Earlier Medieval Sites (410-1066) in and around Bristol and Bath, the South Cotswolds, and Mendip

Elizabeth Fowler and others

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The cover design incorporates a photograph of the Chapel of St. Laurence, Bradford-on-Avon, Wiltshire, from the north-west, by Anthony F. Kersting.

Bristol Archaeological Research Group

FIELD GUIDE No. 3A

Earlier Medieval Sites (410-1066) in and around Bristol and Bath, the South Cotswolds, and Mendip

by

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with contributions by
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and Leslie Grinsell

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PREFACE

This *Field Guide* follows the pattern of the others in the series by emphasizing things which can be seen, preferably at the sites but also in museums. This involves either omitting, or treating in minimal detail, important sites recently excavated which could not be left open for inspection, such as the Saxon minsters at Cirencester and Wells.

Throughout the text the term *sub-Roman* is used for the 5th century AD, and the term *post-Roman* for the period from AD 500 to the Saxon conquest.

Readers of our earlier Field Guides will note two improvements: we have at last gone metric, and we have adopted the Harvard system of quoting references to publications.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Chapter I incorporates comments by Dr. Ian Burrow. The itinerary of West Wansdyke in Chapter II embodies suggestions from Mr. Rob Iles. The architectural parts of Chapter IV are based on a valuable first draft by Mr. David Dawson, who is however in no way responsible for any errors in the final version which is the work of the editor. This chapter has derived much benefit from criticism by Mr. Michael Hare. The section on Cricklade in Chapter V has been approved by Dr. T. R. Thomson. Mrs. Elizabeth Fowler has read and approved Chapters III and V. Mrs. Frances Neale has read all the text except Chapter IV and nearly all her constructive suggestions have been adopted.

ACCESS TO SITES

Some of the sites described are on private property and access to them is by courtesy of the landowners and tenants. In practice the visitor is unlikely to run into difficulty if he observes the Country

Code. He should avoid trampling on growing crops, or disturbing game in the breeding season; and if he takes a dog he must keep it on a lead in the presence of sheep, cattle, or other domesticated animals. If he intends to bring a party he should seek prior permission from the owner or tenant or both, who will normally appreciate that an interest is being shown in an ancient monument on their land. They may also give advance notice of the presence of any bulls in the area.

Increasing vandalism in some areas has caused some incumbents to keep their churches closed when not in use. A Saxon church should however always be inspected externally as well as internally.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

FOR NEARLY 350 years, most of Britain formed part of the Roman Empire. Roads, the development of large and small walled towns, the establishment of country houses and large estates, industries, mass-production and markets, a money economy and a considerable increase in the number of "native" (i.e. British) farms, and fields—all these were accepted as normal during the centuries of Roman peace, law and order. During the same centuries AD the population probably also doubled to several million people.

Gradually, however, during the later C4, centralised Roman government began to weaken, being unable to cope with the new pressures on the Empire from the barbarian world. The Province of Britain was left more and more to its own devices and was successively weakened militarily. Some villas in the Bristol region were raided and even burned, perhaps by pirates from across the Bristol Channel (Wales or Ireland). Saxons were settling in the Upper Thames valley, the Warwickshire Avon area and in north-east Wiltshire. Coins ceased to have any monetary function, though they were hoarded for their value as metal; and probably there was a reversion to the pre-Roman type of barter economy. Likewise the pottery kilns ceased production and people had either to make their own or do without, using wooden or leather containers for everything. There is, however, now considerable evidence from the Bristol region that day-to-day life for most people was not perhaps greatly affected by the loss of such civilised but superficial amenities. The fact, for example, that many hill-tops were reoccupied in C5 and C6 was probably due just as much to gradual climatic deterioration and the need to change land use patterns as to the threat of attack by Irish or Saxon raiders. The re-fortification of these hill-forts and possibly the building of Wansdyke may be due to the latter.

There is every reason to suppose that some sort of town life persisted in Gloucester (where a smith was actively engaged in smelting down scrap metal as late as the early C6), Cirencester and Bath, though there the city council was unable to keep the hot springs and baths free from flooding by the River Avon. That these three "cities" were taken by the Saxons after the Battle of Deorham (Dyrham) in 577 presupposes their continued existence.

Information about the years between the "official" end of Roman rule, the beginning of C5, and the year 577 is difficult to compile. Firm dates are hard to establish and the small amount of documentary material gives little historical context. The imported Mediterranean pottery found on several living sites in this area affords a basic framework for C5 and C6. Although we have neither a firm date nor a location for the Battle of Mount Badon in which the British defeated the Saxons, there is now evidence for settlement and cemeteries belonging to this period, around 500. During the early to mid C6 when imported pottery from the Mediterranean and Atlantic Gaul reached several sites, there seem also to have been contacts with the Saxon world to the east—their advance temporarily halted.

Despite the Battle of Deorham, the Saxons made little impact in this region. The cemetery at Camerton shows in the grave-goods a fusion between British and Saxon, and there are a few other Saxon burials, mostly in the E and N of the area. Otherwise the Saxons are barely attested archaeologically. Work, even excavation, is needed on villages with Saxon names, and on linking the fragmented history with Saxon land charters (p. 17). But after the Battle of Peonnan (Penselwood?) in 658, the Saxons controlled Somerset. King Ine built a new church at Glastonbury and the distinction between pagan Saxon and Christian British gradually ceased. There are several reasons for believing that Christianity in Somerset and Gloucestershire survived from late Roman times, shown most notably in some of the cemeteries, though there is equally strong evidence for pagan temples or shrines in this region.

From the late C7 the Bristol region becomes part of the Kingdom of Wessex, lying on the boundary with its rival the Kingdom of Mercia. Ultimately Wessex triumphed and the kings of Wessex came, as both documents and archaeology attest, to their palaces and hunting grounds in this region. Otherwise identifiable Saxon settlements are sparse; there are few Saxon objects apart from occasional carved stones, metal objects and the glass jar and iron pail from the temple well on Pagan's Hill, Chew Stoke. Many Saxon settlements must lie below present-day villages, and many must have been "fitted in" to a pre-existing landscape pattern. There is equally little archaeological evidence for the Vikings, though the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is fairly specific on their activities in this area. But we can see the defence of the area under Alfred and his successors as represented by the systematic ordering of the *burhs* at Axbridge, Bath, Cricklade, Langport, Lyng and Malmesbury. Once established these defended towns became centres for trade and coin-mints as well as rallying-places. Not even the ravages of the Danish armies under kings Swein and Cnut could destroy these

towns. In Bath a Viking named Gunnar settled and was buried there in a stone coffin (Grinsell 1975). Bristol itself was probably founded in the late C10 as suggested by the numismatic evidence.

Archaeologically the centuries before 1066 are sparsely represented, mainly because pottery was absent or scarce. The major site, after the Glastonbury monastic site, is the royal palace at Cheddar. The rural landscape, though more wooded than now, probably displayed a similar farming pattern to that of today. The street plans of some of the smaller towns might well be recognizable today.

I

SUB-ROMAN, POST-ROMAN AND CELTIC CHRISTIAN

Re-occupied hill-forts

Iron Age hill-forts known to have been re-occupied in sub-Roman and/or post-Roman times are fairly numerous. *South Cadbury* (ST 628252) was re-fortified with a stone and timber rampart, later absorbed by the C11 defences of the Saxon *burh*, which contained an emergency mint for Ilchester. Late Roman material occurred in the rampart and imported Mediterranean sherds on the back of the rampart as well as in the foundation trenches of a timber building near the summit of the hill, dated by the excavator to late C5 or early C6. *Cadbury/Congresbury* (ST 441649), excavated 1959–73, produced evidence of sub-Roman re-occupation. Near its centre were sub-Roman structures including a timber-built "long-house" and a penannular stony area the purpose of which might have been religious. It may have succeeded the temple at Henley Wood, materials from which were apparently transferred to it. Rebuilding of the old defences and the construction of a new stone bank and gateway were followed by the importation of Mediterranean amphorae and tableware, Gaulish ware, and at least three penannular brooches, taking the occupation of the site into C6 (Fowler et al., 1970). Other hill-forts which have yielded late Roman material include *Brent Knoll*, *Cannington*, *Dolebury*, and *Worlebury* on the S side of which was probably a sub-Roman cemetery. The probable use of *Maes Knoll* and *Stantonbury* hill-forts in connection with West Wansdyke is discussed in Chapter II. On the Cotswolds, *Crickley Hill* (SO 927161) has yielded evidence of intermittent occupation including copper-working in the abandoned Iron Age entrance. In the Forest of Dean the *Lydney* (SO 616026) earthworks were strengthened during this period.

The usage of the hill-forts, or their immediate vicinity, for temples and cemeteries is well attested. Instances include the square temple at *Henley Wood* (ST 443652) just N of Cadbury/Congresbury; here a temple was demolished in the late C4 or early C5, after which

inhumation graves (some containing bronzework) were cut through its ruins. On *Brean Down* (ST 293588) a square temple with annexes was built W of the hill-fort, and a sub-Roman cemetery was associated; the temple was demolished in early C5 to erect another building nearby (ApSimon 1965). It is uncertain whether a relief of Mars (?), recently found at *Cadbury/Tickenham* and now in Bristol City Museum, was from a temple. Within the hill-fort on *Blaise Hill* (ST 559784) is the site of a probable temple of uncertain plan, the foundations of which were cut through by sub-Roman inhumations. At *West Hill, Uley* (SO 790996), NE of the hill-fort, a late Roman temple complex, probably dedicated to Mercury, was dismantled around 400 and the debris levelled to build two structures above it. Worn Theodosian coinage and hand-made pottery imply C5 occupation (Ellison 1977). In the Forest of Dean, within the hill-fort at *Lydney* (SO 616026), a rectangular temple dedicated to Nodens, a god of healing and other virtues, dates from *c.* 400. Probably sub-Roman cemeteries without known associated temples include those on Kings Weston Down (ST 549778) and at Wint Hill (ST 398585). In most instances it is anybody's guess whether the burials in these cemeteries were pagan or Christian, though the W-E alignment of some inhumations is a possible indication of the latter.

Other Settlements

The Roman settlement beside the Fosse Way at *Camerton* (ST 690563) produced evidence of continued occupation into C5. Evidence for sub-Roman occupation at *Bath* and *Cirencester* is given in section V.

The difficulty of recognizing C5 and C6 material is intensified on rural sites which may have reverted to an Iron Age type of economy earlier than those of urban type. On many sites, ploughing or rebuilding has probably destroyed the evidence for such occupation and stratigraphy is difficult to elucidate. At the villas at *Frocester Court*, *Barnsley Park* (near Cirencester), *Cheddar Vicarage*, *Low Ham*, and *Star* (near Shipham on Mendip), and the farmsteads at *Butcombe* and *Bradley Hill*, there is positive evidence such as structural changes, modifications to the buildings, C5 ploughing, and hand-made pottery indicating continued occupation.

Glastonbury Tor (ST 512387) was a defended stronghold, possibly a local chieftain's residence. The timber buildings, on platforms below the summit on its S and E sides, imported pottery for wine or oil, evidence of bronze working, and quantities of animal bones from food, make this site particularly interesting (Rahtz 1971). Radford *et al.* (1975, 47–8) has even ventured to guess that the chieftain may have been Arthur.

From the temple well on *Pagan's Hill* (ST 557626) near Chew Stoke came a Saxon blue glass jar (C7 ?) and an iron pail of the same general period, indicating some sort of local settlement.

Celtic Christian Monastic Sites

At *Glastonbury*, the Celtic monastery (ST 501389) is considered by Radford (Radford et al., 1975) to have been probably beneath the W part of the later medieval layout and bounded on E by a *vallum monasterii*, which has recently been dated, by radiocarbon analysis of material from its ditch, to C6; its vallum was cut into by glass furnaces in C9. The monastic buildings would probably have been of wattle-and-daub. In the Abbey Museum are specimens of daub possibly of this period. Evidence of Irish Christianity in the area includes the supposed relics of St. Patrick and St. Indracht formerly in the Church of St. Mary, and the Irish derivation of Beckery to the SW. No pottery of the imported Mediterranean classes, some of which may have had Christian connections, has been found on the monastic site. Whether Arthur was buried at Glastonbury may never be known. His supposed skeleton and that of his wife Guinevere, "discovered" in 1190, provided a timely stimulus for the collection of funds for rebuilding the Abbey which had been largely destroyed by fire in 1184 (Ditmas 1964). The bold linear earthwork with ditch on its E side, known as *Ponter's Ball* (ST 532377), crossing the neck of land to E, is of uncertain date, but was just possibly the E defence of the monastery.

At *Congresbury* (ST 436638) documentary evidence suggests an early foundation by St. Congar from Wales, and potsherds of Saxon type have been found in the churchyard. At *Muchelney* (ST 429248) there are foundations probably of C7 or C8 (Taylor et al 1965, 451–5, 482). At *Deerhurst* there may have been an ecclesiastical site beneath St. Mary's Church (Rahtz 1976, 6–7).

II

WANSDYKE

West Wansdyke extends from Maes Knoll (ST 598662) in the W to Horsecombe (ST 748618) just S of Bath, a distance of 12 km. It consists of a rampart with ditch to N. In some sections, e.g. Park Farm, Newton St. Loe, the bank is barely 0.3 m high. Elsewhere, e.g. at Stantonbury, both bank and ditch are close in dimensions to the far more impressive East Wansdyke crossing the North Wiltshire Downs. A section, cut by a gas pipeline trench on Odd Down, Bath, revealed a loose bank construction, 2.1 m high, of lias slabs overlain by reddish clay, dug from the ditch which at this point is wide (Fowler 1968). East and West Wansdyke were formerly considered a single entity and the course of the Roman road between Bath and Bromham (Wilts.) believed to represent Central Wansdyke. This view is no longer tenable, but the road may have still functioned as a link between the two sections. Both sections were designed as defensive earthworks against attack from the N; both were in existence by late Saxon times. West Wansdyke on Odd Down formed the S city boundary of late Saxon Bath, and East Wansdyke was in existence by 592 when there was a battle at *Wodensbeorge*, a Neolithic long barrow (now known as Adam's Grave) close to the Ridgeway where Wansdyke crosses it. West Wansdyke, at Newton St. Loe, post-dates "Celtic" fields probably not later than Romano-British. East Wansdyke at Brown's Barn (SU 064656) incorporates coarse Romano-British pottery and at Red Shore (SU 117648) it was built on pastureland. The parish boundaries in the area of both West and East Wansdyke (apart from that of Bath just noted) ignore the dyke. This suggests either that, as a barrier or frontier, Wansdyke did not function for long enough to leave a permanent imprint, or that the parish boundaries are older and incorporate earlier (Romano-British ?) estate boundaries. Despite differences in structure and more importantly in choice of terrain, the fact that both have the same name suggests that to the Saxons they were the same construction. The line of West Wansdyke incorporates the hill-forts of Maes Knoll and Stantonbury and is sited well back from the scarp above the Bristol Avon. Both West and East Wansdyke

protect well settled farming communities of Romano-British origin north of and including Mendip and in the Vale of Pewsey.

The most likely period for the construction of East Wansdyke would seem to be the later part of C5. West Wansdyke might also be of that period or later and perhaps unfinished. Sir Cyril and Lady Fox (1960) thought that it may have been built between 628 and 635, when Cynegils and Cwichelm of Wessex, after they had fought against Penda of Mercia, "came to an agreement" which might have included a territorial demarcation defined by West Wansdyke. The earthworks are not a Saxon type of construction, and the name *Woden* implies that it was so-called because the Saxon had no idea who built it. By contrast *Offa's Dyke* (p. 16) bears the name of its originator. Wansdyke is perhaps best explained, both historically and archaeologically, on the scanty available evidence, as a British earthwork built as a defensive frontier against the West Saxons of the Upper Thames area, in either the late C5 or C6.

The Course of West Wansdyke may be considered to start at Maes Knoll hill-fort. There is no evidence that it started at Portbury as was formerly supposed, although the occurrence of the name *Wondesditch Lane* near Long Ashton in 1310 remains a puzzle for the present. The precise relationship of West Wansdyke to the N rampart of Maes Knoll can be established only by excavation, but Tratman (et al., 1963) claimed that it cut across the NE defences of the hill-fort which may however be only an outwork. Immediately E of the hill-fort the course of Wansdyke is clear, its ditch being followed by the sunken lane downhill until it is crossed by the road from Norton Malreward. To E of this road it can be traced as far as a marshy plantation cut by a disused railway line. To E of Hursley Hill (ST 618653) it is fairly well preserved as far as Cottle's Farm (ST 623653) W of Publow Brook. There are no traces of it between here and Pepper Shells (ST 644649) but this area may then have been heavily wooded. The dyke reappears intermittently between this point and Wansdyke House (ST 667640). Between here and the planted area on Stantonbury Hill it has been ploughed out. The constructors of Wansdyke seem to have used the N rampart of Stantonbury hill-fort but may have steepened it. This part of Wansdyke is mentioned in the Saxon land charters of Marksbury (936) and Stanton Prior (963). Just E of the road to Stanton Prior (ST 68036368) a gas pipeline cut across the dyke *c.* 1968 revealed its V-sectioned ditch 5.5 m wide and 2.13 m deep. Between here and Corston Brook (ST 688636) the dyke is ploughed out but it was visible in early C19. Between Corston Brook and Park Farm (ST 697633) the dyke crosses a probably Romano-British field system. Between Park Farm and Pennsylvania Farm the dyke is visible only

on air-photographs. Between Pennsylvania Farm and Englishcombe is one of the best preserved sections. Between Englishcombe and Breach Wood it is lost but it can be followed between Breach Wood and Vernham Wood. To E of Vernham Wood it meets the Fosse Way and would have controlled an approach along it from NE. There was no sign of it in a recently dug pipeline trench along this road, and it is uncertain whether Wansdyke ever put the road out of action. The final stretch across Odd Down to the head of Horsecombe Vale is straight, suggesting that the area was then open country. Wansdyke is here followed by a public footpath along the S edge of modern housing and allotments.

III

THE SAXON PERIOD

(a) *Sites of Battles*

Mons Badonicus (Mount Badon, *c.* 500) is usually placed at either Badbury Rings (Dorset) or Badbury, the old name for Liddington Castle (Wilts). A third and perhaps less likely suggestion is that it was fought on or around one of the hills above Bath (Morris 1973, 112–13).

Deorham (577) is usually identified with Dyrham N of Bath and the early forms of the place-name support the change from Deorham to Dyrham. The slight defences of the hill-fort on Hinton Hill (ST 741767), considered to have been in the battle area, are offset by the strategic position on the edge of the Cotswold scarp overlooking the Severn valley which was the objective of the Saxon attackers, and possession of the area carried with it control of movement along the Jurassic Way and the Fosse Way. It is suggestive that the hill-fort on Hinton Hill is in the combined parish of Dyrham and Hinton. The three kings said to have been killed were most likely leaders magnified into kings by the Saxon chroniclers to make the most of their victory (Burne 1952, 16–21).

Peonnan (658) has by most historians been indentified with the vicinity of Penselwood between Mere and Wincanton. If so a likely site might have been in the area of the hill-fort (ST 749336) W of Stourton, possession of the surroundings of which would give control of movement along the Hardway. An attempt to place the site of the battle at Pinhoe (SY 965947) NE of Exeter has gained few adherents (Hoskins 1960).

Ethandune (878) is identified with Edington near Westbury (Wilts.) and the place-name evidence supports this. The site of this victory of Alfred over the Danes is assumed to have been in the area of Bratton Castle hill-fort (Burne 1952, 34–43).

With the exception of Pinhoe near Exeter, all these identifications are in the area of hill-forts assumed to date from the pre-Roman Iron Age.

(b) *Offa's Dyke*

Built by Offa, king of Mercia 757–96, probably towards the end of his

reign, this fine earthwork was probably a negotiated frontier with Wales. For most of the distance between Sedbury Cliffs and Monmouth the Offa's Dyke Path coincides with it, the course being E of the Wye. It is best walked between autumn and spring when vegetation is minimal. Across the Sedbury promontory Offa's Dyke has its ditch on SW. Between Chepstow and the Devil's Pulpit the ditch is on E, but above Caswell Wood (544005) the ditch is to SW. This is among the most impressive sections of the Dyke. Between there and Monmouth the ditch alternates between W and E. The stretch near Bigsweir House (538045), shown on O.S. as Offa's Dyke, is an old holloway.

(c) *Saxon Charters*

Many Saxon charters include boundary descriptions which define the estates concerned by listing landmarks around their borders. They provide, however fragmentarily, a contemporary written record of the Saxon landscape: a context into which to set known sites, and clues for the discovery of others. There is a group of charters for an extensive area around Bath; another covering eastern Mendip, and a third for the Severnside area around Olveston and Aust. More scattered examples survive for western Mendip, and for estates along the Cotswold ridge. Boundary descriptions range in date from C8 to the Norman Conquest, but are at their best in C10. In the examples that follow, (S) refers to numbers in Sawyer (1968).

Natural features provided many charter boundary marks: hills, valleys and streams. More useful to the archaeologist are features that record farming practice: fields and meadows, the frequent *gemaere* or ploughland balks, and more specific references such as *aeceras* and *Clop aecere* at Dyrham (S. 786), winter acres at Wrington (S. 371), and *Aelfwerde's landimare*, Aelfwerd's ploughland boundary, at Bradford-on-Avon (S. 899). Hedgerows, as at Wrington (S. 371) and near Bath (S. 777), imply enclosed land. Farm animals receive incidental mention: ox hollows at Pucklechurch (S. 553), *schippeburg* at Mells (S. 481) and *swynhage* at Wrington (S. 371). References to wolves, as at Olveston (S. 664), Wrington (S. 371) and Batcombe (S. 462) reflect the concern of sheep-farmers. Woods imply limits of cultivation, and *-leah* names suggest clearance of woodland. Analysis of such evidence can indicate where, by C10, the Saxons were occupying a cleared, defined farming landscape, and where they were still themselves pioneering farmers.

While such evidence can provide valuable background information, two other groups of boundary features are of more specific archaeological interest. The first consists of man-made features existing before the Saxon settlement, adopted by the Saxons as landmarks in

their charters: prehistoric barrows, Iron Age hill-forts, Roman roads and the sub-Roman Wansdyke itself.

The second group, more directly relevant to the period, consists of contemporary Saxon structures used as boundary marks. Little work has been done to locate the great majority of these potential archaeological sites. Circling the outer limits of an estate, a charter boundary rarely pinpoints a Saxon settlement; the sequence of references to *Coseham*, *Witlege* and *Broctune* (Corsham, Whitley and Broughton Gifford) and others in the great Bradford-on-Avon charter (S. 899) is a valuable exception. Sometimes, however, an individual farmstead is noted, such as the "little farm" at Pilton (S. 247), the "north dairy farm" and "Bill's house" at Olveston (S. 664), Atta's farm at Bradford-on-Avon (S. 899), Church farm at Bleadon (S. 606) and the "old house" at Priston (S. 414). Estate boundaries often followed roads, from the major *olden wei* at Batcombe (S. 462), the West way and Ridgeway at Pucklechurch (S. 553), the old army road at Olveston (S. 664) and the *sealtherpothe* or saltway at Cold Ashton (S. 414), down to a drove at Bleadon (S. 606) and many unnamed hollow ways. Charters record a Saxon "broad bridge" at Aust (S. 401) and stone bridges at Olveston (S. 664) and West Pennard (S. 236). Where boundaries adjoined open commons, the little-investigated "leapgates" controlled straying animals, such as the *hundes geat* or *hlipiget* at Pucklechurch/Cold Ashton (S. 553 and S. 414), *cattys gett* also at Cold Ashton (S. 414) and *Aelfwine's hlipgate* at Bradford-on-Avon (S. 899). Industrial landmarks include watermills, implied by the mill-pool at Stoke Bishop (S. 218) and a mill-leat at Hardenhuish near Chippenham (S. 308). The *stan gedelf* or stone-workings at East Pennard (S. 563) are perhaps associated with pre-Conquest building at Glastonbury, and *cweorn cleofu* at Pucklechurch (S. 553) may record a quarry used for quern-making. Other references to *crundel* (e.g. Bibury S. 1254, Cold Ashton S. 414, Priston S. 414) may indicate lime or marl pits rather than quarries. *Lead gedelf*, lead-workings, perhaps on Durdham Down, are mentioned in the Stoke Bishop charter (S. 218).

In addition to utilising existing features, specific boundary markers were set out where necessary. Named boundary stones sometimes appear, such as *sweordes stan* at Stoke Bishop (S. 218), *wykestone* at Bleadon (S. 606), *Hicemannes stane* at Wellow (S. 584) and *Esnes stan* and *Haranstan*, both at Pucklechurch (S. 553). Much more frequent are boundary dykes, sometimes called the "old dyke" by C10. Work at Wrington, Compton Bishop and Banwell suggests that Saxon boundary dykes in particular may be more common, and more in need of archaeological recording, than charter references

suggest: defining on the ground the framework of this Saxon landscape to which the charters offer such a multitude of clues.

Sawyer (1968) provides the definitive list of charters, their reliability and whereabouts: an essential starting-point and guide to the more detailed summaries, with "reliability gradings", in Finberg 1961 (Gloucestershire) and 1964 (Somerset and Wiltshire); and to the texts, translations and interpretations of Grundy 1919–20 (Wiltshire), 1935 (Somerset) and 1936 (Gloucestershire). Margaret Gelling (1978) discusses these sources. Grundy's pioneer volumes, for all their recognised textual and archaeological deficiencies, remain an invaluable stimulus to fieldwork. A new edition of the Saxon charters for (old) Somerset is in preparation.

(d) *Settlement*

The end of Roman domination (410) may have been followed by a decade or two of comparative prosperity caused by release from Roman taxation. The earliest immigrant settlers probably used such parts of the prehistoric tracks and Roman roads as were still serviceable, and they tended to settle in the vicinity of abandoned Roman sites, land in the area of which would have included areas already cleared. The Saxon settlements along the Fosse Way, for instance, include Cirencester and Bath (p. 27); south-west of Bath the Roman small town of Camerton (ST 687563) survived into the Saxon period as shown by the cemetery of more than 100 graves some of which are of that period. Possible continuity of Roman estates into later times is suggested at Withington, Glos. (Finberg 1959) and in the Wrington valley, Avon (Fowler 1975).

The Saxon settlement of our region did not begin until the late C6, but it lasted for nearly four centuries during which many changes occurred. The Saxons are believed to have intermingled with the descendants of the Romano-British population to form an amalgam. The network of nucleated villages within parishes did not exist in Roman times, and must therefore have gradually developed during the Saxon period, in some cases by the fusion of contiguous farms. After the acceptance of Christianity this process was assisted by the establishment of parish churches around which most of the villages developed.

In agriculture the chief crops were barley which was used for brewing, and oats for animal feed and porridge. In pasture 'the early West Saxon settlers established themselves on the uplands but moved their flocks and herds down to the levels in summer—hence Sumorsaete—the summer dwellers' (Finberg 1972, 105).

Domesday Book (1086) gives the picture of the general situation shortly after the end of the Saxon period, and shows that many

present-day villages and hamlets were already in existence. The *Domesday Book* texts for Gloucestershire and Somerset are in course of being re-edited in the light of modern scholarship including recent and current fieldwork.

(e) *Quarrying and Mining*

The most important *stone quarries* were in the Box/Hazelbury area near Bath, where the fine quality oolitic freestone is still being worked. It can be inferred that the Saxon quarry faces have long ago been removed by later workings. Hazelbury quarries are first recorded in 1189 but they may well date from some centuries earlier. Stone probably from quarries in this area was used for numerous Saxon churches in Somerset as far south as Glastonbury, and for crosses including that at Codford St. Peter (Wiltshire). Much of the stone from these quarries has "watermarks" caused by "veins of calcite meandering vertically down across the bedding planes" (Jope 1965, 96). John Aubrey (1626–97) mentioned the tradition that "St. Aldhelm, Abbot of Malmesbury, riding over the ground at Haselbury, did throw down his glove, and bade them dig there, and they should find great treasure, meaning the quarre". St. Aldhelm died in 710. Until recently St. Aldhelm's glove was the emblem of one of the Bath stone firms. Reference has already been made (p. 18) to a stone quarry at East Pennard mentioned in a Saxon charter.

Lead workings on Durdham Down are mentioned in another Saxon charter (p. 18). In view of this it would be surprising if the Saxons did not extract lead from Mendip but as yet there is no evidence that they did so.

(f) *Palaces*

The Saxon palaces at *Cheddar* (ST 457532) were built within *c.* 200 m of a Roman villa near the parish church of St. Andrew. Excavation in 1960–62 revealed the foundations of two rectangular halls and associated buildings with a palace compound. Both halls were timber-built, the smaller (West) Hall originating in C10 and rebuilt in C11 and C12, while the larger (East) Hall dates from late C11 or C12. Both are now indicated by concrete blocks in the ground N of the Kings of Wessex Upper School and are accessible to visitors. The present chapel of St. Columbanus is on the site of a chapel of C10. A circular structure with associated buildings, believed to have been a fowl-house of C10 date, is represented by a concrete rotunda outside the NW angle of the school buildings. The Saxon palace was where Witans met in 941, 956 and 968 (Rahtz 1979).

The supposed site of Alfred's palace at *Athelney* (ST 346292), on a low ridge in the Somerset Levels, is marked by a monument erected

in 1801. The site of Alfred's *villa regia* (A.D. 878) at Wedmore has not yet been located. The site of the palace at Pucklechurch, where King Eadmund was murdered in 945, is not certainly known.

(g) *Burials and Cemeteries*

In a large round barrow (now reduced by ploughing) at Chavenage Sleight (ST 871960), between Tetbury and Avening, labourers in 1847 found seven graves lined with slabs arranged in a circle around the centre; the grave-goods included iron spearheads, a shield boss, and iron buckles, now in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford. Two pagan Saxon warrior graves inserted in the Roman mosaic floor at Barton (SP 016023) near Cirencester provide material for a spectacular exhibit in the Corinium Museum. Finds from the partly Saxon cemetery at Camerton (ST 686566) are in Taunton Museum.

IV

ECCLESIASTICAL ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE

MOST OF the Saxon features in the churches are in those which have experienced numerous later alterations especially in Victorian times. Except where otherwise indicated the architecture is described by the Taylors (1965, 1978), and the sculpture by Kendrick (1938, 1949).

(a) *The Vale of Gloucester*

The Priory church of St. Mary, *Deerhurst* (SO 870299) has been investigated by Rahtz and Taylor and revealed a complex sequence of phases from *c.* 800 down to late Saxon times. Taylor (1977) distinguishes six main phases: 1. Nave and W porch; 2. Semi-circular apse added at E; 3. N and S porticus and first floor walls added, the latter in herringbone masonry; 4. N porticus (previously of wood) replaced in stone; 5. Semi-circular E apse changed to polygonal apse; 6. Extensions added N and S of nave. Two carvings of animal heads are now inside the W porch. The church is remarkable for its height and for the presence of 30 Saxon doors and windows at various levels. High on the S face of the polygonal apse is the carving of an angel. The richly decorated font (late C9) comprises cylindrical bowl mounted on an octagonal stem, but it is uncertain whether the stem originally belonged to the bowl. Odda's Chapel, *Deerhurst* (SO 868298), dedicated on 12th April 1056 as recorded on contemporary inscriptions (one a copy) on E wall, comprises rectangular nave and chancel, the former with double-splayed windows, chancel arch, and long-and-short quoining; the building suffered from domestic usage until 1885.

In the church of St. Mary, *Newent* (SO 723260) are two notable Saxon sculptures. In the porch is a C9 cross-shaft in the Mercian style showing Adam and Eve and "the Carolingian lion with the worried brow" (Kendrick 1938, 182). In the church is a stone tablet exquisitely carved on both sides, with edge-inscription MATHEU+ MARCUS+LUCAS+IOHANNES. EDRED. On its obverse is a crucifixion surrounded by human figures and birds; on its reverse is

an ecclesiastic surrounded likewise by human figures; the name EDRED is on the top left corner. It was probably made from a metal prototype. It was found in the churchyard (Zarnecki 1954).

St. Oswald's Priory, *Gloucester* (SO 830190), to which the relics of St. Oswald of Northumbria were transferred in 909, has been recently excavated. Most of the plan of the early C10 church was recovered and it included a semicircular apse at W. The building was altered in late Saxon times when the aspe was removed, and there were more alterations after the Conquest. The Saxon foundations (with others) are marked on the ground. High quality sculpture from St. Oswalds, in Gloucester City Museum, include parts of a cross with animal interlacing attributed to C9, and a fine grave-cover with foliage ornament of early C10.

(b) *The West Cotswolds*

In the region of the Golden Valley (R. Frome) the earliest Saxon monument is the *Lypiatt cross* (SO 892066), late C7 or early C8. It is badly weathered but there are indications of a standing figure beneath an arch on one side, and standing figures probably on two of the other sides. The fourth side has been planed off and inscribed BP (Bisley parish). In style it resembles the Bewcastle cross (Clifford 1933). The church of St. Mary, *Edgeworth* (SO 948059) has N door and nave partly late Saxon, and it contains a fragment of sculpture similar to fragments in Bisley church. The church of St. Andrew, *Miserden* (SO 936089), has late heads of the N and S doorways both of which have later medieval pointed openings beneath.

Along the Duntisbourne valley are three late Saxon or Saxo-Norman churches. Near the source of the river is the church of St. Batholomew, *Winstone* (SO 965093), with possibly late Saxon nave and chancel. The (blocked) N doorway and window (cut in a single slab) and the chancel arch are pre-Conquest in style but the S door (the present entrance) is Saxo-Norman. The church of St. Michael, *Duntisbourne Rous* (SO 985060) has a possibly late Saxon nave. The church of the Holy Cross, *Daglingworth* (SO 994050), has basically late Saxon nave and chancel. Above the outer face of the S doorway is a Saxon sundial, now impotent as behind the S porch, probably Norman but incorporating re-used Saxon material. On the N wall of the vestry at NE corner of the church is a Saxon two-light window cut from a Roman dedicatory slab, the inscribed surface facing outwards. The four carvings (a crucifixion over the pulpit; a crucifixion between soldiers, St. Peter, and Christ in majesty in the nave) show Byzantine influence and are believed to date from *c.* 1050 (Clapham 1951).

In the valley of the Thames or Isis, the church of All Saints,

Somerford Keynes (SU 017955) has a Saxon N doorway with decorated arch cut from a single slab, possibly around 700 (Taylor 1970; Verey 1976). Over this dooway is a relief, C11, of two facing dragon-heads biting a ball.

In the south-western Cotswolds there is, on the S face of the tower of the church of St. Mary, *Beverston* (SO 862940) a carving of Christ in a flowing garment, holding the cross, attributed to the first half of C11. The flowing garment reflects the Winchester style. The present church is later. Near the source of the By Brook (a tributary of the Bristol Avon), the church of All Saints, *Littleton Drew* (ST 831801), contains two large parts of a cross shaft carved with a stem with leaves, attributed to C9. The church of St. John the Baptist, *Colerne* (ST 820711), contains two large parts of a cross shaft decorated with interlacing and dragons in the form of flat bands, probably late C9.

(c) *The valley of the Bristol Avon*

The most important site is the chapel of St. Laurence, *Bradford-on-Avon* (ST 824609) rediscovered *c.* 1857 after a long period of secular usage. Taylor (1973) considers it essentially of one period—late Saxon. The plan and most of the superstructure are Saxon, with nave, sanctuary, N (and originally S) porticus. It is too small to have served as the church for the parish which was of considerable importance as early as mid C10, and is more likely to have been a superstructure for the mausoleum of Edward the Martyr, which J. T. Irvine may indeed have found beneath the floor in 1874–81 (Taylor 1973). The pair of flying angels high on the E wall of the nave (but not *in situ*) probably originally flanked a crucifixion. Two fragments of a cross with interlace decoration (one with head of serpent) have recently been set up behind the altar. The buttresses on S, the timber roof, and most of the W wall are a late C19 restoration.

The large flat slab, now incorporated into the altar, was found in the lintel of the S porch (in a late Norman wall) in the church of the Holy Trinity opposite. Baldwin Brown (1937, 177–81) thought it was the revetment of a door jamb belonging to a much larger church which may have stood on or near the site of the present parish church. The patterned decoration, especially the stepped pattern, resembles that on Saxon jewellery of late C7 so much that one cannot rule out the possibility that this slab may have formed part of the church of Aldhelm.

The church of St. Mary the Virgin, *Limpley Stoke* (ST 783603), has nave walls probably late Saxon, and also the S doorway which now forms part of the arcade between the original nave and the modern S aisle.

In *Bath* (ST 751647) there is nothing to be seen of the monastic site or church in which King Edgar was crowned in 973 and it is likely to be beneath the Abbey, in the S cloister of which are parts of three crosses of C8–C10. The church of St. Nicholas, *Kelston* (ST 699669), contains part of a cross shaft with interlaced leaf ornament of C9. The church of St. Mary, *Bitton* (ST 682693), incorporates a Saxon original, the size of which is indicated by the E and parts of the N and S walls of the nave. The original height of the building is suggested by the feet of a large crucifixion high on the E wall of the nave. An arm and hand from this sculpture is in the N aisle. The archway (now blocked) of through stones which once led into a N porticus can be seen on the outside of the church. In the cathedral of St. Augustine, *Bristol* (ST 584727), is the relief known as the Harrowing of Hell, usually dated around 1025–50, showing Christ with halo carrying a slender cross and treading Satan underfoot, and various other details (Smith 1976).

(d) *Mendip and surroundings*

In the N and S choir aisles of *Wells Cathedral* (ST 552459) are the C14 recumbent effigies of seven Saxon bishops (975 to 1066), covering their remains together with holy relics, all of which are being investigated at the time of writing. The church of St. Michael, *Rowberrow* (ST 450587) contains fragments of a cross showing an interlaced serpent, probably C9, found in the churchyard in 1865. Built into the N wall of the churchyard of the church of St. Andrew, *Chew Stoke* (ST 557620), are two cross fragments, both decorated with an interlaced pattern (Dobson 1938). In St. John's church, *Frome* (ST 777479) are two fragments of a cross with interlaced serpent and animal, perhaps early C11 (Rice 1952, 127).

(e) *The Somerset Levels*

The Celtic Christian aspect of the monastic site at *Glastonbury* (ST 501388) has already been described (p. 12). Excavations since 1920 have revealed parts of the plans of some of the earlier churches. Under the W part of the present nave of the Abbey church, foundations were located of the eastern church built by King Ine *c.* 700, with modifications by Dunstan 940–57. Other evidence of Dunstan's work was discovered S of this extension where the Saxon cloister and monastic buildings lay slightly overlapped by the medieval cloister to the E, and to the W of the Lady Chapel where the footings of his church of St. John the Baptist are now marked out on the grass. No trace has yet been found of the church of St. Mary which was destroyed by fire in 1184.

Within the C12 choir of *Muchelney Abbey* (ST 429248) are to be

seen the foundations of a small pre-Conquest church comprising nave, small apsidal sanctuary, and perhaps originally a S porticus and W porch. Fragments in the site museum include the feet of a crucifixion.

(f) *The Wylye Valley*

The church of St. Margaret, *Knook* (ST 938418), has above the (blocked) S doorway a tympanum, in very slight relief, showing two animals facing each other, enmeshed in broad flat interlacings, the whole resembling folio 69 of the Lambeth Palace MS, *c.* 1000 and probably slightly later than that date. The whole doorway is probably late Saxon (Taylor 1968). The church of St. Peter, *Codford St. Peter* (ST 966399) contains one of the best known cross shafts in southern England. Only one face survives complete, but this shows a dancing man dressed in Saxon costume, holding aloft a leafy branch (of alder ?) and looking upwards at it. In his left hand is a mallet-shaped object. The figure is framed between bamboo-like baluster columns which support a panel containing an S-shaped scroll (Forbes 1967; Swanton 1980). The date is probably during C9.

V

TOWNS

Bath had a distinguished history during the Roman period but the Baths had fallen into disuse and become silted up by floods by *c.* 400. The higher parts of the town continued to be inhabited until *c.* 500 and presumably 577 when Bath fell to the West Saxons after the Battle of Deorham. What are almost certainly the ruins of Roman Bath are described in a fragmentary poem *The Ruin* (Gordon 1954; Hotchner 1939), written in a West Saxon dialect perhaps at Glastonbury. The details, e.g. of the hot baths and red-tiled arches are so precise that Cunliffe (1971, 94) has written: "all the elements described by the poet are supported with remarkable precision by the archaeological evidence. Here is, without doubt, a dramatic eye-witness account of the Roman town in its death throes". The poem may date from C8 but the manuscript copy in Exeter Cathedral library was probably written within a decade of the crowning of King Edgar in Bath in 973.

A Benedictine monastery was established by Osric *c.* 676, perhaps on or near the site of the present Abbey. It was run partly by Frankish priests from the Paris area. Land for the founding of a monastery of St. Peter (now covered by the E end of the Abbey) was assigned by Offa in 758. A cemetery, perhaps associated with one of these monasteries, was laid out above the Baths. These monastic sites would have been accompanied by some secular settlement. Excavations in 1970 just SE of Saw Close provided structural evidence for Post-Roman occupation and late Saxon pits. In early C8 a church was founded.

The *Burghal Hidage* (*c.* 916) mentions Bath as a *burh* of 1,000 hides (=1,250 m of wall). It is uncertain whether its walls followed those of the Roman town, but they may well correspond approximately to those of the medieval town: Westgate—Lower Borough Walls—Orchard Street—east of the Abbey—beneath the site of the Empire Hotel—Upper Borough Walls—Sawclose. From the South Gate there was probably an extension to the bridge over the Avon. The width of the present High Street suggests that it may have been the market place in medieval and possibly Saxon times. Surviving coins

show that a mint was established in Bath *c.* 900 and continued into the reign of Stephen. The crowning of King Edgar in the forerunner of Bath Abbey was marked by a special coin issue with the names of leading citizens as moneyers. The event is commemorated on the outside E wall of the Abbey by a tablet which incorrectly states that Edgar was the first king of all England, whereas this honour belongs to Athelstan who was crowned at Kingston-on-Thames *c.* 924. Other visible indications of Saxon Bath include perhaps part of the street plan, especially between Upper Borough Walls and Westgate Street/Cheap Street (Greening 1971), several places of Saxon sculpture in the South Cloisters of Bath Abbey, a few items in reserve in the Roman Baths Museum, and Saxon coins of Bath mint in reserve in the Victoria Art Gallery.

Bristol is not mentioned in the *Burghal Hidage* and may have been virtually non-existent until *c.* 980. For 20 years or so from this date the bulk of the trade between England and Ireland was switched from Chester to the Severn estuary, and there is little doubt that this was a major factor in the development of Bristol as a trading centre and port. Its sheltered siting upstream from the junction of the Severn with the Bristol Avon, by its tributary the Frome, afforded protection; and its hinterland was already rich in the products of a varied geology including agriculture, mining and quarrying. Dublin was at this time a Viking settlement requiring slaves who were provided from Bristol: a type of trade condemned by Wulfstan, Bishop of Worcester 1062–95, on numerous visits to Bristol.

The name is derived from *Bricgstow*, the settlement by the bridge (Bristol Bridge). Excavations beneath the NE defences of the Castle, opposite Broad Weir (ST 594732), revealed substantial traces of Saxon timber buildings and evidence of iron-working, extending down the E side of the present Castle Park. These buildings were demolished when the Castle rampart was made. Excavations at St. Mary-le-Port in 1962–3 revealed a ditch with palisaded trench and late Saxon pottery in its silt, doubtfully a boundary of the Saxon town, and evidence of a hollow way (street?) with timber buildings and traces of iron- and leather-working on its N side. Other Saxon material has come from excavations in Peter Street (1975–6) and from two possible piers for a timber bridge over the Frome at St. Bartholomew's Hospital (1977–8). The earliest churches on the sites of St. Mary-le-Port and St. Peter's were probably Saxon.

The precise boundaries of the Saxon town are unknown, but the general area was along the ridge between St. Mary-le-Port and St. Peter's churches. Its W boundary is uncertain. The precise location of the Saxon quays is uncertain.

The late Saxon 'Harrowing of Hell' relief, found *c.* 1832 beneath

the Cathedral Chapter House, appears to have served as a coffin lid in a small and presumably pre-Conquest cemetery. How the Cathedral came to be dedicated to St. Augustine, and whether his meeting with the British bishops in 603 took place at Aust, have been discussed by Dickinson (1976, 120–6).

About the time the Chester mint declined (*c.* 980) the first coins *possibly* minted in Bristol appear: the *First Hand* type of Aethelred II (979–85), mint signature BRYGIN, not certainly attributed but possibly Bristol. Coins of the same king's *Last Small Cross* type (1009–17), mint signature BRIC, are possibly Bridgnorth but probably Bristol. From the reign of Cnut onwards into the Norman and later periods the Bristol mint is firmly established.

Other Towns are treated in varying detail according to their distance from Bristol and how much there is to see.

Axbridge was a *burh* of 400 hides (500 m of wall) probably connected with the administration of the Saxon palaces at Cheddar. Batt (1975) has suggested that the (rectangular) *burh* lay immediately S of the present market square which developed outside the burh's N entrance. There was a mint which functioned intermittently between *c.* 1000 and *c.* 1042.

Chippenham was a Saxon settlement captured by the Danes in 878 and held by them until they moved to Cirencester the following autumn. It was not mentioned in the *Burghal Hidage* and did not have a mint. On the wall of 11 Market Place, E of the Public Library, is a tablet inscribed: "This building stands on the site occupied by the Hunting Lodge of King Alfred the Great in the Ninth Century"; this site is now thought to have been of the Norman castle and the precise site of the Saxon settlement is unknown.

Cirencester fell to the West Saxons after the Battle of Deorham in 577; the sub-Roman settlement is believed to have been in the area of the Roman amphitheatre ("Bull-ring"), E of which a cemetery including burials of C5 has been found. In Saxon times the area of the Roman town was again occupied, and included an exceptionally large church N of the parish church of St. John the Baptist; its foundations have been located but are too deep for permanent exposure.

Cricklade was a *burh* of 1500 hides (=1825 m of wall), and is sited just W of the Roman road (Ermin Street) between Cirencester and Silchester. The ramparts of the *burh* are well preserved as a spread clay bank marked either by hedges or still visible and *c.* 1 m high where under grass, and are best preserved in the SE quadrant. The main streets cross in the centre of the quadrilateral *burh* the sides of which vary between 507 m and 570 m. Excavations 1948–63 revealed two phases: in the first the rampart was faced by a timber

revetment; in the second (probably early C11) the timber revetment was replaced by a masonry wall. Beyond the W and E sides is a berm 6 m wide defined by a ditch. The church of St. Sampson in the SW sector is Saxon in origin and contains a Saxon pilaster. The NW and SE quadrants of the *burh* may have been intended to accommodate oxen, cattle and horses. Cricklade had a mint from the reign of Aethelred II into the Norman period.

Malmesbury was a *burh* of 1200 hides (=1500 m of wall), on high ground between the Avon and its tributaries. The wall of the *burh* is almost certainly followed by that of the medieval walls: the W and E boundaries are defined by King's Wall and Nun's Walk; the NW corner by the site of the castle (in the grounds of the Old Bell Hotel); and the S side by the high ground above the river junction. There was a mint from the time of the currency reform of King Edgar (973) into the Norman period.

Material (410–1066) in Museums

Only the chief items are here mentioned. At the time of writing they are nearly all on display, but any museum curator is at liberty to transfer objects from display to storage or vice-versa at any time. A fuller list will be published in a forthcoming *B.A.R.G. Bulletin*.

Axbridge: King John's Hunting Lodge Museum. Possibly Saxon potsherds, and a small display illustrating the Axbridge mint.

Bristol: City Museums. Finds from Bristol excavations including pottery, metalwork, and a forge-stone with Scandinavian parallels from the Castle; glass jar (C7?) from well on Pagan's Hill, Chew Stoke; blue glass mount with triskele design from Westbury College excavations; bronze strap-end from Blaise Castle Hill; bronze penannular brooches from Cadbury/Congresbury; the Bristol mint is represented in St. Nicholas Church Museum.

Cardiff: National Museum of Wales. Stone cross (C7–9) from Flat Holm.

Cirencester: Corinium Museum. Two Saxon warrior interments dug through the Roman Orpheus mosaic on Barton Farm; one skeleton, extended, on show, with grave-goods including shield bosses and iron spearheads.

Cricklade: Museum. Coins of the Cricklade mint, and pottery.

Glastonbury: Abbey Museum. Daub from monastic settlement of Irish missionaries; eight fragments of crosses with interlace decoration; fragments of glass and glass furnaces.

Glastonbury: Tribunal. Bronze escutcheon in form of human head from the Tor; imported Mediterranean pottery.

Gloucester: City Museum. Parts of crosses and a grave-cover from St. Oswald's Priory; coins of Gloucester and Berkeley mints.

Muchelney Abbey: Site Museum. Masonry and sculpture including feet of a crucifixion.

Oxford: Ashmolean Museum. The Alfred Jewel (probably a bookmark) found near North Petherton; dedicatory slab from Odda's Chapel, Deerhurst.

Stroud: Museum: Part of cross from Bisley.

Taunton: Somerset County Museum. Finds from Saxon palaces at Cheddar; coins from Bath and Somerset mints.

Wells: Museum. Pottery loom weight of Saxon type from Henton churchyard W of Wookey.

Weston-super-Mare: Woodspring Museum. Coin of Aethelred II from Wedmore churchyard 1967.

ABBREVIATIONS FOR PERIODICALS

Antiq. J.—Antiquaries' Journal.
Archaeol. J.—Archaeological Journal.
Archaeol. Rev.—Archaeological Review (Groups XII and XIII of Council for British Archaeology).
B.A.R.—British Archaeological Reports.
B.A.R.G. Bulletin—Bristol Archaeological Research Group Bulletin.
N.Q.S.D.—Notes and Queries for Somerset and Dorset.
P. Soc. Antiq.—Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries.
P. Som. A.S.—Proceedings of the Somerset Archaeological and Natural History Society.
P.U.B.S.S.—Proceedings of University of Bristol Spelaeological Society.
T.B. & G.A.S.—Transactions of the Bristol & Gloucestershire Archaeological Society.
W.A.M.—Wiltshire Archaeological Magazine.

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BRISTOL ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH GROUP

This Group was founded on 7th March 1962 in response to the changing archaeological perspectives of the region, and to give better direction to local archaeological research. For administrative reasons it is based on Bristol City Museum, which has a Department of Archaeology and History, one of whose main functions is to stimulate interest in the archaeology of the region.

The Committee of the Group includes members from the appropriate departments in Bristol University and the City Museum, and from other walks of life, and therefore includes both amateur and professional archaeologists.

The Group holds a series of lectures between autumn and spring, and has arranged one-day and weekend courses on various aspects of archaeology, usually at the City Museum, Bristol. It has issued various publications, of which details of those still available are given on the inner front cover.

Its activities include not only excavations carried out in association with the City Museum and related organisations, but also fieldwork and research projects including the preparation of parish check-lists of archaeological sites and finds.

For details of membership apply to **The Hon. Secretary, B.A.R.G., c/o The City Museum, Bristol BS8 1RL.**