

ARCHAEOLOGICAL NOTES

This section of the *Collections* is devoted to short notes on recent archaeological discoveries, reports on small finds, definitive reports on small scale excavations, etc. Those without previous experience in writing up such material for publication should not be deterred from contributing; the editor and members of the editorial board will be happy to assist in the preparation of reports and illustrations.

Archaeological Observation of the Mountfield to Hastings Water Pumping Main Pipeline, East Sussex

From February to December 1982, and again in June 1983, observation of the trenching operations for the new pumping main from Darwell reservoir, Mountfield (TQ 7121), to the Ridge West, Hastings (TQ 7913) was undertaken jointly by members of the Robertsbridge and District Archaeological Society and the Hastings Area Archaeological Research Group under the overall guidance of Dr. Andrew Woodcock, Archaeological Adviser to the East Sussex County Council.

Prior to trenching, a swathe 15 metres wide was cleared across farmland and the topsoil deposited at one side of the easement. In woodland the trees on the line of the easement were felled and the land cleared of stubs. Except in the immediate area of the reservoir, where slightly larger pipes were used, pipes of 800 mm. diameter were generally laid between one and two metres below the surface. However, because of the dissected nature of the terrain, the trench had in certain places to be excavated to a depth of three or four metres. Observation of the pipeline took place in three stages:

1. walking the line of the pipe prior to the establishment of the easement;
2. examination of the topsoil heap, easement floor and actual excavation of the trench (normally excavation and backfilling proceeded simultaneously with only a few metres open at any one time);
3. re-examination of certain 'interesting' areas once the ploughsoil was re-spread.

Whilst landscape features of historical or archaeological significance—mounds, banks, platforms, terraces and trackways—were normally most easily seen in the woods, these areas were generally less productive of finds of pottery, flints, brick and tile. An exception was Whitefield Wood (TQ 7816), parts of which were established after 1724. Here the trench cut through a tenement site which yielded much medieval pottery. Elsewhere on the pipeline most of the pottery discovered was post-medieval.

Sporadic finds of iron slag were made over most of the length of the pipeline. The presence of bloomery slag was noted in particular where the pipe crossed Whatlington parish. Blast-furnace slag turned up in quantity in Mountfield parish not too distant from the Darwell and Mountfield furnaces. Here the quantities noted seemed to support the theory either that the slag had been deliberately spread upon the land for its residual lime content and to help break up the clays, or that it was brought in with charcoal dust from the furnace sites.

In spite of the comparatively restricted area walked, significant numbers of utilized and retouched flint flakes were found, plus a few small tools. To judge by the evidence of soil colour change visible in the sides of the trench, the streams which dissect the area were at one time considerable watercourses. It was noticeable that the most numerous finds of flint came from just such areas.

Finds and Features

The locations of finds and features have been plotted

(Fig. 1). Finds made along the length of the pipe are referred to under section numbers provided by the Southern Water Authority. Where specific finds or concentrations of finds were made a grid reference has been given. Where relevant, a note has been made of known archaeological sites and/or finds previously made close to the line of the pipe. All the finds have been deposited in Hastings Borough Museum together with the full report, a copy of which is also available in Barbican House Museum, Lewes.

Section 7E/79/4 (TQ 72282143-72912062)

Scatter of flint flakes, some retouched, and one hollow scraper; one sherd Romano-British pottery.

TQ 725210 (Fig. 1, no. 1): timber stake (Fig. 2) found at depth of 3-4 metres, hewn and adzed, 1.3 metres long, 0.25 metres at widest point.

TQ 725208 (Fig. 1, no. 2): three terraces, 6-8 metres wide, on south-west side of field near road (cf. E. Suss. C.C., arch. sites and monuments rec., TQ 72 SW. 2).

Section 7E/79/5 (TQ 72912062-73822002)

Scatter of flint flakes, some retouched; two blades.

TQ 731202 (Fig. 1, no. 3): earth mound, possibly tipped when railway constructed in order to divert water from tunnel portal.

TQ 731202 (Fig. 1, no. 4): former boundary bank(?) running through Millham wood (bearing 275°).

Section 7E/79/6 (TQ 73822002-74841957)

Scatter of flint flakes, some retouched (e.g. Fig. 3, 59:273); one blade, two broken blades, one leaf-shaped arrowhead (Fig. 3, 60:298), two cores, two scrapers.

Section 7E/79/7 (TQ 74841957-75481878)

One broken blade utilized as scraper.

TQ 75371894 (Fig. 1, no. 5): pieces of brick and tile from kiln waster pit(?), average thickness of tile 115 mm., fabric hard-fired, light orange/red in colour.

Section 7E/79/8 (TQ 75481878-76181789)

Scatter of flakes, some retouched; one blade.

TQ 760180 (Fig. 1, no. 6): ore roasting pit.

Section 7E/79/9 (TQ 76181789-77021737)

TQ 7617 (Petley Wood) (Fig. 1, no. 7): three old (boundary?) banks, four charcoal platforms, close to the easement (cf. E. Suss. C.C., arch. sites and monuments rec., TQ 71 NE. 3).

Section 7E/79/10 (TQ 77021737-77651670)

Scatter of flakes, some retouched (e.g. Fig. 3, 12B:2:48); two blades, one scraper (Fig. 3, 12B:1:31), one tranchet arrowhead (Fig. 3, 12A:29), one microlith (Fig. 3, 12B:2:50), one miscellaneous worked flint, two burnt flakes. Two sherds coarse flint-tempered pottery, one jug handle with thumbled sides (Fig. 3, 500), three sherds (medieval). One coin, 350 B.C., from Ephesus, honey bee on reverse. Two pieces green slate.

TQ 7717 (Felons Wood) (Fig. 1, no. 8): prominent boundary bank with ditch; two filled ditches, 46 metres south of bank.

TQ 772173 (Fig. 1, no. 8): one platform and terracing on slope on both sides of Marley Lane (cf. E. Suss. C.C., arch. sites and monuments rec., TQ 71 NE. 15).

TQ 773170 (Fig. 1, no. 9): filled depression; charcoal, burnt clay and ash in trench spoilheap.

TQ 775168 (Fig. 1, no. 10): hollow-way, old road from Winchelsea to Battle, original depth revealed in trench.

TQ 775168 (Fig. 1, no. 11): just south of no. 10; area of ore

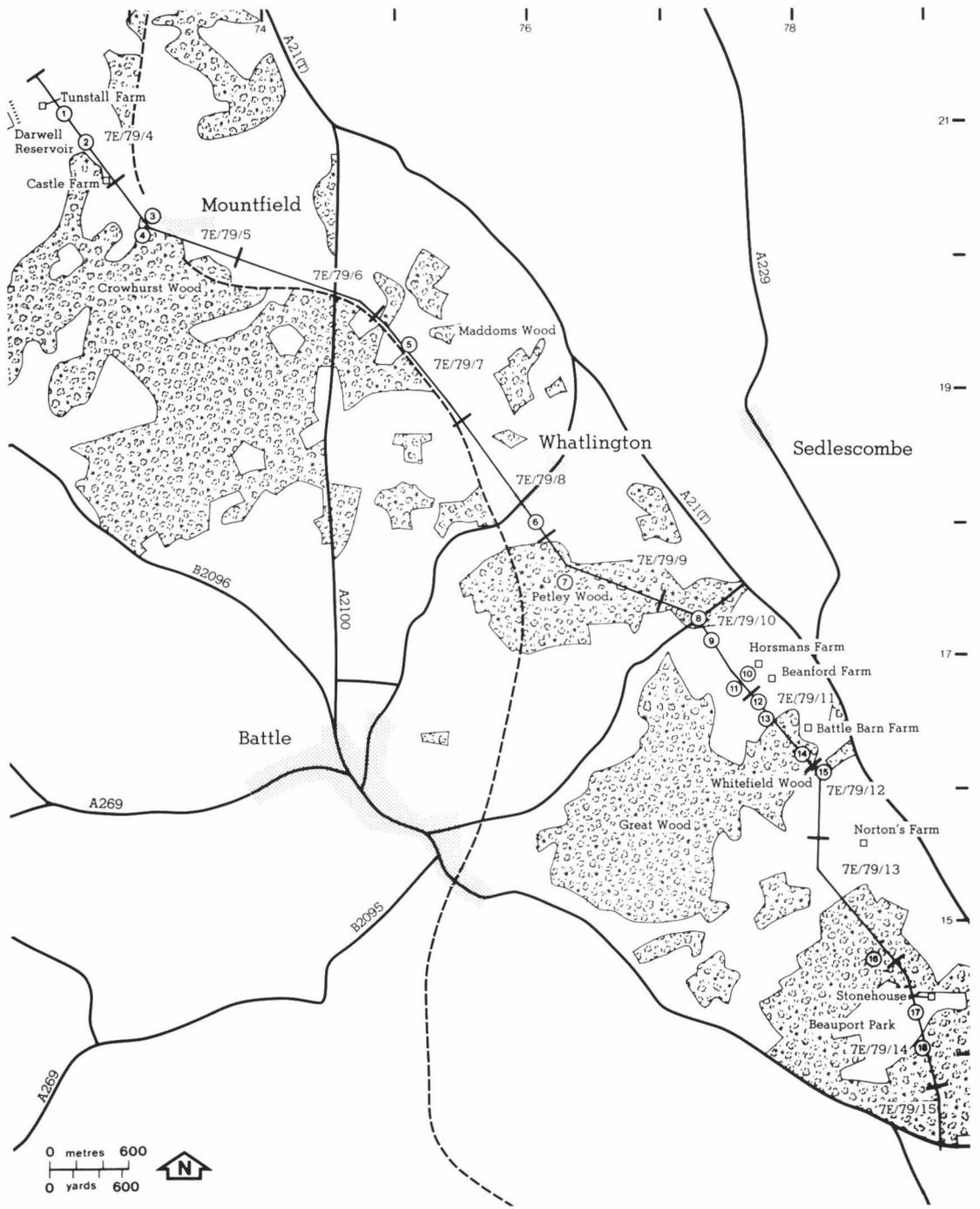


Fig. 1. Mountfield-Hastings pipeline: location of finds and features.

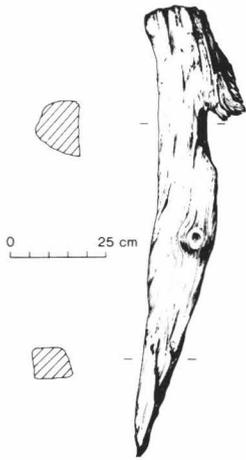


Fig. 2. Mountfield-Hastings pipeline: timber stake.

and sandstone with curious blue-grey ash.

Section 7E/79/11 (TQ 77661670-78121614)

Scatter of flakes, one broken blade, one scraper, one tranchet arrowhead(?) (Fig. 3, 31:135), one broken scraper. TQ 777165 (Fig. 1, nos. 12 and 13): two dark areas in ploughsoil; no. 12 marks location of building shown on

map of 1724 (E(ast) S(ussex) R(ecord) O(ffice), BAT 4421/4); no. 13 not yet identified.

TQ 781161 (Fig. 1, no. 14): three pieces floor tile(?); wattle and daub, some pieces vitrified; area of darker soil bounded to north by small filled ditch; these finds plus considerable quantity of medieval pottery (see below, Report on Pottery) suggest that a tenement here, possibly part of 'Green's Tenement' (E.S.R.O., BAT 39, 41), was finally burnt down.

Section 7E/79/12 (TQ 78121614-78131560)

One flake with retouch; two sherds flint/sand-tempered ware.

TQ 781161 (Fig. 1, no. 15): shallow depression with ditch either side, 6 metres overall, possibly section of old road.

Section 7E/79/13 (TQ 78131560-78721465)

One flake.

TQ 7814 (Beauport Park) (Fig. 1, no. 16): a prominent bank noted; investigations proved it to be largely natural but possibly raised in height at some time.

Section 7E/79/14 (TQ 78721465-79031370)

Twenty-five sherds Romano-British pottery.

TQ 789143 (Fig. 1, no. 17): old pit(?); slag and post-medieval pottery in adjacent topsoil.

TQ 789140: area of ore pits.

Report on Pottery from Section 7E/79/11 (TQ 781161) (by A. D. F. Streeten)

(All the pottery illustrated except Fig. 3, 500 came from this site.)

Some 130 sherds of medieval pottery were recovered from the tenement site (Fig. 3, 128, 131, 450-4; Fig. 4, 455-62, 470, 472, 473). They represent types which are

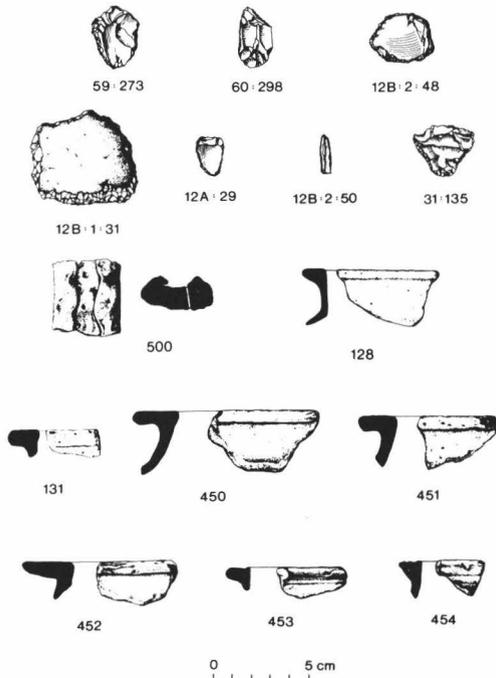


Fig. 3. Mountfield-Hastings pipeline: flint artefacts, pottery.

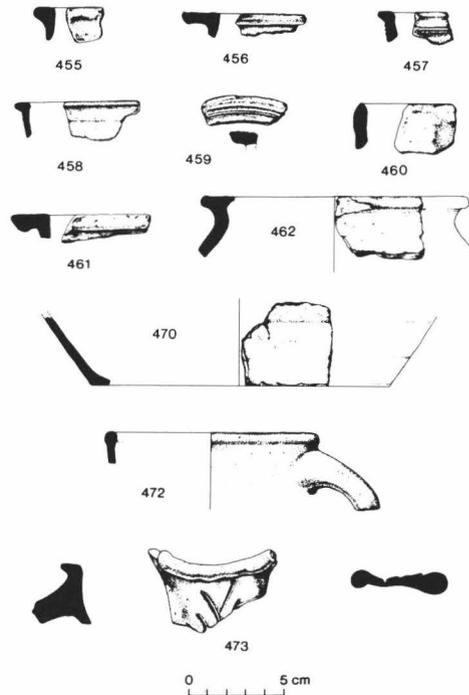


Fig. 4. Mountfield-Hastings pipeline: pottery.

typical of the region and do not therefore merit lengthy discussion. A detailed fabric classification has been deposited with the fieldwalking records.

Fabrics

Flint-tempered wares: most of the sherds in this group are oxidized with moderate medium-sized flint and sand.

Shell-tempered wares: only five sherds in a fine reduced fabric with voids indicating shell temper belong to this type.

Sand-tempered wares: oxidized sandy wares of varying texture comprise over two thirds of the total assemblage. The reduced variant represents another 10%.

Late medieval hand-fired wares: with just one oxidized sherd represented, these fabrics are conspicuous by their virtual absence.

Discussion

Most of the pottery can be assigned to the 13th or 14th centuries, although a slightly earlier date for some of the flint-tempered wares cannot be discounted. None of the material has been thin-sectioned, and it cannot therefore be attributed to a specific kiln source. Nevertheless, the shell-tempered fabrics are similar to culinary vessels found at Battle Abbey, which have been shown by analysis to be products of the Rye kilns. Some of the wares may also have come from the medieval potteries at Brede.

The paucity of late medieval wares provides a useful guide to the duration of occupation. Some of the sand-tempered fabrics could date from the late 14th or 15th century, but the single sherd of late 15th- or 16th-century pottery may be a stray. Such wares are prolific on sites with proven occupation of this date.

Acknowledgements

Grateful thanks are extended to Dr. A. Woodcock, Dr. H. Cleere and Mr. A. D. F. Streeten for their help with the flints and the pottery, to the Southern Water Authority, and to the contractors, J. T. Mackley and Sons of Henfield, for their kind help and every possible co-operation which included the loan of a machine. Thanks are also due to all those members of the two societies who helped in any way while the pipe laying was in progress. The main burden of work fell upon a small core of people drawn from both societies: John Bell, John Clements, Hikki Haines, Hamish and Prue Maxwell-Stewart and Betty Tucker. Prue Maxwell-Stewart also drew the flints.

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Two Prehistoric Implements from Blackboys, East Sussex

I have been loaned for recording purposes two prehistoric implements found by Mr. Matthew Bayman on Sharlands farm, Blackboys, East Sussex.

One of the implements (Fig. 5) is a broken hour-glass perforated stone, which was discovered at TQ 531210. Such perforated pebble tools (also referred to as pebble mace-heads or pebble hammers) are fairly abundant in Sussex and the south-eastern area generally, and are usually dated by association with other flintwork to the Mesolithic (Rankine 1956, 58; Woodcock & Woolley 1984, 7). The Blackboys example does not exhibit any 'peripheral bruising'. It has been thin-sectioned by Mr. A. R. Woolley of the British Museum (Natural History) who reports that it is 'a rather pure orthoquartzite, i.e. a quartz sandstone'. Nearly all of the hour-glass perforated stones from the south-east were manufactured from pebbles of quartzite or sandstone, which occur scattered over many parts of the

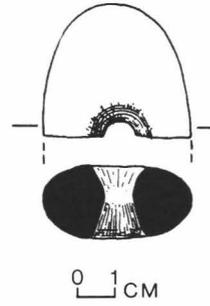


Fig. 5.

downs and the fringes of the Weald (Woodcock & Woolley 1984, 7).

The second implement (not illustrated) is a complete Neolithic leaf-shaped arrowhead found at TQ 52952100. The arrowhead is 37 mm. long, with a maximum width of 19 mm. Other surface finds from Sharlands farm include sherds of Romano-British and medieval pottery.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Mrs. Jennifer Bayman for informing me of her son's discoveries, Mrs. L. Drewett who drew the illustration, and Dr. A. Woodcock who arranged for the pebble tool to be thin-sectioned.

Author: David Rudling, Institute of Archaeology, University of London.

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A Rock Shelter at Stone Rocks, East Grinstead

Introduction

Stone Rocks (N.G.R. TQ 381347; Figs. 6 and 7) form a 100-metre long exposure of Tunbridge Wells Sand on the north side of a valley, part of the upper Medway system. A portion of the valley, below the rocks, is now flooded to form Weir Wood reservoir. The rocks are some 35 metres above the natural valley floor, over which they offer wide views, and on their south side they rise to some 6.5 metres at the east end.

The rock line occurs along a public bridleway and is used by rock climbers, resulting in much erosion of the sand around its base on the lower side. As a result, rain has now washed most of the sand downhill, exposing the rock base and destroying all stratification. One of the authors (C. F. T.) has been visiting the site over the past 14 years and has collected flints there as they became exposed on the surface. They occur mainly at the eastern end.

The rocks form one of a series of Wealden rock shelters first described by Money (1960). Other examples include Harrison's Rocks (Groombridge), Hermitage Rocks (High Hurstwood), Philpots (West Hoathly), Blunds Hole and Ridge Hill (East Grinstead) and Bowles Rocks Sports Centre (Eridge). Like so many of these sites Stone Rocks is situated on the side of a valley and commands an extensive view.

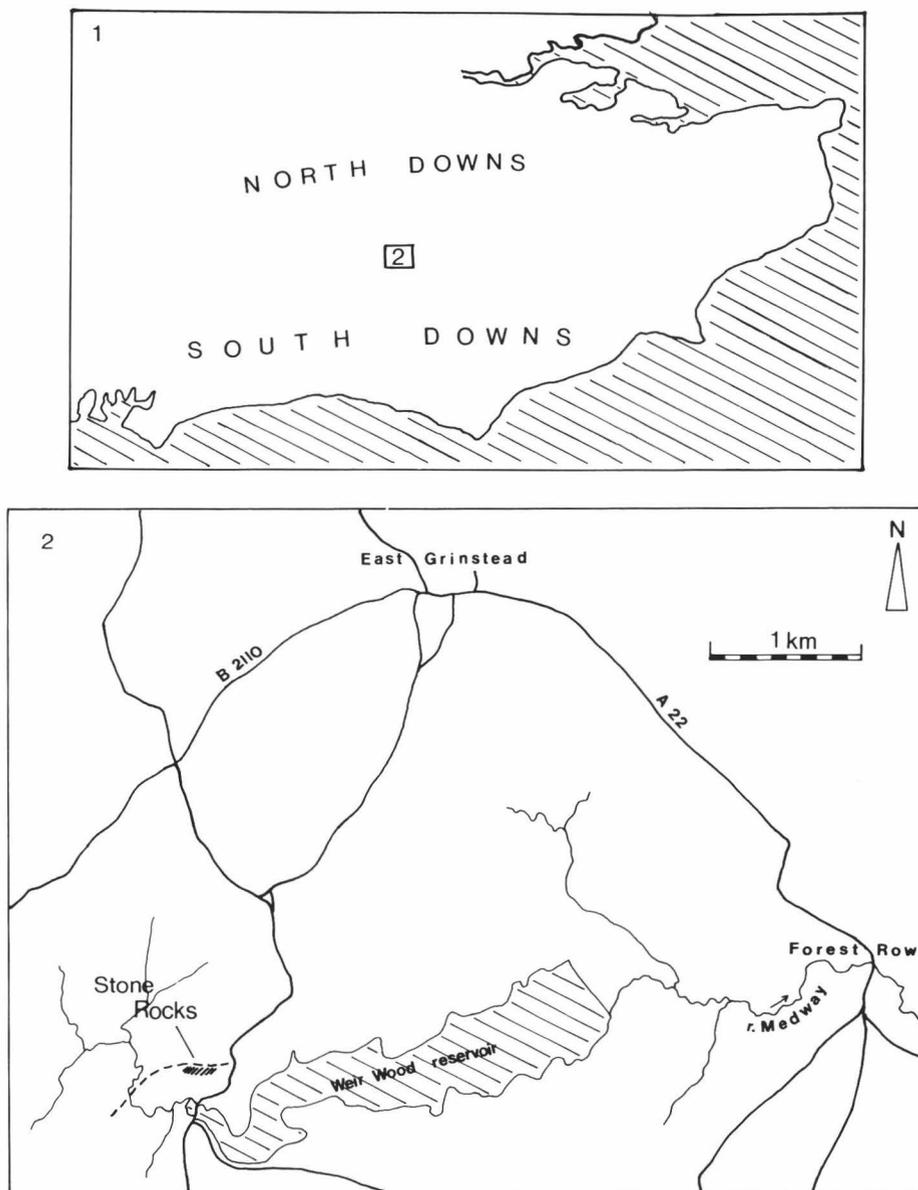


Fig. 6. Stone Rocks: location plan.

Its position in the High Weald to some extent contrasts with the setting of the better known Mesolithic sites in the Weald which are most frequently on the Greensand. This may be because such an environment would have been unusually productive during early prehistory (Clarke 1979). By contrast the Weald clay seems to have been less inviting, and this may be reflected in the specialized character of

some of the sites there. Unfortunately, as noted above, the rock shelter discussed here is without stratification. For this reason the lithic material will be treated as one group. Even so, it will be seen that its distinctive character has features in common with finds from other rock shelters in this part of the Weald.

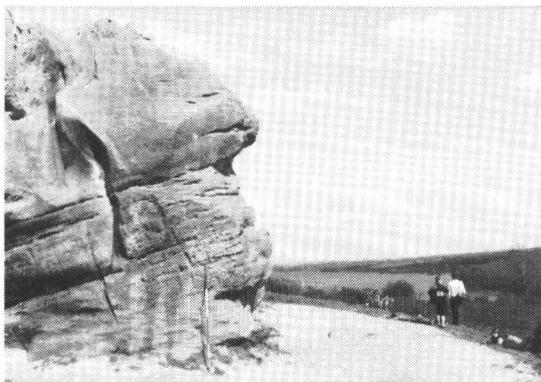


Fig. 7. Stone Rocks with 2-metre ranging pole.

The Flint Industry Raw Materials

Four varieties were used at Stone Rocks; the proportions in which they occur are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

	<i>Blades</i>		<i>Flakes</i>	
	<i>number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>number</i>	<i>%</i>
Black flint	28	43	40	60
Speckled grey flint	31	48	18	27
White flint	5	8	3	4
Reddish flint	1	2	6	9
Total	65	101	67	100

It seems likely that this material came mainly from the North or South Downs, which may be the source of the high quality black flint, or from gravel deposits where the speckled grey flint can be obtained. The remaining flint could originate in the western Weald. Similar conclusions have been reached in studying flintwork from Ashdown Forest (Tebbutt & Jacobi 1983).

Table 1 shows one important contrast among the finds from Stone Rocks, with a high proportion of blades in the grey flint but more flakes in the fine black flint. Since the industry appears to be a mixed one, this may be due to chronological factors, with the characteristic Mesolithic material making most use of only one source. There may also be evidence that the two materials were introduced to the site in a different state or were worked to a different extent, for the black flint retains more cortex than the other materials used at Stone Rocks. Overall little of the flint retained much cortex, however, and there was little contrast between the amount remaining on the flakes and on blades. In addition, 22% of the flints in this assemblage had been burnt and the raw material cannot be classified.

Unretouched Flints

Table 2 summarizes the main categories of unretouched flint.

All three cores are of good quality black flint and have been well worked down. Maximum dimensions are between 3 and 3.5 cm. Full use has been made of the raw material, one of the cores having two platforms and the other no fewer

TABLE 2

	<i>number</i>	<i>%</i>
Cores	3	1
Flakes	172	69
Blades	65	26
Core rejuvenation flakes	8	3
Bashed lumps	1	1
Total	249	100

than three. Two are of the pyramidal form. The rejuvenation flakes also reflect the need to make the best use of scarce raw material. Most of these, however, were in the grey speckled flint (Fig. 8). The flakes are probably not a homogeneous group and some may belong to either the Mesolithic or the Neolithic uses of the site. They exhibit a limited size range, however, with most examples between 3 and 6 cm. in length.

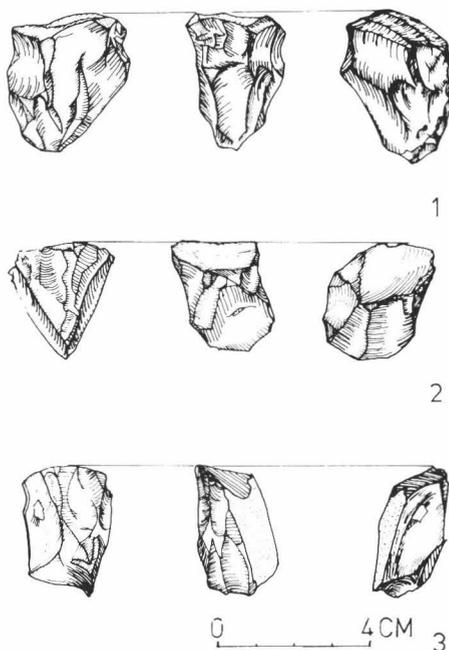


Fig. 8. Stone Rocks: cores.

More can be said about the blades (Fig. 9). These are generally made from good quality flint and can be as long as 7 cm. In addition, there is evidence that a number of the blades had been split into segments, and the uneven representation of the different parts of the blades suggests that an appreciable number had been either removed from the site or made elsewhere.

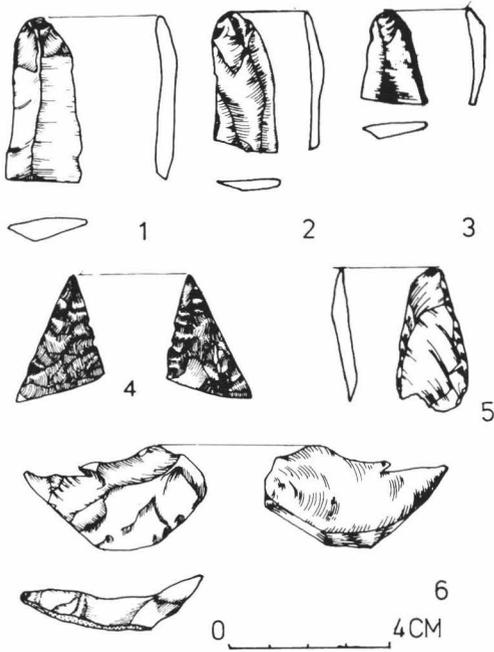


Fig. 9. Stone Rocks. Nos. 1-3, retouched blades; no. 4, leaf-shaped arrowhead; no. 5, chisel-end transverse arrowhead; no. 6, axe-resharpener flake.

TABLE 3

	number	%
Complete blades	8	13
Bulbar segments	7	11
Middle segments	27	44
Distal segments	19	31
Total	61	99

Retouched Flints

Table 4 summarizes the retouched material at Stone Rocks.

TABLE 4

	number	%
Retouched flakes	14	46
Retouched blades	3	10
Scrapers	3	10
Microliths	6	20
Micro-burin	1	4
Axe-sharpener flakes	1	4
Arrowheads	2	6
Total	30	100

The relatively high proportion of retouched flakes and blades may be another sign that raw material was scarce and sparingly used. The other types can be divided into two chronologically distinct groups. The scrapers (a burnt disc scraper and two long end scrapers) made use of flakes which were probably a by-product of blade manufacture and appear to be of Mesolithic date. The same should apply to the single axe-sharpener flake (Fig. 9), and will certainly be the case for the microliths and the micro-burin. The seven microliths (Fig. 10) were all small and were made of either black or speckled grey flint. All had broken ends or other signs of damage. They comprise two obliquely blunted points, an obliquely blunted blade (perhaps an unfinished microlith), a blade snapped off and an elongated lanceolate piece. The sixth example is unclassified. The micro-burin, which is of grey speckled flint, attests to microlith production on the site itself, a view supported more tentatively by the high proportion of blade segments in the lithic industry.

The remaining two items are probably Neolithic. There is one chisel-ended transverse arrowhead. Although it bears some resemblance to a form attributed to the Mesolithic period, recent work has suggested that most examples are much later in date, and that they are often associated with Peterborough ware (Green 1980). The second arrowhead is incomplete but seems to have been a large lozenge-shaped projectile point made from the fine black flint (Fig. 9). The chronology of the leaf-shaped arrowhead remains controversial, but this variety could belong to the mid 3rd millennium B.C.

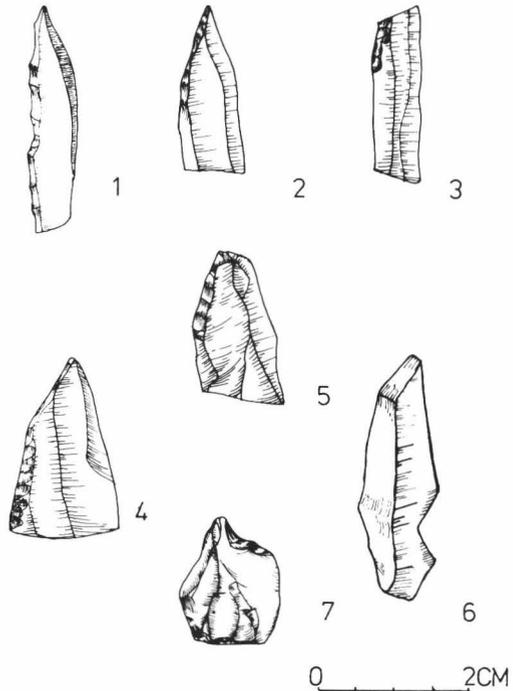


Fig. 10. Stone Rocks: microliths and micro-burin. Nos. 2 and 4, obliquely blunted points; no. 6, obliquely blunted blade; no. 1, elongated lanceolate piece; no. 5, unclassified piece; no. 3, snapped-off blade.

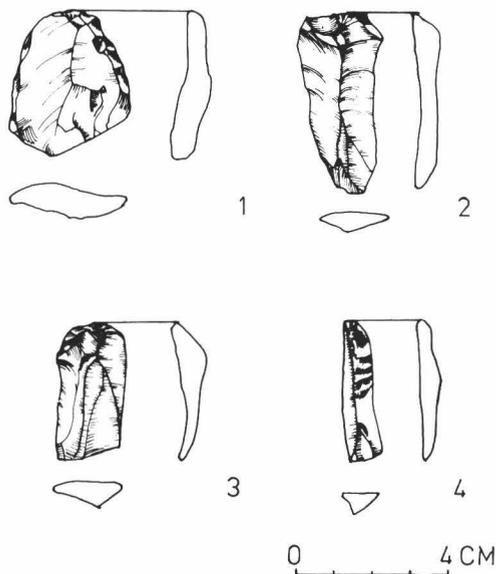


Fig. 11. Stone Rocks. No. 1, burnt disc scraper; nos. 2-3, long end scrapers; no. 4, core rejuvenation flake.

Discussion

It is impossible to tell how many times the Stone Rocks shelter had been used, although the flintwork itself points to a minimum of two occupations, one in the late Mesolithic and the other during the Neolithic period.

The Mesolithic material, with its rather narrow blades and its distinctive group of small microliths, most probably belongs to the later part of that period. That is particularly suggested by the lanceolate piece from the site (Renfrew 1974). The Neolithic arrowheads may belong to quite separate uses of the site, but their chronology could overlap towards the 3rd millennium B.C.

In many ways this material is similar to the finds from other Wealden rock shelters. The amount of worked flints is limited and only a small range of tools is represented among the finds from either period. It seems extremely unlikely that Stone Rocks saw a prolonged period of use, and the presence of what could be interpreted as hunting equipment in both periods reinforces the impression that it was most useful as an observation point and as a temporary stopping place in monitoring the movement of game animals. Like so many Mesolithic sites in the Weald, it was re-used after a substantial period during the later part of the Neolithic. The same pattern can be observed at High Rocks, where two separate occupations can be dated to the late Mesolithic and the later Neolithic respectively. Here again the lithic industry was small and apparently specialized (Money 1960).

Some support for these ideas comes from the distinctive use made of the lithic materials introduced to the site. It is characteristic of late Mesolithic sites in the Weald that they make use of local, sometimes rather poor quality, flint sources (Care 1982), but the evidence from Stone Rocks also suggests that these might have been collected at different points in a mobile pattern of settlement, and that, as a result, separate raw materials might be worked to a varying extent on the site. Doubtless some items were

introduced ready-made, whilst the low number of cores, the presence of numerous core rejuvenation flakes, and the discovery of an axe-sharpening flake could all indicate that the supplies of flint were carefully conserved. The same pattern is indicated by the evidence of the blade segments on the site. It seems likely that the collection of lithic raw materials by hunter-gatherers is 'embedded' in more basic economic processes (Binford 1979), and it may be by analysing this type of evidence in greater detail, and on better preserved sites, that we will learn more about the early settlement of the Weald.

Acknowledgements

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Thanks are also due to M. Tebbutt for the location plan and D. M. Meades for the photograph. The finds will be placed in Barbican House Museum, Lewes.

Authors: Da Luz Oliveira; C. F. Tebbutt, The Pheasantry, Wych Cross, Forest Row.

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A 1st-Millennium B.C. Field System in Binderton Parish, West Sussex

Aerial photographs taken in 1971 (aerial photograph nos. BKS 1971 151203-4) revealed a rectangular soil mark that resembled the flanking ditches of a Neolithic oval barrow at SU 83201072 (Aldsworth & Down 1979, 31). Excavation in September 1984 showed the feature to be a negative lynchet, severely truncated by modern ploughing, containing pottery dating to the 1st millennium B.C. and early Romano-British period (Fig. 12). A second negative lynchet further up the slope was also sectioned and found to contain pottery of similar date. The lynchets certainly indicate the presence of cultivated fields on this north-east-facing slope in the 1st millennium B.C., possibly extending into the Romano-British period. Apart from a low density

BINDERTON 1984

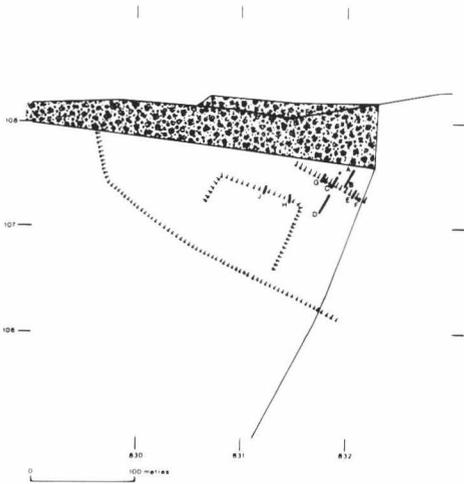


Fig. 12.

scatter of unretouched flint flakes, no further traces of human activity survived.

Author: Robin Holgate, Institute of Archaeology, University of London.

Note

The finds and an archive report are housed at the Chichester District Museum. I am grateful to Fred Aldsworth for help throughout the excavation.

Reference

Aldsworth, F. G. & Down, A. 1979 'Gazetteer of Sites and Finds: Pre-historic and Roman', in *Chichester Excavations*, 4 (ed. A. Down).

Trial Excavations at Ditchling Beacon, East Sussex, 1983

At the request of the Department of the Environment the Sussex Archaeological Field Unit undertook trial

excavations at Ditchling Beacon, East Sussex (TQ 331130), in order to assess recent plough damage to the scheduled monument, a possible 'Early' Iron Age hill-fort (Bedwin 1978, 47). It was also hoped that the investigations would confirm the date of the enclosure and yield associated environmental data. The site is located on the northern edge of the South Downs (Fig. 13), and has a natural covering of clay-with-flints over the chalk bedrock. The only previous excavations on Ditchling Beacon were those directed by Crow and Ross-Williamson in 1929 (Crow 1930). These small-scale excavations were located in the north-east area of the enclosure's earthworks and 'proved almost sterile'. Finds, however, included some flintwork and sherds of Iron Age and Roman pottery. One trench (D) was excavated within the enclosure in order to investigate a circular depression, but this revealed no evidence of habitation.

The 1983 Excavations

During September 1983 five trenches (Fig. 14) were excavated under the supervision of Alan Thompson. Two trenches (A and B) were located within the enclosure, and the other three (C, D and E) were positioned in order to examine the enclosure earthworks (bank and ditch).

The aim of the two interior trenches was to sample the site to see whether there were any surviving traces of occupation within the enclosure. In both cases it became obvious that modern ploughing and 'subsoiling' would have destroyed any archaeological levels, but in Trench A several 'features' were found in the subsoil (Fig. 16: microfiche, p. 5). These linear and roughly circular features contained clay-with-flints and are most likely to be natural features. The upper part of the fill (5) of Context 4, however, contained three sherds of heavily flint-gritted pottery and some chalk and charcoal flecks.

Trench C, located on the line of the western side of the enclosure earthworks, was abandoned due to extensive modern disturbance of the area.

The southern side of the earthworks was sectioned at Trench D. Although the ditch was located, no traces of the bank remained. The ditch appears to have been shallow (Fig. 15), and its lowest fill (10) yielded a bone (*Bos*) and two antler (*Cervus elaphus*) fragments, one of which was submitted for C14 dating. Unfortunately there were no pottery finds from the ditch. To the north of the ditch (Fig. 16: microfiche, p. 5) was a shallow, linear feature (5) of uncertain origin.

At Trench E, just south of the 1929 investigations, the opportunity was taken to examine a section of the earthwork where the rampart still survives (as the boundary of

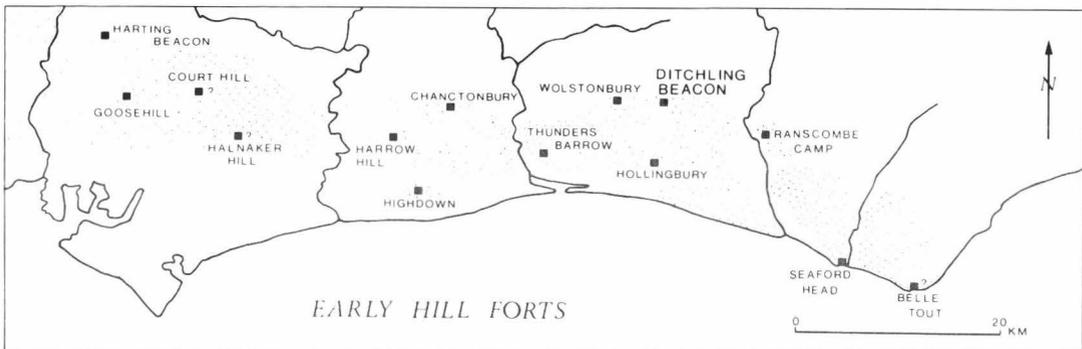


Fig. 13. Location map showing the positions of the early hill-forts on the South Downs in Sussex.

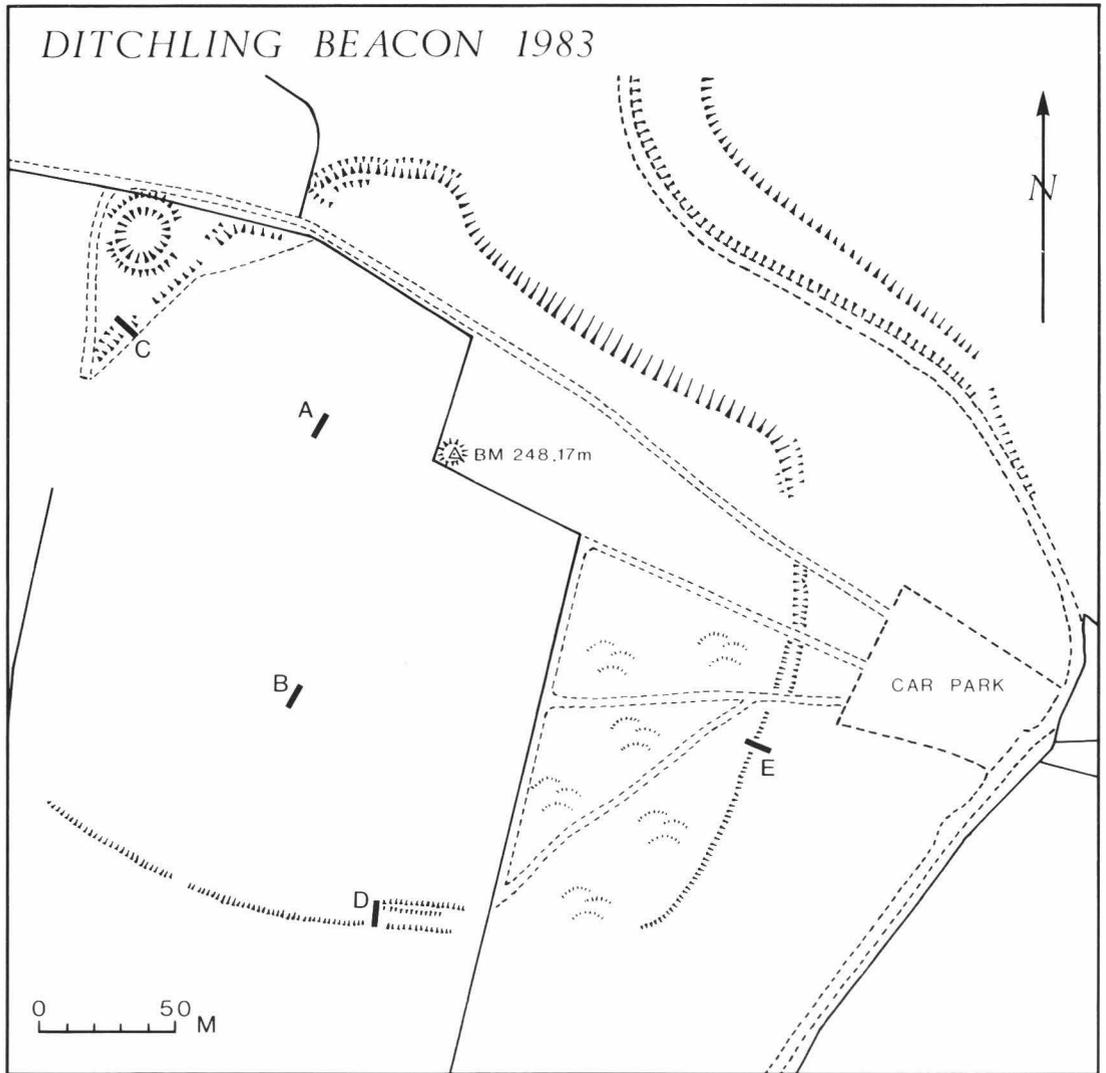


Fig. 14. Ditchling Beacon, 1983: trench plan.

the adjacent modern field). Excavation (Fig. 15) revealed traces of the bank (Context 4) and the ditch, again of shallow form. As with Trench D no evidence was found for revetting or a palisade for the bank. Several small sherds of Early Iron Age pottery (see below) were found in the bank, and others were found on the surface of a natural clay-with-flints feature (16) outside the hill-fort to the east of the ditch (Fig. 16: microfiche, p. 5).

Discussion

It is clear from the results of the 1983 excavations and an examination of the surface of the whole site that the areas of Ditchling Beacon hill-fort which are now under plough have suffered very badly from ploughing and deep subsoiling. The perimeter earthworks which showed up so

clearly in 1929 (Crow 1930, 260) have now been almost completely obliterated on the western and southern sides. The location(s) of the original entrance(s) to the enclosure remain unknown, and modern tracks have increasingly mutilated the various gaps in the earthworks, one or more of which may have been such original entrances.

The dating of the hill-fort has been aided by the discovery of additional sherds of Early Iron Age pottery, especially those sherds found within the bank (Trench E, Context 4). Other Early Iron Age sherds were found within the interior of the hill-fort (Trenches A and B) and just outside the ditch (Trench E, Context 17). The antler fragment from the bottom of the ditch in Trench D has also provided a C14 date of 610 b.c. \pm 100 (Har-5935).

The general assemblage of flintwork from the excava-

tions indicates occupation in the vicinity of the hill-fort at various times in prehistory, and the sherd of Roman pottery, together with those found in 1929, points to Roman use of this area of the downs.

Unfortunately soil conditions (see below) were not suitable for the survival of molluscan data and thus the recent excavations failed to provide any new environmental information about the hill-fort.

The Finds

The finds from the 1983 excavations have been deposited at Brighton Museum.

The flintwork (by Caroline R. Cartwright). During the 1983 season of excavations in Trenches A-E at Ditchling Beacon 66 fragments of knapped flint and one of fire-cracked flint were found. Details may be seen in Table 1 (microfiche, p. 3). Trench A, Context 1 contained waste flakes reminiscent of those associated with Neolithic-type flintworking, and the sole specimen of fire-cracked flint. Trench A, Context 2, however, produced two small, partly worked, chipped microliths: a side- and end-retouched piece, and one with oblique retouch partly down one side, and with what appears to be almost an incipient tang at the right-hand base. Trench B also combines two different flintworking traditions; the larger notched flake from Context 1 contrasts with the thumbnail-sized, partly retouched flake from Context 2. Trench C produced one large cortical waste flake, one small waste flake and one retouched flake. Trench D contained the bulk of the flintwork with 53 pieces. Of the 34 unretouched waste flakes from Trench D, five were large (cortical) flakes, 17 were medium-sized flakes and 12 were small. There were nine retouched flakes (one of which was large), two notched and two semi-notched flakes. A partly finished awl or borer came from Context 1, and a rough end-scraper from Context 3. Two cores, both with one platform each, occurred in Contexts 1 and 3; the latter also produced two fragments of rough workshop waste. Trench E contained two waste flakes and one blade fragment. A variety of flint is represented in the above pieces, in terms both of colour and quality, ranging from blue/dark grey unpatinated material to white/cream patinated flint. The colour differences and presence or absence of patination are partly a function of burial conditions of the flint fragments and partly represent the two kinds of flintwork involved, residual material and material representative of the occupants of the site.

Prehistoric pottery (by Owen Bedwin). A total of 34 sherds were recovered, weighing 180 g (Table 2: microfiche, p. 4). Three fabrics were recognized: (i) a heavily flint-gritted fabric, with calcined flint inclusions up to 5 mm. across, and which also contained a little grog, giving the surface a 'corky' appearance; (ii) a fabric with some coarse sand (? beach source), and a little calcined flint; and (iii) a fabric containing iron oxide inclusions. Colour varied from black to reddish-brown. None of the sherds had diagnostic features; all were undecorated body sherds, except for a single tiny base sherd. This set of fabrics, however, would fit well within the known range of early Iron Age types, dating to the 6th/5th centuries B.C. Similar fabrics have been identified at Hollingbury, a few kilometres to the south (Hamilton 1984), from the hill-fort excavations. The author is grateful to Sue Hamilton for discussing this material with him.

Roman pottery. Trench B, Context 2 yielded a single sherd of Roman sandy grey ware. The 1929 excavations (Crow 1930) also discovered several sherds of Roman pottery.

Animal bones (by Owen Bedwin). A total of eight bone fragments and two antler fragments were identified (Table

3: microfiche, p. 4). Species represented were *Bos*, *Ovis*, *?Equus* (bone) and *Cervus elaphus*, red deer (antler). The antler, all from Context D/10, provided the C14 date. The bone sample is too small for any conclusions about the nature of the site or the diet of its builders. It will be noted, however, that 'deer antler' was recorded during the 1929 excavations (Crow 1930).

Charcoal (by Caroline R. Cartwright). 3 g. of *Quercus* sp. (oak) charcoal were recovered from Trench A, Context 2. **Coin.** Trench C, Context 1 produced a bronze three-falus coin of Muhammad IV of Morocco. The coin is dated 1288 (A.H.), i.e. A.D. 1871.

Molluscan analysis. A series of soil samples from four contexts in Trench D and seven contexts in Trench E were taken during the excavations for molluscan analysis. Caroline Ellis (Imperial College) examined these samples but was unable to undertake a molluscan analysis as most of the material was decalcified and all the samples contained a large amount of clay-with-flints.

C14 date. An antler fragment from Context 10 in Trench D was submitted to Harwell for C14 dating. This gave a date of 610 b.c. ± 100 (Har-5935).

Contents of Microfiche

List of contexts (pp. 1-2)

Fig. 16: plans of features in Trenches A, D and E (p. 5)

Fig. 17: various sections from Trench A (p. 6)

Table 1: flintwork from Trenches A-E (by Caroline R. Cartwright) (p. 3)

Table 2: sherd list (by Owen Bedwin) (p. 4)

Table 3: bone record (by Owen Bedwin) (p. 4)

Archive

The site archive is housed at the Institute of Archaeology, University of London, and a copy has also been deposited with the finds at Brighton Museum.

Acknowledgements

Permission to excavate was kindly granted by the separate landowners, Mr. P. Taylor of Housedean Farm, and Brighton Corporation (through Mr. Macadam of Strutt and Parker). Brighton Corporation's tenant farmer, Mr. Ray, also kindly co-operated with the investigations on his farm. East Sussex County Council (through the good offices of Dr. A. Woodcock) provided some of the excavation funds; the remainder came from the Department of the Environment. I would also like to thank all the site volunteers, especially Alan Thompson, Des Woods, Tony Thomas, Theresa McDonald, Peter Brown and Peter DREWETT; and the various post-excavation specialists mentioned in the text.

Author: David Rudling, Institute of Archaeology, University of London.

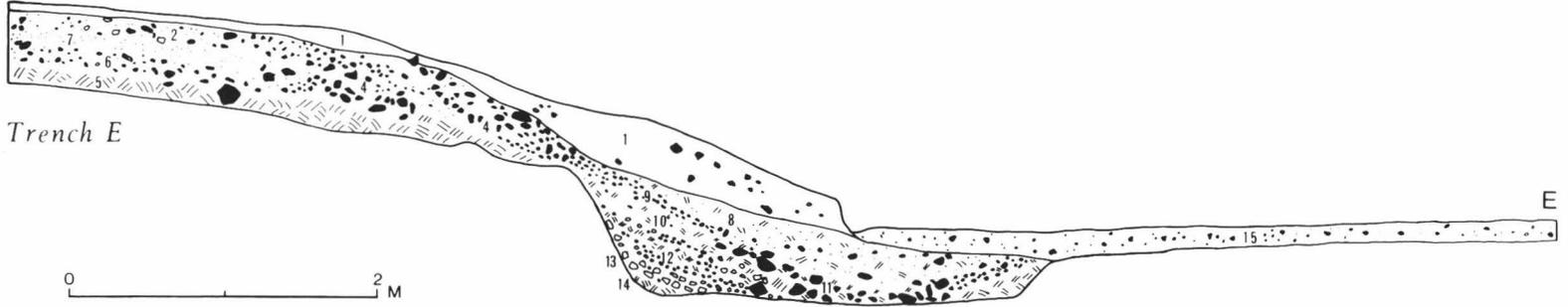
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The Society is grateful to the Historic Buildings and Monuments Commission for a generous grant towards the cost of publishing this Note.

DITCHLING BEACON 1983

W



S

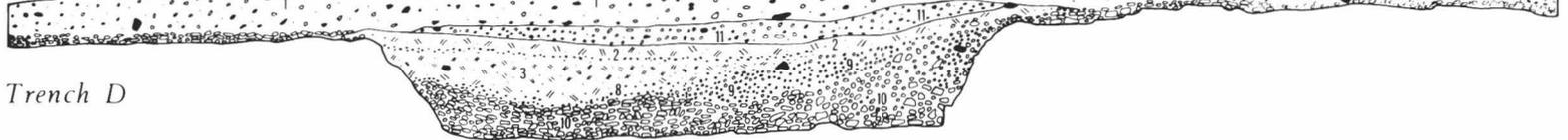


Fig. 15. Ditchling Beacon, 1983: main sections in Trenches D and E.

Late Iron Age Coin Find at Drayton, Chichester

In the summer of 1983 Mr. A. Hennel found at Drayton near Chichester (SU 883048) a silver minim of Epaticus (Mack type 263). This is an issue of the Catuvellauni tribe of the modern Home Counties area dated to A.D. 25–35.

Obverse: head of Hercules to right, in front EPATI.

Reverse: eagle facing, head to left and wings spread, standing on a serpent.

An almost identical coin was found in the north-west quadrant of Chichester (small find no. 1164) but the example from Drayton was a better striking, being more centrally placed on the die, and was also less worn. Museum record photographs were taken after identifying the coin in 1983, but a limited loan period precluded the weighing of the coin, which was retained by the finder.

The importance of the coin lies in its being another example of late Iron Age coinage from the Catuvellauni circulation in West Sussex. Carson (1978) discussed the implications of this in the case of the Chichester find; the circumstances of the Drayton example's find prevent any dating of its deposition. Whilst one more coin will not determine whether or not there was an increase in the Catuvellaunian area at the expense of the northern Atrebates in the early 1st century A.D., a picture may eventually emerge if enough finds are published.

Author: A. E. Bone, Chichester District Museum.

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Carson, R. A. G. 1978 'The Early British Coins', in *Chichester Excavations*, 4 (ed. A. Down), 330–1 and pl. 18. Chichester: Phillimore.

The Roman Buildings at Bosham

Substantial structures at Broadbridge, Bosham, 4½ km. west of Chichester, were discovered in 1832 (Mitchell 1866). The location of two of these (described here as Sites A and E) is shown on the 25-in. Ordnance Survey map of 1876. Mitchell stated that a third structure lay 150 yd. south-west of Site A, but his rather inaccurate description of Site E as 200 yd. north of Site A must cast doubt on his accuracy in this case also. The third structure as given by Mitchell is described here as Site B. Excavations which took place north-east of Site A in 1967 revealed a substantial timber palisade followed by two successive phases of timber buildings (Pitts 1979, 70); this site is described here as Site C. The County Archaeologist, Mr. F. Aldsworth, has kindly informed me of the reported discovery of a mosaic floor a few years prior to 1984; the site is described here as D. The Roman road from the west gate of Chichester (Margary's route 421) probably passed close to these structures although excavation in 1976 along the line of the re-aligned A 27 failed to locate it (Toller 1981). Although it is very brief the report by Mitchell contains information which the writer believes will bear a particular interpretation. It is hoped that the suggestions made here will be of sufficient interest to generate fieldwork and perhaps research excavation.

Site A (SU 81020513). A central room 13.7 metres (45 ft.) square had a central *piscina* 1.8 metres (6 ft.) in diameter and the same depth. On both the east and west sides of this room was a range of three small rooms, all 3.7 metres (12 ft.) square, joined by passages 1.8 metres (6 ft.)

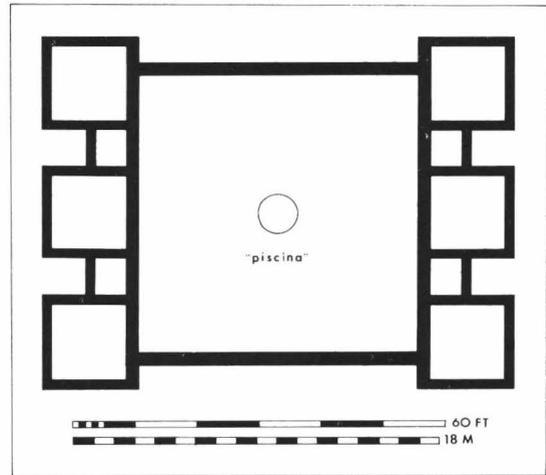


Fig. 18.

long and 1.5 metres (5 ft.) wide. The sides of the *piscina* were described as vitrified and a great quantity of fragmentary pottery was found in it. The plan shown in Fig. 18 is based on this description. It is suggestive of a temple. Both the central *piscina* or pit, with its evidence of burning, and the flanking rooms, where statuary and offerings could be displayed, have parallels in temples in Britain and on the Continent (Lewis 1966, 44–5; 166, fig. 15; 169, fig. 29; Horne & King 1980, 521, fig. 17. 23. 1).

Site B (SU 80910503). Mitchell also records information he received from a Mr. Harris: 'he has been told by members of his family that they remember remnants of the tiers of seats'. The alleged seats were in a large excavation in the form of a basin c. 137 metres (150 yd.) south-west of the possible temple. The report is unauthenticated, but it may be accurate. Theatres are well known in association with temples in rural sanctuaries (e.g. Ribemont-sur-Ancre: Agache 1978, 405, fig. 36).

Site C (SU 81040518). North-east of the supposed temple was a timber palisade which had been dismantled by the mid 3rd century (Pitts 1979, 70). This could have delimited a *temenos*. Although coins of Antoninus Pius came from the mortar used in the walls of the building at A, so that it must belong to the middle of the 2nd century or later, it is possible that this simply represents the aggrandizement of an older holy site.

Site D (SU 80940513). There is little that can be said about the mosaic floor. Elaborate buildings, apparently intended for the accommodation of visitors, are features of major sanctuaries, for example at Herbord near Sanxay (Formigé 1944, 44, fig. 1) and at Lydney Park (Wheeler & Wheeler 1932, 44–9). The mosaic floor to the west is therefore compatible with the interpretation of site A as a temple.

If it is accepted that these buildings belonged to a temple complex its pretensions and scale suggest that it was paid for by the *civitas* authorities. The earlier sanctity of the place is suggested by the embellishment of a temple which was so close to Chichester, but not actually within the city. Gosbecks Farm near Colchester, with its probably pre-Roman *temenos* and 2nd-century theatre, provides a very close analogy (Crummy 1980, 258–64). At Canterbury,

where a large temple enclosure and associated theatre are known within the Roman city (Bennett 1981, 279–80 and fig. 2), the pre-Roman and Roman settlements occupied the same location (Blockley 1982, 226). At Chichester insufficient evidence has yet been found for any comparable pre-Roman settlement, and the name *Noviomagus* (New Market) implies a change of site. The location of the sanctuary at Bosham might provide a clue to the whereabouts of *one* focus of the pre-Roman *oppidum*. The sanctity of a holy place is something it is difficult to move.

RIB 92 from Chichester is a vow for the safety of the emperor Nero, taken in A.D. 58, and the inscription from the temple of Neptune and Minerva (RIB 91) begins PRO SALVTE DOMVS DIVINAE, a formula which excludes the period of Vespasian's principate (A.D. 70–9). In view of the likelihood that Cogidubnus was dead by A.D. 78 (Barrett 1979, 240–1), RIB 91 probably belongs to the reign of Claudius or Nero. The statue head found at Mill House, Broadbridge, has been thought to be comparatively modern, or an ancient piece of work imported after a grand tour. Connor (1974, 279–81) has argued for its authenticity and hinted that it may be an ancient import after all. He proposes that it represents Caligula. If he is right it fits well with the two early inscriptions from Chichester. The statue could well have been moved from a temple in the city to the new building constructed in the 2nd century at Bosham. Caligula did not suffer *damnatio memoriae*. Claudius punished his assassins and Nero professed admiration for his extravagance (Suetonius, *Claudius*, 11; *Nero*, 30). Suetonius' report (*Titus*, 4.1) that inscriptions, statues and busts honouring Titus were common in Britain lends credence to the idea of imperial statuary in Chichester two decades after the invasion of A.D. 43.

Site E (SU 81190527). According to Mitchell the building here contained a coin of Honorius in one of its walls. If this report is reliable such a late masonry building, presumably very late 4th- or early 5th-century, is remarkable in the vicinity of Chichester. The latest coins found at the Chilgrove 1 and Chilgrove 2 villas were issued under Magnentius (350–3) and Valentinian I (364–78) respectively (Lintott 1979). On the basis of the coins, and more significantly of the pottery, from Professor Frere's re-excavations, the occupation of Bignor may not have extended beyond the mid 4th century (Grew 1982, 176, 187).

A substantial house was constructed within the north-west quadrant of Chichester after c. 330–5, and its latest remodelling has been assigned to the third quarter of the 4th century (Down 1981, 128–34), but the Valentinianic period sees the latest coinage in regular use in the city. Close to Chichester one site which has produced coins of later (Theodosian) date is the timber shrine on Bow Hill (Down 1979, 36). Down (1979, 50) suggests that travellers from other regions visiting temples might deposit coins there after coinage had gone out of use for normal commercial transactions. The masonry building belonging to the Honorian period (or later) at Bosham thus strengthens the case for regarding the site as religious in character.

A final potential of the site at Bosham remains to be stated. A pagan religious complex at Witham in Essex was Christianized in the late 4th century (Turner 1982, 21–3), and the same has been suggested for the temple at West Hill, Uley, in Gloucestershire (Ellison 1980, 318). It is conceivable that the Honorian building at Bosham also represents a change to Christianity.

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Excavations at the Roman Palace, Fishbourne, 1983

In 1983 it became necessary to construct an additional storage building in the south-east corner of the Sussex Archaeological Society's property at Fishbourne (SU 84020470). Excavations in this immediate area in the 1960s (Cunliffe 1971) had located the north-east corner of the Neronian proto-palace. As this is a part of a scheduled ancient monument (Sussex 233) the writer was requested to carry out the controlled excavation of the new footings

trenches. Although their relatively small size meant that only minimal damage would be done to any surviving archaeological features, it also inevitably restricted their archaeological value.

Two trenches were excavated manually. Trench A ran east-west 7.0 metres by 0.7 metres and Trench B ran north from the west end of A, 3.9 metres by 0.7 metres (Figs. 19, 20). They were both excavated down to the undisturbed clayey gravel at a depth of approximately 0.7 metres. There had been considerable 19th-century disturbance which had severely truncated the Roman levels.

parallel to the south wall of Room 4 forming a continuous corridor around the east and north sides of the courtyard. It is possible that this wall supported a colonnade. Certainly the footings were insubstantial being c. 0.45 metres wide and cut into the gravel to a depth of 0.45 metres. They consisted of loosely compacted irregular blocks of Upper Greensand. Although there was a considerable amount of creamy white mortar over and intermixed with the upper course there was no evidence of mortar bonding lower down. A large number of the stones in the footings were reddened, indicating heating or burning, but as there was no other evidence of burning *in situ* this presumably took place prior to their use in the footings. The stone must have originated either on the north scarp of the South Downs or, more probably, from the more easily accessible outcrops on the Isle of Wight (Bone, D. A. pers. comm.).

The eastern end of Trench A partially sectioned the original Period 1A-1B stream. At this point its bed was at least 0.8 metres below the contemporary ground surface. It contained a thin layer of grey silt above which was a deliberate infilling of sticky ochre clay with occasional irregular blocks of Greensand, pottery sherds and two fragments of butchered bone.

The Pottery

The excavation produced c. 300 g. of Roman pottery most of which was very fragmentary. The most significant pieces are illustrated in Fig. 21. Samian identification is by Mr. G. B. Dannell. Figure in brackets refers to the context in which the sherd was found.

1. Samian. Form Loeschke 2A—Dragendorff 17. The slip is similar to the 'Italianate series' from Fishbourne (Dannell 1971), Augusto-Tiberian; (23a)
2. Samian. Form Ritterling 5, Tiberio-Claudian: South Gaulish. (23a)
3. Samian. Form 18, Claudian/Neronian?: South Gaulish. (20)
4. Rim sherd from a jar with a simple bead rim. Sandy grey ware with a white slipped surface. (23a)
5. Rim sherd of a Gallo-Belgic terra rubra platter with overhanging rim. Fine-grained orange fabric. Cam. Form 5/6, Claudio-Neronian (Hawkes & Hull 1947). (23a)

Of the above the Italian vessel is of specific interest. There were five sherds of the same vessel, not all joining, which leads to the suggestion that 'largish pieces were being deposited at Fishbourne, more in the nature of occupation *in situ* than from manuring material dumped from Chichester' (Dannell, G. pers. comm.).

Discussion and Conclusions

The stratigraphy of the site would suggest the following sequence of events. The existing stream was deliberately filled with clay (23a). This contained small quantities of residual domestic refuse of an early date, presumably related to the military phase of occupation. This was followed by the cutting of the two wall foundation trenches through the contemporary topsoil (35) into the underlying clayey gravel. These were then filled with unmortared footings of irregular Greensand blocks (28) and with mortar-bonded dressed blocks above (34). This building work resulted in a spread of mortar (20) over the surrounding area, in places firmly compacted. Levelling material in the form of clayey gravel was then spread over the area both inside the verandah and in the corner of the courtyard. It is possible that work was still proceeding on the construction of the northern wall at this time as Greensand chips were scattered over the surface of the gravel immediately south of it and this working area was subsequently covered with an infilling of clay (29, 30).

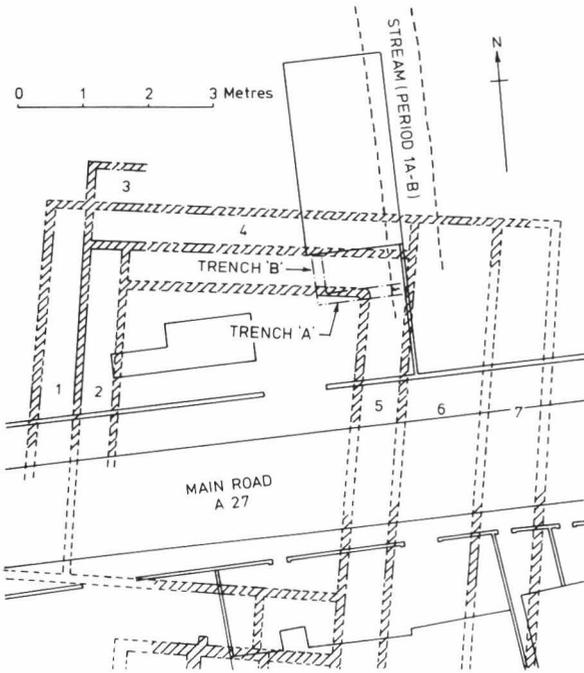


Fig. 19. Fishbourne: the northern part of the proto-palace (after Cunliffe 1971) showing the location of Trenches A and B and the newly discovered wall.

The remains of two walls were discovered. One (Context 34) was observed at the northern extremity of Trench B largely underlying a standing building. Its footings were of loosely consolidated irregular blocks of Greensand overlain by three courses of dressed Greensand blocks set in a cream mortar. The position and alignment of this wall clearly show it to be part of the southern wall of Cunliffe's Room 4.

At 2.5 metres south of this wall a parallel set of footings (28) were discovered which, halfway along Trench A, turned through 90° and disappeared in a southerly direction. This north-south limb is almost certainly part of the west wall of Cunliffe's Corridor 5 which he had located further to the south. It had previously been assumed to be the west wall of a corridor that flanked the courtyard and which continued north to abut the south wall of Room 4. It can now be seen that at its northern end it turns and runs

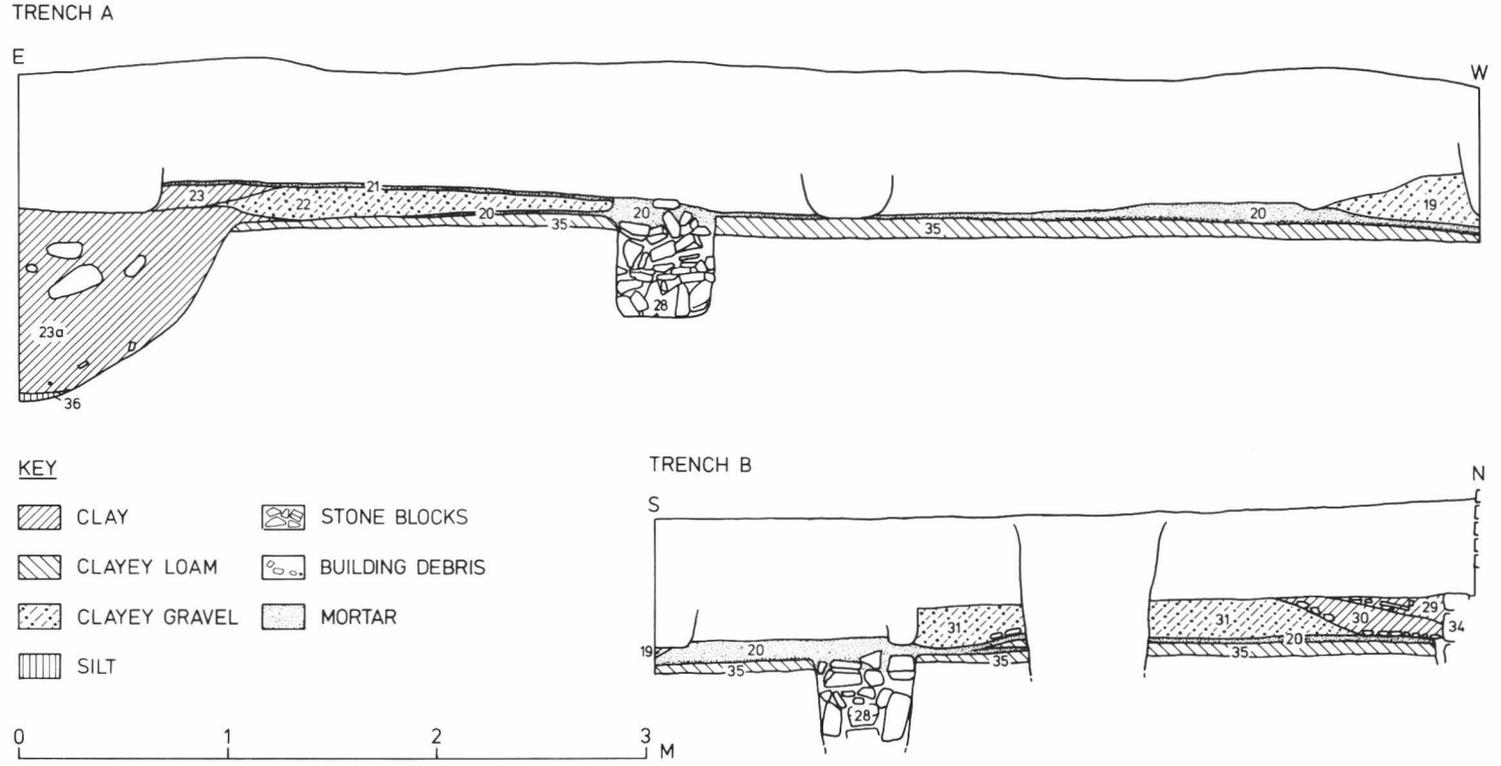


Fig. 20. Fishbourne, 1983: Trenches A and B.

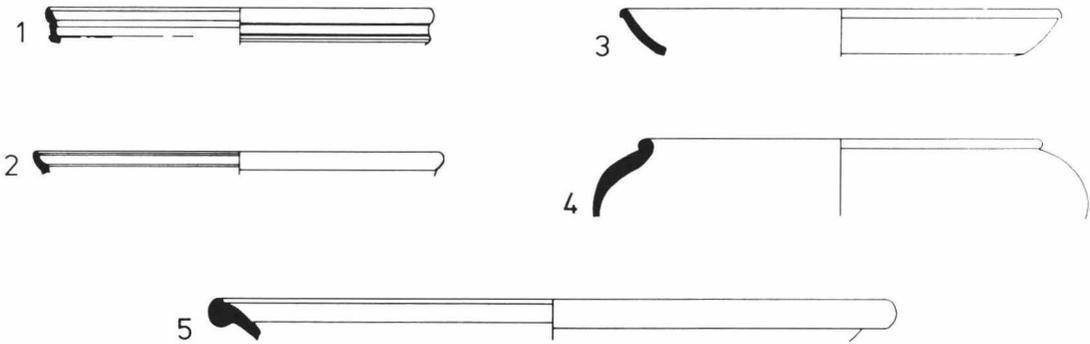


Fig. 21. Fishbourne, 1983: the pottery.

The relatively few sherds found directly associated with the construction phase reflected the situation in the 1960s and do nothing to confirm or refute the construction date of between A.D. 65 and A.D. 70 offered at that time. Nevertheless the additional information gained about the building plan clearly demonstrates the need to monitor all deep soil disturbance in and around the palace complex.

Acknowledgements

My thanks are due to Messrs. D. Mason and M. Allen for assistance in the excavation, to Mr. G. Dannell for the report on the Samian and Mr. D. Bone for comments on the building stone. All material found during the excavation has been placed in the Roman Palace Museum, Fishbourne.

Author: D. J. Rudkin, Director, Roman Palace and Museum, Fishbourne.

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A Hoard of Antoniniani from Westmeston, East Sussex

During 1984 a hoard of 61 late 3rd-century antoniniani and a small, plain bronze ring were discovered with the aid of a metal detector by Mr. L. Gaston on the northern scarp of the South Downs in the parish of Westmeston (TQ 340130). The finds were subsequently taken for identification to Barbican House Museum, Lewes.

The composition of the hoard is as follows.

Central Empire, 23 coins: 1 x Valerian I; 1 x Salonina joint reign; 9 x Gallienus sole reign; 3 x Salonina sole reign; 8 x Claudius II; 1 x Divus Claudius.

Galic Empire, 38 coins: 15 x Victorinus; 16 x Victorinus or Tetricus I; 7 x Tetricus I.

Most of the coins were very poorly preserved and none

of them was definitely barbarous, although the hybrid Divus Claudius specimen may be an irregular issue. The deposition of the hoard can be dated by the coins of Tetricus I to about A.D. 272-3.

A more detailed report has been submitted to the Department of Coins and Medals, British Museum, for inclusion in a future volume of *Coin Hoards from Roman Britain*.

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Anglo-Saxon Burials on Steyning Round Hill

The object of this note is to record the partial excavation of a barrow on Steyning Round Hill that was carried out at intervals between 1950 and 1952 by Steyning Grammar School Archaeological Society, led by Mr. W. Gardiner. This excavation is not to be confused with that of the Bronze Age urnfield on another part of Steyning Round Hill dug by the same group in 1949-50, which had additional direction and which has been published (Burstow 1958). I have been considerably assisted by Mr. D. R. Atkinson, who was a pupil at the Grammar School at the time and took part in the excavations until late 1951. He discovered recently some photographs of the dig taken by himself with a box camera, the clarity of which does not allow them to be published, but which show skeletal material in the barrow ditch.¹ Mr. Atkinson also gave me such details as he could remember after more than 30 years, and I am most grateful to him for his co-operation.

Steyning Round Hill crowns a north-west spur of the South Downs 1.4 km. south-west of the centre of Steyning High Street and, as its name implies, possesses a gently rounded summit at c. 170 metres O.D. The hill is surrounded by ancient tracks and commands extensive views. The subsoil of the area is Upper Chalk. In the latter part of 1952 virtually the whole of Round Hill was cleared of scrub and ploughed. During this operation at least three barrows and three cross dykes were levelled.² At about that time the six earthworks were scheduled as an Ancient Monument (Sussex 160), but it would seem to have been too late to ensure their preservation.

The barrow with which we are concerned was near the top of the hill, contiguous with one of the cross dykes, and is shown on the older editions of the 6-in. O.S. map LI. SE. (e.g. the 1914 edition in the set of archaeological maps held

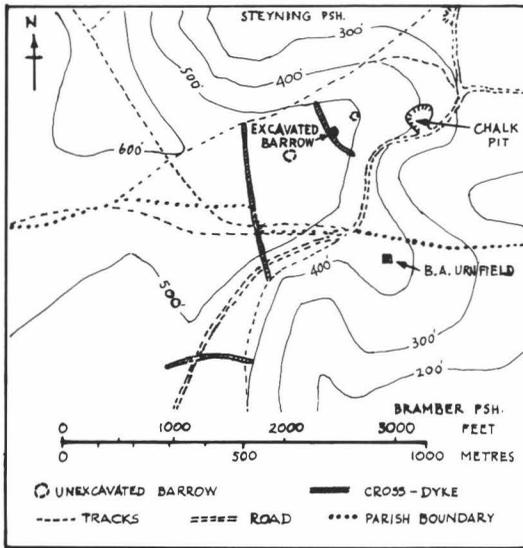


Fig. 22. Steyning Round Hill: location plan of excavated barrow and chalk-pit single inhumation. Also shown are the sites of nearby earthworks existing before 1952. Details taken from the Society's O.S. Map 6", Suss. LI. SE. (1914 edn.) from entries by the Drs. Curwen (undated, but c. 1920), L. V. Grinsell (1930) and others.

in the Society's library) (TQ 16581027). It cannot now be determined which earthwork was the earlier of the two. The barrow is described on the scheduling form (A.M.7; copy with Curator, Barbican House Museum, Lewes) as 'low, with a broad ditch, about 100 feet [30 metres] overall'. Notes on the Society's 6-in. map by L. V. Grinsell in 1930 and N. E. S. Norris in December 1951 suggest that the barrow excavated by the Grammar School was the same one as that dug for flints in 1826, as referred to by Cartwright:

In the year 1826, on the down overlooking Steyning, a barrow was removed for the sake of the flints. On the top of it, within a foot of the surface, there were three entire skeletons, and in the ditch surrounding it upwards of forty more. Besides these, on the west side, there appeared a large grave filled with bones. An urn containing burnt bones was found, and, in different parts of the barrow, about fifty coins of small brass, chiefly of the Lower Empire. A style [L. V. Grinsell suggests this might be a bronze pin], about five inches in length, was found. (Dallaway & Cartwright 1830, 170)

This barrow is recorded by Grinsell in his pioneer survey of Sussex barrows, where it is listed 'Platform', and he says that such barrows are sometimes difficult to distinguish from truncated bowl barrows (O.S. Map 6", Suss. LI. SE., no. 14; Grinsell 1934, 226, 254).

The only references to the Grammar School excavation that I have discovered are brief notices in the Minutes of the Sussex Archaeological Research Committee between December 1950 and January 1953. Summarized, in conjunction with the photographs, they record that one quadrant and most of the barrow ditch were excavated, with large numbers of human bones being found in a much

disturbed condition in both quadrant and ditch; also rim sherds of a collared urn of Middle Bronze Age date in the quadrant and, in 1952, one bronze and three iron buckles in the ditch. Mr. Norris's note on the 6-in. map records that ten 4th-century coins were found by the schoolboys in addition to the human bones. There seems no reason to doubt that the schoolboys re-excavated the barrow dug for flints in 1826, and that the earlier excavation truncated, rather than removed, the mound, thus leaving it with the appearance of a platform barrow.

Skeletal material in much disorder was seen in the ditch by Mr. Atkinson including 'large parts of skulls from different individuals fitting inside each other like saucers'. He was not present for the whole excavation, but considered that he saw the remains of at least ten people, sex unknown, none being children (Atkinson pers. comm.). It seems reasonably certain that the 1826 diggers disturbed skeletons while removing the flints, and they re-deposited the remains in the ditch and central area before covering all with soil.

Apart from Cartwright's reference to a 'large grave filled with bones', there are no details as to the method of burial of the other skeletons. Nor did the Grammar School record any graves dug into the solid chalk. That three skeletons were found in 1826 'within a foot of the surface' and many more in the surrounding ditch suggests that dug graves, if any, were shallow. Some shallow graves were noted at the Anglo-Saxon cemetery, Bishopstone (also on chalk) in 1967, which were only 10–20 cm. deep, and here too some of the burials were in and around a Bronze Age barrow (Bell 1977, 193–5).

Despite enquiries, the bronze and iron buckles have not been traced and must be presumed lost. They seem most likely to have been Anglo-Saxon, but the lack of dating evidence inhibits any suggestion into which part of the Anglo-Saxon period the burials should be placed. The Roman coins suggest votive offerings similar to those placed in the prehistoric barrow known as Money Mound in Lower Beeding parish (Beckensall 1967, 20).

The Research Committee Minutes for 21 October 1970 record that the greater part of a human skeleton was seen in the edge of a small chalk-pit just below Steyning Round Hill. This pit flanks the postal road at TQ 168103, and is c. 185 metres just east of north from the above-mentioned barrow, at c. 122 metres O.D. The bones were seen to be in a grave dug into the solid chalk and were those of of young, adult, male (diagnosed by the late Dr. H. B. A. Ratcliffe-Densham, who also thought the remains to be Saxon). The burial was seen also by Miss Wilcox of Worthing Museum and Mr. C. Ainsworth. This interment is accepted by M. G. Welch as quite probably an Anglo-Saxon inhumation (Welch 1983, 458). There are no signs of graves in the edge of the chalk-pit at the present time and, while there may have been only one grave, there is always the possibility that others were dug away during chalk extraction in (presumably) fairly recent times.

This grave, considered with the 40-plus barrow burials, all thought to be Anglo-Saxon, suggests that there may be a cemetery, or more than one, on Steyning Round Hill. If so, might there be a settlement not too far away? The experience of excavators generally, however, is that both types of site are very difficult to discover.

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Notes

¹Copies of the photographs have been deposited in the Society's library, and at Worthing and Steyning museums.

²*Suss. N. & Q.* 13 (1953), 332.

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Southease Church (TQ 423053)

Southease church is one of only three in Sussex with a round tower. The others, also in the Ouse valley, are Piddinghoe and St. Michael's in Lewes.

The dating of Southease church and the relationship of the round tower to the nave have been the subject of some controversy. Various writers have ascribed different dates to both tower and nave (Fig. 23). Close inspection of the interior of the tower brings several constructional points to light. From the 'belfry platform' it is noticeable that much

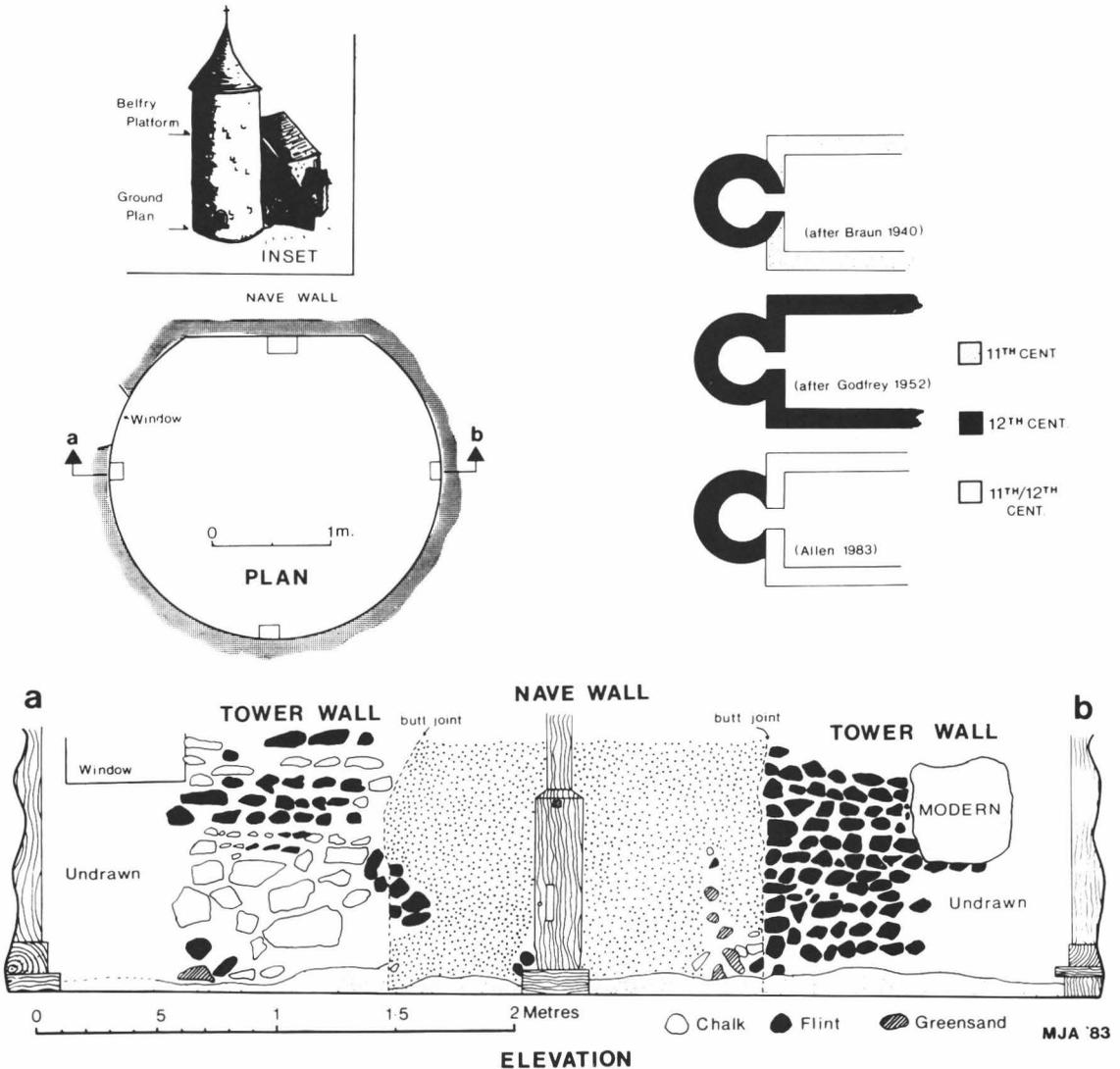


Fig. 23. Southease church. (Tower plan and elevation at belfry level.)

MJA '83

of the interior walling (unlike that of the exterior) is constructed with a large number of chalk blocks; the top of the tower is entirely capped, internally, with chalk blocks for its last three or four courses. More significantly, however, on the east side where the tower meets the nave, the circular tower wall is butted against the flat nave wall (Fig. 23). This shows that the tower is an addition and post-dates the nave. What is more, it proves that the tower was built against the nave, requiring minimal or no modification of the nave to accommodate it.

Braun (1940) stated that the nave was pre-Norman. He based this dating on 'a length of very coarsely formed string-course, or internal cornice' and a window high up in the north wall of the nave; the latter may be, according to Braun, either pre-Conquest or early Norman. Braun's plan of the church (Fig. 23), however, shows the circular walls of the tower, which he suggests is 12th-century, penetrating the wall of the nave. This would necessitate the removal of much of the west nave wall to accommodate the tower. This was proved incorrect by the observations above.

Godfrey (1952) dates both tower and nave to the 12th century, and shows them as integral (Fig. 23). He states that the 'tower can be dated with certainty to the twelfth century, and judging by the blocked-up window high up in the north wall of the nave, early in that century'.

Poole (1948) stated that it was unlikely that the tower and nave were contemporary, whilst Fisher (1970) believed the nave to be Saxon. However, Taylor (1980), the most recent and chief authority on Anglo-Saxon architecture, omits Southease church; and it is thus more likely that the nave is immediately post-Conquest or early 12th-century.

Round towers are common in East Anglia, and although many of these are dated to the Saxon period (Goode 1982) this does not seem to be the case with the Sussex examples.

The nave and tower of Southease church, therefore, appear to be roughly contemporary, the tower being built after the nave. The difference in date is uncertain but may be c. 50 years.

Acknowledgement

I am indebted to Lawrence Stevens for his observations and advice.

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Two Continental Jettons Found in Lewes

During 1984 two copper-alloy jettons found in Lewes were brought into Barbican House Museum for identification. Neither is exactly paralleled in Barnard (1916). They are illustrated and described below.

1. Found by Peter Hitchin in a flower-bed in Southover Grange gardens, Lewes (TQ 414097) (Fig. 24).



No 1



Fig. 24.

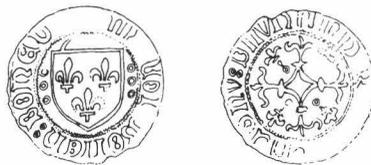
Obverse: AVE MARIA GRACIA (Hail Mary, [full of] grace), a heater-shield of France modern.

Reverse: A cross of three strands fleurdelisée, cantoned by $\bar{\Lambda}/M/\bar{\Lambda}/M$, for Ave Maria repeated; all within a tressure of four arches. Cf. Barnard (1916, 187), Low Country Jetton no.1.

Date: Probably 15th-century.

2. Found in Convent Field, Lewes (TQ 416095) by G. Richardson (Fig. 25). The jetton is cracked and bent.

Obverse: A shield of France modern, fictitious legends with Lombardic lettering.



No 2



Fig. 25.

Reverse: A bowed cross fleuronée, fictitious legends with Lombardic lettering. Cf. Barnard (1916, 211), German Jetton no.20.

Date: Probably struck at Nuremberg in the 16th or early 17th century.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Sarah Lawrence who drew the jettons.

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Reference

- Barnard, F.P. 1916 *The Casting-Counter and the Counting Board*. Oxford.

A Stone Box and Two Pieces of Oak Found in Steyning Church

A small collection of objects found within and outside the parish church of St. Andrew, Steyning, has been transferred from the church, where the finds were displayed, to a

Description of the Objects (Fig. 26)

1. *Stone box or casket.* The Caen stone box measures 6½ in. by 5½ in. by 6 in. high (165 x 133 x 153 mm.). It has been hollowed out by chiselling and a rebate has been formed at the top to receive a lid. Traces of plaster remain in the rebate. The bottom inside is unfinished and, as stated by Mr. Biek and his colleague, the box was spoiled by the maker accidentally making a hole in one end while working from the inside. The box, thus, becomes a 'waster' and was doubtless discarded forthwith; one may speculate as to the feelings of the mason when this disaster occurred. The external faces are smooth and bear faint traces of claw-chisel marks (suggested only, in the drawing of Face C). Face D has many shallow saw-cuts which Mr. Brackenbury thought had possibly been caused by Miles using the stone as a rest on which to cut wood with a saw. That explanation seems improbable as no carpenter would willingly operate his saw over a stone support, unless he was very fond of saw-sharpening! It is more probable that a mason used the spoiled box as a support when sawing soft stone. Such a box may have been intended as a reliquary-chest; another possible use could be as a casket for a heart burial. Several loose pieces of stone, including the box, all too large for the showcase in which the other objects were displayed inside the church, were to be seen on the floor below the case in 1982. The box was available to Miles in 1846 and may even then have been a curio found within the church or churchyard at an unknown time.

2 and 3. *The pieces of wood.* Both are of oak which has become very desiccated and light in weight. The grain of No. 2 runs horizontally (as drawn). This piece is c. 5 in. by 3 in. by 1½ in. thick (127 x 75 x 32 mm.), and is petal- or leaf-shaped, resembling a 'foil' such as would be cut out of a panel requiring a trefoil (or any other number 'foil') decorative feature. The edges are reasonably smooth as if cut with a fine saw. The base shows saw kerfs c. 1/25 in. (1 mm.) wide, confirming the use of a fine saw-blade. That tool probably was a turning (or fret-) saw with a twistable blade tensioned in a wooden frame by a stick in a twisted string.⁴ This foil would not form part of a finished piece of joinery, being but a piece of waste, normally discarded. The moulded piece, no. 3, has a length of only 1⅞ in. (37 mm.), being part of a member c. 4½ in. by 3½ in. (115 x 80 mm.). An ogee moulding has been worked on one side; the opposite side is broken, but there is evidence to suggest that the moulding was repeated (indicated by the dotted line). The narrow face is slightly rounded. The piece appears to be part of an oak rail and may be an offcut. Joiners normally leave certain members a little longer than necessary to allow for any adjustment of length, or to cover slight damage during handling and transport. On the other hand it could be a small piece deliberately cut from a rail during alterations or removal.

Discussion

When these pieces of oak were first drawn to my attention my immediate impression was that they were connected with a screen such as may be seen in some churches. Both foil and rail appeared to be not earlier than medieval in character or style. It is a pity that Mr. Brackenbury was not advised that such shaped pieces, one with a particular type of moulding, could not possibly be from a Saxon church. Drawings and a photograph of the objects were submitted to Dr. John H. Harvey, F.S.A., for his opinion (he has not seen the actual pieces of oak); I am greatly obliged to him for his advice and constructive comments. Dr. Harvey confirmed that the oak pieces were not Saxon and that both may originally have belonged to chancel or chapel fittings, such as a screen. Dr. Harvey

suggests that No. 3, the moulded piece, is Perpendicular or later (Gothic survival after the Reformation), while No. 2 may be from fairly early post-Reformation woodwork, maybe roughly Elizabethan, which would be possible for No. 3 also. There is, however, no evidence that the two pieces are connected with the same screen. If they are associated and not brought together by chance, they could date to the later 16th or early 17th century. No. 3 by itself might be 15th- or early 16th-century.

Steyning parish church has been subjected to alterations, additions and repairs on many occasions, especially during the 19th century when various major works were undertaken.⁵ Therefore it is not surprising that the only screens within the church in 1982 were relatively modern ones installed in 1909. They stood north and south of the chancel flanking the vestry and organ chamber respectively. In 1982-3 these screens were taken down, reconstructed to make one length of screen, and fixed in the archway of the tower at the west end of the nave.⁶

In 1894 J. Lewis André found no chancel screens at Steyning,⁷ but it seems probable that a church of its standing and size would have possessed one in earlier times. In an abstract of a will dated 1507 Michael Farnefeld wished 'to be buried in the church of Stenyng before the roode where my fader lyeth'.⁸ That there was a screen across the chancel archway opening below the rood, separating the nave from the chancel, receives support from Steer: 'There was a rood screen and on the "bacsyde of the wall behind it" Thomas Pellet willed (1519) that the pictures of himself, his wife and children should be painted'.⁹ André comments also on the destruction of many screens during the Reformation and Civil War periods; in some instances they were later replaced, but during the 19th century 'restoration' had destroyed numerous screens.¹⁰ The Steyning parish register for 1846 records various building works being carried out to the church including 'screens between the piers put up with the carved oak seats on each side. A new vestry room surrounded with oak panelling was built at the east end of the north aisle . . .'. The east end of the south aisle was also screened, the space within being allotted to 'the Boys of the Sunday School'; it later became the organ chamber. André refers to the 1846 replacement screens under the heading 'Parcloses or Chapel Screens'. The entry gives no description, stating only: 'STEYNING.—The present screens are said to have been copied from the old ones'.¹¹ That remark should apply to the screens fitted in 1846, as there could still be parishioners about in 1894 able to recall the screens that were there prior to 1846.

Much of the following has no basis of fact and should be considered as conjectural. It is possible that old parcloses screens were copied and replaced in 1846, to be again substituted by new ones in 1909, though to a fresh design. Miles is likely to be a workman engaged on the screens in 1846, who salvages the two pieces of old oak and places them in a stone box which he may have found in or near the church. The box is sealed by Miles; he adds his name, date, coins, and for good measure a bone button from his clothing, to the lid of the box. He also re-plugs the hole with plaster and inscribes his initials and date on the latter. The lid may have been contrived by him from a piece of roofing slate. The box is then buried below the vestry floor during work in progress, and there it remains until found in 1956.

The presence in the stone box of the foil, a waste cut-out (Fig. 26, no. 2), is hard to explain. It ought not to be part of the pre-1846 screens unless it had been utilized, say, as a packing or levelling-up piece during fixing of a screen. An alternative might be that an oak panel from part of the old screens had been salvaged for the making of the new

(1846) screens. Miles then saves one of the fret-cut foils from the old piece of oak to put in the box. He may have been the carpenter or joiner responsible for sawing the foil out of a panel.

The reason for Miles possibly acting as suggested may be just that it was an amusing way of recording the work on which he had been engaged. Dr. Harvey informs me that it is extremely common from c. 1750 onwards for craftsmen engaged on repairs and the like to leave name and date somewhere in a building as a record of their work. I am aware of several examples locally. The full details of this 'hoax' are unlikely to be discovered. The purpose of this paper, apart from the minor interest of the objects themselves, is to place on record the fact that all previous references, some in print,¹² to the pieces of oak possibly being relics from the Saxon church of St. Cuthman are without foundation.

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Notes

¹I am grateful to Dr. T. P. Hudson for a copy of Mr. Brackenbury's report as noted by him in *V(ictoria) C(ounty) H(istory), Sussex*, 6 (1) (1980), 243 n.23. A further copy is now in the Society's library at Barbican House, Lewes.

²According to legend St. Cuthman founded a church at Steyning, perhaps in the late 8th or early 9th century: M. A. Lower, *The Worthies of Sussex* (1865), 23-6; *V.C.H. Sussex*, 6 (1), 220. The legend is given substance by 11th- and 12th-century references to St. Cuthman's port: T. P. Hudson, 'The Origins of Steyning and Bramber', *Southern Hist.* 2 (1980), 13.

³A copy of the 1959 report only was with the objects. Further copies are now at the West Sussex Record Office and at Barbican House. I am grateful to Mrs. P. Semple, Hon. Curator of Steyning Museum, for drawing my attention to the objects and for extracts from the parish register for 1846: W.S.R.O., Par. 183/9/1, f.140.

⁴Mr. Philip Walker of the Tool and Trades History Society kindly advised on wood-saws.

⁵For a plan of the church as it was before interior re-ordering in 1982-3 see *Suss. N. & Q.* 4 (1933), 211, repeated in F. W. Steer, *Steyning Church Guide* (1960), pl. 2.

⁶P. Semple, *Steyning Church Guide* (1983), 7.

⁷*Suss. Arch. Coll.* 39 (1894), 31-54.

⁸*Suss. Arch. Coll.* 59 (1918), 86.

⁹Steer, *Church Guide*, 10.

¹⁰*Suss. Arch. Coll.* 39 (1894), 35.

¹¹*Ibid.* 54.

¹²e.g. *V.C.H. Sussex*, 6 (1), 243.

handle with a present length of about 80 mm. It is of particular interest in that it carries an inscription on the top face and a human head making up the end 20 mm. The head, face up and lying along the length of the handle, is rather worn but the forehead, nose, cheek bones and mouth recess are clearly visible; the rather bulbous chin may be a representation of a beard.

The remainder of the top face of the fragment is taken up with a cast inscription in black-letter script between raised borders along the sides. The words FERE GOD are clear with a fleur-de-lis between them; the rest of any decoration is lost beyond the fracture.

Added interest attaches to the handle when comparison is made with a skillet in Ipswich Museum. This object (accession no. 966-95), without provenance but thought to have been found locally, is almost complete and in good condition, except that the end of the original handle has been broken off at some stage. A replacement end of different form is supported by an iron strip beneath the junction of the repaired handle, and rivets pass through the two parts of the handle to complete the repair. Fortunately, enough of the original handle remains attached to the skillet body for part of the inscription and decoration between borders to be made out; it consists of the word GOD preceded by a fleur-de-lis and followed by a complex motif and crown nearest the body. The interface between the basal portion of the original handle and the terminal replacement occurs close to the fleur-de-lis, and it cannot be known for certain what inscription the terminal portion carried. However, careful comparison of the virtually identical details of the lettering of the word GOD and of the fleur-de-lis, which the Lewes handle fragment and the Ipswich repaired handle share, strongly suggests that the two objects were made to a common design, probably in the same workshop.

Further support for this view is provided by analyses of the alloys used in the manufacture of the two objects; both have been sampled as part of a wider study of the alloy compositions of copper-alloy objects of the medieval and immediately post-medieval periods being carried out by the authors at Coventry Polytechnic.¹ The results are given in Table 1, which shows that, with the exception of slight differences in the lead contents (and compensatory differences in the copper contents), the similarity of alloy compositions is striking. Experience of the sampling and analysis of similar leaded-bronze alloy objects has shown that such a close correspondence of alloy composition between objects is rare. This evidence therefore is again strongly indicative of a common origin in a particular workshop. On this basis a composite plan view of the skillet as it almost certainly was when cast has been drawn (Fig. 27).

Attention has so far been directed towards the handles, but it is appropriate to describe the remainder of the Suffolk skillet since the Sussex example was probably of the same form although the detailed decoration may have differed. A side view of the skillet is also given in Fig. 27 from which an indication of the elaborate body and leg decoration can be gained. The body carries inscribed features at positions between the decorations running up

A Technical Note on a Skillet Handle Fragment from Ripe

The fragment which is in Barbican House Museum, Lewes (cat. no. OR 121) is the terminal portion of a skillet

TABLE 1
Analysis of the Alloys of the Two Skillets (%)

	Copper	Zinc	Tin	Lead	Nickel	Iron	Antimony	Arsenic	Silver
Lewes (OR 121)	66.0	1.18	4.25	23.7	0.41	0.09	3.06	1.15	0.09
Ipswich (966-95)	72.8	1.29	4.30	17.0	0.34	0.09	2.90	1.15	0.08

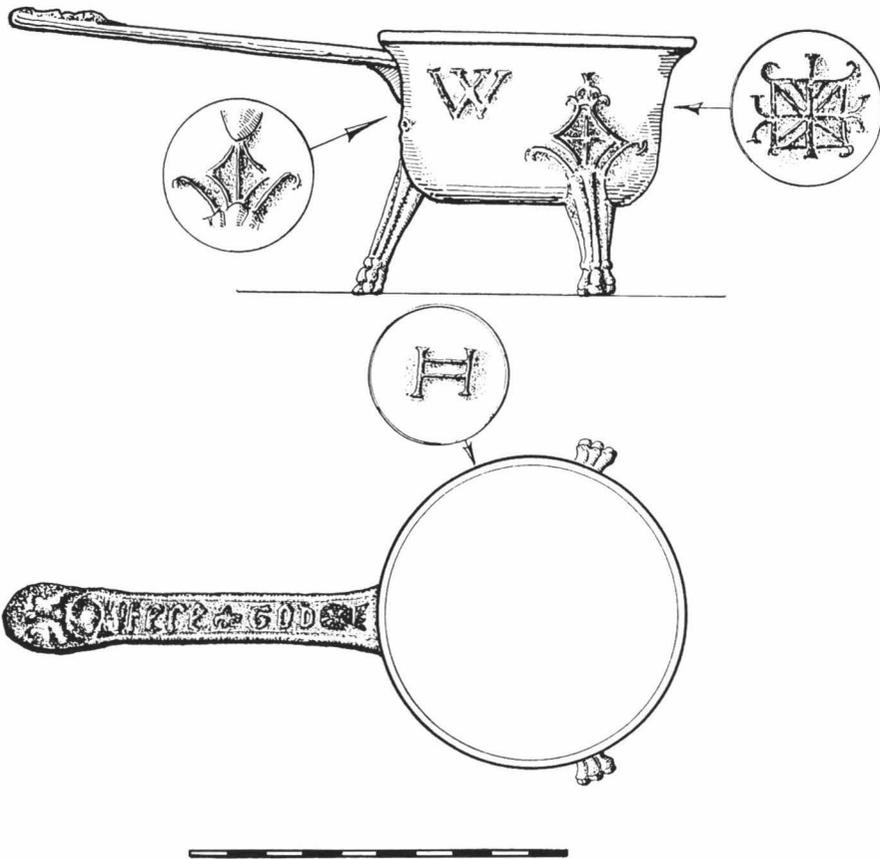


Fig. 27. Drawing showing the skillet in what is believed to have been its original form (cm. scale).

from the legs; these are a letter H, a letter V, erased but readable (perhaps the beginning of a W), a complex square-based motif and a letter W. The initials H W and motif may belong to the founder, although the initials could relate to the original owner. The skillet is relatively small and was likely to have been for domestic use.

The place and date of manufacture of the skillets remain to be considered. The cast inscription indicates an English origin; the practice of inscribing skillet handles is well known and examples from the 17th century with mottoes or founders' names occur in various museum collections. Many with mottoes are signed I F (perhaps John Fathers) and handles with names are known from JOHN FATHERS, THO. PALMAR (Thomas Palmer of Canterbury), CLEMENT TOSEAR (of Salisbury) and EDMUND GILES (of Lewes). Such skillets are, however, simpler in style with no additional decoration.²

The inscription also helps in dating the skillets since the particular spelling of FERE was current over a relatively short period: from the late 14th to the early 16th centuries according to the *O.E.D.* From the broader study of cauldrons and skillets it appears that the development of skillets over the late medieval and early post-medieval period was

from ones with rounded bodies and curved handles to ones with near-cylindrical bodies and straight handles. Dated examples from the late 16th and 17th centuries are of the latter type and a date for the Ipswich, and therefore probably the Lewes, skillet towards the end of the date range derived from the inscription is indicated. The analyses support such a date, inasmuch as tentative correlations of composition with date of manufacture have emerged from the work at Coventry Polytechnic on cast copper-alloy cooking vessels.

The skillets would therefore appear to have been made in the early 16th century in the same workshop, probably in London; a large proportion of the country's metalworkers of all kinds operated in the capital at this time and the dispersal of the products of a London workshop to both Suffolk and Sussex seems entirely feasible.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Hilary Ross, Assistant Curator, Ipswich Museum and Fiona Marsden, Curator, Barbican House Museum, Lewes, for facilitating the comparison between the Sussex and Suffolk skillets. The analytical work was carried out by Tonino Ciuffini.

Authors: Roger Brownsword and Ernest Pitt, Dept. of Applied Physical Sciences, Coventry (Lanchester) Polytechnic, Coventry.

Notes

¹The technique of sampling and analysis is described in *Jnl. of Hist. Metallurgy Soc.* 17 (1983), 44-9.

²It has been suggested that the inscription and decoration in the present case might stem from the biblical passage 'Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the King.' from 1 Peter 2.17. The fleur-de-lis and crown may have been an oblique reference to 'Honour the King'. The authors are grateful to Christopher Whittick for this suggestion.

Lewes Commemorative Medals of Queen Victoria

The Sussex Archaeological Society has recently been given by Mr. Michael Sharp of A. H. Baldwin and Sons Ltd. (London numismatists) a silver commemorative medal of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee which illustrates on

the reverse the barbican of Lewes Castle (Fig. 28). The details of the medal are as follows:

Obverse: QUEEN VICTORIA'S DIAMOND JUBILEE, 1897, bust of Victoria facing left.

Reverse: THE BARBICAN LEWES CASTLE, view of the barbican from the south.

The reverse is also hall-marked with a 'Lion Passant', an 'M' and an 'Anchor'. These marks show that the medal was assayed at Birmingham in 1896. There is also an additional 'V & S' mark, which is the mark registered at the Birmingham Assay Office by the makers of the medal, Thomas and Oliver Vaughton, who traded as P. Vaughton & Sons at 1 Great Hampton Street, Birmingham. They first registered their mark on 18 August 1869. Mr. S. E. F. Beechy, the current Assay Master at Birmingham, has kindly informed me that the company P. Vaughton & Sons were leading medallists in Birmingham and made very large quantities of medals in gold and silver. The company is still trading as Vaughtons Ltd. at 95 Livery Street, Birmingham, their main work being metal pressings, although they continue to stamp medals in base metals and a few in silver.

The Society also possesses a number of silver and bronze medals which were made in Birmingham to commemorate Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee. An example of these Golden Jubilee medals is a bronze specimen (45 mm. in diameter) which was purchased in 1983 (museum cat. no. 1983. 41) (Fig. 29).

Obverse: VICTORIA D:G: BRITANNIARUM REGINA F:D:INDIÆ IMPERATRIX, bust of Victoria facing left.

Reverse: Arms of Lewes, BOROUGH OF LEWES/VICTORIA JUBILEE/PRESENTED BY/ALDERMAN FARNCOMBE/MAYOR/JUNE 20th 1887.

The edge of the medal is inscribed W. F. MARTIN. RINGMER. (W. F. Martin would have been the recipient of the medal.) These Lewes Golden Jubilee medals were made by N. Carter, a medallist of Birmingham. They were produced for the Mayor of Lewes, who handed them out to prominent Lewes citizens.

Acknowledgement

I wish to thank Mr. D. Hubbard for the photograph of the 1897 medal.

Author: David Rudling, Institute of Archaeology, University of London.



Fig. 28.



Fig. 29.

HISTORICAL NOTES

This section of the *Collections* is devoted to short notes on aspects of local history. Those without previous experience in writing up such material for publication should not be deterred from contributing; the editor and members of the editorial board will be happy to assist in the preparation of reports and illustrations.

Another Look at Magnus

We are indebted to D. W. Pye¹ for a convincing transcription and translation of the so-called 'Magnus inscription', a curved sequence of 15 Greensand stones set in the outer wall of the chancel of the Victorian church of St. John sub Castro in Lewes (Fig. 1). It conveys, in Latin hexameters arranged in a double band, how a Danish prince renounced the world to become an anchorite. Pye's article resolves much of the scholarly misunderstanding and confusion which has accrued to the text in the course of several centuries, and his reading is, as it happens, vindicated by a passage in John Norden's manuscript 'chorographically description' of Sussex,² based on a visit to the monument in 1595. With the textual problems solved I hope, by tracing the movements of the inscription and the alterations to it, to suggest some of the reasons why its interpretation has given rise to such tenacious misconceptions.

Camden's *Britannia* (1586) describes the inscription in the chancel of the ruined and overgrown Saxon church, probably its original position; the chancel was demolished only a year after the work's publication. Camden includes both an engraving of the stones (Fig. 2) and a transcription of their text, but, as Pye has sufficiently demonstrated, text does not accurately reflect illustration and, indeed, both are defective. The engraver, unable to understand the mixture

of Roman and Lombardic letters which he was copying, entirely omitted the twelfth stone and mangled the letters on many of the others.

John Rowe, writing two or three decades later, tells how, after the destruction of the chancel, as many of the carved stones as could be found were rebuilt into the south wall of the church by 'lovers and favourers of antiquity',³ and it is tempting to associate this reconstruction with a stone, bearing the churchwardens' names and the date 1635, which was also formerly in that wall (though now built into the back of the present church).⁴ It was no doubt at this stage that some at any rate of the stones were replaced, presumably at the requisition of people familiar with the original: it is clear that the first four do not harmonize with the rest, in point both of engraving technique and of lettering style. An examination of the impressionistic rendering of these four stones by Camden's illustrator (Fig. 2) suggests the process which led to the substitution in *Britannia* of *prudenter* for *se moribus* and gave rise to one of the more persistent errors of scholarly interpretation, while a comparison between this rendering and the recut text (now in exclusively Roman lettering) helps us to a conjectural reconstruction of the stones' original appearance (Fig. 3), bearing mixed Roman and Lombardic capitals as in the rest of the inscription. Writers from the 18th-century John Elliot⁵ onwards have cast doubt on the authenticity of the



Fig. 1. The Magnus inscription as it is today.

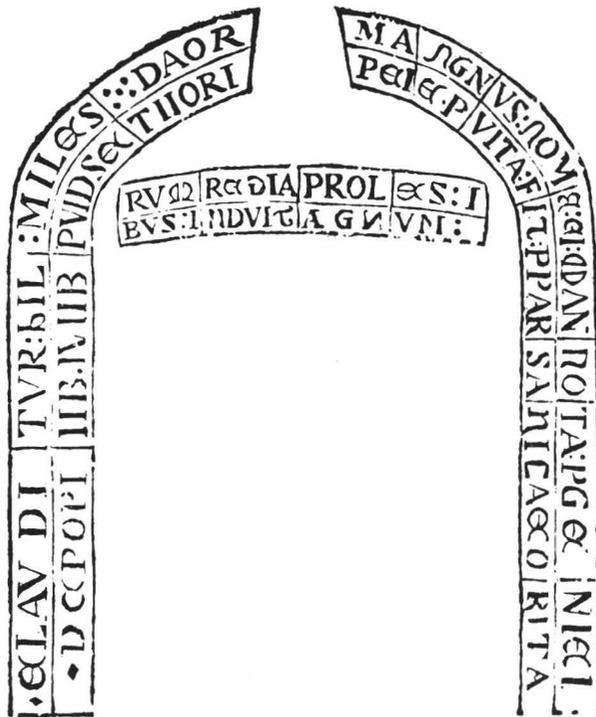


Fig. 2. The inscription in Gibson's English edition of Camden's *Britannia*.

twelfth stone (it does indeed differ in colour from its companions), but this doubt may be traced to its omission by Camden's engraver, in other respects a discredited witness and one who need not be taken seriously. From Mark Antony Lower we learn that, as a favour to him, the stones were built into the new church⁶ erected in 1839, when its Saxon predecessor was demolished; its chancel, added in 1884, provides their present position.

The confusion over the text of the inscription has been compounded by scholarly uncertainty about its position in the church at various dates. Rowe describes it as 'placed in the circumference of the chauncell doore', and this has been taken by numerous later commentators to mean the chancel arch. This interpretation can be arrived at only by a distortion of the sense of the word 'door' and strains credulity the more since the inscription announces the entrance to an anchorite's cell. A scale drawing of the old church made by William Figg in 1816 shows a 16-ft. recess at the east end occupied by the altar, evidently representing the arch that led from the nave to the demolished chancel,⁷ while

+CLAVDITVR: hIC: MILES: DAOR
 +DEPONENTS: MANGIVM: S: MORI

Fig. 3. Conjectural reconstruction of lettering on first four stones.

Lambert's late 18th-century view of the exterior of the church shows a pointed archway in its new east end.⁸ Elliot (oddly, in view of his belief that the monument had been set in the chancel arch) gives a measurement of 7 ft. 9 in. for its outside diameter. The discrepancy between this and its present diameter of 9 ft. can be accounted for by the extra mortar used in resetting the stones, which Elliot shows in close contact with one another (Fig. 4); their proximity enabled their engraver, presumably working with the stones already in place, to split the 'M' of MANGNUS between the eighth and ninth stones. It is difficult to imagine how a semicircular inscription less than 8 ft. in diameter could be set over a pointed archway whose diameter was 16 ft. Moreover we know from Elliot and from Thomas Wakeham⁹ that the church was entered at the west end down a short flight of steps. That the chancel was even further below ground level is clear from a parish register entry of 1630 which speaks of a tomb 'midway between the 2 ascents of the ile',¹⁰ and Elliot confirms that these were two steps down towards the east end. Thus the lofty arch shown rising from ground level in Lambert's drawing would have been several feet higher when viewed from inside the nave and any inscription above it unreadable as well as inappropriately placed.

In his retired life, an anchorite whose cell adjoined a church had three channels of communication with the outside world: an opening, high up, to admit light and air, another through which food and drink were passed, and one like a leper's squint, commanding a view of the altar. Hence the cell was normally built against the side wall of the



tal Inscription is graved on 15 Stones, set circularly in the South Wall of the Church of St. John under the earch of a window in the chancel — 4 feet to replace the old Stones, the letters on which by injury of time or removal were then supposed to exactly represent the Latin Inscription. The remaining Stones are very ancient. The Characters are Latin, & very rude & deeply cut. — The Church lay neglected & ruin'd till the year 1638, when it was rebuilt in Britainia — the Church was afterwards refitted for divine service by the Parliamenters, except the Chancel which was kept in its original state. — This inscription was originally placed round the Gothic Arch of the Subance into the Old Chancel which being taken down the stones were removed.

Fig. 4. John Elliot's drawing of the inscription in 1770.

chancel, usually the south side. Thus Rowe's 'chauncell doore' is probably the much smaller opening giving access from the chancel to the cell, and the notion, hazarded by Edward Turner,¹¹ that the inscription could have been executed by the hermit himself on the inner (cell) side of the doorway, may not be unreasonable. The composition of the verse, with its sustained word-play, rhymes and apparent scriptural allusions, is perhaps suggestive of the anchorite. So too, perhaps, is its amateurish execution, with the first part of the text generously spaced on the first seven stones but the latter part compressed and making use of contracted forms in order to accommodate it in the remaining space.

It has not been possible to date the monument. L. F. Salzman, in a letter to the author, was inclined to accept a date of c. 1200 on stylistic grounds, presumably because the mixture of Lombardic and Roman letters suggests that the former had not yet become the regular style for inscriptions. An attempt to discover the identity of the anchorite from the National Museum at Copenhagen produced a response referring to the inadequacy of the Danish royal genealogies of this period and the ubiquity of Magnuses in them, while suggestions made on this side of the North Sea seem to be entirely unsubstantiated.¹²

It will be seen that there is enough apparently insoluble mystery behind the St. John sub Castro inscription without adding to it by inadequate research. Any fresh views of the Magnus problems advanced in this notice and in the fuller article of which it is a summary¹³ arise merely from an examination of evidence which has long been known to exist, if strangely neglected.

Acknowledgement

I am much indebted to Lawrence Stevens for the illustrations which accompany the text.

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Notes

¹*Suss. N. & Q.* 16 (1965), 182-4.

²Northamptonshire Record Office, Finch-Hatton MS. 113, noticed by J. H. Farrant in *Suss. Arch. Coll.* 116 (1978), 274 n.4.

³*The Book of John Rowe*, ed. W. H. Godfrey (*Suss. Rec. Soc.* 34), 16. The note is undated but from its position can probably be assigned to a late period in Rowe's life.

⁴*Victoria County History, Sussex*, 7 (1940) gives the date as 1638, which is easily demonstrated to be wrong.

⁵Eastbourne Central Library, unreferenced volume of antiquarian notes by John Elliot. This note is dated 1770.

⁶M. A. Lower, *Sussex Worthies* (1865), 135 n.

⁷E(ast) S(ussex) R(ecord) O(ffice), SAS/FIG 44.

⁸*Sussex Views*, ed. W. H. Godfrey & L. F. Salzman (1951), 95.

⁹E.S.R.O., ABE 1 (Thomas Wakeham's annotated and augmented transcript of John Rowe's book, 1783).

¹⁰E.S.R.O., PAR 412/1/1/1.

¹¹*Suss. Arch. Coll.* 12 (1860), 134.

¹²T. W. Horsfield, *History of Sussex* (1835), 1, 208; Lower, *Sussex Worthies*, 136.

¹³This is preserved at E.S.R.O. under the reference AMS 5764/18.

The Significance of the Alleged Term *wahztrew* in the Pevensey Custumal

Larking (1851) and Turner (1866) publish versions of the medieval custumal of Pevensey, one copy of which is in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, and another among the Dering muniments at Surrenden Dering (Kent). In its present form it dates from the 14th century. Hall (1957, 149, 183) mentions a term in it referring to a place in Pevensey. She spells it *Wahztrew(e)*, *Wahstrew*, and says it means 'wash-tro, a wash trough', or 'a tidal sluice'. There is 'some likelihood' that the form *Wartrow* of 1523 (Hudson 1902, 169, 176) at Horsey in Eastbourne refers to the same place. Salzman (1910) describes this as a field name. Hall relates it to the term *trow*, or *strow*, 'a marshland waterway' (see *strows* in Hall 1957, 133).

This explanation cannot be right. First, the forms cannot represent Middle English spellings of the word *wash*. Secondly, Hall herself provides the evidence for the obviously correct solution. It was a place, she says, where unfree felons were executed. It thus clearly represents a development of Old English *weargtrēow*, 'felon-tree', i.e. a gallows. The form *Wahztrew*, if genuine (I have not seen the original document), looks like a misreading of a form transcribable as *wargtrew*, from an ancient MS. using insular minuscule script (Nash 1979). This is an expected spelling of Old English *weargtrēow* in a Middle English text, though not the only one, since an archaizing or archaic *waritreo* is also on record (cf. Smith 1956, 2, 248). Other evidence within the custumal, as reported by Larking, strongly suggests that the prototype dates from c. 1250 at the latest (cf. the presence of the masculine accusative case form of the definite article, *thone*: Brunner 1965, 62), even though in its present form it dates from the mid 14th century. The spelling of 1523 already cited is perfectly consistent with this etymology. The form *Vash-Treive* in the Burrell MSS. in the British Museum (Larking 1851, 217) is too corrupt to prove anything.

The Old English word is believed to survive in the place name *Warter* (Yorkshire, East Riding), and the word *weargrōd*, of similar or identical meaning, in *Worgret* (Dorset). There has been much dispute about whether *Weybourne* (Norfolk) means 'felon stream', i.e. 'stream where felons were drowned' (Sandred 1978; 1981; 1984; Kristensson 1981; Arngart 1983), but clearly the etymology put forward by Ekwall originally has been reckoned a strong enough possibility (even if wrong) to substantiate the appearance of *wearg* in place names. Salzman (1910, 48 n. 39) appears to have had the right idea about the word, but perversely etymologized it as its Old Norse relative *vargrē*. There cannot, of course, be a Norse name in Sussex.

The names *Sakevylestrow* and *Wyllyndonestrow* (Salzman 1910, 46) Hall also interprets as containing her (*s)trow*; they refer to places at the junctions of marshland sewers with the haven. They clearly contain the word 'tree': *trow* is a common Middle English spelling for it, as in *Trowbridge* (Wiltshire) and *Holmestrow* hundred (Sussex). The objects so named were thus presumably trees which indicated the position of certain sewers, not the sewers themselves; this seems to be borne out by the fact that she also mentions *Ladytrowe*, but not a connected sewer name. The significance of trees as landmarks on the Pevensey Levels does not need emphasizing.

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Four Lewes Place Names

(Note the convention throughout that forms preceded by * are reconstructed or hypothetical, i.e. plausible; those preceded by ** are non-existent and impossible.)

Keere Street

The name Keere Street has never yet been explained. Mawer & Stenton (1930, 319) simply note the earliest recorded form, *Kerestrete*, of 1272 (*Catalogue of Ancient Deeds*, 3, p. 39), and Salzman (1940, 11) does the same, reading *Kerestrate*. Davey (1970, 33) records a number of guesses, none of which can be right:

1. 'Saxon "cerre" ("winding or sloping"), i.e. *cerr* or **cearre*, 'bend', would yield Modern English *chare*, as it does in the names of some of the alleys of Newcastle-upon-Tyne (Kristensson 1970, 22-3).

2. 'The old British word *caer*' only occurs in English place names close to the Celtic fringe (Cornwall, Cumberland; cf. Smith 1956, 76), and may be a late development in British. Moreover, it would not be spelt *kere* in Middle English.

3. The French place name *Cahors* would, or could, yield a name like ***Core* or ***Corse*, but not *Keere*, and, as Davey admits, there is no evidence for the existence of any French merchants in Lewes, whose presence would be the sole motivation for the name.

The correct view appears to be that it derives from Kentish Middle English **kejere*, 'keyer', an occupational surname presumably equivalent to 'locksmith'. Reaney (1976) surmises this to be the origin of *Kear*, *Chare*, etc., and in the form *le Keyere* it is recorded for Kent in 1275. Sussex is part of the 'Kentish' dialect area. For the early form of our street name compare *Kere*, an Essex surname of 1322, which is very likely to be relevant to *Keeres Green* in Aythorpe Roding (Reaney 1935, 491 n. 5). The surname *Kere* appears

in the Sussex subsidy rolls for 1327 (at North Bersted and Mid Lavant) and 1332 (at Wivelridge in Peasmarsh) (Hudson 1910, 125, 216). The spelling *Keer* is found in Leicestershire in 1303; in citing it Fransson (1935) validates it as an occupational surname. *Le Keyer* is found in London in 1287 (Reaney 1976, 201). This spread of spellings assumed to represent the word **kējere* makes it well within the realms of probability that *Keere Street* contains the word or the surname embodying it. (On the eccentric phonology of the word *key* (**kay* is expected), see Jordan & Crook 1974, 118; Löfvenberg (1962, 41) has claimed the existence of an element *cæg*, 'stone', homophonous with the Old English form of the word *key*, but it cannot be relevant here.)

Notice the later spellings which authenticate the modern pronunciation, e.g. the *Care Street* which Davey records.

If this interpretation is correct, *Keere Street* is a name precisely parallel to the names from medieval Lewes *Pilecherstrete*, 'fur cloak maker street', and *Fisherestrete* (cf. Salzman 1961, 270), with an occupational first element.

Brack Mount

No explanation of this name has been generally accepted. Godfrey makes the only substantial attempt that I am familiar with (1940, 123). He points to the accounts of Richard Lewkenor (1498) printed by Salzman (1934, 99) in which the term(?)s *bretale* or *bretaxle* appear to refer to a spot at or near Brack Mount, and suggests that it is named from a *brattice* or breastwork (Middle English *brutaske* and many other forms; Norman French *bretaske*, etc.) surmounting the Mount. This is not an outrageous suggestion from the historical point of view, but the present form of the name is against it, and its appearance in Tudor and Stuart documents in a different form supports an alternative.

In the churchwardens' accounts of St. Andrew and St. Michael (Michell Whitley 1902, 46) we find *bray castell* (1533-4), and on Randall's plan of Lewes in the possession of the Sussex Archaeological Society (Blaker 1922) we find *Bray Castle* (1620). First recorded in Tudor times is the English word of French origin *braye*, the corresponding term in continental Latin being *braca*, and in English Latin *braya*, a Latinization of the French. It means 'outwork; mound or bank defended by palisades and watchtowers' (*O.E.D.*). There seems a good chance that this description fits Brack Mount, for it lies outside the conjectural line of the castle precinct (Godfrey undated) and we know that timber was removed from it in Tudor times (Michell Whitley 1902, 46). The probability that the word *braye* was in common usage no earlier than the late 15th century gives rise to some interesting problems of archaeological and historical interpretation. However, the Latin word *braya* is used in England as early as 1342 (Latham 1975, 214); if it were as early as this in English, we could push back the name of the Mount well into medieval times. Notice that the French word is also characteristically 16th-century in usage, though earlier in origin. I translate from the *Trésor de la Langue Française* under *braie*, which quotes the *Larousse du Dix-neuvième Siècle*: 'enclosure made of strong palisades or masonry constructed by 16th-century engineers in front of the *enceinte* of a fort to cover the foot of the walls against enemy troops'.

The alternation of French-derived and Latin forms mentioned above is apparently echoed in the recorded forms of our name, for we find *le Bracke castell* in 1576 (cf. Salzman 1940, 21 n. 98). However, it is not very likely that the continental Latin form *braca* could have given rise to the current name. My firm opinion is that in the 16th century the Mount was known as *Braye Castle* (cf. the forms of 1533-4 and 1620). In the colloquial speech of parts of the south of

England this would, by 1600, have been pronounced *brare* with the *rare* roughly as in the received pronunciation of the English word so spelt (cf. Dobson 1968, 767). Now the same sequence of sounds with the addition of a *-k* (i.e. the sound at the beginning of *castle*) would in the same colloquial speech have been the then current pronunciation of the word *brake*, 'bracken' and other similar but probably irrelevant words (e.g. 'flax-beater's pestle'). So a name containing a technical or unfamiliar term *braye* could, in the expression *Braye Castle*, easily have been analysed by speakers of the relevant form of English as containing the more familiar word *brake*. The spelling *Bracke* of 1576 could be a fairly routinely elaborate Tudor spelling of *brake* (cf. *bocke* for *book* in the Lewes Town Book (Salzman 1945-6, 27). The modern pronunciation with a short vowel (*Brack* instead of *Brake*) would then have to come from a misreading by later antiquaries of a Tudor document with a *-ck-* spelling. It could not be a regular local dialect continuation of either *braye* or *brake*.

As for the element *Mount*, I have not been able to ascertain when it was first applied to the place in question. I have the impression, perhaps ill-founded, that its fashionable application in place names is a phenomenon no earlier than the late 17th century, given impetus by certain naming patterns in the Authorized Version of the Bible (cf. *Mount Ephraim* in Tunbridge Wells, the numerous *Mount Pleasants*, etc.). To suppose this applies in the case of Brack Mount is not inconsistent with the 16th- and 17th-century evidence above, where *Castle* appears in its place. The substitution of *Mount* for *Castle* implies a discontinuity in naming like that of *Brack* for *Braye*; perhaps the two discontinuities are the same one.

William Figg (1861, 18) wrote that it 'was formerly called the Bray or Brack Mount', which implies that neither name was current in the early 19th century and suggests that it then had none at all. Figg may be responsible, by this article, for the popularization of the present name. I have not found *Brack Mount* in earlier writings. As a last observation: the place name seems still to have included the definite article in the early years of this century (cf. Blaker 1922; Stevens 1946).

Antioch Street

Antioch Street is not known by name until 1595, as recorded in the 1624 Book of John Rowe (Godfrey 1928). There is archaeological evidence for its earlier existence (Figg 1861, 8-9), but it seems inescapable that most of it ceased to exist before the first record appears, since all commentators appear to believe that the fire of 1559 in Westout (Salzman 1945-6) destroyed it. John Rowe's laconic remark 'Antioch Street is now enclosed' certainly suggests that the old street, leading to the Priory gate, was so called before its demise. The question is how much earlier the name arose. Davey (1970, 15) cites earlier theories that it was named from the city of Antioch in Syria after its capture by the Crusaders in 1099 (*recte* 1098), and that it could have been a Jewish quarter. To assume its existence soon after 1098 taxes the little we know of the archaeology of this part of Lewes beyond breaking point. As to the Jewish question, it still needs to be explained why Antioch, out of a whole host of Levantine cities with big Jewish populations, should have been singled out commemoratively. The few facts or legends that have been commonplace in England about Antioch do not relate to Jews at all.

If it is named from direct experience of Antioch, it must have been named no later than the capture of the city by Sultan Baybars in 1268. The city does not figure in western history again after this date. Historians and archaeologists

must decide whether the existence of the street in the mid 13th century may be safely assumed or not.

It seems safer to me (though I cannot be dogmatic) to assume an origin during the Renaissance, based on statements about Antioch made available by the publication of newly rediscovered classical writings. For instance, several authors speak of the architectural magnificence of the place (e.g. Ammianus Marcellinus 22. 9. 14; Dio Chrysostom 2. 134). A local wit might have been having a joke at the expense of the builders or inhabitants. Cicero, in *Pro Archia*, 3, speaks of it as a 'city of most learned men and most liberal studies', which could also have underlain a joke. Libanius (Oration 41. 16) relates that it was famous for a jolly festival of fornication, which may have been truthfully relevant. In connection with the latter, some Christian commentators have pointed out that the expression 'with the morals of Daphne' (*Daphnidis moribus*; Daphne was the up-market Soho of Antioch) was proverbial for loose living; though interestingly the only source in which I have turned it up (Avidius Cassius 5. 15, in *Scriptores Historiae Augustae*) uses the phrase in connection with soldiers having the gall to take warm baths! The same commentators turn a rather innocent-looking remark about cosmopolitan Rome alluding to Antioch by Juvenal (Satire 3. 62) into a stricture about the moral filth of the east polluting the Tiber. In fact, Antioch was more famous as a place of universal luxurious ease and varied carnal distraction than as an overgrown twopenny brothel.

There is a Christian importance to Antioch too: it was there that the disciples were first called 'Christians' (Acts 11. 26), and it was St. Paul's mission headquarters. Neither of these points seems relevant to me in the context of street-naming patterns in medieval or Renaissance England.

W. H. Godfrey (1955, 14–15) points out that parts of Antioch House, at the north-east end of the street, are 16th-century, and he assumes the house is named after the street. This seems quite likely *a priori*; but if by any chance the name of the house came first then the quotations from Cicero and from Acts 11 are conceivably relevant in a non-humorous way, by way of self-congratulation on the part of the occupiers.

The final possibility is a much more prosaic one, and I suppose on that count the most likely. *Antioch* is known as a medieval surname. The Dorset parish of Tarrant Rawston was *Tarente Antyoche* in 1288, and a William *de Antioche* was connected with the place in the late 12th century (Mills 1980, 127). The surname is recorded by Bardsley (1901, 56), and survives as the name of a French noble family. It may be the source of the uncommon English *Antick*; at least I have seen no other origin proposed for this.

School Hill

Discussion of the Renaissance discovery of classical authors in the previous section reminds us that in the early 16th century Thomas More estimated that about half the population was literate (Myres 1963, 245). That being so, there must have been schools. Davey (1970, 50–1) invents a strange origin for School Hill (recorded in 1498 in a rent roll as *Scholehill*) having to do with Old English *scōh*, 'shoe' and the topography of the hill. Now a derivation of *scōh* in Sussex could only be pronounced with *sh-*, not *sk-*, so Davey's origin is impossible. It is also unnecessary, for although no 15th-century school is known in School Hill, it is certain that there was a school in the town as early as 1248 (Page 1907, 411; Tibble 1981). Its site is unknown, but it is tempting to put two and two together.

Acknowledgement

My thanks are due to Graham Mayhew for his help in the preparation of the section of this Note on Brack Mount.

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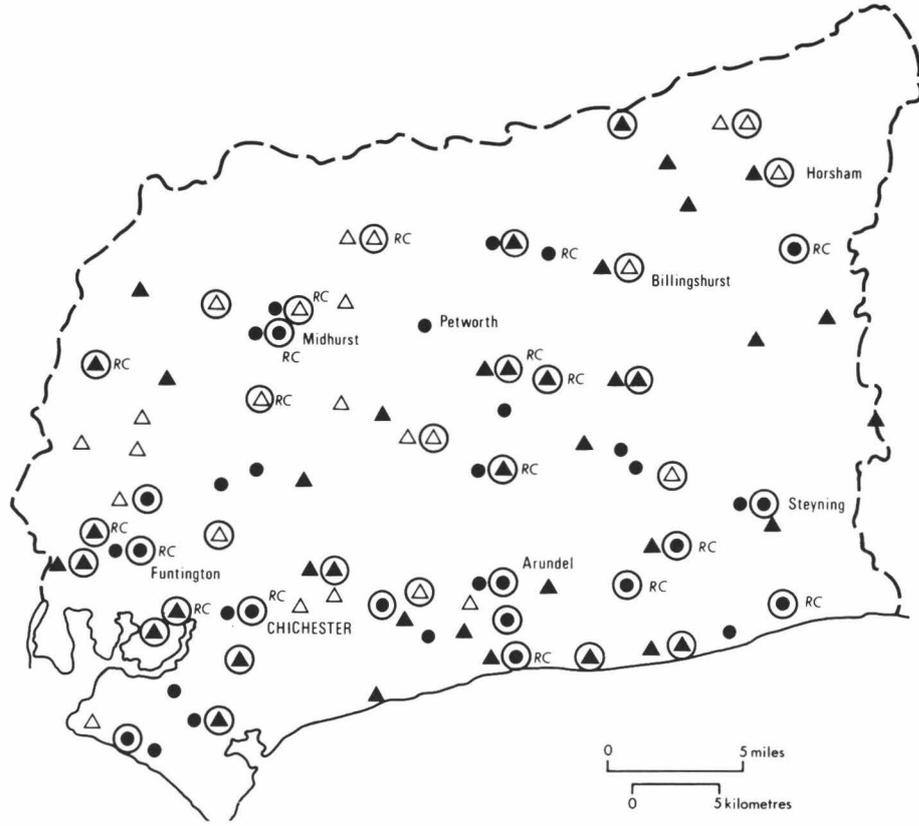
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Evidence of Schooling in West Sussex, 1574–1640

Fig. 5 is a compilation of several maps to be found in a 3rd-year B.A. dissertation by Mrs. Jennifer Gannaway en-

EVIDENCE OF SCHOOLING BY PARISH IN WEST SUSSEX 1574 - 1640



EVIDENCE OF SCHOOLMASTERS

	Licensed	Unlicensed
Pre 1600	▲	⬆
Post 1600	△	⬇
Spans most of period 1574 - 1640	●	⊙
RC - Roman Catholic		

HISTORICAL NOTES

Fig. 5.

titled 'A Study of Schooling in West Sussex in the 16th and 17th Centuries', submitted as part of a C.N.A.A. B.A. History with Education course completed at the West Sussex Institute of Higher Education in 1984.¹ The map raises issues about content and sources which might be appreciated by a wider audience, and the study is typical of much good undergraduate research which unfortunately tends to remain locked away in college libraries.

The study was based on evidence from subscription books, churchwardens' presentments, episcopal registers and various ecclesiastical court books available at the West Sussex Record Office. Much of the material has been conveniently included in a card index at the Record Office compiled by Timothy and Alison McCann, and a note relating to Catholic schoolmasters has already been published.² Central to the study is the discovery of licences for schoolmasters and, through presentments, cases where teachers were operating without a licence, often covertly because they were Catholics.

The study tests ideas common among historians, notably Lawrence Stone, David Cressy, and Rosemary O'Day, that there was something of an 'educational revolution' in England between 1560 and 1640.³ The map confirms a basic tenet of this thesis that schools emerged in some numbers during the period, evidence of teachers being found in 76 parishes of the archdeaconry of Chichester. An interesting feature of this study, however, is that while the Stone thesis tends to associate the educational boom with protestantism, thanks to its stress on the need to read the Bible, Sussex evidence suggests that the demand for more education was common also to Catholics.

There are many technical problems with the evidence for licences, but by taking note of presentments of unlicensed teachers, the map does provide a crude outline of the distribution of teachers in the area. Its findings may be usefully compared with work on Sussex for the Reformation period and with very similar maps produced by Peter Clark for the nearby county of Kent.⁴

Author: Andrew Foster, West Sussex Institute of Higher Education, Bognor.

Notes

¹ I am grateful to Jenny Gannaway for allowing me to publish this brief note of her work, to Tim McCann for his help to both of us on the original project, and to Paul Sanderson for taking many pains in drawing the composite map.

² T. McCann, 'Catholic Schoolmasters in Sussex 1558-1603: Addenda and Corrigenda to Beale's *Catholic Schoolmasters*', *Recusant Hist.* 12 (1974).

³ L. Stone, 'The Educational Revolution in England, 1560-1640', *Past and Present*, 28 (1964); D. Cressy, *Education in Tudor and Stuart England* (1975); R. O'Day, *Education and Society 1500-1800* (1982).

⁴ A. Morris, 'Effects upon Schooling in Sussex of Legislation Dissolving Chantries', *Suss. Arch. Coll.* 119 (1981); J. Wadey, 'Schools and Schooling in Sussex', *Suss. N. & Q.* 14 (1957); A. F. Leach, 'Schools', in *Victoria County History, Sussex*, 2 (1907), 397-440; P. Clark, *English Provincial Society from the Reformation to the Revolution* (1977), 202-3.

The Solemn League and Covenant for Botolphs, 1644

In the 17th century oaths were common as a means of gauging political support and of isolating opponents, their

success depending on the fact that oath-taking was regarded as a matter of conscience, and would not result in perjury. Any listings of inhabitants before the official Censuses started in 1801 are of interest because of the light they might throw on population questions. The returns of those recorded as signing the Protestation Oath of 1641-2 are well known.¹ Less well known are returns of those who signed the Solemn League and Covenant in 1644. Hitherto, the only known Sussex example was that for the parish of Steyning, which has survived among the Steyning parish records² and is printed in the parish magazine,³ as well as by Garraway Rice.⁴ However, another example has recently come to light in the earliest parish register for Botolphs.⁵ It has probably not been noticed before because of the way it was recorded. The last page of the register is headed 'A Copy of the Covenant wch was administred to the Inhabitants of Butholps and subscribed by them April 14 1644. In the presence of Jo Johnson Rector of Old Shorham'. The rest of the page was used to continue the registration of baptisms, marriages and burials that took place in the parish. However, the inside back cover of the register records the signatures and marks of the following:

Jo Johnson Rector of Old Shorham
John Daniell
Matthew Bigges
Richard Bode
Jo Brown
Nick Rose
James Longley
Abraham Freemantle

A comparison with those who signed the Protestation shows that 13 adult male inhabitants of Botolphs, together with John Daniell and the vicar, signed the Protestation, and six together with John Daniell and the vicar of Old Shoreham signed the Solemn League and Covenant two years later. Only three men—John Daniell, Matthew B(r)igges and Richard Bode—are recorded as signing both documents. This suggests that the adult male population of Botolphs in the 1640s was at least 18, rather than 14 as the Protestation would suggest or 7 as the Covenant would suggest. The Protestation Returns would seem to underestimate the size of the adult male population by 22%.

Such an underestimate was not unusual. At Steyning 205 adult males signed the Protestation on 25 February 1642. Two years later, 143 adult males from the parish signed the Covenant. Rather than both lists containing a near-identical list of names, as one would expect if the Protestation Returns were a reliable guide to the size of the population, only 94 men appear as signing both documents. A hundred and eleven men signed only the Protestation and 49 men signed only the Covenant. The total male population of Steyning between 1642 and 1644 would seem to have been at least 254, of whom only four fifths signed the Protestation—an error of 20%.⁶

Author: Timothy J. McCann, West Sussex Record Office.

Notes

¹ *West Sussex Protestation Returns, 1641/2*, ed. R. Garraway Rice (*Suss. Rec. Soc.* 5).

² W(est) S(ussex) R(ecord) O(ffice), Par. 183/9/1, ff. 29-31.

³ *Steyning Parish Mag.* 107 (Nov. 1928), 2.

⁴ *Suss. Rec. Soc.* 5, 166-7.

⁵ W.S.R.O., Par. 26/1/1/1, f. 11v.

⁶ For another example of the inaccuracy of the Protestation Returns see Timothy J. McCann, 'Midhurst Catholics and

the Protestation Returns of 1642', *Recusant Hist.* 16 (3) (1983), 319–23.

Fire in Chichester in 1654

On Wednesday and Thursday 29 and 30 March 1654 a major fire devastated part of the north-west quadrant of Chichester. Those whose goods and property were destroyed in the fire sought help from the next sitting of the City Quarter Sessions, and the detailed lists of their losses survive in the Chichester City Archives.¹ These lists give an interesting insight into the use to which the area was put at this period.

The area in question was on the west side of Tower Street.² Henry Bullock, a bricklayer, who lived in the property which stood on what is now the open space south of the County Library, lost only half a hogshead of mead which was spoiled, and some tools. He also claimed £1 for 'pulling my goods and breaking it to peeces' so it seems probable that the progress of the fire was halted just north of his dwelling-house. To the north, it had spread right to the junction of Tower Street with the intramural road at North Walls. The property on this corner was called Longcroft, and a deed of 1658 refers to several messuages or barns on Longcroft which had been burnt down.³ The properties called the Parsonage House of St. Peter the Great and the Common Barns, just to the south of Longcroft, were also destroyed.

Eleven people lost possessions in the fire. Four of them lost all their household goods, so there were at least four households living in the area, though this does not necessarily mean there were four separate houses. Henry Perrin, a labourer, may have shared a property with Edward Moory, a blacksmith, who was his son-in-law.⁴ Richard Godman claimed compensation for two houses, in one of which he lived himself. George Butterley claimed for the Parsonage House of St. Peter the Less (*recte* the Great), but presumably subtlet the house, since his only goods lost were in the stable.

Richard Godman incurred the greatest loss, claiming compensation for two houses, two storehouses, one barn, two stables, a carthouse and a cowhouse. His own goods were in one of the houses, the barn, and a storehouse, and another barn, possibly the Common Barn, which he did not own. John Whicher lost all his goods in a 'workhouse', and in his malthouse. The 'workhouse' was obviously a candle manufactory, since it contained large quantities of tallow, candle rods and candles.

The other claimants seem to have used premises in the area for storing grain, carts, husbandry tools and various sorts of timber. It is possible that Richard Tanner and Richard Hildrup carried out threshing on the site. Hildrup lost barley, fodder, hulls (i.e. outer husks of grain) and threshing tools worth £12 5s., while Tanner lost nearly 100 qr. of threshed and unthreshed grain of various sorts, and hulls, as well as 'necessaries for husbandry'. Thomas Louer and William Louff claimed £4 for their losses 'in our garden', and also lost six hens. Godman lost two cows and two calves, and Henry Perrin a pig. Both Perrin and Moory lost stalls of bees.

The total value of the goods and properties lost in the fire was estimated at £1,041. A church brief was issued in January 1655,⁵ but it is not known how much it raised. Nor is it possible to trace the subsequent fortunes of all those who suffered from the fire. Richard Godman, who claimed to have lost moveable goods to the value of £255, died c. 1678 possessed of goods to the value of £15 1s.⁶ Richard

Tanner, whose grain and tools had been valued at £76, died in 1663, having goods valued at £13 9s. 6d.⁷ John Whicher, whose workhouse and malthouse contained goods and tools worth £95 12s. 1d. died in 1660 with goods worth £11.⁸ If they were typical, it would seem that the fire was a disaster from which its victims did not recover.

Author: Alison McCann, West Sussex Record Office.

Notes

¹West Sussex Record Office (hereafter W.S.R.O.), Chichester City Archives N 18, roll for the court of Quarter Sessions held in July 1654, contains the lists of goods and property destroyed in the fire belonging to Richard Hildrup (f.1), George Butterley (f.2), Henry Bullock (f.3), Edward Long (f.4), Henry Perrin (f.5), Edward Moory (f.6), Richard Tanner (f.7), Thomas Louer and William Louff (f.8), John Whicher (f.9), and Richard Godman (f.10).

²I am grateful to R. R. Morgan of the Chichester Documentary Research Group for identifying the location of the fire.

³W.S.R.O., Add. MS. 8493.

⁴W.S.R.O., STD I/4, f.22 is Henry Perrin's will in which he refers to his son-in-law.

⁵W. A. Bewes, *Church Briefs*, 169. An incorrect date is given for the fire.

⁶W.S.R.O., Ep. 1/29/541/83.

⁷W.S.R.O., STD III/4, f.7.

⁸W.S.R.O., STD III/4, f.1.

John Bricknell's Maps of East Dean, 1756

John Baptist Caryll, the last of his line, was forced to sell all his considerable Sussex estates after the death of his father in 1736. In 1744 he sold the West Grinstead estate, and, after a series of judgments against him in the courts and an Act of Parliament to reverse the entail on the main Caryll estates, Caryll determined to sell Ladyholt in Harting. At the same time Charles Lennox, 3rd Duke of Richmond, was anxious to increase the size of the Goodwood estate that he had inherited on the death of his father in 1750, by purchasing the neighbouring manor of East Dean. East Dean belonged to Sir Matthew Fetherstonhaugh, who had bought the Uppark estate in Harting from the Earl of Tankerville in 1747, and who was casting covetous eyes on the Ladyholt estate.

John Baptist Caryll and Sir Matthew Fetherstonhaugh had already clashed over an unexecuted conveyance in 1756, and Caryll was not prepared to sell his estates to his immediate neighbour. Accordingly, a plot was hatched between Fetherstonhaugh and Richmond, whereby the Duke was to buy Ladyholt and the surrounding Harting estate from Caryll, and was then to sell it immediately to Fetherstonhaugh in exchange for East Dean. On 4 February 1760 Richmond and Caryll signed articles of agreement for the purchase of the Ladyholt estate for £23,000,¹ and the complicated negotiations that ensued are chronicled in the letters between Fetherstonhaugh and Richmond in the Uppark archives, and between Caryll and Richmond in the Caryll papers in the British Library.

When the East Dean estate finally came into Richmond's hands, he also received the manorial documents, including the court books, the title deeds and some maps. Among the maps are two particularly fine examples of the cartographer's art, which have remained hitherto undated and unascribed. The first² was described by Francis Steer³ as a map of the whole parish of East Dean, c. 1760, on

a scale of 20 in. to the mile, and in size 59½ in. by 80 in. The title of the map is enclosed in a decorated cartouche, and the map bears the Fetherstonhaugh arms. Dr. Steer described it as 'a map of outstanding quality'. The second map⁴ is contained in a field book of the manor and parish of East Dean, where it is described by Dr. Steer⁵ as an enlarged version of the previous map on a scale of 5 in. to the mile, in size 16½ in. by 19 in.; he dated it c. 1770.

Among the Uppark archives is a document⁶ which not only dates the two maps but identifies the cartographer. It is a receipted bill from John Bricknell to Sir Matthew Fetherstonhaugh for surveying and mapping the manor of East Dean, and reveals that Bricknell was paid at the rate of 7s. 6d. per whole day from 16 January to 8 October 1756 for surveying the manor, and 10 gns. for drawing the map and book of reference. The total bill amounted to £70 0s. 4½d.

A close examination of the two maps proves that they are otherwise identical maps on different scales, and the Uppark receipt proves that they were both drawn by John Bricknell in 1756. In spite of the very high quality of the two maps, no other work by John Bricknell has been identified.⁷

Author: Timothy J. McCann, West Sussex Record Office.

Notes

¹W(est) S(ussex) R(ecord) O(ffice), Goodwood MS. E 2605. The Goodwood archives are quoted by courtesy of the Directors of the Goodwood Estate Co. Ltd., and with acknowledgements to the West Sussex Record Office and the County Archivist.

²W.S.R.O., Goodwood MS. E 4995.

³Francis W. Steer & J. E. Amanda Venables, *The Goodwood Estate Archives*, 1 (1970), 235.

⁴W.S.R.O., Goodwood MS. E 54.

⁵Steer & Venables, 9.

⁶W.S.R.O., Uppark Archives, uncatalogued. The Uppark archives are quoted by courtesy of the Trustees of the Meade-Fetherstonhaugh family.

⁷See *Dictionary of Land Surveyors and Local Cartographers of Great Britain and Ireland, 1550-1850*, ed. Peter Eden, 1 (1975), 45.