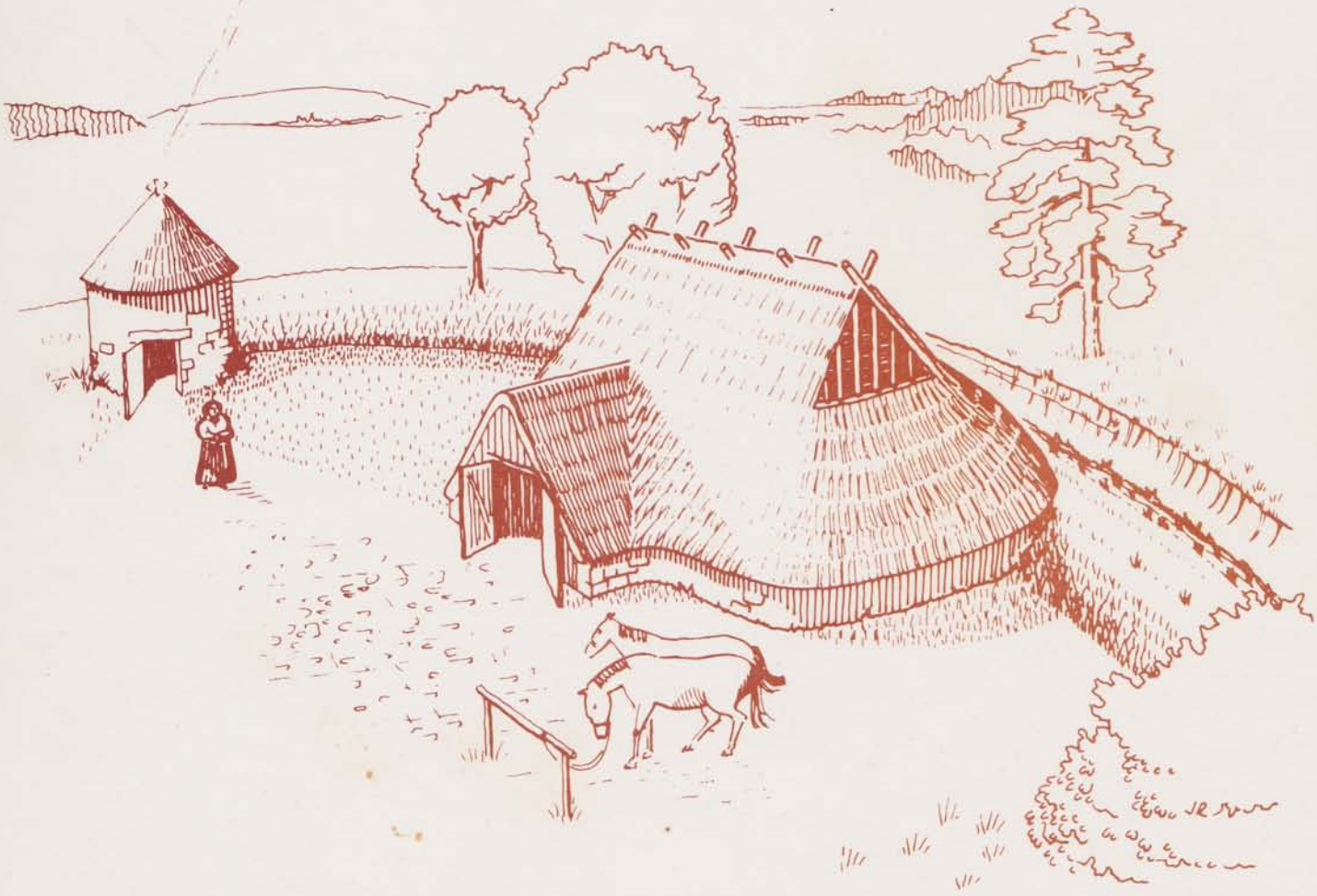
LLANTRITHYD

A RINGWORK IN SOUTH GLAMORGAN



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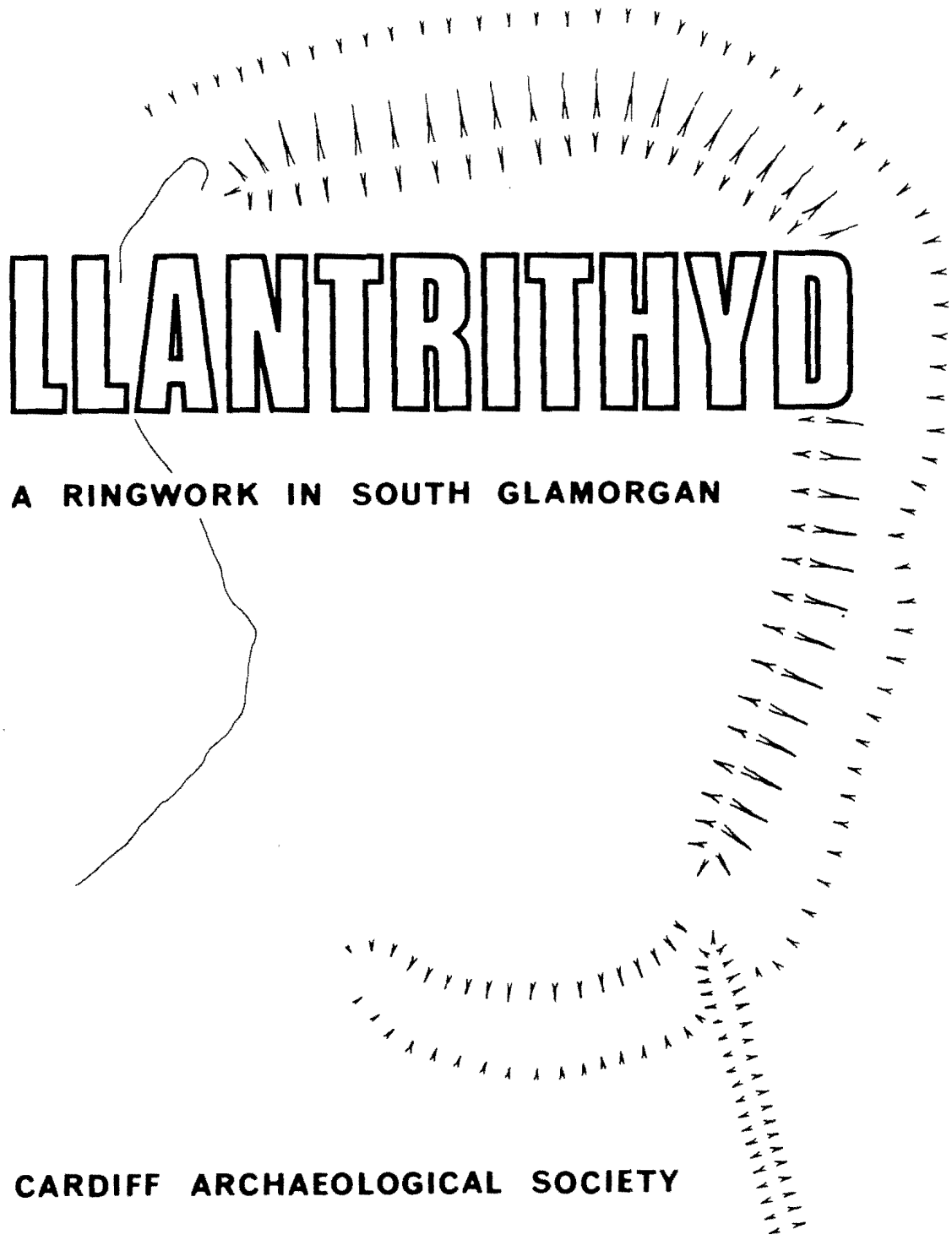

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CARDIFF ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOCIETY

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Henry I Silver Penny (Cardiff Mint)

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As the present Chairman of the Cardiff Archaeological Society, I am very pleased to introduce this report and to dedicate it to all those who excavated at Llantrithyd or helped in other ways to further our knowledge of this important site.

Ed. Jackson
June, 1977.

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FOREWORD

The ringwork at Llantrithyd was excavated by the Cardiff Archaeological Society between 1960 and 1969 under the direction of Mr. T.F.R. Jones and, after 1967, Mr. P.J. Green.

This report was produced by a sub-group of the Society between 1973 and 1976, although the authors were not directly involved in the excavation. The original site notes, drawings, photographs and finds (which will be deposited in the National Museum of Wales; the finds by kind permission of Major G.M.T. Lindsay) were made available by Mr. Green, who also gave invaluable advice, based upon first hand knowledge.

In reporting the excavation, it was decided to make only minimal changes in the references to trenches, post pits, etc., detailed in the site records, even though a greater amount of re-classification would have presented the reader with a more rationalised account. The conclusions drawn are not necessarily those of the excavators, but have been arrived at by the authors after due consideration of the evidence. We realise that our interpretation is not a complete substitute for that which might have been provided by the excavators themselves, but, with the passage of years, feel that our obligation to present a report outweighs any reduction in interpretation or detail.

When we commenced the preparation of the report, it was obvious that we would need the help of others and, in addition to our contributors and those acknowledged elsewhere, we are grateful to Professor and Mrs. Alcock and Mr. D. Emlyn Evans for their advice. Our thanks also go to Mr. J. Konsbruck for technical assistance in the publication of the work and to Alex Gordon and Partners, Architects, for the use of their printing facilities.

Finally, our debt to Janet and Peter Webster cannot be overstated. Without the hours of patient encouragement they gave us, the Llantrithyd report would not have been possible.

Pat Charlton
John Roberts
Vanda Vale

Cardiff
November, 1976.

THE SITE AND ITS EXCAVATION

INTRODUCTION

The ringwork (Grid Reference ST 046727) had been recognised by Dr. H.N. Savory (formerly Keeper of the Department of Archaeology, National Museum of Wales) from an aerial photograph, and permission to excavate was given to the Society by the Radcliffe Estate and, from 1961, by Major G.M.T. Lindsay, with the agreement of the Ancient Monuments Branch of the then Ministry of Works.

The site is situated in the County of South Glamorgan approximately ten miles from Cardiff and overlooks the modern village of Llantrithyd, from which it is separated by a stream on the west side (Fig. 1). The village contains a church dedicated to St. Illtyd and also the ruins of Llantrithyd Place, a fine 16th century house. Approximately one third of a mile to the south west of the ringwork lies Horseland Medieval moated site.

Quarrying to the west of the ringwork has reduced the original width, but the present interior measures 55 m from north to south and 45 m from east to west within the ditch which partially surrounds the site. To the north, the rampart survives to a height of approximately 2 m from the turf level of the ditch, but virtually disappears at the southern extremity of the ringwork, although the ditch is still in evidence (Fig. 2).

Geologically, the site lies south of the Coal Measures in a complex area where outcropping Carboniferous Limestone is overlain on the south and west by Triassic breccia and on the east, across a faulted junction, by Lower Lias limestones lying conformably upon Rhaetic rocks at depth. Exposures of the Carboniferous Limestone are clearly visible in the disused quarry on the west of the site. Inside the ringwork these limestones have a soil-cover which has an average thickness of some 30 cm. Excavations of archaeological significance into the bedrock were easily distinguished.

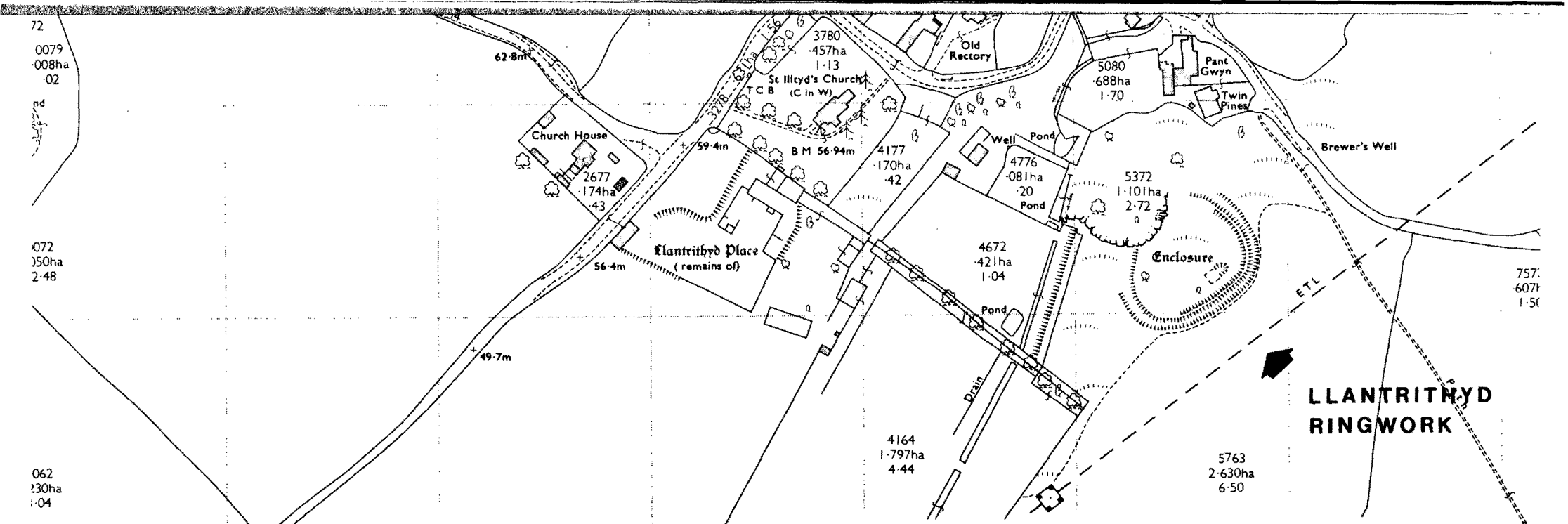
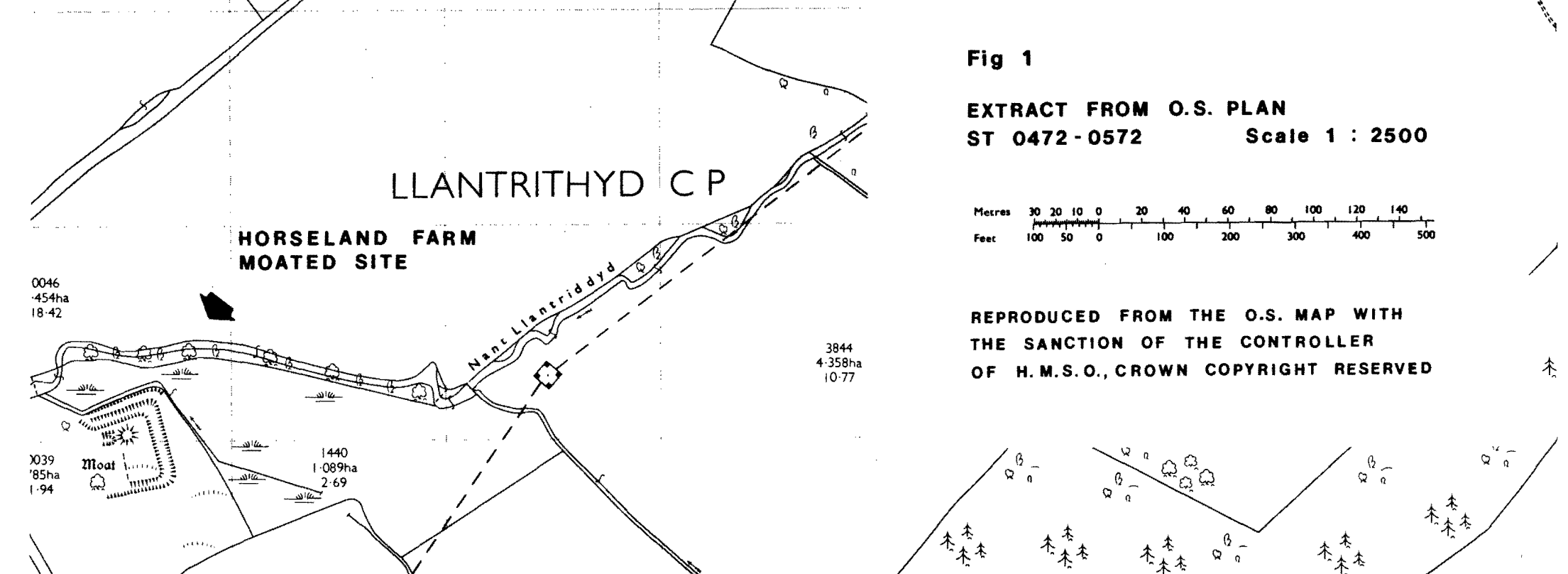
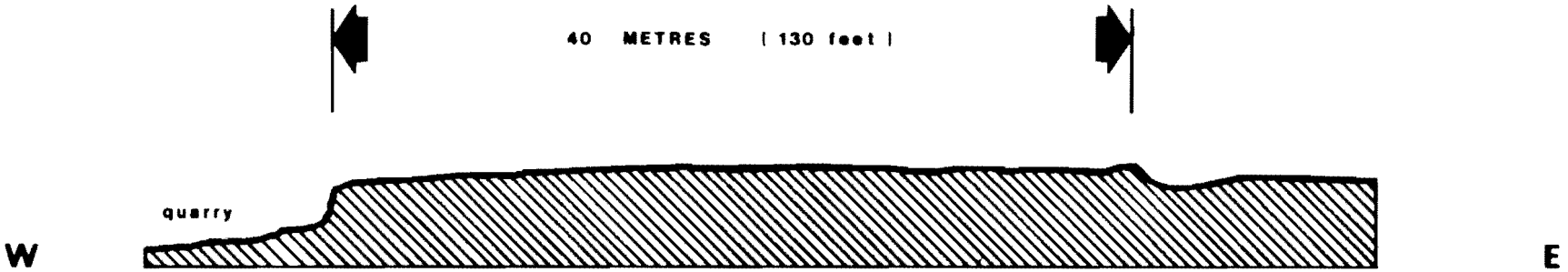


Fig 1

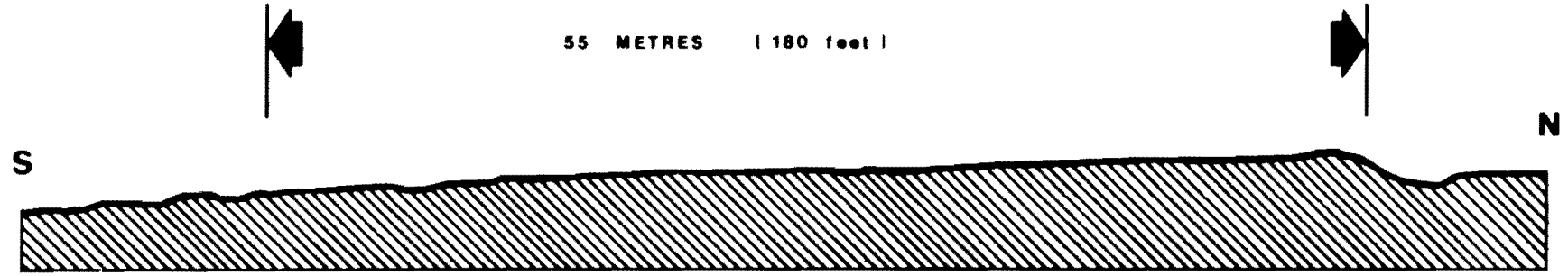
EXTRACT FROM O.S. PLAN
ST 0472 - 0572 **Scale 1 : 2500**

Metres 30 20 10 0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140
Feet 100 50 0 100 200 300 400 500





SECTION AT a-a [SEE FIG 3]



SECTION AT b-b [SEE FIG 3]

Fig 2 SITE PROFILES

THE EXCAVATIONS

The following description of the excavations has been prepared by the authors after close scrutiny of the original site notes, drawings, photographs and finds. Specialist reports on the finds are included in Part II and, where appropriate, we have modified the excavators' original observations in the light of the considered opinion of the specialists.

In preparing the report, we have divided the site into three areas: I, II and III, which are defined on the key plan (Fig. 3). These areas and the buildings they contain are shown in greater detail in Figs. 7 - 11. The location of buildings and rampart is shown in Fig. 4. The key plan also identifies the positions of the two site sections A - A and B - B, shown in Fig. 2, and the rampart sections 1 - 1, 2 - 2 and 3 - 3, shown in Figs. 5 and 6.

We have avoided re-classifying the original material wherever possible. There are, for instance, substantial quantities of marked sherds of pottery and any significant departure from the descriptions on the finds would be likely to create confusion for future researchers. The original descriptions for trenches, post pits, etc., have also been used, though a certain amount of 'tidying up' was essential and the following points should be noted:-

i) Where finds are described as originating in Trenches E.Ext., F.Ext. or G.Ext., this refers to extensions cut to the original Trenches E, F and G on the western side. These extension areas are not identified on the drawings, but are included in the trench areas marked E, F and G (Fig. 3).

ii) In many cases the excavators used the suffix W after post pit numbers. Such suffixes have been omitted from the drawings and Part I of the report, except for the 10 pits in Building 3. The five pits on the west side of Building 3 are numbered 1W - 5W and those on the east side of the building are numbered 1E - 5E.

iii) The site notes and drawings use the terms 'Tower' and 'Hall' for what we have termed Buildings 1 and 3.

iv) The excavators' first exploratory section was through the south east rampart and was referred to as Trench A. This revealed an area of disturbance and was abandoned. At a later date, a small trench 'J' was opened, but was abandoned because of a lack of archaeological

evidence. Trench A is not shown on Fig. 3.

v) Where the excavators referred to the trench through the north rampart as A1, we have chosen to call this Trench A. However, in the case of Trench A* through the south rampart, we have retained the excavators' original description.

vi) It is evident from the site notes that post pits (a) and (b) are synonymous with post pits 40 and 42, and both references are given in Fig. 11.

A feature of the site was the presence of a considerable number of large pits, mainly interpreted as post pits, cut into the limestone bedrock. All the post pits are indicated on the drawings. The bedrock occurred, on average, only 30-35 cm below the surface and there was, therefore, no reliable stratigraphy. Except where they were found in post pits, the majority of finds occurred in the light brown soil with large and small stones, which lay beneath the surface turf and humus.

Because of the size of the post pits, it was decided that, in referring to the widths of buildings, etc., a notional centre line of each post should be assumed. These centre lines are marked + on the plans and are further discussed on p. 16.

THE DEFENCES

The section made through the defences in the north, A, (Fig. 5) showed that the rampart appeared to be founded on a layer of dark earth (layer 5), which was presumably the pre-rampart ground surface. The rampart itself consisted of a core of loose rubble (layer 4) encased in clayey soil and small stones (3). The ditch showed only a very small layer of silt (10) with, above it, a series of layers which appeared to be rampart material pushed back into the ditch (7, 8 and 9). This so clearly related to a reduction of the rampart that it seems likely that the dark earth which overlaid the rampart in the section (2) arrived there after the rampart itself had been slighted, possibly spread by ploughing of the interior.

Examination of the exposed rock surface at the rear of the rampart revealed a post pit (R1) overlaid by layer 3. Its fill was similar to this layer, but contained larger stones for packing. No trace of a post was found. The relationship of this post pit to the rampart is similar to that located in the centre of Building 1 (p. 6) and post pits 51, 52 and 53 in Trench O (p. 11), and may indicate a rear timber revetment.

Finds from the section included an iron arrowhead from layer 1 (Metalwork: 54) and one from layer 2 (Metalwork: 57), coarse pottery from layers 2, 5, 8 and 9 (Pottery: 148-150) and several sherds of a glazed vessel from layer 7. Bone fragments were found in layers 3, 5, 8 and 9, snail shells in layer 4 and oyster shells in layer 8.

The section through the rampart in the south, A*, (Fig. 5) basically showed the same pattern as that through the north, but more erosion had taken place. Ploughing had resulted in the total removal of the rampart and may have produced layers 2 and 4. Layer 5 represents rampart material pushed back into the ditch and layer 3 appears to be a later fill of unknown date. Finds included some pottery from layer 2. Layers 2, 4 and 5 all produced bone, and much charcoal was noted in layer 3. Flint was found in layers 4 and 5. Two metres beyond the outer lip of the ditch there was a depression, which may have no relation to the defences as it was a feature not recorded on the other rampart cuts.

The second section in the south, P, (Fig. 6) showed the soil cover so thin that it only emphasised the tailing off of both ditch and rampart, possibly indicating the existence of an entrance. A recent examination of the quarry face 18 m north west of P showed two possible areas of disturbance. Because of the weathered edge of the quarry, it was not possible to be certain whether one of these areas might represent a ditch, but this could be determined relatively easily by excavation. If the quarry face does intersect a ditch at this point, it would imply that, after tailing off near Trench P, the ditch must have picked up again about 13 m to the north west and would presumably have continued on the west side of the ringwork in the area later destroyed by quarrying. It would be reasonable to suppose that this gap of 13 m in the defences was the original entrance and that the post pits in Area III are evidence of structures associated with that entrance (see p. 11). Finds from Trench P included pottery from layers 1, 2 and 3 (Pottery: 151-155) and a U-shaped staple (Metalwork: 25).

The section, S, (Fig. 3) cut through the defences on the east added no further information.

None of the sections seemed to show more than a very small amount of primary silt and this must indicate that the ditch was kept thoroughly cleaned out or that it was only open for a very short time. One wonders, therefore, whether the rampart had not already been slighted when it was partly overlaid by Buildings 1 and 3.

AREA I

To the north of the site, in Trench I, a circular stone structure (Building 1) was excavated (Fig. 7). It had a wall of drystone construction, which consisted of a facing of blocks of limestone with a rammed core of smaller fragments and clayey earth. The outside diameter of the structure was 4.57 m, measured to the outer line of the stonework, and the wall rose in places to two courses, but had survived for the greater part to a height of only 30 cm.

Excavation revealed a single entrance to the structure, defined by two shallow post pits cut approximately 10 cm into the bedrock and set 1 m apart. The wall overlaid part of each pit to abut the door frame and, at

this point, was approximately 60 cm wide, thickening out gradually to 1 m in the remainder of the building. Approximately 2 m to the north of the entrance the wall blocks began to rise up on the rampart, which had been partly cut away to receive the building.

Excavation of the interior of the structure showed a stratified sequence (Fig. 8). The rampart core (layer 3) clearly pre-dates the construction of Building 1. Layer 4 appears to represent an amalgam of initial humus cover and occupation debris, while 2 includes collapsed material from the wall of Building 1 and some disturbed rampart material, but otherwise seems indistinguishable from 4.

A post pit (T1) was located, measuring approximately 75 cm across and 25 cm deep. It was central to the building, but probably related to the defences rather than to the structure (p. 4).

Coarse pottery was plentiful and was found in all layers within the building (Pottery: 122-145, 147), layer 4 producing one small glazed sherd, which was probably intrusive. The dark earth and stone fill of the post pits included sherds of coarse pottery and fragments of bone. Other finds within the building included large quantities of bone fragments and daub.

Under the wall of Building 1 a layer of black, 'sticky' earth was revealed, which continued as a narrow band outside the base of the structure. The layer contained much coarse pottery (Pottery: 118-121), bone fragments, daub, some oyster shells and numerous fragments of charcoal, and may represent debris from an earlier occupation. Collapsed rubble from the footings overlaid this layer and extended around the building, although it was noted that some of this rubble probably came from the collapsed rampart. Several fragments of glazed pottery (Pottery: 146) were found in the exterior rubble.

Iron objects found in or in association with the structure included a padlock key (Metalwork: 3) and a further key (Metalwork: 8) from the interior of the walling rubble. A copper alloy pin (Metalwork: 87) was also found.

As already noted, the rampart had been partly removed to accommodate Building 1 and, clearly, the latter must represent a later phase of construction on the site, probably at a time when the defences were no longer important. The drystone walling of the structure is very similar to that of Building 3 (p. 8) and the two buildings may, therefore, be contemporary. Large quantities of daub were found in and around Building 1, but daub also appeared beneath the wall and all of it cannot, therefore, be of the same date. That under the wall is presumably derived from the demolition of an earlier building. The interpretation of Building 1 is discussed later (p. 17).

In the course of excavating to the south of Building 1, two post pits were discovered, which were at first thought to be related to it. However, when the area of excavation was extended, the pits proved to be two in a series (17 - 30), which in fact defined a building (Building 2) (Fig. 7). It measured approximately 7.35 m long and 5.20 m wide, measured to notional centre line of posts (marked + on Fig. 7). The centres of the post pits were approximately 2.45 m apart, and the larger pits were approximately 1.50 m square and rough cut into the bedrock to a depth of some 30-60 cm.

Post pits 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30 mark the exterior of the building, with a further post pit (19) set next to 18, which may be part of an entrance on the eastern side. A central, smaller pit (23) was located, and two considerably smaller and very shallow pits (24 and 25) were discovered towards the eastern end of the building.

The larger post pits had fills of dark earth, rubble and large packing stones, and all produced quantities of coarse pottery (Pottery: 13-23, 25-31), bone and slag. Some produced timber nails (Metalwork: 73). Two fragments of a glazed ware vessel were discovered at the rear of a large packing stone in post pit 17, while 26 produced a fragment of glazed base (described after no. 25 in the Pottery Report). Post pits 21 and 27 had linking fragments of a glazed base. And it is of interest to note that a rim from post pit 21 fitted a piece from within the core of the south west corner of Building 3. Post pits 23 - 25 were filled with dark earth and rubble, and contained sherds of coarse pottery (Pottery: 24) and fragments of bone. A sherd of Roman pottery was found in post pit 20 (Pottery: 10). And part of a fine green glass vessel (Miscellaneous Finds: 22) was discovered in the shallow layer of earth above post pit 27.

Post pit 18 produced a cut silver halfpenny (p. 53) of the first quarter of the 12th century, at a depth of 7.5 cm below rock level and within 5-7.5 cm of its eastern lip. The discovery of this coin may be thought to have some bearing on the dating of Building 2. However, as the coin was at a depth of only 7.5 cm into the post pit, it cannot be said to be securely stratified. We suggest elsewhere (p. 14) that Building 2 is the most recent structure on the site and this is borne out by the presence of stratified glazed sherds from post pit 17, previously mentioned.

AREA II

Trenches B and C, which were both partly cut into the collapsed rubble of the rampart, did not reveal any significant features, although they were comparatively rich in finds and may represent a midden area (Fig. 3). Large numbers of coarse pottery sherds were found (Pottery: 158, 162, 164, 169-172, 175, 178-180, 183-184), together with a small quantity of glazed ware (Pottery: 192). A sherd of Roman pottery was found in Trench B (described after no. 11 in the Pottery Report).

The finds from Trenches B and C may be taken as being typical of Area II as a whole. As well as pottery, there were a number of nails, some bone, including worked bone in the form of a single edged comb with a ring and dot decoration (Miscellaneous Finds: 15), and much oyster shell. Other finds included a small stone hone (Miscellaneous Finds: 1), a knife blade (Metalwork: 17), a swivel ring (Metalwork: 26), an incomplete needle or pin (Metalwork: 31), a possible wool comb tooth (Metalwork: 33), two socketed arrowheads (Metalwork: 48, 55), an oxshoe (Metalwork: 69) and a gilt pendant (Metalwork: 84).

By contrast, Trenches D, E, F, G, H and L revealed a stone structure (Building 3) in the north east corner of the ringwork (Fig. 9). The building was 16 m x 10 m externally, well built, with rounded corners, although its dry-stone wall often stood no more than one course high. On the west side much of the stonework was missing and this, together with the complex group of post pits on this side, makes interpretation difficult. On the east side the wall had been built partly into the rampart and had, to some extent, been protected by an overlying tumble of rubble. The wall rested on a thin layer of clay and small stones that appeared to be the tail of the east rampart (Fig. 10, layer 3). It leant slightly inwards, probably as a result of pressure from the rampart. Against the interior face of the wall was a shallow layer of clay, spreading inwards for about a metre. This may have been surviving flooring and produced small sherds of pottery, bone fragments, snail shells and a fragment of a sandstone hone. Much of the interior of Building 3 was strewn with rubble from the surrounding wall, but there was probably insufficient stone to have raised the perimeter wall to any great height.

Inside the building were two rows of post pits. On the west side were five very large pits; the largest (2W) measuring nearly 2 m square and 50 cm deep. The corresponding pits on the east side were smaller. Post pit 1E was very small and 2E was assumed, being in an unexcavated area. To the west of Building 3 there were two further irregular rows of post pits: 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 making one row, and 32, 34, 33, 14 and 13, the other. There was a similarity in shape and position between post pits 6 and 12 in the north west and south west corners of the building, respectively. Pit 6 was partly overlaid by the perimeter wall, which existed in only a rudimentary fashion in the north west corner, and pits 10 and 11 were partly overlaid by the short section of wall running east to west.

The exceptional size of pits 1W - 5W may indicate a re-cutting. In this connection, it is also of interest to note that, whereas the eastern row of pits had a browny clay filling, the larger, western row had darker fills, as did pits 6 and 10 - 14. Pits 7 - 9 and 32 - 34 had a browny filling similar to the eastern row. It is difficult to arrive at an hypothesis which accounts in detail for the various fills in the post pits and also the outturning portion of walling. There was clearly some alteration and rebuilding in this area, but there is no evidence that the pits were used for any purpose other than to support posts. In a later chapter (p. 19), we

attempt a simplified reconstruction of the building, which takes no account of the possible re-cutting of post pits 1W - 5W and assumes that pits 7 - 9 formed part of a porch structure. It is possible that the surrounding stone wall replaced an earlier timber or wattle structure and that certain of the internal timber posts were replaced at that time.

Perhaps the most significant finds from the area were the eight silver coins scattered in the region of the north west corner of Building 3. These probably formed part of a hoard. Professor Dolley dates the coins to the first quarter of the 12th century and their deposition to between 1122 and 1124 (p. 55). At the very least, this provides evidence for occupation at the ringwork during this period and, if we suppose that the hoard was hidden in the roof structure of Building 3, we have a date around which to hang the history of this structure.

A Roman coin was found in post pit 34 and several sherds of Roman pottery were found in the area (Pottery: 1, 3, 5-9, 11), including samian ware in post pit 1W and from the core of the wall of Building 3. Sherds of Medieval coarse pottery were found in considerable quantities, both inside and outside Building 3 and at all levels (Pottery: 33-78, 157, 159-161, 163, 173, 176-177, 181, 185). Glazed and decorated coarse sherds were less common and normally occurred just under the turf layer (Pottery: 186-191, 193). Post pits 5E and 11 produced glazed sherds (described after nos. 45 and 53 respectively in the Pottery Report). Post pit 13 produced a fragment of a small glazed circular handle amongst other sherds in a 20 cm pipe of black earth. Pit 5W also contained glazed sherds. It should be noted that the glazed sherds were very small and perhaps no great significance can be attached to their presence in these comparatively large pits.

The area outside Building 3 in the south west corner produced much pottery and bone, two iron knife blades (Metalwork: 13, 18), an incomplete swivel ring (Metalwork: 27), an openwork mount (Metalwork: 80) and a belt slide (Metalwork: 89). A feature of this area was the very black earth, and lumps of charcoal were also recorded immediately beneath the turf layer. Perhaps this is related to the suggested midden in Trenches B and C.

In the north east corner of Building 3 a small concentration of coarse ware sherds was found where collapsed rubble from the wall mixed with rubble from the rear of the rampart, but only two fragments were found inside the building at this point. More coarse pottery was found in the core of the north wall of the building. This area also produced a ward from a lock (Metalwork: 9), two wedges (Metalwork: 23, 24), a harness buckle (Metalwork: 44), a ring (Metalwork: 91), a piece of lead sheet (Metalwork: 96) and some strips of lead waste (Metalwork: 98).

The north west area of Building 3 was particularly rich in metal finds and produced two keys (Metalwork: 4, 7), a steel (Metalwork: 22), an incomplete needle or pin (Metalwork: 30), a possible wool comb tooth (Metalwork: 34), chain links (Metalwork: 35-37), a perforated plate

(Metalwork: 38), a horseshoe fragment (Metalwork: 65), several horseshoe and timber nails (Metalwork: 70, 74), a copper alloy decorated and perforated sheet (Metalwork: 90) and a copper alloy stud (Metalwork: 93).

Remains of an iron key (Metalwork: 6) were found in the remnants of the out-turning wall, near to a glazed handle fragment decorated with an incised crescent pattern (Pottery: 193). The vicinity of the ancillary wall also produced an openwork mount (Metalwork: 82).

Nine of the iron arrowheads illustrated (Metalwork: 47, 49-51, 53, 58-61), one with its tip distorted by impact, were found in and around Building 3. Other metal finds in and around the building were a knife (Metalwork: 14), a buckle (Metalwork: 40), two buckle pins (Metalwork: 45, 46), two horseshoe tips (Metalwork: 66, 67), a copper alloy barrel padlock case (Metalwork: 78), a gilt, riveted copper alloy strip (Metalwork: 79), a decorated sheet metal mount (Metalwork: 81), a harness pendant (Metalwork: 83), a belt slide (Metalwork: 88), a stud (Metalwork: 92) and a copper alloy sheet (Metalwork: 94).

The concentration of metallic finds in and around Building 3 is remarkable. The poor stratigraphy does not allow us to place all unequivocally in an occupation deposit, but some must surely derive from occupation of the building.

Prehistoric sherds (Prehistoric Finds: Figs. 4 - 7) were found in this area. The site notes record that pit 5E was "apparently cut through the thin layer of clay and oyster shell which covers the rock here. Although it contains no pot, it has to date produced one flint scraper of the same type as found elsewhere on the site, and the whole deposit may therefore well be prehistoric". A Bronze Age wrist guard (Prehistoric Finds: Fig. 3) was found in post pit 32 in close association with bone fragments (tentatively identified as being from a human ulna) and a bone pin. Dr. Savory points out the unique nature of this wrist guard in Wales on p. 58.

AREA III

The Trenches M, N, O, Q and R opened in the south of the site revealed a complex system of post pits, cut into an irregular rock surface, which makes interpretation difficult (Fig. 11). However, it is probable that there is a structure (Building 4) indicated by post pits B, C, D, G, A and F. The centres of the post pits were approximately 2.75 m apart along the length of the building, and the pits were approximately 90 cm square and cut into the bedrock to an average depth of 75 cm. Since this series of post pits was first observed at a low level, it seems possible that Building 4 represents an early structure in the area. A later building may have incorporated post pits 50, 49, 47, 46, 54 and 55, as well as some of those noted above. Post pit A showed evidence of re-cutting and 46 contained two sets of packing stones. Taken with the evidence of the marked reduc-

tion in the size of the rampart and ditch close by, it can be suggested that Building 4 and later buildings on its site represent a gate house or tower at the entrance to the ringwork, as at Penmaen (Ant. J., 46 (1966) 192, Fig. 6), although, in this case, it seems unlikely that it stood astride the entrance.

In the south east of Trench M, a large rock cut pit (40) was located, filled with stones and domestic rubbish. This measured 2.75 m long and 1.35 m deep at its deepest point. The fill consisted of a layer of large blocks of stone mixed with dark earth (layer 3) containing large sherds of pottery, some nails, a fine iron barrel padlock key (Metalwork: 2), a copper alloy pin (Metalwork: 85) and a quantity of bone. Below was a layer (4), about 15 cm deep, of sticky, dark earth with small stones containing much pottery (Pottery: 147b, 166) and bone. At the bottom was a thin spread of black earth containing some pottery and much bird bone. Near the southern edge of the pit a marked depression, defined by a clear vertical division of the strata, may well represent a later post pit (41) cut after the former had been filled in.

Among the remaining pits in the area, 42 showed evidence of stone packing and it can be suggested that post pits 51 - 53 may have held the timbers of a rear revetment to the rampart and thus relate to pits R1 and T1 (p. 4).

The post pit fills contained much pottery (Pottery: 79-117), including some Roman sherds (Pottery: 2, 4), a sherd of samian ware of possibly Eastern Gaulish origin (described after no. 4 in the Pottery Report) and a stamped sherd (Pottery: 147a). Metal finds in post pits included three hasps (Metalwork: 10-12), a knife (Metalwork: 16), a needle (Metalwork: 28), a buckle (Metalwork: 41), a horseshoe fragment (Metalwork: 63), a mouthpiece link from a bridle bit (Metalwork: 62), a copper alloy pin (Metalwork: 86) and a piece of lead sheet (Metalwork: 97).

Overlying the post pits was a layer of rubble and dark earth, which contained much pottery and bone. Metal finds from this layer included two padlock keys (Metalwork: 1, 5), a knife (Metalwork: 15), an incomplete needle or pin (Metalwork: 29), a possible wool comb tooth (Metalwork: 32), two buckles (Metalwork: 42, 43), two arrowheads (Metalwork: 52, 56) and a horseshoe fragment (Metalwork: 64). Pottery included a glazed handle fragment (Pottery: 194).

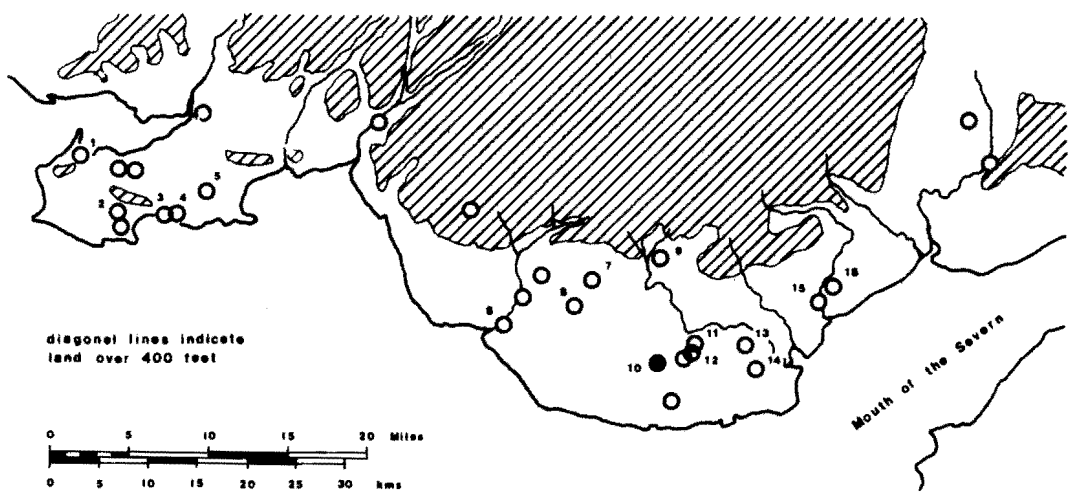
UNEXCAVATED AREAS

The excavation sampled approximately half the existing interior of the ringwork. Our knowledge of the interior is, therefore, incomplete and there may well be other buildings to be located in the unexcavated areas. The entrance postulated clearly demands further investigation, for, although our interpretation of a gap in the defences guarded by Building 4 seems to fit the available evidence, it lacks the proof which excavation of the entire

area might have provided.

CONCLUSIONS

Ringworks are a class of monument which are well known, but insufficiently excavated. Their overall distribution has been studied by King and Alcock (1) and we can only add marginally to the list they provide (see below) (2). Their work suggests that the ringwork appeared in Wales as a result of Norman influence and that the Llantrithyd example lies within an area with a high concentration of such monuments.



Ringworks in south-east Wales

1 CHERITON
2 PENRICE
3 PENMAEN
4 PENNARD
5 BISHOPSTON
6 OGMORE
7 LLANILID
8 ST MARY HILL
9 LLANTRISANT
10 LLANTRITHYD and HORSELAND FARM
11 ST NICHOLAS (Y Gaer)
12 ST NICHOLAS (Coed Y Cwm)
13 CAERAU
14 DINAS POWYS
15 RUMNEY
16 ST MELLONS (Pan Y Pil)
other possible sites unnumbered

The name 'ringwork' does, however, mask a considerable variety between sites, all of which qualify for the name. We cannot be certain of the original overall size of Llantrithyd because of quarrying action, but we have sufficient of the ringwork to show that it is at the small end of the general class. As will be seen from a reading of the section on the interpretation of the structures, it is difficult to parallel all the features on the site. It would, however, seem to share with many monuments of this class a totally encircling bank and ditch (3) with a single entrance guarded initially with a timber tower (Building 4), although whether the latter was a true gate tower, as at Penmaen (4), or a guard tower, as appears in stone at Ogmore (5), is uncertain without further excavation. This, together with a possible timber structure on the site of Building 3, marks the first occupation period and may be taken as the one phase when the ringwork truly qualifies as an earth castle.

The second phase, with its buildings of drystone and timber, seems less a fortified castle and more a fortified residence, rather more closely resembling later moated sites in function. Within this phase the round 'kitchen' (Building 1) is difficult to parallel, but Building 3 with its rounded corners has many antecedents and contemporaries. The stone building at Penmaen is not dissimilar (6), but such structures are not restricted locally to their appearance within defended sites. Similar buildings are found, for instance, in purely 'civilian' contexts at Barry (7) and in the deserted village of Highlight (8), both within a few miles of Llantrithyd. We can only await further excavation to see if this type of building occurs regularly in the ringworks of South Wales.

Llantrithyd would seem to be of some chronological significance because it has yielded coin evidence to show that it must have been occupied in the latter part of the first quarter of the 12th century. This, coupled with the documentary evidence, enables us to fit the site into its general historical context. There seems little doubt, given the fixed point provided by the hoard of coins and the apparently restricted length of occupation deducible from the pottery, that the site was a Norman foundation. It is currently suggested that the Norman conquest of the area took place c. 1093 (9) and it seems probable that Llantrithyd would have been allocated to a dependant of Robert Fitzhamon in the initial settlement of the area, which is likely to have been complete by the time of Fitzhamon's death in 1107.

It is hard to see the need for an earth castle, such as the first phase of Llantrithyd, at any time other than during this initial period of Norman occupation. Strategically, the site, which can never have been in the first rank of importance, must have declined rapidly with the appearance of stone keeps, such as that at Ogmore (10), from c. 1115 onwards and it may perhaps be to this period that we can ascribe the conversion of the site to a fortified residence, perhaps even a hunting lodge as is suggested on the basis of the animal remains (p. 71). Even this phase may not have lasted long, but we can be sure that Building 3 was in existence at the time of the

deposition of the hoard of coins between 1122 and 1124. This point is discussed below by Professor Dolley (p. 55). It would seem reasonable to suppose that the use of the stone buildings ceased around the middle of the 12th century, to be succeeded by a further timber phase represented by Building 2. The dating of this last phase depends on the accurate dating of the first appearance of green glazed pottery in this part of South Wales, something not as yet possible. All we can say at present is that occupation at Llantrithyd cannot have extended much beyond this event. The lack of finds generally in the area of Building 2 points to an occupation reduced in intensity and perhaps we may assume that de Cardiff interest in the site had already declined.

The presence nearby of a moated site and Llantrithyd Place raises the exciting possibility that the Llantrithyd ringwork may be only the first of a succession of residences from which the surrounding area was administered and, as such, it is perhaps fitting that it should have been the first to be sampled by excavation.

NOTES

1. King, D.J. Cathcart and Alcock, L., "Ringworks of England and Wales", in Taylor, A.J. (Ed.), Chateau Gaillard III, Chichester 1969, 90-127.

2. See ibid., p. 110 ff; also Alcock, L., Dinas Powys, Cardiff 1963, Fig. 1.

3. This places the ringwork in King and Alcock's Class A, rather than in Class C (King and Alcock, op. cit., p. 114, no. 62).

4. Ant. J., 46 (1966), 178-210.

5. See King and Alcock, op. cit., p. 109, (ii).

6. Penmaen Building S/1.

7. Thomas, H. and Davies, G., "A medieval house site at Barry, Glamorgan", Trans. Cardiff Naturalists' Soc., 96 (1970-2), 4-22.

8. Information from H.J. Thomas.

9. cf. Pugh, T.B. (Ed.), Glamorgan County History, Vol. II. The Middle Ages, 9-14; see also p. 18 for comments on Llantrithyd.

10. Renn, D.F., "The Anglo-Norman Keep, 1066-1138", J. Brit. Archaeol. Ass., 3rd ser., 23 (1960), 15.

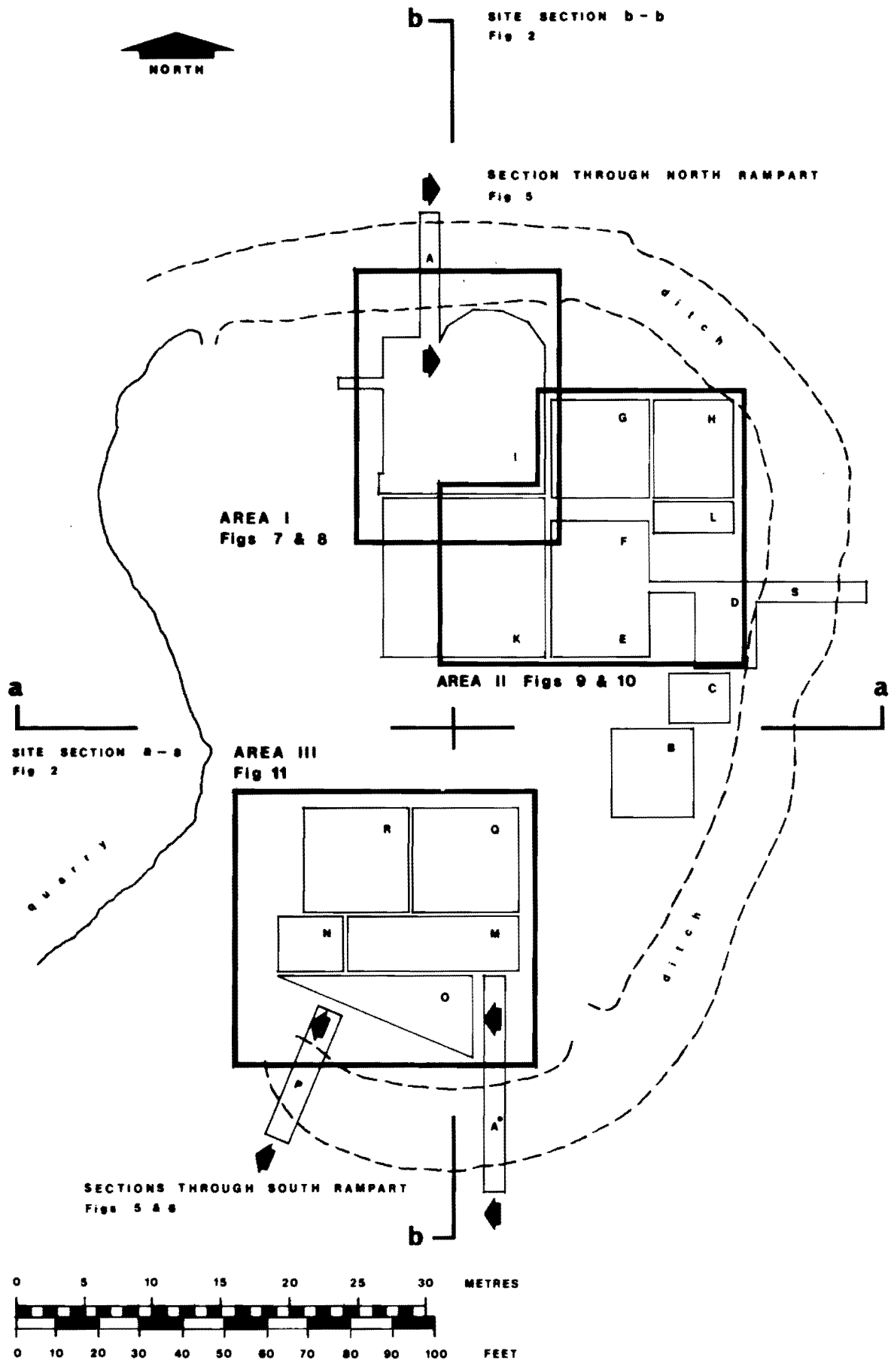


Fig 3 KEY PLAN

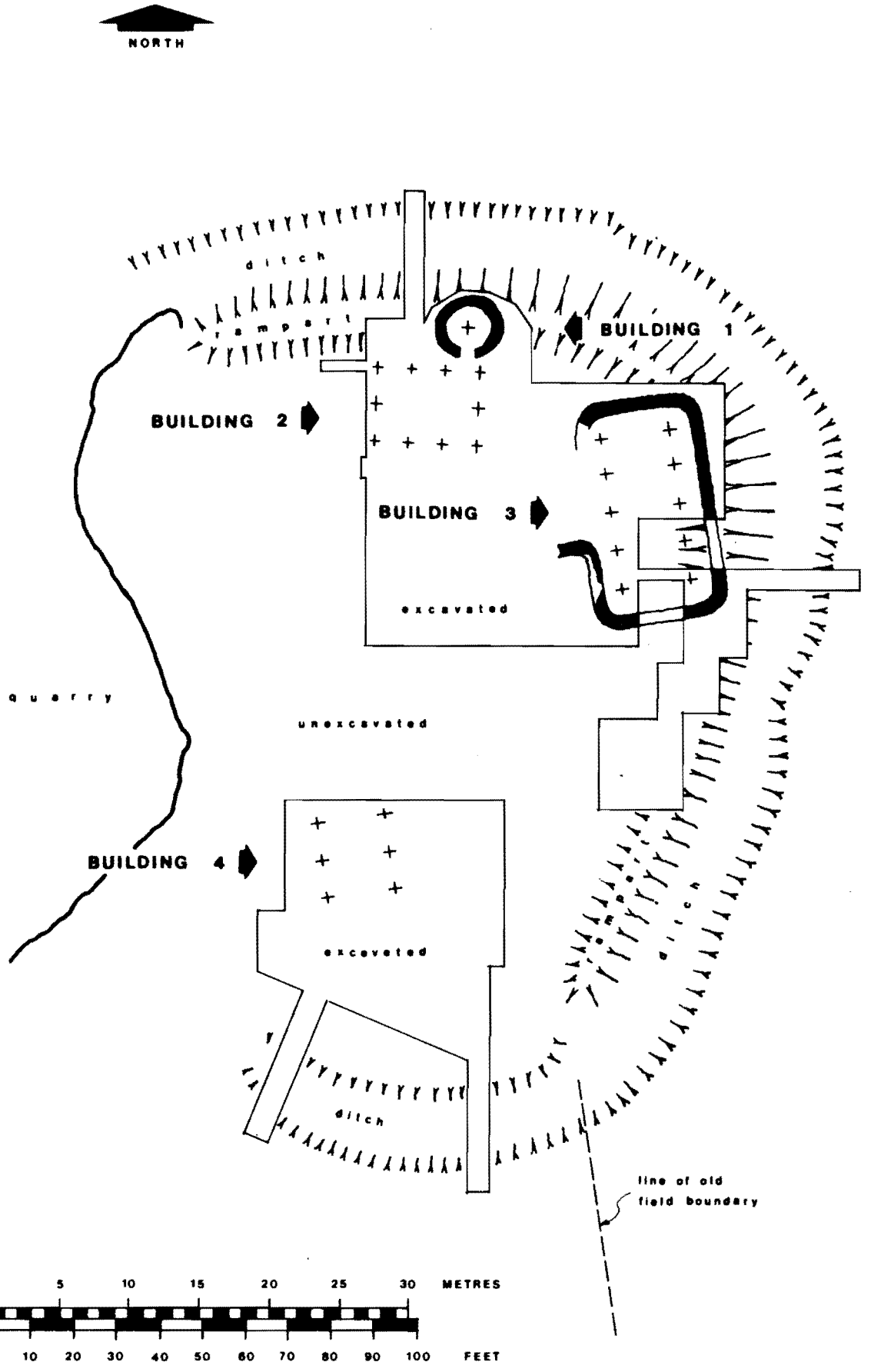
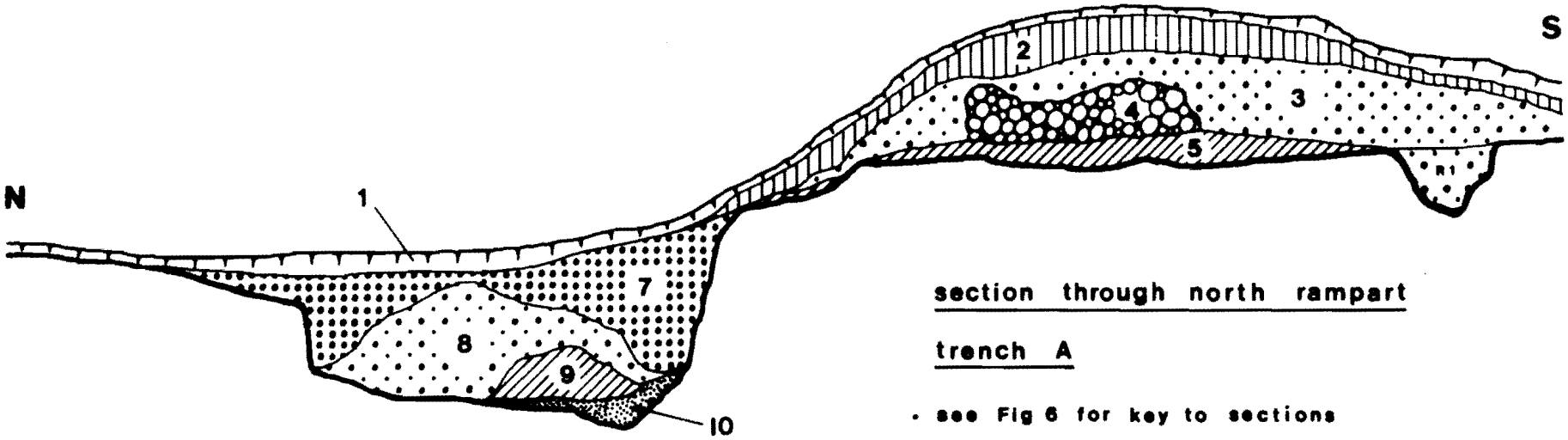


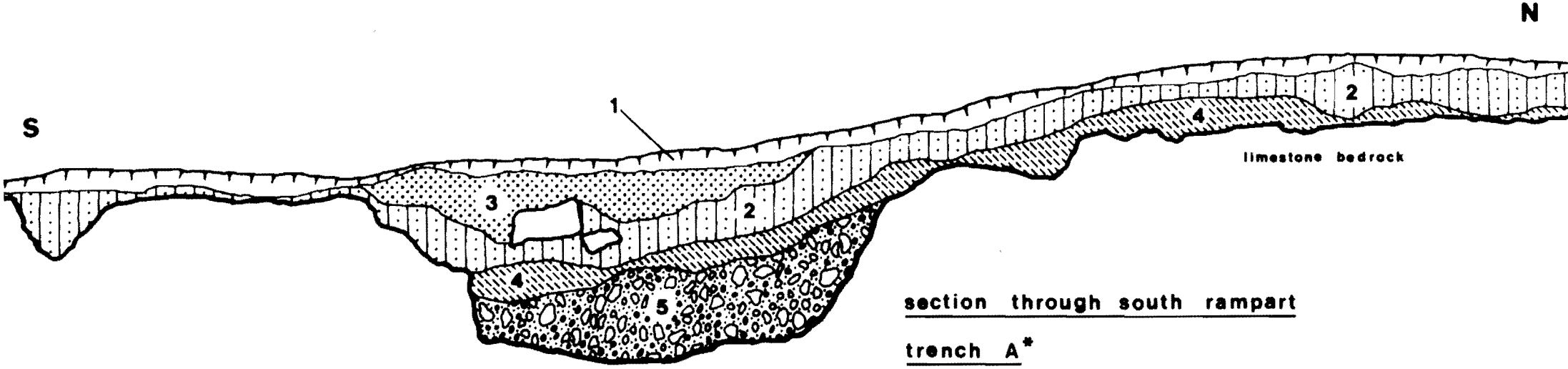
Fig 4 THE EXCAVATIONS



section through north rampart

trench A

- see Fig 6 for key to sections
- numbers are referred to in the text



section through south rampart

trench A*

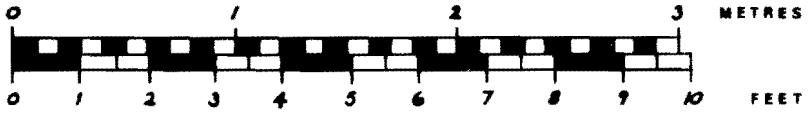
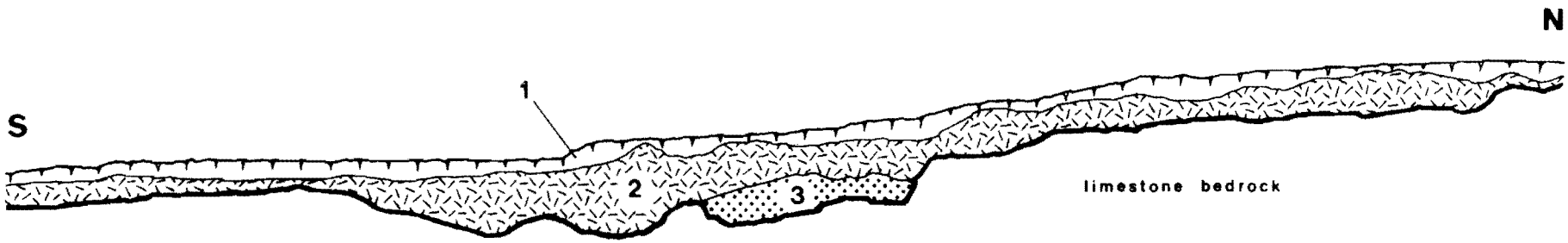


Fig 5



section through south rampart trench P

key to figures 5 & 6

trench A

HUMUS
DARK EARTH AND LARGE STONES
CLAYEY SOIL AND SMALL STONES
LOOSE RUBBLE
DARK EARTH
LOOSE STONES
CLAY SILT

trench A*

HUMUS
SMALL STONES IN LIGHT BROWN SOIL
BROWN SOIL
DARK EARTH AND BURNT STONES
LARGE AND SMALL STONES IN LIGHT BROWN SOIL

trench P

HUMUS
LIGHT BROWN SOIL
LARGE AND SMALL STONES IN LIGHT BROWN SOIL

0 1 2 3 METRES
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 FEET

Fig 6

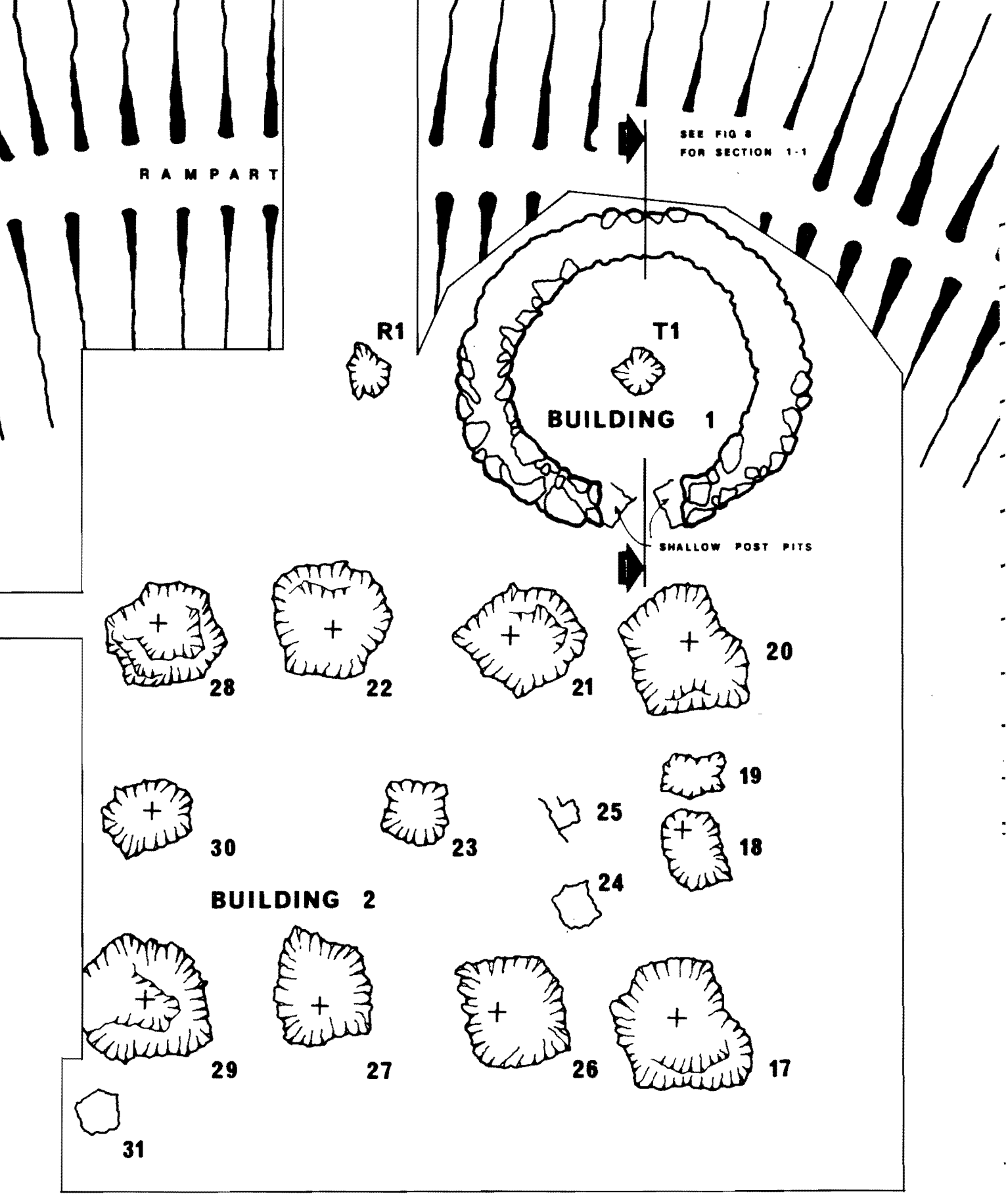
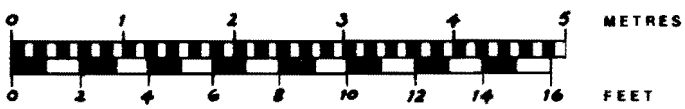
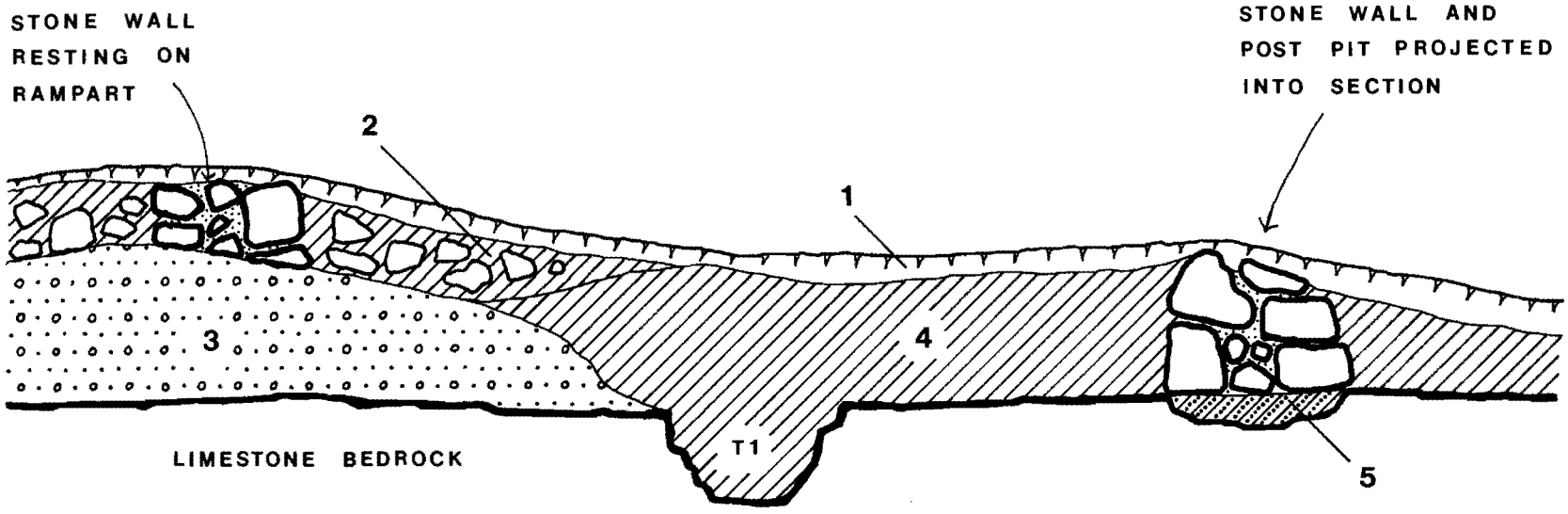
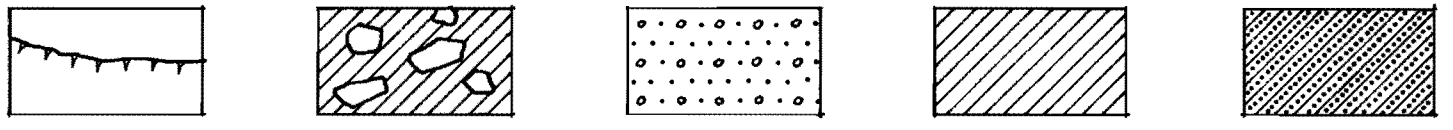

RAMPART
SEE FIG 8
FOR SECTION 1-1
R1
T1
BUILDING 1
SHALLOW POST PITS
28
22
21
20
19
30
23
25
18
24
BUILDING 2
29
27
26
17
31

Fig 7 AREA I


0 1 2 3 4 5 METRES
0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 FEET



section 1-1 through rampart and building 1 [see Fig 7]



HUMUS

DARK EARTH AND LARGE STONES

CLAYEY SOIL AND SMALL STONES

BLACK EARTH AND LARGE STONES

DARK EARTH AND SMALL STONES

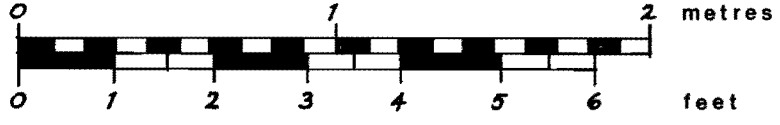


Fig 8

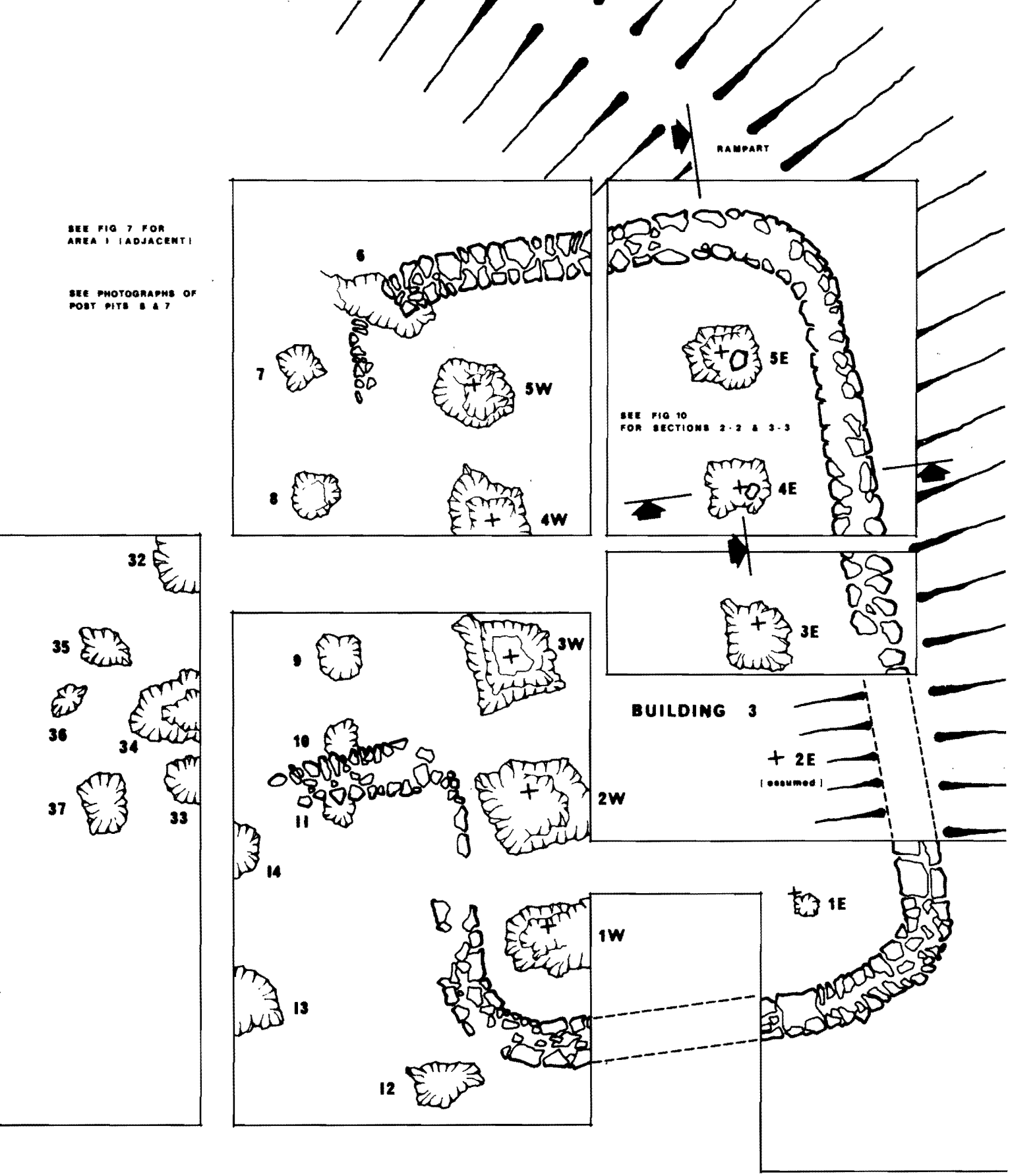
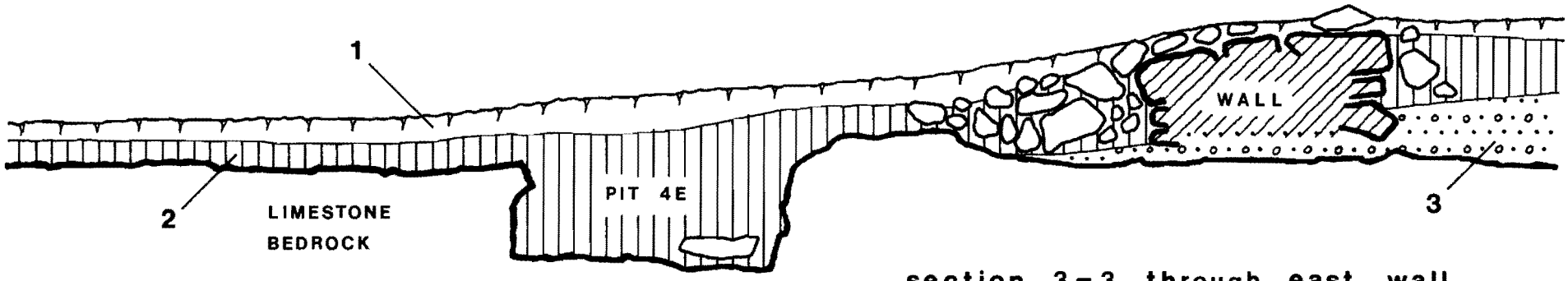
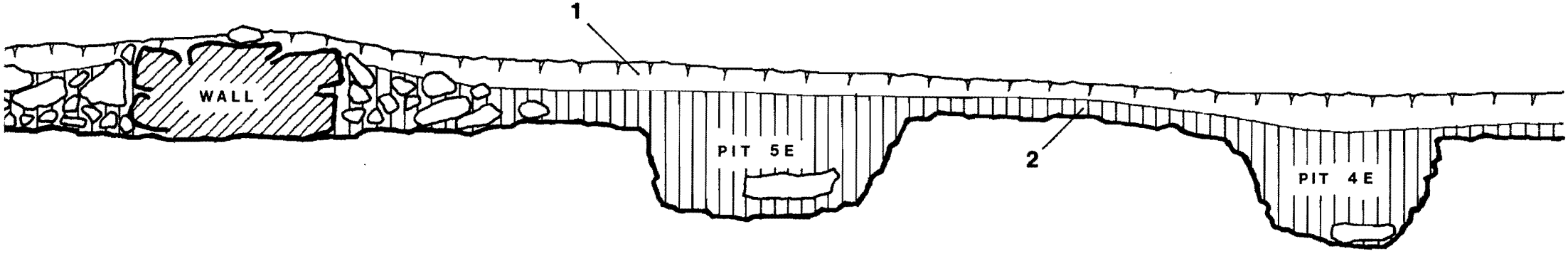

SEE FIG 7 FOR AREA I (ADJACENT)
SEE PHOTOGRAPHS OF POST PITS 8 & 7
RAMPART
6
7
5W
8
4W
5E
SEE FIG 10 FOR SECTIONS 2-2 & 3-3
4E
3E
BUILDING 3
2E (assumed)
2W
1E
1W
3W
9
10
11
14
13
12
32
35
36
34
37
33
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 METRES
0 5 10 15 20 FEET

Fig 9 AREA II

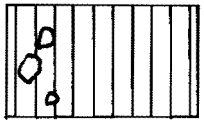


section 3–3 through east wall of building 3

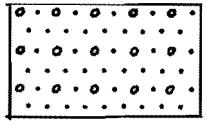


section 2–2 through north wall of building 3

HUMUS



COLLAPSED RUBBLE AND MEDIUM STONES IN BROWN SOIL



CLAYEY SOIL AND SMALL STONES

see Fig 9

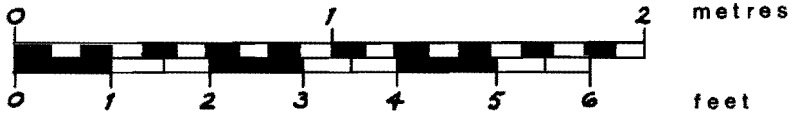


Fig 10

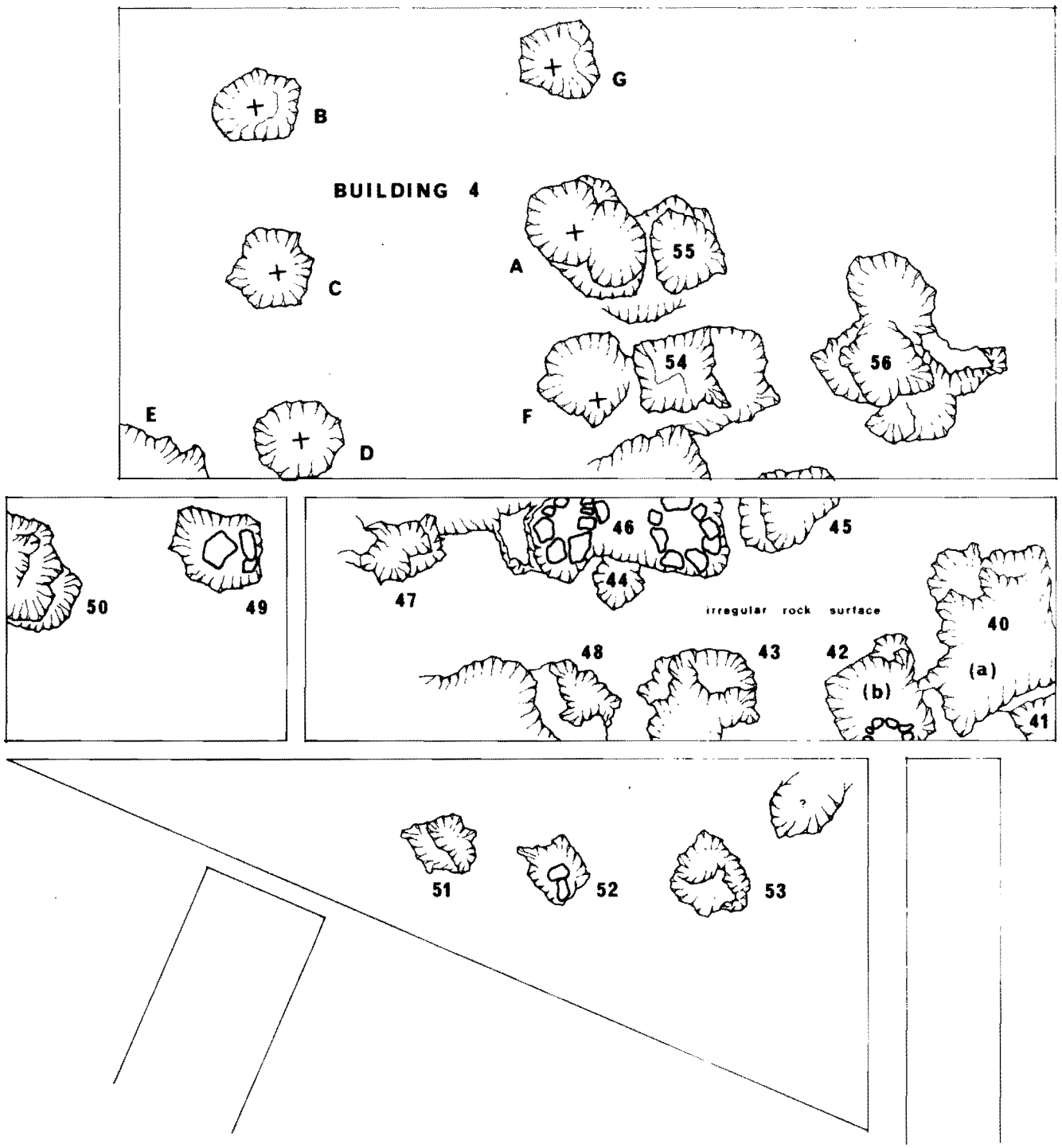
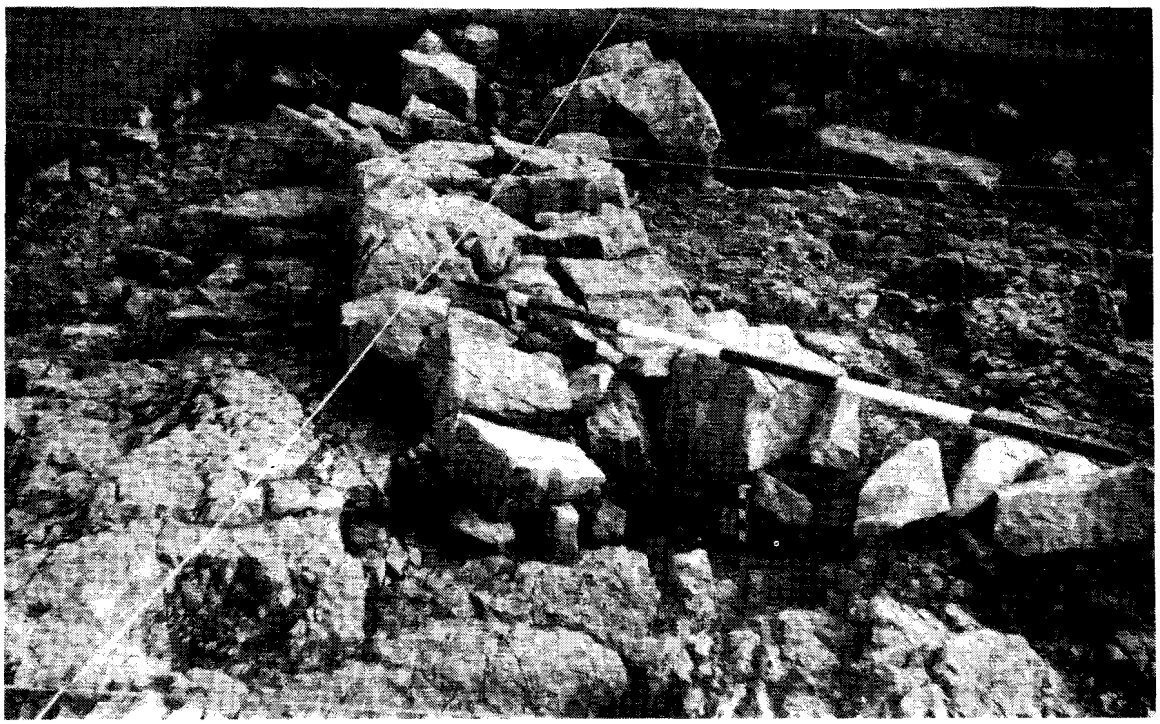
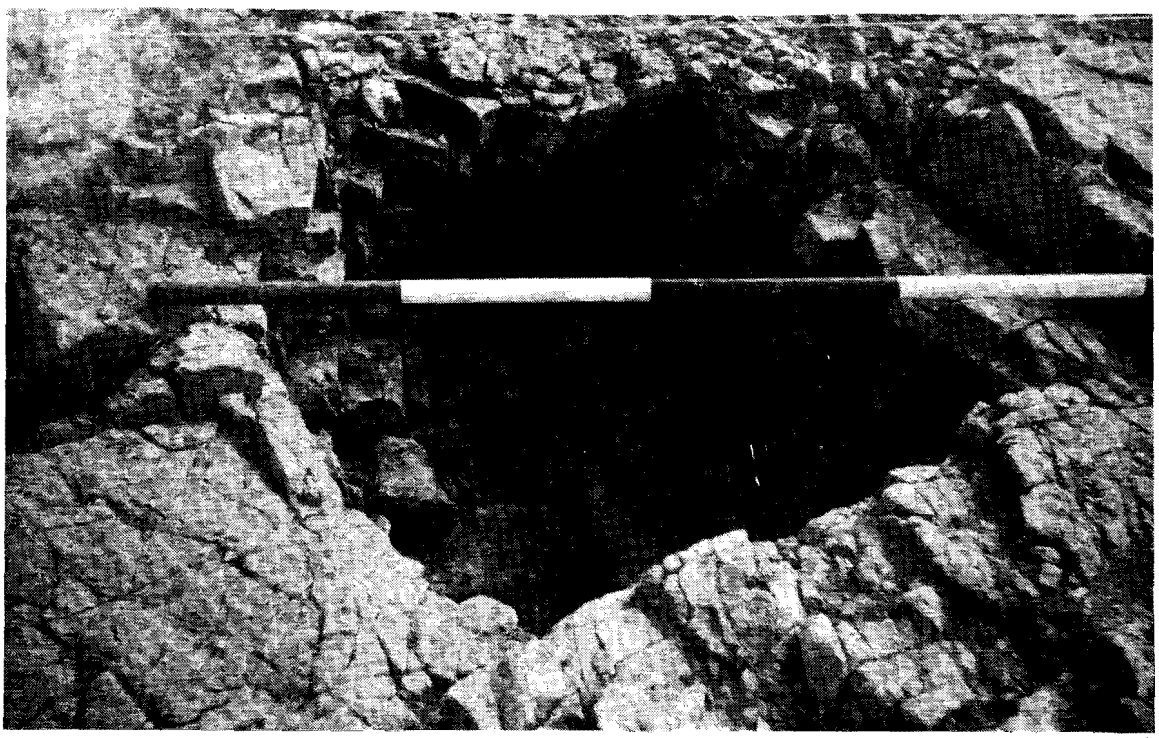


Fig 11 AREA III



Drystone wall at north-west corner of Building 3 consisting of irregular blocks of local limestone and overlying post pit 6. See Fig 9.



Post pit 7 near north-west corner of Building 3. The sides are cut vertically, using joints in the limestone bedrock. See Fig 9.

AN INTERPRETATION OF THE STRUCTURES

There was evidence for four separately identified structures. Area I contained the stone base of a building 4.60 m in diameter and post pits indicating a timber framed building measuring 7.35 m x 5.20 m. Area II contained the major building on the site: an aisled structure 16.20 m x 10.00 m consisting of a rectangular stone wall enclosing two rows of post pits. Area III contained the least clearly defined structure, but amongst a complex series of pits there was evidence for a timber framed building measuring 5.50 m x 4.90 m. We have called these buildings 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively, and the following is a speculative assessment of what the superstructures of these buildings may have been like. Buildings 2 and 4 have been grouped together because of similarities.

On the plan of the excavations (Fig. 4), the assumed timber posts of Buildings 2, 3 and 4 are indicated by +. The posts are marked at exactly regular spacings, although the spacing varies from building to building. These notional post centres are repeated on the larger scale plans (Figs. 7, 9 and 11) where they normally coincide with the deepest part of the post pits. Although it is not intended to imply that the posts were set out with such mathematical precision, it is nevertheless interesting that the spacing of the post pits was so regular and that there was so little difference in the spacing of the timber posts in the three buildings. In imperial terms, the bays along the length of Building 2 measure almost exactly 8 feet and on Building 4 almost exactly 9 feet. The spacing of the notional post centres is as follows:-

	Length	Width
Building 2	3 bays of 2.45 m	2 bays of 2.60 m
Building 3	4 bays of 2.65 m	1 bay of 4.90 m
Building 4	2 bays of 2.75 m	1 bay of 4.90 m

In describing the buildings in this section, all dimensions are to the notional centre line of posts or, for Buildings 1 and 3, to the outer face of the stonework, unless otherwise stated.

BUILDING 1

This circular stone structure, 4.60 m in diameter, was cut partly into the northern rampart and had an entrance on the south side facing the interior of the ringwork. The average wall thickness was about 75 cm and the remnants of

the wall stood on average about 30 cm high. The wall was built in drystone walling with large, rough blocks of limestone forming a facing and a core of smaller stones and clayey earth. The entrance was 1.10 m wide and shallow pits adjacent to the jambs appear to indicate the presence of timber door posts. There was also a shallow (30 cm) pit in the centre of the structure, but this was probably unrelated to the building (see p. 6).

The internal diameter of the building was about 3.20 m and this space could very well have been covered with a conical roof with timber rafters supporting an outer covering of turf or thatch. In interpreting the supporting walls, one is put in something of a dilemma by the considerable number of daub fragments found inside the structure (see p. 6). Does the presence of daub indicate a superstructure of wattle and daub set upon a low drystone wall? One may suppose that a rectangular building would have been more suited to construction of this nature. Certainly, there was no evidence of any stakes being set into the masonry which survived. A full height wall in masonry seems most likely and it may be that the daub represents debris from an earlier occupation (p. 6).

Numerous interpretations are possible regarding the purpose of this building. Based upon the evidence of considerable quantities of cooking pot, bone fragments and pieces of oyster shell set in the blackened earth of layer 4, the writers suggest that at some stage it was probably a kitchen, perhaps contemporary with Building 3. The obvious fire hazard presented by a kitchen may well have been the reason for a separate detached structure. Other Medieval buildings apparently with detached kitchens or bakehouses occur at Sandal Magna (1), Writtle (2), Goltho (3) and Gomeldon (4), although at none of these sites is the structure circular.

BUILDINGS 2 AND 4

These were two timber framed structures; Building 2 being three bays long with an intermediate post at each end, and Building 4 being at least two bays long without intermediate posts at the ends. In considering Building 4, we must bear in mind the complex area of post pits to the south and east with much recutting, and also the fact that the building may extend northwards into the unexcavated area.

Building 2 was 5.20 m wide and Building 4 was 4.90 m wide. The assumed post spacing was 2.45 m in the case of Building 2 and 2.75 m in Building 4. A post pit adjacent to the intermediate post at the east end of Building 2 may indicate an entrance at that end. There is also a central pit, which may have held a support for the ridge or a dividing screen (there is no evidence that this was a hearth), and two other small internal pits. There are no internal features associated with Building 4.

Buildings 2 and 4 may reasonably be interpreted as substantial timber framed structures, probably with walls of wattle and daub and pitched roofs of turf or

thatch. Their degree of permanence leads one to suppose that they were dwellings and this interpretation is not necessarily ruled out by the absence of evidence for hearths. Building 4, however, sited as it is near the southern termination of the ditch, may have formed part of a group of buildings associated with a gate (5). (See also p. 11)

BUILDING 3

Building 3 was identified on the ground by five pairs of post pits (these include one assumed pit and one pit very much smaller than the remainder). The pits were enclosed by a low wall on three sides and part of a fourth. The construction of this wall was similar to that of Building 1. Three smaller pits, aligned with those in the interior of the building, were situated across the open side, and a short out-turning portion of wall overlaid two other small post pits (Fig. 9).

The size of the post pits, the largest being more than 1.50 m square and 50 cm deep, would indicate very substantial timber supports. In Area III packing stones were found in post pit 46, which would have contained a circular post 60 cm in diameter, and one may suppose that Building 3 had posts of similar size. This fact, together with the 90 cm thick enclosing wall, gives evidence for a building of considerable proportions.

The sleeper wall may have replaced an earlier wooden framework. Although there is no clear evidence of re-cutting, the main post pits are of such a size as to have permitted the replacement of posts without the re-cutting of the bedrock. The larger size of these internal pits is probably due in part to the undoubted difficulty of cutting holes of adequate depth into the limestone bedrock.

It is possible that the post pits represent an earlier timber building, but the distance of 8.20 m between the drystone walls would certainly have required internal support and the symmetrical location of the post pits within the surrounding wall leaves one in no doubt that Building 3 was in fact an aisled hall, probably with some sort of vestibule represented by post pits 7, 8 and 9, and perhaps 10 and 11 also. Fig. 9 shows an assumed spacing of 2.65 m between posts and a span of 4.90 m. The 2.65 m spacing is very close to that for Buildings 2 and 4.

Although the rounded corners of the Llantrithyd hall give rise to comment by 20th century man, these were by no means uncommon in the Medieval period and were certainly more sympathetic to the use of turf or thatched roofs than right angled corners would have been. As an instance of this, one may consider the sub-rectangular halls of the Norse settlements of the Faroe Islands and the Isle of Man, or the round-cornered houses of Jarlshof in the Shetlands (6), as well as more modest examples nearer home.

In reconstructing a section through the hall, one may state with virtual

certainty that the post pits represent a timber framed structure with a pitched roof, probably thatched with a pitch in the order of 45° (7). The aisles could then be interpreted either in the form of 'lean-to' structures, as was originally the case with the Trelleborg House (8), or as having a roof which was continuous with the main roof, the surrounding wall thus becoming a low sleeper wall. The latter alternative has the merit of being the more simple and straightforward solution, allowing perhaps for single timbers to be used from sleeper wall to ridge, being supported at mid-span by the main internal posts of the hall. A tie member at this point would form a truss and the resulting structure would have considerable rigidity. There would undoubtedly have been intermediate members between the five main trusses, but these have been omitted from the reconstruction (Plate 1) for the sake of clarity, as have any collars which may have been used near the apex of the trusses.

The extension of the roof truss in order to form a buttress is a feature of the longhouses of the Saxons, as at Warendorf (9). In discussing the typically West Germanic expression of these houses (10), Mr. C.A. Ralegh Radford says "It must be assumed that the Anglo-Saxon invaders of Britain brought this tradition with them and that on arrival in England they would have expressed these needs in a comparable form". Is it too much to speculate that the Llantrithyd hall owes something to this tradition? One may conjecture that the lightweight wall of wattle and daub or timber, with external buttresses, evolved in such a way that the buttresses became an extension of the roof, supported only on very low timber supports with a wallplate or a low stone wall. The advantages of the latter arrangement are that a considerable amount of floor space is gained and, if one assumes an overhanging roof of thatch, the supporting structure receives protection from the weather. If the supporting structure is of stone, as at Llantrithyd, there is the added advantage that the timbers would not be as susceptible to rot as they would be if they were in direct contact with the earth.

In interpreting the end walls at Llantrithyd, a straightforward gable has been discounted because of the rounded corners. It would be possible to put forward a reconstruction with full hipped ends rising to the apex of the second truss from each end. This possibility seems unlikely. A much more plausible interpretation is that the 10 internal posts were framed with horizontal members at about 2.75 m high (assuming a 45° pitch) and that at the two ends the cross members supported rafters spanning on to the sleeper walls. A half-hipped roof is thus created, similar to one of the hypothetical reconstructions of Anglo-Saxon houses at Chalton, Hants (11). In that instance, it is suggested that the resulting half gable was left open at each end as a smoke vent.

The interpretation of the structure at the entrance to the hall is more difficult, partly because of the more ruined and incomplete nature of the stone sleeper wall and partly because of the problem of interpreting the post pits in this area. Post pits 6, 10 and 11 are overlaid by the sleeper wall and one cannot be certain that pits 7, 8 and 9 relate to the hall structure. It seems likely, however, that some form of entrance structure is represented and that the apparent confusion is the result of various alterations in the area. In the illustrated reconstruction

(Plate 2), a gabled porch is indicated on the assumption that post pits 7, 8 and 9 held vertical posts, which in turn supported rafters and a ridge piece connected to the framing of the main hall. Although a more elaborate reconstruction than a simple lean-to porch, a gabled structure of this nature would have had the advantage of maintaining the relatively steep pitch of the thatching. There is no reason to suppose that builders of the assurance of those at Llantrithyd would not have preferred the technically superior solution.

The interpretation of Building 3 must be that it was an aisled hall. Although not on the scale of the halls at Cheddar (12), the Llantrithyd hall was, nevertheless, a substantial building. A parallel may be the aisled hall at Brome in Suffolk (13), although at Brome there was no trace of the external walls.

At Penmaen (14), the hall was smaller in size (14.00 m x 6.70 m), but there are certain similarities to Llantrithyd. The Penmaen hall also had drystone walls with rounded corners, but was irregular in plan. Unlike Llantrithyd, no post pits were discovered internally. There was no evidence for a hearth or other internal features. In speculating as to the superstructure of the building, Professor Leslie Alcock suggests that the rafters were bedded in or rested on top of the walls, which were only around 38 cm high when found; as at Llantrithyd, the amount of stone rubble led the excavator to suggest that the wall "was never more than twice its present height".

The size and the aisled structure of the Llantrithyd hall put it into an entirely different category to smaller domestic buildings, such as those at Beere (15), Houndtor (16), Lismahon (17) or Gomeldon (18), although the latter sites all share with Llantrithyd a sub-rectangular stone structure. In the case of Llantrithyd, 'rectangular with rounded corners' or 'playing card-shaped' may be better descriptions than 'sub-rectangular', as the building has clearly been set out with considerable care and is in no way a debased rectangle.

NOTES

1. For a plan and summary of Sandal Magna, West Riding of Yorkshire, see Medieval Archaeol., 18 (1974), 197 and Fig. 60.

2. Rahtz, P.A., Excavations at King John's Hunting Lodge, Writtle, Essex, 1955-7, Soc. for Medieval Archaeol. Monograph 3, 1969.

3. Beresford, Guy, The Medieval Clay-Land Village: Excavations at Goltho and Barton Blount, Soc. for Medieval Archaeol. Monograph 6, 1975.

4. For summary and plan, see Medieval Archaeol., 8 (1964), 289-90.

5. Alcock, L., "Castle Tower, Penmaen: A Norman ringwork in Glamorgan", Ant. J., 46 (1966), 178-210.

6. Dahl, S., "The Norse settlement of the Faroe Islands", Medieval Archaeol., 14 (1970), 60-73, and Gelling, P., "A Norse homestead near Doarlish Cashen, Kirk Patrick, Isle of Man", ibid, 74-82.

7. Addyman, P.V., "A Dark Age settlement at Maxey, Northants", Medieval Archaeol., 8 (1964), 20-73, particularly 44-7.

8. Schmidt, H., "The Trelleborg House reconsidered", Medieval Archaeol., 17 (1973), 52-77.

9. Cramp, R., "Beowulf and archaeology", Medieval Archaeol., 1 (1957), 57-77, particularly p. 68 ff.

10. Radford, C.A. Ralegh, "The Saxon house", Medieval Archaeol., 1 (1957), 27-38.

11. Addyman, P.V., Leigh, D. and Hughes, M.J., "Anglo-Saxon houses at Chalton, Hants", Medieval Archaeol., 16 (1972), 13-31.

12. Rahtz, P., "The Saxon and Medieval Palaces at Cheddar, Somerset. Interim Report", Medieval Archaeol., 6-7 (1962-3), 53-66.

13. Medieval Archaeol., 12 (1968), 193.

14. Alcock, L., op. cit.

15. Jope, E.M. and Threlfall, R.I., "Excavation of a Medieval Settlement at Beere, North Tawton, Devon", Medieval Archaeol., 2 (1958), 112-40.

16. Summaries in Medieval Archaeol., 6-7 (1962-3), 341-3, 8 (1964), 282-5 and 10 (1966), 210-1.

17. Waterman, D.M., "Excavations at Lismahon, Co. Down", Medieval Archaeol., 3 (1959), 139-76 and particularly the reconstructed drawing p. 151.

18. See note 4.

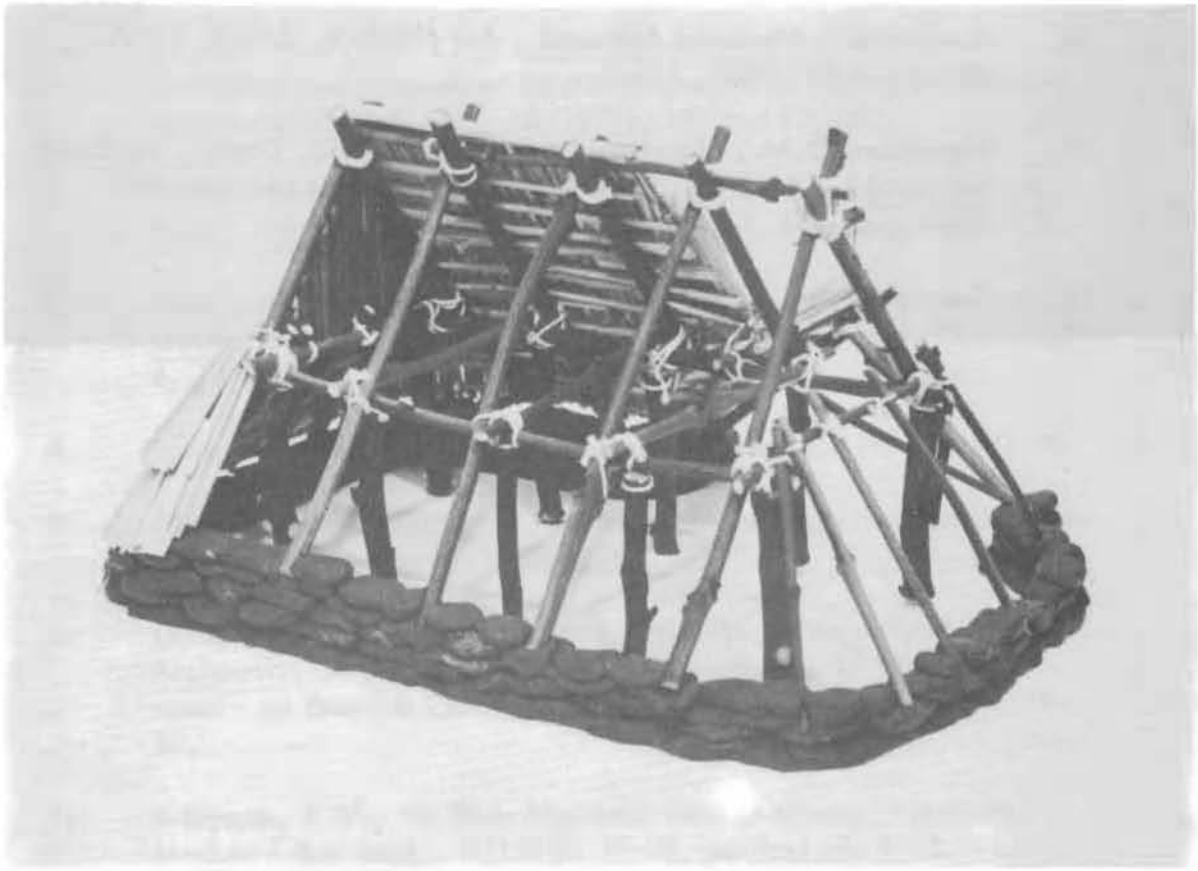


PLATE 1

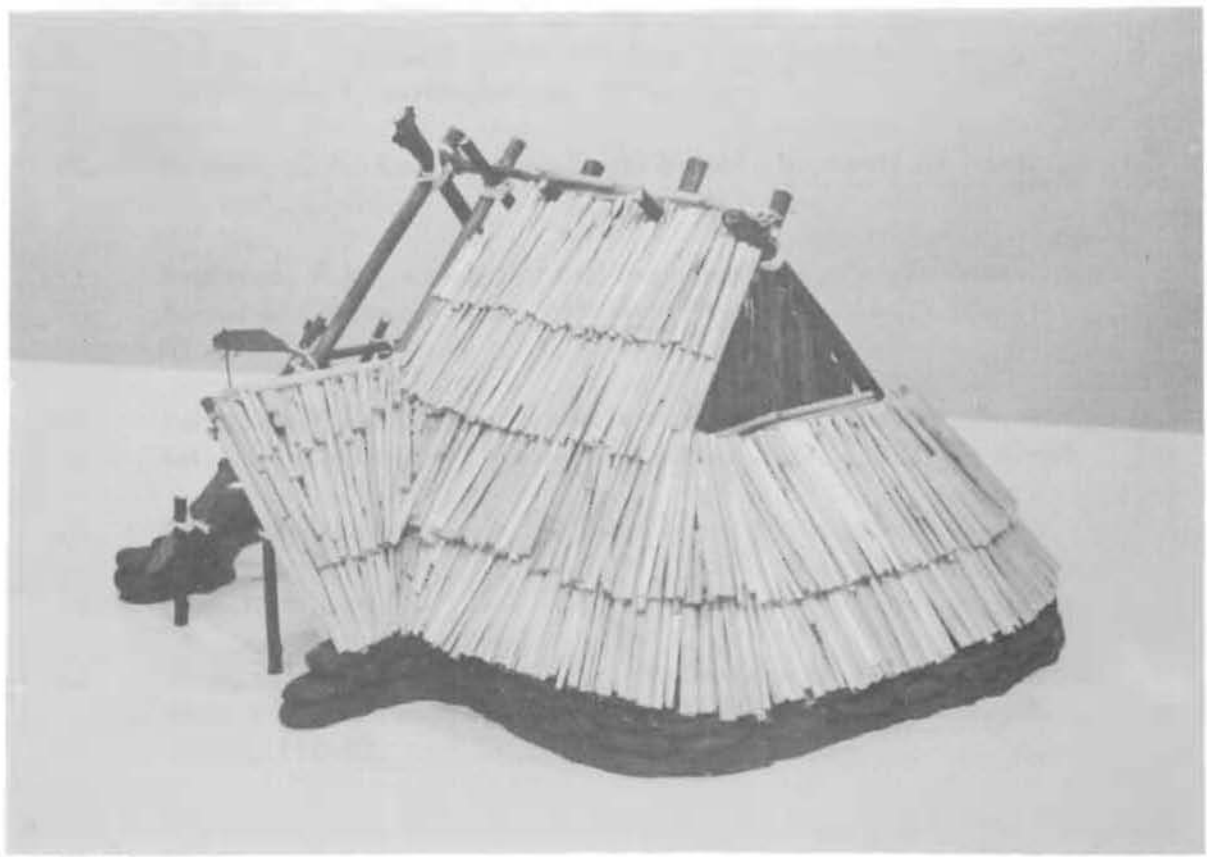


PLATE 2

Two views of a suggested reconstruction of Building 3

THE FINDS

THE POTTERY

Edited by Peter Webster

This report and the drawings that accompany it are the result of a course of seminars held under the auspices of University College, Cardiff, Department of Extra-Mural Studies in the summer of 1975. Those taking part were: P. Bailes, D. Barron, L. Brookes, P. Charlton, K. Crosta, M. Harris, M. Harte, M. Hinchcliffe, E. Jackson, M. Jackson, M. Jones, C. Kenney, A. Mein, P. Murphy, D. O'Sullivan, J. Pratt, J. Roberts, G. Russell, J. Silcox, P. Tucker and V. Vale. Prior sorting and marking of the pottery had been undertaken by P. Charlton, A. Hughes, J. Roberts and V. Vale, to whom we are most grateful. The selection of pottery to be illustrated was made by the editor of this section.

This section has benefited from the help and advice of a number of experts who have at one time or another looked at selections of the pottery; we should like to thank these and particularly G.C. Boon, J.K. Knight, J.M. Lewis, S. Moorhouse and M. Ponsford.

INTRODUCTION

The excavations at Llantrithyd produced a large amount of pottery, but it was clear during an early stage of the sorting that the range of both forms and fabric was fairly limited.

Forms

The great majority of vessel fragments found came from jars of the cooking pot type. There were no certain dishes identified and only a few certain jugs. The method of selection of the forms to be illustrated was as follows: we attempted to illustrate all types represented in the post pits and to show all the types present in each post pit, pit or other well stratified level; the upper levels, which are not truly stratified, but which produced the vast bulk of the pottery, presented more of a problem, but we have illustrated what it is hoped is a representative sample. It should, however, be remembered that the coarse jars illustrated from upper levels are only a fraction (and a tiny fraction at that) of the total jars found, while virtually all glazed fragments, of which a meaningful drawing was possible, have been illustrated.

Fabric

Minute differentiation of fabrics has not been attempted as this does not seem particularly meaningful in the present context. We do not have sufficient Medieval kilns from western Britain to know the range of fabrics these are likely to produce at any one time. Furthermore, so little pottery from South Wales is published, and we know so little about early Medieval ceramics in the area, that this is clearly not the moment for the differentiation of fabric sources. The fabric of the great majority of the pottery is coarse with granular sandy grit used as filler; so common is this that it may be taken to be the case unless otherwise stated below. Softer fabrics with calcitic filler also occur, but this fact is always noted where applicable.

Colour

Wide variations in the colour of vessels was noted even within the same piece. The exterior and interior surfaces often varied in colour, both in themselves and between one and the other, while both often varied from the basic fabric colour. In general, reduced grey fabrics seem to have been the aim of the potters, but surface oxidisation frequently occurred, generally in patches. Much of this oxidisation may well have occurred in the kiln, but some probably occurred during or even after use. We have attempted to describe the colour variations within each piece of pottery illustrated, but it must be borne in mind that this description applies only to the sherd drawn and might well not hold good for other parts of the same vessel, so wide are the colour variations noted.

Hardness

Soil conditions have obviously affected the hardness, and often the surface appearance, of jars with calcitic grits; no attempt to show the hardness of these vessels has, therefore, been attempted. Other vessels seem, however, to have been little affected by soil conditions; these may be taken as being hard or fairly hard unless otherwise stated; i.e. they are resistant to scratching with the finger nail (about 2.5 on Moh's scale of hardness).

Technique

With the exception of a few later Medieval cooking pots and the glazed fragments, most pots show a certain deficiency in potting technique. There are signs of finger rilling implying use of the potter's wheel, but the vessels are often uneven on the rim and elsewhere, and often far from truly circular when viewed from above. A fairly slow wheel seems to be implied. This does have some bearing on the accuracy of the representation of the pots illustrated; some variation of rim angle, even within the same pot, may be expected and we clearly cannot always be certain that we have illustrated the mean rather than the extreme angle; similarly, we have only drawn the line of the rim unevenly when it is exceptionally so on the fragment examined.

Sources

We shall return both to the sources for the Llantrithyd forms and their likely date in our conclusion (p. 44), but it may be noted here that the relative uniformity of fabric within a large assemblage of pottery and the limited range of forms found are suggestive of a local source for much of the pottery and possibly a restricted timespan of occupation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Barker P.A. 1970	The Medieval pottery of Shropshire from the conquest to 1400, Shropshire Archaeol. Soc., 1970.
Beckery	Rahtz, P. and Hirst, S., Beckery Chapel, Glastonbury, 1967-8, Glastonbury Ant. Soc., Glastonbury 1974.
Bristol: Ham Green	Barton, K.J., "A medieval pottery kiln at Ham Green, Bristol", Trans. Bristol Gloucestershire Archaeol. Soc., 82 (1963), 95-126.
Cunliffe B. 1974	"Some late Saxon stamped pottery from southern England", Evison et al. 1974, 127-35.
Dinas Powys	Alcock, L., Dinas Powys, Cardiff 1963.
Dothill	Barker 1970, 59-61.
Evison et al. 1974	Evison, V.I., Hodges, H. and Hurst, J.G., Medieval Pottery from Excavations, London 1974.
Gillam	Gillam, J.P., Types of Roman coarse pottery vessels in northern Britain, 3rd Edition, Newcastle upon Tyne 1970.
Glastonbury	Rahtz, P., "Excavations on Glastonbury Tor, Somerset, 1964-6", Archaeol. J., 127 (1970), 1-81.
Gloucester 1966-7	Hassall, M. and Rhodes, J., "Excavations at the New Market Hall, Gloucester, 1966-7", Trans. Bristol Gloucestershire Archaeol. Soc., 93 (1974), 15-100.
Hereford: Blackfriars	Butler, L.A.S., "Excavations at Black Friars, Hereford, 1958", Trans. Woolhope Club, 36, Pt. III (1960), 334-42 and 382-6.
Hereford 1966	Stanford, S.C., "Excavations in Bath Street, Hereford, 1966", Trans. Woolhope Club, 39 (1968-9).

Kidwelly	Fox, C. and Radford, C.A. Ralegh, "Kidwelly Castle, Carmarthenshire", Archaeologia, 82 (1933), 93-138.
Llantwit	Nash-Williams, V.E., "The medieval settlement at Llantwit Major", Bulletin of the Board of Celtic Studies, 14, Pt. IV (1951-2), 313-33.
Lydney	Wheeler, R.E.M. and T.V., Excavation of the Prehistoric, Roman and Post-Roman site in Lydney Park, Gloucestershire, Soc. of Ant. Report No. 9, London 1932.
M5: 2nd Report	Fowler, P.J. and Bennett, J. (Ed.), "Archaeology and the M5 Motorway: 2nd Report", Trans. Bristol Gloucestershire Archaeol. Soc., 92 (1973), 21-81.
Ogmore	O'Neill 1935, 322-6 and 332.
O'Neill B.H.St.J. 1935	"Finds from Coity, Ogmore, Grosmont and White Castles", Ant. J., 15 (1935), 320-35.
Penmaen	Alcock, L., "Castle Tower, Penmaen: A Norman ringwork in Glamorgan", Ant. J., 46 (1966), 178-210.
Shrewsbury: Dogpole	Barker 1970, 72-3.
Somerset	Rahtz, P., "Pottery in Somerset, A.D. 400-1066", Evison et al. 1974, 95-126.
Sudbrook	Nash-Williams, V.E., "An Iron Age coastal camp at Sudbrook ... Monmouthshire", Arch. Camb., 94 (1939), 42-79.
White Castle	O'Neill 1935, 330-5 and 323, 325, 327.

Please Note: References given below are generally in the form of a site and number. Unless otherwise stated, this refers to a vessel number and is not a page reference.

ROMAN POTTERY

There was a scatter of Roman pottery across the whole site. This did not appear to have any stratigraphical significance and has, therefore, been grouped together.

1. (Not illustrated). Samian, form 18 or 18/31. Southern Gaulish. Later 1st or early 2nd century. E.ph.1W.

2. (Not illustrated). Samian, form 18 or 18/31. Southern Gaulish. Later 1st or early 2nd century. Q.ph.51.

3. (Not illustrated). Samian, form 33. Central Gaulish. 2nd century. From drystone core of Hall wall.

4. (Not illustrated). Samian. A fragment of a Central Gaulish bowl, probably form 31 and Antonine. ph.53.

There was also a possible Eastern Gaulish fragment from a bowl or dish from ph.54.2.

5. Flanged and ridged bowl in black-burnished ware. The type is present in northern Britain from the late 3rd until the mid/late 4th century (cf. Gillam type 228), but probably continued to be marketed in southern Britain into the late 4th century or even later (cf. Lydney, 40-43). H.

6. Flanged and ridged bowl or dish in black-burnished ware. See no. 5 above (late 3rd - late 4th century). G.IV.ph. under rubble on w. side.

7. Flanged and ridged bowl in worn black-burnished ware. See no. 5 above (late 3rd - late 4th century). Hall.

8. Dish in light grey ware. ph.1.

9. Flange from a bowl in fawn fabric, probably burnt. The complete vessel probably resembled the samian form 38, a popular later 2nd century samian form, but also much used by 3rd-4th century colour-coated fabric manufacturers. H.

10. (Not illustrated). Fragment from the rim of a jar in black-burnished ware, probably of late 2nd-3rd century date. ph.20W.

11. (Not illustrated). Handle in grey fabric, probably from a beaker. G.Ext. rubble.

12. (Not illustrated). Wall sherds of Roman pottery in grey fabric,

probably of local manufacture, also came from M.2 (two fragments) and B.2 (a jar base).

The pottery thus has a fairly general spread across the whole Roman period, but the quantity involved is negligible when compared with the amount of Medieval pottery from the site or the amount of Roman pottery from Roman habitation sites in the Vale of Glamorgan. It seems most likely to be the result of Roman farming methods - the dumping of rubbish on the farm midden which was later spread upon the fields. If so, then it does at least provide evidence for Roman cultivation of this area.

BUILDING 2

From post pits:-

13. Jar in grey fabric with light brown exterior and dark grey interior surfaces; cf. Beckery, 24 and 29 (late Saxon or early post conquest). ph.17W.

14. Jar in grey fabric with buff to grey interior and red to black exterior surfaces; cf. Penmaen, 18 (? 1st half of 12th century); somewhat similar to Somerset, 60 (late 10th - early 11th century). ph.17W.

15. Jar in grey fabric with light buff external and light red interior surfaces; somewhat similar to Gloucester 1966-7, Fig. 35, 7 (? 12th century). ph.17W.

16. Jar in grey fabric with buff interior and red-brown exterior surfaces; cf. Penmaen, 23 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.17W.

17. Jar in grey fabric with buff and grey exterior surface; see no. 16 above. ph.20W.

18. Jar in grey fabric with darker external surface. ph.20W.

19. Jar in grey fabric with red surface in places; somewhat similar to Somerset, 60 (late 10th - early 11th century). ph.20W.

20. Jar in very hard, possibly overfired, grey fabric with red to grey interior and grey to light grey exterior surfaces; cf. Glastonbury, 17 (late Saxon - early Medieval), but see also Hereford: Blackfriars, 2-3 (13th-14th century) for a similar, but later, rim form. ph.20W.

21. Jar in grey fabric with grey-buff surface. ph.21W.

22. Jar in grey fabric with shell-like grits and dark grey internal surface; the rim has been folded over internally; cf. M5: 2nd

Report, Fig. 6, 1 (11th-13th century). ph.21W.

23. Jar in grey fabric with dark brown exterior and reddish interior surfaces; M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 24 (11th-13th century) is somewhat similar, although of different fabric. ph.21W.

24. Jar in pinkish fabric with light red surface. ph.23W.

25. Jar in grey fabric with reddish interior and dark grey exterior surfaces. ph.26W.

Post pit 26W also contained a sherd similar to the glazed no. 186 below.

26. Jar in grey fabric with buff interior and dark grey exterior surfaces; possibly a variation on a vessel such as no. 23 above. ph.27W.

27. Jar in grey fabric with buff surfaces. ph.27W.

28. Jar in grey fabric with buff interior and pink-buff exterior surfaces. ph.27W.

29. (Not illustrated). Rim fragment from a jar with simple everted rim in grey-buff fabric with buff surfaces. ph.27W.

30. (Not illustrated). Rim fragment from a jar in grey fabric with a presumably calcitic filler which has leached out; the surface is reddish. ph.27W.

31. Jar in light grey fabric with red surfaces; see no. 14 above. ph.29W.

32. Jar in grey fabric with red to buff surfaces; a slightly beaded rim such as this occurs frequently at Penmaen (e.g. Penmaen, 7, ? 1st half of 12th century). ph.31.

POST PITS ASSOCIATED WITH BUILDING 3

33. Jar rim fragment in grey fabric with darker exterior and orange interior surfaces. ph.1W.

34. Jar in buff fabric with white apparently calcitic grit filler; the surface has reddened and the rim contains stabbed decoration. Rim decoration seems to be more popular south of the Bristol Channel (see, for example, Beckery, 8), but no exact parallel for this style has been found on a rim. ph.1.

35. Jar in grey fabric with orange interior and burnt orange exterior

surfaces; some similarities to Beckery, 7 (late Saxon - early Medieval) and M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 27 (11th-13th century). ph.1W.

36. Jar in grey/brown fabric with darker exterior and buff interior surfaces. ph.2W.

37. Jar in grey fabric with surface tending to light buff in places; cf. Llantwit, Fig. 7, 12 (mixed 12th-14th century); Penmaen, 11 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.2W.

38. Jar in light grey fabric with grey and orange surfaces; cf. Beckery, Fig. 26, 20 (late Saxon - early conquest). ph.2W.

39. Jar in dark grey fabric, pink-buff in places on the surface; for the general type, see Glastonbury, 15 (late Saxon - early Medieval). ph.3E.

40. Jar in dark grey fabric; cf. Glastonbury, 14-15 (late Saxon - early Medieval). ph.3E.

41. Jar in grey fabric with a pink-buff surface, sooted externally; perhaps a squatter version of a vessel such as no. 14 above. F.ph.3.

42. Jar in grey fabric with red surface internally; cf. Kidwelly, P3 (12th-13th century). F.ph.3.

43. Jar in mid-grey fabric; cf. Penmaen, 7 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.4W.

44. Jar in grey fabric with buff interior and orange exterior surfaces; cf. Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century). G.ph.5.

45. Jar in fawn calcitic gritted fabric burnt externally; for general type, see no. 22 above. ph.5E.

This feature (ph.5E) also contained a very small glazed fragment.

46. Jar in grey fabric with grey and pink exterior and buff interior surfaces. G.ph.7.

47. Jar in dark grey fabric with pink to light red surfaces; cf. Penmaen, 15 (? 1st half of 12th century). G.ph.7.

48. Jar in light grey fabric, burnt orange in places externally. G.ph.7.

49. Jar in grey fabric with light red to grey surfaces; cf. Glastonbury, 13 (late Saxon - early Medieval). G.ph.7.

50. Jar in light grey fabric with fawn interior surface; similar to Beckery, 40 (Medieval). G.ph.7.

51. Jar in grey fabric with pink surfaces, sooted externally. ph. 11W.

52. Jar in grey fabric with a probably calcitic filler, which has leached out; the surface is red, grey and buff; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 1. ph.11W.

53. Jar in dark orange-brown fabric with a dark grey core, sooted externally; Dinas Powys, p. 148, Fig. 32 includes a discussion of the technique and tentative dating to 12th century. ph.11W.

This feature (ph.11W) also contained a small fragment of glazed Ham Green fabric.

POST PITS 12-14 AND 32-37

54. Jar in dark grey fabric with grey core; cf. no. 32 above. ph. 12W.

55. Jar in light grey fabric; it is possibly from a similar jar to no. 54 above. ph.13W.

56. Jar in dark grey fabric with calcitic grits, some of which have leached out. ph.13W.

57. Jar in grey fabric with a buff patch on the external surface and an orange-buff interior surface; cf. Glastonbury, 12 (late Saxon - early Medieval). ph.14.

58. Jar in grey fabric with brown interior and grey-brown exterior surfaces; cf. no. 46 above for a further vessel with a groove serving as rim decoration. ph.14.

59. Jar in grey fabric with reddish surface, burnt and abraded. ph.14.

60. Jar in light grey fabric with brown exterior and dark grey interior surfaces; of the same general type as no. 16 above. ph.14.

61. Jar in light grey fabric with fawn-grey exterior and dark grey interior surfaces; a variation on vessels such as nos. 16 and 60 above. ph.32.

62. Jar in grey fabric with pink to grey exterior and dark grey interior surfaces. ph.32.

63. Jar in grey fabric with red-brown surface; the fabric has a calcitic filler, some of which has leached out. ph.32.

64. Jar in similar fabric to no. 63 above; for the general type, see M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 1 (11th-13th century), although the fabric is not identical. ph.32.

65. Jar in grey-brown fabric with brown exterior surface. ph.33.

66. Jar in grey fabric with an orange surface; cf. Beckery, 21 (late Saxon - early post conquest). ph.33.

67. Jar in light grey/buff fabric with orange-buff exterior and light buff interior surfaces. ph.34.

68. Jar in light grey fabric with an orange-brown interior and dark grey exterior surface. ph.34.

69. Jar in very light brown fabric with a grey core. ph.34.

70. Jar in light grey fabric with an orange exterior and grey interior surface; cf. Penmaen, 11 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.34.

71. Jar in light grey fabric with surfaces burnt orange in places; the similarity with no. 70 above is apparent, but the fabric is more granular. ph.34.

72. Jar in light grey fabric with a darker grey surface; similar to nos. 32 and 54 above. ph.34.

73. Jar in light brown fabric containing a calcitic filler; the exterior surface is dark grey; cf. no. 64 above. ph.34.

74. Jar in grey fabric with grey-fawn interior and reddish exterior surfaces; of the same general type as no. 23 above. ph.35.

75. Jar in light grey fabric with grey-buff surface. ph.36.

76. Jar in light grey fabric with light red interior surface; see no. 72 above. ph.36.

77. Jar in dark grey fabric with calcitic filler, which has leached out; of similar form, but different fabric to nos. 70-71 above. ph.36.

78. Jar in pale grey fabric with darker exterior surface. ph.37.

OTHER POST PITS AND PITS

79. Jar in orange-brown fabric; cf. Penmaen, 7 (? 1st half of 12th century), Kidwelly, P3 and P9 (12th-13th century). ph.40.

80. Jar in grey fabric with orange exterior and buff interior surfaces; cf. Beckery, 20 (late Saxon - early post conquest). ph.40.

Nos. 81-82 come from Building 4.

81. Jar or possibly jug in fawn fabric with reddish surface externally. ph.C.

82. Jar in grey fabric with reddish surface, sooted externally and with calcitic filler, which has leached out; cf. Kidwelly, P8 (12th-13th century). ph.C.

83. Jar in grey fabric with a light brown surface; similar to no. 15 above. ph.43.

Nos. 84-86 are from pits associated with Phase 2 of the entrance structure.

84. Jar in light grey fabric with surface colour varying between orange, light buff, grey and black; cf. Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century) for a somewhat similar treatment of the rim. ph.46.

85. Jar in grey fabric with brown surface; the fabric contains larger grit filler than is usual on the site, individual grits being up to 5 mm diameter; cf. no. 84 above. ph.47.

86. Jar in grey to buff fabric with large calcitic grits used as filler; some of these grits have leached out, others reach up to 5 mm diameter; there are also some non-calcitic grits of similar size. The exterior surface is buff to light red, the interior surface grey; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 9 (11th-13th century). ph.49.

Nos. 87-101 are from pits which may have held a rampart revetment.

87. Jar in fawn-grey fabric; cf. Kidwelly, P9 (12th-13th century). ph.50.

88. Jar in light grey fabric with partly pink exterior surface; the vessel is closely similar to no. 87 above and could even be part of the same vessel. ph.50.

89. Jar in grey fabric with an orange and grey surface; Penmaen, 3 (? 1st half of 12th century) has some similarities. ph.50.

90. Jar in grey fabric with red-brown surface; cf. Penmaen, 9 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.50.

91. Jar in light buff fabric; the exterior side of the upper rim is grey with an orange surface on the lower rim; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 15 (11th-13th century). ph.50.

92. Jar in grey fabric with light buff surface; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 29 (11th-13th century). ph.50.

93. Jar in grey fabric with orange-grey surfaces. ph.50.

94. Jar in grey fabric with light red surfaces, very abraded. ph.51.

95. Jar in grey fabric with dark grey-brown surfaces. ph.51.

96. Jar in grey fabric with light brown to grey surface; a more flared version of rims such as nos. 67 and 60 above. ph.51.

97. Jar in a fabric which has been fired or burnt dark grey on and near the external surface and is fawn to light red internally; cf. Gloucester 1966-7, Fig. 38, 3 (11th-12th century). ph.53.

98. Jar in grey fabric with an orange external surface; there are similarities to Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.53.

99. Jar in grey fabric with buff interior surface; the piece is not large enough to determine the diameter of the vessel with any certainty, but the vessel was definitely a jar, rather than a jug. ph.53.

100. Jar in buff to grey fabric. ph.53.

101. Jar in dark grey fabric with calcitic filler, which has leached out over much of the surface; brown and buff surface. ph.53.

Nos. 102-115 are from post pits east of Building 4 which may be a re-build.

102. Jar in light grey fabric with grey and cream surface; this hammer-head-like treatment of the rim may be seen in vessels from both White Castle and Grosmont (cf. O'Neill 1935, Fig. 4 12th-13th century). ph.54.

103. Jar in grey fabric with lighter grey exterior and light brown interior surfaces; Kidwelly, P1 (12th-13th century) has similarities. ph.54.

104. Jar in grey-brown fabric with calcitic grits, which have leached out, and a lighter surface; for similar treatment in a different fabric, see no. 80 above. ph.54.

105. Jar in orange fabric with a grey core. ph.54.

106. Jar in grey fabric with fairly large quartz-like grits (up to 2 mm diameter) in the filler. ph.54.

107. Jar in light grey fabric, burnt light brown in places externally; the filler is of calcitic grits, some of which has leached out. ph. 54.

108. Jar in grey fabric with inclusions up to 3 mm in diameter breaking through the surface; cf. Penmaen, 10-11 (? 1st half of 12th century). ph.54.

109. Jar in grey-brown fabric with a grey core; the exterior surface has been burnt; cf. Beckery, 10 (late Saxon - early post conquest). ph. 54.

110. Jar in grey fabric with orange and grey exterior and sooted orange interior surfaces. ph.54.

111. Jar in light grey fabric. ph.54.

112. Jar in grey fabric; cf. Beckery, 21 (late Saxon - early post conquest). ph.54.

113. Probable jug fragment in dark grey fabric with pink-buff interior surface with a little glaze adhering and mid-green glaze externally. Decoration under the glaze in the form of applied strips. Applied strips were much used at the Bristol: Ham Green kilns (q.v.) thought to be operating in the 13th century. ph.54.

114. Jar in grey fabric with grey and orange surface. ph.55.

115. Jar in coarse orange to grey fabric; the rim has been folded over unevenly and then crimped with a finger nail; see Beckery, 8 for a use of finger nail decoration on the rim. ph.55.

116. Jar in grey fabric burnt black on the surface; cf. Kidwelly, P5 (12th-13th century). ph.56.

117. Jar in grey fabric with reddish surface and calcitic grit filler (up to 2.5 mm diameter in places), some of which has leached out; similar to no. 104 above. ph.56.

BUILDING 1

118. Jar in grey fabric with fawn exterior surface. Under wall of Tower.

119. Jar in light red fabric with grey core; burning and possibly leaching have removed much of the surface. Under wall of Tower.

120. Jar in grey fabric with orange interior surface; somewhat similar to Shrewsbury: Dogpole, 8 (? 13th-14th century); see also no. 112 above. Under wall of Tower.

121. Jar in grey fabric with pink interior and fawn-brown exterior surfaces; cf. Kidwelly, P10 (12th-13th century). Under wall of Tower.

From a black layer within Building 1 which may represent occupation debris (= Fig. 8, layer 4).

122. Jar in grey fabric with red-buff exterior and dark grey interior surfaces. T.3.

123. Jar in buff fabric with light grey and pink exterior and buff and pink interior surfaces; cf. Glastonbury, 2 (late Saxon - early post conquest). T.3.

124. Jar in grey fabric with pink to grey exterior and dark grey interior surfaces; there has been some leaching of calcitic grit filler; cf. nos. 32, 54 and 72 above. T.3.

125. Jar in light grey fabric with red and grey exterior and red interior surfaces; similar to no. 122 above. T.3.

126. Jar, buff externally and light grey internally, with a mid-grey core; of similar type to nos. 60-61. T.3.

127. Jar in grey fabric with pink and grey exterior and fawn-grey interior surfaces; some similarities to Beckery, 28 (late Saxon - early post conquest). T.3.

The general similarity of these pieces to others from all levels of the site may be noted. This would tend to suggest that no great time lag exists between the timber and stone phases of the site.

Also from Building 1:-

128. Jar in grey fabric with grey interior and pinkish and grey exterior surfaces; a variation on the type of vessel represented by nos. 32 and 54 above. T.b.

129. Jar in coarse grey fabric; cf. Kidwelly, P1 and P10 (12th-13th century). T.b.

130. Jar in grey fabric with light pink surface; cf. Dinas Powys, Fig. 32, Ogmore, 39 (both ? 1st half of 12th century). T.b.

131. Jar in fawn fabric; see no. 102 above for comments on this type of rim treatment. T.b.

132. Jar in grey fabric with light brown to grey exterior and buff interior surfaces; the rim resembles no. 124 above, but the angle is clearly very different. T.1.

133. Jar in grey fabric with red-brown to grey exterior and grey interior surfaces; very similar to no. 128 above and possibly even part of the same vessel. T.

134. Jar in mid-grey fabric with dark grey surfaces oxidised pink in places; a similar rim, although at a different angle, is discussed, Hereford 1966, 1 (later 12th century). T.

135. Jar in light grey fabric with pink interior surface; perhaps a variation on rims such as no. 130 above. T.

136. Jar in grey fabric with grey-brown exterior and pinkish grey interior surfaces. T.1.

137. Jar in grey fabric with pink to light grey exterior and signs of burning. T.1.

138. Jar in grey fabric with light red interior and reddish exterior surfaces, sooted externally near the rim; cf. Penmaen, 25 (? 1st half of 12th century). T.

139. Jar in grey fabric with orange-buff exterior and red-brown interior surfaces; Penmaen, 24 (? 1st half of 12th century) has similarities. T.1.

140. Jar in grey fabric; cf. Ogmore, 38 (unstratified, but ? 12th century), M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 31 (11th-13th century). T.1.

141. Jar in grey fabric with grey-brown exterior surface; the rim is very uneven. It is of the same general type as nos. 122 and 125 above. T.1.

142. Jar in light grey fabric with light brown interior surface; Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century), but also see Sudbrook, 70 a vessel dated to ? 13th century. T.1.

143. Jar in grey-buff fabric with fawn interior and buff and red-brown exterior surfaces; cf. Beckery, 9 (late Saxon - early post conquest),

Somerset, 60 (late 10th - early 11th century), M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 12 (12th-13th century). T.1.

144. Jar in grey fabric with pink interior and pink and grey exterior surfaces; cf. Kidwelly, P10 (12th-13th century); also nos. 121 and 129 above. T.

145. Jar in grey fabric with oxidised orange patches on surface; Gloucester 1966-7, Fig. 38, 12 (? 11th-12th century) and Dothill, DO6 (? 12th century) have similarities; see also nos. 60-61 above. T.

146. Jug in grey fabric with light olive green glaze both internally and externally. See no. 188 for a similar rim form. T from rubble spreading away from Tower wall.

147. Jar in a fabric varying between buff, red-brown and grey with a grey core, stamped with small crosses imperfectly impressed. Mr. M. Ponsford suggests North Somerset, possibly Bath, as a possible origin for this piece. It may also be noted that what appears to be a closely similar ware with similar stamped decoration occurs at Portchester Castle in contexts suggesting 9th century date (Cunliffe 1974, p. 130, 8). The piece illustrated as no. 147 comes from the same level as nos. 122-127 above.

Also illustrated are the following:-

147a. Stamped sherd from a jar in grey fabric with fawn surfaces. ph.F.

147b. Small sherd in grey fabric with light red-brown exterior and grey-buff interior surfaces. The fabric is smoother and harder than that generally met with at Llantrithyd and more closely resembles that of later (13th-15th century) cooking pots. M.a.4. = ph.40.

147c. Sherd in grey fabric with red-brown exterior and buff interior surfaces; the fabric most closely resembles that of no. 147 above. M.2.

With all four sherds of stamped ware from the site, the context at Llantrithyd provides as good dating evidence for the ware as seems available at present.

THE DEFENCES

148. Jar in grey fabric darkened in places externally; see nos. 60-61 above. A.2.

149. Jar in a fabric containing white calcitic grits; it has been burnt grey to black, but with a red exterior surface below the neck. It is similar to no. 58 above. A.2.

150. Jar in light red fabric, possibly burnt; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 31 (11th-13th century). A.

151. Jar in dark grey fabric with buff to grey surfaces; there are some similarities to Glastonbury, 2 (late Saxon - early post conquest). P.3.

152. Jar in grey fabric with pinkish exterior surface; some similarities to nos. 151 and 123 above. P.3.

153. Jar in light red fabric containing calcitic filler; cf. Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century). P.2.

154. Jar in fawn-buff fabric with calcitic grit filler, which has largely leached out. P.2.

155. Jar in buff/light brown fabric; see no. 152 above. P.2.

UNGLAZED POTTERY FROM UPPER LEVELS

The great majority of the pottery from upper levels bears a close resemblance to that from the post pits, etc. A number are illustrated here, partly to illustrate this point, partly to show vessels which are more complete than those illustrated above, and partly to show types not illustrated or poorly represented above.

156. Jar in grey fabric with orange-brown surface. +.

157. Jar in a fabric, which is light brown internally and has been burnt black externally; it has a grey core. cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 9 (11th-13th century), Somerset, 72 (late Saxon - early post conquest). D.2.

158. Jar in grey fabric with cream interior and grey and orange exterior surfaces; Beckery, 10-11 (late Saxon - early post conquest) are similar. C.2.

159. Jar in grey fabric with fawn interior and light red exterior surfaces; similar to no. 136 above. F.1.

160. Jar in grey fabric with light brown surface and calcitic grit filler, largely leached out. D.Ext.

161. Jar in dark grey fabric with calcitic grit filler, some of which has leached out; the complete vessel may have resembled Glastonbury, 17 (late Saxon - early Medieval). G.2.

162. Jar in grey fabric, burnt orange in places; large calcitic grits have

been used as a filler and have leached out in places. It is similar to nos. 15 and 83 above. C.2.

163. Jar in light grey fabric with light red surface, sooted on the exterior rim; M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 25, 31 (11th-13th century) has similarities. H.1.

164. Jar in dark grey fabric with light red surfaces. This is a reconstruction based on four non-joining fragments. See Kidwelly, P3 (12th-13th century). B.

165. Jar in grey to orange fabric with mixed 'quartz' and calcitic grits; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 29 (11th-13th century). +.

166. Jar in dark grey fabric; the exterior has been decorated probably with a stiff brush; the rim is decorated with finger nail impressions. Mr. M. Ponsford informs us that there are vessels with similar brushed decoration from Bristol in levels dated after 1250. The technique would, however, appear to have been in use in the area rather earlier than this, as both the wavy-line decoration and nail impressions may be found on late Saxon - early Medieval vessels at Beckery Chapel (Beckery, 32 and 8). This earlier dating seems better to fit the Llantrithyd evidence. M.m.4. = probably ph.40, layer 4.

167. Jar in grey fabric with orange and grey surface; beaded rims are a frequent occurrence at Penmaen (? 1st half of 12th century); see also M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 5, 2 (11th-13th century). +.

168. Jar in grey fabric with buff-grey surface; cf. Penmaen, 7 (? 1st half of 12th century); Beckery, 9 (late Saxon - early Medieval) also shows similarities. See also nos. 76, 108 and 143 above. +.

169. Jar in light grey fabric, burnt orange in parts; cf. Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century). C.2.

170. Jar in a fabric which varies between light red and fawn with a grey core; Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century); White Castle, 21 (12th-13th century) also has similarities. C.2.

171. Jar in grey fabric with light buff interior surface and orange and grey exterior surface; see nos. 16, 60-61 and 145 above. B.2.

172. Jar in grey to light grey fabric blackened by soot on the rim; a variation on no. 111 above. B.2.

173. Jar in grey fabric with dark grey surface; Kidwelly, P2 (12th-13th century) appears to be a somewhat thicker version of this type. G.1. and 2.

174. Jar in orange-brown and light grey fabric with dark grey core; cf. Beckery, 24 (late Saxon - early post conquest). +.

175. Jar in light grey fabric with grey, orange and dark brown surface; the drawing is a reconstruction from two non-joining fragments. The vessel is somewhat similar to Kidwelly, P1 (12th-13th century). B.2.

176. Jar in grey fabric. F.Ext.

177. Jar in grey fabric. G.2.

178. Jar in a fabric varying between light grey and light brick red with a grey core. C.2.

179. Jar in light grey fabric with exterior surface varying between orange and grey; a variation on no. 178 above; both vessels have similarities with Penmaen, 14 (? 1st half of 12th century). B.1.

180. Jar in a fabric varying between light grey and cream with a grey core. C.2.

181. Jar in grey fabric with calcitic grit filler; cf. Gloucester 1966-7, Fig. 35, 8 (12th-13th century). E.

182. Jar in grey fabric; cf. M5: 2nd Report, Fig. 6, 5 (11th-13th century). +.

183. Jar in light red fabric with a greyish core; it has been sooted in places. The fabric resembles that found among cooking pots of the 13th-15th century in this area; see Llantwit, 12 and 14 (12th-14th century). B.

184. Jar in light brown to grey with grey core; cf. Penmaen, 11 (? 1st half of 12th century). C.1.

185. One of two fragments of jar wall in light red ware; Mr. M. Ponsford informs us that similar fragments are found at Bristol in levels dated after 1250. G.1.

GLAZED VESSELS FROM UPPER LEVELS

As would be expected, most of the glazed fragments are from upper levels and are illustrated below. Two other fragments occurred in more securely stratified contexts and are illustrated above (see nos. 113 and 146).

186. Jar basal section in light grey fabric with off-white interior surface and mid grey exterior surface; the exterior retains traces of a thin

glaze. The basal angle has been decorated with rouletting. G.1.

187. Jug in off-white fabric, glazed light green externally below the third 'ring'. Mr. M. Ponsford has examined this piece and suggests that it is an early Ham Green product (Bristol: Ham Green q.v.). D.

188. Jug in light grey fabric with decayed green glaze externally; one of two non-joining pieces probably from the same vessel. Pellets of clay have been affixed below the rim before glazing. L.2.

189. Jug fragment in off-white to pink fabric with applied strip decoration and light olive green glaze externally. The fabric is probably derived from Ham Green Bristol (q.v.). E.Ext.

190. Wall sherd in off-white fabric with green glaze externally, probably a Ham Green product; cf. Bristol: Ham Green, Fig. 1, 1 (13th century). E.Ext.

191. Wall sherd in pink to light brown fabric with grey core and green glaze externally. For another use of chevrons and applied strips in conjunction, see Gloucester 1966-7, Fig. 37, 22 (12th-13th century). G.5.

192. Wall sherd in light red fabric with grey core and green glaze. See no. 191 above. B.2.

193. Handle fragment in white granular fabric with light green glaze on the upper surface. E.Ext.2.

194. Handle fragment in off-white fabric with thin olive green glaze. There is a piece with not dissimilar decoration from 13th-14th century contexts in Quay Street, Cardiff (excavation by PVW, publication forthcoming). Q.2.

The excavation also produced 37 other fragments of Medieval green glazed pottery from upper levels. Of these, 28 were certainly Ham Green products and were distributed as follows: Area D, 2 sherds; E, 4 sherds; F, 5; H, 2; K, 11 (but mostly very small); M, 1; Q, 1; Building 1 area, 2. There were also 9 other fragments, probably not from Ham Green (Area F, 1 sherd; G, 2 sherds; Building 1 area, 6 sherds).

POST MEDIEVAL POTTERY

Two sherds of gravel-tempered ware of 17th-18th century date were observed (from G and M.1). Both are from uppermost levels and presumably represent material spread with manure.

CONCLUSION:
THE DATING AND AFFINITIES OF THE LLANTRITHYD POTTERY

Any attempt at dating the Llantrithyd pottery and, through it, the site must rely heavily on the coins found on the site, which are strongly suggestive of occupation within the first quarter of the 12th century. However, these cannot necessarily be taken to imply that the occupation occurred only at that period, particularly as most of the coins appear to represent a hoard and would have reached their final place of deposition at a single date. If we are to extend the period of occupation implied by the coins, then we need to examine the affinities of the pottery found on the site.

The sites quoted as parallels above mostly fall within a fairly limited area, that of the hinterland of the lower Severn/Bristol Channel. They have not been used in an attempt to show that pottery from any of these sites was necessarily from the same source as that at Llantrithyd. Indeed, the limited number of forms and the restricted fabrics, when considered against the quantity of pottery involved, have already led us to suggest that the source of our pottery may well be fairly local. The parallels do, however, show that, whatever the immediate source, the Llantrithyd pottery falls within a common tradition visible throughout the lower Severn/Bristol Channel hinterland in the late Saxon to early Medieval period. We may, therefore, use the dating of the other sites quoted in an attempt to date the tradition and, through it, our site.

Unfortunately, the sites used do not always have closely datable groups and we have, on occasions, found ourselves in a circular argument where excavators have assumed that the date range of the Llantrithyd coins was exactly the same as the date range of the Llantrithyd pottery and have used this to date their own pottery (see, for instance, Penmaen, p. 202 and Gloucester 1966-7, p. 99, Phase III). In an attempt to break away from this, we will have to combine historical deductions with the pottery evidence as we have it.

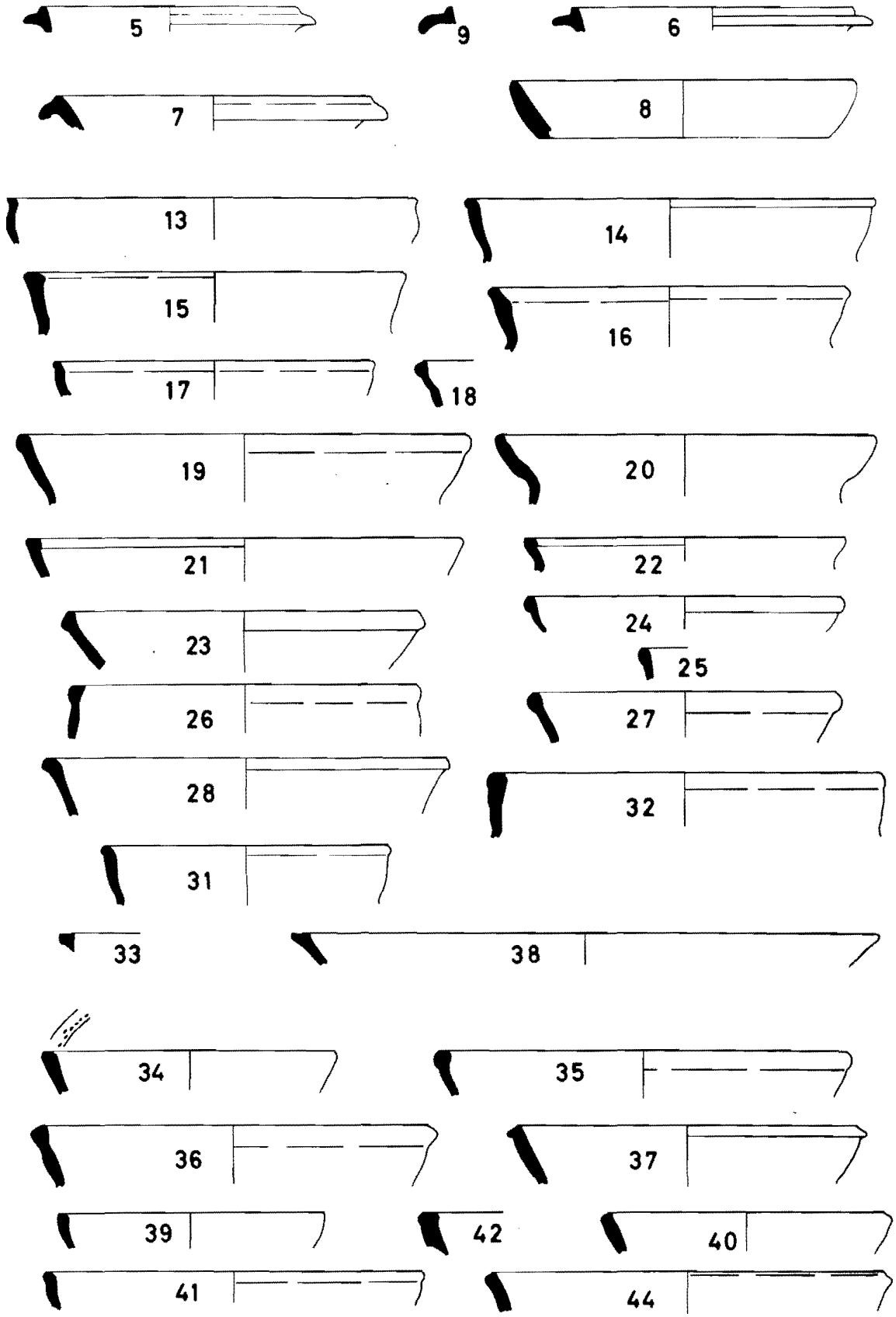
The initial date of the ringwork (as is argued elsewhere) seems most likely to lie within a decade or so of the Norman conquest of Glamorgan and we may suggest c. 1100 as a suitable approximation. Our one fixed date comes within the second phase of occupation and is provided by the deposition of the hoard within Building 3 around the close of the first quarter of the 12th century. The pottery from the site is generally so consistent, and there is so much of it, that we need assume no major break between any of the phases.

It is the dating of the third and final phase which provokes the most problems. The latest building on the site (Building 2) contains a fragment of green glazed pottery in one of its post pits (a fragment which joins with one which probably percolated into the north wall of Building 3 from a midden lying above). However, the quantity of glazed pottery of any sort from the

site is very small; there is none of the fine imported wares and most is likely to have come from the Ham Green kilns at Bristol. The quantity is so small that it can be said with some certainty that the site did not survive long after glazed vessels first appeared in the area, but this is a date which is notoriously difficult to estimate.

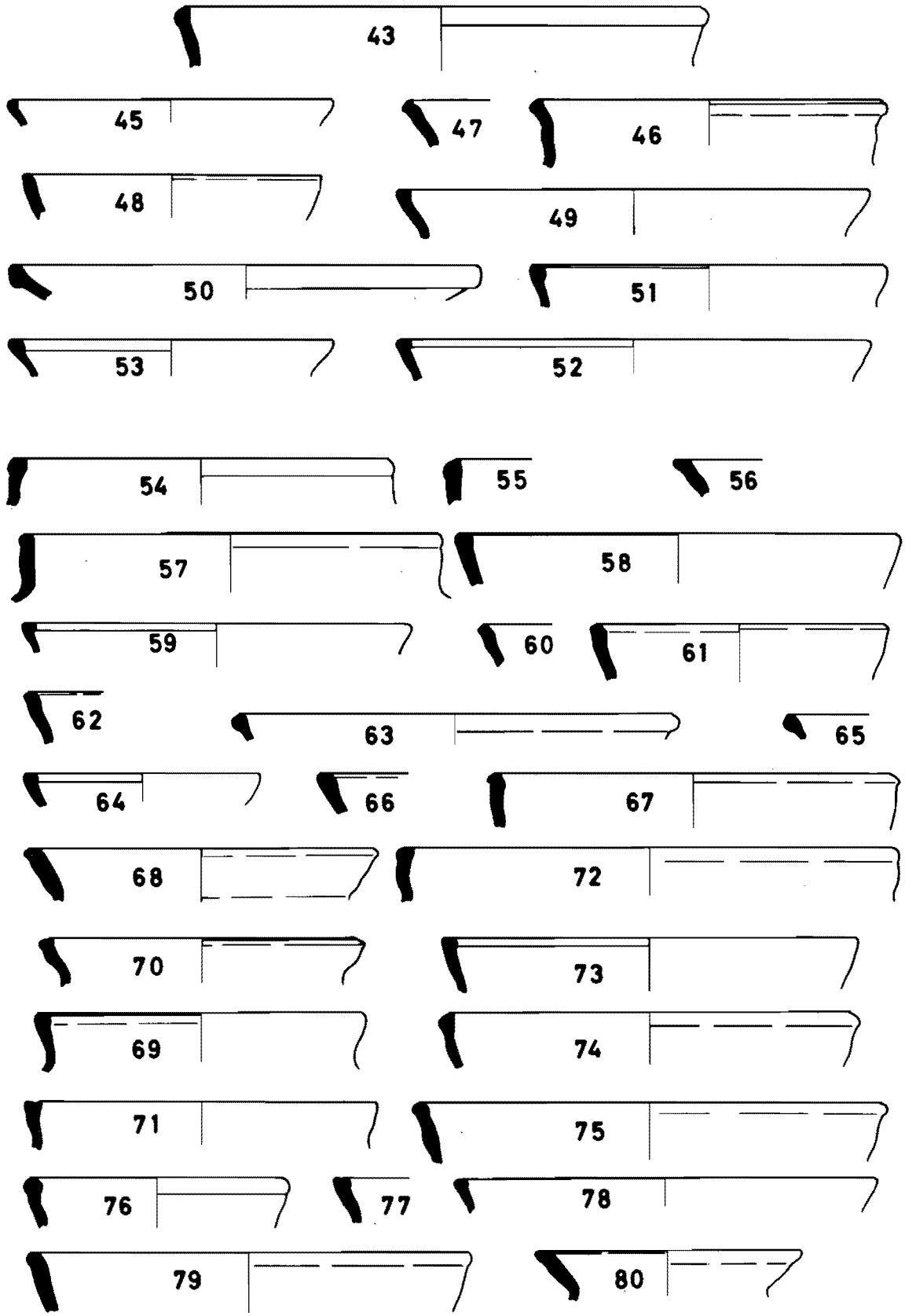
Much at Llantrithyd depends on the length of time which the hoard spent in concealment before it fell to the earth and was scattered. This presumably took place as the place of concealment (Building 3) was demolished and shortly before Building 2 was built. We only know that this must have taken place after c. 1125, but it need not have taken place long after that date. Certainly, the remarkable uniformity in the Llantrithyd pottery would make a short chronology preferable to a long one.

It is possible that Building 3 lingered on in use until the late 12th century and then was replaced by the short-lived Building 2, but a date nearer the middle of the 12th century for these events and for the end of occupation on the site would seem more suitable, given the remarkable lack of stylistic development in the non-glazed pottery.



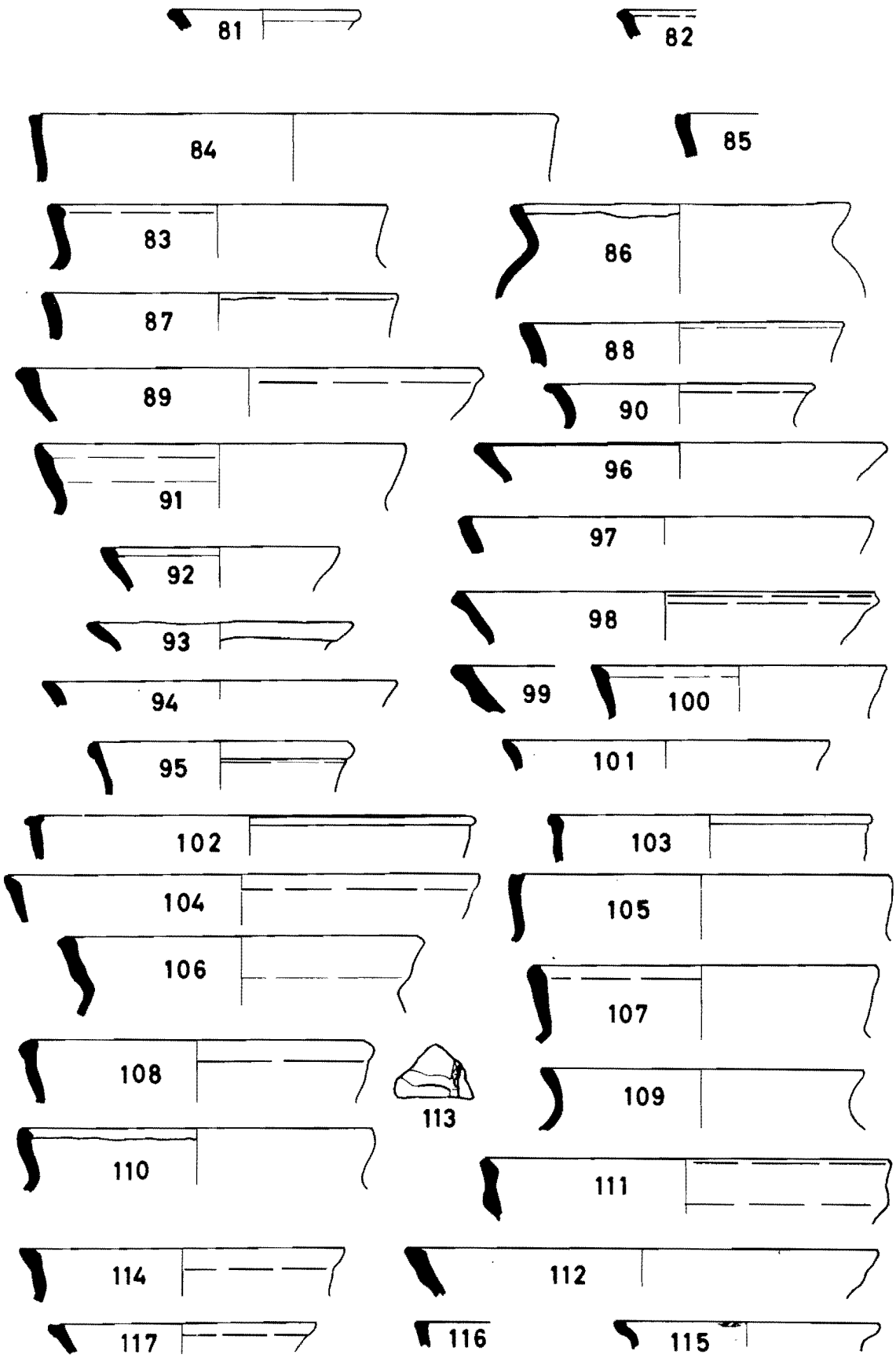
POTTERY 1

scale 1:4



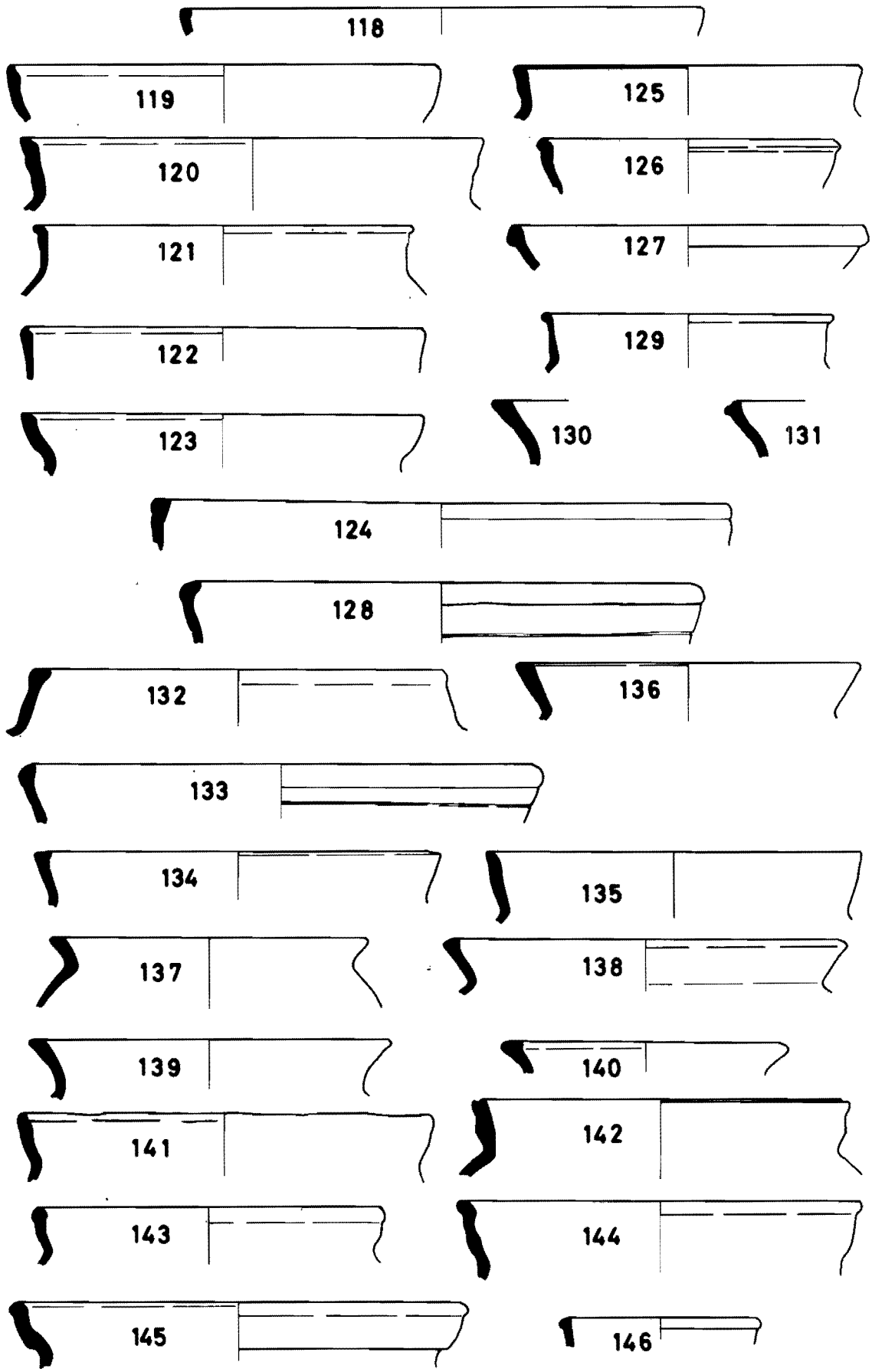
POTTERY 2

scale 1:4



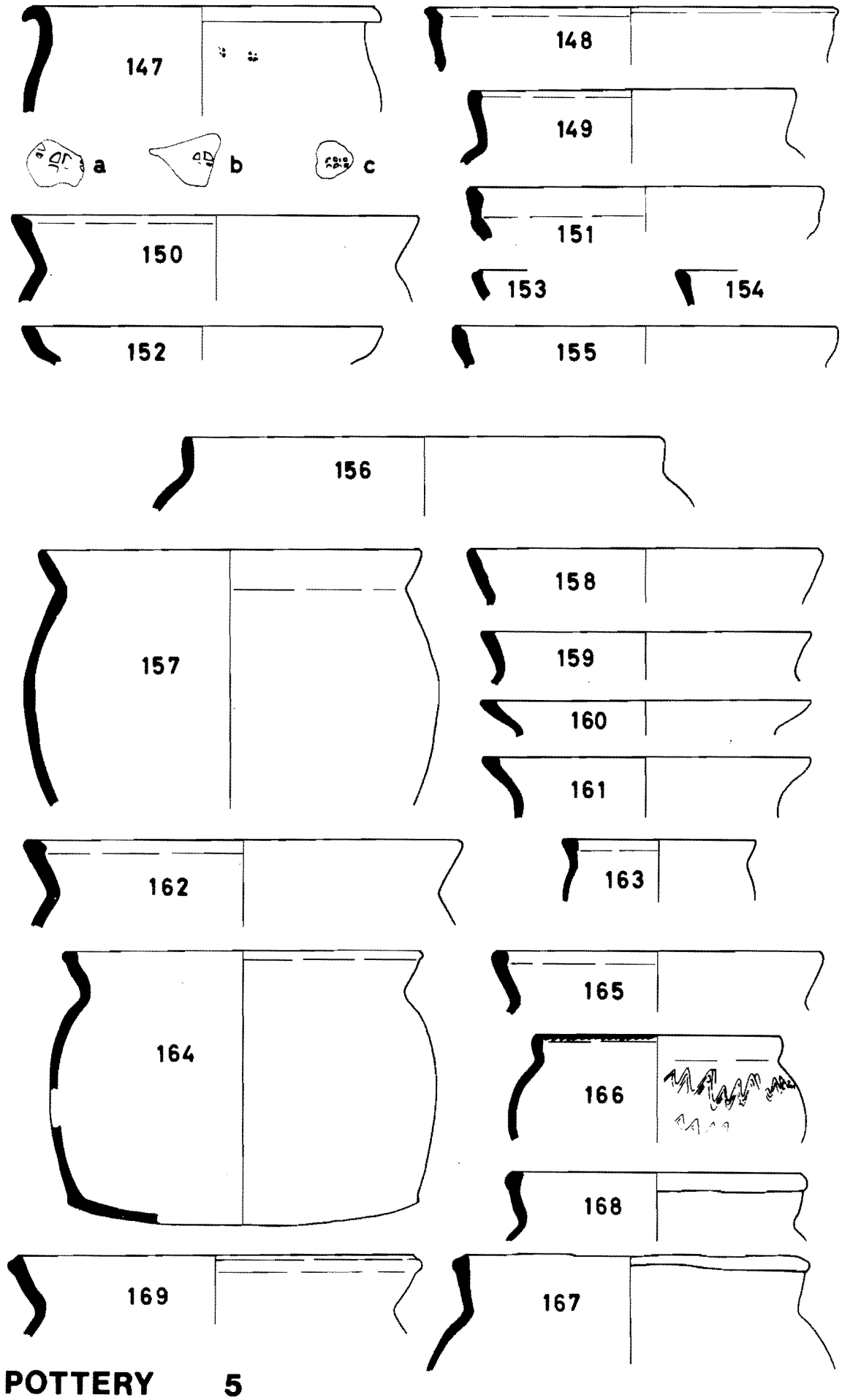
POTTERY 3

scale 1 : 4



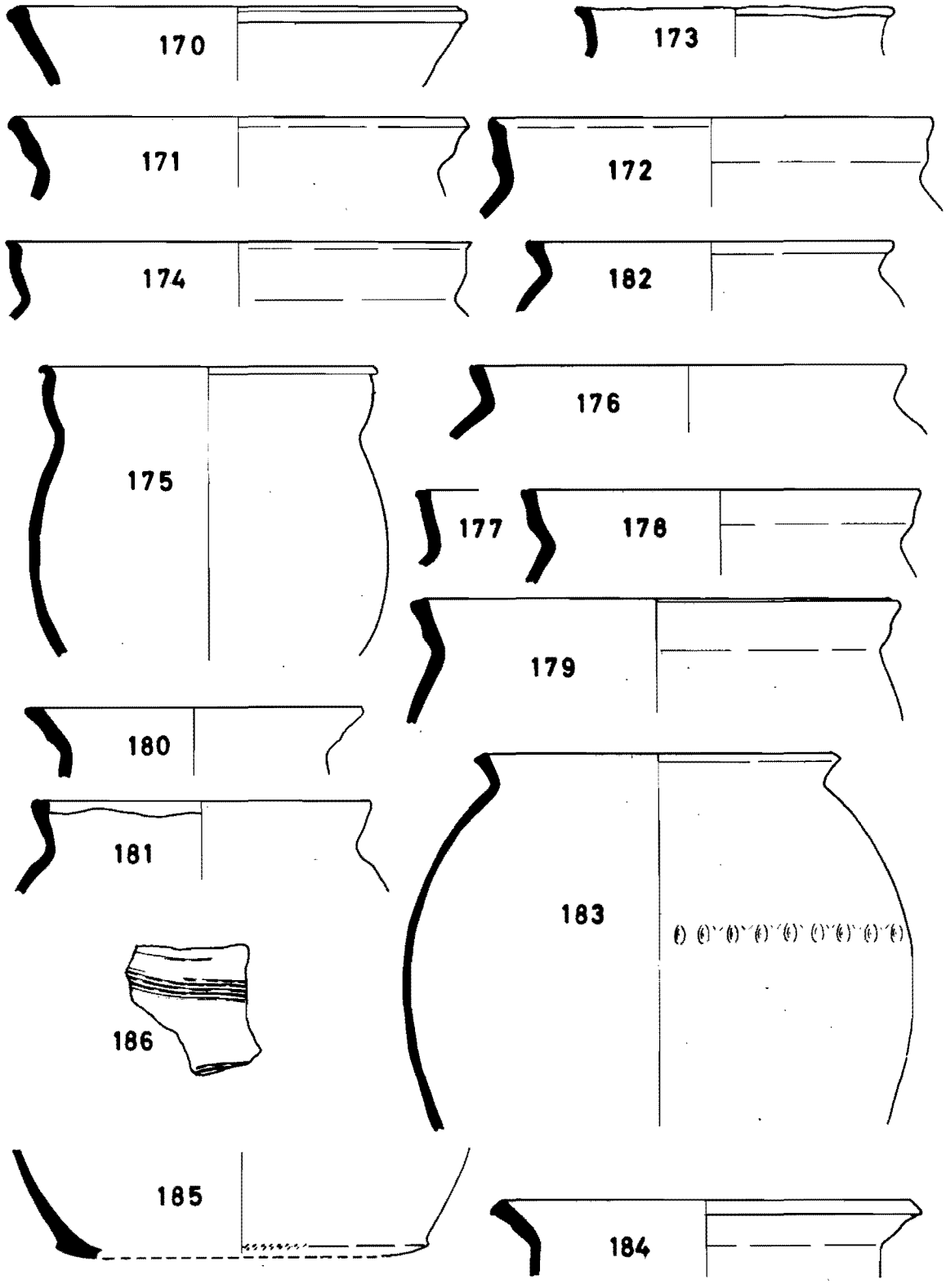
POTTERY 4

scale 1:4



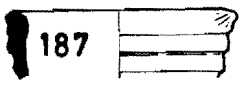
POTTERY 5

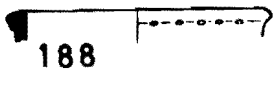
scale 1:4



POTTERY 6

scale 1:4





POTTERY 7

scale 1 : 4

THE METALWORK

Ian H. Goodall

IRON OBJECTS

Objects marked * have been X-rayed.

Keys, Wards, Hasps

1*. Padlock key, bit and terminal incomplete, stem distorted. M.2.

2. Padlock key, complete. M.ph.a.3. = ph.40.

3*. Padlock key, stem broken. T in rubble of Tower (exterior).

4*. Padlock key with circular bit and expanded, flattened and perforated stem which has simple punched decoration which retains some non-ferrous plating. This type of key, one of the least common Medieval types, is paralleled by examples from Totnes Castle, Devon, and Seacourt, Oxfordshire (Berks.) (1). G.Ext.

5*. Padlock key, bit and terminal incomplete. Q.2.

6*. Key with ring bow, solid stem and broken bit. E.Ext.

7*. Key with lozenge bow, solid stem with decorative grooves, broken bit. Traces of non-ferrous plating. G.1.

8*. Key with incomplete lozenge bow, non-ferrous plating retained in grooves around the stem. T interior of walling rubble.

9. Ward from lock, without traces of any collar. Mounted in a wooden case, the key bit had to be shaped to pass this ward before throwing the bolt to operate the lock. H (interior of Hall).

10, 11. (No. 11 not illustrated). Figure-eight hasps, arched in side view, made from iron with a spiral twist. No. 10 complete, no. 11 broken. Both M.ph.b.2. = ph. 42.

12. Figure-eight hasp, arched in side view, made from plain iron. Compare with one from Clough Castle, Co. Down (2). Q.ph.56.1.

Knives

13*-18*. Knives, all with whittle tangs for insertion into handles. The blade forms display considerable variety. E.Ext., F.Ext., O.1., R.ph.A., B., E.Ext.

19*. (Not illustrated). Knife with whittle tang, circular-sectioned bolster and incomplete blade. Post-Medieval. R.2.

20*. (Not illustrated). Clasp knife with bone scales. Post-Medieval. T on collapsed rubble of Tower (exterior).

21. (Not illustrated). Penknife. Modern. Q.1.

Tools and Fittings

22. Steel, blade incomplete. G.

23, 24. Two small wedges, suitable for use as wedges to hold a handle in a socket, e.g. of an axe or hammer. Both H (interior of Hall).

25. U-shaped staple. P.2.

26. Swivel ring with fragment of base of hook. B.

27. Incomplete swivel ring. E (interior of Hall).

28. Needle, point lost. Q.ph.54.2.

29-31. (Nos. 30 and 31 not illustrated). Incomplete needles or pins. M.2., G.Ext., B.

32-34. (No. 33 not illustrated). Possible wool comb teeth, nos. 32 and 33 identical, similar to early Medieval examples from Arhus, Denmark, and a later example from Pottergate, Norwich (3). M.2., B., G.ph.7.

35. Hook and one figure-eight link from chain. G.1.

36. (Not illustrated). Three figure-eight links, identical in size to no. 35. G.ph.

37. (Not illustrated). Chain of four figure-eight links, each 39 mm long. G.2.

38. Rectangular perforated plate. Perhaps post-Medieval. G.1. (interior of Hall).

Buckles

39*. Incomplete strap-end buckle, some non-ferrous plating. +.

40*. D-shaped buckle complete with pin. F in collapsed rubble of wall (interior of Hall).

41*. Pointed D-shaped buckle with pin. O.ph.51.

42*, 43*. (No. 43 not illustrated). Two identical rectangular framed buckles, the pins resting against cylinders. Both M.1.

44*. Harness buckle, distorted. H.

45, 46. Buckle pins. Both F.Ext.

Arrowheads

47*-54*. Socketed arrowheads with straight-based triangular blades. D., B., F (interior of Hall), G.Ext., F.Ext., Q.1., D., A.1.

55*-57*. Socketed arrowheads with lozenge-shaped blades. B.1., Q.1., A.2.

58. Blade fragment. F in collapsed rubble of wall (interior of Hall).

59*. Socketed arrowhead with long, thin blade. E under rubble of wall (interior of Hall).

60. (Not illustrated). Fragmentary socket. F.Ext.

61*. Hollow arrowhead, tip distorted by impact. H (interior of Hall).

Horse Furniture

62. Incomplete mouthpiece link from bridle bit. R.ph.

63*-65*. (No. 64 not illustrated). Horseshoe fragments with wavy edges, countersunk nailholes, no. 64 with fiddle-key nails. Q.ph.54. 1., M surface, G.1.

66, 67. Horseshoe tips with calkins broken across countersunk nailholes. Both F.1.

68. (Not illustrated). Horseshoe with nailholes in fullered groove. Post-Medieval. J.1.

69. Oxshoe, clip incomplete. B and C.

70-72. All horseshoe nails are of the fiddle-key type, with no expansion in side view. The head is commonly roughly semi-circular (no. 70), sometimes worn down to a T-shape (no. 71). The triangular shape of no. 72 is most uncommon. Illustrated examples from G.

Fifty-one examples were found: G., 18; F (interior of Hall), 13; E.ph.13W., 5; R.ph., 3; G.Ext.1., 2; D (interior of Hall), 1; ph.19W., 1; +, 8.

Timber Nails

Five types of timber nail were found.

73. Rectangular head. Illustrated example from D (interior of Hall).

Eleven examples were found: ph.27W., 2; P.2., 1; D (interior of Hall), 1; R.ph., 6; ph.19W., 1.

74. Long rectangular head. Illustrated example from R.ph.

Four examples were found: R.ph., 3; G.Ext.1., 1.

75. Figure-eight-shaped head. One example from F (interior of Hall).

76. (Not illustrated). Head expands to flat top no wider than shank. One example from R.ph.

77. Head expands to flat top wider than shank. One example from D (interior of Hall).

COPPER ALLOY OBJECTS

78. Barrel padlock case with T-shaped keyhole and rectangular bolt-entry hole. The L-shaped bolt, which had a loop to engage the projecting arm of the case, has been lost. Compare with one from Goltho, Lincs., and with others quoted, particularly that from Rayleigh Castle, Essex (4). F.

79. Gilt, riveted copper alloy strip, upstanding loop broken. L.2. collapsed rubble of wall (exterior of Hall).

80. Rectangular openwork mount in the form of a six-petalled flower, with four iron corner rivets. E.Ext.

81. Decorated sheet metal mount with cusped external shaping, retaining one pierced trefoil terminal and an incomplete central

boss. L.3.

82. Mount, suspension loop worn through, oval panel with openwork bird, shaped base. F.

83. Lozenge-shaped harness pendant. ph.14.

84. Gilt pendant. C.

85-87. Pins with solid, globular heads, no. 8 enlivened with incised grooves. M.ph.a.3. = ph.40, Q.ph., T.

88, 89. Belt slides. F under collapsed rubble of wall (interior of Hall), E.Ext.

90. Decorated and perforated sheet, probably part of a buckle plate. G.Ext.

91. Ring. H.2.

92, 93. Studs with broken shanks. F.Ext., G (interior of Hall).

94. Domed copper alloy sheet with lead backing, from end of handle. Compare with larger examples, no doubt from daggers, from York and South Witham, Lincs. (5). ph.13W.

95. Button with rear attachment loop, radiating ridges on face. Intrusive. G.1.

LEAD ALLOY OBJECTS

96, 97. (Not illustrated). Pieces of lead sheet. H.2., O.ph.53.

98. (Not illustrated). Bundle of waste lead strips. H.

99. (Not illustrated). Musket ball. Intrusive. G (interior of Hall).

100. Weight with irregular ring of pellets near rim. E.

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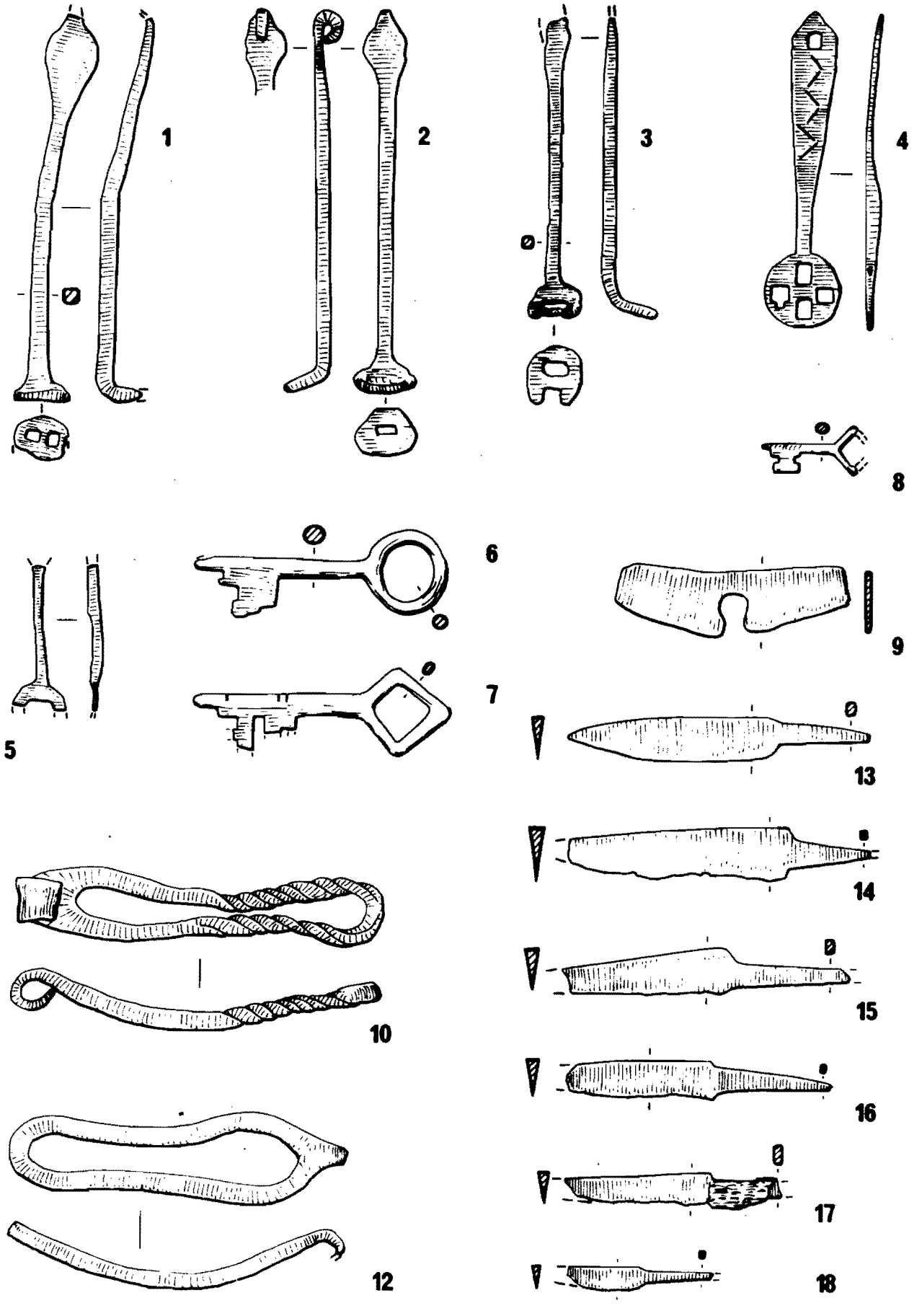
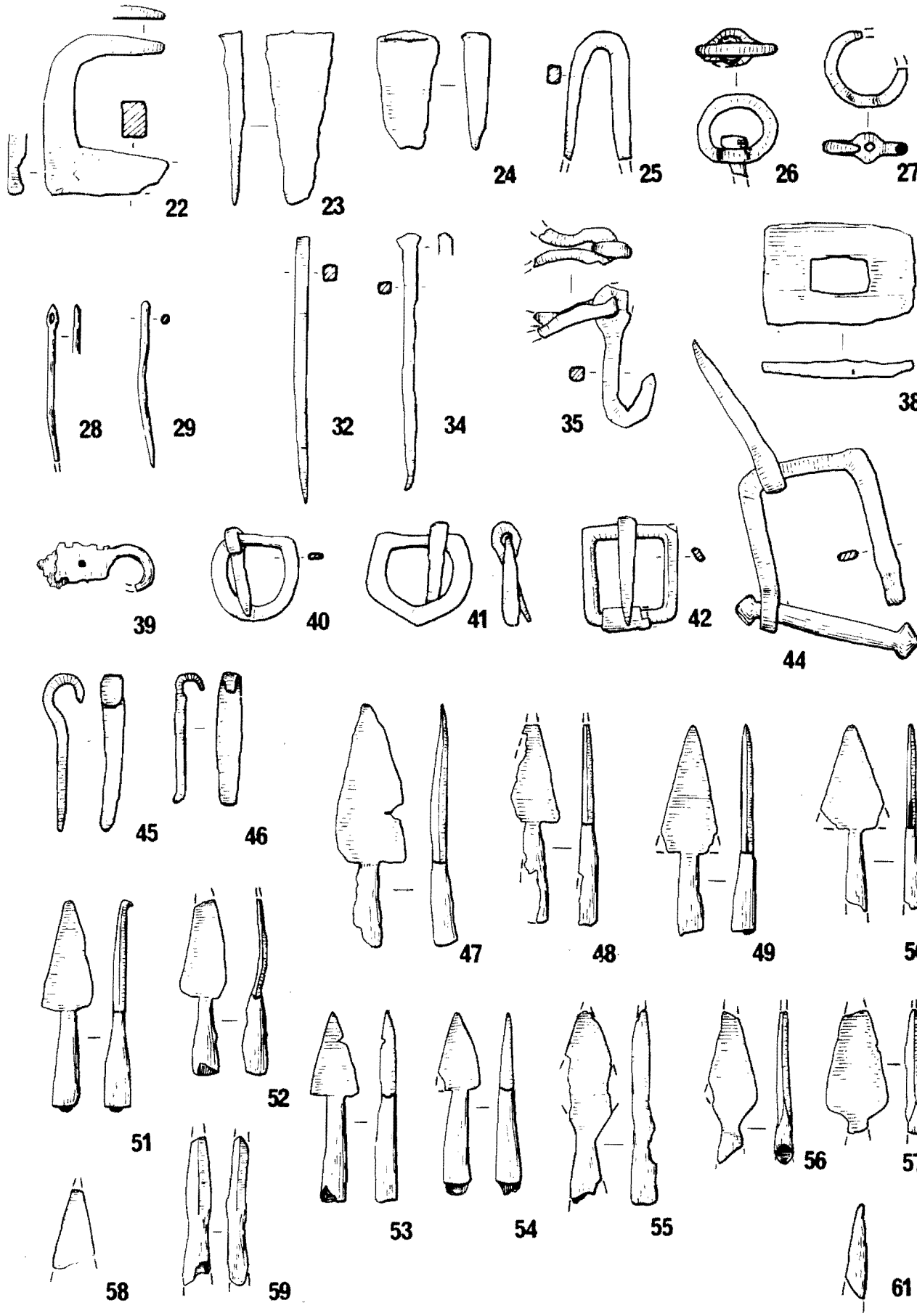


IRON OBJECTS 1

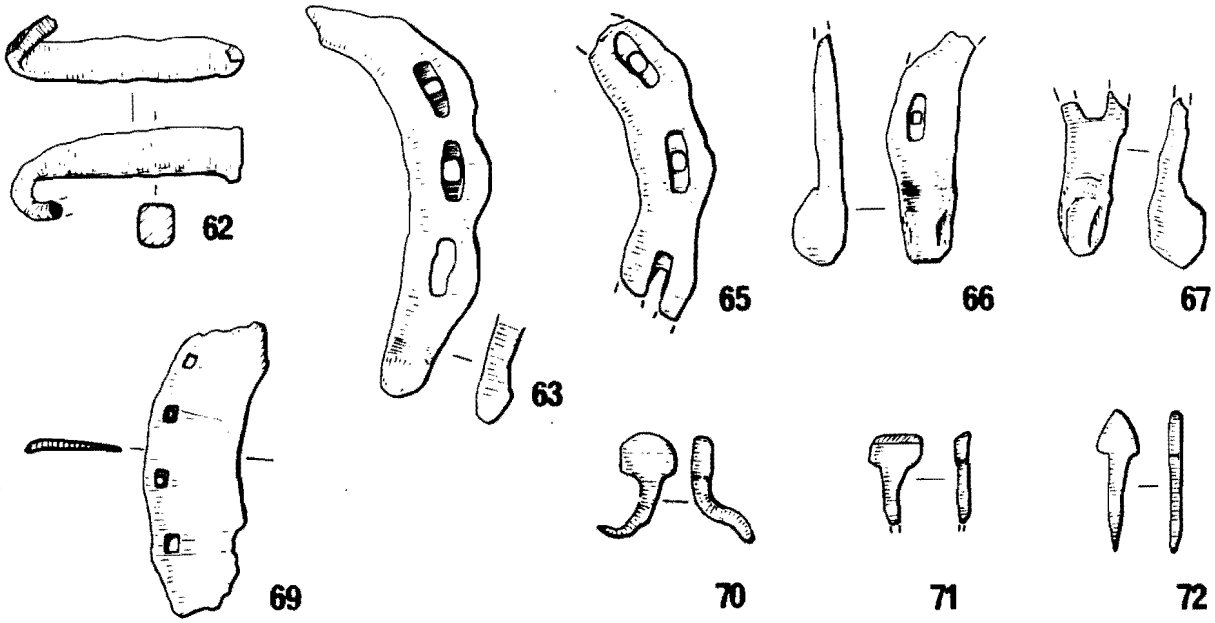
KEYS WARD HASPS KNIVES

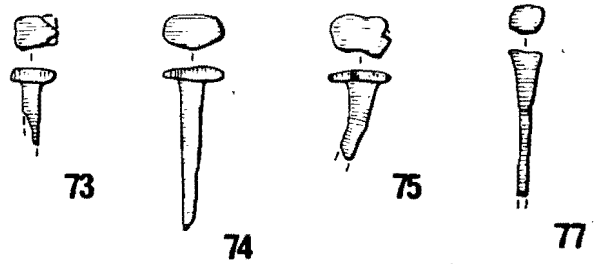
scale 1 : 2



IRON OBJECTS 2

TOOLS AND FITTINGS BUCKLES ARROWHEADS scale 1 : 2





IRON OBJECTS 3

HORSE FURNITURE

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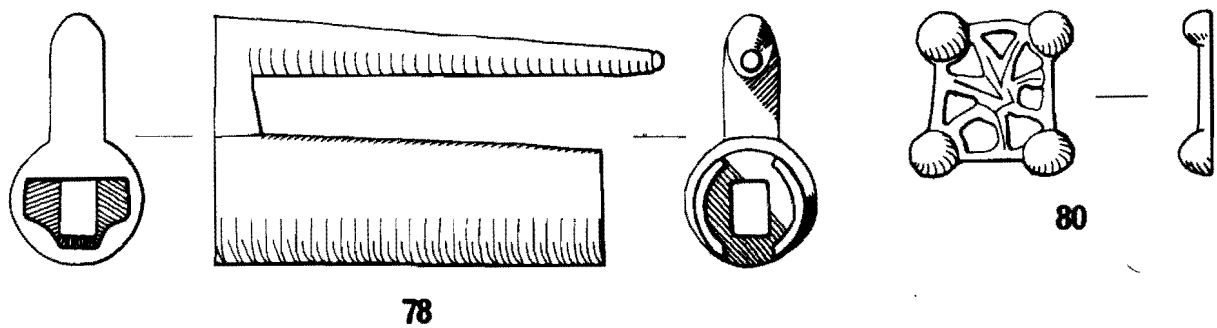
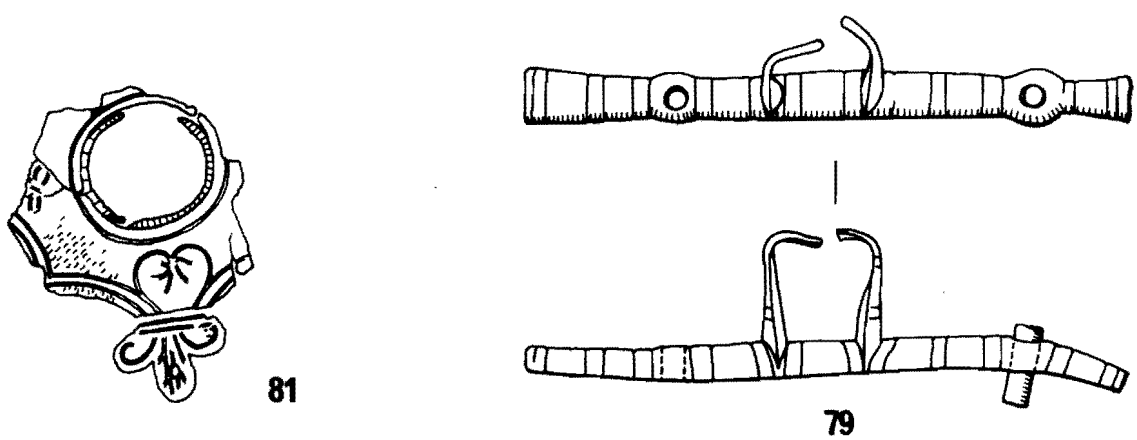
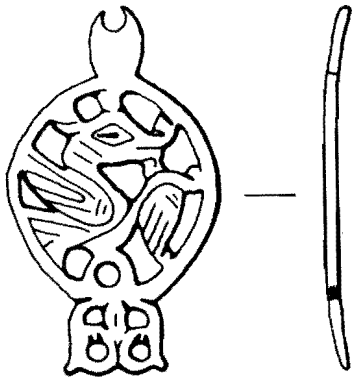




COPPER ALLOY OBJECTS 1

scale 1 : 1



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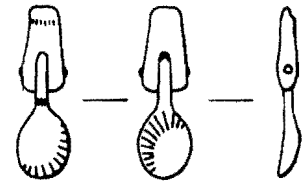

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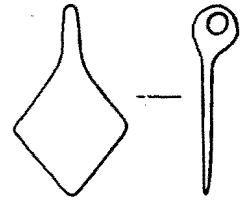

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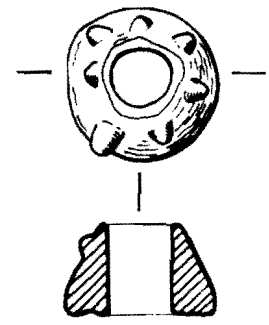

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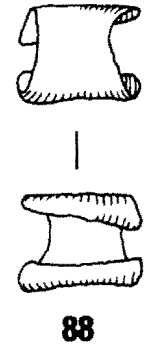

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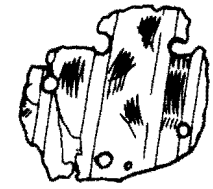

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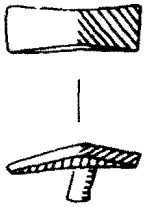

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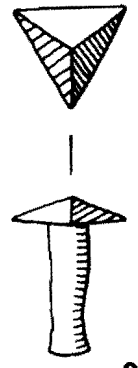

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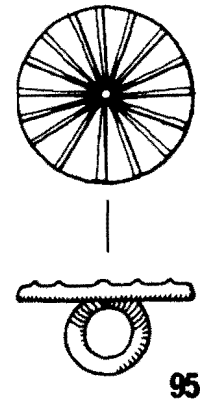

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COPPER ALLOY OBJECTS 2

scale 1:1

THE COINS

Michael Dolley

A total of nine English silver coins from the first quarter of the 12th century merits discussion here if only for the light they throw on the period when the ringwork may be supposed to have been occupied. All have been the subject of separate publication with illustrations (Dolley, 1962; Dolley, 1964), but a brief listing may not be out of place for the benefit of those without ready access to a run of the British Numismatic Journal.

ENGLAND

HENRY I (1100 - 1135)

BMC type V (= Brooke 5 = North 861 = Seaby 718 = Hawkins 267)

1. Cardiff ? (—RDIAFEI), uncertain moneyer.

   Cut halfpenny. Die-axis 270°.

BMC type XI (= Brooke 11 = North 867 = Seaby 724 = Hawkins 258)

2. Bristol (B(ri)STO:), (Herd) inc.

   Wt 1.38 g (21.3 gr). Die-axis 270°.

   For the Irish numismatist it is a piquant thought that this Harding could well be the father of Dermot Mac Murrough's host of 1166.

3. Cardiff (CARDII), Walterus.

   Wt 1.29 g (19.9 gr). Die-axis 330°.

4. London ((Lun)DE:), (——) man.

   Wt 1.31 g (20.2 gr). Die-axis 180°.

5. Shaftesbury (SEFTE), Aldwine.

Wt 1.22 g (18.9 gr) - chipped. Die-axis 0°.

6. Wilton (PILT(u)N), Tur (cil ?).

Wt 1.35 g (20.8 gr). Die-axis 270°.

7. Winchester (PINC), Ailwi (ne).

Wt 1.27 g (19.6 gr). Die-axis 180°.

8. Winchester (PINC), (A) il (win) e.

Wt 1.12 g (17.3 gr). Die-axis 270°.

9. Uncertain mint, E (----) d.

Fragmentary. Die-axis 180°.

Coins 2, 3 and 5 - 9 were found in the summer of 1962 scattered over one small area of the site (supra, p. 9), and at an inquest held at Cowbridge in the October of the same year were deemed to be treasure trove. The verdict is consistent with the supposition that the coins represent the 'scatter' from a larger hoard brought to light by the destruction of one of the buildings within the ring-work and largely recovered at that time. The eaves of buildings were in fact favoured repositories for private wealth throughout the Medieval period. In 1963 coin 4 was found in the same area, and may be presumed to be another 'stray' from the same deposit. Also found in 1963, and on the same part of the site (supra, p. 7), was coin 1. All nine coins are now in the collections of the National Museum of Wales.

Any coin of BMC type V of Henry I is a very considerable rarity, and it is doubtful if as many as a score are in existence today. The cut halfpenny from Llantrithyd, however, enjoys the further distinction of being perhaps the earliest coin of the Cardiff mint to have survived (Dolley, 1964, etc.), while it might also be remarked that before 1962 considerable doubt was beginning to be felt as to whether the modern capital of the Principality had been a mint in the Anglo-Norman period. Coin 3, on the other hand, positively demanded that Cardiff be admitted to the canon of authentic Welsh mints of Henry I, and prompted recognition of the case for re-attributing to the Welsh city certain coins of Stephen previously given to Carlisle (Dolley, 1962, etc.). Subsequently, a third coin of Cardiff of Henry I, this time of BMC type X (= Brooke 10 = North 866 = Seaby 723 = Hawkins —) but again by the moneyer Walterus, was recognised among material from Caerleon-on-Usk in the trays of the National Museum of

Wales (Boon and Dolley, 1971), and it is understood that the 1971 hoard from Lincoln included perhaps two more coins of the mint from even later in the reign. Thus the Llantrithyd excavations can be said to have occasioned perhaps the biggest single advance in our understanding of the Medieval coinages of Wales since the publication of the British Museum's Anglo-Norman Kings catalogue (Brooke, 1916) consolidated a pioneer and still valuable, if overwritten, account of the series in one of the early numbers of the British Numismatic Journal (Carlyon-Britton, 1905). Only less rare than coins of BMC type V of Henry I are those of type XI, and the eight from Llantrithyd still constitute something between a half and a third of those extant today, and have added to the canon of mints known for the issue Bristol, Shaftesbury and Wilton as well as Cardiff.

It is perhaps inevitable, however, that the archaeologist, while noting the extremely pronounced south-western bias in the distribution of the mints represented, will be even more interested in the chronological implications of the numismatic finds in respect of the site as a whole. We may begin by remarking just how exiguous is the occurence of 9th, 10th and 11th century coins for Wales as a whole and for Morgannwg in particular (Dolley and Knight, 1970, with a few additions, e.g. Boon and Dolley, 1971, etc.). Against this background the absence from the Llantrithyd site of coins earlier than the reign of Henry I cannot be said to surprise, and certainly is no argument that there was not Anglo-Norman occupation of the position already in the last years of the 11th century. From the 12th century onwards, on the other hand, use of coin among the Englishry of South Wales may be supposed to have been on the increase, and the meticulous excavation of the site, attested by the recovery of a sliver of silver as minute as the cut halfpenny of Henry I, means that we have to attach some significance to the apparent absence of coins later than the 1120s.

At this point it is possible that the non-numismatist may find useful a brief exposition of some of the principles governing the Medieval coinage of England. The great reform of the monetary system at the very end of the reign of Eadgar seems to have re-established the principle of intermittent coinage and recoinage evolved in Wessex a century and more earlier. Every so often, and at first apparently every six years, all coins in circulation were called in and replaced by new coins of an entirely new design. The prime sanction ensuring the success of this policy of episodic demonetisation would always have been the inacceptability of time-expired coin in transactions involving the Crown, and we do well to remember that in the later Anglo-Saxon and Norman periods the principal function of coinage may have been fiscal even more than commercial. It should also be borne in mind that all coins were heavily over-priced in that a silver penny appears to have contained nothing like a pennyworth of silver. By the 12th century, moreover, when the normal duration of an issue's currency would seem to have been either two or three years, the uttering of obsolete coin in the market-place does appear to have been a criminal offence per se. So elaborate and sophisticated a system was scarcely calculated to survive the disruptions of

Stephen's reign, and after 1158 periodic change of type became a thing of the past. In 1180, 1247 and 1279 there were major recoinages when all coin in circulation was called in, but thereafter, and for the whole of the rest of the Medieval period, silver coin was in practice current for the span of its natural life, though a consistently falling weight-standard did tend to bring about the removal from currency of pieces that were recognisably 'early' and hence heavier than their contemporary counterparts. It is not unknown for the odd late 13th and early 14th century penny to be found in a 16th century context, and most numismatists would hesitate to give any very definite opinion as to the probable date of loss in respect of coins later than the reign of Henry I occurring as single finds. The position is one which differs markedly from that which obtained in England from the last quarter of the 10th century until the middle of the 12th.

Under Henry I, then, the presumption must be that a coin casually lost had found its way into the soil within a year or two of the earliest possible date for its striking. On this telling, the cut halfpenny from Llantrithyd, precisely the sort of coin most likely to slip unobserved from the pocket or waxed armpit of a man-at-arms stationed within the ringwork, must be thought good evidence that occupation of the site had been achieved no later than the end of the first decade of the 12th century. The scattered residue from the 'hoard' presents a slightly different problem. On the latest thinking (Dolley, 1966, p. 26), the purse or bag would have been tucked away at some date between Michaelmas 1122 and Michaelmas 1124, and it is tempting to think that the destruction - or simple collapse - of the building concerned took place within those limits. This remains the greater probability, but one should not exclude altogether the possibility that the hoard languished in the crevices of the wall or thatch for an uncertain number of years after the death of its owner. Again we need not postulate enemy action - death from natural causes was not unknown in the 12th century Welsh March - but in the mind of the numismatist complete certainty that the ringwork was occupied as least as late as the early 1120s will be accompanied by a certain suspicion that something traumatic may have occurred towards the end of the first quarter of the 12th century. The possibility cannot be excluded that the position, if overrun, was re-established, but, as already hinted, sustained occupation by coin users becomes the more unlikely the more it is protracted into the middle years of the century. With that, the whole problem must be left to the archaeologists - and to the historians - but at least the coins do suggest that Llantrithyd was a fortified post of the Anglo-Normans at least for the greater part of the reign of Henry I.

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THE PREHISTORIC FINDS

H.N. Savory

(with drawings by Colin Williams)

GENERAL

During the excavations a number of finds of prehistoric flints and pottery were made, and even what may have been the traces of a disturbed Beaker burial were recovered. These finds, however, were made at various levels in various parts of the site, and seem to refer to several different horizons in the later prehistory of South Wales; they are insufficient to define any specific form of habitation of the site in any particular phase and simply reflect a general activity in the area in later prehistoric times, ranging from the Neolithic to the end of the Bronze Age.

FLINTS

The most interesting of these are two arrowheads of Neolithic types. One, found in the humus (layer 1) in Trench R, is exceptionally large, of ogival leaf form, bifacial but coarsely flaked (Fig. 1). The material is opaque and of speckled grey colour replaced in places by white. The other, found in turf-stripping in the extension to Trench G, is unifacial, with some secondary working on the ventral surface, and has a greyish white patina. The form is slightly concave-based, with the tip and one edge removed by ancient damage (Fig. 2). Both these arrowheads should probably be regarded as Late Neolithic in date (c. 2500-2000 B.C.). Another damaged implement, from layer 2 in Trench R, probably a small convex scraper, is likely, because of its white patina, to be of Neolithic date. Two other small convex scrapers, one from near the footings of Building 1 and another without precise location, are less patinated and may be of Bronze Age date. Another implement from rubble in the interior of Building 3, of translucent, pale honey-coloured flint of sub-rectangular outline, with secondary working on two sides, might at first sight be taken for a convex scraper, but it is in fact in all probability a rough gun-flint of recent date. In the case of a fourth from the rampart in Trench A, the fresh dark grey flint and the sharply rectangular outline leave no doubt that this is a gun-flint.

ARCHER'S WRIST-GUARD

The beautiful condition, as though freshly made, of this finely finished stone 'bracer' suggests that it must have spent nearly all its existence in the filling

of a Beaker grave, as is normally the case with finds of this nature in western Europe. Its appearance on a Medieval settlement site is, of course, surprising, but one must take it with the other finds in this site which are indicative of activity in the neighbourhood of the Hall at Llantrithyd in various prehistoric phases. The fact that some scraps of human bone are recorded as having been found near the wrist-guard suggests that a Copper Age Beaker burial may have been disturbed by later occupants of the site. One might, indeed, compare the previously recorded discoveries of inhumation burials of Copper Age or Early Bronze Age dates in valleyward situations at Tinkinswood, Llanharry and Cowbridge in the Vale of Glamorgan.

The Llantrithyd wrist-guard, however, is surprising in other ways than in the circumstances of its discovery. It is practically rectangular in outline, 12.7 cms long, 2.4 cms wide and 0.6 cm thick, but its careful finish, directed to its special purpose, is reflected in the slight concavity of its narrow ends and its plano-convex section, the upper, convex surface being polished; it has a single perforation, countersunk on both sides, at each end (Fig. 3). It is thus not only the first Beaker wrist-guard to be recorded from Wales, but represents a variety which is more characteristic of Beaker burials in some continental areas than in England and Scotland. It is all the more interesting, therefore, to find that a geological colleague in the National Museum, Mr. Emlyn Evans describes its material as a volcanic ash with slaty cleavage, possibly pre-Cambrian in origin and derived from the Pebidian of Pembrokeshire, or possibly from north Wales or the Lake District. Reference to D.L. Clarke's recent survey (Beaker Pottery of Great Britain and Ireland, Cambridge 1970, esp. Vol. II, 570) will show that our Llantrithyd wrist-guard does not fit very readily into any of the typological compartments defined by Professor Atkinson for the English, Scottish and Irish 'bracers' which Grahame Clark long ago assigned to his 'B' complex of Beakers (Antiquity, 1931, 415-26). Reference to Clark's illustrations (see also J. Evans, Ancient Stone Implements, 1897, 425-8) will show in fact that the great majority of insular bracers have sides which are either concave or convex, ends which are either convex or markedly concave and transverse sections which are usually either bi-convex or curving (concavo-convex). Although Atkinson's type A bracers only have one perforation at each end, like Llantrithyd, their sides are usually convex. It is worth noting, however, that while the A1 variety associated with northern British Beakers usually has a flat or bi-convex section, the A2 variety, found chiefly in Ireland, does have a plano-convex section. On the other hand, Atkinson's rather rare type B1, associated with 'B' Beakers of Rhenish affinity in southern England, though not plano-convex in section, tends to have a nearly rectangular outline (Clarke, Figs. 130, 132, 136, 139). However, in view of the distributional isolation of our Llantrithyd example, it is not unreasonable to consider its continental analogies.

On the Continent simple rectangular wrist-guards with a single perforation at each end and plano-convex transverse section are commonly associated with Bell Beakers and appear to be a primary form which is particularly common in the Iberian peninsula and France and had a long life there. There is no space

here to multiply examples, but one could refer to the example found with an early type of Bell Beaker and copper tanged daggers in a passage grave at Loma de Belmonte, Almeria, and several others from megalithic tombs at Laborcillas, Granda (V. and G. Leisner, Megalithgräber der Iberischen Halbinsel; der Süden, Pls. 27 and 48). Already, however, in the peninsula, there is a tendency for concavity of the sides, curving cross-sections and multiple perforations to appear, especially on the late horizon which corresponds to the beginning of the Early Bronze Age Argar culture, but the full development of these later types is found in regions of Beaker colonization in the Rhineland, the Low Countries, the Upper Danube basin and central Europe generally. The unfortunate 'Reflux' theory has led to a misunderstanding of these particular developments, as of many others, but if we regard laterally curving concave-sided and multi-perforated wrist-guards as particularly characteristic of later Beaker developments beyond the Rhine, we can understand why their British counterparts are chiefly associated with Beakers of Rhenish and Dutch ('Veluwe') affinity, especially in Scotland.

In France, however, we may note in Françoise Treinen's convenient diagram (Gallia Prehistoire, XIII (1970), 322, Fig. 46.3) that a broken wrist-guard, probably of Llantrithyd type, was found in the gallery grave of Jappeloup (Aude), one of several from Languedoc sites, but that the main concentration of such wrist-guards is along the northern coast of Brittany (ib. Fig. 45.2-5, 8-10) and the association here must be with the broad Bell Beaker group, mainly of west Iberian origin, but with influence from the east Iberian group via Languedoc and Poitou, which is so strongly represented in Brittany. Seeing that the Irish wrist-guards mostly have convex sides and probably reflect contacts with northern Britain, our Llantrithyd wrist-guard is likely to be related to an early Bell Beaker element, introduced directly from Brittany into south Wales, of which we otherwise have little evidence, although the fine Beaker fragments from the Tinkinswood cromlech may belong here; although these are insufficient for reconstruction of the form, they appear to represent a broad bowl of fine red ware with notched horizontal and zigzag lines, such as would occur in the Breton Bell Beaker repertoire (Bulletin of the Board of Celtic Studies, XVI (1954-6), Pl. V.1). There is no need, in this context, to look for multiple feet, as Clarke does (Fig. 200), as these would relate to Rhineland connections and wrist-guards of more evolved types. It is indeed unfortunate that the pottery which may originally have accompanied the Llantrithyd wrist-guard should have escaped us.

POTTERY

The suggestion made in respect of the flints at Llantrithyd (p. 57 above) that prehistoric activities there might have been spread over several phases, from the Neolithic to the Bronze Age, is supported by the pottery, some of which appears to be Neolithic, while most of it appears to belong to some phase or other of the Bronze Age. The Neolithic in this case would be represented by the sherd (Fig. 4) found in Trench D outside Building 3, with oyster shell, which, though well fired and well gritted with small quartz

and shell fragments, is hand made and has the plain globular bowl form and everted and rolled rim which one might associate with Western Neolithic ware of the middle phase, c. 3500-2500 B.C., as found at Windmill Hill (Wilts.) (I. Smith, Windmill Hill and Avebury, 43-73, Fig. 17). The special features of internal bevelling of the rim, and possible traces of transverse fluting on the top of the rim (not shown in the illustration), would not be inconsistent with this interpretation and the local parallel of Mount Pleasant Farm, Nottage, could be cited (Trans. Cardiff Naturalists' Soc., LXXXI (1950-2), 75-92, Fig. 4, 1-2, 4).

The later Middle Bronze Age (c. 1200-1000 B.C.) seems to be represented by at least two rim sherds: one, from the surface layer in Trench K, of very hard but hand made well gritted grey ware, with medium quartz fragments, seems to represent a late stage of the Trevisker tradition of Devon and Cornwall with its elaborate, food-vessel-derived profiling (Fig. 5) - bevelled externally and internally with a hollow ledge on the inside; the form appears to be that of Ap Simon's Trevisker Style 4, as in the eponymous site (Proc. Prehist. Soc., XXXVIII (1972), 333, Fig. 15.20, 19.63) and at Ash Hole, Brixham (Devon) (Proc. Devon Arch. Soc., 1968, 21-30, Fig. 2.7-12). Such an intrusion of a peculiarly south-western style in south Wales would not be unique, since the urn found by Fox in the Six Wells Barrow, Llantwit Major, only a few miles from Llantrithyd (Grimes, Prehistory of Wales, 1951, Pl. XIV.2) also represents a late stage of the Trevisker tradition. Another rim sherd appears to relate to a different southern English tradition, that of the Wessex Biconical Urns. This was found in Trench D from the rubble of the south-east corner of Building 3 (Fig. 6) and again is very well fired, with abundant small quartz grits and occasional large limestone fragments and has a well smoothed buff surface; it represents the top of a barrel-shaped jar with flat inward-projecting rim and has general analogies at Shearplace Hill, Sydling St. Nicholas (Dorset) (Proc. Prehist. Soc., XXVIII (1962), 289-328, Figs. 18-19) and in south Wales at Ogof-yr-esgyrn, Glyntawe (Breck.) and The Culver Hole Cave, Llangenydd (Glam.) (Arch. Camb., 1958, 44-7, Fig. 4). Another sherd, from a flat base, found in the surface layer of Trench K, of grey-buff ware with occasional grits, is too small and badly eroded to be easily assigned (Fig. 7), but is probably Middle Bronze Age. Finally, several sherds from Trench M present a problem in that they appear to belong to a dish with thick walls, probably a flat base, slight horizontal ridges on the outer surface and flaring, tapering rim, about 15-17.5 cms in diameter and 3.8 cms high (Fig. 8). This is most unusual for the British Bronze Age, but the ware, though well fired, is hand made, grey in fabric with a warm buff surface layer, and has abundant grits, mainly shell in this case. The ware is different from the others and may tentatively be assigned to the Late Bronze Age.

Fig 1

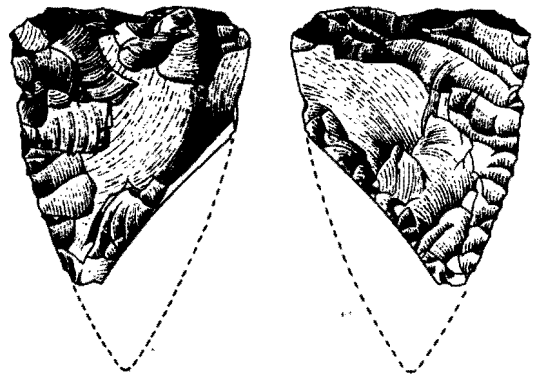


Fig 2

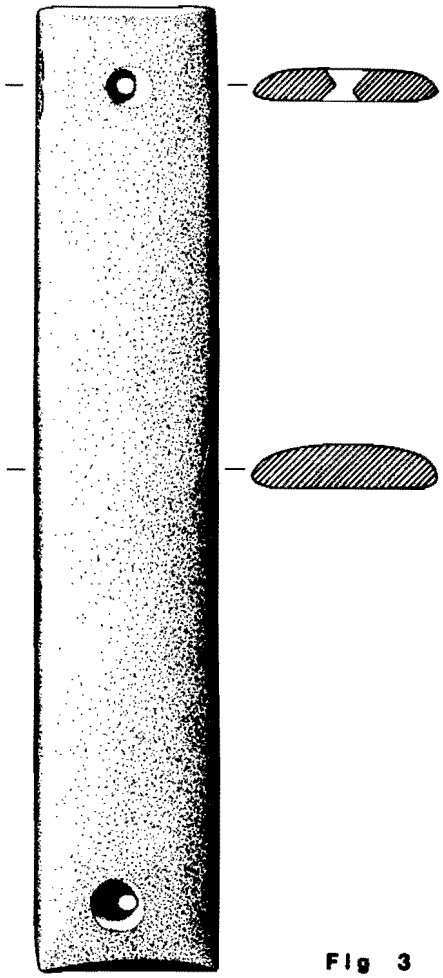


Fig 3

PREHISTORIC FINDS 1

scale 1:1

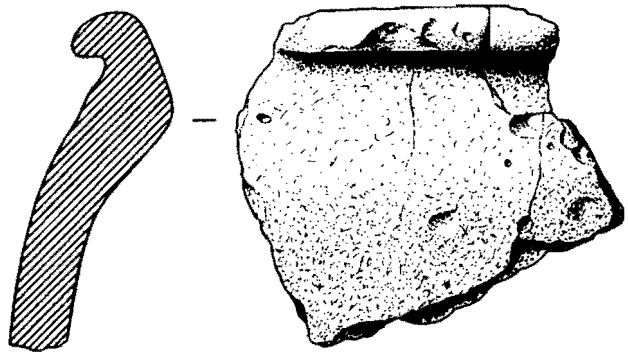


Fig 4

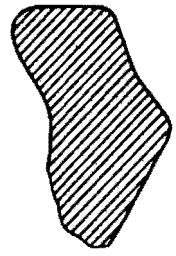


Fig 5

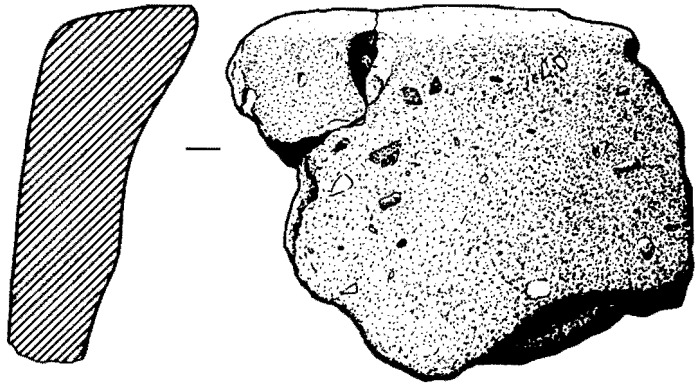


Fig 6

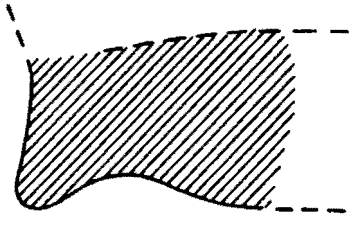


Fig 7

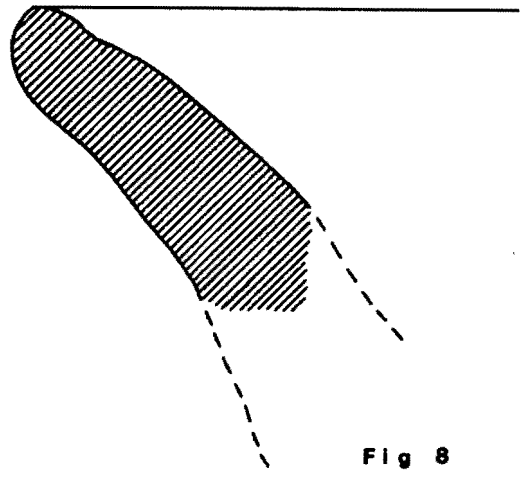


Fig 8

PREHISTORIC FINDS 2

scale 1:1

THE MISCELLANEOUS FINDS

(with drawings by Margaret Ehrenberg)

WORKED STONE

1. Hone with hourglass perforation, tip broken. Sandstone (Micaceous). B.3.

2. Fragment of hone. Shale. cf. London Museum Medieval Catalogue, London 1954, Pl. XCIV. E (interior of Hall).

3. (Not illustrated). Hone - complete, but broken into two pieces. Fine grained sandstone (Old Red Sandstone). Q.2.

4. (Not illustrated). Hone, possibly incomplete. Sandstone (Brownstone, Old Red Sandstone). +.

5. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Brownstone, Old Red Sandstone). F.1.

6. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Brownstone, Old Red Sandstone). G.1.

7. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone with traces of two diagonal grooves. Sandstone (Coal Measures). M.ph.a.4. = ph.40.

8. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Brownstone, Old Red Sandstone). H.

9. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Brownstone, Old Red Sandstone). H.

10. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Old Red Sandstone). H.

11. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Old Red Sandstone). G.

12. (Not illustrated). Fragment of hone. Sandstone (Coal Measures). G.2.

13. (Not illustrated). Rectangular fragment of stone with horizontal

groove. Sandstone (Old Red Sandstone). C.

WORKED BONE

14. Knife handle, lead bound, with incised horizontal line decoration. E.1.

15. Fragments of single edged decorated comb. B.

16. Fragments of comb. R.ph.F.

17. Needle, point broken. M.ph.a.2. = ph.40.

18. Pin, point broken. Possibly a hair pin. E.1.

WORKED JET

19. (Not illustrated). Fragment of jet. +.

20. (Not illustrated). Fragment of jet. G.

21. (Not illustrated). Fragment of jet. +.

GLASS

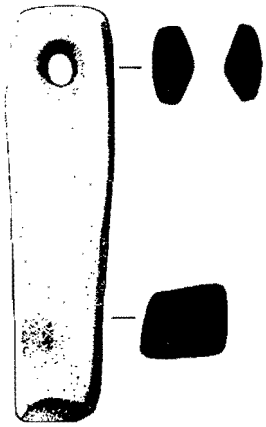
22. Base and broken stem of phial. G above ph.27W.

23. Half a ? bead. +.

COINS (Other)

24. (Not illustrated). Roman coin. ? Trajan/Hadrian. ph.34.

25. (Not illustrated). Half a Roman coin. Constantine - reduced folis. +.



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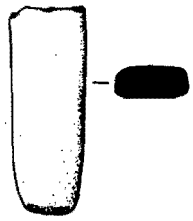

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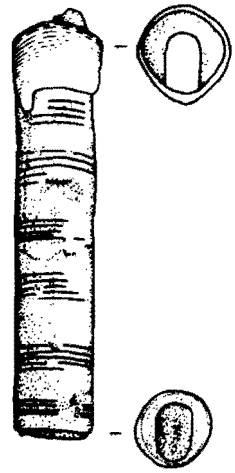

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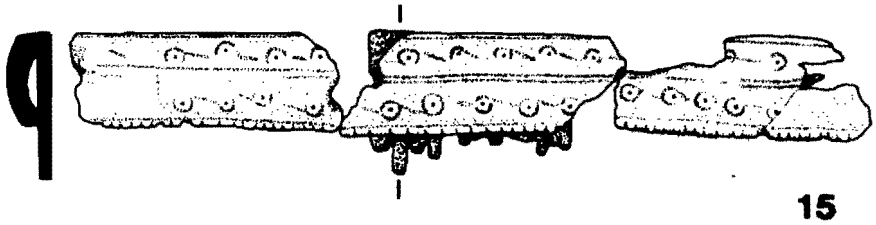

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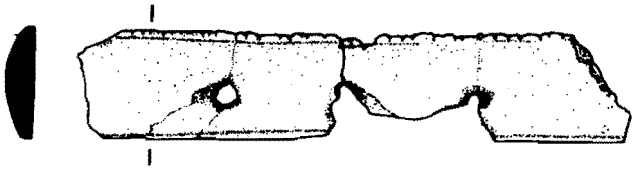

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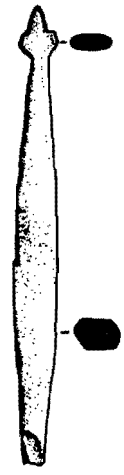

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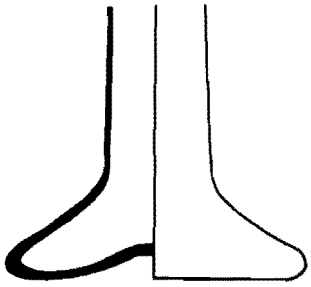

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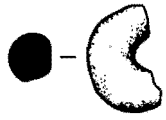

23

MISCELLANEOUS FINDS

scale 1:1

THE ANIMAL BONES

B.A. Noddle (Mammalian Bones)

D. Bramwell (Bird Bones)

A. Jones (Fish Bones)

MAMMALIAN BONES

30.8 Kg of bone was presented for analysis, of which 29% by weight proved to be unidentifiable fragments. However, the overall size of these fragments suggested that the proportions which could be allotted to large, medium and small sized animals differed little from that of the identified proportions. The total number of identified fragments was 1,525.

The proportions of the different species have been assessed by all the accepted methods (Chaplin, 1969; Uerpmann, 1973) - by weight, by numbers of fragments and by minimum numbers of individuals. It is necessary to use all three methods as none of them alone gives a true picture. This is because only a few bones from each individual survive; the highest figure obtained in this analysis was 28, whereas the whole animal contains over 100, excluding the ribs which were discarded with the unidentifiable portion. The remaining bones have either not survived or are in an unexcavated part of the site. Also, the number of identifiable fragments into which any bone might break is neither constant nor quantifiable. The minimum number of individuals is assessed from the most frequently occurring fragment with the addition of other specimens which cannot be included with any of the above owing to different size, for example new born. The proportion by weight gives the proportion of meat from each source consumed, since bone weight is reckoned to be 12% of meat weight (Kubasceiwicz, 1956).

All the data calculated from the different species proportions is presented in Table 1. From this, it can be seen that the largest proportion of bone, whatever means of calculation was employed, was from cattle. Sheep, pig or deer came second according to which method was employed, but sheep have probably been underestimated because the bones are small and are readily removed by scavengers. The absence of small bones, such as sheep carpal bones, despite the number of tiny fragments preserved, suggests that the bones were a secondary deposit cleared from their first deposition, rather than a primary midden.

The three most important meat species, sheep, cattle and pig, have been

subjected to anatomical analysis, which is set out in Table 2. Very few mandibles are included, even the massive and durable pig ones, but heads must have been included in the initial deposit as there are plenty of loose teeth. Likewise, vertebrae are under-represented and it is suggested the bones were subjected to considerable weathering, resulting in the destruction of these mainly cancellous bones. Upper fore and hind limb bones are equally represented amongst sheep and pig, but there is less fore limb than hind limb in cattle. This may be because the tarsal bones (hock), of which there were many, preserve better than the carpal bones of the fore limb. This abundance of tarsal bones may have resulted from the butchering practice, still carried out today, of suspending the carcass by means of the hock and achilles tendon; these bones then remain when the carcass has been jointed and dispersed.

Since the pig has twice as many digits as sheep or cattle, one might expect metapodials and phalanges to form a higher proportion of the bone in this species and this is indeed the case. Both metapodials and phalanges are low in the sheep; it is possible that the metapodials were removed for bone working and perhaps the phalanges with the hide. Loose teeth form a high proportion of the total in all the species. They are lowest amongst cattle and highest amongst pigs; it is possible that the large bovine head was disposed of in a different place after removing the flesh, perhaps for horn working. Only one bovine horn core was found and this was broken.

The most remarkable finding amongst these bones was the number and variety of birds, of which just over a third were from wild species. The proportion of fragments, 21%, is three times as great as the next largest known to the writer, 7% at Bristol, in the Medieval period (Noddle and Bramwell, 1975). On the continent, Clason (1968) found 11% from a small Medieval deposit at Amsterdam. These bones are discussed more fully in Mr. Bramwell's report.

The rest of this report comprises a description of the animals, in so far as this is possible. The information mainly concerns the size of the animals and the age at death.

CATTLE

The minimum number of 14 individuals could be divided into five mature individuals (over 4 years by modern standards), two barely mature (about 3 years old), one immature between 1 and 3 years, and one 1 year old approximately. The other individuals could not be aged. The age of the younger animals was deduced from the state of maturity of the bones, the older from the dentition. Where possible, the bones were measured and the most frequently occurring measurements are set out graphically in Fig. 1. The large number of astragali were used to calculate the live weight by the method of Noddle (1973), and this is also shown in Fig. 1. When this data is compared with that from other sites in southern Britain (Noddle and Bramwell, 1975), it can be seen that these animals are typical of those

found in other west country sites during the Medieval era, in particular Loughor Castle. The histogram of the weights has a double peak; a possible reason is the difference between male and female, and is also seen at Loughor, but this would give a proportion of 14 cows to eight steers. There is also one very large animal, possibly a bull, represented by astragalus, 1st phalanx and immature femur. Sexual dimorphism is greater in primitive, slow growing beasts than in modern (Walker, 1964). No suggestions can be made about breed as there was only one incomplete horn core found. Four complete metatarsals were found (see Appendix).

SHEEP

It is not always possible to distinguish the bones of sheep and goat. However, as no bones definitely attributable to goat were found, it is assumed this species was not present. All of the 10 individual sheep could be aged; there were five mature, one early mature, two immature, one juvenile and one newborn animal. This would suggest that the local sheep, not surprisingly, were kept for wool or dairy production and not for meat. The younger animals might have been kept primarily as meat suppliers, but it is likely that the youngest were casualty animals. Bone measurements segregate the animals into two sizes and are set out in the Appendix. The lower 3rd molar, distal tibia, one specimen of distal humerus and the 1st phalanx are on the small side for Medieval sheep. The other humerus measurements and the length of the astragalus are rather larger. The differences are greater than one would expect for an ewe wether difference (about 4% in most modern breeds) and it is conceivable that two breeds could be represented. The single specimen of frontal bone found carried a horn core (broken off).

PIG

Of the eight individuals, five were mature, two immature and one juvenile. As the only economic use of pigs is to provide meat and hide, this would suggest that the pigs were slow maturing (all modern pigs not retained for breeding are killed in the juvenile stage) or badly fed. One specimen had premolar teeth so cramped that they were out of line and this is a definite sign of malnutrition (Tonge and McCance, 1973). This specimen is illustrated in Plate 1. The measurements segregate into two different groups and some of them are sufficiently large to have come from wild, rather than domestic, animals; there are probably two animals in this category (see Appendix).

DEER

All three species of wild deer were found, although there was only one specimen of fallow deer. There were 71 bones deriving from red deer, originating from at least four individuals - two immature and two mature. Thirty-five bones came from roe deer, originating from at least three individuals, of which two were immature. It is possible that roe deer is

under-represented as small fragments from this species may have been identified as sheep. Only two bones could be attributed to fallow deer. Some of the red deer bones were massive, much larger than the modern animal, and in keeping with the large continental race which still survives. Similar animals were also found at Loughor, suggesting that at this period there was plenty of virgin forest in South Wales. One particularly massive femur fragment could not be measured, but there was a metatarsal 38 mm in proximal width, whereas a mature modern animal from the Hebrides measures only 32 mm. Some specimens of frontal bone are illustrated in Plate 2.

HORSE

Seventy-three fragments were identified from equids, of which five came from a donkey. The horse bones came from a minimum of three individuals - one immature and two mature. None of the bones could be measured, but the impression was gained of large ponies, about 13 hands. One of the specimens was pathological, consisting of two fused tarsal bones showing signs of arthritis. Such a condition is not uncommon in elderly working animals.

DOG

Fifty-three fragments came from dogs. They were considered to originate from five individuals - one small, two medium sized and two large. It is thought that one of these large animals might have been a wolf. Four other bone fragments came from a single specimen of fox. Bone measurements in Appendix.

The remaining bone fragments have been designated 'other' in Table 1. They comprise:-

CAT

Twenty-three fragments from five individuals, of which four were immature. It has been noted from other Medieval sites that cats tend to die young (Noddle, King's Lynn, in press). Evidence from Denmark (Hatting, personal communication) suggests that they were killed for their skins.

RABBIT

Twelve bones from two individuals. The burrowing habits of this species mean that these bones need not be contemporary with the site.

HARE

Three bones came from one individual. This is a small number when the quantity of other game species is considered. Perhaps this reflects local taste or superstition as hare was plentiful in Medieval Bristol (Noddle and Bramwell, 1975).

HEDGEHOG

Three bones from a single individual.

MOLE

Five bones from two individuals. Again, these burrowing animals may not be contemporary with the site.

RAT

One bone.

FROG

One bone.

WHALE

Two fragments of bone. Identified as whale skull by the British Museum of Natural History.

ABNORMALITIES AND PATHOLOGY

The arthritic horse tarsus has already received comment. The pelvic bone of one of the red deer showed signs of a healed infection. Since this specimen was large, it could have been a fighting injury in a stag, or perhaps the result of a previous hunting wound.

Two of the bovine mandibles carried only five teeth instead of the normal six, the 1st cheek tooth (2nd premolar) being missing. In this condition, the 3rd molar frequently lacks the posterior lobe, but this was not observed in this collection. This subject is discussed further by Andrews and Noddle (1975).

TABLE 1.

Animal	Weight %	No. of Fragments	%	Min. No. Individuals	Min. No. Individuals %	Fragments/ Individuals
Cattle	53	384	25	14	13	27
Sheep	5.5	257	17	10	9	26
Pig	18	274	18	8	7	34
Deer	9	108	7	8	7	13
Horse	10	73	5	4	4	13
Dog		53	3.5	5		
Cat		23	1.5	5	4	10
Other	2	25	2	10	4	5
Bird	2.5	328	21	43	42	8
Total	30.8 Kg	1,525		107		

TABLE 2. Anatomical distribution of bones.

Bones	Cattle %	Sheep %	Pig %
Mandible	0.9	5	6
Vertebrae	8	6	8
Upper fore limb	23	36	25
Upper hind limb	43	43	25
Metapodials	11	2	13
Phalanges	12	4	21
Loose teeth	24	41	54

Percentages of loose teeth were calculated from the total of bones plus teeth.

Proportions of bones were calculated from the bones alone.

Appendix

Measurements of Bones

CATTLE

The most frequently occurring bones and an estimate of body weight of individuals are set out in Fig. 1. Other dimensions are as follows:-

Bone	Length	Proximal Width	Distal Width	Shaft Width
Metatarsal	217	47	53.5	28.5
	200	41.5	48.5	23
	195	38	44	23.5
	192	-	-	23.5
		47		
		45		
		41.5		
		38		
			54	
			53.5	
			44	
			43.5	
Humerus			62	
Radius		78		
Lower 3rd Molar	31, 32, 32, 33.5, 35			

SHEEP

Lower 3rd molar length 20, 21, 21, 22, 22.5.

Humerus distal width (across condyles) 23, 27, 27, 28, 29.

Tibia distal width (at epiphyseal line) 23, 23.5, 24.

Astragalus maximum length 27, 28, 28, 29.

1st phalanx length 32.

PIG

Those measurements which are underlined might derive from wild boar.

Lower 3rd molar length 29, 31, 31, 32, 32, 33, 34, 37.

Scapula shaft width minimum 19, 19, 25, 25.

Humerus distal width (across condyles) 40, 41.

Radius, complete. Length 135, proximal width 38, distal width 30, midshaft width 26.

Proximal width 26, 26, 27, 30.

Metacarpal length 70, 81.

Tibia distal width 25, 28.

Astragalus maximum length 37, 38, 40.

Metatarsal length 73.

1st phalanx length 32, 33, 37.5.

DOG

Metacarpal length 78, 81, 93.

Fibula length 110.

Calcaneum length 40.

Carnassial tooth length 23.

(All dimensions in mm)

Fig 1 MEASUREMENTS OF CATTLE BONE

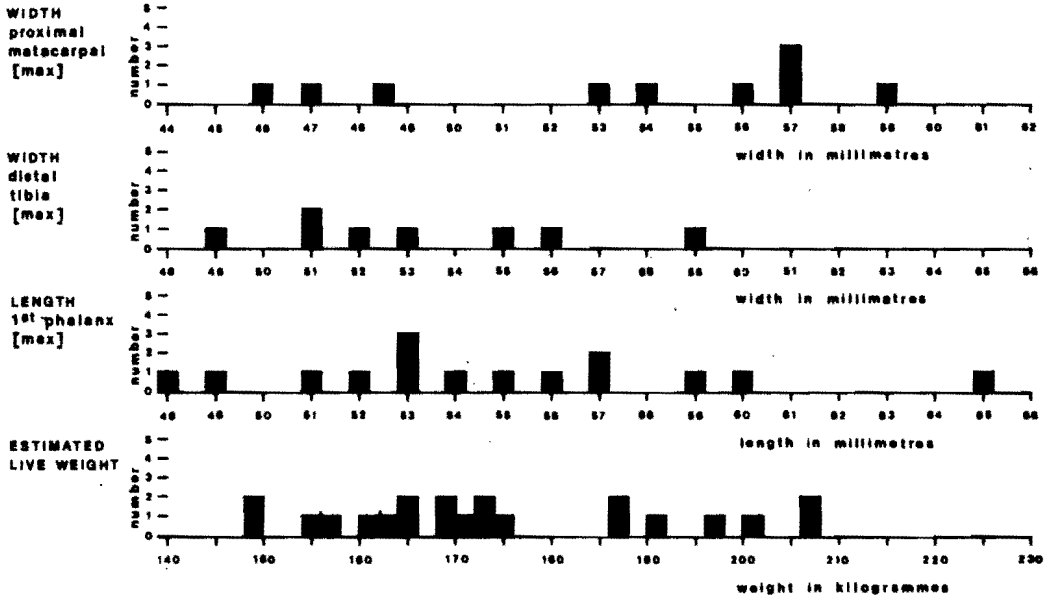

PLATE 1 SCALE IN CENTIMETRES

Mandible of pig showing cramping of teeth with slight lateral displacement

PLATE 2 SCALE IN CENTIMETRES

Three frontal bones of red deer at junction with antler [sawn off in two cases]

BIRD BONES

LIST OF SPECIES

1.	Sea eagle (White-tailed eagle)	Haliaeetus albicilla	1 individual
2.	Goshawk	Accipiter gentilis	4 individuals
3.	Sparrow hawk	Accipiter nisus	1 immature
4.	Buzzard	Buteo buteo	1 individual
5.	Crane	Grus grus	1 individual
6.	Woodcock	Scolopax rusticola	1 individual
7.	Snipe	Gallinago gallinago	1 individual
8.	Curlew	Numenius arquata	1 individual
9.	Partridge	Perdix perdix	1 individual
10.	Heron sp.	Ardea sp.	1 individual
11.	Goose, domestic	Anser anser	3 adults, 2 juveniles
12.	Goose, wild cf. White-fronted	Anser albifrons	1 individual
13.	Domestic duck	Anas platyrhynchos variety	1 adult
14.	Mallard	Anas platyrhynchos	1 individual
15.	Domestic fowl	Gallus gallus variety	5 adults, 4 pullets
16.	Stock dove	Columba oenas	2 adults, 1 juvenile
17.	Teal	Anas crecca	2 adults
18.	Song thrush or Redwing	Turdus sp.	1 individual
19.	Rook	Corvus frugilegus	3 adults, 4 juveniles

DISCUSSION ON THE SPECIES

The most striking feature of this collection of bird remains is the large proportion of birds of prey it contains. Of these, the remains of goshawk and sparrow hawk are sure to be due to the activities of falconers at this former settlement. The presence also of the large proportion of rooks supplements this finding as rooks are one of the goshawk's favourite quarry. Present day falconers often release their hawks onto rooks. Other quarry probably taken would be the game, such as partridge, woodcock, curlew and ducks, while the heron species and white-fronted goose would not be beyond a goshawk's capacity. It would seem that the site was probably used mainly as a hunting lodge, which is also borne out by the small proportion of domestic goose, fowl and duck. Smaller birds, such as snipe and thrush, would be more likely quarry for the sparrow hawk.

Of particular interest is the presence at this site of the sea eagle, of which bird there is a left carpometacarpus measuring 119.5 mm. There are also the distal parts of a left ulna and a left radius, which suggests that the end of a left wing was chopped away as an easy means of transporting the main flight feathers for use in fletching arrows. This eagle must have been rather larger than in recent specimens and compares well with recent finds at a German Medieval site (Reichstein and Tiessen, 1974). The writer does not know of any previous sub-fossil occurrence of the species in Wales, although it has turned up recently at an inland Roman site in England (Noddle and Bramwell, unpublished) and also at the Neolithic site at Skara Brae, Orkney (Noddle and Bramwell, forthcoming). Sea eagles tend to be more coastal in their distribution than golden eagle. They feed on fish, sea birds, mammals to the size of roe deer, land birds to the size of herons and on carrion. In the British Isles, the last nest was in Shetland in 1908.

The fourth bird of prey species at the site is the common buzzard, a woodland species well known in Wales today. Its presence in Medieval sites is quite common and it may have been killed because of the threat to young poultry.

The land birds as a whole in this assemblage tend to be woodland and freshwater forms with rooks, often associated with cultivation. The separation of bones of stock and rock doves is difficult, but the woodland stock dove would probably be more likely to have been taken by the falconer at the same time that he was in pursuit of rook and woodcock. Some marshy ground is indicated by the presence of snipe and curlew and also by the crane, remains of which are usually found sparingly from Medieval sites. How this huge bird was hunted is uncertain, but it may have entailed a combination of goshawk and dogs; alternatively, long bow or cross bow may have been employed.

The collection of birds as a whole presents an interesting insight into the environment and human activities of this Medieval site.

FISH BONES

	Identity of Fish	Type of Bones	No. of Bones
1.	Thornback ray (Raja clavata)	Buckler	1
2.	Cod (showing lateral cut mark)	Vertebral centrum	1
3.	Cod type	Branchiostegal	1
4.	Cod	Anterior vertebral centrum	1
5.	Cod type	Skull bones	3
6.	Flatfish (eg. plaice/flounder)	Anal pterigophore	1
7.	Flatfish type	Preopercular	1

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HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

J. Barry Davies

It has long been accepted, following the pioneer work of G.T. Clark (1), J.S. Corbett (2) and Lewis D. Nicholl (3) that the de Cardiff family were among the earliest Norman conquerors of Glamorgan and probably holders of the half fee of Llantrithyd from the time of Robert Fitzhamon. There is no reason to doubt that the de Cardiff family was so early in Glamorgan, but it is as well to emphasise the degree of supposition which bolsters up the argument.

The Extent of Glamorgan made in 1262 (4) is the earliest record that a member of the family, one William de Cardiff, held Llantrithyd as half a knight's fee of Cardiff Castle. Liber Niger (5) is an earlier record from which we learn that another William de Cardiff, in 1166, held one and a half fees under the Earl of Gloucester, but not necessarily in Glamorgan. Liber Rubeus (6), a different copy of the same basic information given in Liber Niger, is more specific in recording that half of the one and a half fees was in Wales. Liber Niger and Liber Rubeus are summaries of returns which were made to Henry II in 1262 by magnates who were requested to state the number of enfeoffments they had made and which of them were old enfeoffments made before 1135 (the death of Henry I) and which were new enfeoffments, i.e. those made since 1135.

Assuming, therefore, that the half fee held by a William de Cardiff in 1166 was the same as that held by a later William de Cardiff in 1262, we can say with reasonable assurance that the de Cardiffs held Llantrithyd in 1166. This also assumes, of course, that the Lanririd of 1262 is the same as the modern Llantrithyd, which is by now well established by Gwynedd O. Pierce in The Place-names of Dinas Powys Hundred. The nature of the returns upon which Liber Niger is based also enables us to say that Llantrithyd, given the above assumptions, was enfeoffed before 1136, but not necessarily that it was then in the hands of the de Cardiff family.

The evidence for de Cardiff occupation of Llantrithyd in 1126 is the undated charter, attributed to that year, belonging to St. Peter's Abbey, Gloucester, in which William de Cardiff stands surety for the good behaviour of Geoffrey son of Kneith and his brothers, apparently tenants of de Cardiff in Llantrithyd and seen by the Abbot of St. Peter's as a threat to the Abbey lands. There is no evidence for identifying or dating Geoffrey. There are other references to a Geoffrey son of Kneith appearing in the Margam charters (7), but in a context which appears later in the 12th century and in association with the Kenfig area. There is, therefore, no corroborative evidence for putting this charter as early (or as late) as 1126.

Other de Cardiffs are mentioned in early charters (8), the earliest in 1102, as sheriffs of Cardiff or of Glamorgan, from which the assumption is made that everyone designated 'de Cardiff' in the earliest years of the 12th century must have been an early member of the family which, by the 13th century, we find had adopted de Cardiff as a surname. A fairly large assumption, perhaps, but nonetheless a near certainty, remains that a William de Cardiff held Llantrithyd in 1166 and the probability is high that they held it from the earliest days of the conquest of Glamorgan.

The descent of the manor from the William de Cardiff of 1262 is hardly less obscure than the earlier history. In 1307, 1314 and 1317 it was held by Ivetta, widow of William de Cardiff (9), while, in the I.P.M. taken at the death of Isabella, Countess of Warwick in 1440, over a century later, Llantrithyd is again referred to as the half fee that belonged to Ivetta, who was the wife of William de Cardiff. This seems to suggest that it was then held by the chief lord. Meanwhile, a survey of 1320 (10), now surviving only in a copy by Rice Merrick, attributes the lordship to the wife of John Bassett. G.T. Clark assumed this John Bassett to have been of Beaupre, but an I.P.M. taken on a (presumably later) John Bassett in 1396 (11) showed him as holder of Queenshull, one of the de Cardiff manors in Gloucestershire. No mention is made of Llantrithyd and none of the jurors bore Glamorgan names. It would seem likely that the John Bassett, whose wife held Llantrithyd in 1320, was a Gloucestershire man who had married or inherited from a daughter or other descendant of William and Ivetta de Cardiff. An I.P.M. on Hugh le Despenser in 1349 attributes Llantrithyd to Johanna, widow of John de Hampdon, and an I.P.M. on Edward le Despenser, in 1375, to William de Whyddendon (12). According to the genealogy of the de Cardiffs printed by G.T. Clark (13), Johanna was a de Cardiff heiress who died in 1349 leaving a number of daughters. She married first John de Wynecote and, second, John de Hampdon. Some division of the manor may have taken place at her death.

Many accounts of Llantrithyd (14) have the story that Robert Fitzhamon gave the manor to Hywel, one of the sons or grandsons of Iestyn ap Gwrgant. This person is said to have had a castle there, which was later destroyed in a Welsh uprising in 1151. The story derives from "An account of the cause of the conquest of Glamorgan by Sir Robert Fitzhamon and his twelve knights", the text of which is printed in Cardiff Records (15). The author is stated to have been Sir Edward Mansel of Margam, but, for a number of reasons, the late Professor G.J. Williams pronounced it the work of Iolo Morganwg (16) and we may, therefore, safely dismiss it. In any case, we now recognise that nothing was 'granted' to the former Welsh lords of Glamorgan; they simply retained what could not be wrested from them. Certainly, they were granted no knight's fees, such as Llantrithyd, by the service of guarding Cardiff Castle.

Perhaps we should not go too far in discounting the tradition of Welsh ownership, however, because the genealogies claim that Llywelyn ap Cynwrig, lord of Radyr in Meisgyn in the mid-14th century, was also lord of Llantrithyd (17). Iolo may have done no more than assume that, because Llywelyn held Llantri-

thyd in the 14th century, his supposed ancestor, Hywel ap Iestyn ap Gwrgant, must have held it of Robert Fitzhamon. Llywelyn ap Cynwrig was a significant magnate in Meisgyn, who was granted the leasehold of Radyr, and there is no reason to doubt that he may have also been granted the manor of Llantrithyd. That would certainly not be inconsistent with the scanty evidence available for the 14th century ownership by descendants of William de Cardiff. There is just one possibility of confusion to bear in mind. There was a later manor nearby in Pendoylan called Llwyn Rhyddid, which the genealogists may possibly have confused with Llantrithyd.

Nevertheless, the genealogists also claim that Jenkin ap Thomas of Pencoed in Capel Llanilltern, a descendant of Llywelyn ap Cynwrig, inherited Llantrithyd (18) and was the builder of the first house there on the site of the present ruin of the Plas. One of his two daughters and co-heiresses married Thomas Bassett, a younger son of Beaupre, and the other married Thomas Havard, a branch from a Breconshire family subsequently found settled as landowners in Llantrithyd. Thomas Bassett lived in Pencoed, but his son John Thomas Bassett is usually credited with building Plas Llantrithyd in about 1546. Jenkin ap Thomas of Pencoed, John Thomas Bassett and the Havard family all tend to corroborate the association of Llywelyn ap Cynwrig with Llantrithyd and to confirm that there was no confusion with Llwyn Rhyddid.

Resting largely on the authority of Rice Lewis (19), it is confidently and repeatedly asserted that, despite possessing the Plas and extensive freehold land, John Thomas Bassett never held the lordship of the manor, which belonged to the Beaupre Bassetts and did not pass to the Plas Llantrithyd family until acquired by the Aubreys late in the 17th century (20). It is admitted, however, that John Bassett of Beaupre, by the I.P.M. taken after his death in 1492 (21), was seized of only "two parts of the moiety of a knights fee in Llantrithyd". On the other hand, a schedule setting out the yearly value of all the manors, etc., of late John Thomas Bassett, deceased, in 1551 (22), is quite clear that he held "Certain lands and hereditaments in Llantrythid, holden of the Earl of Pembroke by Knight service as of his Castle of Cardiff ...". This seems pretty firm evidence that John Thomas Bassett held a portion of the lordship, which he may well have inherited from his mother and possibly shared with Thomas Havard, while John Bassett of Beaupre had, no doubt, inherited his two-thirds share by some other route, not now readily apparent, but perhaps related to the probable division following the death of Johanna de Hampdon in 1349.

All this is not completely irrelevant to the history of the 12th century manor. In fact, one can come forward in time, even as recently as 1839, for some relevant data. That was the year of the commutation of the tithes in the parish, in connection with which a large scale map was prepared (23). From this map, in combination with the accompanying apportionment, one can reconstruct an area of some 343 acres on which tithes had at some remote period already been commuted from payment in kind to payment in money. An interesting Terrier of 1734 (24) records that "The demesne lands of Sir John Aubrey have from all time paid a modus (25) of £2 13 4d at All Saints, in lieu of all tythes except of corn". This

does not exactly tally with the 1839 Tithe Survey, but, for our purposes, is adequately corroborative. The Terrier has a list of the fields subject to this modus, and the map of 1839 allows one to plot them. The most interesting fact to emerge is that the modus land included the field (no. 222) in which the ringwork was found, the Plas and its surrounding premises, the mill, the park (26) and the wood, now known as Coed Arthur, but part of which was called in 1734 'Coed yr Arlwydd' (i.e. the lord's wood). This land subject to modus, therefore, contained the various elements that one might expect to find on the demesne (27) of a manor - the mill, the wood, the manor house - so one is moderately confident in asserting that it represents, at least in part, the Medieval demesne land of the lords of the manor. And we may note that John Thomas Bassett must have possessed at least part of this in the 16th century when he built his Plas.

It is unlikely that the documentary evidence can now ever give us a fully authenticated account of Llantrithyd. It would be convenient, in the light of the archaeological evidence, to be able to show that some violent assault had interrupted the development of settlement there in about 1130. All one can say is that southern Wales was the scene of revived resistance on a fairly destructive scale in 1136, immediately east and west of Glamorgan (28), but all witnesses are silent about any unrest in Glamorgan itself at that time. Historians have concluded that the lordship was firmly held in peace and considerably more archaeological evidence of destruction datable to this period will be needed to overturn that assumption. At the same time, it is fair to say that the chronicles are equally silent about the invasion of Glamorgan in the last decade of the 11th century, while mentioning the Norman assault on other parts of Wales. One thing we can safely dismiss, however, is the tradition, invented for us by Iolo Morganwg, that a castle built in Llantrithyd by Hywel ap Madog ap Iestyn was destroyed in a Welsh uprising in 1151.

For a termination of the first Norman occupation at Llantrithyd, we may do well to consider more mundane possibilities, such as a loss of interest in the 'frontier' by the de Cardiff family and their retirement to richer pastures on their fees of Queenshull and Walton in Gloucestershire. One negative piece of evidence for absenteeism by the lords of Llantrithyd lies in the absence of the signatures of any William de Cardiff to Glamorgan charters later than 1126, excepting only two Margam charters of 1230 and c. 1246, in the former of which a William de Cardiff signs as a monk of Margam and can, therefore, be regarded, at best, as a doubtful member of the family (29).

However, there is some evidence that one branch of the family was prepared to carry on the torch from William's bridgehead in Llantrithyd during the 12th century because the neighbouring manor of St. Hilary appears to have been held by Richard de Cardiff, who was also granted, post 1135, one eighth part of a knight's fee in Newton Nottage (30). The St. Hilary fee was not considered by Lewis D. Nicholl (31) as having paid wardsilver to

Cardiff Castle and he, therefore, assumed it to have been held under the member lordship of Talyfan or of Llanbleddian and not direct of Cardiff. Perhaps the de Cardiffs took part with St. Quentin in the conquest of Llanbleddian and Talyfan, an operation which may well have been launched from a base in Llantrithyd. The appearance of one Walter de Llanbleddian, as witness to a charter in 1107 (32), suggests that this further advance followed on fairly quickly from the conquest of the shire fee, thus obviating the need to develop a more substantial fortification at Llantrithyd, despite its precarious position as a half fee held direct of Cardiff but perched on the periphery of the shire fee. Its neighbouring manors in Bonvilston, for instance, were not held direct of Cardiff Castle, but were sub-fees of the manor of Sully (33). We might consider the possibility that the main role intended for Llantrithyd was that of a springboard for further Norman expansion. Once that role had been played out, the manor may not have been large enough to serve its owner as more than a hunting lodge. It is improbable that a Norman knight possessing another fee, even a modest one, in Gloucestershire would have elected to make his main residence in Llantrithyd.

How large was the manor? No survey survives which defines its boundaries and, while there may be an assumption that a manor and parish of the same name are co-terminus, that would certainly be the exception rather than the rule in Glamorgan. The eastern and southern boundaries of the manor are evident, but the northern and western boundaries with St. Hilary and Llanbleddian are not easy to determine.

Bonvilston and probably Leige Castle manors penetrated deeply into Pendoylan parish and it is, therefore, difficult to assert that the northern parish boundary of Llantrithyd with Welsh St. Donats is also the manor boundary. Indeed, considering the probable line of Norman advance as a whole, it would make more sense, in relation to their penetration of Caerwiggau in Pendoylan and their Ely Valley frontier at Peterston, to postulate an extension of Llantrithyd manor down through Welsh St. Donats into the Hensol area of Pendoylan. We have already noted the possibility of confusion between the manor of Llantrithyd and another manor in the parishes of Pendoylan and Welsh St. Donats known as Llwyn Rhyddid. Perhaps we should not entirely ignore the possibility that Llwyn Rhyddid may have been an extension of Llantrithyd into the lordship of Talyfan.

To the east of Llantrithyd is the manor of Leige Castle, which was a sub-fee of Bonvilston, itself a sub-fee of Wenvoe, in turn a sub-fee of Sully. It is probably necessary to assume, however, that such sub-infeudations, where they formed part of the commitatus or shire fee, were all part of the original conquest and not subsequent piecemeal additions, like member lordships, or, otherwise, the initial position of Llantrithyd, with both flanks exposed, would have been quite untenable. Leige Castle is identifiable today as a long narrow hamlet of the parish of Llancarvan and the probability is very high that the parish boundary at this point marks the manor boundary too.

South east of Llantrithyd is the hamlet of Llanvithyn, which was granted to Margam Abbey by Hugh of Llancarvan (34), a grant which was confirmed by the said

Hugh's overlord, Henry de Humfraville, lord of Penmark. Llanvithyn was, therefore, a part of the manor of Penmark before it was granted to Margam and, here again, the parish boundary must also mark the manor limits. This conclusion is amply confirmed by the occurrence of a natural physical boundary here.

A great deal of the parish of Llancarvan was old Celtic church land belonging to the Clas of St. Cadog and the bulk of this land was granted by Robert Fitzhamon to St. Peter's Abbey, Gloucester, including the grange of Treguff (35) running along the south-west boundary of Llantrithyd parish and, again, clearly delimiting the area of the manor. This brings us back to the St. Peter's Abbey charter attributed to c. 1126, in which William de Cardiff stood guarantee that Geoffrey ap Kneith and his brothers would not, with impunity, plunder the Abbey lands from their base in Llantrithyd. The Abbey lands in question that might have been plundered were most probably at Treguff.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

I have made extensive use of a note prepared by Brian Ll. James, specific acknowledgement of which is made where the initials BLIJ follow the references.

1. Clark, G.T., Cartae, 2nd edition, pp. 414-5.

2. Corbett, J.S., Glamorgan papers and notes, p. 233.

3. Nicholl, Lewis D., The Normans in Glamorgan, Gower and Kidwelly, p. 69.

4. Cartae, p. 649.

5. Nicholl, Lewis D., p. 41 et seq.

6. Ibid.

7. Cartae, p. 2316.

8. Cartae, pp. 38 and 48.

9. Cartae, pp. 1000 and 1048.

10. The Spenser Survey; Rice Merrick's Booke of Glamorganshire Antiquities, Ed. Corbett, p. 43.

11. Cartae, p. 1408.

12. I.P.M.s Edward III.

13. Limbus Patrum, Clark, G.T., p. 273.

14. e.g. in Hanes Morgannwg, Jones, David (Dafydd Morgannwg), 1874.

15. Cardiff Records, Vol. IV, pp. 6-22.

16. Traddodiad Ilenyddol Morgannwg, pp. 201-3.

17. Limbus Patrum, p. 109. BLIJ

18. Limbus Patrum, p. 356.

19. Breviat of Glamorgan, South Wales Record Society, 1954.

20. In Arch. Camb., 1867, p. 220 is an abstract of a survey of the manor of which Sir John Aubrey was lord.

21. Cartae, p. 1747; Limbus Patrum, p. 349.

22. Limbus Patrum, p. 359.

23. Copies deposited in Glamorgan Record Office and National Library of Wales. BLIJ

24. Arch. Camb., 1866, pp. 393-5. BLIJ

25. A sum of money paid in lieu of kind. This would have been established between the landowner and the vicar. BLIJ

26. The park did not exist in 1578 when Saxton made his map of Glamorgan, nor when Rice Merrick compiled his list of parks. B.G.A., p. 113. BLIJ

27. The demesne of a manor was that part which the lord kept in his own hands, for his own maintenance. BLIJ

28. Glamorgan County History, Vol. III, p. 30.

29. Cartae.

30. Cartae, p. 231.

31. Nicholl, Lewis D., pp. 61 and 71.

32. Cartae, p. 40.

33. Corbett, J.S., p. 239.

34. Cartae, p. 182.

35. Cartae, p. 81.