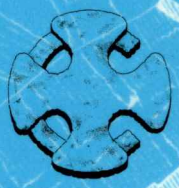
Cambrian Archaeological Monographs No. 4

EXCAVATIONS AT CHEPSTOW 1973–1974

by R. SHOESMITH, F.S.A., M.I.F.A.



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The Cambrian Archaeological Association, 1991

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Editor's Preface

Chepstow has long been acknowledged as a focal point of the Medieval Archaeology of Wales, if not of Britain as a whole. Located at the point where a long-established route connecting the Gloucester area and the West Midlands with South Wales crosses the major obstacle of the Wye Valley and long known as the site of the first recorded stone-built castle in Britain and of a significant Medieval town, Chepstow was naturally a centre of major interest and concern when the construction of a new road through the site of the town was undertaken.

The excavations here reported were undertaken in advance of the development. The major points of interest were the investigation of the long-known monastic site and the discovery and analysis of a large and valuable sequence of pottery, which is here fully documented. The excavation report was completed in 1983 and the regrettable delay in its reaching the publication stage has been due to financial problems.

The preparation of this volume has been greatly assisted by a number of people: Mr J. M. Lewis gave much valuable advice and guidance and Miss B. L. R. Jones devoted much time and energy to copy-editing the text. The Monographs Management Committee of the Cambrian Archaeological Association under the chairmanship of Mr H. N. Jerman gave much support and encouragement and, in addition to their financial support which is formally acknowledged elsewhere in the volume, the Welsh Historic Monuments Service ('Cadw') have been most generous with advice and assistance. Finally, I wish to record my gratitude to Mr Shoesmith, whose genial attitude and assistance with the routine matter of publication made him a great pleasure to work with.

ROBIN G. LIVENS

CONTENTS

List of Figures

List of Plates

(at rear of volume)

General Introduction

Chepstow occupies a strategic position between England and Wales, on the western side of the river Wye close to its confluence with the Severn and astride the main road from Gloucester into South Wales. Dominated by the ruins of the Norman castle and defended by the Port Wall, the town of Chepstow has every appearance of a typical medieval stronghold, with the main road making a steep descent from the Town Gate through the market place to the bridge over the Wye.

Although Roman coins, pottery and burials have been found within the town, there is no evidence for settled occupation until the Norman conquest when Willian Fitz Osbern built one of his principal fortifications on a ridge overlooking the Wye. He made a grant of nearby lands to the Benedictine Monastery of Cormeilles in Normandy and they in turn founded a dependent cell. Between the castle and the alien priory the small town of Chepstow grew rapidly, probably becoming walled in the latter part of the 13th century.

Although the town prospered and at one time vied with Bristol as the principal port on the Severn estuary, it has retained much of its medieval character, the 20th century growth being outside the wall line. The town has long been a bottle-neck on the road from South Wales to Gloucester and although this was eased by the construction of the Severn and Wye bridges in 1966, which relieved the main street of much heavy traffic, it was decided in 1972 that an inner relief road was necessary.

The excavations described in the following pages were undertaken in advance of stage 1 of the relief road works and included small areas close to the medieval wall, a street frontage site, and parts of the conventual buildings associated with the priory. The remains discovered, which include early Roman cremation burials, a large buttressed barn, parts of the monastic living accommodation and the remains of a 13th-century house, add considerably to our knowledge of the Roman and medieval occupation of this strategic area.

The report is in four parts:

Part 1: Background information
Part 2: The excavations
Part 3: The finds
Part 4: The conclusions

Acknowledgements

The excavations recorded in this volume were undertaken throughout the winters of 1973 and 1974. During this period the assistant site supervisors were E. Campbell, T. Johnson and R. E. Wilson. I am very grateful to them for their efforts to ensure that a full and accurate record was kept of all the excavated features, often during atrocious weather conditions. The volunteers who helped during the two seasons are too many to thank individually, but I owe my gratitude to all for their constant enthusiasm and endeavours.

In advance of the excavations, help and assistance was provided by Mr Donovan, then of the Monmouthshire County Planning Office and Mr Turner, then of the Chepstow Urban District Council. Accommodation was provided by G. D. and E. A. Griffiths and invaluable historical information by I. Waters.

I am very grateful to the following people who have provided specialist reports and helped generally with the preparation of this report.

Miss M. M. Archibald, Department of Coins and Medals, British Museum (coins); Mrs H. Banks (typing); M. Knight, then employed by the City of Hereford Archaeology Committee (plan drawing); D. Bramwell, Bakewell, Derbyshire (bird bones); J. Cherry, Department of Medieval and Later Antiquities, British Museum (small finds); T. Copeland (Roman pottery); Miss R. Crosskey and Mrs M. Boyce (text revision); Miss B. Noddle, Department of Anatomy, University College, Cardiff (animal bones); A. Peacey, recently at the Gloucester Archaeological Unit (clay pipes); M. Rhodes, then of Hereford City Museum (coins); A. G. Vince, then of the Department of Archaeology, University of Southampton (ceramic material) and my wife Ruth (pottery drawing).

In addition I would like to thank Mrs Pearson of the Chepstow Museum for her help and advice, Gwent County Library for allowing me to use a copy of Millerd's Map of Chepstow, the Board of Celtic Studies for provision of a grant for the petrological examination of the pottery, and D. M. Evans and R. Avent, then of the Welsh Ancient Monuments branch of the Department of the Environment (now the Welsh Office), who provided help and encouragement throughout the excavation and arranged funds for the post-excavation work.

Finally, I should thank the City of Hereford Archaeology Committee, who have allowed me to complete this report as part of my employment with them.

R. SHOESMITH

PART 1

General

Physical Background

The most important geological event which has affected the area was caused by the uplifting of the landscape across which the Wye meandered on its flood plain. The subsequent rejuvenation of the river and the new drainage pattern resulted in deeply entrenched meanders which have had a great influence on industry, settlement and communication in the area.

The immediate Chepstow area has suffered from earth movements producing faulting and folding but any control that these events had over the landscape was lost during the uplifting of the area. However, nearly all the rock types exposed in the immediate area of Chepstow can be used as building stone. The Upper Old Red Sandstone was used by the builders of Tintern Abbey whilst the Lower Old Red Sandstone has been removed from several areas near Chepstow, the closest being 200m south of Tintern Parva church.

The Carboniferous Series is well represented in the Lower Wye Valley and is still extensively quarried. Within the immediate area of Chepstow, Hardwick quarries produced a fine crystalline dolomite and the Crease Limestone was mined on the site and used extensively in the building of Chepstow Castle. Sandstone from the Pennant Series and those derived from the overlying Triassic beds have also been used as building materials.

The solid geology of Chepstow's hinterland, especially the Forest of Dean, with its iron and coalfields and vast reserves of timber, has had great influence on the development of the town as a port and settlement. Natural deposits have been mined and quarried since Roman times.

Although the coal measures of the Carboniferous period do not occur in the immediate area around Chepstow, the Forest of Dean coalfield to the north-east has been of importance to this region for many years. The first record of coalmining is in 1232 (Nicholls 1866, 12), and the ancient rights and privileges of the Free-miners of the Forest were probably granted during the reign of Edward I.

The coal measures were subject to severe weathering and oxidizing causing iron-bearing water to percolate through the underlying limestones, dissolving the rock and replacing it with pockets and veins of haematite. Whilst this has never been economically exploited around Chepstow, the many 'Scowles' in the Forest of Dean indicate Roman iron mining. More recently at Lady Park Wood between Monmouth and Symonds Yat, large quantities of haematite were mined and shipped down to Chepstow. There is evidence of considerable iron working in Monmouth both during the Roman period and again in the 18th century when large amounts of Roman slag were reworked.

TOPOGRAPHY OF MODERN CHEPSTOW

Chepstow is now in Gwent but was formerly in Monmouthshire. It occupies a deep hollow, shelving down to the right bank of the Wye (Fig. 1). The river flows in a semi-circle around the town, and the medieval Port Wall, of which substantial lengths remain, defended the 53 hectare (130 acre) peninsular site of the town from the west. Only two gates were needed; the Town Gate, which still survives at the upper end of the High Street, and the Bridge Gate which would originally have controlled access from the English side of the Wye. The present bridge, which is of cast iron, was completed in 1816.

The road which crosses the bridge and passes through the town and gate was, for many years, a section of the main coast road from Gloucester into South Wales. It still carries much local and regional traffic and provides the only direct link between southern Monmouthshire and the Forest of Dean.

East of the river the main road (A48) curves to the top of Tutshill and then heads in a north-easterly direction following the northern bank of the Severn towards Lydney and Gloucester (Fig. 2). From Tutshill a minor road (B4228) leads north into the central part of the Forest of Dean passing through St Briavels and Coleford. South from Tutshill a road goes on to the Beachley Peninsula which separates the rivers Wye and Severn. Until the construction of the Severn Road Bridge in the early 1960s, this road led to the ferry which transported vehicles across the Severn from Beachley to Aust.

Outside the Town Gate the steep Moor Street was the western continuation of the A48 and led to Caerwent and Newport. A section of this road was replaced by a parallel road to the south in 1973, thus avoiding the Town Gate. Welsh Street, which heads in a north-westerly direction from the Town Gate, eventually branches into three main roads, the most southerly (B4235) leading to Usk, Pontypool and Abergavenny, the other two lead northwards to Monmouth, one following the high ground through Trellech (B4293), the other along the Wye Valley through Tintern (A466).

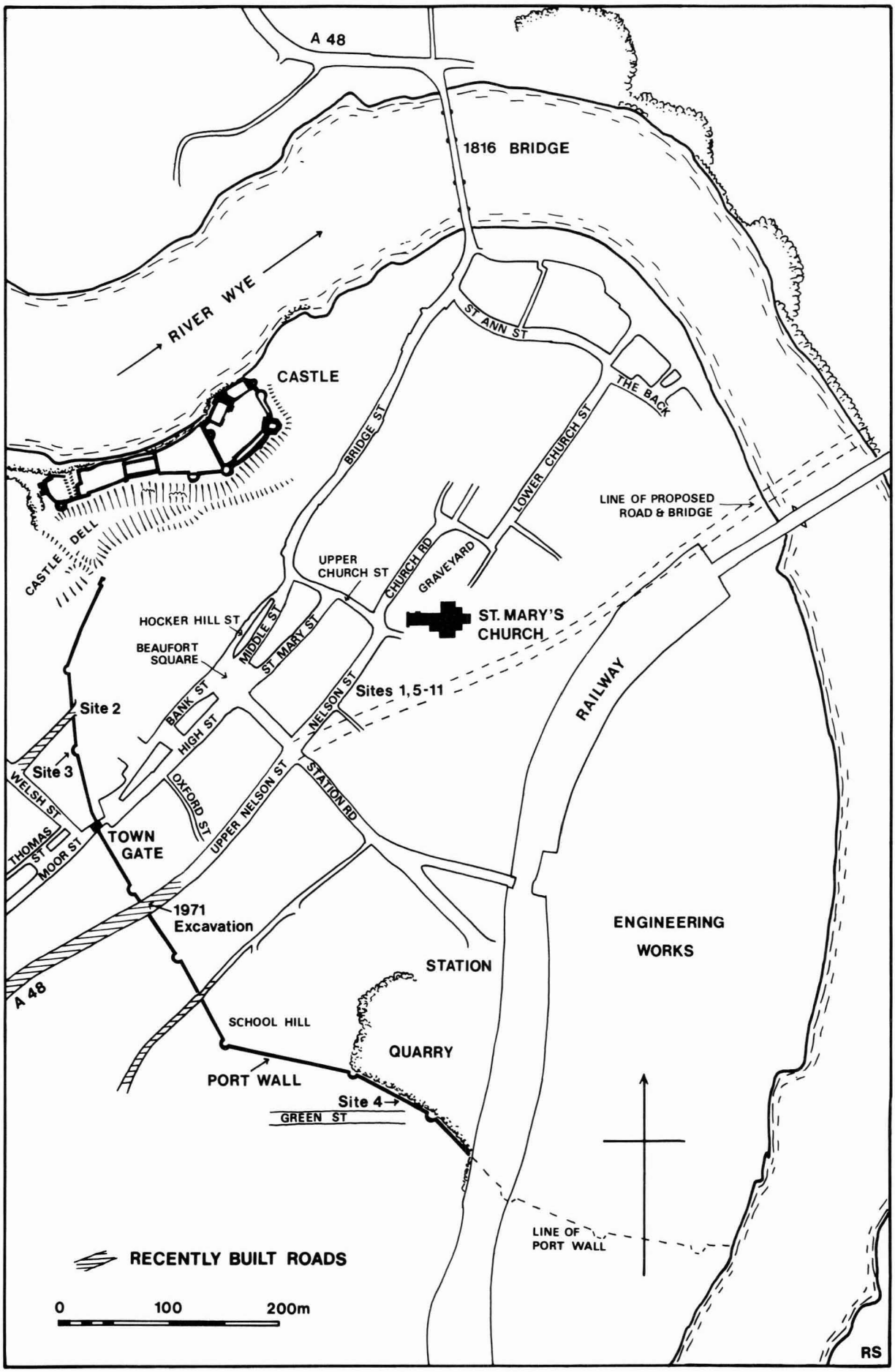

Fig. 1. Map of Chepstow 1976 showing modern streets and surviving Port Wall. The proposed line for phase 2 of the inner relief road is shown.

About 1 km to the west of Chepstow a new road joins these three western roads to the M4, thus providing a direct link to the Severn Road Bridge and the motorways on the southern side of the Severn estuary.

The arrangement of the medieval town within the Port Wall can still be appreciated (Fig. 1). The design falls naturally into three parts; the castle, the town itself and the priory grounds. The whole area is dominated by the ruins of the castle, which stand to the north on a narrow spur separated from the town by a wide, dry valley called Castle Dell. On the northern side of the castle is a steep cliff down to the Wye making the whole site naturally defensive.

The main road leading through the town starts as High Street just within the Town Gate, becomes Middle Street after it crosses the line of Station Road and curves into Bridge Street at the junction with Upper Church Street. It then leads directly to the bridge. The properties separating Bank Street and Hocker Hill Street from High Street and Middle Street and those which separate Middle Street from St Mary Street are apparently encroachments on what was originally a main market area.

Parallel to, and south-east of, Middle Street are St Mary Street and Nelson Street, both of which join Station Road to Upper Church Street. Nelson Street, at one time no more than a back lane, is now part of the town centre diversion road which breaches the Port Wall to the south-west. To the north-east it curves round St Mary's Priory Church graveyard as Church Road and then reverts to its original alignment as Lower Church Street, running parallel to Bridge Street towards the river.

The riverside has probably shown most change in the last hundred years. The area between the river and St Ann Street, which joins Bridge Street to Lower Church Street, must have been one of the busiest parts of the old port. Some of this area has been laid out as the Riverside Gardens but the former importance of the area is still evident from the number of disused buildings, including several warehouses and riverside inns.

The south-eastern part of the walled peninsula was originally the Priory grounds. Much of it is separated from the main part of the town by the Gloucester–Cardiff railway. The whole of this area now contains the

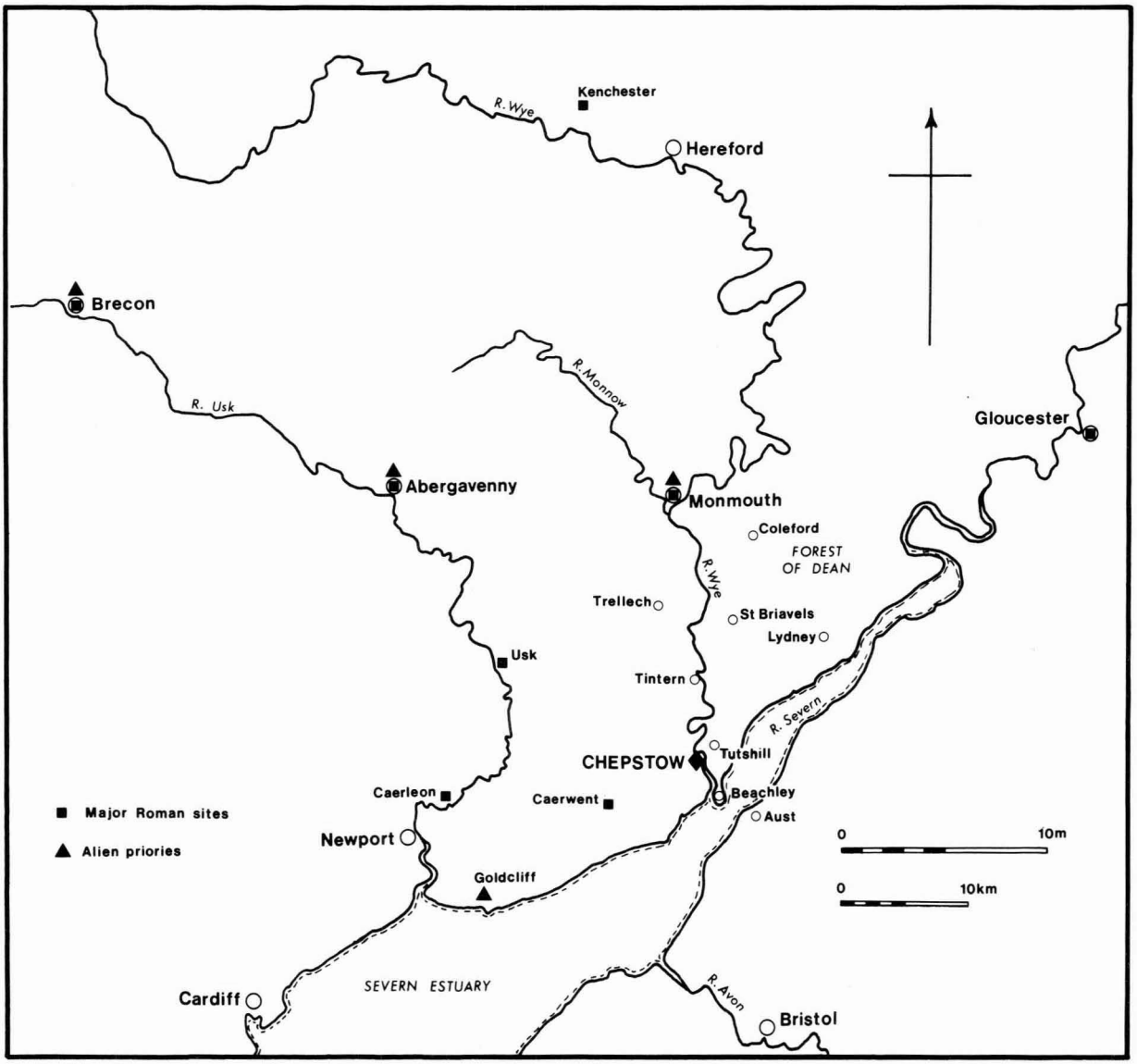

Fig. 2. The area around Chepstow showing the major Roman sites and alien priories.

engineering firm of Fairfield-Mabey Limited, which is approached from the town via Station Road.

The steep cliffs on which the castle is built are reflected by equally high cliffs on the opposite bank of the Wye, below Chepstow Bridge. These together present a picturesque background to the town and emphasize the defensive potential of the area.

Traffic travelling through Chepstow increased after the Second World War, but was restricted by the single opening through the Town Gate. Proposals for a complete by-pass to the town were rejected, and it was eventually decided to construct an inner relief road to take the through traffic then using the High Street. Work commenced in 1971 when the Port Wall was breached some 80m south of the Town Gate, and Nelson Street was extended through the gap as Upper Nelson Street. A second breach in the wall, 100m to the north of the gate, was made in 1973 to gain access to the large car park behind Bank Street, and eventually to allow High Street and the Town Gate to be pedestrianized. The widening of the lower part of Nelson Street was completed in 1975, but the whole plan, which envisaged the building of a new road from Nelson Street to the bridge, was not implemented. It has now been proposed that this new road should curve from the Station Road–Nelson Street junction, passing to the east of St Mary's Church across a playing field, then skirt the railway, to cross a new river bridge next to the Brunel railway bridge.

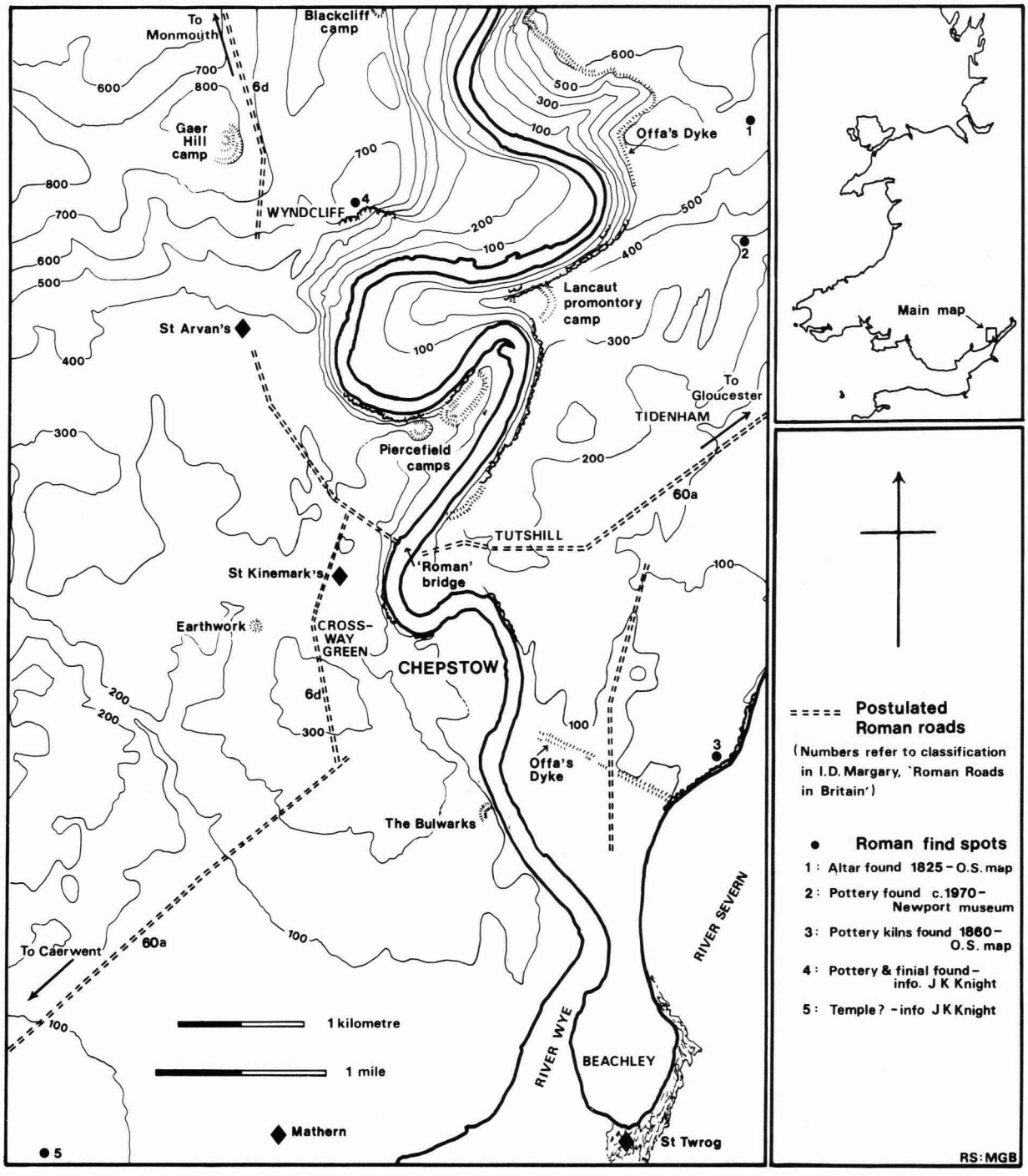

Fig. 3. The area around Chepstow showing Iron Age hill forts; postulated Roman roads; the surviving parts of Offa's Dyke and early medieval sites mentioned in the text.

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

The area around Chepstow seems to have been well populated during the Iron Age with substantial hill forts at Piercefield, Lancaut and The Bulwarks, all adjoining the Wye and within 3km of the centre of the town (Fig. 3).

The Roman occupation of the area was centred on the walled town of Caerwent (*Venta Silurum*), 7km west-south-west of Chepstow. The Roman road from Caerwent to Gloucester (*Glevum*) apparently crossed the Wye by a bridge about 1km to the north of the present Chepstow bridge and there seems to have been a road junction just to the west of the town (Fig. 3). Roman finds from the area around Chepstow and their significance are discussed in Part Four (p. 156).

The ramparts of the promontory fort at Lancaut appear to have been re-used in the construction of Offa's Dyke. The southern part of this impressive earthwork follows the top of the steep slopes on the eastern bank of the Wye from above Redbrook to a point opposite Chepstow, from where it cuts across the Beachley Peninsula to Sedbury Cliffs (Fox 1955).

The crossing of the river Wye would doubtless have been of considerable significance throughout the Saxon period and it has been suggested that the Roman bridge, or a ford in the same area, continued in use until the 8th century or even later (see Part Four).

Although Leland thought that Chepstow may have replaced Caerwent in the 7th or 8th centuries (Smith 1906, 43), there is no evidence to substantiate a pre-Conquest date. Several nearby churches, however, may have their origin in the late Saxon period including St Arvan's, where there is a decorated cross-slab of probable 10th-century date (Nash-Williams 1950, 175), and St Kynemark's, 1km north-west of Chepstow (Butler 1965). At Mathern, some 4km south of Chepstow, the Bishop of Llandaff had a palace, reputedly built on a site previously used by the early Christian kings of Gwent.

The Tidenham Charter of 956 records that this royal manor was given to the monks of Bath Abbey by King Edwy. The manor, on the eastern bank of the Wye opposite Chepstow, contained two hamlets; one unnamed, in Beachley, and the other in Lancaut. Beachley also contained an area which was let out for rent to Welsh shipmen implying perhaps, that the Welsh had control of the ferry crossing of the Severn from Beachley to Aust, and possibly also the timber trade on the Wye (Fox 1955, 216–17).

Shortly before the Conquest, however, the whole area belonged to Harold Godwinson, who had a hunting lodge at Portskewett 7km to the south-west of Chepstow.

The development of the town and its relationship with the castle and priory are discussed in Part Four. Both castle and town were originally called *Striguil* (Domesday) (apparently a corruption of the Welsh 'ystraigyl' — 'the bend' (Delaney and Soulsby 1975)), and only became known as Chepstow (*chepe* being a market and *stow* a place) in the 14th century (Waters 1975). In Welsh it is still known as *Castell Gwent* or, in the shortened form, *Cas Gwent*.

The magnificent hall-keep, built by William Fitz Osbern between 1066 and 1071, is one of the best preserved of the early castle halls of Europe. It became Crown property in 1074 after William's heir, Roger, was involved in an unsuccessful attempt to depose the King. In 1115 it was granted to Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, whose granddaughter, Isabel, married William Marshall who in addition to becoming Earl of Pembroke and Lord of Striguil was eventually made hereditary Marshal of England.

The Lordship of Striguil passed through Maud, William Marshall's daughter, to Hugh Bigod third Earl of Norfolk. Roger Bigod, grandson of Hugh, was responsible for the construction of much of the castle at Chepstow (Perks 1967), and is also accredited with building the Port Wall (p. 162) during the late 13th century. The town, which had rapidly grown between the castle and the priory, was granted the right to hold an annual fair and weekly market in 1294.

The *Inquisition Post Mortem* of Roger Bigod in 1306 indicates that Chepstow was a moderately prosperous town mainly belonging to the lord whose yearly income from it was £57 7*s*. 0½*d*., with the prior only having a small share £3 14*s*. (Bradney 1929, 5–7). By 1311, however, the community was in such poverty that they petitioned the King to 'have regard to their poverty until God mende their condition' (Waters 1977b, 9). At this time the castle was described as being ruinous (*Cal. Inq. Misc.* 1307–1349, 112) apparently due to neglect. In 1312, Roger having left no issue, Thomas de Brotherton was created Lord of Striguil, but in 1323 he granted the lordship and all his lands in the area to Hugh le Despencer for life at an annual rent. The lordship descended via John de Hastings to John Mowbray, second Duke of Norfolk and on the extinction of the Mowbrays came to Sir John Howard, and eventually to the Somersets, Dukes of Beaufort (Bradney 1929, 8).

There seems to have been no charter for the governance of the town until 1524 when one was granted which allowed the town to have a steward and two bailiffs (Waters 1975, 138). Previously it had apparently been ruled by the governor and officials of the castle (Bradney 1929, 13–14), although in 1456 Chepstow had a town hall called the Booth-hall (op. cit., 14) which indicates some form of town management.

The castle suffered two sieges during the Civil Wars and was used as a political prison during the Commonwealth. A garrison remained until the end of the 17th century after which the castle was dismantled. It was eventually used as a manufactory for glass bottles (Bradney 1929, 17; Perks 1967, 10–11).

NATIONAL EVENTS		LOCAL EVENTS		LORDS OF STRIGUIL AND CHEPSTOW	
1066	Defeat of Harold, Coronation of William I	1067–71	Building of 1st castle Building of Priory Church	1067–72	William Fitz Osbern
		1074	Roger deprived of his estates	1072–74	Roger Fitz Osbern
				1074–1115	Castle in Royal hands
1086	Domesday Survey				
1087	Accession of William II				
1100	Accession of Henry I				
1109	War in France	1115	Castle handed to the de Clare family	1115–48	Gilbert de Clare
1135	Accession of Stephen				
1139–41	Civil War — Stephen and Maud				
1154	Accession of Henry II			1148–76	Richard de Clare (Richard Strongbow)
		1163	Bull of Pope Alexander III confirming the Priory		
1189	Accession of Richard I	1189–1219	Middle bailey, tower and curtain wall built	1176–1219	William Marshall, hereditary marshall of England & Earl of Pembroke
1199	Accession of John		? New bridge		
1202	War in France				
1216	Accession of Henry III	1220–45	Upper bailey and lower bailey built	1220–48	William, son of W. Marshall followed by 3 brothers, Richard, Gilbert and Walter and then by Maud wife of Hugh Bigod, 3rd Earl of Norfolk
1243–48	Anglo-French truce	1234	Bridge repaired		
				1248–69	Roger Bigod
		1271	Wentwood survey	1270–1306	Roger Bigod III, Earl of Norfolk
1272	Accession of Edward I	1272	Western gatehouse built		
		1274–78	Probable building of Port Wall		
		1278–85	Lower bailey, domestic buildings on north side built		
1290	Jews expelled from England	1285–93	Martens Tower built		
1297–99	Anglo-French truce	1292–1300	Upper part of great tower completed		
1307	Accession of Edward II	1306	308 burgages	1306–38	Thomas de Brotherton Earl of Norfolk
		1308–9	Priory charter confirmed by Edward II		
		1309	Bridge apparently down		
		1311	Bridge repaired		
1327	Accession of Edward III			1338–71	Sir Walter Manney
1338–1453	Hundred Years War				
1347–55	Anglo-French truce				
1348	Black death appears			1371–(75 or 89)	John de Hastings Lord of Pembroke
1377	Accession of Richard II				
1381–85	Anglo-French truce	1391	Giles Wenlock, farmer of alien priory at Chepstow	–1400	Thomas, Lord Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk
1389–1400	Anglo-French truce				
1399	Accession of Henry IV			1400–32	John Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk
1413	Accession of Henry V	1414	Priory attached to Bermondsey		
1422	Accession of Henry VI				
				1432–83	Lordship in Royal hands
1444	Anglo-French Truce				
1455	Beginning of Wars of Roses				
1461	Accession of Edward IV				
1475	Peace with France				
1483	Accession of Edward V				
1483	Accession of Richard III				
1485	Accession of Henry VII			1485 (or 86)	William Herbert then as Earls of Worcester and Dukes of Beaufort until 1914
1488	Anglo-French war renewed				
1492	Anglo-French treaty				

NATIONAL EVENTS		LOCAL EVENTS	
1509	Accession of Henry VIII		
1511	Anglo-French war		
		pre-1524	Gate re-built
1514	Anglo-French truce		
		1525	Royal Charter
1536	Smaller religious houses dissolved	1536	Dissolution of Chepstow Priory
1539	Greater houses dissolved	1536–9	Visit to Chepstow by Leland
		1546?	New bridge built
1547	Accession of Edward VI		
1553	Accession of Mary I		
1558	Accession of Elizabeth I		
		1575	Bridge in decay
1588	Defeat of Spanish Armada		
1603	James I		
		1605–6	Bridge down
1625	Charles I — 1649		
1642–46	Civil War	1644	Bridge destroyed by Royalists
		1645 & 1648	Castle besieged
		1648	Bridge repaired
1658	Cromwell died	1660–90	Castle garrisoned and used as political prison
		1686	Millerd's plan of Chepstow
		1690	Castle partly dismantled
		1703	Bridge damaged in floods and repaired
		1738	Bridge damaged
		1755	Bridge repaired
		1785	Bridge substantially repaired
		1800	Coxe's map of Chepstow
		1813–16	Present bridge built
		1953	Castle became an ancient monument

THE PRIORY

Chepstow priory apparently started its life as a dependent cell to the Abbey of Cormeilles in Normandy, probably with no more than two or three monks to collect the rents from the lands between the Usk and the Wye granted to the Abbey by William Fitz Osbern before 1071 (Cowley 1977, 12). The cell was established close to Fitz Osbern's castle at Chepstow probably because of the protection it afforded to the newcomers. There were many such foundations established shortly after the Norman Conquest following the revival of monastic life in Normandy in the first half of the 11th century (Graham 1929–1930, 102). Several such cells, including the one at Chepstow, eventually acquired conventual status and should therefore have contained at least twelve monks as well as the prior (Cowley 1977, 13).

The priory was confirmed to the Abbey of Cormeilles by a bull of Pope Alexander III in 1163 (Wood 1910, 51–52) and by a charter granted by Henry II about the same date. However, in the Wentwood Survey of 1271, the prior of Striguil is described as having the right to house-boot and hay-boot 'by prescription since the Conquest' (Wood 1910, 42–43) so the early foundation date would seem most likely.

As with many Benedictine monasteries, the nave of the priory church was used by the townspeople as their parish church (Graham 1929–1930, 105), and the vicar had his own room in the priory, being treated as one of the monks (*Cal. Let. Pat.* v, 258). During the 12th and 13th centuries the prior and monks probably came from the mother house although local recruitment of novices occurred (Cowley 1977, 40).

It is doubtful if Chepstow ever expanded beyond the conventual number of twelve monks and a prior and, after the loss of his French territories by King John in 1204 which made relations between the French abbeys and their dependent cells difficult, the number probably decreased. In 1370, the earliest date when figures are available for Chepstow, there were only four monks including the prior (*Cler. Sub.*).

By the mid-13th-century alien monasteries were being taxed by both the Papacy and the Crown, which caused a chronic shortage of money. In 1291 Chepstow priory had an estate of 126 hectares (311½ acres) with

an assessed value of £35 19*s*. 11*d*. including both spiritualities and temporalities (Cowley 1977, appendices II and III).

In 1295 Edward I seized the temporalities of the alien priories, appointing commissioners to receive the revenues and provide maintenance for the monks. A similar system was instituted during the Hundred Years War and although orders were issued on several occasions for the seizure of Chepstow priory (*Cal. Fine. Rolls*. v, 447; vi, 323, 394) no action was taken. During the reign of Edward III (1327–1377) the temporal and spiritual value of Chepstow priory was £45 6*s*. 8*d*. (Duckett 1888, 136). The alien priories reverted to normal taxes between 1360 and 1369 but when war broke out again more stringent measures were made (Graham 1929–1930, 113–14). There is evidence that these various impositions were having an effect on Chepstow priory for in 1387 the house was put into the hands of commissioners until the prior paid a fine for custody incurred since the beginning of the war (*Cal. Let. Pat.* 1385–1388, 252, 511).

The house had neither monks nor prior from 1394 (*Cal. Pap. Let.* v, 258) until in 1398 the abbot and convent of Cormeilles granted it to Sir Benedict Cely on several conditions which included the maintenance of three monks of Cormeilles at Chepstow (*Cal. Let. Pat.* 1396–1399, 469; 1399–1401, 179).

In 1399 Parliament appreciated that due to the expulsion of priors and the misconduct of some commissioners at the various alien priories, the buildings had become delapidated and hospitality and almsgiving had ceased. To remedy this situation Englishmen were admitted to the houses and, in the case of Chepstow, the priory was restored to Simon de Bristol in 1400 providing he paid the *apport* (the yearly payment due to the abbey of Cormeilles) to the King (*Cal. Rot. Pat.* 1399–1401, 72). This apparently resulted in a temporary revival of the fortunes of Chepstow priory (Graham 1929–1930, 115) but, as a result of the worsening national relations, this was not to last. About 1414 the priory became attached to Bermondsey Abbey, a relationship which was to continue until the Dissolution (Smith 1906, 43). In 1440 Chepstow priory was apparently granted to God's House College, the precursor of Christ's College, Cambridge, but the grant never seems to have taken effect (*Cal. Let. Pat.* 1452–1461, 434).

The priory was eventually suppressed in 1536 when there were three religious in residence and the total value was £32 3*s*. (Dugdale 1846, 652). The priory and its possessions were leased to Morgan Wolfe, citizen and goldsmith of London, excepting the rectory of Chepstow and the priory buildings 'which the said Lord King will have ordered to be demolished and removed' (*op. cit.*, 653–54). The demolition apparently took place, for in the early 17th century Camden noted that the greater part of the priory had been demolished with the remainder converted to a parish church (Camden 1607, 9).

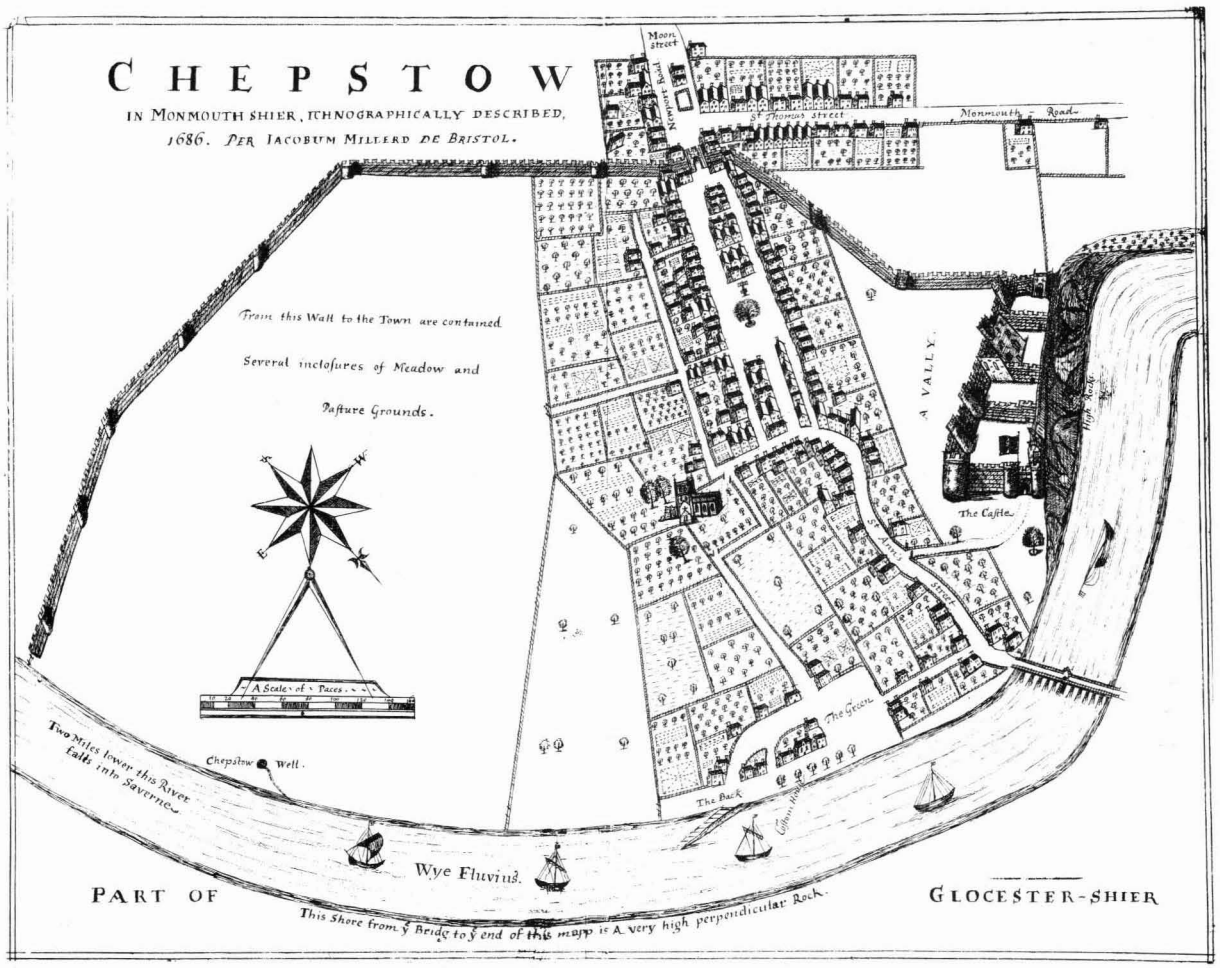

Fig. 4. Millerd's map of Chepstow, 1686.

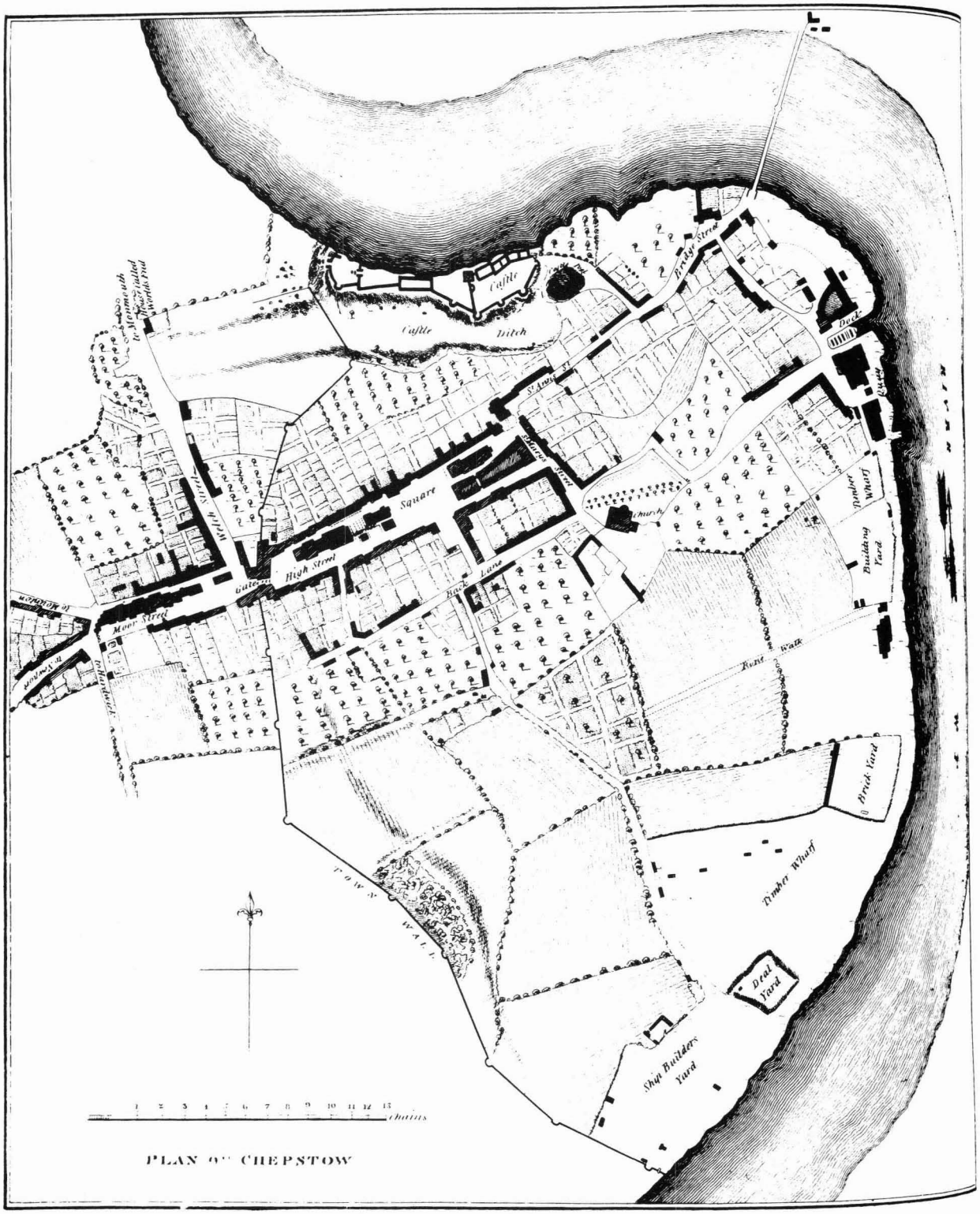

Fig. 5. Coxe's map of Chepstow, 1801.

The Norman monastic church was designed on a large scale and consisted of choir, choir aisles, a crossing with transepts and a central tower, and a long nave with both north and south aisles. At the Reformation the commissioners destroyed the choir but left the remainder. The central tower fell about 1700 (it is shown on Millerds map of 1686 (Fig. 4)) and was replaced by one above the Norman west front in 1706. In 1841 the nave aisles were removed and the eastern end, crossing and transepts were rebuilt (Freeman 1851). The nave was originally of six bays with a stone vaulted roof (Pl. 1). Most of the massive square piers with small engaged columns survive and the triforium and probably the clerestory on the south side are original. The magnificent west doorway, with five concentric semicircular arches on receding columns richly decorated with divisions of diagonal and diamond mouldings, is flanked by smaller arches and has three windows above giving some slight impression of the aspirations of the founder and builders.

PREVIOUS ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK

There had only been two archaeological excavations undertaken in Chepstow previous to those recorded in this volume. The first was that on the site of St Kynemark's priory 2km north-west of the town. An interim report has been published (Butler 1965) which contains a brief history of the priory and a provisional description by periods. Although the church is mentioned in 1128 the Augustinian canons did not settle there until 1254–1271 and its value given in the *Taxatio* of 1291 indicates that it was considerably smaller than the Chepstow house (fifty-seven hectares with a total value of £11 7*s*. 4*d*.) (Cowley 1977, appendices II and III). The excavated buildings, dated to the mid-13th century, consisted of two long ranges aligned north–south with a courtyard some 12m wide between. The east range was considered to accommodate store-rooms and the west range the main offices of the priory. The kitchen range was some distance to the south and the church was apparently on a different site. Various alterations were made during the 15th century, apparently to adapt the buildings for a reduced community and after the Dissolution the site became a farm with some of the buildings remaining in use for a time. The finds have not been published and are not considered in this volume.

The second excavation was associated with the proposed breach in the Port Wall for the inner relief road at the upper end of Nelson Street. The results of the excavation, which took place in 1971, have not been published but a short interim report mentions occupation of *c.* 1200 including a large timber structure within the line of the wall. The wall itself was without a trenched foundation and had a slight clay and stone bank behind it. A shallow ditch, about 6.1m wide and 0.9m deep had been dug immediately in front of the wall. Within the wall, deposits of domestic refuse were found dating up to the middle of the 15th century (Miles 1971).

During a watching brief on the line of the new road a 13th–14th-century rubbish pit was located on the north-western side of Nelson Street (Delaney and Soulsby 1975, 4.3.4).

There have also been several finds of Roman material from building works within the town which are discussed in Part Four.

PART 2

The Excavations

Introduction

The reports which follow are not presented in the order of excavation but are arranged to allow ease of reading and reference. There are two main areas of excavation (Fig. 1): the first was associated with a breach in the Port Wall some 100m to the north-north-west of the Town Gate (Sites 2 and 3); and the second includes all excavations in the 'Old Cattle Market' and along the south-eastern side of Nelson Street, both to the south and south-west of the Priory Church (Sites 1, 5–11). The excavations were financed as rescue projects by the Welsh Inspectorate of Ancient Monuments and took place between 1972 and 1974.

A standard format has been used for each of the reports, and, as far as possible, plans and sections have been prepared to equivalent scales. At the beginning of each excavation report the aims and objectives of the excavation are described and the methods and recording systems which were used on the site are explained. This is followed by the descriptive report which is split into a series of occupation periods. These are particular to the one site only and thus, for example, the occupation periods relating to Site 6 (Nelson Street house) are not the same as those used on the neighbouring Site 1 (monastic barn). At the end of the descriptive report for each period are sections which contain the evidence for dating and an inventory of the illustrated finds. The latter is cross-referenced to the full inventory in Part Three. Each period is concluded with a discussion section in which the information from the excavation is interpreted, analysed and related to earlier or later periods.

There are several problems which may result from separating the descriptive part of the report from the remainder. To make the text more intelligible and to ensure that it is not inordinately long, several assumptions have been made to allow particular contexts to be interpreted as 'postholes', 'postpits', 'walls', etc. The interpretations are taken a stage further in some of the reports where, for example, a regular collection of postholes may be described as the remains of a fence line or even of a building.

Other collective terms used in the descriptive parts of the text include rampart, hearth and floor. Interpretations of this nature are described in some detail and are justified wherever it is considered necessary.

The individual sites were found to be variable in terms of development and periods of occupation, and it was therefore decided that the overall integration of periods into one master scheme would be complex and probably undesirable in the present state of knowledge because such an integration would have concealed the individual stratigraphic and dating problems which are present on several of the sites. The integration of these periods within the several excavation reports would have been unwarranted by the facts and because of this the relationships between the various periods on the sites adjacent to the church have been considered in a separate section (p. 164).

It is not possible within the limits of this volume to describe in detail every context on each of the sites. The detailed data in the excavation records is preserved in the archive and is lodged, together with the finds, in the Chepstow Museum.

Recording System

In the first instance each separate site was given a reference number, from 1 to 11. For recording purposes, finds marking, etc., this number was prefixed by 'CH' for Chepstow. Layers and features were then indexed in separate lists, layer numbers being prefixed by 'L' and the numbers for all other features prefixed by 'F'. This system is applied throughout the reports which follow, but in some cases the numbers have been amalgamated where later analysis has indicated that this is possible.

Finds were originally classified according to a system of bag numbers but this created unnecessary complexity. They were eventually listed according to their site and layer or feature number and separated into different materials for storage and examination. Small finds were orginally listed separately but were eventually incorporated into the above system. Three dimensional recording was only used for coins and similar finds.

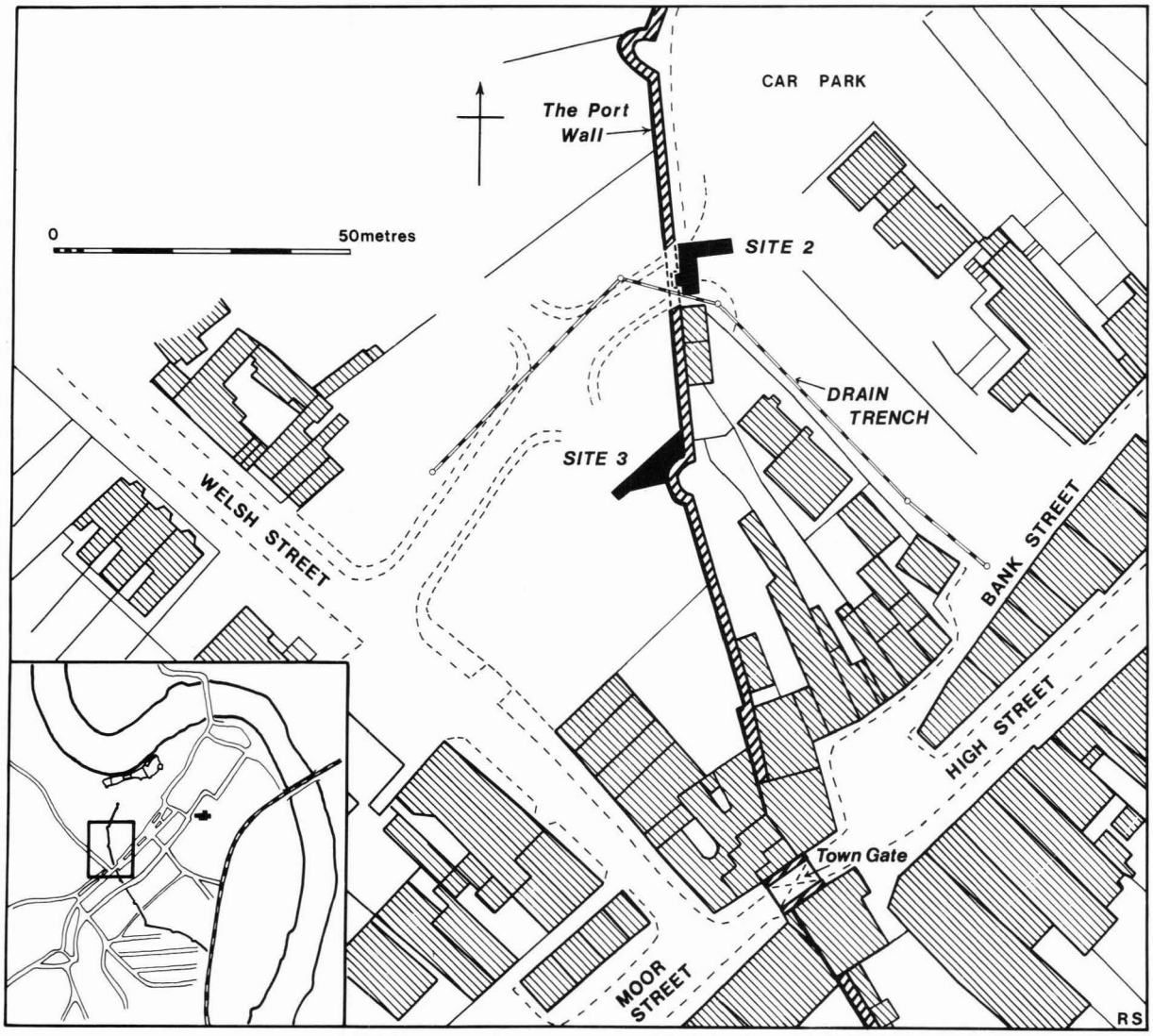

Fig. 6. The Port Wall excavations — Sites 2 and 3.

The sites examined were as follows (Figs. 6 and 7).

SITE	DESCRIPTION	DATE OF EXCAVATION
1.	An area within the Old Cattle Market which contained Roman cremations and a monastic barn (*c.* 15 × 25m)	October 1972 to February 1973
2.	An area within the Port Wall close to the proposed breach (*c.* 8 × 8m)	October to November 1972
3.	An area outside the Port Wall close to the proposed breach (*c.* 13 × 3m)	October to November 1972
4.	An area next to the Port Wall at the eastern end of Green Street (Fig. 1), where Roman pottery was found in a pit or ditch. The pottery is not recorded in this volume but the implications are considered in Part Four (p. 159)	*c.* 1971
5.	Trial trenches in the area of the Old Cattle Market east of Site 1	November 1972
6.	An area excavation containing the remains of a 13th-century house which fronted on to Nelson Street (*c.* 17 × 10m)	December 1972 to March 1973
7.	The north-eastern part of the Old Cattle Market. This area was not examined because of standing water and spoil from previous excavations	—
8.	The site of the Church School on the corner of Nelson Street and The Priory. Attempts were made to establish archaeological levels after the building had been demolished, but all parts of the site were disturbed to a great depth, apparently during construction of the school	—
9.	The northern part of the Old Cattle Market, close to and in part across the site of the recently demolished builder's yard and houses which had faced The Priory. The area was first examined by machine-cut trenches and most of the results have been amalgamated with those of Site 11. Some of the southern-most trenches are considered separately	March 1973
10.	The area of the Old Cattle Market between Sites 1 and 9. Only one small trench was examined as most of the area was covered by spoil from previous excavations	March 1973
11.	The area immediately to the south of The Priory, which included part of the conventual buildings. Some of the trial excavations in Site 9 are recorded under Site 11. The site also includes three small trenches (1–3) within the graveyard and south of St Mary's Church (*c.* 44 × 12m)	October 1973 to March 1974

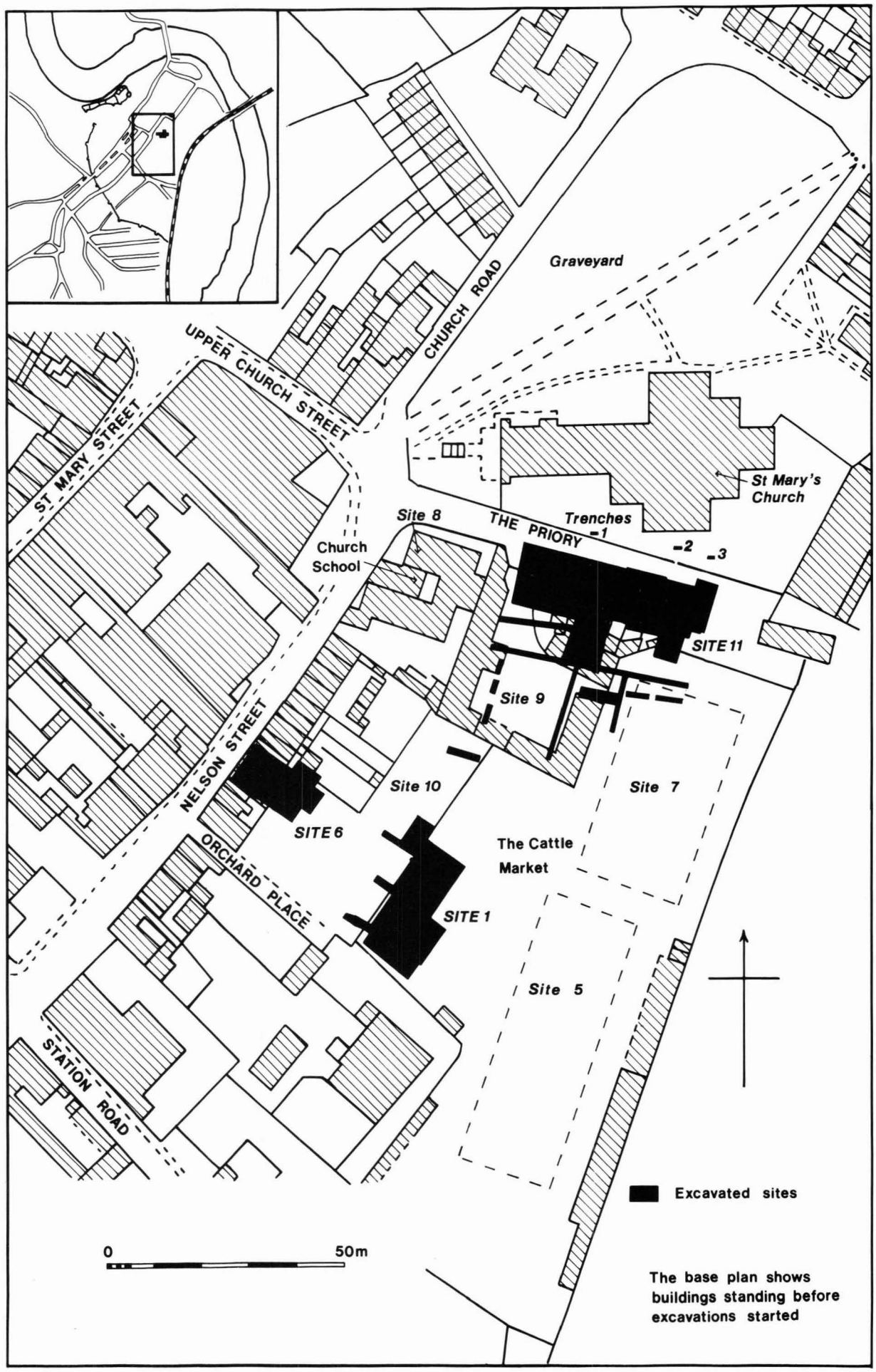

Fig. 7. The Nelson Street, Cattle Market and Priory excavations — Sites 1, 5–11.

The sites are described in the following order:

Port Wall Excavations
- Site 2
- Site 3

Nelson Street Frontage
- Site 6

Old Cattle Market
- Site 1
- Site 10
- Site 5

The Priory
- Site 11
- Site 9
- Site 8

The finds and records of all the excavations are deposited in the Chepstow Town Museum.

SITES 2 and 3:

The Port Wall Excavations

Introduction

The scheme for the improvement of traffic flow into and through Chepstow, by making two breaches in the Port Wall, has been described (p. 6). It was agreed that areas close to the two breaches in the wall should be the subject of archaeological excavation, and the south-eastern area was examined in 1971 (p. 12) (Miles 1971).

In 1972 buildings were demolished between Welsh Street and the site of the proposed second breach, to make room for the approach road. Areas on each side of the wall were then available for examination.

Welsh Street is shown on Millerd's Map of A.D. 1686 (Fig. 4) as St Thomas Street, but apart from this isolated instance there is no evidence that it has been called anything but Welsh Street since at least 1487 (Waters 1975, 195). The buildings demolished to make way for the new access road included 22–27 Welsh Street, the Roman Catholic Church and the Beulah Congregational Church. The Catholic Church was built in 1827 and the Congregational Church in 1834. Behind the latter was the Congregational Hall and between the hall and the Port Wall was a small, modern graveyard (Waters 1975, 197).

There were no buildings inside the Port Wall at the site of the proposed breach, but an apparently recent small doorway allowed access through the wall at this point.

The excavations were planned to sample the occupation levels on both sides of the Port Wall, to examine the constructional details of the wall itself and to look for any traces of earlier defensive works. The areas to be examined had to be chosen to cause least interference to the general public but had to be sufficiently large to provide significant answers.

Site 2, the excavation area within the Port Wall, was positioned on the line of the proposed breach, but the extent had to be restricted to allow reasonable access from Bank Street into the car park (Fig. 6).

On the opposite side of the Port Wall at this point was the small graveyard belonging to the Congregational Church. It was anticipated that the new access road would seal the few graves without disturbance, and that the graves would have damaged the archaeological layers in this area. A site for excavation was therefore chosen further to the south. Site 3, the area selected, included the junction of the Port Wall with a semi-circular tower in an area where there appeared to have been little modern disturbance (Fig. 6).

During the construction of the access roads, from Bank Street and Welsh Street, new drainage trenches were briefly examined. Although there was no opportunity to draw sections, basic observations were made and the line of the trench, which ran from Bank Street along the edge of the car park to the breach and from there to a point close to Welsh Street, is shown on Fig. 6.

SITE 2:

The Excavation Within The Port Wall

Introduction

The site was covered in tarmac and a machine was used to clear an area approximately 9m by 7m. Within this area, a trench 2m wide and 9m long at right angles to the wall, was examined by hand. The Port Wall at the site of the proposed breach included a small recess containing a 19th-century door. The ground within and surrounding this recess was also examined by hand, the total area excavated being L-shaped (Fig. 6).

Recording System

Contexts were indexed in two separate lists of layers and features and the finds were correlated to these two lists:
Layers L1–L3
Features F1–F7

Summary of Chronology and Periods

Period 1	Pre-wall levels, the Port Wall and the recess	16th century and earlier
Period 2	Post-defensive use of the recess	Late 17th and 18th centuries
Period 3	The doorway	19th century and later

Period 1 — Pre-wall levels, the Port Wall and the recess

DESCRIPTION

Within the area excavated, a rough fissured limestone bedrock was found only a little way below the present ground surface. Above this was layer L3, a thin layer of clean, brown clayey soil (Fig. 8). This layer was only present in the recess and close to the wall (Fig. 9A). When the wall was demolished layer L3 was seen to continue underneath, between the bottom course and the bedrock.

The wall was apparently built on top of this clean soil with no attempt made to excavate a foundation trench. From inside, apart from the area of the recess as described below, the wall appeared to be of one constructional period with roughly-coursed stonework up to the level of the wall walk. The main part of the wall was 2m thick and the recess had a total depth of 1.4m. At some time the southern part of the recess had been filled in; its original length along the wall was 4.4m but the blocking had reduced it to 3.0m. On the north side of the recess two courses of facing stone survived at ground level but above this the rubble core of the wall was exposed. On the south side, the blocking was faced with a good quality ashlar. There was no evidence to indicate whether the Port Wall had ever continued across the recess for its full thickness.

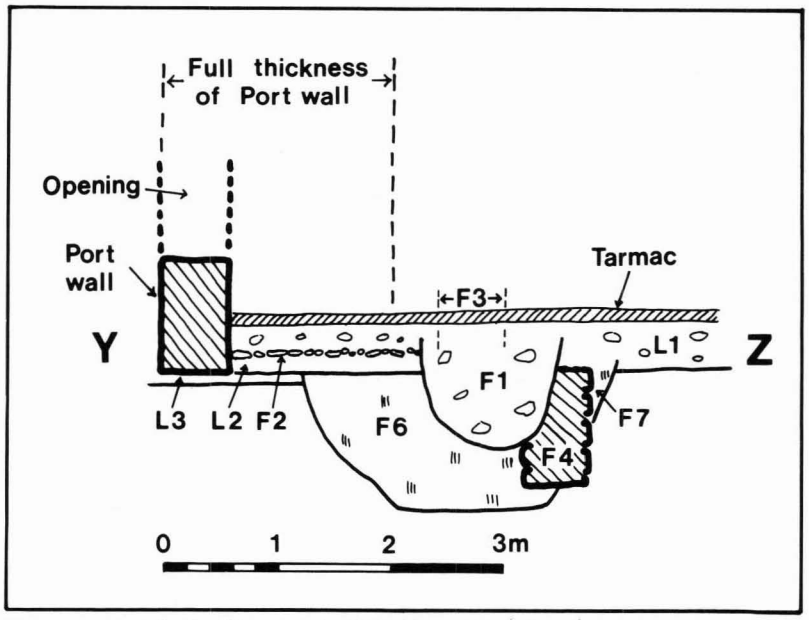

Fig. 8. Site 2: section Y–Z. For position of section see Fig. 9.

DATING

There was no evidence from Site 2 to date the construction of the Port Wall. The thin brown soil layer L3, which continued underneath the wall, and was examined after demolition, was completely clean and contained no finds. However, the part of layer L3 within the recess and close to the wall contained a few sherds of pottery of the 13th to the 15th centuries. As these sherds only occurred in the exposed parts of layer L3, they may represent later contamination of the layer due to cultivation or to other unseen disturbances which occured after the wall was built. There was no evidence to date the recess in the wall, which may have been part of the original construction, nor was there any evidence to date the partial blocking of the recess to the south.

DISCUSSION

There is no indication of any pre-wall occupation on Site 2, but this should not necessarily be considered as conclusive. The only layer which is definitely in a context earlier than the construction of the wall is the part of layer L3 which was sealed by the wall foundation. Over most of the remainder of the area excavated this layer had been either completely removed or could have been disturbed by later cultivation. It is possible that any occupation layers present when the wall was built could have been totally removed during the constructional phase.

Although there is no archaeological evidence from Site 2 to indicate the date of construction of the Port Wall, historical evidence and comparisons with parts of the castle suggest that it should be ascribed to the period 1272–78 (p. 162).

The recess in the wall was originally thought to be a late feature associated with the 19th-century doorway which led through it. However, closer examination disclosed that it was of an earlier date and that it could have been designed as a part of the original wall; but it could equally have been cut into the wall at a later date without disturbing the outside face.

If the former suggestion is accepted then a possible reason can be proposed: the wall walk, which still survives along much of the length of the wall, was continuous around the semi-circular towers and would have been used both for communication and for defence. However, breaches in the walk could have been introduced to isolate scaling parties. Such a break might have a simple plank bridge which could be removed by the defenders as necessary (Turner 1970, 61). The 4.5m wide break in the wall-walk provided by this recess could well have been used for this purpose.

Apart from the contaminated layer L3, there were no other levels within the area excavated which were earlier than the 17th century and there was no surviving evidence of the use of this area during the period that the wall was used for defence.

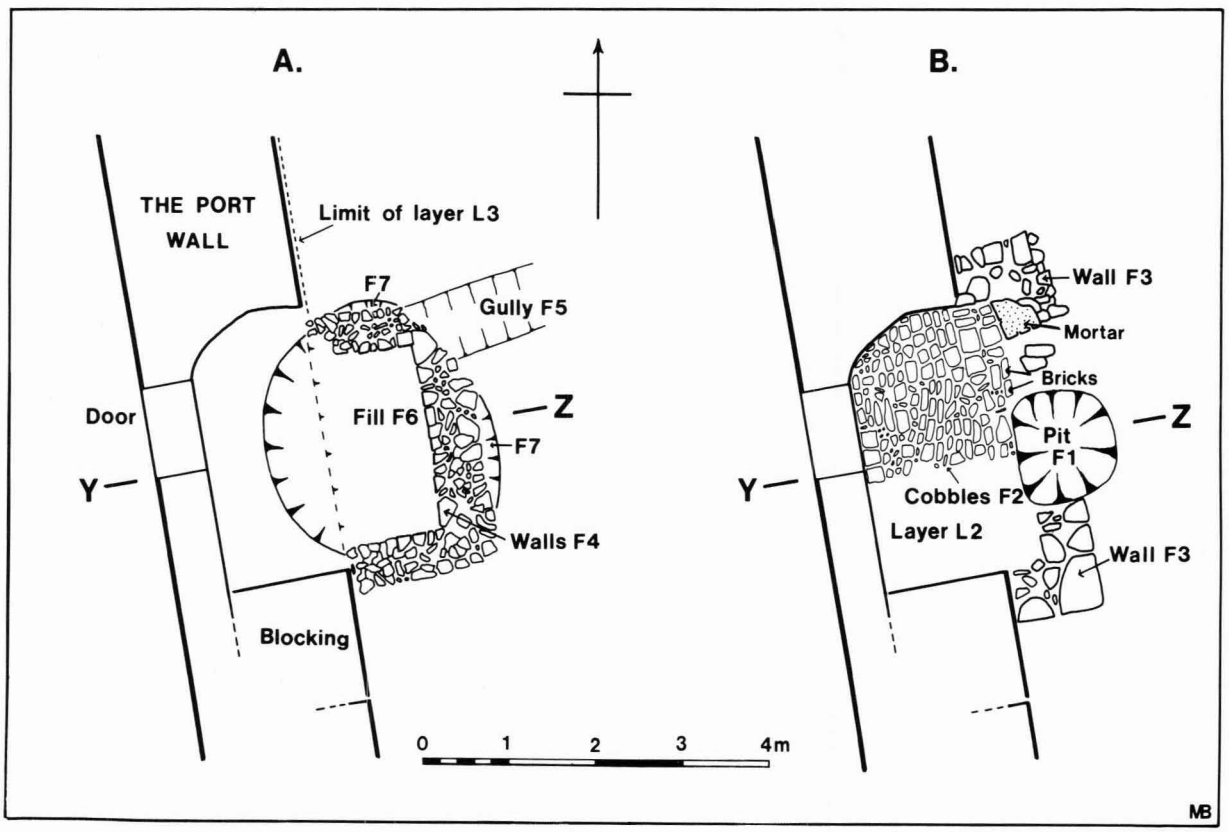

Fig. 9. Site 2: plans A and B. For section see Fig. 8.

Period 2 — Post-defensive use of the recess

DESCRIPTION

The southern part of the recess was blocked using good quality ashlar blocks (Fig. 9). The remaining width was 3.0m.

A roughly circular pit, F6, was dug 1.2m deep through layer L3 into the bedrock. The pit extended partly into the recess and was about 2.7m in diameter at the surface, with steeply sloping sides (Figs. 8 and 9A). Within the pit was a three-sided stone structure, F4, consisting of short north and south walls joined with a longer east wall. The walls were constructed of roughly squared blocks of limestone, well coursed and bonded at the corners but with only a minimal use of mortar. The structure had a reasonable face to the inside, within the pit. Apart from the centre of the east wall, where some stones had been disturbed by a later feature, the walls stood just above the top of the pit. Behind the north and east walls the remaining area of the pit was filled with F7, a grey soil. Within the walls the pit fill, F6, consisted of a sandy brown material containing some roughly squared stones and a little mortar. A shallow gully, F5, led into the pit from the east.

The top of the pit was partly sealed by the remains of wall F3. The two surviving parts of this wall had been built on each side of the recess, abutting the east side of the Port Wall (Fig. 9B). The central part of wall F3 had been destroyed by a modern pit, F1.

When complete wall F3 would have continued over the top of the stone structure F4. Large stones were used in the lowest course where wall F3 went over the edges of pit F6. The whole of the floor of the recess was covered in an ashy layer, L2, which sealed the remaining part of the fill of pit F6. Above L2, in the northern part of the recess, was F2 which consisted of roughly laid cobbles and some brick.

DATING

The pottery from the pit fills F6 and F7, and from gully F5 indicates that they were in use during the late 17th or early 18th century.

DISCUSSION

The pit may have been dug as a 'soakaway' for gully F5 but it would seem most likely that it was used as an earth closet or privy throughout its life. The internal stone walls may have originally provided a base for a primitive timber super-structure but improvements, probably in the 18th century, included the provision of an enclosing wall, F3. Eventually the use of the pit as a soakaway ceased, probably to be replaced by a bucket under a wooden seat placed on the earth and ash floor in the south side of the recess, the cobbling providing a floor to stand on. This privy presumably continued in use until mains drainage was installed in the town in the second half of the 19th century, when a new public convenience was built some 65m to the south-east at the corner of Bank Street.

Period 3 — The doorway

The features of period 2 were sealed with a dark grey clayey layer, L1, which continued along the length of the excavated trench to the east. It was apparently a garden soil level which was covered in tarmac when the car park was constructed.

The small door, which was inserted into the recess in the Port Wall, allowed access to a small garden at the back of the Congregational Church, adjacent to the graveyard. The wall dividing the garden and graveyard joined the outside of the Port Wall close to the centre of the recess, and the door had to be placed off centre to avoid this property division. The door must therefore be later than 1834, when the Congregational Church was built, and presumably later than the use of the alcove as a latrine.

The modern intrusion, F1, which removed parts of walls F3 and F4, contained a concrete block for the stay of an electricity pole.

INVENTORY
Illustrated Pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L1	Continental wares: Ng	125	Fig. 59.7

SITE 3:
The Excavation Outside The Port Wall

Introduction

To avoid known modern disturbances, an area was chosen slightly to the south of the proposed breach, at the junction of the Port Wall with one of its semi-circular bastion towers (Fig. 6). The site had previously been covered with sheds at the ends of the gardens of 23 and 24 Welsh Street. The garden walls had been demolished down to ground level and the foundation courses of one of them were used as the northern limit of the excavation. A machine-cut trench was used to establish the depth and complexity of the area chosen. It was some 15m long and was set out at right angles to the wall from a point close to the front of the bastion (A–B, Figs. 10 and 11). In the remaining part of the triangular area, thus formed, the topsoil was removed by machine and the remaining parts excavated by hand.

Recording System

Contexts were indexed in two separate lists of layers and features and the finds were correlated to these two lists:

Layers L1–L17
Features F1–F9

Levels are shown on the south section (Fig. 12).

Summary of Chronology and Periods

Period 1	Pre-wall occupation	12th century
Period 2	The wall and tower — construction	late 13th century
Period 3	The wall and tower — use and repair	14th–15th century
Period 4	Civil War and later features	late 16th century and later

Period 1 — Pre-wall occupation

DESCRIPTION

The limestone bedrock, similar to that on Site 2, had a fissured surface with slight irregularities. It was covered in a thick layer of clean, reddish, clayey soil which only had slight variations of colour and texture throughout its depth. L14, the lowest part of this layer, directly on top of the bedrock, was a clean, red, clayey, crumbly soil with very few stones (Fig. 12). It became slightly greener and more solid in the various small depressions in the bedrock. On top of this was L13, slightly more brown and clayey but with no distinct separation from the underlying level. Above this, again with an ill-defined change, was L10, a darker brown layer with some charcoal flecking. Close to the bastion tower was an irregular depression in the bedrock, F9, considered to be natural. It contained similar material to the lowest layer, L14.

DATING

The few small sherds of pottery found in these layers were all of 12th-century date.

DISCUSSION

The layer of soil made up of L10, L13 and L14 averaged some 0.5m thick and, judging by the finds, belonged to a period earlier than the date of construction of the Port Wall. Occasional sherds of pottery and fragments of bone were found in the lower level, L14, and the quantity increased slightly in L13 and again in L10. They were all of similar date and this distribution may suggest that the ground was being cultivated. The quantity of sherds was probably too small to indicate any settled occupation in the immediate vicinity. The surface of L10 is assumed to have been the ground level at the time of construction of the wall and tower. There was no indication of any defensive features of an earlier date than the Port Wall, nor were there traces of any pre-wall buildings.

Period 2 — Construction of the Port Wall and Bastion

DESCRIPTION

Two features were cut into the period 1 layer, L10, in front of the tower (Figs. 10 and 12). A shallow gully, F8, 0.7m across and 0.2m deep, ran roughly parallel with the Port Wall from the southern baulk, for a distance of 2.3m. It lay 0.8m in front of the masonry of the tower at its nearest point and contained stone fragments and some pieces of mortar of similar type to that found in the lower courses of the wall and tower. Close to the northern end of this gully was a stone-packed posthole, F6, which was 0.35m deep and 0.12m in diameter. The gully was sealed by L17, a thick layer containing many small fragments of stone and some soil. This layer started just to the west of the gully and roughly followed the curve of the tower to the north and east. Posthole F6, however, cut through L17.

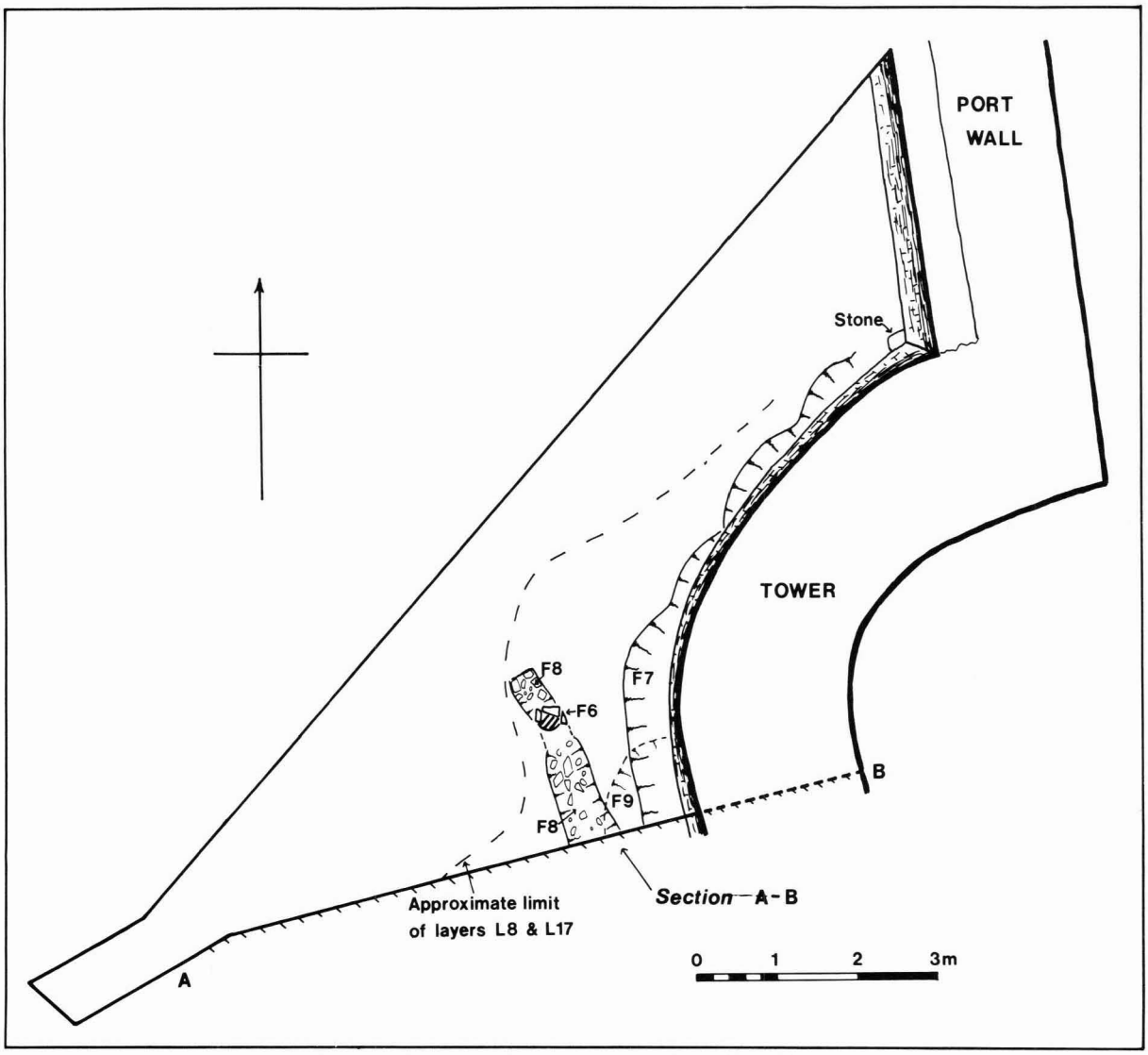

Fig. 10. Site 3: Period 2 — plan. For section A–B see Fig. 12.

L17 was cut by F7 a shallow depression against the tower wall. This depression, which had an average width of 0.5m and was 0.2m deep, followed the curve of the tower, becoming shallower as it approached the Port Wall. The fill consisted of brown clay, stone chips and mortar, and was sealed by a slightly darker soil. The foundation courses of the tower, which were some 0.5m deeper than the bottom of F7, were apparently laid in a carefully cut trench.

Sealing both layer L17 and depression F7 was a second stony layer, L8, which also sealed posthole F6. It consisted of mixed small rubble in a dark soil and covered approximately the same area as L17, thickening towards the tower and gradually fading out to the north and west.

The Port Wall and tower were apparently built at the same time and the lowest two courses in the part examined consisted of roughly coursed limestone blocks, each approximately 0.3m by 0.15m. They were laid on a red clay similar to L13. Above these foundation courses both wall and tower were constructed of random stonework for about 1m, above which it again became roughly coursed (Fig. 12; Pl. 2).

At the junction of the wall and the tower, a flat stone, carefully set in mortar, projected some 0.2m from the lowest course of the wall (Fig. 10).

DATING

The pottery from the various features cut into L10 and from the overlying layers L17 and L8 is dated to the 12th century. Some of this pottery could be residual and owe its presence to disturbance of the earlier levels, L10, L13 and L14, when the wall and tower were built. The evidence is only sufficient to indicate a 12th century or later date for construction of the Port Wall.

DISCUSSION

L17 contained many small chips of stone and mortar, and was probably the debris produced when stones were cut, shaped and fitted into the wall and tower. The posthole F6 and gully F8 were presumably associated with each other. The gully contained similar material to the overlying L17, indicating that the two features should be associated with the construction of the tower

rather than being part of any earlier pre-wall structure. F8 may have been a trench for a horizontal timber which could have been part of a framework including a post in F6 as a vertical member. Such a framework may have been used for scaffolding during the construction of the tower. This would account for the horizontal timber in F8 becoming buried underneath the constructional debris L17 whilst the vertical member F6, continued through this layer. On completion of the work the horizontal timber could have been left buried whilst the vertical one would have been relatively easily removed.

The narrow foundation trench in which the tower was built was filled by the lowest two courses of masonry. Above this level the slight depression, F7, may have been cut into the ground at the time of construction or could have been caused at a slightly later date by the regular flow of rainwater off the tower forming a gully. F7 was sealed, together with posthole F6, by further building debris, L8, which may have been the result of building the upper part of the tower or the parapet. There was no indication of a foundation trench for the Port Wall itself within the length excavated and, as was the case on Site 2, the lowest course was laid on a thin layer of clean, brown clay.

The stone which projected from the lowest course of the wall was unique in the length of wall excavated. As there was no foundation trench, the lowest course would have been visible as the wall was being built. The stone may have been inserted during the laying out process as an indication to the builders that a tower was to be included at this point providing some additional evidence that the wall and bastion were constructed at the same time.

The varying types of masonry evident in the elevation of both wall and tower (Pl. 2) could be either the result of changes in constructional methods as the wall was built, or possibly a later re-facing. There was, however, no indication from the two cross-sections of the wall seen in the breach at Site 2, that there had been any large scale rebuilding and the core of the wall consisted of homogeneous rubble (Pl. 3).

It should be noted that there was no indication of a ditch in front of the wall and tower in the whole width of the area excavated.

Period 3 — The Wall and Tower — Use and Repair

Period 3 starts after the construction of the wall, probably late in the 13th century (p. 162) and lasts until the middle of the 15th century.

DESCRIPTION

The period 2 construction layers, L8 and L17, close to the tower, and the period 1 soil level, L10, over the remainder of the site were both sealed by L7, a layer of friable brown soil which was present over the whole site, except where it was cut away by later features. This layer, which was some 0.2m thick, contained most of the pottery and bone fragments found on the site.

L7 was sealed by two different but associated layers. In a broad band which stretched for a distance of some 3m to 4m from the tower and the wall was L4, a layer of stone chippings, rubble and mortar in a dark brown soil. The surface of this layer was very uneven but close to the masonry the layer was some 0.2m thick. As the distance increased from the wall and tower the layer became thinner and changed in character, becoming L5, a reddish clay containing only occasional flecks of mortar and a few larger stones.

The only feature which was associated with L4 and L5 was a shallow depression, F4 (Fig. 11), which was cut from the level of L5. It was lined with lime, was full of a mixture of burnt limestone and charcoal, and was probably used for mixing mortar.

DATING

Pottery from L7 was dated to the 14th and early 15th centuries.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F4	Local wares: Hg	102	Fig. 53.7

Copper Alloy object

L4	Spike	146	Fig. 72.1

DISCUSSION

If it is accepted that L17 was the debris from the original construction of the wall and tower, and that L8 was contemporary with L17, then the soil layer, L7, which sealed these rubble layers, should represent the gradual build-up of soil and humus after the wall was completed. The layer varied in thickness up to about 0.2m and may have taken some time to accumulate. However, there was a slight slope in the ground surface downwards towards the wall and tower at this point, so L7 may have been partly the result of water-borne movement of soil.

The large quantity of bone and 14th and early 15th-century pottery found throughout L7 may indicate some occupation along the line of Welsh Street during this period, but it could alternatively represent rubbish thrown over the wall from inside the town.

It was noticeable that a different mortar was used in the upper parts of the wall and tower as compared with that used in the lower courses. The lower, random masonry was bound with a yellowish, sandy mortar, similar to that found in F8, whilst the upper, coursed masonry made use of a white mortar containing gravel. The mortar found in L4 and in the mortar mixing pit, F4, was identical to that used in the coursed parts of the

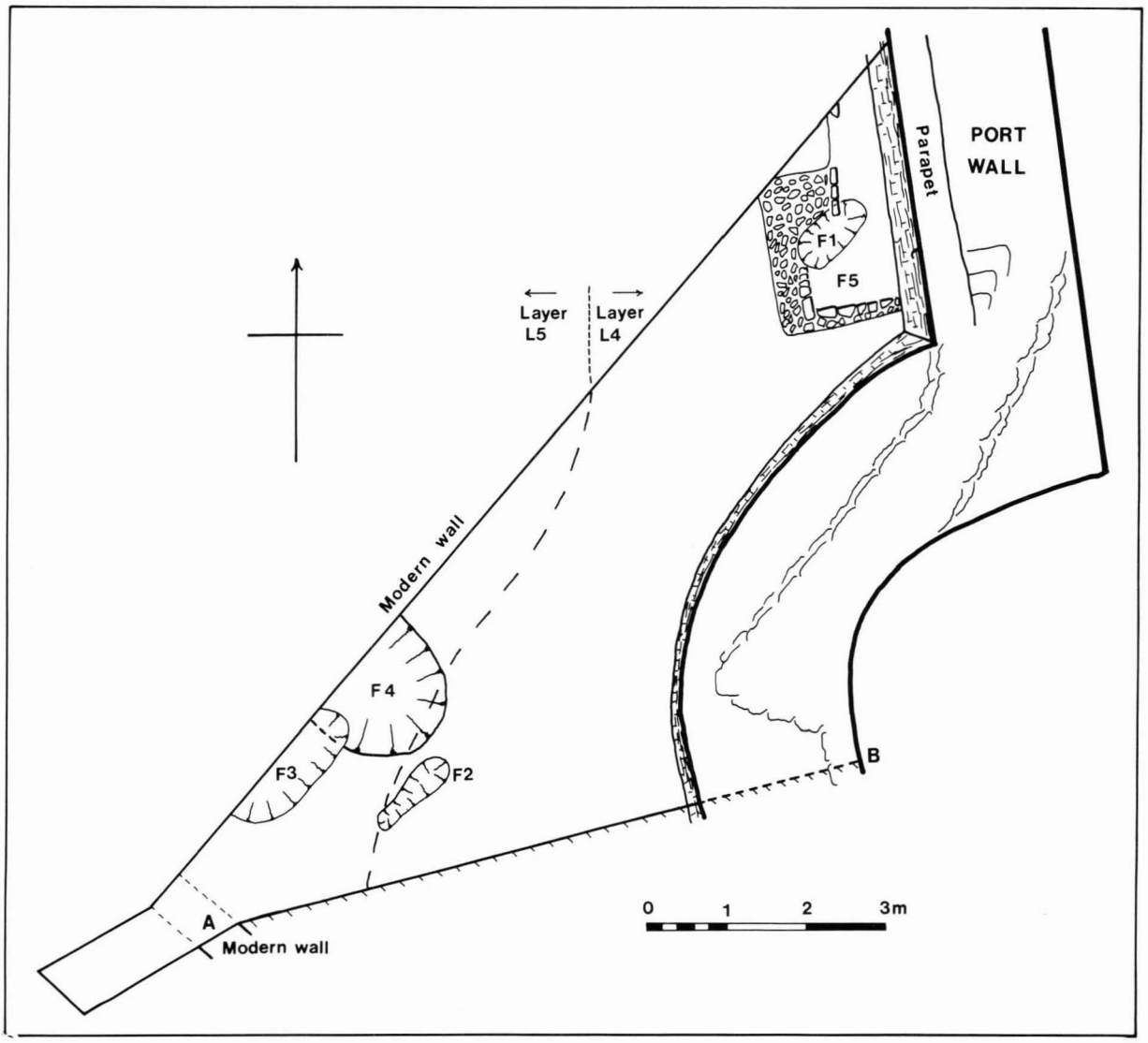

Fig. 11. Site 3: Periods 3 and 4 — plan. For section A–B see Fig. 12.

wall, and the level of the top of layer L4 was approximately the same as the lowest level of coursed masonry (Fig. 12); so, when L4 was deposited, much of the uncoursed masonry would have been buried.

The presence of 14th and 15th-century pottery in L7 and the regularity of the coursed stonework together with the change in mortar, suggests that the wall was substantially re-faced along this section during the 15th century.

The mortar mixing pit, F4, cut into the flat ground in front of the wall, was probably one of many such pits used during this re-facing work. Similar methods had been practised for many years previously and slightly smaller pits were found in front of the late Saxon stone wall in Hereford (Shoesmith 1982).

It was noticeable that no effort had been made to tidy up the berm in front of the wall and tower after completion of the re-facing work, the surface of L4 and L5 having some larger pieces of masonry scattered over it.

Period 4 — Civil War and later features

The period of the Civil War was the last time the wall was used as a defensive feature, although it remained a significant fiscal boundary, tolls being chargeable into the 19th century and probably until 1874 (Coxe 1801, 288 and Waters 1975, 140).

DESCRIPTION

L3, a crumbly, relatively clean, brown soil, which sealed the debris of L4 and L5, was up to 0.2m thick. A similar material, together with some flat stones, filled the two shallow pits F2 and F3 which were cut into L4 and L5 respectively (Fig. 11).

In the angle between the tower and the Port Wall, a pit, F5, had been cut to the natural bedrock. It had straight sides which were revetted by walls standing to a maximum height of some 0.6m from the bedrock, although parts had been demolished by a modern pit F1. This stone structure was L-shaped and abutted the Port Wall. The central part of the pit, within the walls, was filled with rubble.

Sealing F5 and the clean soil layer L3 were two mixed layers, L1 and L2, which were interpreted as recent topsoil and mainly removed by machine.

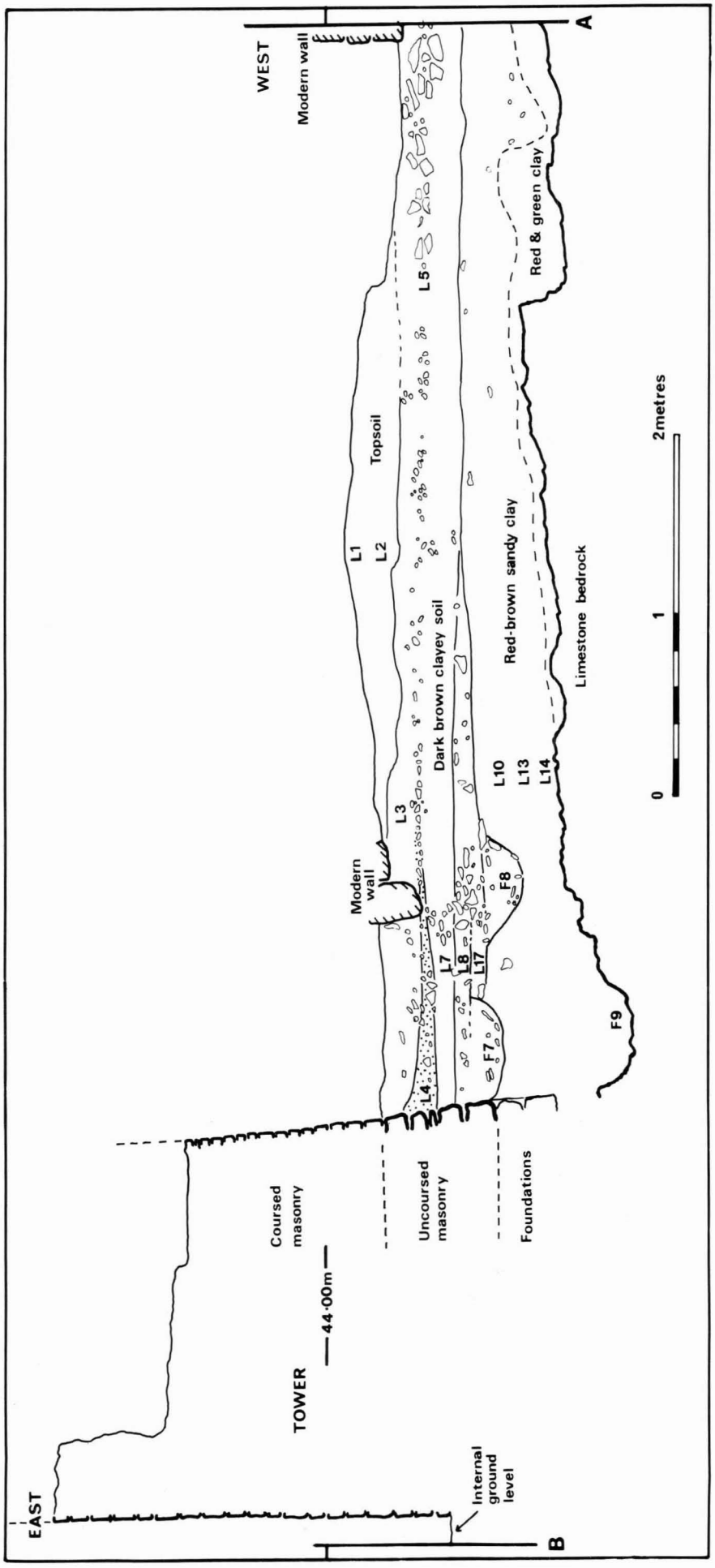

Fig. 12. Site 3: Section A–B. For position of section see Figs 10 and 11.

DATING

Pottery from L3 was of 16th-century date, as was material from pits F2 and F3. The stone-built structure, F5, contained pottery of late 17th or 18th-century date.

DISCUSSION

The build-up of soil, L3, was a similar material to that of the period 3 build-up, L7, and, being of approximately equal thickness, may have taken a similar period of time to accumulate. There was no indication that this part of the wall had been under attack or had been damaged during the Civil War.

F5 was probably an earth closet similar to that found on Site 2. By the late 17th century, houses had been built along Welsh Street with gardens stretching as far as the Port Wall (Fig. 4). The earth closet doubtless belonged to one of these houses.

THE DRAINAGE TRENCHES (Fig. 6)

Several trenches, associated with the drains for the new access road, were cut on both sides of the Port Wall, mainly by machine. They were examined whenever circumstances permitted.

The trench inside the Port Wall led from the existing drain in Bank Street in a direct line to the breach in the Port Wall. It provided a useful section through the deposits inside the wall, but apart from the cellars of buildings which had previously fronted Bank Street (Fig. 4), no significant features were seen. The bedrock was present at a depth of between 0.3 and 0.4m below the tarmac surface from Site 2 throughout the length of the trench as far as the Bank Street cellars.

For the whole length of the trench there was only a thin layer of dirty grey soil separating this bedrock from the modern make-up material. There were no signs of any early occupation, the soil, indeed, being too thin for cultivation. The trench continued through the breach in the Port Wall, south of Site 2, and alongside the new access road nearly as far as Welsh Street (Fig. 6).

Overall the level of the surface of the bedrock reflected the gradual slope of the ground up to Welsh Street, although it came closer to the surface as it approached the street. The total rise from the breach in the Port Wall to Welsh Street was about 4.5m in a distance of some 70m. The surface of the bedrock dropped abruptly by about 1.6m at a point underneath the line of the Port Wall, within the breach, continuing at that depth for a distance of about 5m from the wall on the outside. The sides of the drainage trench at this point had to be examined quickly because of the danger of collapse. The feature contained a clean orange-brown clay with occasional bands of more greenish clay. There was nothing in the fill to indicate that it had been a ditch, and it could not have been associated with the wall as it ran partly underneath it. It could possibly have been a quarry for stones for the wall, immediately refilled with clean soil after excavation, but it would seem more likely that it was a natural fissure in the bedrock, similar to the smaller one, F9, seen in Site 3 under the front of the bastion tower, and to other recorded hollows observed during construction works closer to Welsh Street.

SITE 6:
The Nelson Street House

Introduction

Nelson Street was called Back Lane between about 1560 and 1840 (Waters 1975, 133). In the early 19th century the lower part, which includes Site 6, was called St Mary's Lane but it became Nelson Street about 1811 and has so remained. In part it was doubtless the back lane of the burgage plots which fronted on to St Mary Street and High Street but it also acted as access to the Town Well (*Fons Strigulae*), which was situated to the south of the junction of Nelson Street and Station Road (*op. cit.*, 134) (Fig. 7).

Millerd's map of 1686 (Fig. 4) and Coxe's plan of 1801 (Fig. 5) both show only a few buildings on the south-eastern side of Nelson Street. However, by the mid 19th century the lower part of the street contained a thriving community with inns, shops and light industries although it was a mainly residential street of early 19th-century terraced houses and courts (*op. cit.*, 90). The Church School, on the corner of Nelson Street and The Priory was opened in 1855. The school and the terraced houses on the south-eastern side of Nelson Street as far as Orchard Place were all demolished in 1973.

The houses had been built on separate terraces in groups of three or four. Of the thirteen houses between Orchard Place and the Church School, five contained cellars. At the rear were blocks of washrooms and toilets, separated from the main building by small yards.

After the houses were demolished, a machine was used to clear the debris. An area which, it was thought, would contain surviving archaeological levels was eventually established by the partial removal of cellar walls and an examination of the sections thus exposed. A suitable platform, equivalent in width to two of the 19th-century houses, was finally chosen (Fig. 7) and after complete removal of the brick debris the area was excavated by hand.

Unfortunately, although fragments of walls survived, there was little vertical stratification over the whole site and most of the layers were disturbed to judge by the occasional sherds of 16th century and later pottery. The lack of vertical stratification meant that no sections could be drawn. However, the majority of the finds from the site indicated occupation between the 11th and the 14th centuries. The phasing in the following report is based on these finds and the intercutting of the features.

The work took place during the winter of 1972–1973 and part of the site was excavated underneath a large, portable plastic tent.

Recording System

Contexts are indexed in two separate lists of layers and features and the finds are correlated to these two lists:
Layers: L1–L15
Features: F1–F54
Levels shown on the site plan (Fig. 13) are either spot heights on upstanding features and on the undisturbed natural subsoil or indicate the maximum depth of any features cut into the subsoil.

Summary of Chronology and Periods

Period 0	Residual pottery	Late 11th century
Period 1	Various pits	12th century
Period 2a	Stone building	13th century
Period 2b	Timber additions to stone building	Early 14th century
Period 2c	Soil levels sealing 2a and 2b	13th and early 14th centuries
Period 3	Later features	19th century and later

Period 0

The soil level which must have originally covered the site had been mainly cut away by pits and other features of periods 1 and 2, or had been eroded when it became the floor level of the period 2 building. This general 'wear and tear' may have removed any slight surface signs of primary occupation but would have been insufficient to remove any substantial features.

There were no signs of any pre-Conquest occupation on this site, but several sherds of pottery which are probably of late 11th or very early 12th-century date were found in some of the later layers and pits. This residual scatter suggests that there was some early post-Conquest occupation close by, though none of the excavated features can be ascribed to a date earlier than the mid or late 12th century.

Period 1 — Features earlier than the stone and timber building (Figs 13 and 14)

Several features were either stratigraphically earlier than the main phase of occupation (period 2) or, where no relationship could be established, contained only 12th century or earlier material.

DESCRIPTION

The three stratigraphically earliest features on the site were pits F12, F15 and F25. They were all in the central part of the area excavated, and, together with pit F28, which may be of the same date, formed a rough line across the site almost at right angles to the line of Nelson Street. F25 was probably the earliest, being cut by F15, but the upper levels were confused with later material, F4A, used as levelling in the top of pit F4 during period 2c. F25 was shallow with curving sides and had a soft grey soil fill with some small stones and charcoal flecks. F15 was similar in both shape and fill to F25. F28, to the east of F25, was also shallow, with a dark brown, charcoal-flecked earth fill, and was cut by three later pits. West of F15 was a rectangular pit, F12, 2.0m by 1.7m and at least 1m in depth. The shape was not immediately obvious because the upper parts of the near vertical sides had collapsed into the pit. The fill, of soft black soil with charcoal flecks, was of an organic nature.

Two shallow pits, F24 and F26, close to the north-eastern side of the excavation, contained only 12th-century material and, in the absence of any other evidence, are included in period 1. At the extreme north-western side of the excavation, and partly under the modern make-up material for the paving of Nelson Street, were the lower parts of two pots, F18 and F19, which had been deliberately set into the undisturbed subsoil. They were both of late 12th or early 13th-century date. The upper parts of both pots had been removed by later levelling, possibly associated with the construction of the foundations of the period 2a wall, F47.

Three other pits are included in period 1 on stratigraphic evidence. In the centre of the site was pit F4, which was partly underneath the period 2a wall, F43, and was cut by postholes F36 and F37 of period 2b (Fig. 13). Only the lowest fill of this pit, a black humic layer some 0.07m thick along the bottom and sides, is included in period 1. The upper fill, F4A, contained later pottery and was probably material used to level the area of the pit within the later building. The western corner of the site contained two shallow pits F23 and F30, both partly sealed by the period 2a wall, F47. Both pits were shallow and the upper fills were confused by the later walls. The lower fills consisted of brown soil with a high charcoal content. The sunken top of F30 was eventually used as a hearth in the period 2a building.

Pits F4, F23 and F30 all contained some sherds of pottery which were later than the 12th-century date otherwise assigned to features of period 1. These sherds are considered to have been amongst material deposited in the upper parts of the pits, at some time during period 2a, as the fills subsided.

Similar levelling work may have occurred in other pits on the site, the lack of evidence being accounted for by general erosion during the period 2a occupation. This erosion did not affect F4 and F30 to the same degree because they were both close to, and partly sealed by, the period 2a walls which offered a greater degree of protection.

There were no layers of any description which could be identified as belonging to the occupation of the site during period 1.

DATING

There was no independent dating evidence for the features of period 1. The stratigraphic evidence suggests a pre-13th-century date and this tends to be confirmed by the pottery.

INVENTORY

All finds from the soil levels on Site 6, which include some material dating from the period 1 occupation, are considered in period 2c.

Illustrated Pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F12	Local wares:	Hb4	110	Fig. 52.39
	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.12, 13
		Kc	112	Fig. 57.1
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.20, 49
	Other English wares:	Lc	117	Fig. 58.15
F15	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 55.11; Fig. 56.27
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.53
F25	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.24
F26	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.25
F28	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.33

Copper alloy objects

A buckle (Fig. 73.1), found in the top of F23, is indexed under period 2a.

DISCUSSION

The period 1 features can be considered in two groups: the inter-cutting series of pits in the south-eastern part of the site; and the remainder which are all close to Nelson Street. The first group contained two pits with fillings that suggested they had been cesspits (F12 and F4) and four others (F15, F25, F26 and F28) with cleaner fills and of indeterminate use. The ground surface associated with these pits in use had presumably been eroded during the period 2 occupation. During the same period levelling material was used to fill the tops of some of the pits as the original fills became more compressed and subsided.

The western pits were all relatively shallow but even so it is possible that F24 was the bottom of a postpit. In this area also the associated ground level was lost, presumably during period 2.

There is no evidence for any structures associated with these features but their arrangement allows an hypothesis to be made. The large, shallow pit, F30, contained much charcoal and may have been a hearth

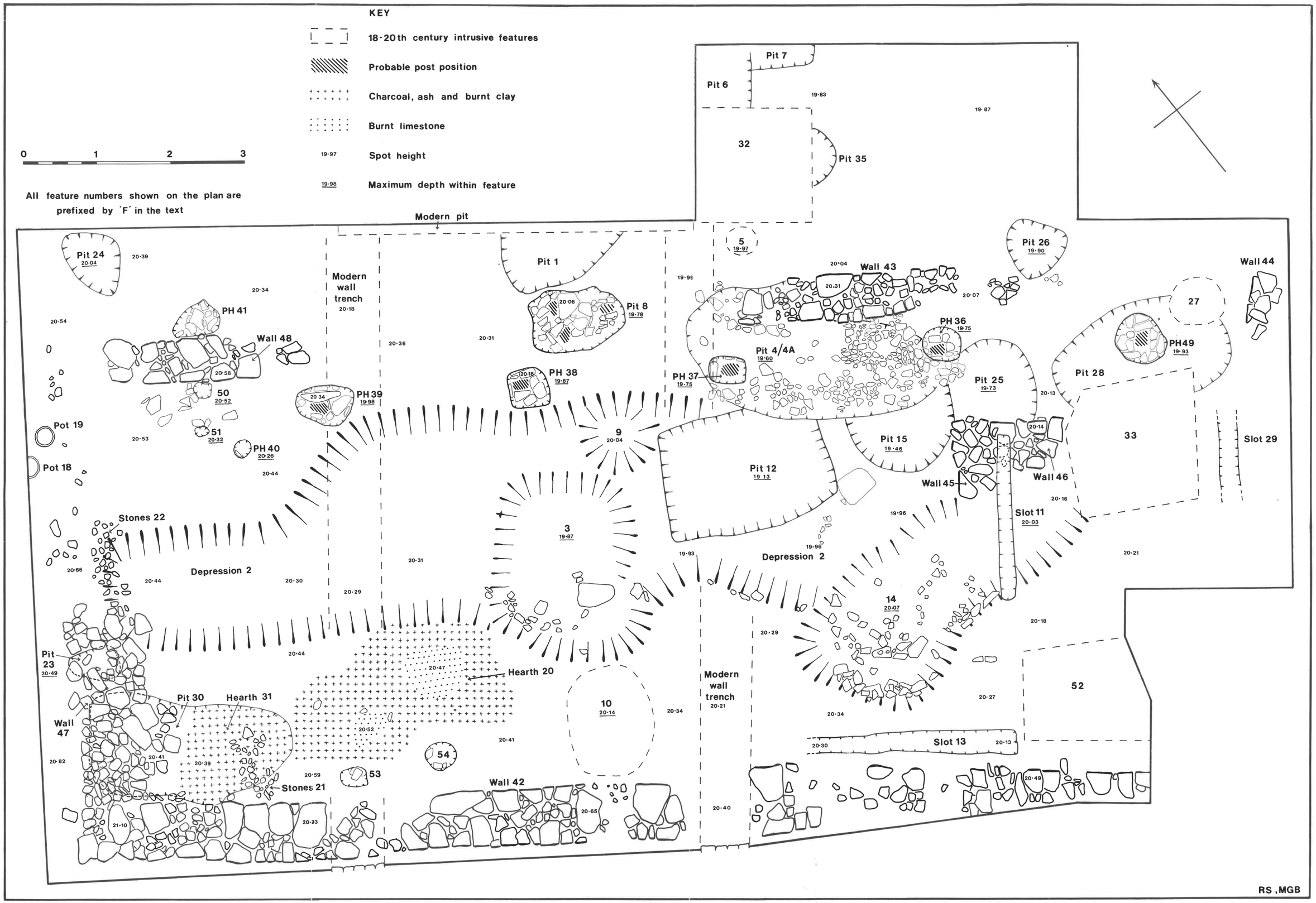

Fig. 13. Site 6: General plan of area excavated, showing features of all periods.

inside a building. On the other hand, if F4 and F12 are cesspits they must have been outside any building in this area. The presence of the pits and the quantity of finds suggest that there was a building on or close to this site during the 12th century. The erosion during period 2 would have removed all traces of floor levels and, had the building been constructed on timber sleeper-beams, might also have removed all traces of the slight foundation trenches. It is likely that Nelson Street was widened when the 19th-century buildings were erected and such a widening would have removed or concealed any 12th-century building foundation trench close to the road on the north-west. If it is assumed that the cesspits were outside the rear entry into the building then it would be possible to postulate a timber building, of sleeper-beam construction, fronting on to Nelson Street and running across most of the western part of the site. The use of sleeper-beams for house construction superceded posthole construction in Hereford during the 10th century and continued in use with minor modifications for several centuries (Shoesmith 1982, 97).

There was a total lack of nails, or indeed any other form of iron work, during period 1 and the finds were restricted to pottery and animal bones.

Period 2 — The stone and timber buildings (Figs. 13 and 15)

Stone footings and a line of postholes represent what was probably a stone building subsequently partly replaced in timber. These remains sealed features of period 1, but they could not be stratigraphically identified as separate phases as there was no associated build up of ground and indeed it was apparent that continual erosion had taken place throughout period 2. However, for simplicity's sake the building with stone footings is considered as period 2a, the timber features are described as period 2b, while the soil levels which seal both sets of features, and the associated pits which probably represent the use and disuse of the site are described as period 2c. The relationship between these three subperiods is considered in a general discussion at the end of this section.

DESCRIPTION

Period 2a (Pl. 4: Fig. 15)

The footings of stone walls were found in several parts of the site. They outlined a building approximately 6m wide and at least 14.5m long in internal measurements. The building was set with its long axis at right angles to the line of Nelson Street. The south-western wall, F42, on the higher side of the site, was best preserved, standing in places some 0.4m high in two or three roughly laid courses. It continued outside the excavated area to the south-east and varied in thickness from 0.8m to 1m. There was no sign of mortar used in this, or any of the other walls. The junction of wall F42 with wall F47, at the western extremity of the site, was very confused (Fig 13). At this point both walls partly sealed the

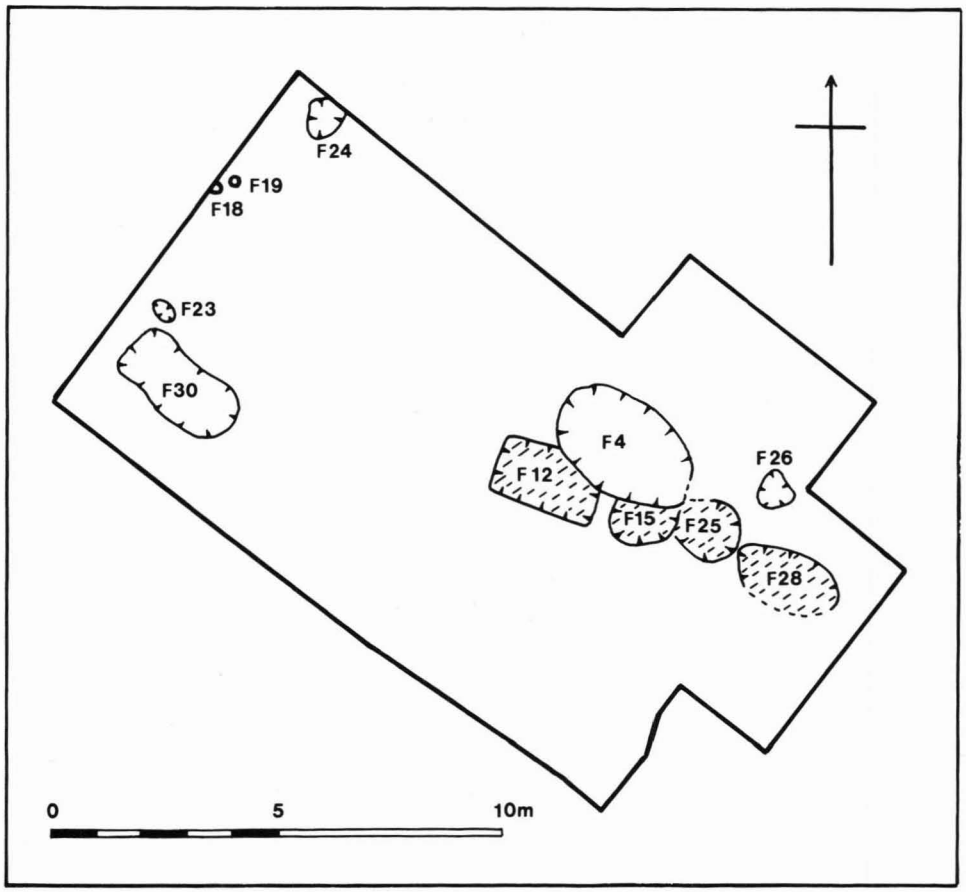

Fig. 14. Site 6: Period 1 features.

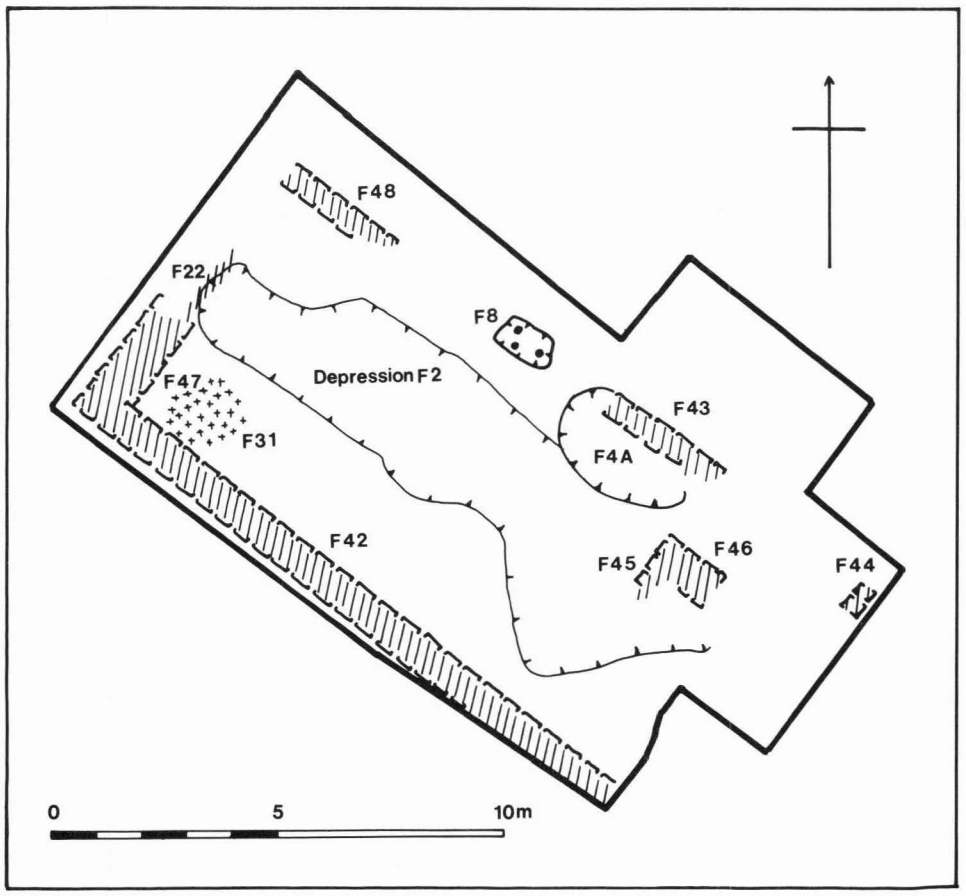

Fig. 15. Site 6: Period 2a features. (F4A and depression F2 are considered as part of period 2c).

period 1 pit, F30, and there was a certain amount of subsidence into this pit. The inner face of F42 became less definite in the corner but the use of larger stones in F42 as compared with those in F47 gave some indication that the latter abutted F42 and may have been rebuilt at some time. The surviving stones of F47 were set into a very slight trench and sealed the period 1 pit, F23, but this feature was rather unconvincing as a wall, having neither internal nor external faces, and as it continued to the north-east, the stones decreased in number and size. The alignment was continued by several small stones, F22, which were found partly in the end of the depression F2 which filled the centre of the building (Fig. 13). Occasional small stones, which followed this alignment on an otherwise almost stone-free site, may indicate the line of F47 as far as the northern corner of the building.

The fragments of stone wall surviving along the north-eastern side of the building were in two sections. Close to what must have been the northern corner of the building, wall F48 was some 2.5m long and 0.6m wide, and stood only one course high. It was separated by a gap of 5.5m from the second fragment (F43) some 3m long and again 0.6m wide. This fragment survived two to three courses high, partly because it had slumped into the period 1 pit (F4) underneath.

Between these two stretches of wall, but closer to F43, was a complex postpit F8, which was roughly in line with the two fragments of wall. It was 1.2m long and 0.8m wide and was some 0.5m deep. It contained stone packing, with some white mortar, and appeared to have had at least three post positions. It could not be demonstrated that these three positions represented replacement posts, but the arrangement of the stones in the pit suggested that this was more likely than that the posts were all in use simultaneously (Fig. 13).

There was no indication of the position of the east corner of the building, but a small fragment of walling (F44) at the extreme eastern side of the excavation, may represent part of the south-eastern wall and thus the limit of the building in this direction.

Between walls F42 and F43, in the centre of the building, was a fragment of masonry which included the corner of two walls. Wall F46 was parallel to the long axis of the building and wall F45 was at right-angles to it. Both of these walls were little more than one course high and the faces were only obvious on the north-east and north-west sides. Wall F46 partly sealed the period 1 pit, F25.

Period 2b (Fig. 16)

Excavation established a series of five well-constructed postholes, F49, F36, F37, F38 and F39, in a line about 0.5m inside and parallel to the postulated north-east wall of the period 2a building. Two of the postholes were cut into the top of the period 1 pit, F4, and one was cut into F28, also of period 1 (Fig. 13). The average distance between post centres was 2.8m. The postholes were all similar in size but rather irregular in outline and they averaged 0.5m across and 0.3m deep. The post position was obvious in all cases, being in the centre of carefully-placed packing-stones and with a smooth, black soil fill.

The posts had apparently been of some 0.2m scantling. Postholes F38 and F39 had more massive packing stones than the others and one piece of roofing tile was found in the packing of F38.

To the north-west of F39 was a series of smaller postholes, F40, F50 and F51, which were considered to be of the same period, and touching the outside face of wall F48 was a further stone-packed posthole, F41 (Fig. 13), which was of similar character to, but not in line with, the series described above.

Several slots were found, which, from their size and shape, were considered to have been used for sleeper-beams. Two of them, F11 and F29, ran parallel to the line of Nelson Street in the south-eastern part of the site. Slot F29, near the baulk, was very shallow and gradually faded out at each end, but the parallel one, F11, was partly cut into the masonry of walls F45 and F46 of period 2a and had more definite ends. F11 was 2.2m long and 0.2m wide; it was only a few centimetres deep and contained a dark brown soil fill which was flecked with charcoal. At right-angles to F11 and F29, and just within the line of wall F42, was a third slot, F13. This had a very definite south-eastern end which was in line with the end of F11 but it became shallow and gradually disappeared about 2.8m to the north-west. It had a similar fill to the two other slots.

Period 2c (Fig. 16)

The lack of vertical stratification over the whole site made it difficult to relate the constructional features described above to the few internal features which survived and constitute the evidence for the period 2a and 2b building in use. These internal features included two hearths and a long, wide depression along the centre of the building which was interpreted as the result of wear and erosion of the earth floor.

Immediately under the floor levels of the 19th-century brick buildings was a layer of mixed black earth, L1, which was at least 0.4m thick (p. 34). Below this, L2, a lighter grey, silty earth, contained mainly late medieval pottery, and continued over most of the site down to the level of the undisturbed subsoil without any apparent change. It was mainly between 0.2m and 0.3m thick, but within the walls of the building it continued down into a long, wide depression, F2, which increased the thickness to as much as 0.5m in places. Although the soil fill of the depression did not appear to differ from the overlying layer, the finds from F2 were kept separate from those of L2. All the features of period 1 and 2 became visible as L2 and F2 were removed. The surviving courses of the stone walls were buried in L2 material and were built on, or cut slightly into the subsoil of the site.

In the bottom of depression F2 several shallow features were observed (Fig. 16). F3, F9 and F14 contained a scatter of small stones with some brown clay sealing them. The period 1 pit F4 was covered with a layer of stones, F4A.

The south-western part of the interior of the building contained the greatest build-up of soil, particularly in the area close to the western corner of the building. After clearance of L2 in this area, a crumbly brown silt, L3,

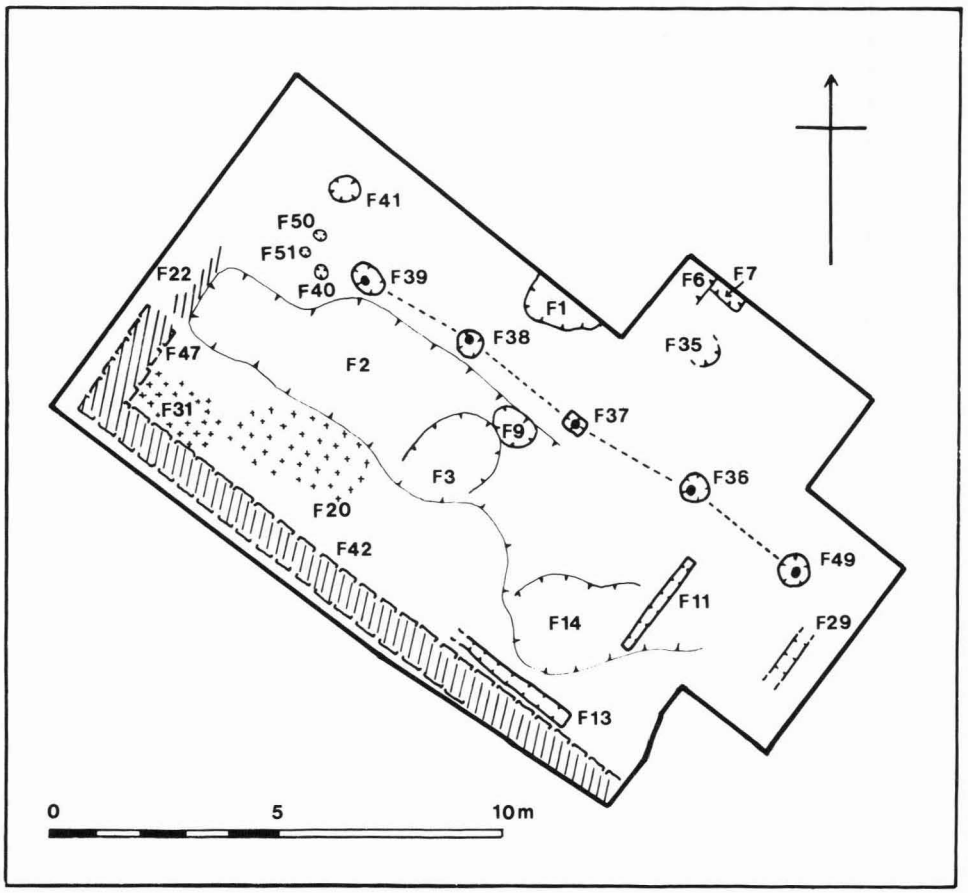

Fig. 16. Site 6: Features of periods 2b and 2c.

continued for some 2m within the line of wall F42. Removal of this layer exposed the hearths F20 and F31 (Fig. 13). F31 was a large diffuse burnt area with ash, charcoal and burnt clay. In part it sealed and had slumped into the period 1 pit F30. The eastern end of F31 was partly sealed by the later hearth F20, which contained black ash and burnt clay together with pieces of burnt and decayed limestone. This later hearth continued to the edge of the central depression, F2. Two small, shallow postholes, F53 and F54, both with packing stones, situated between hearth F20 and wall F42; and a line of stones, F21, at the western end of hearth F20, may have been part of a structure associated with the hearth (Fig. 13).

Outside the period 2a building, L1 sealed a layer which was indistinguishable from L2. It was defined as L2A in the north-eastern extension of the main area and L4 in all other parts of the site.

Several pits were found in the north-eastern part of the site, outside the line of the building and sealed by layer L2A. F6 and F7 were vertical-sided, shallow pits with a filling suggesting their use as cesspits. F6 was stratigraphically later than F7. Close to these pits, and largely cut away by a modern cesspit, was a shallow scoop F35, and cut by the north-eastern baulk of the site and by a large modern pit, was pit F1. This had irregular sides and was cut into the subsoil to a maximum depth of some 0.5m. It contained a fine grey-brown silt, some small stones and a quantity of pottery.

DATING

There is no direct dating evidence for the features of period 2a and only a minimum of evidence, from the few pottery sherds in the post-pits, for period 2b. The assumed dates within the 13th century and possibly into the 14th century are based on the stratigraphic evidence and the dating of the pottery from period 2c. A groat of Edward III, made in 1351–1352, was found in L2A in the north-eastern corner of the site. The main concentration of pottery from L2, L2A, and L4, and from the depressions in the centre of the period 2a and 2b buildings, is dated to the 13th and early 14th centuries.

INVENTORY

Period 2a

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F43	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.16
		Ha.2	99	Fig. 52.4
		Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.16*, 17
		Hg	102	Fig. 53.11

*Fig. 52.16 consists of joining sherds from F43 and period 2c, F2.

Copper alloy object

F23	Buckle and Plate		149	Fig. 73.1

Period 2b

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F13	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.9
	Other English wares:	Ns	123	Fig. 58.45
F40	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 55.15

Period 2c

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L2	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.17, 24*, 33, 34, 39, 42
		Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.12, 13
		Hb.2	100	Fig. 52.28
		He	101	Fig. 53.2
		Hk	103	Fig. 53.16, 22
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.22, 23
		Ka	109	Fig. 55.7
		Kb	111	Fig. 56.25
		Kc	112	Fig. 57.7
	Other English wares:	Ma	119	Fig. 58.20, 22
		Nj	121	Fig. 58.36
		Nv	123	Fig. 58.48
	Continental wares:	Ng	125	Fig. 59.8
L2A	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.5*
L4	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.10, 46
		Ha.2	99	Fig. 52.1*, 3
		Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.18
		Hb.3	99	Fig. 52.35
		Hg	102	Fig. 53.6
	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.5*
		Jc	107	Fig. 54.18, 24, 41
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.14, 26; Fig. 56.5
	Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.1
		Mb	119	Fig. 58.25, 26
	Continental wares:	Nb	124	Fig. 59.2
F1	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.4, 5, 18, 20, 24*, 35, 36
		Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.5, 6, 7
	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.16
		Ka	109	Fig. 55.1
		Kb	111	Fig. 56.2, 4
	Other English wares:	Lb	117	Fig. 58.14
F2	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.3, 25, 26
		Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.14, 16*
		Hk	103	Fig. 53.18
		Hq	104	Fig. 53.24
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.26
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.13, 18; Fig. 56.9, 31–35
		Kc	112	Fig. 57.6, 8
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.26, 28, 41
	Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.2, 8, 10

		Lb	117	Fig. 58.11
		Ma	119	Fig. 58.18, 19
		Mc	119	Fig. 58.30
F3	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.13, 40
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.42
F4A	Local wares:	Hg	102	Fig. 53.14, 15
		Hu	105	Fig. 53.26
	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.3, 7
		Jc	108	Fig. 54.38
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.20
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.27
	Other English wares:	Mc	119	Fig. 58.31
		Ns	123	Fig. 58.46
F9	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.32
F14	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.30, 31
		Ha.2	99	Fig. 52.2
		Hb.2	99	Fig. 52.30, 34
	Bristol wares:	Ka	109	Fig. 55.8
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.39, 44, 45, 48
	Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.3
		Lb	117	Fig. 58.12
F17	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.30
F31	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.11

*Fig. 51.24 consists of joining sherds from L2 and F1
Fig. 52.1 consists of joining sherds from L4 and from Site 1, period 5, L10
Fig. 52.16 consists of joining sherds from F2 and period 2a, F43
Fig. 54.5 consists of joining sherds from L2A and L4

Iron Objects

L2A	Plate fragment	146	Fig. 70.6
	Triangular wedge	146	Fig. 70.7
	Nail	146	Fig. 71.11
F2	Thin wedge	146	Fig. 70.8
	Nail	146	Fig. 71.10
F4A	Nail	146	Fig. 71.9

Copper alloy objects

F1	Buckle or pin	149	Fig. 72.14
F3	Bronze disc	149	Fig. 72.16
F4A	Buckle or brooch	148	Fig. 72.10

Coins

L2A	Groat, Edward III	149	Inventory No. 3

DISCUSSION

The lack of any significant build-up during the whole of the period 2 occupation means that firm relationships cannot be established. There are several possible explanations but it is suggested that there is only one which completely fits all the known facts. The evidence indicates that the first building of period 2, constructed during the 13th century, was the one with stone foundations described as period 2a, and that the north-eastern wall of this building was replaced with a structure based on timbers set in postholes at some time in the early 14th century, and described as period 2b.

It is unlikely that the timber posts represent the primary occupation of period 2 because the piece of roof tile in F38 should not be dated before the early 14th century. This piece is not likely to have fallen into the postpit after the post was withdrawn as it appeared to be distinctly part of the packing material.

The positions of the posts are such that they would not have been used for roof strengthening within the building with stone foundations, and indeed, such strengthening should not have been needed for a building which was only 6m wide.

It is possible that the posts represent a fence line which crossed the site after the stone building was demolished but this is considered to be unlikely because of the size of the post pits and the careful use of stone packing. Both these features are more common with structural timbers than with a simple fence.

It is therefore considered probable that the timber phase was secondary to the period 2a building with stone footings, and it is on this assumption that the design and use of the structures are considered.

The stone foundations, which were relatively narrow and made of roughly coursed, unmortared stone, are consistent with a timber framed building standing on low stone plinths. The building, which was 6m wide and at least 14.5m long, may have had an entry directly from Nelson Street, in the short north-western wall at the point where depression F2 narrowed, as though approaching a doorway. However, an entry is perhaps more likely in the north-eastern wall close to F8, which may have held a door post.

Accepting the stone structure as a simple rectangular building, with an earth floor which suffered continual erosion, it is then reasonable to assume that some of the patching of the floor above the period 1 pits belonged to this first part of period 2. Possibly F31, the earlier of the two hearths, in the western corner of the building, was also of this period. The central walls, F45 and F46, may have been the footings for internal partitions replaced in timber in period 2b. On the available evidence it is reasonable to accept a date in the early or mid 13th century for the construction of this building.

The north-eastern wall of the period 2a building, represented by F43 and F48, was apparently replaced during the early 14th century with a timber structure built on posts, stone footings being partly removed along most of this side of the building at this time. The remaining walls of the period 2a building apparently continued in use. The building as reconstructed would have been about 5.5m wide and could either have been open-fronted to the north-east or have had the bays between the posts filled with wattle and daub partitions. It would appear likely that the bays close to walls F43 and F48 were so filled because direct entry to the building at these points would have been difficult, due to the upstanding wall foundations, F43 and F48. The upper hearth, F20, probably belonged to this rebuilt structure and, as the edge of the depression F2 to the north-east was limited by the line of postholes, the main erosion may also be of this period. The lack of corner postholes, particularly at the north corner, where the continuation of wall F47 would have met the line of postholes, indicates that the timber framework on the north-western side held the gable end, supporting the roof and any partitioning on the north-east face.

The timber slots, F11, F13 and F29, may represent internal partitions in this secondary building although F13 was very close to wall F42 and F29 close to the line of wall F44. At the time of excavation it was thought that these slots represented a flimsy timber structure built above the period 2 buildings, but there was no evidence to confirm this theory. However, the slots show no obvious relationship to the walls or the postholes, apart from alignment which may entirely be due to the line of Nelson Street, and they may, therefore, represent an entirely separate structure.

To summarize, the evidence indicates that a 13th-century half-timbered building with a stone plinth was substantially rebuilt in the early 14th century, possibly with the north-eastern side partly open and that the whole building may have been replaced by a smaller timber shed at a later date. There was no roofing material present, apart from the one small piece of tile in F38, so the various buildings probably had thatched roofs.

There is no evidence to indicate the use of the building throughout its life, but because of its situation immediately adjacent to Nelson Street it is suggested that it had a secular use rather than being associated with the monastic settlement. The boundary of the priory grounds is uncertain at this point, and properties fronting on to Nelson Street may have been outside the precinct wall (p. 46).

The internal floor level was very uneven, varying by as much as 0.5m from the walls to the centre, although there had been some attempts at patching. This unevenness and the hearth position in the southern corner of the building are perhaps unusual for domestic accommodation, but the quantity of pottery and animal bone and the small finds found on the site suggest this kind of use. The building may have been of two storeys with the ground floor used as a workshop and the upper floor residential.

The reconstruction of the north-eastern face in period 2b, based on the line of vertical posts, could have left the ground floor partly or totally open-fronted, as was apparently the case with the monastic barn on Site 1 (p. 51). Such an open-fronted establishment is probably more typical of a workshop or a minor industrial use rather than solely domestic use.

Period 3 (Fig. 13)

There is no indication of settled occupation on Site 6 from about the mid 14th century until the early 19th century when a row of terraced houses was built facing on to Nelson Street.

DESCRIPTION

The thick layer of black earth, L1, which covered the whole site, was cut by the foundations for the 19th-century buildings which in places continued down into the subsoil of the site. In the eastern part of the site were three square, stone-lined cesspits, F32, F33 and F52, and immediately to the north-east and south-west of the site were large 19th-century cellars. Three irregular depressions, F5, F10 and F27, of similar date, also continued into the subsoil of the site.

DATING

The features of period 3 were all of early 19th century date.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L1	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.19
		Hg	102	Fig. 53.8, 9, 13
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.25
		Ka	109	Fig. 55.5
		Kb	111	Fig. 56.16, 23
		Kc	112	Fig. 57.4
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.40, 52
F5	Other English wares:	Mb	119	Fig. 58.27

Clay pipe

F27	Bowl with stamp	141	Fig. 68.1

Iron object

L1	Wedge	146	Fig. 70.9

DISCUSSION

Assuming that L2 can be equated with the abandonment or destruction of the period 2 buildings in the 14th century, then L1 represents the gradual accumulation of soil on the site, probably associated with sporadic cultivation, between the 15th and 18th centuries. It was apparent that the 19th-century houses were built in groups of three or four and that each group was slightly terraced into the slope of Nelson Street. This terracing and the half-and-full-depth cellars of several of the houses, suggest that little survives of the earlier levels at any other point on the Nelson Street frontage except for the area of Site 6 which was chosen for examination.

INVENTORY OF UNSTRATIFIED FINDS

Illustrated pottery

FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.6
	Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.15
	Hb.2	100	Fig. 52.31
Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.8
Other English wares:	Ma	119	Fig. 58.24
	Ns	123	Fig. 58.47

Copper alloy objects

Bodkin	146	Fig. 72.2
Pendant	149	Fig. 73.2

SITE 1:
The Cattle Market

Introduction

The first part of the area to the south of the priory church to become available for archaeological examination was the site of the cattle market. In the autumn of 1972 this area was still bounded on the north-west by empty houses which fronted on to Nelson Street and on the north-east by houses and a small industrial works which fronted on to The Priory (Fig. 7). To the south-west was a small lane called Orchard Place which led from Nelson Street to a small electricity depot. The total area thus available comprised the cattle market and a small area of over-grown land, formerly a market garden, which separated the cattle market from the small yards at the back of the houses facing Nelson Street.

The cattle market, which had been opened in 1922, finally closed in 1967 (Waters 1975, 125). Before this, the area between Station Road (formerly Meads Lane) and The Priory had been Pillinger's Nursery which had been established in 1779 (*op. cit.*, 124). This had apparently been approached by Orchard Place which in 1833 was 'the roadway leading to the Priory Orchard' (*op. cit.*, 91).

The potential of the site was completely unknown so three machine-cut trenches were first dug across the western part of the cattle market, from the south-eastern end of Orchard Place, in a north-easterly direction approximately parallel to Nelson Street. The trenches, which were in the area shown as Site 1 (Fig. 7), exposed the medieval levels but did not go any deeper. In two of the trenches traces of wall foundations associated with a quantity of late medieval ridge tile were found. An area excavation was proposed to establish the nature of this building, a machine being used to remove the upper cattle market levels. These levels included areas of tarmac and concrete with an underlying mixed soil level containing disused water pipes and shallow drains. As the site was extended to the north-east, the medieval levels rose until, at the limit of the excavated area, the disturbances caused by the cattle market and the drains had completely removed all traces of earlier occupation.

A convenient tarmac road was used as the limit of the area of machine clearance to the south-east, and the footings of the wall which had separated the cattle market from the market garden was similarly used on the north-west. At a later stage in the excavation it was realized that it would have been useful to extend the area further to the north-west, but unfortunately the spoil from the machine operations had been tipped on this side of the site, and the expense of clearing this large amount of earth was not considered to be justified. A less expensive alternative was chosen, and three small cuttings were excavated through the spoil heaps into the underlying levels.

The excavation took place during the winter of 1972–73 but was interrupted from time to time by work on Sites 2 and 3. A large portable plastic tent was used to cover part of the site during the early part of 1973.

Recording system

Contexts are indexed in two separate lists of layers (L1–L42) and features (F1–F63) and the finds are correlated with these two lists.

Datum levels are shown on the sections, but to avoid confusion are not included on the detailed site plan (Fig. 17).

Summary of Chronology and Periods

Period 1	The Roman cemetery	Late 1st century A.D.
Period 2	Boundary ditches and soil levels	Late 11th to early 13th centuries
Period 3a	First phase of monastic building (buttressed stone barn)	Early 13th century
Period 3b	Use of barn	13th and 14th centuries
Period 3c	Collapse or partial demolition of barn	Late 14th or 15th century
Period 4	Second phase of monastic building (shed and open-fronted building)	Late 15th to 16th centuries
Period 5	Post-dissolution use of the site	17th century onward

Period 1 — The Roman Cemetery

Three 1st-century Roman cremations were found, one surrounded by the remains of a timber shrine. Two short gullies which underlay the medieval features were also probably of Roman date.

DESCRIPTION (Fig. 18)

The Roman features which survived on Site 1 were cut into the rather clayey orange subsoil and had been

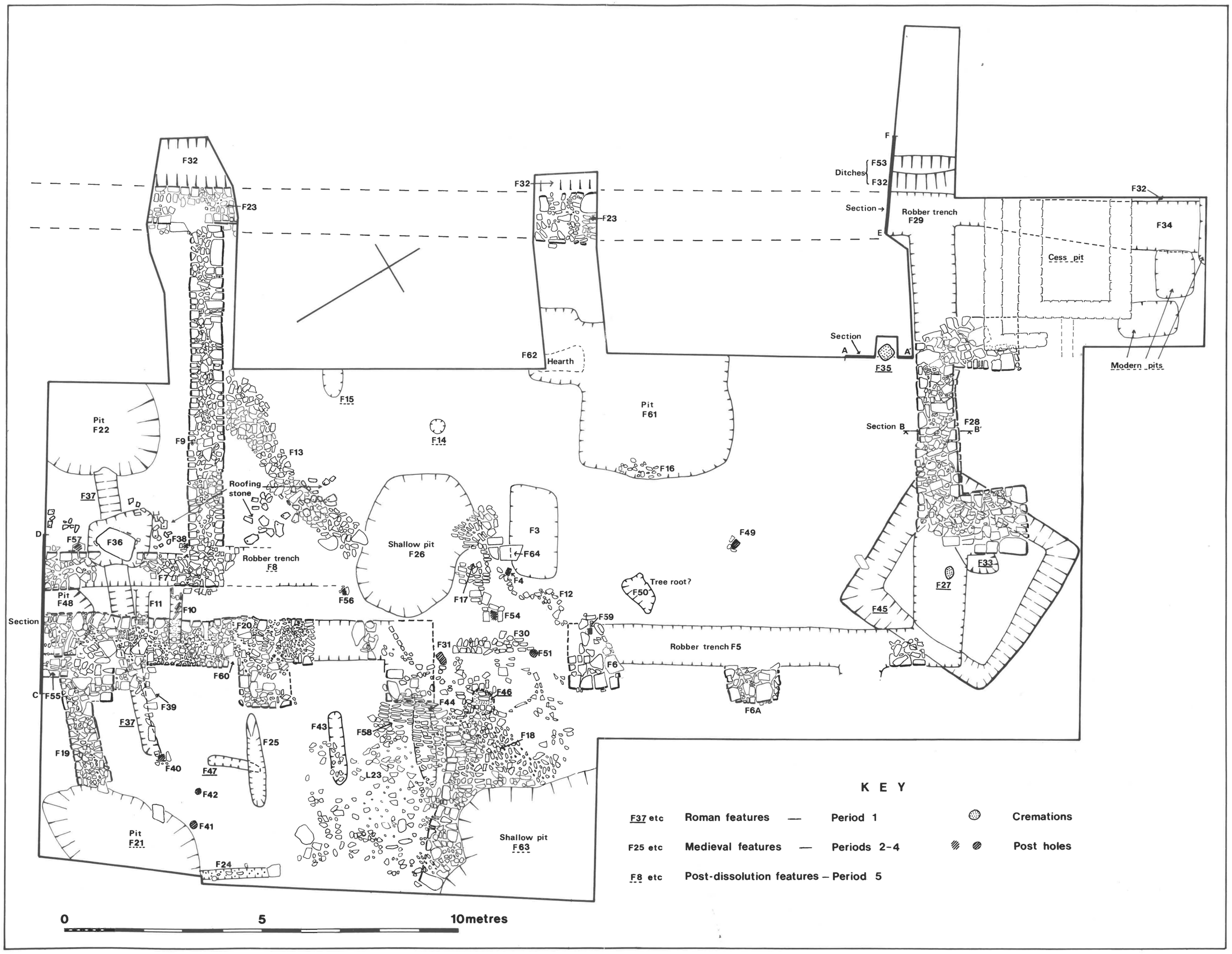

Fig. 17. Site 1: general plan of area excavated showing features of all periods.

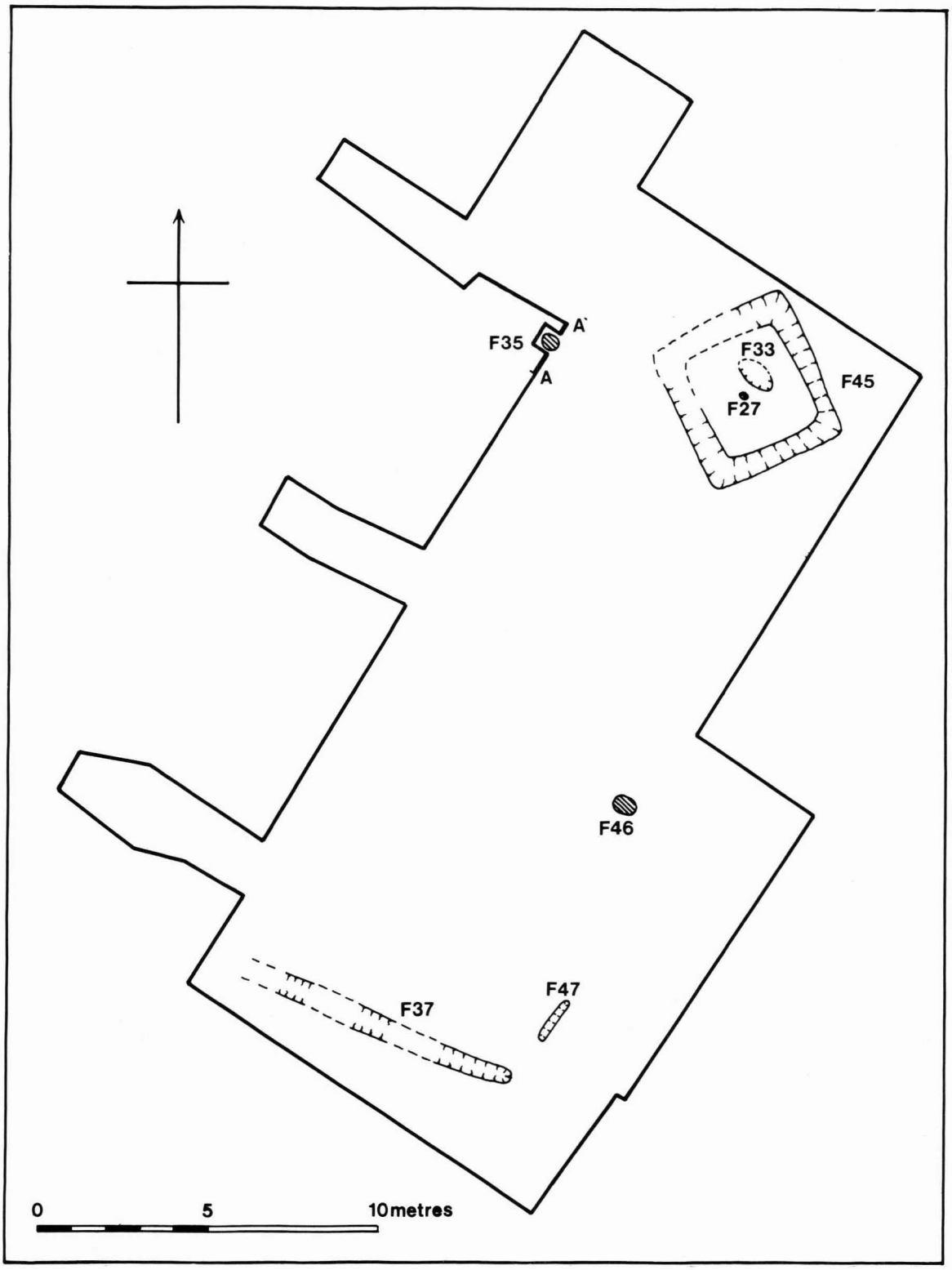

Fig. 18. Site 1: Period 1 — Roman levels. See Figs 19, 20, 22 and 23 for details and Fig. 21 for section A–A.

damaged by medieval disturbances. Several Roman finds recovered from later levels on the site are listed in the appropriate inventories. The surviving Roman features were spread over the whole of Site 1 without any apparent interrelation. They comprised the remains of two shallow gullies, F37 and F47, near the south of the site and three cremations, F27, F35 and F46, to the north. One of the cremations, F27, was surrounded by a square gully, F45.

F46 (Fig. 19)

The remains of this cremation were found immediately below the period 3 cobbled road, F18, which was the entrance to the monastic barn. All that survived was the crushed remains of a small pot spread over an area some 0.3m by 0.4m, part of a flagon and some charcoal and small fragments of burnt bone, all within a depth of 20 to 30mm. The edge of the pit in which the cremation had

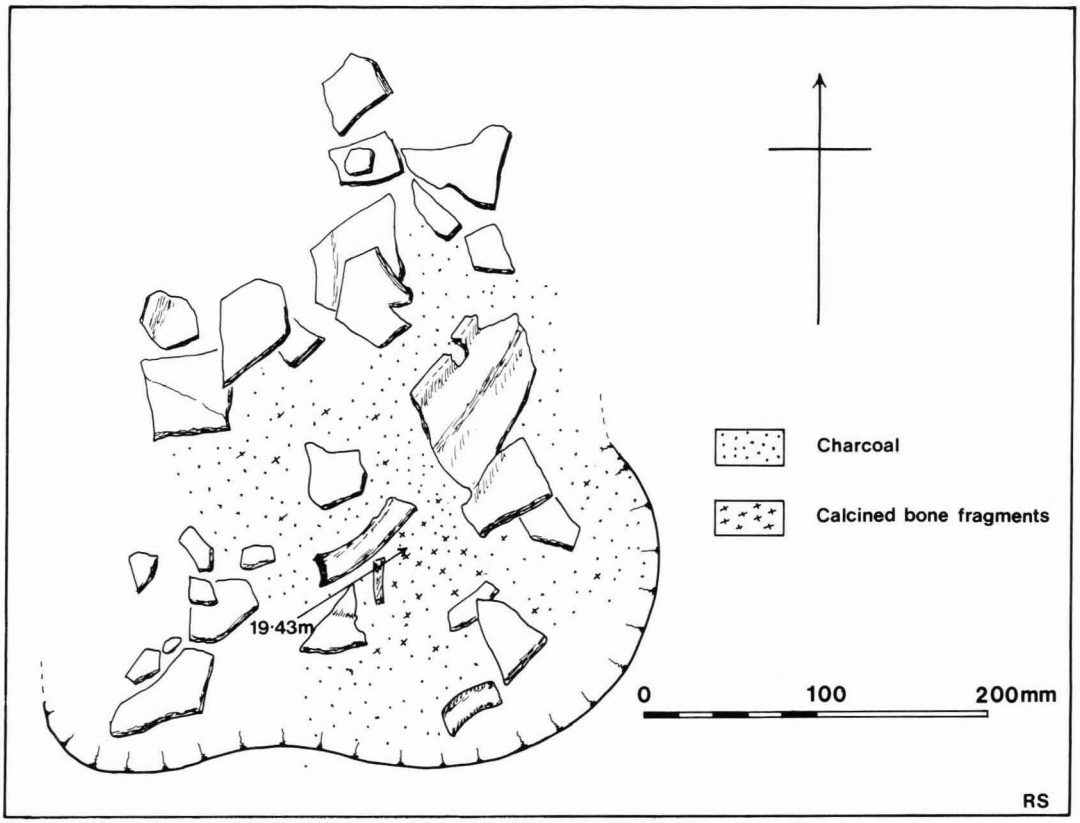

Fig. 19. Site 1: Period 1 — Detail of cremation burial F46 as found underneath metalling F18 of period 3. See Fig. 18 for position.

been placed was only visible on the southern side as a cut into the natural subsoil and its shape and size could not be established.

F35 (Fig. 20)

A second cremation was found some 13.5m north of F46. The north-western edge of the excavated area cut this feature, which was well below the monastic occupation level (section A–A; Fig. 21) and the excavation was extended into the section so that the cremation could be completely examined. However, because a large quantity of spoil had been dumped in this area during the machine clearance, only a small cutting 1.0m square could be made. Only the lower 0.15m of the cremation pit survived, the upper levels being lost in the overlying mixed brown soil layer, L37. The pit was bowl-shaped in cross-section and was clearly visible as a dark brown fill, some 0.45m in diameter, when L37 had been removed. Several sherds of Roman pottery were found in the L37 material within the extension. The main fill of the pit contained only occasional flecks of burnt bone, but in an area slightly to the east of the centre there was a heavy accumulation of charcoal and calcined bone. As the cremation material and several pottery fragments were removed, several very corroded fragments of iron and some nails were exposed (Fig. 20). Towards the centre of the pit the pottery fragments were lying on top of the larger pieces of iron, but towards the sides the pottery was at about the same level as the nails.

F27 and Gully F45 (Figs. 22 and 23; Pls. 5 and 6)

The cremation pit, F27, was exposed as a dark circular patch, 0.25m across, underneath the robber trench for the monastic barn wall, F28 (periods 2 and 4). It was of similar size and shape to F35, but only survived to a depth of about 0.08m.

Bone fragments and flecks of charcoal were found mixed with the dark brown soil fill throughout the small pit. The main concentration of bone was at the southern edge of the pit where there were also several large pieces of charcoal (Fig. 22). The pit contained several pieces of corroded iron and a quantity of nails, distributed mainly around the edge. There was no pottery within the cremation pit.

Surrounding this cremation was a continuous gully, F45, which formed a square with the cremation almost at its centre (Fig. 23). The gully was partly sealed by the monastic barn wall (F28 — period 3), which was not removed, and was also partly cut away by the robber trench, F5 (period 4), for wall F6. The gully was only visible as a cut into the subsoil of the site, the surface from which it had originally been dug having been totally destroyed during the medieval occupation.

The gully averaged 0.6m wide and 0.4m deep and varied in cross-section from V-shaped to flat-bottomed (Fig. 23). The corners were right angled and the complete feature was some 4.5m across measuring from the outer edges of the gully. The fill of the gully consisted of four distinct layers. The lowest level was a sticky, yellow, silty clay, only distinguishable from the natural by the presence of flecks of charcoal and occasional sherds of

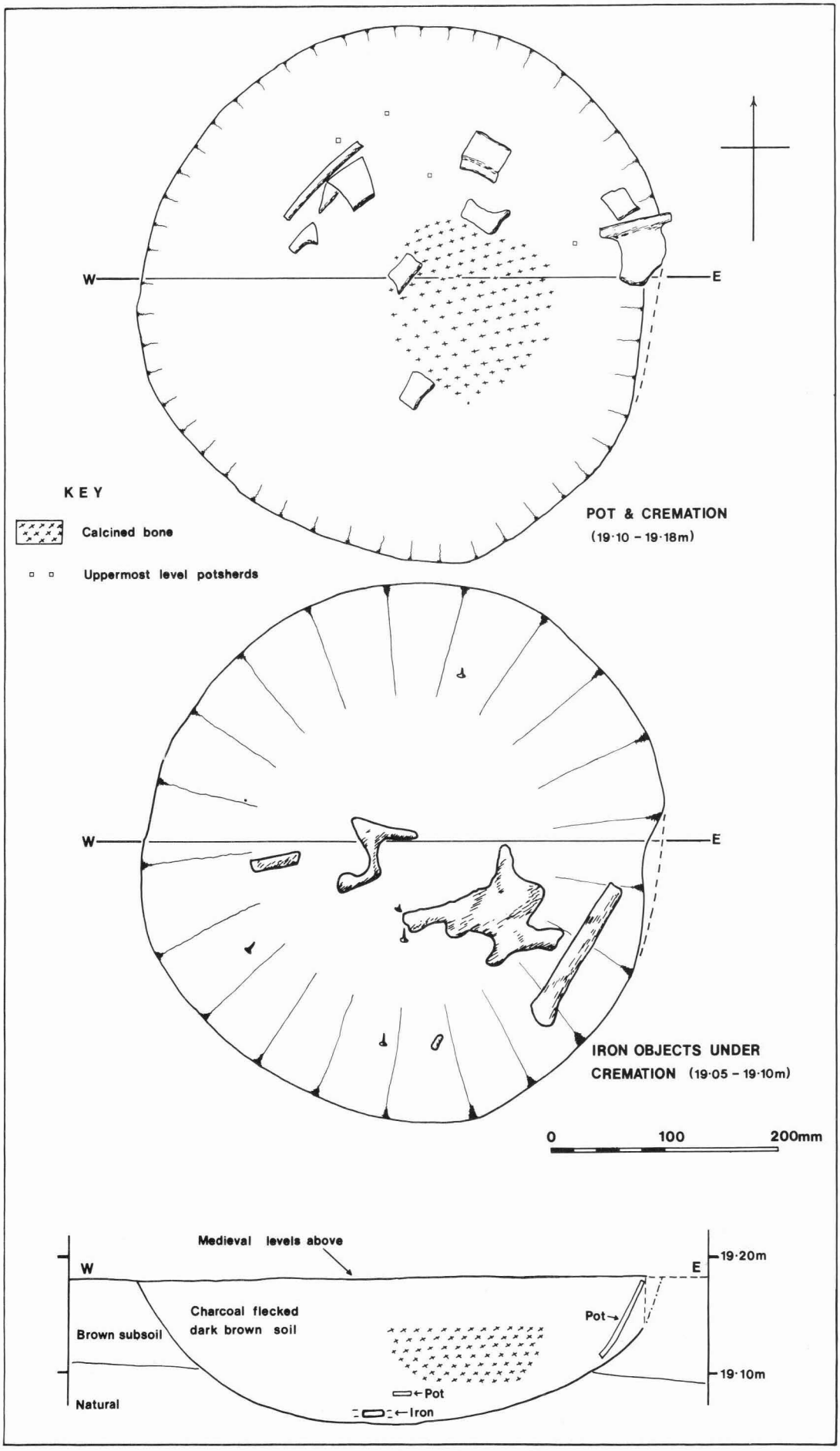

Fig. 20. Site 1: Period 1 — Detail of cremation burial F35. See Fig. 18 for position of cremation.

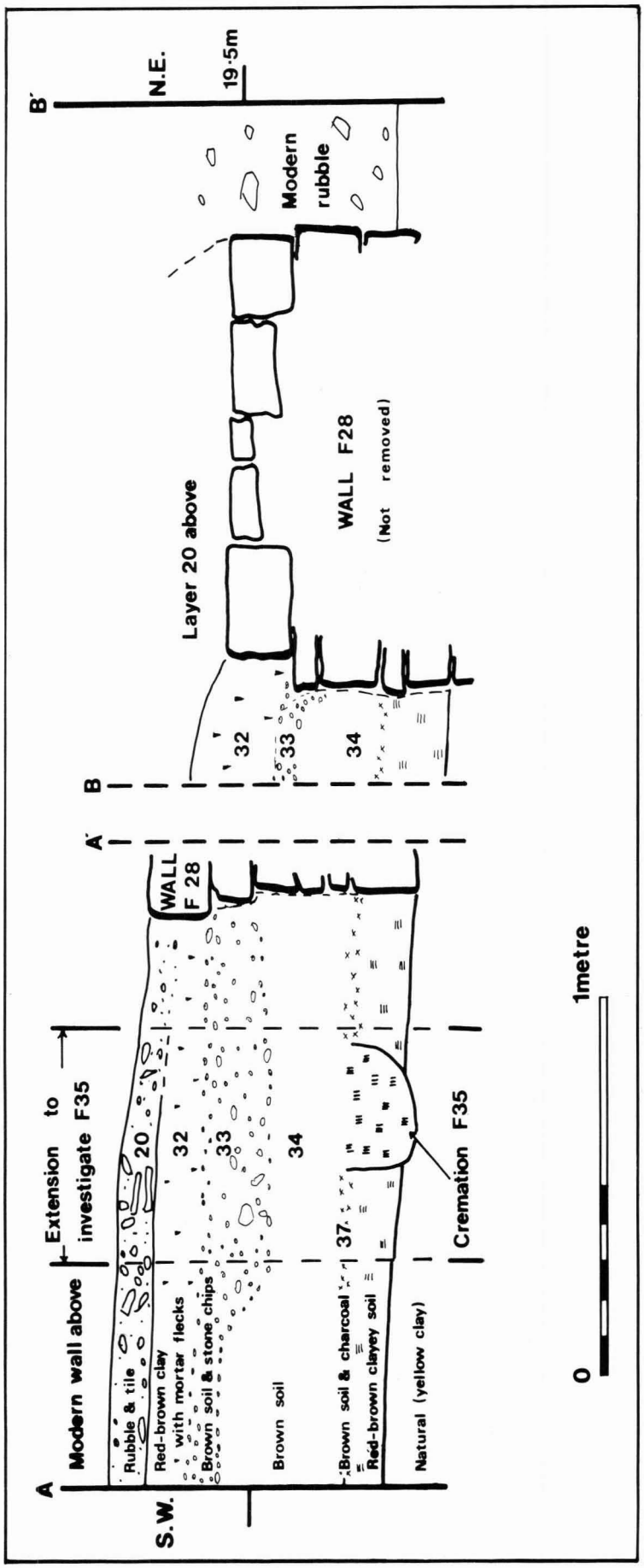

Fig. 21. Site 1: Sections A–A′ and B–B′. For positions of sections see Fig. 17 and individual period plans.

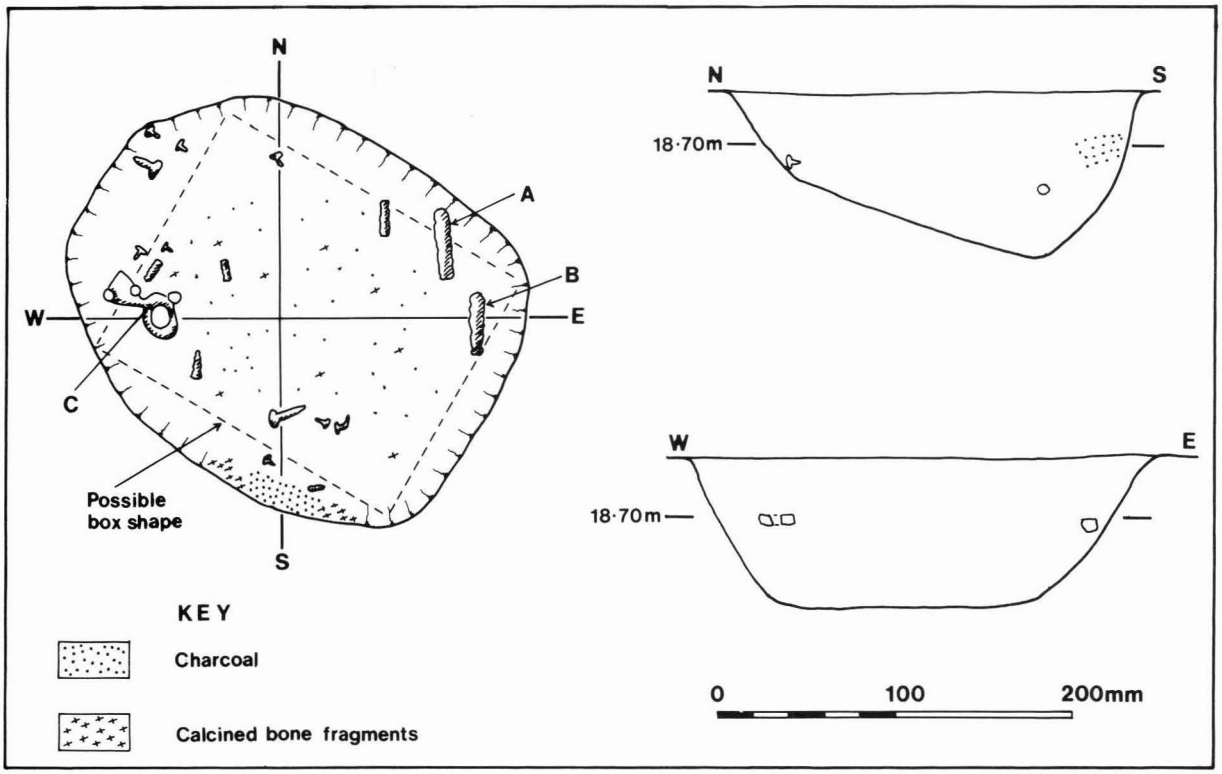

Fig. 22. Site 1: Period 1 — Detail of cremation burial F27. See Fig. 23 for details of associated structure and Fig. 18 for position of cremation.

pottery. Above this was an orange-brown, clayey soil with occasional stones which filled most of the gully. Burnt daub and charcoal were found in patches towards the top of the gully, some of the charcoal being in large pieces.

Above the charcoal, in the southern corner of the gully was a concentration of fragments of calcined bone. Three small iron nails were found in this vicinity. Within the gully the charcoal and burnt daub patches were sealed beneath a brown silty soil which contained a few sherds of Roman pottery. At the southern corner of the gully was posthole F52, which continued some 0.5m below the bottom of the gully and was 0.1m across. The fill was indistinguishable from that of the lower levels of the gully and it was sealed by some of the charcoal. There were no other features in the bottom of the gully.

North of cremation F27, but still within the area surrounded by gully F45, was pit F33 (Fig. 23) which was partly sealed by the stone footings of wall F28 of period 3. Only the part of the pit cut into the natural subsoil of the site survived. Pit F33 had a clean, red, silty clay fill which contained a few fragments of burnt bone, particularly near the top. Wall F28 was not removed so the full depth of the pit could not be established, but it was in excess of 0.4m below the level at which it was found. The pit was steep-sided and it was approximately oval in shape, being about 0.9m by 1.3m. The longer axis was in an east–west direction. In the immediate overlying layer, L37, close to the northern corner of the gully, a 1st-century Roman coin was found (coin no. 1, p. 149).

Gullies F37 and F47 (Fig. 18)

Gully F37 was near the southern edge of the excavation underlying (and in places removed by) the monastic building periods (Fig. 17). The rounded, eastern end was within the area excavated, but the western end was lost after some 7m where it was cut by a later pit (F22 — period 4) and the baulk. The gully averaged 0.6m in width at subsoil level. As with other Roman features on the site the upper levels were lost and the average surviving depth was 0.3m. It varied in shape from a V-section to flat-bottomed. The gully contained several sherds of Roman pottery within a mixed brown silty fill. A few sherds of medieval pottery, which were found in the top of this feature, may have been due to later cultivation. To the south of the gully a thin accumulation of clay, similar to the natural of the site, formed a slight bank on top of the subsoil. It was considered to be material originally dug from the gully. A second gully, F47, started about 1m to the north of the eastern end of F37 and was 1.5m long. It ran at right angles to F37 and was only a few centimetres deep. Although it contained no dating material whatsoever the fill was very similar to that of F37.

All the surviving soil levels on the site contained medieval or later pottery. The lowest of these, F37, immediately overlying the Roman features, also contained some Roman sherds and was presumably the soil level of the Roman period disturbed by later cultivation.

DATING

The pottery from the cremations and the occasional Roman sherds in the overlying layers are dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D. The two coins are listed below.

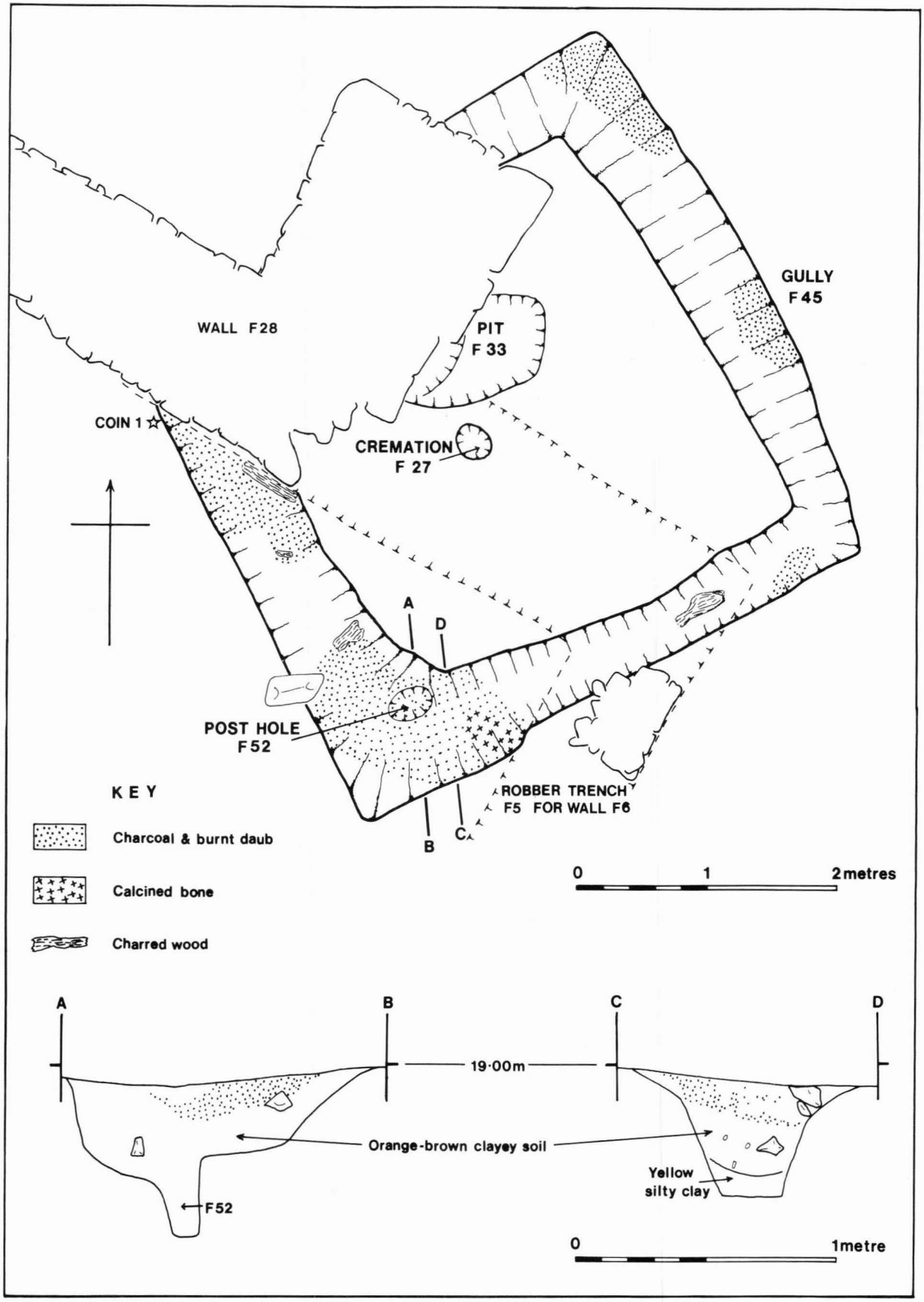

Fig. 23. Site 1: Period 1. Cremation burial F27 and associated structures. See Fig. 22 for details of cremation and Fig. 18 for position of structures.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC/TEXT	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L37	Roman	92	Fig. 50.8
F35	Roman	92	Fig. 50.4
F45	Roman	92	Fig. 50.5–7
F46	Roman	92	Fig. 50.1–3
F37	Hb.4 (Intrusive)	100	Fig. 52.38

Coins

L37	*As* of Claudius (A.D. 41–54)	149	Inventory No. 1
L37	Imitation of Antoninianus of Tetricus I (A.D. 270–73)	149	Inventory No. 2

DISCUSSION

It is unfortunate that the features described above, which are the earliest stratified Roman contexts so far discovered in the immediate area of Chepstow, were all disturbed to a greater or lesser degree by later cultivation and by the use of the site for a monastic barn. The remains presumably represent part of a roadside cemetery, but insufficient was found to establish the plan or extent (p. 160). The two gullies F37 and F47 may have been part of a boundary ditch encircling the burial ground but they could equally have been associated with a separate feature underneath Orchard Place, to the south of the excavated area. The distance between the three cremations suggests that the burial ground was little used and the lack of any equivalent material on Sites 6 and 11 suggests that the area affected was quite small.

The disturbance caused by later cultivation was such that the original depth of the cremation pits could not be established, but at their upper levels they varied in diameter from 0.25m to 0.5m.

The fragmentary cremation F46 was so badly damaged that it can only be suggested that the cremation material was buried in a pot and that the latter was broken and its contents dispersed, possibly when the cobbling of period 3 was laid. The flagon may have originally been on the surface above the cremation to mark the spot (Toynbee 1971). F35 was in a better state of preservation and the fragments of calcined bone had not been dispersed. However, the sherds which had belonged to the container were scattered to some extent throughout the top of the pit and the overlying layer. The pieces of iron were very corroded and had no recognizable shape, but it is suggested that they and the nails could have been part of a mainly wooden structure which acted as a stand supporting the pot containing the calcined bone within the cremation pit. If this was the case there would have been a void underneath the pot after the wooden parts of the stand had rotted away. A disturbance of the overlying ground could then have fractured the pot, allowing its contents to drop into the void, but still retaining the shape of the container. This hypothesis would explain the disposition of the metalwork, pottery and calcined bone found during the excavation.

The third cremation, F27, also suffered from some disturbance of the upper levels. There was no pottery associated with this cremation but the ironwork found in the pit might represent the remains of a wooden box or casket in which the cremation was buried. The fragments of iron found during the excavation disintegrated before they could be drawn but the detailed plan of the cremation gives some indication of their shapes and sizes (Fig. 22). It is suggested that the two large fragments (A and B), near the eastern edge of the pit, were hinges and that the flat 'key-hole' shaped piece (C) in the west of the pit was a clasp. Accepting these interpretations a box with maximum dimensions 0.2m long, 0.15m wide and perhaps 0.07m deep can be postulated. Although there was a scatter of charcoal and calcined bone in the area of the box, there was a greater concentration close to the southern edge of the pit which could possibly imply that there had been a second burial in the same pit. Alternatively, any calcined material left over when the casket was filled may have been placed separately in the pit.

There was no stratigraphical relationship between cremation F27, pit F33 and gully F45, but it would be very coincidental if all three features were not associated with each other. The gully may have been a demarcation ditch around the cremation, but the presence within the fill of burnt daub and large pieces of charcoal suggests that it was used as a foundation trench for a wooden structure surrounding F27. The lack of any indication of post positions (apart from F52) suggests that this structure was probably built on sill-beams laid in the gully. The silty clay layer at the bottom may have been used as levelling material for these beams. The fragments of burnt daub found in the top of the gully indicate that the upstanding structure was more than just a few posts used to mark the position of the cremation. It would appear that, if not roofed, the structure was at least solidly walled. A centre post would not have been needed to support a roof on such a small building so it is unlikely that F33 was directly associated with the structure. The size and depth of this hole suggests that it may have been used to hold a stone or timber grave marker.

The presence of substantial amounts of charcoal, including some quite large pieces near the top of the fill of the gully, probably indicates that the building was eventually burnt down and the gully then silted up. The gully itself may have contained yet another cremation burial as there was a concentration of calcined bones towards the southern end.

Cremation was usual in the Roman Empire up to and including the 1st century A.D. It was gradually superseded by inhumation during the 2nd century in Rome and by the mid 3rd century in the provinces. Although burial was often an elaborate ritual the simplest tombs were merely holes in the ground in which were placed the receptacle containing the deceased's ashes. This

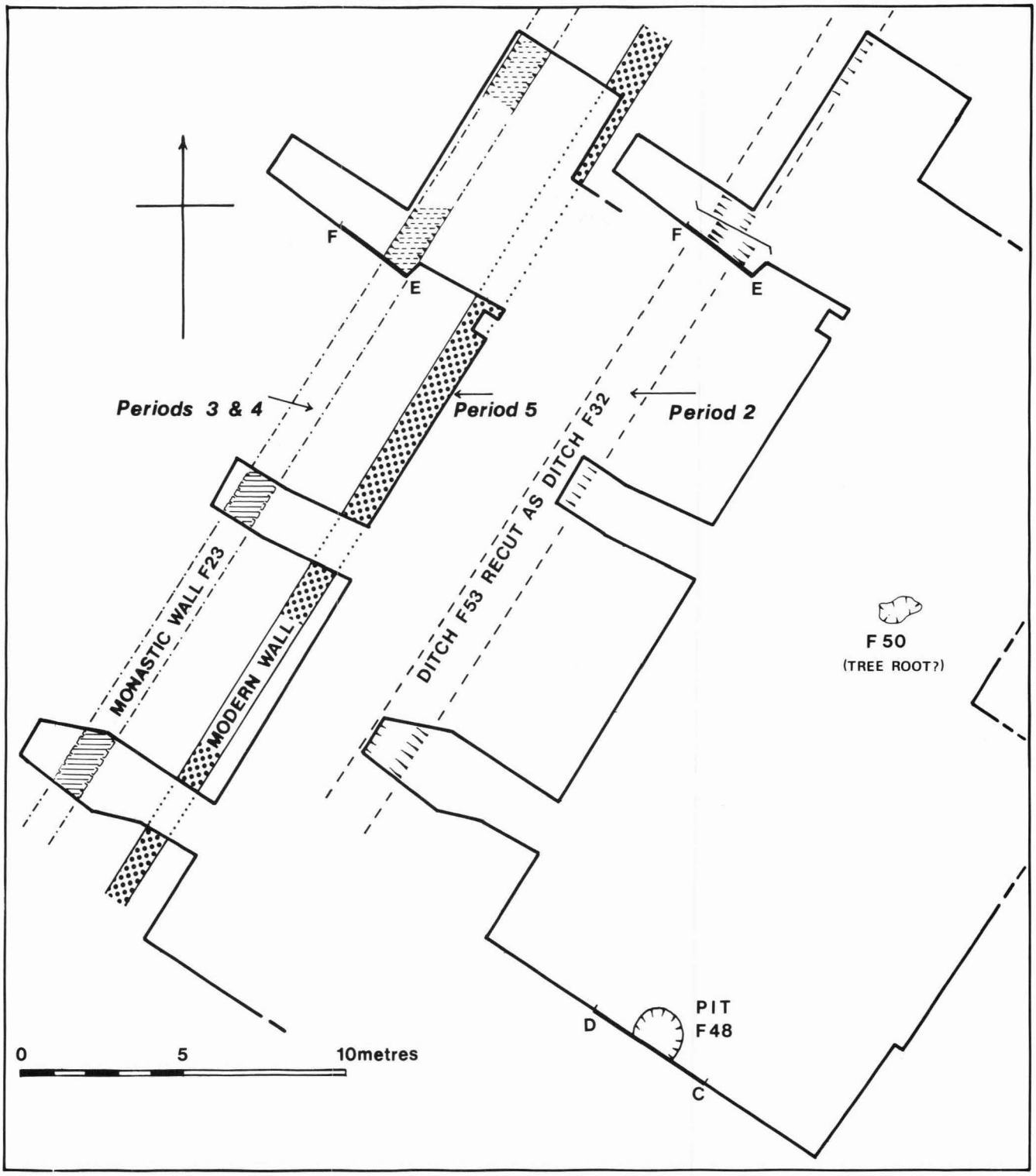

Fig. 24. Site 1: Periods 2–5. Position of boundary ditch and wall.

container could be of marble, stone or terracotta in the shape of houses, baskets or of round or rectangular boxes or caskets. In the simplest graves a lead canister, glass vessel or earthenware pot might be used. Although some burials were covered in elaborate shrines, the humblest graves had grave markers in the form of a plain standing stone or even a large clay pot (e.g. an amphora) (Toynbee 1971).

Within the context of the Chepstow cemetery, the flagon sherd from the top of F46 may well have been part of a grave marker and a stone or timber marker would seem likely in F33 associated with cremation F27. The timber building surrounding this cremation pit was doubtless a small shrine, similar to many examples which still exist in stone in the Roman world. The shrine was probably built as a timber framework with wattle and daub infill, and must have taken some little time to construct. It can therefore be assumed that, at the time of burial, the area on the west bank of the lower Wye was under Roman control.

Period 2 — Boundary ditch and associated soil levels

(Fig. 24)

The earliest post-Roman occupation of the site comprised a ditch, F53, re-cut at least once as F32, which ran down the north-western boundary of the excavated area, underneath the foundations of the later monastic barn. Two small pits, F48 and F50, were also dated to period 2.

DESCRIPTION

A ditch, running north-east, south-west, was found in the three trenches which extended the excavated area to the north-west. In the two southernmost trenches it was largely obscured by the foundations of the period 3 monastic barn wall, which was not removed, but in the northern trench the wall had been totally robbed out during the Victorian period, and the ditch could be examined in detail (Section E–F: Fig 25). It was here that it was established that the ditch had been re-cut.

The original ditch, F53, approximately 2m wide and 0.8m deep, was cut into the natural clay through a clean, crumbly, red clay soil, which overlay the subsoil in this part of the site. The lower part of the fill consisted of a grey silt which filled the bottom 0.1m of the ditch. Above this was a slightly more brown silty soil with some charcoal flecking. Much of this fill had been removed when the ditch was re-cut and realigned to the south-east of the original. The re-cut ditch, F32, was approximately the same width and depth as the original, but was cut from a slightly higher level. The lower part of the fill contained a little organic material, some charcoal and fragments of burnt daub. The remainder consisted of red-brown silty soil some 0.5m thick. Towards the top of the ditch the fill, F32A, became darker brown, more clayey and contained occasional pieces of rubble and chips of stone which probably relate to the monastic barn construction of period 3; finds from this level are therefore described under period 3.

In the two northern trenches, the undisturbed subsoil was a hard yellow clay, but in the trench at the south-western corner of the area a limestone bedrock was encountered. This was the only exposure of the bedrock on any of the sites in the cattle market/Priory/Nelson Street areas. The ditches were seen in the two southern trenches, but could not be examined in detail (Fig. 17). Finds from these trenches were all indexed as being from F32, the later ditch, as the original ditch was not separately identified.

At the southern edge of the site was a small pit, F48, partly sealed by the foundations of wall F20 of the period 3 building, and partly cut by the section (Section C–D: Fig. 26). The pit was cut into the natural yellow clay of the site and was about 1.2m across and in excess of 0.5m deep. It was rather irregular in shape with fairly steep sides. There was a little grey silt in the bottom but the main fill consisted of brown soil containing many patches of clean yellow clay and several large pieces of charcoal. Towards the top of the pit was a large flat stone 0.1m thick and 0.45m across.

In the centre of the site, F50, an irregular pit with a loose brown soil fill, was also considered to belong to period 2.

There was apparently some build-up of soil over the site during period 2. This was apparent across most of the area excavated with the exception of the north-eastern corner, outside the limits of the period 3 building, where 19th and 20th-century features had disturbed the levels as far as, and in some cases into the natural yellow clay. The disturbed Roman soil level, L37, was only present within the northern part of the monastic

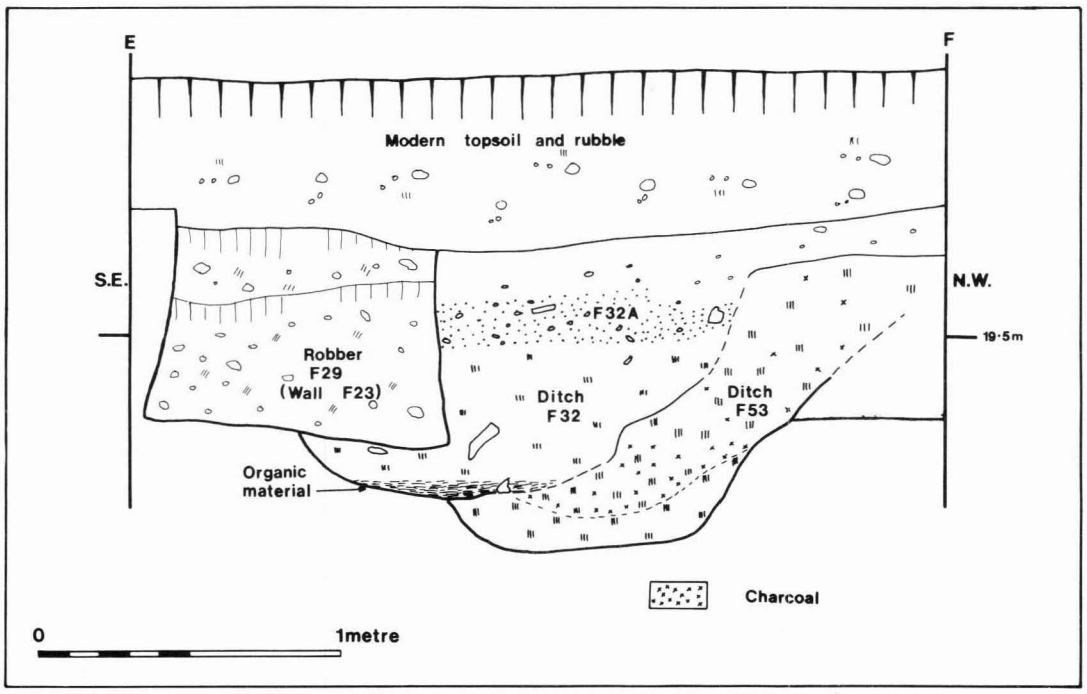

Fig. 25. Site 1: Section E–F. For position of section see Fig. 17 and individual period plans.

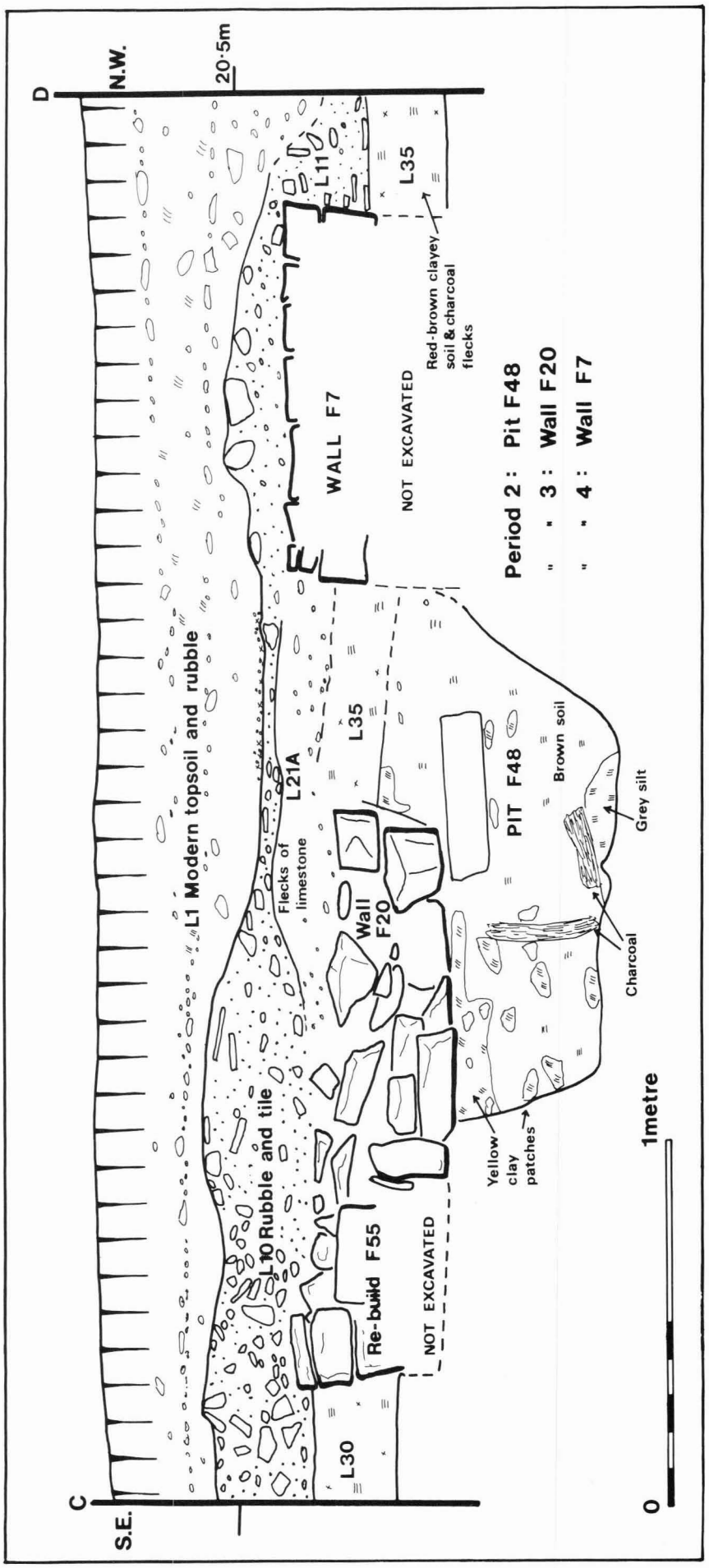

Fig. 26. Site 1: Section C–D. For position of section see Fig. 17 and individual period plans.

barn (Fig. 17), where it apparently had had some protection. It was sealed by L34, a thick, heavy brown soil (Fig. 21). A similar layer to L34 was present over most of the remaining parts of the site, where it overlay the natural subsoil. In the south-western part of the site this layer was identified as L35 and in the south-eastern area, outside the confines of the period 3 building, it was apparently part of a contaminated layer, L30. In places these layers were up to 0.4m thick.

DATING

The features and layers of period 2 can only be dated by reference to the ceramic finds and by reference to the finds in the overlying features of period 3. On this basis a late 12th-century date for ditch F32 is indicated. There was little dating material in the fill of the earlier ditch F53 but the line was probably still visible, although the ditch was almost completely silted when F32 was cut (Fig. 25). If the silting had been accelerated by nearby cultivation, ditch F53 need not be more than fifty or one hundred years older than F32.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L35	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.28
F32	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.2, 11, 23, 37, 41
	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.35, 46
F53	Bristol wares:	Kc	112	Fig. 57.9

DISCUSSION

There is no indication that Site 1 was occupied between the early Roman cremation period and the late 11th or early 12th century when ditch F53 was cut, apart from one Roman coin of 3rd-century date (coin no. 2).

The soil levels over the whole site were complex and not fully understood. There was apparently a considerable build-up of soil during period 2 and this is considered to represent cultivation of the ground during the early monastic occupation but before construction of the period 3 building. The level of the natural across Site 1 suggests that this site may have originally been on a slight terrace, with the general slope downwards to the north. This may have made it more favourable for agricultural purposes and eventually for the building of period 3. However, there was a slight indication that the site had been deliberately levelled when the period 3 barn was built.

The original ditch (F53) must have almost completely silted up before it was re-cut as F32, and this second ditch had also almost disappeared before the period 3 wall (F23) was built. This could indicate that a long period of time elapsed between the first ditch being dug and the construction of the period 3 building, but cultivation of the surrounding areas would inevitably have speeded up the silting process.

The ditches may have formed the north-western boundary of the monastic site, separating it by some 40m from the line of Nelson Street. If this was so then this 40m width is of some importance in the understanding of the original plan of Chepstow, for it may indicate one of the dimensions of the burgage plots in the town. Ditches of the size and shape of F32 and F53 were often used to establish the boundaries of burgage plots in the 11th and 12th centuries (Shoesmith 1982). If it is assumed that there was a formal layout of the Norman burgage plots in the town, all with a consistent length, and that Nelson Street was an original feature of the Norman town (p. 161), then this dimension may be used in other parts of the town where the burgage plot lengths are uncertain.

It is interesting to observe that this boundary continued in use, with only slight variations of line, into the 1960s, at which time it separated the cattle market from the market garden at the rear of the row of houses in Nelson Street (Figs 7 and 24).

The irregular pit F50 near the centre of the site had a clean, loose fill with indefinite edges and was considered to be the result of tree-root action. However, pit F48 was of a totally different nature and could have been the postpit for a large timber (Fig. 26). If it was indeed part of a building, the remainder must be underneath Orchard Place and the properties to the south-west of Site 1.

Period 3 — First phase of the monastic barn (Fig. 27)

A large, buttressed stone barn was built on most of the site during the early 13th century (period 3a). It was in use during the 13th and 14th centuries (period 3b) and collapsed or was partly demolished (period 3c) at some time before the late 15th century when it was replaced with a smaller building (period 4). Most of the surviving parts of the walls of the period 3 barn were not removed during the excavation because the possibility of preserving some of the Priory remains was being considered. Eventually the site was back-filled leaving the walls *in situ*. However, in many places the walls were completely robbed out and it is unlikely that removal of the remainder would have added substantially to the total information.

DESCRIPTION

Period 3a

The construction levels associated with the barn were characterized by small chips of stone in the layer on top of the otherwise clean brown soil levels (L34 and L35) of period 2. In the northern part of the area of the building,

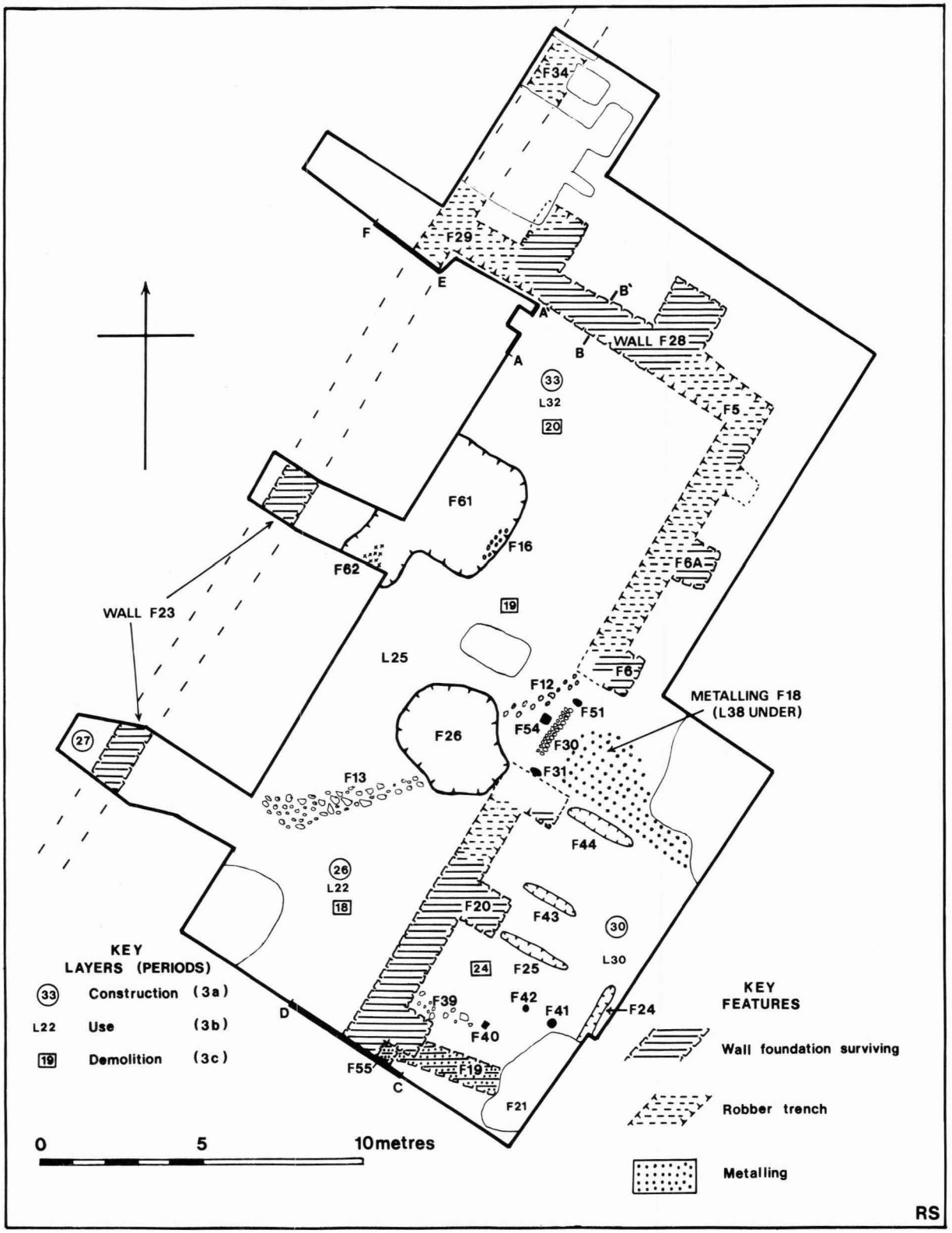

Fig. 27. Site 1: Period 3. The monastic barn. For sections A–A′ and B–B′ see Fig. 21; section C–D see Fig. 26; section E–F see Fig. 25.

stone chips were found in L33, a light brown soil layer which sealed the period 2 layer, L34 (Fig. 21). In the southern part of the building the equivalent layer above L35 was L26, which again contained stone chips but survived only intermittently over the area. Outside the building to the south-east the soil levels were more confused and the construction level for the building could not be seen. It was presumably part of the thick layer of brown soil, L30 which contained material from periods 2, 3 and 4 (Fig. 26). F32A, the upper part of the fill of ditch F32, contained similar small fragments of stone to those in L26 and L33 (Fig. 25).

The barn (Fig. 27) was 10m wide internally and more than 22m long. The walls were built in foundation trenches which had been dug some 0.5m deep from the contemporary ground surface and thus cut through all the previous levels into the natural subsoil of the site. The north-western wall of the barn, F23, was built partly on top of the filled-in period 2 ditch, F32, and the line of the wall continued to the north-east beyond the

limits of the barn as a robber trench, F29 and F34. The wall survived several courses high in the southernmost of the cross trenches but in the central trench only the foundation course survived, and in the whole of the northern part of the site the wall had been completely robbed out. Finds from the fill of the robber trenches, F29 and F34, indicated that the wall had been removed in the late 18th or early 19th century at a time when various pits were dug in this part of the site. The existing foundations of the wall were some 1.5m wide. It was built without the use of mortar, although there were traces of plaster on the inner face in the southern cross trench. The wall had apparently been rebuilt at least once on its original foundations. Within the confines of the narrow cross trenches it was impossible to establish full details of the associated soil levels but in the southern trench the construction level, L26, continued up to the wall on the east and L27, containing similar material, was found above the period 2 ditch, F32, on the western side.

The north-eastern wall of the barn was also fragmentary. The northern corner of the building had been completely robbed out but the foundations of the central part of the wall, F28, together with two buttresses, survived up to 0.6m high (Pl. 6). The footings completely filled the foundation trench and in places one course survived above the top of L33, the construction ground level (Fig. 21: Sections B–B'). The footings averaged 1.2m wide being slightly wider in the south-eastern part. The overlying wall was 1.1m wide and was not exactly aligned with the foundations. This was most apparent towards the northern corner where the upper two courses of the wall slightly overhung the foundations (Fig. 21: Section A–A'). This could represent a rebuild but may well have been due to poor alignment of the foundation trench when the building was first erected. The wall, buttresses and foundations were of drystone construction using irregular blocks, roughly faced and coursed. Part of the wall and the easternmost buttress sealed one corner of the period 1 Roman shrine, F45 (Fig. 17 and Pl. 6). The line of the wall was traced to the eastern corner of the building as a robber trench F5. To the north-east of the wall, modern levels continued down to the original subsoil.

Most of the eastern corner and a substantial part of the south-eastern wall had been totally removed. The fill of trench F5 indicated that this robbing had occurred at a much earlier date than had that at the northern corner of the building. Only the foundation courses of two of the three buttresses, F6 and F6A, in the northern part of the south-east wall, survived. They were 1.3m wide, similar to those supporting wall F28, but were only 1m long compared with the 1.6m of the north-eastern buttresses. South-west of the south-eastern entry to the building parts of the foundations of the wall survived, including the footings of three buttresses. The part of the wall nearest the entry was most severely robbed out and the footings of the buttress next to the entry were partly sealed by the period 4 roadway. To the south-west of the robbed portion the footings of the remainder of this wall (F20) survived to one or two courses high.

Period 3b

Associated with the fragment of wall F20 were several features which give some indication of the subsequent history of the building and the various attempts to shore up the wall south of the entry. The surviving courses of wall F20 were completely within the foundation trench and outside it was L30, the mixed soil layer associated with both periods 2 and 3. At the southern extremity of wall F20 there was some evidence of a rebuild. The southern buttress had been extended by wall F19, 0.8m thick and over 3m long. Apparently at the same time wall F20 between the buttress and the baulk had been strengthened by the addition of a second wall (F55) some 0.5m wide (Fig. 26, Section C–D). Both F19 and F55 only survived as foundations cut into L30. To the north of F19, parallel and at a similar level to it, were three shallow gullies, F25, F43 and F44, and a spread of stones, F39 (Fig. 27). All these five features ran at a slight angle to the original wall of the building, following the contour of the ground. At the eastern end of F39 was a square cut posthole, F40, and close by, at the same level, were two other postholes, F41 and F42. At right angles to gully F25 and some 5m from the building was another gully F24, of similar size and shape to F25. The south-western end of F24 was cut away by pit F21 of period 5. All the gullies averaged 0.1 to 0.15m deep and were filled with a mixture of dark soil and dirty gravel and some fragments of roofing material.

The entrance to the barn on the south-eastern side of the building was 3.2m wide with a buttress on each side. The layers associated with the entrance were confused by alterations during period 4, but it was evident that the road which led towards the entrance from the south-east was in use during both periods. This road, F18, was constructed of random pebble metalling with a definite stone kerb to the south-west. It was laid on a thin layer of gravel, L38. A double row of stones, F30, had been carefully laid across the central line of the entrance. At both ends of this row, between the stones and the buttresses, were shallow postholes, F31 and F51. Centrally between the buttresses, and just within the line of F30, was a more substantial posthole, F54. This posthole had been packed with stone and the fill indicated that the post had been of 0.2m scantling.

There were few signs of occupation within the building, but L32, a thin brown soil layer with mortar flecks, which sealed the constructional debris (L33) in the northern part of the building, was probably deposited whilst the building was in use (Fig. 21). The equivalent level in the central area was L25, but in the southern part of the building the occupation level was confused by later walls, pits and gullies. Where it was recognizable it consisted of a brown soil layer (L22) which sealed the constructional debris (L26). This floor level was cut by a stone-filled gully (F13 and F12) which ran obliquely across the floor towards the doorway (Fig. 27). The gully had been cut by a shallow pit F26 which contained debris associated with the demolition or collapse of the period 3 building.

The only other internal feature associated with the building in use was a large centrally-placed pit, F61. It was partly obscured by the baulk but was probably about 4m across and 5m in length with a maximum depth of almost 1m from the contemporary ground level. The edges were irregular and the sides of the pit sloped gradually inwards. The main fill, a brown soil containing some clay, small rubble and mortar, was sealed by a 0.2m thick layer of pink, sticky clay. Towards the eastern edge of the pit was some stone packing, F16, and on top of the clay in the southern part of the pit area was a small hearth, F62 (Fig. 27).

Period 3c

Fragments of many stone roofing tiles and ceramic ridge tiles were found above and occasionally embedded within the floor levels of the barn, and in the adjoining area. The main concentrations were to the south and west of the entrance. Within the limits of the building, from south to north, the layers of roofing debris were L18, L19 and L20. Outside the building to the east, the equivalent layer was L24. The finds from these layers were contaminated with later material apparently associated with the final demolition of the building at the end of period 4 (p. 53).

DATING

There were few well-stratified contexts in period 3 which contained sufficient pottery to establish an accurate dating sequence. Most of the layers were contaminated with later material, but L33 inside the building and L38 underneath the metalled roadway F18, both associated with the construction and early use of the building, produced a small collection of early 13th-century pottery, although even in these layers there was some later contamination.

The pottery from the occupation levels, L22 and L32, was of late 13th and perhaps early 14th-century date. The ridge tiles found in fragments amongst the debris were probably made in the late 13th century.

The evidence, taken in association with the dateable material from period 2, suggests that the building was originally constructed in the early 13th century, possibly with a thatched roof. It was not until later in that century that stone slates and ceramic ridge tiles were used. This may have been associated with some rebuilding of the walls. It is more difficult to establish when the building collapsed or was partly demolished. The period 4 building that replaced it was of late 15th or early 16th-century date, and it may be that the original building stood for some 200 years. A coin, which is dated to the latter half of the 14th century (coin no. 4), was found on top of layer L22, and was therefore probably lost during the life of the building.

INVENTORY

Period 3a

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L26	Local wares:	Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.9
	Other English wares:	Ma	119	Fig. 58.23
		Nn	122	Fig. 58.38
L27	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.12, 38
	Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.5
		No	123	Fig. 58.43
		Nr	123	Fig. 58.44
L30*	Roman		92	Fig. 50.9
	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.38
	Other English wares:	Ma	119	Fig. 58.21
L33	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.12
F6	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.7
F28	Bristol wares:	Ka	109	Fig. 55.6
F32A	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.28, 39

*Mixed layer containing material of periods 2, 3 and 4

Iron objects

L33	Horseshoe	147	Fig. 70.4

Period 3b

Illustrated ridge tile

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L22	C	87	Fig. 48.1

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L25	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.34
	Other English wares:	Le	118	Fig. 58.17
L32	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.22
F25	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.3
F44	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.4
F61	Local wares:	Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.10
		Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.26
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.27

Iron objects

F13, F18	Nails	146	Fig. 71.7, 8

Coin

L22	*Demi blanc* of John IV (1345–1399)	149	No. 4

Period 3c

Illustrated ridge tile

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L20	C	87	Fig. 48.3
	Da	89	Fig. 48.6
	Db	89	Fig. 48.8
	Dc	89	Fig. 48.11
L24	Ed	91	Fig. 49.6*
F42	Ec	91	Fig. 49.4
	Ed	91	Fig. 49.6*

*Joining sherds

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L18	Bristol wares: Jc	108	Fig. 54.29
L24	Bristol wares: Jc	108	Fig. 54.37

Iron objects

L24	Pincers	142	Fig. 70.5
L18, L24	Nails	146	Fig. 71.2–4, 6

Copper alloy objects

F26	Bronze stud	148	Fig. 72.13

DISCUSSION

The design and shape of the building, with large buttresses on at least two sides and a wide opening in one long side, indicate that it was a barn. It may well have been used by the priory to store grain and other produce from its various estates.

The later of the period 2 ditches was more or less completely silted up when the barn was built, and the wall which replaced this ditch could have served a dual purpose, as a wall for the barn and a boundary wall for the priory grounds. In its latter function it continued to the north-east beyond the limits of the building. The junction of this boundary wall and the north-west wall of the barn was lost, so it could not be established if they were both of the same period.

The confused nature of L30 and L35 in the southern part of the site, considered in conjunction with the partial preservation of the Roman level L37 within the northern part of the barn, may suggest that some levelling down of the ground level in the southern part took place before the building was erected.

The surviving remains of the barn are sufficient to demonstrate that the initial construction incorporated the buttresses, and it is suggested that the building was symmetrical about a line running through the middle of the entrance. If this is the case, then the south-western wall of the barn would lie underneath the north-eastern edge of Orchard Place, its total internal length being 22.5m. There is no direct evidence that Orchard Place was in existence during the monastic period but it is shown on Millerd's plan of 1686 (Fig. 4), so it may have been one of the entries into the Priory lands (p. 167).

The wide entrance to the barn must have had double doors, the posts on which the doors were hung standing in F31 and F51. The central posthole, F54, may have been used for a door stop, but it is rather large for this purpose and may indicate that one of the doors was hung centrally at some time or that a central strut was eventually needed to support the door frame. There is no evidence for partitioning within the barn, nor is there any evidence that the building had a timber floor. The rubble-filled gully, F13 and F12, presumably acted as a primitive drain taking water from within the building out through the entrance. Pit F61 and hearth F62 suggest that the building was used for other purposes besides storage, but it is perhaps unlikely that animals such as horses were normally kept inside, as there were few of the iron objects which would be expected from this type of use.

The early 13th-century building probably had a thatched roof, but this was replaced by stone tiles and ceramic ridge tiles at the end of the century. It may have been at that time that some of the walls were rebuilt.

The walls, gullies and postholes outside the south-eastern wall (F20) indicate that the building was becoming dangerous at this point. The instability may have been due to the period 2 pit (F48) underneath F20. This wall was first thickened by a retaining wall (F55) and then a long, wall-type buttress (F19) was added. The three trenches, F25, F43 and F44, were presumably for horizontal timbers used as the bases for additional shoring against this part of the barn, the postholes F40, F41, F42 and possibly gully F24, all demonstrating the increasing complexity of this operation.

The general disposition of the roofing debris concentrated around wall F20, which included some fragments of stone roofing tile still standing on end and others embedded in the barn floor, indicates that this corner of the building finally collapsed. Later stone robbing from wall F20, together with the retrieval of any unbroken roofing stone and roofing timbers, must have caused considerable mixing of the building material, so that it is impossible to establish if the collapse at the end of period 3 was solely that of the roof or if the repeated shoring of wall F20 was finally insufficient to support this whole corner of the building.

Period 4 — Second phase of the monastic barn (Fig. 28)

The barn of period 3 was partly demolished after the collapse. The south-eastern stone wall was replaced with timberwork and a new small stone building was constructed in the south-western corner of the original barn.

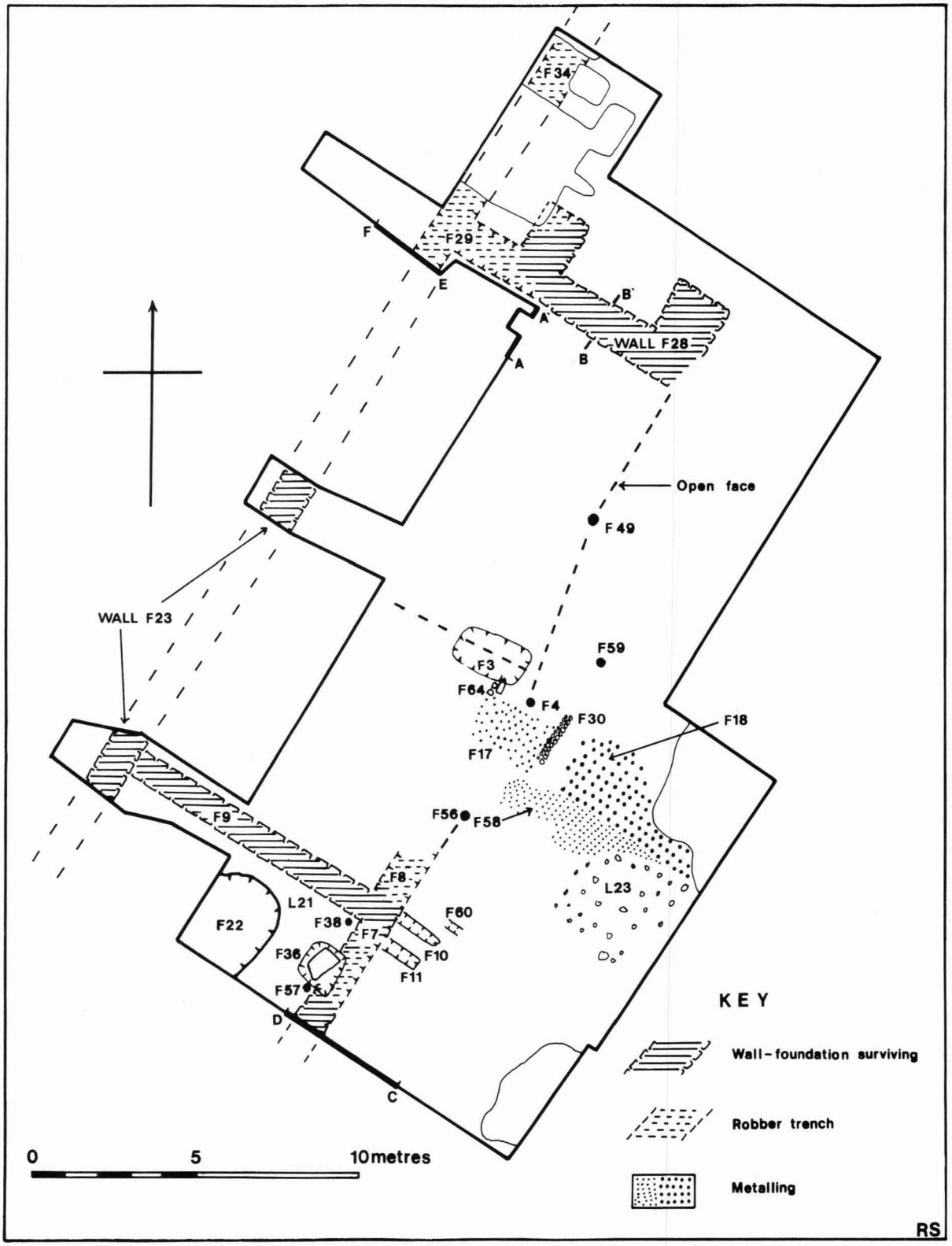

Fig. 28. Site 1: Period 4. Alterations to the monastic barn. For sections A–A′ and B–B′ see Fig. 21; section C–D see Fig. 26; section E–F see Fig. 25.

DESCRIPTION

North-east of the entrance to the period 3 barn, wall F6 was completely removed down to and including the foundations, leaving a robber trench, F5, and the footings of two buttresses (F6 and F6A). The wall removal continued round the eastern corner of the building as far as the first large buttress on wall F28, where it abruptly stopped (Pl. 5). The robber trench was shallow with vertical sides and apparently reflected the original construction trench. South-west of the barn entrance the buttress and some 3m of walling were removed. The remainder of this south-eastern wall, F20, survived two to three courses high, mainly within the foundation trench.

Within the barn were the foundations of two stone walls, F7 and F9. F7 ran from the south-western baulk, at a point about 1m inside the line of the period 3 wall

F20, and parallel to it (Fig. 17). F9 linked wall F7 with F23, the north-western wall of the period 3 barn. F7 and F9 were both about 1m wide and survived three to four courses high. They were built in shallow foundation trenches which in places cut through the floor levels and fallen debris of the period 3 barn. The two walls were bonded together, but wall F9 was not tied into wall F23 and was demonstrably a later construction. Together with the postulated south-west wall of the barn, these walls were apparently part of a shed built within the partly demolished barn. A slight foundation trench, F8, continued the line of wall F7 for some 2m north-eastwards beyond the junction with F9.

In the centre of the excavated part of wall F7 was a possible entrance to the shed. A large flat stone had been laid on top of a shallow pit, F36, which filled a gap in the wall. The pit contained brown soil and some stone roofing tile and the flat stone which overlay it had been levelled by wedging stones under its western edge. There were post positions on either side of F36, just within the line of the wall. F57 to the south-west consisted of a slightly sunken flat stone which had apparently been used as a base for a post, and F38, close to the corner made by walls F7 and F9, was a posthole containing two packing stones.

Several postholes were found which suggested that the remainder of the period 4 building had an open front on the south-eastern side, the posts supporting the roof. Three metres north-east of the junction of F7 and F9 was posthole F56, which contained some stone packing; four metres north-east again, on the opposite side of the original entrance was posthole F4, which was rectangular in shape; and nearly 6m further north-east, halfway between F4 and the surviving wall F28, was a stone-packed posthole, F49.

The laid pebble road (F18) outside the period 3 barn was widened to the south during period 4 with carefully laid cobbling (F58) which partly overlay the foundations of the period 3 buttress (Fig. 17). The cobbling gradually merged into a large stony area (L23) which partly sealed the period 3 shoring features and formed a fairly flat surface at the level of the surviving tops of walls F19 and F20. L23 was laid in part on top of the crushed roof-stone and roof-tile of the period 3 destruction layer, L24.

Within the line of the period 3 stone threshold (F30) was another stony layer (F17) which was in part deliberately laid, but included period 3 demolition debris. Part of this layer continued over the top of the shallow period 3 pit, F26 (Fig. 17). North-east of F17, close to posthole F4, were several larger stones (F64) which had been carefully laid into the ground creating a small, flat platform. North of this was a shallow feature, F3, which contained much broken roof tile and some fragments of charcoal.

The floor levels associated with the period 4 buildings were very confused. Little survived to the north and east outside the line of the period 3 barn apart from the roadway F18/F58 and the stony layer L23. Within the barn limits the period 3 demolition debris (L20) included some period 4 material, especially to the north-east. In the central part, between pit F3 and wall F9, there appeared to have been some attempt to level the debris layers L18 and L19, with the result that the period 3 floor level (L22) had become visible in places. Inside the shed, enclosed by walls F7 and F9, a thin soil layer, L21, sealed L35. Within the limits of this small building there was little period 3 demolition debris. However, pit F22, which was cut from L21 and was about 0.4m deep with sloping sides, contained, and was sealed by, quantities of roofing debris. To the south-east of wall F7 and partly sealing the remains of the period 3 wall, F20, was a layer of soil (L21A) similar to L21, but with some flecks of limestone.

It would seem that the period 4 shed had similar problems to its larger predecessor. Three slots, F10, F11 and F60, which were cut into the rubble level L23 and into the top of the surviving footings of wall F20 to the south-east of F7, were probably dug for timber buttressing. A small posthole, F59, within the rubble of buttress F6, on the north-eastern side of the approach road, may also be associated with repair work.

The final collapse and demolition of the period 4 buildings, together with the various later disturbances to the site, all of which are considered to be of post-Dissolution date, are described as period 5.

DATING

The only available evidence for the date of construction of the period 4 buildings is the date of the ridge tiles used in these structures and found in the final demolition debris of period 5. None of the other finds from period 4 are closely dateable, and most of the upper layers were contaminated with later material. The coin found in the period 3 occupation layer, L22 (p. 49) suggests that the original barn continued in use until towards the end of the 14th century. The roof tiles used in the replacement buildings are of late 15th or early 16th-century date, so that it may well be that the original building stood in ruins for most of the 15th century. The wide variation in design of the ridge tiles used during periods 3 and 4 indicates either that repair was a relatively common event or possibly that some second-hand building materials were used.

There is little pottery from the site, so the ceramic roofing material has had to play an important part in the dating. If material was reused in quantity from other sites, then the suggested date ranges for periods 3 and 4 could be incorrect. The suggested date of 1500 for the period 4 rebuild is mainly based on the roof tile evidence, and assumes that the substantial amount of tile of this date was new at the rebuilding. There are few finds from periods 3, 4, and 5 which can be used to provide reliable dating assessments and, although the sequence of events would appear to be correct, the dates of construction of the two buildings and their total life-span must remain in some considerable doubt.

INVENTORY

Illustrated ridge tile

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L8	C	87	Fig. 48.5*
L23	C	87	Fig. 48.5*
F3	A	87	Fig. 47.1
	B	87	Fig. 47.4

*joining sherds

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F3	Bristol ware:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.31

Iron objects

F3	Horseshoe fragment	142	Fig. 70.3
F22	Knife handle	142	Fig. 70.1

DISCUSSION

The demolition of the eastern part of the period 3 barn down to and including its foundations would have left the rear boundary wall standing, together with part of wall F28 to the north and probably a wall of equivalent length (just outside the area excavated) to the south-west.

The shed erected in the south-western corner of the disused barn was apparently quite small. If the postulated south-western wall of the barn was reused, then the shed would have been only 4m wide and 8m long. Accepting that the large stone, F36, represented a threshold repaving a worn area, then the doorway would have been central in wall F7. The door which filled this opening could have been supported by a jamb in posthole F57. The entry into this shed would have been across the top of the remains of wall F20 and the levelled debris of the barn. There is no indication of the use of this shed, but pit F22, which occupied a substantial part of the interior, suggests that it was not solely for storage.

It would seem from the position of the two timber slots, F10 and F11, that the corner of the shed was probably causing some problems and that shoring was needed, so a stone buttress on the opposite angle, represented by F8, is a possibility. The positions of F10 and F11 suggest that there was some movement in the base of the wall, or possibly a bulge, rather than that the wall was leaning. Had the latter been the case, one would perhaps have expected to find postholes rather than sleeper-beams.

North-east of the small shed the demolition had left an open yard bounded by walls F9, F23 and the remains of wall F28. Wall F8, which continued the line of F7, may have acted as a buttress to the shed, but it is feasible that a slight stone wall joined F7 to F28 at one stage in the rebuild although no other traces were found. However, the line of posts F56, F4 and F49 across the open end of this area suggests that it may have been roofed, with an open front to the south east and a realigned entry, and with F18 and F58 as the approach road.

This arrangement of small shed and open-fronted building lying within the shell of the disused but formerly grand monastic barn indicates an upsurge in the monastic fortunes but with a different emphasis. There would not appear to have been the same need for a large, secure storage area, as was the case in the 13th century, and so the refurbished building was apparently used as a stable.

Period 5 — Final demolition: the post-Dissolution use of the site

The various stages of the collapse and demolition of the period 4 buildings were not elucidated. This was due in part to the removal of building materials from the site after demolition and in part to the disturbance caused by the drainage and levelling operations associated with the final use of the site as a cattle market.

DESCRIPTION Fig. 17

The floor levels associated with the occupation of period 4 were complex, including much crushed debris from the period 3 demolition. Attempts were made to arrange in a logical series the various layers, patches, and piles of demolition debris, but the lack of any well-laid floor or any build-up during the occupation of period 4 meant that the debris from the two demolitions had become inextricably mixed.

Complex layers of debris were identified over the whole of the site during the initial stages of the excavation. As the work continued it was realized that these individual contexts were the result of collapse, demolition, stone robbing from walls, some digging of pits and eventual levelling when the site became a market garden. These individual contexts were contaminated with 17th and 18th-century material to such an extent that it was impossible to establish a logical sequence. In this report all the layers which contained a high proportion of 15th and 16th-century roofing material are collectively described as L10. This formed a thick layer over the southern part of the site where it sealed the footings of F7 and F9, but was only a thin, sporadic layer over the remainder of the site. The various soils which overlay the roofing material and rubble are grouped together as L1. These soil layers were mainly removed by machine (Fig. 26).

There were several features which were sealed by, or contained, debris from the final demolition but which were apparently not associated with the use of the building (Fig. 17). Pit F21 filled the southern corner of the site, and a large depression, F63, cut across the

period 3 and 4 roadway. Apart from two minor disturbances, F14 and F15, inside the main building area, the only other features which damaged the pre-Dissolution occupation levels were in the northern part of the site and of 18th and 19th-century date. The north-western part of wall F28 and the northern part of the boundary wall F23 were both robbed out in the early Victorian period, probably to accommodate a cesspit. Wall F23 was replaced at a higher level by a new boundary wall (Fig. 24), and this survived, with many replacements and patchings, until it was demolished in 1972. There were also several pits in the northern area, all of late 18th and early 19th-century date. North of wall F28 the ground was disturbed during the Victorian period down to the level of the natural yellow clay of the site (Fig. 21, section B–B').

DATING

There was no evidence to indicate when the period 4 buildings were demolished or if they were allowed to fall into ruin at some time after the Dissolution.

INVENTORY

Illustrated ridge tile

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L10	A	87	Fig. 47.2, 3
	B	87	Fig. 47.5, 6
	Db	89	Fig. 48.7
	Dc	89	Fig. 48.9
	Eb	91	Fig. 49.2
	Ec	91	Fig. 49.3, 5
	Ee	91	Fig. 49.7
L20	Ea	91	Fig. 49.1*
F21	Ea	91	Fig. 49.1*

*Joining sherds

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L10	Local wares:	Ha.2	99	Fig. 52.1*
		Ha. 3	99	Fig. 52.8
		Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.19, 27
		He	101	Fig. 53.5
	Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.2
		Ka	109	Fig. 55.2, 3
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.37, 43
F24	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.17

*Fig. 52.1 consists of joining sherds from L10 and from Site 6, period 2c, L4

Iron objects

L10	Hinge pin	142	Fig. 70.2
L10	Broken nail	146	Fig. 71.1
L10	Nail	146	Fig. 71.5

Copper Alloy objects

L10	Shoe lace tag	148	Fig. 72.6

DISCUSSION

It is most probable that the shed and open barn of period 4 would have been demolished by the middle of the 16th century together with the other monastic buildings (p. 10), although the property boundary wall probably remained. There is no indication of any building at this point in 1686 (Fig. 4), but the boundary wall is shown.

The cesspit and other pits in the northern part of the site were probably associated with Pillingers' Nursery.

INVENTORY OF UNSTRATIFIED FINDS

Carved stone

—	Cylindrical column	83	Fig. 46.3

Illustrated pottery

FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
Local wares:	Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.23, 24
	Ht	104	Fig. 53.25
Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.6, 10
	Kb	111	Fig. 55.16
	Ke	114	Fig. 57.36
Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.7

Clay pipe

141	Fig. 68.4–6	

SITE 10
(Fig. 7)

Site 10 was the area to the north of Site 1 which had comprised a small market garden between the Nelson Street houses and the cattle market. One trench was excavated in this area, mainly by machine, in an attempt to find continuations of the period 2 ditches (F53 and F32) and the boundary wall of periods 3 and 4 (F23) on Site 1 (Fig. 17). The excavation was inconclusive as most of the centre of the trench contained a large, late 13th century or later pit, over 2m in diameter and cut over 1m deep into the natural subsoil of the site. There was no trace of a later wall continuing across this pit, but it may be that the boundary line was slightly to the east of the area excavated.

INVENTORY

All finds are considered to be unstratified due to the uncertainties of the machine excavation.

Illustrated pottery

FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
Local wares:	Ha.1	96	Fig. 51.40
Bristol wares:	Kb	110	Fig. 56.7
	Ke	113	Fig. 57.51

SITE 5
(Fig. 7)

Site 5 was the area to the east and south-east of Site 1 which was bounded by tarmac roads belonging to the cattle market. The site sloped upwards quite steeply towards the south and was approximately 20m by 60m in area. It was examined by machine-cut trenches.

The area had been considerably disturbed by drainage and water pipe trenches serving the cattle pens, but the undisturbed natural clay was exposed almost at the surface at the south-western corner of the area. The central part of the site contained a creamy-buff layer, almost devoid of pottery, which lay underneath the cattle market level. This was interpreted as a cultivation layer lying on top of the undisturbed natural clay.

Slight traces of a roughly laid rubble layer running generally east–west were noted in the northern part of the site. This contained the only pottery and finds. It was probably the continuation of the trackway found on Site 1, leading from the entrance of the monastic barn and curving gradually to the east. The site was not investigated in detail.

INVENTORY

Coin

Unstratified	Irish Halfpenny of George I (1723)	150	Inventory no. 6

SITE 11:
The Priory

Introduction

The conventual buildings of Chepstow Priory were reputed to have been on the southern side of the 11th-century church, but the extent and the degree of preservation of the remains were completely unknown. It has already been indicated that these buildings were probably demolished shortly after the Dissolution by order of the king (p. 10) and the subsequent history of the area can now be considered.

The nave of the priory church had always been used as the parish church and because of this it was not destroyed at the Dissolution. It has been suggested that the parish cemetery was some distance from the church, just outside the Town Gate (Waters 1975, 178), and that the burial ground close to the priory church was probably reserved for monastic burials. As the conventual buildings were to the south of the church, the most likely area of monastic burial would have been to the east. After the Dissolution, the distant cemetery was probably abandoned and burial close to the parish church may have become the custom. With the demolition of the conventual buildings an area to the south of the church could have been made available for this purpose in addition to the area already in use on the east. Millerd's plan of 1686 (Fig. 4) shows a boundary to the south of the church and it is presumed that this is the boundary wall of the churchyard which exists to the present day. This is not apparent on Coxe's plan of 1801 (Fig. 5), but Coxe does not show the lane which is known to have run outside this wall since the early 19th century, so it may be assumed that the boundary was present in his day.

The main part of the present churchyard, which is to the north of the church, separated into two parts by the churchyard walk, is also shown on Millerd's plan. However it remained a popular belief, until perhaps the 19th century, that the northern part of the churchyard was more suited for the burial of strangers, paupers, unbaptized infants, those who had died a violent death and, in particular, suicides (Burgess 1963, 25). It would thus appear likely that the first post-Dissolution burials were to the south and east of the church, the area to the north possibly being used for games and social purposes, as frequently occurred.

To the south of the graveyard is the lane called The Priory and at its western end was one of the three parish pumps (Waters 1975, 86). The buildings shown to the south of the church on Millerd's plan were apparently some distance from the corner of The Priory and Nelson Street, but by 1801 there had been further development (Fig. 5). This included an enclosed courtyard and large cellar which probably belonged to Buckle and Multow, wine importers (Waters 1975, 86) and, further to the east, a row of houses. By 1851 there were fifteen houses along The Priory (*op. cit.*) but by 1972 the number had been reduced to seven (for details of the cottages see Fig. 43), although the courtyard and its surrounding buildings still remained as Gallagher's civil engineering works.

All the buildings fronting The Priory were demolished early in 1973. The long cellar which ran underneath the western wing of the courtyard was examined before and during the demolition, when it was seen to be brick-lined. This may have been carried out during one of the many rebuilding periods of this complex works, probably when it was used as a wine cellar. The earliest reference to a wine cellar in this location is in the 17th century (*op. cit.*) but, although it may have been built at that date, it is perhaps more likely that a pre-existing monastic cellar was cleared and reused. However, apart from its position, there is no firm evidence to indicate that the cellar was associated with the monastic establishment.

The area available for archaeological examination was bounded on the west by the cellar described above and on the north by The Priory. To the east was one of the tarmac roads that had given access to the cattle market and to the south the ground sloped steeply upwards towards Site 1.

The area was first examined by a series of trenches cut by machine to establish which parts were suitable for area excavation. These trial excavations indicated that the area between the cellar and the cattle market road, running south from The Priory for about 10m, would be the most profitable. This area was some 45m in length parallel to and south of The Priory. To resolve individual problems the area was later increased by two extensions to the south and three very small trenches were positioned in the churchyard between The Priory and the church. The excavation lasted, with several breaks, for some four months during the winter of 1973–74.

A machine was used to remove the demolition debris and the floor levels associated with the engineering works and the terraced houses. This clearance exposed layers of debris which were apparently associated with the demolition of the conventual buildings of the priory, and two compactly filled cellars belonging to the Victorian terraced houses. The cellars, which cut through the occupation levels associated with the priory, were strongly constructed and it was decided to leave them upstanding (Fig. 29). Although removal would have exposed the surrounding stratification, it could

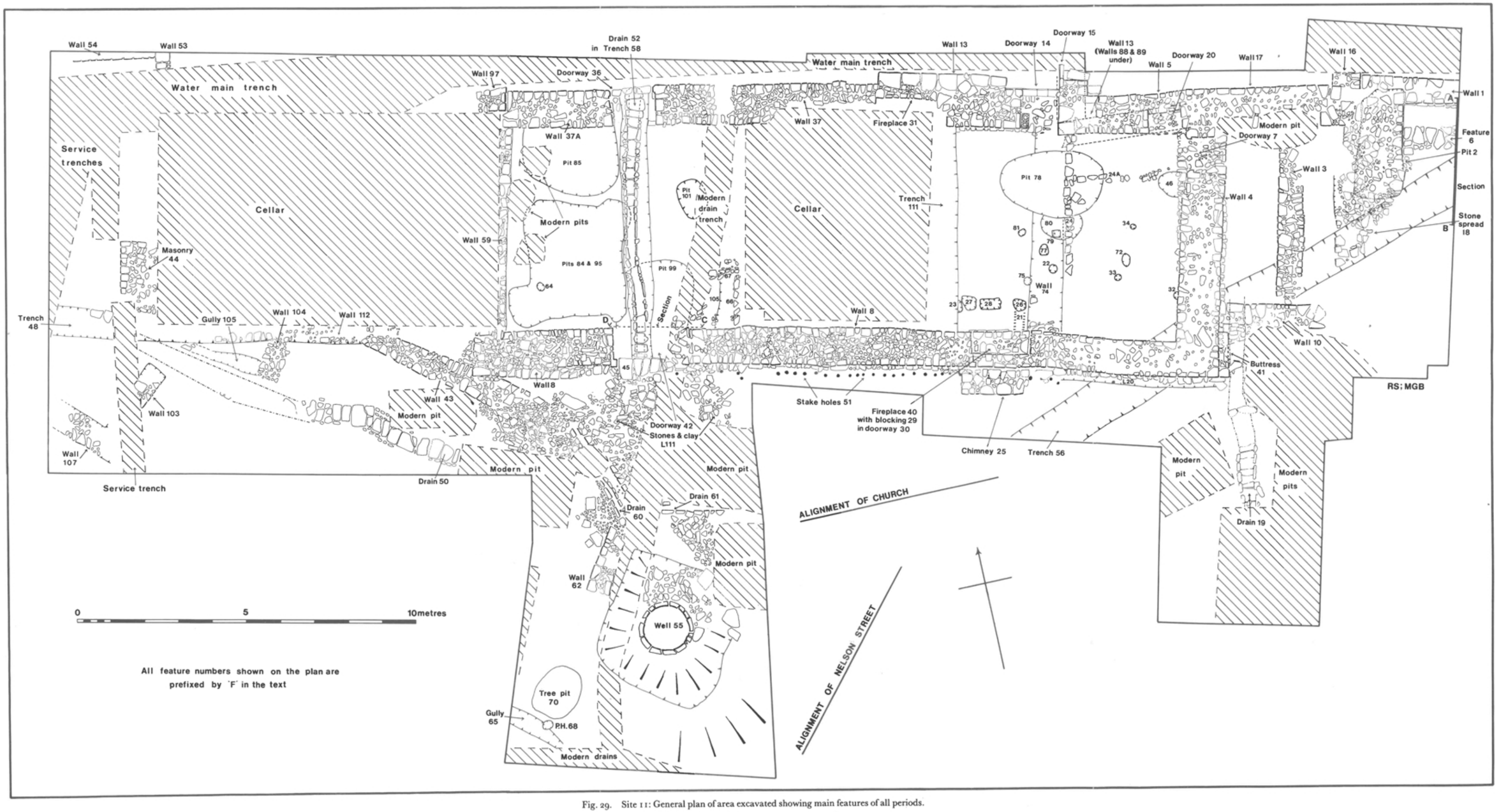

Fig. 29. Site 11: General plan of area excavated showing main features of all periods.

only have been done by hand which would have been expensive in terms of both time and labour on this limited budget excavation. As it was they provided 'islands' in the middle of the site which were used both for spoil disposal and as photographic platforms.

When the excavation commenced it was hoped that some of the remains would be suitable for preservation as archaeological features in the proposed landscaping scheme for the area. As a result the monastic walls were not removed but were left *in situ* and, when a decision was finally made not to display them, they were re-buried without any additional examination.

The stratified deposits in several parts of the site could not be fully examined for technical reasons: a live water main followed the northern edge of the excavation and had to be permanently supported (Fig. 29); the pipe and its supports completely obscured the north section and also sealed the occupation levels in this area; the southern parts of the site were subject to regular flooding from the higher ground to the south and could not be fully examined in the time available. Further, the trenches in the churchyard were only of sufficient size to allow the tops of the surviving monastic walls to be exposed and planned.

The damage caused to the archaeological levels by the Victorian cellars and the technical problems mentioned above mean that the results of the excavation can be interpreted in several different ways. These are dealt with at the appropriate points in the following report. The period plans show what are considered to be the most likely interpretations based both on the stratigraphy and on the dating of the finds.

Recording System

Contexts are indexed in two separate lists of layers and features, and the finds correlated with each.

Layers: L1–L152

Features: F1–F112

Several context numbers have been combined in the following report; the full list is deposited with the archive.

Levels shown on the detailed plans are spot heights on layers and upstanding features and record the maximum depth of features cut into the subsoil.

Summary of Chronology and Periods

Period	0	Pre-monastic occupation	
Period	1a	Ditch F56	Late 11th century
	1b	Features aligned with church	Early 12th century
	1c	Features aligned with Nelson Street	Early 12th century
Period	2	Extensions to east range and construction of west range of buildings	12th to early 13th centuries
Period	3a	Construction of south range (frater)	First half of the 13th century
	3b	Alterations to frater and addition of reredorter	Late 14th to early 15th centuries
	3c	Alterations and additions to frater and west wing	Mid 15th to early 16th centuries
Period	4	Demolition of monastic buildings and later disturbances	Mid 16th century onwards

Period 0 — Pre-Monastic Occupation

There were no identifiable Roman levels on Site 11, but, as over 70% of the area was disturbed during the later periods and the remaining 30% consisted of small scattered parts of the site, the evidence cannot be considered conclusive. There were only a few finds of Roman pottery but tile was more common.

The distribution of tiles by period according to sherd count may help to account for its presence on the site.

PERIOD	SHERD COUNT OF ROMAN TILE AND BRICK
1a, b, and c	28
2	2
3a	11
3b	0
3c	1

The majority of the Roman material found in the period 1 contexts was in the eastern part of the area examined (L142, 15 sherds; F56, 4 sherds; L93, 4 sherds; L8, 4 sherds), but in period 3a the Roman material was entirely in the make-up and floor levels of the central area (L99, L107 and L133). The possible significance of this distribution is considered in Part Four where the evidence for Roman occupation of the Chepstow area is reassessed (p. 156).

Period 1 — The first stage of monastic occupation (Fig. 30)

The earliest occupation levels on Site 11 were so disturbed by later features that it was impossible to relate the various parts of the site by direct stratigraphical methods. It is evident, however, that several buildings were present and that these and the various other features on the site can all be dated to the late 11th and early 12th centuries.

For simplicity, the period 1 features are described in the three separate groups (Fig. 30): period 1a includes ditch F56, which crossed the eastern part of the site from north-east to south-west, and its associated layers; period 1b consists of walls which were aligned with the church and other features which are assumed to have had a monastic origin; period 1c includes features which were aligned with Nelson Street and may thus have been of a secular nature.

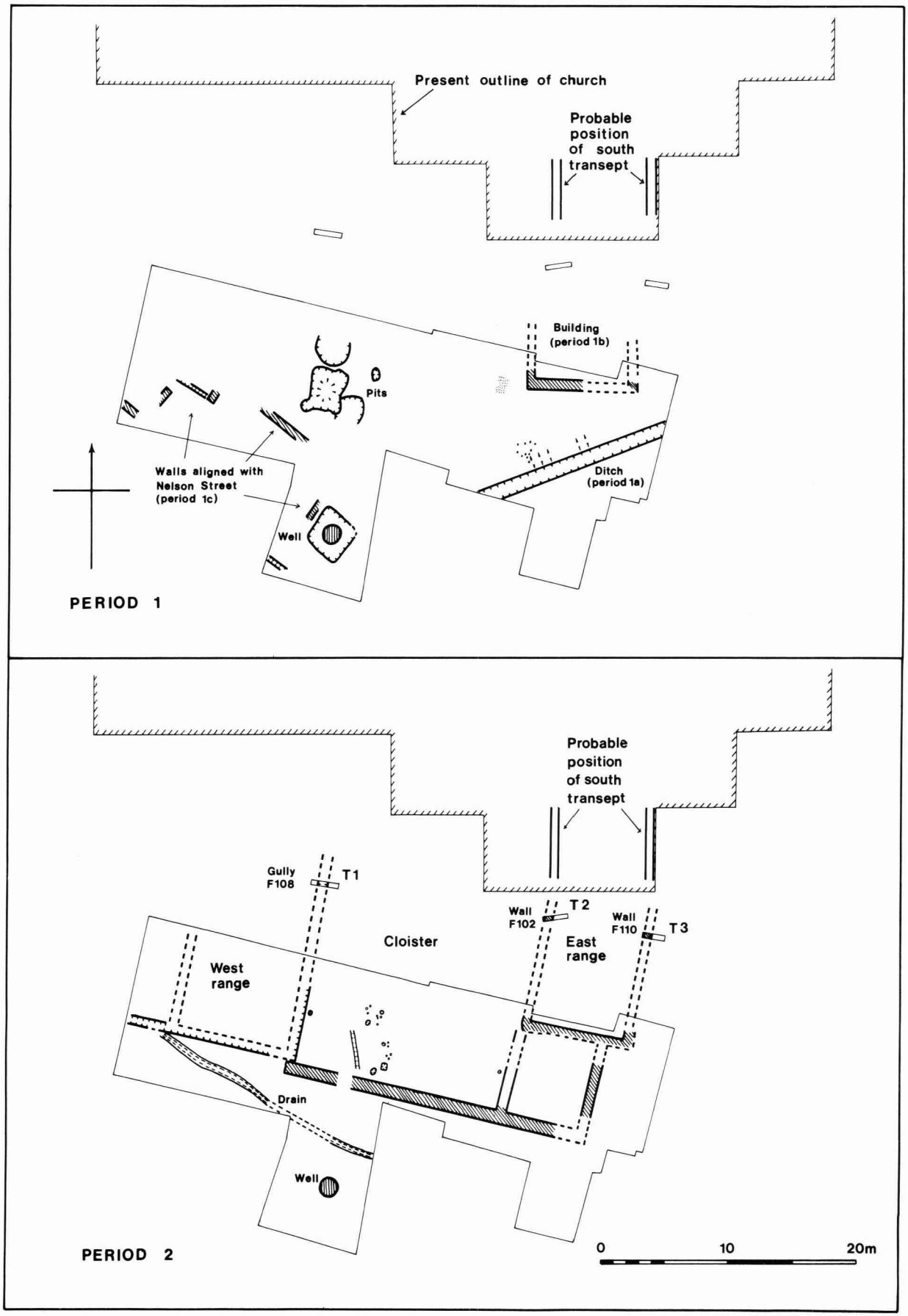

Fig. 30. Site 11: Periods 1 and 2. Relationships of features. For details of period 1 see Figs 31, 32 and 34 and for period 2 see Figs 36 and 37.

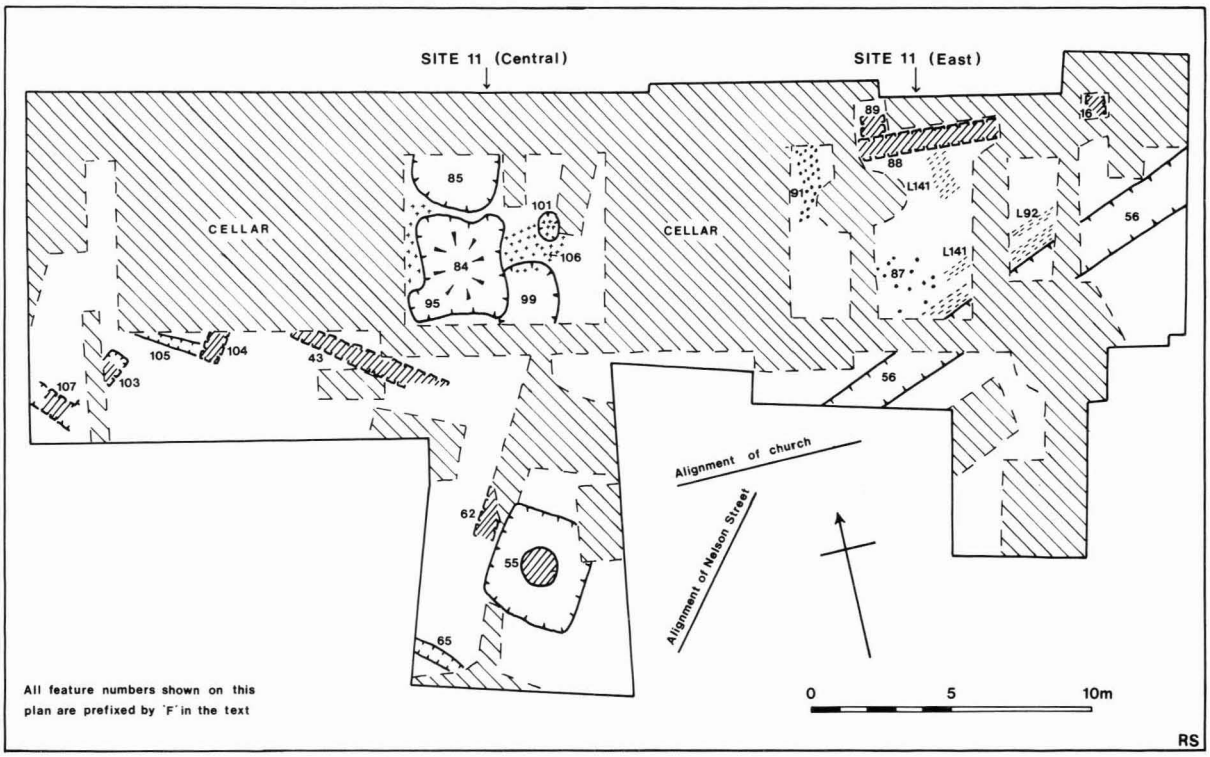

Fig. 31. Site 11: Period 1 showing main features. For details see Fig. 32 for east area and Fig. 34 for central area.

Fig. 31 shows the relationship of all the main features assigned to period 1, and the east and central areas are shown in more detail in Figs. 32 and 34.

DESCRIPTION

Period 1a (Fig. 32)

Ditch F56 ran across the eastern part of the site approximately from north-east to south-west. It was cut into the subsoil, and neither extremity was established. The material dug from the ditch was apparently thrown on the north-western side where slight traces of it remained.

The ditch was 1.3m wide and at least 0.7m deep with sloping sides and a flat bottom (Fig. 33 and Pl. 7). It sloped downwards from south-west to north-east. The lowest part of the fill, L87, which contained the only pottery from the ditch, consisted of a silty brown soil with some small stones and pebbles and had a tendency to slope upwards towards the north side. Above this was a more clayey layer (L84) similar to the subsoil of the site, which had a concentration of charcoal (L83) sealing it. The upper fill (L82) was a mixture of loamy red clay and brown silt. To the south of the ditch, layers L8 and L79 lay directly on the undisturbed subsoil of the site (Fig. 32). They consisted of a dark, brown, silty earth which contained occasional sherds of pottery and animal bones. These layers appeared to seal ditch F56 (Fig. 33) but this was probably a result of later cultivation which may also have removed some of the uppermost levels of the ditch fill. To the north of the ditch, the equivalent levels to L8 and L79 were L93 and L142, both of which were sealed by later floor levels. Partially overlaying L93 and L142, and within the area preserved by the later building floors, were two similar layers, L92 and L141, which were parallel and adjacent to the edge of the ditch. They both contained some red clay and were thought to represent the up-cast from digging the ditch. There was a break in both L141 and L92 perhaps representing an unidentified feature running parallel to the ditch.

Layers L93 and L142 occupied the whole of the area between the ditch and wall F88 of period 1b (Fig. 32). A series of small stakeholes, F87, was found in the surface of L142, and above it in the area close to wall F88 was a small area of material similar to L141 and not differentiated at the time of excavation. It could, however, have been upcast from the foundation trench for wall F88.

Period 1b

The earliest stonework in the eastern part of Site 11 was aligned with the present axis of the priory church (Fig. 30). It consisted of the foundations of an east–west wall, F88, with two fragmentary foundations, F89 and F16, at right angles to it (Fig. 32). The latter were both badly disturbed by the modern water main which ran along the northern side of the site. All three made use of a red, sandy mortar and were only present for the lowest one or two courses of the foundations. The corner of F88 and F89 was disturbed by a later feature but it was evident that F89 abutted F88 and that the two were not bonded together. To the east, F88 had been totally removed when the foundations of the period 2 wall F17 were inserted but it is assumed that F16, which contained a similar mortar to F88 and F89, was the

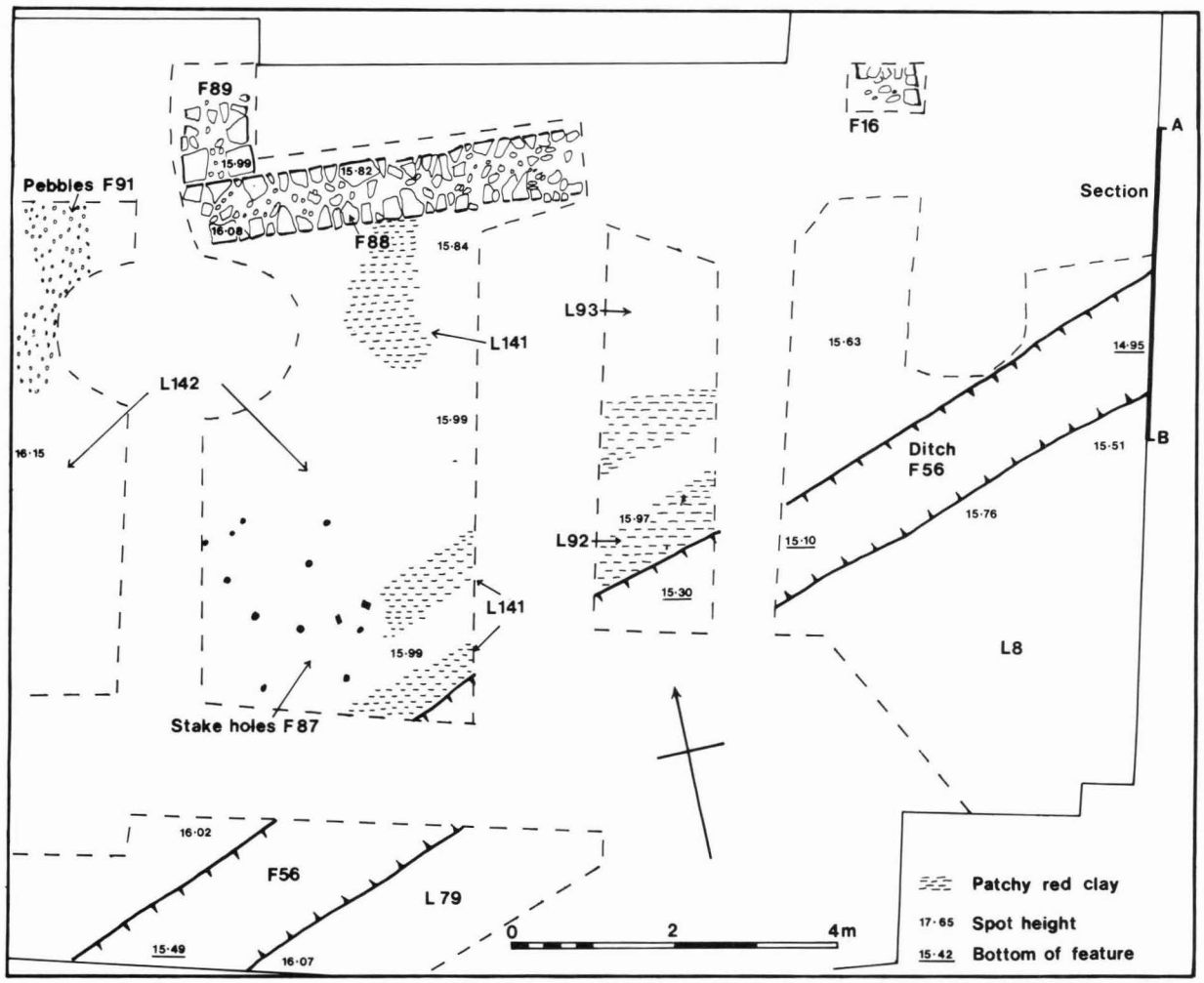

Fig. 32. Site 11 (east): Period 1. For relationship with whole site see Fig. 31. For section A–B see Fig. 33.

eastern return of a building lying mainly to the north of the excavated area. There were no surviving internal layers associated with this building and the external layers to the south have been described as part of period 1a. However, outside the south-western corner of the building, running parallel to wall F89 and lying partly above layer L142, was an area of rough metalling (F91) consisting of small, packed pebbles. The foundations of all three walls of period 1 were reused for the period 2 buildings.

The central part of the site between the two cellars (Figs 31 and 34) contained a complex series of pits which had no obvious relationship to any other feature on the site. However, two of the pits, F85 and F99, were sealed by walls of the period 3 building, and all were covered by complex layers which contained 12th-century pottery. The pits were cut from the top of the undisturbed subsoil, but subsequent erosion of the edges and subsidence of the fills made interpretation difficult.

Pit F99 was partly underneath the period 3 wall F8 (Fig. 29) so that only the northern half of the pit could be examined. The excavation had eventually to be abandoned at a depth of 2.5m because of the danger of collapse (Fig. 35). The fill was of mixed patches of clay, similar to the natural of the site, and although it was very clean it contained occasional sherds of pottery. The upper part of the fill of the pit had been removed and replaced with stone to provide a foundation for the period 3 wall, F8.

F99 was cut on the west by pit F84/F95, a large irregular-shaped hole which again could not be fully excavated. The whole feature was about 2.7m by 3.2m with irregular extensions at the corners which may have contained vertical wooden posts. The pit had steep sides against which was a brown soil with some clay patches and a few sherds of pottery. The central part, which was circular with almost vertical sides and about 1.5m in diameter, contained a clean uncompacted clay similar to the surrounding natural. It was over 1.75m deep.

A small pit, F101, approximately 1m in diameter and 1m deep had a similar fill to F99.

In the north-western corner of the central area, pit F85 continued underneath the period 3 wall F37, and therefore could not be fully excavated. The part examined was about 0.5m deep and 3m across and contained a similar fill to F95 with a few sherds of pottery. The upper part of the fill of F85 had been replaced with stone as a foundation for the period 3 wall (F37) in a similar manner to that in F99.

A complex series of layers covered the central area including the pits. These layers, which may have been patchy and fragmentary when laid, tended to sink into the tops of the pits and were cut by several later features to such an extent that their original character could not be established. Most of them are described as part of

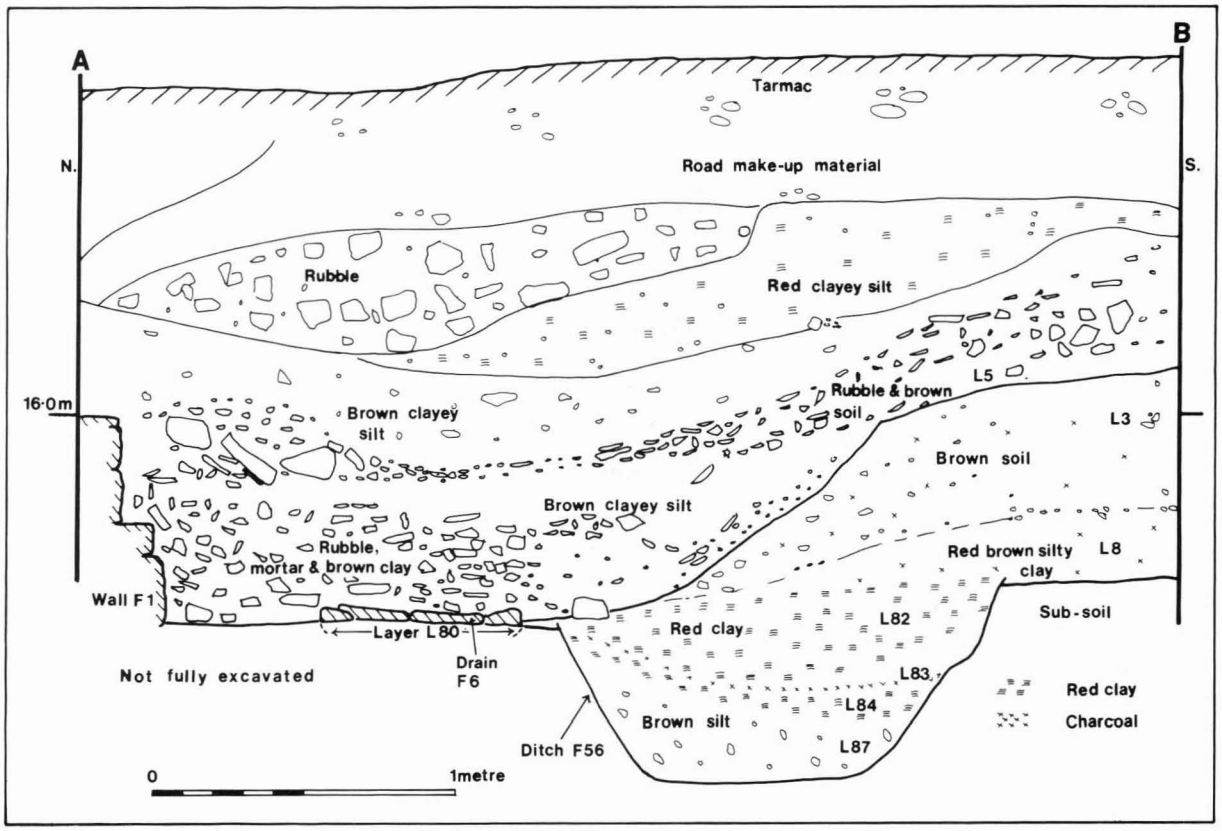

Fig. 33. Site 11: Section A–B. For position of section see Fig. 29 and individual period plans of east part of site.

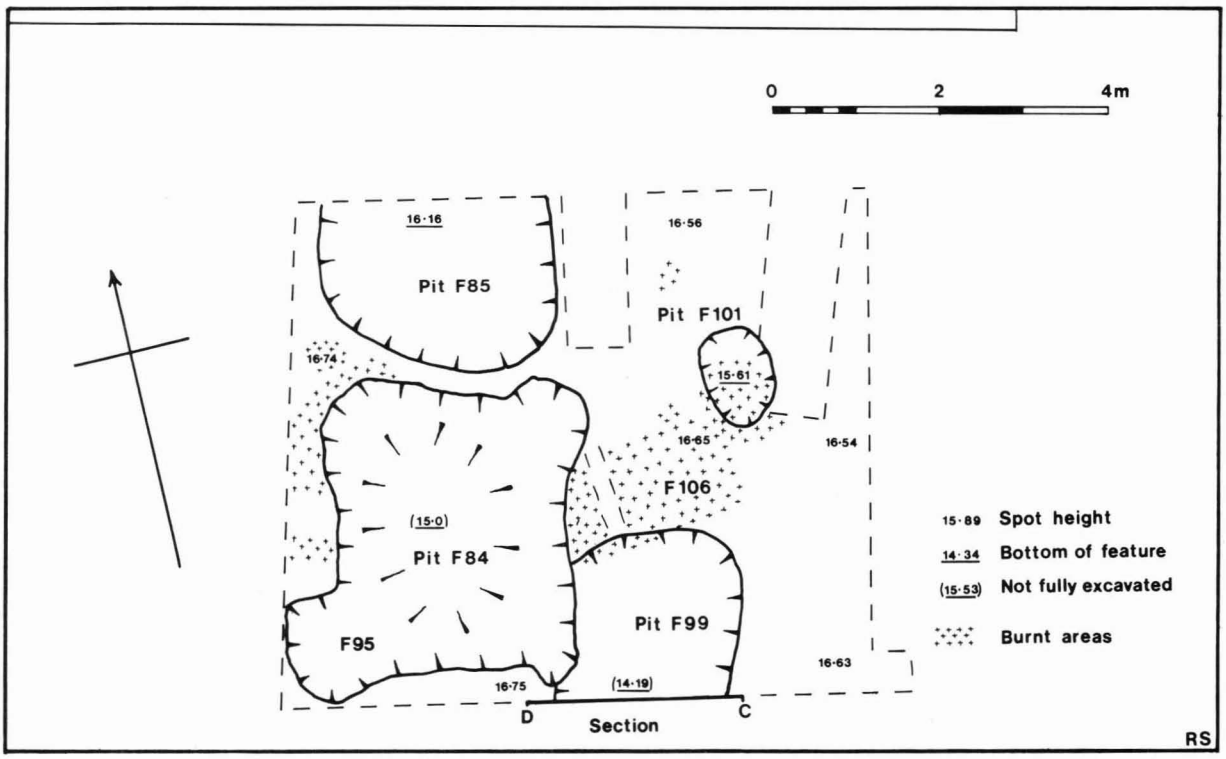

Fig. 34. Site 11 (central): Period 1b. For relationship with whole site see Fig. 31. For section C–D see Fig. 35.

period 2, but the lowest layer, F106, is considered to be part of period 1. This layer covered the subsoil surrounding the pits and consisted of burnt material including small quantities of ash. The burning continued into the upper fills of pits F99, F101 and F85, but F84/F95 apparently cut through it.

Period 1c (Fig. 30)

The remaining early features of Site 11 were all either parallel or at right angles to the line of Nelson Street and occupied the south-western part of the area examined.

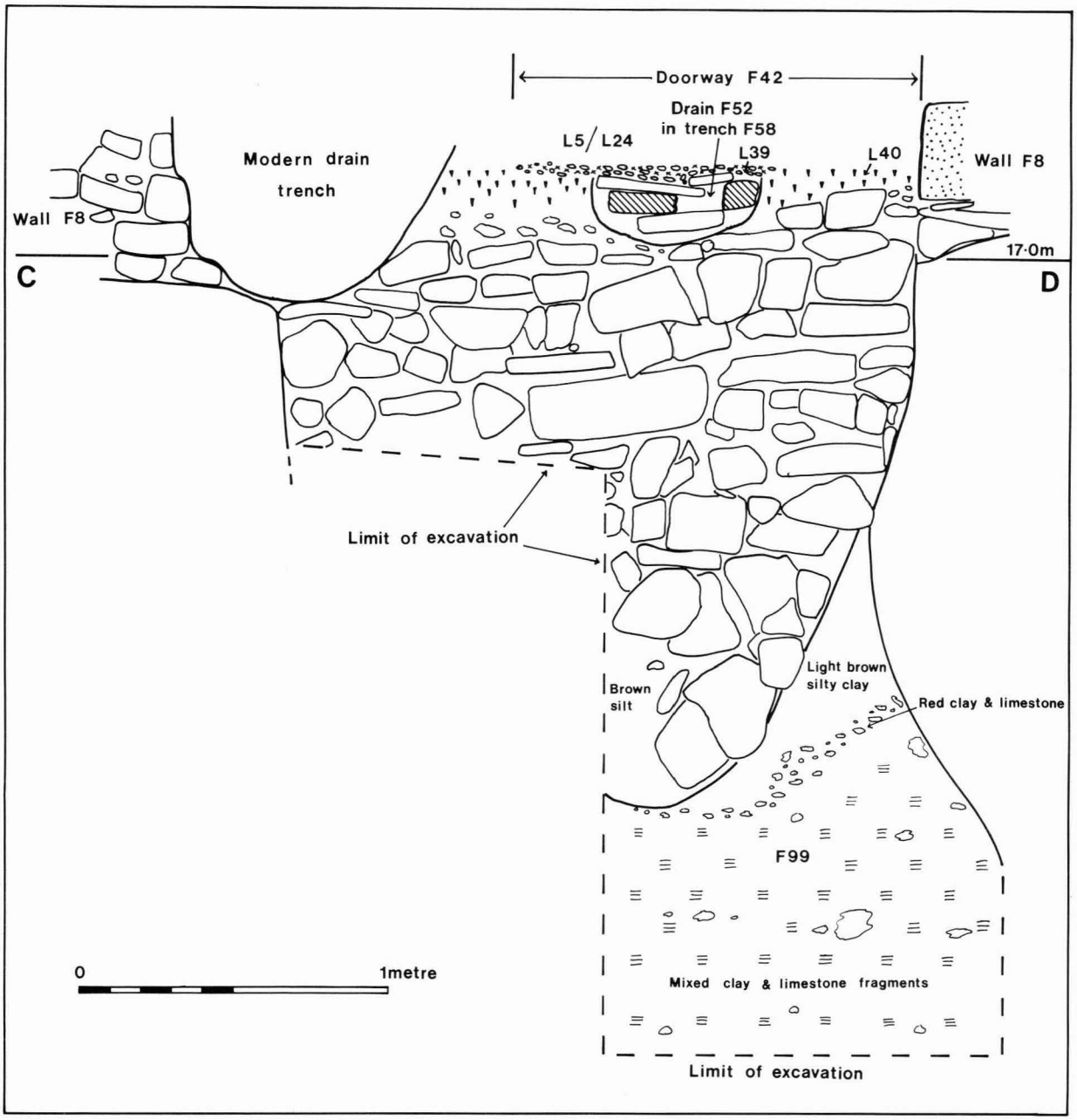

Fig. 35. Site 11: Section C–D through Pit F99. For position of section see Fig. 29 and individual period plans of central part of site.

Near the western end of the site the fragmentary remains of several walls were apparent either as the lowest courses of foundations or as shallow robber trenches cut into the subsoil. There were no associated ground levels and the surviving remains were only related to each other because of their common alignments (Fig. 31).

Wall F43, some 6m long and in places almost 1m wide, ran at right angles to the line of Nelson Street. It was cut to the north-west by wall F112 of period 2 and to the south-east by metalling L111 and drain F60 of period 3 (Fig. 29). F62, which existed in fragments within the metalling L111 may represent its return. A parallel wall to F43 may be represented by F65 in the extreme southern part of the area excavated. F65 was considered at the time of excavation to be a small gully cut into the subsoil but it could have been a robber trench. It was about 8m from F43. At the western end of the site were several fragments of walls and traces of robber trenches. F103 and F104 were approximately parallel to the Nelson Street line, and F105 and F107 were approximately at right-angles. The remains were too fragmentary to establish any building pattern.

The well F55, in the main southern extension to the area excavated, could not be assigned to any specific period either on stratigraphical grounds or by means of associated finds. It is shown on the period 1 plan (Fig. 31) because the alignment of the square cut pit, within which it was constructed, is similar to that of the walls described as period 1c. The well pit was close to wall F62 and was approximately 3.8m square. The stone-lined well, which was inserted in the centre of this pit, was 1.3m in internal diameter. The stones, which survived up to the level of the surrounding undisturbed subsoil, consisted of sandstone blocks, each shaped for curvature. Each block was approximately 0.3m long, 0.2m deep and 0.2m in thickness. The well was filled with modern material down to the water table, which

was at 3.5m below the level of the subsoil. The surrounding pit was not excavated below the uppermost level of the masonry of the well.

DATING

The dating evidence for period 1 is based on the pottery and on the stratigraphical relationships between the period 1 structures and those of later date.

The pottery from ditch F56 and from the layers which seal it suggest that it was dug before the end of the 11th century and had become filled and partly sealed by L8 and L79 at some time during the late 11th or early 12th century. It is suggested, on less definite evidence as there were no surviving occupation levels, that the stone walls, F16, F88 and F89, were of 12th century or earlier date (Fig. 32).

The pits in the central area of the site were sealed by layers which contained 12th-century pottery, and similar material was found in the fills of F85, F95 and F99 (Fig. 31).

There is no evidence to indicate the date of construction of the features which were aligned with Nelson Street but the robber trenches contained early 13th-century material.

INVENTORY

Period 1a

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L92	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.29
L93	Bristol wares:	Kc	112	Fig. 57.3, 5, 11
L142	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.30, 50, 56

Period 1b

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
F99	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.10

DISCUSSION

The extent of the later disturbances was so great that it is impossible to give more than a general outline of the nature and extent of the buildings and other features on the site during the late 11th and early 12th centuries (Figs. 30 and 31).

Ditch F56 was probably the earliest feature and, when it is considered in association with the slight bank on its north-western side, may have been defensive, or at the very least a substantial property boundary. This suggestion is reinforced by the presence of the break in the upcast on the north-west. This break, which was apparent as a shallow gully, may have held a timber fence running parallel to the ditch (Fig. 32).

Ditch F56 was of similar shape, size and date to the Site 1, period 2 ditch, F53 (p. 43), which was also considered to be a boundary ditch. The slight slope of the bottom of the ditch down from south-west to north-east, which followed the contour of the ground, would also have allowed it to be used for drainage. The position and alignment would have enabled it to take excess surface water from the higher areas to the south of Site 11 around the eastern end of the church. There was no indication of F56 in the southern extension to the main excavation, but it may have been almost totally removed when well F55 was dug. The trial trenches in Site 9, to the south of Site 11, were in general too shallow to expose any continuation of F56.

The pottery found in the ditch was all from the lowest level of the fill, apparently a primary silt. The upper parts of the fill, with the exception of the thin layer of charcoal, were without finds and this may suggest that after the original activity on the site there was little further human action until after the ditch was filled, possibly deliberately, and the surrounding layers were cultivated. The stakeholes, F87, although just within the ditch line, need not be associated and could be earlier or later than the ditch. They represent a flimsy structure of uncertain use.

The eastern part of Site 11 contained the fragmentary stone footings of a building which probably continued towards the north from the edge of the site (Figs 30 and 31). The building, which from its position in association with the church, may have been a chapter house, was probably of two phases as there was no bond between F88 and F89. If the positions of F89 and F16 are accepted as representing the western and eastern walls of this building, then it would have been some 7.5m wide.

The pits in the central part of Site 11 have no obvious use although it may be suggested that F84 and F95 together could represent a timber-lined well which became disused and deliberately backfilled with clean material early in the 12th century. There was slight evidence for timbers in each corner of this complex pit and the central part, some 1.5m across, could have continued down to the water table. There was nothing to indicate that this central area was inside a building.

In the western part of the site the traces of buildings, of 12th century or earlier date, which were aligned with Nelson Street, cannot be explained in terms of the standard plan of a monastic settlement. This may indicate an early secular use of this part of the site, but the close proximity of the then newly-built priory church makes this somewhat unlikely. It can be suggested that the remains represent the earliest monastic dwellings, used whilst the church was being built, and that they

were demolished when funds were available to construct a more permanent and regular range of buildings.

The south-eastern wall, F62, was some 40m from Nelson Street, so it is unlikely that the buildings had any direct relationship to the street, but they are of great interest because they demonstrate that Nelson Street was of sufficient importance during the late 11th or early 12th century for it, rather than the monastic church, to have been the major influence on the alignment at this point. It is unfortunate that the excavation was not able to establish any other details of this complex apart from the alignment and a suggested building width of about 8m.

The well pit was aligned with the buildings discussed above and was dug very close to wall F62. If this wall was a constraint when the well was dug, then part of the building must have been standing at that time. However, it is possible that the relationship between the pit and the wall is entirely fortuitous and that the well could be of a later period.

The evidence from this earliest period of occupation on Site 11 is only sufficient to indicate that the late 11th and early 12th-century use of this area was not comparable, either in character or in stature, with the impressive priory church. It can only be suggested that accommodation, perhaps temporary in spite of the stone footings, was built close to and aligned with Nelson Street while the church was being built. The features of period 1a may indicate that the whole site was surrounded with a ditch and fence. It is not surprising to find traces of an eastern range for this would include the chapter house, second only to the church in importance. At this point construction apparently stopped, leaving the area which would have become the cloister open to the west and south. It is tempting to assign the abandonment of the project to 1071 when William Fitz Osbern died, or to 1074 when his son Roger had his estates confiscated, but the archaeological evidence does not allow such a degree of precise dating. The buildings aligned with Nelson Street apparently continued in use until some time in the 12th century when they were demolished to make way for the period 2 buildings on the west side of the cloister garth.

Period 2 — Extensions to the east range and construction of a west range

(Fig. 30)

The eastern range of the monastic buildings was rebuilt and extended to the south by one room, all on a new alignment. The buildings of period 1c were demolished and a western range was constructed probably about the same time, the two ranges being joined by a wall on the south to form a cloister. The remains of period 2 were only slightly less fragmentary than those of period 1 and

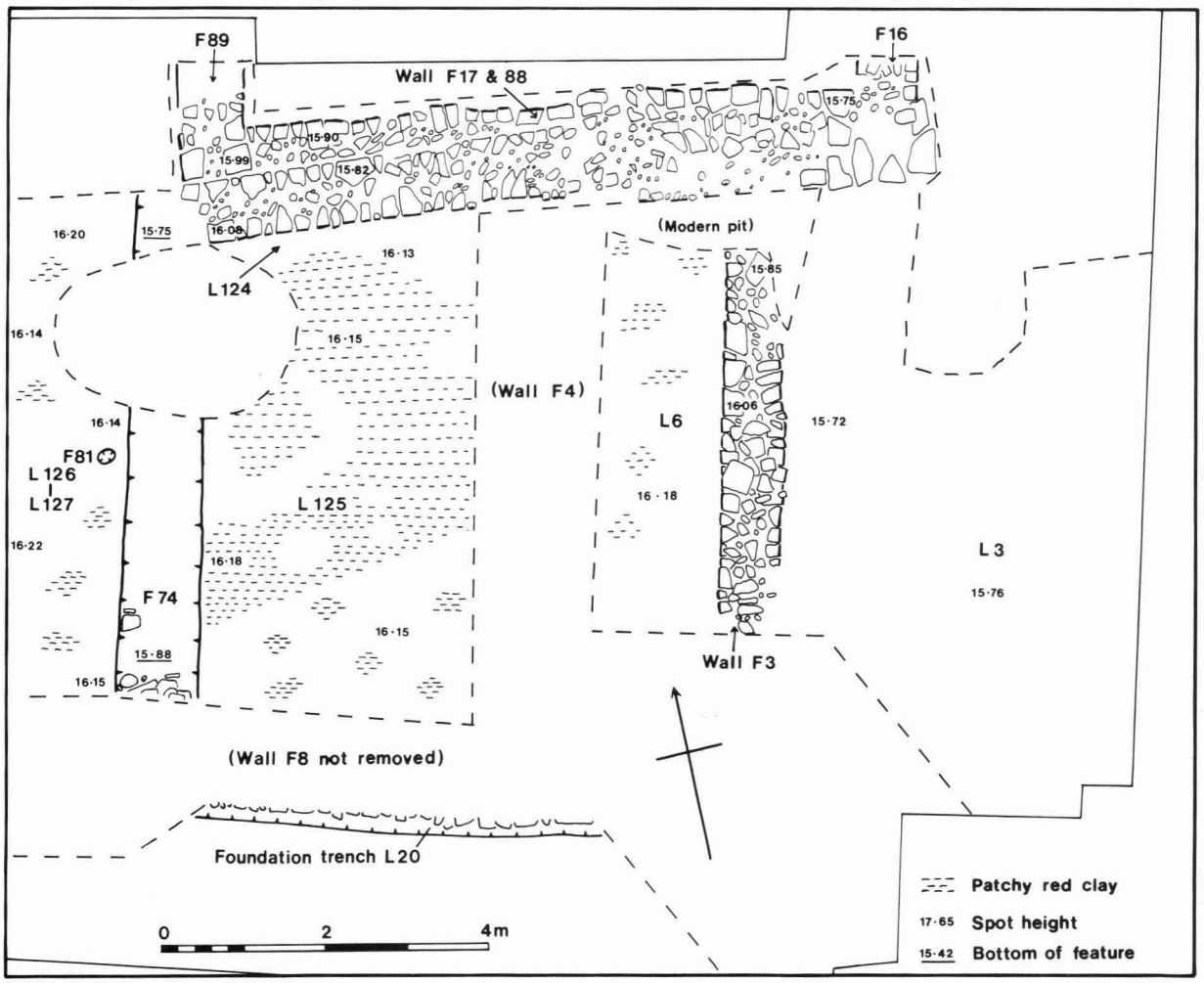

Fig. 36. Site 11 (east): Period 2.

are dated by the pottery found in the associated layers.

DESCRIPTION

In the eastern part of the site, the period 1b wall, F88, was demolished. To the east the foundations were completely removed, but to the west the lowest courses remained (Fig. 36). A new wall, F17, was built on a new alignment, being partly within the extended foundation trench of F88, and partly on top of the remaining part of F88. It was bonded with a buff, sandy mortar. Only the lowest courses remained and the outside face had completely disappeared. The foundations of the new wall abutted the fragmentary remains of the period 1b wall, F89, to the west, but to the east the junction with F16 had apparently been completely rebuilt.

There was no evidence to show that walls F89 and F16 were rebuilt to correspond with the new alignment, but exploratory trenches (T2 and T3) within the graveyard (Fig. 30) exposed the foundations of walls F102 and F110 in line with F89 and F16 and at right angles to the line of the new wall, F17. Trenches T2 and T3 were excavated only to the tops of the walls F102 and F110 and no dating evidence was obtained. It is therefore an assumption that these walls date to period 2 and correspond with the realignment of the southern wall of the east wing.

The internal width of the new building along wall F17 was 7.5m. The two walls F16 and F89 were approximately 0.8m wide and F17 was about 1.0m wide, although the foundations were wider where the lower courses of F88 had been reused. There was no surviving trace of any floor level within the building bounded by F17, F89 and F16.

At some time during period 2 a room appears to have been added to the south of wall F17, but as the junctions of the walls of this new room with those of the original range were disturbed by later features its precise relationship remains uncertain, although it followed the new alignment (Fig. 36). The eastern wall, F3, survived for a length of some 4.5m but was cut away by a modern pit at the north (Fig. 29) and by wall F10 of period 3b to the south (Pl. 8). It was 0.8m thick and was of dry-stone construction. Some 6.4m to the west and parallel to F3 a robber trench (F74) was found containing sandy soil and mortar. It was 0.9m wide and 0.3m deep below the assumed ground level. The trench was cut by pit F78 and the remainder sealed by L100, both of period 3a. To the north this trench approached the corner formed by F17 and F89 but no details of the junction survived. A few stones survived in the bottom of the southern end of the trench. The southern wall of this room could not be examined in detail as it apparently comprised the foundation courses of the period 3a wall F8 which was not removed. However, the foundation trench (L20) on the southern side of F8 was excavated, and it was observed that the foundations of this wall were on a slightly different alignment to the upper parts, suggesting a rebuild in period 3a. The foundation courses of F8, which were tied into the few stones surviving in the southern part of the robber trench F74, are therefore considered to date to period 2 and to represent the wall which joined F74 and F3 forming a room to the south of the postulated chapter-house. This additional room was about 6.4m wide and 7m long, being slightly narrower than the northern part of the east wing. The internal floor levels, which were cut by the period 3 wall F4, consisted of L125, a red clay mixed with some brown soil and flecked with charcoal to the west of F4; and L6, containing less clay, to the east. L125 and L6 continued in patches throughout the southern part of the room, sealing the period 1 ditch, F56.

To the east of wall F3, the period 1 layer, L8, was covered by a brown, loamy soil, L3, which was up to 0.8m thick (Fig. 33). To the west of F74, L127, a brown earth with yellow mortar fragments, sealed L142 and F91 of period 1. It contained one posthole, F81. This layer and the posthole were both sealed by L126, a patchy red clay (Fig. 36).

The central part of the site, between the two cellars, contained a complex series of layers which sealed the burnt layer F106 of period 1 (Figs 29 and 37). This area was considered to be within the monastic cloister throughout much of period 2 and thus external to the buildings. The layers tended to sink into the tops of the various period 1 pits and were further confused by the later replacement of parts of the fills of pits F84, F85 and F99 when the period 3 southern wing was built. The lowest layer, L144, which consisted of redeposited natural, had several thin, mixed levels above it (Fig. 37).

The western part of the site could only be examined around the edges of the cellar and the remains were insufficient to allow for full analysis and accurate dating (Figs 29 and 37). Walls belonging to the various periods of monastic occupation of the site were represented by robbed-out foundation trenches, partly destroyed by the cellar walls. There was no constructional dating evidence for what are considered to be the earliest period 2 walls, F59 and F112, but their relationship with the period 3 walls F8 and F37, and with the period 1 walls F43 and F104, are such that their inclusion within period 2 would seem to be logical (Fig. 29). Both these walls were almost totally robbed out but they are considered to represent part of the western wing of the period 2 cloister (Fig. 30).

The eastern wall, F59, was partly cut away by the east cellar. Only the lowest stones of the foundation courses survived, bonded with a sandy red mortar. The southern wall, F112, was in a similar condition; again a sandy red mortar was used and the wall was partly cut away by the cellar. F112 cut through the period 1 walls F43 and F104 (Fig. 29). The junction of walls F59 and F112 was partly destroyed by the cellar and partly obscured by the period 3 wall, F8, which was not removed. The robber trench for wall F59 was sealed by L101 of period 3c and it is assumed that the wall continued in use throughout periods 2, 3a and 3b. The robber trench for wall F112 was not sealed, but it is considered that it had a similar life span to wall F59.

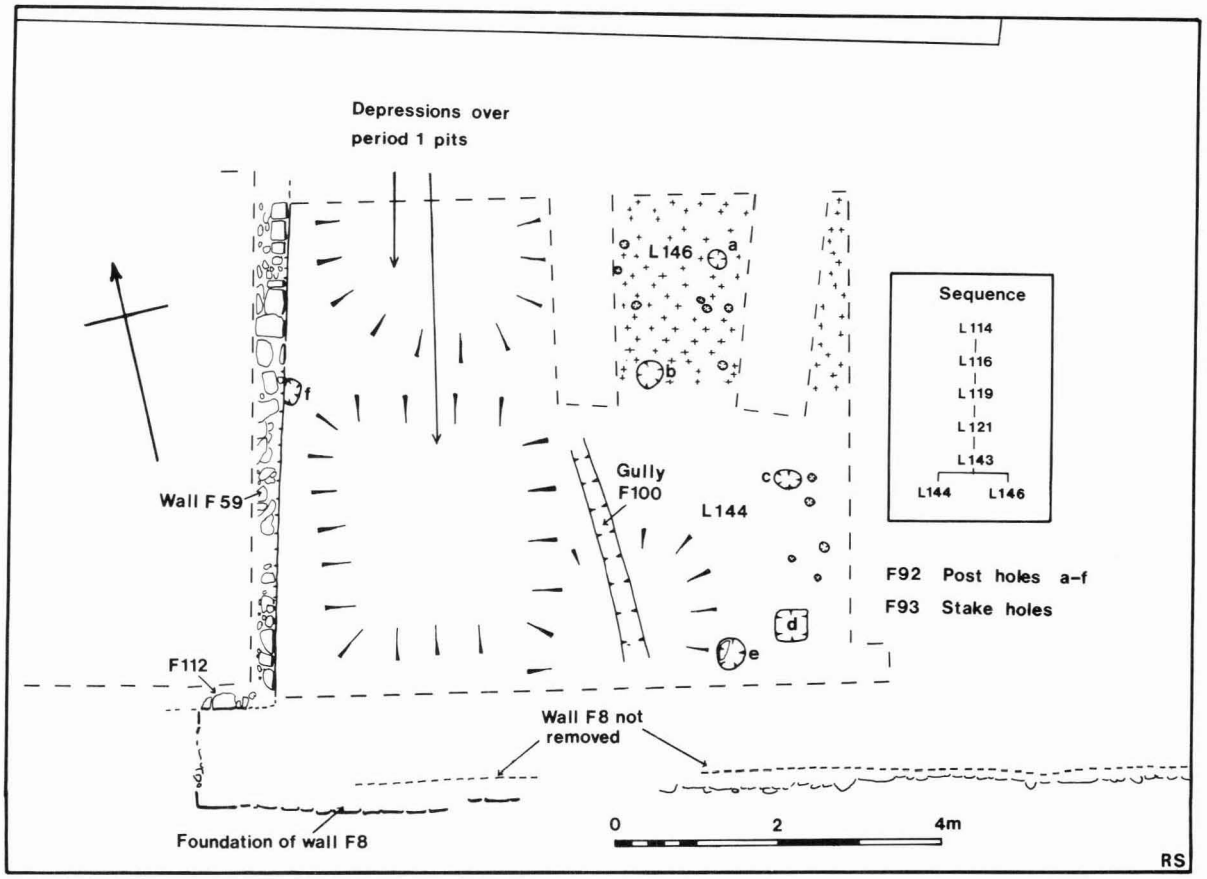

Fig. 37. Site 11 (central): Period 2.

The west wall of the western cloistral range (Fig. 30) was not found during the excavation, but it is suggested that it was close to the western end of the east cellar and was completely lost when the cellar was inserted (Fig. 29). However traces of a wall and robber trench, F48, continued the line of F112 to the west beyond the limits of the cellar. F48 contained material of a much later date than that found in the robbing of F112 and could therefore have been a later feature. There remains, however, a possibility that the west wall of the western cloistral range was outside the area excavated. The western range may have continued to the north to join on to the priory church. Trench T1, inside the graveyard on the alignment of wall F59, contained gully F108, which was cut into natural and contained stone rubble with some red sandy material (Fig. 30). It was thought to be a robber trench and, although there was no dating evidence for this feature, the sandy mortar was similar to that used to bind the stones in F59 and F112.

The period 2 eastern and western ranges may have been joined by a wall at their southern extremities. The period 3a wall, F8, was not removed, but as has already been noted (p. 65), the foundation courses were on a slightly different alignment to the upstanding wall and may therefore represent a wall which enclosed the cloister on the south (Fig. 30). These two phases of construction of F8 are particularly obvious at the western end, where the wall apparently abutted the corner of F59 and F112 (Fig. 29).

South of wall F112, and running at a slight angle to it, were the remains of a roughly-built stone drain, F50 (Fig. 29). The western part was completely robbed and survived only as a shallow trench, and there were no traces at all north of the line of F112 and F48. However, it is evident from the various levels that the drain should be earlier than F48 though its relationship with F112 was uncertain. The drain curved to the south-east, where it was complete with the stone capping surviving in places, but was then cut by a large modern pit. The drain may originally have continued as F61, north of well F55, but all that remained was a single row of stones which had apparently been its southern side (Fig. 29). Drain F50 was surrounded by a brown soil layer, L61, which had apparently been regularly cultivated and contained material up to the date of the Dissolution.

There were no features in either of the southern extensions to the excavation which could be dated to period 2.

DATING

There was no direct evidence to date the features of period 2 apart from the pottery, and the dates suggested below are based entirely on this evidence and on the relative stratigraphy. It should be emphasized that there was no direct stratigraphical relationship between the eastern and the central parts of the site.

There was no evidence whatsoever to date the realigned northern room of the eastern wing (p. 65), but it was presumably built before the extension to the south was added, otherwise the extension would have been

aligned with the period 1b building (Fig. 30). The floor levels in the extension, L6 and L125, contained mainly 12th-century pottery but the robber trench for the western wall, F74, included a larger proportion (11%) of early 13th-century pottery. The soil levels to the east, L3 and L8, also contained mainly 12th-century pottery.

The complex layers in the central part of the site contained only 12th-century pottery, most of which was in the uppermost layer, L114. As a group this was earlier than that from the floor levels in the eastern wing, and may thus relate mainly to the constructional period rather than to the building's use.

The features in the western part of the site are considered on stratigraphical grounds to date to the 12th century. The drain, F50, contained nothing later than the early 13th century. L61, the layer surrounding the drain, contained later material, but this could have been caused by regular cultivation in this area.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L3	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 55.12; Fig. 56.26
	Other English wares:	Nl	122	Fig. 58.37
L6	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.22
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.16, 17, 31
L20	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.6, 11, 21, 24
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.12

DISCUSSION

Early in the 12th century, at the end of period 1, the area to the south and south-west of the priory church contained a series of buildings aligned with Nelson Street, and a building, which was presumably the chapter house, on the eastern side of the area where one would normally expect to find the cloister garth. During period 2, which is considered to include the rest of the 12th century, the period 1 buildings were all demolished and the cloister garth enclosed by new east and west ranges, with a wall on the south. The new period 2 buildings were constructed on a different alignment from that of both the church and the line of Nelson Street (Fig. 30).

The eastern range comprised two rooms, a rebuilt chapter house and, adjoining it to the south and apparently of a slightly later date, a second room which may have been a parlour. Little can be said of the chapter house, as only the south wall was excavated. The house was some 7.5m in width and may have joined on to the southern transept of the church, or been separated from it by a slype or passageway leading through the range from the cloister to the cemetery. The chapter house projected, in a typical manner, some 2m to the east of the remainder of the range, which consisted of one room 6.4m wide and 7m long. It had a clay floor and was most probably a parlour as there was no sign of the hearth that would have been present had it been a warming house. The dorter or monks' dormitory would normally have been on the first floor above the chapter house and parlour, with the day stairs between the two rooms or further to the south. As there was no trace of any such stairs it may be that only the chapter house was two storeyed, a suggestion which is perhaps reinforced by the slightly thicker walls surrounding the chapter house as compared with those around the parlour.

Little remained of the western range, apart from the robbed out foundation trenches of the east and south walls, but it was apparently of an unorthodox design as it was not aligned with the western end of the church (Fig. 30). The western range is normally the cellarer's range and it is suggested that this range may have included the cellar or storehouse, probably at ground floor level, and possibly the public parlour, forming the main entrance to the cloister. Above this may have been the prior's lodging.

It is suggested above that there was no southern range of buildings during period 2, but that the cloister garth was enclosed with a wall joining the southern ends of the east and west ranges. Unfortunately a new wall was built on the same alignment in period 3a, and, as this wall was not removed during the excavation, the lowest courses, which may have provided the evidence for the period 2 enclosure wall, could not be properly examined. It is, however, apparent on the plan (Fig. 29) that the period 3 wall is not quite in alignment with its foundation courses so that these foundations may represent a period 2 enclosure wall. Assuming the presence of this wall, there must have been a doorway allowing access from the cloister garth to the well. It is assumed, as there is no evidence to the contrary, that this doorway was in a similar position to doorway F42 of period 3 (Fig. 29).

The area within the cloister is represented by the central area excavation (Fig. 37). Many of the complex layers in this area were probably deposited during the construction of the western range, but the hearths and postholes may have been associated with a kitchen. The clean soil layer, L144, may have been deliberately laid to tidy the cloister, and became gradually covered by the black occupation layer L114.

To the south of the cloister, drain F50 was apparently the first of several attempts to divert surface water flowing down the hill from the south away from the monastic buildings. It was eventually replaced in period 3b by a drain running into the cloister (p. 73). Apart from the drain and the well, F55, there were no other significant period 2 features south of the cloister garth enclosure wall.

Where practicable, alien priories probably attempted to follow the greater monasteries in the standard arrangement of buildings around a regular quadrangle with the church on one side. Constructing the conventual buildings at Chepstow on a different alignment to the church during period 2 is therefore most unusual.

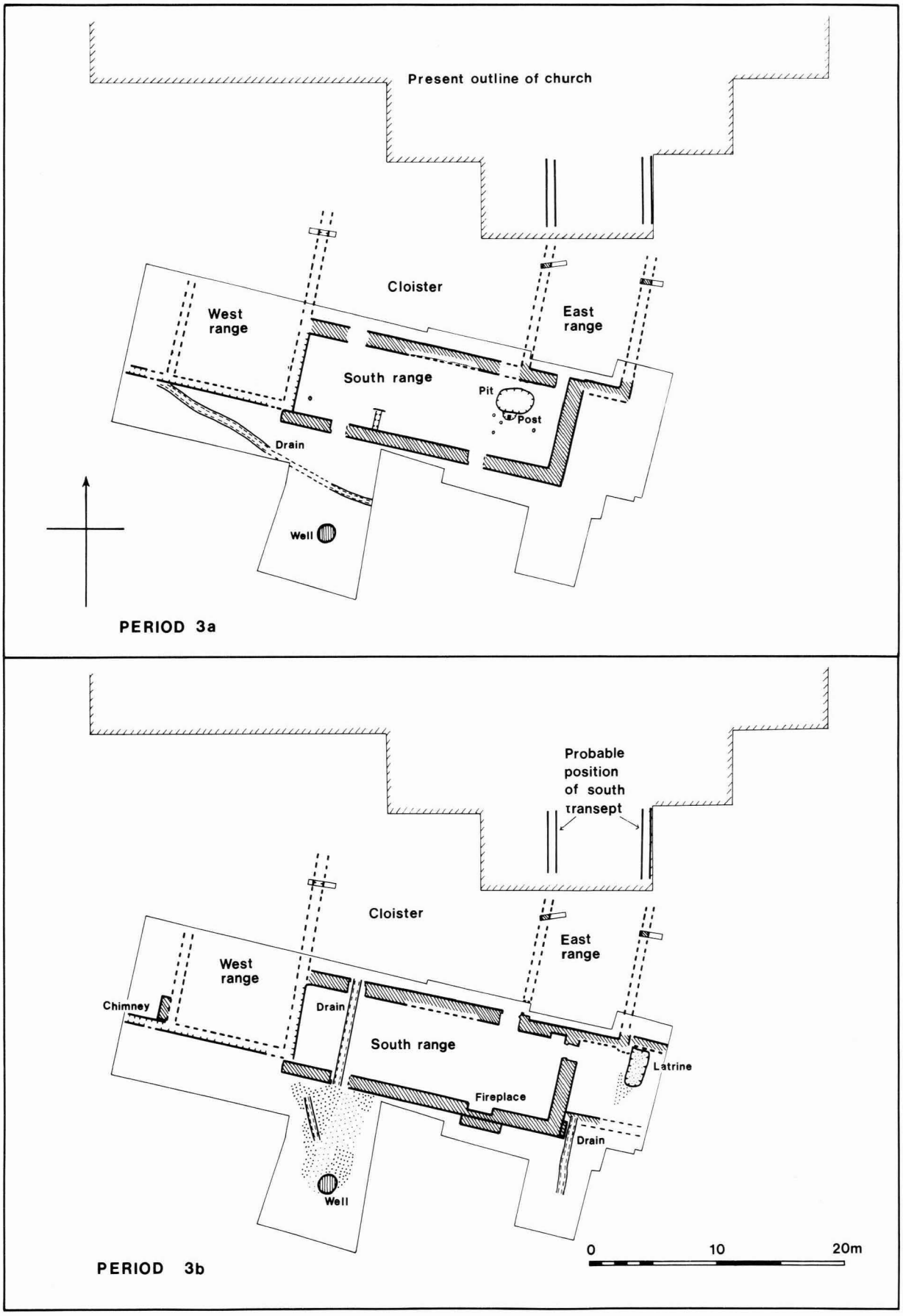

Fig. 38. Site 11: Periods 3a and 3b. Relationship of features. For details of period 3a see Figs 39 and 40 and for period 3b see Figs 41 and 42.

There are various reasons which may explain this curious development.

With higher ground to the south drainage would always have been a problem. However, the diversion of water flowing down the slope would have been necessary irrespective of the design of the cloister and a more likely reason is that the priory could not be laid out in the proper Benedictine manner owing to restrictions on the site as a result of earlier building. It is quite probable that the period 1 buildings, aligned with Nelson Street, provided accommodation for the monks and could not be completely demolished until the period 2 buildings were ready for use. Although the southern wall of the west wing of the cloister cuts through the earlier foundations, by siting the new buildings slightly askew it may well have been possible to leave most of the earlier buildings standing until the new range was ready for occupation.

Another factor is apparent from a study of the relationship of the conventual buildings with the church during periods 1 and 2 (Fig. 30). The plans show the probable position of the original south transept based on the regular arrangement of the Norman bays of the church and the position of the central tower. The period 1b building, assumed to be the chapter house, was built some 2m to the west of the line of the transept and may thus have been a free-standing building with a passage separating it from the south transept. The realignment of the walls of the east wing of the conventual buildings would have allowed it to join with the transept as shown in the period 2 plan (Fig. 30). Perhaps burials within or just to the east of the period 1 chapter house would have had to be disturbed had the east range been built to line up with the south transept.

Whatever the reason, the new alignment of the conventual buildings was to be adhered to throughout the life of the priory.

Period 3 — Construction of the south range and later alterations

(Fig. 38)

At the beginning of the 13th century the conventual buildings consisted of two separate ranges, an eastern one which may have connected with the south transept of the church and a western range which led towards the central part of the southern nave aisle. The two ranges may have been joined together at their southern limits by a wall, thus forming a cloister. During the first half of the 13th century, the southernmost room of the eastern range was demolished and a new range of buildings was constructed, joining the eastern and western wings and forming a southern range to enclose the cloister garth.

Most of this new range was within the area excavated and the construction and various rebuilds up to the time of the Dissolution are dealt with below. The period is subdivided as follows:

Period 3a — construction of the south range (early 13th century)
Period 3b — alterations and additions (late 14th and early 15th centuries)
Period 3c — further alterations and additions (late 15th and early 16th centuries)

The final demolition of the conventual buildings, soon after the Dissolution, and the subsequent use of the site are described as period 4.

DESCRIPTION

Period 3a — construction of the south range

(Figs. 38, 39 and 40)

The southern room of the eastern wing, was completely demolished (Fig. 36). The western wall, F74, had most of the foundations removed, the resultant trench being filled with brown loamy material containing some yellow and white mortar. The eastern wall, F3, was reduced to ground level and it is assumed that this was also the case with the southern wall, the foundations apparently being reused as a base for the new southern wall, F8. The remaining part of the eastern range was mainly to the north of the area excavated, but it was evident that at least the western part of the east–west wall, F17, was demolished to ground level in preparation for the construction of the new range. The eastern part of wall F17 and the southern ends of walls F16 and F89 apparently survived the demolition and it is assumed that the northern part of the eastern wing continued in use as a chapter house. The demolition and reconstruction levels in the eastern part of the site may be represented by L113 and L123, both of which contained stone fragments and some ash; and separated the floor levels of periods 2 and 3a (Fig. 39).

In the central part of the excavated area (Fig. 40), which was part of the cloister during period 2, the softer fills of the period 1 pit, F85, were partly removed and replaced with stone rubble, L107, to act as a solid foundation for the new north wall of the south wing F37. The south enclosure wall of period 2 was apparently demolished to its foundations and the opportunity was probably taken at this time to replace part of the soft fill of the period 1 pit, F99 (Fig. 35). The top of the period 1 pit F84 was also filled with stone rubble, L106, presumably due to subsidence.

The period 2 western range of buildings, represented by walls F59 and F112 apparently continued in use during period 3 but all internal levels were totally removed when the 19th-century cellar was constructed.

The space made available by the demolition described above, between the shortened east wing and the west wing, was filled with a new building which formed the southern range to the cloister (Fig. 38 and Pl. 8). This building, although it suffered many alterations, continued in use throughout the life of the priory, presumably as the frater or monk's refectory.

On the east, the new range joined the south wall of the chapter house and on the west abutted the east side of the west range. The walls are described clockwise from the north-eastern corner (Figs. 39 and 40).

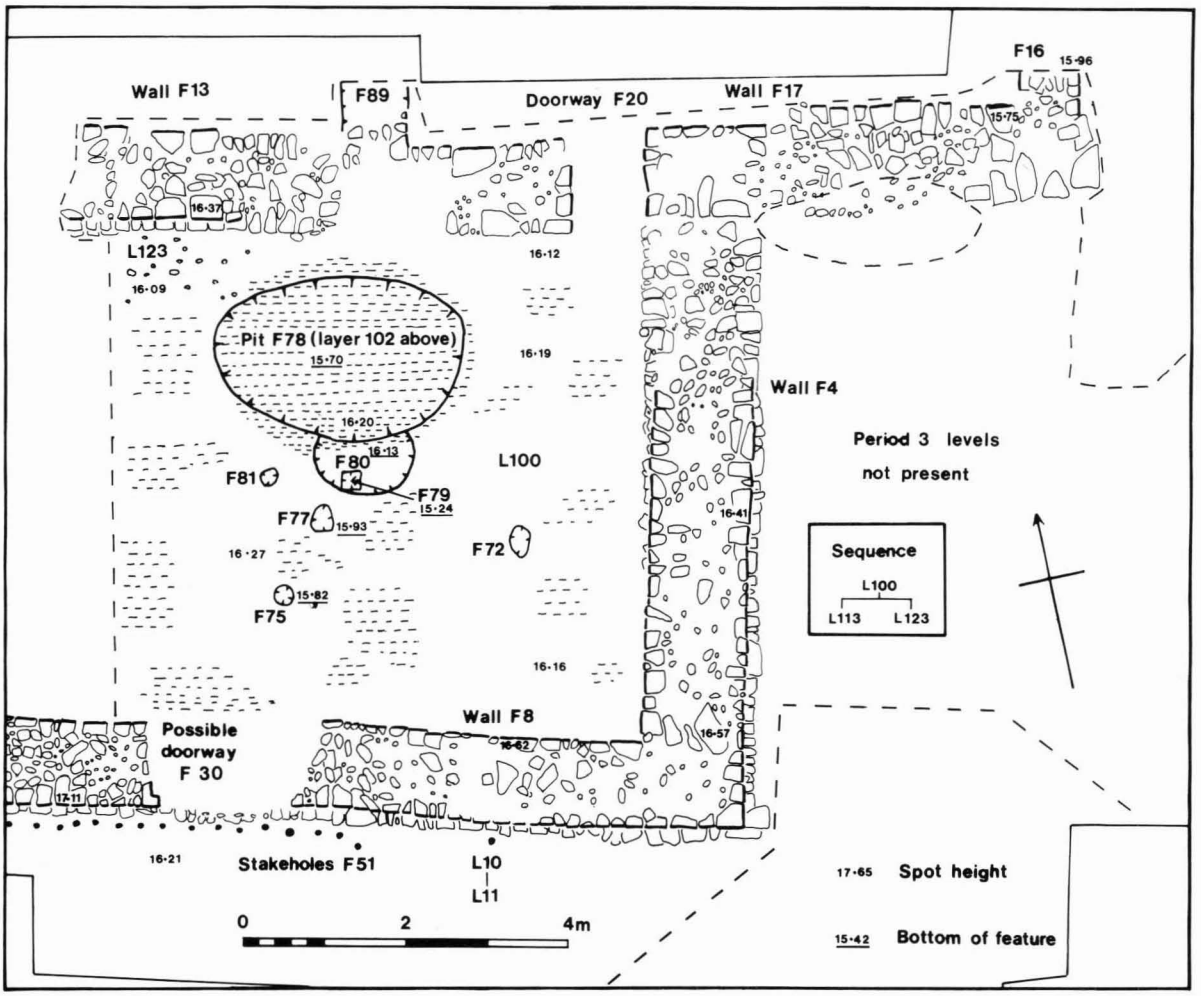

Fig. 39. Site 11 (east): Period 3a.

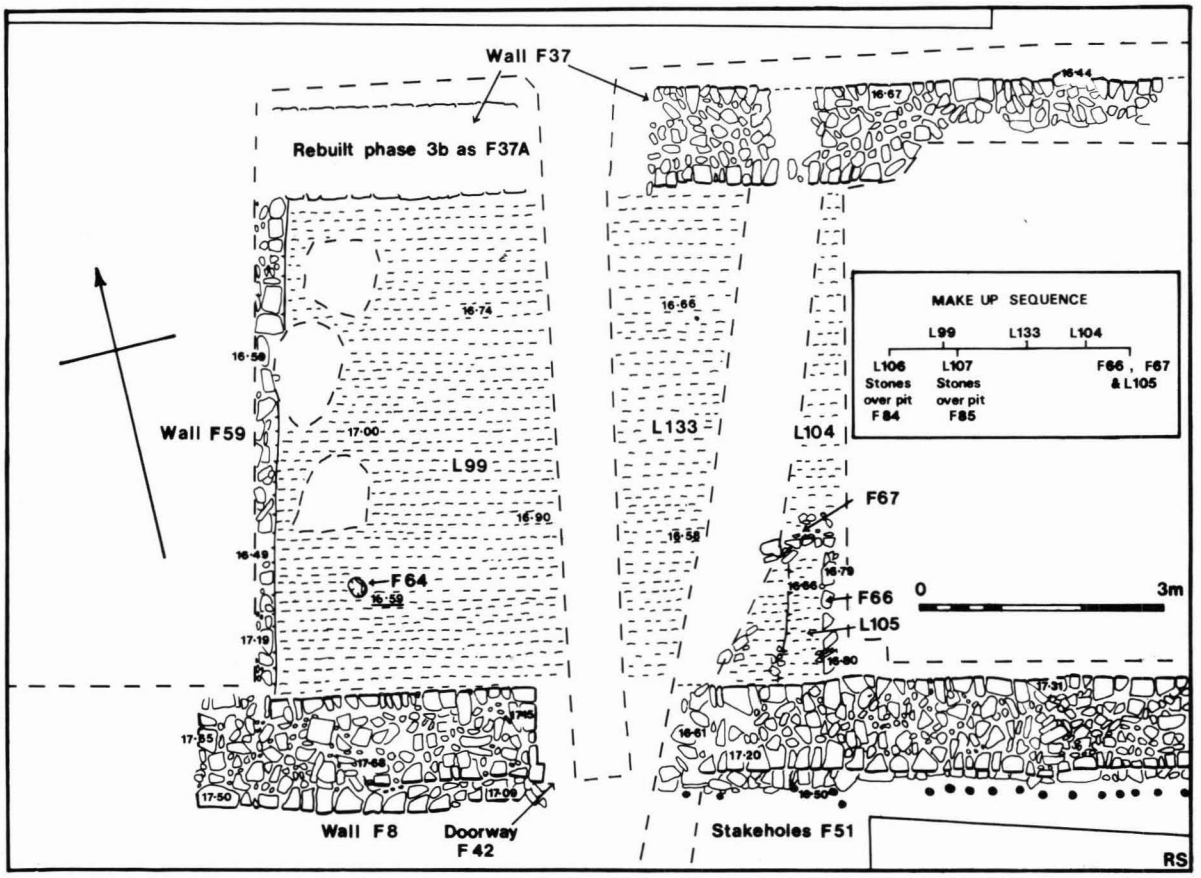

Fig. 40. Site 11 (central): Period 3a.

F4, the eastern wall of the new south wing, was well constructed in a deep foundation trench (Fig. 39). It was 1.2m wide and survived in parts for 0.4m above the constructional ground level. It was roughly coursed and bonded with a yellow sandy mortar. Wall F4 was not removed during the excavation.

The southern wall, F8, was fully bonded into wall F4 at the south-eastern corner and a similar mortar was used in the construction. The new wall was 1m thick, slightly narrower than the foundation courses and on a very slightly different alignment to them. The eastern part of F8 was probably built on the foundations of the demolished south wall of the period 2 eastern range (Fig. 36), whilst the western part was built on the foundations of the southern enclosure wall (p. 65). Wall F8 was irregularly coursed and survived for five or six courses above the constructional ground level. Most of the wall was left *in situ* on completion of the excavation.

A series of stakeholes, F51 (Figs 39 and 40), found close to the outside face of wall F8, may have been associated with constructional scaffolding. Others may have disappeared due to cultivation. The stakeholes were cut into L11, a brown, loamy soil, which contained no pottery later than the early 13th century. This layer was assumed to be the ground level at the time of construction of the new south wing.

Wall F8 was apparently built with two doorways leading from the new range to the south. The eastern doorway, F30, was represented by a single door-stop on its western side (Fig. 39). The eastern part of the doorway was completely removed when the doorway was converted to a fireplace in period 3b. The western doorway, F42, (Fig. 40) which led to the well, continued in use throughout the history of the building, but the eastern side was cut away by a modern drain trench. The western side, including the door-stop and most of the opening, survived. The two doorways were not symmetrically placed in wall F8, the western doorway being slightly nearer the corner.

To the west, wall F8 apparently abutted against the external junction of walls F59 and F112 of the period 2 western range. Although the area was very confused, due to stone robbing and the insertion of the 19th-century cellar, stones were apparently taken out of the junction to allow the new wall F8 to be tied in (Fig. 29). The period 2 wall, F59, thus became a partition wall between the western range and the new frater.

The north wall, which separated the new southern range from the cloister, suffered several alterations during later periods and only fragments of the period 3a masonry survived. The western part of the wall was completely rebuilt as F37A in period 3b including the junction with wall F59. This may have been due to subsidence into the period 1 pit F85 (Fig. 29). The rebuilding included the period 3b doorway, F36, and it was only to the east of this that the period 3a wall, F37, survived, although much damaged by the cellar, a modern pipe trench and the period 3c fireplace F31 (Fig. 29; Pl. 8). Fragments of the eastern part of this wall survived as F13 (Fig. 39) being identified by the presence of a similar mortar to that used in walls F4 and F8. A doorway, F20, led from the corner of the new frater into the chapter house.

The period 3a floor levels inside the new southern range survived in the eastern part (Fig. 39) and in the area between the two cellars (Fig. 40). The two areas were not stratigraphically connected, but the remains give some indication of the construction and early use of the frater range.

The earliest feature in the eastern area was pit F80 (Fig. 39). This had held a substantial post, F79, which was some 0.25m square and had been sunk almost 1m deep below the then existing ground level. The post, centrally placed between the northern and southern walls of the frater, presumably acted as a main support either for an upper floor or for the roof. Several shallow postholes of irregular shape, F72, F75, F77 and F81, which were found at varying distances from F79, were all apparently later than F79.

Post pit F80 was partly cut away by pit F78 which was roughly oval in shape, 3.1m wide, 2m long and 0.5m deep at the centre. Pit F78 and post pit F80 both cut through the line of the period 2 wall, F74, and were not dug until after that wall had been removed and the resultant trench backfilled (Fig. 29). Finds from within the fill suggest that F78 should be dated to the latter half of the 13th century.

The floor level in the eastern half of the southern range consisted of a rather featureless brown earth, L100, which contained patches of red clay (Fig. 39). Above pit F78 this merged with L102, where there were increased amounts of red clay. There was little wear in this floor level, but F79 (though not the post-pit F80) and the shallow postholes surrounding it were cut through the layer.

In the central area the floor levels were more complex, partly as a result of later features crossing the area and partly because of irregularities in the surface caused by subsidence into the top of the period 1 pits (Fig. 40). The earliest feature, which was partly sealed by the period 3a floor level, L104, was a shallow gully, L105, which ran north from wall F8 and had a brown, sandy soil fill. It was lined by stones F66 on the west, and there were traces of an east–west stone feature, F67, at the north, but this was cut by the cellar and a modern pipe trench. At the time of excavation this feature was thought to be part of the internal fittings of the frater rather than an earlier feature in the period 2 cloister, but as there were no associated finds this could not be confirmed.

The main floor level was excavated in three parts, L99, L133 and L104, separated by later features (Fig. 40). These layers contained mixed material including rubble, ash and slag, but red clay predominated and this may be related to the patches of red clay in L100 in the eastern area. The other material found in these mixed layers was apparently associated with rough patching of the floor over a period of time. One small posthole with packing stones, F64, was found cut into L99.

No period 3a stratified levels survived to the east of the frater or to the west of the period 2 western range. To the south of the eastern part of the frater the brown, loamy

soil layer, L11, was apparently the ground level at the time of construction of the southern range. It was sealed by a darker brown layer, L10, which probably represented the lower levels of the external ground surface whilst the building was in use. South of the western part of the frater the well apparently continued in use as did drain F50/F61. Layer, L61, which surrounded the drain, was contaminated with period 3c pottery.

Period 3b — Alterations to the frater and addition of a reredorter

(Figs 38, 41 and 42)

During the late 14th or early 15th century several changes were made to the frater including alterations of the positions of the doors, the insertion of a fireplace and drains, the relaying of floors, and the addition of a room, considered to be the reredorter, to the east of the frater (Fig. 38). The alterations in the frater are described from the north-east corner clockwise around the walls.

In the eastern wall (F4) (Fig. 41) a new doorway (F7) was inserted. The lower parts of the two door jambs were still *in situ* and sufficient masonry remained for it to be apparent that the opening had been crudely made without the use of mortar and with only rough facing to the exposed wall cores. This doorway, which led from the frater into a new room, remained in use throughout periods 3b and 3c. A buttress, F41, was added to the southern corner of the east wall (F4) possibly at the same time (Pls. 7 and 8).

The period 3a doorway (F30) in the eastern part of the south wall (F8) was partly dismantled and the opening blocked with a narrow wall, using a buff, charcoal-flecked mortar. The recess thus formed became a fireplace, F40 (Fig. 41; Pl. 10), a chimney stack, F25, being built on the outside of the wall using a yellow, sandy mortar. The western doorway, F42 (Fig. 42) continued in use although there were some changes associated with the insertion of drain F52, which are described later. There were no apparent alterations to F59, the west wall of the frater.

The north wall, separating the frater from the cloister, had several alterations. To the west, part of the period 3a wall, F37, was rebuilt as F37A. This rebuild was probably due to the foundations of F37 subsiding into the loose fill of the period 1 pit, F85. The new wall utilized a yellow mortar with some charcoal flecks. A doorway, F36, was introduced into the rebuilt wall, possibly on the site of a period 3a doorway (p. 71). The surrounds to this doorway were well constructed using a pink mortar.

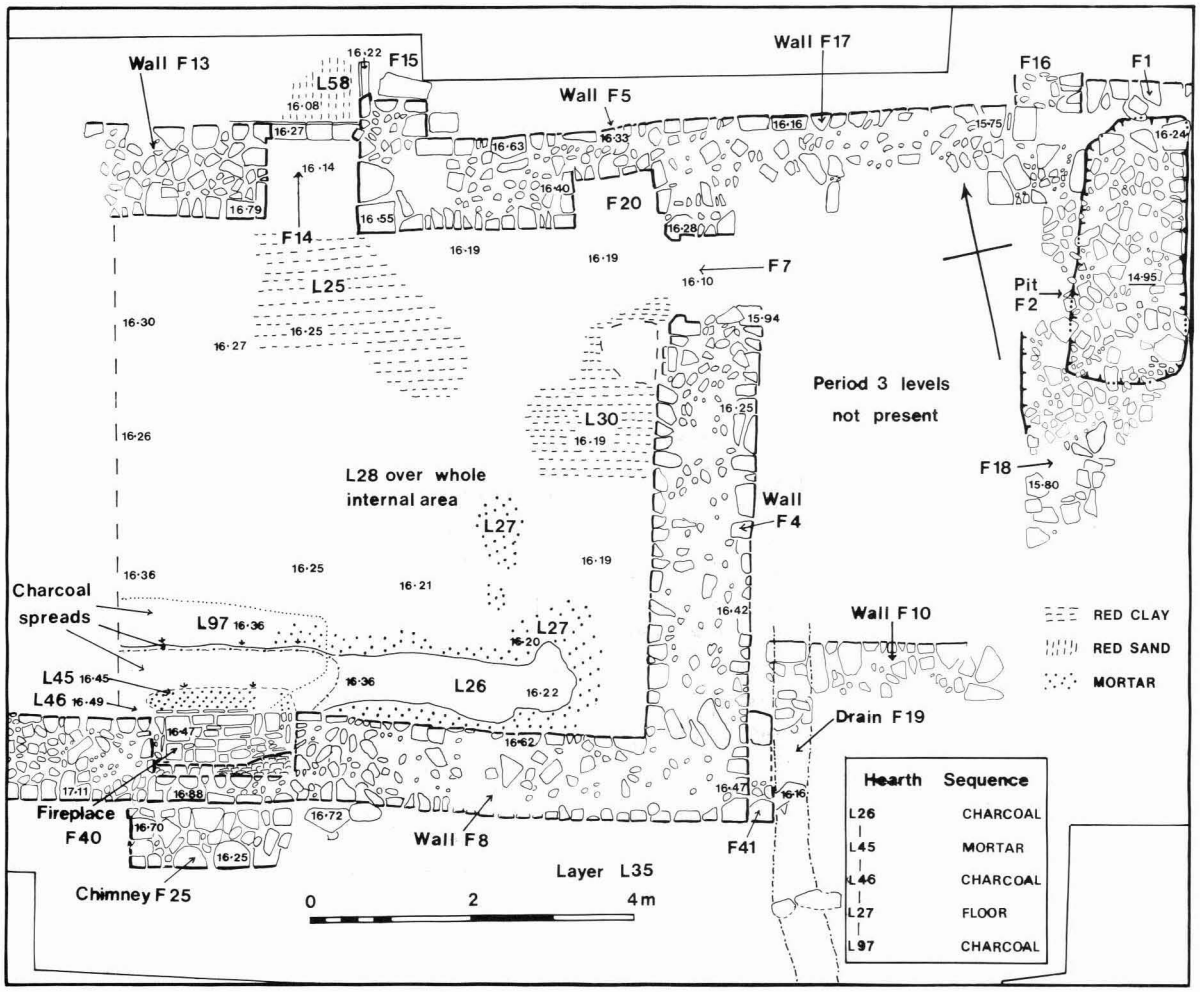

Fig. 41. Site 11 (east): Period 3b.

At the eastern end of the north wall, the period 3a doorway (F20) was blocked with a narrow wall of drystone construction, F5, leaving an alcove (Fig. 41). A new opening, F14, was made some 4m to the west. It was well constructed with free-stone door jambs and a faced step and was cemented with pink mortar similar to that used in the construction of F36, further to the west. The lower iron hinge bracket for the door in F14 was in place on the eastern side (Fig. 69.8). Doorway F14 was apparently associated with a reconstruction of the west wall of the period 2 chapter house, where a new wall and doorway, F15, replaced the original wall F89. Only the southern side of doorway F15 survived, the remainder being detroyed by a modern water pipe trench. F15 made use of a similar mortar to that used in the construction of doorway F14 and the two doorways are therefore assumed to be contemporary. A fine red sand, L58, had been laid as the floor level between the two doorways (Fig. 41).

The western range of buildings, represented by walls F59 and F112, probably continued in use during period 3b, although there is little direct evidence to substantiate this theory. On the western side of the range, to the west of the modern cellar, fragments of a masonry block, F44, may have been the base for a chimney stack(Fig. 29). The foundations of F44 were constructed using a mortar similar to that used in the surrounds for the doorways F14, F15 and F36 and this feature is therefore assumed to be of the same period.

New floor levels were laid inside the frater when the rebuilding work was complete. In the eastern part of the building the general floor level was L28, a layer of brown earth and charcoal (Fig. 41). This had become worn and was patched in doorway F14 with layer L25, a mixture of red clay and charcoal, and close to doorway F7 with L30, of similar composition. There were several layers above L28 in the southern part of the building which were associated with the use of fireplace F40. The earliest charcoal spread, L97, was covered with some brown soil and fragments of a mortar floor, L27. A second charcoal spread, L46, was sealed by a mortar step, L45, in front of the fireplace. A final layer of charcoal, L26, spread along the inside of the southern wall almost to the eastern corner of the room.

The main period 3b feature inside the western part of the frater was a drain (F52) which passed through the building from doorway F36 to doorway F42 (Fig. 42). The drain was built in trench F58, which cut through the period 3a floor levels. It was of stone and although some of the cover stones survived most were broken (Pl. 9). The bottom of the drain was some 0.45m below the door step leading from the cloister, and a similar depth below the south doorway, F42. It sloped downwards from south to north by about 0.6m. This internal drain was presumably an addition to, or a replacement for, the period 2 drain F50 and was designed to relieve the frater from storm water which would have flowed down the hill from the south.

The internal floor levels in the western part of the frater during periods 3b and 3c were complex and not fully understood at the time of excavation. It would seem

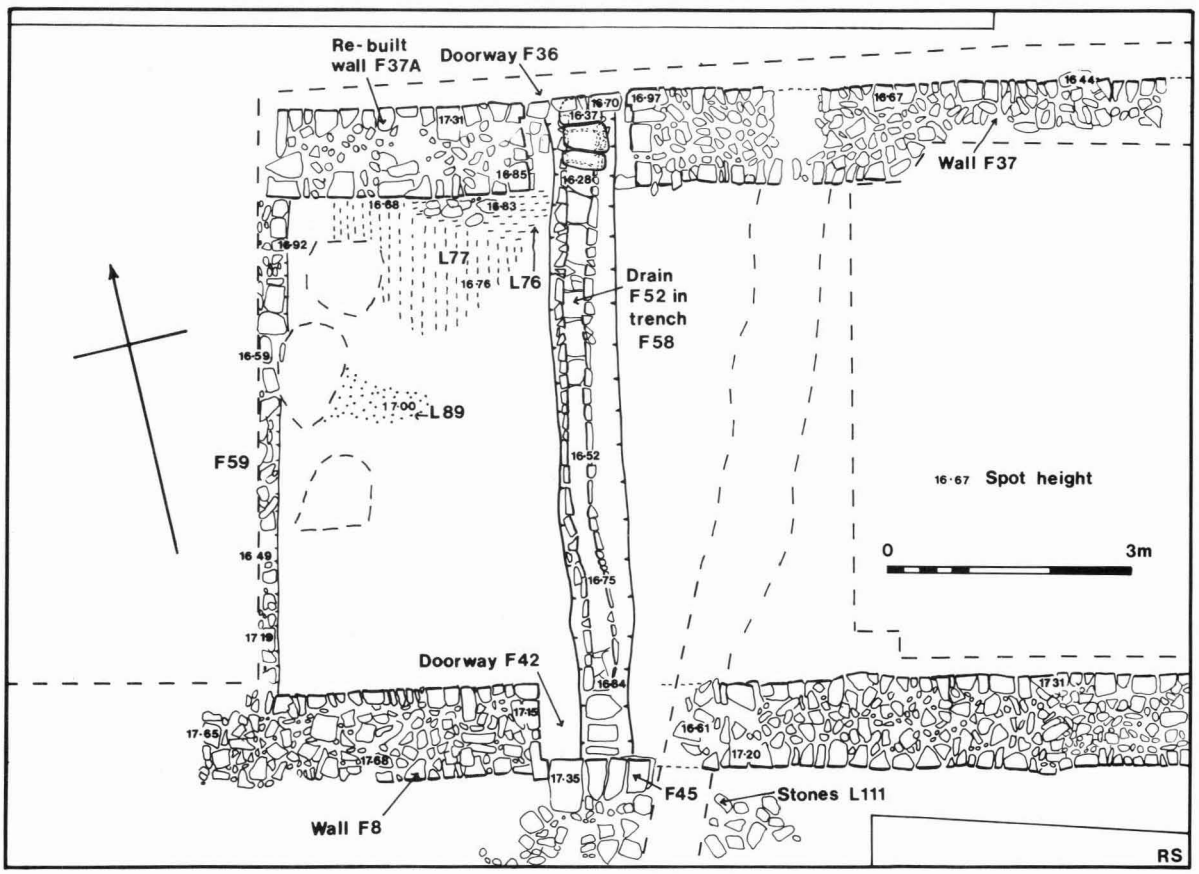

Fig. 42. Site 11 (central): Period 3b.

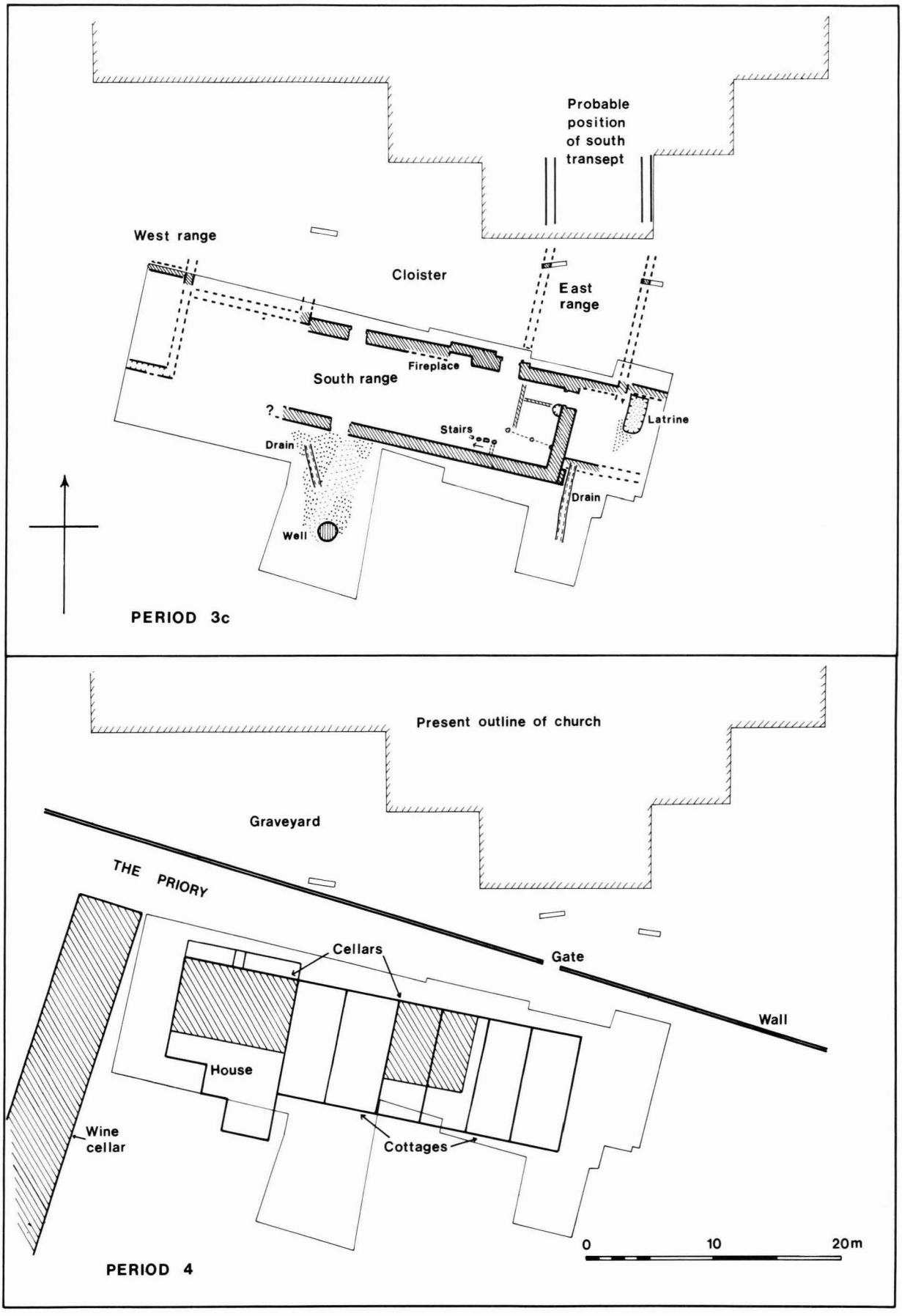

Fig. 43. Site 11: Periods 3c and 4. Relationship of features. For details of period 3c see Figs 44 and 45.

that the floor levels of period 3a, L99, L133 and L104 (Fig. 40), continued in use, but with massive and continual patching. Some of these floor repairs are shown on Fig. 42 but most are indicated on the period 3c plan (Fig. 45). There were few finds and it was impossible to differentiate these small, randomly placed patches of earth, red clay, stones and mortar into two distinct periods.

A building of uncertain size, considered to be the reredorter, was added to the east of the frater at some time during period 3b. The north wall was formed in part by the south wall, F17, of the chapter house. This was extended to the east by wall F1 (Fig. 41), of drystone construction. Only part of the southern wall (F10) of this new building survived as a single course of foundations abutting the foundations of wall F4. It was of uncertain length and thickness and ran parallel to F17. Wall F10 cut through and removed part of the foundations of wall F3 of period 2 (Fig. 29) and was itself cut by a Victorian rubbish pit to the south. The eastern wall of this new room was not found and is assumed to have been to the east of the area excavated. The reredorter would have been some 5.2m wide and in excess of 7m long and was approached from the frater by doorway F7.

A drain, F19, led into this new room from the south, passing underneath wall F10 (Fig. 41). Only fragments of this drain, which was of similar construction to drain F52 further west, survived and the course within the reredorter, could not be established.

The main feature within the reredorter was a stone-filled pit, F2, almost 1.25m deep (Fig. 41). The fill, apart from the stones, indicated that it had been used as a cesspit. It was surrounded by a spread of rubble, F18, which was apparently a rough metalled surface. A drain (F6), which led in an easterly direction from the pit, was built in a deep trench which continued into the eastern section of the area excavated (Fig. 33) just to the south of wall F1. Only the stone base of the drain survived, some 0.5m above the bottom of pit F2 but 0.8m below the top. It was evident that the drain acted as an overflow for any liquid which did not seep away. Underneath the stone base of the drain was a thin layer of silt, L80. There were no other surviving period 3b levels associated with the reredorter.

West of drain F19 and south of the frater was a layer of brown, loamy soil, L35, containing fragments of pottery of periods 3b and 3c. This mixing was considered to be the result of continual cultivation. The equivalent layer, in the small areas undisturbed by later features to the east of F19, was L36.

Further west, but still to the south of the frater, the area between doorway F42 and well F55 was given a metalled surface duuring period 3b. In the first instance a step, F45, was inserted into doorway F42 and then a layer of stones (L111), mixed with yellow mortar and brown earth, was laid leading towards the well (Fig. 29). Fragments of the foundations of the period 1 walls F43 and F62 and the period 2 drain, F61, were not destroyed but became part of this surface. A new surface drain, F60, was built into L111, probably to keep the metalled area clear of water.

Period 3c — Alterations and additions to the frater and the west wing

(Figs. 43–45)

Alterations to the frater during the late 15th and early 16th centuries included a replacement fireplace and the reorganization of the eastern part of the ground floor (Fig. 43). During this period the western cloistral range was apparently demolished, to be replaced with a new cellarer's range further west. The alterations are again described clockwise from the north-east corner.

Wall F4 remained unaltered but in the southern wall, F8, fireplace F40 was blocked using uncoursed masonry with a red sandy mortar (F29) and the chimney stack (F25) was demolished (Fig. 44). The western frater wall (F59) was demolished down to its foundations and the resultant trench backfilled with a mixture of soil and stones. The period 3c floor levels sealed this robber trench. The wall had separated the frater from the cellarer's range and it is suggested that the old cellarer's range was demolished, the frater extended and a new cellarer's range built further to the west.

The main change to the north wall of the frater during period 3c was the insertion of a fireplace (F31) and its associated chimney stack between the two doorways, F14 and F36 (Fig. 29). A whole section of the wall was first demolished and large, dressed stones with a pale yellow mortar were then used as the base of the stack, F15. The internal levels and part of the fireplace were destroyed when the 19th-century cellar was built, but debris resulting from the construction (L57) remained to the north of the stack. Further east, the alcove (F20) was partly filled with small stones which were held in place by several upright stones inserted along the southern edge of the feature.

The internal floor levels of the frater suffered continual wear throughout periods 3b and 3c and it was apparent that erosion regularly exposed earlier floor levels and that patching was a common event. The western part of the floor was a mass of patching (Fig. 45) with some parts being worn away and other parts sinking into the period 1 pits and into the period 3b drain, F52. It was not practicable to isolate all these patches which were apparently little more than sporadic buckets of soil, clay or mortar brought in and spread over the more uneven parts of the floor, but it was evident that the floor level continued over the filled-in robber trench for wall F59. The eastern part of the floor of the frater did not suffer so much wear and several features were apparent (Fig. 44).

Layer L28 of period 3b continued in use as the floor level but was patched in the northern doorway with a yellow mortar, L31. The eastern part of the floor had been made up with a thin layer of brown earth, L29. Partly on top of this, but mainly close to the south wall, was a layer of clay, L17, which may have been the surviving remnant of a floor which had originally been laid over the whole area.

In the southern part of the floor, in front of the blocked fireplace, F40, was a gully (F21) and a series of stone-packed postholes (F26, F28, F27 and F23). These

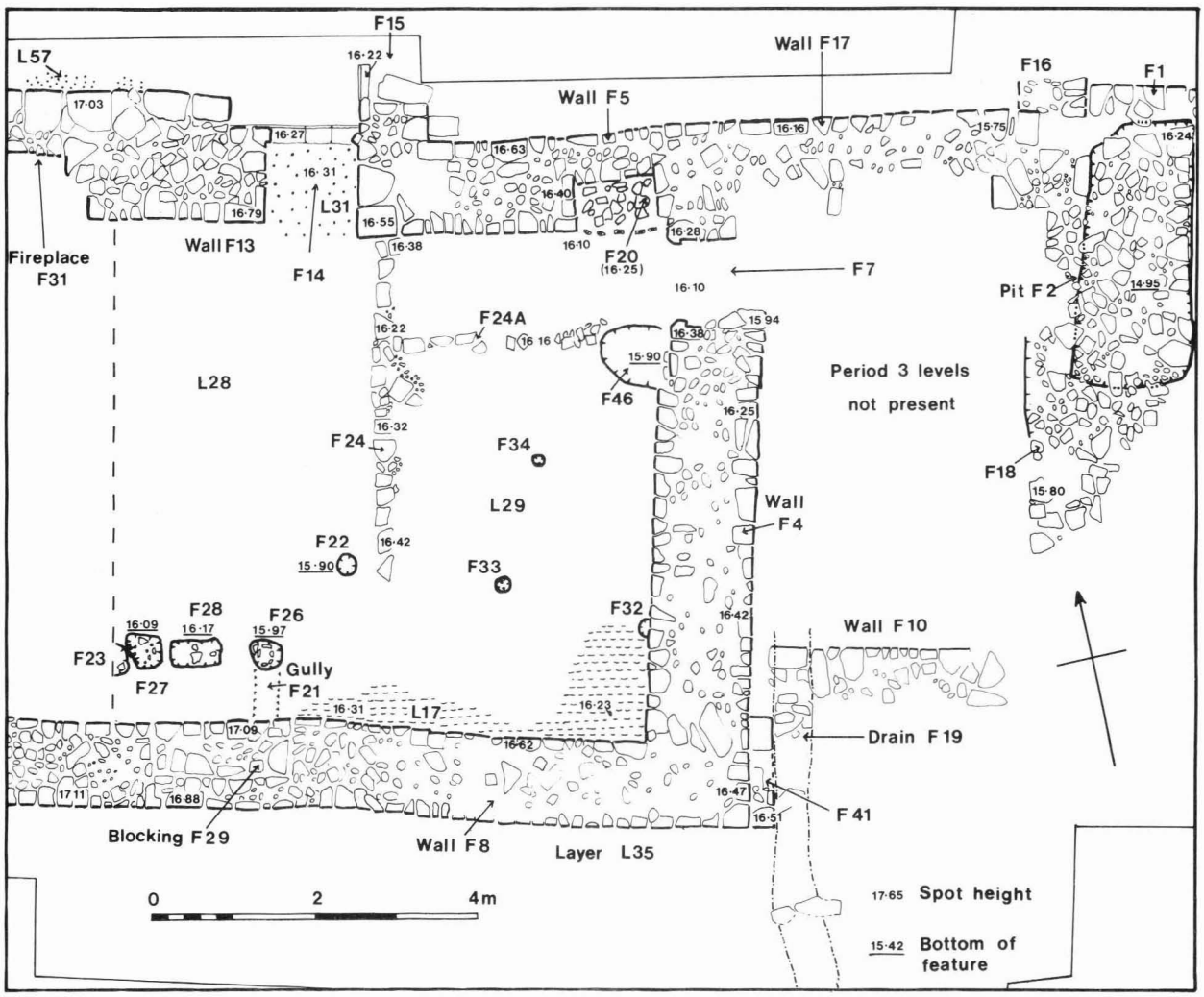

Fig. 44. Site 11 (east): Period 3c.

were considered to represent the bottom of a staircase leading upwards to the west. In the centre of the eastern part of the room were two lines of stones (F24 and F24A) and several postholes (F22, F32, F33, F34 and F46). Three of the postholes (F22, F33 and F32) were in line and may represent a partition wall. The stones (F24 and F24A) which stood only a few centimetres above the floor level, ran north from close to F22 and then east from this line to the south side of doorway F7 (Fig. 44, Pl. 11).

The reredorter, to the east of the frater, apparently continued in use during period 3c without any change.

Period 3c levels were absent from most of the area surrounding the frater with the exception of a small section south of wall F8. Here the brown, loamy soils of layers L35 and L36 apparently represented cultivation levels during periods 3b and 3c. The metalled surface between doorway F42 and well F55 continued in use with no change. It was surrounded by a mixed soil layer, L61, which was also probably cultivated and contained pottery dating from periods 3a, 3b and 3c.

The sequence of events in the western part of the site is not fully understood because of the severe damage caused by modern features (Fig. 29). The demolition of the western wall (F59) of the frater has already been mentioned (p. 71) and finds from the robber trench for the southern wall (F112) of the western range indicate that it was demolished at the same time as F59 or later. Fragments of walls found in the western part of the site suggest that the west wing was replaced with a new structure but the design is uncertain.

Adjoining the western end of wall F37A a fragment of wall (F97) had faces on the east and south (Fig. 29). It was built of well-faced blocks without the use of mortar, but traces of a red sandy material adhering to the stones suggest that it was partly built from the rubble of the earlier western range. Although F97 apparently originally continued to the north no trace of it was found in trench 1 in the churchyard. It may, however, be related to wall F53 in the extreme north-western corner of the site. This wall also ran north–south and was of similar construction to F97. Also in the north-west corner was wall F54 which abutted the west side of F53. It was also of drystone construction using large, faced blocks, with fragments of slate between the courses. The only other feature within the excavated area which may be related to the new western range is a robber trench (F48) which ran west from F112. Finds from this trench suggest at the earliest a 15th or 16th-century date for the robbing. Finally, it should be noted that the 17th-century wine cellar, immediately to the west of the excavated site, may have been reconstructed from the remains of the period 3c cellarer's range.

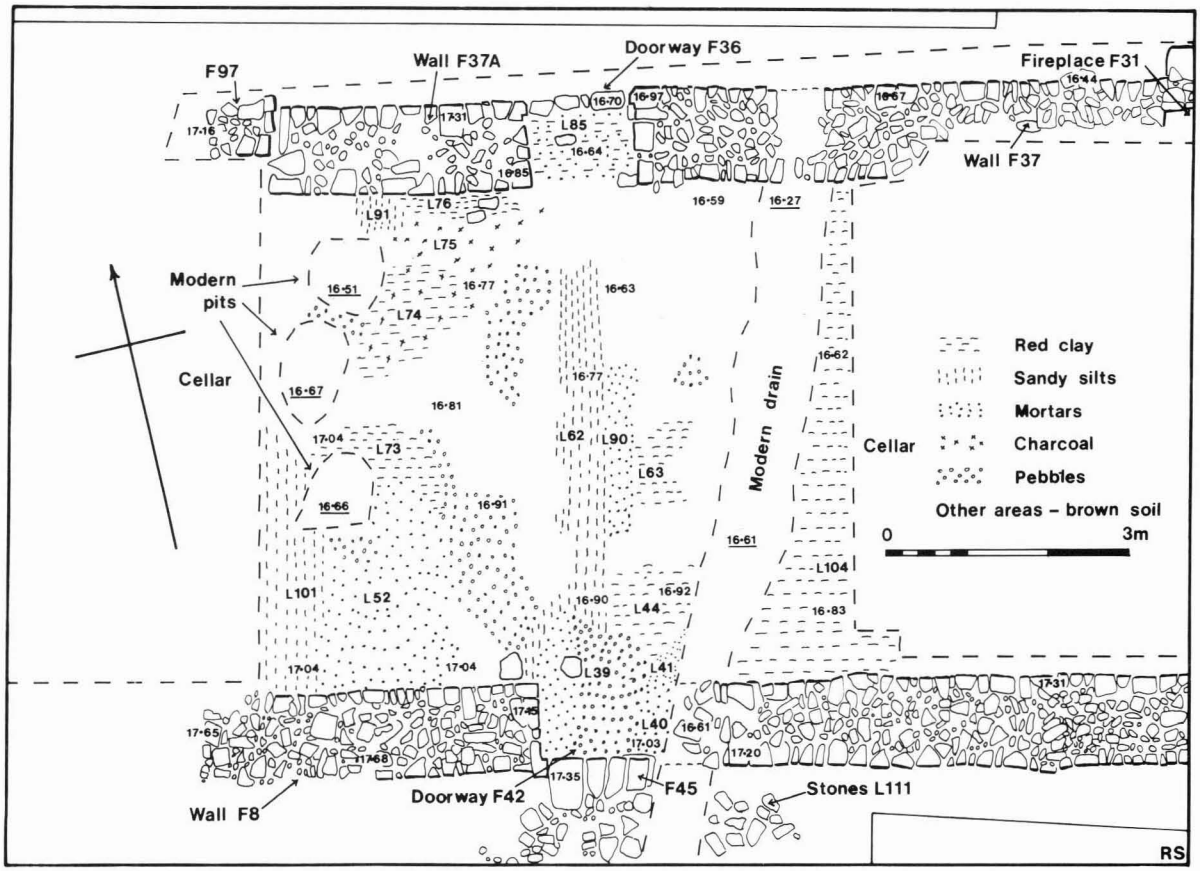

Fig. 45. Site 11 (central): Period 3c.

DATING

The demolition of the period 2 parlour at the eastern end of the site, south of the chapter house, is dated to the early 13th century by the pottery found in the robber trench for wall F74. The new frater was probably built almost immediately after this demolition as the period 3a floor levels and features in both the east and the central areas contain no significant pottery later than the early 13th century. In the central area, pottery from amongst the stone packing in the top of the period 1 pits F84 and F85 also includes early 13th-century wares, suggesting that these pits were partly emptied and filled with stone at this time as a preliminary to building the frater.

The alterations to the frater in period 3b, including the insertion of fireplace F40 and drain F52, are more difficult to date. They probably occurred towards the end of the 13th century as the pottery from the associated floor levels (L25, L30 and L97) (Fig. 41) in the eastern area, and from the drain trench (F58) in the central area, contain no pottery later than the late 13th century. However, there is a total gap in the pottery sequence on site 11 from the late 13th century to, at the earliest, the late 14th century. If it is considered that this lack of pottery reflects a break in the use of the frater then the alterations of period 3b need not have taken place until the end of the 14th century or even the beginning of the 15th century. The lack of pottery of a later date than the late 13th century in the constructional features and earliest floor levels need not be significant as pottery would not necessarily be used on the site until the building was altered and restored and there was probably much residual pottery on the site from the earlier periods. It is therefore perhaps significant that pottery in the upper ash layer, (L26) associated with fireplace F40, is of late 14th or early 15th-century date — it would be surprising if the fireplace could still be used after such a long period of abandonment. It would also be more likely that repairs would have been necessary after the frater had been disused for a long period.

The date for construction of the reredorter is obtained from the ceramic material from L80, underneath the latrine exit drain (F6) and from pottery in the fill of the latrine pit F2. There is however no proof that these features were primary to the use of this room, but if this premise is accepted then the reredorter should be of late 14th-century construction at the earliest.

The period 3c alterations are equally difficult to date. The demolition of the western range is mainly dated by the material in the mixed layers which sealed the refilled robber trench for wall F59. The material of these layers was probably brought in to the site and contained material up to the 15th century although some was later. The patched nature of the floor at this western end of the frater does not allow for accurate or conclusive dating. However, roof tile from posthole F27, which belonged to the stairs in front of the blocked fireplace, F40, should be associated with the period 3c alterations and is of late 15th or early 16th century date.

In summary we have:

Period 3a	Construction of frater.	early 13th century
	Probable disuse	late 13th to late 14th century
Period 3b	Alterations and additions (Fireplace F40, drains F58 and F19, metalling L111). Construction of reredorter.	probably late 14th or early 15th century followed by use during 15th century
Period 3c	Alterations and additions (Fireplace F31, stairs) Construction of new west wing	mid 15th century or later

INVENTORY

Period 3a

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L11	Local wares:	Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.20, 22
		Hb.2	100	Fig. 52.32
		Hb.4	100	Fig. 52.37
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.42
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.23, 24; Fig. 56.8, 14, 18
		Kc	112	Fig. 57.10
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.23
L99	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.8, 13, 27, 29
		Hb.2	100	Fig. 52.29
	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.19, 20, 30, 32
		Ka	109	Fig. 55.10
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.19, 21, 22;
			111	Fig. 56.29
	Other English wares:	Lb	117	Fig. 58.13
L100	Bristol wares:	Kc	112	Fig. 57.2
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.21, 55
	Other English wares:	La	115	Fig. 58.6
L102	Other English wares:	No	122	Fig. 58.39–42
L106	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.43, 45
		Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.21
	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 55.25
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.32
L107	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.28
		Hb.4	100	Fig. 52.36
	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.15
L113	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.15, 22
L133	Local wares:	Hb.1	100	Fig. 52.25
	Bristol wares:	Jc	107	Fig. 54.14
		Kb	111	Fig. 55.17; Fig. 56.15
		Ke	114	Fig. 57.14, 19
F64	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.33

Iron objects

L11	Nail or stud	146	Fig. 71.13
	Nail	146	Fig. 71.14
L113	Spike	146	Fig. 71.12
F8	Hook	142	Fig. 69.4

Copper alloy objects

L11	Undecorated plate fragment	149	Fig. 72.15
F78	Buckle	148	Fig. 72.11

Period 3b

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L26	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.13
L28	Local wares:	Hg	102	Fig. 53.12
	Other English wares:	Nc	120	Fig. 58.33
L80	Local wares:	Hg	102	Fig. 53.10
		Hk	103	Fig. 53.17, 19, 20, 21, 23
F2	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.21
	Continental wares:	Nb	124	Fig. 59.3, 5
F19	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.36
F25	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.15
	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 55.27
F52	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.34

Iron objects

L26	Nail	146	Fig. 71.15
F14	Hinge pin	142	Fig. 69.8

Copper alloy objects

F2	Seal	149	Fig. 73.3, 3a

Period 3c

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L17	Bristol wares:	Ke	114	Fig. 57.18
L31	Local wares	He	101	Fig. 53.4
L61	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.9
L111	Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.1, 44
	Bristol wares:	Jc	108	Fig. 54.21
	Other English wares:	Ld	118	Fig. 58.16
F20	Local wares:	He	101	Fig. 53.3
F23	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.1
F112	Bristol wares:	Kb	111	Fig. 56.17

Iron objects

F20	Blade	142	Fig. 69.1
F20	U-shaped bar	142	Fig. 69.7
F21	Stud	142	Fig. 69.6
F26	Blade	142	Fig. 69.5

Copper alloy objects

L17	Pin	146	Fig. 72.3
L17	Ring	148	Fig. 72.9
L17	Strip	148	Fig. 72.12
L111	Pins	146	Fig. 72.4, 5

Coins

L35	Jetton, French, 14th century	149	Inventory no. 5

DISCUSSION

It has been suggested that at the end of period 2 the conventual buildings in the area of Site 11 comprised east and west ranges joined with a wall on the south thus forming a small cloister. The eastern range probably included a chapter house and a parlour, possibly with a dorter above the chapter house whilst the western range should have included the cellar and possibly the prior's residence (Fig. 30).

At the beginning of period 3, early in the 13th century, the southern room in the eastern wing and the southern boundary wall were demolished and the site prepared for a new southern range. The western range and most of the chapter house were apparently left untouched.

The new building was 20m long and 6m wide in internal measurements and its construction meant that the cloister was reduced in size from an average north–south width of about 21m to 14m. The east–west dimension was unaltered at 17m. The new building, which was probably the frater, was built at right angles to the east and west ranges (Fig. 38).

The building apparently had a simple earth floor with occasional patches of red clay, ash and slag, the patching being mainly in the western half of the room. As was normal with monastic fraters of the 13th century, there was no fireplace or hearth in the building.

The new frater was a well constructed building of reasonable size for a small alien priory. This may suggest that special revenues were allocated for the building which could hardly have been paid for out of the common fund for the upkeep of the priory.

The new southern range had deep foundation trenches and walls over 1m thick. The apparent use of constructional scaffolding on the outside of the south wall, rather than simple trestles, suggests that the building had quite high walls and that it was designed either as a typical medieval great hall, open to the rafters, or that it was of two storeys. There was probably one entrance from the cloister in the normal position near the west end and a second doorway leading into the chapter house. Two doorways leading from the frater to the monastic grounds south of the cloister area are also probable. One of these may have led to the kitchen which was often a free-standing building on the opposite side of the frater from the cloister, and would probably have been close to the well (Fig. 38).

There was little indication of the internal features in the frater. At least one central timber support (F79) was apparently necessary either for the roof or an upper floor. Although there were several smaller postholes surrounding it (Fig. 39) they were not aligned as a partition and may represent temporary shoring late in period 3a. In the western half were traces of what may have been a partition, F66, but as this was sealed by the main floor level (L104) it was probably only a temporary feature (Fig. 40).

The alterations and improvements of period 3b are, as has been indicated earlier (p. 77), difficult to date. The problem is due to a total lack of stratified pottery on Site 11 during the period between the late 13th century and, at the earliest, the late 14th century. It is apparent from the documentary history that the priory was functioning during this period, although probably the number of monks was considerably reduced during the wars with France (p. 9). Did this mean that the frater was disused for much of the 14th century and that the small community concentrated their resources and used only a part of the conventual buildings? If, as is suggested, there were only two or three monks, then the large dining hall may well have been abandoned in favour of a small parlour, perhaps in the west wing close to the well and the suggested kitchen site. This state of affairs was not uncommon in small houses and there are indications, that, well before the close of the Middle Ages, a solution to the problem of reduced numbers was being sought by making the prior's establishment the centre of life of the reduced monastery (Gilyard-Beer 1958, 47).

The excavations did not provide the necessary information to date the period 3b alterations to the frater, but the historical records suggest that the most likely time would have been during the first few years of the 15th century (p. 10) rather than any time in the previous century. The installation of a fireplace in the frater is also more likely to have been a late feature, for it was not until well into the 14th century that there was a general change to better standards of material comfort and fireplaces replaced the communal fire in the warming room (*op. cit.*, 46).

Apart from the fireplace, which replaced the period 3a southern doorway, F30, the main structural alterations to the frater were the blocking of the chapter house doorway (F20) and the installation of a new doorway, F14, leading to the south-eastern corner of the cloistral walk. In addition, the western part of the north wall was completely rebuilt including doorway F36, which also led into the cloister.

Probably at the same time as the frater was restored, a doorway, F7, was inserted into the east wall and a new building was added in the angle between the frater and the chapter house, extending to the east beyond the line of the latter. The latrine pit (F2) and its associated drain (F6) (Fig. 29) indicate that this room was the reredorter. The drainage system was rather primitive for a monastic site, but it is possible that water flowed down drain F19 from higher up the hill to the south and was used to flush the latrines. The apparently flimsy nature of wall F10 suggests that the reredorter was only a single-storey addition to the main frater block.

A fireplace may have been added to the south-western corner of the western wing, but modern damage was on

such a substantial scale that this could not be confirmed and the precise design of this part of the monastic complex must remain in some doubt.

It would appear that the southern wing suffered from periodic flooding due to the high ground to the south. This had, in part, been remedied in the early 13th century by drain F50/F61, which led surplus water to the west of the monastic buildings and church. However, when the area between the well and the south wing was surfaced during period 3b, a new drain, F52, was inserted, which ran across the southern range through the two opposite doorways, F36 and F42. This would presumably have discharged into the surface water drainage system within the cloister.

The final alterations to the frater probably took place in the latter part of the 15th century (period 3c). The changes, which included transferring the fireplace from the southern to the northern wall and the installation of stairs, suggest that the building was, once again, completely renovated (Fig. 43).

All traces of the southern fireplace (F40) and chimney stack (F25) were removed and a new stack built on to the north wall with an asymmetrical fireplace on the ground floor. The chimney stack would have meant that the cloister alley became narrower at this point by about 0.4m. The stack was almost 4m in width whilst the fireplace, opposite the eastern part of the stack, was only some 2m wide. This suggests that the stack was designed to accommodate a second fireplace at a first floor level. Additional evidence for the first floor level is provided by the postholes in front of the blocked fireplace (F40) which are considered to represent a flight of stairs. It is, however, possible that these stairs were no more than the access to a high level pulpit such as has survived at Chester (Gilyard-Beer 1958, 30) where the stairway is in a thickening of the south wall. It would seem most probable, however, that the medieval open hall, then some 250 years old, had a first floor inserted during period 3, and that this first floor had its own fireplace.

The two rows of stones, F24 and F24A (Fig. 44) in the eastern half of the frater, and possibly some of the postholes, may have been the supports for a raised timber dais for the high table (*op. cit.*, 29) behind which could have been a reredos possibly supported in postholes F32 and F46 (Pl. 11).

It has been suggested that the west wing of the conventual buildings was completely rebuilt during period 3c, possibly by extending the cloister area to the west so that the new wing joined the western end of the priory church. The evidence within the excavated area was only sufficient to indicate some reconstruction in this area, which probably included the cellarer's range and the prior's lodgings as well as the main gateway into the priory. A substantial increase in size of the lodging, possibly including guest rooms, was a common feature in monastic establishments from the late Middle Ages to the Dissolution, and it would not be surprising to find a substantial rebuilding of the west wing at Chepstow at this late date.

Period 4 — Post-Dissolution Features

The priory was dissolved in 1536 and all the archaeological evidence suggests that the conventual buildings were demolished shortly after that date. The cottages, which occupied most of the area excavated and which were demolished in 1973, were probably built in the early 19th century (Fig. 43). Although they followed the alignment and their front walls utilized the foundations of the south wing of the priory, this is not considered to indicate the reuse of existing priory walls but rather that the cottage builders found the footings of the monastic buildings when digging trenches and decided to reuse them as solid foundations for the cottages.

DESCRIPTION

The priory destruction level, L5, contained stone rubble, mortar, slate, and brown earth. The upper levels were mixed as a result of 18th and 19th-century disturbances, but the main layer contained no material which need be later than the mid 16th century. This demolition debris filled the area within the upstanding walls of the south wing and spread around the walls to the limits excavated. The careful placing of the carved base, originally probably part of the arcade along the cloister alley, in doorway F14 (Figs. 44 and 46.1, Pl. 11), probably occurred during demolition. It may have become buried in rubble before it could be retrieved for use elsewhere. Most of the post-monastic disturbances in the area excavated occurred when the cottages were built in the 19th century. Apart from the two cellars (Fig. 43) they included a brick drain across the central part of the southern wing of the monastic buildings and several shallow pits and trenches. The areas removed for the cellars corresponded exactly to their final shapes when faced with stone, except for the eastern wall of the eastern cellar where the facings were set back slightly, leaving a trench, F111 (Fig. 29). The northern part of the site was confused by a water main which was live and could not be disturbed.

DATING

Pottery evidence suggests that the demolition of the priory buildings took place shortly after the Dissolution.

INVENTORY

Carved stone

L5	Arcade fragment	83	Fig. 46.2
L5	Arch fragment	83	Fig. 46.4
F14	Arcade fragment	83	Fig. 46.1

Illustrated ridge tile

CONTEXT	FABRIC	PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L1	Dc	89	Fig. 48.10

Illustrated pottery

CONTEXT	FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
L5	Other English wares:	Nc	120	Fig. 58.32
		Nf	121	Fig. 58.34
	Continental wares:	Nb	124	Fig. 59.1
F111	Other English wares:	Mb	119	Fig. 58.28

Clay pipe

F39	Bowl	141	Fig. 68.2

Iron object

L5	Knife	142	Fig. 69.2

DISCUSSION

The archaeological evidence for demolition is in accord with the documentary evidence, which suggests that at the Dissolution the King reserved the building materials for his own use (p. 10). During the demolition no attempt was made to remove the lowest courses of the walls and they survived for up to 0.5m above the floor level, buried in debris resulting from the work.

The wine cellar, to the west of the area excavated, may have been in use from the mid 17th century (p. 56). Its location in relation to the church suggests that it could have replaced a monastic undercroft, but this could not be confirmed. Demolition of the western wing may have left the remains of the monastic cellar as a large, partly filled hole, easily and cheaply convertible to a wine cellar after the Civil War.

INVENTORY OF UNSTRATIFIED FINDS

Illustrated pottery

FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
Roman, Samian		92	Fig. 50.10
Local wares:	Ha.1	97	Fig. 51.14
	Ha.3	99	Fig. 52.11
	He	101	Fig. 53.1
Bristol wares:	Jb	107	Fig. 54.1
	Jc	108	Fig. 54.35
	Ka	109	Fig. 55.4, 9
	Kb	111	Fig. 56.19
	Ke	114	Fig. 57.54
Other English wares:	Mb	119	Fig. 58.29
	Nj	121	Fig. 58.35
Continental wares:	Nb	124	Fig. 59.4, 6

Iron Objects

Knife	142	Fig. 69.3

Copper alloy objects

Ring	148	Fig. 72.7
Ring	148	Fig. 72.8
Thimble	149	Fig. 72.17

SITE 9

(Fig. 7)

A series of machine-cut trenches was dug to the south of the priory church to establish the most suitable area for a large scale excavation. The area finally chosen became Site 11 and the trial trenches in that area have been considered as part of the major excavation. The remaining trial trenches, to the south of area 11, comprise Site 9.

Most of the trenches contained a clean, brown soil layer above the undisturbed natural of the site. Occasional sherds of pottery from this layer and from the modern debris above it have been listed as unstratified in the inventory because of the uncertainty due to the machine excavation. Within the trenches the undisturbed natural subsoil came nearer to the surface in a southerly direction in a similar manner to that which had been exposed in the northern part of Site 1 (p. 46).

The only feature of any importance which could be assigned to the monastic period was a wall, which was found in the small western trenches of Site 9, running at right angles to the line of the frater in Site 11. This wall, which was approximately 1m wide and survived to a maximum height of 0.3m, sat on the natural subsoil and had a base of dressed blocks with smaller stones above. The wall turned to the east in the southernmost of the three small trenches and had a total observed length in a north–south direction of 14m. Within the limits of the machine-cut trenches it was not possible to establish whether the wall belonged to a building or if it was a boundary division. The wall was slightly to the east of the line of the long 17th-century wine cellar (p. 56) and ran approximately parallel to it.

The total lack of any trace of a floor level to the west of this wall, which would have been the internal side had it been associated with a building, and the lack of any roofing material, suggests that the wall was used as a boundary, either between two parts of the monastic grounds or along the western side of the monastic precinct, but the possibility remains that it was part of a building such as a kitchen. There was no dating evidence for the construction or demolition of the wall.

INVENTORY

Illustrated pottery

FABRIC		PAGE	ILLUSTRATION
Local wares:	Hb.2	99	Fig. 52.33
Other English wares:	La	121	Fig. 58.4, 9

Coins

Penny token, Halesowen, 1813	150	Inventory no. 7

SITE 8

(Fig. 7)

The Church school was built on the corner of Nelson Street and The Priory in 1855. The site was apparently unoccupied in 1801 (Fig. 5) and in 1686 (Fig. 4) and it was hoped that significant archaeological remains would be found when the school was demolished.

Two machine-cut trenches were examined, one close to Nelson Street and one at the eastern limit of the site, close to the wine cellars. The Nelson Street trench contained a thick layer of build-up material dated to the early Victorian period, with undisturbed natural over 2m deep below the present ground level. The second trench was excavated to an even greater depth through Victorian material and the undisturbed natural was found at 2.7m below the platform on which the school had been built. Traces of the top of some stonework which may have been the foundations for a wall running roughly east–west were found at a depth of 2.2m. No finds were associated with either of these trenches.

It was evident that the ground level at the corner of Nelson Street and The Priory had been considerably heightened when the Church School was built. This may have been achieved by importing material to the site but was more likely to have been the result of levelling the whole site to establish a reasonably flat platform for the school buildings. Some monastic remains may still remain deeply buried in the northern part of the site close to The Priory but all indications suggest that archaeological levels in the rest of the area have been totally destroyed.

INVENTORY

Clay pipe

Bowl 141 Fig. 68.2

PART 3

The Finds

CARVED STONE

Little carved masonry was associated with the Chepstow sites. Most of the carved stone was found on Site 11, mainly in the destruction layers, and none was *in situ*.

Illustrated examples — Fig. 46

1. Complete column base of sandstone. Deeply carved in high relief. The base was originally intended to support a pair of columns, and the upper faces are dressed to a level surface. It may have been part of the arcade around the cloister walk but was found set on the final floor level in doorway F14.
   Dimensions: 41cm length, 25cm wide, 25cm high
   Dating: Late 13th century or later
   — Site 11, Period 4: Doorway F14

2. Large fragment of column base or moulding of sandstone. Carved in high relief. This may also have been intended to support a pair of columns. It was found close to wall F8, in the destruction layer L5.
   Dimensions: 38cm length, 22.5cm wide, 23cm high
   Dating: 14th century
   — Site 11, Period 4: Layer L5

3. Cylindrical column of sandstone with traces of vertical tooling found in two fragments. Three holes were pierced into the stone. Two holes asymmetrically placed opposite each other were 1cm deep, while another, shallower depression was drilled further up the shaft. Similar fragments were found on Site 11 in Wall F8 and in L5. It may have been part of a column, such as no. 1 above would have supported. The shallow holes may have been associated with timber work.
   Dimensions: 39.5cm length, 9cm diameter
   Dating: Late 13th century or later
   — Site 1, Unstratified

4. Two adjoining fragments of sandstone moulding. The curve on the moulding indicates that it was part of an arch which may have been associated with window tracery. This suggestion is supported by the flattened surface of the outer face. This would have been where the face articulated with another arch curving symmetrically away. A groove along the outer surface of the lower of the fragments stops at the join. This may have been for lead for window glass, but reconstruction is uncertain because the inner face does not have any grooves which could have been used for inserting glass, as would be expected in window tracery.
   Dimensions: 15cm width
   Dating: Later 13th century or later
   — Site 11, Period 4: Layer L5

THE RIDGE TILES

by

A. G. Vince

INTRODUCTION

Fragments of ridge tiles were found on Sites 1, 6, 9, and 11 but were only common on Site 1, the monastic barn. Unfortunately, although a large quantity of tile fragments was recovered, there was no definite stratigraphic sequence. This is a common problem with ridge tiles which would have been an infrequently purchased item and once obtained could remain in use throughout the life of a building, and still be fit to reuse. The fragments found during the excavations could either have been broken and discarded when they arrived on the site or could have been disposed of several hundred years later. As a result, although eleven fabric groups have been

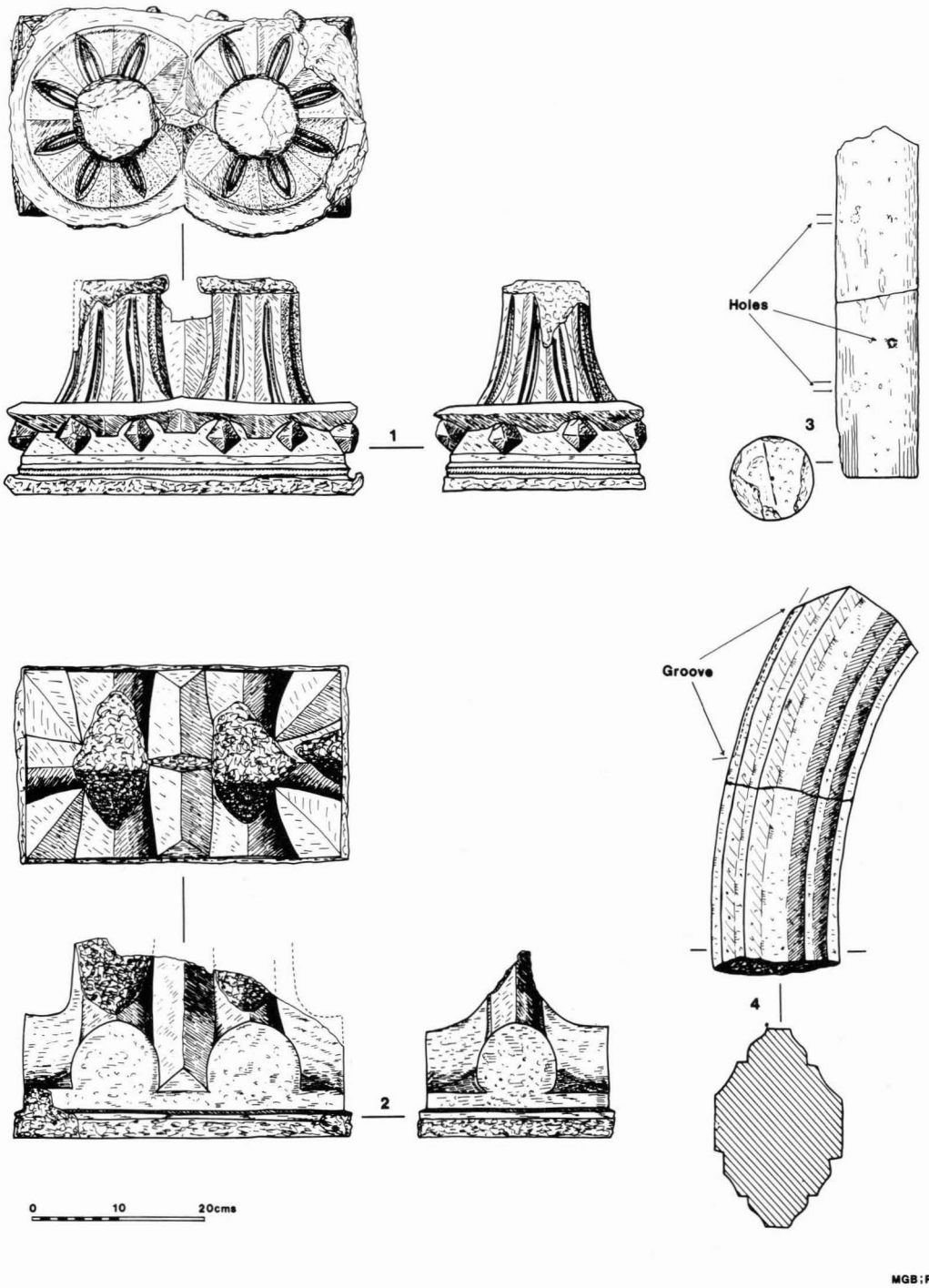

Fig. 46. Carved stone objects.

recognized in the Chepstow material, the excavations have not shown any sequence for their use.

The tiles were sorted visually into fabric types on the basis of their rock and mineral inclusions. Munsell colours are given in all cases (Munsell 1958). A binocular microscope was used to identify some of the inclusions and 29 fragments were thin-sectioned, including at least one example from each fabric. The quantity and size of the inclusions is shown by photomicrographs (Pls. 12 and 13). Fourteen sherds, including at least one from each visual fabric, were re-fired in an electric kiln in oxidizing conditions to a temperature of 1,000°C. Where possible, examples of each tile fabric are illustrated (Figs. 47, 48 and 49).

FABRIC TYPES — SUMMARY

FABRIC	COMPARISONS	ILLUSTRATIONS
A	Similar to pottery fabric Mb (p. 119) (Malvern Chase)	Fig. 47.1–3
B	Similar to pottery fabric Jb (p 105) (Bristol)	Fig. 47.4–6
C	Similar to pottery fabric He (p. 101)	Fig. 48.1–5
Da		Fig. 48.6
Db		Fig. 48.7 & 8
Dc	Similar to pottery fabric Hk (p. 102)	Fig. 48.9–11
Ea		Fig. 49.1
Eb		Fig. 49.2
Ec		Fig. 49.3–5
Ed		Fig. 49.6
Ee		Fig. 49.7

TECHNOLOGY

All the tile fragments bear some evidence of the methods used in their manufacture although there are a number of points which would require experimental replication. Without samples of clay from the production centres it is difficult to establish any cleaning or tempering processes that may have been employed, although comparison with contemporary wares from the same centres (where available) suggests that most tiles were tempered. After the clay was prepared, the first process would have been to mould the tile in a square or rectangular frame resting on a rough surface. No complete tiles survived so the total length could not be measured, but in two fabrics (B and Ea) lengths of 45cm and 39cm respectively can be established if it is assumed that the applied designs are symmetrical. However the cross-section can be reconstructed in several examples and from this the approximate width of the forming frame can be established. The impressions found on the under-surfaces of the tiles differ between groups and may be compared visually or by taking casts. There are only a few examples where sanded surfaces were used, a technique common elsewhere in the medieval period.

Once the clay was moulded in the frame, the excess material would have been scraped off level with the top of the frame. The thickness of the tile would thus reflect the height of the frame and to check if more than one frame was in use in each individual fabric, the thickness of each tile was measured.

The next step in the construction would have been to remove the clay from the frame and bend it over a former to produce the familiar U-section. The uneven nature of several of the profiles suggests that the former may only have been the thigh of the tiler. After shaping, the crest was added. In fabric A the crests were simply knobs of clay, perhaps only two for each tile, but in the remainder a long strip of clay was attached to the spine and cut with a knife into triangular crests. Each crest was often stabbed on one side with a circular or wedge sectioned tool. Additional decoration on some fabrics consists of applied clay strips, often decorated with thumb impressions, incised criss-cross lines, finger-nail nicks and roller stamping. At this stage the tiles were glazed and fired.

In some cases, two separate firings may have been needed, as the fabric underneath the glaze is completely oxidized, but this could have been achieved with a long firing time. In the remainder a single firing is likely, the oxidization being restricted to the under-surface of the tile and those parts of the upper surface not glazed. In most tiles the glaze is clear, with some brown staining over iron ore inclusions, but in fabric Dc the rough textured glaze is caused by the presence of quartz sand particles, and in fabric A the glaze has green specks, probably due to the addition of copper.

The colour differences between the original tiles and those which were re-fired indicate that all except fabric B were made from red-firing clays, and that all the tiles, with the exception of those in fabric C, were originally fired at temperatures less than 1,000°C. It is therefore apparent that the differences in colour within most of the fabrics are due to variations in firing technique rather than variations in the fabric. Thus the fabrics with a dark grey core (mainly fabric B) must have been fired for a short period of time at low temperatures while those with a light grey core must have been fired in a reducing atmosphere.

There was no evidence for the stacking of tiles during firing although if larger fragments had been found, the runnels of glaze might have shown the orientation in the kiln.

SOURCE

The analysis has indicated that two of the eleven established fabrics can be assigned to known sources; fabric A to the Malvern Chase area and fabric B to the Bristol area. Both were probably produced as a side-line to the manufacture of pottery and their respective hollow-wares are common at Chepstow (fabrics Mb and Jb). The remaining fabric types have as yet no known sources, although comparison with the pottery fabrics suggests that the tiles of fabric Dc are identical in composition to pottery fabric Hk so that it can be assumed that both have the same local source. A fragment of wheel-thrown finial in the same fabric indicates that the manufacturer was familiar with the techniques of hollow-ware production. Fabric C tiles are made from a similar fabric to that used in He pottery but this is a widely-made fabric and need not imply that both are from the same source. Tile fabrics Da and E are generally similar to pottery fabric Hg but have a higher quantity of inclusions.

DATING

Fragments of tiles from Site 1, the monastic barn, were almost entirely found in the destruction levels of periods 3 and 4 and, despite their quantity, provide little information about the date of first use. At Site 6, the Nelson Street house, tiles of fabric Ea were found in pit F1 (period 2c; late 13th and early 14th centuries), fabric Ed in posthole F36 (period 2b; late 13th or early 14th century) and fabric Eb in wall F44 (period 2a; 13th century). Unstratified tiles from the same site included fabric A (six tiles), fabric Dc (seven tiles) and fabric Ee (one tile). The tiles from Site 11, the priory, were mainly unstratified, but it may be significant that no ridge tile fragments were present in the large early 13th-century pottery assemblages. Single tile fragments were however found in period 3b contexts (F2 and F52 — fabric Dc) and in 3c contexts (L85 — fabrics B and Dc: F27 — fabric A). The destruction levels of Site 11 contained the following: fabric A (fourteen tiles), fabric C (three tiles) and fabric Dc (one tile).

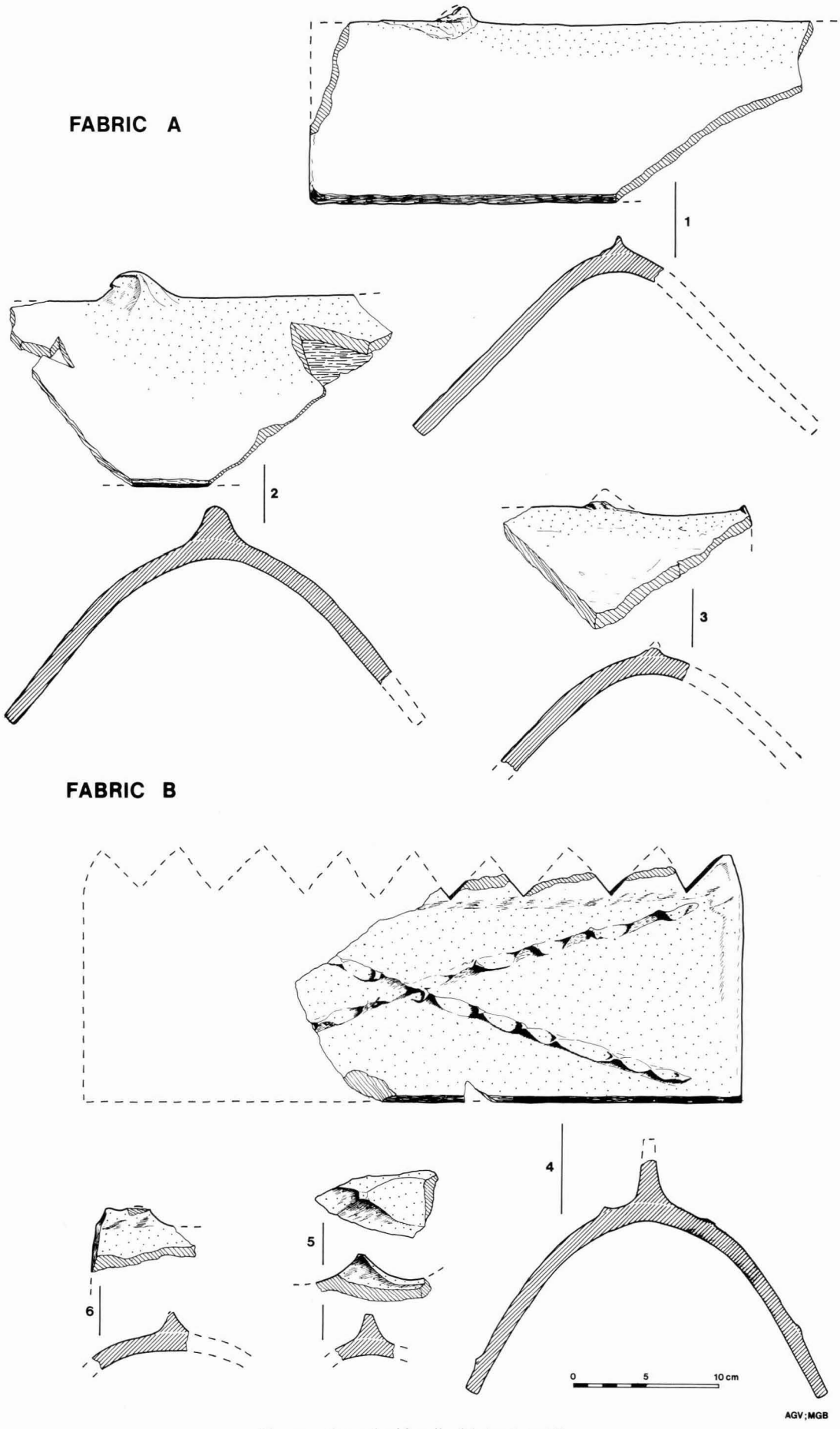

Fig. 47. Ceramic ridge tile; fabrics A and B.

From the dating of the contemporary pottery in the same fabrics, the following chronology is suggested:

fabrics Ea and Ed	13th century
fabrics B and Dc	late 13th to early 15th century
fabric A (and possibly C and Ee)	late 15th to early 16th century

INVENTORY

FABRIC A (Malvern Chase area: see pottery fabric Mb)

Fabric: The tiles are of a hard fabric, mainly oxidized to a reddish yellow (5YR 6/6) colour, sometimes with a brown (7.5YR 5/2) core. Inclusions are of rounded quartz, from 0.1mm to 0.4mm, some clay pellets and igneous rock fragments occasionally several millimetres across. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains some fine angular quartz up to 0.1mm. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/8).

Typology: Fragments of this fabric range in thickness from 8mm to 18mm, 65 per cent being between 10mm and 14mm. A secondary peak at 17mm probably indicates the use of a larger frame during manufacture. The tiles all have hand-formed crests usually in the form of small knobs up to 30mm long and 15mm tall but occasionally larger and bent over the long axis of the tile (Fig. 47.2). The green-specked glaze is sparsely applied, usually just along the spine.

Illustrated examples — Fig. 47

1.	Large fragment of tile with a single crest in the form of a small applied knob near one end	Site 1 Period 4: F3
2.	Fragment of tile with applied knob slightly bent along axis	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
3.	Fragment of tile with broken crest but showing slight 'lip' at the end of the crest	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10

Micrographs — Pl. 12.1, 2 and 3

FABRIC B (Bristol kilns: see pottery fabric Jb)

Fabric: The tiles have a hard fabric, either oxidized to a reddish yellow (7.5YR 7/6) or oxidized with a dark grey (7.5YR 4/0) core. The main inclusions are of rounded quartz, many of the grains being polycrystalline from 0.1 to 0.5mm. There is also rare chert up to 2mm, clay pellets up to 3mm and iron ore from 0.1mm to 0.4mm. Sandstone fragments are found with a brown matrix up to 0.4mm in an optically anisotropic clay matrix with little fine quartz. The re-fired colour is reddish-yellow (5YR 6/8).

Typology: Fragments range in thickness from 8mm to 16mm with 85 per cent within the range 10mm to 14mm. The tiles have knife-cut crests, usually without stabbing, and have a decoration of strips applied diagonally across both sides of the tile (Fig. 47.4). The glaze is clear with iron staining from inclusions in the body. The glaze colour ranges from yellowish-brown (10YR 5/6) to olive-grey (5Y 4/2).

Illustrated examples — Fig. 47

4.	Large fragment of tile from which it is possible to reconstruct the length by making use of the symmetry of the design. Knife-cut crests and applied, thumbed diagonal strips across both sides	Site 1 Period 4: Pit F3
5.	Small fragment showing curved variety of knife-cut crest	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
6.	Small fragment with small knife-cut crest	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10

Micrographs — Pl. 12.4, 5 and 6

FABRIC C (see pottery fabric He)

Fabric: The fabric varies from soft to very hard and is either oxidized red (2.5YR 5/6 to 5/8), rarely with a grey (10YR 5/1) core or is very highly fired to a reddish-brown (2.5YR 4/4) with a very dark grey (2.5YR 3/0) core. Inclusions consist of fine quartz and mica up to 0.1mm but mainly much finer clay pellets up to 0.3mm and dense red clay pellets up to 0.3mm. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6).

Typology: The thickness varies from 8mm to 15mm with two peaks, one between 9mm and 10mm and the second between 11mm and 12mm. The tiles have knife-cut crests, sometimes stabbed on one side with a circular-sectioned, pointed tool (Fig. 48.3 and 5). The clear glaze, which has brown specks from inclusions in the body, varies in colour from dark brown (5YR 3/4) to dark yellowish-brown (10YR 4/4).

Illustrated examples — Fig. 48

1.	Fragment showing steep knife-cut crest	Site 1 Period 3b: Layer L22
2.	Fragment from end of tile with small crest	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
3.	Two fragments with regular knife-cut crests, each with a single stabbed hole 6mm in diameter	Site 1 Period 3c: Layer L20
4.	Large fragment illustrating cross-section. It has a narrow knife-cut crest	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
5.	Fragment with large regular knife-cut crests each with a single stabbed circular hole 8mm in diameter	Site 1 Period 4: Layers L8 and L23

Micrographs – Pl. 12.7–10

FABRIC D: Tiles in this fabric group are characterized by the presence of a high quantity of mica up to 0.1mm and certain larger inclusions. At a later stage in the analysis the group was subdivided into three separate fabric groups Da, Db and Dc on the basis of the larger inclusions.

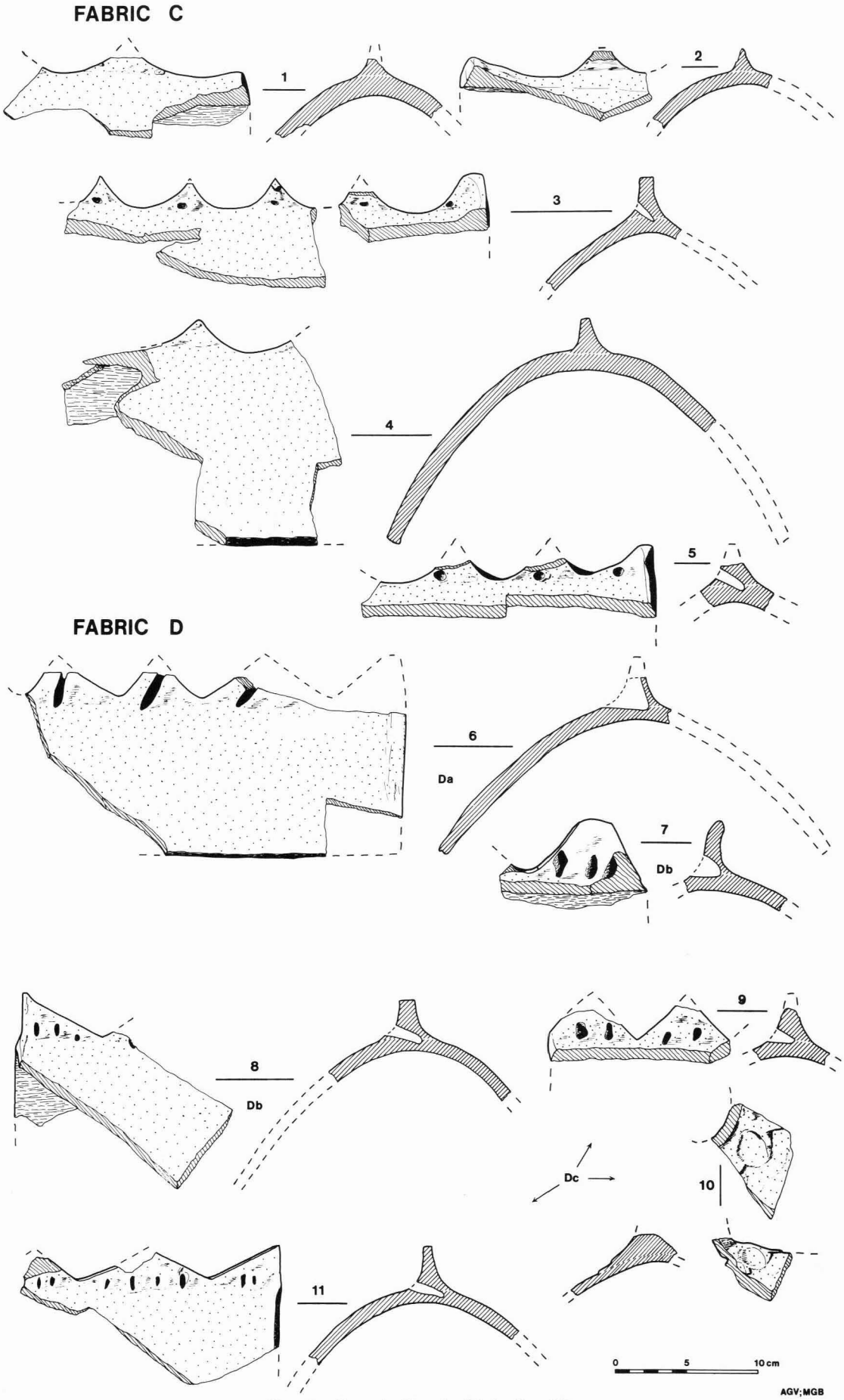

Fig. 48. Ceramic ridge tile; fabrics C and D.

FABRIC Da

Fabric: This hard fabric is coarser than fabric C, usually with a grey (2.5YR 5/0) to dark grey (2.5YR 4/0) core and reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) oxidized under-surfaces. It contains as inclusions rounded quartz, sandstone and some microcrystalline quartz (or chert) fragments from 0.1mm to 0.5mm. The clay matrix is optically anisotropic and contains angular fragments of quartz and mica up to 0.1mm. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6).

Typology: Tile thicknesses range from 13mm to 22mm but are mainly 13mm to 18mm. One tile has a textile impression on its base possibly produced when the tile was bent over the thigh of the tiler (p. 85). The tiles have knife-cut crests and are usually undecorated. The glaze is clear and olive (5Y 4/3) in colour.

Illustrated example: Fig. 48

6.	Large fragment of tile with abraded, knife-cut crests each stabbed with a wedge-sectioned tool 6mm across	Site 1 Period 3c: Layer L20

Micrographs – Pl. 12.11, 12 and 13

FABRIC Db

Fabric: The tiles have a soft fabric, oxidized yellowish-red (5YR 5/6 to 5/8), sometimes with a grey core. Inclusions consist of rounded quartz sand from 0.1mm to 0.5mm and red clay pellets up to 3mm. It has sandstone and possibly chert inclusions and a matrix similar to fabric Da. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6).

The main difference between fabrics Da and Db is the lower quantity of inclusions greater than 0.1mm and the presence of clay pellets in the latter.

Typology: Fragments range in thickness from 9mm to 15mm but are mainly in the range 10mm to 14mm. The crests are knife-cut, usually with one to three stabs, made with a wedge-sectioned, pointed tool, on each crest. The glaze is poor in quality and usually opaque, light yellowish-brown 2.5Y 6/4).

Illustrated examples: Fig. 48

7.	Large knife-cut crest with three irregular stabs	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
8.	End of tile with knife-cut crest and small oval stabs	Site 1 Period 3c: Layer L20 (and part in L10)

Micrographs — Pl. 12.14 and 15

FABRIC Dc (see pottery fabric Hk)

Fabric: The fabric is hard and mainly oxidized to a reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) to light red (2.5YR 6/8) colour, usually with a light brown to grey (10YR 5/3) core. Rounded inclusions are found of quartz, sandstone, limestone and possibly chert from 0.1mm to 0.5mm in diameter. The sandstone inclusions are medium-grained and up to 0.04mm with a silica matrix and the limestone is micro-crystalline with a few quartz silt inclusions. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains angular quartz and mica up to 0.2mm and is finer in texture than fabrics Da and Db. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6).

Typology: Tile fragments in this fabric range in thickness from 6mm to 15mm but are mainly in the 9mm to 12mm range. The tiles have knife-cut crests stabbed with a wedge-sectioned pointed tool and have two to four stabs per crest. The clear yellowish-brown (10YR 5/6) glaze has fragments of rounded quartz incorporated in it and is brown stained in places. One tile has the base of a finial decorated with thumb impressions (Fig. 48.10) and a fragment of wheelthrown finial (which is not illustrated) was found in pit F2 on Site 11 (period 3b).

Illustrated examples — Fig. 48

9.	Abraded knife-cut crests, each with two irregular wedge-shaped stabs	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
10.	Base of finial decorated with thumb impressions	Site 11 Period 4: Layer L1
11.	End of tile with knife-cut crests, and three to four irregular stabs in each crest	Site 1 Period 3c: Layer L20

Micrographs — Pl. 12.16 and 17

FABRIC E: Fabric group E consists of tiles with little visible mica and varying quantities of rounded quartz sand. The group was later subdivided into five separate fabrics Ea, Eb, Ec, Ed and Ee. Thin-section analysis shows that the clay matrixes in fabric E are in general similar to those of fabrics C and D and all have some rounded quartz and sandstone sand inclusions.

FABRIC Ea

Fabric: This soft fabric is oxidized to a reddish-yellow (7.6YR 6/6) colour with a dark grey (7.5YR 4/0) core. Rounded inclusions consist of quartz, sandstone, limestone and possibly chert from 0.2mm to 1.5mm. The sandstones contain poorly sorted quartz grains up to 0.4mm with a silica matrix and the limestone is microcrystalline and brown stained. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains angular inclusions of quartz and mica up to 0.1mm but there is less mica than in fabrics C and D. The refired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6).

Typology: The fragments range in thickness from 8mm to 16mm. The tiles have knife-cut crests and are decorated with clay strips applied diagonally and lines of finger nail impressed nicks (Fig. 49.1). The glaze is of poor quality and olive (5Y 4/3) in colour.

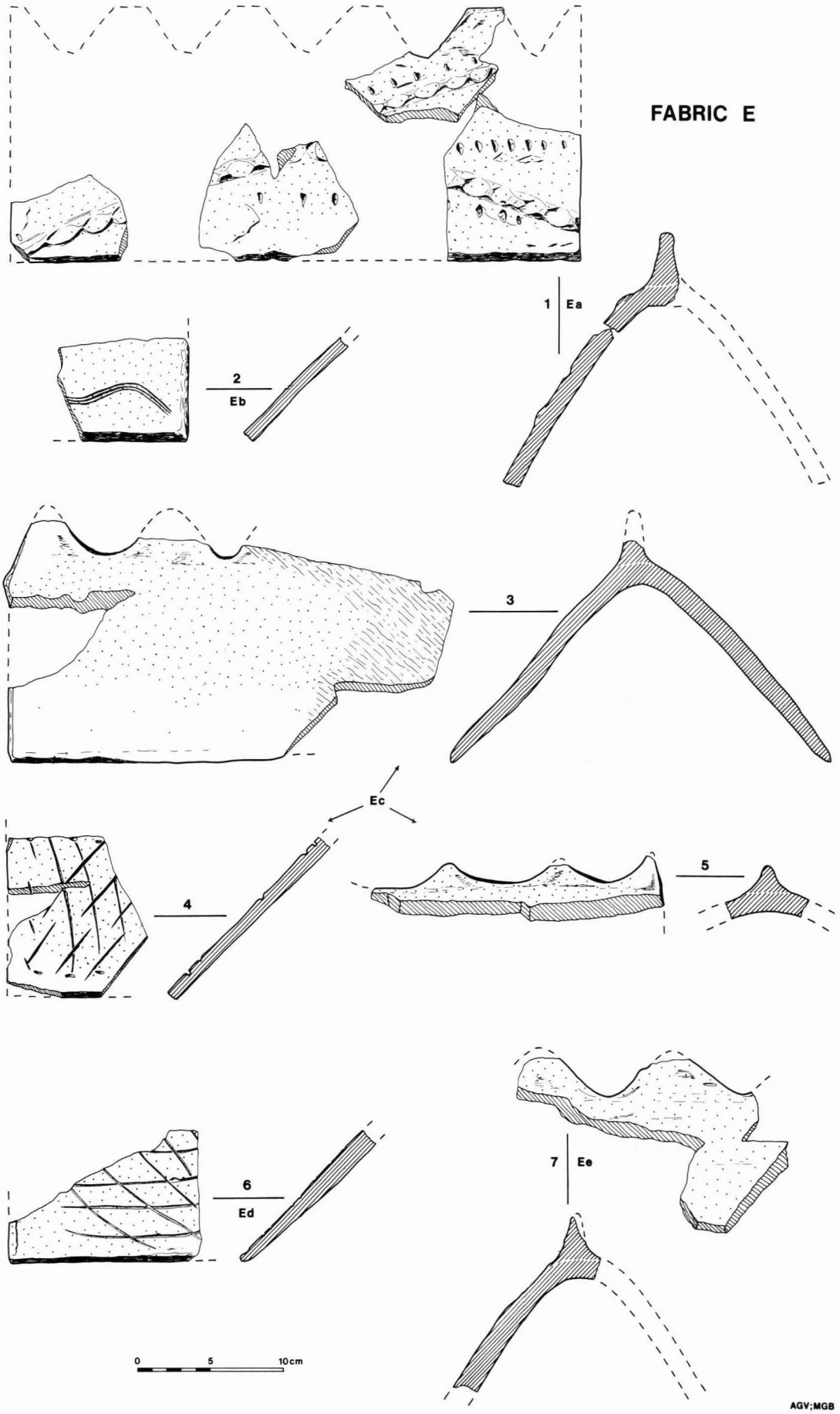

Fig. 49. Ceramic ridge tile; fabric E.

Illustrated example — Fig. 49

1. Several fragments of one tile from which it is possible to reconstruct the length by making use of the symmetry of the design. The tile is decorated with thumb-impressed applied strips and finger nail impressions — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10 and Pit F21

Micrograph — Pl. 13.1

FABRIC Eb

Fabric: This hard fabric was oxidized on the under surface only to a reddish-yellow (5YR 7/8) with a grey (7.5YR 6/0) core. Quartz, sandstones and opaque (possibly iron ore) inclusions are from 0.1mm to 1mm and there are some red clay pellets. The sandstone fragments contain quartz, opaque iron ore and mica grains up to 0.1mm in a silica matrix. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains angular quartz and a little mica, mainly less than 0.04mm — a similar size range to fabric C. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6).

Typology: The fragments range in thickness from 8mm to 12mm. No examples of crests were found but side fragments are sometimes decorated with combed, wavy lines (Fig. 49.2). The clear glaze is light olive brown (2.5Y 5/4) in colour.

Illustrated example — Fig. 49

2. Fragment showing combed, wavy line decoration on side of tile — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10

Micrographs — Pl. 13.2 and 3

FABRIC Ec

Fabric: A hard fabric which is oxidized red (2.5YR 5/6) with a grey core. There are rounded quartz, sandstone, and red clay pellet inclusions from 0.1mm to 1.5mm. The sandstone fragments contain quartz and some iron ore grains from 0.1mm to 0.2mm, in a silica matrix. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains a small quantity of fine angular quartz, iron ore specks and mica up to 0.1mm in size. The re-fired colour is reddish-brown (2.5YR 4/4).

Typology: Fragments range in thickness from 7mm to 14mm. The tiles have knife-cut crests and some are undecorated while others have criss-cross incised lines and fingernail nicks (Fig. 49.4). The clear glaze is olive (5Y 4/4).

Illustrated examples — Fig. 49

3. Large fragment of end of undecorated tile with knife-cut crests — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10
4. Fragment of tile with incised lines and fingernail impressions — Site 1, Period 3c: Posthole F42
5. Fragment of ridge tile with small, knife-cut crests — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10

Micrographs — Pl. 13.4–7

FABRIC Ed

Fabric: A hard fabric, oxidized only on the under-surface to a brown (7.5YR 5/4) colour with a grey core. There are quartz, sandstone and chert inclusions and rounded clay pellets from 0.2mm to 2mm. The sandstones contain quartz, mica and opaque iron ore grains up to 0.1mm in a silica matrix. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains a small quantity of angular quartz and mica up to 0.04mm. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6).

Typology: Fragments range in thickness from 10mm to 11mm. No examples with crests were found but side fragments are decorated with criss-cross lines (Fig. 49.6). The tiles have a dark yellowish-brown clear glaze (10YR 4/6).

Illustrated example — Fig. 49

6. Fragment of edge and side of tile with incised line decoration — Site 1, Period 3c: Layer L24 and Posthole F42

Micrographs — Pl. 13.8 and 9

FABRIC Ee

Fabric: The hard fabric is oxidized red (2.5YR 5/8) sometimes with a dark core. Inclusions consist of rounded quartz and some chert from 0.1mm to 0.3mm. Rounded clay pellets and rare micaceous mudstone fragments occur up to 2mm. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains scattered fine angular quartz and some mica up to 0.1mm. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6).

Typology: Fragments range in thickness from 12mm to 18mm but are mainly in the range 14mm to 18mm. The tiles have knife cut crests and a clear yellowish-brown glaze (10YR 4/4).

Illustrated example — Fig. 49

7. Fragment of tile showing knife-cut crests — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10

Micrograph — Pl. 13.10

ROMAN POTTERY

by

T. Copeland

INTRODUCTION

The Roman features which survived on Site 1 and which produced most of the Roman pottery, were extensively damaged by medieval disturbances. Several sherds were recovered from overlying layers as well as from within Roman features. Because of the amount of disturbance, much of the pottery is fragmentary and abraded, which has resulted in several reconstruction drawings. The Roman sherds would seem to indicate some occupation in the Chepstow area in the latter part of the first century A.D. and the early part of the succeeding century. This would be consistent with the Roman campaigns in Wales at that time and it is suggested elsewhere (p. 160) that a small fort may have been constructed to guard the river crossing.

Besides the published vessels, the only sherds recognizable as of Romano-British origin were three sherds of undecorated Samian ware, four fragments of the buff/orange ware often known as Caerleon Legionary ware, but now of uncertain provenance, and four fragments of blue/grey ware (often with grey in the fabric).

INVENTORY

Illustrated examples — Fig. 50

1. & 2. Flagon top and base with five unevenly spaced rings. Buff/orange ware (7.5YR 6/8 reddish-yellow). Site 1 Period 1: F46
This is a fairly frequently illustrated form (e.g. James 1978: no. 35 pp. 101–2).
Late 1st century A.D.

3. Rim and shoulder of wheel-thrown high-shouldered jar with a recurved rim, a groove on the shoulder, and a major groove below the shoulder. A buff/orange fabric with a grey core and occasional white calcitic occlusions (5YR 6/8 reddish-yellow and 5YR 5/6 yellowish-red). Traces of a white slip. The fabric is similar to early examples of Severn Valley ware, which has also occurred at the Neronian site at Usk, and at Kingsholm, Gloucester. (Webster 1976). Site 1 Period 1: F46
The drawing is a reconstruction taken from a plaster cast of the shattered vessel *in situ* and is partly conjectural. It would appear that the vessel was burnt after it shattered, as unburnt fragments were found nearby. The vessel was probably derived from a Belgic prototype.
Second half of the 1st century A.D.

4. Rim and shoulder of globular jar with cordon at neck. Hard buff outer surface and light grey inner. Occasional quartz occlusions (5YR 6/8 reddish-yellow and 2.5Y 6/2 light brownish-grey). There are traces of burning on the inner surface; the outer surface is vesticulated. Traces of cream slip on the outside. Site 1 Period 1: F35
For a smaller vessel of a similar form see (Clifford 1961) Fig. 49 no. 5.
Early to mid 1st century.

5. Rim of necked jar. Buff/orange fabric with a black slip (5YR 6/8 reddish yellow). Late 1st to early 2nd century A.D. Site 1 Period 1: F45

6. Base and part of body of a handmade bowl. Light grey inner and outer surfaces (10YR 7/2 light grey), with darker grey core. Site 1 Period 1: F45

7. Fragment of wheelthrown base with foot ring. Light grey surfaces and the core of a similar colour with no occlusions in the clay (5Y 6/1 light grey). Site 1 Period 1: F45

8. Rim of burnt Samian cup, form DR37, from southern Gaul. Late 1st century A.D. Site 1 Period 1: L37

9. Fragment of wheelthrown Samian(?) foot ring. Site 1 Period 2/3: L30

10. Samian rim of form DR29, with abraded decoration and rouletted rim. The upper frieze consists of festoons, an incomplete tassel and a bud. It is flanked by two spirals which would have each ended in a heart shaped leaf. (*Mercator type*) From southern Gaul. A helpful analysis of the relevant early Samian stylistic features, although applied to another bowl form, is in Boon, 1965. Site 11 unstratified
Late 1st century A.D.

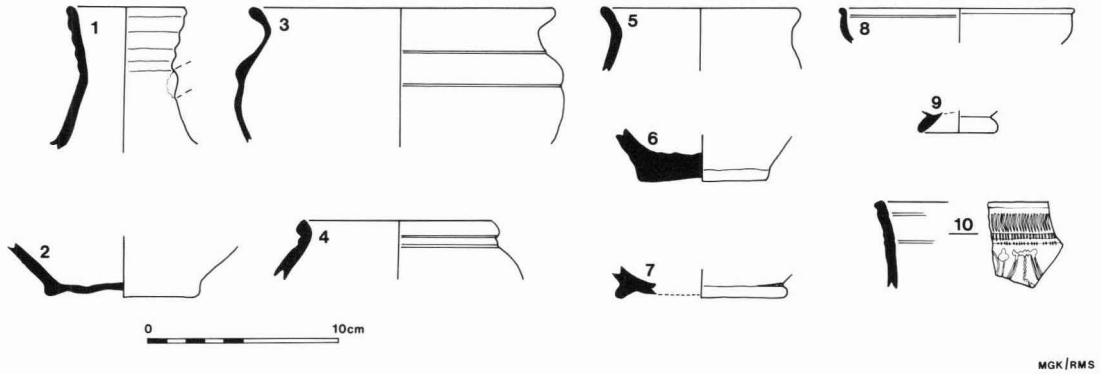

Fig. 50. Roman pottery.

FLOOR TILE

by

A. G. Vince

Only one fragment of floor tile was found during the excavations and this was unstratified on Site 11. It was in too poor a condition to see any detail in the inlaid design and the fabric was similar to, but distinct from, the roof tiles of fabrics C and E.

Fabric: The tile was of a hard fabric, oxidized to a reddish yellow (5YR 6/6) colour. It contains inclusions of rounded quartz and chert, mainly 0.1mm to 1mm, and some mudstone and sandstone pellets occasionally several millimetres across. The chert is dark brown and almost opaque whilst the mudstone has mica inclusions up to 0.1mm and the sandstone is brown stained with a silica matrix. The optically anisotropic clay matrix contains quartz grains up to 0.1mm across. Re-firing does not alter the tile colour indicating that it has a lower iron content than the roof tiles of fabrics C to E.

Typology: The tile is 23mm thick and has a sanded base with similar inclusions to the tile fabric. The sides are bevelled and knife cut and the top surface bears traces of a design in white clay covered with a clear glaze.

Unillustrated

THE MEDIEVAL POTTERY

by

A. G. Vince

INTRODUCTION

Chepstow is situated at the junction of two important routes — one following the Wye valley to Monmouth and the north, and a second following the coast of the Severn estuary, north-eastwards to Gloucester and westwards into Wales. The medieval pottery found in the town could therefore have come from a wide area and one of the aims of this study was to establish, as far as is possible, the sources of the various wares and the likely routes by which they entered the town. The second main aim was to examine the origin and growth of the local pottery industry.

The changing nature of Norman expansion, from political overlordship to actual colonization, is reflected in the pottery sequence, since pottery manufacture was not known to be practised by the Welsh and the craft should therefore have been introduced by immigrant potters or by Welshmen learning the trade from English settlers (Knight 1977).

Pottery was found on all the sites examined, but large stratified medieval groups were present only on the three main sites 1, 6 and 11. The Priory, Site 1, has the best sequence, spanning the period from the late 11th or early 12th century to the Dissolution. The earlier parts of the sequence are duplicated both at the Nelson Street house, Site 6, and at the monastic barn, Site 1, and serve to confirm the general pattern of pottery use over the area of the town which was sampled.

The post-medieval pottery is only briefly mentioned, since the excavations produced only one stratified post-dissolution group and most of the upper levels were removed by machine.

The medieval pottery has been classified according to fabric, defined by visual and thin-section analysis of the inclusions and the clays, and in several cases these fabric groups have been subdivided where the typology or texture suggests that more than one source was

involved. A coding system has been adopted for the individual fabrics which is based on the sequence in which the wares were first defined. In some cases the coding is supplemented either by the kiln site name, or by the manufacturing locality if one or the other is known.

For ease of reference in the following report, the pottery has been arranged in four groups, showing the broad areas from which the town was receiving pottery. These groups are:

GROUP 1

'Local' wares — defined as pottery from the South Wales coastal regions, inland Gwent, the lower Wye valley and the Forest of Dean.

GROUP 2

Bristol wares — pottery from the Bristol area including the products of the Ham Green and Bristol kilns.

GROUP 3

Other English imports — this group includes pottery from Wiltshire and the Severn valley as far north as Worcester and occasional vessels from further afield.

GROUP 4

Continental imports — mainly from south-west France and Spain. All the examined post-medieval imports are also briefly described.

The table below indicates the individual fabrics in each group, their probable source and likely date range.

GROUP	FABRIC	PROBABLE SOURCE	LIKELY DATE RANGE
1. 'LOCAL'	Ha.1	Close to Chepstow	Late 12th and 13th centuries
WARES	Ha.2	Close to Chepstow	Late 13th century
	Ha.3	Possibly Forest of Dean	12th and early 13th centuries
	Hb.1		Late 12th to early 13th century
	Hb.2	Possibly Forest of Dean	Late 12th to early 13th century
	Hb.3	or Wentwood	Late 13th century or later
	Hb.4		Late 13th century or later
	Hd	Probably Stroat near Tidenham	17th century
	He	Many local sources	16th to 17th centuries
	Hg	Vale of Glamorgan	Early 13th and 14th centuries
	Hh	Vale of Glamorgan	Late 12th and early 13th centuries
	Hk	Unknown, probably local	Early 13th and 14th centuries
	Hq	Unknown, probably local	Late 13th or 14th century
	Hs	Upper Gwent area	Probably 12th or 13th century
	Ht	Unknown, probably local	Late 13th century or later
	Hu	Unknown, possibly Vale of Glamorgan	12th or 13th century
2. BRISTOL	Jb	Bristol, St Peters and Bristol Redcliffe	Late 13th century and later
WARES	Jc	Ham Green (Jugs only)	Early 13th century and later
	Ka	Ham Green (Cooking pots only)	Early 13th century and later
	Kb	Possibly Ham Green area	12th and early 13th centuries
	Kc	Probably Bristol area	Late 11th and early 12th centuries
	Ke	Probably Bristol area	Late 11th and early 12th centuries
3. OTHER	La	North Wiltshire, possibly Braydon Forest	Late 12th and 13th centuries
ENGLISH	Lb	West Wiltshire	Late 11th and early 12th centuries
WARES	Lc	Close to Gloucester, possibly Haresfield	Late 11th and 12th centuries
	Ld	South Wiltshire	13th century
	Le	Wiltshire, possibly Box area	12th and 13th centuries
	Lf	Probably West Wiltshire	Probably 12th or 13th century
	Ma	Malvern Chase	Early 13th century
	Mb	Malvern Chase	16th century
	Mc	Malvern Chase	Early 13th century
	Nc	Unknown	Possibly early 13th century
	Ne	Probably Hants-Surrey border (Tudor Green)	15th and 16th centuries
	Nf	Possibly Falfield, Gloucestershire	15th and 16th centuries
	Nh	Stamford	11th and 12th centuries
	Nj	Oxford area	Probably late 13th century
	Nl	Worcester area	Probably early 13th century
	Nn	Unknown	?
	No	Unknown	12th to 13th century
	Nr	Possibly Hereford area	Probably 13th century
	Ns	Unknown	Late 13th century or later
	Nv	Unknown	16th or 17th century
4. CONTINENTAL	Nb	Saintonge	14th century or later
WARES	Np	Martincamp, North France	16th century
	Nq	France	13th century
	Ng	Merida, Spain	—
	Nt	Spanish Olive Jars	—
	Nu	German Stoneware	16th century and later

Within each group, the individual fabrics are described in a standardized format for ease of reference. The characteristics of the fabric are described in the following order:

HARDNESS
: Described as soft, hard and very hard and determined by using a thumb nail and steel blade.

OXIDATION
: The extent of oxidation, the surface colour on the Munsell scale (Muunsell 1958) and the presence of a grey or black core.

RE-FIRING
: The colour of the ware after re-firing for several hours in an electric kiln at 1,000°C.

INCLUSIONS
: The principal rock and mineral inclusions determined by a combination of visual and thin-section analysis.

MATRIX
: The characteristics of the clay matrix in thin-section — unless otherwise stated all the clays are optically anisotropic.

The next section contains a list of the vessel types found in the individual fabric and their approximate relative frequency, unless a typology for the ware has already been published. The date range and frequency of the ware is then discussed and this section is followed by comments on the source and distribution of the fabric.

The fabric descriptions as outlined above form the core of the pottery report. This is followed by a section in which the stratigraphic evidence from the main sites is discussed. This section provides the information on which the dating and sequence of the wares is based and includes tables of fabric frequency in each period based on a sherd count, which reveals the pattern of changing fabrics. Sherd weight analysis would probably not have produced a significantly different picture since there was little variation in sherd size. The method of 'estimated vessel equivalents' (Orton 1978) was not used because of the small size of most of the groups.

The site information is additionally used quantitatively to study the changes in vessel capacity and the pottery technology. Finally the changing pattern of pottery use and the gradually evolving pottery technology during the medieval period in Chepstow is interpreted in terms of the origins and development of the industry in the area and the trading links.

GROUP 1: 'LOCAL' WARES

The fabrics in this group have similar quantities of quartz and white mica in the clay matrix but have varying quantities of the larger inclusions. The inclusions are mainly quartz and sandstone fragments and are usually angular or subangular, although the larger inclusions, those between 1mm and 2mm, are often rounded. When re-fired all the fabrics become the same colour, red (2.5YR 4/6 to 5/8). Despite this similarity, it is thought that these wares come from a variety of sources from Glamorgan to the Forest of Dean. The evidence for the varied sources is not provided by the distinctive character of the fabrics but by the distribution of wares with the same fabric characteristics and made in the same manner.

The wares of this group are not found in the earliest contexts in Chepstow but become numerically important late in the 12th century. Petrologically, the wares of group 1 are very similar to those of the group A wares found in Hereford city and produced in Herefordshire (Shoesmith 1985). Chepstow group 1 wares were not found in Hereford and Hereford group A wares were not found in Chepstow. This reinforces the suggestion, made in the Hereford report, that there was little pottery trade between Hereford and the southern end of the Wye Valley, at least in the 12th and 13th centuries.

FABRIC Ha.1

Fabric: The hard fabric of this ware is oxidized red (2.5YR 5/6) or, more commonly, reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) with a light grey or sometimes dark reddish-brown (5YR 3/2) core. When re-fired it becomes red (2.5YR 4/6). Subrounded inclusions up to 1mm occur in a matrix of fine angular quartz and white mica (up to 0.2mm). Inclusions consist of quartz (some opaque), dense red clay pellets, rounded opaque iron ore, red clay pellets (possibly a mudstone), sandstones, (some with a silica cement, overgrown so that the original boundaries are unclear, and others containing grains of quartz between 0.1mm and 0.2mm in a silica cement with slight iron staining around the grains), large but rare limestone fragments (micro-crystalline, up to 2mm) and a single grain of tourmaline (0.06mm across). The fabric is laminated with the laminae flowing around the inclusions.

The fabric most likely to be mistaken for Ha.1 is Kb in group 2, which has similar sized inclusions and is also found mainly as handmade cooking pots. The colour and slight micaceous glitter of Ha.1 distinguishes the two fabrics.

Typology:

Cooking pots. (Fig. 51.1–32, 38, 41) Handmade, globular bodied vessels with rolled-out rims, often with some moulding at the lip. The whole of the outer surface of the pot is usually wiped, that near the rim being smoothed horizontally, possibly on a turntable. The base is often trimmed and sagging. The cooking pots come in a wide range of sizes, from 15.5cm to 34cm in diameter. Rectangular-toothed, roller stamped decoration, horizontally applied on the shoulder, is a common feature. Wavy combing in the same position is less common.

Pitchers (Fig. 51.33–37, 39, 40, 42–46) These vessels are handmade and globular bodied with a cylindrical neck and simple rim, 14cm to 20cm in diameter, often with a pulled spout and rectangular sectioned handle. The treatment of the surfaces and the base is identical to the cooking pots but decoration is almost always present. Again the rectangular-toothed roller-stamp design is more common than the wavy combing. A single example was found with a geometric roller-stamp about 2.5cm wide.

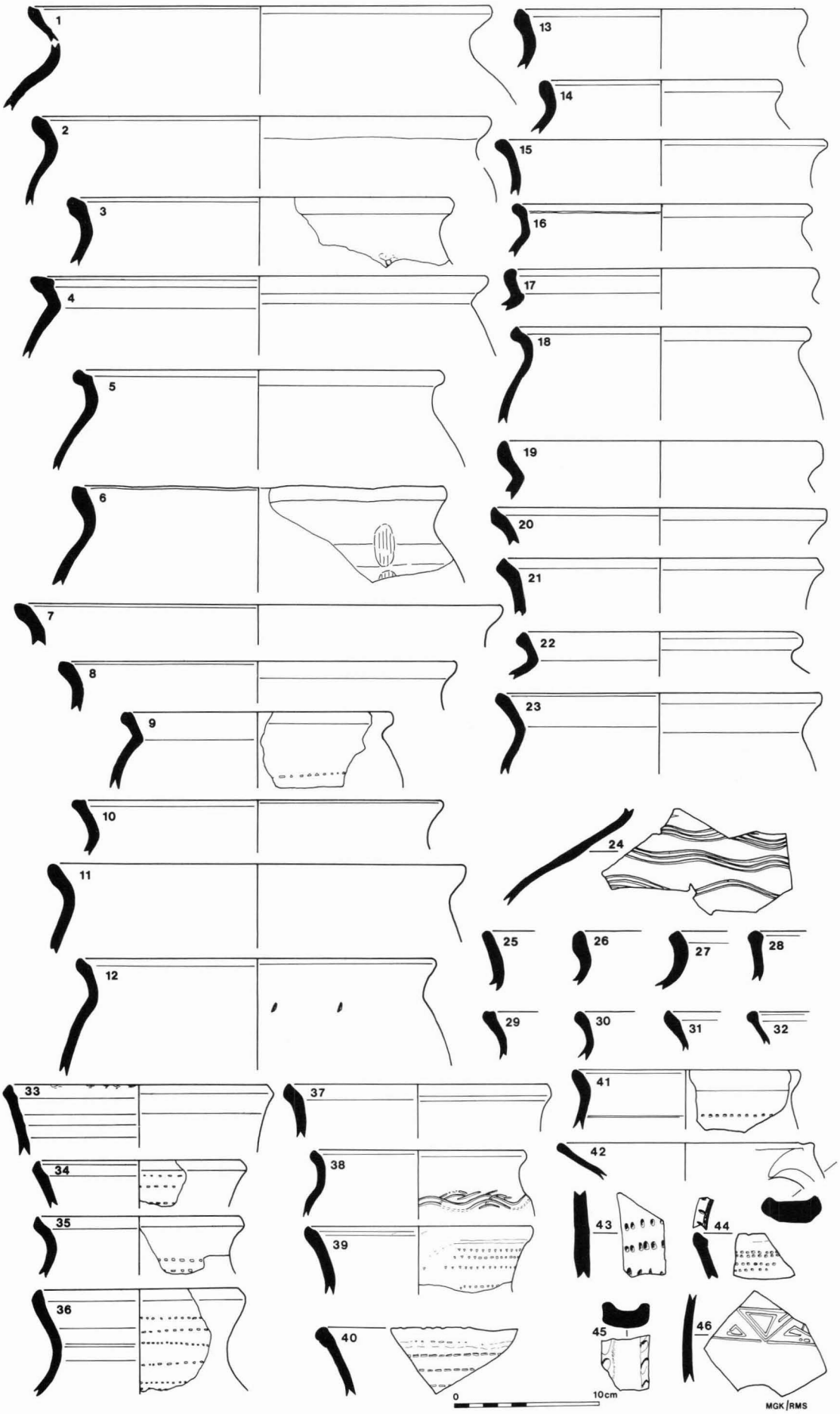

Fig. 5 Local wares. Fabric Ha.1 (late 12th and 13th centuries).

Date and frequency: Sherds of this fabric were present in the later 12th century, when it was the second most common fabric after Kb of group 2. It was apparently more common than Kb during the 13th century, depending on how much of fabric Kb was residual. This is probably one of the few, unglazed, handmade wares to continue in production into the later 13th century.

Source: This fabric has been identified at only one other site — Caerwent — and a source close to Chepstow is certain.

FABRIC Ha.2 (Fig. 52)

The fabric of this ware is very similar to that of Ha.1 and the two may be made from the same clay source.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and oxidized red (2.5YR 5/6) to reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6). There are subrounded inclusions, up to 0.6mm across, in a matrix of angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm. Inclusions consist of quartz, sandstones (including quartz grains between 0.1mm and 0.2mm with iron staining around the grains), iron ore, partially brown stained chert, rare dense clay pellets and red clay pellets with micaceous inclusions (possibly a mudstone). A large angular

Illustrated examples of fabric Ha.1:

All vessels are oxidized throughout

FIG. 51	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	11	3c	L111	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter
2	1	2	F32	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter
3	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim, 27cm diameter; external knob on shoulder
4	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter
5	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
6	6	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter; external thumb marks on shoulder
7	1	3a	F6	Cooking pot rim, 34cm diameter
8	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 28cm diameter
9	11	3c	L61	Cooking pot rim, 19cm diameter; 1 line roller stamped decoration
10	6	2c	L4	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
11	1	2	F32	Cooking pot rim, 29cm diameter
12	1	3a	L27	Cooking pot rim, 25cm diameter, stab marks on shoulder
13	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
14	11	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim, 17cm diameter
15	11	3b	F25	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
16	6	2a	F43	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
17	6	2c	L2	Cooking pot rim, 22cm diameter
18	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
19	6	3	L1	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
20	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
21	11	3b	F2	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
22	1	3b	L32	Cooking pot rim, 20cm diameter
23	1	2	F32	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
24	6	2c	F1 & L2	Body sherd with wavy combed decoration
25	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim
26	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim
27	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim
28	11	3a	L107	Cooking pot rim
29	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim
30	6	2c	F14	Cooking pot rim
31	6	2c	F14	Cooking pot rim
32	6	2c	F9	Cooking pot rim
33	6	2c	L2	Pitcher rim, 19cm diameter; stabbing on internal rim
34	6	2c	L2	Pitcher rim with possible handle stub, 15cm diameter, 3 lines of rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration
35	6	2c	F1	Pitcher rim, 15cm diameter, 2 lines of rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration
36	6	2c	F1	Pitcher rim, 15cm diameter, 6 lines of rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration
37	1	2	F32	Pitcher rim, 19cm diameter
38	1	3a	L27	Cooking pot rim, 15cm diameter with wavy combing on shoulder
39	6	2c	L2	Pitcher rim, 16cm diameter, 4 lines triangular toothed roller stamped decoration
40	10	Unstratified		Pitcher rim; 4 lines of rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration on shoulder and stabbing on internal rim
41	1	2	F32	Cooking pot rim, 16cm diameter, 1 line rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration
42	6	2c	L2	Pitcher rim, 18cm diameter and part of strap handle. Rim thumbed above handle
43	11	3a	L106	Body sherd with 3 lines of rough roller stamped decoration
44	11	3c	L111	Pitcher rim with 2 close rows of rectangular toothed roller stamped decoration
45	11	3a	L106	Fragment of rectangular sectioned handle
46	6	2c	L4	Body sherd with geometric roller stamped decoration 2.5cm wide

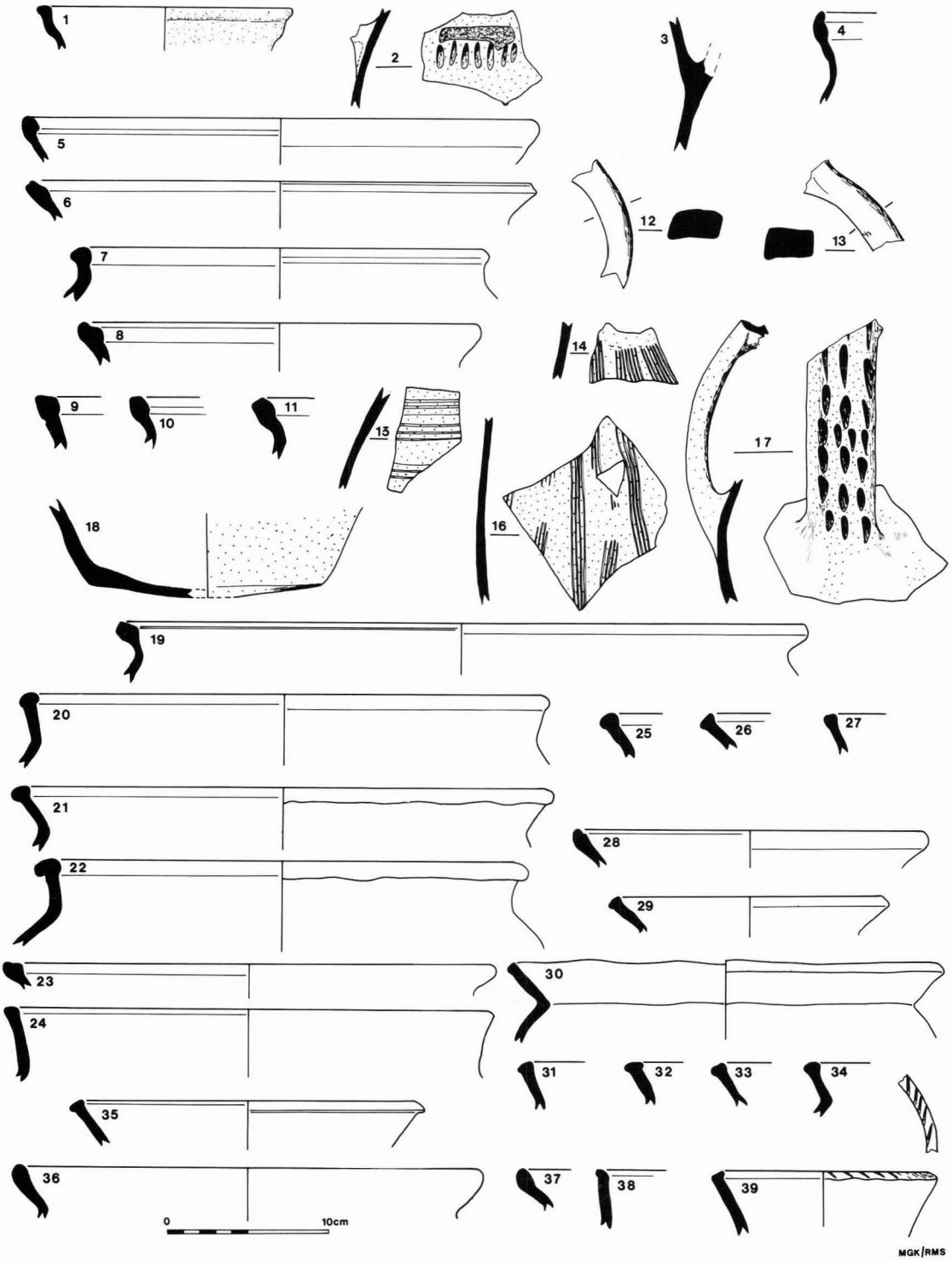

Fig. 52. Local wares:
fabric Ha.2 — nos 1–4 (late 13th century)
fabric Ha.3 — nos 5–18 (12th and early 13th centuries)
fabric Hb.1 — nos 19–27 (late 12th and early 13th centuries)
fabric Hb.2 — nos 28–34 (late 12th and early 13th centuries)
fabric Hb.3 — no 35 (? late 13th century)
fabric Hb.4 — nos 36–39 (12th and 13th centuries).

fragment of sandstone, 2mm long, with a silica cement and a high quantity of brown inclusions, was present in one section.

Typology:

Jugs. (Fig. 52.1–4) — The vessels are apparently divisible into two groups; both are handmade, but one has a thick external green glaze (this despite the ware being oxidized, leading to the assumption that a colouring agent was added), and the other a thin, patchy brown glaze. The well-glazed vessels have forms and decoration similar to Ham Green ware, including the 'B' style rim (Fig. 52.1) with a diameter of about 16cm, closely spaced horizontal grooving and a wide strap handle (4.5cm wide by 1cm thick) decorated with stabbing. The poorly glazed vessels include one sherd with a complex moulded rim (Fig. 52.4) and a rectangular-sectioned handle similar to those in Ha.1 pitchers. The poor glaze contains fragments of tabular iron ore.

Date and Frequency: Only a few sherds were found in the later features on Sites 1 and 6. The absence of this fabric from both period 3a on Site 11 and period 3 on Site 1 suggests that it was not manufactured until the late 13th century.

Source: This ware was probably from the same source as that of Ha.1 which is considered to be very close to Chepstow.

FABRIC Ha.3

This ware has a fabric with similar inclusions to Ha.1 and Ha.2 but the grains are often larger and more well-rounded instead of subangular. The ware may come from the same clay source but the distinction in typology and manufacturing methods suggests that it was not produced by the same people.

Fabric: The ware is hard and oxidized to a reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) colour or oxidized with a grey core. Sub-rounded to well rounded inclusions occur in a clay matrix containing mica and angular quartz up to 0.1mm, but mainly much finer. Inclusions consist of quartz, iron ore (some with mica inclusions), coarse-grained sandstone (with grains up to 0.2mm and some iron staining), rare brown clay pellets (possibly mud-stone) and rare, indurated, subangular limestone (absent in thin-sections examined).

Typology (Fig. 52.5–18): The ware consists of hand-made vessels with everted, infolded rims which are very irregular in comparison with the vessels in fabric Ha.1.

Date and frequency: This ware is found in small quantities in contexts which also contain 12th and early 13th-century pottery.

Source: Cooking pots from the Forest of Dean normally have everted, infolded rims (Casey 1931) but few are consistently oxidized. However, the use of this technique, together with the similarity in fabric to Ha.1, suggests a very local source.

FABRIC Hb.1–4

Four quite different cooking pot types are found in fabric Hb. They cannot be differentiated on the basis of the types of inclusion but they differ in texture and could be from separate sources. Fabric Hs is very similar to Hb but has been separately classified.

Fabric: The hard fabric of this ware is reduced to a light grey to black colour, sometimes with oxidized reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) surfaces. The re-fired colour is reddish-brown to red (2.5YR 4/4 to 4/6). Inclusions are subangular and 1mm to 2mm across in a matrix containing a variable quantity of angular quartz and mica up to 0.1mm. The inclusions are mainly

Illustrated Examples of fabric Ha.2:

FIG. 52	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	1	5	L10	Jug rim, 16cm diameter with thick external green glaze.
	6	2c	L4	NB Two joining sherds — one from Site 1 and the other from Site 6
2	6	2c	F14	Body sherd with stub of wide strap handle decorated with stabbing and thick dark green glaze
3	6	2c	L4	Body sherd and stub of rectangular handle with a poor brown glaze
4	6	2a	F43	Complex moulded jug rim

Illustrated examples of fabric Ha.3:

FIG. 52	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
5	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter
6	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter
7	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
8	1	5	L10	Cooking pot rim, 25cm diameter
9	1	3a	L26	Cooking pot rim
10	1	3b	F61	Cooking pot rim
11	11	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim
12	6	2c		Fragment of handle with rectangular cross section
13	6	2c		Fragment of handle with rectangular cross section
14	6	2c		Body sherd with combed decoration and green glaze
15	6	Unstratified		Body sherd with combed decoration and patchy glaze
16	6	2a	F43	Body sherd with combed decoration and glaze
		2c	F2	
17	6	2a	F43	Part of body and strap handle with many stab holes and patchy green glaze
18	6	2c	L4	Part of cooking pot base with poor external glaze

sandstones and quartz. The sandstones vary in texture and composition; some have overgrown quartz grains (0.3mm to 0.4mm across) with some iron staining, some include fragments of fine-grained silicious sandstones, and others are fine-grained (up to 0.06mm) with a silica matrix, some brown and some opaque inclusions. The quartz and quartzite fragments often have opaque or brown inclusions. Felspars occur as minor inclusions and one examined section contained a high quantity of light brown, highly indurated, argillaceous rock, possibly a mudstone or slate not present in others.

Typology (Fig. 52.19–39): The cooking pots of fabric Hb are all handmade but have a variety of shapes. Several sub-wares can be distinguished on the basis of rim-forms, firing, and texture, but not in terms of petrology.

Hb.1: Large, light grey vessels, with vertical rims and a globular body. Rim diameters vary from 30cm to 43cm. (Fig. 52.19–27)

Hb.2: Smaller globular vessels, usually black and with less temper than Hb.1. The rims are everted and thickened at the lip and have a diameter of 18cm to 27cm. (Fig 52.28–34)

Hb.3: Small pots with a sandy texture and tall everted rims thickened at the top. The rim diameters vary from 20cm to 27cm. (Fig. 52.35)

Hb.4: The pots have a light grey core and everted, out-folded rims with a diameter of about 28cm. (Fig. 52.36–8) A pitcher rim was also found. (Fig. 52.39)

Date and frequency: The most common of the sub-wares described above is Hb.2 which is found in late 12th and early 13th-century contexts. Hb.1 is the next most common and is also found in late 12th and early 13th-century contexts. Sub-ware Hb.4 was found in period 1 on Site 6 (12th century) and in period 3a on Site 11 (late 13th century) while sub-ware Hb.3 is the least common, the earliest stratified rim coming from depression F14 on Site 6 (late 13th century).

Source: The temper used in this ware is almost all derived from sandstones and few of the inclusions are rounded. Sandstone hills, which could be expected to yield deposits of such subangular sandstone and quartz sand, can be found to the north-west of Chepstow in the Forest of Dean and to the west in the Wentwood area. Wares of group Hb were not found at St Briavels Castle or at Lydney, both within ten miles of Chepstow, and it is difficult to explain the presence of four distinctive wares with the same petrology without any distribution evidence in the locality. If each sub-ware represents one potter, then the density of pottery centres must have been quite high, apparently with a very localized distribution.

FABRIC Hd

This ware is possibly from the post-medieval kiln site at Stroat, Tidenham, two miles north-east of Chepstow. It is described here because of the similarity of the types of inclusion with fabric Ha.

Fabric: The ware is hard and oxidized to a red (2.5YR 5/8) colour, sometimes with a dark brown core. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). It contains subangular inclusions of varying sizes in a matrix of clay containing angular quartz and mica up to 0.2mm.

Illustrated examples of fabrics Hb.1–4

FIG. 52	FABRIC	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
19	Hb.1	1	5	L10	Cooking pot rim, 43cm diameter
20	Hb.1	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 33cm diameter
21	Hb1	11	3a	L106	Cooking pot rim, 34cm diameter
22	Hb.1	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 31cm diameter
23	Hb.1	1		Unstratified	Cooking pot rim, 31cm diameter
24	Hb.1	1		Unstratified	Cooking pot rim, 30cm diameter
25	Hb.1	11	3a	L133	Cooking pot rim
26	Hb.1	1	3b	F61	Cooking pot rim
27	Hb.1	1	5	L10	Cooking pot rim
28	Hb.2	6	2c	L2	Cooking pot rim, 22cm diameter
29	Hb.2	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 18cm diameter
30	Hb.2	6	2c	F14	Cooking pot rim, 27cm diameter
31	Hb.2	6		Unstratified	Cooking pot rim
32	Hb2	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim
33	Hb.2	9		Unstratified	Cooking pot rim
34	Hb.2	6	2c	F14	Cooking pot rim
35	Hb.3	6	2c	L4	Cooking pot rim, 22cm diameter
36	Hb.4	11	3a	L107	Cooking pot rim, 29cm diameter
37	Hb.4	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim
38	Hb.4	1 (intrusive)	1	F37	Cooking pot rim
39	Hb.4	6	1	F12	Cooking pot rim with diagonal slashing on top, 14cm diameter

Inclusions are quartz (up to 0.4mm, some rounded), sandstone with quartz grains from 0.2mm to 0.3mm and some iron staining up to 0.8mm around the grains, occasional sandstone with a matrix of iron ore and quartz grains from 0.1mm to 0.2mm (up to 2mm), angular limestone up to 0.3mm, red clay pellets, and a little fine iron ore (up to 0.1mm).

Typology: These are mainly internally glazed vessels, the most common shape being the conical bowl.

Date and frequency: This ware is not present in pre-dissolution contexts but is common in all the unstratified collections. It is probably of 17th-century date.

Source: The ware was probably made at the kiln site at Stroat near Tidenham. This was revealed during road widening in 1957 and a sample of the wares is in Gloucester City Museum (25/1961 and 25/1965). Potters were recorded in the Stroat area in 1599 and 1608 (VCH 1972).

There are no illustrated examples.

FABRIC He

This late medieval and post-medieval ware has a wide distribution in south Wales and Herefordshire, probably coming from a number of sources.

Fabric: The ware is hard and oxidized to a red colour (2.5YR 5/8). There is no change in colour on re-firing. It contains few visible inclusions, apart from a few dark brown clay pellets which have quartz and mica inclusions up to 2mm, subangular quartz grains up to 0.4mm, and fine-grained sandstones with a silica cement up to 0.2mm. The clay matrix contains white mica and angular quartz fragments up to 0.1mm across.

The post-medieval variety has a similar but slightly coarser fabric with no clay pellets but with several rounded iron ore fragments up to 0.1mm.

Typology:

Jugs. These consist of wheelthrown vessels with an external glaze and a sagging base.

Cup: A single vessel from Site 11 (Fig. 53.3) is wheelthrown with two handles. It is decorated with applied, vertical, self-coloured strips.

Date and frequency: The earliest well stratified example was found in a period 3c context on Site 11 (Fig. 53.3), but this may be intrusive. It is otherwise found in late medieval contexts. The cup described above came from a pre-dissolution context and is probably of early 16th-century date.

Source: Wares with a fabric indentical to He have a wide distribution in Wales and Herefordshire and doubtless come from a number of sources. At present there is no way of assigning individual sherds to a particular source and it cannot be assumed that only one source was providing the ware. Kiln sites producing this ware in the 17th century have been found within 24km of Chepstow (e.g. Gwehelog, near Usk; Trefaldu, near Cwmcarfan and St James's House, Monmouth), but their products cannot be reliably distinguished either by thin-section analysis or by detailed typological study.

FABRIC Hg

This common ware, of early 13th and 14th-century date, was probably made in the Vale of Glamorgan. It was originally split into two fabric groups Hg and Nd.

Fabric: The fabric is hard, with brown (7.5YR 5/4) oxidized surfaces and a grey core. (Fabric Nd, which was originally considered separately, but is now included in this category, has a very dark grey core and dark greyish-brown surfaces (10YR 4/2)). The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6 to 5/8). The clay matrix contains fine angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm. The common inclusions consist of angular to subangular quartz up to 0.5mm and angular fragments of sandstone (with quartz grains up to 0.3mm and some brown staining around the grains up to 1mm). Less common are rounded clay pellets up to 0.1mm, rounded and angular iron ore fragments up to 0.4mm, and rare grains of felspar (plagioclase and microcline) and tourmaline.

Typology:

Cooking Pots. The only example is a body sherd from a wheelthrown vessel with blobs of glaze. It came from Site 11 but was unstratified.

Jugs: These consist of wheelthrown vessels with thumbed bases. The rims are usually simple, of average diameter 10cm, but one had a thumbed strip applied

Illustrated examples of fabric He:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	11		Unstratified	Base of a jug with an external speckled glaze
2	6	2c	L2 (intrusive)	Fragments of jug handle with slashed handle and traces of external glaze
3	11	3c	F20	Two-handled cup with applied vertical strips, 9cm diameter
4	11	3c	L31	Rim fragment of Cistercian ware cup, 8cm diameter
5	1	5	L10	Base of jug with traces of external glaze

below the rim (Fig. 53.11) and was decorated with horizontal grooves. They have a total external glaze.

Date and frequency: The ware first appears in the early 13th century but only to the extent of 1 per cent of assemblages. By the 14th century it is one of the most common wares along with Hk and Jb.

Source: Thin-section analysis of examples of the Chepstow material and of a number of samples in the National Museum of Wales' collections has shown that the distribution is centred on the Vale of Glamorgan. In the Vale, the ware forms a very high proportion of all glazed vessels (at Kefrig 97 out of 103 sherds of jugs and cooking pots and all ridge tiles were of this fabric). It has been suggested that the source is in the Cardiff area and it may be significant that the eastern suburb of this town was known as Crockerton in 1348 and Crokerstrete in 1399. Ridge tiles were being made in Cardiff in this period and such production is often combined with the manufacture of hollow wares. Pottery production in the Ewenny district is indicated from about 1427 when there is a reference to Potterisland.

This ware is very similar to fabric Hh, which may have been made in the same area in the late 12th and early 13th centuries. If this is accepted then the Glamorgan glazed ware industry probably began in the late 12th century.

FABRIC Hh

This ware was originally split into four fabric groups, Hh, Hj, Hm and Hn, on the basis of the relative proportions of large inclusions. However, the similarity in thin-section suggests a single source, probably in the Vale of Glamorgan, during the late 12th and early 13th centuries.

Fabric: The ware varies from soft to hard with a surface oxidized to a reddish yellow (5YR 6/6) colour with a light or dark grey core. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6 to 5/8). Inclusions consist of angular or subangular quartz up to 0.7mm and rare rounded quartz and quartzite up to 2mm. There is also fine grained silicious sandstone, sometimes brown-stained, up to 0.5mm, coarser grained sandstone with some brown staining and interlocking grains (grains up to 0.3mm, fragments up to 0.8mm), dark brown clay pellets up to 2mm, rare subangular or rounded iron ore up to 0.4mm, limestone fragments which are sometimes decomposed but otherwise consist of crystalline calcite up to 0.8mm and rounded clay pellets of the same texture as the clay matrix. The matrix is often highly bi-refringent, emphasizing the low firing temperature and contains angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm long.

Typology: Wares of this fabric consist of handmade pitchers with an external glaze and a sagging base.

Date and Frequency: The ware is found in late 12th and early 13th-century contexts but is not common in Chepstow.

Source: The fabric is very similar to Hg, but there are larger, rounded inclusions, mainly of quartzite, rounded clay pellets, and small limestone fragments in Hh. A source, close to that of Hg, in the Vale of Glamorgan is probable.

No illustrated examples.

FABRIC Hk

A late medieval ware of unknown, probably local origin.

Fabric: The fabric varies from soft to hard and has an oxidized surface of reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) colour. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). Inclusions consist of rounded and subangular quartz up to 0.4mm, fine-grained micaceous sandstone (colourless or light brown in polarized light) with grains up to 0.4mm, and fragments up to 0.9mm, rounded grains of silicified sandstone or chert up to 0.4mm, brown chert up to 0.4mm, dark brown clay pellets up to 0.3mm, and fine opaque iron ore up to 0.02mm. The clay matrix contains fine angular quartz up to 0.1mm and a very high quantity of white mica with flakes up to 0.2mm long. One sherd contains a large tabular fragment of iron ore.

The texture of this fabric is similar to that of He and Hg but can be distinguished by the high quantity of mica in the clay matrix.

Illustrated examples of fabric Hg:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
6	6	2c	L4	Pulled spout and part of rim of jug, 9cm diameter, with external green speckled glaze
7	3	3	F4	Jug rim, 10cm diameter, with trace of handle and external green glaze
8	6	3	L1	Jug rim, 12cm diameter, external green glaze
9	6	3	L1	Jug rim, 11cm diameter, trace of pulled spout, with green glaze
10	11	3b	L80	Jug rim, 10cm diameter, with green glaze
11	6	2a	F43	Jug rim, 9cm diameter, with thumbed applied strip below rim and horizontal grooves on body, green glazed
12	11	3b	L28	Part of jug with thumbed base, with horizontal grooves and green glaze
13	6	3	L1	Fragment of stabbed, green glazed handle
14	6	2c	F4A	Thumbed base of jug with traces of external glaze
15	6	2c	F4A	Thumbed base of jug with traces of external green glaze

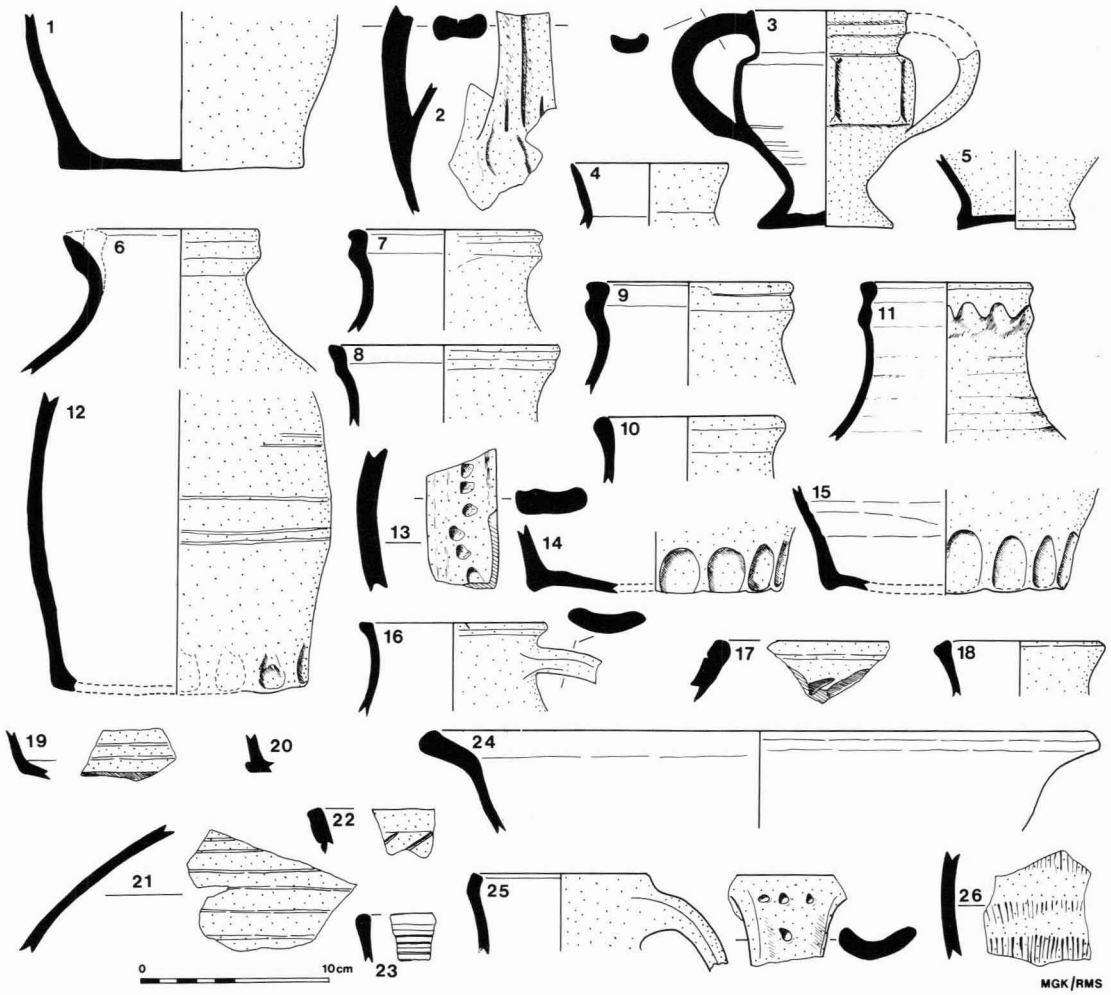

Fig. 53. Local wares:
fabric He — nos 1–5 (mid-15th and early 16th centuries)
fabric Hg — nos 6–15 (early 13th and 14th centuries)
fabric Hk — nos 16–23 (early 13th and 14th centuries)
fabric Hq — no 24 (13th or 14th century)
fabric Ht — no 25 (late 13th century or later)
fabric Hu — no 26 (12th or 13th century).

Typology: This fabric is only found in wheelthrown jugs with an external clear glaze. The rims are simple but thickened and the bases are flat, sagging or with foot rings (Fig. 53.20). The body is decorated with horizontal grooves, between 1cm and 2cm apart. The vessels have strap handles, either plain or slashed and grooved in a similar manner to the Bristol, St Peter's jugs.

Date and frequency: Vessels of this ware have been found in early 13th century contexts but are most common in the late madieval period.

Source: Although the ware is visually quite distinctive the source is unknown. The micaceous sandstone is probably of Old Red Sandstone origin and the other inclusions could come from the same source. The ware is probably of local origin.

Illustrated examples of fabric Hk:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
16	6	2c	L2	Fragment of rim and strap handle, 10cm diameter, with patchy green glaze
17	11	3b	L80	Rim of globular vessel with external slashed decoration and patchy green glaze, diameter approximately 20cm
18	6	2c	F2	Jug rim with trace of handle, 9cm diameter, with external green glaze
19	11	3b	L80	Fragment of sagging base
20	11	3b	L80	Fragment of base with foot ring, external green glaze
21	11	3b	L80	Body sherd decorated with horizontal grooves and external green glaze
22	6	2c	L2	Jug rim with external slashed decoration and green glaze
23	11	3b	L80	Jug rim with external grooving and traces of glaze

FABRIC Hq
This fabric is represented by a single vessel.

Fabric: The solitary example has a hard fabric which is oxidized to a strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) colour. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). Inclusions consist of angular and subangular quartz up to 0.5mm, opaque iron ore up to 0.4mm, dark brown to black clay pellets up to 1.5mm, fine-grained sandstone up to 0.2mm, and a few large fragments of coarse grained sandstone up to 2mm, across and containing grains of quartz, chert and opaque material up to 0.5mm. The clay matrix contains angular quartz and white mica up to 0.2mm.

Typology: The one vessel in this fabric is a flanged bowl. It is handmade with a curved wall and flanged rim, with a diameter of about 36cm. The surface has been wiped horizontally and has glaze spots on the interior.

Date and frequency: The vessel is from context F2 on Site 6 and is probably of 13th or 14th-century date.

FABRIC Hs
A rare, cooking pot fabric probably of 12th or 13th-century date.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and oxidized to a very pale brown (10YR 7/3) colour. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6). The ware is tempered with a coarse quartz and quartzite sand which is rounded or subrounded and includes some overgrown grains up to 1mm. There are also a few clay pellets present, which are rounded and of the same texture and colour as the matrix. The matrix contains a small quantity of angular quartz and mica occasionally up to 0.2mm but mainly less than 0.04mm.

Typology: The fabric only occurs in cooking pots which are handmade, of cylindrical shape and with a flanged rim with a thickened lip. The average diameter is 25cm.

Date and frequency: Only one rim fragment and a few body sherds have been found. None of them were in stratified contexts. The probable date range is in the 12th and 13th centuries.

Source: The shape and tempering of this cooking pot type is quite distinctive and examples have been found in Upper Gwent (e.g. Castell Taliorum, Llanhilleth — NMW 25.414 — and Monmouth), where the source is presumed to lie. The low quantity of fabric Hs at Chepstow is consistent with the general lack of cooking pottery coming from inland sites.
No illustrated examples.

FABRIC Ht
An uncommon, probably late 13th century or later jug fabric.

Fabric: The fabric is hard with a light grey core. The exterior surface under the glaze is grey to light grey (10YR 6/1) with a pale brown (10YR 6/3) interior surface. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). There are angular inclusions of quartz, silicious sandstone and chert (including one fragment with a quartz vein) all up to 0.5mm but mainly much finer. Other inclusions are rounded dark brown clay pellets up to 0.5mm and a single fragment of gypsum, 2mm long. The clay matrix contains a little white mica and a high quantity of fine quartz up to 0.1mm.

Typology: Fabric Ht is found in wheelthrown jugs with an external green glaze, simple rims and strap handles with stabbing. The bases are often thumbed and the vessels are usually undecorated.

Date and frequency: This fabric was only found in stratified levels in the later features on Site 6, where it is uncommon. It is probably of the late 13th century or later.
Source: Unknown, probably local.

FABRIC Hu
Only one sherd has been found in this fabric. It is part of a pitcher, probably of 12th or 13th-century date and may have been made in the Vale of Glamorgan.

Fabric: The single sherd is hard with a yellowish-grey (5YR 5/6) interior surface. It contains well-sorted inclusions of quartz, quartzite and sandstone — the latter with brown and opaque inclusions — between 0.1mm

Illustrated example of fabric Hq:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
24	6	2c	F2	Fragment of flanged bowl, 36cm diameter

Illustrated example of fabric Ht:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
25	1	Unstratified		Rim and part of stabbed strap handle with external green glaze, 10cm diameter

and 0.3mm. Larger rounded mudstones and opaque iron ore up to 0.2mm also occur. The clay matrix contains angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm.

Typology: The one sherd is from a handmade pitcher decorated with horizontal, roller-stamped bands. The external glaze is mainly green but appears brown in places.

Date and frequency: The sherd came from context F4A on Site 6 and is probably of 12th or 13th-century date.

Source: The clay matrix is similar to that of fabrics Hh and Hg but the quantity and size range of the inclusions distinguishes it. The source is unknown but may be in the Vale of Glamorgan.

Illustrated example of fabric Hu:

FIG. 53	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
26	6	2c	F4A	Body sherd

GROUP 2: 'BRISTOL' WARES

This group is divided into two subgroups, J and K. Subgroup J includes the light-firing wares from the known kiln areas of Bristol and Ham Green and subgroup K are red-firing wares, probably from the Bristol area.

SUBGROUP J — LIGHT-FIRING WARES

The two wares (Jb and Jc) in this group are from known kiln areas and are distinguished from most wares by becoming yellow or reddish-yellow on re-firing. This light colour and the absence of any large quantity of fine inclusions in the clay matrix are both characteristic of the carboniferous marls uused in the post-medieval pottery industry both at Bristol and in Staffordshire, so that a similar clay source for this earlier pottery is indicated. The temper material, although of varying quantity and, to a lesser extent, kind, distinguishes the two fabrics.

FABRIC Jb

This fabric is found in both St Peter's, Bristol and Bristol Redcliffe wares.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and is either completely oxidized to pale yellow (2.5YR 8/4) or oxidized pink (7.5YR 7/4 to 8/4) with a light grey core (7.5YR 7/0). The re-fired colour is yellow (10YR 8/6) to reddish-yellow (5YR 7/6 to 7.5YR 7/6). Inclusions consists of subangular quartz, mainly less than 0.3mm but occasionally up to 1–2mm, rounded light-coloured clay pellets up to 1mm, and rare, sandstone with a dark brown matrix, silicious sandstone or quartzite with brown inclusions, and fine grained sandstone with a silica matrix (grains up to 0.2mm, fragments up to 0.7mm). Rounded decomposed limestone fragments up to 0.3mm and fragments of wood — the latter present only in reduced areas of the body — are much rarer. The clay matrix contains a few small white mica fragments and scattered fine angular quartz but is remarkably pure. The quantity of inclusions varies considerably and it is only when sufficient broken edges of sherds have been examined that all inclusion types can be seen.

Typology:

Jugs. Although the jugs in fabric Jb are all wheel-thrown, the shape, size and decoration varies. Most of the Chepstow examples are large jugs, with rims with a flat top and a moulding or collar about 1cm below the rim, similar to Ham Green style B. However, plain, flat-topped rims are also found, some with applied heads (Fig. 54.8). The bases are either sagging with a thumbed frill, sometimes with closely spaced thumbing above the frill (Fig. 54.5 and 11) or are plain flat types. The rim diameters are within the range 10–14cm and the bases 14–16cm. As far as can be ascertained all examples had strap handles, either plain or decorated with knife slashes. The lip can include a bridge-spout. Decoration can take the form of applied strips of self-coloured, light or dark firing clay. Sometimes a light firing clay with iron ore inclusions is used which produces a blistered black glaze. The strips and pellets may be used vertically in alternating colours (Fig. 54.5) or occasionally can be used to form more complex decoration (Fig. 54.7). This latter example is probably an anthropomorphic jug with a 'waist' below which are hanging horseshoes and above probably a hand. Wheelturned grooves, usually in bands of three or four, are often found, and square-toothed, roller-stamping occurs occasionally.

The exterior is normally covered with a clear lead glaze, although copper-green externally glazed vessels and internally glazed vessels also occur.

Cooking Pots These are again wheelthrown, globular in shape with flat-topped rims, sagging bases, and a patchy internal glaze.

Bottle (Fig. 54.10) One example of a wheelthrown internally glazed vessel was found.

Bowl Fragments of a wheelthrown vessel with curved walls and an internal glaze were found.

Date and frequency: There is no independent dating for the first occurrence of Bristol glazed wares at Chepstow. They first appear in the later features on Site 6 (5 per cent) and in period 3b on Site 11 (10 per cent). The examples found may be dated to the second half of the 13th century. Apart from the jugs only two cooking pots, one bottle, and one bowl are represented.

Source: Wasters have been found at two locations in Bristol — in the foundations of St Peter's Church and at Redcliffe Hill (Dawson, Jackson and Ponsford 1972).

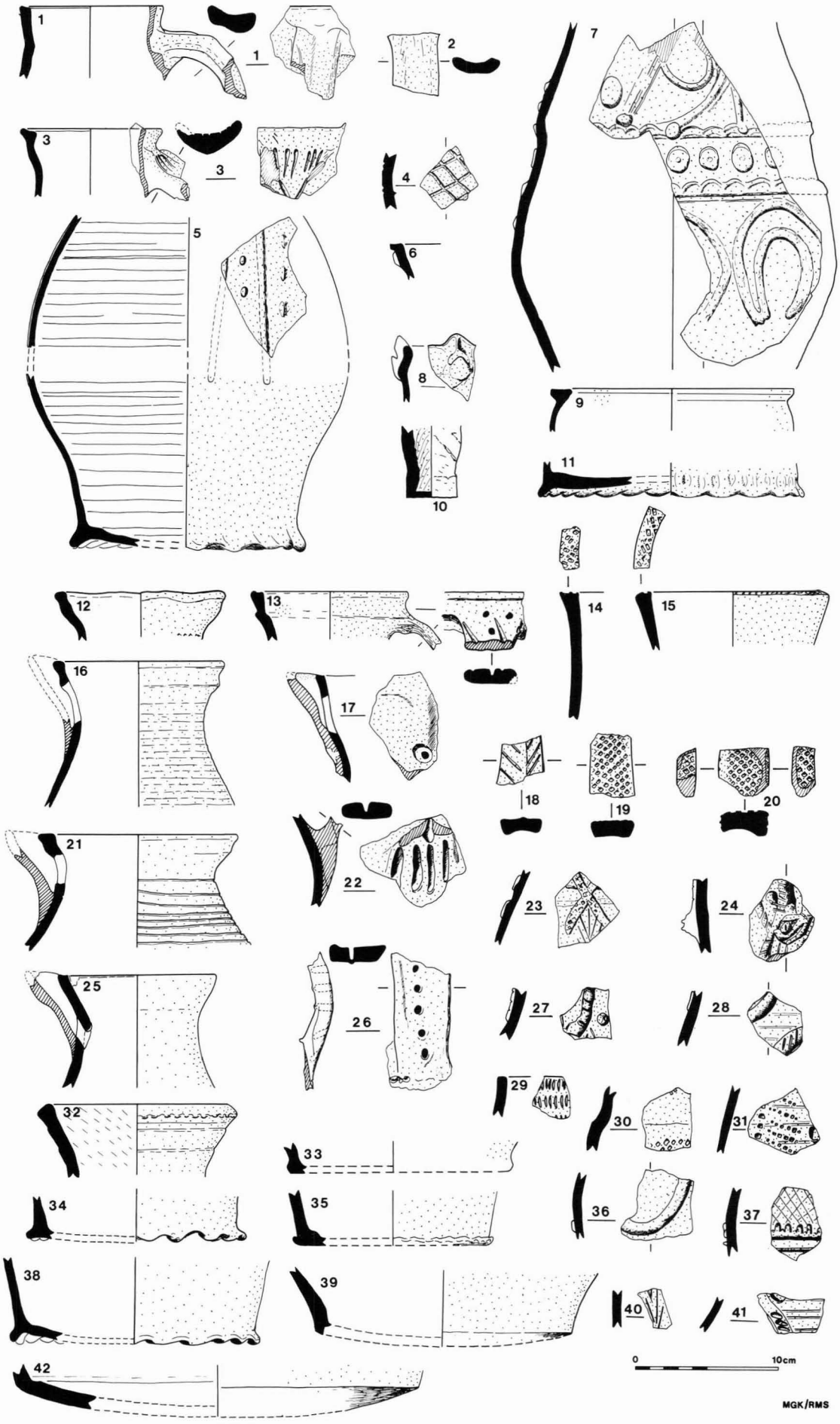

Fig. 54. Bristol wares:
fabric Jb — nos 1–11 (late 13th century)
fabric Jc — nos 12–42 (13th and 14th centuries).

Illustrated examples of fabric Jb:

FIG. 54	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	11	Unstratified		Part of rim and strap handle with light green mottled glaze, 10cm diameter
2	1	5	L10	Strap handle with green speckled glaze
3	6	2c	F4A	Rim and fragment of slashed strap handle and thick green external glaze, 10cm diameter
4	1	3b	F44	Body sherd with grooved decoration and thick green glaze
5	6	2c	L2A & L4	Part of body and frilled sagging base with applied strips and pellets. Thick dark green glaze
6	1	Unstratified		Rim fragment with applied collar
7	6	2c	F4A	Body sherd of anthropomorphic jug
8	6	Unstratified		Rim fragment with applied boss
9	6	2b	F13	Flat-topped cooking pot rim, 17cm diameter
10	1	Unstratified		Fragment of bottle
11	6	2c	F31	Base with closely-spaced thumbed frill

FABRIC Jc

This is the Ham Green jug fabric. For cooking pots from the same source see fabric Ka.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and reduced to a light grey (7.5YR 5/0 to 7/0) colour, with an oxidized light yellowish-brown to very pale brown interior surface (10YR 6/4 to 7/4). The re-fired colour varies from sherd to sherd from pink (7.5YR 7/4) to reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6 to 6/8). One sherd has a thin light grey internal slip which re-fired to red (2.5YR 5/6). Inclusions of subangular and rounded quartz up to 0.3mm, angular to rounded clay pellets (of the same colour as the matrix but often denser and some possibly indurated) mainly less than 2mm but several larger fragments present, rounded limestone which is usually decomposed and of the same size as the quartz sand, rare rounded iron ore up to 0.4mm and colourless chert (or possibly flint or silicious sandstone) up to 0.3mm. The clay matrix contains a very small amount of angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm.

The proportions of quartz, clay pellets and limestone vary considerably, both relatively and as a percentage of fabric volume. This is presumably the basis of the division into Ham Green A and B fabrics, the former having high quantities of clay pellets and limestone and the latter high quantities of quartz (Barton 1963, 96–7). No such distinction is proposed with the Chepstow material as there are many indeterminate sherds.

Typology: The division into A and B styles of jugs (Barton 1963) works well with the Chepstow material. This is not discussed here, but a selection of sherds has been drawn (Fig. 54.12–42).

Several sherds from period 2 on Site 11 are not matched at the kiln site in form, and strictly therefore should not be termed Ham Green Ware. They are, however, identical in fabric and are therefore included. Two rim sherds are from wide vertical rims, some 14cm in diameter, with flat tops, decorated with diamond roller-stamping (Fig. 54.14 and 15). Two sherds are from the sagging base of a vessel with a wide diameter and a patchy external glaze. These are both reminiscent of Malvern Chase tripod pitchers (Vince 1977, Fig. 4.1 and 2).

Date and frequency: The earliest Ham Green glazed wares occur in period 3a on Site 11. All these vessels are of Ham Green style A. Later occupation on the Priory site, period 3 on Site 1 and the later pits from period 2c, on Site 6, all contained both A and B style vessels (15 per cent, 16 per cent, and 6 per cent respectively).

Source: A kiln and wasters have been excavated at Ham Green, Pill, Bristol (Barton 1963). All but the earliest sherds of fabric Jc can be matched with vessels found in that excavation.

Illustrated examples of fabric Jc:

All sherds are green glazed externally

FIG. 54	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
12	1	3a	L33	Rim, 12cm diameter
13	6	2c	F3	Rim and part of stabbed handle, 11cm diameter
14	11	3a	L133	Wide vertical rim, with diamond roller-stamping on flat top of rim
15	11	3a	L107	Wide vertical rim with diamond roller-stamping on flat top of rim, 14cm diameter
16	6	2c	F1	Rim and part of bridge spout, 12cm diameter
17	1	5	F24	Rim and part of bridge spout
18	6	2c	L4	Handle fragment with diagonal grooving
19	11	3a	L99	Handle fragment with diamond rouletting
20	11	3a	L99	Handle fragment with diamond rouletting

(*continued*)

Illustrated examples of fabric Jc: *(continued)*

FIG. 54	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
21	11	3c	L111	Rim of bridge spout and part of horizontally grooved body, 14cm diameter
22	6	2c	L2	Fragment of deeply stabbed handle
23	6	2c	L2	Body sherd with zoomorphic decoration
24	6	2c	L4	Body sherd with anthropomorphic erotic decoration (Pl. 14)
25	6	3	L1	Bridge spout and part of rim 11cm diameter
26	6	2c	F2	Part of stabbed strap handle
27	1	3b	F61	Body sherd with zoomorphic decoration
28	1	3a	F32A	Body sherd with zoomorphic decoration
29	1	3c	L18	Decorated rim
30	11	3a	L99	Decorated body sherd with dark glaze
31	1	4	F3	Decorated body sherd
32	11	3a	L99	Rim, 14cm diameter
33	11	3a	F64	Base fragment
34	11	3b	F52	Frilled base
35	11	Unstratified		Base fragment
36	11	3b	F19	Body sherd with applied strip
37	1	3c	L24	Decorated body sherd
38	6	2c	F4A	Frilled base
39	1	3a	F32A	Base fragment
40	6	2c	F3	Decorated fragment
41	6	2c	L4	Body sherd with applied strip
42	11	3a	L11	Base sherd

SUBGROUP K — RED-FIRING WARES

The fabrics in this subgroup are all red-firing wares which are known or thought to have been made in and around Bristol. Cooking pots in fabric Ka were produced in the Ham Green kilns. Kc and Ke are the most common fabrics in the Bristol Castle early medieval sequence and both have petrologies which indicate a source close to carboniferous limestone. On petrological grounds both these fabrics could have been made in the Chepstow area and exported to Bristol but historically a Bristol source is more likely. Kb is similar in both fabric and form to Ham Green ware but pre-dates it at Chepstow. It may be a 12th-century product from the same area as Ham Green.

FABRIC Ka

This fabric was used in the Ham Green kilns specifically for handmade cooking pots in the 13th century and later.

Fabric: The fabric is hard, oxidized yellowish-red (5YR 4/6) but sometimes with a dark grey core (5YR 4/1). The re-fired colour is dark red (2.5YR 3/6). The inclusions are of subangular and rounded quartz up to 0.3mm, rarer sandstone fragments consisting of poorly sorted grains of quartz in a brown stained silica cement up to 0.5mm, chert, sometimes brown-stained and up to 0.3mm, and limestone up to 0.3mm.

The clay matrix contains angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm in greater abundance than in fabric Jc.

A curious feature of this fabric is the presence of lenses of vitrified clay, which is always reduced to a light grey colour, highly vesicular and isotropic. These lenses appear to have been formed by the fluxing of some inclusion which is now represented as a void in the centre of the lens.

A comparison of this fabric with fabric Jc, used in the same kilns, shows that the quartz sand is very similar in size, range and distribution and that there are similar proportions of sandstones, cherts, etc. The differences between the two fabrics are in the iron content of the clay matrix, the proportion of fine inclusions in the matrix, and the presence or lack of clay pellets. From this it is suggested that the Ham Green potters used two clays, one firing red (Ka) and the other yellowish-red (Jc) and that the latter contained varying quantities of hard clay pellets. Quartz sand with a small limestone content would have been added to each clay until it was workable, hence the variation in inclusions in fabric Jc which would have been to some extent 'self tempered' by the clay pellets.

Typology: The cooking pots found in fabric Ka are handmade, globular vessels with sagging bases and everted or rolled-out rims and are 15–25cm in diameter. Horizontal or wavy combing is found on the shoulder and the exterior of the rim and vertical thumbed strips are found on the body (Fig. 55.1–10).

Date and frequency: Ham Green cooking pots do not occur in Chepstow until the arrival of the glazed wares and in the earliest contexts (Site 11, period 2 and 3a) are as common as the jugs. (1% and 4% respectively). In later contexts cooking pots are outnumbered by jugs (Site 11: jugs 15%, cooking pots 5%; Site 1: 16% and 1%; Site 6: 6% and 1% respectively).

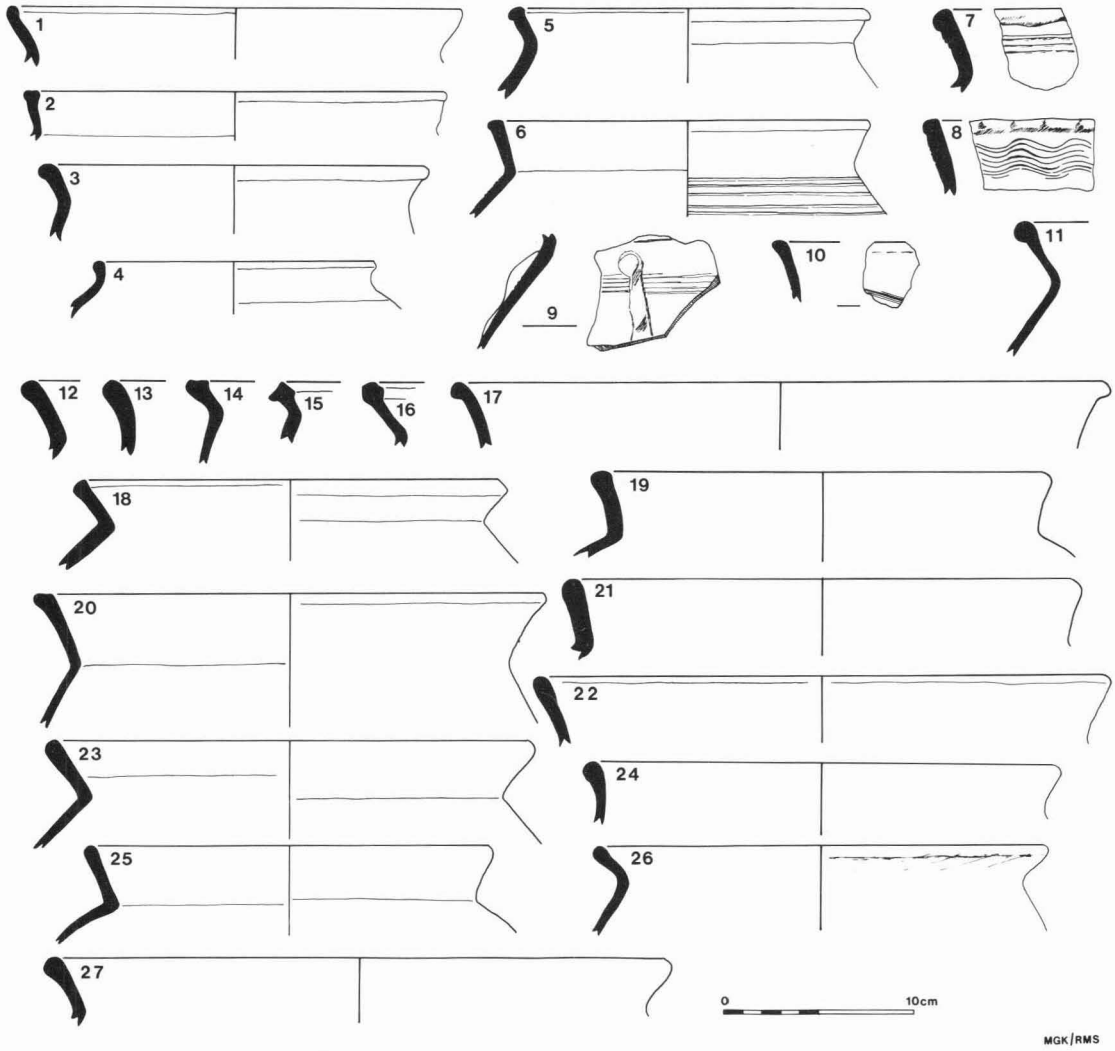

Fig. 55. Bristol wares:
fabric Ka — nos 1–10 (13th century and later)
fabric Kb — nos 11–27 (12th and early 13th centuries) (see also Fig. 56).

Illustrated examples of fabric Ka:

FIG. 55	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 24cm diameter
2	1	5	L10	Cooking pot rim, 22cm diameter
3	1	5	L10	Cooking pot rim, 20cm diameter
4	11	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim, 15cm diameter
5	6	3	L1	Cooking pot rim, 19cm diameter
6	1	3a	F28	Cooking pot rim, 20cm diameter, with horizontal combing on shoulder
7	6	2c	L2	Cooking pot rim with horizontal grooving
8	6	2c	F14	Thumbed cooking pot rim with wavy combing
9	11	Unstratified		Body sherd with horizontal combing and vertical applied thumbed strip
10	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim with horizontal combing

Source: The Chepstow vessels are matched exactly at the Ham Green kiln and some have a thin glaze (probably an ash glaze rather than accidental lead glazing). At the kiln site jugs outnumbered cooking pots in the ratio of about 1.5:1 and assuming that cooking pots had a lower wastage rate than the more complex jugs, this may correspond with the Chepstow frequency and give some impression of the percentages of each type which were marketed.

FABRIC Kb

This is the most common fabric in 12th-century contexts and occurs mainly in cooking pots although pitchers and bowls are also represented.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and black (5YR 2.5/1) to dark grey (10YR 4/1) in colour, sometimes with an oxidized, yellowish-red (5YR 4/6) skin. The re-fired colour is dark red (2.5YR 3/6). Inclusions are of

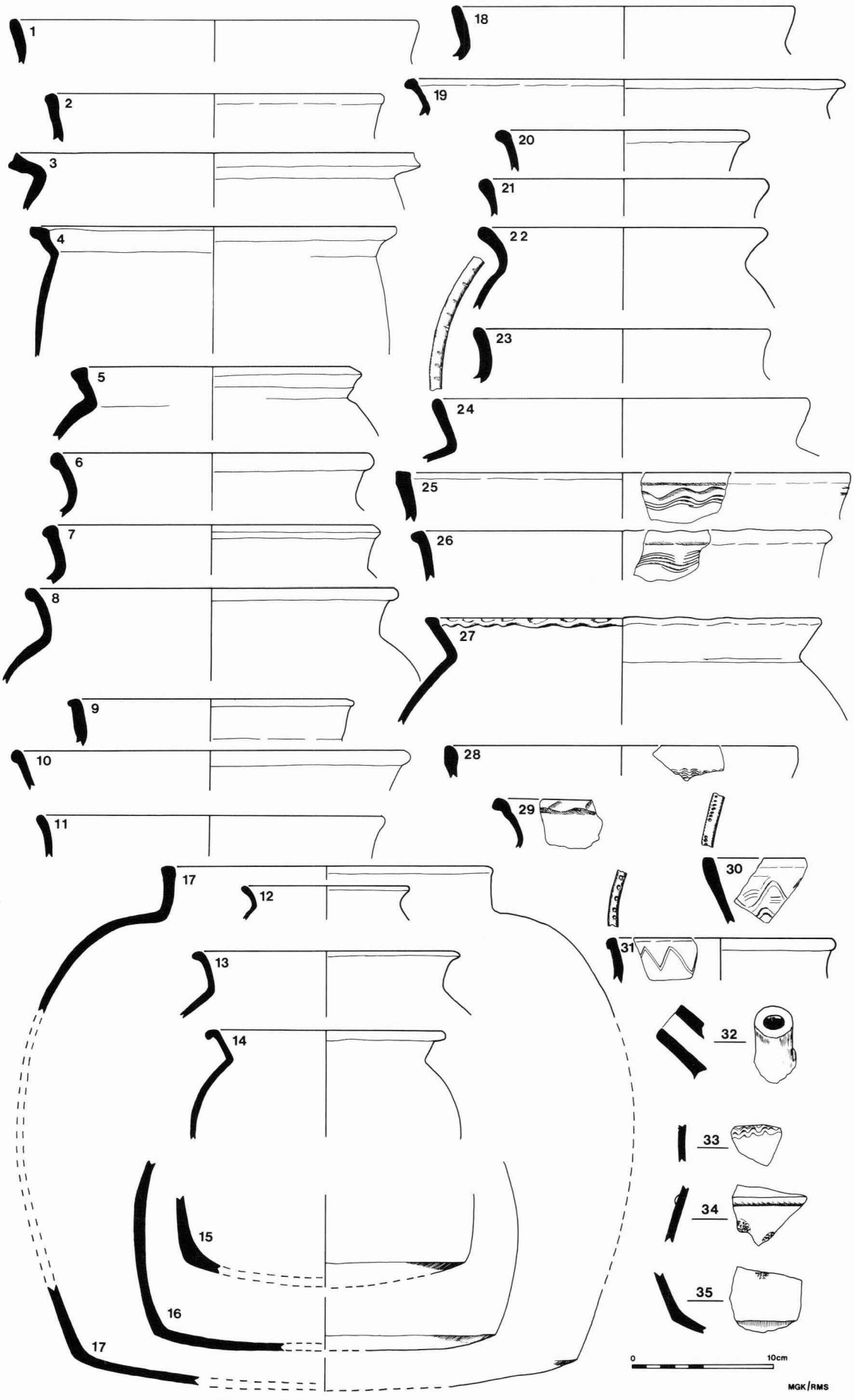

Fig. 56. Bristol wares:
fabric Kb (12th and early 13th centuries) (see also Fig. 55).

sub-angular and, occasionally, rounded quartz, often cloudy with brown veins and up to 0.7mm, fragments of coarse grained sandstone (containing overgrown quartz or quartzite grains up to 0.7mm and brown inclusions) up to 0.9mm, brown chert, often varying in colour and crossed by quartz veins, up to 0.7mm, silicious sandstone with brown inclusions, opaque iron ore up to 0.3mm and dark brown, inclusionless clay pellets up to 0.7mm. One single fragment of white mica 0.2mm long was seen in the clay matrix which otherwise contained scattered angular quartz.

Illustrated examples of fabric Kb:

FIG. 55	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
11	6	1	F15	Cooking pot rim
12	11	2	L3	Cooking pot rim
13	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim
14	6	2c	L4	Cooking pot rim
15	6	2b	F40	Cooking pot rim
16	1	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim
17	11	3a	L133	Cooking pot rim, 35cm diameter
18	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
19	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 24cm diameter
20	6	2c	F4A	Cooking pot rim, 27cm diameter
21	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 27cm diameter
22	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot rim, 30cm diameter
23	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
24	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 25cm diameter
25	11	3a	L106	Cooking pot rim, 22cm diameter
26	6	2c	L4	Cooking pot rim, 24cm diameter, with diagonal scoring under rim
27	11	3b	F25	Cooking pot rim, 33cm diameter

FIG. 56	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	11	3c	F23	Cooking pot rim, 29cm diameter
2	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim. 24cm diameter
3	1	3b	F25	Cooking pot rim, 29cm diameter
4	6	2c	F1	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
5	6	2c	L4	Cooking pot rim, 20cm diameter
6	11	2	L20	Cooking pot rim, 23cm diameter
7	10	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim, 24cm diameter
8	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 26cm diameter
9	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim, 20cm diameter
10	11	1b	F99	Cooking pot rim, 28cm diameter
11	11	2	L20	Cooking pot rim, 25cm diameter
12	6	1	F12	Cooking pot rim, 12cm diameter
13	6	1	F12	Cooking pot rim, 19cm diameter
14	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 17cm diameter
15	11	3a	L133	Cooking pot base
16	6	3	L1	Cooking pot base and side
17	11	3c	F112	Cooking pot rim and shoulder, 23cm diameter
18	11	3a	L11	Cooking pot rim, 24cm diameter
19	11	Unstratified		Cooking pot rim, 31cm diameter
20	11	3a	L133	Cooking pot rim, 18cm diameter
21	11	2	L20	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
22	11	2	L6	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
23	6	3	L1	Cooking pot rim, 21cm diameter
24	11	2	L20	Cooking pot rim, 27cm diameter, with lightly slashed rim
25	6	2c	L2	Cooking pot rim, 32cm diameter, with wavy combed decoration
26	11	2	L3	Cooking pot with thumbed rim and wavy combed decoration, 30cm diameter
27	6	1	F15	Cooking pot with thumbed rim, 28cm diameter
28	1	2	L35	Bowl rim, 25cm diameter, with wavy combed decoration
29	11	3a	L99	Cooking pot with thumbed rim
30	6	2c	F17	Bowl rim with wavy combed decoration
31	6	2c	F2	Cooking pot rim, 16cm diameter, with internal grooved decoration and stabbed rim
32	6	2c	F2	Pitcher spout
33	6	2c	F2	Body sherd with grooved decoration
34	6	2c	F2	Body sherd with applied strip and stamped decoration
35	6	2c	F2	Base sherd with stamped decoration

Typology:

Cooking Pots. These are handmade, globular-bodied vessels with sagging bases and vertical or everted rims, often with an external thickening at the lip.

A few vessels have thumbed impressions along the top of the rim, on the shoulder, or in the exterior of the rim. Rim diameters vary from 12cm to 29cm with a mean of 23cm.

Spouted Pitcher. A single tubular spout was found. Although no trace of the body join remained, the absence of wear suggests that this was from a spouted pitcher rather than a socketed bowl.

Bowls. Two sherds probably came from shallow bowls. Both have wavy combing on the exterior and one has stabbed combing on the top of the rim (Fig. 56.28 and 30).

Date and frequency: Cooking pots in this fabric are the most common ware in 12th-century contexts at Chepstow (between 45% and 83%). Although still common in the 13th century, it was probably superseded in popularity by fabric Ha (context F1, Site 6: fabric Ha — 59%; fabric Kb — 24%).

Source: The similarity in petrology and forms with the Ham Green ware suggest that there should be some relationship. However Kb appears not to be contemporary with Ham Green wares in later contexts so a separate source is possible.

FABRIC Kc

This handmade cooking pot fabric was in use in the late 11th and early 12th centuries and was probably made in the Bristol area.

Fabric: The fabric varies from soft to hard and is dark grey (7.5YR 4/0) in colour with oxidized light yellowish-brown (10YR 6/4) surfaces. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). Inclusions consist of angular fragments of limestone and sandstone in a clay matrix containing a high quantity of white mica and some angular quartz up to 0.1mm. The limestone fragments contain both crystalline and brown-stained, fine grained calcite. Several fragments were brown-stained around the edges and in veins. One fragment contained pellets of calcite in a brown-stained fine grained matrix and another contained fine grained, brown-stained limestone intergrown with silica and cut by a quartz vein containing rare red crinoid segments visible by eye which may be gypsum. The sandstone contained interlocking grains of quartz, mica, and brown, fine grained material. A few voids, which were present in the sandstone, were surrounded by brown-staining. Rounded quartz up to 0.5mm was also present together with clay pellets up to 0.6mm of the same texture as the clay matrix.

Typology: Vessels in this fabric consisted of handmade, globular cooking pots with sagging bases and vertical rims, often with external thickening. The rim diameters varied between 19cm and 29cm with a mean of 24cm. The only decoration was on a single sherd and consisted of two circular 'wheel' stamps each about 2cm in diameter.

Date and frequency: Vessels in fabric Kc comprised up to 27% of late 11th and early 12th-century groups. They formed less than 8% of later assemblages. The fabric was always associated with fabric Ke but was outnumbered by two or three to one.

Source: The characteristics of the limestone, and especially the occasional crinoid, indicate that the ware is tempered with angular carboniferous limestone and sandstones. The quantity of white mica in the matrix is not typical of the clays formed when this limestone is weathered. Such clays are usually very fine-textured. The petrological evidence could indicate a source on either side of the Severn but one in the Bristol area is historically more likely. Identical vessels have been found in 12th-century contexts at both Bristol and Dublin.

FABRIC Ke

Cooking pots are again the only vessel found in this fabric. It has a similar date range to fabric Kc but the inclusions are more rounded and the rims have a better finish.

Illustrated examples of fabric Kc:

FIG. 57	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	6	1	F12	Rim with some stabbing on outside, 28cm diameter
2	11	3a	L100	Rim, 26cm diameter
3	11	1a	L93	Rim, 21cm diameter
4	6	3	L1	Rim, 26cm diameter
5	11	1a	L93	Rim
6	6	2c	F2	Rim
7	6	2c	L2	Rim
8	6	2c	F2	Rim
9	1	2	F53	Rim
10	11	3a	L11	Body sherd, 'wheel' stamped
11	11	1a	L93	Base

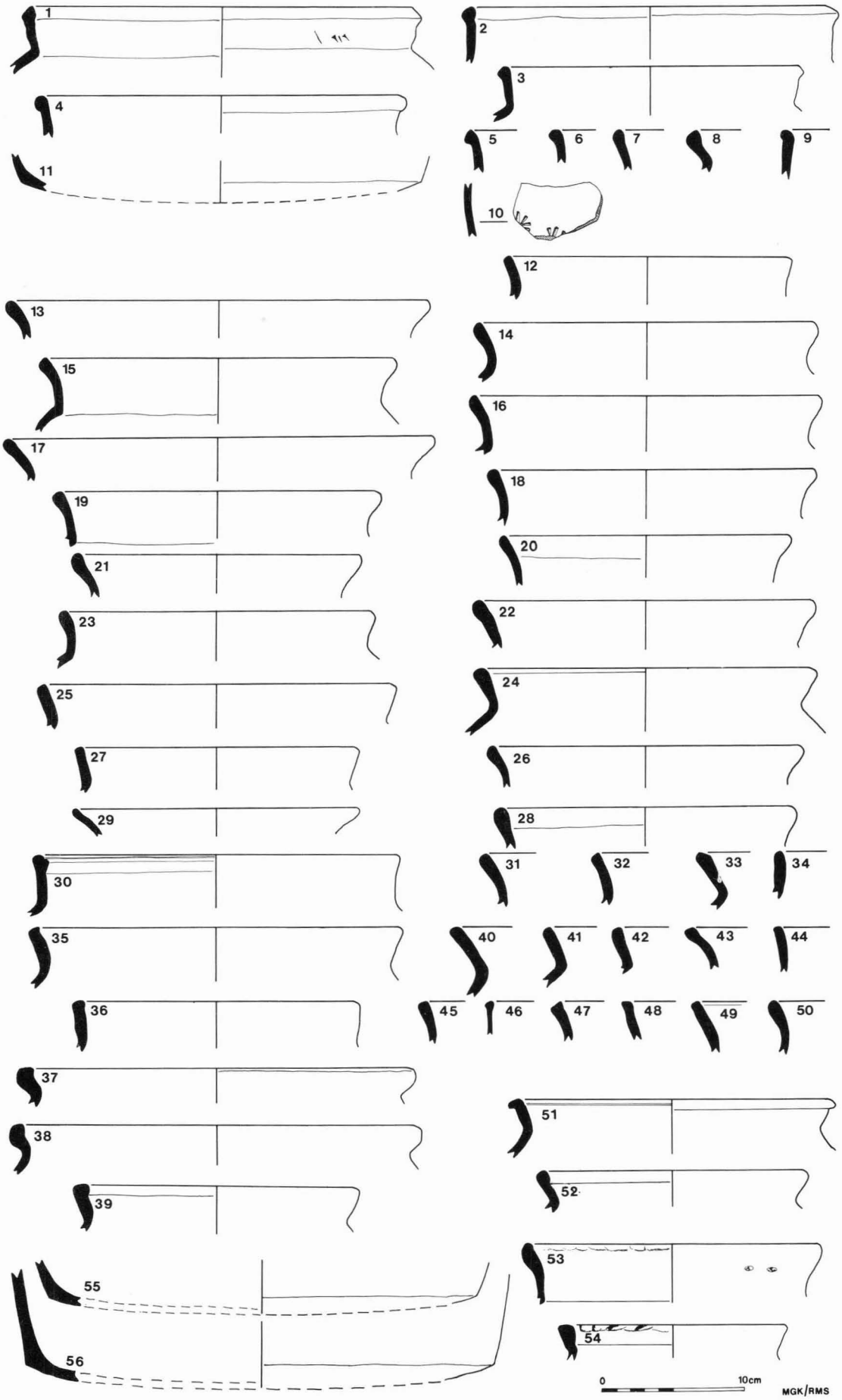

Fig. 57. Bristol wares:
fabric Kc — nos 1–11 (late 11th and early 12th centuries)
fabric Ke — nos 12–56 (late 11th and early 12th centuries).

Fabric: Vessels in this hard fabric are dark grey (10YR 4/1) in colour with oxidized dark brown to yellowish-red (7.5YR 4/2 to 5YR 4/6) surfaces. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). The inclusions which are well sorted and rounded, are in a clay matrix which contains finely divided limestone, quartz, and a little white mica although one sample contained coarser quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm. The inclusions are of quartz and quartzite, some apparently with mica inclusions, fine grained limestone, fine grained limestone with angular quartz and brown inclusions, poorly sorted sandstone with some mica and a brown-stained cement, and chert which is often subangular with brown inclusions (one fragment of chert was angular, black in colour, and had numerous pores filled with quartz). Single fragments of mudstone consisting of broken, rounded grains with quartz and brown inclusions, and fine grained sandstone were seen. Most inclusions are in the range 0.5mm to 2mm.

Typology: Only handmade, globular cooking pots, with sagging bases and a variety of rim forms from simple everted types to rolled-out and infolded examples, are present in this fabric. The rim diameters vary from 15cm to 32cm with a mean of 23cm. Most of the rims have evidence of careful finishing, perhaps on a turntable.

Date and frequency: This is the most common fabric in late 11th and early 12th-century groups accounting for an average of 69% of assemblages. In later contexts less than 27% of sherds are of this fabric. Despite the variety of rim forms, no typological progression was seen.

Illustrated examples of fabric Ke:

FIG. 57	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
12	11	2	L20	Rim, 20cm diameter
13	11	3b	L26	Rim, 30cm diameter
14	11	3a	L133	Rim, 24cm diameter
15	11	3a	L113	Rim, 25cm diameter
16	11	2	L6	Rim, 25cm diameter
17	11	2	L6	Rim, 30cm diameter
18	11	3c	L17	Rim, 23cm diameter
19	11	3a	L133	Rim, 23cm diameter
20	6	1	F12	Rim, 20cm diameter
21	11	3a	L100	Rim, 20cm diameter
22	11	3a	L113	Rim. 24cm diameter
23	11	3a	L11	Rim, 22cm diameter
24	6	1	F25	Rim, 24cm diameter
25	6	1	F26	Rim, 25cm diameter
26	6	2c	F2	Rim, 22cm diameter
27	6	2c	F4A	Rim, 20cm diameter
28	6	2c	F2	Rim, 21cm diameter
29	11	1a	L92	Rim, 20cm diameter
30	11	1a	L142	Rim, 26cm diameter, with internal groove on rim
31	11	2	L6	Rim
32	11	3a	L106	Rim
33	6	1	F28	Rim
34	1	3b	L25	Rim
35	1	2	F32	Rim, 26cm diameter
36	1	Unstratified		Rim, 20cm diameter
37	1	5	L10	Rim, 28cm diameter
38	1	2/3	L30	Rim, 29cm diameter
39	6	2c	F14	Rim, 20cm diameter
40	6	3	L1	Rim
41	6	2c	F2	Rim
42	6	2c	F3	Rim
43	1	5	L10	Rim
44	6	2c	F14	Rim
45	6	2c	F14	Rim
46	1	2	F32	Rim
47	6	2c	L2	Rim
48	6	2c	F14	Rim
49	6	1	F12	Rim
50	11	1a	L142	Rim
51	10	Unstratified		Rim, 23cm diameter
52	6	3	L1	Thumbed rim, 19cm diameter
53	6	1	F15	Thumbed rim, 21cm diameter
54	11	Unstratified		Thumbed rim, 16cm diameter
55	11	3a	L100	Fragment of base
56	11	1a	L142	Body and part of base

Source: As with fabric Kc, this ware contains a few crinoid fragments suggesting a source close to carboniferous limestone. However, in this fabric all the inclusions are well-rounded and come from a variety of rock types. Sands which are similar in content and shape to these inclusions have been seen on the shores of the Severn estuary and a source again close to Bristol is suggested. As with fabric Kc, identical vessels occur at both Bristol and Dublin.

GROUP 3: OTHER ENGLISH IMPORTS

This group is divided into three subgroups L, M and N. They vary considerably in both fabric and form:

L: imports from areas to the east — Wiltshire and Gloucestershire
M: imports from the Malvern Hills area
N: other imports from various sources, none of which is represented by more than half a dozen sherds

SUBGROUP L

The fabrics in this subgroup contain limestones and flints or cherts indicating that they come from the Jurassic and younger period rocks to the east. With the exception of Lc (from the Gloucester area) they are all probably imported via Bristol.

FABRIC La

This fabric probably came from north Wiltshire in the late 12th and 13th centuries. It occurs only as tripod pitchers.

Fabric: Vessels in this fabric are hard and oxidized to a very pale brown (10YR 7/4) with a dark grey core (10YR 4/1). The re-fired colour varies from yellowish-red (5YR 5/6) to red (2.5YR 5/8). The inclusions decomposed during re-firing causing the sample to shatter. These inclusions are of limestone in a fine textured clay matrix containing a little angular quartz and limestone. The limestone inclusions are angular to rounded and often have a brown skin. Most fragments consist of fine grained limestone but some contain brown-stained micro-fossils up to 0.9mm. Calcite and oolitic limestone with a sparry cement are rare but when present are up to 1.5mm across. A few fragments of shell up to 2mm were present. Rare inclusions are rounded quartz up to 0.4mm, angular quartz up to 0.2mm, rounded iron ore up to 0.2mm, and angular chert of flint up to 0.8mm. Voids were present from burnt out organic inclusions.

Typology: The tripod pitchers are handmade, globular bodied vessels with added rims and a diameter of about 14cm. A single fragment of tubular spout (Fig. 58.5), with a strip of clay applied along the body join, was found. Vessels are decorated with applied strips. One is a wide, thumbed strip but most examples are small, plain strips which are often combined with wavy, combed decoration. All have a thin external glaze.

Date and frequency: Although there are a few examples in 12th-century contexts. this fabric is mainly present in the 13th century. It forms about 2% of the pottery in the later features of Site 6.

Source: Evidence based on both distribution and petrology suggests a source in north Wiltshire, possibly in the medieval Forest of Braydon. A production site for late 15th-century pottery has been found at Minety (Musty 1973) and the wares produced there are petrologically identical to the La tripod pitchers. However the late wares have not been found at Chepstow.

FABRIC Lb

The cooking pots in this fabric are of late 11th and 12th-century date and probably came from west Wiltshire. The two thin-sections made of this fabric show very different petrologies. This has been confirmed by examination of the large collection of wares of the same fabric from Bath which also shows considerable variations. These variations have not been examined in detail although it is appreciated that a fuller petrological study would lead to more precise dating and characterization of this fabric.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and varies in colour, often within a single sherd, from light grey to very dark grey (10YR 7/1 to 3/1). The surfaces are sometimes oxidized and the re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). Both samples

Illustrated examples of fabric La:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	6	2c	L4	Rim, 13cm diameter, external green glaze and internal slip
2	6	2c	F2	Rim, external and internal green glaze
3	6	2c	F14	Rim, external green glaze and internal slip
4	9	Unstratified		Glazed rim, 14cm diameter, two external horizontal grooves
5	1	3a	L27	Glazed spout
6	11	3a	L100	Glazed body sherd with wavy combing
7	1	Unstratified		Glazed body sherd with combed decoration
8	6	2c	F2	Glazed body sherd with combed decoration
9	9	Unstratified		Body sherd, externally glazed with applied thumbed strip
10	6	2c	F2	Glazed body sherd with applied strip and combed decoration

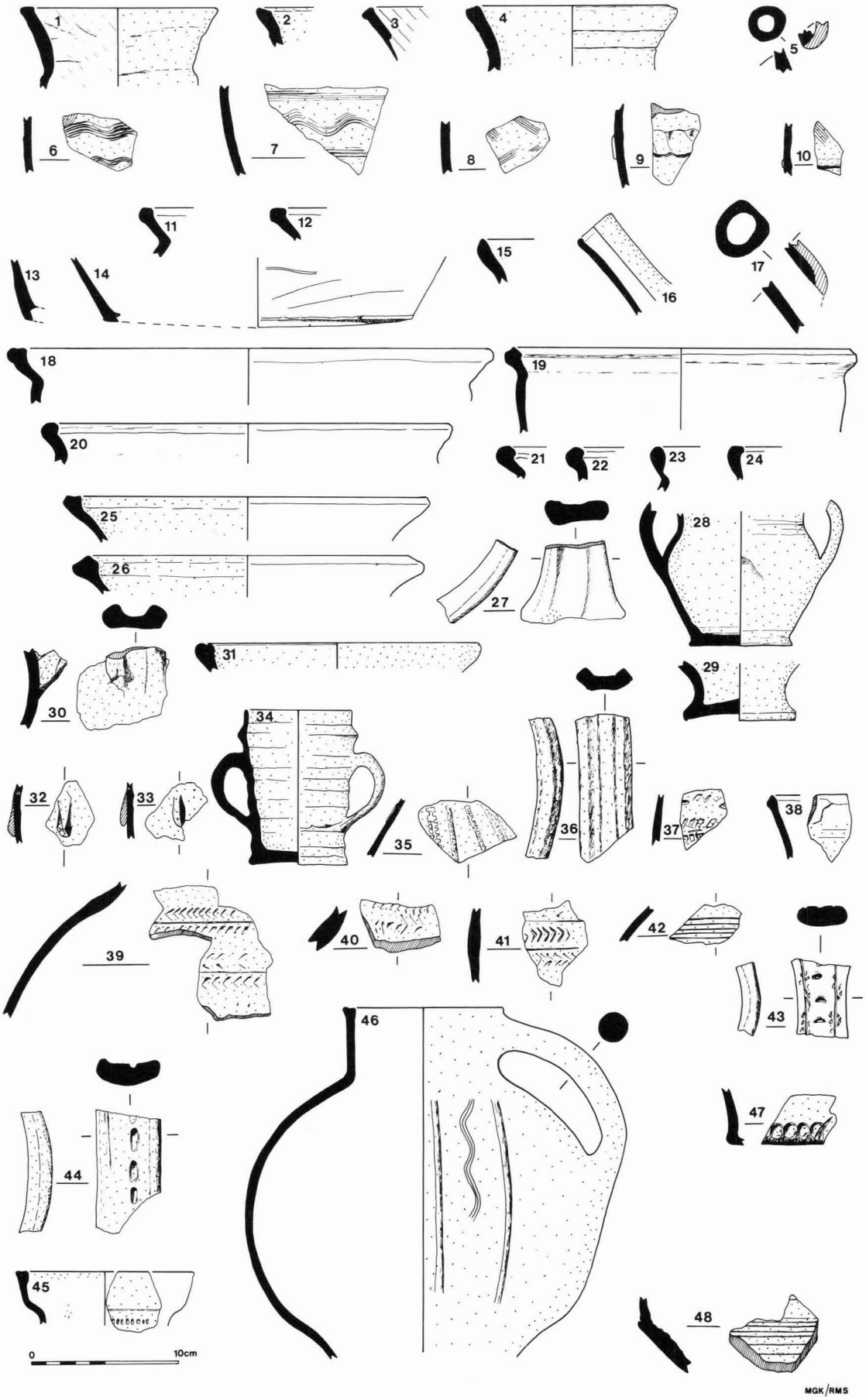

Fig. 58. Non-local wares:
fabric La — nos 1–10 (late 12th and 13th centuries)
fabric Lb — nos 11–14 (late 11th and 12th centuries)
fabric Lc — no 15 (late 11th and 12th centuries)
fabric Ld — no 16 (13th century)
fabric Le — no 17 (12th and 13th centuries)
fabric Ma — nos 18–24 (early 13th century)
fabric Mb — nos 25–29 (16th century)
fabric Mc — nos 30–31 (early 13th century)
fabric Nc — nos 32–33 (early 13th century)
fabric Nf — no 34 (16th century)
fabric Nj — nos 35–36 (late 13th century)
fabric Nl — no 37 (early 13th century)
fabric Nn — no 38 (unknown date)
fabric No — nos 39–43 (12th to 13th century)
fabric Nr — no 44 (? 13th century)
fabric Ns — nos 45–47 (late 13th century or later)
fabric Nv — no 48 (probably 16th or 17th century).

examined contained a high quantity of angular, subangular and well rounded grains of quartz up to 2mm. The well rounded grains are usually polished and quite distinctive when seen under a strong light. One sample included, in addition to the quartz, a fragment of a chert which contained pores and quartz inclusions up to 0.1mm, the fragment being 1.5mm across, and also rounded clay pellets with the same texture as the matrix. The clay matrix contained angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm across. The second sample additionally contained rounded fragments of sandstone with quartz grains up to 0.7mm within some brown-staining around the grains up to 1mm, and fine grained limestone, also with brown-staining up to 1.2mm. The clay matrix contained angular quartz and limestone but very little white mica.

Typology: Cooking pots are the only vessels found in this fabric. They are handmade, globular-bodied vessels with a sagging base, often with a very thick base angle, and everted, flat-topped rim. The lower part of the body is often knife-trimmed.

Date and frequency: Vessels in this fabric were found in late 11th or early 12th-century groups and also occurred in subsequent assemblages. They formed up to 1% of the assemblage.

Source: The distribution of this ware suggests an origin in west Wiltshire. There are at least three documented production sites which might have been producing this ware: Potterne (pre-Conquest place name evidence); Westbury (pottery recorded in the Domesday survey); and Crockerton (potters are recorded in the 13th century).

Illustrated examples of fabric Lb:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
11	6	2c	F2	Rim
12	6	2c	F14	Rim
13	11	3a	L99	Base fragment
14	6	2c	F1	Base fragment

FABRIC Lc

Cooking pots, possibly made at Haresfield, Gloucestershire, in the late 11th and 12th centuries, are the only vessels in this group.

Fabric: Lc cooking pots have a hard fabric which is oxidized to a yellowish-red to brown (5YR 5/6 to 7.5YR 5/4) colour, with a light grey core. On re-firing the samples disintegrated. Inclusions consist of rounded oolitic limestone with a fine grained calcite cement, mostly less than 2mm but one was 4mm across, and some sparry calcite shell fragments. The matrix contains fine angular quartz, some rounded quartz up to 0.2mm (possibly the cores of ooliths), brown iron ore up to 0.1mm, limestone, and a little mica. The matrix is variegated in colour and texture, a feature which also occurs in a clay sample from Haresfield in Gloucestershire.

Typology: Cooking pots are the only vessels found in this fabric. They are handmade with everted rims, flat-topped in the 12th-century examples from Gloucester.

Date and frequency: This fabric is rare at Chepstow but was found in the late 11th or early 12th-century group on Site 11 and in the 12th-century group on Site 6. It never forms more than 1% of any assemblage.

Source: The distribution evidence indicates a source close to Gloucester and the petrological analysis suggests that this could be at Haresfield, south of Gloucester. Potters are recorded at Haresfield in the Domesday survey and in late 11th-century groups at Gloucester only this fabric and imported Stamford wares are found.

Illustrated example of fabric Lc:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
15	6	1	F12	Rim

FABRIC Ld

13th-century tripod pitchers from south Wiltshire are the only vessels in this fabric.

Fabric: The fabric is hard with a white (10YR 8/2) core and pink to light brown (7.5YR 7/4 to 6/4) surfaces except where glazed. The re-fired colour varies from reddish-yellow to pink (7.5YR 6/8 to 7/4). Inclusions are of angular and subangular quartz up to 1.3mm, a little angular light-brown, cloudy chert up to 1mm, and rare rounded iron ore up to 0.2mm. The matrix contains a little angular quartz and white mica and is variegated with yellowish-red spots and streaks in a lighter-coloured matrix.

Typology: Body sherds are most common in the excavations but one tubular spout was found (Fig. 58.16). These tripod pitchers all have a clear lead glaze which appears yellow or green. The interior surface is characteristically pimply.

Date and frequency: Only nine sherds have been found in this fabric in Chepstow, and only one was stratified (Site 11, period 2). External evidence indicates a 13th-century date.

Source: The distribution evidence indicates a source in south Wiltshire. The ware is uncommon in the Severn valley but is regularly found at Bath and Bristol,

presumably indicating the route by which these tripod pitchers came to Chepstow.

Illustrated example of fabric Ld:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
16	11	3c	L111	Glazed tubular spout

FABRIC Le
Tripod pitchers of 12th and 13th-century date, possibly from the neighbourhood of Box in Wiltshire.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and reduced with oxidized reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) surfaces. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). Inclusions consist of limestone and iron ore in a matrix containing a little angular quartz and rare white mica. The limestone fragments, which are up to 1.5mm, are usually fine grained, occasionally with angular quartz inclusions but oolitic limestone with a sparry matrix and calcite are also found. The iron ore appears to replace oolitic and fossiliferous limestone and includes some fragments with angular quartz inclusions. Rare inclusions are angular and subangular quartz up to 0.2mm, red clay pellets and a few red chert fragments up to 0.3mm.

Typology: Three glazed, undecorated, tripod pitcher sherds and one tubular spout with an applied strip at the body join, were found at Chepstow.

Date and frequency: Of the four sherds, one was in a 12th-century context (Site 6, F12); one in a 13th century or possibly later context (Site 1, L25) and the remainder unstratified.

Source: Although the vessels are similar in form to the north Wiltshire tripod pitchers (fabric La), they have a distinct petrology. Only two other sites have produced this ware — Bath (fabric H) and Box (fabric B). At Box both tripod pitchers and cooking pots were found suggesting that the source is fairly close as cooking pots in this fabric have not been found elsewhere.

Illustrated example of fabric Le:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
17	1	3b	L25	Glazed tubular spout

FABRIC Lf
Probably tripod pitchers of 12th or 13th-century date from west Wiltshire.

Fabric: The fabric is hard, reduced to light grey and with an oxidized light yellowish-brown (10YR 6/4) outer surface. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). Inclusions are of angular and subangular quartz up to 0.7mm, porous brown-stained chert with very irregular outlines, angular fragments of sandstone with subangular quartz grains up to 0.3mm in a brown silica cement, and dense red clay pellets. The clay matrix contains very fine angular quartz up to 0.02mm.

Typology: The two handmade body sherds found are externally glazed and probably come from tripod pitchers.

Dating: The two sherds were from Site 6 (F2 and L2) and are probably of 12th or 13th-century date.

Source: Similar wares have been noted at Bath where they were assumed to be a glazed version of Bath fabric A (Chepstow fabric Lb). A west Wiltshire source is likely.
No illustrated examples.

SUBGROUP M

Group M fabric came from the Malvern Hills area and is fully described elsewhere (Vince 1977; Shoesmith 1985).

FABRIC Ma
This is similar to the Hereford fabric A8 (Shoesmith 1985) and is found in 13th-century cooking pots.

Fabric: The fabric is soft and oxidized to a dark reddish-grey (5YR 4/2) with a very dark grey (10YR 3/1) core. The re-fired colour is dark red (2.5YR 3/6). Inclusions are of angular and rounded quartz up to 1.4mm, angular plagioclase felspar up to 0.9mm and sandstone up to 0.6mm. The sandstone consists of rounded quartz grains from 0.1m to 0.2mm in a silica cement with some brown inclusions. There are also a few fragments apparently of indurated mudstone up to 0.4mm and rounded red clay pellets up to 2mm. Burnt-out organic inclusions have left pores 0.4mm across. The matrix is very fine textured with a few fragments of angular quartz and a little white mica from 0.02mm to 0.1mm.

Typology: Handmade, cylindrical cooking pots are the only ware in this fabric (Vince 1977).

Date and frequency: Although some 60 sherds were found in the excavations, only one was in a stratified, late 12th-century context (Site 11, L3). Two were, however, in early 13th-century contexts (Site 1, L26 and L30). The rim forms from the unstratified material are mainly early 13th-century types, apart from one later, oxidized, wheel thrown vessel from Site 1. The number of sherds suggests that the ware was regularly arriving in the town, although in relatively small quantities and forming less than 1% of assemblages.

Source: The pottery comes from Malvern Chase, some 43 miles to the north-east of Chepstow, but connected by both river and road.

FABRIC Mb

16th-century Malvern Chase glazed vessels of varying forms.

Fabric: The fabric is hard, oxidized red (2.5YR 5/8) and has no colour change on re-firing (Vince 1977, group 3; Shoesmith 1985, fabric B4).

Typology: A number of forms are represented in the excavations including a chafing dish (Fig. 58.29), conical bowls (Fig. 58.25 and 26), and large jugs (Site 1, F28 and Site 6, L4).

Date and frequency: Fully stratified sherds were found only on Site 11 in period 3c. These included a cup base and the rim of a conical bowl or skillet.

During the first half of the 17th century, the Malvern Chase pottery used a light-firing clay but as no examples of this type were found in the excavations in Chepstow it is likely that most finds of this fabric are of 16th-century date.

Source: Malvern Chase.

FABRIC Mc

This fabric is found as tripod pitchers of early 13th-century date.

Fabric: The fabric is hard with a dark grey core and oxidized brown (7.5YR 5/4) surfaces. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/6). For full details see Hereford fabric B3 (Shoesmith 1985).

Typology: The rim (Fig. 58.31) and handle stub (Fig. 58.30) are both very similar in type and fabric to a vessel from Brunswick Road, Gloucester (Vince 1977, Fig. 4.4).

Date and frequency: Only three sherds were found during the excavations. They come from Site 6, F2; Site 6, F4A, and Site 11, L30. At both Hereford and Gloucester the ware has a relatively short life in the early 13th century.

Source: These tripod pitchers were manufactured in the Malvern Chase area but the difference in fabric between Mc and Ma and the absence of any traces of accidental glazing on the cooking pots suggests that the tripod pitchers had a separate source within the Chase to the cooking pots.

Illustrated examples of fabric Mc:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
30	6	2c	F2	Handle stub
31	6	2c	F4A	Rim, 19cm diameter

SUBGROUP N

This subgroup covers all the remaining imports into Chepstow. The first section deals with imports from English sources and comprises eleven separate fabrics, and the second section, in group 4, includes all imports from the continent. Each fabric is only represented by a

Illustrated examples of fabric Ma:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
18	6	2c	F2	Rim, 33cm diameter
19	6	2c	F2	Rim, 24cm diameter
20	6	2c	L2	Rim, 28cm diameter
21	1	2/3	L30	Rim
22	6	2c	L2	Rim
23	1	3a	L26	Rim
24	6	Unstratified		Rim

Illustrated examples of fabric Mb:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
25	6	2c	L4	Rim of conical bowl, 25cm diameter
26	6	2c	L4	Rim of conical bowl, 24cm diameter
27	6	3	F5	Handle
28	11	4	F111	Four-handled mug
29	11	Unstratified		Base of chafing dish

few sherds and several cannot be conclusively assigned to a source.

FABRIC Nc
An early 13th-century jug fabric of unknown source.

Fabric: The few sherds found were of a hard fabric, very pale brown or pink in colour, some with a light grey core. The fabric contains a high quantity of angular quartz up to 0.3mm, a little white mica up to 0.1mm, and angular fragments of red sandstone up to 3mm. The sandstone contains angular quartz up to 0.3mm in an opaque matrix.

Typology: All the five sherds found may come from a single vessel. This is a wheelthrown jug, with applied pellets between 2cm and 3cm long and 8mm wide, covered with an external copper-specked glaze.

Date and frequency: All the sherds are from Site 11, two from period 2 levels, one each from periods 3a and 3b, and one from period 4. Assuming that all the sherds belong to one vessel, this was broken during period 2 or earlier and the vessel is therefore of early 13th-century date or earlier. Apart from this example, the only white-firing copper-green glazed, wheelthrown jugs of this date known in the region are developed Stamford Ware jugs.

Source: No jugs of this fabric have been seen in the Severn valley area although similar vessels have been reported from Bristol (personal communication — M. Ponsford).

Illustrated examples of fabric Nc:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
32	11	4	L5	Body sherd
33	11	3b	L28	Body sherd

FABRIC Ne
Tudor Green ware.

Fabric: This ware, which is hard and white, was not examined in thin-section but visual analysis suggests that it is very similar to examples of Tudor Green ware found in Hereford (Shoesmith 1985).

Typology: The small body sherds found had either an internal or external and internal copper-green glaze. Some are definitely from jugs and others from lobed cups.

Date and frequency: Three of the eight sherds found were stratified in Site 11 period 3c. The relative quantities of Malvern Chase wares to Tudor Green ware suggests that about one eighth of all 15th and 16th-century pottery was of the latter fabric.

Source: Tudor Green ware was probably made on the Hampshire–Surrey border where kiln sites have produced comparisons for the fabric but not, as yet, the forms.
No illustrated examples.

FABRIC Nf
The 16th-century ware in this fabric is found as two-handled ribbed cups.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and oxidized to a weak red (10R 4/2) colour with a mottled dusky red to reddish-black (10R 3/2 to 10R 2.5/1) glaze. Thin streaks of a lighter coloured clay are also present. Inclusions are of rounded quartz and quartzite from 0.1mm to 0.3mm, rare angular sandstone with a siliceous matrix up to 0.1mm and rounded iron ore up to 0.1mm. The matrix contains fine specks of quartz up to 0.02mm and was partly vitrified to a depth of 0.1mm below the glaze. The glaze itself was on average 0.2mm thick.

Typology: The two-handled ribbed cups are very similar in form to cups from Hereford (fabric G8) and Gloucester (fabric TF60). They all have a wire-drawn base, often coated with glaze and occasionally with traces of the sandstone spacers used as supports in the kiln.

Date and frequency: One sherd was in a pre-dissolution context on Site 11 (period 3c) and a complete profile (Fig. 58.34) was found in the Site 11 destruction level, L5. At Gloucester, Eastgate, there is also evidence that similar cups were in use before the mid-16th century. At that site they pre-dated the construction of the 'Horse-pool' which is first mentioned in *c.* A.D. 1540.

Source: Waste material from a kiln producing only black cups has been found at Falfield, Gloucestershire. The rounded quartz and quartzite inclusions are commonly found in the superficial clays in the Severn Valley being derived from the Triassic Measures of the West Midlands. Falfield or a similar kiln site could well be the source of the Chepstow, Hereford and Gloucester vessels.

Illustrated example of fabric Nf:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
34	11	4	L5	Two-handled cup

FABRIC Nh
The three sherds of fabric Nh, Stamford ware, found in Chepstow are described using the classification devised by Kilmurry and Mahany (1977).

Fabric: The sherds are hard, white to pink (7.5YR 7/4) in colour, and because of their small size they were not thin-sectioned or re-fired. Two of the sherds, from Site 11 periods 2 and 3c, may be of Stamford fabric G and both have glaze 1. The remaining sherd from Site 1 is possibly Stamford fabric B and has glaze 2.

Typology: All three vessels are probably pitchers of Stamford group 5 as are most of the 11th and 12th-century Stamford ware vessels from the West Country.

Date and frequency: Only one sherd was stratified in a contemporary level. This came from Site 11, period 2 which is of late 11th or early 12th-century date. The other two sherds were in late medieval contexts on Site 1 and Site 11.

Source: Stamford, Lincolnshire.
No illustrated examples.

FABRIC Nj

This fabric is used in the Oxford Late Medieval Wares.

Fabric: This ware has a hard fabric, reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) in colour, with a brown core. The re-fired colour is yellowish-red (5YR 5/8). Inclusions consist of angular quartz up to 0.4mm (although larger grains may be subangular), rounded red clay pellets, only just translucent and up to 0.5mm and self coloured clay pellets up to 1.5mm. The clay matrix contains some angular iron ore up to 0.1mm, felspars up to 0.2mm, possibly some white mica, although this may be angular quartz, up to 0.1mm and angular quartz.

Typology: The examples of fabric Nj found in Chepstow all came from wheelthrown jugs and are mainly body sherds. The nine sherds from Site 6 probably come from three separate vessels, one having a plain strap handle, brown applied strips and a clear glaze and another with a small widely thumbed base and a copper-green glaze. One of the Site 11 sherds is from a vessel with vertically applied strips of self coloured and red-firing clay containing iron ore. The self-coloured strips are roller-stamped.

Date and frequency: One sherd from Site 11 is from period 3c and four are from later features on Site 6. All are probably of late 13th-century date.

Source: These wares are very common at Oxford and some may be from the Brill kilns.

FABRIC Nl

Early 13th-century jugs and cooking pots, probably from the Worcester area.

Fabric: The fabric varies from soft to hard, the cooking pot being black in colour whilst the jug sherds have a light grey core and an oxidized brown or reddish-yellow (7.5YR 5/4 and 5YR 6/6) interior. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6 to 5/6). Inclusions are of rounded and subangular quartz, rounded brown chert and siliceous sandstone with brown inclusions, all up to 1mm. The matrix contains a little angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm.

Typology:
Jugs. These are wheelthrown vessels decorated with roller stamping. The only pattern which is discernible is one composed of diamonds indicating that the stamp was produced by incising criss-cross lines.

Cooking Pot. Two sherds of a wheelthrown cooking pot were found.

Date and frequency: Four jug sherds and two cooking pot sherds were found, the latter are both from the same vessel. Only one jug sherd was stratified, from Site 11 period 2, but all are probably of early 13th-century date.

Source: Although a source in Worcester has been suggested for some time (Barton 1967), only a single waster has been found and there is otherwise no direct evidence for the kilns. However the distribution of the jugs and cooking pots indicates that the Worcester area is the probable source.

Illustrated example of fabric Nl:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
37	11	2	L3	Roller-stamped body sherd

Illustrated examples of fabric Nj:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
35	11	Unstratified		Body sherd with applied roller-stamped strips
36	6	2c	L2	Strap handle

FABRIC Nn
Jug fabric of unknown date and source.

Fabric: This fabric is hard, oxidized pink (7.5YR 7/4) and has a light grey core. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). There are scattered inclusions of angular and subangular quartz up to 0.7mm, rare angular red chert up to 0.7mm, siliceous sandstone, and white mica up to 0.1mm. The clay matrix contains a little fine quartz and rare heavy minerals up to 0.04mm. This is essentially a very fine textured fabric similar to many samples of the Lower Lias clay from the Severn Valley.

Typology: The single sherd found was part of a wheelthrown jug with a simple rim and pulled spout.

Date and frequency: The sherd was found in layer L26, period 3 on Site 1.

Source: A similar vessel has been found at Winchcombe abbey and thin-sectioned. The fabric is otherwise unknown.

Illustrated example of fabric Nn:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
38	1	3a	L26	Rim

FABRIC No
Jugs of 12th to 13th-century date and unknown origin, are the only vessels in this fabric. Originally this was classified as three separate fabrics (the others being Ho and Hp) but they have now been amalgamated.

Fabric: Fabric No is hard to very hard and reduced but with oxidized brown (7.5YR 5/4) surfaces where it is not glazed. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 4/6). Inclusions consist of rounded and subangular quartz, often cloudy with brown inclusions and up to 0.8mm, rounded chert with red staining along veins and rare sandstones up to 0.7mm with quartz grains up to 0.3mm in a silica matrix with a high quantity of brown inclusions. The clay matrix contains some angular quartz and rare white mica fragments and is vesicular.

Typology: The jugs in this fabric are handmade and decorated with roller-stamping or applied strips. A single handle was found with two vertical grooves and central stabbing. The grooves are overlain by roller-stamping. Two varieties of roller-stamp are represented: chevrons and a raised zigzag. The vessels have an external clear glaze which is olive to brown in colour.

Date and frequency: Twelve sherds were found during the excavations of which five (from Site 11, period 3a) are probably from one vessel. Another sherd, with an applied strip, is from F12 on Site 6, a 12th-century pit. A 12th to 13th-century date is therefore suggested.

Source: Unknown.

FABRIC Nr
Jugs, probably of 13th-century date, which may come from a source near Hereford.

Fabric: The fabric is hard and reduced to a grey colour. The re-fired colour is red (2.5YR 5/8). Inclusions consist of angular to subangular quartz, mainly less than 0.2mm but occasionally up to 0.4mm, angular silicified sandstone up to 0.7mm, with brown and opaque inclusions up to 0.1mm, and minor quantities of white mica, rounded red chert and heavy minerals all less than 0.2mm.

Typology: Two jug sherds were found, one a strap handle with stabbed decoration (Fig. 58.44), and the second a body sherd with traces of a roller-stamped decoration.

Date and frequency: The sherds were from period 3 (construction) on Site 1 and from F2 on Site 6. They are probably of 13th-century date.

Illustrated examples of fabric No:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
39	11	3a	L102	Roller-stamped body sherd
40	11	3a	L102	Roller-stamped body sherd
41	11	3a	L102	Roller-stamped body sherd
42	11	3a	L102	Body sherd
43	1	3a	L27	Handle fragment with grooves and stabbing

Source: Similar fabrics have been seen in Hereford although this ware is probably not identical to Hereford fabric A7b (Shoesmith 1985).

Illustrated example of fabric Nr:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
44	1	3a	L27	Strap handle

FABRIC Ns

Late 13th century or later jugs from an unknown source.

Fabric: This fabric is hard and usually reduced to a light grey, sometimes with a reddish-yellow (7.5YR 6/6) interior surface. The re-fired colour varies from a pink (7.5YR 7/4) to pale yellow (2.5YR 7/4). The clay matrix is very similar in all the examples found, containing scattered angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm, but mainly much smaller. However, the sand inclusions vary in both quantity and texture. The majority are of quartz, consisting of subangular grains from 0.1mm to 0.5mm with a few larger rounded grains up to 0.8mm although the latter are not always present. Clear pale brown flint or chert is also found. Opaque iron ore is more variable in occurrence but can be common as large angular fragments up to 2mm, some dark brown with quartz and mica inclusions, and others black.

Typology: Several jugs have been found in this fabric including an almost complete profile (Fig. 58.46). The decoration is variable and can consist of vertical strips alternating with wavy combing, applied blobs with iron ore in the clay, and square-toothed roller-stamping. All examples found have a green glaze which varies from light green, where the lead glaze takes its colour from the body, to speckled green, where the colour may come from iron inclusions in the body. There is one closely thumbed base.

Date and frequency: Eight examples have been found in Chepstow; none in early 13th century or earlier contexts. A late 13th century or later date is therefore likely.

Source: Both the clay matrix and the absence of sandstone inclusions and clay pellets distinguish this fabric from the Bristol jugs (fabric Jb). The source is unknown.

FABRIC Nv

Only one example of a bowl has been found in this fabric. It is probably of 16th or 17th-century date but could be earlier. The source is unknown.

Fabric: The sherd has a hard fabric and is oxidized to a light yellowish-brown (10YR 6/4). There are very few visible inclusions but a single rounded red clay pellet, 0.6mm across, with quartz inclusions was seen in section. The matrix consists of baked clay with numerous specks of angular quartz and white mica up to 0.1mm.

Typology: The sherd is apparently from an open vessel, probably a bowl. The clear glaze is total on the exterior and partial internally.

Date and frequency: The example found came from L2 on Site 6 and could therefore be of late 13th century or later date. It is most probably of 16th or 17th-century date.

Illustrated examples of fabric Ns:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
45	6	2b	F13	Roller-stamped rim
46	6	2c	F4A	Almost complete profile
47	6	Unstratified		Fragment of thumbed base

Illustrated example of fabric Nv:

FIG. 58	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
48	6	2c	L2	Fragment of bowl

GROUP 4: CONTINENTAL IMPORTS

This group is mainly based on identifications supplied or confirmed by R. Thompson of Southampton Museums. The most common is Saintonge ware, the remainder being represented by only a few sherds.

FABRIC Nb: SAINTONGE WARES

Fabric: Saintonge ware is hard and varies in colour between white, pink, very light brown, and very light grey. It has abundant fine angular quartz inclusions and variable quantities of white mica less than 0.1mm. Some sherds contain a few subrounded or rounded grains of quartz or quartzite less than 1mm.

Typology: Most of the sherds found during the excavations are very small and cannot be assigned to a definite form. The following vessels are suggested using more complete examples from Southampton.

Green Glazed Jugs. The Chepstow sherds are probably from both tall thin jugs and squatter vessels (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975, 2). The glaze varies from a speckled copper green to a fine quality green with and without an internal clear glaze. One sherd has an applied strip with roller stamped decoration (Fig. 59.1) and another has part of a scratch mark possibly denoting ownership.

Polychrome Jugs: Four sherds of polychrome decorated jugs were found, possibly representing only two vessels. From Site 6, layer L4, one sherd has brown and green paint with a clear glaze, while from Site 11, three sherds are from a jug decorated with 'vine and scroll' designs similar to a complete example from Kidwelly Castle (Fox, Radford & Dunning 1933).

Chafing Dish: A single handle (Fig. 59.6) with spots of green glaze probably is part of a chafing dish (Hurst 1974, Type C1).

Date and frequency: A total of 53 sherds were found. Unglazed and green-glazed jugs were most numerous (48 sherds) and represented particularly in periods 3b and 3c on Site 11 where they comprise 2% of assemblages, and later features on Site 6 where there is 1% of the assemblage. The polychrome jugs are from an unstratified level on Site 6 and on Site 11 from pit F2, which is part of period 3b. The handle was unstratified.

FABRIC Np: NORTH FRENCH COSTRELS

Fabric: The fabric is very hard, grey in section with a mottled dark brown skin. There were no inclusions visible by eye and the single sherds was not thin sectioned.

Typology: The sherd comes from a wheelthrown costrel of Hurst type 111 (Hurst 1966 and Neal 1977).

Date and frequency: The sherd, from period 5 on Site 11, is of priory dissolution date or later.

Source: This type of flask, made at Martincamp, between Dieppe and Beauvais in northern France, is widespread in the west country although it does not usually account for more than 1% of contemporary pottery. Unlike most wares imported from France, examples are not restricted to English coastal regions and have been found at Hereford (Shoesmith 1985: fabric F1) and even at Wigmore in north Herefordshire. *No illustrated examples.*

FABRIC Nq: FRENCH 13th-CENTURY JUGS

Fabric: This hard fabric has a very pale brown (10YR 7/4) interior surface with a light grey core and a copper-specked green glaze on the external surface. Several inclusions of subangular and angular quartz and brown micaceous rock up to 1mm were seen by eye but were not present in thin-section. When fully examined there were seen to be abundant inclusions of angular to subangular quartz up to 0.2mm and white mica flakes and sheaves up to 0.3mm long. Several light green to brown rounded grains of garnet up to 0.1mm and dense white clay pellets up to 0.3mm were also present. The clay matrix was optically isotropic.

Typology: The sherds represented thin-walled wheelthrown jugs, one with closely spaced horizontal grooving.

Date and frequency: Only two sherds were found; one from Site 1 (F2) and the other from the period 3b drain trench, F52, on Site 11. Both contained a mixture of 13th-century pottery.

Illustrated examples of Fabric Nb:

FIG. 59	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
1	11	4	L5	Green glazed body sherd with applied roller-stamped decoration
2	6	2c	L4	Bodysherd from polychrome jug
3	11	3b	F2	Polychrome jug sherd
4	11	Unstratified		Polychrome jug sherd
5	11	3b	F2	Polychrome jug sherd
6	11	Unstratified		Chafing dish handle

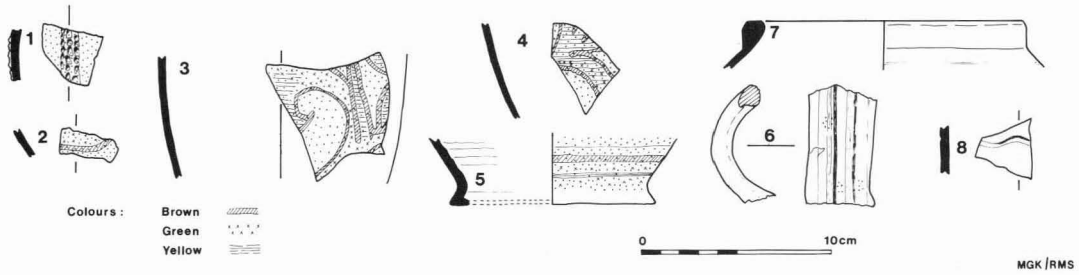

Fig. 59. Continental wares:
fabric Nb — nos 1–6
fabric Ng — nos 7–8.

Source: Two comparable vessels have been noted; one at Gloucester associated with an imported Normandy Gritty pitcher in a 13th-century context, and the other at Southampton (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975, 2). The petrology of the fabric suggests an origin in a region of metamorphic rocks and the distribution of comparative vessels points to a continental source, probably somewhere in France.
No illustrated examples.

FABRIC Ng: MERIDA WARE

This red micaceous ware comes from Merida in Spain.

Fabric: The sherds are of a hard fabric which is red (2.5YR 5/8) in colour. The ware was not thin-sectioned but a visual examination demonstrated the presence of subangular quartz and large sherds of white mica both up to 1mm.

Typology: The seven sherds found are from unglazed, wheelthrown vessels, all hollow wares, but insufficient was found to identify the types of vessels. One sherd included part of a rim (Fig. 59.7), a second was a stub of a handle, and a third had an incised wavy-line decoration.

Date and frequency: The sherds were not from dateable contexts and the ware itself apparently has a long lifespan.

FABRIC Nt: SPANISH OLIVE JARS

Fabric: Two sherds were found, one medieval and the other post-medieval. Both are oxidized; the medieval one being reddish-yellow (5YR 6/6) with a light grey core and interior, whilst the post-medieval one is pink (7.5YR 7/4) throughout. Both have a surface skin, the medieval one being pale yellow (2.5Y 7/4) and the post-medieval one white (2.5Y 8/2). This is due to the reaction of salt with the clay fabric during firing and is not a white slip as it gradually merges into the underlying oxidized layer. The medieval vessel is unglazed but the post-medieval one has an internal semi-opaque light green glaze with drips of thick green glaze on the exterior.

Both sherds contain the same range of inclusions and have a similar clay matrix although the quantity of temper is higher in the medieval vessel. All the inclusions are angular to rounded fragments usually less than 0.6mm but occasionally up to 1mm. The principal ones are quartz, limestone (including calcite and fossiliferous fragments), and fine to medium grained metamorphic rocks containing mainly quartz and white mica. More rare are biotite, clay pellets, small foraminiferae casts and felspars. Some fragments may be an altered rhyolite with pores and quartz and angular opaque inclusions. The clay matrix contains finely divided mica and a little quartz up to 0.02mm.

This range of inclusions is also present in the probably mid 17th-century Spanish olive jar from Hereford (Shoesmith 1985).

Typology: The two sherds are too small to reconstruct the original shapes but the medieval specimen is probably globular with walls 8mm to 10mm thick while the post-medieval vessel has thinner walls between 5mm and 6mm thick.

Date and frequency: Both sherds are from Site 6, the medieval vessel from F43 and the post-medieval one from L2A.

Source: The common petrology of both Chepstow and Hereford sherds indicates that the same clay and temper sources were used throughout the medieval and post-medieval periods. The salt-whitened sources suggest a coastal origin which may be close to Seville or Cadiz (Goggin 1960, 5).
No illustrated examples.

Illustrated examples of fabric Ng:

FIG. 59	SITE	PERIOD	CONTEXT	DESCRIPTION
7	2	3	L1	Rim fragment
8	6	2c	L2	Body sherd with incised wavy line

FABRIC Nu: GERMAN STONEWARE
The fabric was not examined.

Typology: Seven sherds were retained from the post-Dissolution levels. Of these one was from a Cologne jug, three from a Frechen jug, and three from Westerwald vessels (2 jugs and a cylindrical tankard).

Date and frequency: The Cologne jug could be pre-Dissolution (Site 6, layer L2) but otherwise no sherds of the earlier stonewares such as Raeren Jugs were found.

Source: Presumably all from the Rhineland.
No illustrated examples.

DISCUSSION

NELSON STREET HOUSE (SITE 6) SEQUENCE
(see p. 27)
Most of the pottery from Site 6 is not securely stratified and the soil levels tend to contain a range of fabrics from the late 11th or 12th centuries through to the 17th century. However, some of the pits have produced what appears to be uncontaminated groups of pottery of 12th and 13th-century date. The later features contain much residual pottery and the internal depressions contain material which is indistinguishable from that in the overlying soils although there is less post-medieval pottery.

Period 1 – 12th Century
Although fabrics Ke and Kc were found in some quantity, no features produced these two fabrics alone. As these two fabrics are of late 11th or early 12th-century date, it can be suggested that there may have been some occupation in the area during this period, which left no archaeological traces. Of the earliest features, pits F12, F15, F24, F25, and F26 all contain similar pottery to period 2 on Site 11 (see table below and p. 128).

Period 2a, 2b and 2c — 13th Century
Pit F1, close to the north-eastern baulk, contained an uncontaminated group of 13th-century pottery, similar to the group from the period 3a feature F78 on Site 11 (p. 129).

	FEATURE F1	
FABRIC	NO OF SHERDS	PERCENTAGE
Ha.1	128	56
Ha.3	4	2
Hb	5	2
Hk	1	–
Jc	9	4
Ka	1	–
Kb	53	23
Kc*	9	4
Ke*	10	4
La	6	3
Lb*	1	–
Lc*	2	1
	229	

* Late 11th or early 12th centuries – considered residual. One sherd of ridge tile, fabric Ea, was also found in F1.

All the other features contain a high quantity of 13th-century pottery, such as the Ham Green wares (Jc and Ka) and the local fabric, Ha.1, but also include fabrics not found in the period 3a groups on Site 11 (p. 129) such as Bristol jugs (fabric Jb). On typological grounds, these jugs should belong to the late 13th or early 14th centuries and there are some comparisons between them and the material from St Peter's Church at Bristol (Dawson, Jackson and Ponsford 1972) although the Chepstow wares appear slightly earlier. It is, however, unlikely that all the wares found in the Site 6, period 2 features are contemporary, and the presence of jug fabrics Ha.2 and Ht tends to confirm the

PERIOD 1	NUMBER OF SHERDS					TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF
FABRIC	F12	F15	F24	F25	F26	SHERDS	TOTAL ASSEMBLAGE
Ha.1	10	1	–	1	5	17	13
Hb	2	–	–	–	–	2	2
Kb	27	20	1	5	5	58	46
Kc*	8	1	1	–	–	10	8
Ke*	25	5	1	2	1	34	27
Lb*	–	–	1	–	–	1	1
Lc	2	–	–	–	–	2	2
Le	2	–	–	–	–	2	2
No	1	–	–	–	–	1	1
Jb†				1†			
Ns†				1†			
						126	

* Late 11th or early 12th centuries
† Late 13th century or later — considered intrusive

hypothesis that this period is not well represented on Site 11.

Finds from the packing of the postholes, F36, F37 and F38, include late 13th century or later types suggesting that the timber additions to the stone building are of this date or later and similarly with the upper parts of pits F4 (F4A) and F30 — both period 1 pits with later levelling material in the top.

Period 3 — Later Medieval

There is very little pottery from Site 6 which need be later than the 14th or 15th centuries and the scatter of post-medieval pottery, while it contains types which might be as early as the late 15th century, includes nothing which need be earlier than the second half of the 16th century.

MONASTIC BARN (SITE 1) SEQUENCE

Only a few of the pottery groups from Site 1 are well stratified due to the lack of vertical stratification over most of the site.

Period 1 — Roman

Gully F37 contained five sherds of 12th-century pottery (Ha–1, Hs–1, Kb–2, Kc–1). They were close to the top of the feature in areas which may have been disturbed by cultivation before the monastic barn was built. Layer L37 also contained a mixture of Roman and medieval sherds, including some of early 13th-century date.

Period 2 — Boundary Ditch and Soil Levels

The pottery from ditch F32, pits F48 and F50, and layer L34 is all probably of late 12th-century date and is comparable with that from period 2 on Site 11. There was no pottery in the fill of the earlier ditch, F53 (see table below).

Period 3 — The Monastic Barn

Layers L33 and L38, which were probably associated with the construction of the barn (Period 3a), produced pottery of early 13th-century date as did layer L32, which represents the initial occupation of the building. These layers, in the north-western part of the site and under the metalled roadway, were less disturbed than elsewhere in the building. The equivalent layer, L30, contained material, including Malvern Chase roof tile (fabric A), which is probably of 15th century or later date. The pottery from the construction layer, L33, directly above the period 2 layer, L34, is later in character than that from Site 11 period 3a, suggesting the barn was built at a slightly later date than the southern range of the cloistral buildings. Layer L33 contained 36 sherds, of which six were of Ham Green ware (including B style jugs) and fifteen of fabric Ha, and a similar distribution was apparent in other period 3 groups even though they were not securely stratified.

The absence of late medieval pottery may be a reflection of the use of the building as a barn. The slots, F25 and F43 (Period 3b), which were apparently associated with shoring, contained late 13th century or later pottery and roof tile. A fragment of water pipe, in fabric Hg, from wall F28 was found together with medieval and post medieval pottery.

Period 4 — The Re-Built Barn

The date of rebuilding the monastic barn on a simplified plan is not clear. A single pot sherd of fabric Jb (Bristol Redcliffe ware) from the period 3b shoring slot F44, buried under the period 4 metalling F58, is of late 13th century or later date. The ridge tile provides better dating evidence for this rebuild than the pottery.

THE PRIORY (SITE 11) SEQUENCE

Two areas of stratified material survived at Site 11 — the east and central areas. The two areas are not stratigraphically connected and are here considered separately.

THE EAST SEQUENCE

Period 1

Ditch F56 contained a small group of pottery in its lower level, L87, and similar wares were found in the layers to the north-west of the ditch including the ditch throw-out, L92 and L141, and the underlying soil levels, L93

PERIOD 2 FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS F32	F48	L34	TOTAL SHERDS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ASSEMBLAGE
Ha	15	–	10	25	26
Hb	3	–	8	11	11
Hs	–	1	–	1	1
Kb	14	3	29	46	47
Kc*	1	–	–	1	1
Ke*	3	–	10	13	13
Lb*	1	–	–	1	1
				98	

* Late 11th or early 12th century

and L142. These levels were sealed and to a certain extent protected by the later buildings but to the south of the ditch the equivalent levels, L8 and L79, contain later pottery, probably as a result of cultivation.

A total of 85 sherds, excluding a large number of sherds from a single vessel from L87, was found. They comprised:

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS	PERCENTAGE
Kc	23	27
Ke	59	69
Lb	1	1
Lc	2	2

External parallels suggest this is a late 11th or early 12th-century group.

Period 2

There are four main types of pottery, showing a sequence of construction, use, and demolition of the extension to the east range. They are from the foundation trench, L20, for wall F8; from the floor of the extension (L6 and L125); from the fill of the robber trench, F74, which had held the west wall of the extension; and from the external soil levels to the east, L3 and L8. The latter are not strictly part of this sequence but appear to have accumulated during the 12th century with only a few sherds which could be contemporary with the period 3a building.

All the groups have a little early 13th-century pottery but F74, although not a large assemblage, has substantially differing percentages to the earlier L20 and L6/L125 groups (see table below).

Period 3a

The floor levels and features inside the new southern range appear to be of a single period. Joining sherds of a pot of fabric No were found in pit F78 and layers L102 and L113. Counting the No vessels as one sherd, the distribution is shown in the table below.

PERIOD 2 FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS L20	L6/L125	F74	L3/L8	PERCENTAGE L20	L6/L125	F74	L3/L8
Ha.1	15	–	11	16	9	–	41	20
Hb	4	1	5	1	2	1	19	1
Jc†	2	2	2	–	1	2	7	–
Ka†	–	2	–	–	–	2	–	–
Kb	111	75	8	57	69	61	30	70
Kc*	9	7	–	1	6	6	–	1
Ke*	18	35	–	3	11	29	–	4
Ld†	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Ma†	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Nc†	–	–	1	1	–	–	4	1
Nl†	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
TOTALS	160	122	27	81				

* Late 11th or early 12th century † Early 13th century or later

PERIOD 3A FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS	PERCENTAGE	PERCENTAGES DELETING FABRICS KC AND KE
Ha.1	13	13	23
Hb	2	2	4
Hg	5	5	9
Hh	1	1	2
Jb†	1	1	2
Jc	9	9	16
Ka	1	1	2
Kb	19	19	34
Kc*	6	6	
Ke*	39	39	
La	2	2	4
Nc	1	1	2
Nl	1	1	2
No	1	1	2
TOTAL	101		

* Late 11th or early 12th century — assumed to be residual † Late 13th century and later

Apart from the single sherd of fabric Jb, this assemblage would seem to belong to the earlier part of the 13th century. The assemblage is of three main fabric groups; Ha.1, Jc and Kb (Ke may be residual) with new arrivals Hg, Hh and No.

Period 3b

The later floor levels (L25, L28, L30 and L97) are very similar in their pottery content to the period 3a assemblage but the layer of charcoal, L26, contains later sherds.

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS FLOOR LEVELS	L26
Ha.1	2	
He‡		3
Hg*	1	
Hh	4	
Jb†		3
Jc*	2	
Kb	4	
Ke	2	
TOTAL	15	6

* Early 13th century and later
† Late 13th century and later
‡ Late 14th to early 15th century

From the pottery there appears to be a considerable gap in the sequence during period 3b from the late 13th century to, at the earliest, the late 14th century.
The pottery from pit F2, in the reredorter, includes a small group of possibly early 14th-century date. The distribution is:

FABRIC (PIT F2)	NUMBER OF SHERDS
Ha.1	2
Hg	3
Hk	3
Jb*	3
Nb†	2
TOTAL	13

* Late 13th century and later
† Saintonge ware: 14th century and later

Period 3c

A single fragment of ridge tile (fabric A — late 15th to early 16th centuries) came from posthole F27. Sherds of fifteen vessels of late 15th century or later date are also stratified in pre-dissolution contexts.

THE CENTRAL SEQUENCE

Period 1

The large pits produced very little pottery and only eight sherds were found in the entire area. They are:

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS
Ha.1	3
Kb	3
Ke	2
TOTAL	8

Intrusive sherds may be a result of later filling of the tops of pits as the contents subsided or due to the removal of the fills and replacement in stone when the periods 2 and 3 walls were built. Otherwise the pits were filled later in the 12th century.

Period 2

The soil levels which accumulated over the pits contained a group of 92 sherds all of 12th-century date. They are:

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS	PERCENTAGE
Ha.1	5	5
Hb	6	7
Kb	76	83
Kc*	1	1
Ke*	3	3
La	1	1
TOTAL	92	

* Late 11th or early 12th centuries

Comparison of this table with the one for period 2 on the east sequence suggests that the central sequence is the earlier of the two as it does not contain Ham Green wares (fabrics Jc and Ka) — it is, however, very similar to the assemblage from the external soil levels (L3/L8).

Period 3a

There is a stratigraphic correlation between the east and central sequences at the beginning of period 3a with the construction of the southern wing. From the final levelling of the pits (L106 and L107) and the floor level (L99, L104 and L133) there was a total of 254 sherds. There was no significant difference between the two groups suggesting that the levelling and laying of the floor was a single operation.

The fabrics represented in the assemblage are:

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS	PERCENTAGE
Ha.1	29	11
Hb	13	5
Jb*	1	–
Jc	10	4
Ka	18	7
Kb	168	66
Kc	4	2
Ke	7	3
Lb	4	2
TOTAL	254	

* Late 13th century and later

As with the eastern area there is a single sherd of fabric Jb but otherwise the assemblage appears to be early 13th century although the two groups are by no means identical. This may partly be due to a higher quantity of residual sherds in the eastern area caused by the period 2 building in this area. If fabrics Kc and Ke are removed from the eastern sequence, the similarities become much clearer. The period 3a central sequence differs from the two period 2 sequences in the higher percentages of fabrics Jc and Ka.

Period 3b

The only central area feature internal to the building to produce pottery in period 3b was drain F52 in trench F58. As one would expect, the pottery from the fill of the drain is appreciably later than that in the fill of the trench. Externally, the stone spread, L111, produced a sizeable group, but it must be appreciated that this surface continued in use during period 3c.

The internal assemblages are too small for rigorous comparison with the eastern sequence and F58 could be related to either period 3a or period 3b. The external group has intrusive later sherds as expected but otherwise would appear to fit into the sequence between the laying of floor L99 (period 3a) and the digging of drain F58 (period 3b). It can thus be assumed that the stone spread was in use during period 3b and later.

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS F58	F52	L111	PERCENTAGE L111
Ha.1	1	2	52	50
Hb	1	–	–	–
Hg	2	–	–	–
Hk	–	1	1	1
Jb*	–	–	1	1
Jc	2	2	32	31
Ka			2	2
Kb	–	–	10	10
Ke	–	1	1	1
Ld	–	–	3	3
Nj*	–	–	1	1
Nb*	–	1	1	1
Nq	–	1		
TOTAL	6	8	104	

* Late 13th century and later

Period 3c

The mixed series of layers which seal the drain and constitute the floor level of this period may have been brought into the site. It contains a very mixed assemblage of which the latest sherd is a Tudor Green lobed cup (fabric Ne), probably of 15th century or later date:

FABRIC	NUMBER OF SHERDS
Ha.1	6
Hb	2
He	1
Hg	2
Hk	3
Jb	4
Jc	3
Ka	1
Kb	10
Kc	1
Ke	1
La	1
Ne	1
Nh	1
TOTAL	37

Period 4 (both sequences)

None of the later levels contains a quantity of pottery. A complete profile of a fabric Nf black-glazed cup came from the destruction layer L5.

THE TWO SEQUENCES

Stratigraphically the only correlation between the two sequences occurs when the period 3a building was erected and the only absolute dating is that of the Dissolution which is assumed to equate approximately with the destruction of the conventual buildings.

The start of the Ham Green industry can be equated with the occupation of the period 2 extension to the east wing and, as the earliest floors of the period 3a southern wing contain only Ham Green style A jugs, the date of commencement of production of the Ham Green B jugs gives a *terminus post quem* for the period 3a building.

THE LOCATION BY SITE OF NON-LOCAL WARES (SHERD COUNT)

		SITE					
GROUP	FABRIC	6 NELSON STREET	1 CATTLE MARKET	11 PRIORY	2 & 3 PORT WALL	OTHERS	TOTAL
3. (ENGLISH IMPORTS)	La	27	5	8	–	2	42
	Lb	16	4	7	1	–	28
	Lc	8	2	2	–	2	14
	Ld	2	1	6	–	–	9
	Le	3	1	–	–	–	4
	Lf	1	–	–	–	–	1
	Ma	15	5	39	1	–	60
	Mb	29	10	16	4	4	63
	Mc	2	–	1	–	–	3
	Nc	–	–	4	–	–	4
	Ne	1	2	5	–	–	8
	Nf	1	–	2	–	–	3
	Nh	–	1	2	–	–	3
	Nj	9	–	2	–	–	11
	Nl	2	–	4	–	–	6
	Nn	–	1	–	–	–	1
	No	3	2	6	–	1	12
	Nr	1	1	–	–	–	2
	Ns	–	1	1	–	–	2
	Nv	1	–	–	–	–	1
4. (CONTINENTAL IMPORTS)	Nb (France)	28	7	10	5	2	52
	Np (France)	–	1	–	–	–	1
	Nq (France)	–	1	1	–	–	2
	Ng (Spain)	4	–	–	3	–	7
	Nt (Spain)	2	–	–	–	–	2
	Nu (Germany)	3	1	–	–	3	7

COOKING POT CAPACITY

It has been suggested that there must be a substantial difference in capacity between the late Saxon wheel-thrown cooking pots and their early medieval successors (Barker 1970, 44–45). Analysis of the pottery sequences at Hereford and Gloucester has shown that there is indeed such a change in pot capacity. Since there were no complete profiles available of late Saxon or medieval cooking pots, the rim diameters were measured and the mean diameter and range compared for each type. Late Saxon pots in Hereford have rim diameters ranging from 11cm to 16cm with a mean at 13cm, but by the late 11th century these wares have been replaced by pots with a mean diameter of 22cm. Despite differences in the overall shape and therefore capacity between the two types, there is no doubt that there was a fairly rapid change during the 11th century involving perhaps a four-fold increase in capacity.

At Chepstow, changes in capacity between the late 11th and 13th centuries can be compared, as can variations in size between different production centres. All the Chepstow cooking pot rims were measured on a radius chart and those with more than 1/24th (15°) of the total rim present were used to construct Figs. 60 and 61. Fig. 60 shows the mean rim diameter and range for all cooking pot fabrics irrespective of context or period. There is quite a considerable range in each fabric but, with two exceptions, all the production centres were making pots with a similar mean rim diameter and range. The first exception is fabric Ma — Malvern Chase cooking pots, where the mean rim diameter is about 6cm greater than the average for other types. However, the capacity may be similar, for the Malvern Chase pots are cylindrical, unlike all the others which are globular, and which therefore have a larger capacity for a given rim size. This is not the case with the second exception, the locally made Hb.1 fabric. These vessels were globular and therefore the ratio of rim diameter to capacity should be comparable with other wares. Accepting this assumption, and a mean rim diameter of 39cm, these vessels would have had a capacity some four times that of other fabric types.

With the exception of fabric Hb.1., all the cooking pots had mean diameters comparable to those found in late 11th-century Hereford.

The range and mean diameters of cooking pots from Site 11, according to period, is shown in Fig. 61. This shows an apparent increase in the mean and range in period 2, gradually decreasing in periods 3 and 4.

However, if the vessels with large rim diameters of fabrics Hb.1 and Ma are ignored, then it can be seen that there was virtually no change in either range or mean from the beginning to the end of the sequence. Whatever the reasons for the increase in capacity from late Saxon to early medieval cooking pots in the 11th century, there is no similar change in the following 200 years, during which period vessels show a remarkable uniformity in size although they may be from different production centres.

THE POTTERY TECHNOLOGY

The study of the pottery industry in the Chepstow area is limited by the total lack of known production sites. Without this information it is difficult to discuss the medieval trading contacts and to study the changing methods of production. As a result the following section has had to be based on an analysis of the Site 11 pottery sequence, considering the incidence of glazing, the use of the potters' wheel, the method of firing and the selection of pot temper. The results are summarized graphically (Fig. 62).

The Incidence of Glazing

During the 11th and early 12th centuries the use of lead glaze on pottery in the West Country is restricted to the occasional tripod pitcher (a vessel of Chepstow fabric Lc, from a late 11th-century pit at Gloucester New Market Hall, is one of only two known glazed vessels in this fabric (Hassall and Rhodes 1974)). An exception to this generalization occurs in Hereford with a group of 11th-century wheelthrown pitchers (Hereford fabric A7a) (Shoesmith 1985). However, by the first half of the 12th century, the north Wiltshire tripod pitcher industry was established (fabric La) and glazed tripod pitchers were being produced at Malvern Chase (fabric Mc). The manufacture of tripod pitchers reached its zenith in the late 12th and early 13th centuries, being produced at a variety of sources. During the 13th century the frequency of glazed wares in assemblages increases, both because of the real increase in the production of jugs and pitchers and because of the phasing-out of ceramic cooking pots in favour of new ones made of cast bronze. Chepstow would have been an early market for the products of the Bristol bronze factory, which is first recorded in the late 13th century (Walters 1911) as making bells but doubtless made cooking pots as well. The Site 11 material shows this changing process (Fig. 62) where the proportion of glazed sherds rises rapidly between periods 3a and 3b, over half the sherds in the latter group being glazed, although it should be remembered that the late 13th century to late 14th-century period is poorly represented on this site (p. 129). The actual proportion of glazed wares in use must be even greater, for the presence of residual non-glazed sherds has influenced the statistics. By period 4, all the contemporary wares are glazed. The addition of copper to the glaze, which produces a green glaze on an oxidized body, is a rare technique before the 13th century and at Chepstow only fabric Nc, probably of early 13th-century date, makes use of this process.

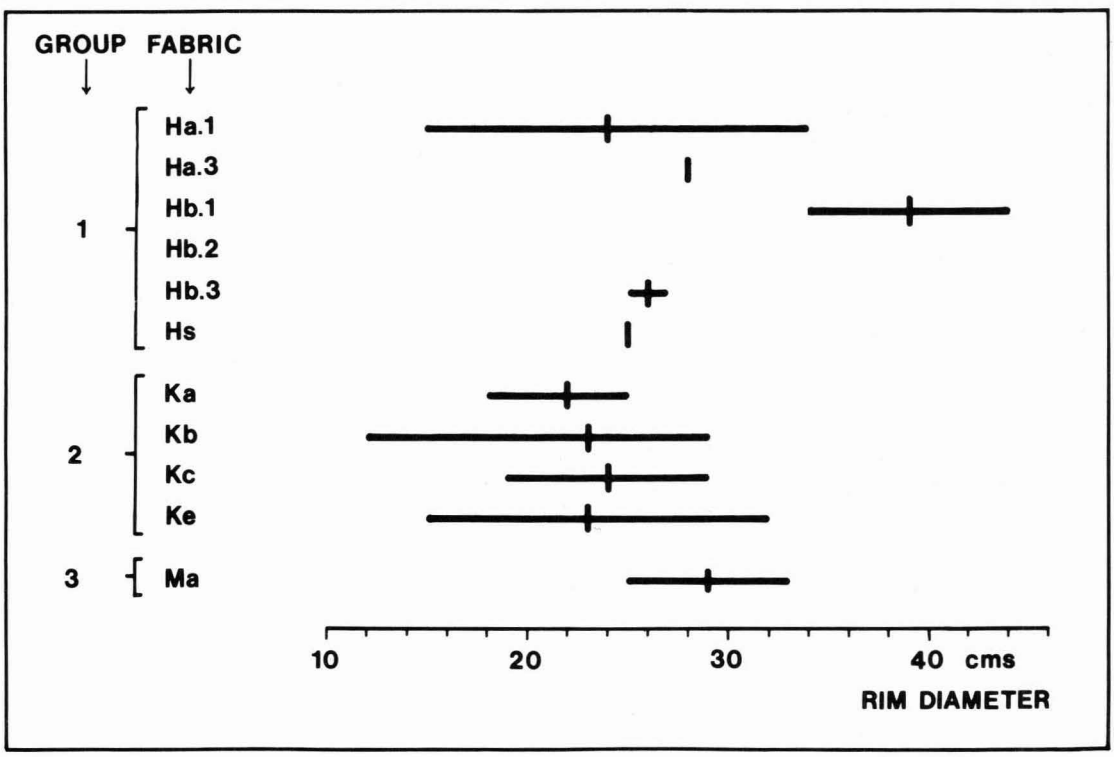

Fig. 60. Rim diameters of cooking pots according to fabric.

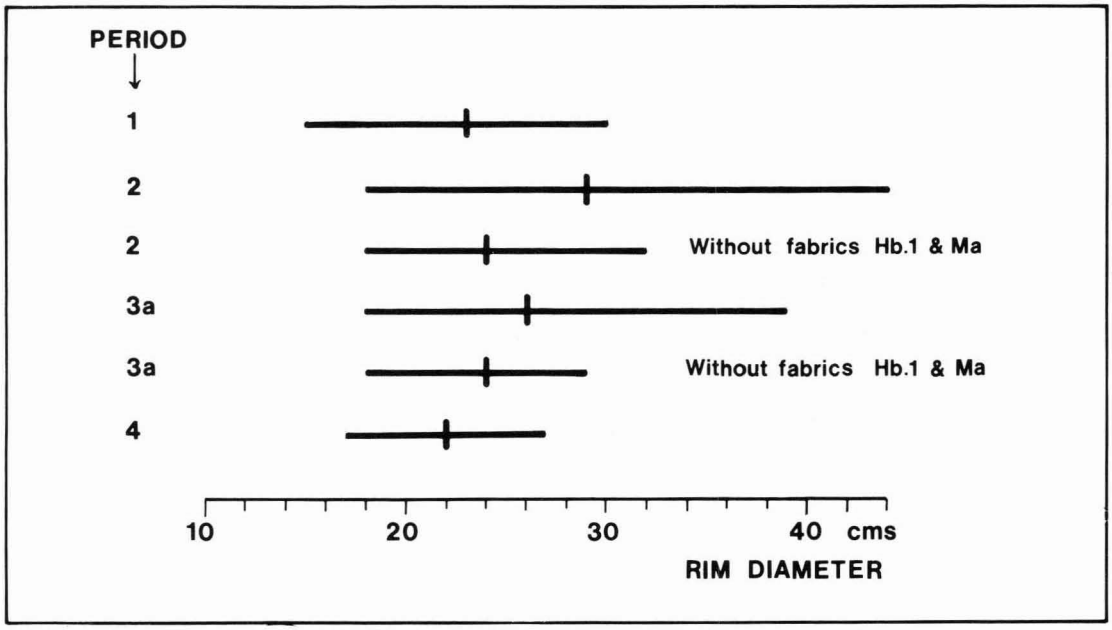

Fig. 61. Rim diameters of cooking pots on Site 11 according to period.

The Use of the Potters' Wheel

The wheel was briefly used in the 10th and 11th centuries in the West Country and examples have been found at Gloucester but by the late 11th century, the technique had been lost or abandoned and the only wheelthrown wares to be found in the area were those imported from Stamford (fabric Nh). One of the earliest of the wheelthrown pottery industries in the West Country was at Worcester (fabric Nl) but in a short time the technique had been adopted in a number of centres. The old method of hand-forming lasted throughout the 13th century and eventually disappeared together with the production of the cooking pot. At Chepstow Site 11, the earliest wheelthrown pots are in period 2 (fabric Nc: less than 1% of assemblage) and period 3a (fabrics Hg, Jb, Nc and Nl: about 2% of assemblage, but some may be intrusive). By the end of period 3b the proportion of wheelthrown wares had risen to 34% and by period 4, to 42%. Once again, the actual proportions of wheelthrown pottery in periods 3b and 4 must be higher than these figures due to the presence of residual handmade wares.

The illustration (Fig. 62) shows that, at Chepstow, the incidence of wheelthrown pottery corresponds with the use of glaze. The relationship is not exact, as although almost all wheelthrown wares are glazed, not all glazed wares are wheelthrown.

Method of Firing

If it were possible to establish a reliable method to distinguish between clamp- and kiln-fired pottery, then it is likely that a similar distribution to that seen with glazing and wheel-throwing would emerge. Kiln firing normally gave a good control of oxidation and allowed complete removal of the carbon content from the core, but this did not always happen as can be seen in some of the Ham Green wares which are known to be kiln-fired but do not have these 'classic' features.

At Chepstow Site 11, the uneven surface oxidation of the period 1 wares, the presence of grey and black cores and the very low firing temperatures required for wares with limestone inclusions, means that these wares must have been clamp-fired. Similarly, fabrics Mb and Kb in period 2 are most likely produced by the same method. Fabric Ha, on the other hand, is consistently oxidized throughout and is very probably kiln-fired. The Ham Green wares (fabrics Jc and Ka) are known to be kiln-fired and it is assumed that the other non-local wares were similarly produced. By period 3a, the proportion of pottery likely to be kiln-fired had risen to 19% and this continued to increase by the end of period 3b to 61% and during period 4 to 66%. Once again, no account has been taken of residual pottery.

Selection of Pot Temper

The earliest fabrics from Chepstow contain large fragments of limestone which would certainly have caused the pot to disintegrate if fired for any length of time at temperatures above 800°C. By the late 12th century the proportion of limestone tempered pottery had dropped to between 5% and 20% of the total. The new tempering material used was sand, although small amounts of limestone continued to be present, for example in Ham Green ware. The change in the tempering material was earlier than the common use of glaze, the wheel and the kiln, and may have been due to improved methods of firing resulting in an increased temperature or a longer duration.

Conclusions

The use of the kiln, the wheel and glaze first appears in the late 12th or very early 13th century, although all

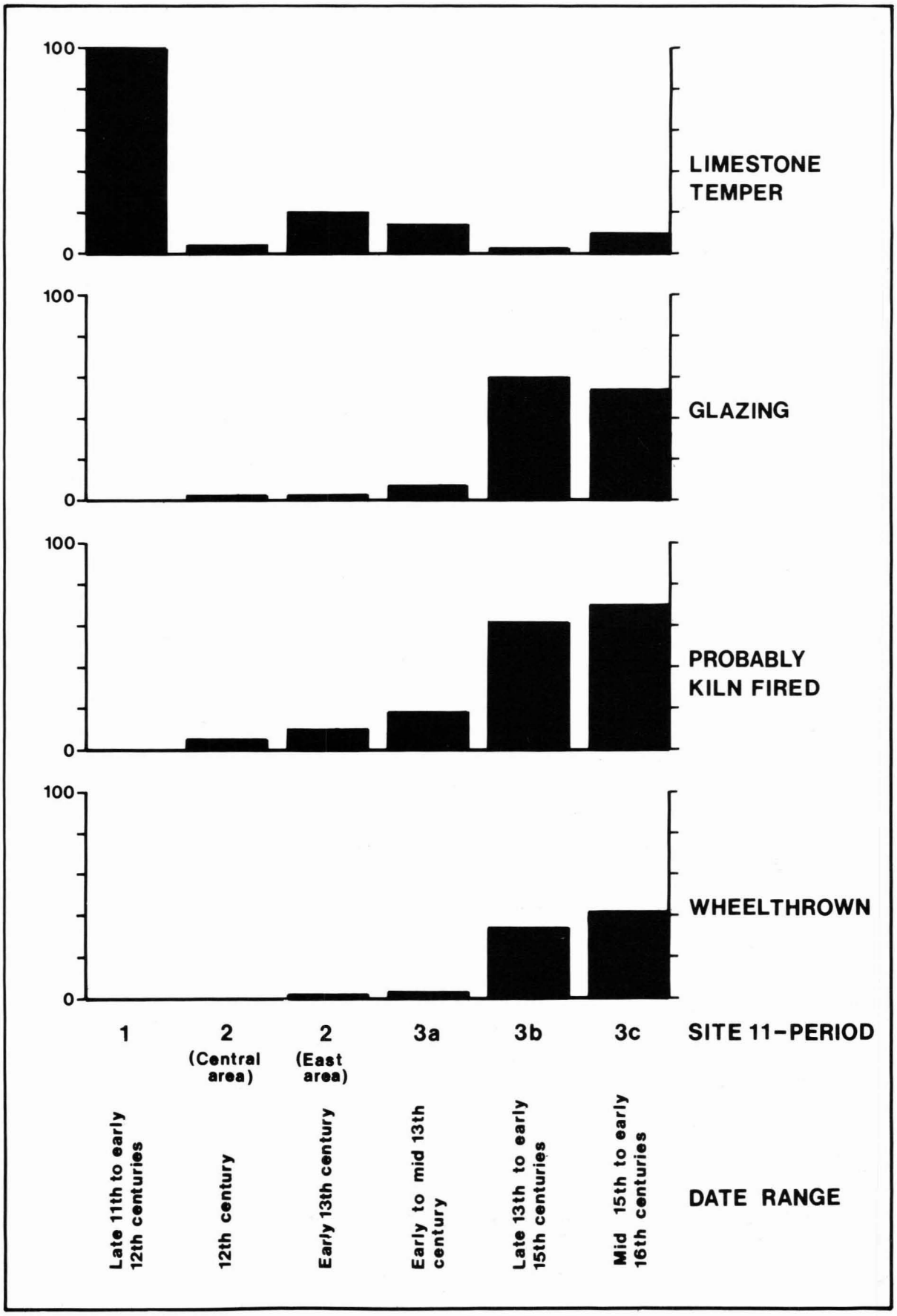

Fig. 62. Pottery production Site 11. Use of limestone temper, incidence of glazing, method of firing and use of potters' wheel.

these features were not necessarily combined. However, all wheelthrown wares were glazed and kiln-fired. This change may have been initially due to the introduction of the more sophisticated techniques in a few centres, for example Worcester, and the gradual adoption of some, but not necessarily all, by local potters such as those at Ham Green. However, these techniques rapidly ousted the earlier methods so that by the late 13th century over half of the pottery used in Chepstow was kiln-fired and glazed, while a third was wheelthrown (the discrepancy is entirely due to the Ham Green wares which were always handmade). One additional reason for these changes in ratios at Chepstow may have been due to the decrease in production of cooking pots, probably made at small peasant-operated centres, with a commensurate increase in the production of jugs made at fewer centres both rural and town-based. In other areas, such as Hereford and Gloucester, cooking pots were still in use in the late medieval period. These vessels were wheelthrown, glazed and probably kiln-fired. Late cooking pots of this type are almost completely absent at Chepstow although the local handmade centres may have continued to produce wares for some time.

THE SOURCES OF THE MEDIEVAL POTTERY USED IN CHEPSTOW

By combining the information obtained from the pottery on Sites 1, 6 and 11 with the externally known dating of some of the wares, the pottery sequence at Chepstow can be reconstructed in some detail. The sequence which follows is divided into five unequal periods, variably represented in the excavated material.

The late 11th to early 12th century (Fig. 63)

This period is only represented in the excavations by one assemblage; Site 11, period 1. It is characterized by the Group 2 Bristol area fabrics, Kc and Ke, and the non-local Group 3 wares, Lb and Lc, associated with them. Although the assemblage is small, this is an important group because the two major wares are also present in the Bristol Castle sequence which allows the Bristol dating to be applied at Chepstow.

It is unlikely that any of the pottery found at Chepstow during this period was locally produced. Two other sites along the Welsh border, Hereford and Hen Domen, have produced comparable evidence. Hereford in the late 11th century was a sizeable town with a history of pottery use from the 10th century, but here also the pottery was imported, first from the Gloucester area (Chepstow fabric Lc) and later from Malvern Chase and Worcester. At Hen Domen the earliest occupation of the castle may have been virtually aceramic (Barker 1970, 23), and the first pottery used, perhaps in the late 11th or early 12th century, may have been imported from Shropshire. It was certainly replaced during the 12th century by pottery with a definite local origin.

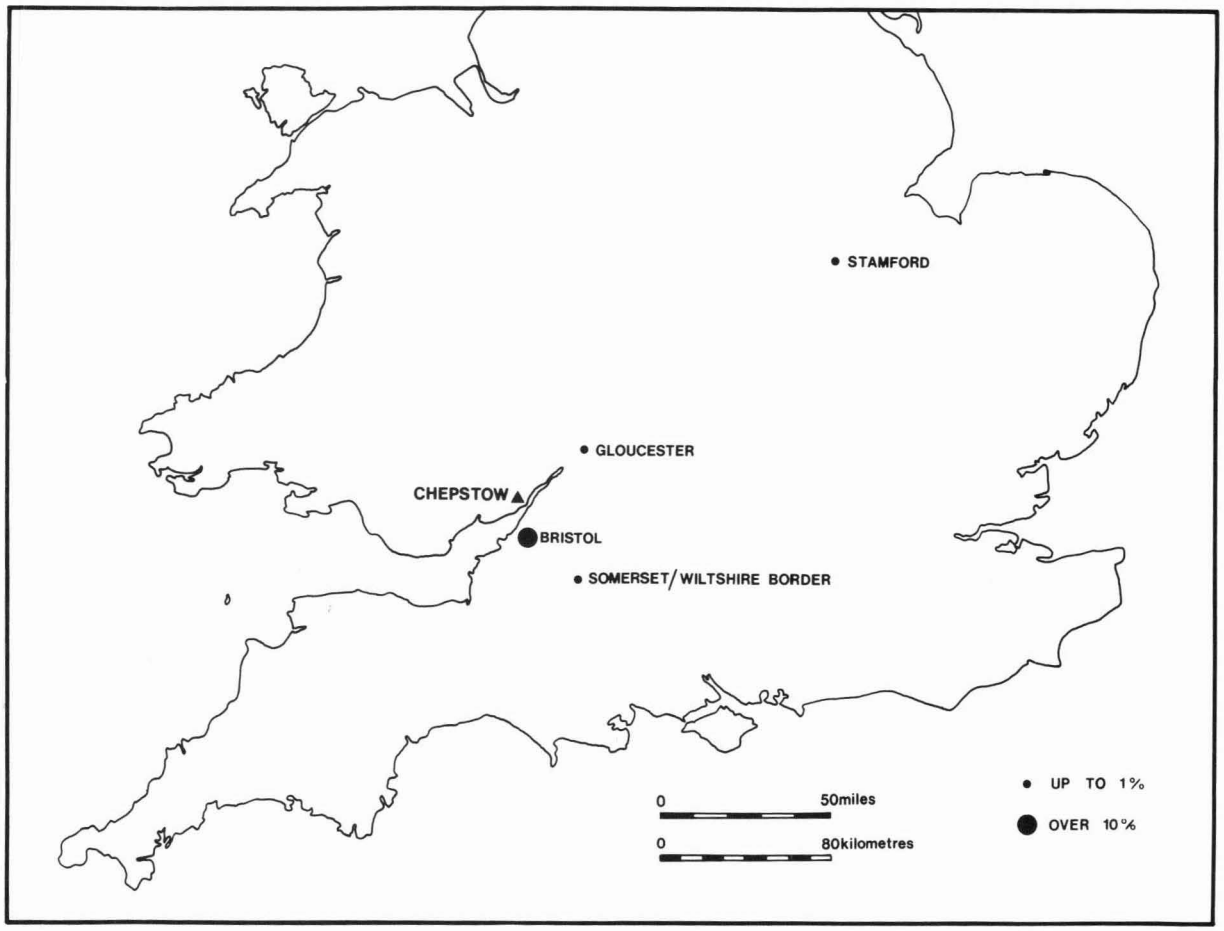

Fig. 63. Origin of wares of late 11th and early 12th century date.

While the majority of the Chepstow pottery was coming from the Bristol area, a few vessels were from sources further afield, the stratified groups including wares from West Wiltshire (Lb) and the Gloucester area (Lc). Two sherds of glazed Stamford ware (fabric Nh) found in later contexts on Site 11, are most likely of this date.

The 12th century

Stratified groups of 12th-century pottery have been found on Sites 1, 6 and 11. In each case the groups are different from the late 11th-century group described above, but are similar to each other. This must imply that either the pottery supply, having changed suddenly, remained stable for the rest of the century, or that all the groups found are of similar date. The latter is the more likely explanation and would imply that the occupation in the Priory area (and possibly in the town itself) expanded in the later 12th century.

The major change in the assemblages of this period compared with the previous one is that the group 2 fabrics Kc and Ke are replaced by fabric Kb. The sharp drop in frequency of fabrics Kc and Ke, from 96% to 4%, is most obvious at Site 11. Fabric Kb is also of group 2 and probably from the Bristol area, so that the change in supply is not as drastic as the change in fabric and does not imply any great economic upheaval. However locally produced fabrics of group 1 do make an appearance in this period, fabrics Ha and Hb both being present. Stylistically and technically both these fabrics can be sub-divided: Ha into two sub-groups and Hb.1 to Hb.4. These differences in form and technique are also reflected in the fabric texture though not in composition, in thin-section the sub-groups being indistinguishable.

Thus, by the second half of the 12th century, we have evidence for the activities of perhaps six local potters utilizing two sets of clay and temper sources. Other groups of 12th-century pottery from Gwent and the Forest of Dean provide more information about these local potteries. The nearest site is Caerwent (unpublished material, stored at the Welsh Office) followed by St Briavels Castle (*ex info* P. Curnow), and Lydney Castle (Casey 1931). Further afield is the site of a 12th-century beacon at Bledisloe Tump, Awre (Dornier 1966) and the various excavations in and around Monmouth organized by the Monmouth Archaeological Society. Although all these sites have produced wares similar to Ha.3 and Hb in style and method of production, none are likely to be from the same sources. Most are, however, made in sandstone-tempered fabrics which are petrologically distinguishable from the Chepstow wares. Caerwent has produced sherds of fabric Ha.1, and it may be that southern Gwent formed the market for this and the other wares. However, on present evidence it would seem that the production of cooking pots in southern Gwent was on a very small scale compared with that of the Gloucester area.

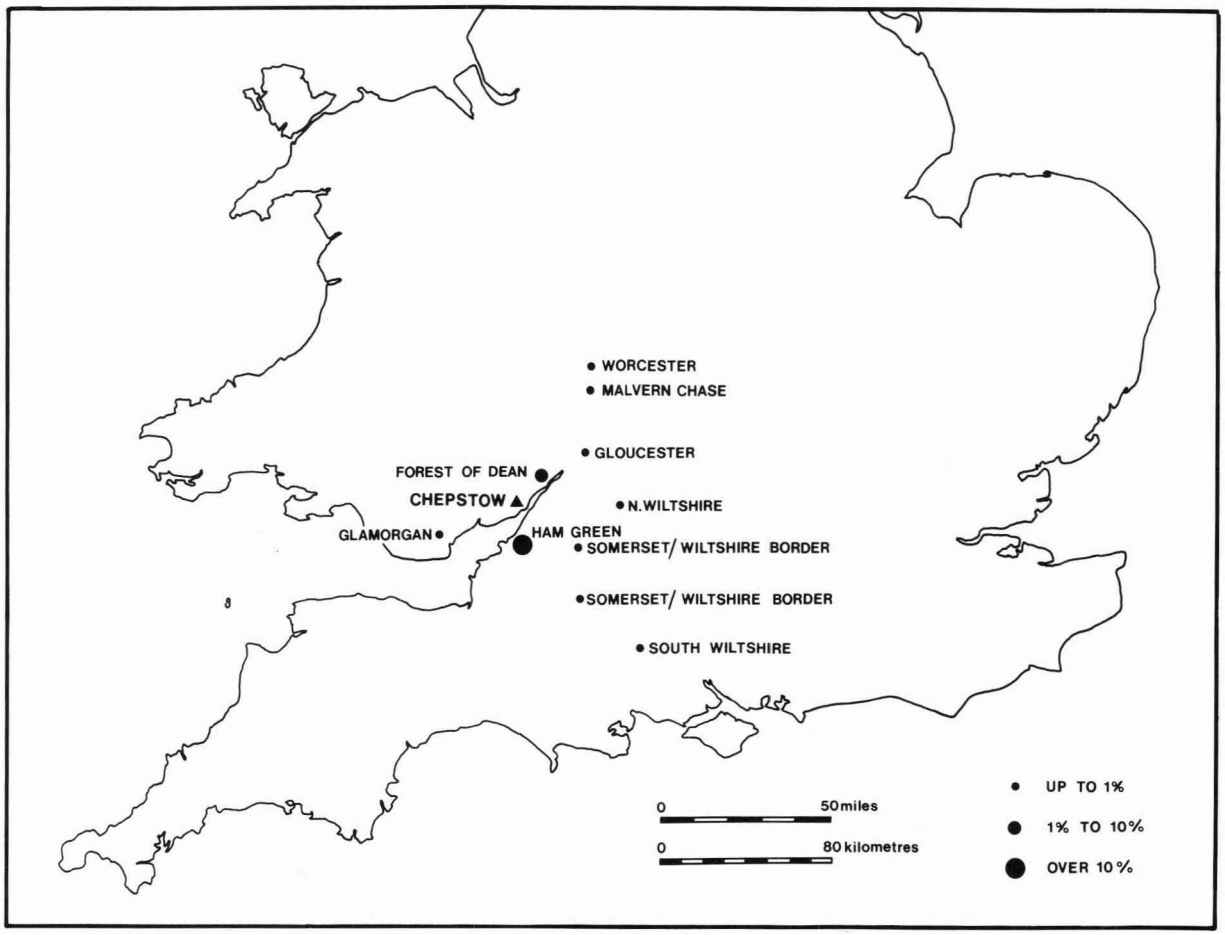

Fig. 64. Origin of wares of early 13th century date.

All the excavated sites are Norman foundations, populated initially by English settlers, who may have included potters. By tracing the affinities of the local industries, the origins of the potters can be suggested. Ha.3 and Hb cooking pots are very poorly made and similar to many of the 11th and 12th-century industries of the south-west. For example, Hb.2 vessels are quite similar to those of the west Wiltshire industry. The origins of the Ha.1 pottery must lie further afield for the ware is technically in advance of most of the other local potteries on several counts: the oxidation suggests that the potter was probably using a kiln, the regular smoothing around the rim indicates use of a turntable and the bases of the vessels were pared with a knife to remove excess clay. However, the forms of the vessels are their most distinctive feature. The squat cooking pot with its neatly rolled-out rim and the globular pitcher with a vertical neck are unlike any 11th or 12th-century pottery from the West Country. The use of roller-stamps and combs to decorate unglazed vessels, especially cooking pots, is a rare local feature.

In addition to the fabrics described above, two rare local fabrics have been found in the 12th-century Chepstow assemblages. These are Hs, which is similar in style but not in fabric to Monmouth cooking pots, and Hh, which comes in the form of tripod pitchers, probably from the Vale of Glamorgan. Only eight of the stratified sherds are of non-local origin and are included in group 3. Five of them probably arrived *via* Bristol (La from north Wiltshire, Lb from west Wiltshire, and Le, probably also from west Wiltshire); two were from the Gloucester area (fabric Lc) and one from an unknown source (fabric No). A single sherd of Stamford Ware (fabric Nh) is likely, from the glaze, to have been imported during this period.

The early 13th century (Fig. 64)

The wares from the Ham Green kilns are of great importance in understanding the development of the pottery sequence in the early 13th century. At Site 11, the typological development of the glazed wares is revealed in three successive horizons. The earliest vessels are very similar to the 12th-century tripod pitchers and a 12th-century date would not be surprising. However, these vessels are not paralleled at the kiln site, which produced cooking pots and jugs in two different styles — A and B (Barton 1963, 96–97). All of the period 3a (early 13th-century) vessels at Site 11 were of style A, but later 13th century groups from Sites 1 and 6 produced a mixture of A and B vessels. The mixture appears on Site 11 in layer L111 together with late 13th-century wares implying that this group accumulated over a long period of time. The A and B phase is dated at Cheddar Palace to the years soon after 1209–11 (Rahtz 1979) and this would appear to be confirmed at Chepstow.

The local wares continued to use the same 12th-century fabrics which, especially in the case of fabric Ha.1, became more common. Fabric Hg apparently starts to be used in the early 13th century. This is very similar to fabric Hh and is thought from its distribution to have been made somewhere in Glamorgan (p. 102). The absence of jugs of fabric Hg from period 3 at Site 1 does suggest that the vessels found on Site 11 may be unusual.

Non-local wares from layer L8 on Site 11, which may have accumulated during the late 12th and early 13th centuries, include fabrics Ma (from Malvern Chase), Ld (from south Wiltshire) and Nl (from the Worcester area). Apart from a few, probably intrusive, jug sherds, the only new fabric in period 3a on Site 11 is No, already found in the 12th century at Site 6.

The later features on Site 6 contain one of the largest collections of 13th-century pottery, although possibly mixed with some later material. Two non-local fabrics common in this group are La (north Wiltshire tripod pitchers) and Lb (west Wiltshire cooking pots), forming respectively 2% and 1% of the assemblage. Other wares, probably imported during the early 13th century, are Malvern Chase cooking pots (fabric Ma) and tripod pitchers (fabric Mc).

The late 13th to early 15th centuries

(Fig. 65)

A high quantity of residual pottery was found in the later medieval layers and features on all three main sites. As a result the later pottery could not be properly isolated and studied in the same detail as that from the earlier levels. In addition there is a gap in the pottery sequence on Site 11 from the late 13th century to, at the earliest, the late 14th century. The only fabrics which can be shown to be in use during this period are glazed jugs of the following fabrics:

Group 1: fabrics Ha.2, He, Hg, Hk, Ht
Group 2: fabric Jb
Group 4: fabric Nb

It is not certain whether cooking pots were still in use because of the presence of residual material of this type. The material indicates that, if still being used, cooking pots would have been of fabric Ha.1.

Very few non-local sherds appear in this late medieval period. A single Malvern Chase cooking pot and fragments of a Late Medieval Oxford Ware jug (fabric Nj), are the only ones from known contexts. Fabrics Nn, Nr and Ns of group 3 are probably all of late medieval date and are represented by 1, 2 and 11 sherds respectively.

By contrast, imported wares of group 4 are common in this period. Saintonge jugs including polychrome vessels are present on all three sites, forming 1%–2% of assemblages but as much of the material is residual, the real frequency of Saintonge ware must be considerably higher. A single sherd from a medieval Spanish olive jar (fabric Nt) was found on Site 6, within wall F43 of period 2a.

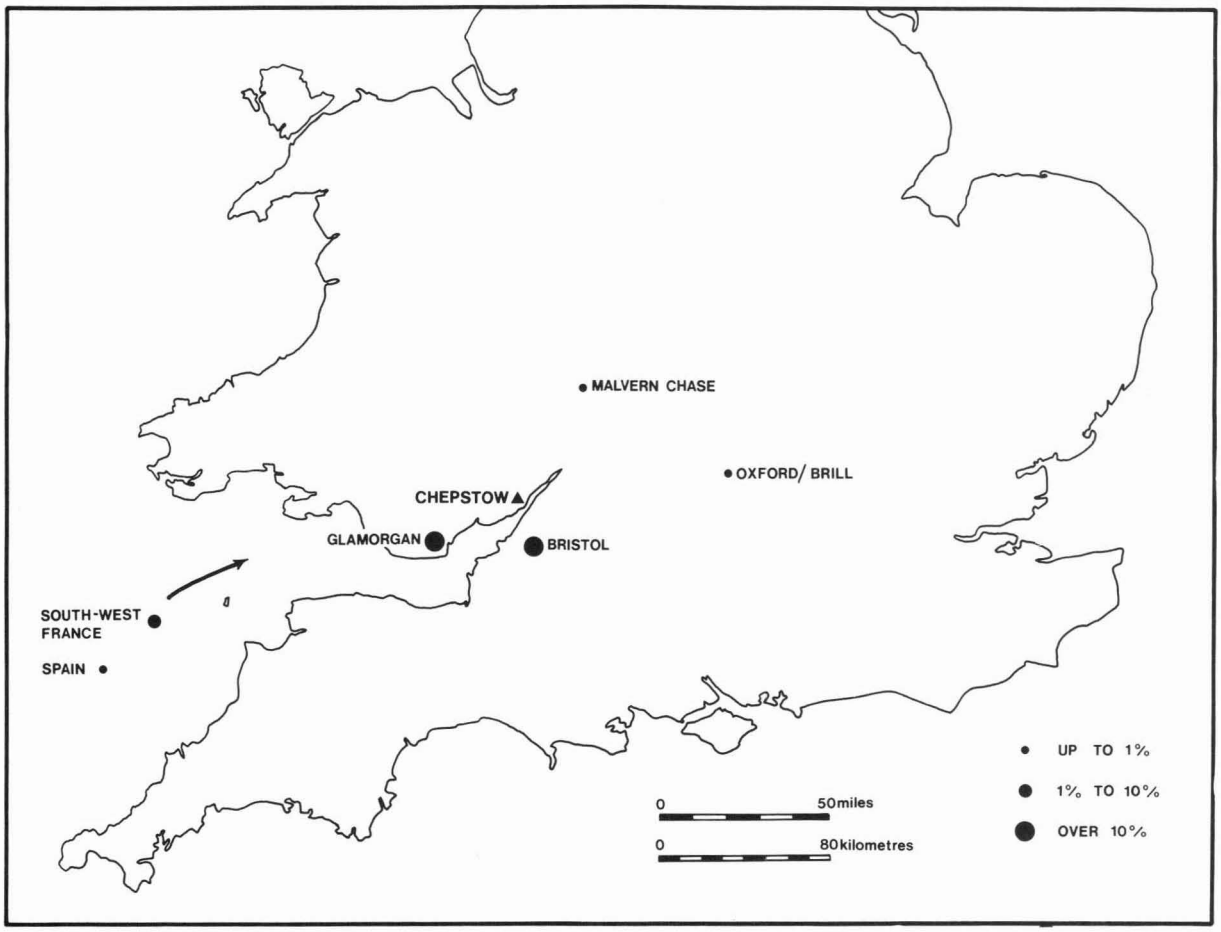

Fig. 65. Origin of wares from the late 13th century to the early 15th century.

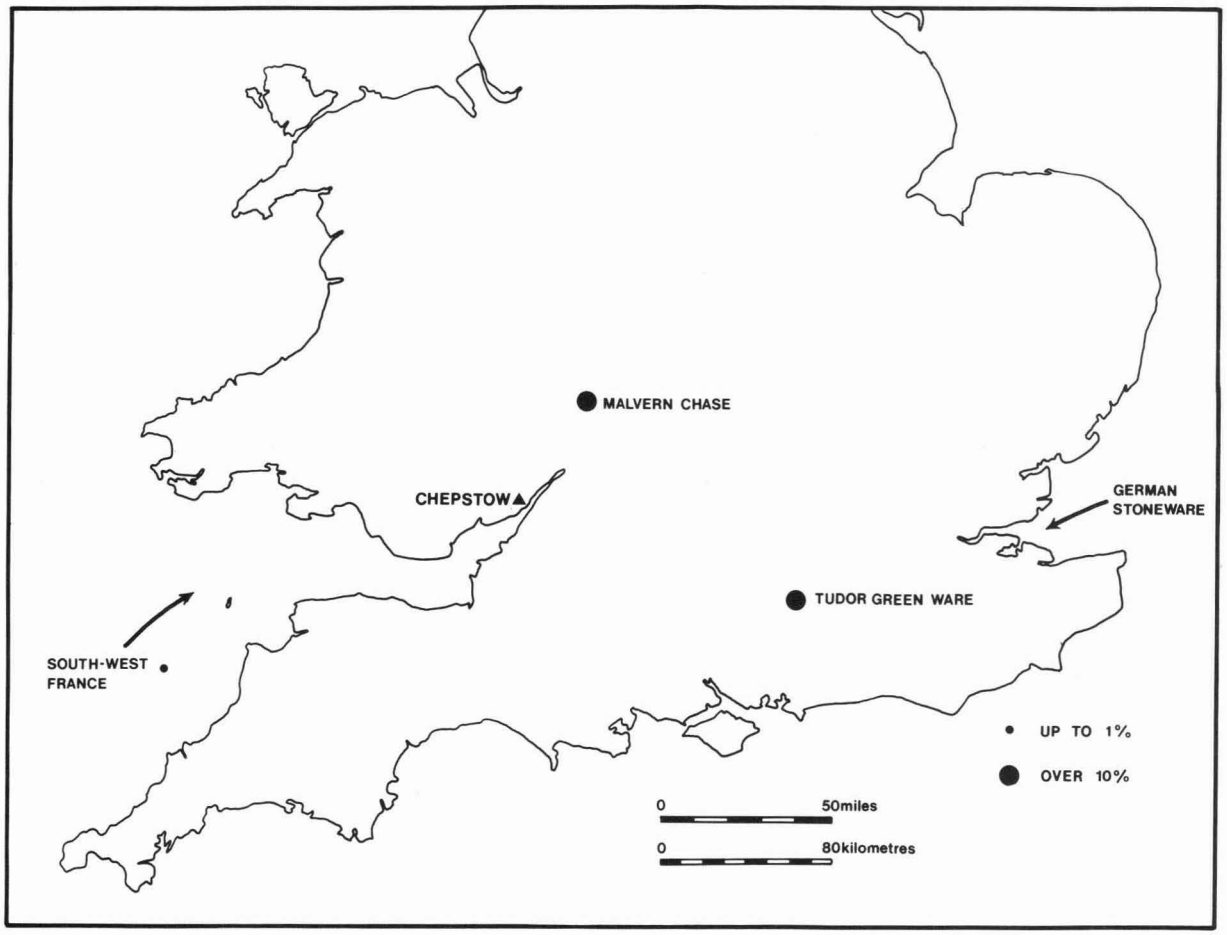

Fig. 66. Origin of wares of late 15th and early 16th century date.

The late 15th to early 16th centuries
(Fig. 66)

Twelve or thirteen of the vessels from Site 11 period 4 are probably of late 15th or early 16th-century date. The most common fabric, Mb, is from Malvern Chase, and this distribution is also reflected in the 16th and 17th-century soil levels from Site 6. Tudor Green ware (fabric Ne) is present on all three main sites, but is less common than the Malvern Chase ware.

Sherds of Spanish red micaceous ware (fabric Ng) were found on Sites 1, 2 and 6 and a sherd of Spanish glazed olive jar (fabric Nt) came from Site 6, but these are likely to be later than mid-16th century in date. A sherd of a Saintonge chafing dish of early 16th-century date was found unstratified on Site 11. A sherd of a Cologne jug (fabric Nu) from Site 6 may be of pre-dissolution date.

The pattern of pottery supply in the late 15th and early 16th centuries is obviously completely different to that of the medieval period. Non-local wares from Malvern Chase and the Hampshire–Surrey border are the most common and although local wares were still produced, they are in different fabrics and forms from the late medieval types. Imported foreign wares also become more numerous and varied.

CONCLUSIONS

Although most of the pottery from Chepstow has been assigned to an approximate or precise source, it is not possible to determine by what means it was transported. Undoubtedly, most came by commercial means and can therefore be used to illustrate some of the trading contacts of the town. By far the most important source of pottery was Bristol (Fig. 67), the wares being transported by boat across the Severn. Several of the non-local wares, especially those from Wiltshire, probably arrived by the same route.

The remaining non-local wares and some of the local wares may have come by boat or by road. During the 17th and 18th centuries, Chepstow had a thriving coastal trade, mainly with Bristol but also up-river to Gloucester and along the coasts to south Wales and the south-west. Pottery such as the Glamorgan glazed wares (Hh and Hg), the Gloucester area ware (Lc) and the Malvern Chase wares (Ma, Mb and Mc) may have been carried by coastal and river shipping, especially as documentary records exist for the transportation by boat of Malvern Chase pottery from Hanley Castle to Bristol, Worcester and Gloucester in the 16th century (Vince 1977, 288). However, the presence of these wares cannot be used as evidence for such coastal trade, for Chepstow also has road connections with the west, north and north-east. Wares from Somerset, Devon and Cornwall are not present in the pottery sequence until the 17th century, when North Devon Gravel Tempered ware and Donyatt ware are both common, doubtless part of the documented coastal trade. The imported wares of group 4 could have been brought directly from Spain and France to Chepstow, rather than through Bristol, as the town had its independent trade with these countries (Waters 1977b).

The absence of locally-produced pottery in the earliest medieval contexts at Chepstow probably indicates that at that time there was no local pottery industry, but this will need to be proved when larger sealed groups of this date are available. Other sites, however, along the Welsh border in the Norman period were apparently also without local pottery industries.

Although likely areas of pottery production local to Chepstow are known, no actual production sites have been located. Some wares may have been made in the town; this is most likely with fabric Ha.1. Although the local wares at Chepstow do not include the types of 12th-century cooking pot common at St Briavels Castle and Lydney, pottery such as Ham Green wares and north Wiltshire tripod pitchers probably reached these sites *via* Chepstow in the early 13th century.

By the late 12th century there were apparently several potters in the area around Chepstow but by the late medieval period production may have ceased apart from fabric Hg (from the Glamorgan area), Hk and Ht (unknown sources) and eventually He in the 16th and 17th centuries (probably several sources).

The pottery from the two sites in the Priory grounds and from the Nelson Street house has provided a basic framework on which a more comprehensive study of the wares and trading patterns in the Chepstow area can be based. To confirm the sequence and to provide information on the less common wares, larger collections of pottery from the town are needed, especially stratified material from the 12th century and the late medieval period. The sequence would also be improved by a study of the post-medieval pottery in Chepstow, for by this period the trading connections with the town are better documented so that comparisons could be made between the archaeological and documentary evidence. Finally, a comparative study of the medieval pottery used at other sites in the locality would be of value, both for the information it would provide on the sources of the Chepstow local wares and in the study of the trading patterns between Chepstow and the hinterland.

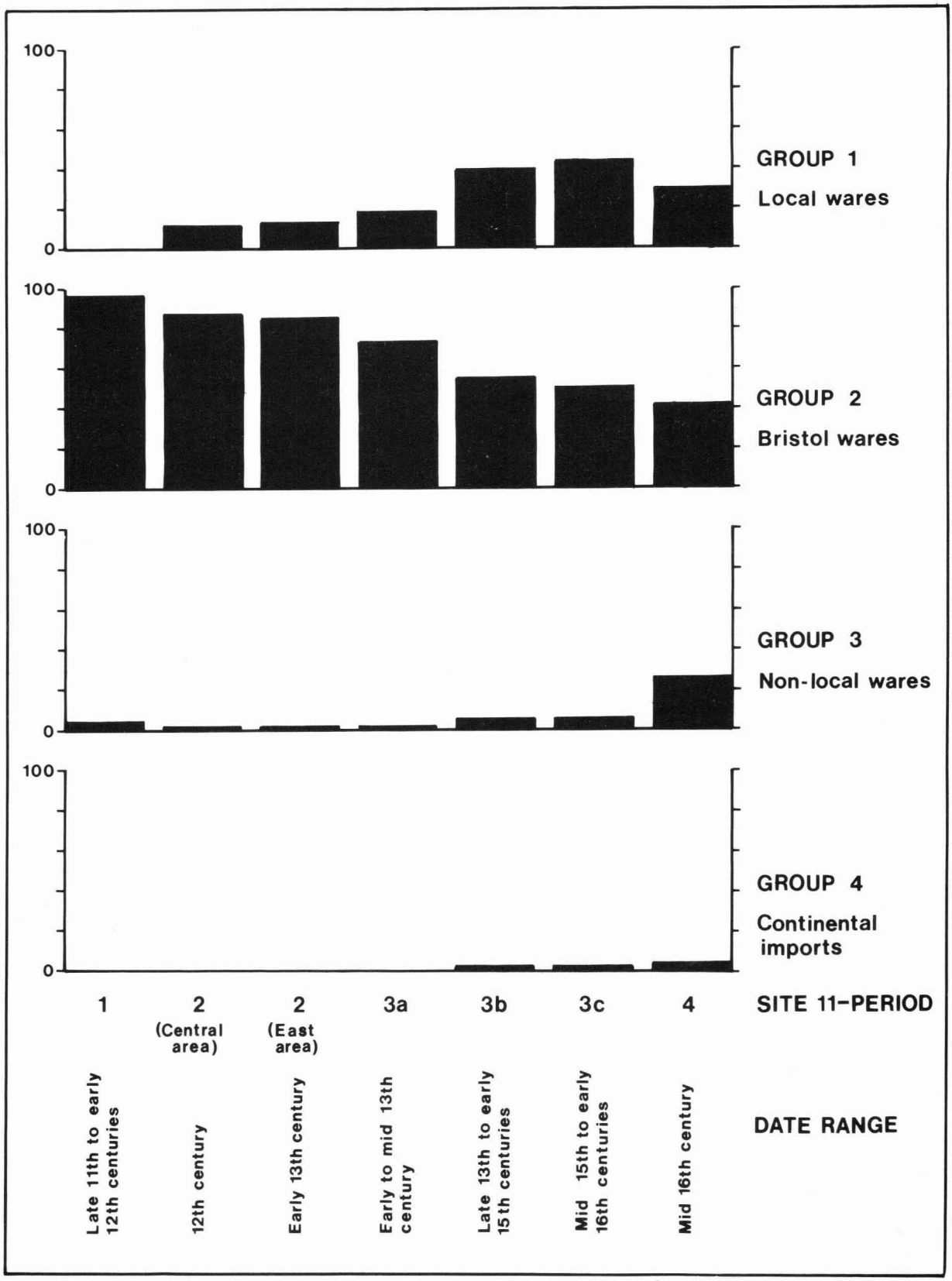

Fig. 67. Sources of pottery found on Site 11 according to period.

THE CLAY PIPES

by

A. A. Peacey

Post-medieval levels were removed by machine from most of the areas excavated and as a result only a few clay pipe fragments were found.

Fig. 68

1. Fragment of bowl with mark M.D. impressed on heel within a heart shaped ground. Broseley type 2 (Atkinson 1975, 24). Possibly Morris Deacon — 1683–98 (Oswald 1975, 190).
   Late 17th to early 18th century
   Site 6 Period 3: Pit F27
2. Undecorated fragment with round flat heel and large open bowl.
   1690–1720
   Site 11 Period 4: Post-Dissolution Pit F39
3. Fragment of bowl with large flat heel on which is impressed
   HVMP
   HVMP
   HREY
   Broseley type 5, from where a parallel has been recorded for the stamp (Atkinson 1975, 62). Possibly Humphrey Humphreys — 1665–1723 (Oswald 1975, 190).
   Late 17th or early 18th century
   Site 8 Unstratified
4. Stem fragment with forward pointing spur decorated with round blobs.
   Post 1860
   Site 1 Unstratified
5. Undecorated thick walled bowl pipe of the type made for the navvy market.
   Post 1860
   Site 1 Unstratified
6. Pipe with the bowl modelled on the head of Lord Nelson. This type of decoration depicting famous people was common in the last quarter of the 19th century. The pattern is known from Bristol but would certainly have been made in other areas (Jackson and Price 1974, 137).
   Late 19th century
   Site 1 Unstratified

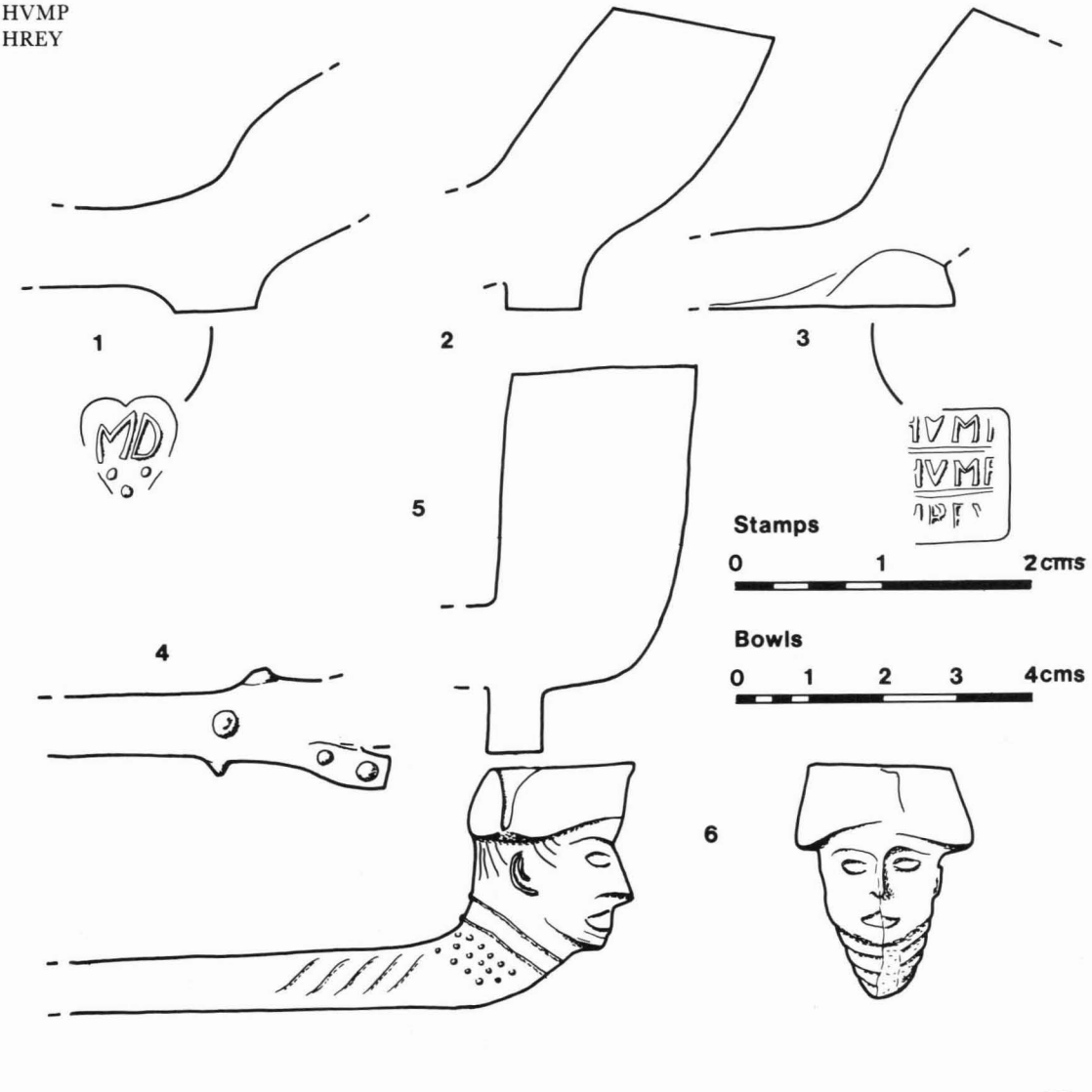

Fig. 68. Clay pipes.

THE GLASS

Most fragments of glass found on the sites excavated were of the 18th and 19th centuries. They included window glass and fragments of wine and mineral water bottles. None are suitable for illustration. Surprisingly, there were no fragments of glass from the medieval contexts on any of the sites. This may be due to poor preservation rather than lack of use of this material.

THE IRON OBJECTS

The ironwork from all the sites was mainly in very poor condition and in many cases comprised a mass of rust with no metal left whatsoever. The Roman iron objects from the cremation burials on Site 1 were not suitable for illustration; the remainder are of 13th century or later date. They consist mainly of building furniture, occasional knives and other tools. Two fragments of horseshoe were found on Site 1, but there was no other definite horse furniture. Nails were found on all sites but the main concentrations were on Sites 1 and 11. A selection only is illustrated but the distribution of the remainder is considered.

None of the medieval iron objects has been X-rayed and the shape in some cases is conjectural and is shown with a pecked line.

INVENTORY

Fig. 69

1.	Very corroded piece of uncertain use. The square shaft broadens into a flattened, broken blade with one definite hole. Probably 16th or 17th century	Site 11 Period 3: Feature F20
2.	Fragment of a small knife comprising the handle with two rivet holes and a broken blade. Total surviving length 14.4cm. Maximum width of blade 2cm. Probably 17th century but could be later	Site 11 Period 4: Layer L5
3.	Part of a large knife in several fragments, with a tang of circular cross-section in one piece with the blade, but slightly off centre. The point of the blade is broken and the total surviving length is 31.5cm. Maximum width of blade 6.2cm. The knife is of the shape and size of a turnip cutter. Uncertain date	Site 11 Unstratified
4.	Small hook shaped object with square-sectioned shank and pointed end. Possibly part of a large nail. Late 13th century or later	Site 11 Period 3a or later: Within wall F8
5.	Fragment of a knife blade, 7.1cm long and maximum width 2.2cm. Mid 15th to early 16th centuries	Site 11 Period 3c: Posthole F26
6.	Stud with a domed head and with a 'stop' underneath the head to prevent it from turning. Probably from a timber door. Length 4.3cm; head 3.2 × 2.5cm. Mid 15th to early 16th centuries	Site 11 Period 3c: Gully F21
7.	U-shaped piece of iron of rectangular cross-section. The corrosion indicates that both ends were apparently fixed into a wall leaving the curved part projecting as some form of support. Mid 15th to early 16th century	Site 11 Period 3c: Feature F20
8.	Door hinge pin in lead 'sheath'. This was found *in situ* in wall F13 on the western jamb of doorway F14. The pin is 13.3cm long with a section at right angles 4.7cm long on which the door was hung. 14th or early 15th century	Site 11 Period 3b or later: Doorway F14

Fig. 70

1.	Part of knife handle with one rivet hole. This was found embedded in a smooth clay which had preserved the shape of the wooden handle attachments which had been rivetted to the metal tang. Width 2cm; length of fragment 4.8cm. Late 15th or 16th century	Site 1 Period 4: Pit F22
2.	Door hinge pin similar to Fig. 69.8. 12.3cm long with a section at right angles 5.4cm long on which the door was hung. Probably pre 16th century	Site 1 Period 5: Layer L10
3.	Part of a horseshoe with slight indications of nail positions. 14th century or later	Site 1 Period 4: Pit F3
4.	Fragment of a horseshoe with a prominent calkin. Probably 13th century	Site 1 Period 3a: Layer L33
5.	Small pair of pincers with a maximum length of 16.5cm. They could have been used for pig-ringing. Probably early 15th century but could be later	Site 1 Period 3c Layer L24
6.	Fragment of iron plate with two holes punched through it, 4cm long; 1.7cm wide. 13th or early 14th century	Site 6 Period 2c: Layer 2A

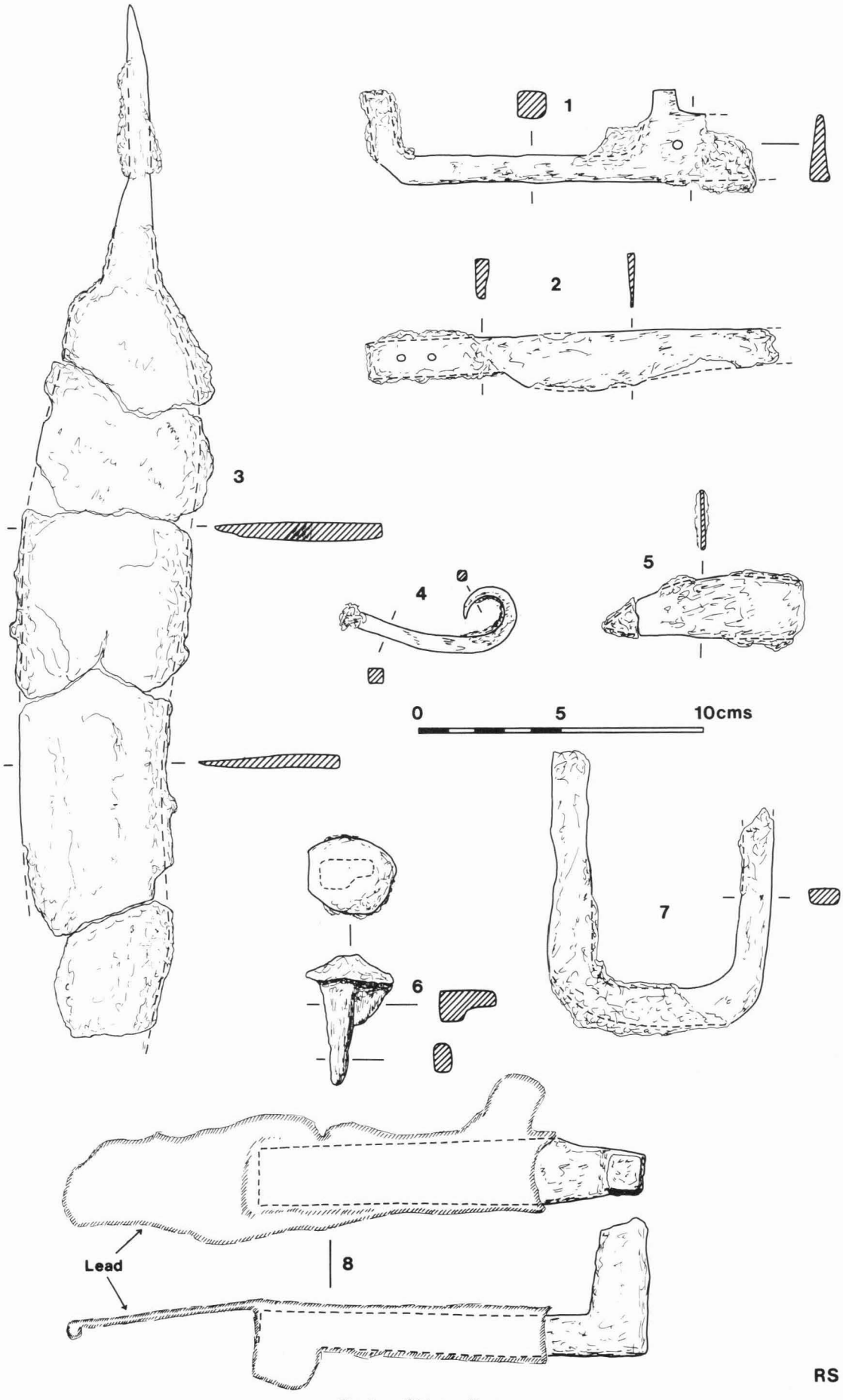

Fig. 69. Objects of iron.

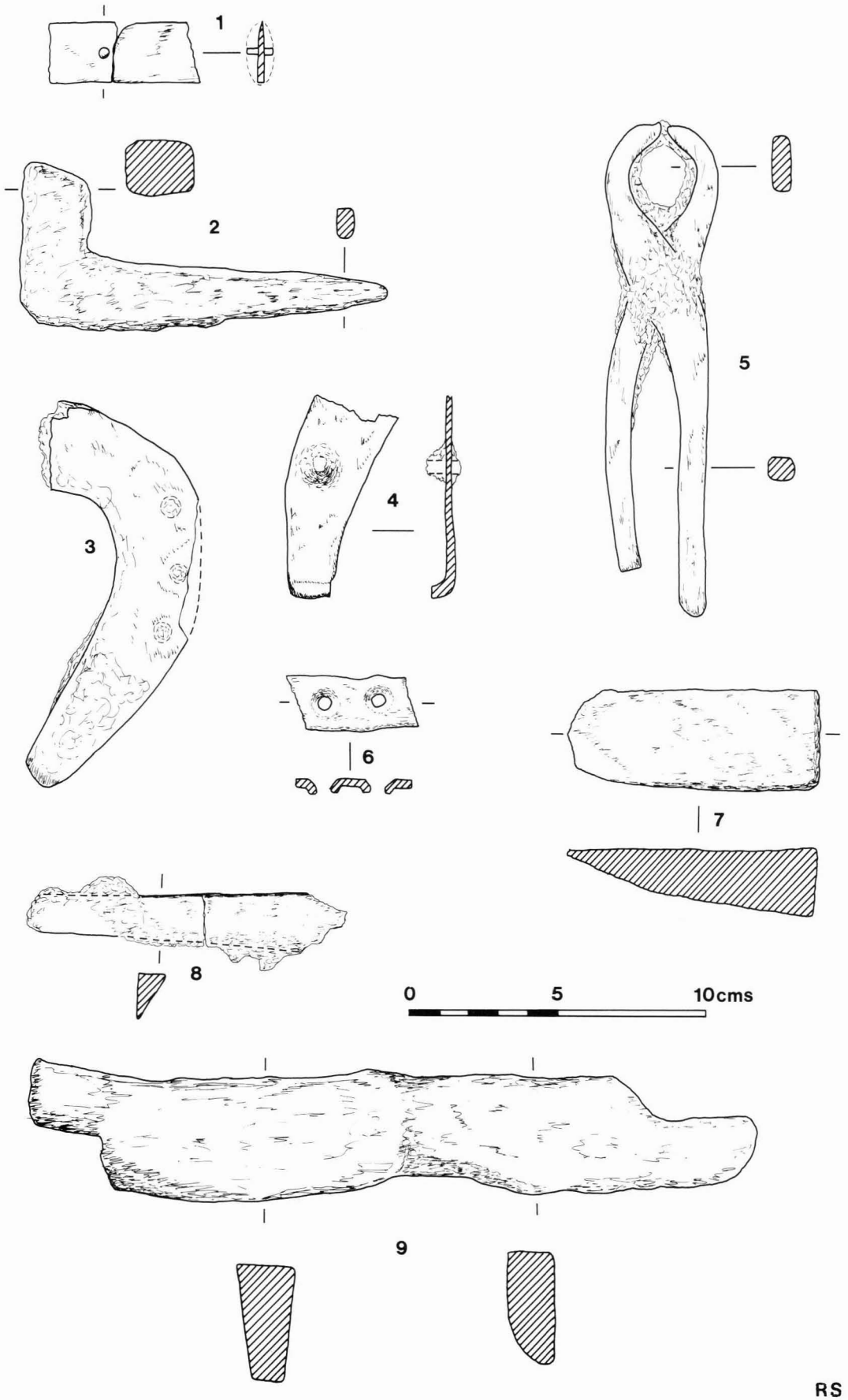

Fig. 70. Objects of iron.

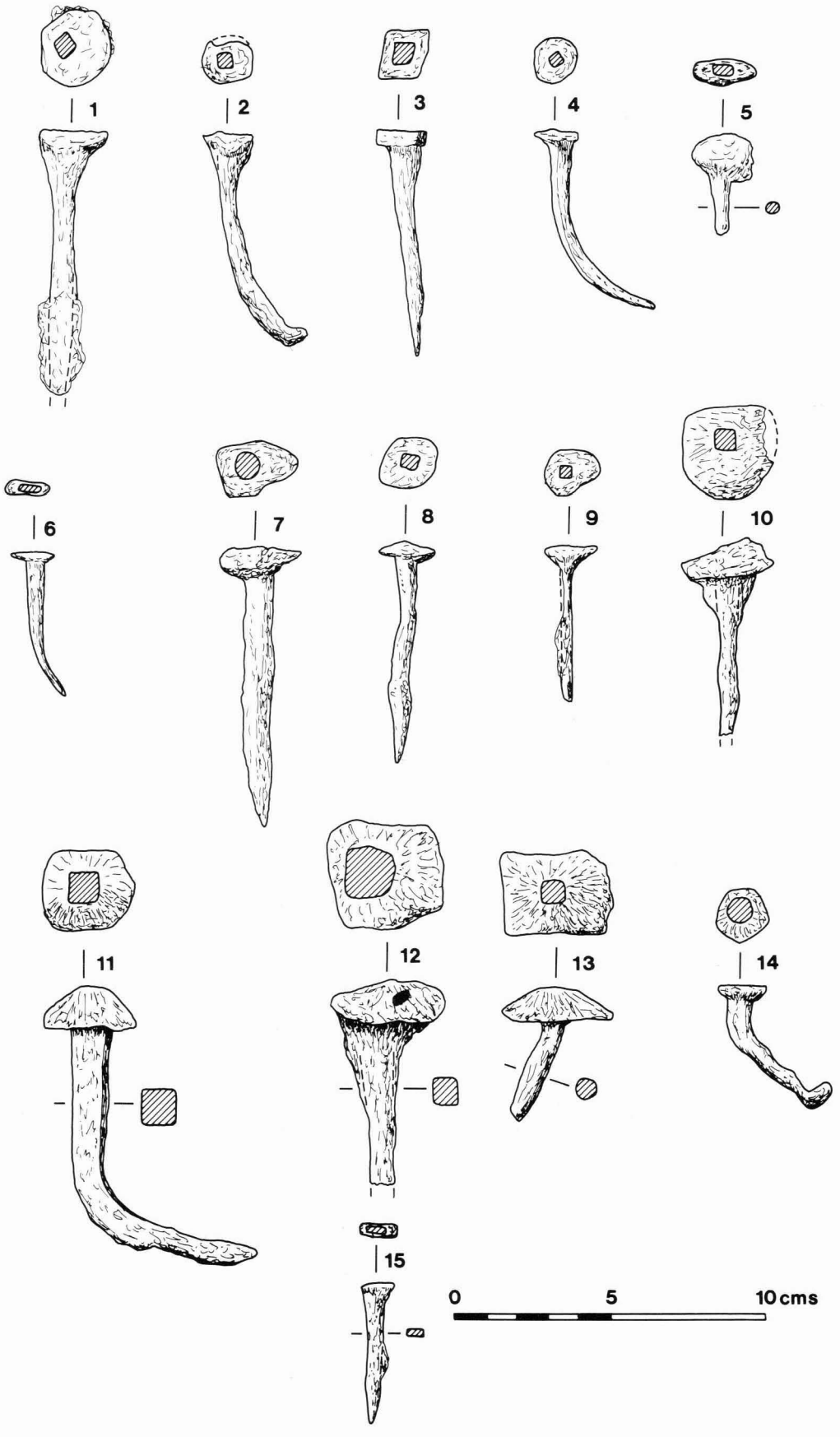

Fig. 71. Objects of iron.

7. Triangular iron wedge, 8.5cm long, 3.2cm wide and a maximum thickness of 2.2cm
   13th or early 14th century — Site 6, Period 2c: Layer L2A
8. Thin wedge or very coarse knife, 10.6cm long and *c.*2cm wide.
   13th or early 14th century — Site 6, Period 2c: Depression F2
9. Large wedge which was probably fixed into a wall with one end protruding as a hook or shelf support. 25cm long.
   Uncertain date — Site 6, Period 3: Layer L1

IRON NAILS: Fig. 71

Over 150 nails were found in stratified contexts mainly from Sites 1 and 11, although there were a few from the soil levels and occupation features of Site 6.

The distribution on Site 1 demonstrates that nails were seldom lost in that area until the construction of the monastic barn.

INVENTORY (Fig. 71)

1. Broken nail. Circular head, 2cm diameter — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10 (Part of L10)
2. Complete nail, slightly bent, 7.5cm long. Circular head 1.5cm diameter — Site 1, Period 3c: Layer L18
3. Complete nail. 7cm long. Square head, 1.5cm across — Site 1, Period 3c: Layer L18
4. Complete, bent nail 7cm long. Circular head. 1.3cm across — Site 1, Period 3c: Layer L18
5. Fiddlekey nail for horseshoes with sinuous edges. 3cm long. Oval head 2cm × 0.8cm (Barton and Holden 1977, 64: LMMC 1940, 112) — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10
6. Complete, bent nail, 4.8cm long. Oval head 1.6cm × 0.4cm — Site 1, Period 3c: Layer L24
7. Complete nail, 9cm long. Irregular head 2.5cm × 1.5cm — Site 1, Period 3: Rubble filled gully F13
8. Complete nail, 7cm long. Circular head 1.7cm diameter — Site 1, Period 3 or 4: Metalling F18
9. Complete nail, 5cm long. Oval head 1.7cm × 1.3cm — Site 6, Period 2c: Depression F4A
10. Broken, large nail with irregular head at least 3cm across — Site 6, Period 2c: Depression F2
11. Large, square-shanked spike, bent almost at right angles. 12.2cm long with domed head 2.8cm × 2.3cm — Site 6, Period 2c: Layer L2A
12. Large, broken, square-shanked spike. Roughly squared head 3.7cm across — Site 11, Period 3a: Layer L113
13. Small nail or stud, 4.3cm long with large, rectangular, domed head 3.3cm × 2.5cm — Site 11, Period 3a: Layer L11
14. Complete nail, 5cm long. Irregular head 2cm × 1.5cm — Site 11, Period 3a: Layer L11
15. Small, complete nail 4.5cm long, small, oval head 1.2cm × 0.4cm — Site 11, Period 3b: Layer L26

SITE 1 PERIOD	DESCRIPTION	NUMBER OF NAILS	ILLUSTRATED SPECIMENS (Fig. 71)
2	Boundary ditches, etc	2	
3 and 4	Monastic barn	40	2–4, 6–8
5	Final demolition and post-dissolution	30	1, 5

THE COPPER ALLOY OBJECTS

The few copper and copper alloy objects found in Chepstow were in reasonably good condition with little surface pitting. Vestiges of gold plate were found on several objects and traces of engraved design on others. All were of 13th century or later date.

INVENTORY

(All sites): Fig. 72

1. Spike with one end pointed and the other cut square. 10cm long, slightly bent and too thick to be a bodkin or large needle.
   14th or 15th century — Site 3, Period 3: Layer L4
2. Bodkin, 10cm long with an eye 0.4cm long and 0.2cm wide.
   13th to 19th centuries (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975, Fig. 242, 1781) — Site 6, Unstratified
3. Long fine pin with wire wound head. Such pins were in use for a long period (Shoesmith 1985, Fig. 4.16 and 17 and Fig. 7.2–10 and 15–17) Length 5cm.
   15th to early 16th centuries — Site 11, Period 3c: Layer L17
4./5. Two pins with wire wound heads, *c.* 3cm long. (Shoesmith 1985, Fig. 4.16 and 17 and Fig. 7.2–10 and 15–17).
   15th to early 16th centuries — Site 11, Period 3c: Layer L111
6. Shoe lace tag, 2.1cm long. (Shoesmith 1985, Fig. 7.13–14)
   Late 16th century or later — Site 1, Period 5: Layer L10

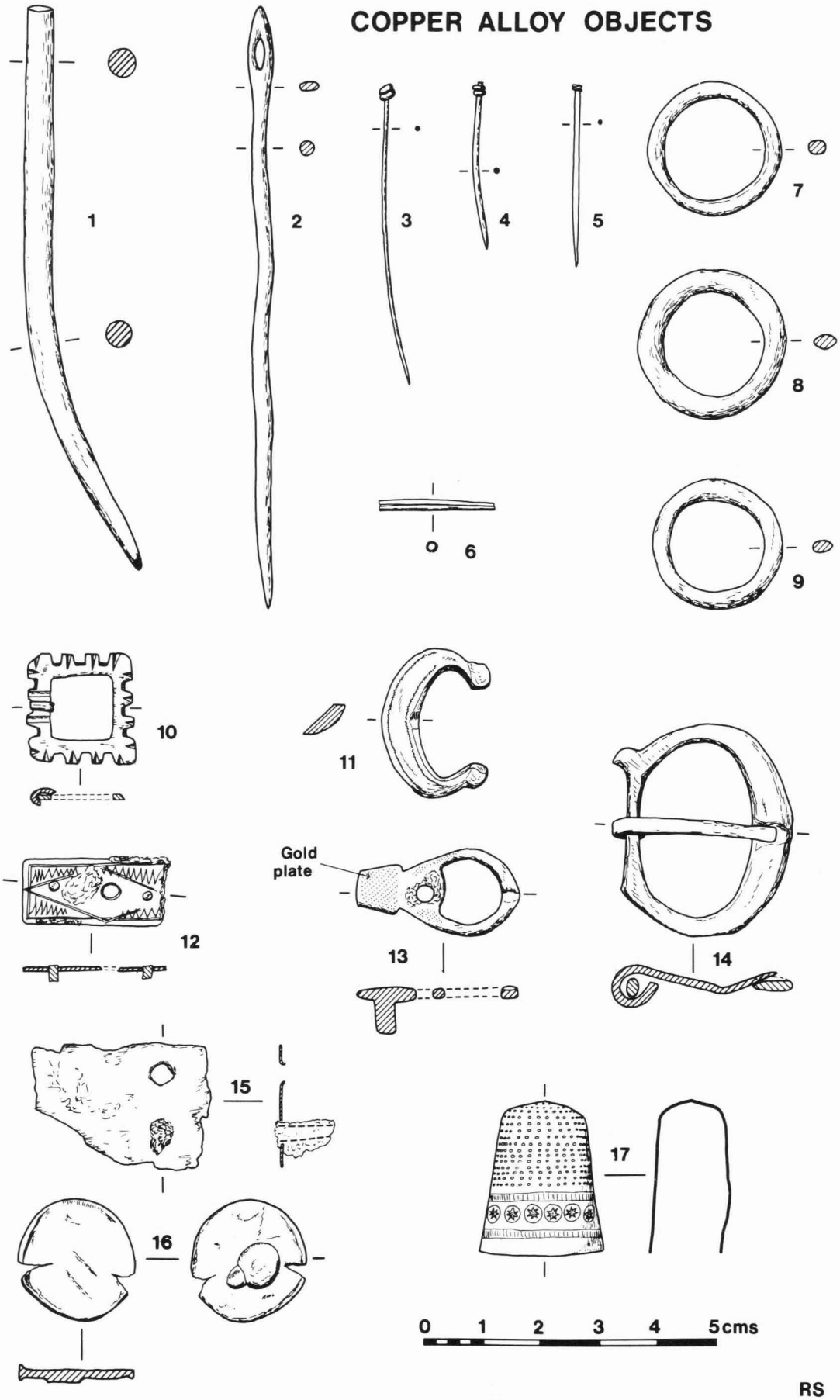

Fig. 72. Copper alloy objects.

7./8. Two rings with circular and slightly flattened cross-sections respectively. External diameters 2.3cm and 2.6cm. Uncertain date — Site 11, Unstratified

9. Ring, similar to 8 above, 2.3cm in external diameter. Probably 15th or early 16th century — Site 11, Period 3c: Layer L17

10. Small, square buckle or brooch with a castellated edge and decorative V-shaped cuts within the castellations. A fragment of the pin survives on one side. 1.9cm square. Perhaps 14th or 15th century — Site 6, Period 2c: Depression F4A

11. Crescentic-shaped buckle with no indication of the fastening to the plate. The indentation for the point of the pin can be seen. There are two lines of fine zigzag engraved decoration. Probably late 13th century — Site 11, Period 3a: Pit F78

12. A decorated bronze buckle plate, broken at one end. The upper surface is engraved with zigzag ornamentation and has a hole apparently slightly off-centre. Two small copper rivets, which apparently attached the plate to a thin piece of leather, may indicate that the piece had a secondary use. 1.2cm wide and in excess of 2.5cm long. Probably 14th century — Site 11, Period 3c: Layer L17

13. Gilt bronze stud with a loop. It originally had a small pin attached to the hole in the centre. It was cast in one piece and was probably used for a belt or other leather fitting. 2.9cm long, 1.5cm wide. 13th or 14th century — Site 1, Period 3c: Pit F26

14. D-shaped buckle and pin. Width at pin 2.9cm, length along bar 2.6cm. Probably 13th or early 14th century (LMMC 1940, Pl. LXXVI. 4 and 6) — Site 6, Period 2c: Pit F1

15. Fragment of undecorated plate with two rivet holes, one containing part of an iron rivet. 3.1cm long by 2.1cm. Probably 13th century — Site 11, Period 3a: Layer L11

16. Bronze disc approximately 2cm in diameter. One side has a slightly protruding central piece and the edges are slightly lipped. Probably late 13th or 14th century — Site 6, Period 2c: Depression F3

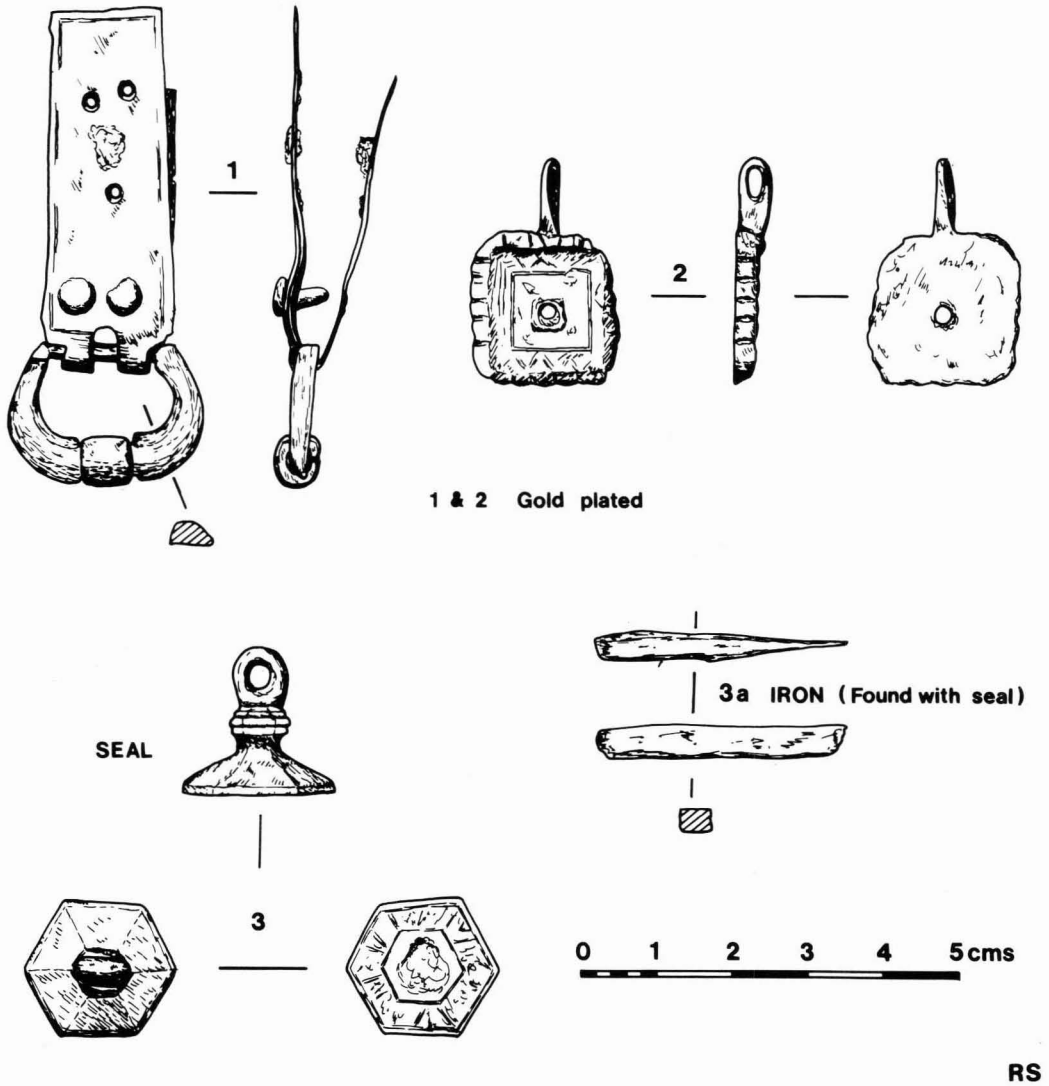

Fig. 73. Copper alloy objects.

(Similar lead objects, which could be primitive buttons, have been found, e.g. Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975, Fig. 246. 1899)

17. Thimble with bands of circular punches and one row of stars within circles. Diameter (at widest point) 2.2cm, depth 2.6cm. 17th or 18th century — Site 11, Unstratified

Fig. 73

1. Small buckle and plate. The pin is missing but it originally rested against a rolled strip fixed in a groove around the buckle. The plate, which has traces of gold plate, has been repaired at least once. Two original bronze rivets remain together with three other rivet holes. The iron rivet in the centre is presumably a repair. Traces of leather were found between the two leaves of the plate. Length of plate 4.7cm, width 1.7cm. Width of buckle at pin 1.9cm; maximum length 2.6cm. Probably 13th century — Site 6, Period 2a: Depression F23

2. Decorated square, gold-plated pendant with a small hole in the centre. The whole of the central square part is slightly recessed and contains traces of a green enamel. The edges have been slightly beaded. The rear is flat and plain, *c.* 2cm square. Probably 14th century — Site 6, Unstratified

3./3a Small hexagonal seal with the handle ending in a loop. It was found together with a small strip of iron (3a). It is a personal seal and in the centre is a shield but the device and the surrounding inscription are too worn to be legible. It appears to commence with a cross: +S... Named examples of this type are very rare, the matrices, with religious or secular devices and mottoes, being bought ready made (Rigold 1977, 324–29). Probably made of latten or other high-lead alloy. Diameter of face 1.6cm, height 1.9cm. Probably 14th century (cf LMMC 1940, 294–98; Beresford 1977, 274) — Site 11, Period 3b: Stone filled pit F2

THE COINS

The coins in this inventory only include those found during the excavations. Roman coins found in various parts of Chepstow in recent years are discussed in part 4 (p. 157).

The coins are in date order irrespective of site. The description and report of coins 1, 2, 4 and 5 is by Miss M. Archibald of the British Museum and that of coins 3 and 7 is by Mr M. Rhodes, of Hereford City Museums.

INVENTORY

1. *As* of Claudius (A.D. 41–54) — Site 1, Period 1: Layer L37
   The coin is in a very corroded condition and no details can be seen
2. Barbarous imitation of antoninianus of Tetricus I (A.D. 270–73) — Site 1, Period 1: Layer L37
   The reverse type appears to show Spes who is normally shown holding a flower or branch in her right hand and holding the train of her skirt in her left hand. It could alternatively be Helantas. These coins were produced contemporaneously with the currency of their prototypes.
3. Groat of Edward III (1327–77) — Site 6, Period 2c: Layer L2A
   Fourth coinage. Pre-treaty period (1351–61). Series C (1351–52).
   Initial mark. Cross. Standard type 'F'.
   London Mint
   Obverse EDWARD (DI) G REX ANGL Z FRANC D HYB
   Reverse POSVIDEUM ADIVTOREM ME CIVITAS LONDON
4. *Demi-blanc* of John IV of Brittany (1345–99) — Site 1, Period 3b: Layer L22
   This was thought to be a cut halfpenny when excavated but is in fact a broken coin. It is in such corroded condition that it is not possible to give it a specific reference. The general type is illustrated in Prey d'Avant 1858, Pl. xxi, no. 5 and North 1968, no. 1147
5. Jetton, 14th century, French — Site 11, Period 3c: Layer L35
   Obverse Shield with France modern. The inscription is a double struck but blundered version of the AVE MARIA type.
   Reverse Goss fleury in quatrefoil, rosetted in spandrels. (Barnard 1916, Nos. 46 and 47)
   It is interesting to note that this jetton has had a large hole bored in it. In the Middle Ages anyone offered a false coin was obliged to bore a hole in it and the early English sterling jettons usually have a 'token hole' in the form of a circular indentation at their centre to indicate that they were not coins. One wonders if at some stage someone had tried to pass off this piece as a groat and it had suffered the same treatment as would have been afforded to a false coin.

6. Halfpenny of George I: Irish, 1723 — Site 5, Unstratified

7. Penny token. Halesowen. The workhouse, 1813 — Site 9, Unstratified
Obverse A view of a church with a tower and a tall spire
Legend: *PENNY TOKEN. PAYABLE AT THE WORKHOUSE. HALESOWEN*
Reverse A galloping yeoman brandishing a sword above his head
Legend: *GOD SAVE THE KING* with *1813* in the exergue
Edge Thread milled
Diesinker Halliday
In the early 19th century Halesowen was a small town about seven miles from Birmingham, partly in Worcestershire and partly in Shropshire. The parish church, dedicated to St Mary and St John is a very fine Norman structure with later additions and its churchyard contains the grave of Shenstone, the poet, who was a Halesowen man.
The reverse of the token shows a yeoman riding at speed. He was probably a member of the Royal Worcestershire Yeomanry Cavalry known as the Kings Own. There were, however, several Yeomanry Cavalry Associations formed in neighbouring Shropshire and the rider may have belonged to one of these. The token is made payable at the Workhouse over whose door was the following inscription: 'The ground on which this building was erected, the garden hereunto belonging, together with 3 houses next adjoining, were given by Sir Thomas Lyttleton, Baronet, to the parish of Halesowen, for the accommodation of the poor, in the year of our Lord, 1730'. (Bell 1971, 93–4)

THE ANIMAL BONES

by

B. A. Noddle

Animal bones were collected from all contexts on each of the sites. However, in the analysis which follows bones from small sites and trial excavations (Sites 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 10) were ignored and those from post-medieval levels were deleted. The remainder comprised a total of 58.4kg of animal and bird bone of which 25% by weight proved to be too fragmented for identification. The material analysed was typical of urban excavations — well preserved, but very fragmented.

The bones were catalogued according to the four main excavated sites:

The Port Wall — Site 3
The Nelson Street House — Site 6
The Cattle Market (Monastic Barn) — Site 1
The Priory Buildings — Sites 9 and 11 combined

Following preliminary identification the bones were analysed for the minimum number of individuals, which were aged where possible. It was assumed that each archaeological context contained different individuals although this need not necessarily be the case. An anatomical analysis was carried out upon the most abundant species — cattle. Where possible the bones were measured: these measurements are presented for the whole assembly, irrespective of site, on the assumption that all are of medieval date.

Bird bones were abstracted and are separately identified (p. 155) and although a few fish spines were found, they could only be identified as probably from freshwater fish (information Mr Andrew Jones).

The analysis of the animal bones into species according to weight of bone, but irrespective of site, was:

cattle	63%
sheep/goat	12%
pig	14%
other mammalian species	11%

PROPORTIONS OF SPECIES: NUMBER OF FRAGMENTS (PERCENTAGES IN BRACKETS)

SITE	TOTAL	CATTLE	SHEEP	GOAT	PIG	HORSE	OTHER	BIRD
PORT WALL	158	64	38	7	15	5	9	10
(SITE 3)		(50)	(22.5)	(4)	(9)	(3)	(5)	(6)
NELSON STREET	263	130	69	12	35	3	6	12
(SITE 6)		(46.5)	(26)	(4.5)	(13)	(1)	(2)	(4.5)
CATTLE MARKET	279	146	79	7	27	10	9	1
(SITE 1)		(53)	(28)	(2)	(10)	(4)	(4)	(0.1)
PRIORY	607	195	90	3	217	18	28	56
(SITES 9 & 11)		(32)	(15)	(0.5)	(36)	(3)	(4.5)	(9)
HEREFORD		(57)	(19)	(4)	(12)	–	(5)	(2)
BRISTOL CASTLE		(27)	(18)	(0.7)	(21)	(9)	(12)	(21)

Data for Bristol and Hereford from Noddle, 1975

The number of identified fragments is set out in the table (page 150). Except for the Priory site, cattle was always the most numerous species, but the proportion varied from 53% to 32%. Sheep varied from 28% to 15% and a few goats were present at each site. The number of goat bones is probably underestimated owing to the inherent difficulty in distinguishing goat from sheep bone. Pig varied from 36% to 9% and was most numerous at the Priory site. Horse was fairly numerous, particularly in the monastic barn area (Site 1). This data has been compared with two other sites of roughly the same date. These are Hereford City and Bristol Castle, and it can be seen that Chepstow is more similar to Hereford with respect to cattle numbers, but perhaps more like Bristol with respect to bird numbers (Noddle 1975).

A more reliable assessment of the proportions of individual species is derived from the minimum number of individuals, since this allows for the dissemination of parts of the carcase to unexcavated parts of the site, and losses due to clearance activities at the time of deposition. This reduces the range of spread of numbers for the different sites, though it does not greatly alter the main conclusions. The precise data are set out below.

MINIMUM NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS
(PERCENTAGE IN BRACKETS)

SITE	TOTAL	CATTLE	SHEEP	PIG	OTHER
PORT WALL (SITE 3)	59	18 (31)	17 (29)	9 (15)	15 (25)
NELSON STREET (SITE 6)	101	31 (31)	34 (33)	21 (21)	15 (15)
CATTLE MARKET (SITE 1)	125	56 (44)	32 (26)	18 (14)	19 (16)
PRIORY (SITES 9 & 11)	256	79 (31)	61 (24)	90 (35)	26 (10)

Besides the main domestic forms, cattle, sheep, pig, and horse, bones from other species were identified in small numbers. These are designated 'other' in the preceding tables but are set out in detail in column two. A few deer bones occurred at every site; these were all from red deer apart from single samples of roe and fallow from the Priory site.

NUMBER OF FRAGMENTS OF BONES FROM LESS COMMON SPECIES
(NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS IN BRACKETS)

SITE	DEER*	DOG	CAT	FOX	RAT
PORT WALL (SITE 3)	1 (1)	4 (3)	–	4 (1)	–
NELSON STREET (SITE 6)	5 (4)	–	1 (1)	–	–
CATTLE MARKET (SITE 1)	4 (4)	5 (3)	–	–	–
PRIORY (SITES 9 & 11)	6 (4)	13 (2)	8 (6)	–	1 (1)

* All the deer bones were from red deer except for specimens of roe and fallow deer at the Priory site

This evidence of hunting was supplemented by a few large pig bones which might have come from wild boar. These are indicated in the table of measurements, overleaf. There were no hare bones and very few rabbit (not recorded as probably intrusive) so that hunting evidently played little part in the meat supply.

An anatomical analysis has been carried out into the main parts of the carcass for cattle bones (below). This was done in an attempt to show whether the different sites contained the same proportions of slaughter waste etc, or whether any of them were purely kitchen middens. There was a higher proportion of good meat bones (from axial skeleton and upper limb) at the Priory site. There was a higher proportion of metapodials and loose teeth at the monastic barn site (Site 1). However these differences might to some extent be accounted for by differential preservation, since damage before and after entering the ground increases the number of durable teeth and reduces the number of fragile vertebrae relative to the rest. All sites would however seem to contain a fair proportion of all kinds of waste.

The age range of the individuals, though it could only be determined in a few of the Chepstow specimens, gives some indication of the local animal husbandry. The data on this are set out overleaf, and although the figures are presented as a percentage, they are based on very few specimens at some of the sites, and so too much reliance should not be placed on this data. It might be anticipated that if urban consumption was based upon redundant farm animals, rather than those specifically

PERCENTAGE ANATOMICAL DISTRIBUTION OF CATTLE BONES

SITE	MANDIBLE	VERTEBRAE	UPPER FORE LIMB	UPPER HIND LIMB	CARPALS & TARSALS	METAPODIALS	PHALANGES	LOOSE TEETH
PORT WALL (SITE 3)	11	8	15	14	5	18	13	5
NELSON STREET (SITE 6)	9	5	17	12	4	20	12	15
CATTLE MARKET (SITE 1)	5	2	16	14	3	26	9	18
PRIORY (SITES 9 & 11)	5	14	18	19	7	13	10	11

PERCENTAGE AGE RANGE OF INDIVIDUALS: JUVENILE (J); IMMATURE (I); MATURE (M)

SITE	CATTLE			SHEEP			PIG		
	J	I	M	J	I	M	J	I	M
PORT WALL (SITE 3)	25	25	50	20	30	50	20	60	20
NELSON STREET (SITE 6)	13	47	40	7	36	57	–	82	18
CATTLE MARKET (SITE 1)	40	30	30	17	50	33	50	50	—
PRIORY (SITES 9 & 11)	20	45	35	38	50	12	14	63	23

MEASUREMENTS OF BONES: COMPLETE BONES OF CATTLE AND SHEEP; ALL MEASUREMENTS OF OTHER MAMMALIAN SPECIES (MEASUREMENTS IN MILLIMETRES)

SPECIES	BONE	LENGTH	PROXIMAL WIDTH	DISTAL WIDTH	MID SHAFT WIDTH
CATTLE	Radius	235	63	55	32
	Metacarpal	165	47	43	24
		168	—	43	25·5
		160	44	43	27
		170	—	47	28
		175	50	47	28
		175	52	51	30
		175	51	47	28
		180	53	—	29
		200	45	50	26
		218	68	64	39
	Metatarsal	172	27	38	20
		190	45	45	26
		200	39	43	21
		200	44	45	25
		210	45	46	22
		210	38	42	22
		210	38	47	27
SHEEP	Radius	130	26	25	16.5
	Metacarpal	118	—	25	14.5
		115	—	23	14
		120	23	25	14
	Tibia	190	—	24	—
	Metatarsal	122	19	22	11
		120	20	25	13
		130	18	21	12
GOAT	Metacarpal	125	23	24	15
		112	24	27	17
PIG	Lower 3rd molar — length:		28, 29, 33, 33, 33·5, **35·5**, **37**		
	Scapula — minimum shaft width:		18, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26		
	Humerus — Distal condyle width:		30, 30, 31, **34**		
	Metacarpal — length:		73, 74		
	Distal tibia — width:		26, 27, 28.5, 31		
	Metatarsal — length:		73, 74, 78		
	Lateral metapodial — length:		53, **69**		
	(The figures in heavy type may derive from wild boar)				
HORSE	Metacarpal	170	39	37	25 ?donkey
		215	—	49	34
	Tibia	340	—	49	—
	1st phalanx	74	51	43	—
CAT	Humerus	117	—	—	—
	Tibia	103	—	—	—

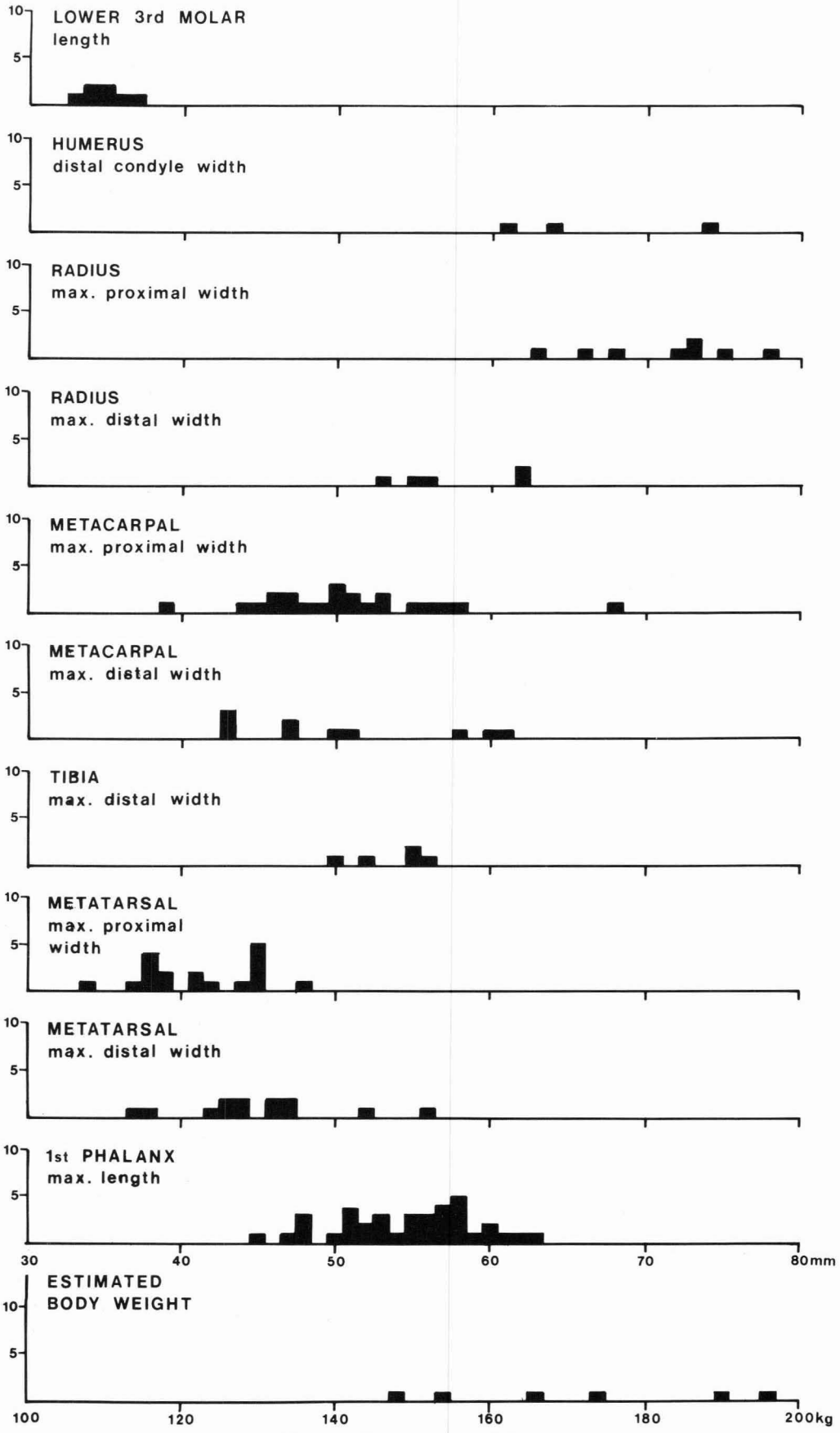

Fig. 74. Dimensions of cattle bones.

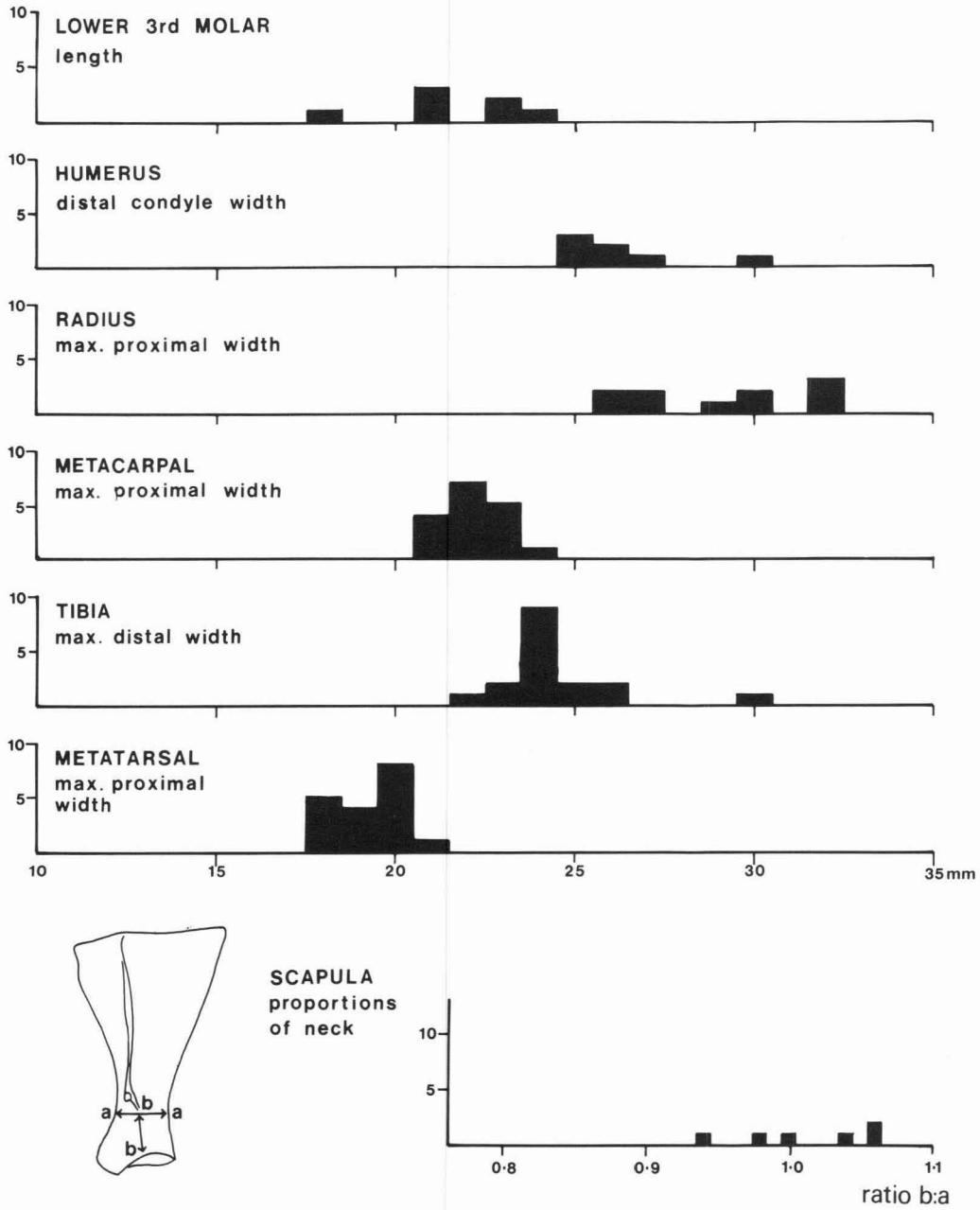

Fig. 75. Dimensions of sheep bones.

reared for market, then the bulk of the animals would be young potential casualties or worn out breeding stock, plough oxen, etc. These two categories of animals would come under the heading of juvenile and mature respectively. This line of reasoning does not apply so closely to the pig, since the only economic function of this animal is to supply meat and hides, or offspring. If, however, animals were being specially produced to supply the market for meat and hides, it might be expected that they would come into the category immature, from which the best hide and carcass would derive. These categories are based on the state of the dentition and the presence or absence of epiphyseal closure in the bones, and for modern livestock they would correspond to juvenile under eighteen months, immature eighteen months to about four years, and mature over that age. However, there is no evidence that these ages apply to animals prior to the agricultural revolution and there is quite a lot to indicate that bone maturity was much later, so these ages are best left under the heading of stages of maturity. The table indicates that for cattle there are roughly one third of the individuals at each stage. On the whole the highest proportion of immature cattle as well as the other animals come from the Priory site, suggesting that this was a more affluent area being able to afford choicer meat, which would add weight to the anatomical analysis data. Few juvenile sheep occur at any of the sites; perhaps these animals were not considered worth marketing and were consumed on the farms. The findings from the deserted medieval village of Wharram Percy add weight to this suggestion (Ryder 1974). Certainly there are some high casualty rates recorded from monastic flocks (Lloyd 1978). The majority of the few specimens of pig which could be aged came from the immature stage.

There are two main types of evidence available with regard to the size and type of animals making up the bone sample; these are bone measurements and the

appearance of horn cores in those species that have them. A high proportion of the bone fragments was measurable, and the results are set out in two ways. The complete bones of cattle and sheep are listed on page 152, together with all the measurements obtained from the other mammal species.

Frequently occurring measurements of incomplete bones are set out in the form of histograms: Fig. 74 showing the cattle bones, and Fig. 75 showing the sheep.

Fig. 74 indicates that the bone sizes showed little variation, most of the measurements being fairly closely grouped. However, estimation of body weight from the astragalus bone (Noddle 1973) shows a wider spread, as does the measurement of the complete metapodials, which include some specimens as large as modern cattle. However, the majority of specimens were of the typical small medieval size, in the lower range of the animals from the sites previously examined (Noddle 1975). Possibly some of the large metapodials were intrusive from modern layers. A number of horn cores were found, all of the same basic shape; their different sizes were probably due to sexual differences. A typical specimen is illustrated (Pl. 15.1).

Sheep were also on the small size compared with other medieval sites. Thus the width of the distal tibia shows a peak at 24mm, whereas it was at 26mm from other sites studied by the author. However Chepstow is not outside the complete range shown by these sites. The sheep were either massively horned, presumably in the male (Pl. 15.2), or polled or carried minute scurs; these last would presumably be ewes or wethers (Pl. 15.3). The proportions of the scapula neck are shown in Fig. 75. This gives an indication of the 'mutton qualities' of the animal (Hammond 1932). The Chepstow animals form a group of fairly primitive animals well within the range of other medieval sites; the animals were probably not of the most primitive short-tailed variety.

Too few goat bones were identified to give a full description, but it would seem that the animals were typical medieval specimens with massive horns in the male (Noddle 1975). A good example of such a horn core is shown (Pl. 15.4).

The pig bones showed a considerable range in size; it seems likely that some of the larger specimens were from wild animals, and these are identified in the table on page 152. The remaining animals had rather thickset bones in comparison with other medieval specimens, and it is tentatively suggested that sty husbandry was practised rather than open field husbandry and pannage.

There were very few pathological or abnormal specimens. The only one of any note was a rib, presumed bovine, showing signs of a massive abscess (Pl. 15.5). Examples of arthritis in the first and second phalangeal joints were found in both horse and cattle, but this is a common condition, probably the result of infected wounds. There were no examples of periodontal disease in the sheep, and none of the bovine lower third molars had a reduced or absent fifth cusp. There were two spondylosed lumbar vertebrae from a small equid, possibly a donkey.

THE BIRD BONES

by

D. Bramwell

The quantity of bird bones was too small to admit any serious conclusions about food preferences or the environment of the settlement. However, woodcock and partridge are well-known game birds, of open woodland and agricultural land respectively. The common buzzard is also a woodland nester but makes forays on to agricultural land for carrion, rabbits, voles, etc.

The goose bones include large and small specimens, probably due to sexual dimorphism; the fowl bones show several sizes but are generally small by modern day standards. A partridge tibial bone from the Priory site shows evidence of butchery in preparation for cooking.

THE BIRD BONES

SITE	COMMON NAME	SCIENTIFIC NAME	FRAGMENTS		INDIVIDUALS	
			ADULT	JUVENILE	ADULT	JUVENILE
NELSON STREET	GOOSE	*Anser anser*	2	2	2	1
(SITE 6)	FOWL	*Gallus gallus*	2	3	1	1
PRIORY	GOOSE	*Anser anser*	8	2	4	2
(SITES 9 & 11)	FOWL	*Gallus gallus*	27	14	9	7
	WOODCOCK	*Scolopax rusticola*	1		1	
	PARTRIDGE	*Perdix perdix*	3		2	
	COMMON BUZZARD	*Buteo buteo*	1		1	

PART 4

Conclusions

INTRODUCTION

The intention in this part of the report is to examine the results of the excavations; to relate these results to historically dated events in Chepstow and to earlier discoveries; to discuss relevant problems outstanding; and to indicate what aspects of the town's archaeology need further investigation.

It begins with a reconsideration of the Roman occupation of the area based both on the excavations and on the distribution of Roman material from chance finds in the locality. This is followed by a discussion of the design and extent of the Norman borough foundation and its development into a medieval town with the construction of the Port Wall. The effect of this wall on the post-13th-century development of the town is then considered, followed by a full discussion of the Priory from its foundation to the Dissolution and its relationship with the developing plan of the town. The final section considers the archaeological potential of various parts of the town and includes recommendations for future work.

THE ROMAN PERIOD

Leland, writing in the 16th century, found no evidence for a Roman site in the vicinity of Chepstow and thought it more likely that Chepstow replaced Caerwent after the Roman period because of its strategic situation at the confluence of the Wye and Severn. Writing in 1929, Bradney agreed with Leland (Bradney 1929).

The evidence for some form of Roman occupation in the Chepstow area has, however, gradually increased during the past century and can be considered in two parts: the Roman road system and the traces of occupation in the neighbouring areas to Chepstow; and the scattered finds which have been made, both casually and as a result of archaeological work, in the immediate vicinity of the town.

The subject of the Roman roads is a popular one for speculation (Randall 1946, 103). Certain straight alignments leading from and to known major sites are reasonably obvious and well known (Margary 1967), but apart from these we are dependent on comments and observations made by earlier archaeologists and historians. In the following paragraphs an attempt has been made to remove speculation from more scientifically based comments. The road numbers used by Margary are followed throughout (Margary 1967).

The most important Roman road in the whole area must have been the one which joined Gloucester with Caerwent, crossing the Wye in the vicinity of Chepstow. Slightly to the west of the town, there was apparently a junction with a road coming south from Monmouth (Fig. 3).

The Roman road from Gloucester (Margary road 60a) approached the Chepstow area from the north-east, following the line of the A48 as a major alignment of some 16km (10 miles) to Tidenham. At Tidenham the alignment turned slightly to the west towards Tutshill. The old course was earlier observed through fields along a footpath, and descending to a crossing of the Wye at Castleford (Margary 1967, 324). The line of the road between Tutshill and the Wye was seen in the 19th century, but apparently all traces were removed by agricultural operations (Ormerod 1861, 41).

The crossing was apparently by bridge and from time to time traces of this structure have been observed. There were no remains visible at the beginning of the 19th century (Coxe 1801), but, in the middle of the 19th century, possibly as a result of scouring action, 'parallel lines of black remains of stakes are clearly to be seen at low tides, crossing the bed of the river' (Ormerod 1861). In 1911 an American, Dr Orville Owen, conducted some excavations in the bed of the river at this point, hoping to find evidence that the works of Shakespeare were written by Bacon. He expected to find manuscripts buried in lead cases 'in a rift in the bed of the Wye' and covered by a stone roof! Photographs show that he exposed what was considered to be one of the starlings of a bridge (Waters 1971). The site was examined from a boat by Waters in 1962. He observed 'the stumps of three ranks of timber about ten feet (3.05m) apart' which were visible at low tide where there had been sufficient flow of water to clear the mud. Waters collected two loose pieces of timber and presented them to Chepstow Museum (Waters 1977a, 3).

It is difficult to relate the starlings to the triple row of timbers although it is possible that the latter were the bases of constructional timbers used during the building of a bridge. The evidence outlined above would appear to confirm the historical records of a bridge at this point but it should be emphasized that no dating evidence has been found. It is very unlikely that a bridge would have been built at this point at any time after the Norman foundation of the castle a mile downstream. Indeed, had this bridge been in use at the time of the Conquest, it could have affected the positioning of both the castle and the town. However, Waters considered that the old bridge continued in use for 'hundreds of years' after the

Romans left this country (Waters 1977a, 3), and Sir Cyril Fox considered that 'there is every reason to suppose that the Roman bridge, or a ford, was still in use in the 8th century' because Offa's dyke 'leaves the high ground . . . and makes for the river *just above the Roman road crossing*' while on the west 'parish boundaries follow (the course of the Roman road) on the right bank up the steep slope and for a considerable distance beyond'. The alignment of the dyke shows that here, and here only in this southern sector, the Mercians carried their frontier down to the river bank'. (Fox 1955, 222).

It should perhaps be noted at this point that there is no evidence to date the original construction of the town bridge, but in 1234 Henry III granted seventy-five good oaks from the Forest of Dean to repair the bridge (*Cal Rot Claus* Hen III, 1231–34, 456). The *Inquisitio post mortem* of Roger Bigod, Earl of Norfolk and Lord of Chepstow, dated 1306, noted that the bridge and fishing weir below the castle had been destroyed by floods (Wood 1910, 27) but it was apparently rebuilt shortly afterwards (Waters 1977a, 4).

The evidence appears to suggest that the old bridge site, some 1.5km upstream from Chepstow Castle was certainly of pre-13th-century date, probably pre-Conquest, and most likely to be Roman. However, some caution is necessary, for timber bridges need regular maintenance and it would be surprising if one in this position, where the Wye can rise at least 6m (20ft) in times of flood, could have lasted for several hundred years after the end of the Roman occupation of the area unless regular repair work was undertaken.

If further samples from the bridge timbers could be obtained and dated by radio-carbon or dendrochronological methods, then many of the problems relating to the Roman and early medieval crossings of the lower Wye might be resolved.

All writers agree that the road leading from the bridge on the western side ascended the steep dingle following the boundary between the parishes of Chepstow and St Arvan's to a junction with the road from Monmouth, a little less than half a mile (0.8km) from the site of the bridge, in the grounds of Piercefield House, the present racecourse. Margary mistakenly assumed that the main road on the west of the racecourse reflects the line of the Roman road from Monmouth (Margary road 6d) but this road was apparently constructed in the 18th century when the road across Piercefield park was stopped as a right of way (Waters 1975, 12).

At the junction described above the Roman road leading to Caerwent apparently took up a southerly alignment through Crossway Green, close to the site of St Kynemarks Priory (p. 12), and so into the line of the main Caerwent road, the A48, close to the present roundabout and less than one mile (1.6km), to the south-west of Chepstow.

West of Chepstow the Roman road followed the line of the present main road to Pwll-Meric, where it continued on the same alignment, north of the present road and of Haysgate Farm, following a line to Crick where the main road rejoins it. The road from Crick to the outskirts of Chepstow is on almost exactly the same alignment as that on the east side of the Wye between Tidenham and Tuitshill (Fig. 3): they both appear to be making towards a river crossing in Chepstow itself.

The postulated line of the Roman road leading towards Monmouth (Margary road 6d) is shown on Fig. 3 where it takes to the high ground between Gaer Hill Camp and the Wyndcliff and then goes via Trellech to Monmouth.

The line of a Roman road has been suggested leaving the main 60a road near Tidenham on a southerly alignment and following the present road towards Beachley (Fig. 3) (Ormerod 1861, 29).

Before considering the implications of these various roads, it is necessary to summarize the various finds of Roman date from Chepstow and the surrounding area.

The Roman occupation of most of Monmouthshire was doubtless dominated by the Roman town at Caerwent (*Venta Silurum*) some five miles (8km) to the south-west of Chepstow. This forty-four acre (18 hectare) settlement was the 'market town of the Silures' and substantial remains of its massive town walls can still be seen today. To the north of Chepstow there is evidence of Roman occupation on top of the Wyndcliff, where there is a possible temple site, whilst to the south-west, on the summit of Portskewett Hill, four miles from Chepstow, remains including 'walls and painted plaster in association with Roman coins and pottery' have been found (Randall 1946, 86). Other isolated finds are shown on Fig. 3.

Within the town of Chepstow several Roman objects and coins have been found in recent years and to these can be added the evidence from the excavations described in this volume. The following list owes much to the published works of Ivor Waters and details provided by the Chepstow Town Museum. The sites are shown on Fig. 76.

1. Chepstow Castle. The great tower of Chepstow Castle was built in the late 11th century. Although it had later alterations, the remains of this earliest period include Roman tiles used as a string course, and very large oblong blocks of a yellow stone which may also be of Roman origin. This yellow stone is found nowhere else in the castle except in parts of the south curtains of the upper and middle baileys which are also considered to be of 11th-century date (Perks 1967, 27). Similar stone is to be seen here and there in the Roman work at Caerwent and is derived from beds of Triassic age that occur in the neighbourhood of Portskewett, Caldicot and Rogiet (*op. cit*, 35).
2. 27 Bridge Street (earlier apparently St Anne's Chapel) '. . . workmen digging the foundations in 1822 found a Roman coin of Allectus (A.D. 293–96) and the remains of a coffin with human bones. Later four more coins were found here' (Waters 1975, 62). There is no direct evidence to associate the coins with the inhumation and indeed the latter could have been associated with St Anne's Chapel.
3. 28 Bridge Street (The Full Moon: Wansbeck House) During excavations in 1823 to build salt

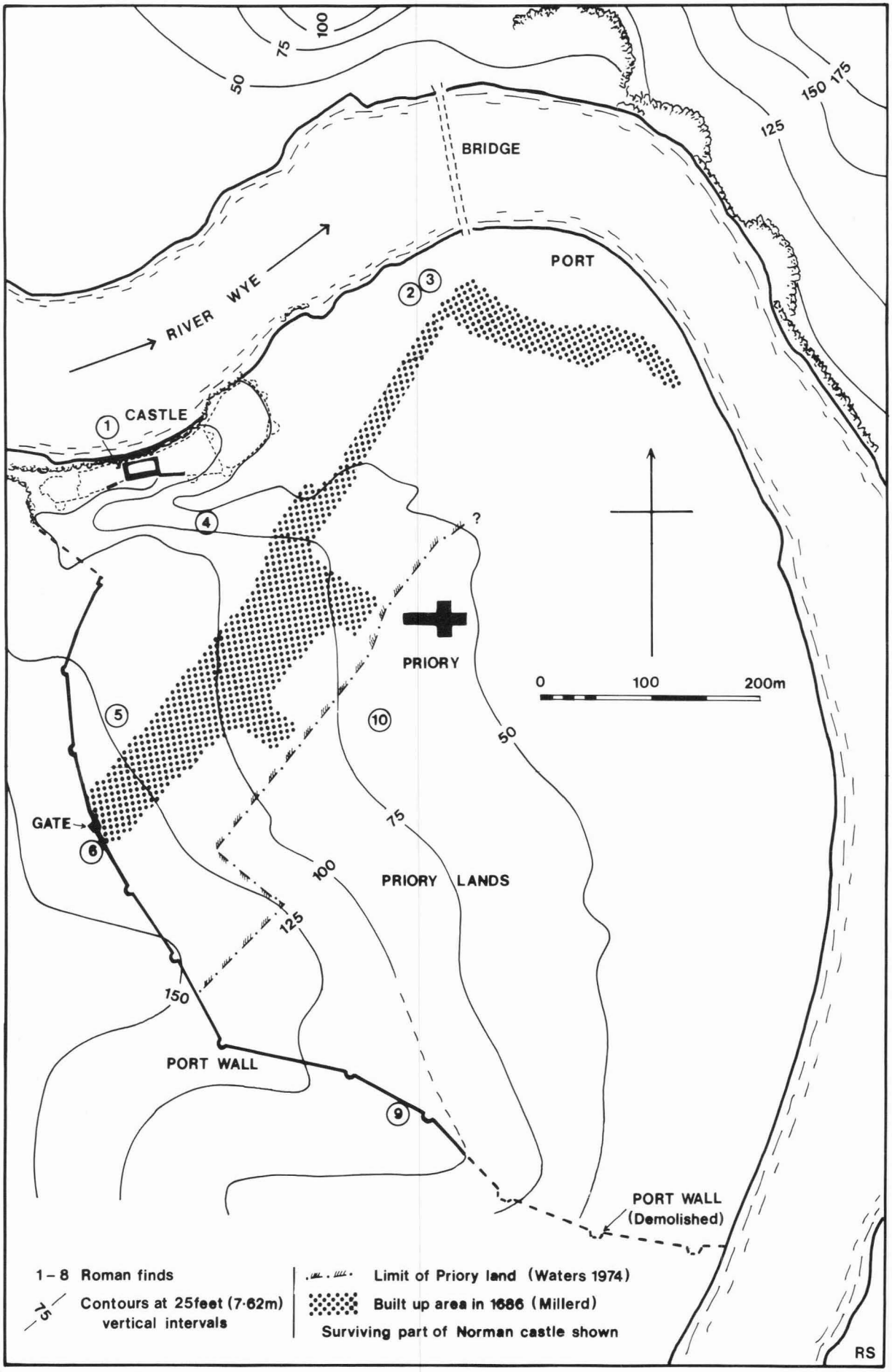

Fig. 76. Plan of Chepstow showing the positions of Roman finds, possible extent of the Priory land, and the built up area in 1686 according to Millerd.

water baths at the rear of the house, a coin of Domitian (A.D. 87) was found (Waters 1975, 63).

4. At the rear of Hocker Hill House on the edge of the castle ditch, a coin of Allectus (A.D. 293–96) was found. A Dobunic gold *stater* came from the same area (Ormerod 1861, 39).
5. In 1895 two coins were found under the floor of 9 Bank Street (the Manor House). One was a *sestertius* of Crispus (A.D. 327); the other a *sestertius* of Constantine the Great (A.D. 306) (Chepstow Museum Collection).
6. The George Hotel, adjoining the Town Gate, was completely destroyed by fire in May 1896 and rebuilt in 1899. During the reconstruction:

   'A subterranean passage was found near the Port Wall leading, according to the Advertiser, in two directions, "one presumably towards the river and the other towards the castle; but after proceeding for some distance (with the aid of lamps) the way was found to be blocked with stone and earth". The builders were naturally unwilling to hold up the work while further investigations were made, but a workman was able to rescue a few Roman coins of 306–26 A.D.' (Waters 1975, 168).

   This subterranean passage was presumably a stone built drain but there is no evidence to show that the early 4th-century coins were associated with it in any way. They are presumably part of a hoard, but the lack of any sign of Roman levels in the excavations alongside the Port Wall on both sides of the George Hotel would seem to preclude any large scale Roman occupation in this area. A passage at this point joining the river to the castle would appear to be rather unlikely.
7. Several Roman coins were found 'to the right of the street on entering Chepstow' on the Monmouthshire bank of the Wye. They included one of Constantius I (A.D. 305–06) and three of Gallienus (A.D.253–68) (Ormerod 1861, 42). (Not on Fig. 76)
8. A harness-trapping was found some time before 1930, apparently whilst excavating the foundations of a house in Chepstow. It is in the form of an S-scroll with knobbed terminals and rectangular plates decorated with a double band of triangles attached to each side. The knobs and plates are decorated with red and yellow enamel. It is dated to the second half of the 1st century A.D. (Nash-Williams 1932, 393–94; Piggott and Daniel 1951, 19 and Pl. 43). (Not on Fig. 76)
9. Workmen carrying out repairs to the Port Wall in the garden of 53 Green Street found a pit or ditch, partly sealed by the wall, which contained a quantity of Roman pottery (Site 4: Fig. 1).
10. 1973–74 excavations:

    Site 1. Three late 1st-century cremations and other Roman pottery were found in the area of the monastic barn (p. 35). One cremation was surrounded by a timber shrine. Two coins were found in the overlying layers (coins 1 and 2). One was of Tetricus I (A.D. 270–73) and the other of Claudius (A.D. 41–54). Two shallow gullies were apparently associated with the cremations.

    Site 11. There were no Roman levels but a quantity of pottery and tile of Roman date were recorded from the monastic levels. They were in two groups; one from period 1a and the other from period 3a. The period 1a material was in the eastern part of the site; in ditch F56 and in the general ground surface above the undisturbed sub-soil of the site (p. 59). This may well indicate Roman activity nearby. The lack of Roman finds in the remaining part of the site should not be considered significant as much of this area was disturbed by pits. The second group, from period 3a, may well have been brought into the site from a neighbouring area to make up the floor level.

    There were no other significant Roman finds from the 1973–74 excavations either in the area of the Priory or in the area surrounding the breach in the Port Wall.

The finds described fall into two groups:

Group 1: 1st century

Coins: Claudius	— A.D. 41–54
Domitian	— A.D. 87
Harness trapping:	2nd half of 1st century A.D.
Cremations:	Late 1st century
Pottery:	Late 1st century

Group 2: Late 3rd and 4th centuries

Coins: Gallienus	— A.D. 253–68 (three)
Tetricus I	— A.D. 270–73
Allectus	— A.D. 293–36 (two)
Constantius I	— A.D.305–56
Constantine the Great	— A.D. 306
'several'	— A.D. 306–26
Crispus	— A.D. 327
Tiles:	The tiles used in Chepstow Castle (1 above) and the fragments found at Site 11 probably belong to group 2.
Pottery:	The pottery from the pit underneath the Port Wall (9 above) is probably of this group.

The first group covers the period during or slightly after the Roman conquest of South Wales. Before the conquest South Wales was occupied by the *Silures*. To the north and east of them were the *Dobunni* and it is possible that the Wye acted as a boundary between the two tribes (Jarrett 1969, 3).

The historical evidence for the Roman conquest of Wales comes from Tacitus and the relevant parts dealing with the campaigns against the *Silures* are:

DATE (A.D.)	CAMPAIGN
49–50	Establishment of 'castra . . . legionum' against the *Silures* (?Gloucester)
51	Defeat and capture of Caratacus, leader of the *Silures*. Guerilla warfare by the *Silures* involving heavy Roman casualties.
52	*Silures* defeat a legion but the situation recovered by Gallus who built some advanced forts, possibly in *Silurian* territory (?53–54).
57	Minor campaigns against the *Silures*.
58–59	Successful campaign against the *Silures*.
60–74	No recorded campaigns.
74–78	Conquest of the *Silures*.

(Jarrett 1969, 5)

The campaigns against the *Silures* may thus have lasted as long as a quarter of a century during which the legion could have been based at Gloucester. In the southern Marches, early forts are probable at Leintwardine, Clyro, Usk, and possibly at Abergavenny. It would be surprising if the natural frontier of the lower Wye valley was not utilized, at least during the breaks in the long campaign. A base close to the the mouth of the Wye, either in an attacking position (the Chepstow side) or in a defensive position (the Tidenham side), during some part of the long campaign would seem to be very probable.

In this context, the cremation burials from Site 1 have a special significance. Several late 1st-century A.D. cremations were present and these, and the traces of possible boundary banks suggest that the area was used for a short time as a cemetery. The normal situation for such burials would be alongside a road on the outskirts of a settlement (Toynbee 1971). In the case of Chepstow this would suggest some occupation on the west bank of the Wye in the second half of the 1st century A.D. It may also indicate that the alignment of the Gloucester to Caerleon Roman road on both sides of the Wye was not coincidental (Fig. 3). It may well be that the original road led to a ferry crossing of the Wye in the immediate area of Chepstow, preserving the alignment except for the steep drop to the river. At a later date this crossing could have been replaced by the bridge a mile upstream at Castleford, at a point which the Roman engineers chose as being most suitable (p. 157). A similar situation may have occurred further up the river Wye at Hereford, where a straight alignment of the main north–south border road heads directly for the ford at Hereford (Margary 1967: road 6c) but a branch road (Margary 1967: road 630) leaves this alignment several miles to the north of the Wye and heads for a presumed bridge crossing close to Kenchester (*Magna*), some four miles (6.4km) above the Hereford ford (Baker 1964).

The evidence is only sufficient to suggest that an early Roman fort may have been situated at some point on the Chepstow promontory, guarding a ferry crossing of the Wye. Its position remains uncertain, but it is perhaps worth noting that if the alignment of the Roman road from the south-west is followed to the north-east, beyond the roundabout on the outskirts of Chepstow, it continues as Newport Road, where Waters records the presence of a Roman road (Waters 1975, 186). After a short gap the same approximate alignment is taken up by Nelson Street, the churchyard walk, and Lower Church Street leading directly to the river. Both on the map and on the ground this is the most likely route for a Roman road heading to a ferry at Chepstow. It passes close to the area with known Roman cremations, and within 200m of most other Roman find spots.

The ferry crossing would probably have taken a diagonal course across the river, to ensure that the boat had to be pulled upstream on one bank only, and may thus have had the landing on the northern bank close to the present road bridge. This would have meant that the road leaving the ferry towards Gloucester could have climbed the steep slope on a similar line to the present road, avoiding the sheer cliffs further to the east.

The postulated Roman road need not have been seen in the 1971 excavations. The direct line would have been a few metres to the south of the excavated area — enough to miss any traces.

The later group of finds may well relate to an expansion of the civilian area based on Caerwent in the late 3rd or early 4th centuries. They may have been associated with a villa or other building concerned with navigation on or across the Wye and the Severn. It is unlikely that the quantity of tile and stone of Roman origin which is visible in Chepstow Castle would have been brought overland from as far away as Caerwent, as has been suggested (Perks 1967, 35). A less laborious alternative for the builders would have been to re-use the stone from a nearby ruined building. If this had not been possible, then stone could have been quarried immediately adjacent to the castle.

THE NORMAN SETTLEMENT

It has already been indicated that during the Saxon period the area around Chepstow was of some consequence, and that a crossing of the Wye by boat or by bridge in the vicinity of the town was likely. There is, however, no indication of any post-Roman occupation of the immediate area of the town until after the Norman Conquest, when William Fitz Osbern was created Earl of Hereford and Lord of Striguil.

It is therefore important to view Chepstow not as a peninsula *town* site but as the carefully chosen location for a Norman *castle* which would protect the southern boundary of Earl William's palatinate and also control shipping on the River Wye (Soulsby 1983 p. 29). The choice of the narrow site for the castle, with cliffs plunging precipitously for almost 100m to the Wye on the north and a parallel ravine on the south, must have been of prime importance.

The use of stone in the building of the castle and the enormous size of the Great Tower (27.5m long by 9m wide internally), which included two storeys above a

cellar, is an indication of the importance which William Fitz Osbern attached to this southern extremity of his domain. It would have provided a secure base for further advances into Wales and, by overlooking the port area, ensured that supplies could be received safely from across the Severn or further afield.

William was killed in Flanders in 1071 and was succeded by his son Roger who was involved in an unsuccessful attempt to depose the King in 1074. As a result his estates were confiscated by the crown and he eventually died in prison. It is probable, therefore, that William Fitz Osbern founded the Priory at Chepstow, as a dependent cell to his abbey at Cormeilles, within five years of the Conquest. Thus, having started the construction of the castle, the choice of site for the priory church would have been the next consideration.

It would have to be sufficiently far away from the castle not to affect the defensive potential of that site yet sufficiently close to come under the mantle of protection which the castle offered. The site chosen, almost central on the spur of the peninsula, and some 250m from the castle, fulfilled both these criteria and allowed the priory grounds to stretch over the eastern part of the peninsula without affecting the castle, its defence, or its residents (Fig. 76). The choice of the site for the priory may have been partly the result of much earlier activity on the site: it has been suggested that Nelson Street and Lower Church Street reflect the line of a Roman road (p. 160), and if this is accepted then the remains of this road, running centrally down the spur of the peninsula, may have been used as the boundary of the monastic grounds. The excavations have certainly shown that the alignment followed by Nelson Street was apparent, and that buildings were aligned with it during the earliest phase of monastic activity (Site 11: period 1c, p. 61); further the priory boundary apparently followed a line parallel to this street during the latter part of the monastic use of the site (p. 44).

The town of Chepstow apparently grew at a more rapid rate than other communities (Wigmore, Clifford, Ewyas Harold) in the northern, more unsettled parts of Fitz Osbern's estate (VCH 1908). It is included in the Gloucestershire section of the Domesday survey, the only place west of the Wye to be so treated. The main entry reads:

> 'Earl William made the castle of *Estrighoiel* (Chepstow) and it paid in his time only for vessels going to the forest, forty shillings. But in the time of Earl Roger, his son, this town paid sixteen pounds, and Ralph de Lumesi had a half of it. The king has now twelve pounds from thence.' (Morris 1982).

It is evident that, within a few years of the Conquest, a small borough had grown, or been planted, next to the castle. Some indication of the plan of this borough may be obtained by a consideration of the plans of Millerd (Fig. 4) and Coxe (Fig. 5) and an examination of the modern topography of the area.

One of the most noticeable features of the town plan of Chepstow is the series of roads which run, roughly parallel with one another, from the Town Gate and Port Wall area down the central part of the peninsula towards the river. It is these streets which have led to Chepstow being described as a typical Norman planned town. Certainly, apart from the inner relief road, there has been little change in the street pattern since the latter part of the 17th century (Fig. 4). However, the original design of the Norman borough may have suffered substantial changes in the period between the 11th and the 17th centuries as a result of late medieval features such as the construction of the Port Wall, the various extensions on the north-west of the castle, and the possible changes in the position of the river crossing, either as a ferry or as a bridge.

The earliest part of the castle is the Great Tower. This would have been soon protected by baileys on both the east and west. The main entrance was probably through the easternmost bailey which led directly to the entrance to the tower.

Accepting that the castle and Priory church are the earliest important buildings in Chepstow, the most logical situation for a road would be from the western doorway of the church to the main gateway leading into the castle. It is suggested that the eastern part of this road still survives as Upper Church Street, which runs across the spine of the peninsula from the west door of the church towards the inner of the two eastern baileys. It is particularly significant that all the streets running down the hill suffer a break in alignment when they cross this street (Fig. 1).

Until the 13th century, the entrance to the castle had been from the inner bailey but during the first half of the 13th century the lower, easternmost bailey was added, the new entrance being some 60m to the east of the earlier one (Perks 1967, 5). This would have left the postulated road incongruously crossing Castle Dell and arriving at the blank wall of the extended castle defence. It would seem probable that any such road would eventually have been totally destroyed as the north side of Castle Dell was scarped to form a more efficient defence for the new extension described above.

If Upper Church Street indeed follows the line of one of the earliest roads to be built in Chepstow after the Conquest, then the roads at right angles to this line, Hocker Hill Street, St Mary Street and Nelson Street to the south-west, and Church Road to the north-east, would have provided a small grid system commensurate with the size of the Domesday borough. Extensions to some of these streets could have led out of the town either along the peninsula or down to a crossing of the river.

There may have been no need for defences for this small settlement during the late 11th and 12th centuries. During this period Hereford, in a similar position on the Welsh border, was apparently undefended until a gravel bank and ditch were constructed at the end of the 12th century (Shoesmith 1982, 82), and at Richards Castle, also a Norman foundation, the town bank was not built until about 1200 (Curnow and Thompson 1969, 117). The earliest post-Conquest defence in many Welsh border towns at the end of the 12th century consisted of a ditch with an internal bank, probably surmounted with a fence of brushwood and thorn palings (Soulsby 1968, 36).

The excavations described in this volume have not produced any evidence for a pre-stone phase of the defences along the line of the present Port Wall (p. 21). Although a slight bank was observed behind the wall in the 1971 excavation (Miles 1971) this is not considered to be defensive (Delaney and Soulsby 1975, 4.4.3). Indeed, the earliest circuit may well have been on a completely different line from the late 13th-century Port Wall, and have included only the medieval town within its perimeter. If the earliest part of the town was between the castle and the church, possibly extending into the safe area towards the river, any late 12th-century defensive line would have had to lie between Upper Church Street and the Port Wall. One possible alignment, which can be seen on the modern plan (Fig. 1) and is also apparent on Millerd's map (Fig. 4) is the line of Station Road. If this line is continued to the north-west across Beaufort Square, it joins with the curious re-entrant on the Port Wall at the top of the castle ditch, where there is now a square tower. Traces of a small 'spur' wall or bank continues this alignment to the north-west across Castle Dell to a point west of the early 13th-century barbican gate of the castle.

A bank and ditch following the line described above would have provided additional protection for the castle and could also have joined a precinct wall of the priory at the south-east. The priory precinct wall, if it existed at this time, may have provided sufficient defence on the north and east, or alternatively a further defence may have linked the priory precinct with the river to the east of Lower Church Street. The most likely position for a gate in these postulated defences would appear to be in the Beaufort Square area, although the junction of Nelson Street and Station Road is also a possibility.

The several streets which run from Upper Church Street to the Town Gate may originally have been an open market area. Gradual infilling, in the areas between Hocker Hill Street and Bank Street on the north-west and St Mary Street and High Street on the south-east, would have created the present situation. This is very similar to the market infilling which can be seen in Ludlow (St John Hope 1909) and has been postulated in Hereford outside the Saxon defensive line (Shoesmith 1982, 93). Did the market area grow outside the postulated late 12th-century defensive line during the 13th century as it apparently did outside the disused Saxon defences of Hereford a century earlier?

Much of the growth of Chepstow during the 12th and 13th centuries would probably have been towards the river and the ferry or bridge crossing. There was certainly a bridge in the early 13th century (Waters 1975, 50) and one may have existed at a much earlier date or, alternatively, a ferry would have been in use. Certainly development down Bridge Street, and possibly Lower Church Street, leading towards the river bank, must have taken place at an early period in the town's history. All this, however, is conjecture which can only be tested by excavation.

THE PORT WALL AND ITS EFFECT ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOWN

Chepstow town wall, which for centuries has been known as the Port Wall, defends the fifty-three hectare (130 acre) peninsula on which the town is built (Figs. 1 and 76). When complete the wall was 1,123m (1,217 yards) long, following the shortest possible route commensurate with the defensive requirements of the town and the topography.

Much of the wall survives and from the Town Gate at the top of High Street it can be followed in a northerly direction past two semicircular towers to a square tower on the southern side of Castle Dell, opposite the western end of the castle. The possible course from this point is discussed later (p. 163). To the south of the Town Gate the Port Wall originally continued in a gentle south-easterly curve as far as the river bank. Five semicircular bastions survive on this stretch but the wall was breached for the new ring road, a minor road on School Hill and the railway. A quarry opening from the Station Yard has the wall perched precariously on its southern edge. The Port Wall and the three mural towers between the railway and the river were demolished in 1916 to make way for the shipyard (Waters 1975, 218).

The Port Wall was apparently planned as a whole and the excavations showed that the mural tower examined on Site 3 was bonded into the wall, both wall and tower being built at the same time. The other semicircular towers are of similar construction to the one examined, so it may be assumed that, with the exception of the square tower near Castle Dell, the whole defensive work is of one period, although with later repairs or refacing.

The wall originally had eleven towers, of which eight survive in various stages of completeness. They are all open-backed, half-round, projecting towers with a diameter of about 8.2m (27ft) standing up to 7.6m (25ft) high. The wall itself is about 2.1m (7ft) thick and stands up to 6.1m (20ft) high with the remains of a wall walk and crenellations along the top. The wall walk continued around the inside of each of the semicircular towers. The wall was built of rubble limestone and has been patched and partially rebuilt in many places. There is a line of square holes in the upper part of the outer face of the wall and towers. These are probably for the provision of *bretasches*, or wooden projecting galleries, to improve the defences (Turner 1970, 64).

There is no documentary evidence to date the construction of the Port Wall but it is suggested, by comparison with the castle masonry, that it was probably built in 1272–78 (Perks 1967, 33) by the third Roger Bigod. It may have been repaired about 1524 when a charter was granted to the town to ensure the repair of much 'which is fallen into great ruin, indigence and decay' (see below).

Until recently the only two entrances into the walled town, apart from the small postern gates (see below) and by boat, were across the bridge or through the single Town Gate. The original gate was probably built at the

same time as the wall by the third Roger Bigod but the design of the present gate suggests a major rebuilding in the 15th or 16th century. This was probably the work of Charles Somerset, first Earl of Worcester, to whom the Lordship of Striguil had descended. He granted the town its first charter in 1524 allowing the bailiffs 'to have their prison for the punishment of offences within the great gate, which they have builded by our commandment . . .' (Perks 1967, 33 and Waters 1975, 138).

On the Gate there are two coats of arms which are now too weathered to be recognizable. The battlements, archways and windows are all apparently modern replacements installed within the last hundred years, and the passageway on the southern side was constructed in 1928.

There are two small postern gates in the Port Wall; one on the north-west of the town giving access to Castle Dell from the present car park may be original and still survives, but the second, which led from the same area into the grounds at the rear of the now demolished Congregational Church, has been shown to be a 19th-century insertion into an earlier recess and was removed when the wall was breached at this point (Site 2, p. 19).

From the square tower the original course of the wall to the west and north is uncertain. At the time of construction of the Port Wall, the castle had already been extended to the west to include the barbican, and the upper gatehouse was probably built about the same time, replacing a simple arched gateway (Perks 1967, 32). There are three possible lines which the Port Wall could have taken from the square tower to ensure an adequate defence and, confusingly, all three possibilities are referred to in historical sources.

John Leland wrote of it in 1536–39:

> 'The towne of Chepstow hath bene strongly waulled as yet welle doth appere. The wa(ulles) began at the ende of the great bridge over Wy, and so cam to the castel, the which yet standeth fayr and strong not far from the ruin of the bridge. A (great) part of cumspace withyn the waulles is no(w con) verted to little medows and ga(rdins).' (Smith 1906, 43)

Leland's comment that the wall started at the Wye Bridge and went from there to the castle was accepted by both Wood (1910, 35) and Bradney (1929, 14) although the former was quite dogmatic that the wall did not enclose or touch the castle but followed the south side of Castle Dell towards the bridge. This alignment is not the one shown on the plans of Millerd and Coxe. The former, dated to 1686 (Fig. 4), shows the wall joining the castle defences at the south-western corner close to the barbican tower and this is considered as the second possible line. There is, however, no evidence for such a junction in the masonry of the castle nor is there any trace on the ground, but this alignment has been accepted until quite recently (Wilson 1974 and Soulsby and Delaney 1975).

The third line is the one shown by Coxe in 1801 (Fig. 5) and accepted by at least one later writer (Perks 1967, 33). It is the line of the postulated earlier defence (p. 162). From the square tower a slight mound with traces of masonry crosses Castle Dell in a north-westerly direction at right angles to the existing line of the Port Wall, towards the counterscarp of the rock-cut western ditch of the castle. Here a bridge or drawbridge led into the upper gatehouse of the barbican. This upper gatehouse was built at the same time as the wall and it would seem most likely that the Port Wall was built to enhance this gatehouse, possibly by making use of the postulated earlier defensive work across Castle Dell.

A square shape would have been an unusual design for a 13th-century mural tower, particularly on a straight stretch of wall. Such towers do occur in the late 14th and 15th centuries and later (Turner 1970, 60), but in an earlier context it would probably only provide a defensive function when built where the wall turns through an acute angle as in the second and third of the possible courses described above. It is, however, possible that the Port Wall might originally have been built completely separate from the castle following the south side of Castle Dell. At a later date a second wall could then have been built across the Dell with a square tower joining it to the earlier wall. The stone of the redundant part of the wall, between this tower and the bridge, would then have been available for other building uses.

Only selective excavation will resolve the problems outlined above and establish the constructional history of the north-western part of the town defences of Chepstow. It is certainly in this area that there is the best chance of establishing the presence of an earlier defensive line to that of the Port Wall.

The excavation of Site 3 (p. 21) outside the Port Wall produced a reasonable quantity of 12th-century pottery, but in the absence of structures this should not be taken as evidence of settled occupation of this part of the town before the wall was built. It would, however, not be unusual for a 13th-century defensive wall to exclude some of the inhabitants. Ample evidence has been accrued to demonstrate that a similar policy was followed in Hereford, where the late 12th-century bank and ditch defence, reinforced with stone in the 13th century, cut across earlier building and property lines (Shoesmith, 1982). The two main criteria used were apparently the tactical requirements — to ensure that the wall provided a defensive function, and the cost in terms of the length of wall to be built. Such requirements often led to the exclusion of suburbs (Turner 1970, 55–56), and, in the case of Chepstow, the wall would have had to be very much longer had it included even part of Moor Street and Welsh Street, because of the promontory nature of the site. This latter street could possibly indicate the area occupied by the Welsh after the English borough was founded (Soulsby 1983, 108), extending out towards St Kynemark's which was possibly a Celtic foundation (Butler 1965).

The arrangement of the streets outside the gate suggests that at one time a small extra-mural market occupied the area between St Thomas Street and Moor Street including Albion Square. The roads leading out of town to the west and south radiated from this market area. A market outside the gate would not be unusual as tolls were collected on merchandise and livestock entering the town. At Chepstow tolls continued to be charged until 1874 (Waters 1975, 140).

THE PRIORY: DEVELOPMENT AND USE

The documentary history of the Priory and the Priory church has been outlined in Part One and the excavations on the sites of the conventual buildings and the monastic barn have been detailed in Part Two, together with those of a house adjoining the Priory grounds. An attempt is made in this chapter to correlate these sections and compare the alien priory at Chepstow with other similar monastic foundations (Fig. 2).

The foundation to the early 12th century
(Fig. 77)

It is suggested that the foundation of the priory at Chepstow probably dates to the five-year period after the Norman Conquest, but that the untimely death of its benefactor, William Fitz Osbern, left an unfinished project. The size of the original foundation is not known but it need not have been more than a dependent cell. It acquired conventual status, however, probably in the late 11th or early 12th centuries.

The fine Norman work in the Priory church suggests that Fitz Osbern was making use of the masons employed in the construction of his castle to work on the priory but the excavations have demonstrated that there was no attempt to build the conventual quarters on the same scale as the church at that time.

The earliest feature on Site 11, ditch F56, may have been associated with the construction period of the church. It could have been either a boundary feature with a timber palisade on the inside or a drainage ditch or both (see p. 59).

The first building erected on the site after completion of the church would probably have been the chapter

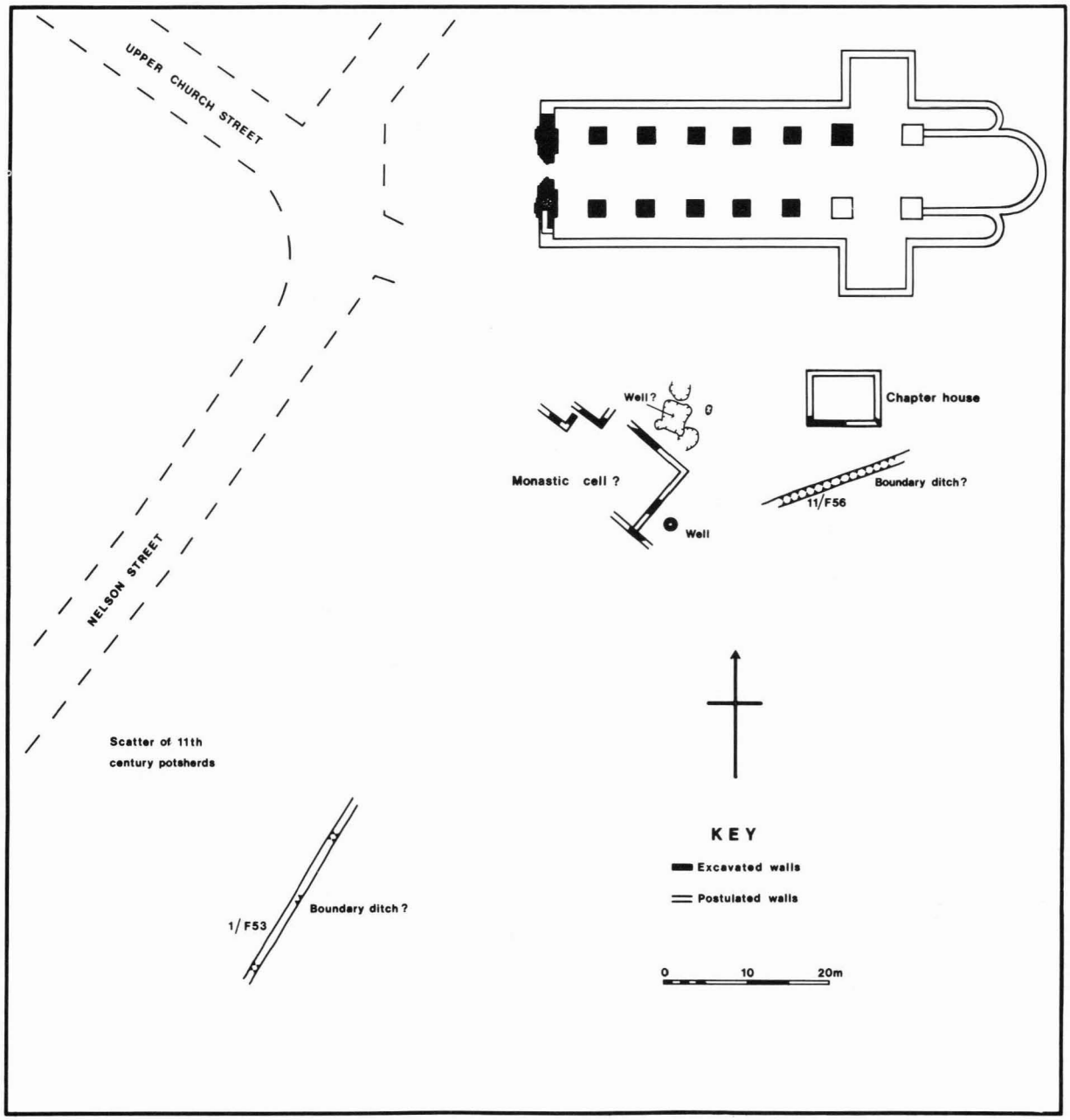

Fig. 77. The Priory: foundation to the early 12th century. The east end of the Priory church is given a hypothetical reconstruction with an apse and side chapels.

house, and it is suggested that this is represented by the fragmentary remains of the period 1a building on Site 11. This is approximately in the correct position for a chapter house in relation to the church although, as it does not line up with the transept, it may well have been built as a free-standing building, separated by a passageway or slype (Fig. 77). The one wall found during the excavation was very narrow so the building was probably only one storey high and may well have been of timber construction above dwarf stone walls.

Perhaps the most interesting buildings of this earliest construction period are those aligned with Nelson Street which were found on the western part of Site 11. It was not possible to establish whether these buildings belonged to the Priory or if they were of a secular nature. Their proximity to the church would indicate the former, but not enough is known about the boundaries of the monastic precinct to be certain. It has been suggested (p. 63) that these remains represent the earliest monastic buildings, used whilst the Priory church was being built, either by the monks themselves, or by the labour force used in the construction.

Further up Nelson Street, a scatter of late 11th-century sherds was found on Site 6 (p. 27) between the suggested monastic boundary ditch F53 on Site 1 and the road. Although there were no structural features on Site 6 which could be dated to the late 11th or early 12th centuries, this pottery of immediate post-Conquest date may indicate the presence of other early buildings along Nelson Street in addition to those found on Site 11. The position of ditch F53, the buildings in the western part of Site 11, and the finds from Site 6, all appear to be associated with the line of Nelson Street and suggest that this road was a governing factor in the laying out of buildings in this area (p. 161).

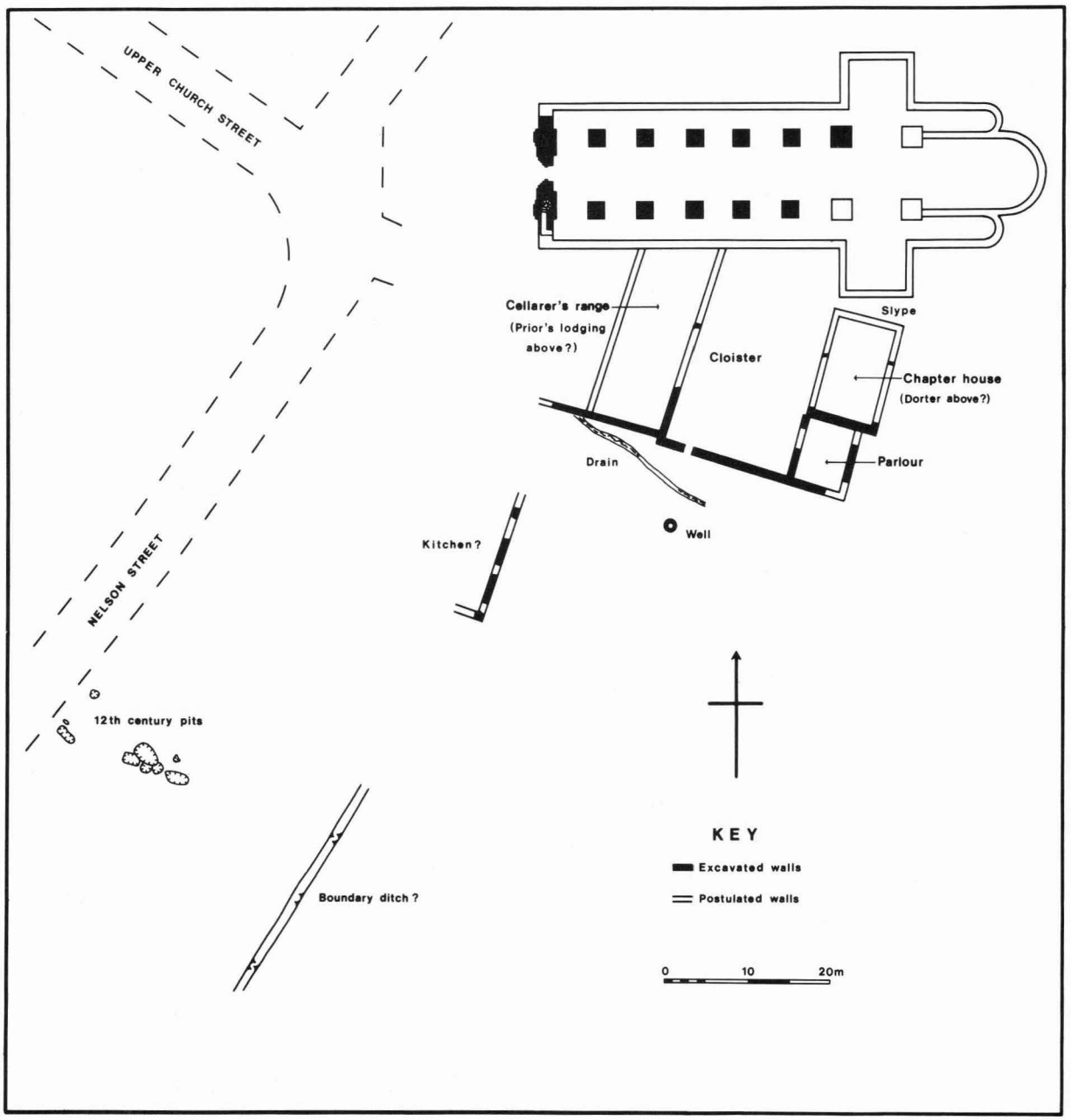

Fig. 78. The Priory: 12th century conventual buildings.

Nothing is known about the history of the Priory during this early period and it may be, as has been suggested, that it was merely a cell of the Abbey of Cormeilles used for revenue collection. If this was the case then the few monks resident would probably have been fully occupied with administrative duties and would not have been able to lead anything like the full religious life of the mother-house. In these circumstances a collection of small, probably half-timbered buildings close to, but not directly associated with the church may well have been considered sufficient accommodation. It would have been when the cell achieved conventual status that a more regular arrangement of buildings would have been considered necessary.

The 12th-century conventual buildings
(Fig. 78)

It is unfortunate that we do not know the date when Chepstow achieved conventual status, for it was doubtless at this time that the buildings took on a more regular plan. It may be significant that in 1101 or 1102, at the dedication of the Monmouth Priory church, the Cormeilles representative (presumably from Chepstow) was only a monk, whilst between 1138 and 1148 a Prior of Chepstow was present at Baderon's marriage. Was it between these dates that Chepstow became a fully developed priory? The late 11th and early 12th centuries were certainly a period of monastic expansion with Brecon, Goldcliff and Abergavenny priories all founded by the early 1100s (Cowley 1977, 270). It certainly appears that the first few years of the 12th century would have been the most likely time for the monastery to achieve conventual status and therefore for the construction of the eastern and western ranges of the monastic cloister buildings on Site 11.

In the eastern range, the early chapter house was apparently rebuilt on a new alignment at a slight angle to the church, and this skew arrangement was to be followed by all the later buildings throughout the life of the priory (p. 64). A parlour was added to the south of the chapter house to complete the eastern wing. There may well have been a dorter above either the chapter house or the parlour, or both, but no trace of any stair was found.

A western range was built about the same time. It probably contained the cellarer's quarters and may have had the prior's lodging on the first floor. It may also have contained the public parlour or merely an entrance to the cloister from the outer court. The southern ends of the east and west ranges were apparently joined by a wall enclosing the small cloistral area, although there was no trace of a cloister alley in the area excavated.

Immediately south of the principal buildings were the well and a shallow drain which apparently took excess water around the west of the cellarer's wing. A wall to the west of the well, which was not examined in detail, may have been part of a detached kitchen. Further south the ditch and several shallow pits indicated some occupation in this area.

Once the main conventual buildings had been built, this early 12th-century constructional phase came to an end and, although they must have presented a rather unfinished aspect, the buildings continued in use for a period of some 50–70 years with little apparent change.

The early 13th-century additions
(Fig. 79)

It was during the late 12th and early 13th centuries that there was the greatest number of monks in the alien priories and during this period Chepstow may have achieved the full conventual status with twelve monks and a prior. The most serious problem with the early 12th-century buildings was the lack of a frater or monastic refectory and it is presumed that the monks had to make use of the prior's lodging for meals. As the number of monks increased this must have created increasingly difficult problems which were resolved at the beginning of the 13th century by the construction of a southern range to the cloister.

First the parlour was demolished and the chapter house probably partly rebuilt. The southern cloister wall was demolished but the foundations were re-used for the southern wall of the new frater. This was a well-constructed building which joined the southern end of the chapter house to the eastern wall of the cellarer's wing. It may have been a typical medieval hall, open to the rafters, or could have had a first floor providing further accommodation. The new wing reduced the area of the cloister garth but it was probably at this time that the cloister alleys were built, perhaps with lean-to roofs and open arcades standing on dwarf walls.

This building phase was not confined to the conventual buildings for, slightly later and further south on Site 1, a massive buttressed stone barn, some 10m wide by 22.5m long was built with its western wall almost on top of the earlier boundary ditch, F32. To the west of the barn, and perhaps outside the monastic grounds, a house was built with its short side fronting onto Nelson Street. It was probably of half-timber construction on low stone cill walls and with an opening on the north side.

This was the time when monastic growth had reached its peak and when Chepstow probably had its greatest number of monks. The excavations have only identified some of the major buildings in the monastic precinct but from these and from early descriptions of other monastic sites we can get some indication of the design of the whole site. Close to the conventual buildings and the well would have been the kitchen, not only for preparing food for the monks but also for the prior and guests as this was a very small house. The area to the east of the church would have been reserved for the monastic cemetery and here also would have been the infirmary for sick and aged monks. We are told that there was a

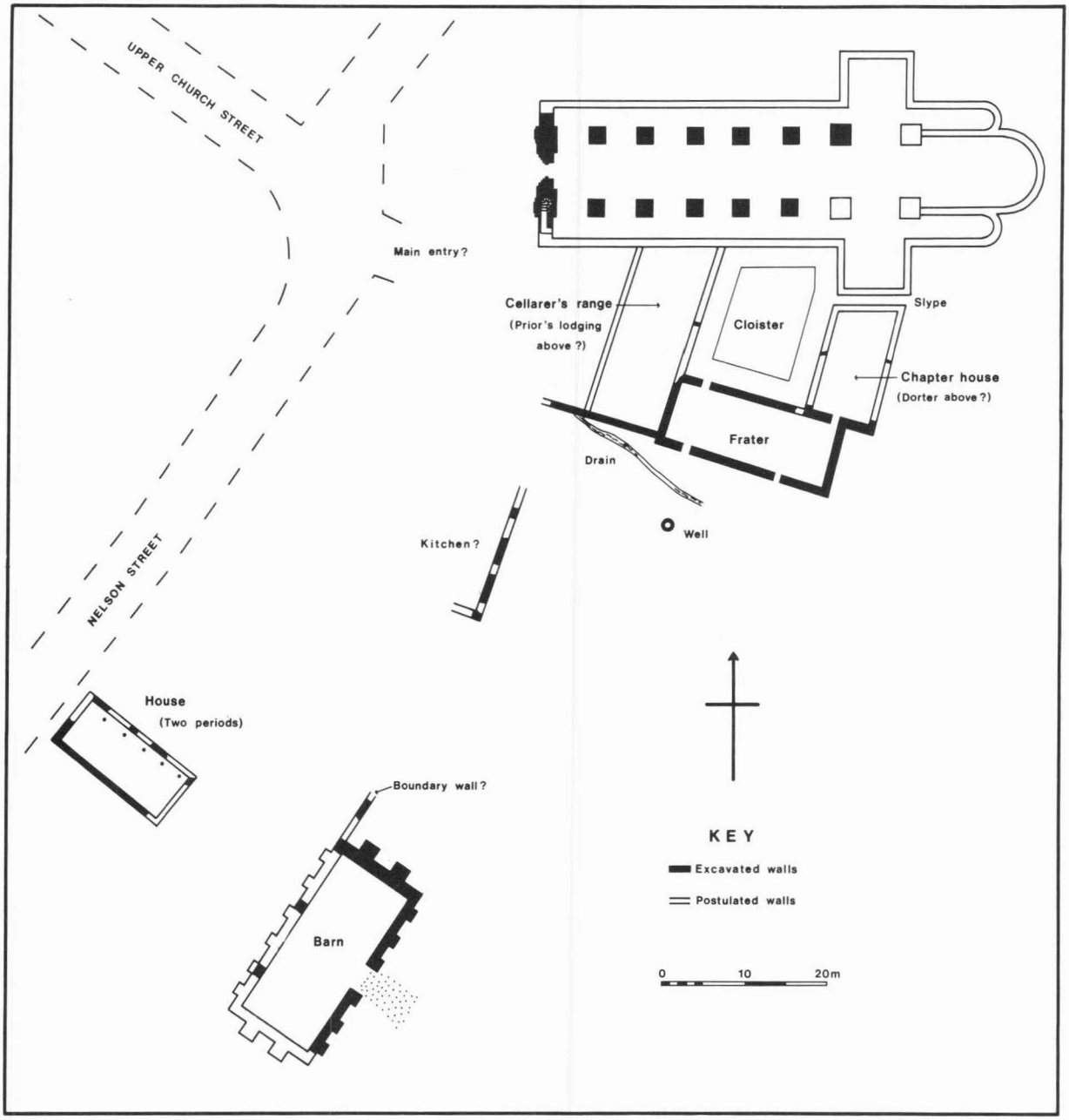

Fig. 79. The Priory: the 13th and 14th century alterations.

dovecot but there were doubtless many other buildings for animals and storage. As an example, the small priory of Nunkeeling in Yorkshire contained five barns for different types of grain, a malthouse, a mill, a slaughter house, a pigsty, separate sheds for oxen, cows, and calves, two stables, a smithy and a henhouse (Gilyard Beer 1958, 36). Any similar buildings at Chepstow would probably have been to the south of the cloistral buildings and may have been entirely timber-framed and thus difficult to identify in the machine-cut trenches.

To the west of the church and the west range would have been the main entry, possibly leading through the precinct wall in front of the western doorway of the church to give easy access to parishioners attending services. The grounds would have been cultivated with kitchen gardens, herb gardens, orchards, probably a vineyard, and possibly arable or pasture land.

The priory grounds and orchards in the immediate area of the priory church are uncertain but the limits suggested by Waters are as follows. He considers that the precinct wall ran up the south-east side of Nelson Street and crossed to the School Hill just above the present Masonic hall (opposite the small lane, Oxford Street). It then continued up the School Hill as far as the Port Wall. The area of some two acres at the top of the hill was called Culverhouse Close in 1573 and the lower slopes were Prior's Hill or Prior's Mead (Waters 1975, 131–33). Waters also mentions that the prior had a dovecot at the top of School Hill.

Further down the hill, towards the priory church, 'the priory orchard and two priory fields' which formerly occupied the area between Nelson Street and the railway, are mentioned in numerous deeds from 1536 (*op. cit.*, 86).

The archaeological evidence from Sites 1 and 6 seems to indicate that the boundary was to the east of Nelson

Street, allowing town development on both sides of the road. One access to the priory would have been close to the church and a second could have been on the line of Orchard Place (p. 50).

If this boundary is correct, the priory grounds may have included a substantial part of the walled town towards the river on the east, and this may provide a partial explanation for the walling of such a large area. The division of the town along this suggested precinct boundary is still very marked and has been accentuated to an even greater extent recently by the construction of the inner relief road.

Even though Chepstow was one of the poorer of the Welsh Benedictine houses, it possessed over 300 acres of grange land and in 1291 drew nearly £34 from its temporalities and spiritualities. It must have assumed an important part in the economy of the borough and the surrounding area.

The economic expansion of the first half of the 13th century was not to last and by 1264 the priory at Monmouth is known to have been in dire financial straits (Graham 1929–30, 108). By the end of the 13th century it would seem likely that Chepstow had passed through a similar series of crises as had occurred at most south Welsh monasteries (Cowley 1977, 229).

It was to be well over 100 years before the priory at Chepstow was to have any substantial alterations or improvements and although the 13th century was probably the most prosperous period, with the greatest number of monks, the period of growth was at an end. Taxation increased in the latter half of the 13th century and, although the monastic barn may have been re-roofed about this time, by the end of the century there were few monks at Chepstow and with the start of the French wars in 1295, the long period of decline had begun.

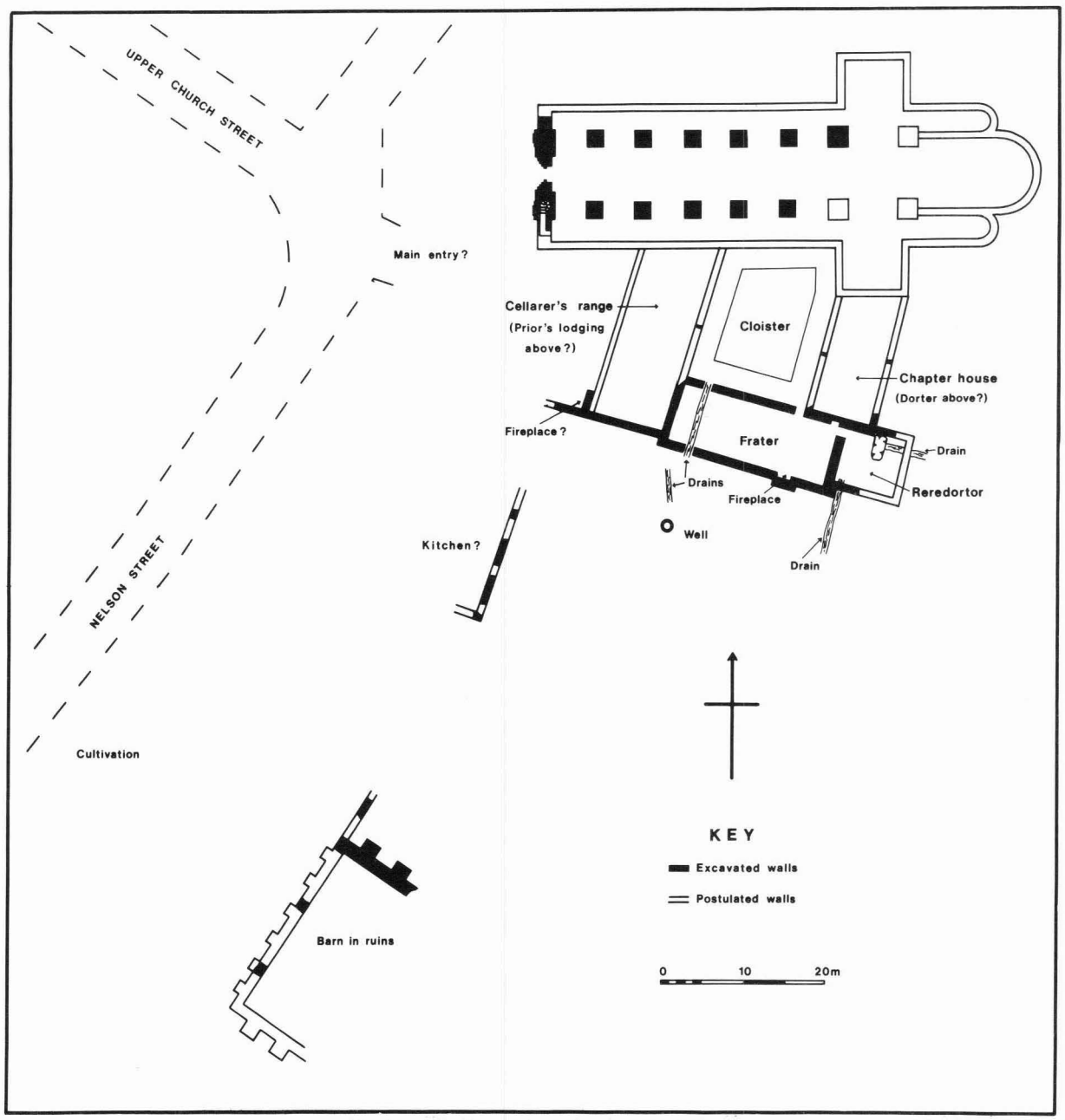

Fig. 80. The Priory: the 15th century revival.

The excavations have indicated that the south-western wall of the monastic barn needed increasingly complex shoring as time went on, and that from the late 13th century to the late 14th century, if not later, the frater was apparently disused, the few surviving monks presumably making use of the prior's lodging. The Nelson Street house was reconstructed with a timber face but was apparently demolished by the middle of the 14th century.

From 1336 the war with France was continuous and between 1348 and 1379 the Black Death affected the country. The former affected the income of the alien priories, additional taxes being charged and, from time to time, commissioners being appointed, whilst the latter was particularly severe in close-knit monastic communities. Chepstow, with inferior, shallow drainage, may well have been more than normally susceptible. At the end of the 14th century, Chepstow Priory's fortunes were at their lowest ebb and between 1394 and 1398 there were no monks resident at all.

The 15th-century revival

(Fig. 80)

At the beginning of the 15th century the fortunes of the priory gradually revived with the restoration to Simon de Bristol and the attachment to Bermondsey. Although there is little documentary evidence for the last 100 or so years of the life of the priory, the archaeological work has shown that it continued in use, and that improvements were carried out.

It was probably during the first few years of the 15th century that the frater range was refurbished: a drain was run through the building underneath the floor; a fireplace was inserted in the south wall and a reredorter or latrine block was added to the east with a doorway leading directly from the frater. The latrine was a simple cesspit with an overflow drain and possibly a storm water drain for flushing. Fireplaces may also have been inserted into the western wing, but here the evidence from the excavations was minimal.

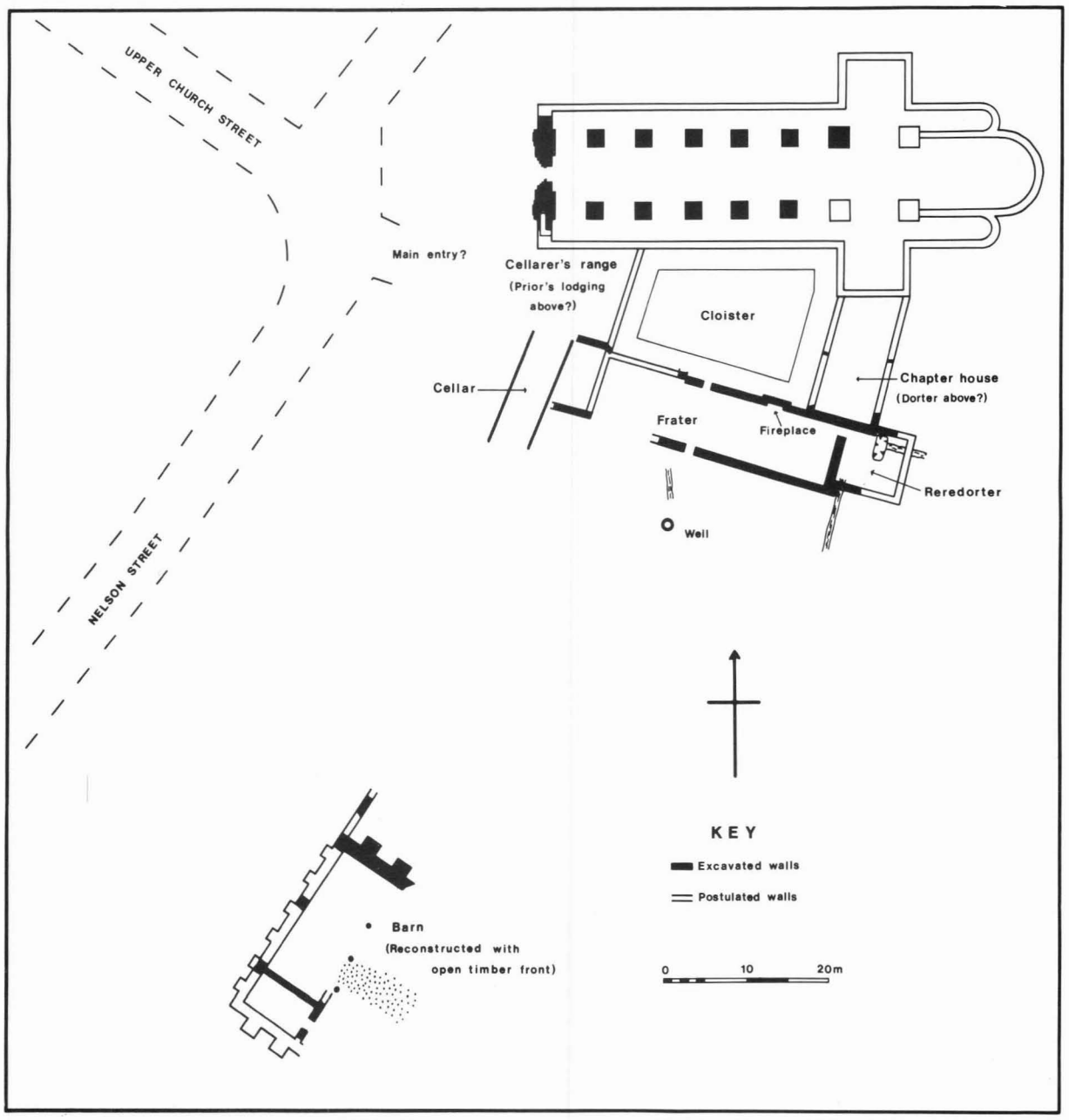

Fig. 81. The Priory: the final fifty years.

The monastic barn on Site 11, which had been shored up during the 14th century, apparently fell into ruin and was disused for much of the 15th century. The Site 6 area apparently reverted to cultivation (p. 34).

The restoration of the frater and addition of the reredorter may have followed the regularization of Chepstow's position by becoming a dependency of Bermondsey allowing the monks to be transferred from time to time from Bermondsey to the priory at Chepstow.

The introduction of a fireplace into the frater was a common feature of the late 14th and 15th centuries with the gradual departure from the strictness of the Benedictine Rule and the general desire for better standards of material comfort.

The final fifty years

(Fig. 81)

There appears to have been, over the country as a whole, an Indian Summer of monastic building during the late 15th and early 16th centuries which corresponded with a slight increase in the number of monks compared with the nadir of the mid-14th century. Although documentary evidence is entirely lacking, the archaeological evidence has suggested that Chepstow was included in this general refurbishment and that the priory was substantially improved.

It was around 1500 that the frater, by then all of 250 years old, had its final restoration. The fireplace was moved from the south wall to a new position between the two doorways on the north wall and a dais was built for the high table. The open, medieval hall may also have had an inserted first floor with its own fireplace, suggesting that more accommodation was required, possibly to give the monks more privacy than had previously been the case with the typical monastic dormitory.

The alterations in the west wing were apparently even greater. Although only fragments survived in the area excavated, it is suggested that the whole of the early 12th-century western range of buildings was demolished and that a new range was built slightly to the west. This new range may have included a cellar which was later to be used as a bonded wine store, and from its position it looks as if the west range may have been tied into the south-western corner of the church.

The ruined monastic barn was also refurbished, but probably with an open front on the eastern side. It would no longer have been used as a granary and the presence of horseshoes and the higher quantity of equine bones suggests that it had become a stable.

Although it was originally an offence against the rule of St Benedict to eat meat (Knowles 1963, 458), this rule was apparently often broken (Cowley 1977, 103) and did not apply to the sick in the infirmary (Knowles 1963, 462). By the middle of the 14th century meat was eaten more frequently and it would seem reasonable to relate the animal bones found in the area of Site 11 to the monastic diet. Pig, which provides both meat and hides, was the most common animal found on the priory site. The thickset bones suggest that the monks may have been keeping pigs in styes although some of the bones could have been from wild animals. It is possible that the monks operated a small tannery at Chepstow. There was also a higher proportion of good meat bones from cattle and a higher proportion of immature cattle bones from the priory site, compared with other sites, which implies that choice meat cuts were being used for consumption. The presence of goose, fowl, and partridge gives some indication of the varied diet. There were few fish bones.

The priory at Chepstow was poor as compared with other Benedictine houses in South Wales. The conventual buildings were never of the same architectural distinction as the priory church and it would appear that, throughout most of its life, the priory had less than the statutory minimum number of twelve monks and a prior. It is now evident that at the Dissolution the conventual buildings were demolished on the order of the king, leaving only the nave of the church for the use of the parish.

THE PRIORY AND THE TOWN

The Prior of Chepstow probably had little authority in the borough because of the influence of the castle and its lord. However, he apparently controlled some borough property, as is indicated in the *Inquisitio* of Roger Bigod III (p. 7) and the *Valor Ecclesiasticus* (Dugdale 1846).

The whole of the monastic precinct was probably walled off from the town and the citizens would only have had access to the nave of the parish church. Thus, as with most monastic settlements, the priory would have had little effect on the life of the town apart from the constraints its location would have placed on the growth and development of the borough.

The apparent total lack of development in the part of the walled town to the south-east of Nelson Street and Lower Church Street, as indicated on both Millerd's plan (Fig. 4) and Coxes's plan (Fig. 5), doubtless reflects the area of the priory grounds. The position of the 13th-century Port Wall was probably chosen to follow the best defensive line across the peninsula and the Priory benefited in terms of defence, from the lie of the land.

The most obvious constraint on the developing town plan of Chepstow, imposed by the priory and its grounds, probably occurred at a very early stage in the history of the borough. It has already been suggested (p. 161) that one would have expected to find the town centred on a road leading from the castle to the church. At a maximum such a road could only have been 200m long, insufficient to accommodate a growing borough. Cross roads would have been necessary for growth and thus even from the origins of the borough, the position of the priory *vis-à-vis* the castle would have been one of the major governing factors in the development of the street plan.

THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROBLEMS AND POTENTIAL OF CHEPSTOW

The excavations in Chepstow between 1971 and 1974 were designed to increase the total store of knowledge about two specific features in the medieval landscape of Chepstow — the Port Wall and the Benedictine Priory. They were not planned as a sampling exercise to establish the quality of the archaeological deposits in the town nor were they intended to give a wide picture of the origins and development of the peninsula site.

At the time when the excavations took place there had been no assessment of Chepstow's archaeological potential, and there was no research policy for the area. In 1974, a report on the archaeological implications of development in Chepstow was produced for the Department of the Environment (Wilson 1974). This was not published, but in 1975 the Urban Research Unit of the Department of Archaeology at University College, Cardiff made use of the 1974 work in its own report on 'The Archaeological Implications of Redevelopment in the Historic Towns of Monmouth District' (Delaney and Soulsby 1975). The earlier report contains plans showing listed buildings, archaeological finds, cellared areas, areas of recent and proposed development and the settlement pattern after Millerd (Fig. 4). A series of photographs show listed buildings under threat and open areas, several of which have since been developed with no prior archaeological investigation. The Urban Research Unit report contains two maps, the first being a composite historical map based on Millerd with archaeological details superimposed and the second showing the conservation area and recent and proposed development. Both reports list anticipated redevelopment proposals (now out of date) and the Urban Research Unit report also includes a list of archaeological problems and potential.

Considerable research would be necessary to establish the probable extent of development as a result of the recent decision to build a new road bridge across the Wye immediately to the north of the present railway bridge. The bridge will join the inner by-pass by means of a new road running diagonally across the old cattle market to the junction of Nelson Street and Station Road (Fig. 1) (Editor's note: this road and bridge have now been built). It would, however, seem appropriate, because of this planned and potential development, to conclude this volume with a discussion of the archaeological potential of the town.

The Roman occupation in the Chepstow area and the Roman material which has been found in the immediate vicinity of the town has already been discussed and described (pp. 156–60). There is certainly sufficient volume and variety to suggest settlement of some kind, and possibly of more than one period, somewhere on the peninsula. Three areas for further investigation can be suggested on the present evidence: the lower part of the town, in the vicinity of St Ann Street and The Back and the lower parts of Bridge Street and Upper Church Street, which would have been the most favourable situation for buildings associated with a river crossing; the alignment of Upper Church Street, Nelson Street and Newport Road, which may reflect the line of a Roman road leading to a river crossing (p. 160); and the area outside the Port Wall in the vicinity of Green Street where a Roman rubbish pit was found (p. 159).

Although archaeological work has taken place in areas adjoining the late 13th-century Port Wall, there is still no defensive sequence in the town. It would seem very likely that Chepstow, which was an important town in the 12th and early 13th centuries, would have had an earlier defence than the Port Wall in common with most other Welsh border boroughs, even those which were much smaller than Chepstow. The excavations have apparently demonstrated that the Port Wall did not replace an earlier structure so we must look to a different line for these postulated 12th-century works. Earlier in this volume (p. 162) it has been suggested that such a line may be represented in part by the present Station Road, which is almost exactly in alignment with the bank which crosses Castle Dell, south-west of the castle from the square tower on the Port Wall. It would seem that this area in Castle Dell is one where a small excavation may help to solve some of the problems associated with the town defences.

It has been noted that Millerd's map for 1686 (Fig. 4) shows far fewer burgages than the A.D. 1306 figure of 308 and from this it is suggested that the town may have contracted in size, especially in the northern part, and that Church Road may have originally continued northward to reach the modern St Ann Street (Delaney and Soulsby 1975, 4.4.4). Earlier in this volume it is also suggested that Upper Church Street may originally have continued north-westwards as far as the castle (p. 161). Using Coxe's and Millerd's maps (Figs. 4 and 5) in conjunction with modern boundaries other possible street lines can be postulated and it is evident that the full extent and street pattern of the medieval town is in some doubt. Selective small excavations in critical areas may well help to elucidate these problems.

Although it has been shown that parts of the hillside, down which most of Chepstow's streets are laid, were terraced to take medieval houses (Site 6: p. 27), and that the terracing may have been altered in places in the 18th and 19th centuries, it does not follow that medieval house plans cannot be established. Careful choice of areas and the avoidance of recent cellars may well produce sites with well stratified medieval levels, possibly buried under later terracing. It is certainly unwise to assume that there has been anything like total destruction of burgage plots.

One problem which was not mentioned in the 1975 review is the extent and development of the medieval port of Chepstow. The port almost certainly grew hand-in-hand with the town and the castle and continued in use until the 19th century. Early prints and documentary sources indicate that wharves were present from the castle on the west through to the railway bridge to the east and, in the 19th and 20th centuries, along the eastern side of the peninsula (Waters 1977b).

The position of most of the medieval wharves, between the road and railway bridges, is along part of the river which is very susceptible to silting on the Chepstow bank and indeed, further to the east beyond the railway bridge, the line of the 19th-century wharves can be seen well inland from the present low water line. It is very probable that, in common with many other ports, whenever a new wharf was built on the Chepstow frontage it was constructed well in front of the earlier one to take advantage of the deeper channels in the river. If this is the case then excavation of the river frontage areas in Chepstow could be as equally rewarding as those which have taken place in other important ports dating back to the Norman Conquest.

The areas of greatest archaeological potential in Chepstow are mainly in the northern part of the town, in the large gardens between Lower Church Street and Bridge Street and in the plots adjacent to the river. If sites are chosen with care, it is within these areas that many of the problems outlined above will be resolved.

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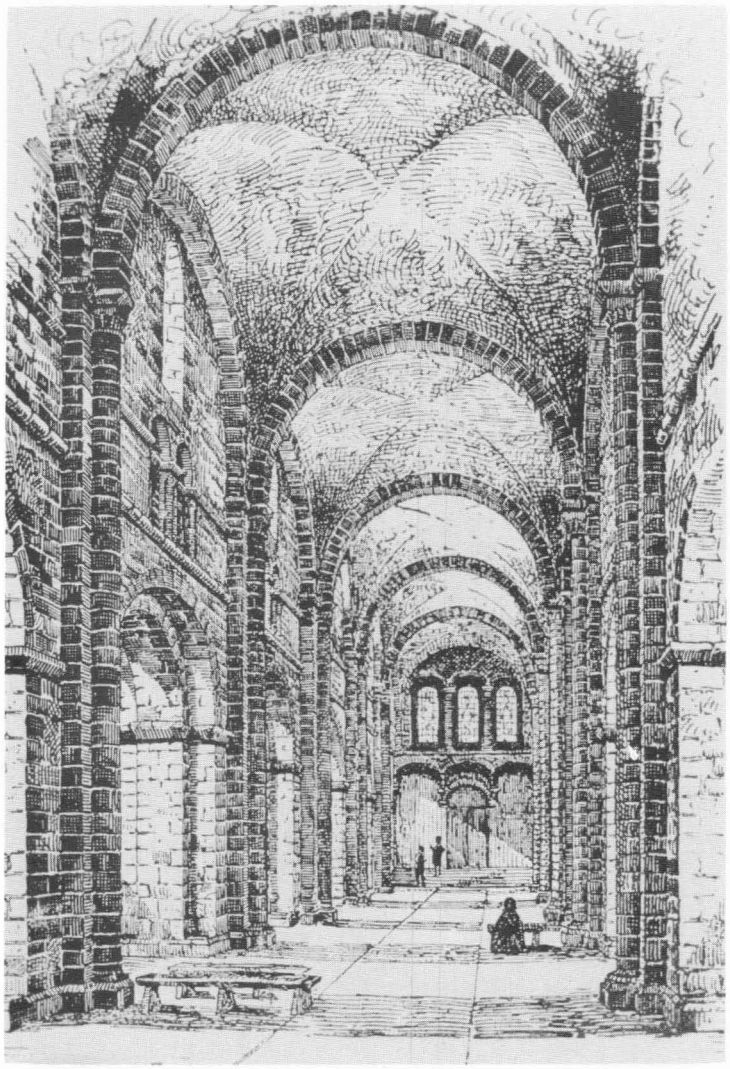


Plate 1 Drawing of the nave of the Priory Church, looking west, before the restoration, (Hensley, 1911).

Plate 2 Site 3: the Port Wall and mural tower on completion of excavation.

Plate 3 Site 2: section through the Port Wall at the breach.

Plate 4 Site 6: the site during excavation from the north.

Plate 5 Site 1: Period 1. Foundation trench, F45, for the Roman shrine overlain by the Period 3 wall F28. From the south-east.

Plate 6 Site 1: Period 1. Foundation trench, F45, for the Roman shrine overlain by the Period 3 wall F28. From the north-east.

Plate 7 Site 11: Period 1a ditch F56 from the east with wall F4 of Period 3a in the background.

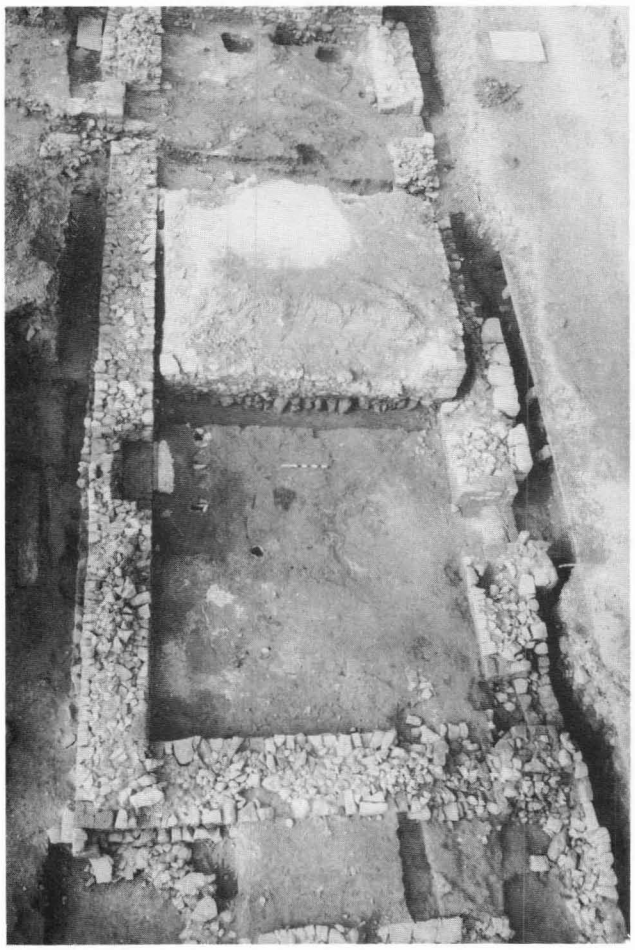
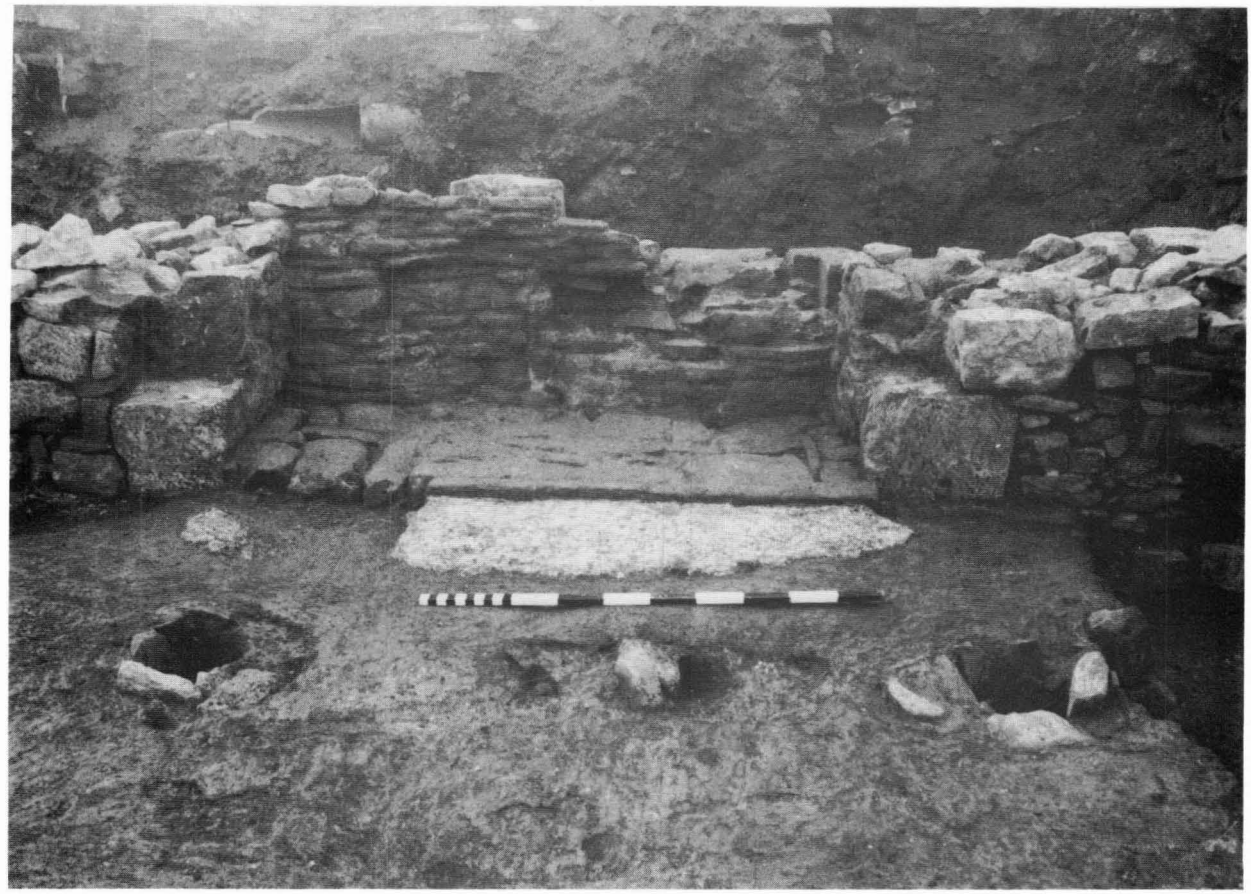


Plate 8 Site 11: the site from the east during excavation.



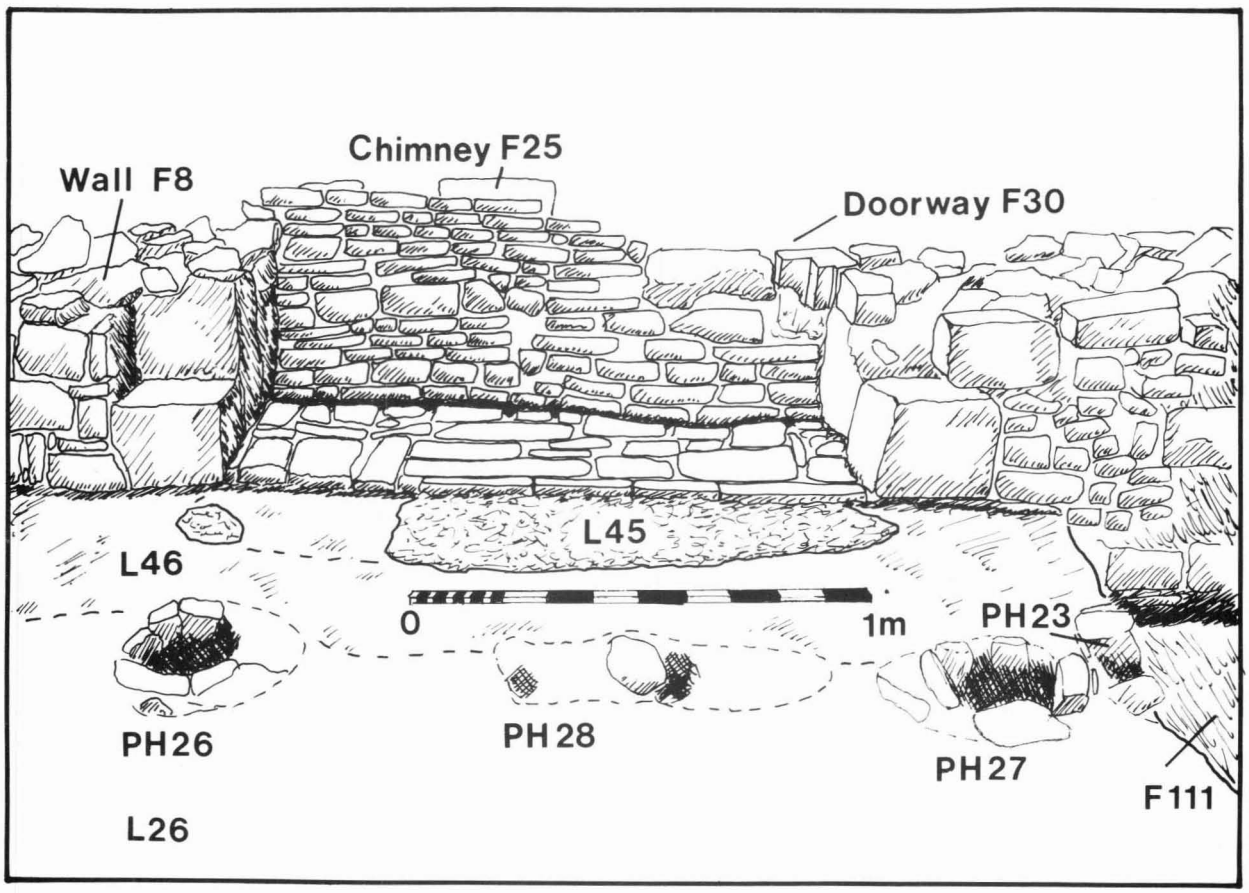


Plate 10 Site 11: Period 3b fireplace F40 and Period 3c postholes, from the north.

Plate 9 Site 11: the Period 3b drain, F52, from the north.

Plate 11 Site 11: Period 3c. The eastern area.

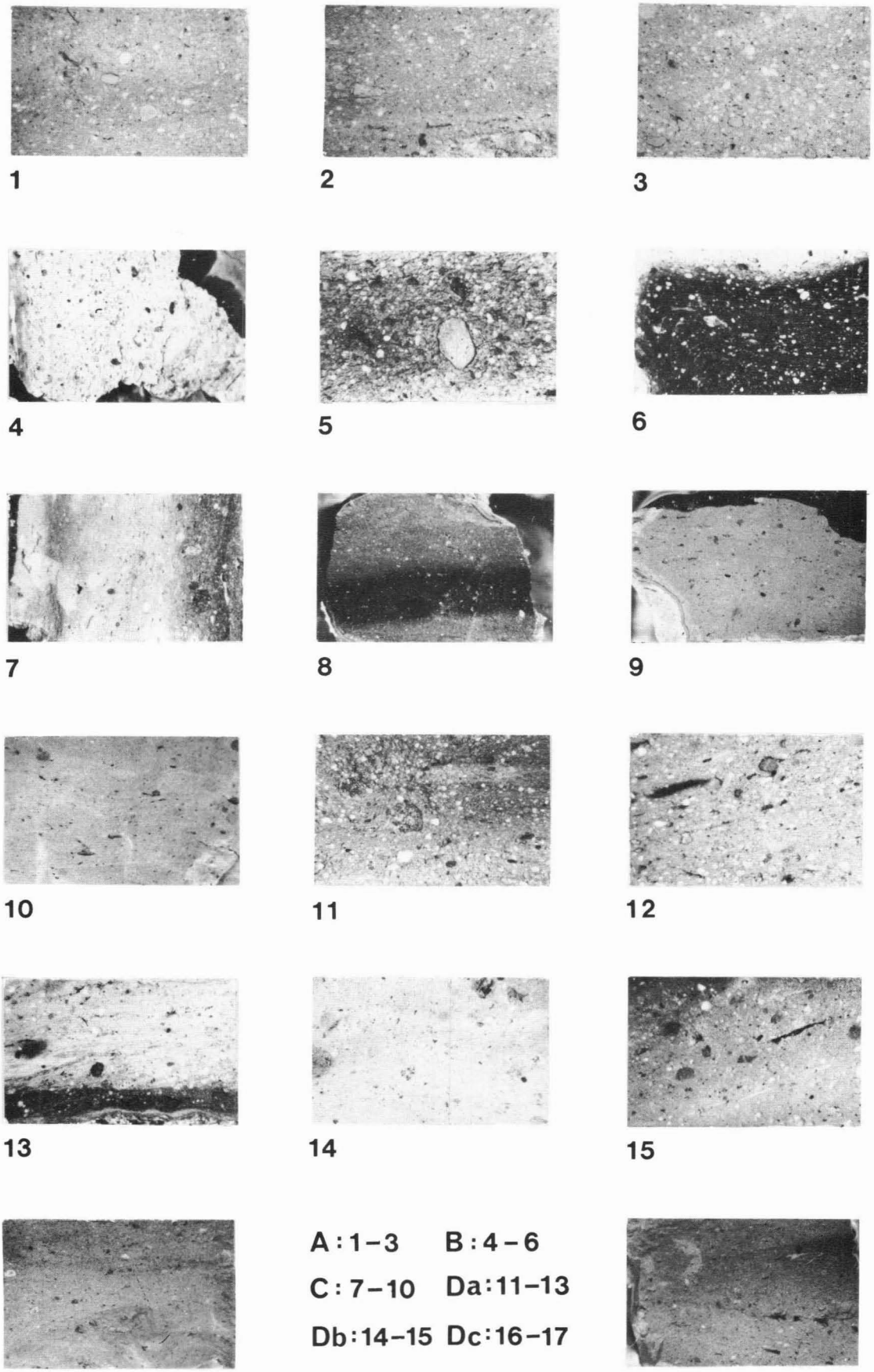


Plate 12 The ridge tile photomicrographs. Fabrics A–D.

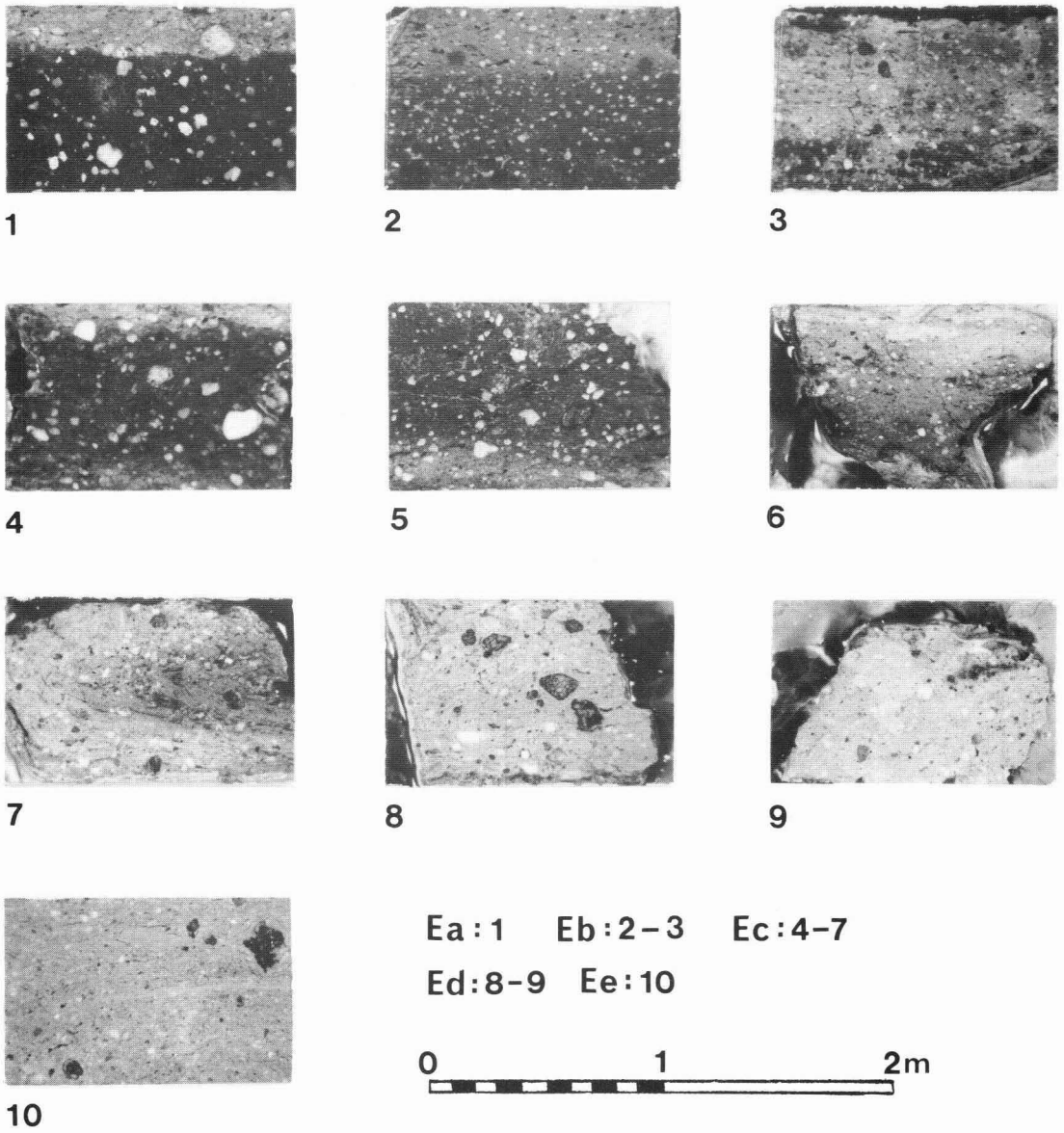


Plate 13 The ridge tile photomicrographs. Fabric E.

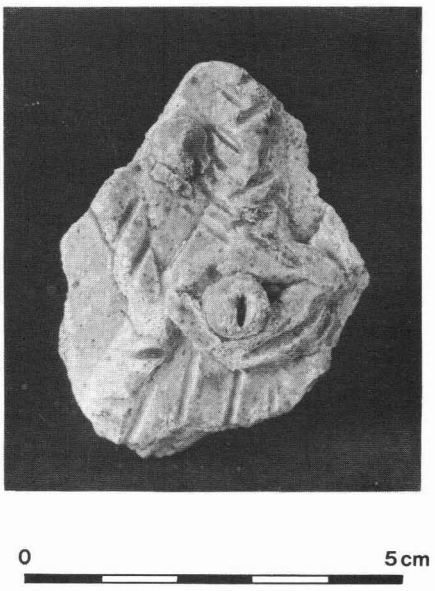


Plate 14 Body sherd of fabric Jc (Ham Green Ware). See Fig. 54.24.

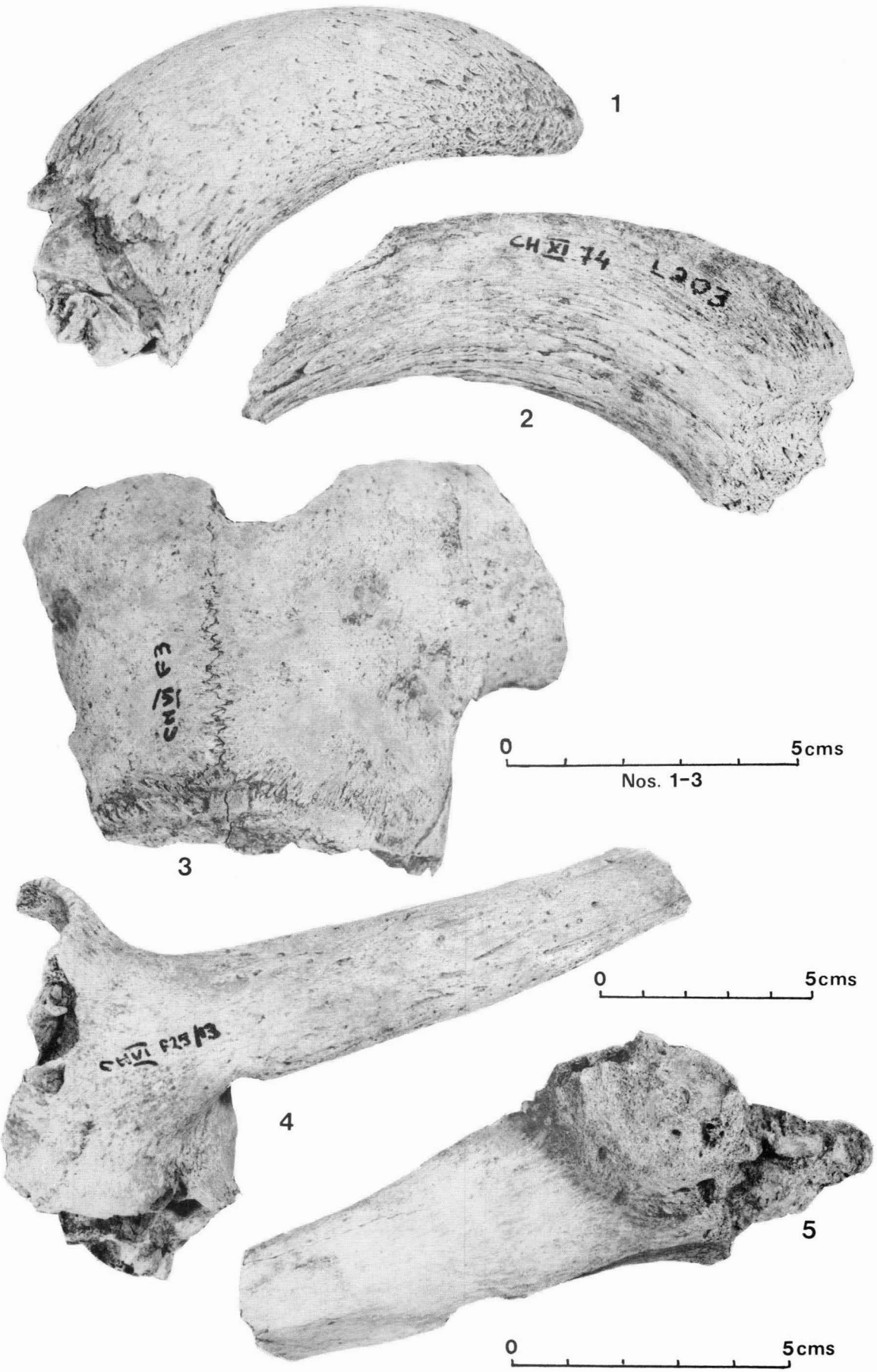


Plate 15 1. Bovine horn core showing proportions and curvature typical of this site.
2. Massive horn core from a male sheep.
3. Frontal bones of a sheep bearing a small scur instead of a horn. Presumed to come from a wether.
4. Horn core from a male goat.
5. Rib of a large animal, presumed bovine showing massive osteomylitis and with abscess formation.


Ship Builders Yard
Dead Yard
Timber Wharf
Brick Yard