JOHN MOORE HERITAGE SERVICES

AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL EXCAVATION

AT

ALL SAINTS' CHURCH, FARINGDON

OXFORDSHIRE

On behalf of

Parochial Parish Council

NOVEMBER 2014

REPORT FOR	The Parochial Church Council All Saints' Church Faringdon 8 Westland Road Faringdon SN7 7EY
PREPARED BY	Linzi Harvey, Simona Denis and Gwilym Williams with contributions by Jane Timby, Paul Blinkhorn Stephen Yeates, Martin Henig, Andrej • elovský and David Gilbert
ILLUSTRATION BY	Thomasz Moskal, Andrej • elovský, Gwilym Williams and Autumn Robson
COPYEDITING BY	David Gilbert
APPROVED BY	John Moore
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ENQUIRES TO	John Moore Heritage Services Hill View Woodperry Road Beckley Oxfordshire OX3 9UZ Tel/Fax 01865 358300 Email: info@jmheritageservices.co.uk
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John Moore Heritage Services undertook an excavation on the north side of All Saints Church, Faringdon, within the footprint of the proposed Barber Rooms, between May and September 2013. This was carried out as part of the applicant's grant of planning permission. Although the original condition attached to the planning permission was for a watching brief, it was agreed to undertake the exercise as a set-piece excavation ahead of the start of groundworks in order to minimise any potential delay to the construction schedule.

A total of 341 individuals were lifted, in addition to significant quantities of charnel. The charnel recovered comprised c 2m³ of mixed human bone, indicating that the overall total of historic inhumations was undoubtedly in excess of the number of present burials. The date of the earliest burials is uncertain, although a significant proportion of the burials investigated dated from the post-medieval period, with a number of inhumations also characterised by coffin furniture.

Rural Anglican cemeteries have been less frequently subject to archaeological investigation than urban churchyards, primarily on account of there being generally less pressure on space in respect of development needs. The data-set from All Saints, Faringdon, therefore, provides an important corresponding population to those excavated urban, Dissenting and Catholic cemeteries for the investigation of mortality rates, nutritional factors, disease, dentition and so forth in the later medieval, early modern and modern periods.

In contrast with the generally held impression of life in the medieval and later periods being largely nasty, brutish and short, the population data indicates good medical care in the case of several individuals; an amputee, a possible cancer-sufferer as well as a number of other individuals with less unusual pathologies were recovered during the excavation. There is also good representation of sub-adult remains.

The excavation also revealed that during the use of the area as a cemetery, it had temporarily functioned as a building site, associated with the construction of the Pye Chapel. A spread of mortar-rich material containing late 13th/early 14th-century floor tile and 15th-century pottery was found, heavily truncated in places by later graves. No other associated features were recovered.

Under the cemetery were a number of pits and ditches, dating from possibly the Roman period to the 11th or 12th centuries. The relationship between these features and the Late Saxon church, or postulated minster, is unclear.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Site location *(Figure 1)*

The site was located on the north side of the town of Faringdon in the core of the historic town (SP 8687 5596 centred). The proposal site is located on the north side of the church within the churchyard on a plateau above gently sloping ground at an approximate height of *c*. 109m AOD overlooking Church Street. The area of the proposal site is approximately 300m². The underlying geology according the Geological Survey of Great Britain (Sheet 253) is Corallian sand and limestone although clay was found during the previous evaluation by auger in Trench 2.

1.2 Planning Background

Planning permission (12/00494/FUL) was granted by Vale of White Horse District Council for the construction of new meeting rooms for the parish. The Diocese of Oxford has granted a faculty for this. An archaeological evaluation was carried out prior to granting of the planning permission (Carlsson 2010).

Due to the finding of significant below ground archaeological deposits a condition was attached requiring that a programme of archaeological recording was undertaken as part of the groundworks. Oxfordshire County Archaeological Services (OCAS) – now Oxfordshire Historic and Natural Environment Team (OHaNET) – on behalf of the local planning authority, outlined their requirements and proposed a methodology.

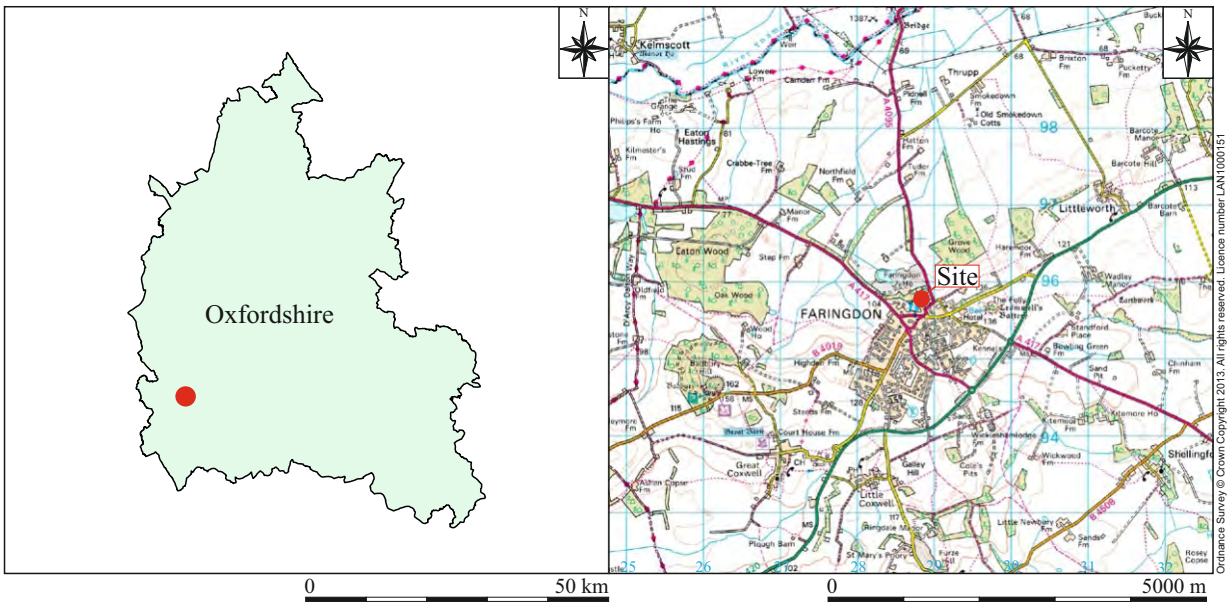
Richard Griffiths Architects, however, advised against the recommended methodology outlined originally by the county and proposed an alternative strategy of excavation. JMHS supported such a methodology and prepared a *Written Scheme of Investigation* outlining the revised methodology by which the work would be carried out in order to achieve the aims of the further works. This was submitted to and agreed with the Oxfordshire County Archaeologist.

1.3 Archaeological Background

All Saints Church was originally constructed in the 12th century on the site of a postulated Late Saxon minster church. The nave and lower part of the crossing tower date from this period, with the chancel, north transept, and upper part of the tower date added in the 13th century.

During the 14th century a chapel and west aisle were added to the north transept. Further alterations were carried out in the 15th century, including the building of the north-east chapel. The top of the tower and spire were removed in 1645 and the result is an unusually low structure.

Around 1853 JW Hugall, who had moved south from Yorkshire in the late 1840s, rebuilt the south aisle and south transept. A vestry and baptistry were also added on the north side of the church. The building is Listed Grade I.



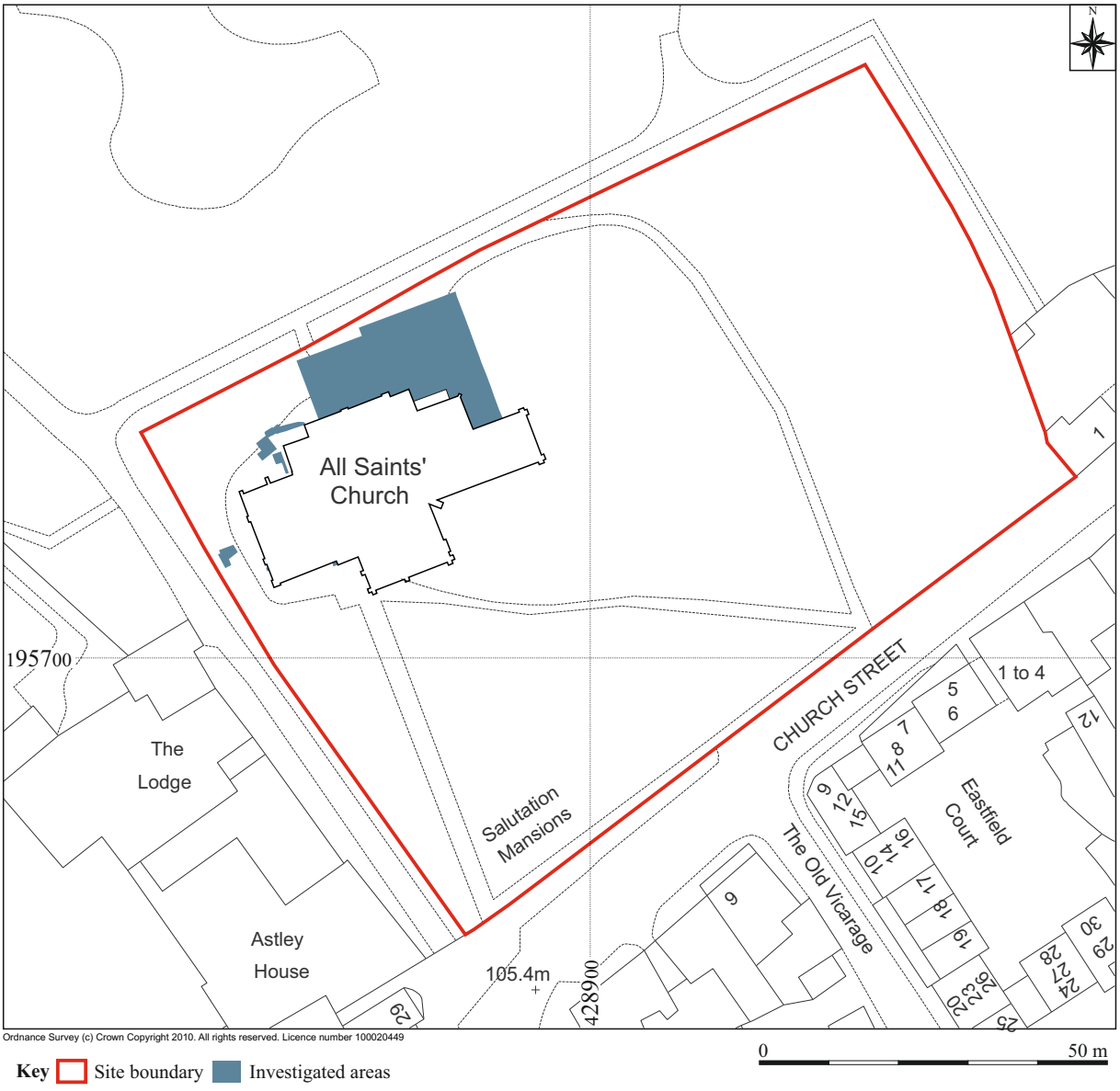


Figure 1: Site location

An evaluation (Carlsson 2010) and an assessment of the churchyard (Yeates 2012) were previously undertaken by John Moore Heritage Services to inform the Parochial Church Council of the archaeological potential of the site.

2 AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION

The aims of the investigation as laid out in the Written Scheme of Investigation were as follows:

- to record and lift, the human remains that will be impacted on by the groundworks. In addition artefacts will be collected to attempt to securely date the remains.

3 STRATEGY

3.1 Research Design

The work carried out at All Saints, Faringdon was carried out within the structure of a three-part programme of works. The first phase had consisted of archaeological field evaluation carried out in 2010 (Carlsson 2010), in which the presence of human remains was established within the footprint of the proposed Barber Rooms.

The second phase comprised an archaeological desk-based assessment (Yeates 2012) as concern had been raised – despite the evaluation – that the location of the proposed new build would overlie a postulated Civil War battery emplacement, in addition to significantly impacting negatively upon the footpaths which surround the church. The desk-based assessment clarified that the raised area of soil was not related to the Civil Wars, and that the footpaths, were probably recent.

The third phase was initially indicated to comprise a watching brief exercise during groundworks, which was recommended by the county and with which the Diocesan Archaeologist and Solicitor were in agreement as an appropriate methodology.

The lead architect at Richard Griffiths Architects expressed disquiet with the unquantifiable potential risk which such a methodology entailed. The Parochial Church Council approached John Moore Heritage Services and requested an alternative excavation-driven approach instead of one which was groundwork-led.

In response, JMHS prepared a Written Scheme of Investigation, which was submitted and agreed with both Oxfordshire County Archaeological Service and the Diocese of Oxford's Archaeological Advisor.

This document would appear not to have been cleared with the Diocesan Solicitor, as in principle a request was required to be made by the PCC, on behalf of JMHS, in advance for the lifting of each set of human remains; following communication, batches of twenty to forty bodies were eventually permitted to be lifted.

Site procedures for the investigation and recording of potential archaeological deposits and features were defined in the *Written Scheme of Investigation*. The work was carried out in accordance with the standards specified by the Institute of Field Archaeologists (1994) and the principles of MAP2 (English Heritage 1991).

3.2 Methodology

As noted above Richard Griffiths Architects advised against the methodology which was recommended by the county. Instead of the on-site presence of an archaeologist during groundworks, which would have been the outcome of following a watching brief methodology, it was proposed to treat the archaeological excavation of human remains as a separate exercise which would prepare the proposal area for subsequent groundworks.

As a consequence, the site was initially cleared of gravestones by a team of archaeologists using a mini-digger. Small works were carried out at the same time at the front where a low table tomb lay in the ambit of plant. These were lifted and recorded, prior to being relocated along the north wall of the present graveyard; these will be reset in the future here, where it will be apparent that they are not monuments to burials in the vicinity.

Excavation progressed by means of machine-scraping of the upper horizons of cemetery soils. Occasional child burials were revealed in the upper layer just below the topsoil, but for the most part, *c* 0.8-1m was removed above the uppermost of the mass of burials.

4 RESULTS *by Gwilym Williams*

All deposits and features were assigned individual context numbers. Context numbers without brackets indicate features i.e. pit cuts; while numbers in ( ) show feature fills or deposits of material. CBM refers to undifferentiated ceramic building material, which could be brick, tile or daub.

4.1 Fieldwork

Fieldwork methodology
The site was excavated to the uppermost level of burials. This exercise involved the mechanical removal, with a 5-tonne mini-digger and a dumper, of *c*. 0.6m of topsoil (101) and upper cemetery soils (102). The remains revealed were investigated, cleaned and lifted. In selected areas machine-reduction of the cemetery soil (155) continued, whereas in the central and eastern part of the site hand-excavation was instigated, which followed as the main form of excavation in those areas.

Additionally, on the south side of the excavation area, it was decided in late June to start the excavation of a trench on the south side of the proposed Barber Rooms to ascertain the potential quantity of human remains which remained to be lifted. This d ecision was taken in part due to pressure being exerted on All Saints Parochial Church Council, by the Diocesan authorities who had not foreseen the exposure of so many

skeletons in the course of a building project in the graveyard, to establish the quantity of human remains present.

When it became clear that the number of skeletons was exceeding by far the estimates made prior to the decision to excavate, permission was sought from the IfA to take on Forensic Archaeology graduates and students from Cranfield University as volunteers. The total number of graduates/students to volunteer was 12, although two volunteers were subsequently taken on as full-time employees. The volunteers lifted 34 of the 341 inhumations.

In the last 10 days of fieldwork, amongst the last burials it became clear that there was a limited amount of earlier archaeological remains present on the site. The site was re-stripped to the natural layer of degraded Corallian limestone/dirty white clay (103), which was apparent across the site.

Cut into this deposit were three ditches, of which two were undated, a short stub of gully, two pits and a posthole; excavation of the archaeological features was carried out.

Residual material
There was a low-level background presence of ?Iron Age and Roman pottery. It is possible that this relates to some of the undated features present under the cemetery, although as these were undated it cannot be certain. Equally, in some cases, the early pottery may well have been introduced as a result of the importation of soil from elsewhere in Faringdon.

Circumstantial evidence for partial cemetery clearance exists in the form of charnel pits, a number of which were noted within the investigation area. These usually occur when burials are too close to the surface and human remains are exposed. In tandem with the process of clearing exposed remains – some of which at Faringdon were partially articulated – it was common practice to raise the contemporary ground level with the importation of new soil. The origin of such imported material is unknown, and may well be the source for some of the Roman pottery found in later graves.

Roman/Saxon dated feature *(fig. 2)*
The earliest feature was the sub-rectangular pit 738, which measured 2.6m × 0.9m and was *c*. 0.25m deep; it was filled with friable dark brown grey clay silt, with comminuted charcoal and limestone fragments (737) through it. Six sherds of pottery, weighing 161g, were recovered from the fill; four of the sherds, weighing 152g, in a grog-tempered fabric, were from a Roman storage jar, as well as a non-descript Roman sherd, weighing 5g, while a further sherd was identified as a Saxon grass-tempered ware, weighing 4g.

It is not easy to characterise this feature. At first glance, it appears to be either a Roman pit with an intrusive sherd of Saxon pottery, or a Saxon pit with significant quantities of residual Roman pottery. In light of the features dimensions and the spread of both Roman and Saxon pottery in later grave fills, there exists, indeed, a third possibility: that the cut 738 was excavated as a grave and never used. If this were the case, which is not impossible, then it belongs to the period of cemetery use.

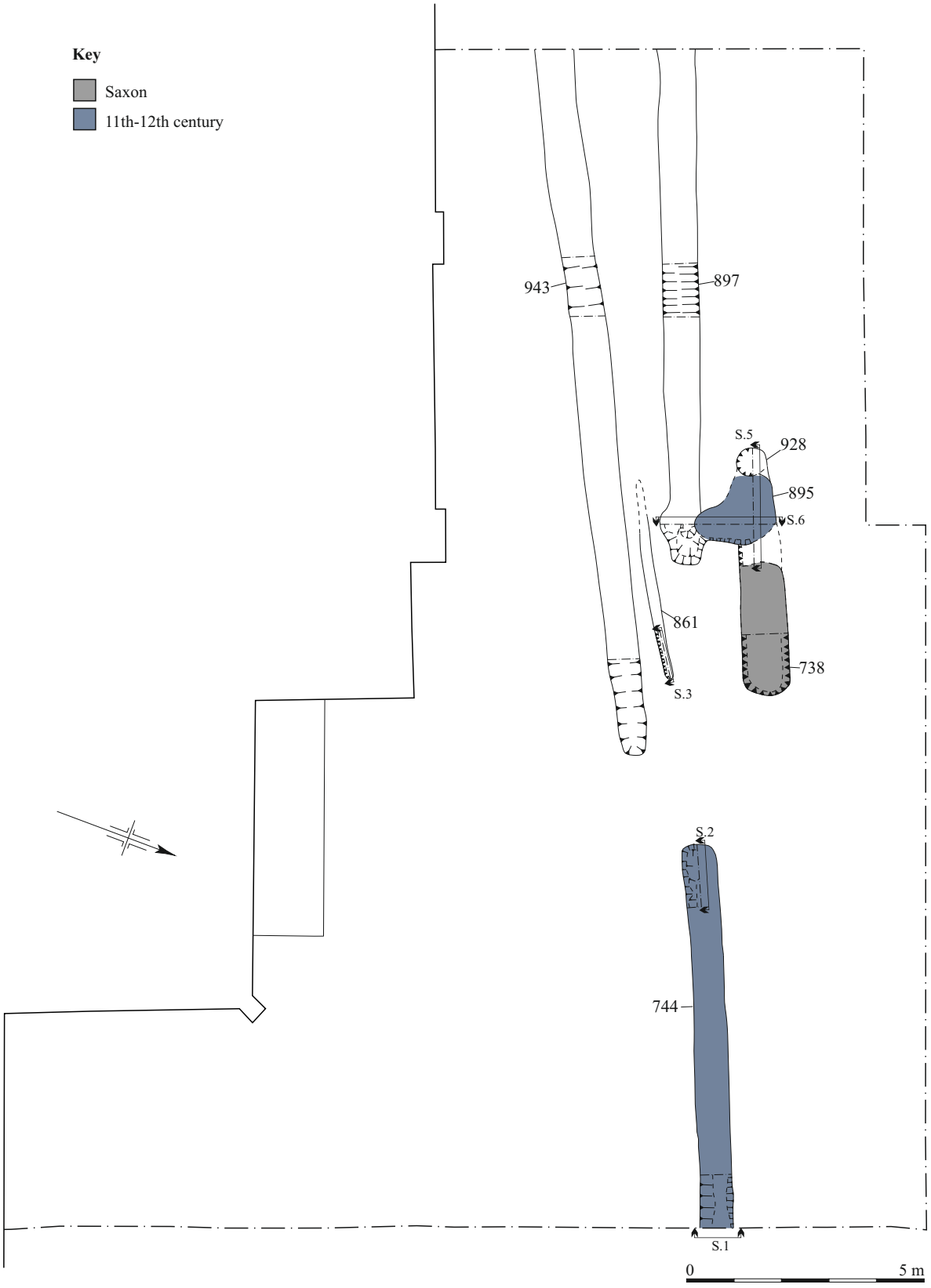


Figure 2: Excavation area showing Saxon and 11th–12th-century features

Late Saxon/early medieval

There were two other dated features, both of which date from the middle to late 11th century onwards. Both features are dated by long-lived wares: Cotswold-type ware, which is in use between the late 10th and mid 14th centuries, and North-East Wiltshire ware, a fabric which first emerges in the mid 11th century and goes out of use by the 15th century.

Immediately adjacent to the sub-rectangular cut 738 was the pit 895, which was a round L-shape, with an irregular base. It measured *c*. 1.4m × 1.2m and was a maximum of 0.4m deep. It was filled with friable dark brown grey clay silt, with comminuted charcoal and limestone fragments (737) through it. Pottery recovered from the ditch-fill comprised both Roman and Saxon sherds.

The ditch 744 which was oriented east/west, was more than 7.6m long and 0.7m wide, and filled with friable mid brown grey clay silt, limestone fragments (743) through it. The fill, which was not dissimilar to the fill of the pit 738, appeared to be tipping from the north. It yielded a sherd of Cotswold-type ware pottery, weighing 30g, in addition to a sherd of Saxon organic-tempered pottery, weighing 2g and a sherd of Roman jar, weighing 70g; a fragment of Roman box-tile weighing 117g was also recovered from the ditch. As noted above, although there was clearly an amount of Roman period activity as background noise, there were no features which could be assigned to the Roman period.

The other features were undated. To the west of ditch 744 were two ditches – 943 and 944 – as well as a narrow slot 861 which may well comprise different phases of an opposed enclosure ditch. The eastern terminal of ditch 944 was 5.5m from the western terminal of ditch 744. Ditch 944 was over 10m long and up to 0.7m wide. The eastern terminal was slightly bulbous, but the sides were at *c*. 60°, with a flat base; to the west a second sondages revealed a reasonably shallow ditch *c* 0.1m deep. The natural geological layer of Corallian limestone dropped to the west here, and it is unlikely that the ditch would have been dug more deeply than necessary. It was filled with dark grey clay silt (896) which did not yield any dating material, although a small quantity of animal bone was noted on the context sheet.

Ditch 944 directly opposed ditch 744 and is the best candidate for a corresponding length of enclosure ditch. Ditch 944 is in line with ditch 744 and was broadly similar dimensioned. Certainly, at *c*. 0.7m wide, even if historic topsoil is factored into the equation, the breadth of the ditch was little more than 1-1.5m this hardly represents a significant enclosure ditch.

To the south of ditch 944 was a second, slightly tangential ditch. Ditch 943 was similarly broad, also measuring up to 0.7m across, and was more than 14m long. There are no records for the east end of the ditch, but a sondages excavated to the west indicated a V-shaped cut, *c*. 0.6m wide and 0.25m deep, with three phases of backfilling. The initial dump of mid brown clay silt with stones following the tipline from the south was partly sealed by a mottled deposit of brown clay silt with some natural grey clay through it; the whole was sealed by grey brown clay silt.

Neither the stratigraphical nor the chronological relationship between ditches 943 and 897 was recoverable; however ditches 897 and 744 look to form a larger entity. The gap between ditches 744 and 943 was only 2m, which in the context of anything except a footpath is rather narrow. If the two ditches were part of the same enclosure it is unlikely to have functioned for animals and may well represent an access between Faringdon Manor and the church. Certainly, in more recent times, there was access between the two, evidenced by the door in the present north cemetery wall, which historically was also paralleled by a door in the north wall of the Unton Aisle (Sargent n.d., 15), removed during Victorian works.

Between the ditches 943 and 944 was a short length of gully 861, which was approximately 4m long, although the west end ran out and disappeared. It was 0.25m wide. The records were not available and so it is neither certain what the fill was nor the dimensions of the cut.

To the west of the pit 895 was a shallow posthole 928, which measured *c* 0.5m across and 0.1m deep, filled with mid grey brown silty clay (927). It was not dated.

The upper parts of features predating the cemetery were truncated by the later graveyard activity and only the negative cuts were present. As noted above, the natural Corallian limestone dropped to the west, and although modern ground level was flat, it cannot be certain how much of the ditches and pits was missing.

The features with dating, as did many of the later graves, evidenced both Roman and Saxon pottery. It is not certain whether some of the pottery was residual in much later features; the pit 738 bears an uncanny resemblance to a grave. The other features dated from the 11th century onwards. However, the lack of dating in other adjacent features demands that interpretation of the layout err on the side of caution.

While it is clear that an enclosure is indicated by the presence of the two/three ditches, how they relate to one another, and what is inside, or indeed outside, the enclosure is unclear. It is possible that the ditches define the minster enclosure – although this is unlikely given the narrowness of the ditches; or they define perhaps an enclosure for All Saints. However, the tiplines for ditches 943 and 744 are contradictory: that in 943 tips from the south, whereas in 744 tips from the north.

If this is so, and there is no reason to question this, then it is possible that ditches merely form some form of internal division. While Roman cemeteries in Oxfordshire have been shown to have internal banks to an external ditch (Durham & Rowley 1972; Williams 2013a) it would appear that this is not the case in this situation. As a result, there is no specific reason to identify any of the burials at All Saints as Roman burials within a Roman cemetery.

The burials with early pottery

Nevertheless, there were a limited number of burials excavated which yielded Roman pottery from the grave fill (Fig. 3). There were a total of four such burials: Sk. 227; Sk. 316 and Sk. 317; and Sk. 322. A further single burial – Sk. 226 yielded pottery

with a Saxon date. All five burials were buried in graves which attained the natural limestone.

It is possible that these burials indicate an antecedent cemetery associated with an early minster church at All Saints, or indeed an earlier church. The poor organisation of the burials somewhat militates against such an unequivocal interpretation. Furthermore, Sk. 316 cuts through Sk. 317, which is comparatively unusual in Late Roman cemeteries.

The four grave-cuts are characterised by east/west alignment and the absence of grave-goods or hob nails, the latter from shoes. Paul Booth (2002, 33; 29) points out that the presence of grave-goods or hobnails are largely unusual in the context of Late Roman burial practice in rural Oxfordshire. Moreover, intercutting graves appear to be unusual (*ibid*, 22). However, only the Dorchester-on-Thames cemeteries and Frilford cemetery can be said to be consistently roughly east/west (*ibid*, 21-22), notwithstanding the caveat regarding the slight inaccuracy of the recording of the Queenford Mill cemetery. Management of the cemeteries was only observed at the Dorchester cemeteries where clearly organised lines of graves in rows were present (*ibid*, 19).

Consequently, the graves with Roman pottery in their fills are difficult to identify with confidence as Roman. The identifying traits are too ambiguous to form part of a typical Late Roman managed cemetery, which the east/west alignment, might seem to indicate. It is nevertheless possible that these represent Late Saxon burials attached to the minster, although such an identification is based on pottery which may well be residual.

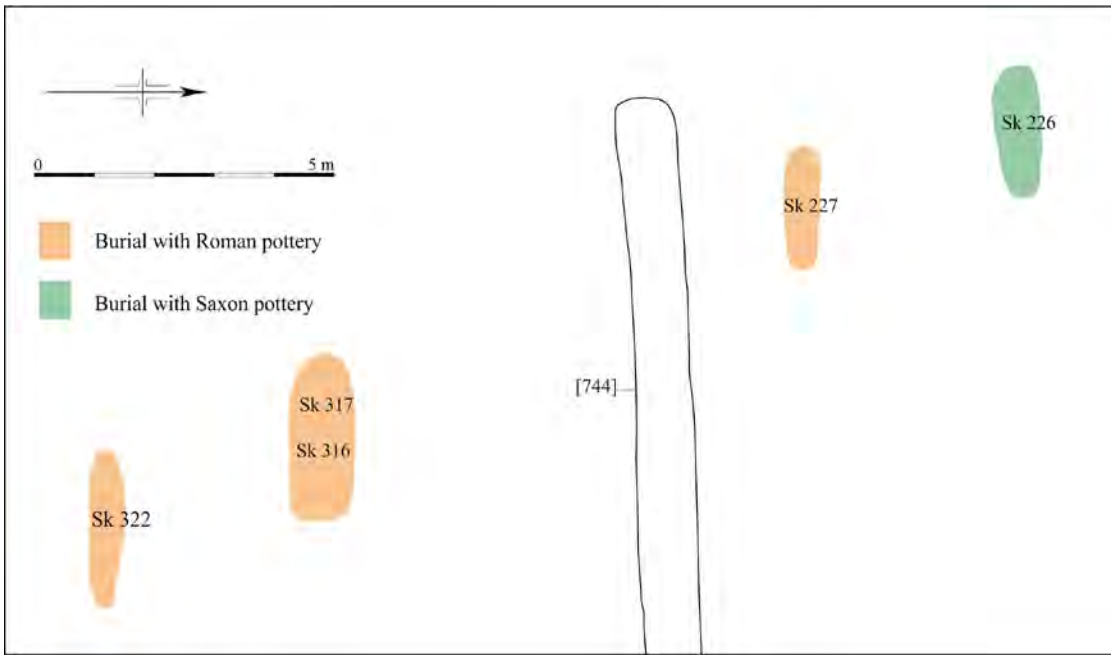


Figure 3. Burials with Roman and Saxon pottery in fill.

As noted above, Roman cemeteries tend to evidence a better-managed layout consisting of more burials than present at All Saints, Faringdon. It is nevertheless always possible that this area represents the northern extent of a cemetery focussed

south of the church. The postulated existence of a minster church in the 10th century may well have caused individuals to be buried here from the 10th century onwards. Certainly by Domesday, when it was still held by the Crown, the church's existence is noted as a holding held by Bishop Osmund, along with a hide of land.

Nonetheless, the paucity of remains which could potentially date from the Saxon period is notable in the context of a postulated minster church and associated enclosure. There was a single burial which yielded a Saxon date.

Plate 4.1- Skeleton 226 with flexed hands to shoulders and right leg over left

The burial of a young child – *c.* 6-8 years of age – in the grave-fill of which was a single sherd of Saxon pottery, weighing 16g, was somewhat unusual as the arms were flexed at the elbow with the hands at the shoulders (plate 4.1). The child's head was tipped to the left, looking north, with the right leg lightly flexed over the straight left leg.

This somewhat uncommon burial practice of placing the hands to the shoulders cannot be assigned a date. The position of the flexed lower limbs may well be depositional and head-position post-depositional in origin, and are not necessarily indicative of the burial being Saxon. Moreover, the burial lies north of the enclosure ditches, which might possibly be associated with the postulated minster church. As a consequence it is difficult to assign a Saxon date with confidence to the inhumation.

Burials sealed by layer (135)

There was also a small number of burials (Table 4.1), consisting of 18 individuals, which previously were believed to possibly comprise a late medieval population, dated by their underlying a layer of yellow mortar-rich sandy humus (135), which was

interpreted as a demolition/construction rubble associated with the construction of the Pye Chapel in the 15th century.

The deposit (135), which included 126 fragments, weighing nearly 13kg, of 'Stabbed Wessex' floor tiles, extended from the north wall of the chancel where it was cut by discrete burials. Its relationship with the Pye Chapel is unclear due to the presence of a 20th-century revetment enabling access to a door, which while visible at the external east end of the Pye Chapel, cannot be accessed from within. In the main part of the cemetery north of the church, the layer of rubble (135) was irregularly present as relatively large spreads to small patches of between 0.05m to 0.15m thick deposits.

More detailed analysis of the stratigraphic relations and the associated assemblages from the graves suggests that this may well not be the case. These graves include some of the above possible Roman burials.

Although the burials were sealed or stratigraphically earlier than layer (135) as noted in Table 4.1, there were four burials – Sk. 303; Sk. 230; Sk. 312; and Sk. 292 – later than the 15th-century date of the layer (see Blinkhorn section 7.2).

Skeleton	Date	Skeleton	Date	Skeleton	Date
62	?Med	170	?Med	330	?Med
303	?16th C	272	?Med	312	17th C
313	?Med	285	?Med	292	18th C
314	?Med	316	Roman+	298	?Med
322	Roman+	317	Roman+	334	?Med
230	?16th C	278	?Med	331	?Med
241	?Med	251	?Med	333	?Med
197	?Med	332	?Med	337	?Med

Table 4.1 Burials stratigraphically earlier than layer (135)

Although the layer (135) seemed to be *in situ* in the south of the intervention area, immediately adjacent to the chancel and Pye Chapel, it is very possible that to the north, where it was present as three smaller areas, it may well have been redeposited there after the 16th century. The secondary deposition of the rubble would explain why the 15th-century deposit sealed the 16th- and 18th-century burials.

As a result, the burials are treated as a homogenous group of early post-medieval to early modern burials, with the caveat that there may well be some earlier burials. These may well include burials as early as the Late Roman and Saxon periods, but the view of the excavator is that while such is a possibility, without scientific dating, this unlikely scenario cannot be assured.

Other burials

The rest of the burials were either stratigraphically later than the layer (135) or could not be shown to have a stratigraphic relationship with the layer or associated burials. As a consequence it has made most sense in the absence of scientific dating for any of

the burials to treat all human remains as post-medieval, while acknowledging the possibility that some may well be late medieval, or potentially earlier, indeed.

The rest of the burials were in a mix of clearly coffined graves – indicated by furniture, comprising grips, upholstery pins and occasionally plates, or nails, associated with the construction of the coffin itself – and graves where individuals had been interred in shrouds – evidenced by shroud pins, buttons and other clothing paraphernalia; there were a number of graves where the evidence for such burial traditions is less certain, and may have involved burial in a shroud with no fastenings, merely wound round the corpse.

It is important to bear in mind that 'For most parish churches… the coffin was a reusable resource, used to bear the corpse… to the church or chapel where the funeral service was to be conducted' (Gilchrist & Sloane 2005, 111) and that consequently it is unsurprising that we have no evidence for coffins. Only two examples of post-Reformation parish coffins survive in England (*ibid*.). The continued use of parish coffins into the post-medieval period highlights the degree of continuity between the periods.

As a result it is unsurprising that burials, which are not high status, are not easily distinguishable in the pre-modern period. Moreover, in a rural cemetery such as All Saints, Faringdon, a high degree of continuity of practice is only to be expected.

Other interventions

Subsequent to the main excavation of the footprint of the Barber Rooms interventions were carried out at the west end of the church, in front of the West Door, to the northwest and northeast of the excavation area and for drainage trenches.

The intervention at the West Door stripped a relatively large area of topsoil and revealed a previous soakaway that modern drainage was to be linked to. No archaeological remains were disturbed, although a small quantity of disarticulated human bone was collected. Limited small excavations against the church wall failed to identify a foundation cut, however the limited depth of these was probably insufficient to penetrated the later accumulation of soil associated with the use of the cemetery. The deposit seen in these excavation contained small fragments of human bone.

The interventions to northwest and northeast of the Barber Rooms were for soakaways. The northeast soakaway, which measured approximately 1m × 2m × 2m, was located 5m to the northeast of the Barber Rooms. The natural Corallian limestone was quickly attained *c*. 0.4m below ground level, and overlain by mid brown clay humus soil, 0.3m thick, with shingle, 0.1m thick, overlying, comprising the footpath.

A second intervention was excavated, measuring 3m × 0.5m × 1.5m, to the northwest of the Barber Rooms. Here natural Corallian limestone was deeper, at *c* 1.5m or greater (to the west), overlain by mid brown clay humus soil, 1.4m thick, with shingle, 0.1m thick, overlying, comprising the footpath.

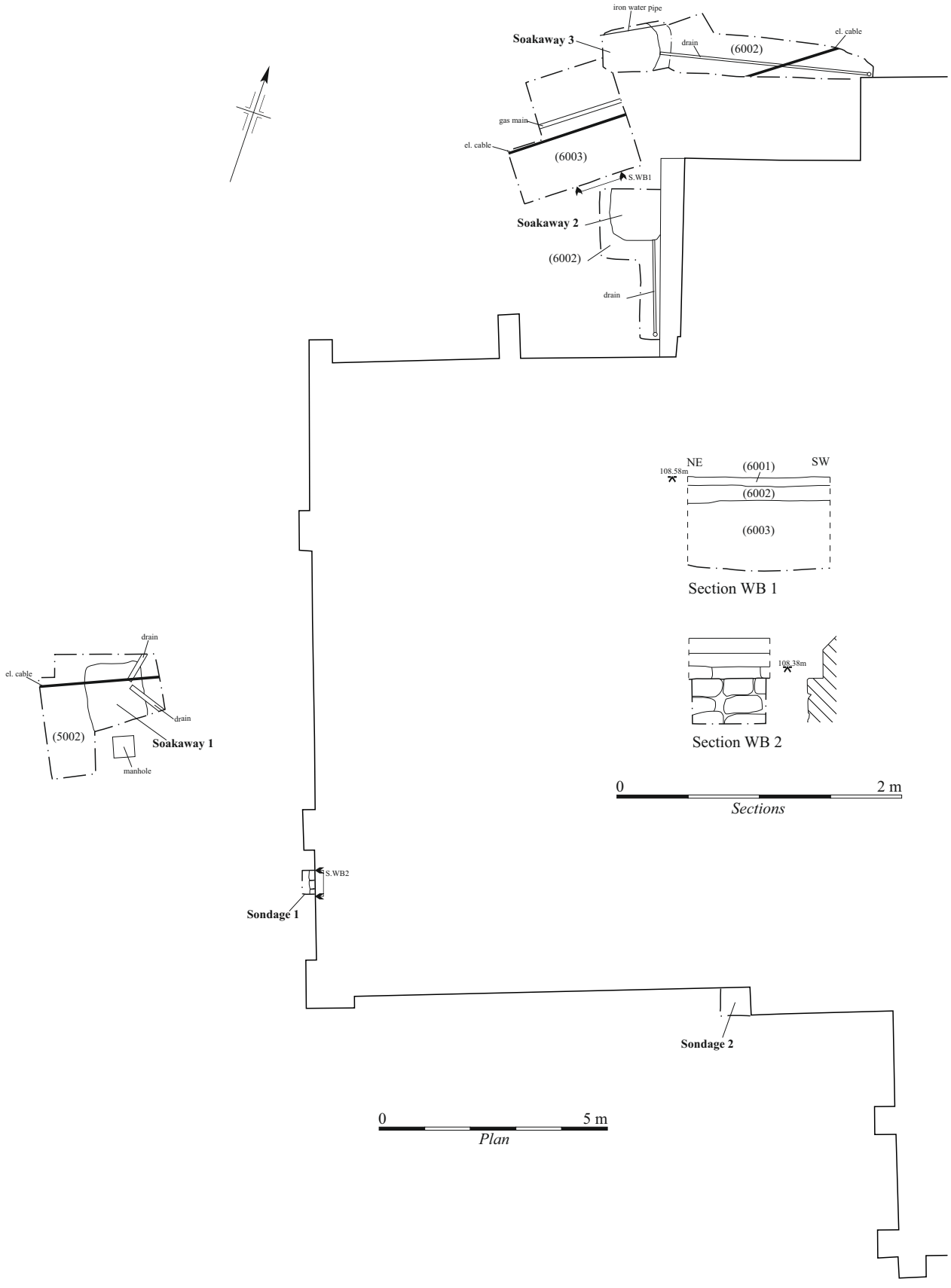


Figure 4: Plan of monitored areas

No human remains were identified during the excavation through the humic layer, although some large mammal bones were present, though not retained, as were brick fragments, also not retained.

These two interventions demonstrated that the path had been such for its period of use and that the cemetery did not extend this far north. It was not possible to ascertain the age of the path.

Further monitoring was undertaken after the associated drainage trenches had been excavated due to JMHS not being informed prior to excavation. While these drains trenches deviated from their planned routes they were relatively shallow and appeared to have not disturbed any archaeological features or remains.

4.2 Reliability of Techniques and Results

The reliability of results is considered to be good. The archaeological excavation took place in unseasonably good conditions. On the whole there was good cooperation from the ground workers during the watching brief element of this work. The excavation was monitored by Hugh Coddington on behalf of Vale of White Horse District Council and by Jon Chamberlain on behalf of All Saints Parochial Church Council.

5 HUMAN REMAINS *by Linzi Harvey*

5.1 Nature of sample

A total of 341 east-west aligned complete and partial inhumations were identified during archaeological investigations in the graveyard to the north of the church of All Saints', Faringdon between June and mid September 2013 ahead of building works.

Osteological analysis was undertaken on the assemblage of articulated remains in order to ascertain basic demographic and health status information about the population, prior to its reburial in April 2014 at the new cemetery extension at Coach Lane, Faringdon.

The excavated remains date from the twelfth century onwards and have been assessed in comparison with late-medieval (*c*.1050AD – *c*.1550AD) and post-medieval (*c*.1550 – *c*.1850AD) British populations described in *Health and Disease in Britain: From Prehistory to the Present Day* (Roberts & Cox 2003).

5.2 Methods

Skeletal remains were dry brushed or washed in warm water with soft brushes, as required to assess the demographic structure of the assemblage and identify pathological conditions. Remains were examined macroscopically in natural light, with ×10 magnification where necessary.

Skeletal and dental inventories were compiled for each individual and recorded onto paper record forms following standards and guidelines laid down by both the IfA (Brickley & McKinley 2004) and English Heritage (Mays & Brickley *et al* 2004).

Subsequently, demographic information was transferred to a purpose built Excel spreadsheet (in archive) and additional references were used to diagnose pathological conditions.

Radiographs were taken for two individuals to aid pathological diagnosis. Radiographs were taken using a custom-made Faxitron x-ray cabinet on AGFA D7 film (folder wrapped). Exposures were for 40 seconds at 40 KV and 3 mA. The film to focus distance was 665mm.

5.2.1 Preservation and completeness

An assessment was made of the state of preservation of the inhumed remains: from 'excellent' (1) to 'poor' (3).

1) 'Excellent' Bone surface is in good condition with no erosion, fine surface detail such as coarse woven bone deposition, if present, would clearly be visible to the naked eye.

2) 'Moderate' Bone surface is in moderate condition, with some post-mortem erosion on long bone shafts, but the margins of the articular surfaces and some prominences eroded.

3) 'Poor' Bone surface is in poor condition with extensive post-mortem erosion, resulting in pitted cortical surfaces and long bones with articular surfaces absent or severely eroded.

A skeletal inventory, estimation of completeness and description of each individual was undertaken. Disarticulated material or bone that appeared charnel in nature was also noted if it appeared co-mingled with individual inhumations. However, the vast majority of disarticulated or charnel material was not examined during the excavation, but separated on-site for immediate reburial.

It is estimated that around $2m^3$ of disarticulated material was recovered on-site, representing potentially hundreds of individuals buried at All Saints' and disturbed during subsequent burials and earth movement at the site prior to the archaeological investigation.

5.2.2 Age at death

Age at death estimation was based on a number of commonly used aging techniques. The adult sample was aged using epiphyseal fusion data (Schwartz 1995), age-related changes of the pubic symphysis and the auricular surfaces of the ilium (Buikstra & Ubelaker 1994, Schwartz 1995) and dental attrition (Brothwell 1981) where appropriate. The age of the sub-adult and neonatal sample was determined using epiphyseal fusion data, dental development (Moorrees *et al* 1963ab) and length of long bones (Scheuer *et al* 1980). For descriptive purposes, the skeletons were assessed and then assigned to the following broad age categories:

Description	**Age range**	**Age group**
Neonate	< 1 year and *in utero*	0
Infant	< 3 years	1
Juvenile A	3-10 years	2
Juvenile B	10-18 years	3
Young adult	18-25 years	4
Middle adult A	26-35 years	5
Middle adult B	36-45 years	6
Older adult	>46 years	7
Unknown adult	>18 years	9

Table 5.1 Age codes

5.2.3 Sex estimation

Estimation of sex was only considered appropriate for the adult sample and was based on macroscopic observation of key skeletal landmarks in the cranium/mandible and pelvis. Where present, a number of predetermined sexually diagnostic features were

marked on a five point scale as follows: male, possible male, intermediate, probable female and female.

Sex was subsequently determined by the values that occurred most frequently (i.e. an individual assessed as having 8 male, 4 possible male and 4 possible female signifiers would be assessed as male). Metrical data was also taken to aid sex identification, including femur and humeral head diameters.

5.2.4 Stature

The maximum lengths of complete long bones were used to provide an estimate of stature for the adult skeletons. This was calculated using formulae created by Trotter (1970).

5.2.5 Palaeopathology

Pathological changes were recorded using guidelines set out by the British Association of Biological Anthropologists and Osteologists (Roberts & Connell 2004). Basic pathological information was obtained from Roberts & Cox (2003) and Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin (1998), with additional references as required.

Prevalence rates of disease allow comparison between and within populations. Where possible, Crude Prevalence Rates (CPR) of disease were calculated using the following formula after Roberts & Cox (2003):

$$\frac{\text{Number of Individuals Affected}}{\text{Total Number of Individuals}} \times 100 = \text{CPR}$$

5.2.6 Dental pathology

The recording of dental pathology, where dental remains were present, covered five pathological changes: dental caries (cavities), dental abscesses, calculus deposits, periodontal disease and hypoplastic defects. Each observation was recorded by tooth or tooth position.

For dental pathology, disease prevalence rates were calculated by both number of individuals with dentitions (a more accurate version of the Crude Prevalence Rate) and by tooth position.

5.3 Results

The results of the osteological analyses are given below. Although the site represents a great depth of time, phasing such sites is problematic and the population has been considered in its entirety rather than by phase, unless specific dating information was available.

5.3.1 Minimum Number of Individuals (MNI)

A total of 341 complete or partial inhumations were encountered during excavation. Some additional human skeletal fragments were recovered with these inhumations. In total, 23 burials (6.7%) contained repeated skeletal elements or bones that were otherwise distinct from the main inhumation.

Several charnel pits (between 0.5m and 1.50m in diameter) were also observed during excavation, indicating that the disturbance of skeletal remains, or clearance of exposed remains, and the subsequent reburial of bones in these pits was an occasional occurrence at All Saints'.

On a small number of occasions, partially articulated bone was recovered from charnel pits. These were not identified as skeletons, but rather as 'articulated charnel' with a small find number. Articulated charnel indicates that the clearance and/or secondary deposition of human remains occurred before decomposition.

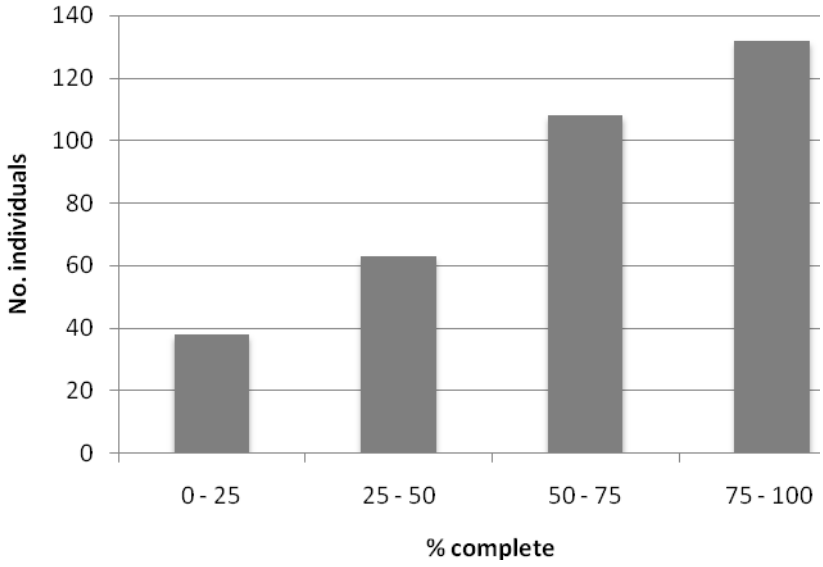
It was not within the remit of this report to examine disturbed, disarticulated or charnel material, and these additional fragments do not form any further part of this study.

Therefore, the Minimum Number of Individuals (MNI) of the All Saints' excavation was 341. This is to be considered a conservative estimate of the number of people originally buried in this part of the graveyard, with the true number likely to be very much higher.

5.3.2 Completeness and preservation

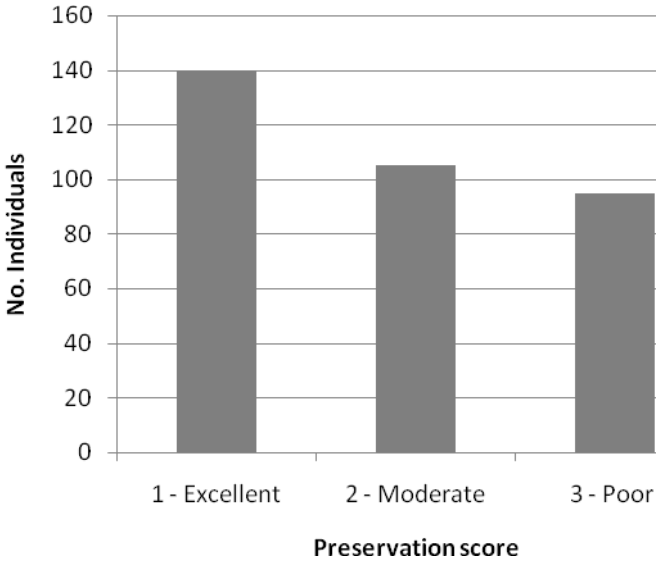
The nature of excavation (excavation of a predetermined area) meant that in some instances partial remains were recovered where complete remains were present – for instance if the burial continued into the section of an area not due to be disturbed.

The long term use of the site as a burial ground has impacted the completeness of those within it, with multiple interments in the same areas disturbing the remains long before archaeological intervention.



Graph 5.1 Completeness of human remains

The vast majority of skeletons recovered were over 50% complete (n = 240), with the remaining skeletons (n = 101) less than 50% complete (graph 5.1). There were three and a half times more skeletons in the 'more than 75% complete' category than in the 'less than 25%' category (n = 132 and 38, respectively).



Graph 5.2 Preservation of skeletal remains at All Saints'

Preservation of the skeletal material was generally very good at All Saints, with the majority of recovered remains having 'excellent' or 'moderate' preservation scores. In cases where preservation was considered to be 'poor', it was often due to surface erosion and fragmentation caused by root action, an inevitable result of a well-greened graveyard with numerous trees and large plants near the area of excavation.

The level of preservation was so good in some instances that textiles and hair were observed adhering to bone. For example, Sk. 302, an older adult female, had a small

textile fragment preserved on her mandible, just below her front teeth. Sk. 251, an older adult male, had a patch of trimmed beard hair on the right cheek side of the mandible.

Plate 5.1 Textile fragment adhering to the mandible of Sk. 302. Scale bar 1cm

Plate 5.2 Preserved hair adhering to mandible of Sk. 251

Preservation of organic remains, such as these, is not uncommon in later medieval and post-medieval burials, particularly when the bone has been in contact with metal objects such as copper alloy shroud pins or coffin furniture.

5.3.3 Burial position

The area of excavation was located on the north side of the church. The graves were roughly parallel with the long axis of the church, ranging from east-west to northeast-

southwest in alignment. Almost without exception, the burials were extended supine (face up) inhumations with their heads to the west.

However, two individuals were found with their heads to the east and a further two were found to be positioned prone (face down), one with his head to the east and the other with his head to the west.

The two individuals with their heads to the east were very young children, one of which was still within its mother at the time of death; the other a neonate (Sk. 88).

Adult male Sk. 184 was found prone, although with his head correctly aligned to the west. His arms were across his pelvis and legs tightly together, suggesting the presence of a winding sheet or shroud, increasing the likelihood his upside-down deposition was a mistake.

Adult male Sk. 313 does not appear to have been well wrapped prior to burial: while his legs were together, his arms were flexed at the elbows and positioned away from his torso. As today, fabric ties were usually used to keep limbs together for burial (Cox 1996: 115). The wrongly aligned, face-down and 'arms akimbo' position of Sk. 313 may suggest a lack of normal preparation for burial in his case, which may have been intentional or accidental. Sk. 313 was found close to the church in the south part of the excavation area however, so does not immediately stand out as an aberrant or deviant burial.

5.3.3.1 Laying out

With few exceptions, most individuals were laid out with their legs together and their arms at their side, with hands positioned at their side (65.8%, n=177) or across the pelvis (24.5%, n=66). Some individuals (9.3%, n = 25) had been positioned with their arms across or on their chests, including several foetal and neonatal individuals who had flexed arms and legs, mimicking a foetal position.

The division between methods of laying out do not appear to be chronological, with earlier and later individuals exhibiting the same kinds of positioning. It is worth noting that in some cases positioning of the body was determined by pathology.

For example, Sk. 18 – a 9-13 year old – was laid out with his right arm across his body, probably due to the severe bone infection affecting the bones of his right elbow joint (distal humerus, proximal ulna and radius) which may have made manipulating that joint difficult in both life and death.

The burial positions found at All Saints fit in with patterns of laying-out found across the country in the medieval and post-medieval periods. For example, at the medieval cemetery of St Helen-on-the-Walls in York, over half of the skeletons recovered were interred with their hands resting in the pelvic region or with their arms at their sides (Dawes & Magilton 1980: 13). At the post-medieval site of Spitalfields in London, 90% of the assemblage was found to be laid out supine, with their hands at their sides whilst three individuals were found prone (Cox 1996: 102).

5.3.3.2 Spatial patterning

Burials were found to be very dense in the central and eastern area of the excavation, with inhumations becoming sparse in the western part, and petering out at the southern and northern edges.

There is no evidence of clustering, either by sex or age group. Males and females are well distributed throughout the area of excavation, with no obvious patterning, so too with the adult age groups.

Subadults (excluding neonates) were well distributed across the excavation area. However, all foetal and neonatal burials were found in the central and eastern parts of the excavation area. Something which was also apparent during excavation, but the sheer density of burials in this area may explain this apparent grouping.

5.3.4 Age

The All Saints' assemblage has an attritional age-at-death profile. The distribution is bimodal, with greater numbers of deaths occurring in infants/juveniles and older adults.

However, a departure from the expected attritional mortality profile occurs within the 3-10 year old (Juvenile A) category. There is an excess in the number of deaths in this age category, with around ten to 15 more individuals than might be expected.

Observer error in terms of age estimation in this age category is unlikely, since the mixed deciduous/permanent dentitions in this age group generally provide accurate age estimations.

Preservation bias may be responsible for the excess number of individuals aged between 3 and 10, although typically taphonomic processes destroy sub-adult remains rather than preserve them (Walker *et al* 1998). It is also possible that the area of the churchyard excavated may have contained more individuals in that age category, thus making them appear over-represented in the sample.

Alternatively, there were 44 individuals, for whom it was only possible to assess as 'Adult' or over 18 years of age; if these individuals were redistributed into the known age categories, the over-representation in the younger category might look less extreme.

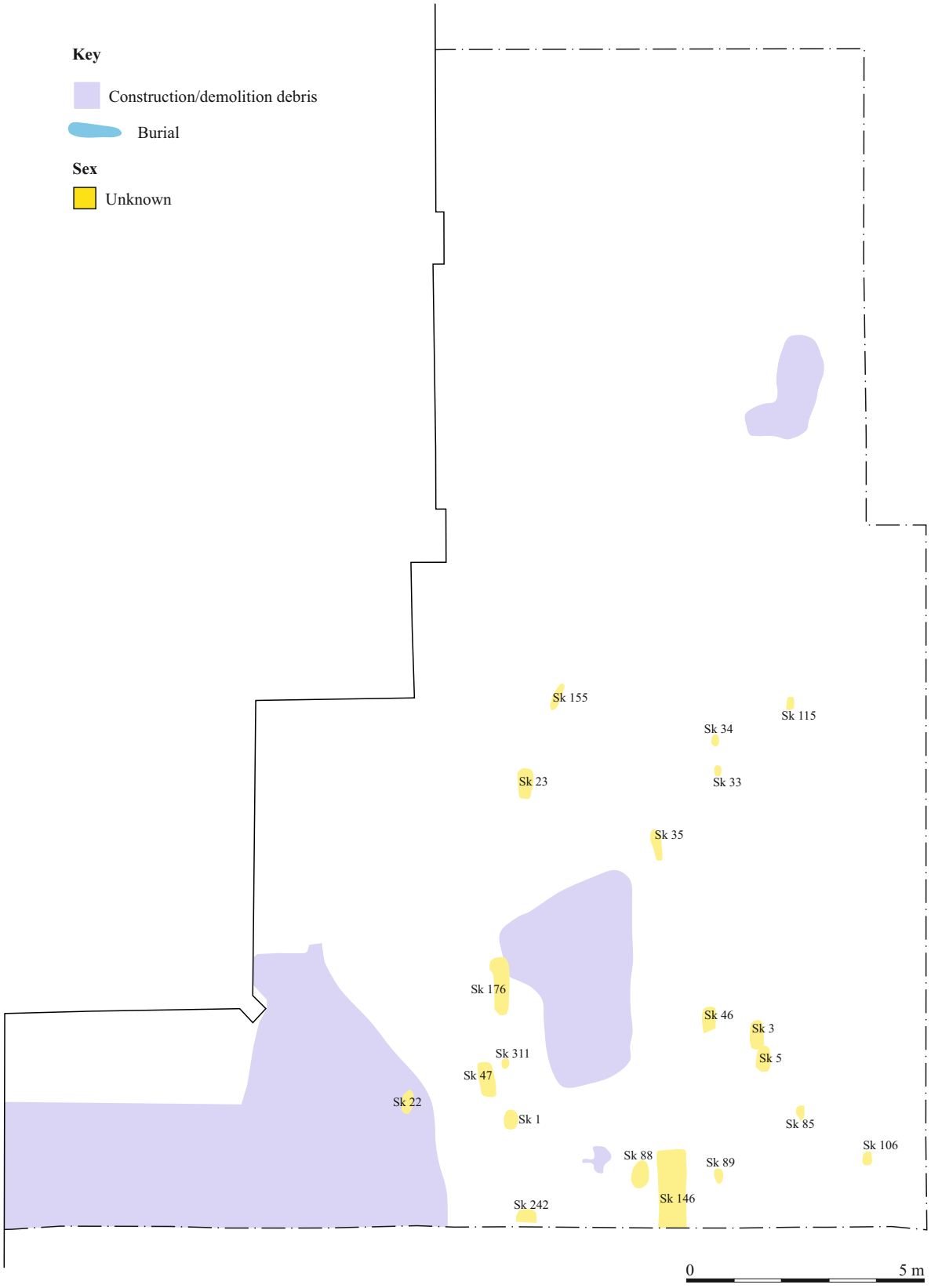


Figure 5: Plan of burials of Age group 0

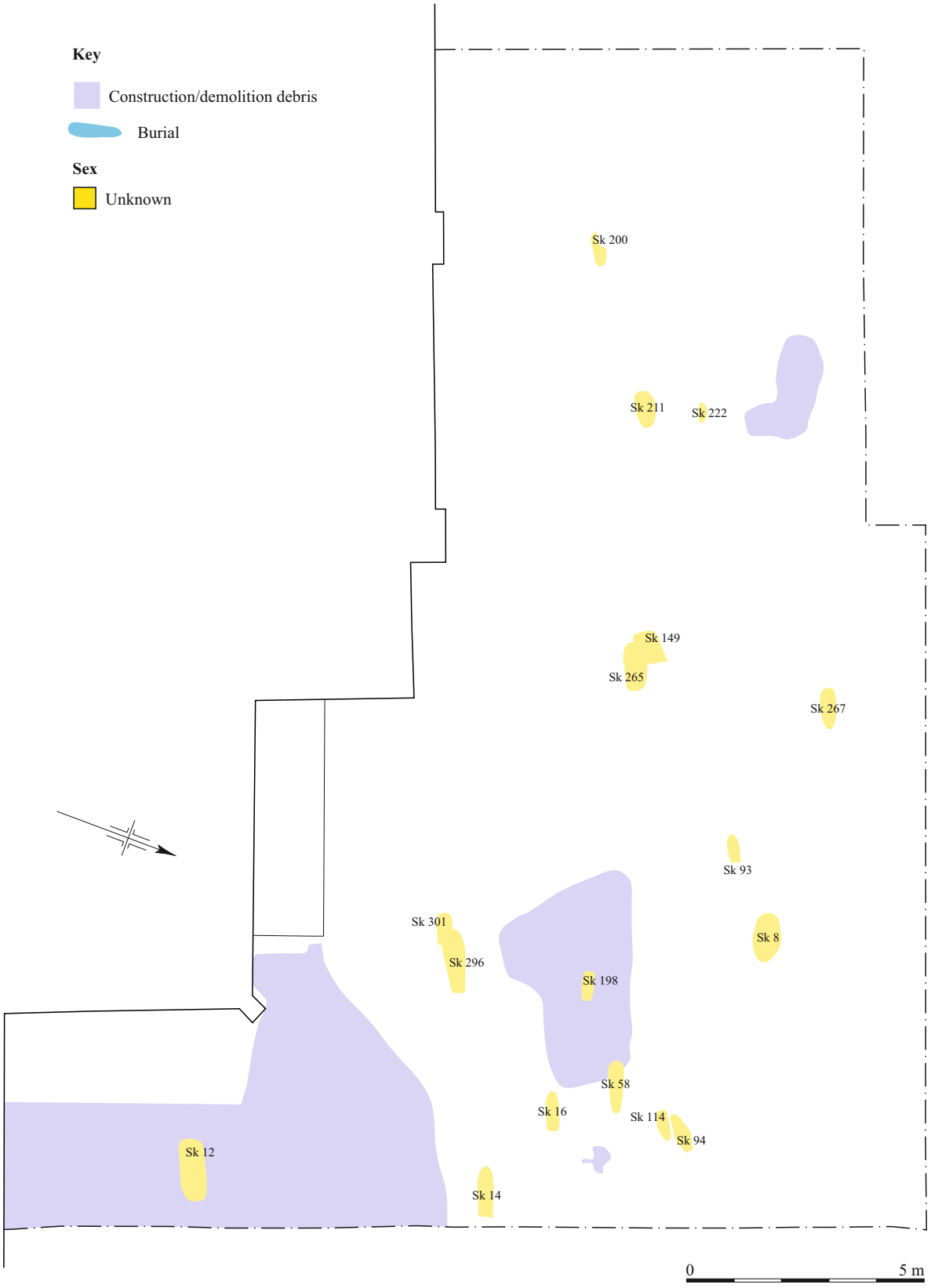


Figure 6: Plan of burials of Age group 1

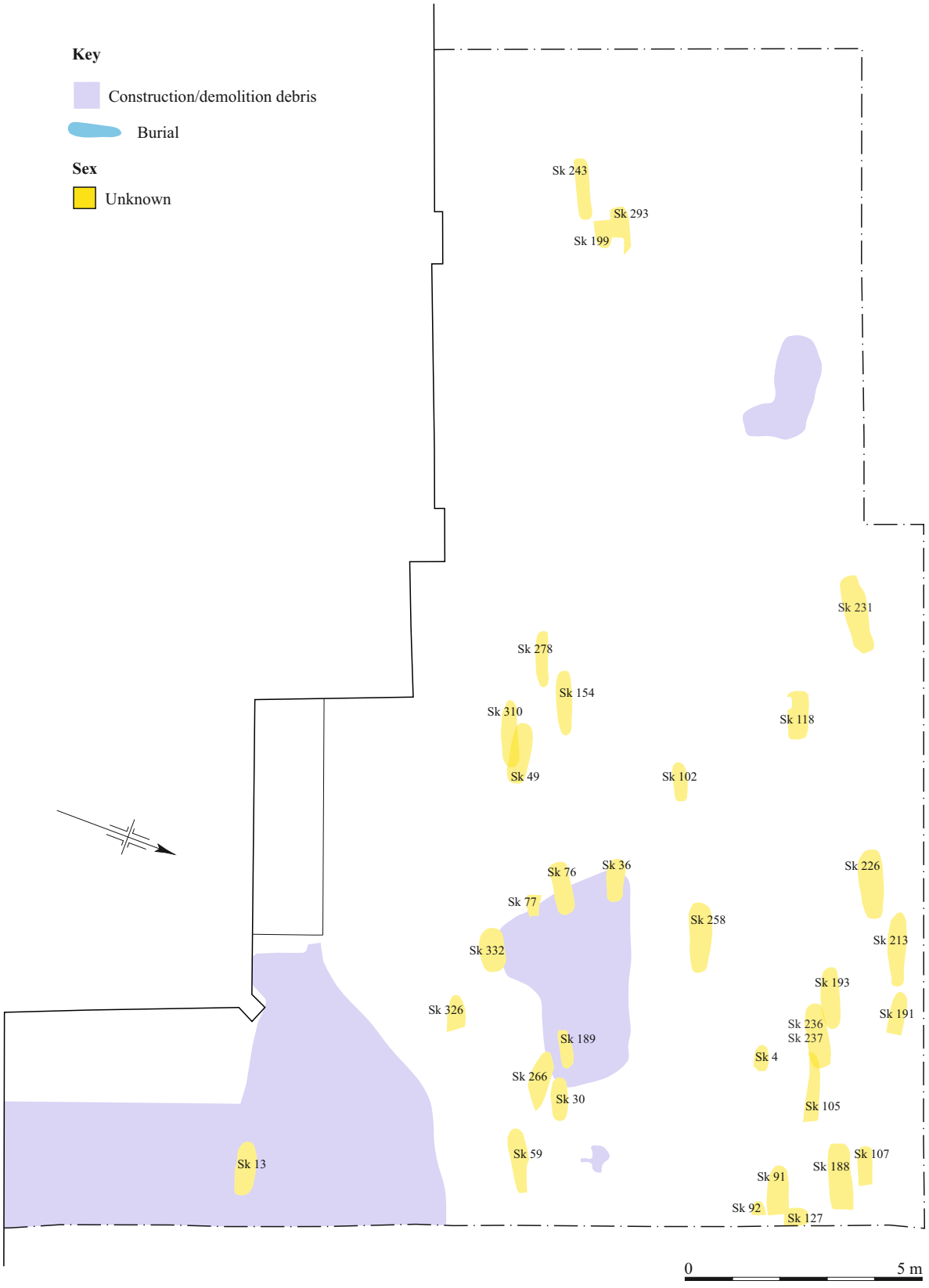


Figure 7: Plan of burials of Age group 2

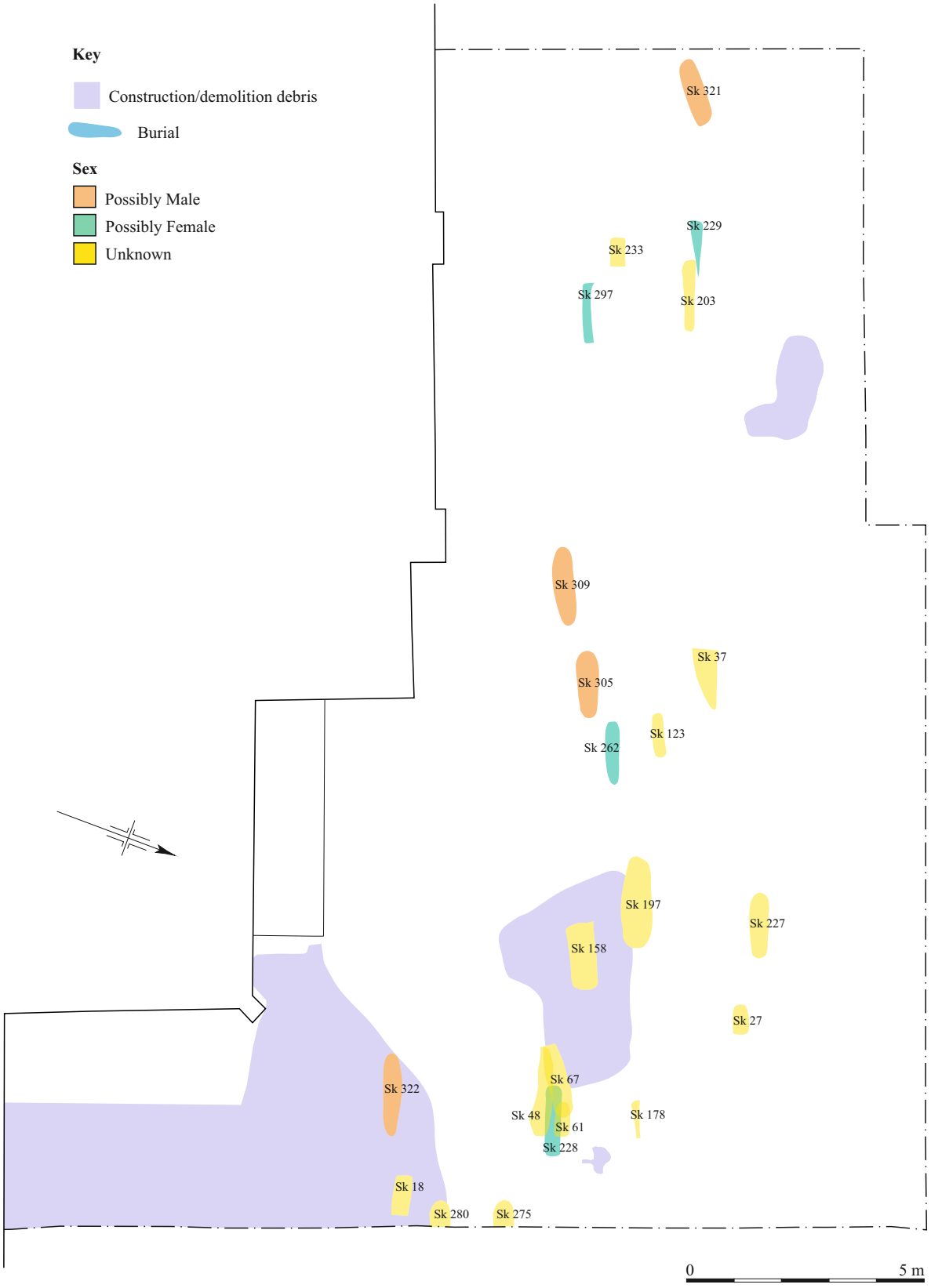


Figure 8: Plan of burials of Age group 3

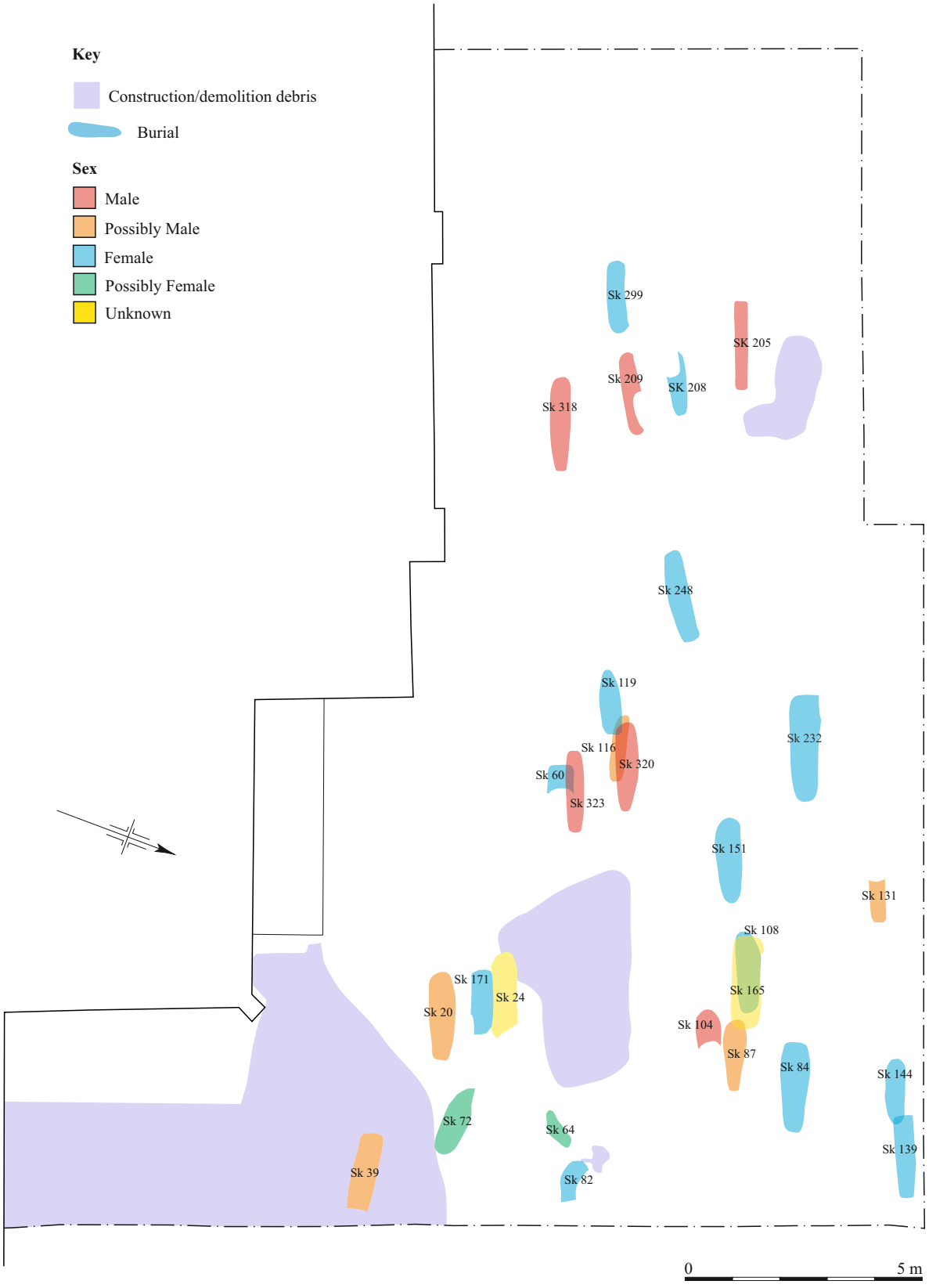


Figure 9: Plan of burials of Age group 4

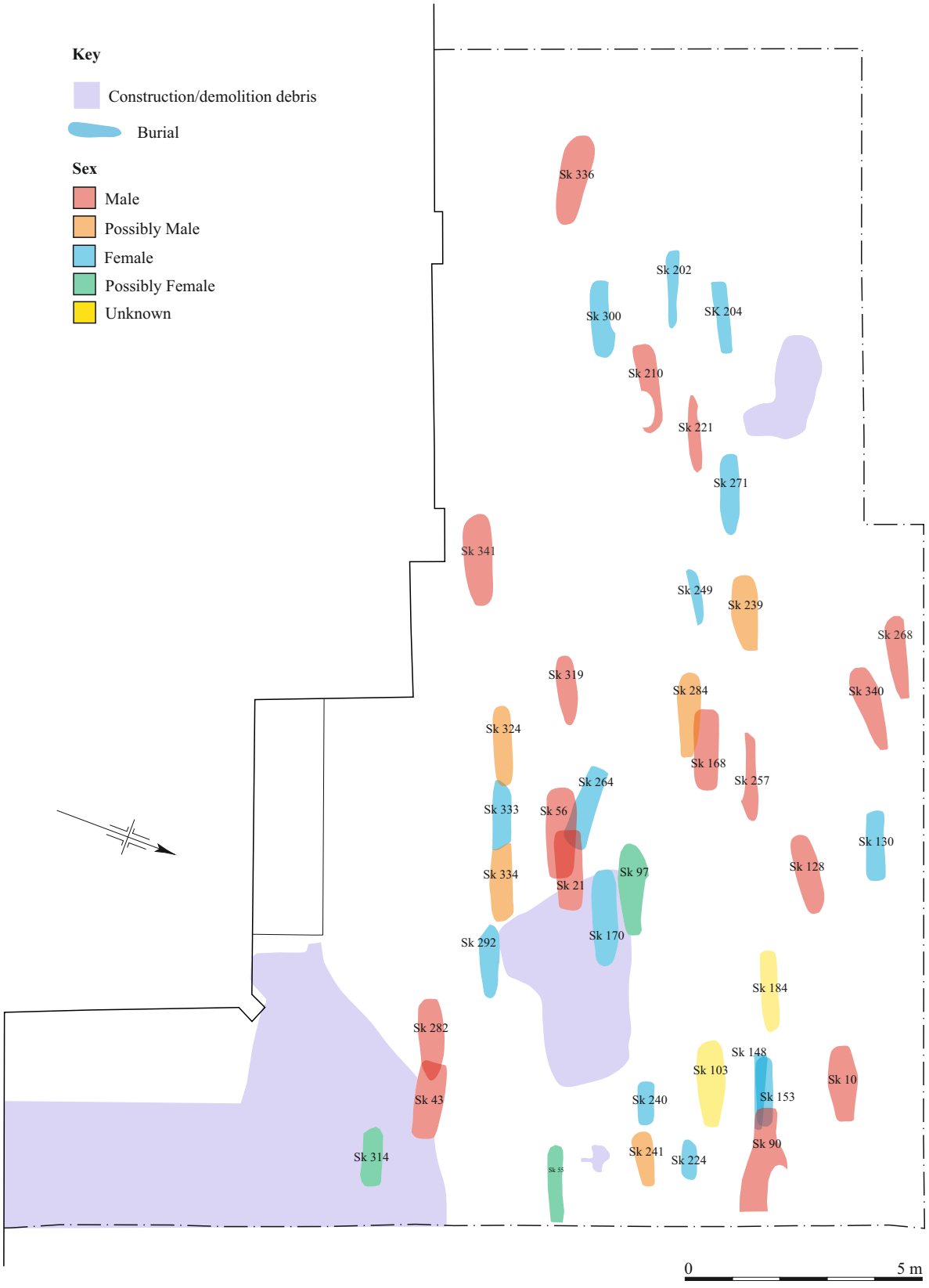


Figure 10: Plan of burials of Age group 5

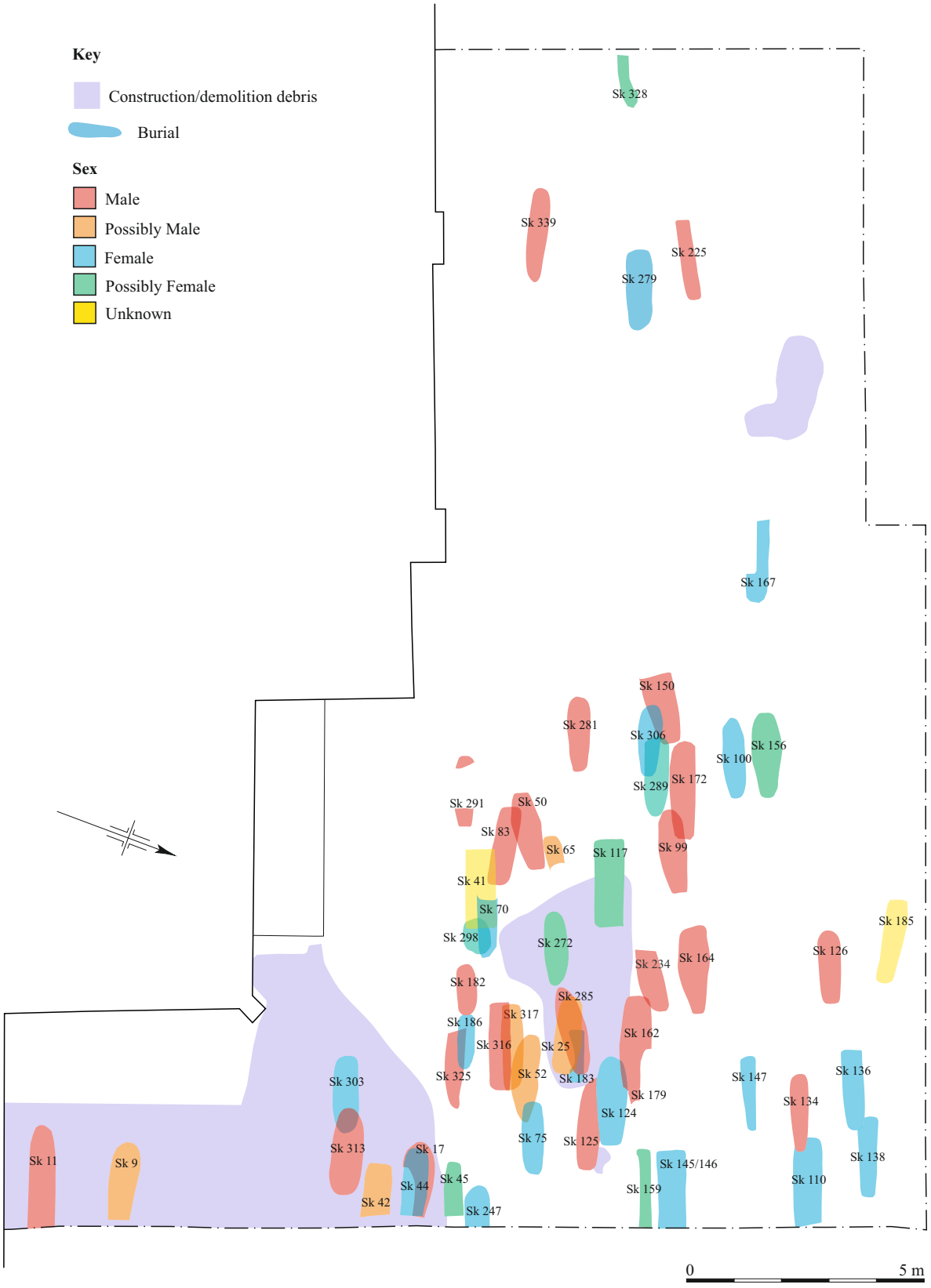


Figure 11: Plan of burials of Age group 6

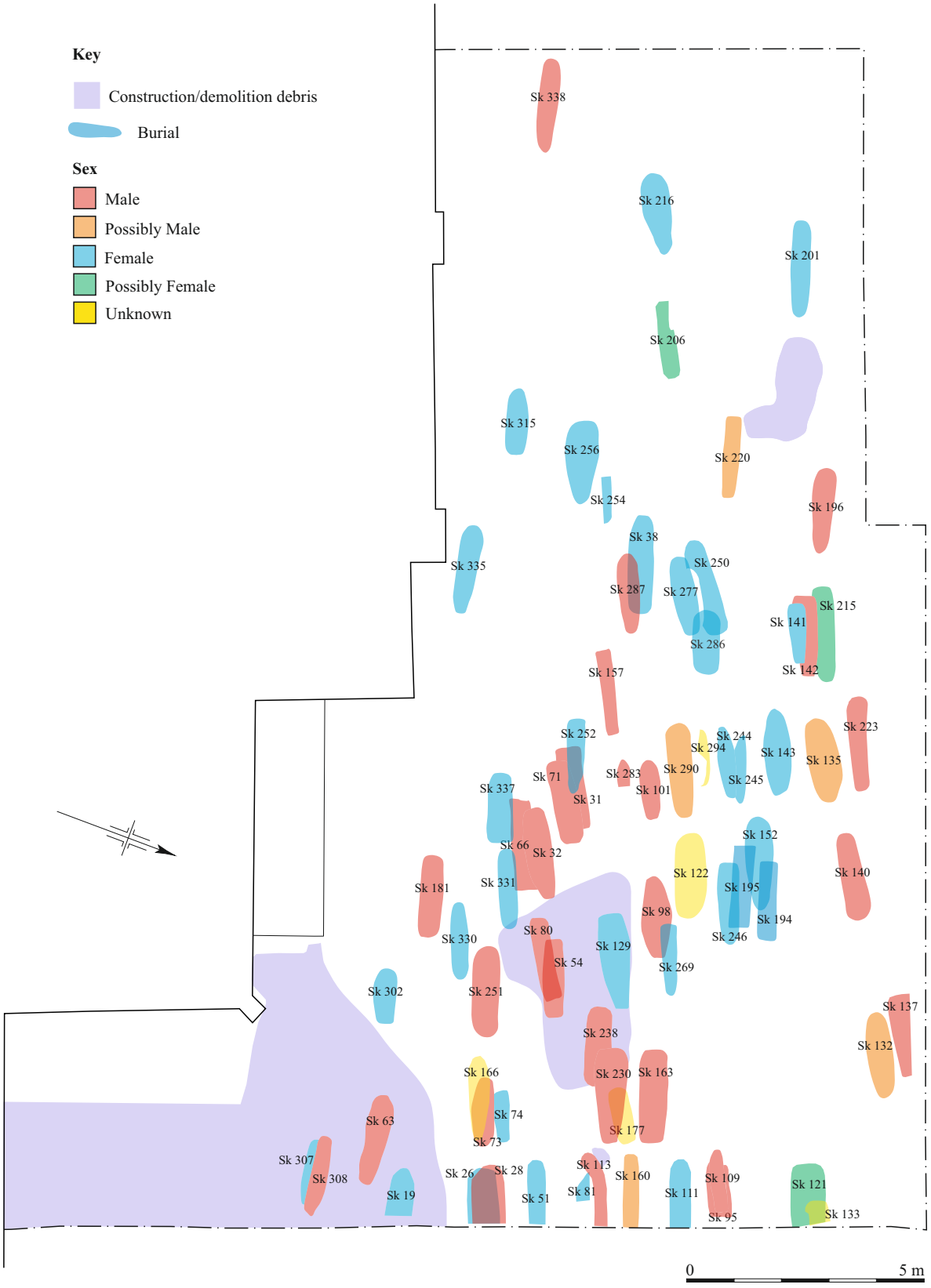


Figure 12: Plan of burials of Age group 7

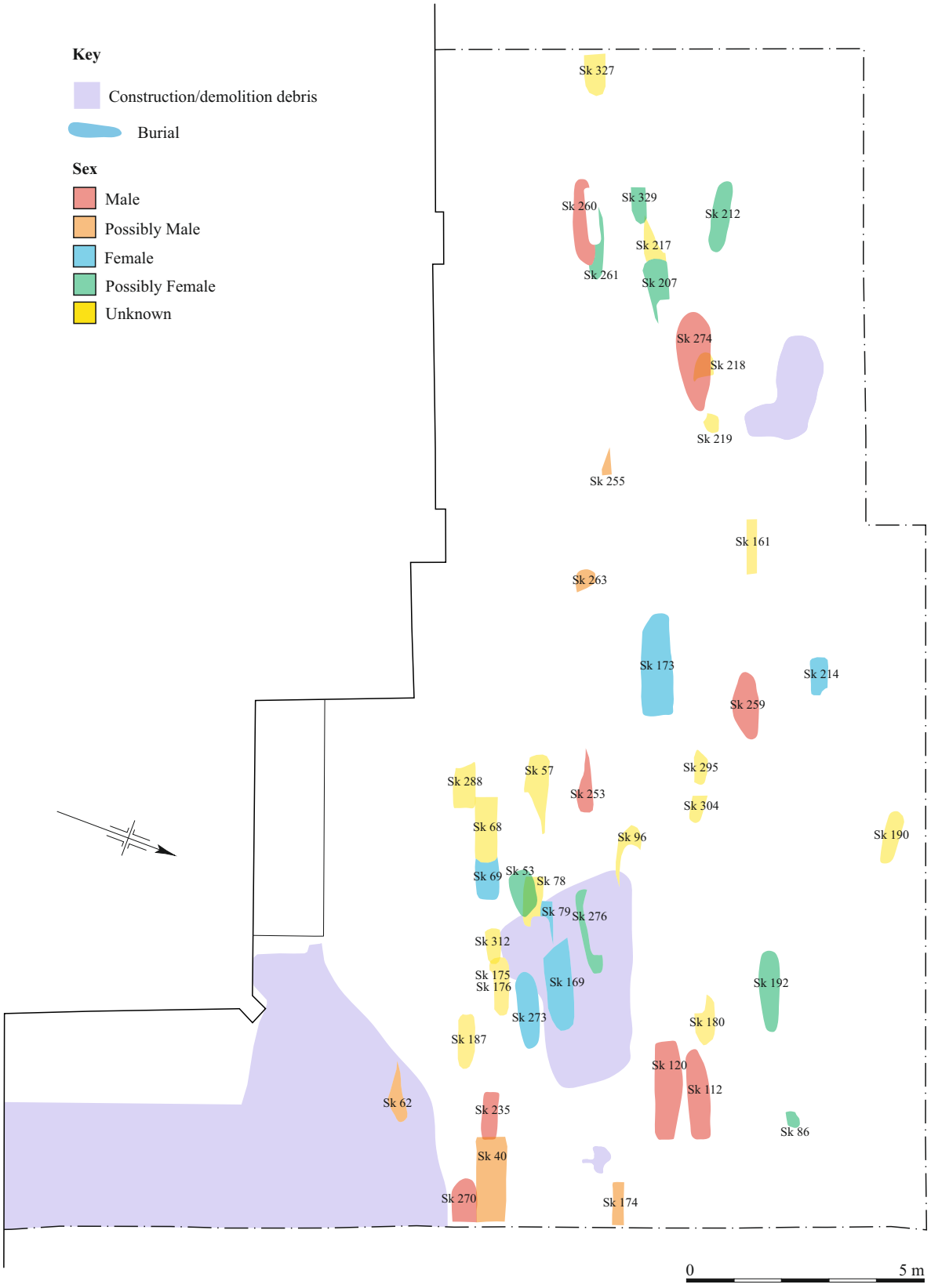
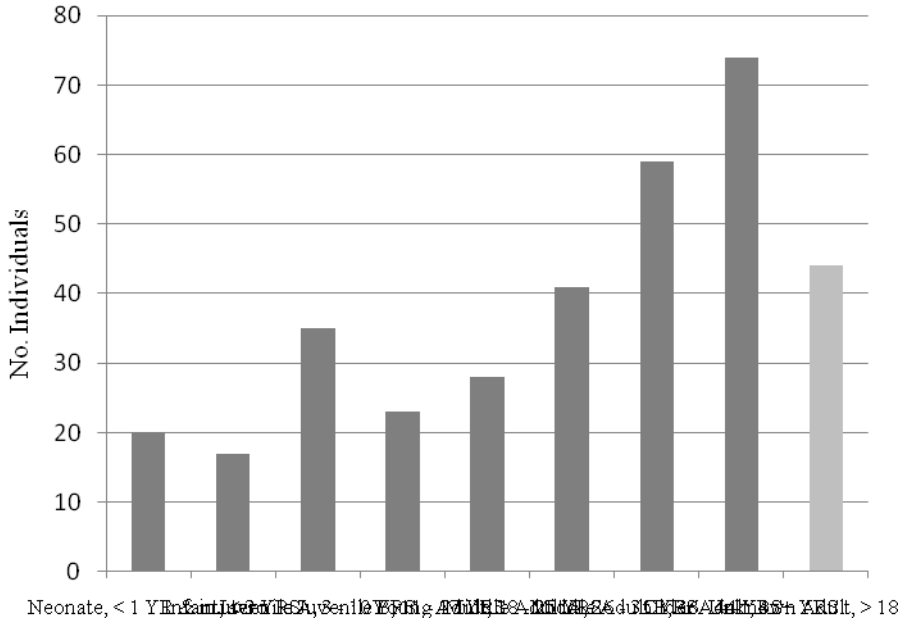


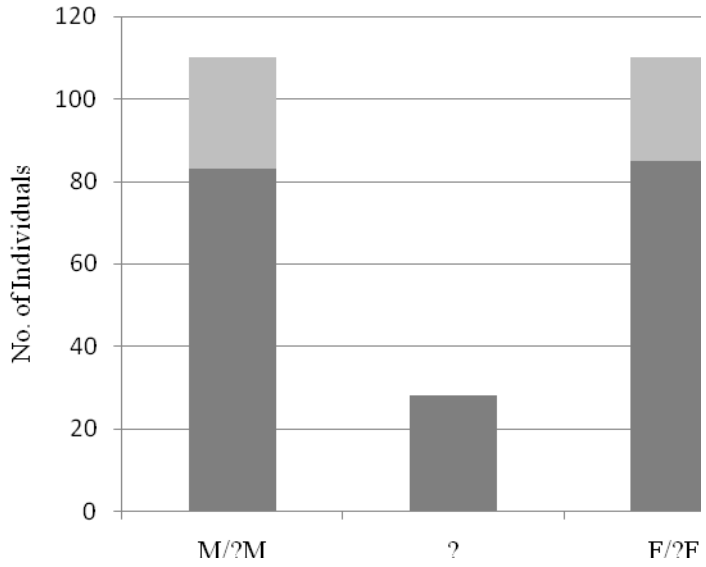
Figure 13: Plan of burials of Age group 9



Graph 5.3 Age distribution at All Saints'

5.3.5 Sex

Of the 248 adult individuals excavated, 220 could be assigned to the male/possible male or female/possible female sex categories. In 28 individuals it was impossible to ascertain sex, due to either a paucity of material or equal numbers of male and female indicators in the skeletal material.

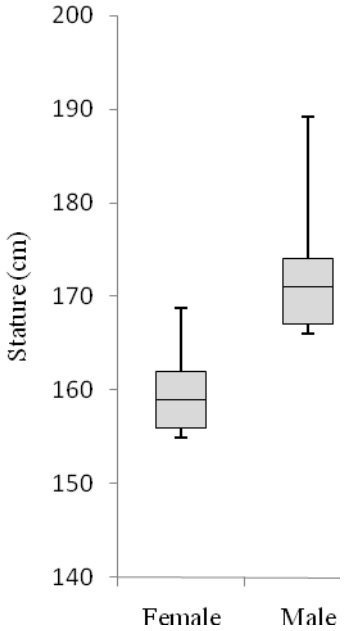


Graph 5.4 Sex distribution at All Saints'. Note: Lighter grey refers to possible males and females.

There were equal numbers of males to females (110 in each group), suggesting that the sample excavated was representative of the wider population from which it was drawn. Living populations tend towards a 1:1 male to female ratio (Chamberlain 2006) and this is clearly reflected in the All Saints' assemblage.

5.3.6 Stature

It was possible to estimate stature in 102 females and 106 males using long bone measurements after Trotter (1970).



Graph 5.5 Boxplot showing male and female stature average and ranges at All Saints'

The average stature for females was 159.2cm (5'3"), ranging between 147cm and 168.7cm (4'10" to 5'6"). The average male in the assemblage was 170.7cm (5'7") tall, ranging between 159cm to 189.3cm (5'3" to 6'2").

Most individuals fell into the lower end of the stature estimates, with just one notable outlier – the 6'2" male, SK172. The data in Figure 7, below, is illustrated as a comparative boxplot and compares well with Table 7 (Boston *et al* 2008).

When compared with average stature values for the late medieval and post-medieval periods in Britain (Table 5.2), it is clear that the ranges found at Faringdon exceed both periods in terms of maximum and minimum values, but the mean statures fit well into the average expected of these periods.

	Minimum stature (cm)		**Maximum stature (cm)**		**Mean stature (cm)**	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Late medieval	167	154	174	165	171	159
Post-medieval	168	156	174	164	171	160
All Saints', Faringdon	**159**	**147**	**189**	**169**	**171**	**159**

Table 5.2 Minimum, maximum and average stature for the late-medieval and post-medieval periods in comparison with stature at All Saints (data after Roberts & Cox 2003).

Stature is genetically determined, although maximum height is only attained with sufficient nutrition and good health (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 26). With this in mind, it seems likely that a range of people have been recovered from the excavations at All Saints' – those who attained average and greater than average statures and those who did not.

5.3.7 Pathology

Pathological conditions (disease) can often leave evidence behind in skeletal remains, particularly chronic conditions or those resulting from direct bone trauma. A variety of pathological conditions were noted in the All Saints' assemblage.

5.3.7.1 Trauma

This category of pathological condition includes evidence of bone fracture, dislocation, amputation, trauma-induced ankylosis, spondylolisthesis, and soft tissue trauma that results in skeletally evident lesions. Twenty-eight individuals (8.21%) had evidence of at least one kind of skeletal trauma.

5.3.7.2 Fracture

Twenty-one individuals (6.16%) had at least one skeletal element showing signs of fracture. This included:

Cranial
A single cranial fracture was observed in the mid-facial region (CPR 0.29%). Typically prevalence rates for cranial fractures in the late-medieval period are less than 1% (Roberts & Cox 2003: 238). This was a unilateral nasal bone fracture in Sk. 97, a female aged between 25 – 34 years old. The left nasal bone was depressed in the middle, but well healed and smooth in appearance.

Plate 5.3 Nasal fracture (left), SK 97

Facial fractures are frequently associated with assault although recreational activities and accidents can also be responsible (Lovell 2007: 353). Although fractures to the mandible and frontal bone require high-impact force to be damaged, fractures of the nasal bone can occur with low-impact force.

Upper limbs

A possible humeral fracture was observed in Sk. 205. Due to the nature of the injury, which involved the whole right shoulder joint, this fracture has been discussed along with dislocations in Section 5.3.7.3. A 26-35 year old male, Sk. 210, had a left mid-shaft ulna fracture, which had healed well, although was misaligned (Plate 5.4). The corresponding radius was undamaged. Due to the strong force it takes to break the forearm, the two bones tend to break together.

When only one bone breaks, it is typically the ulna, usually as a result of a direct blow to the outside of the arm when raised in self defence. Injuries like these are sometimes termed 'parry' fractures although they can result from a fall with forced pronation (Lovell 2007:366).

Plate 5.4 Possible parry fracture of the ulna, Sk. 210. Scale bar 3cm.

Three male individuals (CPR 0.88%) had healed fractures to their metacarpal (hand) bones. The late-medieval CPR for hand fractures is 0.75% (Roberts & Cox 2003:239). These individuals included Sk. 95 with a fracture in the left fifth metacarpal (Plate 5.5), Sk. 135 with possible fractures and extensive osteophytic lipping and eburnation in the left and right first and second metacarpals and Sk. 181 with a fracture in the left fifth metacarpal.

Plate 5.5 Fracture of the left fifth metacarpal (shown on right), Sk. 95

Fractures of the fourth and fifth metacarpals are often referred to as 'boxers' fractures', since they can result from interpersonal violence. In modern studies, patients with hand fractures were typically men aged between 15 and 35 years (Van Onselen *et al* 2003) and the little finger ray (which includes the fifth metacarpal) the most commonly affected digit.

Lower limbs

Four individuals had fractures involving the tibia and fibula (CPR 1.17%). The late-medieval CPR for all tibia and fibula fractures is 1.6% (Roberts & Cox 2003:239). The distal tibia and fibula was affected in three individuals (Sk. 152, Sk. 304 and Sk. 314) with clear healed breaks in the mid-shaft or towards the ankle present in all three.

The most severe, or poorly reset, was Sk. 314, a possible female aged between 30 to 45 years old (Plate 5.6), who also showed signs of infection in the affected fibula. Fractures such as those exhibited by Sk. 314 (transverse or short oblique fractures at the same level) typically occur from angular force, such as from a fall or collision. The tibia can take several months to fully heal and its malunion in archaeological populations is not surprising, given the length of time the limb needs to be immobilised to fully recover (Lovell 2007:365).

Plate 5.6 Healed break of the lower part of the tibia and fibula, SK314. Scale bar 5cm.

One individual, Sk. 316, had his left tibia and fibula fused at the proximal ends. Although it is possible this is a congenital fusion (tibial-fibular synostosis) of the articulation, there is extra bone growth and bony spurs on the fibular head which might indicate a more traumatic aetiology. A possible fracture of a right proximal phalange of the foot was noted on Sk. 120. Several other individuals also had possible trauma related ankylosis of the toe bones (See Section 5.3.7.6).

Torso

Six individuals (CPR 1.76%) had fractures involving the vertebral column, primarily compression or crush fractures to the vertebral bodies. This rate is in keeping with the late-medieval CPR of 1.03%. Aside from one wedge shaped thoracic vertebrae in Sk. 167, all vertebrae affected were in the lumbar lower back region (Sk. 73, Sk. 140, Sk. 142 and Sk. 264).

An older adult male, Sk. 109, had a dislocation of the fifth lumbar vertebrae, in which the vertebra had moved forward due to an apparent weakness or fracture in the posterior vertebral processes (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 79). This condition is

termed spondylolisthesis and is visible in Sk. 109 due to the bony fusion of the fifth lumbar vertebra to the sacrum (Plate 5.7). This condition can have serious consequences in the form of lower back pain, tenderness in the area of the affected vertebrae and nerve damage (NHS choices 2014).

Plate 5.7 Fusion of the last lumbar vertebra to the sacrum due to spondylolisthesis, Sk. 109. Scale bar 5cm.

Two individuals had healed rib fractures (CPR 0.59%). Ribs are one of the most frequent fractures found in archaeological populations, with late-medieval populations having a CPR of 3.57%. The healed fracture of a left rib was clear on Sk. 181. Rib fractures occur most often as a result of direct trauma 'such as a blow or fall against a hard object' (Lovell 2007: 356) and usually heal with no complications.

Ribs fractured around the angle of the rib, as in the case of Sk. 181, are usually caused by force applied at the front. Interestingly, Sk. 181 is also one of the individuals with a 'boxer's fracture' of his left metacarpal.

Several pathological fractures were observed in the ribs of Sk. 129. These fractures are related to the presence of numerous lytic (bone destroying) lesions found throughout her skeleton. These lesions had structurally weakened the ribs, causing them to break along the shaft. Subsequent healing had resulted in diagnostic bumps along the rib shaft. The skeletal remains of Sk. 129 are discussed in more detail as a case study in Section 5.4.2.

5.3.7.3 Dislocation

Two individuals (CPR 0.59%) had dislocations associated with traumatic events. Initial dislocation primarily involves the soft tissue surrounding a joint and consequently, it is only long-term dislocations that are found in skeletal remains, since it takes some time for bony changes to occur. The most common joints involved in dislocation are the shoulder and the hip (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 25), which is indeed the case at All Saints.

Plate 5.8 Proximal fracture of right humerus resulting in misshapen shaft and osteomyelitis SK 205. Scale bar 5cm

An 18 – 25 year old male, Sk. 205, had a possible fracture of the proximal humerus (Plate 5.8), which had resulted in a misshapen and thickened humeral shaft and a deep bone infection (osteomyelitis). This had also resulted in the displacement of the humeral head from its normal position in the glenoid cavity and the flattened, osteophytic appearance of the normally rounded ball joint.

The normal morphology around the humeral head was also altered and it is likely that the muscles attaching in that region (the rotator cuff muscles) were damaged, making movement across this shoulder joint difficult for Sk. 205.

Plate 5.9 Left femur and pelvis articulation (posterior view), SK101; dislocation of hip with pseudo-arthrosis eburnation, porosity and osteophytic growth

An Older Adult male, Sk. 101, had a misshapen left femur head and acetabulum (Plate 5.9). Whilst both hip joints were somewhat osteoarthritic with eburnation, porosity and osteophytic growth, the right joint was entirely abnormal in appearance.

A pseudo-arthrosis (additional, abnormal joint) had formed between the posterior femur head and lower part of the acetabulum. It is likely that Sk. 101 experienced limited and uncomfortable movement in his hip joints, particularly the left.

5.3.7.4 Haematoma

Five individuals (CPR 1.5%) were found to have bone lesions consistent with sub-periosteal haematomas or 'bone bruises' (Table 5.3). These present as swollen areas in otherwise normal looking bone, a result of blood collecting underneath the periosteum, the protective tissue layer which covers bone.

Haematomas are often result of direct trauma, particularly to the lower leg which has little soft tissue protecting the bone and often occur in sports type injuries in modern populations (McKeag & Moeller 2007). It is notable that all individuals with lesions have at least one tibia or fibula haematoma: Sk. 56 has four possible haematomas, in addition to the numerous fractures and soft tissue injuries discussed in the previous section (see also the case study for SK56, Section 5.4.1). An example of a haematoma is shown in plate 5.10.

	Sex	Age	Location of lesions
Sk. 20	?M	20-24	Mid-shaft left tibia
Sk. 56	M	20-30	Distal left humerus, mid-shaft left tibia, left femur & mid-shaft right fibula
Sk. 157	M	45+	Right proximal femur & mid-shaft left tibia
Sk. 230	M	45+	Mid-shaft right tibia
Sk. 251	M	45+	Right mid-shaft tibia & right humerus.

Table 5.3: Haematomas present in the All Saints' assemblage

Although two individuals are in the younger adult age categories (Sk. 20 and Sk. 56), most individuals with these lesions are in the Older Adult category. All individuals with haematomas are male. This might indicate an occupational or activity related aetiology for haematomas at All Saints'.

Plate 5.10 Mid-shaft tibia SK251, with bulbous haematoma clearly visible. Scale bar 5cm.

The clinical consequences of sub-periosteal haematomas are similar to that of fracture, with pain on impact, debilitation and swelling of the affected area (McKeag & Moeller 2007). They are treatable with rest and limited weight bearing on the affected limb.

5.3.7.5 Amputation

A single individual, Sk. 32, had a clear, well-healed above-knee amputation of his right leg (Plate 5.11). This Older Adult male was a fairly robust individual, around 169cm tall and in good skeletal heath at the time of death, with only a little spinal joint disease and dental disease (commensurate with age) present. Amputation in the All Saints assemblage has a crude prevalence rate of 0.29%, a low rate in keeping with there being only a handful of examples known from late medieval and post-medieval sites. Greenwich Hospital evidenced six individuals dating from the early 19th century (CPR 6.19%), by way of comparison (Boston *et al* 2008, 62).

Plate 5.11 Amputated right femur with intact left as comparison, Sk. 32. Scale Bar 15cm.

Amputation in order to aid healing was practised in ancient Egypt (Dupras *et al* 2009) and has been found occasionally in Britain from around the 1st century AD onwards. Surgical treatment, such as amputation or trepanation, was a serious and dangerous undertaking prior to better anatomical understanding in the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century and the development of germ theory in the mid-nineteenth century (which emphasised the need for antiseptic precautions).

It is likely that most people in the medieval and early post-medieval periods who underwent significant amputation died from haemorrhage, shock or acute infection (Roberts & Cox 2003). Given the lack of infection and well healed appearance of Sk. 32's femur, it seems as though the operation was a success – perhaps due in part to the later date of the burial (post-1750).

The amputation at All Saints, Faringdon compares favourably with examples from Greenwich Hospital, where six individuals were recovered with missing either a leg or a hand (Boston *et al* 2008, 62); four were comparable with Sk. 32 having above knee amputations. In contrast with the four Greenwich Hospital examples, which all

evidenced bone resorption, resulting in the bone sometimes becoming tapered, thin or porous; a combination of any two indices was common (*ibid.*). None of the Greenwich Hospital cases evidenced the good regrowth of bone at the point of amputation which Sk. 32 shows.

5.3.7.6 Ankylosis

Ankylosis (abnormal fusion) of a joint may occur for a number of reasons, including trauma, infection and degenerative joint disease. There were ten individuals (2.93%) with at least one instance of ankylosis. Of these ten individuals, only two (Sk. 98 and Sk. 308) had ankylosis at more than one joint, and all ankylosed joints were located in the feet with the exception of Sk. 57, where the hand was involved.

Plate 5.12 Ankylosed toe, SK?. Scale bar 1cm.

Most often, the distal toe joints (distal and intermediate phalanges) were fused together, as seen in Plate 5.12, right. In the case of Sk. 163, two ankle bones had fused together (see case study on Sk. 163 for more detail, Section 5.4).

As the majority of ankyloses were observed in the distal part of the foot, it seems reasonable to assume trauma related ankylosis is responsible – the toes are liable to be damaged in trips and falls, in contact with objects (stubbed toes) and crushed by dropping objects on the foot, all of which could result in the small joints of the foot fusing.

Plate 5.13 Ankylosis of the proximal and intermediate hand phalanges, SK57. Scale bar 3cm

A single individual, SK57 had a finger joint fused at the proximal-intermediate phalangeal joint. The proximal part of the interproximal phalange was misshapen, osteophytic, and fused at a 110 degree angle (Plate 5.13). Although degenerative joint disease can cause fusion like this in the hand, the shape of the intermediate bone suggests this could be trauma related, the hands, as with the feet, being liable to damage from various sources,

5.3.8 Congenital and development anomalies

Spina bifida occulta was observed in five adult individuals (1.47%). This is in keeping with the CPR of 2.7% observed in earlier medieval populations (Roberts & Cox 2003: 180) although rates for later archaeological populations are not available. This condition presents as incomplete posterior fusion of the sacrum (Plate 5.14) and is the mildest and least serious form of spina bifida.

Plate 5.14 Spina bifida occulta. Scale bar 3cm.

It is generally asymptomatic and is present in around 10–20% of the (modern) general population. Although there may be a genetic component, it does not follow direct patterns of heredity and there is no suggestion that those affected at All Saints' were related.

Plate 5.15 Unilateral sacralisation. Scale bar 3cm.

Nine individuals had uni- or bilateral sacralisation of the last lumbar vertebrae (CPR 2.63%) shown in Figure 20, a rate in keeping with the 1.7% CPR observed in earlier medieval populations (Roberts & Cox 2003: 180) although rates for later archaeological populations are not available.

It is thought to occur in around 10% of the (modern) general population. This developmental anomaly may cause pain and discomfort in the form of lower back pain, although it can also be 'silent' with no symptoms.

Plate 5.16 Posterior view of left and right femurs, SK281. Scale bar 15cm.

A single individual (Sk. 281) was observed with a shortened and malformed left femur (Figure 21). As well as the shaft being significantly shorter on the left side, the medial condyle was higher than its equivalent on the right side and twisted laterally.

There is no sign of trauma and this defect appears to be development in nature, a congenital short femur (Ring 1959). The distal part of the femur shaft was flattened, with extra bone growth on the posterior and around the medial condyle. The main muscle attachment point on the back of the femur, the *linea aspera*, was less well expressed on the left side. Additionally, both femur heads were somewhat flattened, with short necks.

It is possible that Sk. 281 had congenital dislocation of the hip joint, although the preservation of the acetabulums was not sufficient to confirm this. The difference in length between the left and right legs would have been substantial in life (the difference is approximately 5cm in dry bone) and Sk. 281 would have walked with a limp.

There were numerous developmental defects of the vertebrae, sacrum and ribs of Sk. 228. These defects included fusion of vertebral processes, hemi-vertebrae, wedge shaped vertebral bodies, spina bifida occulta, several ribs fused together at the head/neck ends and malformed skeletal elements.

Such segmentation defects would have been caused in the first few foetal weeks of life (Sadler 2005: 36) during the development of structures that were to become the spine and ribs. This condition is discussed further in the case study on Sk. 228 in Section 5.4**.**

5.3.9 Circulatory disorders

No evidence of circulatory disorders other than osteochrondritis diseccans was observed in the assemblage.

Osteochondritis dissecans
Five individuals (1.47%) had small joint lesions consistent with osteochondritis diseccans (OD). This is near identical to the prevalence rate of OD in the early medieval period (1.5%) although rates for later populations are not available (Roberts & Cox 2003: 210).

Plate 5.17 Distal femur joint with OD, Sk. 341

These well-defined porous sub-circular defects in the surfaces of joints (particularly the knees) are caused by necrosis of the bone tissue, which results in the detachment of a piece of subchondral bone. This condition is usually a result of trauma or repeated microtrauma and is often found in young athletes (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998:81).

Two individuals had lesions in the distal femur at the articulation with the tibia (Sk. 39 and Sk. 341, pictured in Plate 5.17), one in the inferior articulation of the talus (an ankle bone, Sk. 120) and one in the base of the first metatarsal (Sk. 251). Symptoms of OD can include pain, swelling and locking of the joint during movement.

5.3.10 Joint Disease

This section includes evidence of degenerative joint disease, osteoarthritis, spinal joint disease and diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis.

Degenerative Joint Disease and osteoarthritis
Degenerative joint disease (DJD) is a chronic, progressive condition characterised by the loss of protective joint cartilage and subsequent bone changes from bone-on-bone contact, including new bone formation.

Plate 5.18 Distal femur joint with eburnation and osteophytic growth, SK28

It is the most common sort of joint disease observed in archaeological remains and is particularly common in older individuals. When multiple indicators of DJD are present, including eburnation, porosity and osteophytic growth, the condition may be termed osteoarthritis (OA). Forty-four individuals (CPR 12.9%) were found to have DJD or OA.

Plate 5.19 DJD of the proximal femur joint in Sk. 28, note porosity and extra bone growth

Joint disease can range from mild to very severe in nature and all stages were represented in the All Saints' assemblage. Whilst any joint can become involved in DJD, the larger weight bearing joints (such as the hip or knee) are more commonly and more severely affected (Auferheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 93-94), see Plates 5.18 – 5.20.

This propensity is reflected in the All Saints' group, where femur heads and their corresponding acetabulums were most frequently affected. Knees, wrists and the bones of the hands and feet were also affected by DJD.

Plate 5.20 DJD of the metacarpals, SK135.Note eburnation (polishing) on both articulations.

Charlotte Roberts and Margaret Cox (2003: 353) suggest that non-spinal degenerative joint disease affected around 14% of individuals in the late-medieval period and around 25% in the post-medieval period. The rate observed in this instance is therefore lower than might be expected of an assemblage straddling these two periods.

Spinal Joint Disease

Spinal joint disease (SJD) is the spinal equivalent of DJD. It was observed in 32% of the overall population, although that percentage increases to 45.5% if only the adult population is taken into consideration.

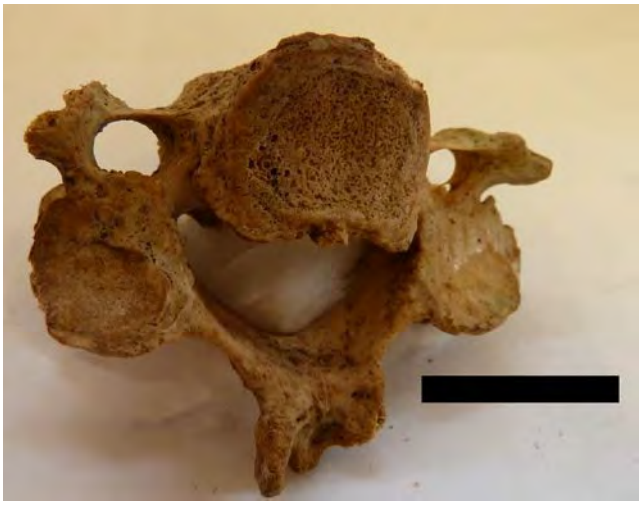


Plate 5.21 Inferior view of lower cervical vertebra, SK11.

In Older Adults, 77.5% had SJD, underlining the age related nature of the condition. It has been suggested that around one third of individuals from the late-medieval period had spinal degeneration (Roberts & Cox 2003: 282), although that rate appears to decrease in the post-medieval period to between 10 to 14%.

A 35 to 44 year old male, Sk. 11, demonstrates the typical changes associated with SJD, with osteophytic lipping around the vertebral body and articulations, eburnation of the inferior articulations and porosity of the vertebral body (Plate 5.21). These

changes can cause discomfort, stiffness and a reduction in normal range of movement (NHS choices 2014).

Diffuse Idiopathic Skeletal Hyperostosis (DISH)
A total of eight individuals (CPR 2.3%) had ossification of spinal ligaments consistent with DISH, a condition diagnosed by the fusion of at least four vertebrae by bone bridges which appear in the form of 'dripping candlewax' on the anterior right side of the vertebrae.

As is evident in Sk. 98 (Plate 5.22), the ossification can be quite substantial. The fusion of vertebrae in this manner can result in pain, aching, stiffness and loss of full range of movement. The rates observed here are similar to those found in modern populations (2.8%, Roberts & Manchester 1995: 121)

The exact cause of DISH is unknown, although it is often associated with obesity and late onset (Type II) diabetes (Rogers & Waldron 2001). There has been a link made between DISH and monastic populations, with rates of the condition found to be three times as high in monastic populations compared to lay populations (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 121).

This connection with monastic populations is probably related to the long-term consumption of rich food with little exercise. Whilst there is no suggestion that any of the affected individuals are male monastics, it is possible that their diets included the regular consumption of rich food and drink.

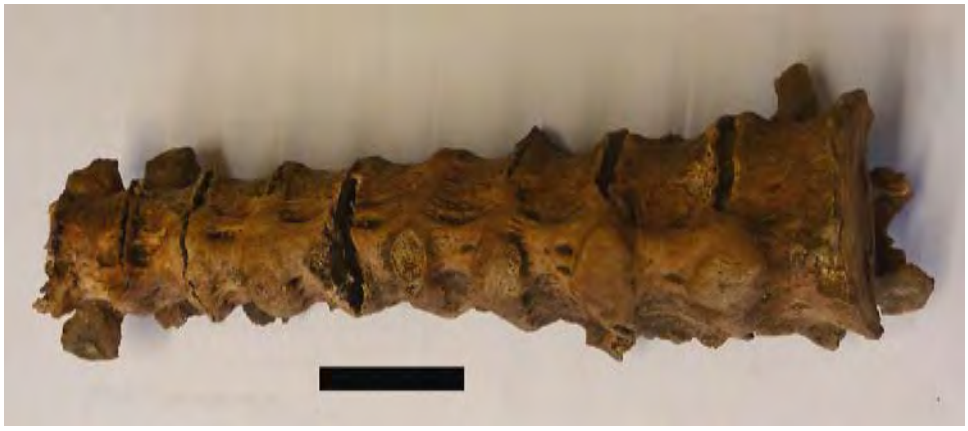


Plate 5.22 DISH of the thoracic and upper lumbar vertebrae, SK98. Scale bar 5cm.

5.3.11 Infectious conditions

This section describes instances of periostitis, non-specific infection and osteomyelitis. No specific infectious disease such as tuberculosis or leprosy was observed in this assemblage.

5.3.11.1 Periostitis, non-specific infections and osteomyelitis

There were 25 individuals (CPR 7.33%) who had some kind of infection. Periostitis and non-specific infections of the bone surface accounted for the vast majority of infections with 21 individuals (6.15%) affected. The primary locations for such infection were the tibias, fibulas and femurs.

Four individuals (1.17%) had osteomyelitis, a deep bone infection characterised by pus draining tunnels in the bone. In three cases the osteomyelitis was associated with healed bone fractures of long bones (Sk. 205, Sk. 223 and Sk. 205). A juvenile, Sk. 18, aged between nine and 13 at death had severe osteomyelitis in his or her right elbow joint, affecting the distal humerus and proximal ulna and radius (Plate 5.23).

This infection had resulted in bone inflammation, new bone formation, pus draining cloaca and areas of dead bone. In children, the incidence of osteomyelitis peaks between eight and 12, at a time when skeletal growth is most active (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 172).

Plate 5.23 Proximal right ulna, Sk. 18. Scale bar 3cm

Periostitis type infections in the All Saints' assemblage appear to be lower than expected of late-medieval and post-medieval population (14 – 26%). Deep bone infections occur around the same as found nationally in this period, in which the average CPR of both periods is less than 1%

5.3.12 Metabolic and haematological conditions

The only metabolic condition observed in more than one individual at All Saints' was osteoporosis. A single possible case of Paget's disease was also noted. Two haematological conditions, porotic hyperostosis and cribra orbitalia, were present.

5.3.12.1Osteoporosis

Osteoporosis is a reduction in bone mass and density which can lead to decreased bone strength and increased risk of fracture. Age is the most common correlate of osteoporosis (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 177), although diet, exercise and hormone fluctuations (for example during the menopause) can affect an individual's propensity to the condition.

Three individuals (CPR 0.9%) had probable osteoporosis, evidenced by reduced bone mass in comparison to other individuals in the assemblage. Two were female (Sk. 81 and Sk. 173) and one male (Sk. 83). All individuals who could be aged were over 40 years old at death.

5.3.12.2 Paget's disease

Paget's disease interrupts the cycle of bone renewal and repair, leaving bones deformed and weakened. It is considered to be idiopathic, although there is some suggestion that a slow acting virus is responsible (Roberts & Cox 2003: 282).

A single individual (CPR 0.29%), Sk. 306, a 35-45 year old female, was found to have thickened parietal and occipital cranial bones consistent with Paget's disease, although the fragmentary condition of the cranial material makes this a tentative diagnosis.

5.3.12.3 Cribra Orbitalia and Porotic Hyperostosis

Three individuals had cribra orbitalia (Sk. 118, Sk. 233 and Sk. 277) and two had porotic hyperostosis (Sk. 56 and Sk. 82). Of these five individuals, two were sub-adults. Cribra orbitalia and porotic hyperostosis are usually associated with iron deficiency anaemia (Goodman & Martin 2002: 27) or maternal Vitamin B12 deficiency (Walker *et al* 2009: 119).

Plate 5.24 Cribra orbitalia in the roof of the left eye socket, SK118

Both conditions tend to occur in infants and young children, but are visible in adults as healed or partially healed lesions. Cribra orbitalia presents as small holes in the roof of the orbits (Plate 5.24) and is usually bilateral. Porotic hyperostosis is similar in appearance, but is found on the outer table of the frontal and parietal bones on the skull. The rates of both conditions are low in the All Saints' assemblage (CPR less than 1% for both conditions) in comparison to national CPRs of 10.82% (late medieval, cribra orbitalia) and 8.95% (post-medieval).

5.3.13 Neoplastic disease

A single individual (CPR 0.29%) had lesions consistent with either metastatic (secondary) cancer or multiple myeloma. A woman aged over 45 years at death, Sk. 129, had hundreds of circular or oval lytic lesions located throughout her body. The lesions are consistent with either a metastases (the spread of cancer from one organ to another, such as from the lung, breast, kidney, pancreas, cervix to the bones) or

advanced myeloma (collections of abnormal plasma cells which accumulate in the bone marrow).

The two conditions are difficult to differentiate in dry bone. Detailed descriptions, photographs and radiographs of the lesions can be found in Section 5.4. Both conditions are uncommon finds in archaeological material, with the combined Crude Prevalence Rate in late-medieval and post-medieval populations less than 1% (Roberts & Cox 2003: 352).

A benign growth called an ivory osteoma was found on the frontal bone of the cranium of a Young Adult female, Sk. 82. These small round lumps cause no symptoms and probably would not have been noticed in life.

5.3.14 Dental pathology

Analysis of teeth from archaeological populations can provide unique insights into the diet, health, oral hygiene and extra-dietary habits of these groups. Adult teeth cannot be replaced or heal after trauma or disease, meaning that the dental arcade stands as a permanent record of such events. A total of 226 individuals had teeth or dental remains present for observation. In total 4264 teeth and 5742 tooth positions were observed.

5.3.14.1 Antemortem tooth loss (AMTL)

Ante-mortem tooth loss can occur through trauma (accidental or extraction), extensive caries and periodontal (gum) disease (Hillson 1996). Around half of the people in the All Saints' assemblage (49.8%) were found to have at least one tooth missing antemortem and the prevalence rate per tooth position was 18.3%.

Plate 5.25: SK19, a 45+ year old edentulous female

On average, those affected had 8.9 teeth missing. In some cases individuals were edentulous – that is, missing all of their teeth (Plate 5.25). This typically happens in older age and all of the three edentulous skeletons (Sk. 19, Sk. 63 and Sk. 121) recovered from All Saints' were over 45 years old at death.

The rate of AMTL at All Saints' fits within the averages observed in the late and post-medieval periods, 36.42% and 60.55% respectively (Roberts & Cox 2003: 263).

5.3.14.2 Dental caries

Dental caries (cavities) are caused by the acidic waste products of sugar metabolising bacteria on tooth surfaces, eroding away patches of enamel and dentine (Plate 5.26).

A total of 262 dental caries were present in the All Saints population. The prevalence rate per individual was therefore 46.58% and the rate per tooth position 6.1%. On average, people affected had 2.4 carious lesions each. Late-medieval populations are recorded as having rates per individual of 53% and rates per tooth position of 5.6% (Roberts & Cox 2003:259). Prevalence rates in post-medieval populations in Britain are similar, although notably, there is an increase in the per tooth position rate of 11.22% (ibid. 326) perhaps due to the increased consumption of sugar in the later period.

Plate 5.26 Upper first premolar tooth destroyed by caries. Note also the dental crowding of the incisors and canine and antemortem loss of the second premolar

5.3.14.3 Dental abscesses

Dental abscesses can form when bacteria enters the pulp cavity of the tooth after trauma or disease, causing fluid and pus to collect at the tip of the root. They become visible when a drainage hole is created in the bone (Plate 5.27).

Plate 5.27 Large abscess associated with the first molar of the mandible, SK27.

Forty-one dental abscesses were observed in 29 individuals in the All Saints' population. This gives a rate per individual of 12.39% and a rate per tooth position of less than 1%.

These figures are less than both the late-medieval and post-medieval rates per individual of 26.27% and 13.84% and rates per tooth position of 3.11% and 2.20% respectively (Roberts & Cox 260, 327).

5.3.14.4 Dental calculus

Dental calculus is a mineralised plaque deposit that typically adheres to the teeth in the area of the gum line. Calculus builds up over time if left unattended and can result in quite significant deposits (Plate 5.27). It can be removed from the teeth by scraping or brushing and its presence is therefore usually associated with a lack of dental hygiene (Hillson 1996).

Plate 5.27 Normal dental morphology obscured by heavy calculus deposits in SK284, right mandible

The prevalence rate per individual of calculus at All Saints was 57.7% and the rate per tooth position 14.3%. This indicates that over half of the people recovered had calculus deposits, with a sixth of their teeth affected.

This is around the same rate per individual observed in late-medieval British populations (59.18%), although less than the average rate per tooth position in this period (53.99%). This indicates that whilst nearly 60% of the population had some degree of calculus, they were only mildly affected.

5.3.14.5 Periodontal disease

Nearly all humans experience some level of gum disease in their lifetime. Inflamed gums, caused by oral bacteria, can eventually lead to the destruction of dental tissues, including the alveolar bone that supports the teeth in the dental arcade.

Periodontal disease can thus leave bone looking ragged and becomes identifiable in archaeological material. In total, 113 individuals with dentitions (33.14%) had evidence of periodontal disease. This is similar to the mean prevalence rate of 37% observed in later medieval populations (Roberts & Cox 2003: 261).

5.3.14.6 Dental Enamel Hypoplasia

Serious illness and physiological stress during development can interrupt the deposition of enamel and dentine, resulting in visible hypoplastic defects on tooth crowns (Figure 34). These developmental defects, which can be linear or pitted in nature (Ogden 2006) can be utilised to infer the systemic stresses of childhood in an individual.

A total of 116 teeth had DEH (2.72%) from just 36 individuals (rate per person of 15.45%). On average each affected individual had 3.2 teeth with hypoplastic defects.

Plate 5.28 Upper central incisor with linear hypoplastic defect, SK138. Note also unusual notched wear in lower right corner.

In late medieval populations in Britain, the mean CPR is 35.38%, with the majority of sites having DEH prevalence rates of between 20 to 40% (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 264). This would suggest that the incidence of childhood physiological stress in the All Saints assemblage is a little lower than expected.

5.3.14.7 Dental wear

Although it was not within the remit of this report to record general dental wear, some instances of unusual or extensive dental wear were found in the All Saints'

assemblage, which are worth noting. These primarily took the form of almost vertical wear in the front teeth, including the incisors and canines, often with well defined notches or grooves (Table 5.4, Plate 5.29). In total eight individuals were affected.

SK no.	Age	Sex	Nature of dental wear
Sk. 2	35-44	F	Upper incisor worn medially and posteriorally.
Sk. 132	45+	?M	Upper central incisor worn laterally past gum line with highly polished appearance.
Sk. 134	35-45	M	Incisors and canines on left side worn down.
Sk. 138	35-39	F	Lower premolar worn medial side exposing pulp cavity. Anterior teeth worn in middle of occlusal surface, possible groove.
Sk. 225	36-45	M	Two lower molars worn buccal (cheek) side extensively.
Sk. 276	Adult	?F	Lower right anterior teeth worn to root on one side with polished appearance.
Sk. 307	45+	F	Upper incisor with groove on lingual (tongue) side.
Sk. 330	45+	F	Groove running across lower right canine and lateral incisor.

Table 5.4 Unusual dental wear at All Saints'

Plate 5.29 SK132 with worn upper central incisor (No scale)

It is likely these patterns are related to use wear, resulting from the repetitive use of the teeth in the manufacture of a item or process, even now, teeth are used as a 'third hand' to manipulate certain items. Many common activities in the past could have led to dental wear like this, including basket making or weaving, sewing (holding twine, threads or needles between the teeth), net or rigging construction and leather work (Scott & Turner 1997: xx).

5.4 Case studies

Several of the individuals recovered from All Saints' Church are worth examining in more detail, due to unusual pathological conditions or burial positions. These include Sk. 56, Sk. 129, Sk. 145 and Sk. 146, Sk. 163 and Sk. 228.

5.4.1 Sk. 56 – multiple bone traumas

The east-west aligned un-coffined remains of a male, between the ages of 20 – 30 years at death were recovered from towards the middle of the excavation area, near the church. Around 172cm tall, this well preserved and near complete skeleton showed multiple bone traumas, including healed fractures and sub-periosteal haematomas.

Plate 5.30 Distal left and right humerii. Scale bar 5cm.

His left clavicle was thickened and slightly misshapen towards the lateral part of the shaft, indicating a well healed break of the collarbone. Both right and left humeri showed signs of trauma (Plate 5.30). The right lateral epicondyle (the attachment site for the extensor muscles of the arm) was malformed and osteophytic, indicating a significant soft tissue injury to those muscles. It is likely that at some point, the tendons had come away from the bone. The left humerus had a large, distinct bulge in the posterior-lateral distal shaft. This may have been a healed break or significant haematoma.

In the left wrist, both the ulna and the radius were misshapen and porous in appearance, with evidence of infection (osteomyelitis) in the region of the articulation between the two bones (Plate 5.31). The most common radius fracture is the Colles fracture, which occurs about 2cm above the distal articulation and almost always results from a fall onto the hand (Lovell 2007: 363).

Plate 5.31 Distal left ulna and radius. Scale bar 5cm.

His left tibia had a possible haematoma in the midshaft of the bone, as did the left femur. The right fibula was found to be misshapen in the distal part of the bone, indicating another healed break or a haematoma. Sk. 56 also had signs of porotic hyperostosis, a condition found in the cranial vault bones often associated with childhood iron-deficiency anaemia (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 349) which presents as small depressions across the parietal bones of the skull (Plate 5.32). A number of dental pathologies were also present on Sk. 56 including dental calculus, caries and two dental abscesses.

Plate 5.32 Detail of parietal (cranial) bone in SK56, showing the small round 'pin prick' depressions associated with porotic hyperostosis

The reasons behind the high level of trauma exhibited by Sk. 56 are unknown. It is possible a traumatic event or series of such events had befallen him, which could be related to his occupation, accidents or even interpersonal violence. It is also possible that an underlying condition is partly responsible, potentially making him more susceptible to haematomas. For example, scurvy (Vitamin C deficiency) initially presents as haemorrhages, in the skin and then deeper tissues. The defective collagen in scorbutic individuals can make the periosteum more liable to tear away from the bone, prompting more sub-periosteal haematomas to appear (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 311). Although this is not necessarily the case for Sk. 56, it is possible a systemic condition could have played a role in his condition.

5.4.2 Sk. 129 – multiple myeloma or possible metastatic carcinoma

The east-west aligned coffined remains of an older adult female, Sk. 129, were recovered from the eastern most part of the excavation area. She was lying supine, head to the west with her arms at her sides. Although an ordinary 19th-century burial in many respects, the level of pathology observed on this individual was considerable. The skeleton was 90% complete with excellent surface preservation of the majority of skeletal elements and little post-depositional damage.

Plate 5.33 Left aspect of SK129 cranium, showing lytic lesion

A multitude of small round lytic (bone destroying) lesions, ranging between a few millimetres to 30mm in diameter were observable throughout the skeleton, including in the cranium, clavicles, scapulae, humeri, ribs, vertebrae, pelvis, sacrum and femurs. In some instances the lesions had coalesced to produce larger voids. The most conspicuous lesions were located in the flat bones of the cranium (Plate 5.33) and pelvis, with more than thirty visible in the two pelvic blades alone.

Parts of the proximal left femur were entirely destroyed (i.e. the femur neck had been removed through proliferation of these lesions) and possible pathological fractures (breaks caused by disease) were observed in several rib fragments. The precise locations of these fractures could not be determined due to the highly fragmentary nature of the ribs – caused in part by the lesions weakening the skeletal elements.

Almost every vertebra present was affected by lytic lesions in the bodies or processes, although no pathological fractures were observed. Although the preservation of Sk. 129 was generally very good, no cervical vertebrae were recovered. This may indicate that these elements had experienced the same osteolytic destruction as the femur neck pictured in Plate 5.34. The proximal humeral heads had also been affected by her condition, with a large lesion in the right ball joint and a smaller lesion present in the shaft of the same bone, present only in radiographs.

Plate 5.34 The osteolytic destruction of the left femur head

The lesions initiated within the marrow of cancellous bone, with radiographs showing more, and larger, internal voids than could be seen on the exterior surfaces (Plate 5.35). The voids had a distinct 'punched out' appearance with no evidence of reactive bone growth around the margins of the lesions. On radiographs the lesions appear clearly delineated and sharp edged.

Such osteolytic destruction of the skeleton presents a diagnostic problem (Strouhal 1991) in dry bone. The two most likely explanations for Sk. 129's condition are multiple myeloma or lytic metastatic carcinoma. The former is a disorder of plasma cells and the latter a result of primary cancer elsewhere in the body, but both leave similar lesions in the same marrow producing bone locations (Auferheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998).

Differential diagnosis in archaeological dry bone has been a topic of on-going discussion in the osteological literature (Strouhal 1991, Alt & Adler 1992, Haidle 1995, Marks & Hamilton 2007 and Marques *et al* 2011 amongst others), although there is little agreement on the features that can separate the two diseases.

The lack of any osteoblastic (bone growth) associated with the lesions is considered typical of multiple myeloma (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 352) although the larger size of the size of the lesions and the lack of lesion symmetry between the left and right sides may suggest metastases (Marques *et al* 2011).

Both conditions occur most frequently in middle aged or elderly individuals, with multiple myeloma slightly more common in males than females and metastatic carcinoma dependant on the site of the original tumour. If this condition were

metastatic carcinoma, then the older adult age of Sk. 129 as well as her female sex could suggest breast cancer as a possible cause (Strouhal 1991: 222).

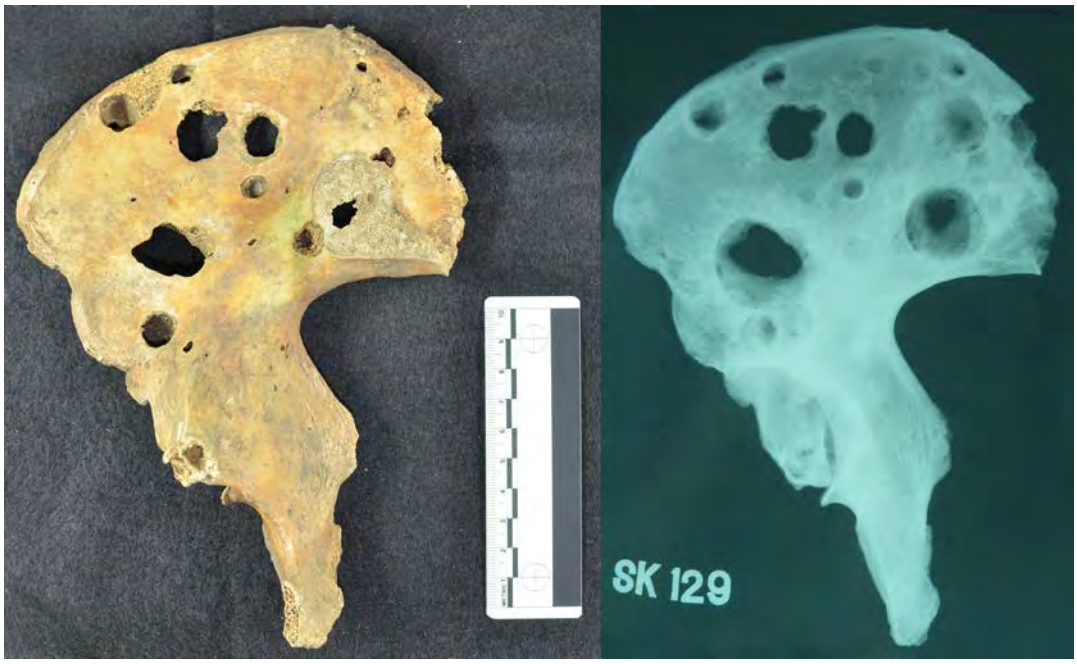


Plate 5.35 Right ilium of SK129 with corresponding radiograph

There is no doubt that Sk. 129 would have experienced a high degree of discomfort and disability from her condition. The destruction of the left femur neck alone would have left her unable to utilise that leg effectively – for instance, weight-bearing on such a joint would have been near impossible without injury.

The burial position (Plate 5.36) shows the left leg sitting a lot high than the right, suggesting the proximal femur destruction had resulted in a shortening of the affected leg. Several pathological rib fractures were noted and the threat of other, more significant fractures would have been continually present as the bones weakened.

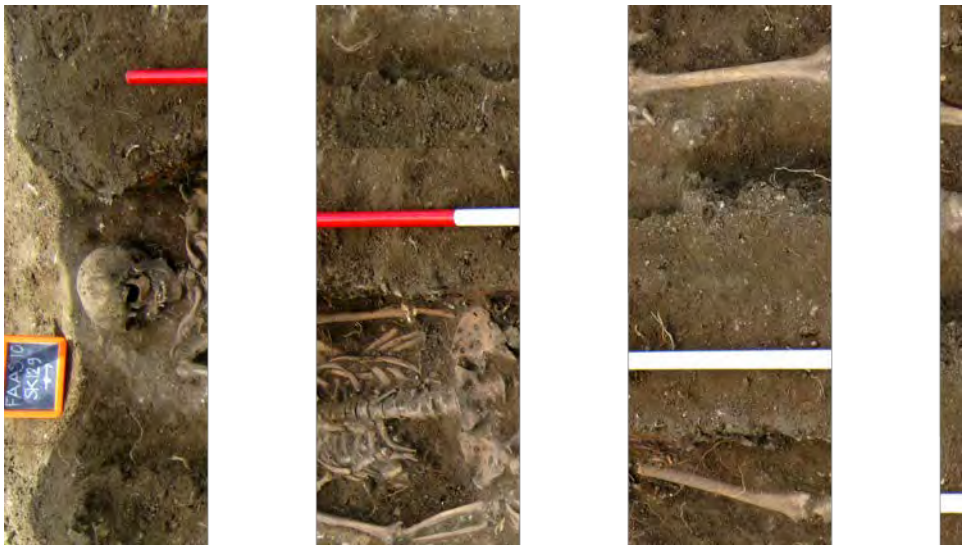


Plate 5.36 Sk. 129 in situ, note the higher level of her left leg

In respect of symptoms, Sk. 129 would have experienced bone pain, weakness, weight loss and lowered immunity to infection (NHS choices 2014) as well as tiredness and nausea.

5.4.3 Sk. 145 and Sk. 146 – childbirth or coffin birth

During excavation it became clear that the burial positions of Sk. 145, a female individual aged between 30 and 45 years at death and Sk. 146, a 28 to 30 week old foetal individual indicated a maternal relationship between the two. Buried in the same east-west aligned coffin, the child was positioned between the legs of Sk. 145, with its own legs and pelvis still within the older individual's pelvic inlet, resulting in the adult with her head to the west and the infants head to the east (Plate 5.37).

Plate 5.37 Sk. 145 (adult) with remains of neonatal individual Sk. 146 between her legs

Two scenarios could explain this unusual tableau. Firstly, this may show a double obstetric calamity, with both mother and child dying during childbirth. If this were indeed a birth, the age of the child suggests a premature birth by several weeks. Wide ranging complications including blood loss or prolonged/obstructed labour could have led to the death of both individuals.

Secondly, it is also possible that Sk. 145 was heavily pregnant at the time of her death and after burial, the natural processes of decomposition expelled the foetus through the birth canal into the empty space of the coffin, resulting in a so-called 'coffin birth'. Although true coffin births are rare in both archaeological and forensic literature (Sayer & Dickinson 2013) given the extent to which the child had already exited the womb it also seems unlikely that a foetus such as Sk. 146 would not have been removed from its mother for its own burial.

Without access to modern gynaecological medicine, obstetric deaths were not uncommon occurrences in the past. Indeed, childbirth has been described as the 'biggest single cause of death for women' (Sayer & Dickinson 2013: 285), a multi-

etiological killer for women of reproductive age. It is impossible to know the true circumstances surrounding the death of Sk. 145 and her child, but the remains show an incontrovertible, if tragic, familial connection.

5.4.4 Sk. 163 – Henry Minter

Sk. 163 was the only individual recovered from All Saints' Church to be associated with a legible and intact coffin plate. The shield shaped coffin plate was inscribed HENRY MINTER/ DIED 1856/ AGED 66. Information from the 1851 census indicates that Henry Minter, a widower originally from Canterbury, Kent, worked as a butler at Sodbury House in Faringdon. The skeletal assessment identified that the individual, Sk. 163, was male, aged between 60 and 80 years of age at the time of death; he was notably robust, with strong muscle attachments throughout the skeleton, with particularly prominent attachments in the arms and forearms.

Plate 5.38 Fused ankle bones of Henry Minter . Scale bar 5cm.

There were numerous signs of degenerative joint and spinal disease in Sk. 163, including osteophytic lipping and ligament ossification of the vertebral column and extra bone growth around the acetabulums. Two bones in the left ankle (the navicular and lateral cuneiform) were fused together, along with extra bone growth around several ankle bone joint surfaces (Plate 5.38). The joint between the sacrum and ilium of the pelvis (the sacroiliac joint) was abnormally fused on both sides with bridging osteophytes, meaning the entire pelvis was found as one unit as opposed to in three parts. This condition is more prevalent in males than females, particularly in the over 45 years age category, and has been noted to occur more frequently in individuals with spinal joint disease, diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis (DISH) and those predisposed to extra bone formation (Waldron & Rogers 1990).

The dental health of Sk. 163 was found to be poor, with 78% (n=21) teeth lost antemortem and the remaining teeth (all located at the front of the lower jaw) somewhat worn with calculus deposits adhering. This level of tooth loss was not unusual for the post-medieval skeletons found at All Saints, although it does suggest that Mr Minter had experienced significant tooth loss in the years before his death, perhaps caused by eating cariogenic (cavity forming) foods or a lack of adequate dental hygiene.

These conditions are commensurable with the advanced age of the individual, particularly the degenerative changes of the spine and other joints, which may have caused Mr Minter the kinds of discomfort commonly associated with osteoarthritis. The sacroiliac fusion would have led to a reduction in the range of his normal mobility in his lower back/hips and may have caused some pain in that region. The general robusticity of Mr Minter, in combination with the extra bone growth exhibited in the post-crania may indicate he had experienced a strenuous working life – one that ended in 1856 whilst he was probably still employed as butler at Sodbury House in Faringdon.

5.4.5 Sk. 228 – congenital abnormalities

A sub-adult individual, Sk. 228, was recovered from the eastern end of the excavation area, aligned east-west in a supine position, arms positioned across the pelvis. A number of ferrous items consistent with a coffined burial were found associated with the inhumation. Age estimation, based on epiphyseal union (e.g. unfused proximal humerus, unfused distal radius and ulna) and dental eruption, indicates the individual was aged between 16 and 18 years of age at death. Although sex is not usually estimated for sub-adults, the general robusticity of Sk. 228 as well as some distinctly masculine features of the skull and pelvis suggest he was male.

Plate 5.39 Cervical vertebrae of SK228

The skeleton was 95% complete and well preserved, with excellent surface detail visible. There was a moderate degree of post-mortem fragmentation, with the front of the cranium damaged during excavation and some damage to the long bones. A multitude of anomalous features were observed in the vertebrae, ribs and sacrum of Sk. 228. These features included; malformed cervical vertebrae, two of which were missing the right half of the spinous processes (C5 and C6) and one with a present, but bifurcated spinous process (C7) and fused thoracic vertebrae (T1 to T3) with malformation of the processes and vertebrae bodies (Plate 5.39).

'Butterfly' vertebral bodies were observed in the upper thoracic region, in addition to at least one hemivertebra, where the vertebral body had failed to fuse in the midline (Plate 5.40). Malformations of the lumbar vertebrae with missing right spinous processes, ribs asymmetrically fused at the head ends (Plate 5.41), bilateral supernumerary cervical ribs and spina bifida occulta in the sacrum characterised Sk. 228. As a result of these anomalies, growth asymmetries between the left and right side resulted in wedge shaped vertebrae and a marked scoliosis of the spine.

Plate 5.40 Thoracic vertebrae (anterior view) showing 'butterfly' and hemivertebrae

The nature of the condition observed in Sk. 228 is consistent with a congenital anomaly. There is no evidence of healed trauma and elements of the bone are missing in a way to suggest they were never present. Abnormalities such as this happen in the early stages of foetal development and can happen for a number of reasons, including genetic abnormalities, environmental stresses and errors of cell division and consolidation.

Plate 5.41 Fused ribs and lower cervical/upper thoracic vertebrae (from posterior, left ribs)

In this case, the disruption to development came in the early stages of foetal development probably in the fifth or sixth foetal week (Sadler 2005: 36, Turnpenny 2008: 164). Without genetic testing or intensive radiographic survey, it is impossible

to attribute this condition in skeletal remains to a particular syndrome. Thus, it is only possible to describe this as spondylocostal dystosis or general multiple segmentation defects of the vertebrae (Offiah *et al* 2010).

In addition to these developmental malformations, Sk. 228 also had a small joint lesion in his right distal humerus (Plate 5.42) consistent with osteochondritis dissecans, suggesting repeated microtrauma in the elbow joint. He also had some calculus deposits on his anterior teeth, although no other pathological conditions were noted.

Plate 5.42 Right distal humerus with osteochondritis dissecans

The extent of deformity in the thorax of Sk. 288 would have had clinical ramifications (Vázquez-López et al 2005). The most severe expressions of this condition can cause death in infancy due to mechanical respiratory failure (Roberts *et al* 1988: 123). Although Sk. 228 had made it past infancy and early childhood, his death as an adolescent or young adult may well have been associated with his condition. The scoliosis and reduction of size of the chest cavity due to the fused ribs and malformed vertebrae would have caused a foreshortened trunk and would certainly have impacted on his quality of life and may well have proved fatal.

5.5 Discussion

The human skeletal remains from All Saints' Church were generally well preserved with high levels of completeness. The burial rites observed were in keeping with typical medieval and post-medieval Christian traditions, with the vast majority of individuals found buried supine, aligned with their heads to the west and feet to the east. There was clear evidence of burial textiles including shrouds, winding clothes or ribbon ties to keep arms and feet together and coffins were indicated by the presence of wood or ferrous coffin furniture in at least 120 individuals (see Denis section 6.2).

The excavation area lay on the north side of the church. The north sides of churchyards have long been associated with being less favourable burial sites (Puckle 1926), although this can also be the south side of the church, if it is the part located away from the town or village; the so called 'backside' of the church. However, there is nothing to suggest that this area is un-consecrated or an area reserved for aberrant burials (suicides, murderers and so on) since the area is well used, representing a broad range of people including named individuals.

It is possible that the people inhumed in this part of the church were from lower socio-economic groups, with fewer gravestones apparent and none of the showier table tombs or monuments seen on the south side of the church near the main entrance. However, with one exception (the face down and west-east aligned individual Sk. 313 discussed in Section 5.3.3**)**, everyone was buried in the same tradition, prepared for burial in shrouds or coffins and buried with some ceremony, in what are likely to have been individual grave cuts. Some of the coffins were decorative and included name plates. There is no suggestion that those buried in this part of the graveyard were unfortunate paupers or buried in mass graves, a concern voiced by some of present day All Saints' parishioners during the Open Days.

There were equal numbers of males and females recovered (1:1 sex ratio) which is reflective of the wider population from which the assemblage was taken. There was no grouping of the burials by sex, with males and females distributed evenly across the area of excavation. All age groups were represented, from neonates to older adults. The age distribution was reflective of a normal attritional population, with peaks of death in the older adult and infant or young juvenile age categories.

There was no clear spatial patterning according to age, although most neonates did come from the middle of the excavation area – but it is possible the density of burials could explain this apparent surfeit of infants. Patterning according to sex, age and socio-economic status can often be observed in medieval and post-medieval graveyards – for instance, wealthier patrons are often buried within the walls of the church or on the approach to the main door – but it is likely the excavation area was not sufficiently large to pick up on this kind of arrangement.

Numerous pathologies were observed at All Saints, Faringdon, ranging from fractures and dislocations to advanced neoplastic disease and mild to severe congenital abnormalities. However, prevalence rates of disease were generally close to the expected values found in late-medieval and post-medieval populations. These findings suggest that the All Saints' assemblage represents an approximately normal population living, working and dying in a manner expected for the late-medieval and post-medieval periods.

The population appears to have been engaged in high levels of physical activity though, with fractures of the lower limbs, ankylosis of the toes and haematomas widespread throughout the group. Injuries and infections in the lower limbs are often associated with agriculture (Roberts & Manchester 1995: 130) and might indicate at the very least that some of those buried at Faringdon were regularly active. The number of vertebral fractures and rates of spinal joint disease would also support idea of the active population, both of which were higher than might be expected, certainly for the late-medieval period.

The older age groups are well represented and several of them exhibited extensive degenerative joint and spinal disease, the kind that perhaps would be expected for a life-time of physical activity. Henry Minter (Sk. 163) for example, lived well into his 60s, working as a butler in Faringdon towards the end of his life. He had numerous signs of degenerative joint and spinal disease, which would have undoubtedly caused him 'aches and pains' for some time before his death.

The dental wear patterns noted in Section 5.3.14.7 support the idea that many people from Faringdon took part in day-to-day physical activity. There is no doubt that the extensive wear seen on the anterior teeth, in addition to the grooves and marks observed were a result of particular repeated activity. This could have been basket making or weaving, sewing – any activity that used the mouth as a 'third hand' to hold objects whilst they were manipulated. It is interesting to note that the workhouse in Faringdon, which opened in the mid 19th century, contained a yard with a 'small mill for the dressing, spinning and winding of hemp' (Edgington 1973), demonstrating that this kind of industry was taking place not too far away from the churchyard.

It is likely that interpersonal violence was an occasional occurrence in Faringdon, with a possible parry fracture of the forearm, broken nose and several so-called 'boxer's fractures' of the hand bones observed. These hand bone fractures are particularly convincing as evidence of interpersonal violence, since all belonged to male individuals; the group most likely to suffer from such breaks in modern populations (Van Onselen *et al* 2003).

Dental health at All Saints' was generally good (although given much higher modern standards, it may not appear that way). Rates of dental disease were near the average rates observed in late-medieval and post-medieval Britain. Antemortem tooth loss and dental cavities for example, affected around half of the population, but this was not unusual for the time. Dental abscesses were less frequent than expected, despite the good preservation of bony dental material. It could be that rudimentary dental care was available, although even until fairly recently this would have only been a tooth-drawer, perhaps a local 'barber-surgeon'.

Calculus deposits were present in around 60% of the population, but only around 14% of teeth were affected. This is in stark contrast with other contemporary populations, in which around 60% of teeth had calculus deposits adhering. This is a reflection of improved dental hygiene, with people in Faringdon clearly removing some of the tartar that accumulated on their teeth. Such deposits can be removed using a fingernail or scraping device, but toothbrushes became widely available in the 18th century and could well be the reason for the lower rates of calculus deposits seen here.

Although many of the inhumations dated to the post-medieval period, no evidence of dental prostheses were found. Crude dentures and bridges dating to the 18th century onwards are occasionally found archaeologically in Britain (Roberts & Cox 2003:231), as is evidence of past dental treatment in the form of fillings. However, there is no suggestion of dental treatment like this in the All Saints' assemblage. There is one example of surgery; the above knee amputation of Sk. 32. Amputation is not a common archaeological finding and Sk. 32 is an excellent well healed example from the 18th or 19th century. It is likely that medical care of some level was available to some of the past inhabitants of Faringdon.

As in any population, there were examples of congenital or developmental problems in Faringdon. Some of these, such as spina bifida occulta or the sacralisation of the last lumbar vertebrae would not have been noticeable, save for an occasional bad back. However, the malformed shortened femur of Sk. 281 and the numerous defects

in the vertebrae and ribs of Sk. 228 would have significantly affected the lives of those people. The shortened femur of Sk. 281 would have caused ambulatory problems from a young age and this may have affected his career choices or other physical abilities. The problems faced by Sk. 228 would have likely been much greater however. Although children suffering from such defects can attain a good quality of life now (Vázquez-López *et al* 2005) there would have been little to no treatment for the respiratory problems caused by the Sk. 228's shortened trunk. His death as a young man may well have been related to his condition.

Generally though, the population excavated at All Saints' was healthy. Rates of general infection were normal and the majority of the most severe kind (osteomyelitis) were associated with traumatic events rather than systemic disease. Levels of Dental Enamel Hypoplasia (which usually indicate periods of ill health or malnutrition as a young child) were lower than expected. So too were rates of cribra orbitalia and porotic hyperostosis, which are often seen as signs of iron deficiency anaemia. The presence of DISH (the candle-wax like bone growth on the vertebrae) might even indicate that some of past population of Faringdon ate a rich diet and exercised very little.

Cause of death is often hard to determine in archaeological populations (White *et al* 2003:354) since the majority of deaths in the past occurred due to acute infections or soft tissue trauma which leave no evidence in skeletal remains. It is hard to imagine though, that Sk. 129 did not die as a result of the skeletal lesions she was riddled with from multiple myeloma or metastatic carcinoma. Although the concept of pain is subjective and impossible to quantify in the past, it is likely that Sk. 129 experienced a great deal of discomfort. Given the late date of the burial (19th century) it is possible that she would have had access to effective pain relief.

Another probable cause of death can be seen in Sk. 18, a 9 to 13 year old with a grossly infected right elbow who likely died as a direct result of that infection. Mortality rates for osteomyelitis infection can be over 20% without adequate treatment (Aufderheide & Rodríguez-Martin 1998: 172).

The skeletal remains recovered from All Saints' churchyard provide an excellent window into the lives of the past parishioners of Faringdon. Although the skeletal remains have been reburied, the osteological and archaeological information recovered will remain available to researchers, adding to the growing corpus of information about the medieval and post-medieval population of Britain.

It is hoped that further publications and academic work will be produced using the All Saints data, potentially aiding the understanding of the history of disease. Osteological investigation has provided an opportunity to tell the story of some of the previously anonymous past parishioners of Faringdon, shedding light on a group of people who probably left very little of themselves behind in written records.

6 BURIAL PRACTICE AND TECHNOLOGY *by Simona Denis*

6.1 Coffins

Introduction

In total, 136, or 40%, of the individuals buried at Faringdon were buried in a wooden coffin; no remains of lead shells were recovered. The presence of a coffin was in most cases (89% of coffined burials) indicated exclusively by the metalwork associated with it; 12 of the burials showed traces produced by the process of degradation of the planks.

Furthermore, it is possible that a parish coffin existed, which would account for the 205 individuals who did not have a coffin burial. The potential relative poverty of those buried on the north side has been alluded to above.

None of the coffins were sufficiently well-preserved to identify the form with any great accuracy, although some may well have been coffin-shaped, whereas others seem to have been rectangular. This interpretation is based on the location of nails planned during excavation.

Plate 6.1.1 –Coffin fragment, • 170 (Sk 160)

In only five cases, 1.5%, were remains of the coffin wood preserved; these consisted mostly of simple fragments of wood (• 67 & • 72: Sk. 109; • 103: Sk119; Sk. 157 and Sk. 307). The two remains associated with Sk. 160 conserved upholstery pins still inserted in the wood; • 170, the largest fragment, shows a group of 6 arranged in three parallel lines. The smaller fragment has two pins (plate 6.1.1).

It has, nevertheless, not been possible to identify the wood employed in the construction of the coffins. It is generally taken that elm was the standard wood used for coffins (Miles 2008, 31; Litten 1991, 90), although oak may well have been the preferred material (Gilchrist & Sloane 2005, 111), despite the acknowledged use of Scots Pine at Jewbury, York (Lilly *et al*. 1994, 384-5) during the medieval period.

Coffin furniture

Metalwork was recovered from 122, or 36%, of the burials. All of the coffin furniture recovered during the excavation was made of iron and tin. These were the two most common materials available in the 18th century, primarily for reasons of cost, usually

associated with working class coffins in the later Georgian and Victorian eras (Boston 2008; 16-7).

On the other hand, the practice of painting tin grip plates in black was a more expensive variant (Litten 1991), possibly to disguise the fact that the grips were made of cheap materials (Webb 2007; 10), but one cannot overlook the importance of appropriate grieving during the middle and later years of the Victorian period. Black painting was positively registered for seven examples from Faringdon (coffin 371, Sk. 10; coffin 374, Sk. 119; coffin 377, Sk. 120; coffin 399, Sk. 113; coffin 431, Sk. 139; coffin 495, Sk. 160 and coffin 505, Sk. 163), 24% of the burials with grip plates.

From the early 18th century it became increasingly common to decorate the coffin with upholstery and elaborate metal fittings. After 1730 the production of coffin furniture by stamping machines became power assisted, allowing mass production and a reduction in cost. The financial investment in funeral furnishing grew over the course of the 18th and into the 19th century, reaching its zenith in the 1840s. After that date, a taste for a simpler funeral became the norm. More elaborate coffin furniture is therefore likely to be dated to the previous, late Georgian-early Victorian period (Boston 2005; 82; 88).

Coffin clothes

43 burials (35% of the graves containing metalwork) had shroud pins, indicating the body was wrapped and/or clothed; copper alloy pins were in fact used to both pin the shroud in place or hold garments to prevent slippage (McCarthy et.al. 2012; 284). Shroud pins were in use from the 12th century onwards (Gilchrist & Sloane 2005, 110) and winding sheets continued in use well into the 19th century (Cowie *et al*. 2008, 35), necessitating the use of pins or tape.

Eight individuals (Sk. 81, Sk. 105, Sk. 135, Sk. 157, Sk. 163, Sk. 169, Sk. 231 and Sk. 288) buried in coffins had both copper alloy pins and buttons, eyelets or fasteners, positively indicating that the body was clothed, even if none of the textile survived.

The practice of dressing the dead in everyday personal clothing is considered to be earlier that the custom of wrapping the body in a nightdress-like shroud (Gilchrist & Sloane 2005, 80, 83-4; Boston 2009; 170).

However, no religious paraphernalia, such as crosses, *bullae*, pilgrim badges and so forth, was found in association with the bodies excavated at All Saints. These are not common finds so their absence is not diagnostic of a post-Reformation cemetery in and itself.

Cleaning methodology

The state of preservation of the artefacts was generally poor; the iron and pressed tin coffin furniture showed advanced corrosion, while the copper alloy objects were generally better preserved.

The objects were cleaned with a wire brush to remove the rust; a selected number of iron and tin items were then cleaned using electrolysis. However, in most cases the advanced state of corrosion of the artefacts prevented a complete cleansing. The

objects were suspended in a weak washing soda solution and connected to an electric power source using a crocodile clip for 12 to 24 hours, depending on the extent of corrosion. The items were then air-dried and scrubbed with a plastic brush to remove residues. Copper alloy objects were simply wire-brushed.

Recording and reporting

The objects were recorded onto an Excel spreadsheet after being cleaned. Dimensions and fragment count were recorded and a photographic record made where possible and appropriate. Material, observations and finally dating was added to the spreadsheet.

This report was compiled from the various records of the spreadsheet with a view to establishing a chronology of the remains. Seven different groups were identified based on the type of the coffin furniture recovered, which are laid out below in an order of decreasing complexity: from the more elaborate sets including grip and decorative plates, to plain coffins with little or no decoration.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plate fragments	Shroud Pins
7	418	23	105	2	4	-	-
9	131	18	1	10	2	-	-
10	371	70	362	29	10	101	-
12	949	15	4	2	1	2	-
13	828	6	-	1	2	1	-
15	827	8	-	2	-	1	-
18	830	14	20	1	1	14	1
19	419	19	10	1	1	11	1
30	831	23	12	-	1	11	-
84	964	13	-	1	1	-	1
94	310-311	3	2	1	1	-	-
95	315	43	30	1	-	30	-
102	977	18	-	7	5	70	-
103	987	16	36	1	9	77	2
118	369	29	-	15	3	13	-
119	374	23	100	20	5	43	5
120	377	36	236	47	5	87	1
122	383	23	18	2	2	14	3
131	980	30	2	1	2	3	2
139	431	5	14	25	5	21	-
157	489	33	86	15	3	20	1
160	495	8	12	19	6	45	-
163	505	23	107	77	6	50	6
164	507	23	88	9	5	54	1
166	514	12	-	4	1	-	-
169	523	33	100	8	1	-	1
230	661	318	1	8	6	50	-
240	680	13	25	5	5	-	-
248	699	32	108	37	3	-	4

Table 6.1 Burials with elaborate sets of coffin furniture

Coffins with grip plates complete with handles

Twenty-nine burials have elaborate sets of coffin furniture, including grip plates complete with handles and possible decorative plates. One hundred and seventeen fragments were examined, including eight complete grip plates with attached handles,

27 fragmentary plates with attached handles, 13 fragmentary grip plates with detached handles, 27 fragmentary grip plates and 91 handles with no grip plates preserved. Except for a single example (type 7, coffin 827, Sk. 15), made entirely of iron, all of the grip plates recovered are made of pressed tin and all of the handles of cast iron.

Of the burials containing grip plates, 80% also have upholstery pins, indicating the presence of textile lining the outer faces of the wooden coffins. This practice was common during the 18th and early 19th centuries; it started to decline with the introduction of French polishing in the 1850s but survived for a century in more conservative areas (Janaway 1988; 21-2). None of the textile associated with burials was preserved, and due to the almost complete decaying of the coffin wood, it was not possible to identify any decorative arrangement of the pins.

The more complex examples of furniture, coffins 505 (Sk. 163) and 377 (Sk. 120), include decorated grip plates, escutcheons and nameplates of identical design. The more complete sets, with grip plates found in situ, show that the grips were placed along the two sides of the coffin at regular intervals, by the sides of the head, by the hands and by the lower legs, and at the two ends, by the top of the head and the feet.

Eight different types of grip plates were recognised based on the shape and decoration of both plates and handles, with an additional group for remains of plates too corroded and fragmentary for a positive identification of the decoration. Although precise dating is often impossible, a number of elements and trends in the furniture decoration can be assigned to a specific period.

Four of the grip plate types match the Christ Church, Spitalfield taxonomy, which included CCS3, CCS4, CCS14 and CCS33. A single grip plate (coffin 827, Sk. 15) seems to be a variant of two types, IVa and IVe, identified at the Kingston-upon-Thames burial ground (Richmond 2007; fig.14). The remaining designs are not known within contemporary assemblages.

Thirteen individuals also had shroud pins, indicating the body was buried wrapped in a shroud, as opposed to dressed; clearly the use of shrouds can be evidenced to extend well into the 19th century in rural parishes, whereas in more urban areas their use was uncommon. Indeed, one of the few certain dates associated with the excavation, that of Henry Minter's death in 1856 (Sk. 163), can also be associated with the use of shroud pins.

Plate 6.1.2 –Type 1, • 110 (Sk 120)

- **Type 1** (plate 6.1.2)**:** Triangular, curved cut pressed tin grip plate decorated with central winged cherub head at the bottom and floral decoration along top and sides. Curved, cast iron handle, not decorated. This group is the most represented, being 20% of the total of coffins with decorative plates.

Traces of black paint were present on five of the six examples comprising this group, indicating this design was originally painted and therefore more expensive than other types, which is also suggested by the greater complexity of the sets recovered.

The simple, plain rounded handle with no embellishment associated with type 1 plates seems to have been most popular between the latter part of the 18th and the first half of the 19th century (Miles 2008; 35). No exact reference for the plate design was found in the literature, although a similar curved cut, triangular shape of the grip plate with a central winged cherub head characterizes type CCS4 recorded at Spitalfields (undated), Islington (1807-1850) and Bloomsbury (1827-1843).

The overall date for this type is 1807-1850 (Boston 2009; Plate 8.5, Table 8.2). The Faringdon example seems to have a more elaborate cut as well as more extensive decoration; however, the overall style is comparable with the Spitalfields model, which could point to a similar date range for type 1. A slightly later date, until the late 1850s, is suggested by the association of grip plate type 1 with a *depositum* plate in coffin 377 (Sk. 120); an identical breast plate recording the year of death 1856 was in fact found in association with Sk. 163 (coffin 505).

Catalogue

Coffin 371 (Sk. 10) – set including 4 complete grip plates with attached handles, of a total of 10 grips recovered. Eight of the grips were found in situ, three along each side of the coffin and two at the ends. The complete grip plate ” 88 shows traces of the original black painting.

Coffin 374 (Sk. 119) – a coffin wood fragment (” 103) was recovered near the left fibula. The four handles recovered came from the right side of the skull and from both lower legs, and show remains of the original black painting.

Plate 6.1.3 – Breast plate, • 106 (Sk 120)

Coffin 377 (Sk. 120) – set including 5 grip plates complete with handles (” 104, ” 106, ” 110, ” 111, ” 113), 3 fragmentary grip plates (” 105, ” 107, ” 108), one handle (” 106), 2 escutcheons (” 108, ” 109), and a pressed tin name plate (” 106). The grip plates were recovered by both femurs, by both fibulae and at the two ends of the coffin. The breastplate

” 106 (plate 6.1.3), found collapsed on the pelvis area, is decorated with a central crest lined by a “rope/braid”, and two symmetrical standing, robed figures at sides.

Even if the plate were preserved in acceptable conditions, the surface was extensively corroded and no traces of writing or painting were visible. The rectangular, pressed tin plate ” 109, collapsed on the right tibia, is decorated with a central urn with flower and a floral decoration along sides. Variations of this design are known from contemporary burial grounds, like Bethnal Green, London Borough of Tower Hamlets, usually decorating foot plates (Ives 2012; 37). Plate ” 109 and the complete grip plate ” 110 both show traces of the original black painting.

Coffin 399 (Sk. 113) – grip plates fragments with traces of black painting and coffin nails were recovered in the skull area.

Coffin 419 (Sk. 19) – grip plates fragments and coffin nails were recovered in the skull area.

Coffin 431 (Sk. 139) – set including 5 grip plates complete with handles (” 146, ” 148, ” 149, ” 150, ” 151) and 2 fragmentary plates. The grip plates were recovered from the two end of the coffin, by both sides of the skull, by the left hand and by the right fibula. Grip plate ” 146 shows traces of the original black painting on the central area and on the handle. A fragment of possible decorative element was also recovered, consisting in a flat, small (22x12 mm) pressed tin strip with possible geometrical decoration.

Plate 6.1.4 - Type 2, • 200 (Sk 160)

- **Type 2** (plate 6.1.4)**:** Triangular, curved cut pressed tin grip plate with floral decoration along sides; the overall cut closely resembles type 1, but the cherub’s head is absent. The curved, cast iron handle was not decorated. This group constituted 16% of the assemblage.

  No references were found for this design, although the similarity of the cut and of the general appearance with type 1 could indicate a similar date range (1807-1850s) for this group.

Catalogue

Coffin 680 (Sk. 240) – the three grips were found by the top and the right side of the skull, and by the left lower leg.

Coffin 830 (Sk. 18) – no record made of the location of the grips.

Coffin 964 (Sk. 84) – two grips recovered by the left arm and by the right side of the skull.

Coffin 987 (Sk. 103) – four grips were found by the top of the skull, by both shoulders, and by the right foot.

Coffin 495 (Sk. 160) – set including 5 grip plates complete with handles (" 200, " 201, " 202, " 203, " 204), 2 fragmentary plates (" 205) and one handle. The grips were recovered by the top and both sides of the skull, and by both hands. A complete grip plate " 200 shows traces of the original black painting on the central area and on the handle.

Ten of the upholstery pins recovered were made of copper alloy, and as such were generally used until only 1772, would appear to be earlier in date than the more common, iron ones (Richmond 2007; 128). Two fragments of coffin wood were recovered; fragment " 170 includes 6 copper alloy upholstery pins still inserted in the wood.

Plate 6.1.5 - Type 3, • 81 (Sk 118)

- **Type 3** (plate 6.1.5)**:** Oval, curved cut pressed tin plate with two central cherub heads set above a cartouche bordered with palm branches. The curved, cast iron handle, was not decorated.

  This grip plate type is similar to CCS3, recorded at Spitalfields (1768-1842), Islington (1787-1842), Wolverhampton (1837) and Bloomsbury (1807-1841). A nearly identical design was also the most common at St Augustine the Less, Bristol (Boore 1988; 73).

  The overall date for this type is 1768-1880 (Boston 2009; Plate 8.5, Table 8.2). Additional evidence from the Rycote Chapel, Thame extends the dating for this type to 1729-1880 (Boston 2008; 19). The associated handle confirms a dating between the latter part of the 18th and the first half of the 19th century (Miles 2008; 35).

Catalogue

Coffin 369 (Sk. 118) – part of set including complete grip plate " 81, found by the right side of the skull. Other four grips were found in situ, by both legs and by the left side of the skull. A possible makers shield (" 86) reading BRIS(TOL?) EXPOR(T?) was also recovered from the grave fill.

Plate 6.1.6 - Type 4, • 130 (Sk129)

- **Type 4** (plate 6.1.6)**:** Oval, curved cut pressed tin grip plates, with central cartouche and floral decoration along sides. Curved, cast ion handle, decorated with two central cherub heads and floral elements at sides. No reference was found for the grip plate decoration.

The cast handle is identical to CCS4, the most frequent type observed in Spitalfields (1743-1847), also registered at Islington (1761-1880), Wolverhampton (1811-1836) and Bloomsbury (1805-1847). The overall date for this handle type is 1743-1880 (Boston 2009; Plate 8.3, Table 8.2). Additional evidence from the Rycote Chapel, Thame indicates a narrower date range, from 1807 to 1850 (Boston 2008; 19). Similar examples were also recorded at St. Augustine the Less, Bristol, and dated between the 18th and the early 19th C. (Boore 1988; 73, fig. 6.8c).

Catalogue

Coffin 402 (Sk. 129) – set including 3 grip plates complete with handles and fitting elements (" 128, " 130, " 131), 2 handles (" 129) and 2 fragmentary plates. The grips were found along the left side of the coffin and by the feet. A fragment of possible decorative element was also recovered, consisting in a flat, small (35x18 mm) pressed tin strip with possible geometrical decoration and including a nail.

Plate 6.1.7 – Type 5, • 183 (Sk 163)

- **Type 5** (plate 6.1.7)**:** Oval, curved cut pressed tin grip plates with two cherub heads at top, flanked by palm branches and geometrical design along sides, similar to CCS3.

Curved, cast iron handle decorated with two central cherub heads and floral elements at sides, identical to CCS4. The *depositum* plate dates the grave to 1856.

Catalogue

Coffin 505 (Sk. 163) – set including 6 poorly preserved grip plates complete with handles (” 171, ” 172, ” 175, ” 176, ” 182, ” 183), 3 fragmentary plates (” 173, ” 177, ” 180) and a name plate (” 174, plate 6.1.8). The grips were found in situ along both sides and ends of the coffin. The presence of 107 upholstery pins indicates that the coffin was originally covered in textile.

Plate 6.1.8 - Henry Minter breast plate, • 174 (Sk 163)

The fragmentary breast plate ” 174 is decorated with a central crest lined by a •rope/braid”, two symmetrical standing and robed figures at sides and a cherub head at top. It was painted balck and the deceased’s name, age and year of death were painted in gilt. Two breastplates from the Littlemore Baptist burial ground were similarly coloured black with painted gilt lettering (Clough 2010; 3 and McCarthy et.al. 2012; 284). The central crest shows the original black paint and is inscribed in gilt:

HENRY
MINTER
DIED 1856, 66

Plate 6.1.9 – Type 6, • 208 (Sk 169)

- **Type 6** (plate 6.1.9)**:** Sub-rectangular, curved cut and pressed tin grip plates with central "ribbon" or flower decoration and standing, robed figure at side, possible cherub or angel holding a trumpet. The cast iron, squared, handle was undecorated.

This type appears to be a variant of CCS33, found at Spitalfields and dated to 1806-1828 (Boston 2009; Table 8.2). The shape of the plate and the standing figure are very similar, but type 6 shows a different design for the central element. Plain, right-angled handles appear to date to an earlier period, between c. 1650 and c. 1750 (Miles 2008; 35).

Catalogue
Coffin 523 (Sk. 169) – set including one incomplete grip plate complete with handle (" 208) and one fragmentary grip plate. The grips were recovered by both sides of the skull, by both lower limbs, by the feet and by the right hand.

Plate 6.1.10 – Type 7, context (827) (Sk15)

- **Type 7** (plate 6.1.10)**:** Square cut, plain, diamond-shaped iron grip plate with rectangular elements at both ends, and cut out "heart-shaped" piercing running horizontally. Linear, undecorated, square cast iron handle.

This type is comparable with types IVa and IVe from Kingston-upon-Thames, also completely made of iron. Type 7 shows the same diamond shape of grip IVe but has the central part with perforated decoration similar to IVa. (Richmond 2007; 126, fig. 14).

A comparable design with cut out elements on the grip and a linear rectangular handle is also registered for coffin (69) from the Rycote Chapel, dated to 1699 (Boston 2008; 17 and plate 24), but this example has a rectangular grip shape.

These fittings differ greatly from later coffin furniture, being flat pieces decorated with cut-out geometric shapes, rather than thin, heavily decorated stamped sheets ubiquitous from the mid-18th century.

This more simple design seems to have been retained through the 19th century only by Quakers (Boston 2008; 17). This would point to a dating for the Faringdon example to the first half of the 18th century, as suggested by the square design of the handle, popular until the 1750s (Miles 2008; 35; Cowie et al. 2008, 34).

Catalogue
Coffin 827 (Sk. 15) – the almost complete grip was found by the feet and collapsed on top of the left arm. The metalwork recovered from this grave included a fragment of pressed tin plate, heavily corroded.

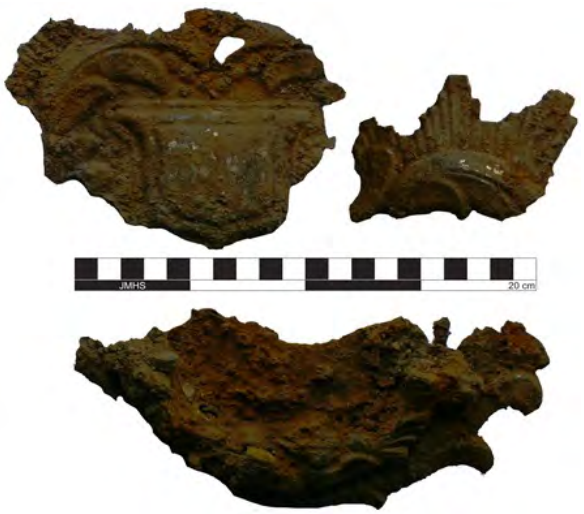


Plate 6.1.11 – Type 8, • 54 and • 56 (Sk95)

- **Type 8** (plate 6.1.11)**:** Elaborated cut, pressed tin grip plate with central crest, floral design at sides, and projecting "rays" along the top. Curved, cast iron handle decorated with two central cherub heads and floral elements at sides.

  This type is similar to CCS14, recorded in Spitalfields (1843-1845), OLR4 from Islington (Boston 2005; fig. 4.65. Dated 1836-1847) and to examples from Bloomsbury (1824-1843). The overall date for this type is 1824-1847 (Boston 2009; Table 8.2).

Catalogue
Coffin 315 (Sk. 95) – set including a single, fragmentary grip with handle (" 56) and a total of 30 plate fragments of the same design.

- Vestigial grip plates, too fragmentary to have distinguishable decoration, and curved cast iron, undecorated handles. 46% of the total.

Catalogue
Coffins 131 (Sk. 9), 310-311 (Sk. 94), 383 (Sk. 122), 418 (Sk. 7), 507 (Sk. 164), 514 (Sk. 166), 661 (Sk. 230), 699 (Sk. 248), 828 (Sk. 13), 831 (Sk. 30), 949 (Sk. 12), 980 (Sk. 131).

Coffin 489 (Sk. 157) – a group of 20 fragments of coffin wood (largest fragment 40x28 mm) was recovered.

Coffin 977 (Sk. 102) – the plain, cast iron handle shows some similarities to CCS2a from Spitalfields (1763-1837), also recorded at Wolverhampton (1813), Bloomsbury (1828) and Wolvercote. The overall date for this grip is 1811-1830s (Boston 2009; Table 8.2)

Coffins with handles and possible grip plates

Four coffins have handles and plate fragments not capable of being positively identifiable as grip plates (Table 6.2). Two different groups were recognized based on the handle design.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plates/ Escutcheons fragments	Shroud Pins
25	420	5	-	-	3	39	-
30	831	23	12	-	1	11	-
58	843	27	6	-	6	-	-
112	989	32	39	-	4	2	-

Table 6.2 Burials with handles but incomplete plates

Plate 6.1.12 – Plain handle, coffin (977) (Sk 120)

- Curved cast iron handle, undecorated (plate 6.1.12).

Catalogue

Coffin 420 (Sk. 25) – the fittings were found by the right shoulder.

Coffin 831 (Sk. 30).

Plate 6.1.13 – Set of 6 handles for child's coffin (843) Sk 58)

Coffin 843 (Sk. 58) (plate 6.1.13) – complete set of 6 cast iron handles, of small size (62x32 mm) for a child's coffin; the associated pressed tin grip plates only survive as small, extremely corroded fragments attached to the handles and no design was therefore identifiable. The coffin furniture was recovered by the top of the skull, the right arm and leg and by the left side of the pelvis; one of the handles was found collapsed on the right ribs.

Plate 6.1.14 – Decorated handle, coffin (402) (Sk 129)

- Curved cast iron handle decorated with two central cherub heads and floral elements at sides (plate 6.1.14).

  Similar to grip plate CCS4 handles, dated to 1743-1880.

Catalogue
Coffin 989 (Sk. 112) – handles recovered by the top of the skull and the left arm.

Coffins with handles

Nine coffins have handles but no remains of grip plates; three groups were identified on the basis of the handle design. One of the types matches CCS4 of the Christ Church, Spitalfield taxonomy, while one other example is similar to OXTHPL1 recovered at the former cemetery located at The Plain, St Clement's, Oxford.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Fittings	Handles	Plate fragments	Shroud Pins
42	838	5	-	2	1	-	-
68	958	5	6	-	1	-	-
69	959	-	-	-	1	-	-
74	962	1	1	1	1	-	-
89	968	-	-	-	1	-	-
105	988	22	-	5	1	-	1
140	982	-	-	1	-	-	1
147	452	14	21	-	1	-	-
174	535	-	-	-	2	-	-
188	571	17	-	1	-	-	-
292	797	11	10	-	3	-	-
318	985	-	-	2	-	-	-

Table 6.3 Burials with coffin-handles and no grip-plates

For three other examples, fragments of handle fitting nails suggest the presence of handles that were not recovered during excavation. It was noted that 33% of this group had upholstery pins.

- Curved cast iron handle, not decorated

Catalogue
Coffin 958 (Sk. 68) – handle recovered by the left leg.

Coffin 959 (Sk. 69) – handle found displaced, between the knees.

Coffin 988 (Sk. 105) – the coffin furniture and fittings were recovered by the left shoulder and along both lower legs.

Coffin 452 (Sk. 147) – Coffin furniture and fittings found along the right leg and by the feet.

Coffin 535 (Sk. 174) – handles recovered by the top of the skull and the right arm.

Coffin 797 (Sk. 292) – one of the handles was recovered by the right hand.

- Curved cast iron handle decorated with two central cherub heads and floral elements at sides. Similar to CCS4, dated to 1743-1880.

Catalogue
Coffin 968 (Sk. 89) – the single handle was found collapsed on the skull.

Plate 6.1.15 – Rectangular handle, coffin (838) (Sk42)

- Rectangular, cast iron handle, not decorated, with central bulbous section (plate 6.1.15). This design shows some similarities to the grip style OXTHPL1 recovered at St Clement's, Oxford and dated to the late 18th-early 19th century (Webb 2007; plate 8)

Catalogue
Coffin 838 (Sk. 42).

- Handle fitting nails fragments.

Catalogue
Coffins 982 (Sk. 140), 571 (Sk. 188), 985 (Sk. 318).

Coffins with possible decorative plates or escutcheons

Six of the coffins (Table 6.4) were indicated by the presence of nails, bolts, and fragments of pressed tin plates. Most of the fragments are too corroded to be positively identified as grip plates or escutcheons, which were usually made of the same material, or to reveal any decorative pattern. More than half of the coffins in this group were originally covered with textile, as indicated by the presence of upholstery pins.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/	Upholstery	Grip Plates/	Handles	Plate	Shroud

		Bolts	Pins	Fittings		fragments	Pins
32	833	16	-	-	-	1	-
36	836	16	-	-	-	2	1
63	844	10	1	-	-	23	1
108	342	10	8	-	-	4	-
124	388	9	3	-	-	5	1
162	502	5	3	-	-	2	-

Table 6.4 Burials with corroded fragments indicating coffins

Catalogue
Coffin 342 (Sk. 108) – fittings and plate fragments recovered from the left side and both ends of the coffin.

Coffin 388 (Sk. 124) – the fragments were recovered collapsed on the left ribs and the right side of the pelvis. Although too corroded, some of the fragments show a possible floral pattern.

Coffin 502 (Sk. 162) – fittings found at the two ends of the coffin.

Coffin 833 (Sk. 32) – plate fragments and fittings were found along the right arm.

Coffin 844 (Sk. 63) - 7 fragments of possible decorative element were also recovered, consisting of a small (largest fragment 35×12 mm), flat, pressed tin strip with possible geometrical decoration. The fragments were recovered by the feet and by both hands. Of the 89 upholstery pins recovered, one was made of copper alloy, while the rest are cast iron. Two groups of pins (• 178 and • 179) were found collapsed forming straight lines along both legs.

Coffins with upholstery

Seventeen coffins were decorated with textile lining (Table 6.5), as suggested by absence of any fragment of furniture and the presence of upholstery pins, which could themselves have been used as decorative elements, arranged in patterns. Three of these individuals were buried with shrouds.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plate fragments	Shroud Pins
2	416	3	93	-	-	-	-
16	826	24	6	-	-	-	-
17	950	10	17	-	-	-	-
31	832	24	6	-	-	-	5
47	840	6	1	-	-	-	-
64	955	3	12	-	-	-	-
67	957	6	32	-	-	-	-
72	960	6	2	-	-	-	-
73	961	14	5	-	-	-	-
114	357	5	1	-	-	-	-
125	391	2	8	-	-	-	-
132	981	4	1	-	-	-	-
148	455	46	28	-	-	-	-
153	986	2	1	-	-	-	-
288	787	10	3	-	-	-	1
307	852	50	1	-	-	-	-
312	866	7	13	-	-	-	1

Table 6.5 Burials with upholstery pins, but no other coffin-furniture

Catalogue

Coffin 416 (Sk. 2) – Fittings recovered by skull, both arms and left fibula.

Coffin 826 (Sk. 16) – Nails found by left shoulder and by right leg.

Coffin 832 (Sk. 31) – The coffin nails were fund along the right arm and by the left foot. 2 of the pins made of copper alloy were recovered.

Coffin 840 (Sk. 47) – Fittings recovered by left arm, left fibula, and right side of pelvis.

Coffin 955 (Sk. 64) – Coffin nails found by feet.

Coffin 957 (Sk. 67) – A line of upholstery pins and coffin nails (" 15 to " 47) was found along the left leg.

Coffin 357 (Sk. 114) – Nails recovered from the right side of the coffin.

Coffin 391 (Sk. 125) – Upholstery pins and coffin nails found by the right arm.

Coffin 981 (Sk. 132) – Fittings recovered by feet.

Coffin 455 (Sk. 148) – Coffin nails were found along the left leg and by the feet.

Coffin 852 (Sk. 307) – Coffin nails were found along the right arm and the left fibula. A number of coffin wood fragments (largest fragment 30x12 mm) were also recovered.

Coffin 866 (Sk. 312) – Nails and upholstery pins found along both sides of the coffin.

Plain coffins

54 examples (44% of the burials with metalwork) consisted of plain, undecorated wooden coffins, as suggested by the presence of nails and bolts recovered from the grave fills. Nails were the most common find at Faringdon. Great variations in dimensions and general appearance of the nails are registered, suggesting that the assemblage was almost exclusively handmade. Machine stamped nails became widely available only in the 1860s (Clough 2010), suggesting that the majority of the burials should predate that period.

None of the 32 bolts recovered appeared to be pointed, indicating they were probably produced before the 1840s (Taylor 1999).

A total of 10, or 18%, of the burials included in this group had between two and five nails, suggesting that the coffin planks were held together by wooden pegs or carpentry joints, with nails used only to secure the lid (Boston 2009a; 172). Six other burials (11%) had only one nail, which could be considered residual, a result of poor recovery or indeed due to later truncation.

Thirteen individuals had shroud pins, indicating the body was wrapped rather than clothed.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plate fragments	Shroud Pins
4	990	5	-	-	-	-	-
8	948	22	-	-	-	-	1
14	829	17	-	-	-	-	-
20	951	2	-	-	-	-	-
21	952	12	-	-	-	-	-
23	410	13	-	-	-	-	-
34	834	4	-	-	-	-	1
35	835	12	-	-	-	-	-
38	837	20	-	-	-	-	-
46	839	5	-	-	-	-	-
48	953	15	-	-	-	-	-
52	841	16	-	-	-	-	-
61	954	2	-	-	-	-	-
66	956	2	-	-	-	-	-
81	365	2	-	-	-	-	6
82	963	6	-	-	-	-	-
85	965	1	-	-	-	-	-
86	966	1	-	-	-	-	-
90	969	8	-	-	-	-	-
91	970	1	-	-	-	-	-
92	971	1	-	-	-	-	-
93	972	14	-	-	-	-	-
98	974	19	-	-	-	-	-
99	975	6	-	-	-	-	-
100	976	23	-	-	-	-	-
117	978	2	-	-	-	-	-
121	380	15	-	-	-	-	-
123	385	10	-	-	-	-	4
126	986	5	-	-	-	-	-
128	979	11	-	-	-	-	4
130	404	10	-	-	-	-	-
135	422	37	-	-	-	-	6
137	447	13	-	-	-	-	-
141	441	24	-	-	-	-	-
142	439	18	-	-	-	-	1
143	443	17	-	-	-	-	-
149	462	17	-	-	-	-	1
150	465	23	-	-	-	-	1
151	469	14	-	-	-	-	-
152	472	28	-	-	-	-	-
154	477	11	-	-	-	-	-
156	481	15	-	-	-	-	-
167	517	32	-	-	-	-	-
168	520	29	-	-	-	-	-
171	984	2	-	-	-	-	1
173	533	25	-	-	-	-	5
215	628	35	-	-	-	-	4
220	638	29	-	-	-	-	-
223	645	33	-	-	-	-	-
231	663	1	-	-	-	-	3
259	723	6	-	-	-	-	-
281	780	1	-	-	-	-	-
282	773	3	-	-	-	-	-
324	901	6	-	-	-	-	-

Table 6.6 Burials with nails/bolts and no coffin furniture or upholstery nails

Catalogue

Coffin 365 (Sk. 81) – nails recovered by the left side of the skull.

Coffin 380 (Sk. 121) – coffin nails were recovered along the top of the skull and along the left side, and by the right leg.

Coffin 385 (Sk. 123) – nails found by the left side of the skull.

Coffin 410 (Sk. 23) – the nails were found by the skull, by the left humerus, by both femurs and by the feet.

Coffin 422 (Sk. 135) – coffin nails recovered from both sides and both ends.

Coffin 439 (Sk. 142) – coffin nails found along right side, by feet, left arm and left side of skull.

Coffin 447 (Sk. 137) – nails found along both ends and right side.

Coffin 441 (Sk. 141) – nails recovered from the right arm and the left leg areas.

Coffin 443 (Coffin 143) – nails recovered by the right side of the skull, by the right arm and by the left lower limb

Coffin 462 (Sk. 149) – includes a fragmentary possible decorative element (" 163), consisting of two small (largest fragment 12 mm) flat strips of pressed tin complete with small fitting nails. The nails were found by the left side of the skull and by both shoulders.

Coffin 465 (Sk. 150) – nails found by feet, left patella and right hand.

Coffin 469 (Sk. 151) – nails recovered by the left side of the skull and by the right hand.

Coffin 472 (Sk. 152) – nails found by both ends of the coffin and by the left arm.

Coffin 477 (Sk. 154) – coffin nails recovered by left scapula and leg, right arm and foot, and possibly from the skull area.

Coffin 481 (Sk. 156) – nails found on the left side, by the shoulder, the arm and the foot.

Coffin 517 (Sk. 167) – nails recovered along the left side of the coffin.

Coffin 520 (Sk. 168) – nails found along left side, by feet, and by both sides and top of the skull.

Coffin 533 (Sk. 173) – coffin nails recovered along the top of the skull, by the right arm and by the left fibula.

Coffin 628 (Sk. 215) – nail recovered along the two ends, the right arm and leg and by the left arm and foot.

Coffin 638 (Sk. 220) – nails found by feet.

Coffin 645 (Sk. 223) – coffin nails found along both sides and both ends.

Coffin 723 (Sk. 259) – nails recovered by the right fibula.

Coffin 773 (Sk. 282) – nails recovered near feet.

Coffin 829 (Sk. 14) – coffin nails recovered along the right side and by the left hand, leg and foot.

Coffin 834 (34) – coffin nails were recovered by the feet.

Coffin 837 (Sk. 38) – nails by left side of skull, left leg and feet.

Coffin 839 (Sk. 46) – nails found in the area near the top of the skull.

Coffin 901 (Sk. 324) – nails fund near the top left side of the skull and by the left foot.

Coffin 948 (Sk. 8) – nails found along right arm and leg, by the left side of the skull, by the left hand and by the left fibula.

Coffin 963 (Sk. 82) – nails found by the right scapula.

Coffin 965 (Sk. 85) – a single nail was found near the left arm, possibly not in the original position.

Coffin 969 (Sk. 90) – coffin nails recovered by the right patella.

Coffin 970 (Sk. 91) – a single fragmentary coffin nail was recovered by the left arm.

Coffin 986 (Sk. 126) – nails found by left shoulder.

Coffin 990 (Sk. 4) – extremely disturbed burial; the coffin nails were recovered in the left leg area.

Coffins without metalwork

Two of the burials had traces of coffin, but no metalwork was recovered.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plates/ Escutcheons fragments	Shroud Pins
109	344	-	-	-	-	-	-
115	362	-	-	-	-	-	2

Table 6.7 Burials in coffins without evidence for metal fixtures and fittings

Catalogue
Coffin 344 (Sk. 109) – the presence of a coffin was indicated by 24 fragments of coffin wood (” 67, ” 72). The fragments ” 67 show traces of copper alloy stains.

Coffin 360 (Sk. 115) – no fittings were recovered, the presence of coffin being indicated by traces of decayed wood. Sk. 115 was buried wrapped in a shroud, as indicated by the presence of two copper alloy pins.

Other burials

Seven individuals were buried without a coffin, possibly wrapped in a shroud, as indicated by the presence of shroud pins.

Skeleton	Coffin	Nails/ Bolts	Upholstery Pins	Grip Plates/ Fittings	Handles	Plates/ Escutcheons fragments	Shroud Pins
22	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
24	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
33	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
83	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
88	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
145	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
270	-	-	-	-	-	-	2

Table 6.8 Burials in shroud alone; no metal fixtures and fittings

6.2 Dress accessories

6.2.1 Buttons

Clothes fastenings and buttons are a common find among post-medieval burials: a total of 88 buttons and button fragments were recovered during the excavations at Faringdon. Except for two unstratified buttons, the material was found in association with 23 different graves.

The majority (76%) of the assemblage came from coffined burials, indicating that the body was laid in the casket either dressed in everyday clothing or in a nightgown-like shroud (Janaway 1998; 24). Five other individuals were associated with buttons, but were buried without a coffin, and only in one case (Sk. 83) a shroud pin was found in the grave.

The practice of dressing the dead in personal clothing is generally considered to be earlier than the custom of wrapping the body in a nightdress-like shroud (Boston 2009; 170), most commonly fastened with textile ties, but occasionally with buttons (Marquez-Grant 2008; 6).

Of the 88 buttons collected, 64 or 72%, were made of different metals, while the remaining 24 buttons, 28 %, were made of different materials.

Metal
A total of 64 metal buttons were found. The vast majority of the examples (90% of this group) are made of copper alloy, with a small number of tin examples and a single tombac, or red brass, button.

Copper Alloy
Copper alloy buttons formed the largest set of buttons, comprising 58 recovered. A minor subset of this group (4 examples) consists of cast copper alloy rings, possibly the only surviving part of combination or cloth buttons. The remaining part of this group is largely composed of simple, stamped flat disc buttons with an eye attached to the rear by soldering. This method of button construction was the most common during the 18th and 19th centuries (Cox 1996; 54).

Plate 6.2.1 – Undecorated copper alloy buttons, context (322) (Sk99)

Undecorated buttons

The largest number (50 examples or 86% of the assemblage of copper alloy buttons) consists of simple, stamped flat discs with soldered eyes (plate 6.2.1). The plainness of the shape and the lack of any decoration preclude an accurate dating, but similar buttons are known from a large number of sites across the country, and generally datable to the early 19th century.

Plate 6.2.2 – 4 eyes utility button, • 13 (Sk. 66)

There were two almost identical utility buttons also found: • 13 (Sk. 66) (plate 6.2.2) and the example from context (430), associated with Sk. 139. They consist of a single piece of metal; they are stamped, circular buttons with a raised front rim and four eyes, all of a similar diameter (17 and 18 mm). The general dating for this particular group is between the late 19th and the 20th centuries.

Decorated and stamped buttons

• 48 (Sk. 83) (plate 6.2.3) is the only die-stamped, two piece circular button found during the excavations to show a decoration pattern. It has the remains of a moulded basket-weave pattern on the front, mostly visible along the rim. The button is comparable with UKDFD-37662, found in Suffolk and dated between the late 18th and the early 19th century. The same pattern is visible on another example from South Somerset (Read 2005 n.257), dated c. 17th century.

Plate 6.2.3 – Decorated copper alloy button, • 48 (Sk. 83)

Three examples from the Faringdon assemblage have a back stamp along the rear rim, unfortunately too corroded to be decipherable.

• 235 (Sk. 231) (plate 6.2.4) is the only example of two-hole, die-stamped utility button with concave centre, turned over edge and semicircular sewing holes. The back has the manufacturer's relief inscription, illegible because of the corrosion of the metal. A similar example found in Norfolk (UKDFD-41686) is dated between 1827 and 1860 from the manufacturer's mark.

Plate 6.2.4 –Utility button with maker•s stamp, • 235 (Sk. 231)

• 5 (Sk. 61) (plate 6.2.5) and • 49 (Sk. 83) are die-stamped two-piece buttons with separate soldered wire shank. The circular, flat front is undecorated, while in both cases the back is marked with the maker's name and decorated with an inner, incised circular line. Two similar examples from Essex (UKDFD-27068) and Wiltshire (UKDFD-26483) are dated to the early 19th century.

Plate 6.2.5 –Back stamped button with wire shank,• 5 (Sk. 61)

Tin
All of the 5 tin buttons (• 165 plate 6.2.6) came from context (475), the burial of Sk. 154. They are identical 1 piece, circular sew-through semi-domed utility buttons, with a raised front rim and four eyes, covered in black painting. Based on the similarity with the copper alloy examples, the proposed date range for this group is between the late 19th and the 20th centuries.

Tombac
Buttons made of a zinc and copper alloy, also called red brass, were widely used during the 18th century (Bailey 2004; 40). A single tombac button was recovered from context (250), associated with Sk. 66 (plate 6.2.7). The button, a plain cast piece with the back coned for the now missing shank, is similar to UKDFD-18291 from Wentbridge, Yorkshire, dated to the 18th-19th century.

Plate 6.2.6 – Tin buttons, • 165 (Sk. 154)

Plate 6.2.7 - Tombac button, context (250) (Sk. 66)

Non-Metal
The remaining 24 buttons are made of two different non-metal materials. The largest part (84%) of this group is composed by buttons made of shell or nacre, while a small number was made of bone (16%).

Plate 6.2.8 – Shell, • 214 (Sk. 157) and nacre buttons, • 222 and • 224 (Sk. 196)

Shell and nacre (plate 6.2.8)
Mother-of-pearl buttons were made in England during the 18th and 19th centuries, with Birmingham being the major production centre in the country (Cox 1996; 55). There were 15 buttons recovered during the excavation at Faringdon that were made of shell. These are relatively well preserved, considering the tendency of this material to laminate in damp conditions (Cox 2006; 55).

Plate 6.2.9 – Shell composition button, • 219 (Sk185)

One of the examples (• 219, associated with Sk. 185, plate6.2.9) is a two-piece composition button, with a half-ball front and an embedded, straight metal shank possibly made of iron dated to the 19th-early 20th century. The other button is a single piece, circular carved sew-through, domed with four eyes generally dated post-1800.

The seven nacre buttons collected came from three burials (Sk. 10, Sk. 163 and Sk. 196). All of the buttons are circular carved, 1 piece domed sew-through types, with four eyes. Buttons associated with Sk. 163 (• 184 and • 185 plus an additional example) have a standard diameter of 10 mm, while those found in the burial of Sk. 196 (• 221, • 222 and • 224) have a 12 mm diameter.

Bone
Four bone buttons were found in association with three different burials (Sk. 66, Sk. 135 and Sk. 288). This group shows the largest number of variations among the Faringdon assemblage. All of the examples are single piece carved buttons. However, they differ in dimensions, type and number of eyes. Button • 12, associated with Sk. 66, is a flat circular saw-through with four eyes and an incised line along the front rim.

Plate 6.2.10 – Bone buttons, • 249 and • 251 (Sk 288)

The button found in context (421), the grave of Sk. 135, is domed with four eyes. Two buttons were found with Sk. 288 (plate 6.2.10): • 249, a relatively large (16 mm in diameter), flat piece with four eyes, and • 251, a smaller (13 mm in diameter) circular example, with three eyes arranged in a straight line.

6.2.2 Fasteners
Six objects positively recognized as fasteners were recovered during the excavation; five are made from copper alloy, while the remaining object is made of bone. Three additional copper alloy ring-shaped finds could possibly be identified as suspension rings.

Metal

Copper Alloy

Hook and eye clasp (fig 6.2.11)

Fastening devices composed by hook and eyelet were commonly used from the mid-16th century (Egan 2005; 51 and fig. 34; Cowie *et al*. 2008, Fig 32) until *c*. 1900. Of the two pairs of copper alloy eyelets recovered in Faringdon, one was found in association with Sk. 108 (• 62) while the other came from cemetery soil (155). The finds from context (155) are two hooks with attachment loops made from a single length of wire bent twice to form a simple hook.

Plate 6.2.11 – Hook, context (155) and eye clasps, • 62 (Sk 108)

The two opposing loops were used to sew the fastener to the fabric of the article of clothing. Find • 62 consists in a pair of eyelets made from a length of wire comprising three loops of different diameter arranged in a trefoil pattern. The two smaller loops were used to sew the eyelet to the cloth, while the largest was used as a catch for the hook.

Twisted loop

Copper alloy wire loops are a common find in late medieval and early post-medieval contexts (Margeson 1993; 20 and fig. 10:100). A single wire ring (10 mm in diameter) made from a length of drawn wire with ends twisted together was found in (180), grave fill of Sk. 34 (plate6.2.12). The object was recovered together with a shroud pin, suggesting it was probably used as an eyelet or as the eye of a hook-and-eye fastening device, generally dated from the mid-15th to the 17th century (Cox 1996; 57-8 and fig. 2:23; Cowie *et al*. 2008, Fig 33). A number of examples found in Southampton and London are dated to the late 15th-early 16th century (Egan 2005; 62 and fig. 52).

Plate 6.2.12 – Twisted loop, context (180) (Sk 34)

Suspension ring

Suspension ring were used in medieval and post-medieval periods for a variety of purposes, including the suspension of knifes or hones from belts (Ottaway 2002; 2852) or as eyelets for fastening cords used with a shroud or a tunic (Cox 1998; 58;

Cowie *et al*. 2008, Fig 32). The three copper alloy examples • 209, • 210 and • 213 from context (504) (plate 6.2.13), associated with Sk. 163 have identical dimensions (diameter 18 mm, thickness 2 mm), are semi-circular section and an incised circular line on the front face.

Plate 6.2.13 – Suspension rings, • 209 • 210 and • 213 (Sk 163)

Similar rings are known from both medieval contexts, like no. 12869 from Norwich (Ottaway 2002; 2852 and fig. 1430) and post-medieval contexts, as no. 523 from Norwich (Margeson 1993; 82 and fig. 47) and no. 24 from Perth (Cox 1998; 55 and ill. 2).

Non-Metal

Bone

A single carved bone object (plate 6.2.14), possibly a fastener, was found in context (881), associated with the burial of Sk. 319. The piece is 32 mm long and is composed of two flat discs connected by a central, elongated element. No parallel was found in the literature for this bone fastener.

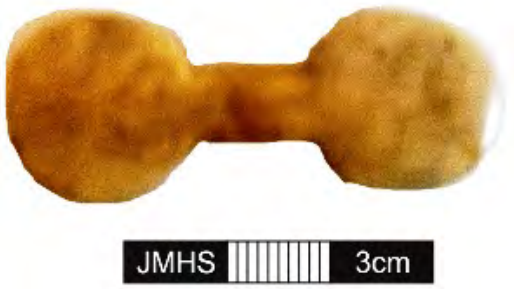


Plate 6.2.14 – Bone fastener, context (881) (Sk 319)

6.2.3 Pins

In association with burials, pins had several functions. They could have been used to keep the shroud in place and hold garments to prevent slippage (McCarthy et.al. 2012; 284), or to secure coffin linings (Cox 1996; 57).

Sixty-six complete pins and conjoining fragments forming seven more examples were found in Faringdon. The majority of the assemblage came from 44 different burials; two examples were recovered from topsoil (101); one came from subsoil (102); a single fragment was recovered from the possible charnel pit [107] and two complete pins were found in the cemetery soil (155). Only one example was unstratified.

The large majority (94%) of the recovered pins were made of copper alloy. A minor part of the assemblage was made of lead, and a single pin was cast in iron.

Copper Alloy

All of the 69 complete or reconstructable copper alloy pins found during the excavations were built from drawn wire with a circular cross-section and a wound wire spherical head (plate 6.2.15); in most cases, the head is so tightly crimped onto the top of the stem that the spiral lines are not clearly visible.

Plate 6.2.15 – Shroud pin with spherical head and textile residues, context (160) (Sk 19)

A variation between 1 and 3 mm in the diameter of the heads was recorded, as well as a difference between a minimum of 19mm and a maximum of 50 mm in the length of complete examples. The same construction method is likely for the remaining 10 pin fragments, recovered from nine different contexts.

The production of similar pins can be dated the 18th and 19th centuries (Cox 1996; 57). The assemblage found at Faringdon seems to be comparable with type 2 pins from Norwich, dated to the second half of the 18th century (Margeson 1993; 13 and fig 5:37- 38), and to types 3 and 4 from St Peter's Church at Barton-upon-Humber (Mould 2011; 1010 and fig. 840:A).

Plate 6.2.16 – Shroud pin with truncated cone head, • 100 (Sk 119)

Only two of the pins recovered (• 100, Sk. 119 plate 6.2.16) have a different shaped pinhead, resembling a double truncated cone. In two cases, • 50 from the burial of Sk. 83 and the pin associated with Sk. 19, traces of the textile to which they were originally pinned were preserved.

Lead
Three lead pins were recovered in association with two different burials, for Sk. 33 and Sk. 163. No parallels have been found for these pins.

Iron
The cast iron pin • 195 was found in context 487, associated with Sk. 157. The shape of the pin is identical to the copper alloy examples, with a circular cross-section and a spherical head. Even if the shape conforms to a well attested standard, the use of iron

for the manufacture of pins is considered unusual for earlier periods (Egan 2005; 51), hence pointing to a later date for the Faringdon example.

6.2.4 Buckles

A total of four buckles were recovered during the excavations, three of which were associated with burials. • 52 and the only unstratified example were positively identified as shoe buckles; these objects were common during the early 16th century, and became popular again in the 1680s after a period of decline, and got completely out of fashion by 1793 (Marshall 2002).

All of the buckles were made of metal: two of cast iron, and two of copper alloy.

Iron

The object found in context (264), associated with Sk. 73 is an extremely corroded rectangular buckle with bar. The poor state of preservation prevents any further identification.

Sk. 185 was associated with • 220 (563), a cast iron semi-circular or 'D' shaped single loop buckle complete with pin (plate 6.2.17). The severe corrosion prevents a more specific examination of the object; however, the overall shape is similar to type IF, no. 43 of Marshall's typology (Marshall 2002), dated between 1250 and 1500.

The Faringdon example seems to conform to the group dated to the second half of this period, between 1400 and 1500. A comparable example found in York (no. 12667) is dated to an earlier period, from the late 13th to the early 14th century (Ottaway 2002; 3062 and fig. 1468). Caution needs to be exercised as to the date of the buckle as changes in fashion occurred more swiftly in urban locations, and rural dress traditions tended to the more conservative.

Plate 6.2.17 – Iron belt buckle, • 220 (Sk 185)

Copper Alloy

Shoe buckle • 52 (plate 6.2.18) was found in context (304), associated with Sk. 93. It is an arched, two piece buckle with rectangular frame and preserved bar. The frame is decorated on all sides with two incised wavy lines with smaller abutting elements, possibly a stylized floral pattern.

Plate 6.2.18 – Copper alloy shoe buckle, • 52 (Sk304)

The fashion for larger, sub-rectangular frames for shoe buckles is dated to post-Restoration period (Egan 2005; 34). Moulded decorations appear to be more common, although a number of examples with indented decorations are known from Lincolnshire (UKFDF-30595) and Yorkshire (UKFDF-33031) and dated to ca.1690-1720s.

The unstratified example (plate 6.2.19) is a two-piece sub-annular buckle with bevelled sides to frame and strap bar. These plain buckles were used in a wide range of applications over a period of time spanning from 1350 to 1720. Small to medium examples are almost certainly shoe buckles of the 15th-16th century (Whitehead 2003; 44-5).

Plate 6.2.19 – Copper alloy buckle, unstratified

A similar object found in Norwich (no. 161) is dated between 1625 and 1800 (Margeson 1993; 28 and fig. 15), while one example from Northamptonshire (UKFDF-41902) is dated between 1720 and 1790s.

6.2.5 Finger rings

Two complete, though very corroded, and one fragmentary finger rings were recovered from three burials. All of the rings were made of copper alloy, and show advanced corrosion.

The two rounded section fragments of finger ring • 4 were found on the left side of Sk. 55 pelvis.

The complete ring • 120 was recovered from the grave of Sk. 124. It had a rounded section (diameter 11 mm) and a possible rope-like decoration on the face.

Plate 6.2.20 – Finger ring, • 191 (Sk 166)

• 191 (plate 6.2.20), associated with Sk. 166, is an undecorated band with a flat rectangular section, possibly made from a copper alloy flat sheet. Similar rings were manufactured since medieval times (Ottaway 2002; 2928), but are common in the post-medieval and the modern period as well.

The blue/green staining on one of the phalanges clearly indicates the individual was buried wearing it, possibly on the index finger.

6.2.6 Beads

A total of 62 small beads were recovered from four different contexts. • 124, associated with Sk. 126 is a group of three pink, spherical, possibly glass beads (plate 6.2.21). • 194, recovered from the burial of Sk. 157 is a single cylindrical, 4 mm long bead of unidentified material.

Plate 6.2.21 – Glass beads, • 124 (Sk 126)

The remaining examples are spherical, white glass beads with a dark pink glaze (plate 6.2.22), measuring 3 mm in diameter; they appear to be identical, possibly belonging to the same ornament. The beads were found in association with two different individuals, Sk. 4 (42 beads) and Sk. 84 (16 beads); although there is no direct stratigraphical relation between the two graves, they were dug in the same area and are only c. 50 cm apart.

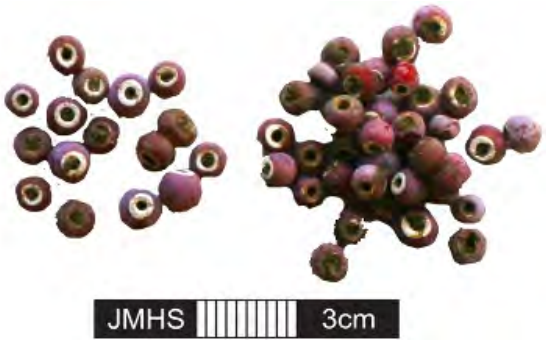


Plate 6.2.22 – Glass beads, (Sk4) and (Sk 84)

7 OTHER FINDS AND ENVIRONMENTAL REMAINS

7.1 Pre-medieval Pottery *by Jane Timby*

Introduction

The archaeological work resulted in the recovery of a small group of 17 sherds pottery weighing 346 g and three pieces of ceramic building material weighing 54 g. The pottery comprises sherds dating to the Roman and Saxon periods, although there are two pieces which could be Iron Age or Saxon.

Pottery was recovered from nine individual contexts, thus the incidence of sherds per deposit is very low. This combined with few featured sherds means that dating can only be approximate.

The material is of mixed preservation; some sherds are more abraded than others. The Roman sherds are quite well preserved. Surface finishes such as burnish have been preserved.

For the purposes of the assessment, the assemblage was scanned to assess the likely chronology and quantified by sherd count and weight for each recorded context. The resulting data can be found in Table 1.

Possible Iron Age

There are two sherds in quite abraded condition, one with sand, flint and calcareous inclusions (SAFLCA); the other with a limestone temper (LIME) from cxt (155) and pit (893). In both cases these are the sole finds from these contexts and it is difficult to be certain whether they are of Iron Age or Saxon date.

Roman

Twelve sherds, weighing 306g, date to the Roman period and these mainly comprises wares from the local Oxfordshire industry including reduced grey ware jars (OXF RE) and grog-tempered storage jar (GROG). In addition there are some black well-fired sandy wares with a pimply surface (BWSY), probably also from a relatively local source.

In addition to the pot there is a single fragment of Ceramic Building Material, weighing 27g, from grave-fill (144). Although this has a slight curvature on it, it is scored with parallel grooves suggesting it is probably from a box-flue. Where it could be determined most of the sherds probably date to the later Roman period although the storage jars could date anywhere from the 2nd through to the 4th century.

Discussion

This is quite a complex multi-period assemblage that is too small and mixed to completely understand. It suggests activity dating from at least the Roman period with later Saxon use. At present the assemblage is too small to warrant further work unless additional material is recovered from the same locality which might remove some of the ambiguities presented here.

7.2 Medieval Pottery *by Paul Blinkhorn*

Introduction

The pottery assemblage comprised 330 sherds with a total weight of 4,677g. The estimated vessel equivalent (EVE), by summation of surviving rimsherd circumference was 2.93. Where possible, it was recorded utilizing the coding system and chronology of the Oxfordshire County type-series (Mellor 1984; 1994), as follows:

F1: Early/Middle Anglo-Saxon Chaff-tempered, AD450-850. Moderate to dense chaff voids up to 10mm. 7 sherds, 39g, EVE = 0.
F2: Early/Middle Anglo-Saxon Fine Sandy, AD450-850. Few visible inclusions other than rare quartz up to 2mm, rare chaff voids up to 5mm. 1 sherd, 4g, EVE= 0.
F200: OXAC: Cotswold-type ware, AD975-1350. 47 sherds, 439g, EVE = 0.26.
F202: OXBF: North-East Wiltshire Ware, AD1050–1400. 139 sherds, 1818g, EVE = 1.31.
F300: OXY: Medieval Oxford ware, AD1075 – 1350. 38 sherds, 802g, EVE = 0.45.
F302: OXAG: Abingdon Ware, late 11th – 14th C. 4 sherds, 46g, EVE = 0.
F352: OXAM: Brill/Boarstall ware, AD1200 – 1600. 40 sherds, 338g, EVE = 0.29.
F355: OXBB: Minety-type ware. Late 12th – 16th century. 17 sherds, 438g, EVE = 0.54.
F403: OXBN: Tudor Green Ware, late 14th century - c. 1500. 3 sherds, 13g, EVE = 0.08.
F404: OXCL: Cistercian ware, 1475-1700. 5 sherds, 37g, EVE = 0.
F411: OXCE: Tin-glazed Earthenware, 1613 – 1800. 1 sherd, 4g.
F414: OXBEW: Staffordshire Manganese Glazed ware, 18th century. 2 sherds, 13g.
F425: OXDR: Red Earthenwares, 1550+. 17 sherds, 611g.
F433: OXFM: Staffordshire White-glazed English stoneware, 1730-1800. 2 sherds, 9g
F438: OXEST: London stoneware. c. 1680 +. 1 sherd, 2g.
F1000: WHEW: Mass-produced white earthenwares, 19th–20th C. 8 sherds, 64g.

Each date should be regarded as a *terminus post quem*. The range of fabric types is typical of sites in the region, and suggests that there was more or less unbroken activity from the Saxo-Norman period onwards, with the small group of residual early/middle Anglo-Saxon hand-built material indicating that there is likely to have been activity at that time also.

Chronology

Each stratified, context-specific pottery assemblage has been given a ceramic phase ('CP') date based on the range of ware and vessel types present. The chronology, defining wares and the amount of pottery per phase is shown in Table 7.1. The data show that there was activity from the Saxo-Norman period (CP1).

There then seems to have been a fairly steady rate of pottery deposition until the late medieval period (CP5), after which time there was a rapid drop-off in pottery deposition, other than in the immediate post-medieval period. However, the data in Table 7.2 suggests that pottery deposition almost certainly fell off earlier, probably in ceramic phase CP5, as nearly three-quarters of the pottery from that phase is residual.

Phase	Defining wares	Date	No Sherds	Wt. Sherds	EVE
CP1	OXAC, OXBF	M-L 11th C	58	576	0.50
CP2	OXY	L11th - L12th C	51	688	0.57
CP3	OXBB	L12th - E13th C	12	121	0.04
CP4	OXAM	E13th - L14th C	35	306	0.18
CP5	OXBN	L14th – L15th	23	749	0.43
CP6	OXCL	L15th – M16thC	4	29	0
CP7	OXDR	M16th – 17thC	22	440	0.08
CP8	OXCE,	17th – L17th C	2	6	0
CP9	OXBEW, OXEST	L17th – 18th	3	41	0
MOD	WHEW	19th C +	121	1692	1.13
		Total*	328	4628	2.93

Table 7.1: Ceramic Phase Chronology, Occurrence and Defining Wares

There does seem to have been activity in CP6 and CP7, as residuality is relatively low in that phase, although the pottery assemblage from CP MOD is nearly entirely residual in composition. It is also worthy of note that most of the residual material from that CP MOD phase dates to the 13th – 14th century or earlier, other than some 16th century material. It therefore does not seem very likely there were late medieval deposits that were disturbed by later activity. It seems likely therefore that the grave-yard was established by the mid-late 14th century, and perhaps even a little earlier.

Phase	CP1	CP2	CP3	CP4	CP5	CP6	CP7	CP8	CP9	MOD
E/MS	1.4%	0	0	0	0.5	0	1.6	0	0	0.2
OXAC	14.7	6.0	5.8	11.1	4.0	31.0	5.0	0	0	12.6
OXBF	83.8	35.9	36.4	41.8	37.4	0	8.0	0	92.7	34.3
OXY	-	53.8	0.8	0.7	28.8	0	0	0	0	12.6
OXBB	-	-	57.0	4.2	24.3	0	0	0	0	10.3
OXAM	-	-	-	42.2	3.2	0	7.3	33.3	0	8.9
OXBN	-	-	-	-	1.7	0	0	0	0	0
OXCL	-	-	-	-	-	69.0	2.5	0	0	0.4
OXDR	-	-	-	-	-	-	74.8	0	0	15.0
OXCE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66.7	0	0
OXBEW	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.4	0.7
OXEST	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.9	0
WHEW	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.8
Total	556	688	121	306	749	29	440	6	41	1692

Table 7.2: Pottery occurrence per ceramic phase, by major fabric type, expressed as a percentage of the phase assemblage

Table 7.2 shows the pottery occurrence by ceramic phase, by major fabric type.

The Pottery

The pottery assemblage is, in the main, fairly unexceptional, and typical of sites in the region. Most of the earlier medieval material (CP1 – CP2) mainly consists of unglazed jars along with a few fragments of bowls and glazed jugs or, more likely, tripod pitchers. During the high medieval period, glazed jugs become much more common, and the few sherds of late medieval material in OXBN and OXCL are mainly drinking vessels, but also include a possible jug or very large cup with an applied slip flower in the latter (Fig. 14).

A small fragment of an OXAM double-shell lamp was noted in a CP4 context, but most worthy of comment is two fragments of curfew (fire-covers). The first of these,

in fabric OXBF (Fig X), is redeposited in a CP MOD context (155), and has a fragment of the handle terminal and an air-hole, and would originally have been near the centre of the dome of the vessel. It is lightly sooted on the inside, and while such vessels are rare finds in this fabric, they have been noted in the past (eg. Mellor 1994, Fig. 44 nos 2 and 3).

However, the second example, in fabric OXY, is very unusual. Two joining sherds from contexts 135 and 202 (ceramic phases CP5 andCP2 respectively) were noted. The vessel is very ornate, with a row of air-holes below the flange, and square or triangular cut-outs flanked by vertical applied strips above it, with the whole of the outer surface covered in a rich yellowish-green glaze (Fig. X). Curfews are rare finds in fabric OXY, and glazed examples are virtually unheard of in any fabric at sites in Oxfordshire in the earlier medieval period.

Mellor stated in 1994 (*ibid*, 64) that '*Firecovers (curfews) have not been recognised amongst the vessels in this ware*', although two bowls with post-firing drilled holes may be improvised attempts make such vessels. The glazed curfew from this site is far more ornate than any other example known from the earlier medieval period in the county, and may be a one-off commission, suggesting that the occupants of the site at that time may have been of greater than average wealth and status.

Illustrations

Fig. 14 - FA1: Context 534, fabric OXCL, ceramic phase CP6. Fragment of a jug or large cup with applied flower in white slip. Hard orange-red fabric with a clear glaze on both surfaces, appearing orange on the body clay and yellow of the slip.

Fig. 14 - FA2: Context 155, fabric OXBF, ceramic phase MOD. Curfew fragment. Grey fabric with variegated light brown surfaces, light sooting on inner surface.

Fig. 14 - FA3: Contexts 155 and 202, fabric OXY, ceramic phases CP2 and CP5. Pale grey fabric with light grey surfaces. Rich, yellow-green glaze on outer surface, very light sooting on the inner.

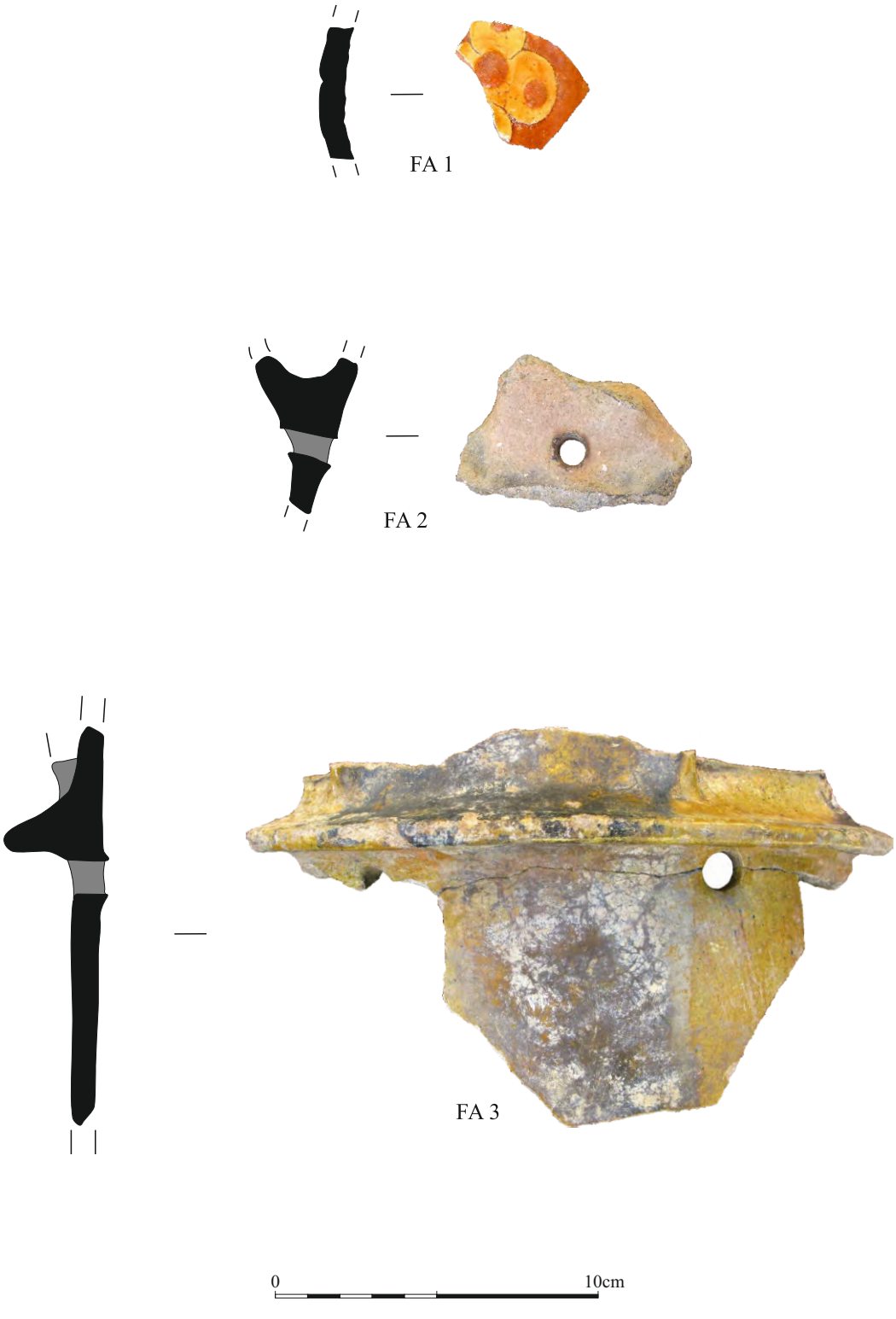


Figure 14: Pottery

7.3 Architectural Ceramics *by Gwilym Williams*

Introduction

The architectural ceramics assemblage comprised a significant quantity of floor- and ridge-tile with smaller amounts of roof-tile and brick (Table 7.3). Some fragments of land-drain and unidentified ceramic building materials (CBM) were also recovered. The larger share of the last group probably comprised brick fragments.

The total fragment count of the assemblage was 254 pieces weighing 19079, of which 196 pieces, weighing 15374, came from a single context – the demolition/construction layer (135). This report will focus on the assemblage from this context and largely tabulate the remaining portion of the assemblage.

Material	Fragments	Weight (g)
Floor-tile	126	12807
Ridge-tile	97	4586
Brick	8	431
Roman tile	6	589
Roof-tile	5	451
Unknown/land-drain	12	215
Total	254	19079

Table 7.3 Ceramic Building Materials

The composition of the assemblages, which is illustrated in Table 7.3, was largely medieval in date with a few fragments of Roman tile and post-medieval roof-tile and brick.

The ceramic building materials were washed and marked prior to weighing and counting. Recording of the roof and floor tile fragments followed an adaptation of Jennie Stopford's *proforma* (Stopford 1990) entered directly onto an Excel spreadsheet. Examination of the fabrics was initially by ×10 magnification and naked eye; this process was followed by examination and comparison of the designs, followed as appropriate, with further assessment or analysis carried out where necessary. Concluding comments and recommendations are made at the end of each material type section.

Although three groups of floor-tile could be identified, the assemblage was dominated by 'Stabbed Wessex' style tiles dating from the late 13th to early 14th centuries, from the demolition/construction layer (135). None of the floor-tile was in very good condition: many pieces were broken in fragments representing between 10% and no more than 50% of the original tile. Although the upper face was frequently worn so that the glaze was absent, and on some occasions the white decorative slip stood proud of the red tile fabric, the designs, where present, were usually identifiable.

The next largest group of materials in the assemblage was ridge-tile, characterised by a gritty fabric, which was also largely derived from the demolition/construction layer (135). The assemblage was a mix of knife-trimmed crests and flat sides. No complete tiles and few conjoining fragments were recovered.

There was little brick and roof tile, most of which was very fragmentary. No cross-fitting occurred. This assemblage was largely from the overlying cemetery soils or from grave fills.

Brick and other non-specific ceramic material

There were twenty fragments of brick and non-specific ceramic material weighing 646g recovered during the excavation (Table 7.4); four fabrics could be positively identified (Table 7.5).

The fragments were generally small and on a number of occasions only evidenced one face of a brick at most.

context	type	frags	wt (g)	fabric	comments
101	unk	1	14	unk	
122	brick	1	11	A	Sk 7
122	brick	1	24	B	Sk 7
131	brick	1	28	C	Sk 11
135	brick	1	46	B	
155	brick	1	201	B	
155	brick	2	112	B	
155	land-drain	1	27	1	
155	land-drain	2	59	1	
160	brick	1	9	?B	Sk 19
212	unk	4	36	?B	Sk 48
244	unk	1	11	?B	Sk 63
264	unk	1	16	unk	Sk 73
355	unk	1	9	B	Sk 10
893	unk	1	43	?B	Sk 7
total		**20**	**646**		

Table 7.4 Brick & unknown CBM

The fabrics were dominated by Fabric B (Table 7.5) which was characterised by a presence of small pieces of haematite in the matrix. Generally reasonably well-fired, the fabric was usually recovered from grave-cuts or cemetery soils. A single small fragment was also recovered from the demolition/construction deposit (135), although this may well be intrusive. A further small fragment was recovered from the pit 895 which is otherwise dated to the middle to late 11th century AD; it too may well be intrusive.

Fabrics	Description	Date	Interpretation	Frags.	Wt (g)
A	sandy red	P-Med	brick	1	11
B	orange red clay with haematite	P-Med	brick	13	491
C	hard fired reduced core with moderate oxidisation on surface	19th+	brick	1	28
1	orange red clay with occasional inclusions	Modern	land-drain	3	86
Unk	orange red clay			2	30
Totals				**20**	**646**

Table 7.5 Brick & unknown CBM fabrics

The assemblage does not warrant retention due to the limited potential for further study.

Ctx.	type	frags (dec.)	frags (plain)	frags (unid)	frags (des.)	design motif	wt (g)	fabric	thickness	comments
144	box			1			27	-	-	Roman box-tile
155	box			2			118	5	15	Roman box-tile
239	roof			1			235	8	30	Roman tegula
387	box			1			119	5	15	Roman box-tile
743	roof			1			117	8	24	Roman tegula
subtotal				***6***			***616***			
101	roof			1			227	9	14	
135	roof			1			102	3	15	heavily mortared
155	roof			1			83	10	-	small frag
subtotal				***3***			***451***			
Ctx.	**type**	**frags (dec.)**	**frags (plain)**	**frags (unid)**	**frags (des.)**	**design motif**	**wt (g)**	**fabric**	**thickness**	**comments**
126	ridge			1			18	2	8	flat fragment
131	ridge			1			40	2	15	flat fragments
135	ridge			80			3253	2	15	flat fragments
135	ridge			12			1246	2	15	knife-cut crest fragments
135	ridge			2			16	2	15	edge fragments
144	ridge			1			27	-	-	-
155	ridge			3			39	2	15	1 edge piece
158	ridge			1			13	2	-	spall
subtotal				***100***			***4652***			
101	floor				1	C	138	6	c. 20	LH LXIV; Hohler W8
101	floor				2	F	421	6	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16
101	floor			1			35	7	-	v worn frag
101	floor			1			83	6	20	very worn frag
101	floor	2					100	6	-	design too small to see
131	floor			1			180	6	21	rectangular split frag very worn
133	floor				1	H	113	6	c. 20	Hohler W28
133	floor			2			184	6	20	1 frag v worn; 2nd frag mortar present
133	floor	2					81	6	-	design too small
135	floor			1			61	4	32	long stab mark
135	floor				7	A	1045	6	c. 20	Hohler W4
135	floor				9	B	1166	6	c. 20	LH XXV; Hohler W39
135	floor				10	C	1268	6	c. 20	LH LXIV; Hohler W8
135	floor				2	D	465	6	c. 20	LH XXVI
135	floor				10	E	1174	6	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16
135	floor				10	F	1506	6	c. 20	LH XLIX; Eames 2191
135	floor				1	G	99	6	c. 20	LH LIV; Hohler W42
135	floor			21			918	6	-	dreck
135	floor		6				419		c. 20	Scored & cut triangular fragments
135	floor		20				2371	6	c. 20	Scored & cut rectangular fragments
135	floor			2			151	7	c. 22	?Penn style tiles
135	floor			1			68	11	-	Unknown tile type
136	floor				1	A	117	6	c. 20	Hohler W4
136	floor				1	F	91	6	c. 20	LH XLIX; Eames 2191
136	floor	2					36	6	-	design too small to see
140	floor				1	E	82	6	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16
140	floor			2			148	6	18	1 spall; 2nd frag v worn
140	floor	6					287	6	-	design too small to see
subtotal		***12***	***26***	***32***	***56***		***12807***			
total		**234**					**18433**			

Table 7.6 Tile by context and by type and by quantity and weight

The tile assemblages

The tile assemblages comprise four discrete groups (Table 7.6): Roman tile, roof tile, ridge tile and floor tile, consisting of a total of 234 fragments weighing 19,079g,

comprising 10 fabric groups. Many of the fabric groups were represented by very low quantities of material with Fabrics 2 and 6 dominating the assemblages (Table 7.7). The breakdown of the groups is as follows: 5 fragments Roman tile weighing 589g, in two fabrics; 3 fragments of roof tile, weighing 451g, in three fabrics; 100 fragments of ridge tile, weighing 4586g, in one fabric, which displayed a certain amount of variation in terms of firing and temper; and 126 fragments of floor tile, weighing 12807g, in four fabrics.

Taken together Fabrics 2 and 6, the ridge-tile and floor-tile respectively, comprised 96% by fragment count and 94% by weight of the total assemblages (Table 7.7). The tile came from a range of contexts (Table 7.6) although the majority of ridge-tile and floor-tile was derived from the demolition/construction layer (135), where they comprised 83% by fragment count and 83% by weight of the total assemblage.

The floor-tile as a whole, comprised 53% of the total number of fragments and 69% of the total weight of the tile assemblages, while that from (135) comprised 43% of the total number of fragments and 58% of the total weight. The minor differences in both Fabrics 2 and 6 can be attributed to tile-location within the kiln during firing, as well as a certain amount of different treatment during preparation (see Discussion). The ridge-tile comprised 40% and 25%, respectively, of the same totals; as a whole the ridge tile comprised 43% of the number of fragments and 25% of the weight.

Fabrics	**Description**	**Date**	**Associated objects**	**Frags**		**Wt (g)**	
2	reduced core with surface oxidisation to beige; poorly sorted coarse clay with abundant limestone fabric occasional traces of green glaze	medieval	ridge-tile	100	43%	4625	25%
3	pinkish coarse fabric	medieval/? post-medieval	tile	1	<1%	102	<1%
4	?reduced fabric grey in colour; very gritty uncalcined inclusions	medieval	floor-tile	1	<1%	61	<1%
5	red slightly silty clay	Roman	box-tile	3	1.5%	237	1.5%
6	sandy fine fabric; occ reduced core	L13th-E14th	floor-tile	121	53%	12492	69%
7	very fine silty fabric with occ ?clay	M14th-L14th	floor-tile	3	1.5%	186	1%
8	dense very fine silty fabric	Roman	roof-tile	2	1%	352	2%
9	pink laminated fabric with occ clay pellets and small stone	post-medieval	roof-tile	1	<1%	227	1.5%
10	silty laminated fabric with occ small stone	post-medieval	roof-tile	1	<1%	83	<1%
11	pale pink orange silty clay with clay pellets & marl	medieval	floor-tile	1	<1%	68	<1%
total				**234**	**100%**	**18433**	**100%**

Table 7.7. Tile fabric groups.

The rest of the fabrics were represented by only a very small number of examples and it is not easy to ascribe great significance to these fabrics. The Roman and post-medieval tile fabrics were all recovered from features post-dating the 15th century and certainly in the case of the post-medieval tile were introduced after that date at the earliest from an unknown location off site.

Roman tile
The assemblage, which was clearly dominated by medieval ridge- and floor-tile, contained a small assemblage of Roman tile comprising roof-tile (*tegula*) and box-flue tile. The Roman assemblage consisted of two pieces of *tegula* and three fragments of box-flue tile, characterised by the relative thinness and combing on the external surface.

The fragments of *tegula* are relatively small and are non-diagnostic. The box-flue tile is also rather fragmentary. All this Roman material was residual and all, bar the fragment from the Late Saxon/Norman period ditch 744, was found in features which post-date the demolition/construction deposit (135). It is not recommended retaining the Roman material.

Roof-tile
The roof-tile assemblage comprised five fragments weighing 451g in four fabrics. Four of the fragments were recovered from cemetery soils (155) and (101); a single fragment with lime mortar traces was recovered from the demolition/construction layer (135). The fragments are too small to derive any diagnostic information apart from the fragments being late medieval or later. The pink silty clay evidenced by the fragment from layer (135) might be indicative of an earlier rather than later date.

It is highly unlikely that the roof tile was used for roofing here at Faringdon, where stone slates are the traditional mineral roofing material. It is, of course, very possible that the roof tile was used for patching, wedging or other remedial work on buildings; roof tile is frequently used as such in the wall-fabric or other parts of buildings, such as hearths. The presence of the roof tile is by no means indicative of ceramic tiled-roofs necessarily in the vicinity during the medieval or early post-medieval period. It is not recommended retaining this material.

Ridge-tile
The ridge-tile assemblage was the only medieval roofing tile present. It is clear that the roof of the church was traditionally in limestone slates, which still roofs parts of the church, with the only necessary manufactured ceramic tile being ridge-tiles.

The ridge-tile assemblage, which comprised 43% by fragment count and 25% by weight of the total assemblage, comprised 100 fragments weighing 4625g in one fabric group which was characterised by the heterogeneous range of its characteristics: firing, inclusions (both mineral and potentially vegetable) and finish varied across the assemblage. Nevertheless, the fabric was consistently characterised by small stone tempering, usually limestone, although other grit was also present.

No complete examples of ridge-tile survived. Although some conjoining fragments were present, none were sufficiently complete to establish the dimensions of the ridge-tiles, either in the horizontal or vertical axis.

The crests were pinched, sometimes with thumbing evident, and subsequently trimmed; occasionally with surviving pegholes. Some fragments had traces of thin green glaze extant on the body or crest. Stabbing and shallow scoring/combing was also noted on several fragments; stabbing was usually present on the crest pieces,

whereas the combing or scoring was usually present on the body. The edges of the tiles evidenced both rounded thumb-finished edges as well as trimmed edges. Such diagnostic fragments were generally rare.

Such stone area ridge tiles are a little researched phenomenon as they would appear to derive from quite local production facilities and do not appear to have travelled as items of trade, nevertheless, there appears to be a suite of formal attributes shared across the country, such as glaze, thumbing, combing and so on and so forth which demonstrates the range of the informal craftsman and the extent of a certain aesthetic ideal. This, it needs be reminded, in a time when pattern books did not exist for such mundane products. It is recommended retaining the diagnostic pieces, including form and fabric.

Floor tile

There were 126 tile fragments, weighing 12807g, dominated by Fabric 6, which can be identified with the 'Stabbed Wessex' group, which is generally held to run from the mid third quarter of the 13th century into the first quarter of the 14th century. The assemblage was drawn from six discrete contexts, although the vast majority derive from a layer of builder's rubble and mortar (135).

The rest of the assemblage, five fragments weighing 315g, comprised three fabrics, one of which was a Penn-style group of 3 fragments, weighing 186g (Fabric 7); one fragment, weighing 61g in a fabric previously identified by the author at Abingdon (Williams 2013) (Fabric 4); and an unidentified fragment weighing 68g (Fabric 11). It is not proposed to deal further with the fragments in Fabrics 4 and 11; Fabric 7, identified as probably from Penn, Bucks., yields a production-date centred on the second and third quarters of the 14th century, but is otherwise of little significance.

'Stabbed Wessex' tile group

The 'Stabbed Wessex' assemblage, which comprised 53% by fragment count and 69% by weight of the total assemblage, consisted of a total of 121 fragments weighing 12,553g

Of the 'Stabbed Wessex' group there were 56 fragments, weighing 7685g, which were decorated with identifiable designs; 12 decorated but unidentifiable fragments weighing 504g and 26 pieces, which were scored and usually broken into rectangular or triangular fragments, weighing 2790g, were plain; as noted above, these were all in Fabric 6. A further 32 fragments weighing 1513g of unidentifiable Fabric 6 were also recovered (Table 7.6). 96, weighing 10431g, were from demolition/construction layer (135).

The 'Stabbed Wessex' assemblage, which was the dominant assemblage, was also the earliest represented on site, dating from sometime during the core period AD 1280-1330, with the possibility of production having been carried out up to 10 years either side of this (Eames 1980, 205-6). Illustrations of the 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles were included along with the later 'Penn style' – or 'Printed' – tiles in Loyd Haberley's seminal catalogue for the region *Mediaeval English Pavingtiles* (1937).

Context	Frags (unid)	Frags (plain)	Frags (decor'd)	Frags (design)	Design motif	Wt (g)	Thick.	Identification / comments	Fabric	Total 6	Total others
101				1	C	138	c. 20	LH LXIV; Hohler W8	6	1	
101				2	E	421	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16	6	2	
101	1					83	20	very worn frag	6	1	
101			2			100	-	design too small to see	6	2	
101	1					35	-	v worn frag	7		1
subtotal	*2*		*2*	*3*						*6*	*1*
131	1					180	21	rectangular split frag very worn	6	1	
subtotal	*1*									*1*	
133				1	H	113	c. 20	Hohler W28	6	1	
133	2					184	20	1 frag v worn; 2nd frag mortar present	6	2	
133			2			81	-	design too small	6	2	
subtotal	*2*		*2*	*1*						*5*	
135	1					61	32	long stab mark	4		1
135				7	A	1045	c. 20	Hohler W4	6	7	
135				9	B	1166	c. 20	LH XXV; Hohler W39	6	9	
135				10	C	1268	c. 20	LH LXIV; Hohler W8	6	10	
135				2	D	465	c. 20	LH XXVI	6	2	
135				10	E	1174	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16	6	10	
135				10	F	1506	c. 20	LH XLIX; Eames 2191	6	10	
135				1	G	99	c. 20	LH LIV; Hohler W42	6	1	
135	21					918	-	dreck	6	21	
135		6				419	c. 20	Scored & cut triangular fragments		6	
135		20				2371	c. 20	Scored & cut rectangular fragments	6	20	
135	2					151	c. 22	?Penn style tiles	7		2
135	1					68	-	Unknown tile type	11		1
subtotal	*25*	*26*		*49*						*96*	*4*
136				1	A	117	c. 20	Hohler W4	6	1	
136				1	F	91	c. 20	LH XLIX; Eames 2191	6	1	
136			2			36	-	design too small to see	6	2	
subtotal			*2*	*2*						*4*	
140				1	E	82	c. 20	LH LVI; Hohler W16	6	1	
140	2					148	18	1 spall; 2nd frag v worn	6	2	
140			6			287	-	design too small to see	6	6	
subtotal	*2*		*6*	*1*						*9*	
Total	***32***	***26***	***12***	***56***						***121***	***5***
Total	***126***				***12807***					***126***	

Table 7.8. 'Stabbed Wessex' tile by quantity by weight by context; LH: Haberly (1937); Hohler (1942); Emden (1969); Eames (1980)

This earlier Wessex-derived tradition, which was first identified as such, by Christopher Hohler (1942), is characterized by tiles, measuring *c*. 135-150mm × 135-150mm, with a number of stab marks – usually round – in the underside of the tile, which are often assumed to be for mortar to adhere to; it is probable that these might also be to enable effective drying out of the tile prior to firing. Later 'Penn style' tiles do not have stabbing, whereas earlier tiles were produced with a marked 'scoop' on the underside.

The 'Stabbed Wessex' group dominates the early tile assemblages in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire, with a distribution extending from Gloucestershire to Leicestershire. There are a number of models to explain this extended distribution (Stopford 1992; 1993). The distribution is identified through a combination of formal factors: the stab-holes; the fabric and the slip, primarily. Although some tile-making traditions seem to indicate a preference for certain designs, many designs are frequently reproduced through time and across traditions. It is too easy to read too much into the designs, from a contemporary point of view to the historical.

The tiles ranged in thickness from 17mm to 25mm, although for the most part were between 20mm and 23mm; the thicknesses observed at the lower end were due to wear. The 'Stabbed Wessex' style tiles are made of a notoriously soft fabric, with the inlaid white decoration frequently subsisting in relief while the glaze and fabric of the body of the tile has been worn away.

The earlier 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles were typically in a sandy clay fabric, which ranged from a well-oxidised mid pink orange to a reduced dark grey colour, into which the white clay was lain. Haematite and grit were occasionally present, as was the very occasional small stone, but the quantities were not significantly frequent to warrant identifying those tiles as a separate fabric group, when they shared common designs. The technology and techniques of stamping the designs of floor tile have been extensively discussed elsewhere (Eames 1980, 221; Green 2005, 135-8), and need not be revisited here.

Nevertheless, the white decorative clay in the 'Stabbed Wessex' series of tiles was impressed, for the most part, to a depth of 2-3mm into the body of the tile. The designs are usually clear and well-defined despite the frequent wearing away of glaze. Occasionally, the red sandy fabric has worn away, leaving the white clay standing proud, which is a not uncommon feature of 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles. This is less frequent an occurrence with the reduced fabrics which are significantly harder and more brittle.

Glazes

Glaze is made with galena, the lead ore, and in England could be sourced from the Mendips, in Somerset, Kingswood, in South Gloucestershire, the Peak District or Cumbria. At present the source of the lead for glaze, which has not been investigated scientifically using lead isotope analysis, remains unknown.

It is not clear whether the lead ore or a prepared product was transported to the tile production site. The lead ore for glaze was roasted and, according to Theophilus, the 12th-century monk who wrote on medieval arts, mixed with salt, and subsequently

sand, which when it had formed a glass, was then cooled and ground up to be mixed with sour wine or watered ale for application to dry, unfired tiles (see Cherry 1991, 191).

The glazes on the 'Stabbed Wessex' group of tiles ranged from an iron-rich red brown colour over the fabric of the tile with a honey-coloured yellow over the white piping to a copper-rich brown, and indeed almost black on occasion, over the red fabric with a light green over the white piping. Colour variation was achieved through the addition of either ground copper or iron oxides to provide a green or red hue to the glaze; over slip and red clay these would then become greener or redder, blacker or redder, respectively. Such colour variation was observed across styles of tile, indicating that changes in hue as well as colour were as important factors as design in the laid floors.

Tile designs

There were eight identifiable designs, with a further number of patterned but ultimately unidentifiable tiles; this is largely due to the size of the tile fragment, although on a couple of occasions the wear of both the tile body fabric and the inlaid slip was such it was clear that the pattern was incomplete.

Interestingly, there are no newly identified designs; all the tiles conform to Loyd Haberley's scheme (Haberley 1937), and indeed, most of the designs represented were identified by Christopher Hohler (1941-42). These designs extend across the region.

Group A: ***Hohler W4*** (Fig. 15 – T6)
Group A tiles, depict a 'lion rampant in a quatrefoil with trefoils in the outer angles' (Hohler 1942, 100) of the tile, are single tiles. The group comprised 8 fragments, weighing 1162g, including two large fragments showing the lion almost in its entirety.

Group B: ***LH XXV; Hohler W39*** (Fig. 15 - T2)
Group B tiles, which Hohler suggests are one of four (Hohler 1942, 103), although the design is such that it would appear that rather they are one of sixteen, are illustrated with a 'a floriatedcross enclosed in a quatrefoil surrounded by a circle powdered with pellets; two concentric quadrants and an annulet in the outer angles' (Hohler 1942, 100) of the tile, comprised 9 fragments, weighing 1166g.

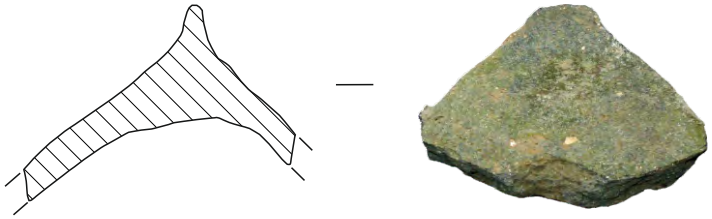
Group C: ***LH LXIV; Hohler W8*** (Fig. 15 – T7)
Group C tiles, which depict an 'eagle [displayed, set diagonally] between two five-pointed stars, in a broken square frame' (Hohler 1942, 100; Emden 1970, 40 *between parentheses*), comprised 11 fragments, weighing 1406g, including two large fragments showing the lion almost in its entirety.

Group D: ***LH XXVI*** (Fig. 15 – T3)
Group D tiles, which depict a 'intersecting ellipses in a convex frame' (Emden 1970, 36; fig 11.2), consisted of 2 fragments, weighing 465g.

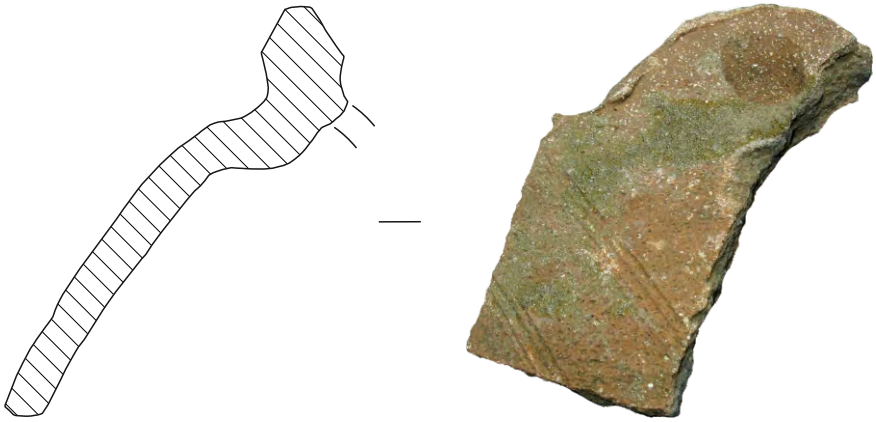
Group E: ***LH LVI; Hohler W16*** (Fig. 15 – T4)
Group E tiles, which depict a 'fleurs-de-lis springing from the angles of a square' (Hohler 1942, 101), consisted of 13 fragments, weighing 1677g.

Group F: ***LH XLIX; Eames 2191*** (Fig. 15 – T1)
Group F tiles, depict four quarter-sized fleurs-de-lis in the angles of the tile converging toward the centre to form a rounded X with a central ring, are single tiles. The group comprised 11 fragments, weighing 1597g.

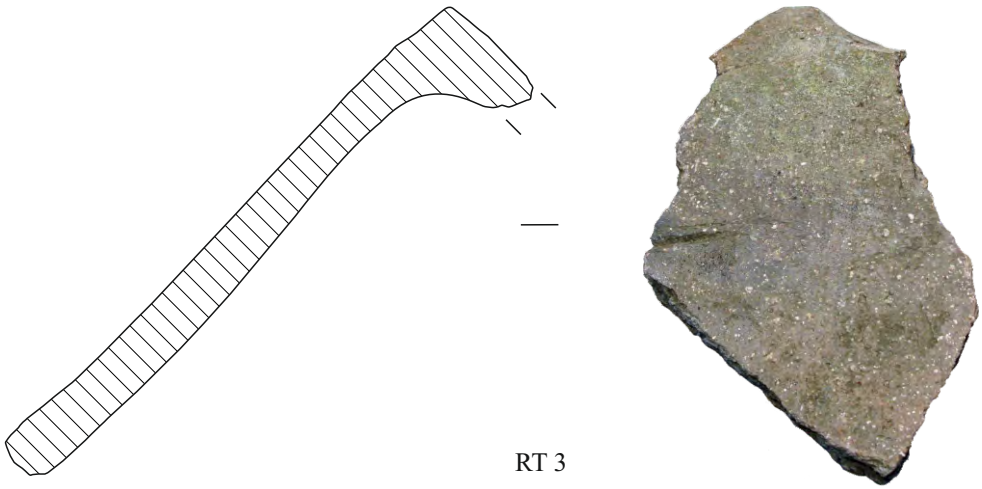
Figure 15: Decorated floor tiles



RT 1



RT 2



RT 3

Figure 16: Medieval ridge tiles

Group G: ***LH LIV; Hohler W42*** (Fig. 15 – T8)
Group G tiles, which depict 'Four fleurs-de-lis projecting into the corners of the tile from the corners of a square enclosing four small square dots' (Lambrick & Mellor 1985, fiche A13-A14), consisted of 1 fragment, weighing 99g.

Group H: ***Hohler W28*** (Fig. 15 – T5)
Group H tiles, which is '[p]art of a four tile pattern: a cross formed of four fleurs-de-lis in a quatrefoil, with trefoil ornament in the outer angles' (Hohler 1942, 102) , consisted of 1 fragment, weighing 113g.

The three fragments of Penn-style floor tile cannot be identified, although their presence indicates the strong possibility of a retiling of an area of the church in the 14th century. Records from Bicester Priory suggest that the lord of the manor of Penn was not only keen to recover out-standing debt for Penn tiles, but that he may well have been engaged in selling them as a desirable commodity (Blomfield 1884, 154; Green 2005). It is worth noting that the Unton Chapel and its corresponding south aisle chapel as well as a priest's chamber in the porch of the south door were all built in the 14th century (Sargent 2013, 7) and offer possible associations for the Penn tile. Unfortunately the small tile fragment comparable with the Abingdon-style tile cannot be placed in a greater context yet, as too little is known of this group.

Discussion
The 'Stabbed Wessex' tile groups all betray affinities with other contemporary assemblages, such as the Oxford assemblages (Emden 1970; Howard-Drake 1970; Cotter 2006; Tibbles 2007) as well as assemblages from Bicester (Hinton 1969; Williams 2012) and elsewhere in both Oxfordshire and historic Berkshire, such as Chastleton, Stanton St. John or West Hendred.

As there are no *in situ* tiles at All Saints this modest assemblage forms an important addition to the church's history as well as our academic knowledge of the production and distribution of 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles. These form a key group in the region as they are located at a distance from any abbey, which might have been a source for their production, as well as being distant from either Oxford or Gloucestershire markets and Clarendon Palace, which is generally held to be the ultimate origin for the 'Stabbed Wessex' series (Eames 1980, 203).

As the 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles have a date-range from the 1270s to 1330s it is of course difficult to say when the floor might have been laid at All Saints, Faringdon. Furthermore, the end date-range for the tiles corresponds with the emergence of the Penn industry, further complicating the possible relationship with Pye Chapel or Unton Chapel as the source of the tile. Nevertheless, the assemblage, which consists of a good range of standard 'Stabbed Wessex' inlaid tiles with a number of plain fragments indicating that the laid floor was probably planned and laid out with repeating designs broken up by and framed with solid bands of black and green rectangular and triangular tiles.

The source of the Oxfordshire/Berkshire 'Stabbed Wessex' series is problematic as it is apparently very widespread and still no production site has yet been identified. There exist precious few documentary references to tile production in the county and so identifying a provenance has proved particularly difficult.

Bagley Wood, to the west of Oxford, a holding of Abingdon Abbey, is a possible location for a tile production site in the vicinity of Oxford: Loyd Haberly in *English Medieval Pavingtiles* reports the discovery of a kiln before 1937; John Ward-Perkins identified the location of a kiln for 14th-century embossed tiles at Old Man's Piece in Bagley Wood (Ward-Perkins 1937, 148); while more recently Maureen Mellor also reported the discovery of a substantial quantity of tile-wasters there (Mellor 1994, 79). Further work is needed to establish the full extent of the postulated tile-industry here.

A further holding of Abingdon Abbey, which may well be a potential source for the Oxford tiles, was Ashampstead, Berkshire, which was the focus of a medieval potting industry. There is strong evidence for a tile-making industry between Newbury and Reading during the 13th and 14th centuries (Lambrick & Mellor, 1985, 186; Mellor 1989, 250).

But, ultimately in the absence of further research it is not possible to be certain which, if either, site produced tile for Oxford and its immediate hinterland, which was clearly a vibrant market. As a consequence of this vigorous market in inlaid tile, towns, and later villages, farther afield had their churches re-floored with inlaid tile. For example, Holy Trinity West Hendred has a particularly well preserved floor consisting of thousands of floor tiles (Wight 1975, 158).

The mechanism for this trade is still somewhat obscure. It is generally held that a static production centre, or several such centres, probably served the Oxford/Berkshire area, as discussed above. Elsewhere the indications are of more itinerant craftsmen (Stopford 1993). Nevertheless, the quantity of monastic institutions, secular churches, and private wealthy clients on hand meant that if an abbey, such as Abingdon Abbey, employed or commissioned a tile-maker to produce tiles for the abbey, all tiles over and above his annual quota would be available for purchase on the open market (see Stopford 1992, 357-61).

This is in contrast with the later Penn industry, which was an exclusively lay concern, under the watchful eye of the lord of the manor of Penn, engaged in a market-driven trade in tile (Blomfield 1884, 154). Following the supply of Penn tile to Windsor by the de la Penne family provides an illuminating picture of how this process might have functioned. John de la Penne, the King's Clerk in 1359, furnished the Crown with tile that had been fired at Penn, which was his manor, and for which he was paid directly by the Crown as well as in fees and fines by the tilers.

This was undoubtedly a lucrative and worthwhile project: in the Subsidy Rolls for 1332 John de la Penne, possibly father to the above, is the only man in Penn richer than Simon the paver (Green 2005, 118), and the tile-industry would appear to be reasonably mature at this point as the combined wealth of Simon, John the tiler and Henry Tyler (who also feature in the Subsidy Rolls) almost equal John de la Penne and his mother's incomes *(ibid).*
The extensive presence of Penn tiles at various priories and institutions in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire, with evidence for distribution as far east as London, as well as in north Berkshire and Middlesex, indicates that 'Penn style' tiles subsequently

became extremely popular in the region, with a distribution network along the Thames corridor.

Nonetheless, the All Saints, Faringdon assemblage indicates that at some point between the latter part of the 13th century and the early 14th century, the floor, or part of it, at All Saints was refloored. The couple of fragments of later Penn tile suggest the possibility of further re-tiling elsewhere in the church. It is an ironic note that the Victorian encaustic tiles at All Saints recall the Penn-style tiles of the 14th century, rather than the 'Stabbed Wessex' tiles which were recovered in such abundance during the excavation. Nonetheless, the presence of 'Stabbed Wessex' and later Penn-style tiles indicates that All Saints, Faringdon was during the medieval period retiled in the latest fashion on at least two occasions.

7.4 Clay tobacco pipe *by Simona Denis*

A total of 16 clay tobacco pipe fragments were recovered during the excavation. The largest part of the assemblage (78%) is constituted by plain, unmarked and undecorated stem fragments. Only three diagnostic pieces were recovered: two bowl fragments from the burials of Sk. 10 and Sk. 82, and one stem fragment including the spur found in cemetery soil (155), not associated with any burials. Only two partial maker's marks were present, therefore the dating of the assemblage is based on bowl typology and decoration.

7.4.1 Diagnostic Elements

(282) - Bowl fragment with spur and stem (1840-1850?).

Description: The clay pipe fragment associated with Sk. 82 is a thin, narrow bowl (diameter 22 mm) with a flat-based spur showing the maker's initials moulded in relief on both sides. The left side of the spur bears the upright letter ?W in serif lettering; the right side is now illegible but seems to have been marked as well. No other decoration is present.

Dating: Between 1800 and 1830 smaller, more pointed spurs with moulded serif initials replaced the previously prevalent broad spur. Upright initials appear c. 1840, and by 1850 the sans-serif lettering becomes predominant (Atkinson 1969; 185-6). The practice of incorporating the maker's initials in the mould on each side of the spur was normal until 1860, when it was replaced by use of the full maker's name along the stem (Ayto 1994; 28). The presence of the moulded, serif initials on the fragment associated with the comparatively thin (diameter 8mm) stem (thicker stem points to earlier dating, Ayto 1994;28) suggests a dating between 1840 and 1850.

References: No. 29 of the Atkinson and Oswald typology (Atkinson 1969). No. 19 from Gravesend, Kent. This example shows a typical early 19th century plain form with a thin brittle bowl and a flat based spur, usually marked (Tilley 1971).

(355) - Bowl fragment with spur and stem (Early 19th C?).

Description: The bowl fragment recovered from the burial of Sk. 10 is a forward dropping thin, narrow bowl (diameter 18 mm) with flat spur slightly pointing forward.

The stem is thick (diameter 10 mm), with a narrow, off-centre draught hole. No decoration is present.

Dating: The presence of a thick stem indicates an earlier dating (Ayto 1994; 28). The overall shape of the bowl and spur is similar to some examples from Surrey influenced by West Country styles, generally dated to the 18th century (Higgins 1981; 208 and fig. 2).

References: No. 26 of the Atkinson and Oswald typology (Atkinson 1969). Type 9 from Farnham (Higgins 1981; 208 and fig. 2). This fragment shows thickness of stem, forward-pointing spur and angle of the bowl similar to the Faringdon example.

Stem with spur
(155) – Fragment of stem with spur (1830-1860?).

Description: Thin stem fragment with long pointed spur. The stem shows a moulded decoration including oak leaf patterns on both sides and a series of three letters in relief on the left-hand side. The serif lettering reads C I ?N and is possibly part of the full maker's name.

Dating: Long pointed spurs appear between 1810 and 1840 (Ayto 1994; 8). Very thin stems decorated with full maker's name in relief post-date 1800 (Oswald 1984; 259), when the improvement of mould-making allowed to mark initials or full names on stems (Atkinson 1969; 185) trend which became dominant around 1860 (Ayto 1994; 28).

References: No. 28 of the Atkinson and Oswald typology (Atkinson 1969). No. 35 from Oxford. Pipe of the Huggings Family, dated to c. 1850 (Oswald 1984; 261, and fig. 56), shows the same association of moulded leaf pattern decoration and moulded maker's name. No. 95 and No. 101 from London. Pipe of Ann Webb, Hungerford Market, dated to 1823-1828 and pipe of Brown of Westminster dated to 1830 (Le Cheminant 1981;144, and fig. 9). Both examples show a similar but more elaborated decoration including leaf pattern and maker's name, with additional elements along the mould halves.

7.4.2 Plain Stems

Thirteen plain stem fragments were found. Most of them (78%) were recovered in association with nine different burials (Sk. 9, Sk. 10, Sk. 12, Sk. 15, Sk. 19, Sk. 84, Sk. 120, Sk. 141), while the two remaining fragments came from subsoil (102) immediately underlying the topsoil (101) and the cemetery soil (155).

The fragmentary state of the evidence precludes any attempt to reconstruct the original shape of the pipes and to determine their overall length. Furthermore, the lack of any decoration or mark prevents any secure dating. However, the larger diameter of the stem is a recognized indicator for a relatively earlier date (Ayto 1994; 28) in the 19th century, as is the absence of either elaborate decoration or full makers' names and addresses along the stems (Atkinson 1969; 185 ff.; Oswald 1984; 258 ff.).

Context	Skeleton	Length (mm)	Stem diameter (mm)	Date range
102	None	49	9	Earlier
126	Sk 9	26	10	Earlier
133	Sk 12	40	7	Later
140	Sk 15	37	7	Later
155	None	47	11	Earlier
160	Sk 19	40	8	Later?
264	Sk 73	42	7	Later
286	Sk 84	32	9	Earlier
286	Sk 84	29	9	Earlier
286	Sk 84	35	9	Earlier
355	Sk 10	24	7	Later?
375 • 114	Sk 120	16	4	Later
435	Sk 141	48	7	Later

Table 7.9

Discussion

The presence of only three diagnostic fragments precludes any general statement about the Faringdon clay pipe assemblage. However, the evidence seems essentially to conform to contemporary assemblages found in Southern England, possibly influenced by the London styles. The three datable fragments indicate the first half of the 19th century as the date-range for the assemblage.

7.5 Glass *by Simona Denis*

A total of 88 glass fragments were recovered during the excavation, mostly (75%) in association with burials. The most represented type is window glass, constituting 79% of the assemblage; 15% of the fragments came from vessels, and 4 examples came from bottles.

The poor state of preservation and the general fragmentary nature of the finds prevent any attempt of positively dating the assemblage, particularly of the window glass fragments (Weiland 2009; 29). Classification by colour for vessels and bottles can only suggest a very broad dating range, based on the popularity of certain colours over time (http://www.sha.org/bottle/colors.htm).

Window glass

During the excavation 70 fragments of window glass were recovered. These were all fragmentary and of little diagnostic value for furnishing a date for the contexts from which they derived. None of the fragments were painted or otherwise indicative of deriving from stained glass associated with either the medieval or later church windows.

Vessels

Fourteen fragments of thick, curved glass, possibly part of vessels were found in association with 10 different individuals and from subsoil (102) and cemetery soil (155). The two fragments found in context (745), associated with Sk 268 belong to a small, light green vessel, possibly a perfume bottle, with a reconstructable diameter of 25 mm and seems to be decorated with light red curving lines.

All of the remaining examples of the assemblage are non-diagnostic, thick fragments of glass of brown (102, 144, 160 and 164), yellow (250, 435), dark-grey or black (126, 139, 282) or green (244) colour.

Bottles
Of the four bottle fragments were recovered, two were associated with burials (Sk 48 and Sk 120), one came from charnel pit [307] and one was found in context (135).

Three of the examples are remains of bottle bases, two of which show evidence of push-up. The push-up base is a feature dating at least from the early 17th century, and has no dating evidence in itself (http://www.sha.org/bottle/bases.htm#Push-Up). The remaining fragment is possibly part of a bottle neck.

There is little diagnostic utility for the colour of glass, an observation that is particularly evident for green bottles, which can be found in any type or period (http://www.sha.org/bottle/colors.htm#Greens & Blue-greens).

7.6 Metal *by Simona Denis*

Keys
One cast iron rotary key was recovered from context (306), fill of a charnel pit [307]. It has a kidney-shaped bow, a solid circular-section shank with one collar, and a symmetrical double 'S' shaped bit with two main wards perpendicular to the stem. The object is datable to the late post-medieval period.

Plate 7.6.1 – Barrel padlock key, context (448) (Sk 145)

One possible barrel padlock key (Plate 7.6.1) was found in context (448), associated with Sk 145. The cast iron key has a rectangular-section stem, with a rounded bit at an angle of ca. 45° to the stem and a looped head. A group of similar objects (no. 12620 and no. 12999 are the closest to the Faringdon example) is known from medieval contexts in York and dated to the 12th-13th centuries (Ottaway 2002; 2875 and ill. 1453).

Spurs
The iron rowel spur • 57 was found in the cemetery soil (155). It is a rounded spur, originally composed of 22 points separated only at their tip, with a diameter of more than 50mm. Large rowels of this type were fashionable during the second half of the 14th century. Very similar examples are no. 1805 from Norwich (Margeson 1993; 223 and fig. 170) and • 15 from Newington (Williams 2014; 68 and fig. 36.5).

Plate 7.6.2 – Iron spur, • 189 (Sk 164)

The fragmentary iron prick spur• 189 (Plate 7.6.2), associated with Sk 164, has square cross-section arms and an octahedral goad. It is comparable with the prick spur no. 12734 found in York and dated to the late 11th century (Ottaway 2002; 3064 and fig. 1522).

Thimble

The copper alloy (possibly brass) thimble • 236 (Plate 7.6.3) was found in association with Sk 231. The cylindrical object is cast in one piece and measures 21 mm in height and 14 mm in diameter. The indentations on the body are knurled while the crown, although extremely worn out, seems to show a so-called 'waffle-shaped' pattern. The latter feature is characteristic of the 'Lofting' thimble, mass produced in Islington, London from 1693 and produced at least until the mid-18th century. The Faringdon example is similar to UKDFD-43454 and UKDFD-42584 found in Wiltshire.

Plate 7.6.3 – Brass thimble • 236 (Sk 231)

The date-range of metal objects recovered during the excavation extends from the 11th to mid-18th centuries. None of the objects can be securely associated with any given individual, and most would appear to be residual, introduced into the grave soil by accident rather than expressly as part of a burial. The only possible exception might be the thimble from the backfill of the grave of Sk. 231, although the evidence for deliberate placing of the thimble in with the skeleton is poor.

7.7 Worked bone

Possible stylus *by Simona Denis*
A fragment of a carved stylus (Plate 7.7.1) was found in cemetery soil (155). The object is decorated with a globular head and two groups of three incised circumferential lines along the body. The centre is drilled clean to receive a lead.

Plate 7.7.1 –Stylus, context (155)

The function of this class of objects is unclear; they may have been used in writing on wax tablets, or during the preparation of parchment for scribing, or even as markers for use in embroidery, while some have been identified simply as pins (MacGregor 1999).

Bone knife Handle *by Stephen Yeates and Martin Henig*
Recovered from context (875) and associated with Skeleton 316 was a piece of worked bone (Plate 7.7.2). The object measured 49mm in length by 22mm across, with a surviving depth of 11mm and weighing 6g. The object was not given a special finds number and this probably means that during the excavation its carved detail was not noted and that this only became evident after cleaning. The fragment is undoubtedly part of an animal long bone. The bone appears to be polished with a series of parallel groves scored of which six continue around the surviving bone fragment fully, while one of them is only partial. It is possible that this decorative feature was originally a spiral design. On the broad end of the surviving bone there are three perforations, possibly part of a hanging loop. At the narrower end there is a further perforation, which is probably the remains of a rivet whole. On the reverse of the piece it is evident that there was a slot inserted axially along the line of the bone, which would have been for the insertion of the prong of a metal implement.

Plate 7.7.2 – Knife handle, context (875)

On balance if we consider the various features that can be identified as being cut into the bone it is probably part of a bone knife handle. On the broad end the perforations may be for a hanging loop, while at the narrower end the drilled holes would appear to be for the insertion of a rivet. The axial cut along the long bone is undoubtedly for a tang or shank. These features of tang with rivets in bone objects were common features of Roman and sub-Roman period knife handles (MacGregor 1985, 167-70). Indeed rivet holes are considered to be more commonly placed on knife handles. A further possibility is that it could be the handle of an awl or chisel or some other similar implement. MacGregor's Roman examples produce riveted examples such as that from Straubing-Bayern (Walke 1965) and also examples with parallel groves being used as decoration (Rahtz and Greenfield 1977).

The only apparent material from the grave cut are two pieces of pottery and this knife handle, which are all considered to be of a Roman date. The knife handle is only fragmentary in nature, but its presence does raise the question of if this was a deliberate deposition of an object that has decayed or if this is just a residual deposit in the backfill. Weapon burials have been generally interpreted as being a product of the early medieval migration period; however, there are a number of burials noted in the West Country and Southeast Wales that could be considered indigenous forerunners of this practice.

The earliest indicator of a weapon being found with a Roman burial is from Hangstone Hill near Cleevedon in Somerset (1879, 427, VCH 1906, 360-1). Here quarrymen in 1879 found Roman burials associated with coins of Vespasian, Hadrian and Tetricus, along with a fibulae and sword. In 1909-10 excavations at House no 17 in Caerwent uncovered a series of west to east burials that were thought to be part of a wider Christian cemetery of the 5th to 7th centuries AD (1909, Ashby, Hudd et al. 1911, 405-448). One of the burials was noted to be accompanied by a spearhead. The burials were in the vicinity of a recognised Roman temple and a later early medieval class church. In 1926 at Stratton Mill a male burial orientated north to south was identified (Sewell 1926, 299-301, RCHME 1976, 29). The report at the time described this as a weapon burial containing an iron knife or hatchet. Later the knife was interpreted as being a sacrificial knife. These particular burials appear to be associated with a specific type of site. In Caerwent there is an early medieval monastery founded adjacent to a Roman temple, which may have been associated with Mars. In Stretton the type of object recovered from the burial was that of a sacrificial knife. The exact nature of the Roman landscape is not known at this time but other indicators of a Roman religious site have been found in this village to the north of Cirencester. The exact circumstances of the finds at Hangstone Hill in Cleevedon are not known. However, the other burials would indicate that it is possible to find late Roman and early medieval burials from perhaps the 3rd century AD to the 5th or even the 6th centuries AD. These burials are often associated with Roman religious sites and later monastic centres established on them. In the case of Faringdon the church has been claimed as that of an early medieval minster church (Yeates 2012).

7.8 Lithics *by David Gilbert*

Three prehistoric flint artefacts were recovered from residual contexts during the excavation (table 7.10).

Context	Artefact	L (mm)	W (mm)	B (mm)	Notes
126	Thumb-nail Scraper	30	30	17	17g Scraper on a primary flake. Some later damage
220	Flake of rejuvination	35	25	10	Signs of later thermal fracture
604	Leaf arrowhead	31	17	4	Crude with later damage. SF225

Table 7.10

The Leaf-shaped arrowhead and flake of rejuvenation display a light grey patina, and the flake clearly a reuse off an earlier white patina "core" The scraper was a dark grey-brown flint with no patina. The small assemblage indicates limited prehistoric activity in the area between the Neolithic and Bronze Age.

7.9 Coins *by Andrej • elovský*

An assemblage of five coins and one jeton was recovered during the archaeological investigations at All Saints Church in Faringdon.

Four of the coins are made of copper-alloy as well as the jeton (C.1, C.3, C.4, C.5, & C.6), and one is made of silver (C.2). C.1 represents Roman antoninianus of Gallic Emperor Tetricus I and C.2 is late early medieval small cross penny possibly issued during the reign of Aethelred II (978-1016). Both coins were found residually in the backfills of later graves, however they might to be related with Roman and early medieval features investigated during the archaeological works.

The rest of the assemblage represents common types of copper post-medieval coinage, dating from 1622 to 1760 (C.3, C.4, & C.5). Those coins were residual as well, apart from the Farthing of James I (C.3) which was discovered in the area of the pelvis of Sk18. The location of the coin suggests that it was placed in the pocked of the deceased.

One copper-alloy Rose and Orb type Nuremberg jeton (C.6) was recovered from topsoil during the last stage of investigates. These jetons are generally quite common finds from urban and high status sites.

Catalogue

C.1 Antoninianus of Tetricus I (271-274)

A copper-alloy antoninianus of Tetricus I, struck in 273/274 possible in Cologne. Obverse: IMP TETRIC[VS P F AVG], radiate and cuirassed bust right, worn. Reverse: [LAETITI]A AVGG, Laetitia standing left, holding wreath and anchor, worn. (PetráH& Fridrichovský 2008, p. 226; RIC V-2: 88, p. 408)
Dimensions: diameter 17.8 mm, weight 1.64 g, Die-axis 12 O'clock,
Archaeological information: OMS 2010.57 (291) SF 145; associated with Sk125.

Plate 7.9.1: Antoninianus of Tetricus I

C.2 Small cross penny (10th / 11th century)

A silver small cross penny, in general could be dated into 10th / 11th century. In the current stage of a research, moneyer, mint, and exact date of analysed exemplar is uncertain. However, it possible represents one of small cross pennies issued during the reign of Aethelred II (978-1016) or contemporary copy. Obverse: unidentified legend, draped bust facing left (similar to No. 1151), worn. Reverse: + unidentified legend, small cross, slightly worn. (Seaby & Purvey 1980, pp.60-61)
Dimensions: diameter 17.1 mm, weight 0.95 g, Die-axis 3 O'clock,
Archaeological information: OMS 2010.57 (626) SF 215; associated with SK215.

Plate 7.9.2: Late early medieval small cross penny

C.3 Farthing of James I (1603-1625)

A copper farthing of James I, Lennox issue Type 4 with dagger initial mark on the obverse side, dated to the period c. 1622/3-1625. Obverse: IACO:D:G:MAG:BRI:, pair of scepters crossed in saltire through a crown with nine jewels, slightly worn. Reverse: FRA:ET HIB:REX., crowned harp with six strings, slightly worn. (Everson 2007, type 46a, p. 21)
Dimensions: diameter 16.5 mm, weight 0.65 g, Die-axis 6 O'clock,
Archaeological information: OMS 2010.57 (context N/A) SF 144; associated with Sk18, found in area of pelvis.

Plate 7.9.3: Farthing of James I

C.4 Halfpenny of William III (1694-1702)

A copper halfpenny of William III, minted in 1697 in London. Obverse: GVLIELMVS TERTIVS, a classical style bust facing right, worn. Reverse: BRITAN-NIA, date 1697 in exergue, Britannia seated left with right hand raised, worn. (Seaby & Purvey 1980, No. 3554, p. 212)

Dimensions: diameter 28.3 mm, weight 7.95 g, Die-axis 6 O'clock

Archaeological information: OMS 2010.57 (context N/A) SF 159.

Plate7.9. 4: Halfpenny of William III

C.5 Farthing of George II (1727-1760)

A cooper farthing of George II, dated to the period in-between 1730-1739, minted in Royal Mint in London. Obverse: GEORGIVS II R[EX], young laureate bust facing left, very worn. Reverse: BRITA[N]-N[IA], date in exergue not preserved, Britannia seated left with right hand raised, very worn. (Seaby & Purvey 1980, No. 3720, p. 225)

Dimensions: diameter 21 mm, weight 2.33 g, Die-axis 6 O'clock

Archaeological information: 2010.57 (U/S) SF N/A.

Plate 7.9.5: Farthing of George II

C.6 Nuremberg Jeton (16th / early 17th century)

A copper-alloy Rose and Orb type jeton of anonymous Nuremberg maker dated to 16th / early 17th century. Obverse: fictitious legend, three crowns, alternately with three fleur-de-lis, arranged around a central rose, slightly worn. Reverse: fictitious legend, Imperial orb within a tressure of three arches and three angles, worn. (UKDFD)
Dimensions: diameter 24.2 mm, weight 2.12 g, Die-axis uncertain
Archaeological information: 2010.57 (topsoil) SF N/A

Plate 7.9.6: Nuremberg Jeton

7.10 Environmental Remains *by Gwilym Williams*

As it was felt by the excavator that the potential for good environmental results was extremely low and that environmental sampling was not warranted.

8 DISCUSSION *by Gwilym Williams*

The excavation at All Saints, Faringdon, revealed a limited amount of pre-cemetery activity, comprising some excavated features and a low-level background noise of Late Iron Age and Roman pottery. It is not certain that the late prehistoric and Roman pottery is from All Saints, Faringdon, and it may well represent evidence of soil imported from elsewhere in Faringdon. The only archaeological feature which yielded

Roman pottery also contained a small sherd of Saxon grass-tempered pot; the cut was grave-shaped and so may not actually represent a Roman or Saxon feature. Nevertheless, it may represent a grave from that date, although no other graves were shown to be convincingly from this period.

As a result, it is not easy to assert that the site has an early Christian or indeed pre-Christian origin. In terms of the site's location in the broader landscape, it is clear that while it overlooks the town of Faringdon, it is nevertheless a relatively low point in the surrounding hills. Nevertheless, there has been sufficient work in the vicinity of Faringdon to indicate that during the Iron Age and Roman period the Thames Valley to the north as well as the Vale of White horse to the south were intensively occupied and extensively utilised.

Later features, consisting of ditches, associated either with the postulated Late Saxon minster, or else with an early medieval antecedent were also revealed. The ditches which extended across the intervention area beneath the later cemetery were probably too narrow and insufficiently deep to have comprised a formal church enclosure ditch, such as John Blair has argued for Bampton (Mayes 2001, Fig. 7) and Bicester (Blair 2003, Fig. 1).

The minster enclosure ditch at Bampton is argued to be several metres wide (*ibid*) while that at Bicester was at least 2m metres in width (Hull & Preston 2001, Fig 3). Furthermore, the tiplines observed in the ditches indicated backfilling from north and south, respectively, which is incompatible with an enclosure ditch and bank. It is possible that this more modest ditch represents an internal division between the church and the manor.

The period of time which elapsed between the backfilling of the ditches and the laying out of the first possible medieval or later burial is unknown. No scientific dating was possible as the remains were due to be reburied at Coach Lane cemetery extension within reasonably tight deadlines. The cemetery does not reveal a high degree of organisation, as is often clear from cemeteries where graves were seemingly better marked (eg Webb & Norton 2010, Fig 4).

Nonetheless, what is clear, is that the distribution of westernmost burials is less dense, with comparably less intercutting of graves; whereas to the east, where the soil build-up was greatest – the area suggested to have formed a Civil War battery emplacement – the depth of soil and concomitant inhumations is greatest. This can be expected to extend to the east at a broadly similar density.

The human remains recovered revealed a rural population with broadly typical distribution plots of age and sex. While many of the traumas and pathologies encountered were also well within the expected range for a pre-modern population, examples of particular dental wear patterns related to using teeth as a 'third hand' – such as basket-making, weaving etc. – were evidenced.

The construction of the Faringdon Union Workhouse in 1804 (Sargent n.d., 20) to the south of All Saints, on present Ferndale St, might provide a clue for the origin of this particular group of individuals. As a poorhouse inmate, it was expected that one

worked for one's keep; while men carried out physically demanding tasks, children and women were often employed in textile-related occupations. Further research on the Faringdon workhouse may well provide a more secure indication of potential employment which might be associated with this particular pathology.

Other pathologies of particular interest have been drawn out as case-studies above including individuals with cancer, a coffin-birth and one young man with an excessive sequence of traumas associated with breaks and falls. Harvey (see Section 5) suggests that these could be occupational, accidental, a result of interpersonal violence or even diet-related.

Interestingly, a number of sailors from Greenwich (Boston *et al*. 2008) who evidenced as heavily traumatised skeletons also lived on into old age. Such occupational traumas may well be a more significant feature of pre-modern life than is generally given consideration. That said, it is an interesting comparison with the All Saints, Old Chelsea population which was broadly contemporary (Cowie *et* al. 2008), that traumas, DISH and other pathologies were lower amongst the Faringdon population, in absolute numbers as well as percentages.

Clearly, we must exercise care in our comparative data, as specialised population data-sets, such as the Greenwich sailors, or urban middling sorts such as St Brides or Christ Church Spitalfields may not actually provide a suitable set of comparanda. The value of All Saints Faringdon is that an albeit urban periphery, but nevertheless rural population such as All Saints, Old Chelsea, can now be compared with a more rural population, and *vice versa*. Despite the postulated relative poverty of the All Saints, Faringdon population, the overall health and well-being was comparable with that of the more middling sort evidenced at Chelsea, rather than perhaps that of the poor of Newcastle Infirmary (Boulter *et al*. 1998).

The range of coffin furniture was comparable with other cemeteries both in the region as well as nationally. Simona Denis has noted both similarities as well as a number of new designs or variations on known designs. The nature of coffin furniture is at once a 'high-turnover' product with comparably frequent changes in fashion all the while one which drew little profit (Reeve & Adams 1998, 77), to the extent that 'the term 'coffin-furniture discount' was apparently proverbial' (*ibid.* citing Aitken 1844).

Drawing on pattern books for furniture fixings and fittings, popular designs were made available until falling out of favour, they were sold at a loss. Nevertheless, a number of the pieces recovered from All Saints, Faringdon indicate that the families of the dead felt it incumbent upon themselves to provide black-painted breast-plates in addition to grips for suitably cloth-wrapped coffins. Fashion guided *mores*, in particular after the death of Prince Albert in 1861.

Traditional practices, such as dressing the corpse – and although we can only assume in accordance with the 1666 Act to promote the national wool trade (18 & 19 Car II c4) as no textiles were recovered – are evidenced by shroud pins. Other buttons and fastenings, which can be likened to examples elsewhere in Southern England, were also noted, although a bone fastener seems to be a rather unique find.

It has been noted elsewhere (eg Litten 1998; Cox 1998) that the burial office was a social activity, projecting societal norms about how members of Georgian and early Victorian society perceived the dead. Modesty replaced pomp and 'a horror of damage to and disturbance of the corpse became embedded into social consciousness' (Cox 1998, 121) replacing the earlier attitude that come the resurrection 'God would know his own'.

Such a shift in societal attitudes was perceptible during the excavation. The burials of the middle decades and later of the 19th century were almost exclusively whole. Although we are at a loss to establish exactly when the north burial ground was first brought into use, it is clear that there was a period, presumed during the earlier part of the post-medieval period when such acuity was of less concern.

9 CONCLUSIONS

As the excavation of 341 bodies was not anticipated by the archaeological watching brief condition, no specific issues were addressed in the brief for the investigation of the post-medieval cemetery population and the analysis of their remains.

As has been indicated in the literature for much work outside London (Boore, 1998; Boyle & Keevill 1998; Webb & Norton 2010) investigation of post-medieval cemeteries and analysis of the associated human remains is frequently poorly, if at all, addressed as a topic of research or with any significant potential for understanding past lives. This is sometimes in part a consequence of the potential for living relatives to be upset by archaeological investigation (Boyle & Keevil 1998, 94), although the alternative of mechanical excavation by groundworkers or professional cemetery clearance firms is hardly more respectful.

The excavation has contributed an important data-set within the county as well as beyond for the late medieval through to modern period. As has previously been noted, rural Anglican cemeteries have only very rarely and rather cursorily been the subject of archaeological investigation (eg Boore 1998, 74-82; although see also Cowie *et al*. 2008). Although more work has been carried out on Dissenting communities (eg Stock, 1998; Bashford & Sibun 2007;McCarthy *et al*. 2012) this excavation provides a complimentary data-set, as many Dissenting communities, who were self-selected, were of skilled artisan status or above, in comparison with the Catholic/Anglican community which formed the bedrock of English society from the late medieval period into the post-medieval and modern periods.

The community of believers excavated at All Saints comprised a broader church. Although no clearly high-status individuals were recovered, the investigation revealed a broad demographic section through the population of men and women, children and adults. The excavation showed the degree of care attached to the ill and dying, as well as concern for the well-being of the dead. The prosaic realities of country life and death from the late medieval to 19th century were revealed by the work carried out All Saints, Faringdon.

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