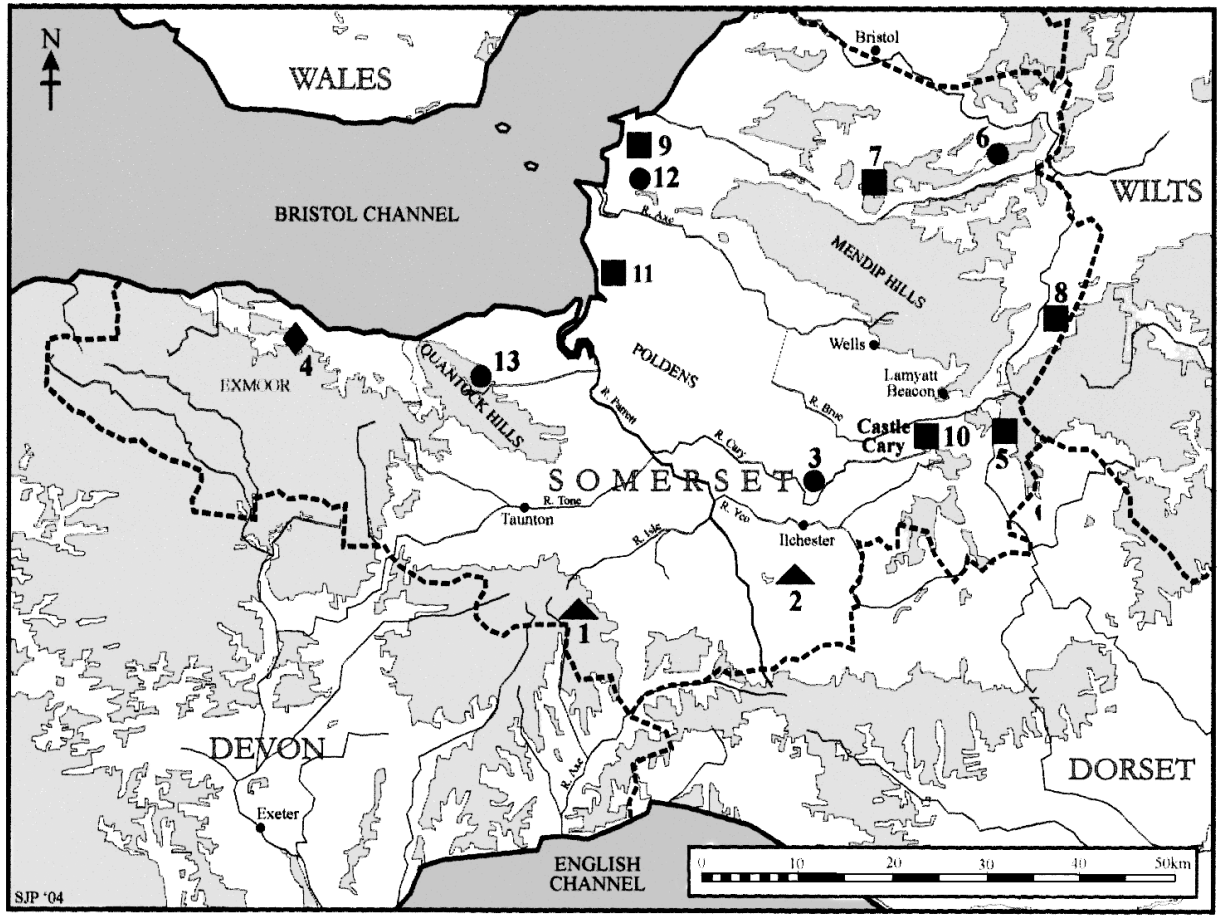

Fig. 1 Location map showing early Norman castles and other sites. *Robert of Mortain's castles*: 1 Castle Neroche, 2 Montacute; *William de Mohun's castles*: 4 Dunster; *Walter of Douai's castles*: 5 Cockroad Wood, 6 Culverhay, 7 Stowey, 8 Hales, 9 Batch, 10 Castle Cary, 11 Edithmead. *Other sites*: 3 Wimble Toot, 12 Locking Head, 13 Over Stowey

ROMAN AND MEDIEVAL REMAINS AT MANOR FARM, CASTLE CARY

PETER LEACH AND PETER ELLIS

with contributions by
Rowena Gale, Alejandra Gutiérrez, Martin Henig, Lorrain Higbee, and Stuart Prior

SUMMARY

Excavation and monitoring was undertaken prior to and during a residential development at Manor Farm, Castle Cary, between 1998 and 2001. A primary phase of activity was represented by a 3rd-century limekiln and occasional boundary ditches of Romano-British date. These had survived a later sequence of intensive occupation relating to the castle and manor house of Castle Cary, possibly commencing in the 11th century with the construction of an early Norman ringwork by Walter of Douai. The castle was constructed early in the 12th century and its remains survive visibly to this day as the earthworks of an inner and outer bailey adjacent to the site. The castle was abandoned later in the 12th century following sieges during the reign of Stephen, to be replaced by a later medieval manor house in the area immediately to its west. Portions of several stone-built structures and remains of occupation relating to this establishment, spanning a period from the later 12th to the early 19th century, were recovered here, including evidence for the creation of a new partly moated enclosure, probably in the 13th or early 14th century. This enclosure can still be picked out in the modern town topography. The site had developed as a farmyard over the past two centuries prior to its current redevelopment.

The finding of a *lar*, probably placed as a thank offering in the backfill of the lime kiln, is taken to be an indication of a major Roman building in the vicinity, and the possibility that this building was a temple at the source of the River Cary is explored. This hypothesis would be an explanation for the anomalous siting of the church of All Saints, and perhaps for the position of the castle itself.

INTRODUCTION

Background

Castle Cary is a small market town of medieval origin in the south-east of Somerset, located on the border of limestone uplands to the east and clay lowlands to the west (Fig. 1). Its name derives from the river which rises there (Cari) and the castle of its Norman overlords. Proposals for construction of the Castle Rise housing development in the centre of Castle Cary, resulted

in the requirement for an archaeological response within the terms of local and national planning guidelines (Somerset County Council 1995; PPG 16, 1990). Birmingham University Field Archaeology Unit (now Birmingham Archaeology) was commissioned by the developer, Fawcett Construction Ltd, to undertake a series of investigations commencing with a site evaluation in 1998 (Leach and Ellis 1998), then excavations in 1999 (Leach and Ellis 1999) and a further programme of watching briefs and limited excavations through 1999 to 2001 during the course of the development (Webster 2003, 145–7). In 2001, one of the authors (PJL) was responsible, as part of a separate development, for a watching brief during the excavation of foundation trenches for a new building at the west end of Manor Farm (Leach 2001). The results from all these interventions have been combined to produce this report.

The development site occupies an area of former agricultural buildings, cottages and yards belonging to Manor Farm. This lies immediately to the north of the farmhouse and its grounds, on a west-facing slope that had been modified at various times by terracing to accommodate the farmyard and its structures. Its lowest point, at around 82m OD, fronts the Horse Pond and gives access to Fore Street, the main north–south thoroughfare through Castle Cary. The site is bounded to the east by a steep, artificially scarped slope, rising to approximately 95m OD. This represents part of the west side of the inner and outer bailey earthworks of the Norman castle, which have been cut back by farmyard terracing (Figs 2 and 3).

The site and castle earthworks are situated on the lower slopes of Lodge Hill, formed by Upper Lias Sand formations – a soft yellow sandstone with some harder concretions – equivalent to the Yeovil Sands. The hill is capped by Inferior Oolite Limestone – Hadspen stone – a relatively soft yellow-brown limestone used extensively as a local building stone (Prudden 2003). The River Cary rises at the foot of a steep combe below the hill to the south-west, marked today by the Park Pond.

Historical context

In the following section we are indebted to Mary Siraut for permission to quote from the forthcoming VCH text on Castle Cary. Castle Cary is documented first as a medieval settlement – 'Cari' in the Domesday survey of 1086 – which developed subsequently as a small market and manufacturing town. Evidence of earlier settlement comprises occasional finds of earlier prehistoric worked flints, Iron Age occupation on the east side of Church Street (Heaton 2003), and what may have been a Romano-British rural settlement at Ansford (Keynes 1987). At Domesday there were 43 people excluding *servi* at Cary and nine at Ansford. Aston and Leech (1977) have argued that the primary focus of medieval settlement may have been around the parish church of All Saints and that the 12th-century castle would have influenced the urban plan thereafter, leading to an early borough perhaps founded by the Norman lords of the manor along South Street. Ansford's position in relation to the local road junctions might be expected to give it primacy over Cary and the greater significance of the latter must reflect the influence of the castle on local settlement. The later medieval town of Castle Cary evidently developed around the market place and road junctions north of the castle, with a separate planned element along the road leaving the town to the south of All Saints church (Fig. 2).

Walter of Douai owned Cary at the time of Domesday and was probably granted possession soon after the Conquest. Walter was a prominent Norman landowner in Somerset, and responsible for building several castles. Stuart Prior argues below (p. 119) that ringworks were a particular hallmark of his and there are hints from the evidence excavated here that a ringwork was constructed at Castle Cary soon after the Conquest which would fit into the pattern of Walter's activities. The massive stone castle keep, some 80ft square and among the largest built in England, was probably the work of Ralph Lovell – possibly Walter's son – and belongs to the phase of earlier 12th-century consolidation of manorial sites. Ralph held the

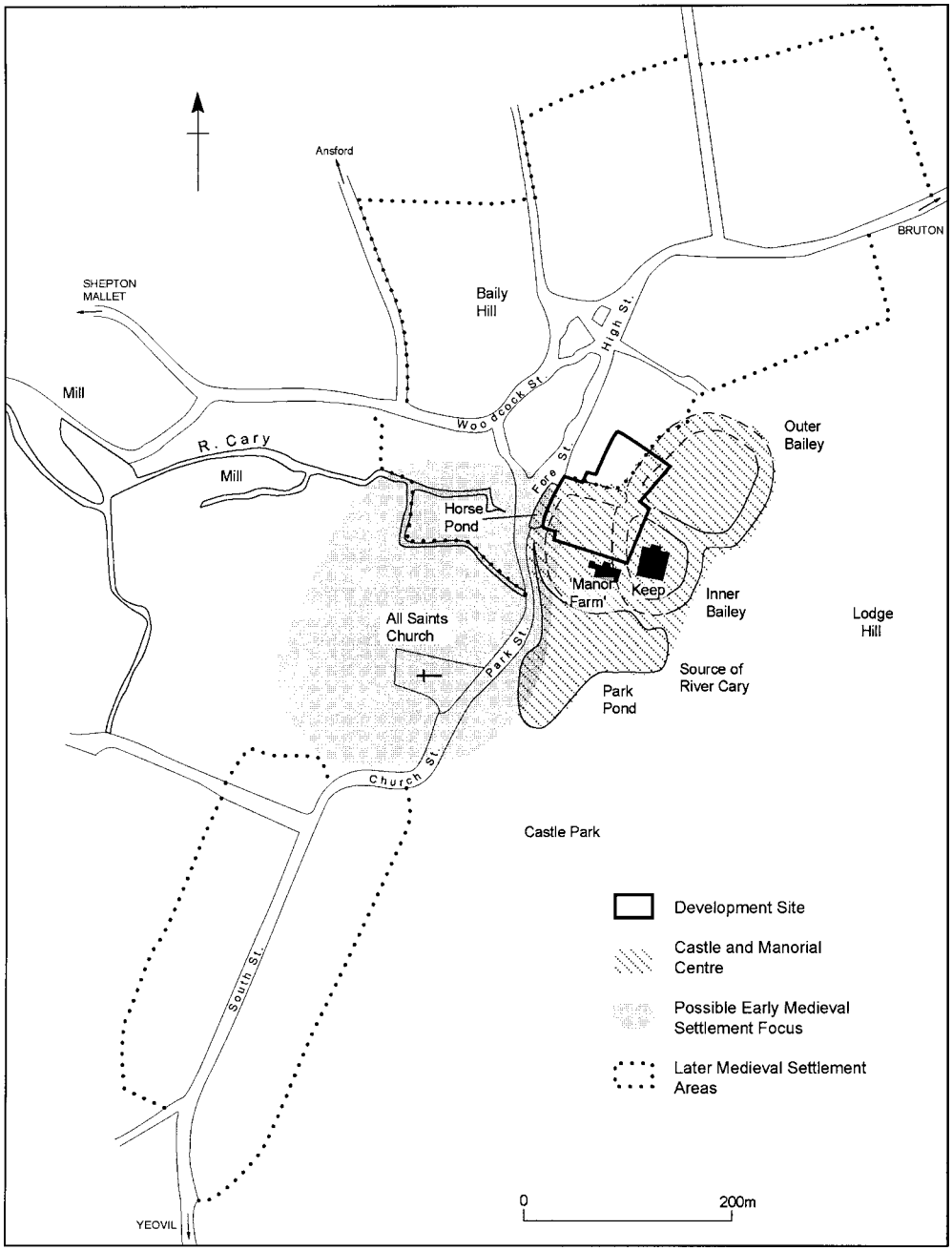

Fig. 2 Site location and historic features (after Aston and Leech 1977)

castle against Stephen in 1138 during the civil war. The castle fell to Stephen's vigorous siege but Ralph apparently retained possession. However, still under Ralph, the castle was besieged a second time in 1147 by Henry de Tracy on behalf of Stephen and there are earthworks overlooking the site on the summit of Lodge Hill that may be the remains of his siegeworks.

Fig. 3 Air photograph of the castle from the north-east; Manor Farm with farm buildings to its right beyond the inner bailey earthwork (photo M. Aston, November 1976)

The siege was lifted before the castle could be taken again. However, soon after, the castle was apparently slighted, perhaps early in the reign of Henry II around the mid 12th century.

The manorial estate remained in the hands of the Lovells until the mid 14th century, descending subsequently to the Seymours, Zouches and back to the Seymours again by the 16th century, when Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, held it. Nothing is known of the character of the medieval manor house from documentary sources but the earliest known map, dated *c*. 1680 and illustrated by Aston and Leech (1977, 26), shows that it then occupied the ground below the early Norman castle. The building was called Manor Place in the 1530s, was let in 1614 with park, dovecote, barn and stables, and in 1633 was described as built 'within the verge of the castle walls'. In 1462 two mills, a dovecote and gardens were recorded, and the park was first noted in 1351, remaining open until the 18th century. The manor passed into the hands of a succession of owners through the 17th and 18th centuries. When it was bought by Henry Hoare in 1782 the manor house was largely ruinous. The house was no longer shown on a map of 1808 and it was Henry's great grandson, Sir Richard Colt Hoare of Stourhead, who probably removed the last vestiges of the medieval building. There is no evidence that Sir Richard, one of the pioneers of British archaeology in Wessex, took any antiquarian interest in Castle Cary, but he was responsible for building the present Manor Farm house above the levelled remains of its predecessor. In the 19th century a detached kitchen was documented near the pond which was subsequently demolished. This may be a building shown on the tithe map in 1839 but not on subsequent maps. In the same century there was said to be an arched gateway with stabling on either side, possibly depicted on the 1839 Tithe map, and a grand banqueting room, used for stores in the Napoleonic wars, perhaps the last vestiges of the medieval house demolished by Colt Hoare (Meade 1856, 98).

Prior to these investigations the archaeological significance of the development site was already apparent from its proximity to the surviving castle earthworks and medieval manor

house site (Fig. 3). Some remains of the latter were noted by Collinson (1791) at the end of the 18th century. The significance of the castle earthworks was appreciated by the 19th century at least, with the earliest, somewhat inconclusive investigation being documented by Meade (1856). Far more informative were excavations by Revd J.A. Bennett and J.H. Francis in 1890, which revealed the massive stone foundations of the keep within the southern earthwork, and identified the larger northern earthwork as the remains of the outer bailey (Gregory 1890).

No further significant archaeological investigation took place in Castle Cary or its castle and manor until the late 1970s when building works and landscaping during development within the farmyard were observed. This revealed evidence of the ditch which separates the inner and outer bailey earthworks, as well as other medieval features and deposits (Aston and Murless 1978, 128).

Investigation

The archaeological potential of the development site was assessed initially by means of eleven mechanically excavated trial trenches (A–L, Fig. 4). These were cut in November 1998, following demolition of virtually all former standing structures, to locate, sample and record any surviving features or deposits of archaeological significance as widely as possible across the site. The principal discoveries included location of the surviving western defensive ditch of the castle, the location of another ditch extending westwards towards the Horse Pond, and the recognition of some medieval structures and deposits surviving principally to the south of the latter, among quite extensively disturbed areas relating to relatively recent occupancy of the farmyard (Leach and Ellis 1998).

With advice from the Archaeology Section of Somerset County Council it was agreed that the developer would sponsor a programme of limited archaeological excavation in areas where the most extensive destruction of deposits was anticipated, supported by an ongoing watching/recording brief for the excavation of foundation and service trenches during the course of the development. The most extensive excavations were undertaken in 1999 during the early stages of the development, principally in and around the remains of a major medieval stone building, Building 1, in Areas J and K, and to a lesser extent in Area E. Elsewhere, recording was confined mainly to mechanically excavated trenches concentrated in the southern half of the site and identified as a further lettered sequence; a process completed in 2001 (Fig. 4).

The entire project was undertaken through the Field Archaeology Unit of the University of Birmingham, and a pro-forma written record based on single context recording was adopted in accordance with their system. This was complemented by an extensive drawn and photographic record of all interventions, the collection of associated finds, and by limited environmental sampling. The following report is based upon those records and the contributions of the named specialists, and the entire archive is deposited with the Somerset County Museum service (Accn. no. TTNCM56/1999).

During the course of the field investigation it became apparent that the survival and extent of archaeological features and deposits over the southern half of the site was greater than had been initially suggested by the evaluation. Despite some major destruction through relatively modern use of the farmyard, it was observed that the truncation of medieval and earlier levels over the northern half of the site gave way to an increasing depth of deposits southwards, within the confines of the later medieval moated enclosure. This area had not been trenched in 1998 – trenches J and K being the southernmost cut then – because of existing obstructing features. The revelation of the depth of stratigraphy in the 2001 trenches west of Manor Farm, where up to 2m of deposits survived below modern ground level, was a matter of concern. Arrangements were made with the developer on site to maintain levels and thus protect archaeological strata. Minor design changes in the course of the development meant that,

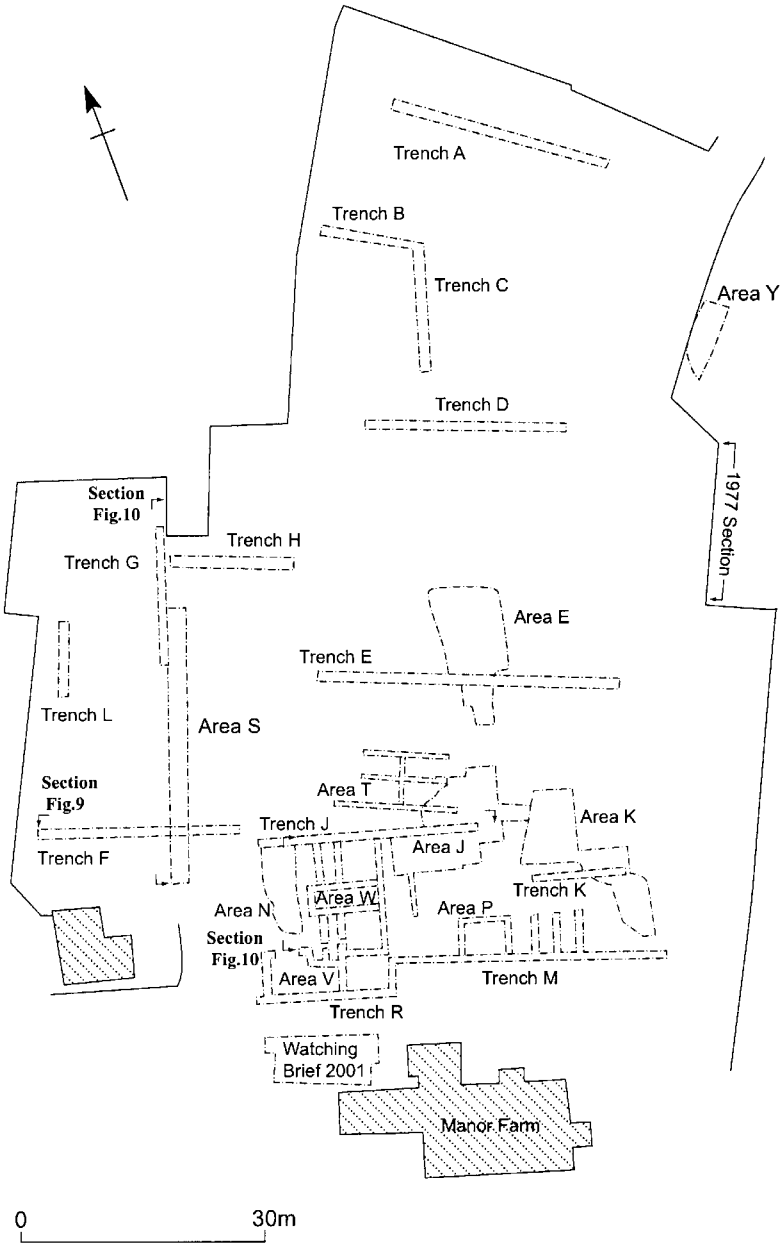

Fig. 4 Excavated areas; for location see Fig. 2

unfortunately, not all these arrangements could be honoured, and additional landscaping led to the removal of archaeological deposits. Inevitably, perhaps, the works most destructive of archaeology were the foundation and service trenches although the majority of these were observed and recorded as part of the watching brief – Trenches and Areas M, N, P, R, S, T, V, W and Y (Fig. 4). With hindsight, and looking at the project as a whole, a more

extensive excavation programme prior to commencement of the development would have been justified.

The evidence recovered may be conveniently grouped into five main periods of activity:

Period 1: Pre-Roman and Romano-British
Period 2: The Conquest to *c*. 1150
Period 3: Medieval, *c*. 1150 to *c*. 1350
Period 4: Late Medieval, *c*. 1350 to *c*. 1500
Period 5: *c*. 1500 to present

EXCAVATION RESULTS

Period 1 Pre-Roman and Romano-British

Pre-Roman deposits

A layer of hillwash was particularly marked on the slope down to the west of the site. Here a yellow sandy silt layer, 5008, with some iron panning and occasional flecks of charcoal, was generally 0.75m deep (Fig. 9: Trench F; Fig. 10: Section S). Similar and perhaps equivalent deposits were seen further north, though rarely to depths of more than 0.5m, as layer 8002 (Fig. 9: Trench J). These deposits masked an indistinct horizon with the soft weathered natural sand below, from which they are partly derived.

The occasional recovery of flint is likely to represent a pre-Roman phase of activity on or near the site, although no readily datable artefacts are recognised. All were recovered from contexts of Romano-British or medieval origin, and no other evidence attributable to prehistoric occupation was seen.

Romano-British

Most of the Roman evidence on the Manor Farm site comes from its south-east corner and is focussed upon the remains of a lime-burning kiln, F901 (Figs 5–7). This corner of the site had been subject to major remodelling, construction works and other disturbances from at least the 12th century through to the present day. Thus the survival of this structure might be considered a fortunate accident.

The principal remains of the kiln comprised a circular chamber cut into the soft sandstone bedrock, with a stepped profile. The lower part (seen only part sectioned) had an upper diameter of approximately 2.5m and was 0.8m deep, with steep sloping sides and an almost level base. The upper chamber was *c*. 3.6m in diameter, its upper sides surviving up to 0.6m high (to the east) above a 0.5m wide step (Fig. 5). All its surviving margins cut into the natural sand were burnt bright purple-red and orange, the scorching normally extending 150mm and more into that formation.

To the west was an original opening, *c*. 0.6m wide and cut from the level of the internal step. This was lined on its north side with the remains of two courses of local Cary limestone, 9020, roughly shaped and extensively burnt red and orange. Its south side appeared to have been of similar construction but had been largely destroyed by the medieval wall foundation F909 and more recent disturbances, which included the cut of evaluation trench K in 1998. This flue opening survived for a length of 1.5m but had also been disturbed at its west end.

Within the lower chamber of the kiln was a thin lining of black charcoal and ash, 9037, 0.1m thick around the sides and base, which was sealed by a very dense and compacted deposit of burnt limestone blocks and rubble, set mortar, lime and charcoal, 9034, which filled it to the level of the surrounding step. Sealing the step and the deposit within the lower chamber was a silty deposit, 9025, of variable depth (0.1–0.15m) containing many small–medium fragments

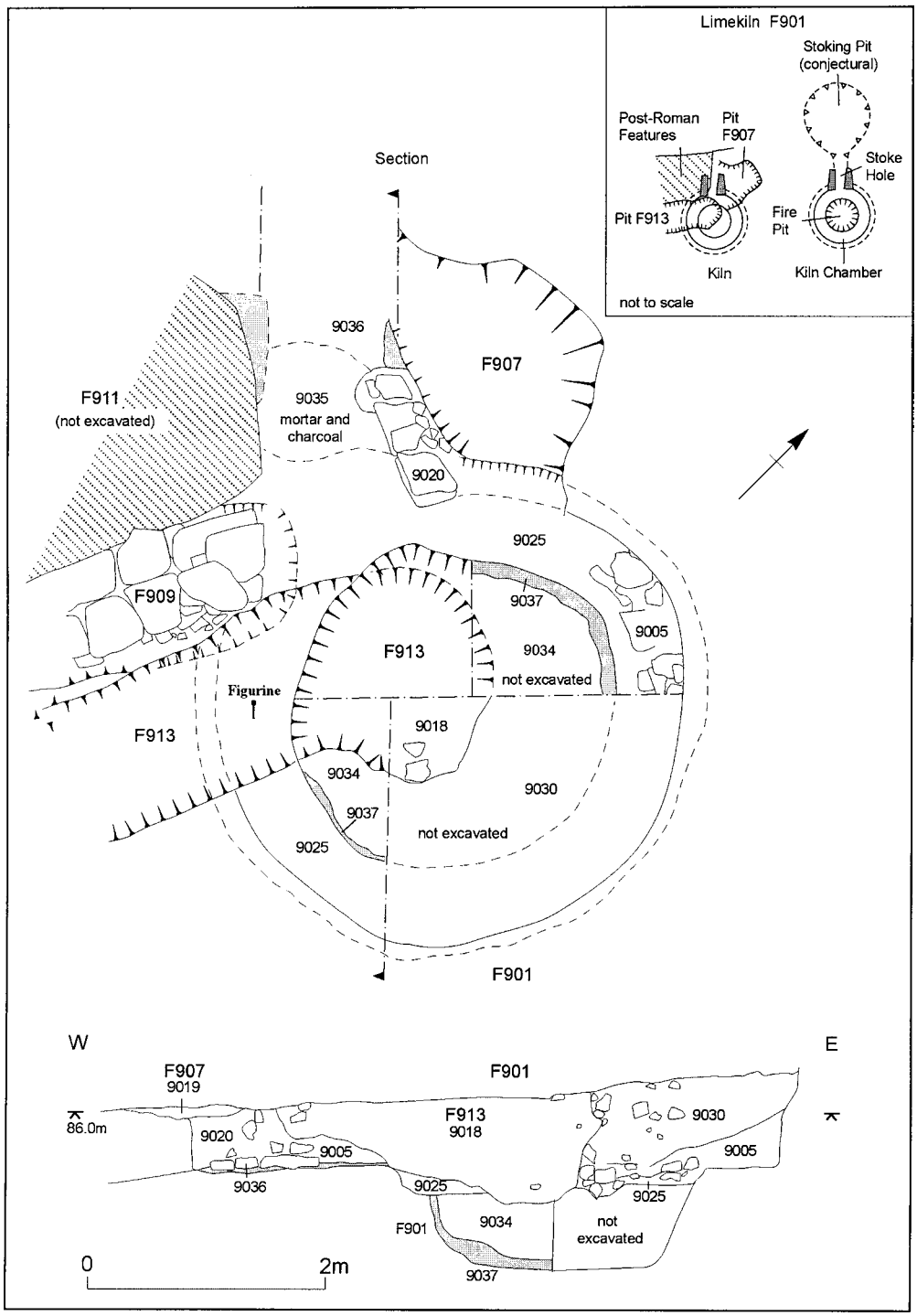

Fig. 5 Plan and section of lime kiln F901 with diagrammatic interpretation

Fig. 6 Limekiln F901 showing entrance (bottom left), set lime within lower chamber below upper fills (centre), F913 cut (bottom right); view north-east

of burnt stone, burnt red-orange sand, some lime/mortar and charcoal. Above this and extending to the top of the surviving chamber was a much thicker and very mixed fill of similar material, strongly banded in places but more mixed elsewhere – layer 9005. Within this deposit were several large blocks of stone, identified as Doulting limestone, stacked roughly in places around the outer edge of the chamber. Surviving within the flue of the kiln was a thin band of compacted silty clay mixed with many small fragments of mortar, burnt and unburnt stone, burnt sand and charcoal, 9035. Above this floor was a spread of banded mortar with small burnt stones, 9036, which continued out beyond it to the west.

The foregoing elements are associated with the construction and use of the kiln; a further group represent events relating to its subsequent history. Much of the upper part of the kiln chamber was filled with a mixed deposit of silty clay soil, 9018, incorporating markedly less lime and burnt debris from the kiln's operation, but some pottery and animal bone. Partly sealing this fill but also merging with it was a more mixed deposit, 9030, of mortar fragments, lime, and burnt sandstone, some of the latter fragments having partly fused surfaces. Both of these deposits accumulated following abandonment of the kiln, the latter evidently representing part of its collapsed upper structure. Additionally, these deposits, particularly 9018, spread beyond the bounds of the kiln to the south, where they formed the upper fills of a pit, F913, cut into the south side of that structure. This sub-rectangular cut, at least 1.2m wide and over 0.5m deep, was obliterated further to the south by medieval and later features. Its lower fills incorporated deposits 9032 and 9024, which appeared to originate in part as redeposited material from the kiln chamber. The latter contained a well-preserved and finely moulded bronze figurine of a *lar* (Fig. 15), lying face-up and with its head to the north-west. This lay within the former bounds of the kiln, at the level of its internal platform and near the base of the later cut. Some of the material which filled the top of the abandoned kiln had also spread north and westward as a thin layer of silts, 9033, incorporating some lime and burnt material, and as a similar deposit, 9038, above the remains of the flue.

Close to the limekiln was part of a ditch sloping downhill, F912, surviving up to 0.4m deep and almost 1m wide, which contained a little pottery of broadly similar type to that in 9018. Further away to the north-west a larger ditch, F506, was traced east–west for some 20m,

surviving up to 2.5m wide and at least 1m deep. Although not bottomed, it contained roof tile fragments and a sherd from a 4th-century colour-coated bowl (Figs 7 and 10: Section S). Two other less substantial ditches, F916 and F503, were located further west, but lacking associated finds their attribution as Roman is less certain (Fig. 9: Trench F). A handful of residual Roman pottery and tile fragments were also recovered from several medieval deposits, and other possible features were occasionally seen in the lower levels of modern construction trenches across the site.

Period 2: The Conquest to *c.* 1150

Pre-Castle Occupation

Above the Period 1 buried soil were layers of silty clay, 8014 and 5007 (Fig. 9: Trench J; Fig. 10: Section S). In one area the layer contained charcoal and patches of redeposited natural, with areas of burning and spreads of stone. A number of features were recorded including a beam foundation trench, F820, cut into the natural surface (Fig. 10: Section N). An associated clay floor level, 8038, to its south had been laid directly upon the natural surface, from which the buried soil would thus have been cleared. Some 15m to the east (Trench W), two parallel beam foundation trenches, F834 and F835, both over 3m in length were recorded in section possibly representing a timber structure 3.3m wide and at least 3.5m long. A lowered area, F839, 0.2m deep and traced for 3m, occupied the same stratigraphic position and appeared to respect the structure to its south.

Nearby, a number of pits were recorded in Trenches J and W cut from the level of layer 8002. Pits F802, F803 and F838 were filled with dark silts, and pit F803 was sealed by layer 8014. A possible stakehole was also seen nearby. Of two other pits, one, F840, filled with a soft dark clay with some yellow clay patches, had been cut through the lowered area F839, while the second, F830, was recorded further to the south in Trench V.

Part of the west side of a deeply cut linear feature, F707, is interpreted as the remains of a massive ditch whose full width and depth is unknown (Fig. 7). The ditch was recorded in Section S where it was seen to cut 5008 from Period 1 (Fig. 10: Section S). It was also recorded some 5m to the west and at a horizon of levelling for the new development to the east. These locations of its edge demonstrated a curve to the south-west. The ditch line is likely to have been obliterated elsewhere by the Period 3 enclosure ditches but like its successor F702 may have come to a butt end to the east.

Layers 5007 and 8014, pit F803 (8003), and beam trench F834 (8066) contained pottery of 11th or 12th to 13th-century date (fabrics U1, U14, O1, O2 and O4) together with a significant proportion of 10th to 11th-century material.

Castle Great Tower and Inner Bailey

The earthwork remains of Castle Cary castle comprise an inner and outer bailey built on a natural spur at the foot of Lodge Hill (Fig. 3). Within the oval inner bailey, excavations in 1890 recorded the foundation raft of a great tower (Gregory 1890). The two very simply presented plans show an 80ft square marked by wall foundations 15ft wide and with a narrower foundation running north–south across the centre of the square. A maximum surviving depth of footings of 13ft (4m) is shown, with the foundations stepped down from east to west. Stone robbing had been greater on the west side and was probably complete in places. On the north side the plans suggest a forebuilding with what may have been steps leading to an entrance on this side. This is less clear on the main plan which could instead be interpreted as indicating an added tower on the north side. Large quantities of Doulting stone chippings spread around the inner bailey indicate that stone from that source was used for the great tower and was dressed on the site.

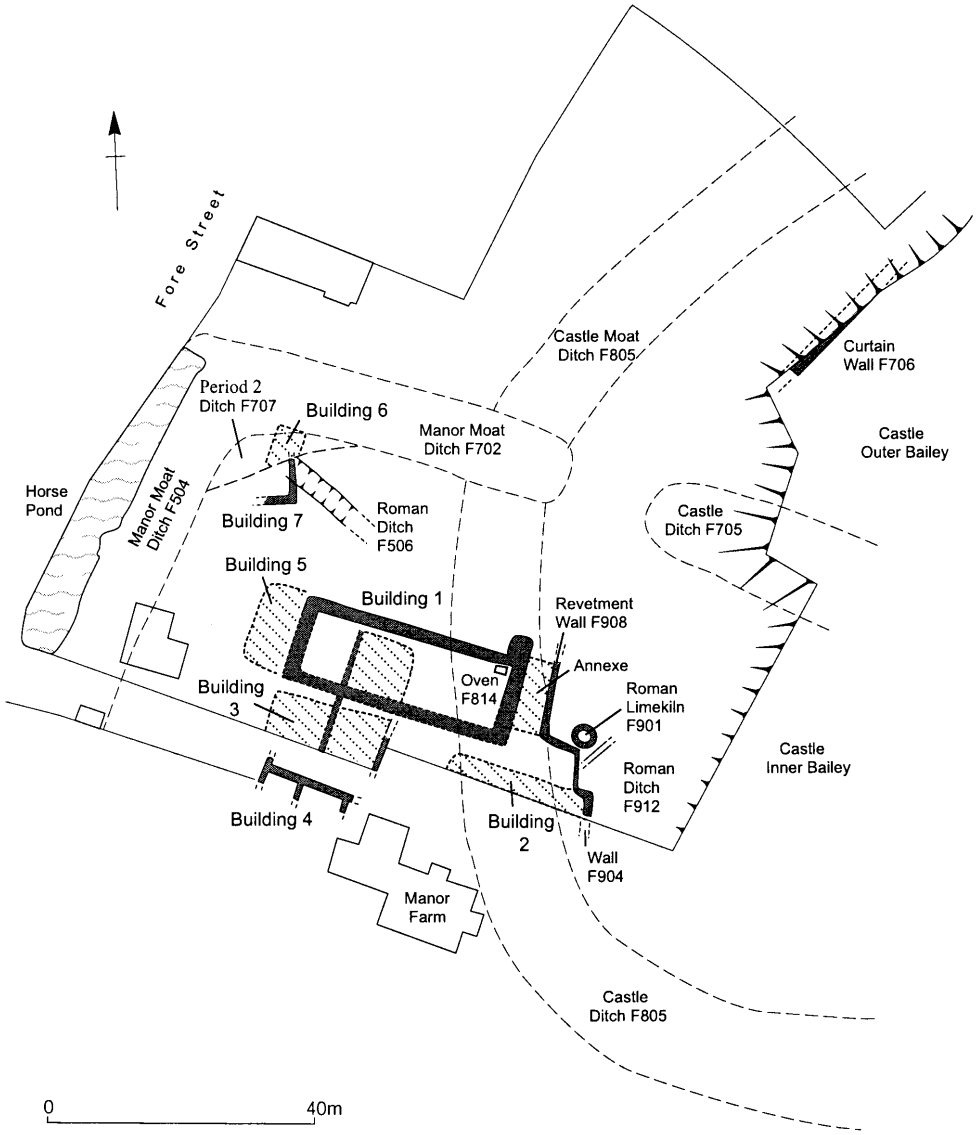

Fig. 7 Location of principal excavated features of all periods

North and east of the tower, within the bailey area, a crescent-shaped earthwork bank survives which was partially excavated in 1890. The natural surface was not located beneath the bank but was recorded on the east side where a bank height of 20ft (6m) is indicated. This bank would have been derived from the ditches which define and enhance the inner bailey earthwork and are still visible around its eastern sides, although in part here a natural combe associated with the source of the River Cary to the south. The presence of the bank suggests that the natural topography of the inner bailey area was being enhanced to make it look like a motte. The bank may well originally have continued right around the tower, using material from a ditch that also continued around the south side of the inner bailey to link with the ditch sections

on the west side discussed below. On this side encroachment of the farmyard on the west side of the inner bailey, chiefly in the 19th and 20th centuries, reveals the surviving bulk of that earthwork to be of mainly natural origin, representing the southern tip of the spur of the hill.

Castle Outer Bailey

The outer bailey survives today as a rectangular platform to the north sloping gently to the west. Pillow mounds are visible on the ground and on the air photograph (Fig. 3). A well-preserved bank and ditch define its east side, extending around to the south to separate the inner and outer bailey areas, although most of this ditch is now only visible as a shallow surface indentation. Surface indications of a former ditch are similarly slight at the north end. The all but infilled ditch separating the two baileys was exposed as a 6m deep V-sectioned cut, some 10m wide at the top, when recorded in 1977 during expansion of the farmyard (Aston and Murless 1978, 128). This was confirmed in 1999 when the south side of the ditch cut, F705, was relocated and traced to a depth of *c.* 5m. Within it a primary silt layer was overlain by silt with mortar and stones, in turn sealed by a dumped layer of local stone rubble and creamy-white mortar lying beneath deeper deposits of silty sand.

To the north of this ditch there was no evidence of a bank. The west side of the outer bailey is marked by a sharp break of slope, with no sign of a bank, and this appears to have been little modified except at the south-west corner where 20th-century developments within the farmyard have cut back into it. Excavations relating to landscaping of the current development site on top of the steep break of slope within the outer bailey were required in 2001, just north of the dividing ditch F705 (Fig. 4: Area Y). This revealed a 10m section of wall foundation, F706, with no evidence of a foundation trench, apparently set upon a weathered natural sand surface. The surviving foundations comprised two base courses of large, undressed, roughly laid and pitched stone blocks and some irregular slabs, the largest 1.3m long (Fig. 8). These were of local stone. The wall ran north-east–south-west along the break of slope with a surviving width of 1.5m. The line of large boulders may have acted as a base revetment on the west side to a mortared wall built above. This interpretation would give a wall width of 1.5–2m. Above the base footings was a layer, 7022, of local stone rubble (some burnt), mortar, and charcoal presumably indicating the limit of stone robbing. A mortared wall commencing directly above the two foundation courses is suggested. A mortar layer to the east, predating the wall-robbing, may indicate a floor or building-level here within the outer bailey enclosure.

Fig. 8 Outer bailey curtain wall foundations, F706; view north

Pottery of 12th to 13th-century date came from layer 7019 in ditch F705, and from layer 7022, the outer bailey wall robbing layer. The wall fill itself, 7025, yielded a single sherd of pottery of the same date.

Castle Enclosure Ditch

The fieldwork produced remarkably clear evidence of the Norman castle ditch, F805, defining the west side of the inner and outer baileys, a feature whose location and character was wholly conjectural until

then (Fig. 7; Fig. 9: Trench J). The earlier ditch, F707, had been deliberately infilled with a uniform deposit, 5014, of brown clay with occasional charcoal and stone in which was noted sharply angled backfilling lines (Fig 11: Section S). To the north, an upper backfill layer, 5019, was of mortar and stone, but no direct stratigraphic relationship was observed between this primary ditch and its successor. The evidence suggested that the new enclosure ditch had been cut through the Period 1 buried soil, 8002, and along the contour line across the slope, the west side of the ditch marking the original line while the east edge was truncated in places by terracing for the farmyard. In consequence, some of the ditch widths recorded are 2–3m narrower than the original *c*. 10m upper width indicated by Section J. A depth of at least 3m was suggested by evidence from a geotechnical pit, and a full depth of 5 or 6m is likely. Only the upper ditch fills were sampled by excavation, comprising silty clays with some stone and charcoal.

The dividing ditch, F705, between the inner and outer baileys, was not cut down to the level of the western ditch and must therefore have run out on the original slope of the hill immediately above the latter's eastern edge. Running parallel with the inner edge of ditch F805 in one area for 11m was a wall, F908, 2.2m wide, formed of large unmortared limestone blocks including smaller packing stones, some burnt (Fig. 9: Trench J). This had been set on the sloping ground at the foot of the castle keep mound possibly as a revetment.

Pottery from 8005, an upper fill of F805, was of 12th to 13th-century date and that from layers 8019 and 9006 sealing the ditch was 11th to 13th century.

For a discussion of the context of the Period 2 evidence see p. 119.

Period 3: mid 12th-13th century

Manorial Enclosure Ditch

The backfilled Period 2 ditch, F707, and the subsequent great circuit, F805, now silted up, were cut and superceded by a new ditch layout. The north side of the new enclosure, ditch F702, terminated at a butt end to the east just beyond the eastern edge of the Period 2 castle ditch. Westward it ran straight for over 40m to then turn sharply southward as F504 (Fig. 7). Both sides of the ditch were seen in Trench G (Fig. 10) where a surviving width of 10m was recorded, but only the south side in Section S (Fig. 10) where its inner lip may have been cut by Building 6 in Period 3 discussed below. The western ditch, F504, cut layers 5008 and 5007 from Periods 1 and 2 (Fig. 9: Trench F).

Late in the Period 3 sequence, an internal bank, F516, over 6m wide and 1m high, was represented by a dump of redeposited natural clay which overlay layers 5004, 5005 and 5011 discussed below. A stone-filled wall foundation trench, F502, may have been associated and represent a wall line along the crest of the bank (Fig. 9: Trench F). There was no evidence of an interior bank further north.

The line of the western ditch may well still be marked today by the Horse Pond, and, further south, by the curving course of Park Street turning eastwards to the Park Pond, perhaps the southern demarcation of the enclosure. Stuart Prior argues below (p. 122) that this line was a repetition in large part of the Period 2 ringwork, and that the new manorial enclosure may have included the earlier castle mound. The coincidence of the lines of F702 and the Period 2 ditch F705 separating the inner and outer bailey seem to be deliberate. The outer bailey was now excluded and this new enclosure would have been *c*. 150m by 100m in area.

Building 1

Within the new enclosure the best explored structure was a stone-founded building *c*. 35m long by 10m wide – Building 1 (Fig. 7; Fig. 11). Its east wall, F801, was 1.1m wide and set on a 1.8m wide foundation of local stone (Fig. 10: Area N). The wall had larger facing stones

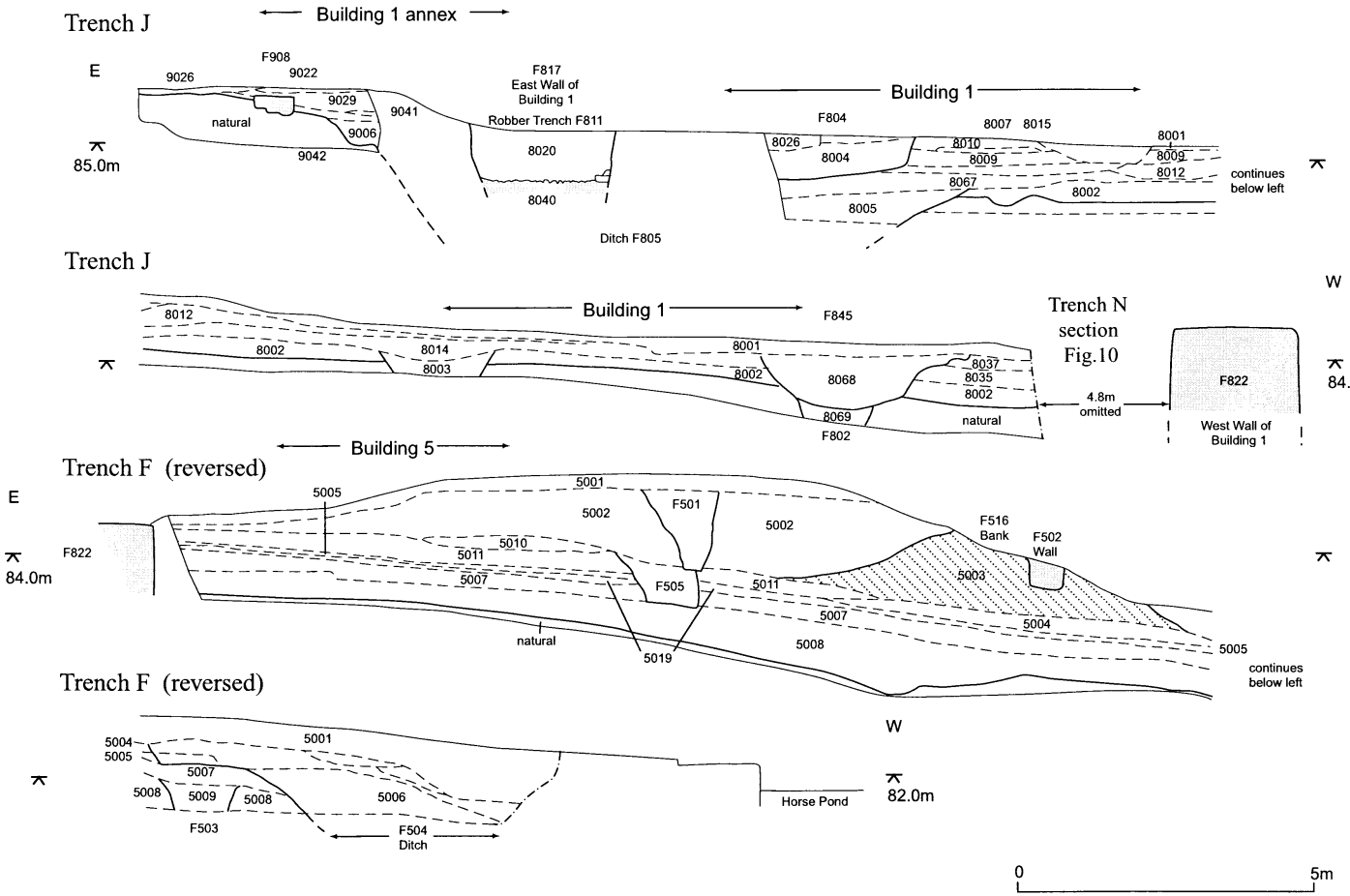

Fig. 9 Sections, Trenches J and F; for locations see Fig. 4

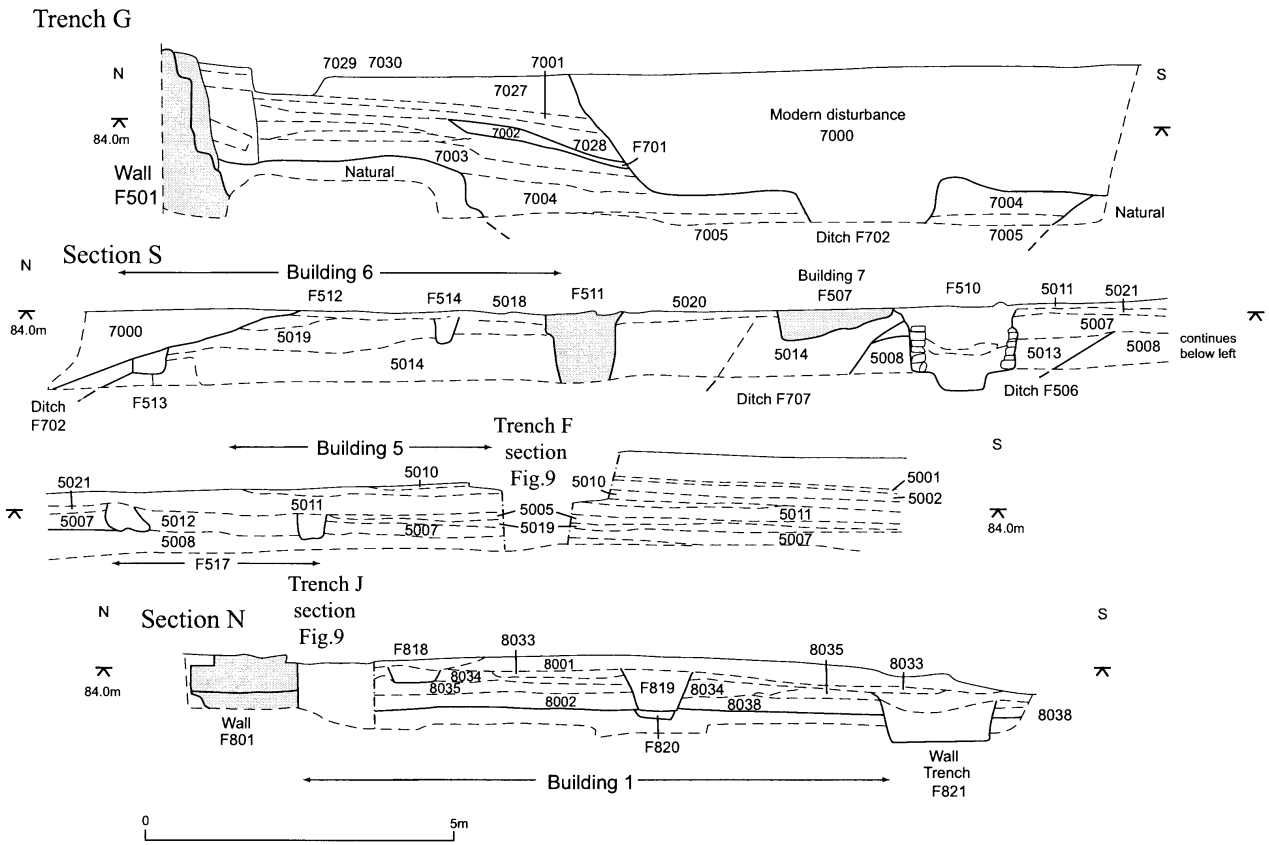

Fig. 10 Sections, Trenches G, S and N; for locations see Fig. 4

than the rubble core stones, roughly dressed and set in a pink/cream mortar. The upper two courses of the foundation were also mortared and the lower courses, generally three more, were set in clay (Fig. 12). The north wall foundation trench cut the Period 2 pits F802 and F803 and here the foundations had been cleared to the base of the pits with the stone-filled trench across F802 bottoming at 2m below the natural clay surface. Much of the west wall, F822, had been cut away by later activity, but its junction with F801 survived as well as a 2m length to the south. The mortar used here was cream/white. The east wall, F817, was bonded with F801, but only the lower foundation courses had survived extensive stone robbing (Fig. 9: Trench J). The foundation was over 2m wide and at least 1m deep with mortar used here to bond the footings. The east wall foundations continued north for another 2.5m beyond the north face of F801, though also extensively robbed, presumably as a buttress, F812. These more massive foundations of F817 and the existence of F812 reflect their position within the less stable fills of the Period 2 ditch, F805.

Locating the south wall of Building 1 was more problematic, as no *in situ* stone wall or foundations or walling running east–west was found. A large trench, F821, may represent a completely robbed foundation trench (Fig. 10: Area N). This suggests a wall line continuing for some 9m from a presumed junction with F822 but thereafter, there was no evidence of a trench or foundations in contractor's trenches for another 15m (Fig. 4). Beyond that to the east there were no more opportunities to test the wall line. Contractor's trenches cut just to the south revealed no evidence of an east–west wall. This evidence must indicate a different construction for the south side of the building and the possibility that it had pillared supports and an opening across the centre, with walls only at the east and west sides of the frontage.

Part of the eastern half of the interior of the building was recorded in plan, and successive floor levels over an area of 6 by 12m were recorded. An initial cream/white mortar floor, 8012, had been set directly on earlier levels, and was succeeded by a layer of yellow clay with mortar and stone, 8009. On this was a thin occupation layer of dark soil with charcoal and stone, 8008, which had then in turn been sealed beneath a latest floor level of cream/yellow sandy mortar, 8007 (Fig. 10: Trench J). To the west similar floor levels were seen in section, comprising a very mixed layer of brown silty clay with a thin mortar surface, 8035, which underlay a further clay layer, 8034 (Fig. 10: Area N). Like the extensive layers to the east, these floors appeared uninterrupted and were recorded north–south over the width of the building.

Pottery of 12th to 13th-century date came from floor levels 8012, and of 11th to 13th-century date from an occupation deposit, 8015. A similarly dated *terminus post quem* is given by the pottery from the Period 2 pit F803 and layer 8014 which were cut by the building.

Building 1 Exteriors

Directly to the east of Building 1 was a sequence of deposits sealing the uppermost fill of the Period 2 castle ditch, 9006, and the Period 2 wall F908 (Fig. 9: Trench J). These comprised layers of clay and sand, 9041 and 9042 beneath a puddled clay, 9029, upon which was set layers of mortar, 9022, and stone spreads. These indicate the internal floors of a structure of which no other evidence was found. This may have been an annexe to Building 1 built against the hillslope and with floors 1m higher (Fig. 7; Fig. 11).

To the south of this area were sections of wall or robbing trenches, a robbed out wall trench, F903, and a section of wall F909 with a turn to the west at its north end and a turn to the east at its south end connecting with wall F904 further south (Fig. 7; Fig. 11). The latter had been set directly into the natural slope at the foot of the castle mound while there was a 3m deep terrace, F914, to the east of F909. These walls seem likely to represent revetments at the base of the hillslope.

South of Building 1 were widespread layers of clay with mortar and stone overlain by cream and white mortar spreads suggesting the surface of an uninterrupted courtyard area fronting the building.

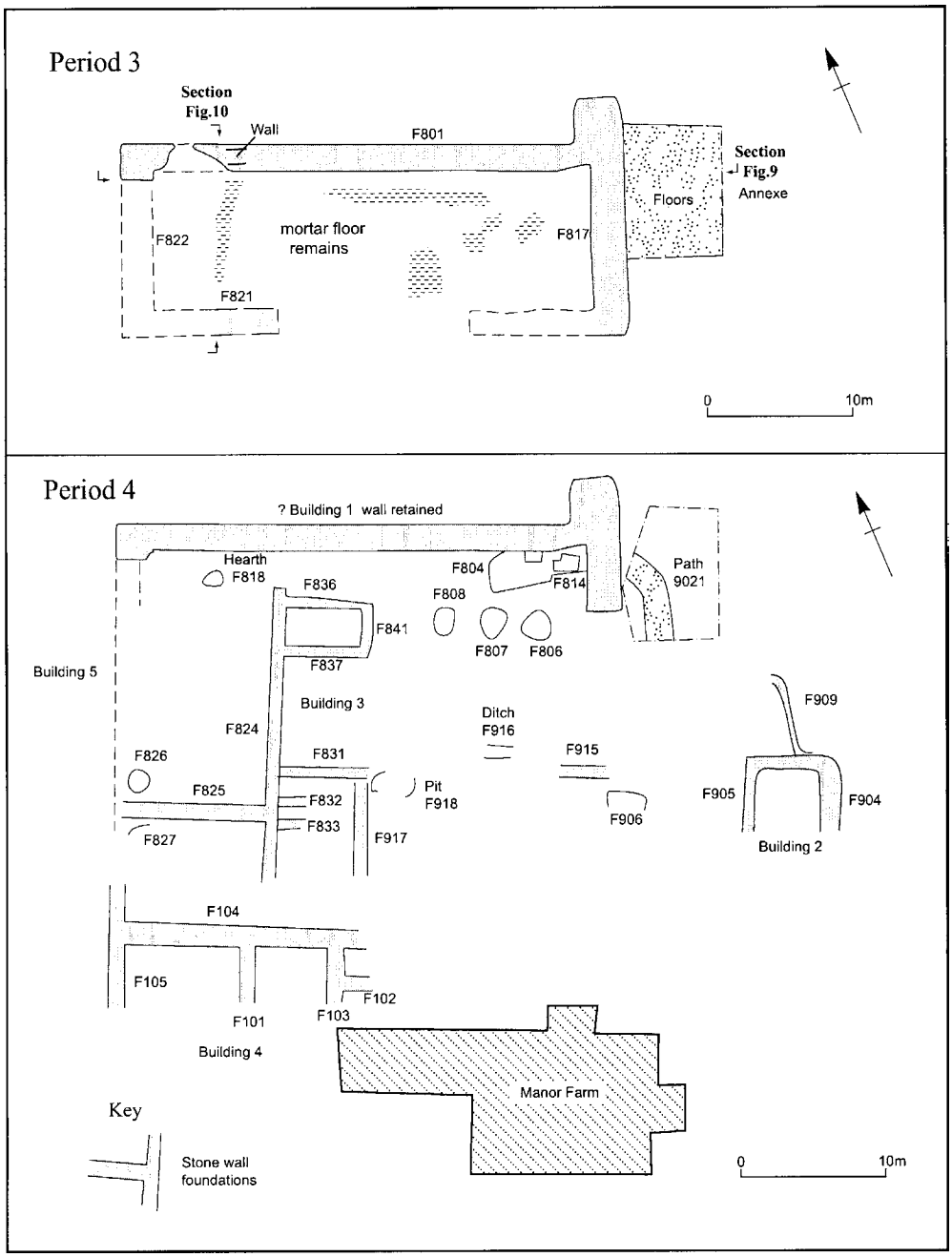

Fig. 11 Building 1, Period 3, and Buildings 1–5, Period 4

To its west, layers of grey/white mortar, 5005, and yellow clay with bands of sand and crushed stone, 5019, overlay the Period 2 buried soil (Fig. 9: Trench F; Fig. 10: Section S). This deposit spread downhill for some 20m from the west side of Building 1 as far as the eastern edge of the moat ditch F504, which appeared to cut it. An equivalent layer north of

Fig. 12 Building 1, west end of partly robbed wall foundation F801; view west to F822

Building 1 petered out northwards within 3m. These layers appeared to mark the construction level for the building and probably other contemporary structures here. To the north in Section S, layer 5005 terminated in a terraced area, F517, containing a dump of weathered stone rubble with mortar and clay, 5012, almost certainly the site of another small building.

Above 5005 were layers of clay, 5004 and 5011, which could be material spread from ditch digging to the west immediately prior to construction of the bank F516 above. These continued westward almost to the edge of the moat ditch F504 and eastward to butt against the bottom exterior courses of Building 1, but were truncated further north by later activity (Fig. 9: Trench F).

Building 6

Two parallel stone wall foundation trenches, F513 and F511, were components of a building, Building 6 (Fig. 7; Fig. 10:Section S). The northern trench was slighter than the southern but both were filled with unmortared local stone rubble. One bottom wall course of dressed Doulting and local stone blocks and rubble set in loose mortar survived above F511. Between the walls were thin rubble, clay and mortar floor levels, 5018, sealing a shallow sill-beam trench, F514.

A roughly cobbled surface, 5020, probably an exterior yard, separated Building 6 from a stone-lined pit, F510, stepped down to a narrower cut at its base This may have been a kiln or oven associated with the building, cut right on the lip of the infilled ditch F707, and postdating it, although stratigraphic evidence of its relationship and that of Building 6 with Building 1 was equivocal, later deposits above having been truncated. The pit, F510, had been filled with successive layers of stone rubble, soil, mortar and charcoal.

Pottery from pit F510 was of 12th to 13th-century date.

Discussion

The east end of Building 1 was carefully founded to counteract the weakness of building over the Period 2 castle ditch fills, and its floors and building level lay directly above the Period 2 surface and occupation remains although some terracing may have removed earlier Period 3 occupation. Its west end was sited at the break of slope down to the west enclosure ditch and the east end abutted terracing at the foot of the former castle mound, suggesting that the terrain had been thoughtfully used to accommodate the great length. The size of the foundations, their depth across earlier features, and the width of the walls must all be an indication of major load-bearing intentions. The pottery dating evidence suggests a 13th-century date.

Long stone buildings are found widely on castle and monastic sites. These are generally found against precinct walls and are less substantially built than Building 1. The best parallels are later medieval barns especially monastic barns, so called tithe barns, which may have

Fig. 13 Oven F814, Building 1; view south

partially open sides and an absence of internal divisions. Building 1 is most likely to have been the manorial barn, its great scale reflecting the manor's economy. Its position, blocking off the enclosure and facing south would suggest that it lay on the north side of a contemporary manor house.

Period 4: 14th-15th century

POST-BUILDING 1 ACTIVITY

Building 1 went out of use at the end of Period 3. Its north wall, however, seems likely to have been retained. Much of the footings of that wall survived, in contrast to very extensive robbing of the other walls, and only post-medieval cuts had been made into them. Although perhaps an original feature, the inner face of the wall above its foundation courses had been roughly plastered.

Further evidence of reuse was offered by Period 4 features. The wall had been cut back to accommodate a rectangular stone-floored oven, F814, cut through the Period 3 floors (Fig. 11; Fig. 13). This survived as a paved area with an opening to the west bounded by a single mortared course of squared limestone blocks set in a trench, F813, and packed round with clay. To the west was a fire pit, F804, over 3m long and some 0.5m deep, also cut into the floor of the building. Both fire pit and oven were filled with an extensive deposit of ash and charcoal inter-mixed in complex layers with clay bands, 8004 (Fig. 9: Trench J). Only the upper levels of these features and deposits were excavated, but the evidence suggested that the clay fill within trench F813 was the base of a clay superstructure around the oven. No other remains of this had survived, but a narrow rectangular slot, F816, cut into the south-east edge of the pit, may have taken an associated timber support. A small rectangular stone rubble plinth, F815, at the junction of oven and firepit was set into the latter and may have been part of a later structure.

The west wall of Building 1 may also have been retained as is suggested by the evidence from Building 5 and the layout of Buildings 3 and 4 discussed below.

Further evidence for the disuse of Building 1 was the presence of several medieval pits cut through the latest floor levels of what must by then have been an abandoned building. These comprised pits F806, F807, F808, F826 and F827. At the west end of the building a hearth,

F818, had been cut through the latest internal floor levels. Set into the floor of the Period 3 annex at the east end of Building 1 was an area of rough cobbling, 9021, representing a track or hardcore infilling over sunken and worn areas in the underlying floor deposits. This curved towards the oven and may have crossed the robbed east wall of Building 1 or its levelled foundations. The path suggests that the eastern annex was no longer in use.

Pottery of 12th to 13th-century date came from the oven, F814, from pits F806–9 and F826, from the east and south wall robber trenches of Building 1, F811 and F821, from hearth F818, and from the path 9021. A sherd of fabric 04 of 13th to 14th-century type came from pit F808.

Building 2

Evidence for Building 2 was derived almost wholly from contractor's trenches (Fig. 4; Fig. 11). An eastern room seems to have utilized the Period 3 revetment wall F904, which formed its east and north sides. Its west wall, F905, was seen as a narrow rubble foundation in a contractor's trench with internal floor surfaces of mortar set on clay in a room 4.5m wide. Above the mortar floor were clay occupation deposits. The wall F905 may have been a threshold or partition, for there was evidence of further floors to the west which had been cut by a shallow pit or trench, F906, with a level base and stony rubble fill. Patchy mortar surfaces and spreads of burnt material continued further west and to the south of Building 1 for at least another 15m, suggesting a suite of rooms here and perhaps a link with Building 3.

Amongst coarse pottery of 12th to 13th-century date was a single sherd of a 13th to 14th-century Bristol ware glazed jug.

Building 3

Structural remains south of the north wall of Building 1 were seen only in contractor's trenches (Fig. 11). A robbed wall trench, F824, was recorded in half a dozen different exposures running north–south and terminating 2m short of F801. No foundations or wall courses survived in the sections located but a steep-sided and flat-based profile, *c.* 0.7m deep, contained loose stone rubble mixed with mortar. To the east a room was marked by stone-filled foundation trenches, F836, F837, and F841, and further south a rubble-filled foundation trench, F917, was traced running parallel to F824. Of three further but less substantial robbed wall trenches running east–west between F824 and F917, the northernmost, F831, may have linked them and marked the north wall of another room. The two narrower trenches, F832 and F833, were cut from a higher level, but could represent internal features or components of a later structure. Further east were a wall, F915, and a ditch, F916, perhaps an indication of a link between Buildings 2 and 3. West of wall F824 was another robbed wall foundation trench, F825, running east–west as a truncated stone-filled cut at least 0.4m deep with a flat-based profile.

Pottery from F824 was of 12th to 13th-century date.

Building 4

Further to the south were the remains of a major building only seen and salvage recorded in contractor's trenches adjacent to Manor Farm (Fig. 11). This comprised a massive east-west running wall, F104, with local stone rubble and mortar foundations, surviving up to 0.7m high and approximately 1m wide. To the west this came to a T-junction and was bonded with another stone wall foundation, F105, while to the east a bonded wall, F103 ran to the south, itself bonded with a further wall running east, F102. A shallower, rubble and mortar-filled trench, F101, whose junction with F104 was not seen, may have marked another robbed wall. An upper mortar floor level was seen, beneath which banded deposits of cobbles, burnt materials and dark stony soil were recorded above the natural sand within the area bounded by these walls.

Together, these remains evidently represent part of a large building that continues for an unknown distance to the south and east. Wall F104 was external, cut into the natural southward

slope of the ground here, as may have been the west wall F105. The northward continuation of F105 is aligned almost exactly on the west wall of Building 1 further north and may have continued as a linking boundary wall. The walls to the south mark internal rooms with floor levels still surviving. No stratigraphic links could be made to Buildings 2 or 3 but Building 4 was clearly a separate structure, since its floors and wall foundations lie more that 1m lower than the remains further north, terraced into the southern slope. Building 4 may have originated in Period 3 or succeeded earlier structures but for safety reasons it was not possible to clarify the lower archaeology within the contractor's trenches.

Building 5 and Environs

West of the west end wall of Building 1 a wall foundation, F505, with floor levels of mortar, gravel and clay, 5010, to its east overlaid the Period 3 layer 5011, indicating the existence of another structure – Building 5 (Fig. 9: Trench F; Fig. 10: Section S). The wall ran parallel to the line of the west wall of Building 1 and the floors abutted it, suggesting that F822 had been reused as the east wall of Building 5 (Fig. 7). Further east in Area T was a steep-sided and flat-based cut, F823, *c*. 0.7m deep. Its upper part had been truncated by modern activity, which had cut down to the natural sands here, suggesting that F823 may originally have been deeper. On its flat base was a thin skim of pink mortar upon which had been set thin Lias flagstones or slates. This had then been buried beneath a grey/green silt with charcoal and ash bands. On the truncated surface adjacent were pitched local stones, possibly the remains of a floor. This feature may have been a shallow cellar or sunken room belonging to another building, which could not be dated and whose full dimensions are unknown.

Discussion

The evidence from Buildings 2, 3 and 4 suggests a major building to the south, Building 4, with a linear block to the north, Building 3, dividing two courtyard areas with access between the two between Building 2 and the retained wall of Building 1 (Fig. 11). The north side of the courtyards was thus formed by the retained wall against which oven F814 was set. To the south there may have been structures linking Buildings 2 and 3, while the western courtyard may have been closed by a wall continuing the line southward of the west wall of Building 1, now part of Building 5. To the east revetment walls against the hillslope base were presumably retained from Period 3 while a pathway from the south gave access to the north-east corner of the eastern courtyard. Building 4 is likely to have been the later medieval manor house and the buildings in the courtyard to its north could be stables or service buildings. Beyond this complex to the north were further structures apparently in a less formal layout.

Apart from one sherd of 13th to 14th-century pottery from Building 2 none of the datable medieval ceramics collected could be dated later than 12th to 13th century. Period 4, however, seems likely to date later in the medieval period than this. The absence of later ceramics may be an indication that the areas examined were not those where the later medieval jugs and specialist wares would have been used and that rubbish disposal did not take place in these courtyards or, indeed, within the manorial enclosure. This would make virtually all the pottery collected from Period 4 residual. The restricted opportunities for controlled excavation and collection of material should also be borne in mind in assessing the pottery evidence.

Period 5: 16th century to present

Sixteenth to 17th Century

Infilling of the Period 4 ditches seems likely to have initiated changes in site use and layout early in Period 5. Up to 1m of the northern ditch fills were seen at the east end comprising dumps of rubble tipped in from the east sealed by silt with spreads of stone. At the north-west

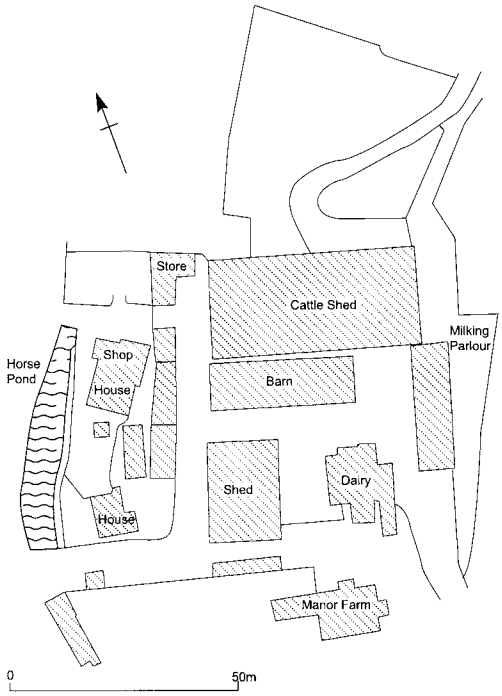

Fig. 14 Manor Farm before development

corner of the enclosure the lowest fill seen was of waterlogged blue clay, 7005, beneath a succession of grey clay and stone dumps, 7003 and 7004 (Fig. 9: Trench G), while further south the infills of the western ditch comprised dumps of redeposited clay with mortar and soil bands (Fig. 9: Trench F, 5006). This evidence would suggest a deliberate backfilling of the ditch.

A gravel and cobble trackway, F701, with indications of heavy use and repatching, had been deposited on these dumps. It ran downslope from east to west along the 16m length of Trench H (Fig. 9: Trench G). A layer of cobbles, F512, to the south may have been associated. This sloped down to the north (Fig. 9: Section S). It may have been associated with a building, Building 7, of which the south and east walls, F507 and F508, were seen cutting through the Period 4 Building 6 (Fig. 9: Section S).

In the east part of the site, other cobble surfaces were recorded as well as demolition spreads from the Period 4 buildings, a stone-lined well, and a number of pits cut from post-medieval levels. Although none of these were excavated, the absence of indications of modern material allows them to be placed early in the post-medieval sequence.

Eighteenth Century to Present

The manor house shown on the *c*. 1680 map is likely to have been the structure recorded by Collinson (1791) as having been recently demolished. Above the demolished Building 4 was deposited over 0.5m of stone rubble mixed with soil and mortar beneath more recent deposits. This material was presumably derived from demolition of the house to form a raised terrace upon which the present Manor Farm house was built, extending beyond it to the south and west.

Nineteenth and 20th-century maps, and the excavation evidence, suggest that the farm layout demolished in 1998 had developed from that time (Fig. 14). The west side of the farmyard was marked by a revetment wall, F501, built to retain a level terrace area behind it. Removal of this wall revealed the deposits shown on Fig. 11, Trench G, while cutting back of the terrace by the developer allowed the recording of Section S (also on Fig. 11). The wall itself was sectioned by Trench F, along with terrace dumps of mixed sandy clay and rubble deposits over 1.5m thick, 5002, from which occasional fragments of 18th to 19th-century ceramics, glass, brick and tile were recovered (Fig. 9; Fig. 10: Trench F, Section S).

The revetment wall line is shown on maps from 1808 and had farm buildings backing on to its east side until the 1998 demolition (Fig. 14). To the west was a row of 19th-century stone cottages, built at a lower level and overlooking the Horse Pond. The northernmost of these was rebuilt and in use as a shop in the 20th century. Wall foundations, 19th-century rubble dumps, and garden soils were recorded here, some encroaching upon the eastern edge of the Horse Pond, which is evidently now narrower. In the farmyard area to the east were plentiful remains of the 19th and 20th-century farm buildings including foundations, concrete lined pits, a large animal burial pit, and modern service trenches. Over much of the site, particularly

to the north, the modern levels directly overlay natural or only deeply cut features surviving from the medieval periods, suggesting a considerable truncation. This terracing and levelling for the farm buildings also involved some cutting back into the castle mound, resulting in the precipitous eastern slope bounding the site today.

FINDS

Figure of a *lar* from the Roman limekiln Martin Henig

This piece was recovered from the interior of a limekiln, F901, which was probably destroyed during the earlier 3rd century, and appeared to have been a deliberate deposit made at the time of its destruction (context 9024). The figurine is a heavily leaded bronze in the form of a child, dancing on tiptoe, his right leg in front of the left, and with right arm raised and the left lowered (Fig. 15). Both hands are now empty but a gash from the right hand to the wrist is evidently the seating for a *rhyton,* a type of drinking horn. He has a round chubby face, and his eyes, evidently silver, gaze upwards. His hair is dressed with a coif above his brows and long ringlets surrounding the sides and back. He is dressed in a mantle and short tunic which are richly pleated in fold after fold, the latter in particular appearing to billow around his thighs with the energy of his dancing. His feet are shod in sandals with well-modelled tongue-like flaps in front. The bronze measures 93mm in height.

The stance and arm action identify the subject as a *lar*. The *lares* are generally shown in pairs and were deities who protected crossroads, districts of towns, field and households; they are most familiar from house shrines *(lararia)* (Tram Tan Tin 1992, 205–12, plates 97–102). They often hold *rhyta* and *paterae* and this was surely the case in this instance.

Most representations of *lares* from Augustan times onwards follow the type of Hellenistic portrayals of elegant servant boys, standing or dancing. They are usually portrayed as adolescents, as in the case of a small figurine from a cache of votive objects from Felmingham Hall, Norfolk (Gilbert 1978), or the much larger and finer example, from which only a powerful and well-muscled leg recovered from a medieval context at Preston St Mary, Suffolk, survives (Plouviez 2003). A few figurines depict *lares* as infants, however, by the same process that shrank the ephebic (adolescent) *erotes* of Greek art from young men to the baby cupids beloved of the Romans. One example of a child *lar* has, indeed, been found near Ely, Cambridgeshire and is a mirror image of the Castle Cary example, holding a *rhyton* in his raised left hand and in his lowered left hand a jug (Pitts 1979, 68, no. 88, pl. 17). This is rather indifferent in workmanship and a much better parallel stylistically is the infant *lar* from Kaiseraugst, which likewise has a *rhyton* in the left hand but a *patera* containing grapes in his lowered right hand. This *lar* is attached to a dome-shaped stand and no doubt the Castle Cary figure was mounted in a similar manner. The execution, even of this fine image, falls short of the lively patterning of the folds of drapery which envelope our *lar* (Kaufmann-Heinimann 1994, 34–5, no. 31, Taf. 31).

Like some of the mixed group of figurines from the nearby temple site at Lamyatt Beacon, this figure shows in its patterning clear evidence of being the work of a Romano-British bronzesmith (Henig 1986). It is becoming increasingly clear that 'Celtic' art did not vanish from Britain in the 1st century AD but that a strong feeling for linear design and for texture continued to give unusual distinction to insular metalwork. The Castle Cary *lar* thus deserves to join such artistic masterpieces as the Silchester muse, the Catterick Vulcan, the Foss Dyke Mars and the offering figure from Earith (Henig 1995, frontispiece, 93–8, illus. 61, 78). Dating evidence, such as it is, suggests that the figure was manufactured in the 2nd century AD.

Unfortunately, its discovery within the backfill of a limekiln gives no indication of its original provenance. It could have come from a temple site; one of the Lamyatt figures was a

Fig. 15 *Lar* figurine, front and rear view; scale 10mm (photo Graham Norrie)

representation of a *genius familiaris*, often found associated with the *lares*, and with reference to that piece some doubt has been expressed as to whether such highly Roman figures would necessarily be interpreted in a classical manner. 'Possibly the true representation of both *genius* and *lar* in these Celtic-British contexts is superficial: the *genius* [such as the Lamyatt Beacon example] standing merely as 'priest' and the *lar* as 'attendant', without further association of ideas' (Boon 1973). Thus, although *lares* were especially appropriate to domestic situations, indicating that it might have originated in the house shrine of a villa or farm, the suggestion that *lares* and *genii* could have served different symbolic purposes in Britain may go some way towards explaining its deposition within the limekiln. Perhaps the Castle Cary *lar* is not so different ultimately in significance from the Earith offering (Henig 1995).

Roman pottery and tile Peter Leach

A small assemblage of Roman pottery was recovered, just over 150 sherds weighing approximately 1500g, along with a few pieces of fired clay tile – six fragments weighing over 360g. The great bulk of this material came from the limekiln, F901, or associated contexts, but there was a handful from other suspected Romano-British features and occasional pieces found residually in medieval deposits. The

pottery was studied and classified primarily by fabric, of which at least seven types were recognised. Very few specific vessel form types could be identified, although much of the material could be grouped within broader form categories. The small size and character of the assemblage determined its quantification by sherd count and weight, rather than by other methods of vessel estimation. The material was studied with reference to the National Roman Fabric Reference Collection (Tomber and Dore 1998) and local published assemblages from Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986a), South Cadbury (Leach 2002) and Ilchester (Leach 1982; 1991). More detail of the fabric and form identifications, as well as the tile, is contained within a quantified archive record by context. None of the pottery is illustrated.

The range of material was quite limited, the pottery being dominated by coarsewares, among which Dorset Black Burnished ware represented *c*. 66%, greyware fabrics 33% and others 1%, by sherd count, although by weight the Black Burnished ware amounted to little over 50%.

Visual inspection (only) suggests that the Black Burnished pottery came almost exclusively from the Poole Harbour production area in Dorset (SEDBB1), although a few pieces from a more western source may also be present (SOWBB1). Most of the pottery was relatively unabraded, although large or joining sherds were very rare. Among the forms recognised were everted-rim jars, flange-rim bowls, dishes and at least one cup or beaker. There were also occasional decorated pieces featuring oblique cross-hatch and curvilinear designs. Comparison of forms and decoration with better-dated assemblages (Woodward *et al.* 1993) suggests that late 2nd and 3rd-century material is present.

The greywares can be divided into three broad types, of which the largest was a medium-coarse, buff-grey sandy fabric (GB) with occasional flecks of mica, small red-black iron and white shell/limestone inclusions, and characteristically fired as a sandwich with a slightly greyer core. No surface treatment or decoration was seen although some exteriors were unevenly fumed dark grey. Most of this material appeared to be from one or two fairly large jars, was almost unabraded, and included some large joining sherds, although no rim forms were recovered. This pottery came exclusively from within fills of the limekiln and accounts for the relatively greater weight of greyware fabrics. The fabric is not closely matched in other local assemblages and may be of quite local manufacture, but was not intrinsically very closely datable from its perceived form or fabric.

A more diverse medium grey sandy fabric (GM) was fairly evenly fired, sometimes with slightly pimply surfaces, or with smoothed or lightly burnished surfaces. Jars with everted rims and bowls with flange rims were present, at least one of which had oblique cross-hatch decoration. This type of greyware fabric is almost certainly a local product, and possibly from more than one source. Very similar material is present in other assemblages in the locality, e.g. Lamyatt Beacon or around South Cadbury, although once again a range of local sources is suspected. These coarsewares were made in parallel with and broadly imitating the products of the Dorset Black Burnished industry.

A smaller group were fine greywares (GF) usually distinguished by a finer and often micaceous fabric, moderately well fired, and with light or buff-grey bodies. Interior and exterior surfaces may be fumed or burnished dark grey, and one sherd with acute cross-hatch decoration was recorded. Most sherds represent small or relatively thin-walled vessels, including small bowls, jars and possibly cups. Once again, this type appears to be broadly imitating Black Burnished industry products, notably the surface finish, and similar groups are found at Ilchester and South Cadbury, although not necessarily with a common source.

Of the remaining three fabrics present, one was a base sherd from a Central Gaulish Samian bowl, one sherd appeared to be from an Oxfordshire red colour-coat bowl, and at least two sherds of a well fired pink-orange fabric with a pale buff exterior may have come from the potteries at Shepton Mallet. The handful of identifiable clay roof tile fragments (6) appear to be from either *imbrex* or *tegula*, although small pieces of flue tile may also be present.

Currently, the Manor Farm Roman pottery stands somewhat in isolation, there being few other assemblages in the near locality of Castle Cary with which to compare it, while understanding of its local context is as yet limited. Since the great bulk of it was obtained from in and around the limekiln it can be supposed that the assemblage is broadly contemporary with that structure's use or shortly after. Regrettably, the collection itself contains few diagnostic form or fabric sherds, although a general 3rd-century date is favoured, supported by the few Black Burnished forms and decoration styles present and the *lar* figurine, which must have been deposited sometime after the mid 2nd century.

Although the inferences to be drawn from such a small collection are limited, this group does echo the dominance of Black Burnished wares among Roman pottery assemblages in this region. Equally,

little more can be inferred of the status of the community using it. On the face of it this material suggests a relatively modest level of sophistication, its composition being almost exclusively cooking and coarse tablewares. However, both the limekiln and the *lar* hint at greater things, and it is unclear whether the pottery originated as vessels brought to the limekiln and discarded there by its operators (most likely?), or was among debris brought from elsewhere. Despite its limited significance, the Manor Farm pottery is a useful starting point for the study of more extensive Roman assemblages that may be recovered locally in the future.

The medieval pottery Alejandra Gutiérrez

INTRODUCTION

Some 523 sherds of medieval and post-medieval pottery weighing 5.6kg were collected (Table 1). Most of the pottery derived from contexts associated with the area around Buildings 1–4; very few sherds came from any of the other trenches to the north or across the moats where circumstances limited the collection of finds. The assemblage is composed almost exclusively of medieval coarsewares, that is to say unglazed and undecorated vessels; the range of forms is also very limited.

The pottery was sorted into fabrics with the aid of a x20 binocular microscope and quantified by sherd count and weight. The percentage of rim diameter present (from which an estimated vessel equivalent or EVE can be made) was not recorded as the rim size did not always allow for a reliable reading.

Thanks are due to Yvonne Beadnell for her help with the drawing of Fig. 17.23 and to Alan Vince for his advice on the bichrome sherd.

FABRICS

A limited range of fabrics was identified based on the type and size of macroscopic inclusions. Wherever possible cross-reference has been made to already defined types, such as to the Shapwick type series (Gutiérrez forthcoming; Gerrard and Gutiérrez 1997), Bristol and Bath products (Ponsford 1991a; Vince 1984) or material from Cheddar (Rahtz 1979). The following list gives the source, where known, and date of the fabrics, followed by its description.

Shapwick AA1 Unidentified source. Late 10th–11th centuries. Usually grey core, grey margins and buff to grey surfaces. Soft, soapy fabric containing abundant glassy quartz, well sorted, <2mm; and moderate rounded voids, <3mm. Hand made, usually with thick walls.

Shapwick AA2S Unidentified source. Late 10th–11th centuries. Varied colour, usually grey/black core and light coloured surfaces (buff, brown or red). Soapy fabric containing abundant fossiliferous limestone, poorly sorted, 0.5–5mm; rare clay relicts, poorly sorted, 1–5mm; rare quartz, poorly sorted, 0.2–3mm. Sometimes surfaces show voids where limestone has burnt out. It is visually heavily gritted, with grits showing through smoothed-over surfaces. Very pure clay with slightly micaceous matrix. Hand made.

Shapwick AA calcite Unidentified source. ?Late 10th–11th centuries. Grey throughout, but dark brown exterior margin and surface. Soft, soapy fabric containing scarce calcite, well sorted, *c*. 2mm; moderate ?sandstone, poorly sorted, between 0.2–0.5mm but up to 5mm; scarce shelly limestone, 1–2mm; on the interior surface of the vessel grains of ?sandstone have been burnt out and left abundant voids, most still containing visible remains of the inclusion. Exterior surface has been smoothed over. Slightly micaceous matrix. No visible glassy quartz. Hand made.

Shapwick U1 South Somerset. Mid 11th–13th centuries. Variety of fabric colours; surfaces are often a different colour to margins and core. Usually orange surfaces and light grey core and margins. Chert-tempered fabric with abundant poorly sorted glassy quartz, occasional flint/chert. Hand made.

Shapwick U4 West Wiltshire. Late 11th, but mostly 12th–13th centuries. Grey core, buff margins and grey surfaces. Abundant mica, rare calcareous inclusions, moderate flint/chert <3mm, clay pellets, moderate glassy quartz <2mm. Smoothed-over surfaces. Hand made. Occasional sparse glaze on exterior surfaces.

Table 1: Incidence of fabrics by sherd number and weight in grams

Fabric	**sherds**	**%**	**wt.**	**%**
AA1	1	0.2	20	0.3
AA2S	21	4	245	4.1
AA calcite	1	0.2	20	0.3
U14	217	41.5	2594	43.3
U4	210	40.2	2255	37.7
U1	15	2.9	110	1.8
XX	5	1.0	42	0.7
01	12	2.3	164	2.7
02	4	0.8	68	1.1
03	20	3.8	235	3.9
04	15	2.9	220	3.7
Bristol ware	1	0.2	5	0.1
Bichrome	1	0.2	8	0.1
Total	*523*		*5986*	

Shapwick XX Medieval patchy glazed ware. ?South Somerset. Late 11th–13th centuries. Grey core and margins, orange or brown surfaces. Abundant flint and quartz, and occasional chalk, all <3mm. Splashes of clear/green glaze on exterior.

U14 For source see p. 108. 12th–13th centuries. Usually grey core and grey or brown surfaces. Fabric containing angular to well-rounded quartz grains, some transparent with polished surfaces, generally up to 0.5mm and occasionally up to 1mm; fine-grained quartzose sandstone with a white siliceous cement, 1–3mm, rarely containing brown oxidised glauconite grains. A few white tabular fragments of silicified fossil shell up to 4mm. Occasional angular or sub-angular grey chert and rare flint fragments. Flakes of muscovite are visible on the surface (they are rare in thin section), *c.* 0.1mm. Hand made. Sometimes patchy green glaze on exterior surface.

01 Unidentified source. Medieval. Variable colour, with dark grey core and brown surfaces. Hard fabric containing abundant ?sandstone, poorly sorted, <4mm; sometimes this inclusion has burnt out leaving voids; scarce shelly limestone, well sorted, usually 1mm but up to 4mm; scarce clay relicts, poorly sorted, 1–4mm; very rare white quartz, poorly sorted, 0.5–2mm; just one type of organic matter visible (calcined grass or straw?), 10mm long. The ?sandstone grit shows through both surfaces, although they have been smoothed over, acquiring a slightly pimply appearance. Irregular firing; some sherds show more abundant voids where sandstone has burnt out, others less so. Hand made.

02 Unidentified source. Medieval. Grey fabric with light grey/whitish interior surface. Hard, sandy fabric containing super abundant glassy quartz, well sorted, usually *c*. 0.5mm, but up to 1mm. Hand made.

03 Unidentified source. Medieval. Grey throughout except for brown exterior surface. Hard fabric containing abundant glassy quartz, poorly sorted, 0.2–1mm but up to 5mm; occasional chert/flint (white and grey/black), poorly sorted, 2mm up to 10mm; rare chalk, poorly sorted, 0.2–2mm; rare clay relicts, well sorted, 1–2mm. Hand made.

04 Unidentified source. 13th–14th centuries. Grey throughout with brown surfaces. Hard fabric containing abundant glassy quartz, well sorted, 0.5–1.0mm; moderate iron ore, well sorted, c.0.2–0.5mm; moderate crushed flint, well sorted, 0.2–0.5mm; rare white flint, poorly sorted, 1–5mm; rare clay relicts, poorly sorted, 0.5–1.5mm. Micaceous matrix. Patchy green glaze exterior, combed decoration. Hand made. Glazed tripod.

Bristol Ware Bristol. 13th–14th centuries. Pale yellow throughout. Inclusions of quartz and quartzite up to 1.2mm, clay pellets <1mm, occasional sandstone <7mm, iron ore 0.2mm across, rounded limestone <0.3mm (Vince 1984). Wheel thrown. Green glaze on exterior surface.

The commonest fabric on site is fabric U14. This has been subject to thin section analysis by Dr Roger T. Taylor as follows:

'Thin section of fabric U14:

quartz: sub-angular to well-rounded grains. Some show strain shadowing and a few are composite sutured grains. Up to 0.5mm

sandstone fragments: quartz grains in a pale brownish isotropic siliceous cement. One fragment with opaque oxidised glauconite grains

siliceous/chert fragments: irregular angular fragments of microcristalline silica

shell: a single silicified fragment with laminated internal structure, 0.75mm

heavy minerals: two zircon grains seen.

The temper is distinctive and has a source from the Blackdown facies of the Upper Greensand in east Devon/south-west Somerset (west of a line from Sidmouth in Devon to Blackwater/ Castle Neroche in south-west Somerset). Here the rock is decalcified and the fossils and parts of the sandstone are silicified. The polished surfaces of some of the quartz grains are also characteristic. The association of chert and flint in these tempers together with sandstone fragments suggests that the tempering sand was not quarried *in situ* but obtained from streams flowing from the Upper Greensand outcrop. At present the best evidence suggests that the clay source was the Jurassic Lower Lias. At the eastern end of the Blackdown Hills in south-west Somerset the Upper Greensand rests directly on the Lower Lias. The ware is essentially similar to late 12th–13th century pottery from Sherborne Old Castle (around 10 miles to the south). Medieval wares with Upper Greensand derived tempers have been found at Taunton and a number of localities in east Devon and south-west Somerset. Sherborne and now Castle Cary lie at the eastern edge of the distribution. An examination of medieval wares in the collections of Dorchester museum only located two sherds of this type.'

Forms

The range of vessels found in the assemblage is very limited, with a clear predominance of jars (according to the definition recommended by MPRG 1998). These have sagging bases with discernible basal angle and a range of rim profiles, everted and upright (Fig. 16; Fig. 17). Only occasionally are rims decorated; thumb-impressed rims were found in fabric U4 (2 vessels) and U14 (1 vessel). The latter displayed only a partial impression along the rim, the rest being left plain (Fig. 16.15). A strap handle also in this latter fabric was decorated with thumb impressions along the edges and may belong to a tripod pitcher or jar (Fig. 16.12). Only one of the jars in fabric U4 was glazed, although some of the sherds in fabric U14 showed some accidental spotting of glaze. Signs of sooting were common on most jars, and mainly restricted to the exterior surfaces; this would imply that the jars were placed above or near a fire and involved in the cooking and preparation of foodstuffs.

Other vessels forms were uncommon. Only several possible tripod pitchers were identified, mainly as glazed wall fragments (in fabrics XX and U14) and a possible rim (Fig. 16.9). A cauldron in fabric 03 is more complete (Fig. 17.23), and shows decoration of combed vertical lines and splashed green and transparent glaze on the exterior wall. A single definite glazed jug was identified (Bristol ware), though a possible further example (or a tripod pitcher?) in fabric U14 was also found; both are green glazed on the exterior surface. Glazed jugs are ubiquitous finds in Somerset in contexts of the 13th century and later although they are absent here. A further bichrome jug or posset pot (with external green glaze and internal yellow glaze) was also found in context 9027 (Period 4) but is post-medieval in date.

Dating

This modest assemblage of medieval pottery includes a group of fabrics (AA) traditionally dated to the late 10th–early 11th centuries. Some of them are well known in Somerset and

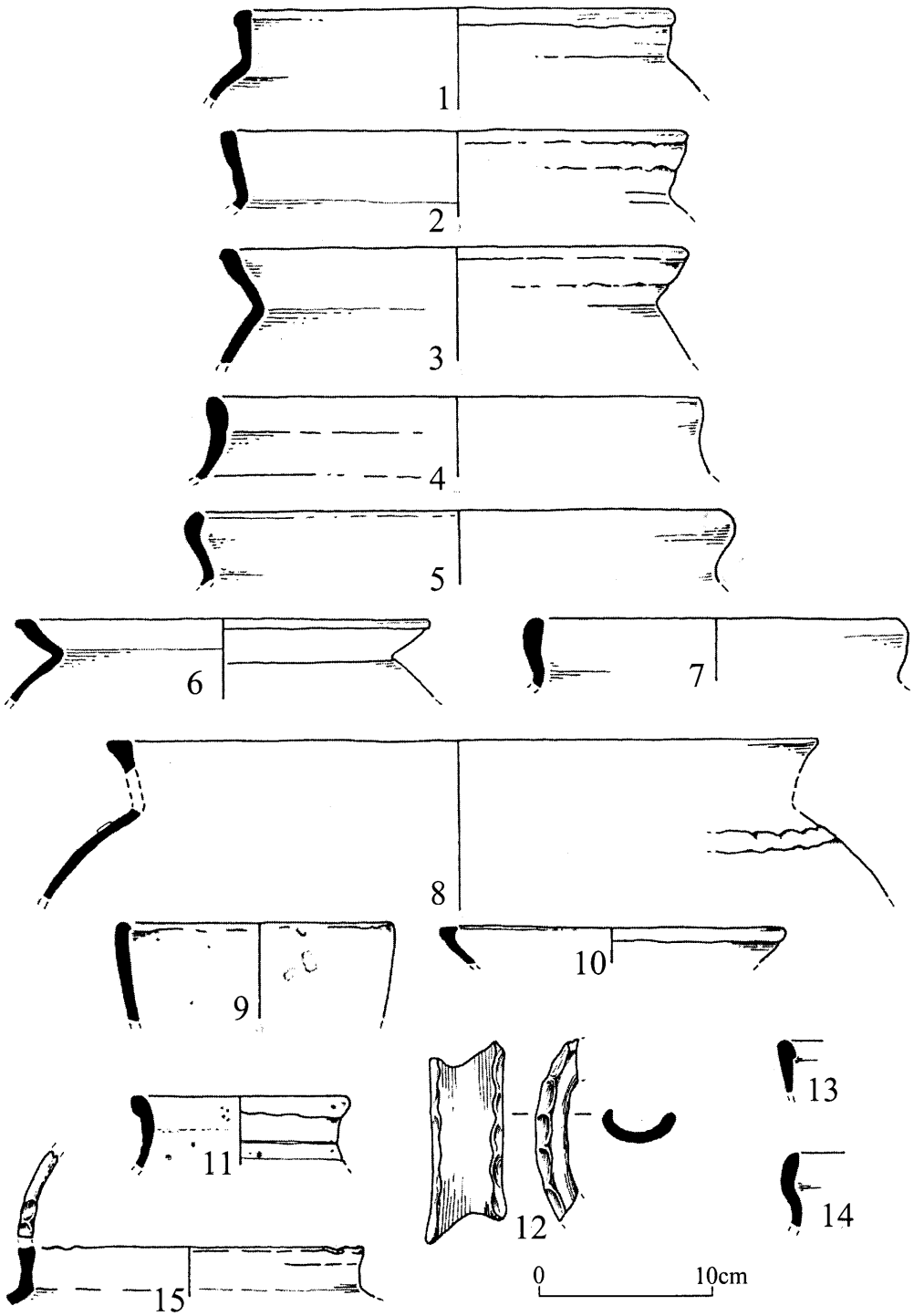

Fig. 16 Medieval pottery, nos 1–15; scale 1:4

have parallels at Cheddar (Rahtz 1979), Ilchester (Pearson 1982) and Taunton (Pearson 1984), for example. The Cheddar material was found associated with coin evidence and it has been traditionally used as a reference for the dating of this type of fabrics. At Castle Cary a few of the sherds have been found in Period 2 of the manorial area (contexts 5007, 8003, 8014), the rest being residual in later periods. Joining sherds between different contexts confirm that later activity on site has disturbed material from previous periods. On the face of it, the presence of AA fabrics would indicate that the site was occupied sometime before Period 3, the layout of the manorial enclosure which succeeded the castle in the middle of the 12th century. It is impossible to ascertain, however, if AA fabrics are linked to occupation earlier than the construction of the castle itself, maybe that already referred to in 1086 in Domesday book (Aston and Leech 1977, 27), or whether they are contemporaneous with the castle in the later 11th or early 12th century. If the latter then that would require AA fabrics to have a slightly longer life span than previously thought, although they would fit more comfortably with the suggestion that Period 2 began with the construction of a ringwork soon after the Conquest. The assemblage is simply not large enough to answer these questions.

Fabrics XX, U1 and U4 are traditionally stretched to the 12th–13th centuries. They are known in Somerset and neighbouring areas: similar fabrics to fabric U1 have also been identified at Exeter (fabric 20; Allan 1984), Taunton (fabric PT55), and Ilchester (fabric B), while fabric U4 is also known as Cheddar J (Rahtz 1979) and Bath A (Vince 1979; 1984). The rest of the fabrics recorded at Manor Farm are more difficult to date closely, except for a single sherd of Bristol Ware (fabric AAA) of the middle of the 13th–14th centuries. The Bristol jug appeared in context 9010, a floor surface contemporary with the use of Building 3 in Period 4, and this helps to date the succeeding later medieval manorial complex. Fabric U14 appears in all phases of the site and must also date to the 12th–13th centuries by association with the other fabrics. Fabric 04 is represented by just one vessel in Period 4 and would date to the later end of the chronological period in question (13th–14th centuries).

Apart from fabrics AAA and 04 which are clearly restricted to Period 4, there is no clear phasing in the deposition of the other vessels. Most of the fabrics are present in all three periods of the manorial area, which shows some degree of redeposition through the extended use of the site together with the longevity of these coarsewares fabrics.

Discussion

Fabrics U14 and U4 are the commonest on site, representing around 80% by sherd count and weight of all the medieval pottery (Table 1). U14 fabric appears well spread across the site whereas the high number of sherds of fabric U4 includes sherds from just two broken vessels: 106 sherds (1205g) belonging to one vessel from contexts 8025 (Period 4) and U/S, and 63 sherds (500g) from a second vessel found in context 9010 (Period 4). The rest of the fabrics are more scarcely represented, a handful of them with just one sherd, and the rest with a few sherds from the same vessel, such as fabrics 03, 04 and AA2S (the latter may represent one or two vessels).

With the exception of the slightly earlier AA fabrics, the group of pottery represented here dates to the 12th–14th centuries. For an assemblage of this date, and in spite of the small number of sherds recovered, it is surprising that jugs are so scarce. Somerset and Bristol jugs are common in this area from 13th century contexts onwards, including Ham Green jugs (Ponsford 1991a), Donyatt wares (Coleman-Smith and Pearson 1981) and those from other as yet unidentified Somerset sources ('South Somerset wares'; Allan 1999). It has been postulated that it is in the later 13th century that Donyatt wares replace local products of the 12th and 13th centuries, such as at Ilchester (Pearson 1982, 178). The absence of jugs at Manor Farm would help refine the dating of the pottery recovered here, were it not for the Bristol ware sherd of the 13th–14th centuries found associated with Building 3. Unless this sherd was intrusive, the absence

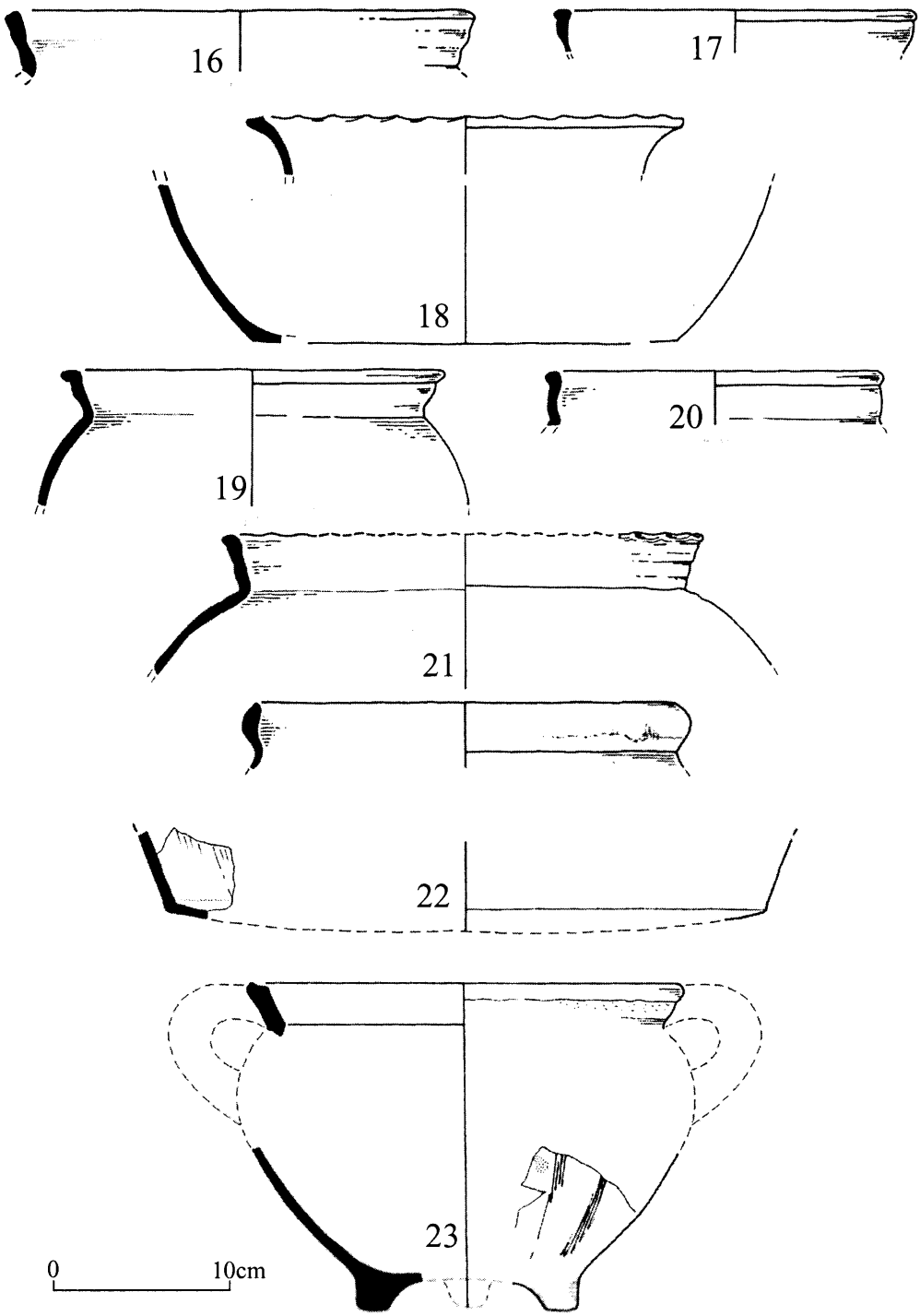

Fig. 17 Medieval pottery, nos 16–23; scale 1:4

of glazed jugs in the 13th century needs to be explained in other ways which may, for example, be linked to the function of the space excavated or ways in which rubbish was disposed of.

The medieval assemblage recovered at Castle Cary is small, local and limited in range of types and sources represented and there is little hint that the site is that of a manorial complex. This could be related however, to the limited scale of the excavation and, above all, the effect of later building programs on the earlier phases of the site.

THE ILLUSTRATED SHERDS

Fig. 16: fabric U14
1: 01/Y/7022, Period 2
2: 99/G/F/5015, Period 4
3: 99/G/F/5017, Period 4
4: 99/J/8010, Period 4
5: 99/J/8010, Period 4
6: 99/M/9010, Period 4
7: 99/M/9008, Period 4
8: 99/K/9021, Period 4
9: 99/J/8031, Period 4
10: 99/M/9012, Period 4
11: 99/M/9027, Period 4
12: 99/J/8029, Period 4
13: 99/J/8029, Period 4
14: 99/J/8031, Period 4
15: 01/R/8055, Period 4

Fig. 17
16: fabric AA1, 01/R/8055, Period 4
17: fabric U1, 99/J/8018, Period 4
18: fabric U4, 99/J/8015, Period 3
19: fabric U4, 99/K/9019, Period 3
20: fabric U4, 99/F/9019, Period 3
21: fabric U4, 99 U/S and J/8025, Period 4
22: fabric 04, 99/J/8013, Period 4
23: fabric 03, 99/ M/9010, M/9014, J/8023 and J/8029, all Period 4

Charcoal Rowena Gale

This report is an analysis of charcoal recovered from the lining of the firing chamber at the bottom of limekiln, F901, dated to the 3rd century. Species identification was undertaken to indicate the character and type of fuel used to fire the limekiln.

The sample examined was large and heavy (646g) but in fact contained comparatively little charcoal (18g). The charcoal consisted of small and very degraded fragments, often rather distorted. All the fragments were extremely friable and impregnated with white deposits (?lime). Some pieces were almost leathery in texture while others seemed to be almost macerated. Undoubtedly exposure to the lime had been very deleterious to the charcoal. It was only possible to examine about 4g of charcoal in any detail.

The charcoal was prepared for examination using standard techniques (Gale and Cutler 2000) and examined using a Nikon Labophot-2 microscope at magnifications up to x400. The anatomical structures were matched to reference slides of modern wood.

Fifteen fragments of charcoal (F901: 9037) were consistent with ash *(Fraxinus excelsior)* but the structure was too degraded to assess whether it was heartwood or sapwood or to obtain evidence of the origin of the wood, i.e. roundwood or trunkwood.

Contact with the lime had clearly been detrimental to the preservation of the charcoal. Although the fuel wood included ash it was not possible to establish what proportion of the firewood this represented. It is possible that other species were also used but failed to survive in the prevailing conditions. Ash wood provides a high energy fuel and can be burnt green (unseasoned) (Edlin 1949).

The faunal remains Lorrain Higbee

INTRODUCTION AND METHODS

Approximately 156 fragments of animal bone were recovered from the site during the normal

course of hand-excavation. The majority (*c.* 85%) of this material is medieval in date (12th to 15th century) and a small proportion comes from Roman contexts (Table 2).

The assemblage offers limited scope for detailed analysis due to its overall small size. Therefore, all zooarchaeologically significant information (i.e. age and biometric data) has been consigned to appendices (archive only) and only more general points are described below.

For a full description of the methods used in the analysis of this assemblage see Davis (1992). In brief, all mandibular teeth and a restricted suite of 'parts of the skeleton always recorded' (or POSACs) were recorded and used in counts. Bones were only recorded if at least half of a given part was present; this reduces the over-recording of fragmented bones, Dobney and Rielly's (1988) zonal recording method was incorporated for this purpose. Non-countable specimens were only recorded for less common species and to take account of pathology and butchery. Bird bones were also recorded using the diagnostic zone method (after Cohen and Serjeantson 1996) but were only recorded if they retained at least one articular surface.

The ageing data of Silver (1969) was used to assess epiphysial fusion of the post-cranial skeleton and general fusion categories follow O'Connor (1989). Bird bones with 'spongy' ends were recorded as 'juvenile'. Tooth wear was recorded using the methods of Grant (1982) for cattle and pig, and Payne (1973; 1987) for sheep/goat.

Most, but not all, caprine (sheep and goat) bones are difficult to identify to species (Boessneck 1969) and are referred to as sheep/goat throughout the report.

A small number of leporid bones were recovered from the site. In Britain hare is easily distinguished from rabbit on size. However, it was not possible to distinguish between brown hare, *Lepus europaeus*, and blue hare, *L. timidus*. Most *Lepus* bones are therefore merely recorded as hare.

The Gallus/Numida/Phasianus group of closely-related galliformes are difficult to distinguish (see MacDonald 1992). However, no guinea fowl or pheasant bones were positively identified, and it is therefore assumed that fowl-like bones belong to chicken.

Measurements taken on the humerus and cattle metapodials follow Davis (1992) whilst those for pig teeth follow Payne and Bull (1988). In general other measurements follow Von den Driesch (1976).

Results

Condition and recovery

The assemblage is well-preserved, bone fragments have clean, smooth surfaces and; anatomical details and marks caused by taphonomic processes (e.g. butchery and canid gnaw marks) are clear and easily observed. Only one fragment, a deer metatarsal from a medieval context (8017: Period 4) had undergone changes in the form of exfoliation of the cortical surface, the result of physical weathering prior to burial.

All bone fragments were collected by hand during the excavation of archaeological deposits although no sieving of deposits was undertaken. As such the assemblage is biased against the recovery of small bones (e.g. carpals/tarsals) and the bones of small species (e.g. rodents, fish and amphibians).

The assemblage

Approximately 54% of the total number of bone fragments could be identified to species (Table 2: sub-total 1) and the remaining proportion could only be assigned to general categories (sub-total 2). Size categories (e.g. cattle-sized) may include undifferentiated bones from species of a similar size (e.g. cattle/horse/red deer). The deer category includes small or worked pieces of antler that could not be further distinguished.

As stated above the assemblage is small and no statistically significant analysis was possible. The Roman assemblage comprises very few identified fragments and for this reason no comparison with the medieval assemblage has been attempted. The assemblages from each period are described separately below.

Table 2: Number of specimens identified to species (or NISP) by period. Sub-total 1 refers to positive identifications involving POSACs whilst sub-total 2 refers to bones which could only be assigned to a general size category, could not be directly assigned to species, and/or are bones not included in POSAC counts (i.e. sub-total 1)

Species	**Roman**	**Medieval**
Cattle	2	15
Sheep/Goat	2	9
Pig	-	22
Horse	-	7
Dog	-	4
Cat	-	1
Fallow deer	-	1
Red deer	-	1
Roe deer	1	2
Hare	-	1
Fox	-	1
Ferret	-	1
Chicken	-	4
Sub-total 1	*6*	*78*
Cattle-sized	6	21
Sheep-sized	8	29
Deer	-	4
Bird	1	5
Sub-total 2	*17*	*55*
Total	*23*	*133*

Roman

Diagnostic bone fragments were recovered from three Roman contexts associated with the limekiln as follows. Context (9038) yielded a sheep/goat pelvis and roe deer humerus, both bearing canid gnaws marks. Four bones were recovered from F901 they include a sheep/goat tibia and fox femur from fill (9018); and two cattle foot bones, a metapodial and phalanx secunda, from fill (9025). The fox femur has a clear deep cut mark across the posterior aspect of the distal shaft just above the articulation. The evidence is limited but indicates that foxes were hunted and skinned for their fur during this period. Little is known of the Roman fur trade but similar evidence has been recorded from Roman Exeter (Maltby 1979).

Medieval

Approximately 59% of bone fragments from medieval contexts could be identified to species. Bones from the three domestic stock species dominate the assemblage forming *c.* 60% of the number of specimens identified to species (or NISP: Table 2, sub-total 1). Pig bones are more common than both cattle and sheep/goat bones and this fits the general national trend for high status medieval sites. However, in this instance the relatively high frequency of pig bones is likely to be a product of fragmentation and small sample size rather than an indication of dietary preference and status. For example many of the pig bones recovered are loose teeth from isolated contexts that could potentially have come from one maxilla or mandible. Likewise pig metacarpals are common and four were recovered from one layer (9019: Period 3); together these anatomical elements represent one pig's trotter. Thus, the apparently high incidence of pig bones can be accounted for by the combined affects of body part representation and small sample size. Other common anatomical elements include cattle distal humeri and sheep/goat tibiae.

Butchery marks were observed on six cattle bones. Most are chop marks made with a cleaver, others are fine knife cuts observed on the lateral-distal aspect of a calcaneus and medio-distal aspect of a humerus. No butchery marks were observed on either pig or sheep/goat bones.

One pathological pig bone, a tibia from (9008: Period 4) was recorded with a bony ridge on the medial aspect of the mid-shaft. The cause of this is likely to be severe bruising caused by continuous firm pressure located at one point on the bone which has lead to sub-periosteal bleeding and new bone formation. It is possible that the condition results from tethering and similar cases have been recorded from medieval Bath (Higbee forthcoming).

The remaining portion of the assemblage includes a relatively large range of mammalian species of which horse, deer and fox are relatively common whilst dog, cat, hare and ferret are less common.

The majority of horse bones occur as groups of associated anatomical elements from the same context; for instance three bones from the lower left fore-limb of one individual were recovered from Building 1 wall robber trench F811 (8023: Period 4) and a similar pairing comes from a Period 2 occupation level (5007). None of the horse bones bear butchery marks but some bear canid gnaw marks. The horse remains therefore probably represent general background detritus that may have been scavenged by dogs prior to burial.

Three species of deer have been identified from the assemblage, fallow (*Dama dama*), red (Cervus *elaphus*) and roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*). Fragments of antler are common including two worked fragments. A sub-rectangular piece of antler from a deposit associated with Building 1 (9019: Period 3) represents a possible decorative fitting. It has at least two perforations for nails one of which is still in position (Fig. 18.3). The other is the tip of an antler tine from the same context which has been hollowed out and the surface smoothed by scraping the antler in a longitudinal direction to produce a possible knife-handle (Fig. 18.2). In addition to the antler a few meat-bearing bones were also recovered. Since Norman times, deer hunting has been the pursuit of the aristocracy thus the presence of deer species reflects the high status of the occupants.

Fox bones were recovered from two separate contexts and as with the horse remains they occur as associated anatomical elements. Four limb bones from one individual were recovered from pit F807 (8011: Period 4) and a fragmented skull and mandible from F811 (8023: Period 4). None of the fox bones bear marks indicative of skinning but it is likely that fox was also hunted for its fur during this period (Veale 1966).

Dog bones also occur as associated elements from single contexts and include a femur and humerus from an immature animal under 15 months of age. Whilst no measurements were possible on these bones it was clear that the animal had extremely long limbs, particularly given its immature age, which leads to the tentative suggestion that these bones belong to a large hunting dog. The second set of associated anatomical elements come from F807 (8011: Period 4) and include a tibia and fibula.

Much less common mammalian species are represented by only one specimen each and include cat, hare and ferret. The ferret bone, a humerus, is interesting since it indicates that these animals were probably kept for hunting rabbits.

The only avian species recovered from the site is chicken which is represented by only four bones. Most anatomical elements are from the wing and include paired elements from pit F907 (9019).

Summary and Conclusions

A small, well-preserved assemblage of animal bone was recovered from the site, of which most dates to the medieval period. In terms of site formation the animal bone exhibits very little physical weathering or evidence for canid gnawing and many bones occur as associated units (e.g. bones from the same limb) indicating rapid burial whilst bones are still fresh and probably held together by soft tissue.

The Roman assemblage includes very few identifiable fragments but there is some suggestion for the hunting and skinning of foxes during this period.

Certain characteristics of the medieval assemblage are typical of high status sites. These include the relative frequency of pig bones and the presence of deer species. High rates of meat consumption are a characteristic of more affluent societies and pigs are essentially ‘meat animals’ that can be culled in large numbers due to their fecund nature and rapid rate of growth. In addition the hunting of deer was restricted to the nobility, a further indication of the high status of the site. The emphasis on hunting activity is also suggested by the presence of other species including fox and ferret as well as a possible hunting dog.

Metalwork Peter Leach

A small collection of metal artefacts was recovered from excavated contexts across the site, the majority of iron and from medieval deposits. Of at least three blades, one appears to be the tang and base from a small cleaver from a Period 4 pit F808 (Fig. 18.6). A complete horseshoe of 13th to 14th-century type came from the adjacent Period 4 pit F807 (Fig. 18.5) and fragments of another from the Period 4 cobbled track (9021) (not illustrated). A small key, possibly for a box or cupboard, came from Period 2 destruction levels (7022) within the outer bailey (Fig. 18. 4). A few iron nails and fragments of iron slag were also found, none of which are illustrated. Among a smaller group of non-ferrous metalwork the leaded bronze figurine of a lar from the Roman limekiln is the subject of a separate report (Henig above), but from the same Period 1 context (9024) came a thin plain bronze pin (not illustrated). A small folded sheet of lead found within the Period 4 cobbles 9021 may be of medieval origin.

Stone Peter Leach

Among a small collection of stone the largest group of material was flint. Most of the 13 fragments (not illustrated) recovered were worked flakes or chips; there were no recognisable artefacts and some were unworked pebbles. The worked material probably represents an offsite background of prehistoric activity. Large quantities of stone were present within some deposits as rubble or less commonly as dressed stone, some of which was still *in situ* as components of stone structures. The bulk of this material was the local Hadspen stone, much of which was rubble or only roughly dressed. Smaller quantities of better quality, cream, shelly limestone came from quarries at Doulting, several miles to the north, and had almost always been dressed, although no more elaborate architectural fragments were seen. Stone from this source had also been used to charge the Roman limekiln. In addition there were smaller quantities of Lias flagstone or roof slate fragments from some medieval contexts, and one piece of purple Pennant sandstone. Substantial quantities of shattered Lias roof slate associated with the remains of Building 4 suggest that it may in part have been roofed with this material. Excepting the flint, no samples of these materials were kept.

A handful of other artefacts were recovered, including a hone or whetstone of very fine-grained grey/green sandstone or schist that had been pierced for suspension, found in the Period 4/5 upper fills of the moat ditch F702 (7005) (Fig. 18.1) A larger example of moderately fine grey sandstone, possibly Greensand, came from a Period 4 deposit above Building 1 (8010) and may have been adapted from a broken quernstone fragment (Fig. 18.7). From Period 4 or 5 levelling above Building 2 (9008) came the fragment of a large carved stone mortar with a flat rim and part of a pierced handle, made of Doulting stone (Fig. 18.8).

DISCUSSION

Romano-British

From the deposits and remains of the Roman limekiln it is possible to reconstruct its original form and operation, and its subsequent history. Roman limekilns are found widely throughout the Empire, wherever mortar was required for stone buildings and other structures. In Britain their discovery and excavation is relatively uncommon, but they are well documented around the Mediterranean, where almost identical types are still in use today. A graphic description of construction and use is provided by the Roman author Cato writing in the 2nd century BC (*De Agri Cultura*, xxxviii; quoted in Adam 1994, 70).

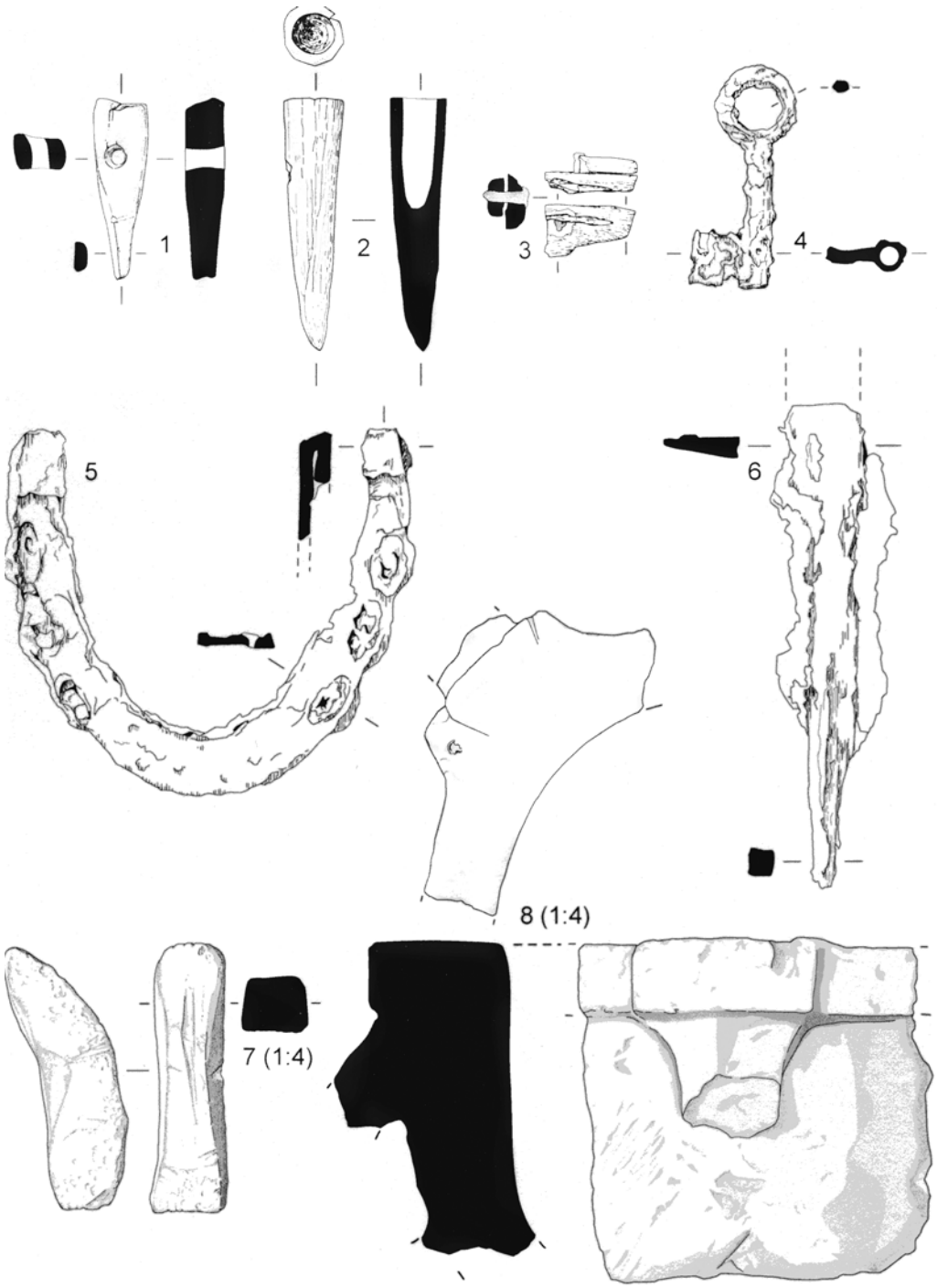

Fig. 18 Finds of antler, 2–3, metal, 4–6, and stone, 1, 7 and 8. Scale 1–6 at 1:2, 7–8 at 1:4

The similarities and differences between Cato's limekilns and those of later date found in Roman Britain are discussed in the report on a kiln at Weekley, Northants (Jackson 1973, 136), which provides a good parallel for the Castle Cary example. As at Weekley, the Castle Cary kiln was built with a single stokehole. The central pit, described by Cato, is common to all Roman examples of this type and this was intended to hold the ashes from the fire. The ledge provided support for the limestone to be burnt, which was stacked up around and over the fire pit within the chamber, leaving a cavity above it – the largest stones at the base. The survival of a few large and incompletely burnt blocks of Doulting stone indicate the need to import a purer limestone than the local Hadspen stone. Like the Weekley example, this was a 'periodic' kiln where charge and fuel were not in contact, leading to a finer lime and indicating its employment in building works. The separation was achieved by laying the charge on a wooden frame supported on the ledge. When the wood disintegrated the stone above would support itself. Although relatively little of the kiln superstructure survived, it is clear that, unlike Weekley, much of it was enclosed within the natural sand, the kiln having been dug deeply into what had once been a much steeper sloping hillside, with its aperture at the top close to what was then ground level, making loading easier. The stokehole presumably then opened lower down the slope, though perhaps largely built up with stone. This faced west to benefit from the prevailing wind when the fire was lit. One element found at Weekley but not seen at Castle Cary was a rakeout pit at the mouth of the stokehole, a feature presumably destroyed here by the cut for the Norman castle moat.

The evidence suggests that the fire was set beneath the charge as at Cardington Mill, Bedford (White 1977; Dix 1978), and not in the flue mouth as suggested for the Period 1 kiln at Weekley (Jackson 1973, 137). Firing would have taken several days and a prolonged high temperature was required. However many firings were made in this kiln, its final use left the fire pit largely full of set lime and incompletely burnt stone, with a few other partly burnt limestone blocks left on the platform. The charcoal evidence of ash used as the fuel differs from the beech, oak and poplar used at Weekley, though, as Gale discusses (p. 112), the Cary charcoal sample may not be representative of the full range of fuels used. We make the assumption below that the limekiln lay close to the building that its lime was needed for. However, the proximity of fuel for the fire, and water, from the source of the Cary, for slaking the lime would have been equally important, as has been shown in analyses of more recent kilns (Robinson and Cooke 1962, 21). A rectangular kiln found at Chew Park probably related to the building of the small villa building there. It differed from the Castle Cary example in being wholly set within a lowered area with no central pit, served by two flues to maintain a draught (Rahtz and Greenfield 1977, 46–9). This is closer in arrangement to the second type of kiln described by Cato (Adam 1994).

The most unusual aspect of the Castle Cary kiln was its fate subsequent to the final firing. The pit or trench F913, breaching the south and west sides of the kiln, suggests a very deliberate act of destruction, rendering it no longer usable, although perhaps also made to remove the last load of lime. More remarkable was the apparently deliberate deposition of the bronze *lar* figurine found within this cut. Whatever its precise significance this was a highly accomplished piece, almost certainly of 2nd-century Romano-British manufacture, comparable but generally superior in quality to the well-known group of figurines from the nearby temple at Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986b).

The deliberate deposition of this piece within the fired remains of the kiln seems to imply that the building using the mortar supplied from the kiln was one of importance. The likeliest explanation for the presence of the *lar* is that it was a thank offering, and perhaps a request for protection. The trench cut into the kiln enabled the deposit to be made, though also perhaps a symbolic act of destruction that prevented its further use. This evidence makes it permissible to speculate on the location and status of the implied contemporary building and one possibility

is that it relates to a shrine site at the source of the River Cary. Such a site might be associated with a villa or temple establishment, perhaps with a bath-house or *nymphaeum*, where building work was underway in the 3rd century, although no hint of any such remains has ever been recorded locally. The evidence might well have been lost when the castle was built, perhaps through creation of the Park Pond. However, this hypothesis could also provide a context for recently recorded Iron Age remains behind Church Street (Heaton 2003) since continuity is the rule rather than the exception at shrine sites. It might also be a factor in the otherwise curious siting of the church of All Saints. The use of stone for mortar from a quarry at Doulting 11km to the north must be a further indication of the status of the building works and an indication that if such stone was used for its mortar, it was very likely used for the building also.

Medieval

If the siting of All Saints is seen as reflecting an earlier site of religious significance then it may not be necessary to posit the early settlement associated with it suggested by Aston and Leech (1977). The context of the Saxo-Norman pottery found on the site seems less likely therefore to be a pre-Norman settlement, the more so since much of the low-lying and probably wet ground between the excavation site and All Saints is likely to have been unsuitable for settlement. One explanation of this early material, and of the very incompletely explored early Period 2 features, is that they are evidence for a predecessor to the surviving castle with its two baileys, stone keep and massive defining ditches, namely a Conquest-period Norman ringwork. This possibility is suggested by the researches of Stuart Prior and the following text sets out the arguments that might link the historical and excavation evidence.

CASTLE CARY CASTLE – CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND Stuart Prior

A castle at Cary is first mentioned in 1138 when attacked and taken by King Stephen (Potter 1955), and this has led many to assign a 12th-century date to the site (Meade 1856; 1877–8; King 1983, ii, 442; Fry 1996, 134). However, the finding of the succession of ditches and of 10th to 11th-century pottery points to an earlier date of foundation. What would be the context and dating for this? According to Domesday Book the first Norman lord to hold *Cari* was Walter of Douai (Williams and Martin 2002, 261), and it can be argued that the holding dated back to the Conquest. It is likely that Robert of Mortain, in the absence of William who had returned to Normandy in 1067, led a planned offensive into Somerset shortly after the Conquest, and that the Normans came prepared to meet resistance, bearing in mind that King Harold himself had formerly been Earl of Wessex (Prior 1999, 17–18). Resistance in Devon and Cornwall did not end in January 1068 when Exeter fell to William shortly after his return. Harold's sons returned to England from Ireland on two occasions in 1068 and 1069, and Robert of Mortain's stronghold at Montacute was attacked in 1069 (Bradbury 1998, 229).

Apart from Robert, two Norman lords were involved in the initial campaign in Somerset: William de Mohun and Walter of Douai. The latter was the most prolific of the Norman castle builders in Somerset and his sphere of influence was the north and east of the county (Fig. 1). Here Walter was responsible for the construction of three early Norman castles – Edithmead, Batch and Cockroad Wood – and two others may also be attributable to him – Stowey and Hales; of these five castles, four are ringworks (Prior 1999, 17–18). The topography of the site at Cary and the location of the ditch and early features suggest that the initial Norman occupation on the site may have been in the form of a D-shaped ringwork of a type that compares favourably with the others known to have been constructed by Walter.

The castle is situated upon the lower north-west facing slope of Lodge Hill, and the suggested ringwork is seen as occupying a natural spur extending south-west from the foot of the hill

overlooking the source of the River Cary (Fig. 19: Period 2i). Tactically speaking this site is ideal, as it is naturally defensible, occupies an area of higher ground providing good all round visibility, affords an elevated escape route along a ridge to the north-east, and enables ready access to a potable water supply. It has been suggested that the higher ground to the south-east of the site could compromise its tactical viability (Somerset Heritage record PRN.51803), but this ground is approximately 400m away, placing the ringwork well outside the range of weapons of the period. The ringwork at Cary would have acted in concert with Walter of Douai's other castles in the region forming a line of linked sites around the north of the county.

Ringworks were relatively quick and easy to erect and provided adequate protection in a campaign situation, but such fortifications were hardly luxurious, and generally once the initial danger had passed they were revamped to provide the lord with a dwelling befitting his status. Thus all of the ringworks which Walter erected in Somerset were subsequently modified and updated. Castle Batch became a ringwork and bailey, Cockroad Wood developed into a motte with two baileys, Stowey Castle developed into a motte and bailey, whilst Hales Castle became a ringwork and bailey (Prior 2004).

The ringwork at Cary underwent similar changes (Fig. 19: Period 2ii). This work may have been carried out by Walter's successor Ralph Lovell, who held Cary from early in the 12th century (Potter 1955, 44–5; Dunning 1995, 32). The first stage of these alterations was probably the erection of the great tower, or *donjon*, inside the existing fortifications of the ringwork. The large quantity of construction debris present (formed from Doulting stone chippings), the thickness of the walls, and the fact that the tower remains include a cross-wall, indicate that it was probably a fairly substantial and impressive structure. The 'concrete like' deposit of chippings recorded in 1890 would have been formed as a result of working stone on site to build the tower (Gregory 1890, 172), and is directly paralleled at Ascot-under-Wychwood (Ascot Doilly), Oxfordshire (Jope and Threlfall 1959; Bond 2001). Following the construction of the great tower the excavation evidence suggests that the existing ringwork defences were slighted, and the western half of the ringwork went out of use, its ditch (F707) being backfilled.

Contemporaneously with the slighting of the ringwork defences, the area immediately surrounding the great tower appears to have been landscaped and a new set of defences constructed. The 19th-century excavations revealed that the area around the great tower had been covered with many tons of soil, 'of a sandy nature … mixed very largely with dust of Doulting stone, with here and there amongst it small bits of charcoal' (Gregory 1890, 172). The vast majority of this soil had probably been dug out of the natural topographical hollow north-east of the tower. This landscaping seemingly served two purposes: first, on a practical level, it covered the mass of construction debris, thereby removing the necessity to transport the waste material away from the site; and second, on an aesthetic level, it appears highly likely that the landscaping was intended to make the inner bailey look like a motte by digging away soil from the hollow, raising the height of the ground around the tower, and reducing the size of the perimeter. Once the landscaping was complete, the digging of the hollow continued on a north-west to south-east alignment at a shallower level, forming the V-sectioned cross-ditch separating the inner and outer baileys (F705). The earth dug out of this ditch formed a rampart on its south side which would probably have continued right around the perimeter of the inner bailey (visible today only as the crescent-shaped bank to the east). The soil for the rampart would also have been obtained from ditches cut to further define and enhance the inner bailey earthwork (F805) (a section of this ditch is still visible today east of the crescent-shaped bank). The inner bailey was most likely further defined around its base by the addition of the revetment wall F908 seen running parallel to the defensive ditch.

The combination of excavation results suggests that in Period 2ii a great tower was constructed, the original ringwork was reduced in size to form an inner bailey with the outward appearance of a motte, and an outer bailey was constructed, probably housing a variety of

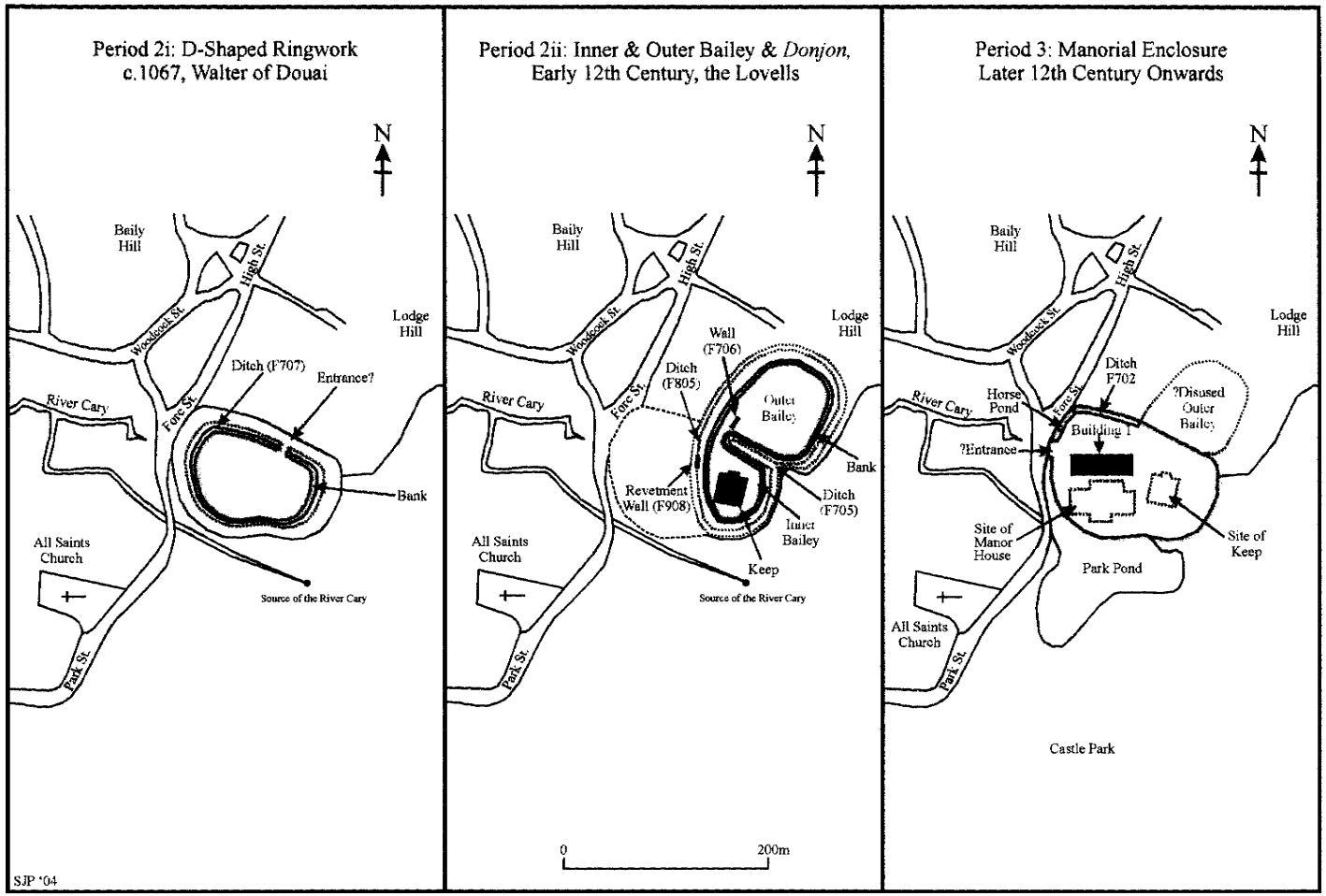

Fig. 19 Castle and Manor Periods 2 and 3, suggested stages of development

stone and timber buildings. During this construction period, according to the documentary sources, the castle was attacked twice. Ralph Lovell ravaged the surrounding countryside in 1138, as Stephen laid siege to Robert of Gloucester's castle at Bristol. The records indicate that Stephen 'lost no time in besieging Cary, and pressing the siege with vigour; throwing, by his machines, showers of missiles and fire, without intermission, among the garrison and reducing them to starvation; so that at last he forced them to surrender on terms of submission and alliance' (Potter 1955, 168–74). It seems likely, following the siege, that Ralph Lovell, having sworn oaths of submission and alliance to Stephen, was allowed to retain his castle. Ralph later declared in favour of Matilda, and in 1147, following the death of Robert, Earl of Gloucester, Cary Castle was again besieged on behalf of Stephen. Henry de Tracy erected a siege castle on Lodge Hill to the south-east of, and overlooking, Cary Castle, the remains of which are still in evidence today. But William, the new Earl of Gloucester, 'arrived suddenly with a mighty host, levelled to the ground what Henry had begun, and compelled him and his men to a shameful retreat' (ibid).

There is no mention made of a castle at Cary after the 12th century and it is possible that it was demolished following the Anarchy. Norman military use of the site can therefore be suggested to have comprised first a ringwork constructed immediately after the conquest, after which, in the early 12th century the ringwork ditches were entirely remodelled. The earlier ditches were backfilled and a new circuit cut. Within the new circuit a stone tower was erected and its immediate surroundings were then landscaped to sharpen the natural slopes beneath it to give the outward impression of a motte and to enhance the appearance of the stone tower. Following the sieges of the Anarchy the stone tower was either abandoned or demolished, the ditches were infilled and the lord's dwelling was shifted to a new location downslope from the tower, reoccupying part of the original ringwork enclosure (Fig. 19, Period 3).

One point to add to this analysis, which focuses on the practical tactical advantages of the site, is that the Norman castle builders whilst making use of existing features were also frequently aware of the symbolic importance of the sites chosen. This combination of motives can perhaps be seen in the use, common within the region, of prehistoric earthworks, as at Castle Neroche (Davison 1972), Old Sarum (King 1983) or Malmesbury (Haslam 1984). This factor may also have influenced Robert of Mortain's choice of St Michael's Hill to construct his motte and bailey castle at Montacute, allegedly the site of the discovery of a fragment of the true cross (Prior 2004). It can be argued that the Cary ringwork was also located at a site of significance to the Saxons, associated with the source of the River Cary and perhaps with a continuing religious tradition from at least the Roman period.

Prior's analysis makes the important point that early ringwork sites, associated with the use of cavalry (Pounds 1990, 8), were soon changed into more imposing establishments where symbol and practicality combined to represent dominance. At Cary the great keep on its landscaped mound and the outer bailey would have been highly visible from across the plain to the west. These excavations have been able to add the probability of a walled outer bailey and confirmation of a massive ditch below the inner and outer baileys. This ditch almost certainly surrounded both baileys and may have had a revetment wall along its interior edge. No indications of an entranceway were found on the west side and it must be presumed that the entrance was from the north across the outer bailey with an inner gateway between inner and outer bailey. The tower was perhaps entirely built of Doulting stone, material which would have produced a closely jointed and impressive finish. The use of this stone indicates that a high-quality structure was represented. It can also be seen as suggesting use of the Doulting quarries and supply from them at a time of relative political stability, that is before the troubles of Stephen's reign.

The assumption has been made that the keep was demolished in the mid 12th century, the argument being that Henry II would have wished to follow the Anarchy by slighting many baronial strongholds. This and the absence of any documentary records later than the civil war makes this a likely scenario, coupled with abandonment of the Period 2 layout, although the buildings might have been quarried over a longer period to provide material for the new manorial centre, rather than subjected to wholesale demolition.

Turning to Period 3 it is of interest to see the extent to which the Period 2 layout was abandoned. If the suggested ringwork is accepted then this early Period 2 evidence may indicate that already then the lower ground was more attractive for occupation than the higher and less accessible area of the inner and outer bailey. The change back to the lower ground serves to underline the importance of the Period 2 siting of the castle keep and baileys in terms of their visual and psychological impact on the newly dominated territory. Subsequently however the new manorial site must have been a far more practicable proposition, more accessible and more easily integrated with new urban development.

It has been assumed that the Period 3 site was defined by a new enclosure ditch from the beginning although there is no sharply defined dating evidence. The postulated ringwork ditch was probably infilled later in Period 2 when the new castle was laid out. By Period 3 structures and occupation deposits overlay its fills (Building 6), but the relationship of this and other structures and deposits west of Building 1 to the Period 3 moat ditch is ambiguous. However, the partly surviving evidence of a bank and capping wall (F502/F516) behind the western ditch indicates that the enclosure moat belongs late in Period 3, if not in fact cut early in Period 4 and marking its commencement. This would see them in closer accord with the greatest period of moat building in medieval England – the 13th and early 14th centuries (Le Patourel and Roberts 1978). Whatever its precise chronological position, the ditch line indicates a sharply angled turn at the north-west corner, where the dominance of the circuit may have been emphasised in this area facing the town. To the south the Park Pond was probably a linked contemporary creation separating the manor from its adjacent park. Stuart Prior suggests that the Period 2 inner bailey mound would have been included within the new manorial enclosure, its southern and eastern ditches completing the ditch circuit, though this remains unproven (Fig. 19: Period 3).

We have noted that Building 1 looks to have been superseded by new arrangements to its south which made use of the retained north wall of the building. Dating Building 1 could therefore offer some point of departure. Can it be seen as an early building within the enclosure datable to the mid 12th century? This seems unlikely on two grounds. First a structure of this type, though known only from its foundations, seems more likely to belong to the 13th century. Second, the evidence of the foundations at the east end suggests that the medieval builders, whilst making allowances for the Period 2 ditch beneath Building 1, may not have been aware of it before the groundworks began. The building might represent a rationalisation of earlier arrangements in this part of the enclosure represented by Building 6 and the structure F520, although these could equally be the remains of contemporary structures.

Subsequently, in Period 4, Building 1 was replaced by a courtyard layout, perhaps with two areas divided centrally by a stable or ancillary farm building block (Building 3), defined to the west by a wall, and to the east by terracing. These structures were apparently linked eastwards to Building 2, most of which lay further south beyond the development site, but which could itself be an extension of the main domestic building, glimpsed beneath the outhouses of the present farm house – Building 4. This was perhaps the 'stately edifice' seen by Collinson in the 18th century. Period 4, as we have seen, can only be dated by two sherds of 13th to 14th-century pottery amongst other material which must be wholly residual. Much of this layout should nevertheless belong to the later 14th and 15th century, allowing for a reasonable period of use for Building 1 from the 13th century. It may be permissible to speculate that the manor

was changed in Period 4 from being principally a farm estate to a more gracious domestic establishment with stabling and gardens, the whole enclosed within a new moat. This would also provide the context for the removal of a major agricultural building – the barn that Building 1 appears to have been – perhaps to a more convenient location. It was not possible to examine the remains of Building 4 adequately but it may be that the wall foundations seen belonged to a later medieval manor house built at the outset of Period 4, though perhaps replacing earlier buildings here. This might even be linked to the later 14th-century change of ownership from the Lovells to the Seymours.

The pillow mounds on the outer bailey seem likely to belong to the later medieval period and to be an indication of the inclusion of the outer bailey within the confines of the park at that time. The first record of the park is in the 14th century but this was presumably established earlier.

The animal bone analysis, though based on a small sample, can be read as indicative of a high status site with food consumption and hunting particularly marked, presumably associated with the park to the south of the manorial enclosure, where deer may have been kept. In contrast the pottery almost completely lacked the glazed jugs that would be expected in quantity on high status sites. Much of the pottery may have been residual in Period 4 from Period 3 but this cannot explain the absence. Glazed jugs are ubiquitous on medieval sites in general and so it would seem more likely that the explanation for their absence at Manor Farm is, as Gutiérrez suggests, due either to rubbish disposal, with the area kept scrupulously clean, or to a specific use of space where jugs were not used or discarded. The latter seems more likely. As has been seen, a detached kitchen was documented early in the 19th century to the west of Manor Farm, and may be an indication of medieval arrangements. The absence of jugs and, indeed, other high status material may indicate firstly that the area of Buildings 2–3 and their environs in Period 4 were used primarily as kitchens, stables and perhaps for other ancillary domestic activities, and secondly that these functions were retained through the later medieval period. Recognition of a Blackdown Hills origin for the commonest fabric present at Castle Cary (U14) is of great interest. Could this use in the 12th/13th centuries be an echo of an earlier arrangement whereby the 11th-century Norman ringworks in the Somerset area were supplied in common from a source there? It is also possible to speculate that a cessation of supply from this source might coincide with the start of the Donyatt industries marking a new phase of regional production under the auspices of the large landowners of that period but reformulating an earlier military arrangement.

The town of Castle Cary itself was presumably a foundation of the manor, as is suggested by its name. Aston and Leech (1977, 30) hypothesise that South Street may mark an 11th to 13th-century plantation and that the present town nucleus was a later medieval development established across open fields. They note the course of an early road continuing north from South Street and running west of the town. 'Newport' field names to the east suggest a later market. It may be possible to tie this evidence in to the excavation findings. The great enclosure of Period 3 or 4, the outline of which we have suggested is partly fossilised in Park Street and the Horse Pond, may have seen the diversion of the early road and the establishment of a planned town area by the lords of the manor to the south along South Street. Subsequently however, it was to the north that the present town developed, centred on a large market place (now largely infilled); a more advantageous location relative both to the road system and the manorial centre. No entrances to the Period 3 and 4 enclosure were seen, although the entrance west of the present Manor Farm almost certainly marks the medieval entrance, lying to the south of the Horse Pond. This gave access to the southern end of the market, and it was surely the prosperity and success of the manor, illustrated even in the 13th century by its large storage barn – Building 1 – that contributed to the growth and success of the medieval town of Castle Cary.

Post-medieval

The excavation evidence for Period 5 before the 19th century is sparse but can be seen in the light of the early post-medieval layout shown on the *c*. 1680 map of Castle Cary at the British Museum (Aston and Leech 1977, pl. 3). The site is dominated by the manor house which is shown as a very large cruciform building, of which Building 4 from Period 4 was almost certainly a part. To its north is an east–west running boundary which could well be the north wall of Building 1 still retained from Period 3. There appears to be an entrance access to the manor house from the west where the present entrance from Fore Street is now. North of the boundary a second entry gave access to an outer enclosure and fields to the north east. The map evidence tallies with that from the excavation in indicating that the Period 3 ditch had gone out of use by the 17th century and that the manor then comprised the house itself with yards to its north. The cobbled yard or track that sealed the ditch F702 indicates the possibility of another entry from Fore Street to the west in the 18th century, perhaps to give separate direct access to the farmyard. Changes in the status of the manorial complex are suggested by the letting of the house in the 17th century and by later ownership shifts until the late 18th century.

The revetment wall running parallel and to the east of the horse pond (F501) is shown on maps from 1808 and can be seen on Figure 14 as having farm buildings backed on to it on the east. The excavation evidence suggested that it should date to the turn of the 18th and 19th centuries, although part of its line seems to be on the later 17th-century map. To the west were a pair of 19th-century stone buildings, built at a lower level and overlooking the Horse Pond. The northernmost one of these was in use as a shop in the 20th century. No manor house building is shown on the 1808 map and the present house must have been built between that date and 1829. The 1808 map shows an entrance with perhaps a gatehouse into the farmyard north of the Horse Pond, and a long linear farm building marking a division of the manorial area into two. This building had disappeared by the time of the 1839 map when the farmyard is shown as containing two buildings, as did the area beside the Horse Pond. Subsequent large-scale editions of Ordnance Survey maps document best the process by which the manor farmyard reached it maximum development over a century or more until the end of the 20th century (Fig. 14). Archaeology contributes little more information to that story, but has transformed our understanding of the total history of this site and has also demonstrated the potential survival of a great deal more.

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