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**Excavations at West Lane, Kemble: an Iron-Age, Roman and
Saxon burial site and a medieval building**

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Excavations at West Lane, Kemble: an Iron-Age, Roman and Saxon burial site and a medieval building

By ROY KING, ALISTAIR BARBER, and JANE TIMBY

With contributions by C. Heighway, T. Jackman, M. Maltby, C. Salter, L. Viner, and T. Wells

Introduction

Fosse View House and the adjacent West Hay Field are situated on the south-western outskirts of Kemble (O.S. Nat. Grid ST 98779720). They are bounded to the south by West Lane, to the north-west by the A429 Kemble bypass and to the east by modern housing development (Figs. 1–2).

In March 1983, during a barn conversion at Fosse View House, a stone coffin was found (Fig. 3, Burial 1). It was considered, on grounds of style and workmanship, to be Romano-British (Clews and Viner 1992). In 1990, Mr. J. Gillett, the owner of Fosse View House, undertaking work in his garden located a series of graves under the loamy topsoil. Cotswold District Council commissioned Cotswold Archaeological Trust (CAT) to excavate and record the graves. Following proposals to develop the adjacent land a desk-top study and a field evaluation confirmed the potential significance of the site — Anglo-Saxon burials, medieval quarrying and a building were found. Consequently a full excavation was undertaken in 1992 and 1993.

Land-use within the excavation area was grass and scrub. Within living memory, the field has never been under arable but has consistently been used for pasture or set aside for haymaking. Land-use around the village is a mixture of arable and pasture, with the study area itself surrounded on all sides by roads and housing.

Acknowledgements

The recording at Fosse View House would not have been possible without the active cooperation and support of Mr. and Mrs. Gillett. The fieldwork was funded by Cotswold District Council and the post-excavation by English Heritage.*

The excavation, post-excavation and publication of the work at West Hay Field were funded by Colburn Developments Ltd. CAT would like to thank Martin Evans of Colburn Developments and Peter Mapson of Mapson Homes Ltd. for their assistance and co-operation during work. Thanks are also due to the staff of the Corinium Museum, Cirencester, for their assistance and expertise in the study and conservation of the skeletal and artefactual remains; to Judith Foxwell and the staff of the X-ray unit at Querns Hospital, Cirencester; to Andrew Davison of English Heritage; and to Jan Wills, County Archaeological Officer.

The project was managed by Neil Holbrook and the fieldwork supervised by A. Barber

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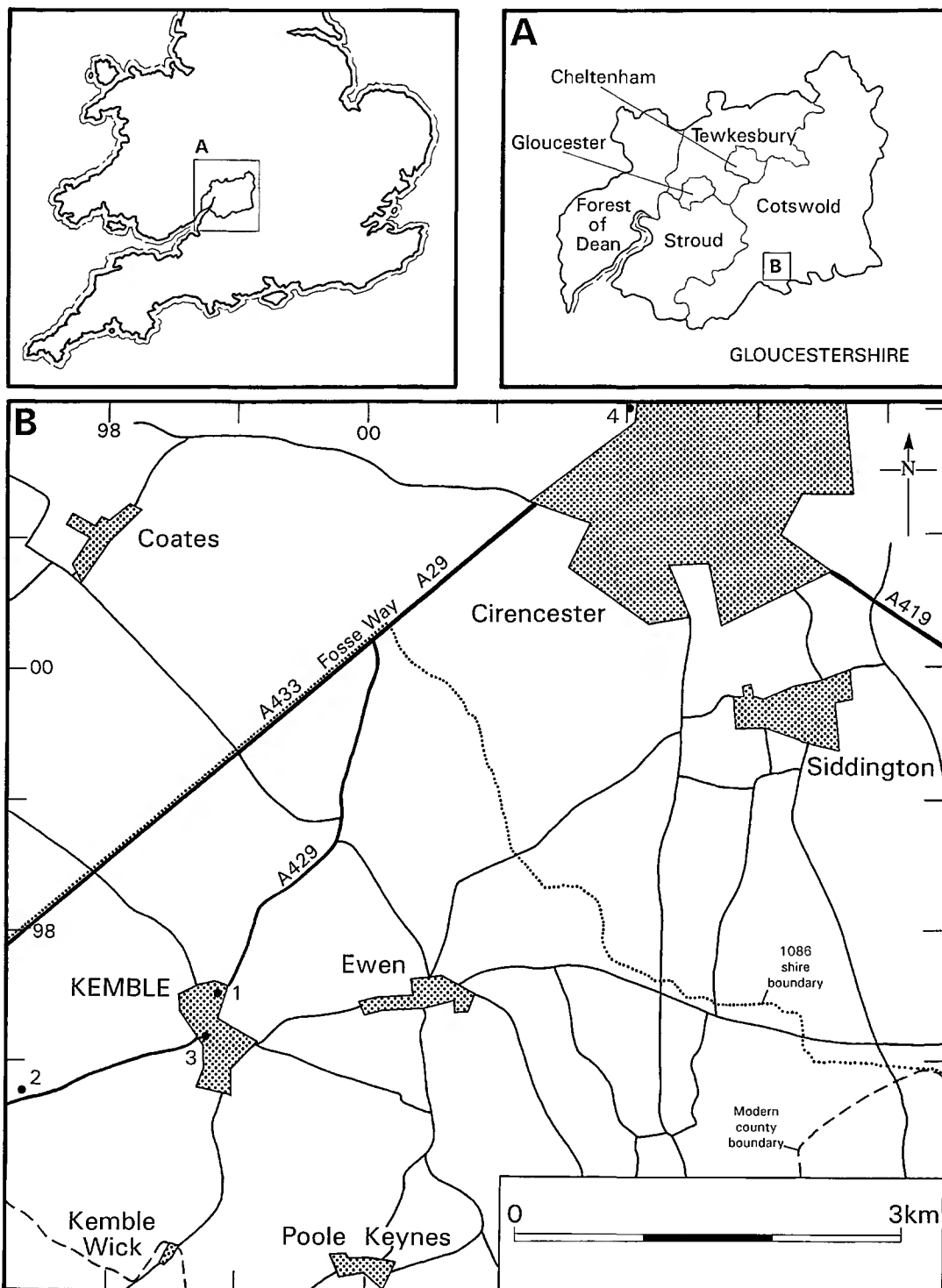


Fig. 1 Site location. Key: 1 – Kemble I; 2 – Kemble II; 3 – West Lane (Kemble III); 4 – The Barton, Cirencester.

(Fosse View House) and Roy King (West Hay Yard). CAT staff were assisted by a number of volunteers, namely Clarissa Aston, Walter Booth, Carolyn and Greg Dyer, Clare King, Michael Paine, Roy Shepherd and Nick Turner.

Thanks are due to all the contributors, and to Carolyn Heighway, Chris Dyer, Michael Oakeshott, Neil Holbrook and the editor for their comments on the text which have improved it greatly. Linda Viner would like to thank Nick Griffiths for comments regarding the small finds. The illustrations were produced by Nick Griffiths, Alejandra Guitierrez and Jane Timby.

The project archive, including the finds, has been deposited at the Corinium Museum, Cirencester.

Archaeological Background

Prehistoric activity in Kemble was identified by the recovery of six worked flints (including a late Neolithic or early Bronze-Age scraper) from evaluation excavations undertaken at Clayfurlong Grove in 1989 (Fig. 2; Walker 1989). A ring-ditch, probably the remains of a ploughed-out barrow, is known to the north-west of the village.

Kemble lies 6.5 km south-east of Cirencester and the parish is bounded by the Fosse Way to the north-west. Romano-British occupation has not hitherto been noted from the immediate locality. There is an undated settlement revealed by cropmarks at O.S. Nat. Grid ST 993993 adjacent to the Fosse Way, c. 2.5 km from the present village (RCHME 1976, 68). The discovery of the Romano-British stone coffin and other Romano-British burials at Fosse View House suggests settlement nearby. Several Roman pottery sherds were also recovered during the 1989 evaluation at Clayfurlong Grove.

A number of Anglo-Saxon burials have been found on different occasions (numbers refer to Fig. 1):

- 1 – Twenty-six burials with saucer brooches, a bronze pin, a scoop, a spoon, shield bosses and spearheads: a cemetery of late 6th-century date, referred to below as Kemble I (Meaney 1964, 92; Akerman 1857, 113–15). The surviving objects are in Liverpool Museum. In 1989 two inhumations, referred to below as Kemble IB, were found in the garden of 40 Clayfurlong Grove (Wilkinson 1988), c. 200 m south of the earlier discoveries (Fig. 2).
- 2 – ‘Many skeletons’, accompanied by objects similar to those found at Kemble I, discovered c. 1836 in Kemble Wood (Fig. 2; Akerman 1857, 113; Meaney 1964, 92). None of the objects, referred to below as Kemble II, has survived.
- 3 – Discoveries, reported below, of a number of burials (also some Romano-British) containing characteristic Anglo-Saxon grave goods. They are called Kemble III in this report.
- 4 – An Anglo-Saxon cemetery at The Barton, Cirencester (Brown 1976).

Akerman (1857, 117–19) also claimed to have located an Anglo-Saxon boundary stone (‘The Hore stone’) which had been converted into a mounting-block.

At the time of Domesday Book in 1086 the township of Kemble had 30 *villani*, 15 cottagers and 6 slaves; there were also 2 mills. It was held by Malmesbury Abbey and consisted of 30 hides of land, a wood one league long, and 40 acres of meadow (Moore 1982, E11).

Sherds of medieval pottery were found at Clayfurlong Grove in 1989 (Walker 1989), but the site, like that at West Hay Field, probably lay outside the centre of the main village settlement and the deposit could be the result of field manuring. A substantial cart-track and footpath crossed the area (O.S. Map 6", Wilts. IV. NE. 1898 edn.) but was largely destroyed during the 1980s.

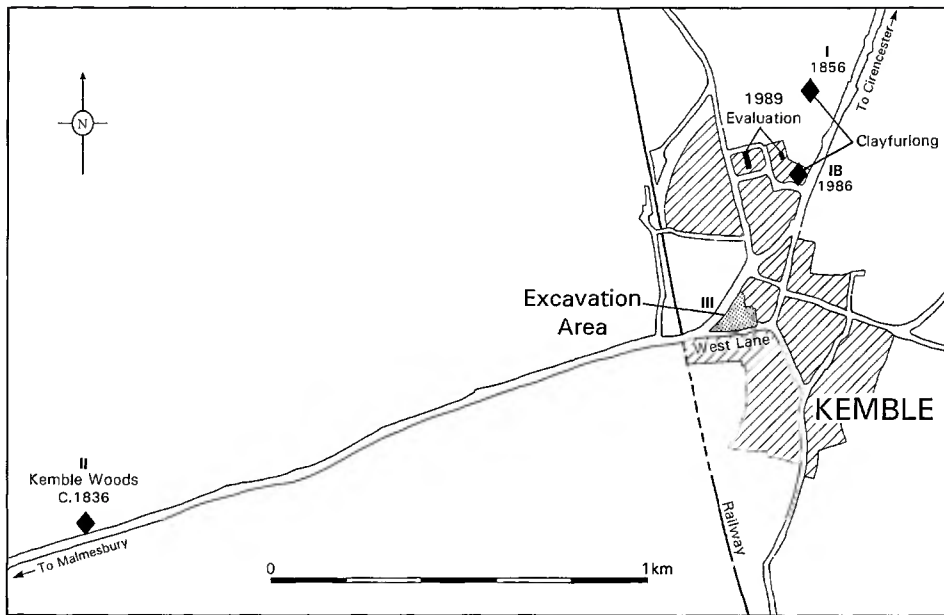


Fig. 2 Location of excavation area in relation to other Saxon cemeteries in Kemble.

Topography and Geology

West Hay Field and Fosse View House are situated just below the crest of a gentle north-facing slope, at a height of *c.* 111 m above O.D. with good views to the north-east. At the time of the excavation thick scrub and long grass covered most of West Hay Field, although the ground fronting West Lane had clearly been disturbed in the past and included one well-defined, roughly circular, depression *c.* 8 m across. In the south-western corner of the field was a raised area that appeared to be, at least in part, artificial in origin. It was later shown to be the result of quarrying which created an artificial face across the slope of the hillside.

The underlying geology of the area consists of the Forest Marble and Upper Rag subdivisions of the Middle Jurassic Great Oolite series (Kemble Beds). Forest Marble refers to the distinctive shelly limestones lying between the Great Oolite and the Cornbrash and includes all the associated rocks in this position. The limestone type at Kemble consists of hard, fairly sandy, shell-fragmental, flaggy limestone which weathers to shades of brown or buff. At depth that material presents a solid mass, although closer to the surface it weathers out into a degraded angular shattered limestone, bedded in flat planes. Pleistocene erosion of the limestone bedrock resulted in the formation of numerous irregular hollows within which later alluviation, associated with post-glacial soil development, led to the accumulation of fine ochreous silts and clays. The geology in the lower (northern) half of West Hay Field comprises grey marly clays.

The bedrock was sealed by an undifferentiated layer of clay with abundant limestone debris. That layer varied between 0.2 and 0.4 m in thickness and was itself sealed with a thin humic topsoil nowhere more than 0.15 m thick. Across the central part of the field earlier topsoil stripping had removed both topsoil and subsoil to expose areas of bedded oolite.

THE HUMAN BURIALS

With contributions from T. Jackman (pathology), T. Wells (dental analysis), and L. Viner (grave goods)

The excavations identified 24 individual burials and disarticulated fragments representing at least five more individuals. Preservation of the skeletal material was variable but was generally worse in West Hay Field, where there had been more extensive later disturbance (i.e. compression from the use of farm vehicles and contractors' plant), than in the garden of Fosse View House.

Three chronologically distinct phases of inhumation were recognised: Iron-Age, late Romano-British, and Anglo-Saxon. The Iron-Age burials appeared to be confined to the north-western part of the site, with the small Romano-British cemetery at Fosse View House to the south-east. Between the two distinct groupings lay the Saxon cemetery (Fig. 3).

The burials were numbered in continuous sequence during specialist examination. These numbers have been retained for the purposes of this report and supersede the original numbers assigned during the different phases of excavation. They bear no relation to the chronology of the burials.

Iron-Age Pits and Burials

Evidence of Iron-Age activity was restricted to a group of five sub-circular pits in the north-western part of West Hay Field (Fig. 3). The pits varied slightly in diameter and depth but averaged 1.1 m across and 0.6 m deep, with steep sides. In all cases the pits were filled with a light brown clay loam containing fragments of limestone. No other evidence of Iron-Age settlement or funerary activity was uncovered within West Hay Field, and it is possible that the main focus of any contemporary Iron-Age activity lay west of the excavation site (underneath the bypass) or was too ephemeral to have survived. Artefactual evidence consisted solely of small abraded pottery sherds recovered from the pit fills and two worked bone tools from pit [3022]. Articulated bones from the hind-limb of a dog were also recovered from this pit.

Three human inhumations were recovered from the pit group. A 1 m long by 0.6 m wide cut [3009] had been made into the fill of pit [3026] for the insertion of Burial 21. The pit also contained two bones of a second individual (Burial 24) in its primary filling. The third burial (Burial 22) was complete and was recovered from pit [3012]. As with [3026], the pit had not been originally cut for a grave and had been partially or completely infilled prior to the burial.

Burial 21 (Fig. 4) was a crouched, but prone, burial (i.e. the body had been placed kneeling in the pit whereupon the upper body had been pushed face down so that the abdomen/torso rested on the knees and thighs). The skeleton, that of a young adult male (Bass 1987), had its left arm positioned behind its back, the radius and ulna lying between the femur and the tibia and fibula. The right arm lay straight beside the body, but the bones of both hands were found mixed together between the feet, suggesting that the wrists may have originally been tied to the ankles prior to interment. An age estimation based upon Brothwell's (1981) study of dental attrition is between 17 and 25 years.

The skeleton was positioned in a cut [3009] into the southern half of pit [3026] and was sealed beneath a thick slab of limestone (1.15 m long by 0.6 m wide) that completely covered the body. The soil matrix comprising the fill of the grave cut was finer than the fill of [3026] and may suggest that it represented soil that had seeped into a void left around the body.

The pit itself was sub-circular, c. 1.1 m in diameter and 0.51 m in depth. The skeleton lay upon 0.25 m of clay-loam fill within the base of the pit, from which sherds of Iron-Age pottery were recovered. The heavily-fragmented skull of a horse aged between five and seven years was also recovered from grave [3009]; it may have been associated with the deposition of the body.

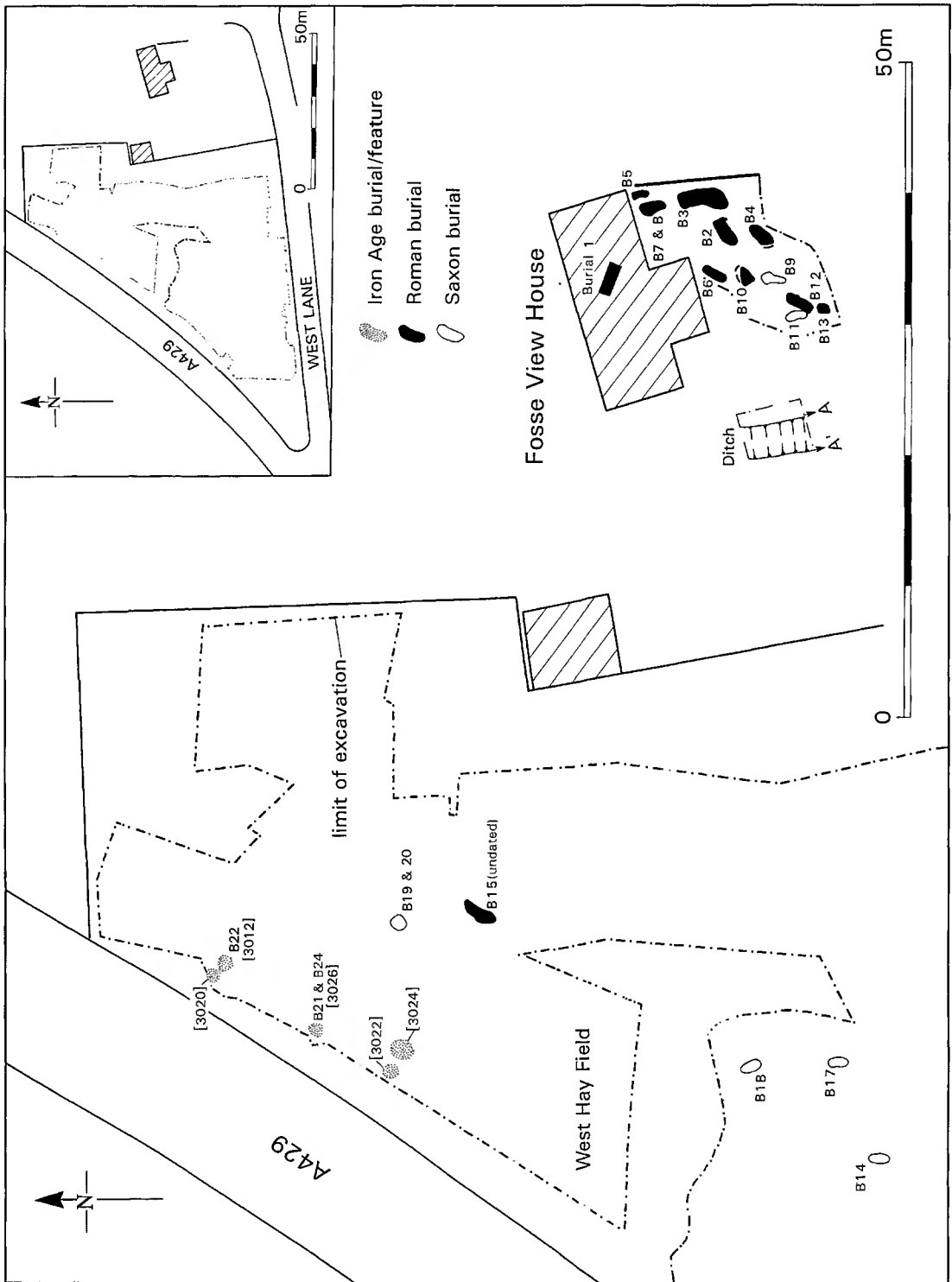


Fig. 3 Location of burials.

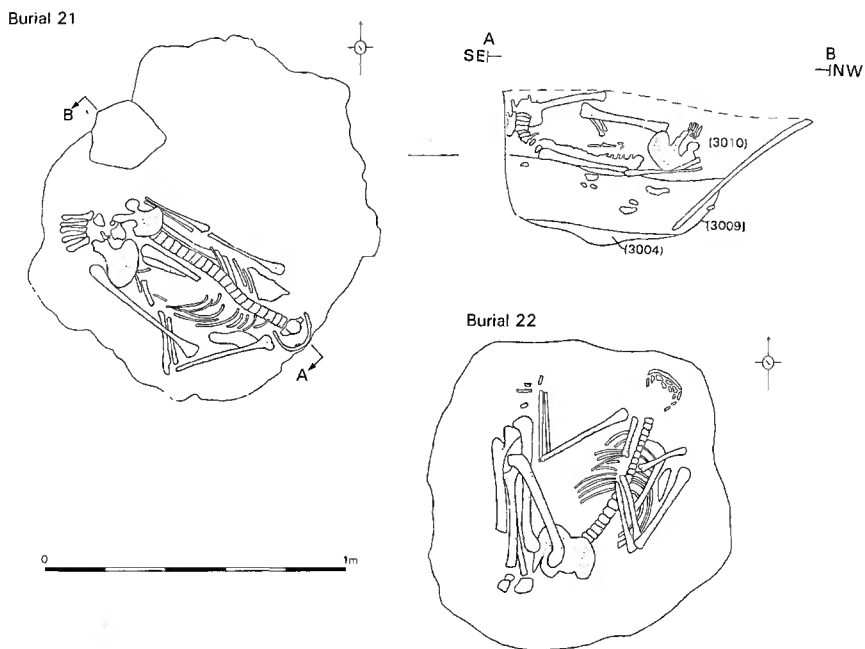


Fig. 4 Prehistoric Burials 21 and 22.

Burial 24. The left tibia and fibula from a second adult skeleton were found within the fill of pit [3026].

Burial 22 (Fig. 4) consisted of the tightly contracted inhumation of an adult ?male. Study of the dental attrition (Brothwell 1981) suggested an age between 25 and 35 years. The Suchey-Brooks system of ageing the pubic symphysis indicated an age range between 25.8 and 44.6 years. The skeleton was laid on the right side with the head oriented towards the north-east. The pit itself was roughly 1 m in diameter and was cut 0.24 m deep into the bedrock. The skeleton itself lay upon 0.3 m of existing brown clayey-loam fill. No grave goods accompanied the burial, although sherds of Iron-Age pottery were recovered from the fill of the pit.

Stature: 1.64 m (Trotter 1970).

WORKED BONE by Linda Viner

Pit [3022] yielded two examples of worked bone tools (Fig. 7; anatomical identifications supplied by M. Maltby).

1. A complete left metacarpal of a sheep, with a greatest length of 115.8 mm, belonging to an animal with a withers height of about 0.366 m, typical of the small size of sheep found in southern England during the Iron Age. The centre of the anterior of the shaft of the bone had been pierced through to the posterior producing a hole of c. 3–4 mm diameter.
2. Proximal end and 75% of shaft of a left metatarsal of a sheep, exhibiting evidence of working. The proximal surface was slightly damaged by canid gnawing, but also appears to have been pierced producing an irregular hole c. 8 mm in diameter. A smaller hole of 2–3 mm diameter had been made in the medial surface of the shaft c. 16 mm below the proximal end. There were also numerous small striations running along the length of the shaft made when it was smoothed and shaved. The shaft was broken towards its distal end, perhaps preventing further working to make an awl or point. However,

the working may have been completed for the holes at the proximal end could have allowed a thread to have been passed through them.

Similar objects have been interpreted as fasteners, possibly for personal dress or, more plausibly, as bobbins for winding wool (MacGregor 1985, 102–3, fig. 59). They occur in Iron-Age contexts, as here and at Poundbury (Greep 1987, 112, fig. 80, 5), Glastonbury (Bulleid and Gray 1917) and South Cadbury (Alcock 1972, 158). They remain common until the medieval period.

PREHISTORIC POTTERY by Jane Timby

Two small assemblages of handmade pottery were recovered from pits [3012] and [3026] which contained Burials 21, 22 and 24. Pit [3026] produced 12 sherds and 16 crumbs of fossil shell-tempered and oolitic limestone-tempered ware. These included one base and two rim fragments. The rims appear to be from simple vertically-sided vessels. Pit [3012] produced approximately 17 very friable sherds. That material may derive from a single vessel and it consists of a brownish-black fabric, with a dense frequency of oolitic limestone and fine fossil shell temper. Traces of residue are visible on the interior surface. The exterior has been smoothed.

The pottery recovered is typical of the mid-late Iron Age in the Cotswold-Thames Valley area. Fossil shell-tempered wares are common throughout the 3rd–1st century B.C. with the oolitic limestone wares continuing into the early 1st century A.D. In the absence of any larger featured sherds, this group of material unfortunately cannot be more closely dated.

Discussion

The evidence available for studying the burial rituals of Iron-Age communities varies considerably across Britain and at present Gloucestershire is particularly deficient in such evidence. The only published inhumations from the county are three cist-burials at Birdlip (Bellows 1881), some pit-burials at Salmonsbury (Dunning 1976), some possible pit-burials near Upper Slaughter (Royce 1882), three burials at Roughground Farm, Lechlade (Allen and others 1993, 45), and a recently discovered burial at Shipton Oliffe (Barber 1995).

The practice of Iron-Age pit-burials has been recognised across central southern England over a period covering the later Bronze Age until the 1st century B.C. It reached an apparent peak of popularity just before the Roman conquest (Whimster 1981, 191). Burials within settlements appear to become more common as the Iron Age progresses, the earlier examples tending to occur outside settlement boundaries.

Pit-burials are defined as burials which reuse pits originally dug for other purposes. Most of the pits were used for grain storage but burials were also interred in empty pits or (e.g. Burial 22) pits that were half-filled with debris. Others (e.g. Burial 21) consist of inhumations inserted into the loose fills of pits already filled to the brim. Grave goods are rarely found in association with such burials.

In general the skeletons in most pit-burials have been discovered lying on their sides, although several examples have been found on their backs, legs drawn up above their bodies. Most had been carefully arranged in contracted positions and Burial 22 conforms to that pattern. The remains of Burial 24 were apparently discarded or disturbed during the infilling of pit [3026] and should not be considered a formal burial. Burial 21 had some of the hallmarks of a normal pit-burial, although the cutting of graves into pits that were already full is uncommon. Nonetheless, the face-down body position, in a shaft that may not have been subsequently refilled, is slightly unusual. The grave cut was sealed with a large, heavy limestone slab that would have required considerable effort to move into place. The limestone slab may be analogous to the weighted hurdles found above other Iron-Age burials (perhaps to prevent the ghost rising).

Harding (1974, 113) regards isolated skeletons in pits as atypical and suggests the bodies may be those of criminals, social outcasts, outsiders, or the like, deliberately denied the customary funeral ceremony. The incorporation of odd bones in rubbish deposits suggests even less ceremony and implies that the dead were sometimes exposed rather than buried. Alternatively, the deposition in a storage pit may be a symbol of economic safety or power in the community (Bradley 1981, 234).

The pottery recovered from the fillings of the pits may be assumed to be roughly contemporary with the burials, in particular Burial 22 which was recovered from a half-filled pit rather than a recut. The pottery comprised of very small sherds loosely dated to the 3rd–1st centuries B.C.

ROMAN BURIALS by Alistair Barber

Burial 1 was a stone coffin oriented SE–NW and found in 1983. The shape corresponds to Type E in the scheme outlined for Romano-British burials around Cirencester (McWhirr and others 1982). The coffin contained a complete inhumation, an adult female aged over 45 years, just under 1.5 m (5 ft) in height, in a supine position. The legs were straight; the right arm lay across the pelvis and the left arm across the thorax. No dating evidence was found with the inhumation or grave fill (Clews and Viner 1992).

Burial 2 consisted of a grave measuring *c.* 2.1 m by 1 m cut into the naturally fractured limestone to a depth of 0.8 m. The skeletal remains were incomplete but appear to be those of a ?male adult. Mr. Gillett had noted the presence of a number of stone slabs surrounding the grave and two iron nails were also found. Given the evidence later recovered from nearby graves, the burial would have probably contained a wooden coffin surrounded by a slab-stone packing, presumably the spoil from the excavation of the grave. The precise position of the body within the grave remains unclear, although the grave alignment was broadly NE–SW.

Condition: half the skeleton was present though fragmented.

Burial 3 survived as only a small collection of disturbed bone *c.* 1 m NE of Burial 2. It was that of a young adult/adolescent, probably male. Dental attrition suggests an age between 17 and 25 years. On investigation the area was found to have been broken up during the laying of electricity cables and the exact position and shape of the grave cut was unclear. As with Burial 2 the remains were sealed by a layer of clayey loam. No artefactual material was recovered.

Condition: less than half the skeleton was present, in a fairly good state of preservation though fragmented.

Burial 4 (Fig. 5) consisted of an undisturbed grave *c.* 0.5 by 1.7 m cut into the Cornbrash to a depth of 0.7 m. Beneath a capping of stony clay, at a depth of *c.* 0.3 m, a layer of larger voided limestone rubble was encountered, average dimensions 0.4 by 0.5 m, packed above and around a NE–SW oriented supine burial. The body was that of an adolescent, aged between 11 and 17 years. The skull had been disturbed during the collapse of the limestone packing when the wooden coffin had decayed, leading to the displacement of the lower jaw from the rest of the cranium. Teeth were recovered scattered around the skull area. The long bones were extended and the arms positioned by the sides.

Condition: almost complete skeleton, *post mortem* damage to skull.

Grave goods:

1. In excess of 100 iron hobnails from the area of the feet and lower leg bones indicating hobnail boots on, or buried with, the body (not illustrated).
2. Six long coffin nails were found at various scattered positions, with no discernible patterning, around the grave. One nail was found to have a small fragment of preserved wood adhering to it, *c.* 12 mm thick. The nails have circular domed heads and square-sectioned shanks 5 mm wide and ranged in length from 40 to 65 mm (not illustrated).

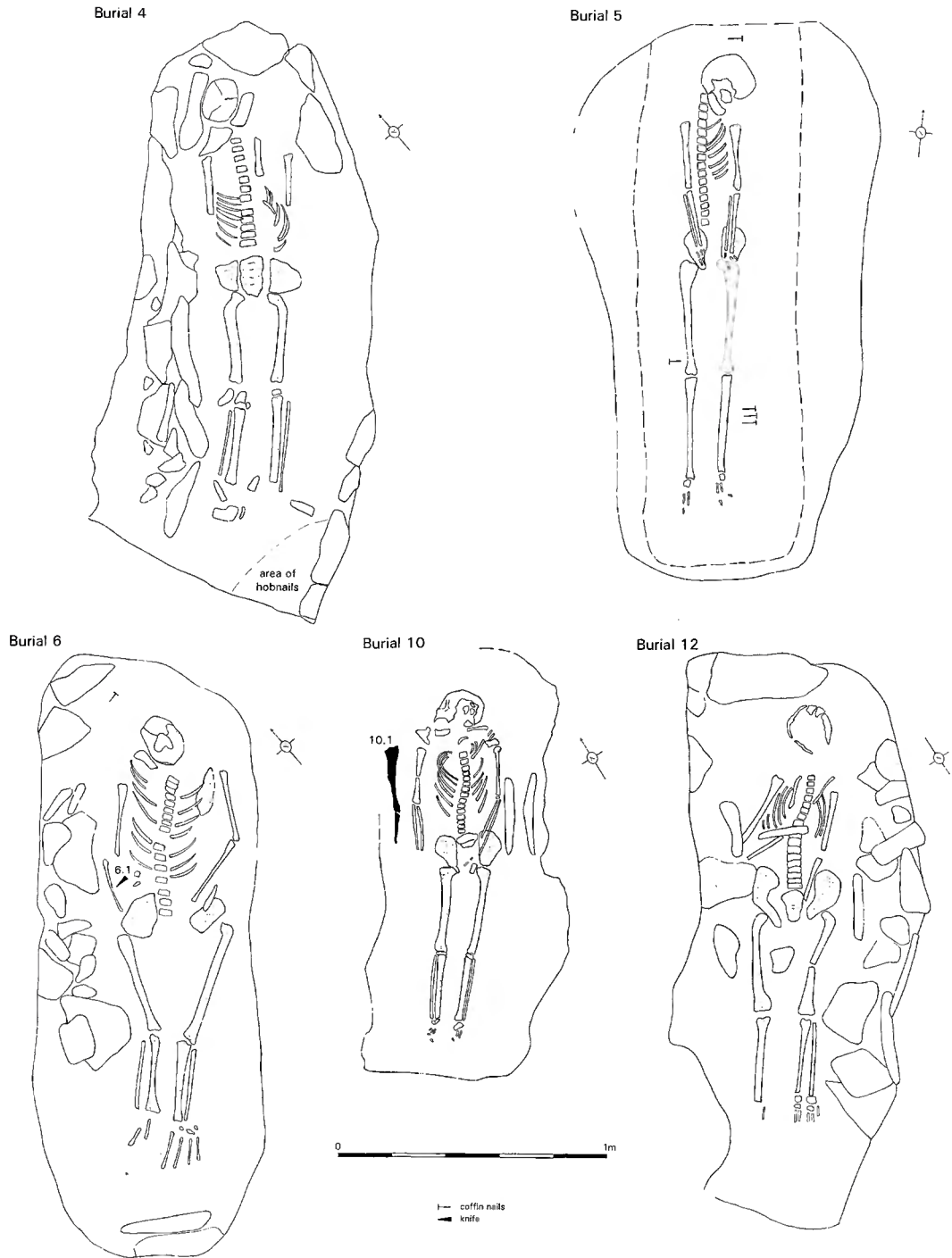


Fig. 5 Roman Burials 4, 5, 6, 10 and 12.

Burial 5 (Fig. 5) consisted of a grave with approximate dimensions of 0.6 by 1.95 m and 0.7 m deep. The grave contained limestone packing above and around the coffin. The body, a female adult, was lying in a supine position with limbs extended and the head lying to the left side. The arms were resting across the pelvis. Dental attrition suggests that the body was 25–35 years old at death. Orientation was approximately NW–SE.

Twenty-two coffin nails were found, a number of which appeared to be *in situ* indicating a coffin *c.* 0.35 m wide and 1.78 m long.

Condition: almost complete.

Burial 6 (Fig. 5) was a slab-lined grave containing a wooden coffin (represented by a number of large coffin nails with traces of adhering wood, suggesting a plank *c.* 12 mm thick). Once again the grave had been backfilled with limestone rubble.

The body, a female adult, was oriented NE–SW and lying in a supine position with both arms extended and resting on the pelvis, with the fingers extending over into the groin area. The legs were extended but slightly flexed. Dental attrition suggests an age of 33–45 years.

Grave goods:

1. An iron knife (Fig. 7, 6.1) was recovered from the chest area. The knife was found with the tang resting on the right rib-cage, with the point facing out towards the right arm. The position of the knife suggests it was either placed on the chest at burial or was held in place by some form of organic strapping. Preliminary analysis of the knife blade by the Corinium Museum combined with X-ray analysis suggests the presence of the corroded remains of some form of iron band with a possible ring adhering to the blade. This may prove to be the metal elements of a leather scabbard, strapped across the chest. The form has parallels with examples from Shakenoak, Silchester, Caerwent and Caistor-by-Norwich listed by Manning (1985, 11, fig. 28, Type 12) and is a long lived type.
2. Thirty hobnails were recovered from around the feet (Fig. 7, 6.2).
3. Fifteen large coffin nails with traces of wood adhering, *c.* 12 mm thick, of which six are illustrated (Fig. 7, 6.3).

Burial 7 was a badly disturbed inhumation. Sufficient of the skeleton remained to identify it as an older adult in extended position on a broadly N–S alignment. The degree of dental attrition suggests an age in excess of 45 years. The upper arms were extended and positioned by the sides, with part of the left upper leg surviving in extended position.

The grave was cut into the Cornbrash to a depth of *c.* 0.7 m and filled with clay-loam. Nine iron coffin nails indicates that the burial was interred in a wooden coffin.

Condition: half the skeleton present.

Burial 8. A second, severely damaged skull and odd bone fragments were found adjacent to Burial 7, but it was not possible to recognise any grave nearby from which the skull may have been disturbed. The bones belonged to an older adult.

Condition: part of the maxilla, skull fragments and a rib present.

Burial 10 (Fig. 5). Removal of a layer of clay-loam once again revealed limestone rubble filling a broadly rectangular grave, *c.* 1.6 m long, 0.7 m wide, and 0.8 m deep. Surviving iron nails testified to the original presence of a wooden coffin, containing an extended inhumation lying in a supine position, with the head facing to the right, the right arm extending alongside the torso and the left forearm resting on the pelvis. The body, a child aged 7–11 years, was oriented NE–SW.

The grave contained vertically-set large limestone slabs placed on all sides around the coffin. A single residual sherd of Savernake ware (1st–2nd century A.D.) was recovered from the grave fill.

Condition: good preservation and an almost complete skeleton.

Grave goods:

1. A joint of meat placed alongside and parallel with the right arm.
2. A spread of 15–20 iron hobnails were recovered from around the feet.

3. Eight very small copper-alloy rivets (Fig. 7, 10.3), diameter 1 mm, length 2 mm (2 illustrated). One head has a flatter profile, while the others are slightly domed. Their size would indicate a decorative function from an organic object.
4. Seven iron coffin nails, some with mineralised wood attached.

Burial 12 (Fig. 5). Considerable disturbance was noted in the vicinity of Burial 12. The grave was broadly rectangular, c. 2.3 by 1.0 m, and, at only 0.25 m deep, relatively shallow compared to the neighbouring graves. Limestone rubble had been packed over a wooden coffin, noted from a series of large iron nails *in situ* around the inhumation.

The body, a female adult, lay in a supine, extended position aligned S–N. The right forearm was flexed over the chest and the left arm rested on the pelvis. Dental attrition suggests an age between 35 and 45 years. The grave was lined with vertically-set limestone slabs around the coffin, prior to the deposition of the limestone rubble.

Condition: almost complete, upper skeleton fragmented, some complete long bones.

Grave goods:

1. Approximately 41 iron hobnails found around the feet.
2. A single handmade limestone-tempered potsherd, dating to the 1st century B.C.–1st century A.D., recovered from the grave fill.
3. Twenty iron coffin nails.

Burial 13. Evidence for a further inhumation burial in close proximity to Burials 11 and 12 was identified by Mr. Gillett. The surviving lower portion of a skeleton, possibly adult, was reported lying within a deep slab-lined grave. The burial is thought to have been oriented approximately NW–SE. A number of iron nails indicate a wooden coffin and several fragments of ‘U’-shaped iron binding were present. A large number of hobnails was recovered from the region of the feet. It is unclear whether any other grave goods were present.

Condition: very incomplete, lower legs and feet.

Grave goods:

1. Four pieces of iron ‘U’-shaped binding (Fig. 7, 13. 1a–d). In profile these resemble joiner’s dogs described by Manning (1985, pl. 61, R52) as structural fittings for joining timbers. Their presence, therefore, in the grave would not be unusual, but they may have been used for reinforcement of the sole of a boot.
2. Approximately 50 iron hobnails.
3. Nine iron coffin nails.

Discussion

The few closely datable grave goods or artefacts from the grave fills make firm dating difficult. A broad Romano-British date cannot, however, be doubted given the close association of the burials with the Roman stone-coffin burial, the burial rites adopted and the grave goods present. Abraded sherds of Savernake ware, dating to the first half of the 1st century A.D., were also found within the grave fills of Burials 11 and 12 and while almost certainly residual nevertheless provide a *terminus post quem*. Inhumation is common from the mid 2nd century A.D., and the inclusion of hobnail boots and the body attitudes are paralleled at such late Roman sites as the Bath Gate cemetery, Cirencester (McWhirr and others 1982), and Poundbury, Dorset (Farwell and Molleson 1993). The evidence suggests a date for the Kemble cemetery within the 3rd and 4th centuries A.D.

The eleven Roman-British burials from Fosse View House represent a previously unknown rural cemetery. A grave-free area of ground south-east of the burials may indicate the limits of the cemetery or it might represent a non-utilised zone within a wider cemetery area. The spatial

extent of the cemetery remains unresolved. While there has hitherto been no clear evidence for Roman occupation at Kemble, the relatively dense concentration of burials within a small area might suggest a burial ground used over a considerable period of time and attached to an as yet unidentified settlement.

Our understanding of burial patterns on rural sites remains inadequate in the absence of extensive excavation of rural settlements and their attached cemeteries. Studies by Collis (1977) at Owlesbury, Hampshire, and by Leach (1981) at Bradley Hill, Somerset, have suggested that even quite a low level of settlement would provide substantial burials over a period of a century or several generations, two families generating about 20 adult and child burials.

The existence of social stratification within the population from which the burials at Kemble are drawn is suggested by the burials. The stone coffin discovered in 1983 (Burial 1) with its high degree of workmanship is likely to reflect the wealth and status of the individual. Other individuals appear to have been buried in simple wooden coffins identified from the presence of coffin nails (some with wood/corrosion products adhering). In this respect the Kemble burials can be paralleled at both Cirencester and Poundbury where only a select few were buried in stone or lead coffins, the majority being interred in wooden coffins or without coffins. The presence of both male and female burials, and of children, adolescents and adults without clear spatial distinctions could suggest the presence of family burial plots. Similarly even sex ratios are noted at both Bradley Hill and Poundbury.

The Kemble burials all lie in close proximity to one another, generally with spacings of *c.* 1 m between each burial. The absence of inter-cutting burials suggests that grave markers were used. These may have taken the form of simple earth mounds since no stone markers or postholes were noted.

The burials were all supine, extended inhumations, with arms either lying parallel to the sides or with the forearms resting over the pelvis. These were also the most common burial positions at the Cirencester cemetery. They occurred frequently within the rural burial group at Bradley Hill where further variations, without notable patterning, were also recognised. As Woodward (1993) noted, occasionally a particular position, or combination of positions, seems to be particularly characteristic of a single cemetery, though the sample size at Kemble is too small to make any such inference.

Further analogy with Poundbury and Cirencester is demonstrated by the use of slab-linings to the graves and the absence of rich grave goods. Iron hobnails, a domestic iron knife and copper-alloy rivets were the only surviving inorganic artefacts, although the inclusion of a joint of meat with Burial 10 suggests that perishable offerings may have accompanied other burials.

In contrast to the predominantly E-W body alignments encountered at one of the peripheral burial sites at Poundbury and at Bradley Hill and most cemeteries during the 4th century or later, the burials at Kemble lie on broadly N-S or NE-SW alignments (with the exception of stone-coffin Burial 1, lying E-W). The majority of burials outside the Bath Gate at Cirencester were also aligned N-S and were frequently accompanied by slab-lined graves and hobnailed boots. Five burials (Burials 4, 6, 10, 12 and 13) at Kemble were buried with hobnails. The practice is quite widespread in southern Britain and may represent an essentially Celtic rite (Leech 1981).

The problems defining Christian and pagan cemeteries in the late Roman and early post-Roman periods have received much previous attention (Rahtz 1977; Woodward 1993). At Fosse View House the Romano-British burials display a series of essentially pagan traits, namely the provision of hobnail boots, equipment and food offerings for the journey to an afterlife and the broadly N-S alignments of the graves. Although the burials also display some characteristics associated with Christian burials (absence of inter-cutting graves and the presence of grave linings, both arguably to keep the body inviolate), a wide range of Christian cemetery indicators

(Woodward 1993) is absent and a pagan attribution is strongly implied by the balance of evidence.

Anglo-Saxon Burials by Roy King

Five Anglo-Saxon burials were excavated in West Hay Field with the fragmentary remains of a sixth. The burials consisted of two adults, one adolescent, two children and an infant. Both adults, the adolescent and one of the children were found within 10 m of each other. The other burials, of a child and an infant in the same grave, were almost 30 m downslope from the main group. All the burials were placed in shallow scoops along or just into the surface of the bedrock. None of the bodies showed any evidence of having been interred in coffins, and the irregular shape and size of the grave cuts suggests coffins were unlikely. A further two adult male burials (Burials 9 and 11) discovered at Fosse View House were also probably Anglo-Saxon. They were buried in irregular shallow scoops cut into the bedrock, similar to the Saxon burials from West Hay Field, rather than in the deeper, more regular, slab-lined grave cuts characteristic of the Romano-British burials previously uncovered in the garden.

Burial 14 (Fig. 6) consisted of the extended skeleton of an adult male lying in a shallow irregular scoop, 1.8 m long by 0.5 m wide, cut through a thin layer of degraded limestone and clay soil into the top of the bedded limestone bedrock. The grave was filled with a thin layer of redeposited subsoil barely sufficient to cover the body.

The body was laid supine, oriented with the head to the south. The right arm was positioned by the side and the left arm folded across the pelvis. The skull lay forward on the chest and the vertebrae were slightly twisted, suggesting that the body had been forced into an insufficiently large grave. The lower legs extended slightly beyond the grave cut and lay on the surface of the bedrock. The feet had been removed at the time of burial and had been deposited near the knees within the clay fill of the grave. An assessment of the dental attrition suggests the body was between 25 and 35 years old at death.

The location of the grave goods, a knife, whetstone and belt buckle, suggested that the body was buried fully clothed (possibly wrapped in a shroud). The size and shape of the grave cut precluded any possibility that the body may have been buried in a coffin.

Condition: almost complete. Some cortical bone appears eroded and the vertebrae bodies are very eroded.

Grave goods:

1. Iron buckle. (Fig. 7, 14.1) found within the pelvis area. Rectangular plate folded in half around a 'D'-shaped buckle loop with tongue. Length 26 mm, width 16 mm.
2. An iron knife (Fig. 7, 14.2) found at the left hip. Thin narrow blade with heavy corrosion. Length 87 mm, maximum width 10 mm, thickness 4 mm.
3. A whetstone (Fig. 7, 14.3) at the left hip. Length 90 mm.

Burial 16 was a very incomplete skeleton of an adult. No grave cut was apparent for this badly disturbed burial, although the fragmentary remains suggested that it had been oriented with its head towards the south. Insufficient bones remained *in situ* to indicate the position in which it had been buried.

Condition: very incomplete.

Burial 17 (Fig. 6) was an incomplete skeleton of an unsexed adolescent aged between 14 and 20 years. That age range is indicated by epiphyseal union (Brothwell 1981). The skeleton was supine with the head oriented towards the south. It had been lain directly upon the bedrock and had since suffered serious disturbance. The few surviving parts of the skeleton were situated in a slight depression in the bedrock. Grave goods were associated with this burial.

A number of amphibian bones (frog or toad) was also recovered from within the grave, perhaps suggesting that the graves were excavated before being needed (perhaps during warmer weather) and may have remained open for some time during which small animals were trapped within them.

Condition: half the skeleton present though the bones are fragmented and the cortical surfaces eroded.

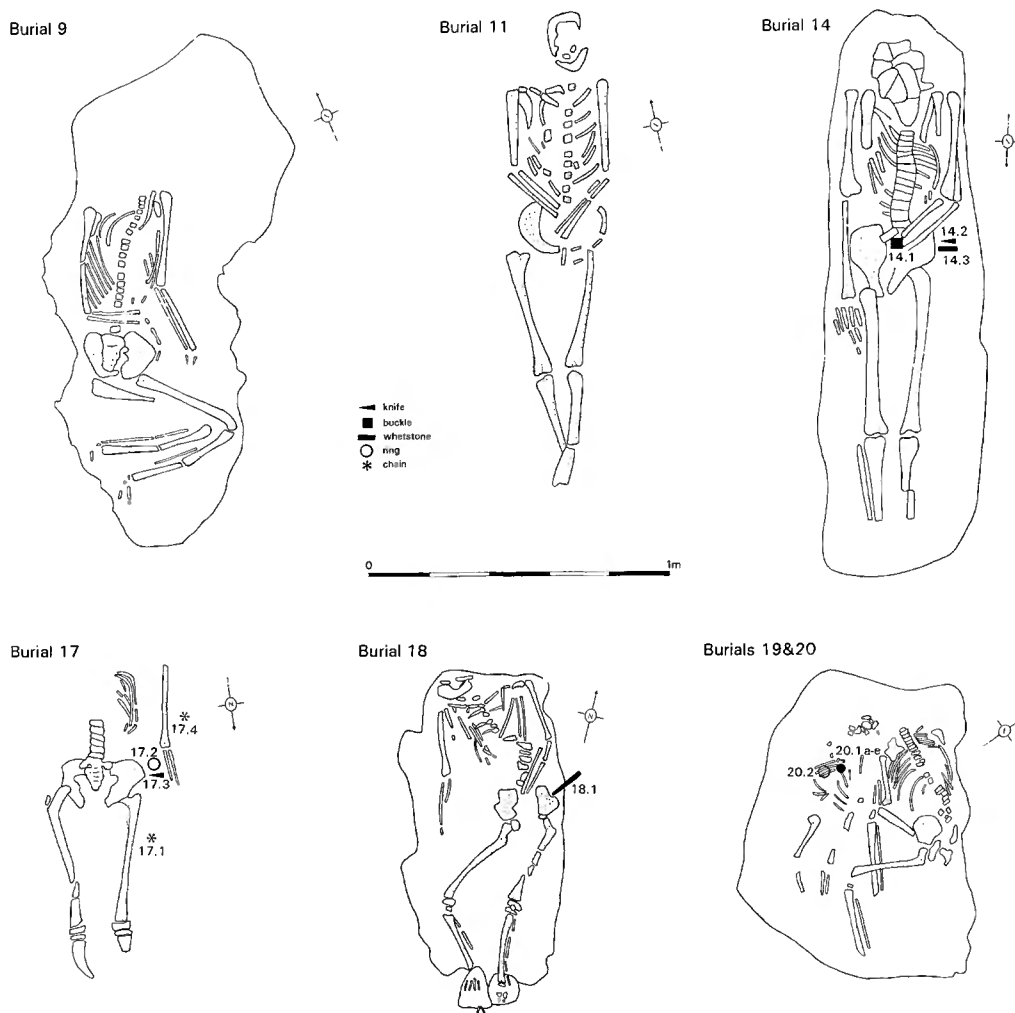


Fig. 6 Saxon Burials 9, 11, 14, 17, 18, 19 and 20.

Grave goods:

1. An iron object recovered from the hip area comprises at least five figure-of-eight chain links, strips of wire (probably distorted and distended links), links with wire bindings of 4–5 turns, and possibly 3–4 rings. The illustration (Fig. 7, 17.1) is based on an X-ray.

No immediate parallels are obvious for the object, although published examples of cauldron chains spring to mind (personal communication H. Härke). Examples from Sutton Hoo, Blackburn Mill, and Great Chesterford, summarised by Fenwick (1983), exceed the present example in size, but smaller pot chains with a combination of links ranging from single circular rings to figure-of-eight links and hooks might be envisaged.

2. Penannular iron ring, distorted oval 52 × 42 mm, sub-rectangular sections of 4 × 3 mm hidden by corrosion, with blunt/fractured terminals (Fig. 7, 17.2).

3. Iron knife blade, with possible organic remains. Length 112 mm, maximum width 13 mm. Long narrow thin blade with remains of a short tang. Extreme tip missing (Fig. 7, 17.3).
4. Two segments of iron chain. Each fragment is incomplete, but may be of figure-of-eight form, with circular section of 2 mm. Surviving lengths: 16 mm with two fragmentary links and 20 mm with two links (Fig. 7, 17.4).

Burial 18 (Fig. 6) included the skeleton of a child aged between 7 and 11 years according to tooth eruption (Ubelaker 1989). The skeleton was flexed with its legs slightly bent at the hips and knees and was laid on its right side with its head oriented towards the south. The upper body had been curved around to fit within the grave which consisted of a shallow scoop 1.1 m long by 0.5 m wide and cut 0.15 m deep into the natural bedrock.

Condition: half the skeleton present though fragmented and eroded.

Grave goods:

1. Iron knife with evidence to suggest an organic handle found lying at the left hip (Fig. 7, 18.1). The object survives in two pieces: blade 77 mm in length and 12 mm in maximum width; second fragment 22 mm in length and 10 mm in maximum width.

Burials 19 and 20 (Fig. 6) were recovered from the same grave, a shallow sub-oval scoop into the bedrock, 1.0 m long by 0.8 m wide.

Burial 19 was the crouched skeleton of an unsexed child, aged 7–10 years, laid on its right side with its head oriented towards the north. No grave goods were recovered from the skeleton, but its association with *Burial 20* marks it as Saxon.

Condition: good preservation though fragmented; half the skeleton present.

Burial 20 was an infant aged 12–24 months. The skeleton appeared to be supine with its head oriented towards the north.

Condition: very incomplete and fragmented.

Grave goods:

1. Five beads. Two biconical yellow beads, opaque, diameter 12 mm each, heights 9 and 10 mm (Fig. 7, 20.1a–b); a white cylindrical bead, opaque, diameter 7 mm, height 5 mm (Fig. 7, 20.1c); an annular green glass bead, transparent, diameter 14 mm, height 7 mm (Fig. 7, 20.1d); an annular green glass bead, diameter 7 mm, height 5 mm (Fig. 7, 20.1e).
2. Ring. Fine copper-alloy wire of 1-mm diameter, with knotted terminals, i.e. ends overlapping and twisted around the ring to give an expanding junction. Distorted, diameter c. 10–15 mm (Fig. 7, 20.2).

A late 7th-century burial from Lower Brook Street, Winchester, produced a similar necklace recorded *in situ* and comprising a collar made of up to 30 silver wire rings (Hawkes 1990, 621–32, fig. 167, pl. XLVI–XLVII).

Burial 9 (Fig. 6) was the semi-flexed skeleton of an adult male laid on its left side with its head oriented towards the north. Dental attrition suggests an age of 17–25 years. No grave goods were present, although a single animal tooth was recovered from the grave fill.

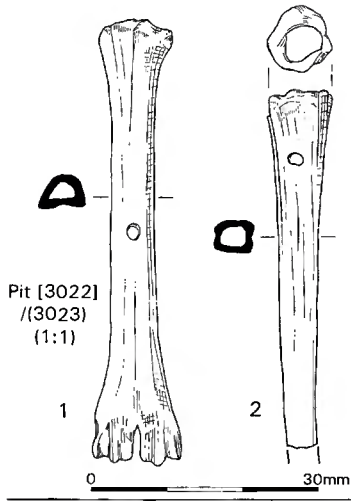
Condition: Almost complete skeleton in a fairly good state of preservation though fragmented.

Burial 11 (Fig. 6) was the extended supine inhumation of an older adult male. The skeleton was oriented with its head towards the north, its ankles crossed, and its arms folded across the pelvis. A study of the dental attrition suggested an age of 25–35 years.

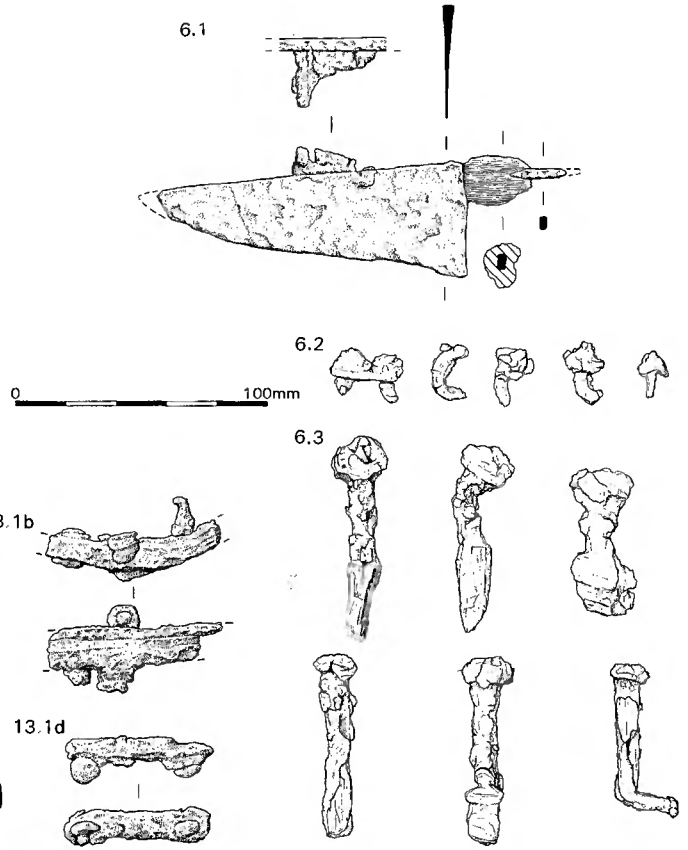
The grave cut consisted of a shallow scoop into the top of the limestone bedrock, although at its southernmost extent it cut into the fill of the grave containing Romano-British *Burial 12*. Eight fragments of iron nail were recovered from the fill of this grave, although these had almost certainly been disturbed from the Romano-British burial.

Condition: almost complete though fragmented.

Prehistoric



Roman



Saxon

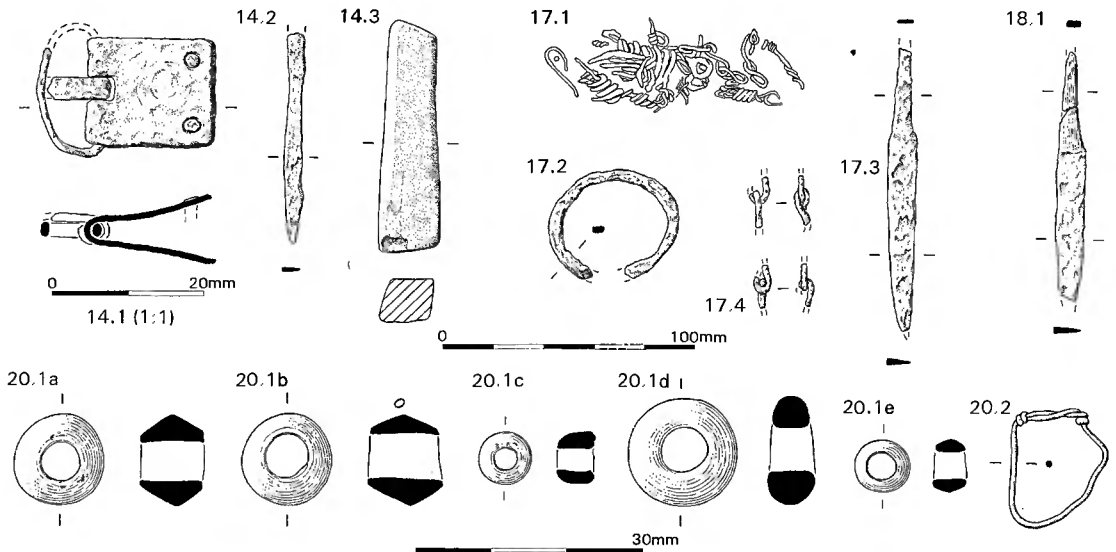


Fig. 7 Finds associated with the burials.

Discussion

The seven Anglo-Saxon graves excavated probably comprised part of a more extensive cemetery of unknown dimension. Medieval quarrying and occupation activity, as well as modern topsoil stripping, doubtless destroyed a number of additional burials of which traces survived only as disassociated bones and stray finds.

Each of the surviving Saxon graves from West Hay Field consisted of a shallow scoop through the subsoil onto the top of the underlying limestone bedrock. No evidence for coffins was recovered and the bodies were sparsely provided with grave goods. The skeletons were all oriented with their heads towards the south, except for the double burial of the child and infant (Burials 19 and 20). Although no grave goods were recovered in association with Burial 16, it has been included within the Saxon grouping as a result of its orientation and proximity to the main grouping of datable Saxon burials. The two possible Saxon burials from Fosse View House (Burials 9 and 11) were aligned with their heads generally oriented towards the north, similar to the double burial from West Hay Field. The positioning of the skeletons also varied considerably. Burials 14, 17, ?20 (and 9) were extended and supine; Burial 18 was flexed; Burial 11 was semi-flexed; while Burial 19 was crouched.

The most common grave good comprised an iron knife (Burials 14, 17 and 18), the most frequently found object in many Anglo-Saxon cemeteries, although any organic grave goods would have long since perished without trace. The recovery of the knives and a belt buckle from Burial 14 suggests that the bodies were buried clothed or wrapped in a shroud; dressed burials are generally considered characteristic of pagan Anglo-Saxon inhumations (Hirst 1985). More recently Blair (1994, 70–2) has suggested that in Oxfordshire knives may well simply be a normal part of dress and have no religious significance. Blair also notes that knives occur in both Christian and pagan Saxon cemeteries. Grave goods associated with the bodies from Fosse View House consisted solely of iron nails recovered from Burial 11, almost certainly disturbed from the Romano-British Burial 12.

Context of the Kemble Burials by Carolyn Heighway

Anglo-Saxon settlement in the Cotswolds is represented by a number of burials with grave goods. The earliest Saxon settlement in the region as a whole was in the area of Dorchester-on-Thames, and it was from there and along the Thames that Saxon influence apparently spread (Dickinson 1976; Blair 1994, 5–6). By the second half of the 5th century there was already a number of Saxon burial sites in the Upper Thames valley; and in Gloucestershire there were 5th-century settlements at Hampnett and Fairford (Meaney 1964, 90–1). Other evidence of 5th-century settlement may not have survived the adverse conditions of 19th-century investigation (when most sites were discovered). The present state of knowledge can list 20 pagan Saxon burial sites in the Cotswolds dating to the mid 6th century (Heighway 1984, 230, fig. 1). The Roman town of Cirencester was fairly well ringed by them, contradicting the claim in the Anglo-Saxon chronicle that Cirencester (with Gloucester and Bath) was taken by the Saxons only in 577 and incidentally proving ammunition to assert the Chronicle's unreliability (Sims-Williams 1983, 33–4). Most of these 'cemeteries' are very small groups of five individuals or less: the two exceptions, Fairford and Lechlade, are close to their cultural origins in the Oxfordshire Thames valley. The total number of Saxon burials is small and there are none in the Severn Vale with the exception of Bishop's Cleeve (unpublished). The implication is that in the mid to late 6th century the Vale was under different cultural control, presumably that of the native British (Heighway 1984, 231). The same applies to the area south of Cirencester towards Malmesbury.

In the Thames valley the 7th century was characterised by a few rich male burials and a large number of unfurnished burials; society appears to have become more polarised (Dickinson 1976, 437–44). The Gloucestershire evidence is different for there are few Saxon cemeteries in the county which post-date *c.* 600. The Lechlade cemetery is again an exception; it continues after *c.* 600 and conforms to the Oxfordshire pattern in displaying fewer richer graves amongst a large number of lesser mortals; the orientation of the burials also changed to an east–west one (Miles and Palmer 1986). The conventional explanation for the change and for the more usual cessation of grave goods *c.* 600 is the influence of Christianity, but the change is too rapid to be attributed to St. Augustine (who visited the West in 604). There is a growing suspicion (it can be no more) that incoming Saxons were rapidly converted by native British Christians (Sims-Williams 1990, 78–9).

The character of Anglo-Saxon burial groups is noticeably different from Roman cemeteries. Saxon burials tend to be located on (or in) landscape features, usually prehistoric barrows but also boundaries and roads. Saxon burials were in small groups; the Roman practice of burying the dead in well-defined cemeteries is much less evident among the pagan Saxons, at any rate in Gloucestershire. (This is exemplified in Fig. 3 where the densely-placed, mostly Roman burials at Fosse View House can be contrasted with the thin scatter of Saxon and indeed Iron-Age graves).

The discoveries at West Lane are *c.* 500 m south of the Clayfurlong burials (Kemble I) and of the 1986 discoveries which have been designated Kemble IB. Kemble I and IB could be part of one burial group, although Akerman (1857, 113) records that the intervening area (i.e. south of the farm) ‘was carefully trenched, but the ground appeared not to have been moved, and it was evident the cemetery did not extend in that direction’. The West Lane discoveries (Kemble III) are far enough distant to be a separate group.

The Kemble IB burials were rather different from those of Kemble I. The latter produced a number of saucer brooches, a bronze pin, a bronze scoop, a Roman spoon, and a Roman bronze coin pierced for suspension; there were iron spearheads and shield bosses but they have not survived. They were thought by D. Brown (1976) to be similar in date to the burials at Barton Farm, Cirencester, i.e. early to mid 6th century. Kemble IB on the other hand produced a silver pin and a hoop and an amethyst drop, all of which suggest a 7th-century date (Wilkinson 1988). IB is perhaps a developed fringe of I, and so later in date, or it may well be quite a different cemetery.

The Kemble III discoveries, on the other hand, include no shields or shield bosses, although there are iron knives. They also include 7th-century finds in the form of a wire-ring necklace (Fig. 7, 20.1).

The Roman finds which puzzled Akerman are now explained: it is clear that there was a Roman cemetery, and therefore a settlement, at Kemble and that the Saxons, as was often the case, plundered the ruins of previous tenants and appropriated chance finds to furnish themselves with jewellery and talismans. This is now a recognised phenomenon: Roman finds in Anglo-Saxon graves denote a continuity of site which is probably fortuitous (White 1990). It is not surprising that any Roman settlement site in this agriculturally rich area should in its turn be the site of Saxon settlement.

The position of the cemeteries is interesting. Kemble I, IB, and III are all on what is now the road to Malmesbury, seeming to indicate a greater importance for this route in the pagan Saxon period than one might have expected, given that it is apparently a branch of the Roman Fosse Way to Bath. It should however be remembered that in the 7th century Malmesbury was an important Christian centre, if not Irish then with close Irish connections; it was also a meeting and trading place. It was probably an important centre at an even earlier date (Sims-Williams

1990, 108–9; Haslem 1984, 112–13). In the 7th and 8th centuries, Kemble was border territory between West Saxon lands and Mercia (Sims-Williams 1990, 384–5). Later Kemble was on the boundary between Wiltshire and Gloucestershire and was transferred from the former to the latter county in 1897 (Fig. 1). In 1086 Kemble was part of the estates held by Malmesbury Abbey; the land paid tax for 30 hides before 1066 and had land for 30 ploughs, representing considerable agricultural wealth; the shire border was then the River Thames (Moore 1982, E11). A grant of 934 × 939 by Athelstan to Malmesbury Abbey included land on both sides of the Thames, including Kemble and Ewen (Finberg 1972, no. 94). Akerman (1857, 115–19) plotted the boundaries of that territory and noted the landmarks ‘Hore stone’ and ‘Zute stone’. The earliest mention of Kemble occurs in a spurious charter of A.D. 688 when Cedwalla of Wessex granted 140 hides of land to Abbot Aldhelm of Malmesbury (Finberg 1972, 32, nos. 4 and 4a). The land was between the Thames and ‘the streets’ (i.e. the Fosse way and Ermin Street), in other words north of the Thames. Kemble was therefore in an area of land where control of kingdoms tended to fluctuate. It would not be surprising if the Kemble area was already in pagan Saxon times the border between a Saxon-held territory around Cirencester and a British-held one around Malmesbury. It is probably not mere coincidence that the name Kemble, of British derivation, means border or boundary, being related to the Welsh *cyfel* (Smith 1964, I, 75).

Borders are associated in the modern mind with strife, but it should not be forgotten that they also represent commercial opportunity. They were not only trading points but neutral meeting places for diplomatic missions. Perhaps its border situation is a clue to why Kemble, unlike any other place in Gloucestershire, boasts three, perhaps four, Anglo-Saxon cemeteries beside a major land route.

Undated Burials

Burial 15 (Fig. 3) included the skeleton of an adult male *c.* 1.72 m tall. The age from the degree of dental attrition is estimated to be between 17 and 25 years. The skeleton was flexed with its hips bent slightly at the hips and knees. It lay on its left side with its head oriented to the north-east. The burial was originally assumed to be Saxon but may equally be Iron-Age.

The grave cut consisted of a shallow 1.95-m long scoop narrowing to 1.7 m long at the base. The grave averaged 0.8 m in width and was cut less than 0.2 m into the bedrock. A deeper irregular cut 0.6 m long and 1 m wide was present at the feet of the skeleton. That cut may be connected with the grave or may represent a natural feature. No grave goods were recovered from the burial.

Condition: almost complete though fragmented.

Disarticulated Bone. Fragments of human bone recovered from the subsoil represent at least five more individuals. They were recovered during the evaluation stage from trenches cut in the northern end of the site. Although no traces of any associated grave cuts were encountered, it is likely that the bone fragments represent the remains of a number of very disturbed but *in-situ* inhumations. It is possible that the remains of additional, very ephemeral, disturbed burials were not recovered during the course of the excavations.

General Discussion of the Cemetery

The presence of burials dating to the Iron-Age, Roman and Saxon periods at Kemble is worthy of general comment. Although rare, other cases of Iron-Age, Roman and Saxon burials have been found in close juxtaposition in the Cotswolds, in apparently rural situations, notably in the Bourton-on-the-Water/Salmonsbury area (Dunning 1976) and near Upper Slaughter (Royce 1882). In the case of the former there is clear evidence for continuity of occupation in the area

from prehistoric times and the burials tend to be scattered around the immediate area of occupation. The latter is based on 19th-century observation but appears to be a case of Iron-Age pit-burials alongside later Roman interments.

That the Anglo-Saxon cemetery in part overlays the earlier Romano-British cemetery at Kemble may suggest that the area was still identifiable as a burial site, and that it either continued or was re-used as such by the Saxon settlement. Although later landscaping had removed any indication of above-ground features marking the Romano-British cemetery, it is possible that features such as cairns above the graves (especially, perhaps, above the stone coffin) or cemetery boundary walls were still visible during the 6th century when Anglo-Saxon settlement presumably existed in the area.

Whether the multi-period burials testify to a long-lived tradition of settlement in Kemble or might be related to another factor, such as the existence of a rural shrine, is a question which must await further research.

THE MEDIEVAL OCCUPATION by Roy King

Quarries

During the 12th and 13th centuries West Hay Field was divided into at least three properties defined by two parallel drystone walls, [1004] and [2012]. The walls ran north-south and formed strips facing West Lane of which only the middle property was exposed across its whole width (37 m). Assuming the other properties were approximately of similar width, the defining boundary walls would both have fallen outside of the area excavated. During the later phase of medieval activity part of wall [2012] was incorporated in the building complex.

In all, 13 quarries were located during the excavations (Fig. 8). All but one was in the southern area of the site adjacent to West Lane, thereby suggesting a medieval origin for West Lane. The quarries varied in size from 1.5 to 12 m across and in shape from roughly circular to elongate and sub-rectangular. Depths varied from *c.* 1.3 m in the smaller quarries to 2.3 m in the larger. Two typical profiles are shown for [1033] and [2038] in Fig. 10. The quarrying had been undertaken predominantly within the eastern and central properties. Quarry [2038] may have been excavated to provide the stone for the medieval building (see below). Waste material from the quarry was levelled off around the foundations of the building, leaving the quarry face still visible as a topographical feature at the time of the excavations.

An extensive part of the area in which quarrying took place had been stripped of subsoil (2002) and degraded brash (2003) prior to the opening of the workings. The quarries themselves appeared to have been infilled very soon after they were abandoned; no significant weathering of faces was visible, nor was there any accumulation of detritus or development of a turf-line, other than in quarry [1055] where a thin band of aceramic dark brown clayey soil (1085) accumulated before it was infilled. The infill of the workings consisted of a primary fill composed entirely of quarry waste; small broken fragments of fractured limestone and clays in a thin soil matrix with plentiful voids. A secondary fill, comprising a brown soil with substantial quantities of limestone waste, sealed and levelled out the remaining depressions. That later fill invariably yielded quantities of domestic refuse, primarily pottery and animal bones; the workings in the eastern part of the site also produced quantities of iron slag.

A chronological sequence for the quarries could not be established. The only stratigraphic relationship consisted of a small sub-circular quarry [2057] cut by a much larger, and probably the latest, quarry [2038], but it was insufficient to indicate that the smaller quarries were generally of earlier date. Ceramic evidence recovered from all the quarries indicated a date for the backfilling in the 13th-14th century, but it did not allow any chronological distinction between the quarries. A number of 12th-century sherds present amongst the assemblage was likely to represent residual matter that entered the workings as they were infilled. The largest pottery assemblage was recovered from the dump of domestic waste in and overlying quarry [2038].

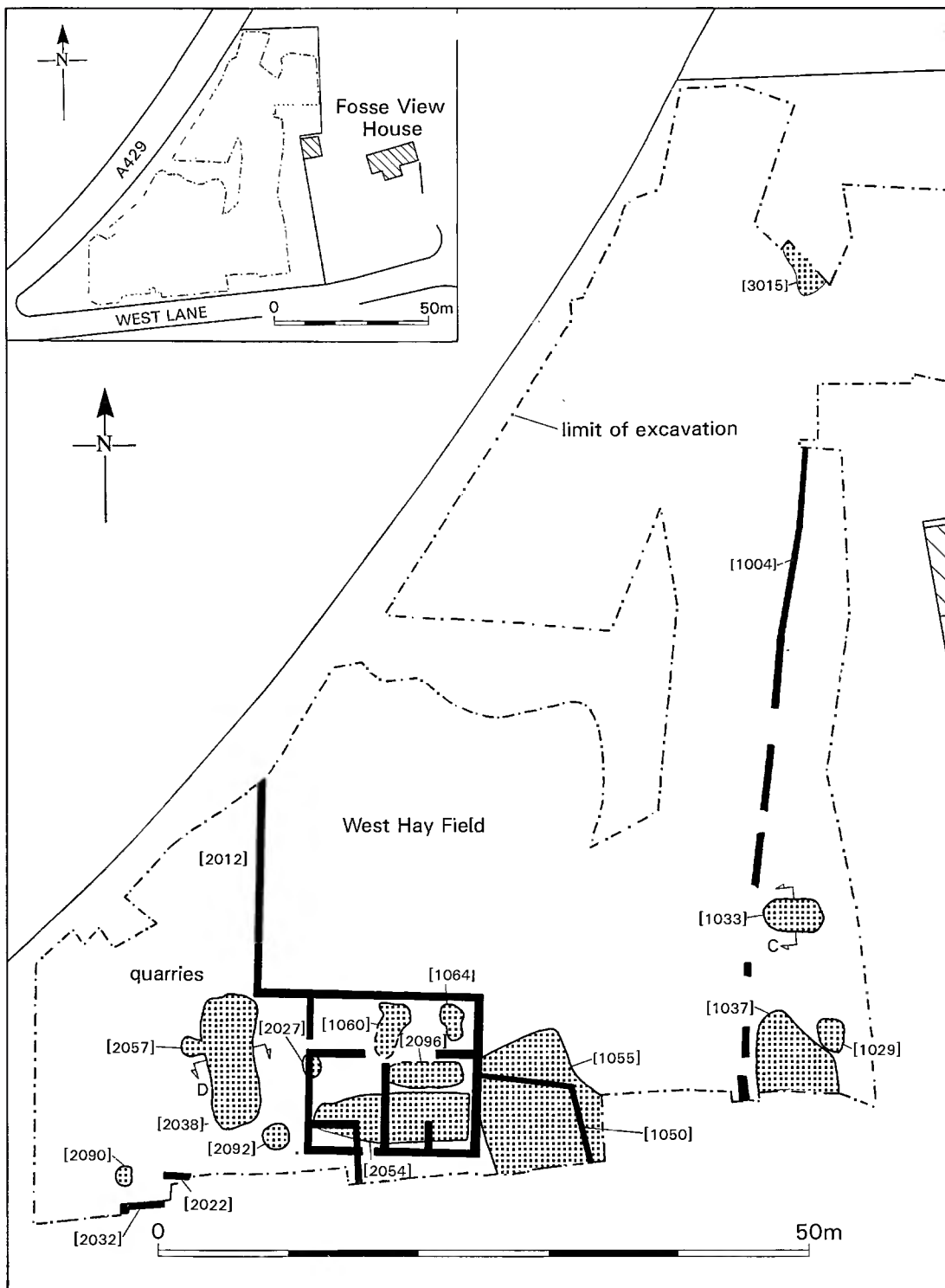


Fig. 8 Plan showing the medieval quarries and building.

The presence of the quarries within well-defined properties, as well as their variable size, suggested that they were opened over a number of years in response to factors of supply and demand ('subsistence quarrying') rather than that they represent contemporaneous small-scale workings in multiple ownership.

The Building

A rectangular structure delineated by four major walls [2007, 2019, 2041, 2078], with approximate overall dimensions of 8.5 by 14 m, was uncovered during the excavations (Figs. 8–9). It has been provisionally interpreted as a building with an integral yard area although, as such, it presents a unique arrangement not paralleled elsewhere. An internal cross wall [2039] divided the area into two main 'rooms' (B and C), with a small annex (D) subdivided off in the south-west corner of Room C. On the north side the structure had what is provisionally interpreted as a walled yard area (A), while an additional drystone wall [1052] formed a small enclosure abutting the east wall. The 'building' fronted West Lane.

The walls of the structure were built in an area which had been stripped down to the underlying brash during the quarrying phase (although this may have been extended when the house was built in order to provide a bed of hard rock). The structure was therefore effectively divorced from many of the surrounding stratigraphic relationships. It was built overlying five distinct quarry features [1060, 1064, 2027, 2054, 2096] and partly overlaid a sixth [1055]. Excavations at nearby Ewen (Reece 1990) have revealed a similar situation with a house built over a quarry. The quarrying at Kemble had resulted in slight terracing of the hillside so that the internal surfaces in the 'front' of the house were slightly below the level of the external ground surface. There did not appear to be any deliberate attempt to create an undercroft or cellar, and the rest of the building roughly followed the sloping profile of the land. Nonetheless, the south-eastern corner of Room B originally lay 0.5 m below the external ground surface, although this depression was later levelled out with a dump of silty clay.

For the most part the walls of the building were constructed on surviving strips of natural limestone (2004) avoiding the softer quarry fills. No attempt was made to cut what would have been superfluous foundation trenches. Waste material from quarry [2038], probably excavated for the construction of the building, was levelled off against the lower courses of the western wall. The material would have acted to keep the wall stable as well as to reduce frost damage and keep the interior dry. It is possible that similar material, less obviously quarry waste, was piled against the other walls of the building. If so, the material was not defined because it was essentially no different from stones and soil that would naturally accumulate outside the walls over time. A similar situation was seen in excavations at Upton near Blockley (Rahtz 1970).

The building's walls were of well-faced drystone construction and they were butt-jointed to one another; the junction of [2078] and [2005] had been destroyed prior to the excavations. In general the external walls were *c.* 1 m thick and in places they survived up to eleven courses high (0.6 m). They would have been sufficient to support stone walls up to eaves height, but it is also possible that they acted only as a flat base to support walls of cob or timber framing. The internal walls averaged 0.7 m in thickness. Wall [2005] extended westwards beyond the limits of the building proper to form a corner with the north-south field wall [2012].

The southern (front) and northern (rear) walls, [2041] and [2005], were constructed on the edge of slight shelves, formed when the area was originally stripped for quarrying. In consequence the inner faces of the walls survived to greater heights (up to seven courses) while the outer faces, built on a lip of surviving natural limestone and clay (2003), stood only two–three courses high. In places the front wall had subsided slightly, slumping back into the softer fills of quarry [2054]. The main south–north access through the building was represented by a doorway [2107] bisecting the front wall and a paved corridor [2045]. Another doorway, [2105], originally passed from Room C through the western wall [2019] but appears to have later been blocked. An external doorway or entrance led into Area A on the north side of wall [2007].

Slightly east of doorway [2107], the old quarry edge had been cut back to form a recessed rectangle 2.4 m wide and 1.2 m deep. The face of the recess was lined with stone to construct a sub-oval area, [2088] (Fig. 10), built into the exterior face of the front wall.

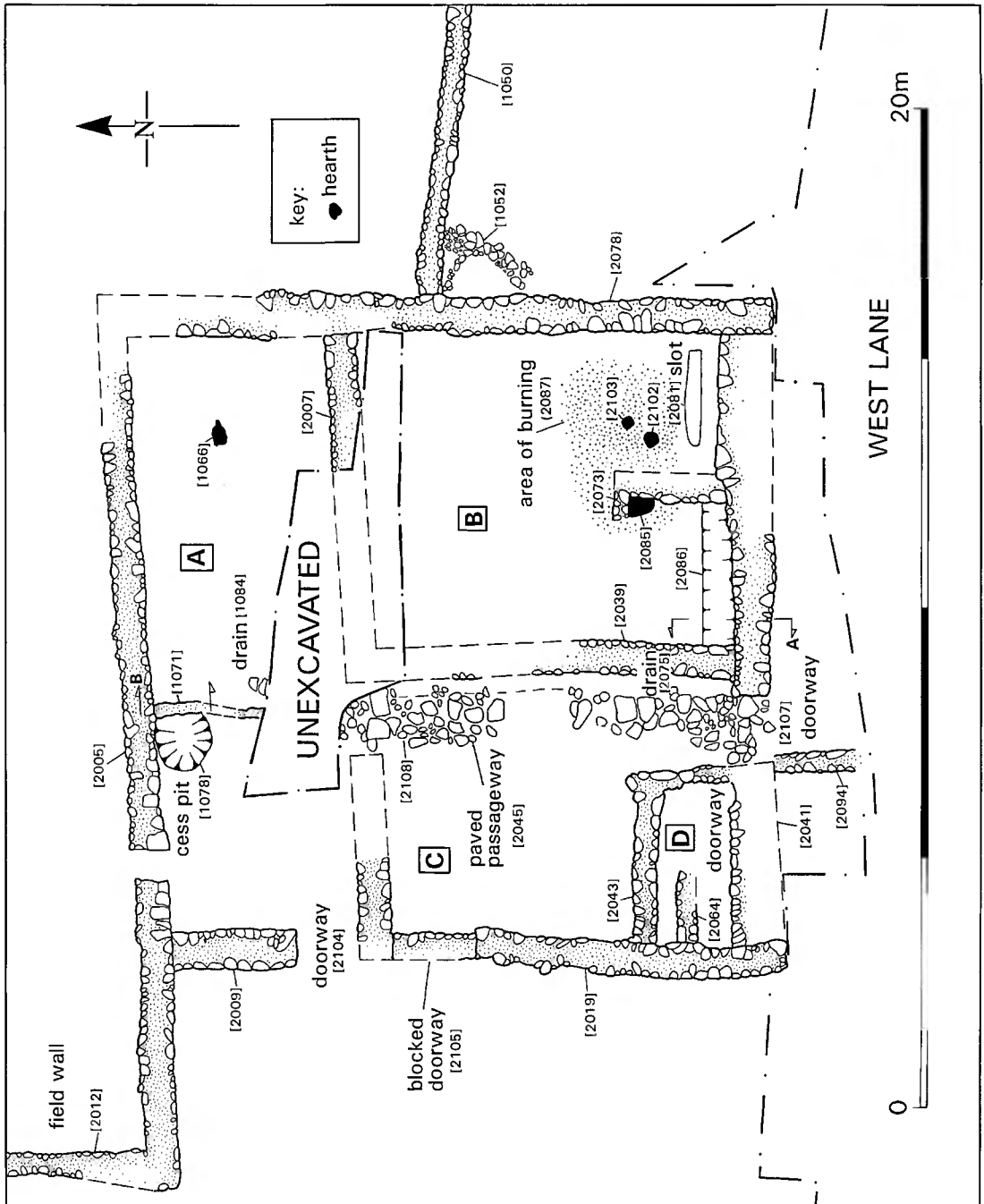


Fig. 9 Plan of the medieval building.

A relatively insubstantial section of walling, [2094] *c.* 0.4 m thick, ran southwards from the external face of the front wall to the edge of the excavated area. That section would have abutted the front of the building at the west edge of doorway [2107]. Being only approximately half as thick as the walls forming the building, it may represent the foundations of a flimsier structure, such as a porch, on the front of the building proper.

Internal Features

Room B. A shallow slot, [2081], 1.89 m long by 0.3 m wide was uncovered running parallel to wall [2041] in the south-east corner of the area. It appeared to be associated with a widespread patch of burning (2087) containing three hearths set immediately over the fill of quarry [2054]. Hearths [2012] and [2013] consisted of burnt stone slabs laid flat on the ground. Hearth [2085] consisted of a bowl-shaped depression, *c.* 1 m in diameter and 0.25 m in depth, lined with burnt stone and clay; no burnt or ashy material was contained within the hearth which was later packed with pitched-stone slabs. A small section of insubstantial walling, [2073] forming a further internal division, was subsequently constructed overlying part of the burnt area and the infilled hearth.

The area between wall [2073] and external wall [2078] was thereafter levelled with a homogenous dump of grey, silty clay (2074). The layer was 0.4 m deep against the east wall [2078], grading out altogether by [2073]. The dump sealed both the slot and the area of burning and represented a levelling of the internal floor to that of the external ground surface. A 0.2-m deep slab-lined trough, [2086], blocked at either end, was located against the interior of the south wall [2041] between walls [2073] and [2039]. It contained a silty fill identical to that recovered from the drain channels, suggesting that it may have been used to hold water.

Room C. The earliest feature in the 'room' was a shallow north-south drain, [2075], cut into the top of quarry [2054] between internal wall [2039] and the paved passageway [2045]. The drain was edged on the west side with fragments of limestone while the east side was formed by the wall stones themselves; it contained a thin layer of silty material. A connection between the drain and a drain in Area A, [1084], was not established.

The small slabs forming the edge of drain [2075] were sealed beneath a thin layer of gravel laid as bedding material for the large slabs forming the paved corridor [2045]. The large slabs consisted of irregular flat limestone tiles up to 0.5 m square and were laid to create a passageway *c.* 1.5 m wide. The floor comprised flat bedded limestone (1004) and levelled quarry fill (2055).

Room D. The western half of this small area was divided by a short section of wall, [2064].

External Features

Area A. Two distinct entrances into the yard were located. One provided access by way of the main corridor from Room C, the other direct access from the outside through doorway [2014] to the west. A compacted brown loamy clay containing small quantities of pottery and animal bone was present in the eastern and central parts. A sub-circular arrangement of burnt slabs of limestone set into the top of an earlier quarry, [1064], formed the base to a hearth, [1066].

Other features included a slab-lined drain, [1084], sloping away to the north and a sub-circular pit, [1078] (Fig. 10), cut into the top of quarry [1060] and bordered to the east by a narrow (0.2-m thick) section of walling, [1071]. The pit contained a grey-green silty fill with quantities of domestic debris, including three semi-complete medieval pots (Fig. 12, 19 and 21-2), indicating that it was probably a cess pit. Wall [1071] appeared to represent the remains of an internal partition or may have been part of a housing for the pit.

To the east of the building a length of drystone wall, [1050], formed an enclosure covering an area *c.* 65 m² and abutting the exterior of wall [2078]. There were no obvious entrances into the enclosure, suggesting that it opened onto West Lane. In the north-west corner of the enclosure a semi-circular arrangement of laid stones, [1052], may have been the remains of a feeder or trough.

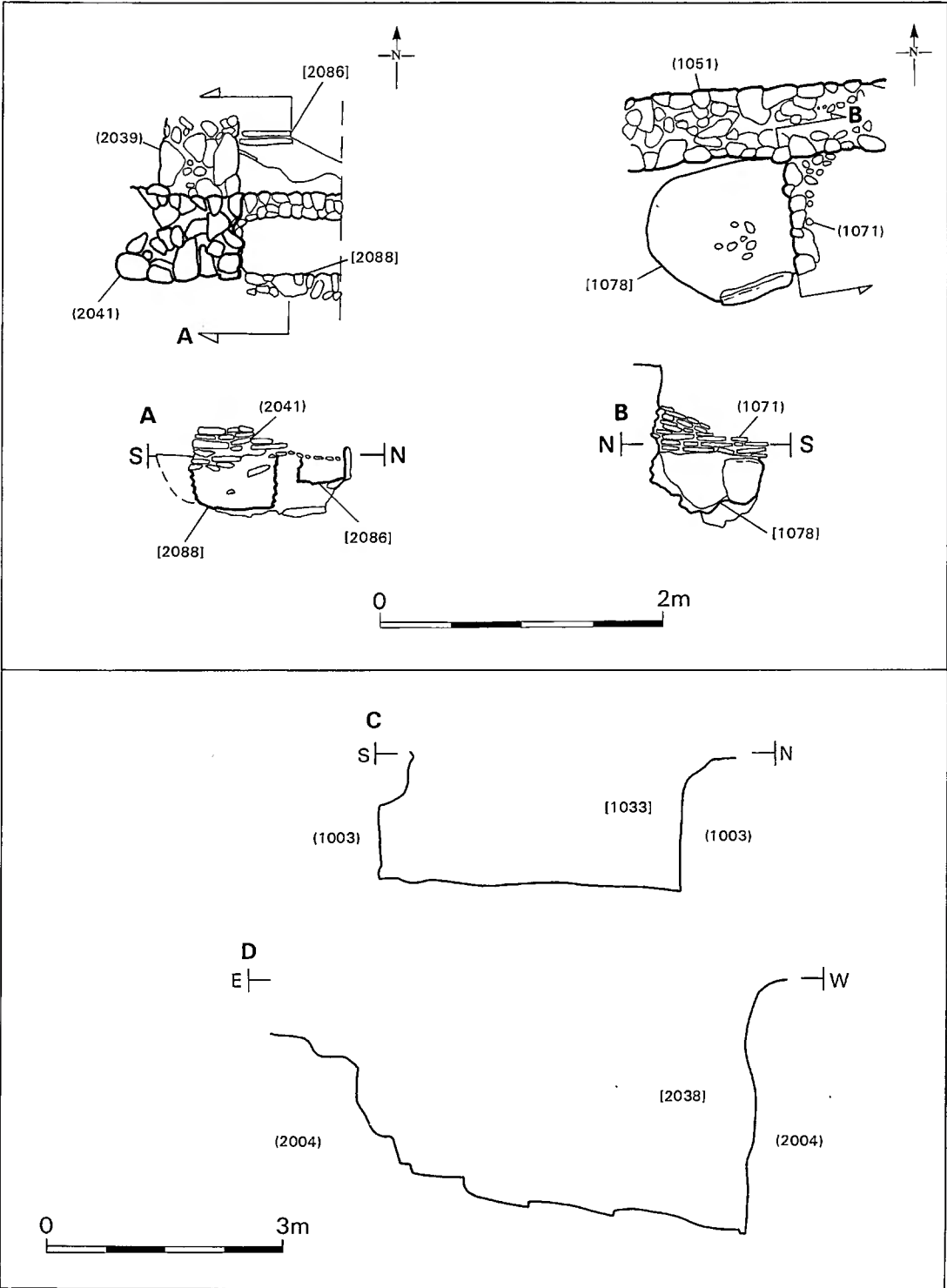


Fig. 10 Details of features associated with the building (top); profiles of stone quarries (bottom).

Two additional sections of drystone walling, [2022, 2032], were located *c.* 10 m west of the building, close to the modern road (Fig. 8). Wall [2032], which was partially buttressed, probably originally belonged to a specific structure. The walls had been cut through the subsoil to sit onto the top of the degraded brash (2003) and the interior filled with rubble. Too little of this structure survived to identify its purpose but its substantial build might indicate a loading platform or something similar.

Discussion

Provisionally the building plan suggests a classic two-roomed unit with a cross passage (Brunskill 1978, 105) and the associated finds a date of the 13th–14th century. Whilst most medieval buildings were of wood, there were many stone buildings in the Cotswolds (e.g. at Upton and Ewen) where appropriate building materials were readily to hand. In most cases the stone walls were likely to represent foundations for the walls of cruck-built houses with timber framing infilled with wattle and daub, the foundations providing a level base for horizontal sill beams into which the crucks were set (Dyer 1986).

Although no evidence of crucks or timber framing survived to indicate how the building was roofed, the foundations were clearly sufficient to support stone walls to eaves height and could have supported a two-storeyed structure. Substantial quantities of limestone demolition debris overlying the building and the surrounding area might have come from the stone walls; more demolition debris may have been removed for re-use in the village. If the building was two-storeyed a stairway may well have existed at Room D. Alternatively the ‘room’ may have been a pantry divided from a living area.

No identifiable stone roof-tiles were found on the site nor was there any evidence for their fabrication. It was common practice to make roof-tiles on-site, thereby leaving a very distinctive debris, but there was no trace of any such activity. It is inferred, therefore, that if the building was originally roofed it had a thatch, turf, or wooden shingle covering. Some reservations have been expressed as to whether the structure was in fact ever roofed due to its width (personal communication C. Dyer). Indeed it has to be acknowledged that the structure is very unusual. A key to possible function may be provided by deposits of slags from the quarry fills immediately outside and by the presence of the hearths and structure [2073] in Room B. Analysis of the slag (see below) has indicated blacksmithing activity in the vicinity. The arrangement of the projecting structure [2073] behind hearth [2085] is one commonly found in examples of later medieval smithies with a raised hearth (personal communication C. Salter). The adjacent trough would have contained water for quenching or other related purposes. Although the structure has the features of a smithy, the apparent lack of industrial debris such as charcoal and hammer-scale is difficult to explain; there were also no tools or other specialist equipment. One possibility is that the floors were originally flagged and that most of the evidence has been lost. Alternatively, the building may relate to a different activity, perhaps in connection with the stone quarries, and there was a smithy nearby. Other evidence, for example the lack of a central hearth, suggests that the building was not a standard cottage. There was no evidence for any flooring other than the flagged passageway. The recess [2088] built into wall [2041] may have been used as a fuel store or alternatively as a cold store or larder. Finally the location of the building on the very edge of the village may also indicate a specialist function.

The accumulation of occupation deposits in the yard area indicates that the building was also used for habitation. That the hearths in Room B were sealed with a levelling dump of clay suggests that it could have been subsequently used for a different purpose that has left no archaeological evidence. The number of small domestic items along with the considerable quantity of pottery would also indicate some level of domestic occupation.

Possible comparable structures have been excavated at Godmanchester, Cambridgeshire, where two 13th-century buildings with gravel floors and cobble footings for cob walls were found. One building measuring 4.8 by 9.6 m had two rooms, the front one of which had been a blacksmith's shop. At the rear were the remains of four shaft furnaces for smelting iron (Webster and Cherry 1975, 260, fig. 96). Excavations at the deserted medieval settlement at Burton Dassett, Warwickshire, occupied between the 13th and 15th centuries, have also revealed a blacksmithy. It measured 12.2 by 5.5 m and appeared to contain the smith's living quarters as well as his forge (Gaimster and others 1989, 215, fig. 3).

In conclusion the medieval 'building' at Kemble appears to have been used for some specialist activity. The structure is compatible with a smithy, although there is little supporting evidence in terms of internal deposits that might be expected with such activity. The second 'room' (C) could have been either a shop area or living quarters. The moderately small amount of smithing debris found, and the absence of artefacts, suggests either that this activity was relatively short lived or that waste material was disposed of beyond the excavated area.

METAL WORKING DEBRIS by Chris Salter

The total weight of material examined was 7.29 kg (144 fragments) of which 7.2 kg (130 fragments) were likely to have been directly related to blacksmithing activity. Most of the material recovered was in the form of small to moderate sized smithing hearth bottoms. Of the 130 slag fragments, 63 (weighing 6.52 kg) were of hearth bottoms (types SD-3, SD-4) or fragments from that type of material. There were very few examples of the lower-density slags formed by reaction of the slag and fuel with the hearth lining. Only one flake of hammer-scale attached to a smithing hearth bottom and a minimal amount of hearth lining were observed. Such an assemblage is typical of iron-working debris found in secondary or derived deposits, with only the larger, more robust slag surviving. That sort of slag would have been generated, in the main, during hammer welding. The material generated by lower-temperature forging operations has not survived on this site. Even so the slag recovered indicates that the forge must have been used at least several times. As charcoal was the main fuel used it is likely that normally the smith would have only cleaned the slag out of the hearth each time he set the fire in it. Thus, by counting the more or less complete hearth bottoms it would seem that the smithy had been used at least 28 times.

However, occasionally it may often have been necessary to clean the hearth more than once a day. That would be the case if a dirty fuel such as coal was used, which was not the case here, or if the work piece was lost in the fire. The evidence from the slag would seem to indicate that such a loss happened on at least three occasions. There were three pieces of iron which had been slagged to various degrees. One example was of a type, commonly found on archaeological sites, in which the form of the original piece could no longer be recognised due to the oxidisation and slagging of the metal in the hearth. These reactions occur very rapidly at welding temperatures. The two other pieces of iron retained their form. One, a curving rectangular-sectioned bar, had only a thin coat of glassy slag over the surface and probably had simply become stuck on the tacky hearth lining around the tuyère (the hottest part of the hearth). The other was more unusual in that, although it was enclosed within the slag of a small smithing hearth bottom (quarry [1033]), it still retained its strip form with very little sign of internal oxidisation.

THE MEDIEVAL POTTERY by Jane Timby

The pottery from the stratified contexts amounted to some 21.6 kg by weight, approximately 1628 sherds. As a group the assemblage was remarkably uniform typologically and very limited in the range of wares present. Oolitic limestone-tempered wares, mainly Minety types (Gloucester TF 44) but including Cirencester ware, accounted for 97% by weight. Other recognisable wares present included Bath fabric A (Gloucester TF 48) (Vince 1984, 262), Newbury fabrics A (Oxford code OXBF) and B (OXAQ), Worcester glazed jug, Oxford early Medieval ware (OXAC), Laverstock coarseware, Brill-Boarstall ware

(OXAM), and four glazed whiteware fabrics, sources unknown but possibly from the Warwickshire/Coventry area or from south-east Wiltshire (personal communication K. Keevil).

Quarries. Most of the recorded pottery was recovered from the quarries. Quarry [1060], stratigraphically one of the earlier cuts, contained a small group of oolitic limestone-tempered wares including a cooking pot with an internally glazed rim (Fig. 11, 1). The form is likely to date to the later 12th–13th centuries. The five quarries directly below the later building, [1064, 1067, 2054, 2057 and 2096], collectively produced 2574 gms. (351 sherds). That material predominantly comprised Minety/Minety type wares (including Cirencester ware) and only four other fabrics were represented, Bath fabric A, Newbury fabric A, a quartz sand and limestone-tempered ware from [1064] and [1067] and a low iron-content glazed ware from [2054]. All the quarries contained a mixture of plain and glazed sherds and both handmade and wheelthrown vessels. Cooking pots were dominant but a sherd with a foot from a tripod pitcher was recovered from [2054], a number of sherds with applied thumbled strips from [2057] and [2054] and two sherds from a glazed pitcher/jug with combed decoration from [1067]. A cooking-pot rimsherd in Bath fabric A from quarry [1064] and another from context (1069), quarry [1067], are possibly contemporary.

Small assemblages of pottery were also recovered from quarries [1029], [1033], [1037] and [1055]. Quarry [1029] contained several cooking pots with internally glazed rims and the thumbled base of a jug. Thumb-pressed bases are generally regarded as coming into use in the early 13th and 14th centuries. Quarry [1033] similarly contained several cooking pots and a single sherd of Bath A. A similar picture is shown by quarry [1037] with single sherds of Bath A and a sand and limestone-tempered ware. Quarry [1055] shows a slightly greater range of fabrics with quartz sand and limestone ware, glazed Worcester jug and glazed whiteware. The Minety wares include a slashed strap handle from a pitcher. The glazed wares may suggest a 13th- or 14th-century date for the fills of this feature.

Quarry [2038] located to the west of the building produced one of the larger assemblages of domestic pottery possibly contemporary with the occupation of the house. In total 8.55 kg of pottery were recovered, 543 sherds accounting for 40% of the recorded assemblage by weight. Again Minety wares were dominant (99%) but sherds of sand and limestone-tempered ware, a green glazed grey sandy ware, a green glazed cream ware and Newbury fabric B were present. Vessels included glazed spouted pitchers (Fig. 11, 6–7; Fig. 12, 14), tripod pitcher bases and a variety of cooking pots (Figs. 11 and 12, 8–16). In common with the Minety tradition many of the cooking pots had a thin green glaze on the inner rim surface and on the interior of the base. One vessel (Fig. 11, 11), substantially complete, was decorated with a single, applied strip placed around the girth. Similar vessels from Whittington Court were dated to the mid 13th century (Jope 1952).

The Building. Several of the features associated with the building also produced assemblages of pottery. Of particular note is that from the cess pit [1078] which contained several semi-complete vessels (Fig. 12, 19–27). Cooking pots were well represented including a typical squat ‘West Country’ type with an acute angled base. At Whittington Court the type is dated to the later 11th and early 12th century (Jope 1952), although the form continues to occur into the 13th (Musty and others 1969). A thumbled pitcher base and other cooking vessels with out-turned ‘moulded’ rims from the same feature are more typical of the 13th century.

Additional sherds were recovered from the wall matrix of the building (2039). Amongst the featured sherds was a pitcher with an applied band around the upper neck. Identical vessels at Ewen (Redknap 1990, fig. 6.14, 108, 109) dated to the 13th century.

The drain [2075] and the dump of green clay in the building (2074) produced a similar picture, the only variation being the presence of a rimsherd from a cooking pot in Laverstock coarseware fabric from the former and a green glazed jug base from the latter.

A single sherd of Brill-Boarstall pitcher with roller stamping, red paint and glaze was found in the wall matrix (2041) dating to the 13th–14th century. Several sherds from a Bath A cooking pot (Fig. 12, 28) were recovered from layers (1063) and (1061) and a residual sherd from a Newbury B cooking pot (Fig. 12, 29) from (1061). Amongst material from the subsoil (1001) was a cooking pot with slashes on the internal rim face (Fig. 12, 30) and a pitcher (Fig. 12, 31).

Dating. Unfortunately there are few well-dated published assemblages from the area with which to compare the Kemble assemblage. One exception is the material published from the nearby settlement at Ewen where a similar sequence of quarrying followed by settlement was encountered (Reece 1990). In that case however, stone extraction appears to be considerably earlier with the pottery coming from fills dated to the 11th and later 12th centuries. It is reflected in the character of the assemblage where Bath fabric A forms the major component and glazed wares are completely absent. In Phase 3 (building) at Ewen, dated to the later 13th century by a penny of Edward I (Redknapp 1990, 86), there is a complete change and the assemblage is almost entirely composed of partially glazed Minety ware with some Brill-Boarstall ware. It is this material that shows the greatest affinity with Kemble.

A similar change can be seen at other sites in the vicinity during the 13th century. Minety ware displaced Newbury A as the main cooking pot fabric at sites around Swindon (King forthcoming) and 'Cirencester ware' in Cirencester itself.

The scarcity of Bath A, Newbury A or Cirencester ware, combined with the almost complete absence of clubbed rim cooking pots, would imply little activity at Kemble before the late 12th century. Small quantities of the three earlier wares, as well as early Minety rim-forms (Fig. 12, 28–29), are present in many of the features, but may be considered to be residual.

The pottery recovered from the quarries will have been deposited both through the disposal of contemporary domestic waste and the utilisation of pre-existing accumulations of waste material, whence the earlier pottery may have originated. The presence of 13th-century pottery in the primary fills of the quarries, combined with the general absence of developed turf-lines, indicates that the quarries were filled very soon after they went out of use and that any earlier material may be considered to be residual.

No evidence for the expanded range of forms produced by the Minety kilns during the late 14th and 15th centuries was present at Kemble. As at Ewen, the site appears to have gone out of use before the end of the 14th century.

Catalogue of Illustrated Sherds (Figs. 11–12). Minety ware unless stated otherwise.

1. Cooking pot with glaze on internal rim. (1059) [1060].
2. Handmade cooking pot, unglazed. (1065) [1064].
3. Rectangular section pitcher/jug handle. (1056) [1055].
4. Handmade cooking pot, unglazed. (1038) [1037].
5. Cooking pot, unglazed. (2024) [2054].
6. Spouted pitcher, decorated with combed wavy lines. (2021) [2038].
7. Handed pitcher with rouletting on upper rim surface. (2021) [2038].
- 8–10. Cooking pots, glazed. (2021) [2038].
11. Large cooking pot with glaze on rim and base. Applied girth strip. (2021) [2038].
12. Cooking pot in a grey oolitic tempered ware (= Cirencester ware). (2021) [2038].
13. Cooking pot, glazed. (2021) [2038].
14. Unglazed pitcher/jug with diagonal slashes around the rim. (2021) [2038].
15. Handmade cooking pot, glazed. (2037) [2038].
16. Wheel-turned cooking pot, glazed. (2037) [2038].
17. Pitcher with applied thumbled band. Patchy external green glaze. (2065) [2070].
18. Cooking pot with glaze on internal rim. (2065) [2070].
19. 'Cotswold type' cooking pot, slightly damaged rim. Small post-firing hole in wall and an incompletely executed hole, subsequently patched, made prior to firing. (1075) [1078].
20. Cooking pot with glaze on internal rim. (1075) [1078].
21. Handmade/slow wheelmade squat cooking pot. Glaze on internal rim. (1075) [1078].
22. Slow wheelmade cooking pot, glaze on rim and base interior. (1075) [1078].
23. Handmade bowl with incised diagonal lines and a patchy green glaze on the exterior. (1077) [1078].
24. Handmade/wheel-finished cooking pot, unglazed. (1077) [1078].
25. Handmade/wheel-finished cooking pot. Internal rim glaze. (1077) [1078].

26. Handmade cooking pot with wheel-turned rim. The inner rim face is glazed and the exterior shows combing and patchy glaze. (1075) [1078].
27. Cooking pot with glaze on the rim. (1077) [1078].
28. Wheelmade cooking pot in Bath fabric A. (1061) and (1063).
29. Unglazed cooking pot in Newbury fabric B. (1061).
30. Unglazed cooking pot with traces of slashing on the internal rim face. (1001).
31. Pitcher and thumbled strip around neck and strap handle. External green glaze. (1001).

MEDIEVAL AND LATER SMALL FINDS by Linda Viner

A total of 28 objects (excluding iron nails) were assessed from stratified contexts. Thirteen objects were of copper alloy, nine of iron, two of lead, and two of stone. A coin issued in the reign of James I (?1609) and a token of William Constable of Cirencester (1669) provided the only numismatic evidence recovered from the subsoil and most probably represented casual loss on the site.

Numerically the assemblage is small, and it lacks objects of bone, glass and fired clay. Over 57% of the collection is derived from quarry levels, with a predominance of iron and lead fragments lacking diagnostic clues as to function. Within the collection as a whole, articles of dress (nos. 2, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 11) are notable and are represented in all phases. They include elements from strap ends, strap clasps, rings and buckles. Domestic items include objects such as the copper-alloy knife hilt-plate (no. 10), an iron knife (no. 5) and a possible tap or spigot (no. 4). Functionally recognisable iron objects indicative of processing or manufacturing are poorly represented in contrast to finds recovered at Ewen, which included a razor, shears, knife and scissors (Reece 1990, 87–8). The iron objects which do survive suggest a domestic situation, a view enhanced when the copper-alloy strips and bindings sheets are considered.

Catalogue of Identifiable Items (Fig. 13; a full catalogue can be found in the archive)

Quarries

1. Whetstone (not illustrated). Sandstone, macroscopic identification. Rectangular slab, one end fractured, the other squared-off with bevelled edges. Two transverse grooves on one long edge. Surviving length 42 mm, rectangular section 28 by 22 mm. (1029) [1030].
2. Forked spacer frame from a composite strap end in copper alloy and with an acorn and collared knob at its terminal (Fig. 13, 1). One small hole piercing plate for fixing. Length 35 mm, maximum width 12 mm. Cf. Egan and Pritchard (1991, 143, fig. 94, 682) for an example recovered during a watching brief at Billingsgate Lorry Park, London (unphased, but ceramic group (11) is dated c. 1350–1400). (1035) [1033].
3. Iron rotary key (Fig. 13, 2). Solid-stemmed with simple circular head and stop-ridge below handle. The bit is solid with two short projections. Length 105 mm. (2055) [2054].
4. ?Part of outlet for a tap (or cock), of rectangular section (Fig. 13, 3). Copper alloy. Surviving length 20 mm. (Cf. Crummy 1988, fig. 44, from post-medieval context.) A tap of similar form was found at Exeter (Goodall 1984, fig. 193, 180). (2055) [2054].
5. ?Knife (not illustrated). Iron strip, length 54 mm, maximum width 13 mm. Corroded surfaces, but section appears to be 'V'-shaped, suggestive of blade, with curved back, and rounded tip extended to 2-mm² section. (2055) [2054].
6. Angled buckle loop with simple oval frame (Fig. 13, 4). Copper-alloy plate with gilding on one face. Half-moon with small tags extending from ends, and two chased lines roughly parallel to the edges. Length 35 mm, maximum width 13 mm. Cf. Egan and Pritchard (1991, 68, fig. 41, 264) for general form. There are few dated examples, but a similar piece from Winchester from a 14th–15th century context is probably residual (Hinton 1990, 519, fig. 131, 1175). As a type they may be late 12th or 13th century. (2055) [2054].
7. Sheet metal strap end, formed from rectangular sheet of copper alloy folded in half to secure organic material, with three small rivets spaced along one long edge (Fig. 13, 5). Length 46 mm,

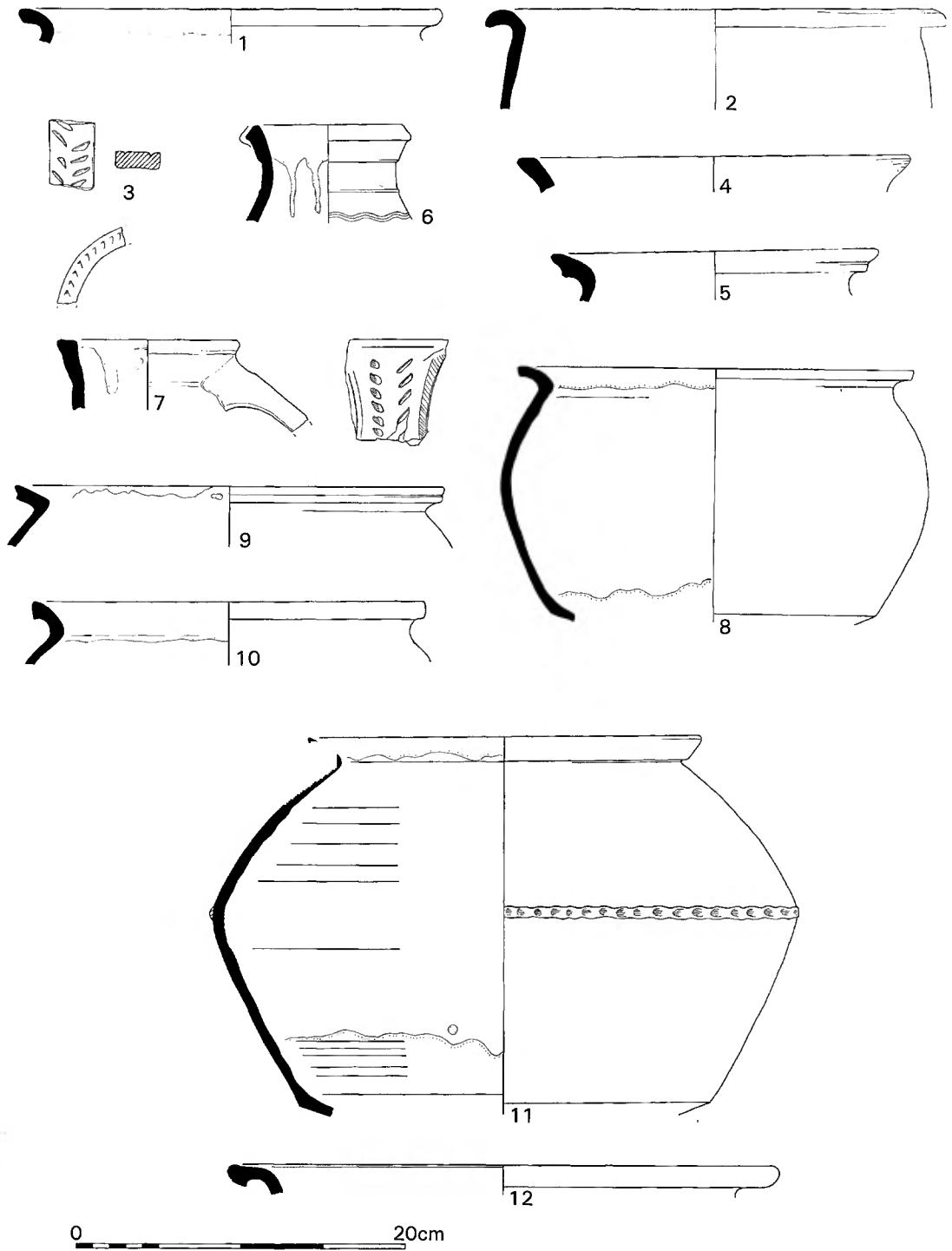


Fig. 11 Medieval pottery nos. 1-12.

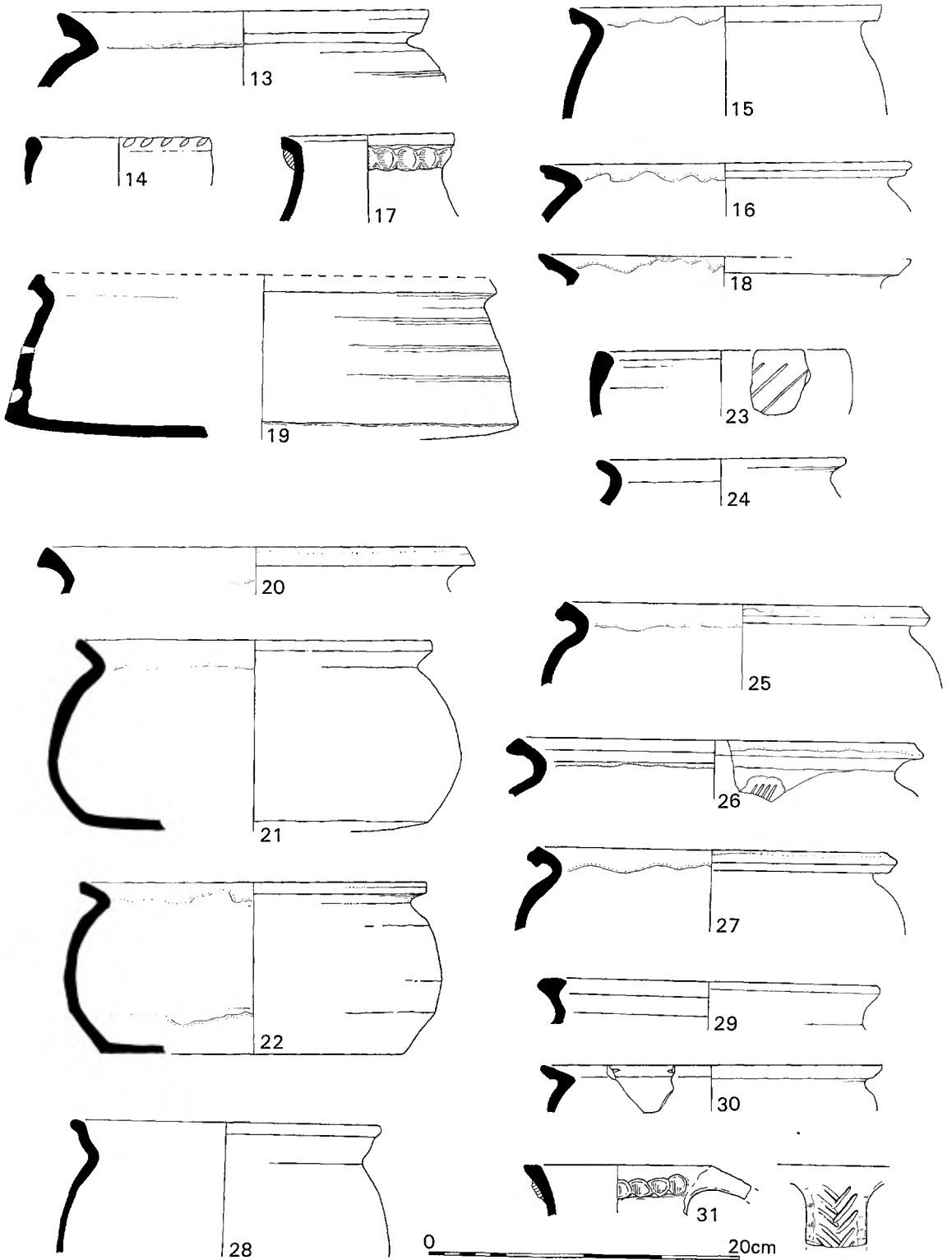


Fig. 12 Medieval pottery nos. 13-31.

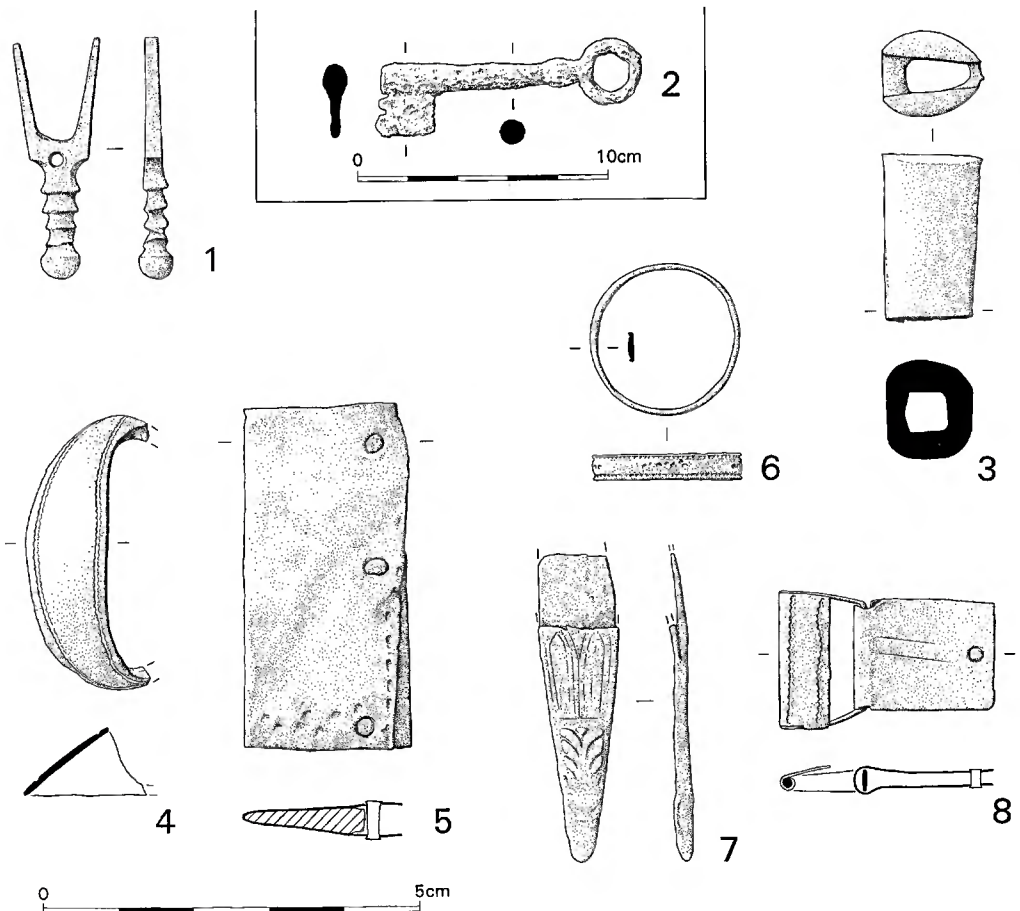


Fig. 13 Medieval and later small finds.

width 22 mm. Compared to earlier medieval belt fittings, this is much 'higher' in proportion to its 'width', a characteristic of late 15th-century belt fittings. Earlier ones also tend to be cast, rather than cut from sheet metal as is this one. It is unusually plain, except for the faint punched decoration, but the shape and the three rivets would suggest it is one of the later type. It can be compared with the collection of unfinished belt fittings from Blossom's Inn, London (Goodall 1981). (2037) [2038].

8. Finger ring of copper alloy (Fig. 13, 6). Flat band, of simple hoop, with rectangular section, external diameter 20 mm, section 4 by 1 mm. Outer face decorated with four? groups of punched dots, between incised lines. (1056) [1055].

Occupation of the building

9. Split butt strap end (Fig. 13, 7). Tapering strip of copper alloy with one rounded end, the other is fractured and split. Length 40 mm, maximum width 11 mm, thickness 2 mm. There are

indications of linear decoration above a stylised ?floral motif, with traces of the usual faceted animal head at the tip. As a type such strap ends are common from the 9th through to the 11th century. Some may be 12th or even early 13th century, e.g. one from Southampton is dated to the 13th century, probably before 1250 (Harvey 1975, 254, fig. 240, 1712). The form changes from short and rounded (9th century) to a narrower, more tapered outline, as at West Lane, in the 10th century, with much simpler decoration. (2076) [2075] drain.

10. Knife hilt-plate (not illustrated). Copper-alloy sheet metal with irregular oval outline, angular cut edges and quadrilateral hole punched through. Length 14 mm, width 10 mm, thickness 0.5 mm. Six mounts of similar form are described by Biddle as knife hilt-plates (1990, 860–1, fig. 259, 2862–7). The flat, heater-shaped plates, pierced by a rectangular slot for the tang of the knife to pass through, are usually used in whittle-tang knives. Contexts for the Winchester examples range in date from mid–late 10th century to the 19th century, with three examples recovered from late 12th–13th century levels. A parallel can be quoted from Southampton, described as a disc or mount, from a context dated 1125–50 (Harvey 1975, 254, fig. 240, 1703). (2074) clay dump in building.

Destruction deposits from building

11. Folding strap clasp, comprising a plate, frame and folding end (Fig. 13, 8). Strap 13 × 19 mm, buckle bar 18 mm in length, with decoration comprising two chased lines on the hinged plate and a ?double line on the strap end plate. Similar items are known from contexts dating from the late 13th/early 14th to the early 15th century in London (Egan and Pritchard 1991, 116–20, fig. 78, 566 for closest parallel). [5001].
12. Latch rest (not illustrated). Triangular flat plate, with short length of arm of rectangular section 10 × 5 mm. Surviving length 70 mm, maximum width 21 mm. A similar example from Winchester was recovered from a context dated to the 13th–14th century (Goodall 1990, 347, fig. 86, 694). As a functional object, the date range for such door furniture extends to the 20th century. (2015) tumble (building).

Unknown – destruction or occupation

13. Whetstone (not illustrated). Macroscopic identification would suggest schist, most probably Norwegian Ragstone, often called Light Grey Schist. Tapering bar, both ends broken, well-smoothed surfaces. Length 100 mm, maximum width 25 mm. Examples from Winchester occur in contexts ranging in date from the 9th to the 20th centuries, although examples in northern and eastern England are predominantly 10th and 11th (Ellis and Moore 1990, 279–92). [5004].

Subsoil

14. Coin (not illustrated). Copper alloy, well worn: Britannia, ?1609. Half penny? 1992/509 Tr 5 (502).
15. Token (not illustrated). Copper alloy, eight-sided: William Constable, Cirencester; His Halfe Penny, 1669. (1001).

Addendum

Subsequent archaeological observations at Fosse View House, following a resumption of groundworks, have led to the identification of a linear enclosure-ditch dating to the earlier Romano-British period (Fig. 3). The rock-cut feature ran on a N–S alignment, had an upper ‘V’-shaped profile and narrowed from a width of 3 m at the top to near vertical sides, 0.9 m apart, and a flat base (Fig. 14). A homogenous fill of stony clay-loam yielded a small quantity of abraded, wheelmade black-burnished pottery in Cirencester fabric 5 (Rigby 1982) dating to the

later 1st and early 2nd centuries A.D. The sherds may all derive from a single necked bowl. Several fragments of animal bone and a rim fragment from a Roman glass vessel were also found.

The identification of the enclosure ditch provides an important new strand of evidence, alluding to early Roman settlement in the vicinity of Kemble which might explain the presence of residual 1st–2nd-century A.D. pottery in several of the Romano-British grave fills. Whilst the focus of associated settlement remains unresolved the enclosure ditch suggests established occupation in proximity to the West Lane site in the early Roman period.

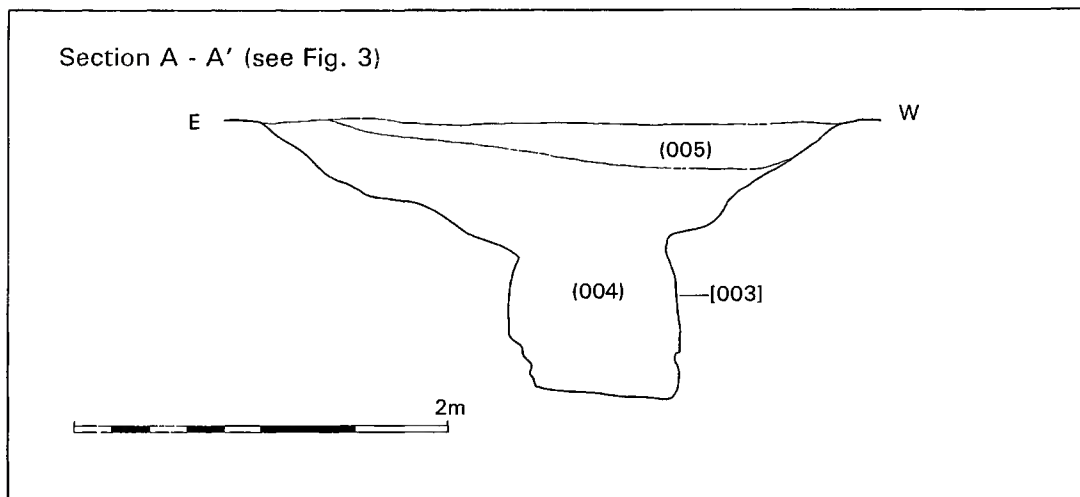


Fig. 14 Section A–A' across the early Roman ditch.

APPENDIX 1

General comments on the human bone by Terry Jackman

A total of 24 individuals have been identified along with fragments from unstratified contexts. The skeletal remains vary in completeness. Seven are almost complete, five have half the skeleton present and twelve have less than half or are very incomplete. Preservation of each skeleton varied from fragmented and eroded to fairly good with some complete long bones.

Fewer children than adults are represented in the group. In the case of the Roman burials, that probably owes more to burial rite than to soil conditions (Watts 1989; Cox 1990). There are three children (Burials 10, 18, and 19) aged between 7 and 11 years and an infant aged between 12 and 24 months. Of the three adolescents, Burial 4 can be aged between 11 and 17 years but the others can only be described as adolescent. For the adults, broad age bands are given and the general impression of age has been gained from the wear of the molars, suture closure, epiphyseal fusion and the degree of osteoarthritis present. Two are young adults, eleven are adult and three are older adults. The remainder are unknown.

Only eight of the individuals can be sexed positively. This is due to a variety of factors such as borderline characteristics, incomplete skeletons or in the case of seven individuals, the immaturity of the skeleton. Five are male, three are possible males, three are female, and six are of indeterminate sex.

Six skeletons had complete long bones from which stature could be calculated. Burial 15, the tallest male, measures 1.72 m followed by Burial 9 at 1.69 m and Burial 22, a possible male, at 1.64 m. Burial 5, the tallest female, is 1.6 m followed by Burial 6 at 1.58 m. Burial 12 at 1.55 m is the shortest.

Preservation of those teeth that were found is generally good. Seventeen individuals, twelve of them adult, had teeth recovered either in the jaw or in association with the burial. Only 270 teeth (43.4%) of a possible 622 were found. Five teeth were found to be carious, three of them coming together with evidence of an abscess from Burial 14. Incidence of calculus (tartar) and periodontal disease occur together in moderation.

Seven burials showed variations in non-metrical traits. Such traits are slight modifications to the normal on specific parts of the skeleton and some are thought to be hereditary. Burial 5 has retained into adulthood the medio-frontal suture known as metopism, a condition which would normally disappear within the first two years of life. Burial 17 has a septal aperture present in the left humerus and Burial 13 a small notch in the supero-lateral angle of the left patella, known as the vastus notch. None of these conditions would have been apparent in life.

Twelve burials show evidence of pathological lesions, the most common being caused by osteoarthritis or degenerative joint disease. It is sometimes interpreted as a secondary response to trauma, but is predominantly age-related. It occurs in Burials 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 11 and 15. Burial 11 is an older adult male with osteophytes and lipping affecting the thoracic and lumbar vertebral bodies. Some also show light wedging of the bodies anteriorly. There is eburnation of the superior articular facets and inferior articular processes of T12 and L1. The left arm, the right ribs, the legs, and the right foot are all affected. Such changes of the vertebrae also occur in Burials 7, 2 and 15, all the skeletons being adults. Burial 7 exhibits lipping and osteophytes around the edges of the acetabulum of the left pelvic bone and eburnation of the scaphoid where it articulates with the radius at the wrist. Schmorl's nodes, small depressions in the inferior and superior surfaces of the vertebral bodies caused by herniation of the disc, are present in Burials 6, 14, 15, 17 and 22. Burial 14 had Schmorl's nodes present on T7-T11 and a wedged appearance of the posterior portion of the bodies on T8-L5.

There are two occurrences of trauma. Burial 5 has an area of callus on the shaft of the right fifth metacarpal, probably the result of a fracture which has healed but is not quite correctly aligned. In the case of Burial 15 there are changes in the left knee joint consisting of an oval-shaped depression in the joint surface of the medial condyle of the left femur. The depression measures *c.* 15.5 by 9.5 mm and is just under 4 mm deep. The surface shows partly worn cancellous bone with smooth, well pronounced margins. A similar, but slightly smaller defect also occurs in the joint surface of the lateral condyle of the left tibia. This is probably the result of a type of aseptic necrosis characterised by the formation of a small sequestrum consisting of articular cartilage and necrotic subchondral cancellous bone. The fragment becomes loose in the joint cavity. The subchondral osseous defect remains a depression on the bony articular surface and the condition is called osteochondritis dissecans. In 90% of cases it occurs in the knee joint and it is more common in males, occurring in adolescents and young adults.

APPENDIX 2

Dental analysis by Tim Wells

The dental remains were examined to see if there were any appreciable differences between the Roman and Saxon material in terms of tooth attrition and disease. Due to the fragmented nature of the material, a metrical analysis of the dental disease was rendered largely invalid. Oral hygiene was universally poor and no significant differences could be discerned between the Roman and the Saxon dental remains.

In the sample examined eight carious teeth (three more than are noted in Appendix 1) were identified and they displayed a total of nine cavities. All were mandibular teeth, seven of the lesions being in the interstitial areas. Of the total number of possible teeth the percentage, 2.7, displaying caries is low because where only *post mortem* sockets were found it is not known if the teeth were carious or not.

Periodontal disease (as opposed to supereruption) was defined by examining the alveolar bone around the teeth and the pattern of calculus deposition on them and by considering if opposing teeth were present. The analysis demonstrated that periodontal disease was virtually endemic, with generalised horizontal bone loss and calculus deposits worsening in line with occlusal attrition as the subject's

biological age increased. Notable specimens where abscess cavities were present were Burials 8 and 15. The overall abscess incidence as a percentage of the teeth examined was 3.1.

Attrition was widespread, reflecting the coarse nature of the diet. In one of the juvenile specimens the first permanent molars showed evidence of enamel facets even before the premolars had erupted. In Burial 8 attrition had breached the pulp chamber of some of the teeth and rendered them virtually unidentifiable. No evidence of congenital anomalies or hypoplasia of the teeth was found in the study.

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