attributable to the late Saxon period but, along with the very slight mid-Saxon evidence, this does suggest the possibility of continuity of settlement at Market Lavington from perhaps as early as the 6th century. Settlement seems clearly to have been focused on the greensand ridge, but any nuances of shrinkage, growth, or shift in focus are not possible to ascertain. The paucity of features, again a reflection of the site's peripheral location, precludes any meaningful investigation of spatial or functional patterning beyond the observation that both features and artefacts belonging to this period are concentrated within the area of the early Saxon settlement. It is of interest that early Saxon settlement

boundary ditch 681 appears to have still been functioning as a boundary in the late Saxon period. From this came the remains of several small dogs which, at least in the early Saxon period, might be interpreted as a sign of status.

It might be surmised that a church was in existence by the late Saxon period, presumably on the site of the existing medieval church, which includes 12th century architectural fragments incorporated in the fabric. Certainly Lavington, first recorded in Domesday as Laventone, is a name of Anglo-Saxon derivation, meaning the farm or settlement of *Lafa*'s people. In 1086 the estate was held by Queen Edith and, as such, may have been of some importance.

The range of artefacts datable to the late Saxon period is not great, consisting largely of pottery. It is possible, however, to comment briefly on the nature of artefact production during the late Saxon period. The pottery shows a marked change from the early and mid-Saxon pattern of purely local manufacture, probably on or near the site. Fabric types recognised are predominantly tempered with calcareous inclusions and form part of a type recognised elsewhere in north Wiltshire to the west of Market Lavington, although not necessarily deriving from the same source. Further evidence of more regional contact comes in the form of the sherds of Cheddar-type ware. As well as fabric types, vessel forms are also more standardised.

One lava quern fragment came from a late Saxon ditch, and some of the other fragments from boundary ditch 681, discussed above, may belong to this period, since their currency continues into at least the late Saxon period. Lava querns, of German origin, occur in England from the late 7th century onwards, and at Grove Farm these mark a significant shift in artefact procurement strategies.

This change may in part reflect an increase in cereal production from the later 7th century onwards that is indicated from the palynological evidence. The pollen also shows a decrease in heath vegetation, perhaps evidence for land improvement, and an increase in arable/ruderal weeds, hay meadow, and other crops. Overall, the impression is of larger scale and more diverse arable production than earlier. Rye is present for the first time, and other taxa include *cannabis* (probably hemp), and *linum* (flax and/or linseed). Both of the latter could have been retted in the Easterton Brook, though there is no evidence of this from the pollen record in the palaeochannel. The mixture of species is such that not all would have been growing adjacent to the channel, and it is likely that most derive from refuse deposited in the channel or close by.

The most remarkable and perhaps unexpected evidence for this period comes from the continuous record of grapevine pollen from *c*. AD 900 to at least 1200 which indicates the presence of a vineyard or grapes grown in garden plots in the vicinity. This represents the first palynological evidence for continuous viticulture in Saxon and Norman England. Vines require generally warm conditions with few frosts, suggesting climatic amelioration in this period, and at Market Lavington are likely to have been grown on the nearby chalky rather than greensand soils. There is no record in Domesday of a vineyard at Market Lavington, but four are listed in Wiltshire including two, at Lacock and Wilcot, less than 20 km away.

Also of some interest is the rising incidence of rust and smut infection, possibly peaking in the 9th century and perhaps reflecting changing management regimes accompanying an intensification of crop production, though it might be a result of broader environmental changes. There is certainly evidence that the palaeochannel became wetter in the Late Saxon period, though the species represented do not indicate flowing water.

The importance of the pollen sequence at Market Lavington is enhanced as it provides the most comprehensively analysed and closely dated sequence of Saxon and earlier medieval deposits in Britain. There is a paucity of detailed pollen data relating to southern England, and where such data are available in Hampshire (Seagrief 1959; 1960), Dorset (Seagrief 1959), and Surrey (Seagrief and Godwin 1960) these were obtained at a time when pollen analytical procedures were less well advanced than today. More recent studies (Scaife 1980; 1982; 1987a; 1995; forthcoming) have sought to redress this imbalance and to understand the important changes in early Holocene vegetation which led to the final establishment of climax woodland in the region. The importance, therefore, of deeply stratified and dated peat sequences in southern England is unquestioned (Scaife 1987a; 1987b; Pilcher 1973, 912–3; Birks 1989), and the archaeological implications of alluvial sequences in particular have been outlined by Scaife and Burrin (1992).

6. Medieval–Late Medieval

A shift in the focus of activity on the site can be seen in the medieval period with the increased use of Area C1 and C2 in the eastern part of the site. Some of the linear features may represent structures, but the evidence is not convincing and it seems more likely that the various gullies and shallow ditches demarcate small plots. All of these features lie to the east of the north–south earthwork comprising bank 509 and associated ditch 15523 which, it is argued above, should be assigned a medieval rather than early Saxon date. This earthwork could have defined the rear of

properties along Parsonage Lane which lay approximately 70 m to the east, in particular Rochelle/Rectory Manor, thought to have been the capital messuage of one of the two manors in the parish. If so, the ditch would have been on the inside of the bank, and the slight earthworks noted at 90° to the east (see Fig. 1) may also have been internal features, perhaps lynchets. As noted above, the gap in the bank probably represents a later breach, for the associated ditch is continuous, and the series of recuts testify to its maintenance, at least until the end of the 13th century. This dating may be significant, for the Rochelle manor, with its capital messuage, was established in 1225.

The most common artefact type is again pottery, with the greatest quantities coming from the eastern part of the site. While the pattern of increasingly regional contacts in pottery production continues in this period, major changes are visible in the patterns of supply. The calcareous wares disappear, and are replaced by micaceous sandy fabrics with a probable source in west Wiltshire, and products of the Laverstock production centre near Salisbury form a significant element within the assemblage. These are later supplemented by Lacock-type coarsewares from north Wiltshire. The dominant affinities now are with the south and south-east, rather than with the west as in the previous period.

Iron smithing debris clusters in the same area as the pottery though none of the material is intrinsically datable. Only a few metal objects are attributable to this period. However, they include objects representing a range of functions: knives, keys, arrowheads, a spur, and a strap-end.

The animal bone assemblage is smaller though more varied than in the Saxon period, perhaps reflecting various factors including the proximity of Rochelle manor. The fewer young sheep might indicate a greater reliance on wool production than meat. Interestingly, however, the pollen record from the palaeochannel shows a narrower range of taxa than in the late Saxon period, perhaps a reflection of settlement shift and thus a change in land use of the site in the medieval period.

The medieval activity at Grove Farm can be linked to wider changes that were taking place in Market Lavington at this time. Prior to this, settlement probably clustered around the church and focused upon the main east–west route through the area which may have been of Saxon origin. To the east of this was added a planned settlement, of likely early 13th century date, with market and fair grants being obtained in the mid 13th century. The parish church of St Mary was rebuilt and has a chancel and nave of probable 13th century date, and the establishment of Rochelle manor, also in that century, is likely to have been a significant event in terms of the site's development. In fact, the construction of the earthwork may have been directly related to the establishment of the manor, marking its western curtilage.

In 1225 the estate of Market Lavington was split into two manors, of de la Mere and of Rochelle, both with capital messuages, although the location of the former is unknown. In 1368 the Rochelle manor was conveyed to the rector of the Bonhommes Priory at Edington, and it was held by that institution until the Dissolution. The existing building on Parsonage Lane, which lies less than 50 m from the south-east corner of the site, is said to be of early 14th century date, and therefore pre-dates the conveyance of the manor to Edington Priory. Today known as 'The Old House', it is the only known medieval aisled house surviving in the county, and was partly timber-framed with a cross-wing in stone (WCAS 2004). The Rochelle capital messuage may have at some time included all of the land between Parsonage Lane and the earthwork recorded in the excavation to the west, stretching northwards as far as the Easterton Brook. If so, then the medieval features in Areas C1 and C2 will have been associated with this, and perhaps the range of metal finds, in particular, reflect or perhaps derive from the Rochelle manor which, in the 14th century, became the rectory.

The 14th and 15th centuries probably saw the peak of Market Lavington's prosperity, but its market failed to thrive and the post-medieval period saw stagnation or decline. The relatively few late medieval and post-medieval features and finds at Grove Farm reflect this later situation when the site seems to have largely reverted to open ground.

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Index

by Bridget Trump

The village of Market Lavington is located on a low greensand ridge at the foot of the north-west scarp of the chalk that forms Salisbury Plain. Rescue excavations in 1990 recorded an inhumation cemetery probably spanning the late 5th and 6th centuries and possibly extending into the 7th. The cemetery has provided an opportunity to examine burial practice in early Saxon Wiltshire and allowed an assessment of the structure of the social groups being interred at Market Lavington. The associated sequence of early - late Saxon and medieval settlement, and the relatively large assemblage of finds and ecofacts, has enhanced understanding of the growth of the village which, by the 14th century, had become a minor town in Wiltshire.

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